

**Democratic and Popular Republic of Algeria
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Faculty of Letters, Languages and Arts
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Pedagogical Handout

on

Grammar

For 1st year students (semester 1 & 2)

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Academic year:

2022/2023

Introduction

Grammar is a very old field of study. Over 2,400 years ago, Plato, the famed philosopher from ancient Greece, started to divide the sentence first into subject and verb (Sargeant, 2007). Since that time different grammatical rules emerged. Therefore, grammar is considered as a set of rules and practices that govern how Standard English is written and spoken. These rules are merely tools that language speakers can use. When the speakers/writers understand how to utilize the language, they may tailor the message to convey exactly what they want.

Lecture by lecture, this handout provides a general over view of basic grammar pattern as well as the basic instruction in the eight parts of speech; nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections. Likewise, models, conditional, reported speech, passive voice and tenses are elucidated as well.

The handout is thorough in its coverage but pays most attention to points that are of importance to intermediate and advanced learners of English, to their needs and prerequisites. The paper is designed to give learners of English a basic grammar foundation. It may serve other students as a reference or review tool. Furthermore, it takes a practical approach.

As the student progresses through the lectures, he or she will obtain a fundamental understanding of the basic principles of the English language. These principles are presented concisely but comprehensively and thoroughly, and each successive premise builds on what the student learned earlier in the handout.

The objectives

This handout aims to ameliorate students' level in grammar. Hence, different objectives are targeted in this work. The most prominent ones are stated as follow:

- To provide interesting information with simple vocabulary in order to increase the student's desire to learn grammar.
- Each grammatical rule is clearly explained with relevant examples. They make comprehension possible without thorough explanations.
- The lectures are presented in a form that helps the students to evaluate and categorize language structures.
- Exercises included in each lecture provide the learners with the opportunity to test their skills and understanding.
- A good mastery of the English language with accurate and correct grammar.

Presentation of the subject

Subject	Grammar
Level	1 st year
Credit	4
Coefficient	2
Mode of evaluation	CC 50/50

This handout is divided into seven chapters; chapter one is an introduction to grammar, chapter two elaborates the eight parts of speech, chapter three deals with models, chapter four explores the basic tenses of English language, chapter five, six and seven present passive voice, reported speech, and conditional respectively.

The first semester is exclusively devoted to introduction of grammar, parts of speech that includes eight lectures, and models. The second semester, on the other hand, deals with the remaining lectures; tenses, which will be divided into three lectures present, past and future tenses, passive voice, the reported speech and conditional.

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Chapter One

Introduction to grammar

1. What is a word?

Words are tools that can be used in communication. They play a crucial role in language learning. Therefore, understanding the fundamentals of the language is a very critical step to master before one can properly put words together in a sentence (Stobbe, 2008).

In linguistics, the term "word" refers to the smallest possible sequence of **phonemes**. Additionally, words correspond to sequences of **graphemes**, which are letters, in their regular writing systems. Words are separated from one another by spaces that are larger than the normal inter-letter spacing. Even though it cannot exist on its own, the concept "word" refers to the smallest unit of speech that carries with it the connotation of having a meaning.

In many languages, the concept of what makes up a word is likely to be acquired primarily through the process of learning the language's writing system. This is the case with the English language, as well as with the majority of other languages that are written with alphabets that are descended from the old Latin or Greek alphabets.

In English orthography, the letter sequences "rock", "god", "write", "with", "the", and "not" are considered to be single-morpheme words, whereas the word combinations "rocks", "ungodliness", "typewriter," and "cannot" are considered to be words composed of two or more morphemes ("rock"+"s", "un"+"god"+"li"+"ness", and "type"+"writ"+"er", and "can"+"not").

Words are combined to form other elements of language, such as **phrases** ("a red rock", "put up with"), **clauses** ("I threw a rock"), and **sentences** ("I threw a rock, but missed").

2. Affixes and roots:

A root word or base word can have its meaning altered by the addition of a series of letters known as an affix. These letters are often appended to the beginning or the end of the word (Maurer, 2000). When all prefixes and suffixes are taken away from a word, the part of the word that is left behind is referred to as the root.

The reader can learn more about a word by looking at its prefixes and suffixes. They provide key context and essential information pertaining to the word.

2.1.Prefixes:

- Some prefixes change the meaning of an adjective by providing the **opposite** meaning:
anti- social – antisocial / **non-** profit - non-profit
- To create a **negative** meaning, these prefixes are added to the beginning of words:
un + adjective / verb / noun (unfair, unpack, unemployment)
dis + adjective / verb / noun (disrespectful, dislike, dissatisfaction)
il (+l) + adjective / noun (illogical, illegal, illegibility)
im (+m/p) + adjective / noun (immoral, imperfect, impossibility)
in + adjective / noun (indirect, incompetent, inconvenience)
ir + adjective / noun (irrational, irregularity)
- These are prefixes with other meanings:
co (= together with) + adjective/verb/noun (co-operative, co-exist, co-education)
mis (= bad/wrong) + adjective/verb/noun (misguided, miscalculate, mistake)
re (= again) + adjective/verb/noun (reunited, recreate, remarriage)
over (= too much) + adjective/verb/noun (overcooked, overdo, over-exposure)
sub (= under / less / lower) + adjective/noun (subnormal, submarine)
under (= not enough) + adjective/verb/noun (underfed, undercook, undergraduate)

2.2.Suffixes:

Suffixes can tell you what type of word it is.

- **Nouns** often end in **-ment** (enjoyment), **-ness**(happiness) or **-ion** (education).

Here are some common suffixes for nouns:

-ment – management, arrangement / **-ism** – racism, communism / **-ness** – happiness, sadness / **-ship** – friendship, relationship / **-er/-or** – director, teacher / **-tion** – communication, education / **ious** – dangerous, nervous, religious / **-ive** – creative, sensitive / **ent/ant** – efficient, arrogant / **less** –careless, worthless / **ic/ical** – sympathetic, analytical / **ish** – foolish, stylish / **(l)y** – guilty, weekly

ence – intelligence, patience / **ity/iety** – activity, variety / **th** – depth, length / **ion** – invention, destruction / **ance/ence** – disturbance, dependence / **ee** - employee, refugee / **y** – discovery, recovery

- **Verbs** use these common suffixes:

-ate – create, activate / **-ify** – verify, solidify / **-ise/-ize** – authorize, categorise

- Common suffixes for **adjectives**:

-able/ible– reliable, responsible / **-al** – accidental, universal / **-ful** – helpful, wonderful / **-ous/-**

Example: Look at the different kinds of word in this sentence.

I	have	an	important	Conference	at	work	tomorrow
Pronoun	Verb	Determiner	Adjective	Noun	Preposition	Noun	Adverb
So	I	am	rather	busy			
Linking word	Pronoun	Verb	Adverb	Adjective			

Exercises:

Exercise 01: Complete the conversations. Use the words in brackets and an appropriate prefix.

A: Haven't you Your bags yet? (packed)

B: No, but I'm about to.

1. **A:** Shall we watch Casablanca with Humphrey Bogart and Katharine Hepburn?

B: Surely Bogart's in Casablanca was Lauren Bacall? (start)

2. **A:** how was the meeting?

B: It got off to a bad start. Wehow long it would take to get there and we were twenty minutes late. (calculated)

3. **A:** why aren't you wearing sun cream? to the sun can cause permanent damage to your skin. (exposure)

B: You're right. I'll put some on now.

4. **A:** If we invite Ben, we'll have to invite Liz. They're (separable)

B: well, they've been friend since they were At Cambridge. (graduates)

5. **A:** I don't know what to do about Neville. His behaviour has made him unpopular with his teachers. (respectful)

B: have you tried talking to him?

Exercise 02: Complete the essay. Use nouns formed from the words in brackets.

(Retrieved from: Powell, D., Walker, E. and Elsworth, S. (1995). *Grammar*

Practice for upper intermediate students (3rd edition). Pearson, Longman, p. 194)

Human beings are characterised not only by their (0) *intelligence* (intelligent) but by their (1) (able) to use technology to shape their environment.

The (2) (discover) of how to use fire was one of the most

important events in the history of our species and the (3) (invent) of the plough and the wheel were also significant (4) (develop). It is difficult to imagine what our (5) (civilize) would be like without technology. In our own time, computers and the Internet have speeded up (6) (communicate) and ordinary people now have access to (7) (inform) that was once available to only a privileged few.

However, technology also has a negative aspect. Our planet is facing (8) (destroy) because of global warming, (9) (pollute) and over-population. We will all need to work together with the help of (10) (science) and (11) (politics) to save our planet and there is no doubt that new technologies will play A role in finding (12) (solve).

Exercise 03: Write the correct word on the blank to complete each sentence. It is necessary to add a prefix or suffix to each word. (Retrieved from:

<https://www.proprofs.com/quiz-school/story.php?title=pp-mza5mtqxnqrjsw>)

heat – water –behave –able –turn –honest –wrap –tied

1. Mom said I had to wait until my birthday to my presents.
2. We had to the oven before we could put the cookies in.
3. Jon forgot his backpack and had to home to get it.
4. Ashton was sad because she was to get tickets for the concert.
5. Jakob almost fell down because his shoelaces were
6. Tasha can swin for over 1 minute.
7. Sherry was being when she did not tell the truth.
8. Our teacher told us to not on the field trip.

Chapter Two

Parts of speech

There are eight distinct categories of words in the English language. The noun, the pronoun, the verb, the adjective, the adverb, the preposition, the conjunction, and the interjection are all the types of what are referred to as "word classes" or "parts of speech." The meaning of the term, as well as how it should be used grammatically, can be gleaned from its grammatical role inside the phrase.

It is possible for a single word to perform the functions of more than one part of speech depending on the context in which it is employed. When utilizing a dictionary, it is vital to have a firm grasp of the various parts of speech in order to arrive at an accurate definition of a word.

1. Nouns

A noun is a word that is used to name a person, place, thing, animal, event or idea. It can take different functions within a sentence (Wren and Martin, 1990). For instance, a noun can be a subject, direct object, indirect object, subject complement, or object of a preposition. Furthermore, nouns are divided into: Proper vs common, abstract vs concrete, countable vs non-countable nouns. collective vs individual, compound

For example: The young girl brought me a very long letter from the teacher, and then she quickly disappeared.

- ❖ Some nouns are structured by taking the same form as verbs.

For example: help, attempt, book, call, fall, fear

- ❖ Some other words take a form to be only nouns.

For example: room, tree, desk, table, finger

- ❖ Some words, however, make nouns by adding different suffixes.

For example:

- The verb to teach + **er** = the noun teacher

- The adjective active + **ity** = the noun activity.

There is no single rule to decide which endings to add in order to form nouns.

- **Types of noun:**

In English, nouns come in a wide variety of forms. Sometimes knowing the category of a noun can be helpful because different categories of nouns have distinct requirements for their use (Maurer, 2000).

- a. **Common nouns Vs proper nouns:**

Generally speaking, a common noun refers to any noun that is not the name of a particular person, place or thing (Walker and Elsworth, 1995). Any noun that is not a name is a common noun. Common nouns can be countable or uncountable (Martin, 1990).

For example: cat, girl, chair, teacher, music, phone

A proper noun, however, names an individual person, place or thing with a capital letter (Maurer, 2000).

For example: Jane, Thailand, Sunday, James Bond, Einstein, Superman, Game of Thrones, Shakespeare

Proper nouns concern the following points:

- 1) The name of people and titles: Helen, Mr Smith, the President (of Algeria).
- 2) The name of specific places: Thailand, Vancouver, the Tower of London
- 3) Nationalities and languages: British, Turkish, Italian
- 4) Days and months: Monday, Friday, January, July
- 5) Titles of books, newspapers, films, and paintings: Crime and Punishment, The Lord of the Rings
- 6) Religions and festivals: Islam/Muslim, Christianity/Christian, Ramadan

b. Concrete nouns Vs abstract nouns:

Concrete nouns refer to physical objects that a person can touch (Swan, 1983).

For example: man, rice, head, car, furniture, mobile phone

Abstract Nouns are the opposite of concrete nouns. They are things that you cannot touch. Abstract nouns are ideas, concepts and feelings (Swan, 1983).

For example: happiness, courage, danger, truth

c. Countable nouns Vs uncountable nouns :

To further separate nouns, one must decide whether it is countable or uncountable. It is an additional important distinction that can be made in nouns.

Countable nouns can take the form of singular and plural. Singular countable nouns consists of words used with a/an (Hewings, 1999).

Swan (1983) claims that “It is not always obvious whether a word is countable and uncountable... Sometimes words can be uncountable with one meaning and countable with another, ...” (p.164).

Uncountable nouns, in the opposite, do not take a plural form. They are followed by a singular verb (Walker and Elsworth, 1995). They are nouns which name “things that cannot be counted in their normal sense because they exist in a ‘mass’ form” Maurer (2000,p.106). the uncountable nouns refer to substances or to abstract ideas. Unlike the countable nouns, the uncountable ones do not take the indefinite articles **a/an** or the plural forms (Murphy, 1987).

For example:

- Countable nouns: We have got three **children**, two **cats**, and a **dog**.
- Uncountable nouns: It was good to get out into the **countryside** and breathe in some fresh **air**.

d. Collective nouns Vs individual nouns:

Individual Nouns refers to countable nouns. They cover words that can be perceived by human senses.

Collective Nouns are presented by single words that refer to a group, number and collection of objects, things or persons (Wren and Martin, 1990). In other words, collective nouns denote a group of individuals. They can be treated as singular or plural.

For example:

- His **family** live in different countries.
- An average **family** consists of four people.
- The new **company** is the result of a merger.

e. Singular nouns Vs plural nouns

A singular noun refers to one person, place, or thing. A plural noun refers to more than one person, place, or thing. Adding a -s or a -ies to the end of a noun is one way to make it plural, unless the noun is an irregular noun. In other words, to form the plural, we add “s” to countable nouns (Thomson & Martinet, 1986).

For example: event → events

There may also be other spelling changes:

- Some nouns have an irregular plural.

For example: child - children, foot - feet, man - men, mouse - mice, person - people, tooth - teeth, woman – women.

- Some nouns borrowed from other languages also have an irregular plural.

For example: phenomenon - phenomena, crisis - crises

- Nouns ending in **o** or **ch, sh, ss** or **x** form their plural by adding **es**.

For example: tomato – tomatoes, brush – brushes, box – boxes, church - churches

But words of foreign origin or abbreviated words ending in **o** add **s** only.

For example: dynamo – dynamos, kimono- kimonos, piano – pianos, kilo – kilos, photo- photos, soprano - sopranos

- Nouns ending in **y** following a consonant form their plural by dropping the **y** and adding **ies**.

For example: baby – babies, country – countries, fly – flies, lady - ladies

But nouns ending in **y** following a vowel form their plural by adding **s**.

For example: boy – boys, day – days, donkey – donkeys, guy - guys

- Twelve nouns ending in **f** or **fe** drop the **f** or **fe** and add **ves**. These nouns are calf, half, knife, leaf, life, loaf, self, sheaf, shelf, thief, wife, wolf

Other words ending in **f** or **fe** add **s** in the ordinary way: cliff – cliffs, handkerchief – handkerchiefs.

- Some nouns are only plural and are followed by a plural verb. These include:
 - ❖ Nouns ending in “s” for things with two parts: glasses, jeans, scissors, trousers.
 - ❖ Nouns ending in “s”: belongings, clothes, congratulations, remains.

- f. **Compound noun:** When a noun is composed of two or more parts, it is called a compound noun (Alexander, 1990). Most compound nouns are [noun + noun] or [adjective + noun]. Each compound noun functions as a single unit and can be modified by adjectives and other nouns.

For example: classroom, football, notebook

Compound nouns is composed of three different forms:

1. **open or spaced** - space between words (**bus stop**)
2. **hyphenated** - hyphen between words (**mother-in-law**)
3. **closed or solid** - no space or hyphen between words (**football**)

g. **Possessive nouns:** A noun can also be in the possessive case. Nouns that take the possessive form indicate that the person, place, or object in question is the owner of something. Possessive singular nouns are terminated with an apostrophe and a "S". Some plural possessive nouns that already end in an "S" just have an apostrophe at the end (Wren and Martin, 1990).

- 's is used with singular nouns and plural nouns not ending in "s".

For example: the people's choice

- A simple apostrophe (') is used with plural nouns ending in "s".

For example: the students' hostel

- Classical names ending in "s" usually add only the apostrophe (').

For example: Sophocles' plays

- Other names ending in "s" can take 's or the apostrophe (') alone.

For example: Mr Jones's or Mr Jones' house, Yeats's or Yeats' poems

- With compounds, the last word takes the 's.

For example: my brother-in-law's guitar

Note that all nouns are more than one type. For example, **common nouns** can be **concrete nouns** or **abstract nouns**. (The **common noun** *danger* is an **abstract noun**.)

And the same noun can change its type according to meaning. For example, the noun *light* can be **uncountable** (light in general) or **countable** (lamp).

Exercises:

Exercise 01: Complete the sentences. Use the plural of the nouns in brackets. (Retrieved from: Powell, D., Walker, E. and Elsworth, S. (1995). *Grammar Practice for upper intermediate students (3rd edition)*. Pearson, Longman. p. 10)

There are **sheep** and **cows** grazing in the field. (sheep, cow)

1. There were, and aboard the doomed flight. (man, woman, child)
2. Technology has opened up new job in this field. (opportunity)
3. It was one of the best televisionof the last ten years. (series)
4. Before you serve the steaks, decorate with a few of lettuce. (leaf)
5. I've put the next to the and (glass, knife, fork)
6. The two faced each other across the river. (army)
7. Do you know how many of birds there are in the world? (species)
8. There were at least a thousandat the demonstration but nobody was carrying (person, arm)

Exercise 02: Give the nouns derived from verbs, adjectives or other nouns. Use these endings: -age, -hood, -ation, -ion, -ful, -ence, -ency, -ness, -al, -(er)y, -ment, -ety, -ism, -ity, -ing. (Retrieved from: Alexander, L. G. (1998). *Longman English Grammar Practice for intermediate students*. UK: Longman, p. 26)

- I *decided this*. It was my **decision**
1. Don't be so *anxious*. Control your
 2. Ann's a *socialist*. She believes in
 3. We all want to be *happy*. We all seek
 4. We all *agree*. We're all in
 5. Who *discovered* this? Who made this ?

6. We'll all *arrive*. We'll be met on
7. She is *absent*. Can you explain her ?
8. I'll *post* this. What's the ?
9. *Try* again. Have another
10. Be more *efficient*. Improve your
11. Don't be so *curious*. Control your
12. I *refused* their offer. My is final.

Parts of speech: Pronouns

2. Pronouns

A pronoun is one of the eight main parts of speech. The meaning of the word "on behalf of a noun" is that a pronoun acts as a substitute for a noun, which helps writers avoid using the same nouns over and over again. In fact, many pronouns are shorter and more versatile than nouns. They are more flexible in their range of uses and they can perform all of the functions that are normally performed by nouns (Thesaurus, 2021).

Examples:

- I am proud of myself.
- It is time to ask somebody for aid.

Pronouns are an essential component of communication and a major part of speech. Correct use of pronouns is a huge step toward better communication skills in both spoken and written forms (Thesaurus, 2021).

Precisely, A term that can stand in for a noun in a phrase is referred to as a pronoun. An antecedent is a noun that serves as a replacement for a pronoun in a sentence.

Additionally, the use of pronouns enables to condense the sentences and make them less repetitive.

Example:

The construction workers are building the office. **The construction workers** are making good progress. **The construction workers** should finish the project in no time.

The construction workers are building the office. **They** are making good progress. **They** should finish the project in no time.

It is clear from the above example that the second set of sentences is both shorter and sounds less repetitive than the first set of sentences.

Types of pronouns

There are many different types of pronouns that we use in writing and speech. The context of a sentence and a person's chosen pronouns determine the type of pronouns the writer should use in a given sentence. The following are the nine types of pronouns:

1. Personal pronouns

Personal pronouns are pronouns that we use to refer to people and, sometimes, animals. The pronouns *it*, *they*, and *them* can also apply to objects (Swan, 1983). Therefore, personal pronouns contain subject and object pronouns.

Subject pronouns is used before the verb in a clause or sentence whereas object pronouns is found after the verb or a preposition.

Personal subject pronouns	Personal object pronouns
I	Me
You	You
She	Her
He	Him
It	It
We	Us
They	Them

Examples

- **I** am afraid of mice.
- The toaster gets really hot when **it** heats bread.
- My cats are friendly, so **you** can safely pet **them**.

2. Possessive pronouns

A possessive pronoun is a pronoun that expresses possession, ownership, origin, relationship, etc (Swan, 1983)..

Possessive pronouns
Mine
Yours
Hers
His
Its
ours
theirs

Examples

- That toy on the shelf is **mine**.
- All of the houses in our neighborhood look the same, but **ours** is the only one with a satellite dish.
- Wendy and Ronald separated the french fries into two piles: the left one was **hers** and the right one was **his**.

3. Relative pronouns

Relative pronouns connect dependent clauses to independent clauses (Maurer, 2000).

- Relative pronoun examples
- who, whom, which, what, that

Relative pronouns
Who
Whom
That

Which
Whose

Examples

- I need to find a person **who** can read Swedish.
- She doesn't want to eat a meal **that** is too spicy.
- This book, **which** ends on a cliffhanger, is really exciting.

4. Reflexive pronouns

A reflexive pronoun is a pronoun used as an object of a verb that refers to the same person or thing as the subject of the verb (Maurer, 2000).

We use reflexive pronouns after a verb or preposition when the same person is the subject and object of the verb:

Reflexive pronouns
myself
yourself / yourselves
herself
himself
itself
ourselves
themselves

Examples

- Ken looked at **himself** in the mirror.
- We bought them for **ourselves**.
- I like to cheer **myself** up with desserts.
- The silly clowns made fools of **themselves**.

When the subject and object are not the same, we can use each other or one another:

we bought them for **each other** / **one another**.

A few verbs are followed by a reflexive pronoun to form an idiom.

Examples

- behave **yourself**!
- We enjoyed **ourselves**.

The following verbs don't normally take reflexive pronouns in English: wash, shave, dress: Gerald shaves every morning. (Not ~~Gerald shaves **himself** every morning~~).

5. Indefinite pronouns

An indefinite pronoun is a pronoun that doesn't specifically identify who or what it is referring to (Maurer, 2000).

Indefinite pronouns
some, somebody, anyone, anywhere, nothing, everybody

Examples

- This note could have been written by **anybody**.
- **Someone** ate my lunch.
- The water splashed **everywhere**.

6. Demonstrative pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns are used to point to specific things (Alexander, 1998).

Demonstrative pronouns	
This	these
That	those

Examples

- **This** is my favorite shirt.
- I don't know what **that** is, but it definitely isn't friendly.
- I need you to fix **these**.

7. Interrogative pronouns

Interrogative pronouns are pronouns used to ask questions about unknown people or things (Alexander, 1998).

Interrogative pronouns	
What	when
who	where
whom	how
which	how often
whose	how much/many
what time	how long/far

Examples

- **Who** wrote this letter?
- **What** is an amphibian?
- **Which** is the correct answer?

Exercises:

Exercise 01: Supply suitable pronouns in the following. Alternatives are possible.

(Retrieved from: Alexander, L. G. (1998). Longman English Grammar Practice for intermediate students. UK: Longman, p. 55)

1. What do you call your dog? - 's called Flossie.
2. There's a dog in our neighbourhood that barks all night. 's getting on my nerves.
3. They're launching a new ship in Portsmouth and I've been invited to see launched.
4. The *Titanic* may be at the bottom of the sea, but 's never forgotten.
5. I run a car in London, but I really don't need
6. This old car of mine may be falling to pieces, but 's . all I've got.
7. Did you see that frog? jumped right in front of us!
8. I saw a frog in our garden. - Where did you see
9. You can't see America in a week, you know. 's a big country!
10. In the 19th century America welcomed the European poor. opened her arms to them.
11. ' 's a cunning fox,' the monkey said to the hen. 'Be careful!' .
12. They've just found an old wreck off the coast of Florida. 's probably Spanish.

Exercise 02: Add an appropriate reflexive pronoun to each sentence to add emphasis. If it is not possible to put a reflexive pronoun, write X. (Retrieved from: Hewings, M. (2002).

Advanced Grammar in Use: a self-study reference and practice book for advanced learners of English. UK: Cambridge, p. 153)

1. All you have to do is hide **yourself** behind the door and shout 'Surprise!' when she walks in.
2. They're always complaining about my cooking.
3. George's mother didn't want him to take the job on the oil rig. In fact, George didn't feel very happy about it

4. There's no need for you to come, I can carry the shopping
5. Young people need to get more involved in politics.
6. I don't have any trouble getting to sleep, but I always wake up very early.
7. That's a beautiful sweater, Susan, did you knit it?
8. For an explanation we need to look back to the beginning of the Universe
.....
9. I find that I get tired very easily these days.
10. You and Bridget ought to relax more - you're working too hard.
11. Amy was only three when she started to wash and dress
12. I haven't tried it, but I'm told that karate is very good exercise.

Exercise 03: Put in the missing pronouns. (Retrieved from: Alexander, L. G. (1998).

Longman English Grammar Practice for intermediate students. UK: Longman, p. 55)

TOO MUCH TO BEAR!

If you're on holiday in the Western Islands of Scotland and I v... see a bear, avoid !It might turn out to be Hercules, the famous star has appeared in TV ads, films and cabaret. Hercules disappeared when his owner, Andy Robbins, took for a swim. Police and troops have joined in the search, but haven't had any success. After all, Hercules is unlikely to appear suddenly, shouting, 'It's ! Here am!' The search party are carrying yoghurt and bananas to offer the bear because that's what likes best. '9 isn't dangerous, but lo 's very hungry,' a searcher said. So if you see a ten-foot bear in the Western Islands, make sure 11 are carrying some bananas. 12 may be just what a hungry bear is waiting for and if 13 don't find 14, you can always eat 15 yourself!

Parts of speech: Verbs

3. Verbs

A verb is word which describes either an action, condition or a state of being of individuals or things (Martin, 1990). There is a main verb and sometimes one or more helping verbs.

Example:

- She can sing. (**Sing** is the main verb; **can** is the helping verb.)

A verb must agree with its subject in number, both are singular or both are plural. It also takes different forms to express tense.

Example:

- The young girl **brought** me a very long letter from the teacher, and then she quickly **disappeared**.

There are two classes of verbs in English: ordinary verbs and auxiliary verbs.

a) **Ordinary verbs:** Ordinary verbs can be classified into:

- Finite and infinite verbs
- Transitive and intransitive verbs
- Regular and irregular verbs
- Action verbs
- Linking verbs
- Helping Verbs

1. **Finite and infinite verbs:** There are mainly two types of verbs in English, finite and non-finite.

Finite verbs change their forms when there is a change in the number or person of the subject. Finite verbs also have different forms in different tenses (Alexander, 1998).

Non-finite verbs do not change their form when the number or person of the subject changes (Alexander, 1998). There are mainly three types of non-finite verbs: infinitives, gerunds and participles.

- 2. Transitive and Intransitive verbs:** A verb can be described as transitive or intransitive based on whether it requires an object to express a complete thought or not. Transitive verbs require an object while intransitive does not. Some verbs may be used both ways.

Examples:

- I **caught** a cold. (Transitive verb)
- She **runs**. (Intransitive Verb)

- 3. Regular and irregular verbs:** A regular verb is any verb whose conjugation follows the typical pattern, or one of the typical patterns, of the language to which it belongs.

A verb whose conjugation follows a different pattern is called an irregular verb. This is one instance of the distinction between regular and irregular inflection, which can also apply to other word classes, such as nouns and adjectives.

- 4. Action verbs:** this type of verb provides information about what action (a physical action) a subject is performing, has performed, or will perform.

Examples:

- I **write** an article. / I **am writing** an article. / I **will write** an article.

- 5. Linking verbs:** a linking verb connects a subject to a noun or an adjective in the predicate. The most common linking verbs are the forms of the verb to be (such as: is, are, was, were, been, being, am) and appear, become, feel, grow, look, remain, seem, smell, sound, stay, taste, and turn.

Example:

- My teacher **is** a journalist. (the verb to be “is” connected the subject with the predicate).

6. Helping verbs: it assists the main verb in a sentence. In a questioning (interrogative) sentence, the helping verb is usually separated from the main verb.

Examples: to be, to do, and to have.

- The students **are** writing their assignments.

b) Auxiliary verbs

Auxiliaries help to form a tense or an expression. They combine with present or past participles or with infinitives to form the tenses of ordinary verbs:

Examples:

- I **am** coming.
- He **has** finished.

They combine with infinitives to indicate permission, possibility, obligation, deduction etc.

Examples:

- He **can** speak French.
- You **may** go.

Principal auxiliaries	Modal auxiliaries	Semi-modals
to be	can / could	to need
to have	may / might	to dare
to do	must / had to	used
	ought	
	shall / should	
	will / would	

Auxiliaries: forms and patterns

- **be, have** and **do** (the principal auxiliaries)

Infinitive	Present tense	Past tense	Past participle
to be	am, is, are	Was, were	been
to have	have, has	had	had
to do	do, does	did	done

be, **have** and **do** can also be used as ordinary verbs with independent meanings; i.e. **have** can mean ‘possess’, **do** can mean ‘perform/occupy oneself etc.

be or **have** or **do** can then be the only verb in a sentence:

Examples:

- He is lazy He has no job He does nothing.

Modal verbs have no final s in the third person singular. They have no proper past tenses; four past forms exist, **could**, **might**, **should**, **would**, but they have only a restricted use (Hewings, 2002).

Modal verbs have no infinitives or participles and therefore cannot be used in the continuous tenses.

A modal verb always requires an infinitive, though sometimes this is understood but not mentioned.

Examples:

- Can you understand? ~ Yes, I can (understand).

Exercises:

Exercise 01: Type (AV) for an action verb, (LV) for a linking verb or (HV) helping verb.

(Retrieved from: <https://www.liveworksheets.com/rx1142873pv>)

1. Jasim wished for perfect weather on his birthday.
2. Farida looked beautiful at her wedding.
3. My little brother is a soccer player.
4. I am having another bowl of popcorn.
5. Tom and Jerry are cartoon characters.
6. Last week we played dodgeball in PE.
7. The Lone Ranger bought a new saddle for his horse.
8. The salsa tastes spicy today.
9. Mrs. Rogers forgot to bring her sandwiches today.
10. The radio and the heater are broken in the old car.

Exercise 02: Indicate which type are the underlined verbs. (Retrieved from:

<https://www.allkidsnetwork.com/grammar/verbs/3-types-of-verbs-worksheet>)

1. This soup smells funny. **Linking verb**
2. Enid went to the post office.
3. Jeremy is tired. The apple tastes sweet.
4. Mary washed her clothes.
5. I should do homework now.
6. Clara plays piano.
7. You must listen to her.
8. Dad will come home at 8 pm.
9. Yesterday was sunny.
10. John and I talked on the phone.

Parts of speech: Adjectives

4. Adjectives

Nouns and pronouns are described by adjectives. They provide more details and additional information about individuals, locations, and objects (Hewings, 2002). In other words, adjectives are words that provide additional details about a noun or pronoun and can take different positions in a sentence (Alexander, 1998).

Types of Adjectives

1. Descriptive adjective

A descriptive adjective, also known as **qualitative adjective**, is a word which describes the characteristics, traits, or qualities of a noun or pronoun (Hewings, 2002).. Most of the adjectives belong in this type. These adjectives provide information and attribute to the nouns/pronouns they modify or describe (Powell, Walker and Elsworth, 1995).

Participles are also included in this type of adjective when they modify a noun.

Examples

- A lot of **interesting** people visit this park.
- She told a **scary** story.
- The leaves turned **orange** and **red**.
- The **foolish old** crow tried to sing.

2. Quantitative adjectives

Quantitative adjectives provide information regarding the number of nouns or pronouns (Powell, Walker and Elsworth, 1995). This question type pertains to the category of "how much" and "how many" It indicates the quantity that is intended, such as: some, little, whole, one fourth etc (Swan, 1983).

Examples:

- I have **20** bucks in my wallet. (How much)
- They have **three** children. (How many)
- You should have completed the **whole** task. (How much)

3. Proper Adjectives:

Proper adjectives are adjectives formed from proper nouns. When proper nouns modify or describe other nouns/pronouns, they become proper adjectives (Alexander, 1998). In general, proper adjectives are commonly used to say that something is related to a specific person or place.

A proper adjective allows us to summarize a concept in just one word (Swan, 1983). Instead of writing/saying 'a food cooked in Chinese recipe' you can write/say 'Chinese food'. They include words such as African, Napoleonic, and Shakespearian.

Proper adjective are usually **capitalized** as proper nouns are.

Examples:

- **American** cars are very strong.
- **Chinese** people are hard workers.
- I love **KFC** burgers.
- **Marxist** philosophers despise capitalism.

4. Demonstrative Adjectives:

A demonstrative adjective directly refers to something or someone. The most commonly used demonstrative adjectives are this, that, these, and those.

Examples:

- **This** watch is cheaper than that one.
- **This** weekend is going to be really fun.
- Watch out for **those** prickly rose bushes next to you.

A **demonstrative pronoun** works alone and does not precede a noun, but a **demonstrative adjective** always comes before the word it modifies.

5. Possessive adjectives

A possessive adjective indicates possession or ownership. It suggests the belongingness of something to someone/something.

These adjectives are always placed in front of the nouns that they describe. These words, in contrast to possessive pronouns, require the addition of a noun following them (Alexander, 1998). Some of the most used possessive adjectives are *my*, *your*, *his*, *her*, *its*, *our*, *their*.

Examples:

- My car is parked outside.
- His cat is very cute.
- Our job is almost done.
- Her books are interesting.

6. Compound Adjectives:

Compound nouns, commonly referred to as joined words, change into compound adjectives when they modify other nouns (Hewings, 2002). This kind of adjective typically modifies a noun by combining more than one word into a single lexical unit. Frequently, a hyphen separates them or a quotation mark join them together.

Examples:

- I have a **broken-down** sofa.
- I saw a **six-foot-long** snake.
- He gave me an “**I’m going kill you now**” look.

7. **Attributive adjectives**

Adjectives with attribution are those that follow the noun or pronoun they modify. In most cases, attributional adjectives occur just before nouns and pronouns, however this is not always the case (Hewings, 2002).

Examples:

- She has **beautiful** handwriting.
- The **hungry** gorilla ate the **fresh** mangoes.
- Keith gave his dad something **special** for his birthday.

8. **Distributive adjectives**

Distributive adjectives are used to refer to members of a group individually. It is one that speaks of a group's members as distinct individuals (Powell, Walker and Elsworth, 1995). The distributive adjectives' main function is to break up groups into their component parts. It talks about what transpires to a group's members.

Examples:

- **Each** puppy got their own little doghouse.
- **Every** member of the team scored a goal.
- I'll be happy if **either** candidate wins the election.

9. **Participial adjectives**

Participial adjectives are adjectives that are based on participles, which are words that usually end in -ed or -ing and derive from verbs. Participial adjectives include words like amazing, impressed, and fascinating.

Examples:

- Travis was late for his **swimming** lessons.
- Please hand me my **reading** glasses.
- The silly clown cheered up the **bored** children.

Adjective Endings

Adjectives have many different endings.

- Some adjectives end in **-ful**. These adjectives describe noun or pronouns that are full of something or have a lot of something.

Example: a beautiful face a painful injury a careful student
a cheerful baby a joyful smile a helpful teacher

- Some adjectives end in **-ous**.

Example: a famous writer a courageous soldier
a mountainous area an adventurous explorer

- Some adjectives end in **-y**.

Example: a messy room a noisy car dirty hands
a sleepy dog a cloudy sky thirsty children

- Some adjectives end in **-less**. These adjectives describe a person or thing that does not have something.

Example: a cloudless sky a meaningless word a joyless song
a sleeveless dress a fearless fighter a useless tool
a careless driver homeless people harmless animals

- Some adjectives end in **-al**.

Example: a national flag personal possessions musical instruments
a traditional costume electrical goods magical powers
a coastal town medical equipment

- Here are some adjectives that end in **-ic, -ish, -ible, -able, -ive** and **-ly**.

Example: a fantastic singer a terrible mess an imaginative story
an energetic dog a sensible answer expensive jewelry
basic grammar horrible smells talkative children

enthusiastic shouting	visible footprints	a creative artist
a selfish act	a likeable child	friendly teachers
foolish behavior	comfortable clothes	a lovely dress
stylish clothes	valuable advice	a lively cat
childish talk	suitable colors	an elderly man

- Many adjectives end in **-ing**.

Example: loving parents	an interesting book	a caring nurse
a disappointing result	an outstanding swimmer	a flashing light

- Many of adjectives end in **ed**.

Example: a closed door	satisfied customers	boiled eggs
worried passengers	wasted time	escaped prisoners
a painted wall	excited students	reduced prices

Adjective order

a) Two adjectives

We often have **two adjectives** in front of a noun:

- a **handsome young** man
- a **big black** car
- that **horrible big** dog

❖ Some adjectives give a **general opinion**. We can use these adjectives to describe almost any noun:

good	nice	awful
bad	beautiful	important
lovely	brilliant	wonderful
strange	excellent	nasty

- He's a **good/wonderful/brilliant/bad/dreadful** teacher.

- That's a **good/wonderful/brilliant/bad/dreadful** book.

❖ Some adjectives give a **specific opinion**. We only use these adjectives to describe particular kinds of noun, for example:

Food	Furniture, buildings	People, animals
delicious	comfortable	clever
tasty	uncomfortable	intelligent
		friendly

❖ We usually put a **general opinion in front of a specific opinion**:

- **nice tasty** soup
- a **nasty uncomfortable** armchair
- a **lovely intelligent** animal

❖ We usually put an **opinion adjective in front of a descriptive adjective**:

- a **nice red** dress
- a **silly old** man
- those **horrible yellow** curtains

b) **Three or more adjectives**

Sometimes we have **three** adjectives in front of a noun, but this is **unusual**:

- a **nice handsome young** man
- a **big black American** car
- that **horrible big fierce** dog

It is **very unusual** to have **more than three** adjectives.

Adjectives usually come in this order:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
General opinion	Specific opinion	Size	Shape	Age	Colour	Nationality	Material

Exercises:

Exercise 01: Supply the right adjectival forms. (Retrieved from: Alexander, L. (1998).

Longman English Grammar Practice for intermediate students. UK: Longman, p. 80)

- I'm attracted by this scheme. I find it very **attractive**

1. A class of forty can be managed. It's just about
2. I know I hesitated before agreeing. I couldn't help being
3. I don't know where you find all that energy. You're tremendously
4. This piece of furniture was made in the reign of Victoria. It's
5. I don't know how to describe the colour of the sky. It's almost red, sort of
6. I've never met anyone who boasts as he does. He's extremely
7. What level of radiation can be permitted? How much radiation is
8. The story is full of humour. I've rarely read anything that's so

Exercise 02: Put the adjectives in brackets in these sentences in the most appropriate order. (Retrieved from: Hewings, M. (2002). Advanced Grammar in Use: a self-study reference and practice book for advanced learners of English. UK: Cambridge, p. 167)

1. Mine's the car. (blue, Japanese, small)
2. I rent a(n) house. (furnished, large, old)
3. I've just bought a table. (beautiful, coffee, wooden)
4. Their forces soon overcame the invasion. (combined, military, powerful)
5. Have you seen this invention? (fantastic, German, new)
6. There was a rug on the floor. (soft, wonderful, woollen)
7. She gave me a box. (jewellery, metal, small, square)
8. Cycling is a(n) activity. (outdoor, popular)
9. They live in houses. (mud, straw)
10. He was a doctor. (famous, medical)

11. There was an meeting. (important, urgent)

12. I've just finished a novel. (boring, depressing)

Exercise 03: Put the words in the correct order. Use commas where necessary. (Retrieved from: Powell, D., Walker, E. and Elsworth, S. (1995). *Grammar Practice for upper intermediate students (3rd edition)*. Pearson, Longman, p. 24,25)

- Unwell / is / James / feeling / today *James is feeling unwell today.*

1. hair / grey / to turn / Alice's / is beginning

.....

2. that / delicious / beef stew / smells

.....

3. you / I'll meet / main / entrance / outside / the

.....

4. a(n) / have / Eric and Mary / indoor / swimming pool

.....

5. the neighbors' / kept / me / party / awake / all night

.....

6. about / Mark / something / upset looks

.....

7. they / gave me / round / photograph frame / a / silver-plated / gorgeous

.....

8. carpet / a(n) / Mia / bought / old/ beautiful / Chinese

.....

9. a / Samuel / businessman / well-respected / is / and / wealthy

.....

10. wore / silk / and / Julie / a / pink / brown / dress

.....

Parts of speech: Adverbs

5. Adverbs

Adverbs are words that we employ to describe a verb in more detail. They provide additional information on verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs (Powell, Walker and Elsworth, 1995). They might be a single word (angry, here) or a phrase (at home, in a few hours), and, although they can be used for different purposes, they frequently describe the where, when, and how often something occurs or is done.

We form many adverbs by adding “**ly**” to an adjective:

- Bad = badly, easy = easily, economic = economically
- The traffic was moving **slowly**.

❖ Some words that end in **ly** are adjectives, not adverbs: *friendly, lively, lonely, lovely, silly*.

We can't make adverbs from them so we use an adverbial phrase: in a friendly/ lively/ silly way.

Examples:

- They greeted me **in a friendly way**.
- ❖ Some adjectives and adverbs have the same form: early, fast, free, hard, high, late, straight, wide.

Examples:

- Let's catch the **early** train to London.
 - We arrived at the train station **early**.
- ❖ Some adjectives form two adverbs with different meanings: free= free/freely, hard = hard/hardly, high = high/ highly, late = late/late, wide = wide/widely

Examples:

- You can get advice **free** from the local library.
- I can breathe more **freely** now.

Type of Adverbs:

1. Adverbs of Manner

Some adverbs describe the way people do things. They answer the question “**How?**”

- The girls answered all the questions **correctly**.
- He was driving **carelessly**.
- Please speak **in a clear voice**.

2. Adverbs of Time

Some adverbs answer the question “when?” They are called adverbs of time.

- My shoes will be too small for me **next year**.
- The train has **already** left.
- My big brother goes to college **in the autumn**.

3. Adverbs of Place

Some adverbs answer the question “**where?**” They are called adverbs of place.

- It’s very sunny but cold **outside**.
- I couldn’t find my book **anywhere**.
- They live **on the northern side of the island**.

We also use **adverbs of place** like:

abroad	downstairs	nearby	overseas
ahead	here	next door	there
away	indoors	out of doors	upstairs

We use adverbials of place to describe location, direction and distance.

✓ *Location*

We use adverbs to talk about **where** someone or something is:

- *He was standing **by the table**.*

- *You'll find it **in the cupboard**.*

✓ *Direction*

We use adverbs to talk about the **direction** in which someone or something is **moving**:

- It's difficult to get ***into the car*** because the door is so small.
- They always go **abroad** for their holidays.

✓ *Distance*

We use adverbs to show **how far** things are:

- Birmingham is 250 kilometres ***from London***.
- We live in Birmingham. London is 250 kilometres ***away***.

4. Adverbs of Frequency

Some adverbs answer the question “**how often?**” They are called adverbs of frequency.

- Katy practices the piano **regularly**.
- I'll **never** make that mistake again.
- We walk home from school **every day**.

5. Adverbs of Duration

Some adverbs and adverb phrases answer the question “**how long?**” They are called adverbs of duration.

- The library is **temporarily** closed.
- We're staying in a hotel **overnight**.

6. Adverbs of Emphasis

We have seen that most adverbs describe verbs, but remember that some adverbs also describe adjectives or other adverbs (Hewings, 2002). They are usually used to add emphasis.

- Anna can run **really** fast.
- That's a **very** good drawing.
- Your excuses are **completely** unbelievable.

7. Adverbials of probability

We use adverbs of probability to show **how certain we are** about something (Hewings, 2002). The commonest adverbs of probability are:

certainly	definitely	maybe	possibly
clearly	obviously	perhaps	probably

maybe and *perhaps* usually come at the **beginning** of the clause:

- **Perhaps** the weather will be fine.
- **Maybe** it won't rain.

Other adverbs of possibility usually come **in front of the main verb**:

- *He is **certainly** coming to the party.*
- *Will they **definitely** be there?*
- *We will **possibly** come to England next year.*

or **after the present simple or past simple of be**:

- *They **are** **definitely** at home.*
- *She **was** **obviously** very surprised.*

But these adverbs sometimes come at the **beginning** of a clause for emphasis:

- **Obviously** *she was very surprised.*
- **Possibly** *we will come to England next year.*

Position and order of adverbs

Adverbs can come in different position in a sentence: at the beginning, in the middle or at the end. The position depends partly on the kind of adverb and what we want to emphasize in the sentence.

➤ Adverbs of frequency

Adverbs of frequency usually come before the main verb but after an auxiliary verb or the verb *be*.

- We **sometimes meet** for lunch.
- I **have always wanted** to go there.
- I **am usually** in bed before midnight.

Some adverbs of frequency can also come at the beginning or end of the sentence.

The position at the beginning gives the adverb greater emphasis.

- **Sometimes** she helps me.
- She helps me **sometimes**.

➤ **Adverbs of manner, place and time**

If there is more than one kind of adverb in a sentence, the order is usually manner, place, time.

- I lived **happily in Singapore for many years**.

The most neutral position for adverbs of manner is at **the end** of a sentence.

- They did their work **quietly**.

The most neutral position for adverbs/ adverbial phrases of place and time is at the end of a sentence.

- I bought these shoes in **a market**
- I saw Gina **yesterday**

For great emphasis, they can come at the beginning of the sentence

- **In Athens**, we stayed in the city centre.

Exercises:

Exercise 01: Supply the right adverb. Some adverbs end in “ly” and some do not. (Retrieved from: Alexander, L. G. (1998). Longman English Grammar Practice for intermediate students. UK: Longman, p. 90)

- He's a baddriver. He drives **badly**
- 1. She's a *hard* worker. She works
- 2. He's a *fast* runner. He runs
- 3. I'm a *better* player than you. I play
- 4. This is an *airmail* letter. Send it
- 5. He made a *sudden* move. He moved
- 6. She gave a *rude* reply. She replied
- 7. Make your *best* effort. Do your
- 8. She's *glad* to help. She helps
- 9. She's an *eager* helper. She helps
- 10. My name is *last*. I come
- 11. She was *brave*. She acted
- 12. What a *wide* window! Open it

Exercise 02: Put in the missing adjectives and adverbs. Add -ly or make other changes where you need to. (Retrieved from: Alexander, L. G. (1998). Longman English Grammar Practice for intermediate students. UK: Longman, p. 91)

beautiful, best (twice), careful, cheap, early, far, fast, full, hurried, important,
last, new, past, quick, rapid, silly

A SPLASH OF COLOUR

(1) **Last** Thursday I had an (2) interview for a job. I got up (3).....
and dressed (4) I put on my (5) jacket and trousers, to look my

(6) I had to travel by train, so I walked to the station which isn't (7) from my house. I was walking quite (8) when I saw a man just ahead painting his fence with red paint. He didn't notice me as I walked (9) Then he turned suddenly and splashed my (10) trousers! He had acted (11) and he apologized, but the damage was done. There was a big store on the corner, so I decided to buy a new pair (12) I could change on the train. (13) found a nice pair, which I bought quite (14) The shop was (15) so I paid (16) grabbed my shopping-bag and left. On the train, I went to the toilet to change. I took off my stained trousers and threw them out of the window. Then I opened the bag to get my (17) ones, but all I found was a pink woolen sweater!

Exercise 03: Complete the following article. Use the correct form of the words in brackets. (Retrieved from: Powell, D., Walker, E. and Elsworth, S. (1995). *Grammar Practice for upper intermediate students (3rd edition)*. Pearson, Longman, p. 27)

THE LEAST SUCCESSFUL TOURIST

In 1977 Mr Nicholas Scotti of San Francisco flew to Italy to visit some cousins. The plane stopped (0) *briefly* (brief) in New York and Mr Scotti (1) (mistaken) believed he had arrived at Rome Airport. He got out of the plane but of course, his cousins were not there to greet him. Mr Scotti (2) (eventual) decided to try to find his own way to their address. On the journey he noticed that English was spoken (3) (wide). 'You can't escape from Americans,' thought Mr Scotti, a little (4) (sad). 'They're everywhere.'

Mr Scotti did not speak much English himself so he (5) (polite) asked a policeman, in Italian, the way to the bus station. (6) (lucky), the policeman was from Naples and replied in the same language. After travelling around on buses for twelve hours, Mr Scotti was taken by a kind bus driver to a second policeman, who spoke to Mr Scotti in English. The policeman tried (7) (hard) to explain but Mr Scotti (8) (stubborn) refused to believe he was in New York. In the end, they took him to the airport in a police car. They didn't have much time so they had to drive very (9) (fast). 'You see,' said Mr Scotti (10) (confident), 'I know that I'm in Italy. This is the way that Italians drive.'

Parts of speech: Prepositions

6. Prepositions

Prepositions are words that link a noun or a pronoun following it to another word in the sentence (Hewings, 2002). They are words normally placed before nouns or pronouns. It is important to note that many words used mainly as prepositions can also be used as conjunctions and adverbs (Powell, Walker and Elsworth, 1995).

The following tables will assist in the identification of the most common prepositions.

Prepositions of place and movement

at	We arrived at the station. Who's at the door?
from ... to	They drove from London to Edinburgh in a day.
in, into, out of	To talk about enclosed places: I'll wait for you in the car. (position) Could you get in/into/out of the car? (movement)
on, onto, off	To talk about a surface or line: there were some lovely pictures on the wall. (position) - She walked on the pavement. (movement)
across, along,	We swam across the river. (=from one side to the other) They walked along the path towards the bridge. (=they followed the path towards the bridge)
among, between	He disappeared among the crowd. (=through a group of people) We often fly between London, Paris and Rome.
above, below	To talk about position when something is higher or lower than something else: the mountains tower above the town.
over, under	To talk about something that is higher or lower than something else: I am wearing a coat over my jacket a sweater under it.

beneath, underneath	To talk about something that is higher or lower than something else: I felt the warm sand beneath/underneath my feet.
on top of, against	There is a letter on top of the cupboard. The cat rubbed against my legs.
opposite	There is a car park opposite the hotel.
by	I stood by the window. (=close to)
beside, next to, inside, outside	To show position in relation to an object, container or enclosed space: Put it on the table beside/next to the bed. / I'll meet you inside/outside the theatre.

Prepositions of time

at	With clock times or ages: at nine o'clock, at (the age of) 15. With points or periods of time: at the beginning, at lunch
on	With days or dates: on Monday, on 25 th September
in	With parts of the day, months, years, seasons and centuries: in the winter I'll see you in an hour
by	They'll inform us of their decision by the end of the month
before, after	I never go to bed before midnight. I'll meet you after the class.
since	With a point of time: we've been here since Tuesday.
for	With a period of time: they lived in Poland for three years.
during	With a period of time: I worked during the summer.
until/till	The ticket is valid until/till March
through	She worked through the night.

Exercises:

Exercise 01: Complete the fact sheet. Use prepositions. (Retrieved from: Powell, D., Walker, E. & Elsworth, S. (1995). *Grammar Practice for upper intermediate students (3rd edition)*. Pearson, Longman, p. 177)

Antarctica

History: (1)..... 1773 Capitain James Cook crossed the Antarctic Circle in his ships, HMS Resolution and HMS Adventure. (2) 14th December 1911 Roald Amundsen led the first expedition to reach the geographic South Pole. Amundsen used skis and dogs sleds to travel (3)..... the Bay of Whales to the South Pole.

Geography: About 98% of Antarctica is covered (4)..... the Antarctic ice sheet, which is (5)..... least 1.6 km thick.

Climate: (6)..... the winter months the minimum temperature is -80°C to -90°C. Antarctica receives little precipitation; the South Pole receives less than 10 cm of rain or snow per year (7)..... average.

Economy: Tourism exists on a small scale. In 2004-2005 fewer than 30,000 tourists visited Antarctica. This number is predicted to increase to over 80,000 (8)..... the year 2010.

Research: Meteorites discovered in Antarctica have allowed scientists to learn a great deal (9)..... our solar system, the meteorites are thought to come (10)..... asteroids or larger planets.

Politics: Antarctica has no government and belongs to no country. (11)..... 1959 countries have been banned (12)..... conducting any kind of military activity on the continent, including the testing of weapons.

Exercise 02: Circle the correct answer. (Retrieved from: Powell, D. *Grammar Practice for upper intermediate students (3rd ed)*. Pearson, Longman p. 174)

- Bread is made **by / (from) about** flour, water and yeast.
1. Only people **by / from / with** plenty of money can afford to shop here.
 2. I borrowed a book **from / on / with** nineteenth century music from the library.
 3. She said something **about / from / on** leaving town. Is it true?
 4. He went to hospital because he was suffering **by / from / with** stomach pains.
 5. Some of our customers prefer to pay **by / from / with** cheque.
 6. They attacked the old man **by / from / with** a knife.
 7. Last night we watched a documentary **on / with / about** Egypt.
 8. The house is made **by / from / on** bricks and timber.
 9. All our furniture was made **from / with / by** local craftsmen.
 10. I'd like to find some information **about / from / with** the subject.

Exercise 03: Supply the missing prepositions. (Retrieved from: Alexander, L. G. (1998).

Longman English Grammar Practice for intermediate students. UK: Longman, p. 109)

'THE PROPHECY'

People who live California have every reason to be afraid of earthquakes. No one has ever forgotten the great quake that destroyed San Francisco 1906. May, 1988, the people of Los Angeles panicked. According to a prophecy made the 16th century by a prophet called Nostradamus, the city would be destroyed early 1988. During the panic, parents didn't send their children school and people didn't go ' work. No one stayed home, either. The airlines did great business carrying people who fled their 'doomed city'. Which is more puzzling: how Nostradamus knew that a city which didn't even exist lo his time would be destroyed" the 20th century, or the behaviour of the people who believed 'the prophecy'?

Parts of speech: Conjunctions

7. Conjunctions

Conjunctions are words that connect words or groups of words. Also, conjunctions demonstrate how these connected words are related. There are three kinds of conjunctions: coordinating conjunctions, correlative conjunctions, and subordinating conjunctions (Rozakis,2005).

1. Coordinating conjunctions:

Conjunctions that link similar words or word groups. There are seven coordinating conjunctions. The initials of these conjunctions are summarized in the word “FANBOYS” where :

- F stands for: For
- A stands for: And
- N stands for: Nor
- B stands for: But
- O stands for: Or
- Y stands for: Yet
- S stands for: So

2. Correlative conjunctions:

Conjunctions that link similar words or word groups, but they are always used in pairs (Rozakis, 2005). Here are the correlative conjunctions:

- both . . .and
- either . . . or
- neither . . . nor
- not only . . . but
- whether . . . or

3. Subordinating conjunctions:

It refers to conjunctions that link an independent clause (complete sentence) to a dependent clause (fragment) (Rozakis, 2005). The following subordinate conjunctions are the most often used:

After, although, as, as if, as long as, as soon as, as though, because, before, even, though, if, in order that, since, so that, though, till

Exercises:

Exercise 01: Fill in the blank with the suitable coordinating conjunctions “and / nor /

but / or / so”. (Retrieved from: <https://www.grammarism.com/coordinating-conjunctions-exercises/>)

- He helped himself to another drink, his hand shaking **so** that he could hardly hold the decanter.
1. They entered the room closed the door behind them.
 2. this was not to be the end.
 3. His legs were trembling that he could hardly sit his horse.
 4. He came to me laid his hand on my shoulder.
 5. It moved after a moment two.
 6. It really means nothing more less than the sweet expression sometimes observed in the eyes of a sorrowful animal.
 7. There was nothing for it to go.
 8. He went round to the door opened it.
 9. Then he came to her took her hand.
 10. The others turned looked at him.

Exercise 02: Circle the appropriate conjunction. (Retrieved from :

<https://agendaweb.org/exercises/grammar/conjunctions-connectors/test-1>)

1. This ice cream is cold **so / because / and** delicious.
2. We can't play today **because / or / but** it is raining.
3. There is no bus, **because / or / and** we'll go on foot.
4. You should wear a coat **but / so / or** a scarf.
5. We played very well **because / so / but** didn't win.
6. She is in bed **so / because / but** she has a cold.

7. They didn't invite me, **or / and / so** I didn't go.
8. We ate apples, lemons **because / so / and** bananas.
9. I want to buy a new house **but / so / or** it is very expensive.
10. Is he your father **or / but / so** your uncle?

Parts of speech: Interjections

8. Interjections:

Interjections are words that denote strong emotions. Rozakis(2005) asserts that “Since interjections are not linked grammatically to other words in the sentence, they are set off from the rest of the sentence with a comma or an exclamation mark.

Examples:

- Oh! What a shock you gave me with that gorilla suit.
- Wow! That’s not a gorilla suit!”

Exercise: Match the interjections with the sentence halves. (Retrieved from:

<https://www.teach-this.com/parts-of-speech-activities-worksheets/interjections>)

- | | |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. Shhhhh! The | a. no school tomorrow. |
| 2. Ooops! I didn't | b. see that coffee. I'll wipe it up |
| 3. Ouuch! That | c. car, hands off! |
| 4. Yippee! There's | d. we turn up the heating, please? |
| 5. Awww! This soup | e. just adorable. |
| 6. Woow! I can't | f. here just in time. |
| 7. Aah! Now I | g. understand. |
| 8. Hmmm! Where did | h. John, he has such bad luck. |
| 9. Hey! That's my | i. baby is sleeping. |
| 10. Um, I guess | j. I put my phone. |
| 11. Oeer! Poor | k. believe your(re 60. You look 35! |
| 12. Awww! He's | l. it's okey. |
| 13. Phew! We got | m. has a fly in it. |
| 14. Orrr! Can | n. really hurt |

Chapter Three

Modals

Modal auxiliaries include verbs like can and may, among others. They are frequently referred to as modal verbs or simply as modals (Alexander, 1998).

The English language has a limited group of auxiliary verbs known as modal verbs. These verbs are generally employed to express modalities (properties such as possibility, obligation, etc.). They are distinct from other verbs due to their defectiveness, which indicates that they do not have participle or infinitive forms, and their neutralization, which indicates that they do not take the ending -(e)s in the third-person singular form of the verb. Both of these characteristics allow them to be distinguished from other verbs (Alexander, 1998).

We use them with other verbs, for example, to ask for permission.

- Can I use your phone, please?
- May I borrow your car, please?

There are ten principle English modals : **can, could, may, might, will, would, shall, should, must, ought to**. Besides, there are three ‘semi-modals’: **need, dare and used to**.

Modal	Function	Example
Can / Could	ability	I can speak English very fluently.
May / Might	permission	You may leave early
Will / Would	prediction	It will rain soon
Shall after We	prediction	Will we find our way? - I'm sure we shall .
Should / Ought to	duty	You should do as you're told.
Must	Total obligation	You must be quiet
Needn't	No obligation	You needn't wait

Tense of conjugation

Modal verbs are not 'complete verbs'. For example, we use verbs like **must** and **can** to refer only to **the present** or **the future**:

- I **must go** to the bank **now**.
- I **must go** to the bank **tomorrow**.

If the intent is to express the past of **must** we need to refer to **have to** in the past.

- I **had to go** to the bank yesterday.

In the same way, we use 'be able to' to make up the 'missing parts' of **can**.

They have no proper past tenses; four past forms exist, **could, might, should, would**, but they have only a restricted use.

Modal verbs have no infinitives or participles and therefore cannot be used in the continuous tenses. All modal verbs except **ought** are followed by the bare infinitive.

The semi-modals: **need, dare and used**

Need and **dare** can adhere to the modal structure when used as auxiliaries. They then take the bare infinitive.

- He **need** not wait.

But they can also use the **do/did** forms, and then take the full infinitive with **to**:

- He **doesn't dare to** interrupt.
- They **didn't need to** wait.

Need and **dare** can also be used as ordinary verbs, and are then inflected and have the usual participles:

- He **needs** help. / They **dared** me to jump.

Used, sometimes referred to as **used to**, is used only in the past. For its negative and interrogative it usually follows the auxiliary pattern.

- I **used not/ usedn't** to go.

But though technically **used** has no infinitive, the forms **didn't use to** and **did** he/she etc. use to? are quite often heard.

Major meaning:

Modal verbs used in academic writing tend to have seven main meanings.

1. Possibility

We use **may**, **might** and **could** to say that something is **possible**, but not certain.

- They **may come** by car. (= Maybe they will come by car.)

We use **can** to make **general statements** about what is possible.

- It **can be** very cold here in winter. (= It is sometimes very cold here in winter.)

Be careful

We do **not** use **can** to talk about specific events. Notice the difference in meaning between **can** and **may/might/could**:

- That dog **can be** dangerous. (= Sometimes that dog is dangerous. I know.)
- That dog **may/might/could be** dangerous. (= Perhaps that dog is dangerous. I don't know.)

We use **could** to make general statements about **the past**.

- You **could** easily **get** lost in that town. (= People often got lost in that town.)

2. Impossibility

We use **can't** or **cannot** to say that something is **impossible**.

- You **cannot/can't be** serious.

We use **can't have** or **couldn't have** to say that **a past event** was impossible.

- They know the way here. They **can't have got** lost!
- If Jones was at work until six, he **couldn't have done** the murder.

3. Certainty

We use **must** when we are **certain** that something is true and we have reasons for our conviction.

- It's getting dark. It **must be** quite late.

We use **should** to indicate that something is **true**, and we have reasons for our suggestion.

- It's nearly six o'clock. They **should arrive** soon.

We use **must have** and **should have** for **the past**.

- You look happy. You **must have heard** the good news.

4. Ability

We use **can** and **can't** to talk about someone's **skill or general abilities**.

- She **can speak** several languages.

We use **can** and **can't** to talk about the ability to do something at **a specific time in the present or future**.

- Help! I *can't breathe*.

We use **could** and **couldn't** to talk about **the past**.

- I *couldn't see* you.

We use **could have** to say that someone **had the ability or opportunity** to do something, but **did not do it**.

- She **could have learned** Swahili, but she didn't want to.

5. Permission

❖ Asking for permission

We use **can** to **ask for permission** to do something.

- **Can I ask** a question, please?

Could and may are **more formal and polite way** of asking for permission than *can*.

- **Could I ask** a question, please?
- **May we go** home now?

❖ Giving permission

We use **can** to **give permission**.

- You **can borrow** my pen if you like.

may is a **more formal and polite** way of giving permission.

- You **may go** home now.

We use **can** to say that **someone has permission** to do something.

- Students **can travel** for free.

❖ Refusing permission

We use **can't** and **may not** to **refuse permission** or say that someone does not have permission.

- You **can't go** home yet.
- Students **may not travel** for free.

6. Requests, offers and invitations

❖ Requests

We use **could you ...** and **would you ...** as polite ways of telling or asking someone to do something.

- **Would you carry** this for me, please?

can and **will** are **less polite**.

- **Will you carry** this for me, please?

❖ Offers and invitations

We use **can I ...** and **shall I** to **make offers**.

- **Can I help** you?
- **Shall I help** you with that?

We use **would you like (to) ...** for invitations.

- **Would you like to** come round tomorrow?

We can use *you must ...* or *we must ...* for a **very polite invitation**.

- **You must come round** and see us.
- **We must meet** again soon

7. Suggestions and obligations

❖ Suggestions

We use **should** and **shouldn't** to make **suggestions and give advice**.

- You **shouldn't go** by train.

We also use *could* to **make positive suggestions**.

- We **could meet** at the weekend.

❖ Obligations

We use **must** and **mustn't** to say that it is **necessary (or not) to do something**.

- You **must stop** at a red light.
- I'm sorry, but you **mustn't make** a noise in here.

We use **had to** (positive) and **couldn't** (negative) if we are talking about the **past**.

- Everyone **had to bring** something to eat.
- You **couldn't make** a noise in the library.

Exercices:

Exercise 01: Write the suitable modal in the following blanks. (Retrieved from:

<https://www.usingenglish.com/quizzes/106.html>)

1. You leave if you've finished.
May / Might / Either could be used here.
2. I come in?
Can / May / Either could be used here.
3. We not get into the concert without tickets, so we went home.
Might / Could / Either could be used here.
4. I open the window?
Could / May / Either could be used here.
5. you turn the heating up a bit, please?
Could / May
6. You take a mobile phone into the exam.
Can't / may not / Either could be used here.
7. you help me?
Can / Could / Either could be used here.
8. I'm afraid you not take the exam until you pay for it.
May / might
9. You smoke anywhere on the train.
Cannot / might not
10. You use my dictionary if you want.
Can / Might / Either could be used here.

Exercise 02: Put in am, can, can't, couldn't, have had to, haven't been able to, may, must, must be or must have. (Retrieved from: Alexander, L. G. (1998). Longman English Grammar Practice for intermediate students. UK: Longman, p. 157)

Remember me?

There was a knock at the door. I opened it and saw a stranger. 'Hullo, Fred,' he cried. (1) **May/Can** I come in?' 'How do you know my name?' I asked. 'We met ten years ago on a ferry-boat and you gave me your card.' 'You (2) mistaken,' I said. 'No, I (3)..... not,' the stranger said. He produced my card: Fred Ames. (4) given it to him ten years ago, but (5) remember it! '(6) remember you,' I said. 'We exchanged cards years ago,' the stranger said. 'You said, "You (7) come and stay with us for as long as you like any time you're in England." I'm sorry (8) wait so many years before coming to visit you. I've been so busy, (9) but here I am at last! Eettei !ate Wan never! I've just arrived on the ferry. My wife and children are in the car and we wonder if we (10)..... stay with you for a month.'

Exercise 03: Use two words – 'can'/'can't'/'could'/'couldn't' and an infinitive – to

complete each sentence. (Retrieved from: <https://brainly.lat/tarea/39479431>)

Find – smell – can – can – swim – taste – speak - can't - can't – see – read -
couldn't – play - couldn't – could – could

1. RobPolish really well. He sounds like a native speaker.
2. When I was a girl, I 10 kilometres.
3. The police searched the whole village for the criminal, but theyhim.
4. Are you sure you put sugar in my tea? I honestly it!
5. My great-grandfather was a very clever man but he or write.
6. Did you remember to turn off the cooker? I something burning.
7. Tim's a big rugby fan but he any more. He's too old.
8. The children that the teacher was very a

Chapter Four

Tenses

1. The present tenses:

1.1. Present simple:

The present simple is used to discuss permanent situations.

- I'm from Canada but I currently **reside** in London.

The present simple is also utilized in the following situations:

- ❖ For habitual actions or routines, or events or actions that happen regularly, often with a time expression or an adverb of frequency (Alexander, 1998).
 - We interact with one another **every day**.
 - She **always catches** the 8:00 train.
- ❖ For a general truth or statement of fact.
 - Water **boils** at 100 degrees centigrade.
- ❖ In instructions and directions.
 - To get to my house, you **take** the first turning on the left.
- ❖ Something that is **fixed** in the future
 - The train **leaves** at 19.45 this evening.

These adverbs of frequency and time expressions are often used with the present simple:

- ❖ **Never, hardly ever, rarely, seldom, occasionally, sometimes, frequently, often, usually, always.**
- ❖ **Every day/week, in the morning/evenings, on Mondays/ Tuesdays, once a week/year.**

The form:

The simple present has the same form as the infinitive but adds an “s” for the third person singular.

Affirmative	Negative		Interrogative
	Normal	Abbreviation	
I / you / we / they + verb I work in hospital	I / you / we / they + do not + verb we do not work	I / you / we / they + don't + verb They don't work	Do + I / you / we / they + verb + ... + ? Do you work?
She / he / it + verb + s She works	she / he / it + does not + verb He does not work	she / he / it + doesn't + verb It doesn't work	Does + she / he / it + verb + ... + ? Does he work?

1.2. Present Continuous:

We use the present continuous for activities and situations that are temporary.

- **I'm** only **staying** here for a short time

We also use present continuous for:

- ❖ Actions in progress at the moment of speaking.
 - 'What **are** you **doing**?' 'I'm **taking** a break'.
- ❖ Situations that are changing.
 - Traffic **is getting** worse every year.
- ❖ Annoying habits, with always.
 - You're **always forgetting** your keys!

These time expressions are often used with the present continuous:

- ❖ **Still, currently (usually after the auxiliary verb).**
- ❖ **At present, at the moment, (right) now.**

The form:

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

	Affirmative		Negative	
	Normal	Abbreviation	Normal	Abbreviation
I	am + verb + ing I am working	'm + verb + ing I'm working	am not + verb + ing I am not working	'm not + verb + ing I'm not working
You/we/ they	are + verb + ing you are working	're + verb + ing You're working	are not + verb + ing we are not working	're not + verb + ing we're not working we aren't working
She/he/it	is + verb + ing She is working	's + verb + ing She's working	is not + verb + ing He is not working	's not + verb + ing He's not working He isn't working

	Interrogative	
	Affirmative	Negative
I	Am + I + verb + ing + ? Am I working?	Are'nt + I + verb + ing + ? Aren't I working?
You/we/they	Are + you/we/they + verb + ing + ? Are you working?	Are'nt + you/we/they + verb + ing + ? Aren't they working?
She/he/it	Is + she/he/it + verb + ing + ? Is she working?	Isn't + she/he/it + verb + ing + ? Isn't he working?

1.3. Present perfect:

We use the present perfect for states or for single or repeated action that happened at an unspecified time in the past. The exact time is not important.

- Diana **has been** ill quite often recently.
- I **have seen** the film but I **haven't read** the book.

We use the past simple for finished events or actions that happened at a definite time in the past. We usually say when they happened, using expressions like *yesterday*, *last week/month/year*, *(two days) ago*.

Compare:

- I have been to Spain but I have never been to Portugal. → **Present perfect**
 - I went to Spain last year. → **Past simple**
- ❖ We use the present perfect for recently completed single actions, when the result of the action is important in the present.
- I **have broken** my leg (result: I can't walk)
- ❖ We often use *just*, *already* (=sooner than expected) and *yet* (=up to now) for emphasis. (Notice the word order in the following examples).
- The taxi **has just arrived**.
 - She **has already told** them what happened.
 - He **hasn't seen** the film **yet**.
- ❖ We can also use *recently* (= a short time ago).
- **Have** you **spoken** to them recently?
- ❖ We use the present perfect with *for* and *since* to talk about *states, events or actions* that began in the past and continue up to now.
- ❖ We use the past simple for states, events or actions that began and ended in the past. We can use *for* to talk about a finished period of time.

Compare:

- She **has been** a doctor **for twenty years**. (she is still a doctor)
- She **was** a doctor **for twenty years**. (she isn't a doctor now)

We use **“for”** + a period of time.

- **For a month / three years / ages**

We use **“since”** + a point in time.

- **Since 2010 / yesterday / I was four**

The form:

The present perfect tense is formed with the present tense of **have** + **the past participle**.

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

Affirmative	Negative		Interrogative
	Normal	Abbreviation	
I / you / we / they + have + past participle I have worked	I/you/we/they + have not + past participle You have not worked	I/you/we/they+haven't + past participle You haven't worked	have + I/you/we/they+ past participle have we worked?
She / he / it + has + past participle She has worked	she/he/it + has not + past participle He has not worked	she/he/it + hasn't + past participle He hasn't worked	has + she/he/it + past participle has it worked?

2. The Past tenses:

2.1. Past simple:

We use the past simple to describe actions which are complete. We use the past simple for:

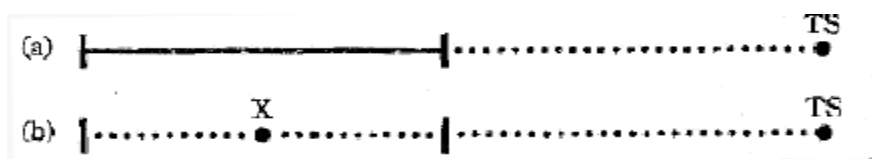
- ❖ A past action or a sequence of past actions.
 - I **woke up** very early. Then I **got** dressed, had breakfast and **left** the house.
- ❖ A state, event, or action that lasted for a period of time in the past.
 - The Smiths **owned** a farm in the north of the country.
 - It rained for several days and nights.

❖ A habit in the past.

- When we were children, we often **went** to the cinema.

The simple past tense is used for an action whose time is not given but which (a) occupied a period of time now terminated, or (b) occurred at a moment in a period of time now terminated. These may be expressed diagrammatically.

TS here stands for time of speaking in the present.



- ❖ (a) He **worked** in that bank for four years. (but he does not work there now)
- ❖ (b) My grandmother once **saw** Queen Victoria.

The form:

The simple past tense in regular verbs is formed by adding **ed** to **the infinitive**. The same form is used for all persons.

The irregular verbs **vary** considerably in their simple past form. The simple past form of each irregular verb must therefore be learnt.

➤ **Regular verbs**

Affirmative	Negative		Interrogative
	Normal	Abbreviation	
I/you/she/he/it/ we/they+ verb+ ed I worked in hospital	I/you/she/he/it/we/ they+did not+verb we did not work	I/you/she/he/it/we/ they +didn't+verb They didn't work	Did+I/you/she/he/it/ we/ they+verb+..+? Did you work?

➤ **Irregular verbs**

Infinitive	Past simple
to eat	ate,
to leave	left,
to see	saw
to speak	spoke

Spelling notes

1. Words ending in a consonant + vowel + consonant (CVC) double the consonant before adding the **ed**

- *admit, admitted - stop, stopped - travel, travelled*

When the final consonant is **w**, **x** or **y** it does not double:

- row + ed = rowed

2. Verbs ending in **y** following a consonant change the **y** into **i** before adding **ed**:

- *carry, carried try, tried*

But **y** following a vowel does not change:

- *obey, obeyed.*

2.2. Past continuous

Past continuous describes states, events or actions which are temporary or incomplete (Alexander, 1998). We use the past continuous:

- ❖ To emphasise that a past event continued for some time.
 - It **was raining** all night.
- ❖ To describe an action in progress at a particular time in the past, or a temporary past situation or event.
 - We **were watching** TV at nine o'clock last night.
- ❖ To describe two or more past actions happening at the same time
 - She **was cooking** the dinner while he **was talking** to her.

- ❖ To set the scene in a story.
 - We set off early. Before long the sun **was rising** above the distant hills and the birds **were singing** their morning chorus.
- ❖ To talk about something we were planning or expected to happen.
 - We **were planning** to move to Canada but decided to stay here instead.
- ❖ We use the past simple and the past continuous with *when* and *as / while* to talk about a past action or event that was interrupted. (notice when we use a comma)
 - They **arrived** *while* we **were having** dinner.
 - *While* we **were having** dinner, they **arrived**.
- ❖ We use the continuous tense in descriptions. Note the combination of description (past continuous) with narrative (simple past):
 - A wood fire **was burning** on the hearth, and a cat **was sleeping** in front of it. A girl **was playing** the piano and **was singing** softly to herself. Suddenly there was a knock on the door. The girl stopped playing. The cat woke up.

The form:

The past continuous tense is formed by the past tense of the verb to be + the present participle (verb + ing).

	Affirmative		Negative	
	Normal	Abbreviation	Normal	Abbreviation
I/ she/he/it	was + verb + ing I was working	's + verb + ing he's working	was not + verb + ing she was not working	wasn't + verb + ing she wasn't working

You/we/ they	were+ verb + ing you were working	're + verb + ing You're working	are not + verb + ing we are not working	weren't +verb + ing we weren't working
-------------------------	--	---	---	--

Interrogative		
	Affirmative	Negative
I/ she/he/it	was + I/ she/he/it + verb + ing + ? was I working?	Wasn't + I/ she/he/it + verb + ing + ? wasn't I working?
You/we/ they	were + you/we/they + verb + ing + ? Are you working?	Weren't + you/we/they + verb + ing+ ? weren't they working?

2.3. Past perfect

We use the past perfect :

- ❖ To describe an event or action that happened before another past event or action. The past perfect makes it clear that one action or event was completed before the second one started.

Compare:

- When I arrived, the train **had left**. (=the train left before I arrived).
- When I got there, the train left. (=the train left as I was arriving or immediately after I arrived).
- ❖ To describe an event or action that happened before a particular time in the past.
 - It was June 1991, Ann and Michael **had just got** married.
 - It was midnight and the children **had gone** to bed hours ago.
- ❖ We use the past perfect with many of the adverbs and expressions we use with the present perfect. Just, already, yet, for, since, ever, never.
 - Blake and **Julie had just left** and there was nobody.

❖ We often use the past perfect in clauses with *when, before, after, until, as soon as*. When the sequence of events is clear, we can also use the past simple.

- When we had finished the meal, I made some coffee.

The form:

This tense is formed with **had** and the past participle.

Affirmative	Negative		Interrogative
	Normal	Abbreviation	
I/you/we/they/s he/he/it + had + past participle I had worked	I/you/we/they/she/ he/it + had not + past participle You had not worked	I/you/we/they/she/he/ it +hadn't+past participle You hadn't worked	had+ I/you/we/ they/ she/he/it + past participle had we worked?

3. The future tense:

We use the future simple for:

❖ Statements of fact about the future.

- We'**ll have** a break at six.

❖ For decisions we make at the time of speaking.

- 'Would you like to come with us to the theatre tonight?'

'all right, I'**ll join** you'.

❖ In offers, promises and requests.

- I'**ll do** that for you.
- **Will** you **help** me, please?

❖ With verbs like *believe, doubt, expect, hope, suppose and think*, and adverbs like *perhaps, probably, and definitely*.

- I expect they'**ll be** here soon.
- They probably **won't come** by taxi.

- ❖ Prediction: We invite prediction or we say what we think will happen:
 - *Who **will win** on Saturday? Tottenham **will win** on Saturday.*
- ❖ In formal style we say what will happen for events that have been arranged:
 - *The wedding **will take place** at St Andrew's on June 27th.*
- ❖ We use *shall* and *will* to express hopes and expectations:
 - *I hope **she'll** get the job she's applied for. She'll get a surprise. - I expect she **will**.*

The form:

we use *will* with all persons (*I, you, he, she, it, we, they*), but in British English, we often use *shall* with *I/we*.

Affirmative		Negative		Interrogative
Normal	Abb.	Normal	Abbreviation	
I/you/we/they /she/ he/it + will + verb I will work	Will='ll	I/you/we/they/she/ he/it+ will not+ verb You will not work	I/you/we/they/ she / he/it + won't + verb You won't work	will+I/you/we/they/ she/he/it + verb + will we work?
I/we + shall + verb I shall work	Shall='ll	I/we+shall not+ verb We shall not work	I/we + shan't +verb We shan't work	shall+ I/we + verb+? shall we work?

Exercises:

Exercise 01: Complete the following article. Use the past simple or past perfect of the verbs in brackets. (Retrieved from: Powell, D., Walker, E. & Elsworth, S. (1995).

Grammar Practice for upper intermediate students (3rd edition). Pearson, Longman, p. 57)

Pirate of the Caribbean

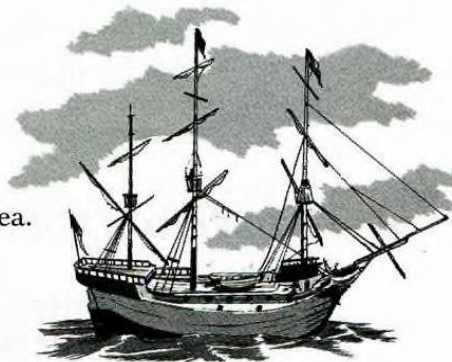
Black Sam Bellamy was an original pirate of the Caribbean. In 1984 Black Sam's ship, the *Whydah*, (0) **became** (become) the first pirate ship ever recovered from the sea.

According to experts, Sam was probably a democratic leader because divers

(1) (find) gold ornaments on the ship which were cut into pieces so they could be shared with the crew.

Black Sam (2) (leave) England and (3) (sail) to America in the early 1700s. We don't know much about the life he (4) (leave) behind. We do know that he was dark and handsome and that he (5) (wear) his long black hair tied in a ponytail.

By 1715 Black Sam (6) (already / meet) his lover, Maria Hallett, in Cape Cod, Massachusetts. While living in Cape Cod, Black Sam (7) (hear) of a fleet of Spanish treasure ships which (8) (sink) in the Caribbean earlier that year. He (9) (decide) to look for the sunken treasure but he (10) (need) a ship to do so. He (11) (persuade) a friend, Palgrave Williams, to buy him one. Black Sam (12) (go) looking for the lost treasure but when he (13) (not find) it, he (14) (turn) to piracy.



Exercise 02: Complete the sentences. Use the present simple, present continuous, present perfect, or past simple of the verbs in brackets. (Retrieved from: Powell, D., Walker, E. & Elsworth, S. (1995). *Grammar Practice for upper intermediate students (3rd ed). Pearson, Longman, p. 52)*

1. Anthony isn't usually easy to get on with but he very co-operative these days. (be)
2. What of her? Will she be easy to work with? (you/think)
3. I can't talk now. We a meeting. I'll ring you later. (have)

4. Jessica back from work and she's exhausted. (just/come)
5. I Bertha for ages. Where is she? (not see)
6. Hehis car. Someone bought it last week. (already/sell)
7. She unemployed for a long time but thankfully, she's got job now. (be)
8. I preparing dinner yet so I'd better hurry. (not start)

Exercise 03: Complete the second sentence so that it means the same as the first, using the word in bold. (Retrieved from: Powell, D. Grammar Practice for upper intermediate students (3rd edition). Pearson, Longman p. 45)

- This is the saddest film I have ever seen. **Never**
 - I Such a sad film.
1. She has never done anything like that before. **ever**
It's the first time she Anything like that.
 2. Andy and Rachel are still on holiday in Italy. **Gone**
Andy and Rachel To Italy on holiday
 3. We still remember the times we spent together. **forgotten**
We The times we spent together.
 4. She paid back the money she owed me very quickly. **Already**
She the money she owed me.
 5. A minute ago Katsu told me he has got a new job. **Just**
Katsume he has got a new job.
 6. When did you meet your wife? **Known**
How long your wife?
 7. I haven't seen Vasily for a few days. **Since**
It's a few days Vasily.

Chapter Five

The Passive Voice

In an active sentence, the subject is the ‘doer’ and performs the action of the verb (Hewings, 2002). In a passive sentence the object of the active becomes the subject.

Active	They	have delayed	our flight.
Passive	Our flight	has been delayed.	

The passive of an active tense is formed by putting the verb **to be** into the same tense as the active verb and adding **the past participle** of the active verb. The subject of the active verb becomes the ‘**agent**’ of the passive verb (Hewings, 2002). The agent is very often not mentioned. When it is mentioned it is preceded by **by** and placed at the end of the clause:

- This tree **was planted by** my grandfather.

We use the passive:

- ❖ To focus on the action rather than the doer (the agent) of the action.
 - President John F. Kennedy **was assassinated** in 1963.
- ❖ To avoid using a vague subject like *they* or *someone*.
 - My watch **has been stolen!**
- ❖ When the doer of the action is obvious.
 - He **was arrested** last night. (it’s clear who arrested him: the police)
- ❖ In written reports, signs and notices, and to describe processes.
 - Shoplifters **will be prosecuted**.
 - The fruit **is treated** with wax and then **stored**.
- ❖ If we want to mention the agent, we use *by*. We use *with* to mention the tool or instrument that was used.

- St Paul's Cathedral was built **by Sir Christopher Wren**.
- He was killed **with a knife**.

If the verb is followed by a preposition or particle, we don't omit it in the passive sentence.

- They closed the cinema down. The cinema was closed down.

The form:

Passive verb forms have one of the tenses of the verb **to be** and a **past participle**.

Tenses	The active form	The passive form
Present simple	I/you/we/they + verb + infinitive He/she/it + verb + s <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • John tells me that you're thinking of leaving. 	Am / is / are + past participle <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I'm told (by John) that you're thinking of leaving.
Past simple	*Regular: verb + ed *Irregular: to be learnt <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • John told me that you were leaving. 	Was/were + past participle <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I was told (by John) that you were leaving.
Future simple	Will + infinitive <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I will tell John that you are leaving. 	Will be + past participle <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • John will be told (by me) that you are leaving.
Present continuous	Am/is/are + verb + ing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • John is always telling me that you are leaving. 	Am/is/are + being + past participle <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I am always being told (by John) that you are leaving.
Past continuous	Was/were + verb + ing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • John was always telling me that you were leaving. 	Was/were + being + past participle <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I was always being told (by John) that you were leaving.

Present perfect	Have/has + past participle <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • John has told me that you are leaving. 	Have/has + been + past participle <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I have been told (by John) that you are leaving.
Past perfect	Had + past participle <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • John had already told me that you were leaving. 	Had + been + past participle <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I had already been told (by John) that you were leaving.
Modals	Should/could/can/shall/may/might/ought to...+ infinitive <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • You should tell John. 	Should/could/can/shall/may/might/ought to...+ be + past participle <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • John should be told.

- ❖ When an active verb has two objects, a direct object and an indirect object, it is more common for the indirect object to become the subject of the passive sentence:

Active	They have offered me a job (me=indirect object, a job= direct object)
Passive	I have been offered a job/ A job has been offered to me.

- ❖ Verbs which take an object (*transitive verbs*) can have a passive form. So we can make corresponding passive sentences for:
- They **destroyed** *the building*. «—• The building **was destroyed**.
 - The news **surprised** *me*. «—• **I was surprised** by the news.
- ❖ Verbs which *do not* take an object (*intransitive verbs*) do not have passive forms. For example there are no passive forms for the following sentences:
- **I slept** for nearly ten hours last night.
 - The ship slowly **disappeared** from view.

Exercices:

Exercise 01: Complete the following article. Use the passive form of the verbs in the box.

(Retrieved from: Powell, D., Walker, E. & Elsworth, S. (1995). *Grammar Practice for upper intermediate students (3rd edition)*. Pearson, Longman, p. 160)

Allow – call – can/understand – define – determine – fight – may/divide – rear - write
--

Thousands of books (0) *have been written* about the territorial instinct of animals. Humans are territorial too and when we understand this, some kinds of aggressive behaviour (1) more easily.

Every country is a territory with boundaries which (2) usually clearly Within each country there are smaller territories: counties and cities. Throughout history wars (3) by people protecting the territory in which they live.

However, there are other kinds of territory as well. One such territory (4) 'personal space'. For animals, the size of this space depends on the conditions in which the animal (5) , whether in the wild or in a zoo. For humans, it depends on the density of the population in the place where they grew up. To some extent, the size of an individual's personal space (6) by their culture.

Personal space (7) into four zones: the intimate, personal, social and public zones. The intimate zone extends fifteen to forty-five centimetres from the body. Only close friends and relatives (8) to enter the intimate zone. If a stranger enters it, the individual becomes anxious and may feel threatened.

Exercise 02: Re-write the sentences. Use the passive voice. (Retrieved from: Powell, D.,

Walker, E. & Elsworth, S. (1995). *Grammar Practice for upper intermediate students (3rd edition)*. Pearson, Longman, p. 160)

- They should have finished the project ages ago.
- **The project *should have been finished* ages ago.**

1. No one has cleaned the windows for weeks.

.....

2. His company made him redundant a year ago.

.....

3. The pressures of work affecting her health.
.....
4. The fire fighters put on the fire before it did much damage.
.....
5. If it hadn't rained so much, we would have finished the job on time.
.....
6. The people at the garage are repairing our car.
.....
7. Someone hit him on the head with a heavy instrument.
.....
8. I hope they'll choose me for the basketball team.
.....

Exercise 03: Put in the correct forms, active or passive, of the verbs in brackets. (Retrieved from: Alexander, L. G. (1998). Longman English Grammar Practice for intermediate students. UK: Longman, p. 183)

How the other half lives

Lord Manners was a rich and famous banker. When he (die) **died** recently, he (give) a magnificent funeral which (attend) by hundreds of famous people. The funeral was going to (hold) in Westminster Abbey. Many ordinary people (line) the streets to watch the procession. The wonderful black and gold carriage (draw) by six black horses. The mourners (follow) in silence. Lord Manners (give) a royal farewell. Two tramps were among the crowd. They (watch) the procession with amazement. As solemn music (could hear) in the distance, one of them (turn)..... to the other and (whisper) in admiration, 'Now that's what I call really living!'

Chapter Six

Reported Speech

Punctuation is important in direct speech. The comma, full stop, question mark or exclamation mark come before the closing quotation mark.

- ‘I’m leaving,’ said Lottie. ‘I’m tired,’ she said, ‘and I’m going home. Are you coming?’

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

❖ In direct speech we repeat the original speaker’s exact words.

- He said: ‘I have lost my umbrella.’

Remarks repeated are placed between **inverted commas**, and a **comma or colon** is placed immediately before the remark.

❖ In indirect speech we give the exact meaning of a remark or a speech without necessarily using the speaker’s exact words.

- He said (that) he had lost his umbrella.

There is **no comma** after say in indirect speech, **that** can usually be omitted after **say** and **tell** + *object*. But it should be kept after other verbs: **complain, explain, object, point out, protest** (Hewings, 2002).

When we report someone’s words, some verb tenses may change and others does not change.

It depends on **the reporting verbs** (Hewings, 2002).

- She **said**: ‘I **have seen** the film’.

reporting verb main verb

When we turn direct speech into indirect, some changes are usually necessary. The following are the most important ones.

Reported Statements:

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

- ‘I haven’t seen Yolanda’, **says** Claude.
- Claude **says** that he haven’t seen Yolanda.

But indirect speech is usually introduced by a verb in **the past tense**. Verbs in the direct speech have then **to be changed** into a corresponding past tense.

The changes are shown in the following table:

The Direct Speech	The indirect speech
Simple present <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ‘I never eat meat, ‘ he explained = 	Simple past <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He explained that he never ate meat.
Present continuous <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ‘I’m waiting for Ann, ‘ he said 	Past continuous <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He said (that) he was waiting for Ann.
Present perfect <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I have found a flat, ' he said 	Past perfect <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He said (that) he had found a flat.
Present perfect continuous <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He said, ‘I’ve been waiting for ages’ 	Past perfect continuous <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He said he had been waiting for ages.
Simple past <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ‘I took it home with me, ‘ she said 	Past perfect <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She said she had taken it home with her.
Past continuous <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She said, ‘We were thinking of selling the house but we have decided not to’ 	Past perfect <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She said that they had been thinking of selling the house but had decided not to.
Past perfect <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He said, ‘Ann arrived on Monday 	Past perfect continuous <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He said that Ann arrived on Monday

Future	Conditional
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He said, 'I will/shall be in Paris on Monday' 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He said he would be in Paris on Monday.

Model verbs:

will → would

shall → should

can → could

must/have to → had to

may → might

Note that *would, could, might, had to* do not change

Pronoun and possessive adjective in indirect speech:

Pronouns and possessive adjectives usually change from first or second to third person except when the speaker is reporting his own words:

- He said, 'I've forgotten the combination of my safe' = He said that he had forgotten the combination of his safe.
- I said, 'I like my new house' = I said that I liked my new house. (speaker reporting his own words)

Pronoun changes may affect the verb:

- He says, 'I know her' = He says he knows her.
- He says, 'I shall be there' = He says that he will be there.

Expressions of time and place in indirect speech

Adverbs and adverbial phrases of time change as follows:

Direct	Indirect
- today	- that day
- yesterday	- the day before
- the day before yesterday	- two days before

- tomorrow	- the next day/the following day
- the day after tomorrow	- in two days ' time
- next week/year etc.	- the following week/year etc.
- last week/year etc.	- the previous week/year etc.
- a year etc. ago	- a year before/the previous year
- now	- then

But if the speech is made and reported on the same day these time changes are not necessary.

- At breakfast this morning he said, 'I'll be very busy today'
- At breakfast this morning he said that he would be very busy today.

Some prepositions in indirect speech

this	that
these	those
here	there

This used in time expressions usually becomes **that**.

- He said, 'She is coming **this** week' = He said that she was coming **that** week.

Here can become **there** but only when it is clear what place is meant.

- At the station he said, 'I'll be **here** again tomorrow' = He said that he'd be **there** again the next day.

1. Reported Questions:

Reported questions have the same tense and word changes as reported statements:

- ❖ When we report a question, we use a reporting verb like: ask, enquire, want to know, wonder. We don't use a question mark (?)
- ❖ To report a yes/no question, we use if/whether after the reporting verb.
 - 'Have I seen you before?'
 - She asked (me) **if/whether** she **had seen** me before.
- ❖ To report a wh-question, we use the question word.

- ‘Where did you go?’
 - He wanted to know **where I had gone**.
- ❖ When We report questions with shall/should, we can use the ‘to’ infinitive after the question word.
- ‘what should I buy for Peter?’
 - She asked **what to buy** for Peter.

2. Reported commands and requests

- ❖ To report commands, we can use tell or order + ‘to’-infinitive.
- ‘be quiet!’ = he **told** us **to be** quiet.
 - ‘put your hands up!’ = the police officer **ordered** them **to put** their hands up.
- ❖ To report requests, we can use ask + to-infinitive.
- ‘please help us.’ = They **asked** us **to help** them
 - ‘would you shut the door, please?’ = I **asked** him **to shut** the door.
- ❖ To report negative commands and requests, we use not before the to-infinitive.
- ‘don’t stay out too late.’ = She **told** me **not to stay** out too late.

Exercices:

Exercise 01: Re-write the following sentences as indirect speech. (Retrieved from: Alexander, L. G. (1998). Longman English Grammar Practice for intermediate students. UK: Longman, p. 219)

Turn each direct-speech statement into indirect speech with tense changes.

Just what the doctor ordered!

- I've conducted a number of tests,' Dr Grey said.

Dr. Grey said (that) she had conducted a number of tests.

1. "I must put you on a very strict diet," she told me.

.....

2. "You're putting on a lot of weight," she said.

.....

3. "You have gained 5.5 kilos in six months," she added.

.....

4. "You gained 10 kilos last year," she reminded me.

.....

5. "You will get very fat if you go on like this," she told me.

.....

6. "You should eat very little," she said.

.....

7. "So I'll have to live on nuts and water," I said nervously.

.....

8. "You can live on nuts and water without the nuts, she said

.....

Exercise 02: Re-write the following sentences as direct speech. (Retrieved from:

<https://www.tolearnenglish.com/exercises/exercise-english-2/exercise-english-68009.php>)

1. She told her mother that she was going to the market
she said :
2. His friends told me that they would go home the following Sunday
his friends said :
3. The teacher told Mark he had been very regular in his work
the teacher said :
4. Marc told me that he had finished his work
Marc said :
5. The teacher said the earth moves around the sun
the teacher said :
6. He said that she was not going home that day
he said :
7. He asked me if I had brought the pens
he asked :
8. The boy asked me if that was the place we had visited before
the boy asked :
9. The judge told the witness to tell the truth
the judge said :
10. The prisoner begged the judge to forgive him
the prisoner said: please.

Exercise 03: Re-write the direct speech as indirect and the indirect speech as direct one.

(Retrieved from: Powell, D., Walker, E. & Elsworth, S. (1995). *Grammar Practice for upper intermediate students (3rd edition)*. Pearson, Longman, p. 108)

➤ 'The taxi has arrived!' Dinah told us.

➤ **Dinah told us that the taxi had arrived.**

1. 'You can leave your things in this wardrobe if you like,' Derek said.

.....

2. Beth said that they were leaving the following day.

.....

3. 'it isn't far from here to my office, Ted,' said Bea.

.....

4. Evan told the police officer that he'd seen the bank robbery that morning.

.....

5. Hannah said, 'We must be patient'.

.....

6. 'I've been to this restaurant once before,' said Nanette to Ian.

.....

7. Miguel told Gloria that he hadn't liked the film but he'd enjoyed the book.

.....

8. 'I may have left my bag on the bus this morning,' Eva said.

.....

9. Alan said that we ought to get some flowers for Penny's birthday.

.....

10. 'I won't be gone long,' Lydia told her mother.

.....

Chapter Seven

Conditional

There are four main kinds of conditionals:

- **The Zero Conditional:** General truth and general habits
(if + present simple, ... present simple)
If you heat water to 100 degrees, it boils.
- **The First Conditional:** Possible or likely things in the future.
(if + present simple, ... will + infinitive)
If it rains tomorrow, we'll go to the cinema.
- **The Second Conditional:** impossible things in the present/ unlikely things in the future
(if + past simple, ... would + infinitive)
If I had a lot of money, I would travel around the world.
- **The Third Conditional:** Things that did not happen in the past and their imaginary results
(if + past perfect, ... would + have + past participle)
If I had gone to bed early, I would have caught the train.

1. The Zero Conditional

We can make a zero conditional sentence with two **present simple** verbs (one in the 'if clause' and one in the 'main clause')

- **If + V1 (present simple), V2 (present simple).**

This conditional is used when the result will always happen. So, if water reaches 100 degrees, it always boils. It's a fact. I'm talking in general, not about one particular situation.

The result of the 'if clause' is always the main clause (Hewings, 2002).

The 'if' in this conditional can usually be replaced by 'when' without changing the meaning.

- If water **reaches** 100 degrees, it **boils**. (It is always true, there can't be a different result sometimes).
- If I **eat** peanuts, I **am** sick. (This is true only for me, maybe, not for everyone, but it's still true that I'm sick every time I eat peanuts)

2. The First Conditional

The first conditional has the **present simple** after 'if', then the **future simple** in the other clause.

- **If + V1 (present simple), V2 (future simple “will + stem).**

It is used to talk about things which might happen in the future. Of course, we cannot know what will happen in the future, but this describes possible things, which could easily come true.

- If it **rains**, I **won't go** to the park.
- If I **have** enough money, I'**ll buy** some new shoes.
- She'**ll be** late if the train **is** delayed.

3. The Second Conditional

The second conditional uses the **past simple** after if, then 'would' and the infinitive.

- **If + V1 (past simple), V2 (Conditional present “would + stem).**

It has two uses:

- ❖ First, we can use it to talk about things in **the future** that are probably not going to be true.
 - If I **won** the lottery, I **would buy** a big house.(I probably won't win the lottery)
 - She **would pass** the exam if she ever **studied**.(She never studies, so this won't happen)

❖ Second, we can use it to talk about something in **the present** which is **impossible**, because it is not true.

- If I **had** his number, I **would call** him. (I don't have his number now, so it's impossible for me to call him).
- If I **were** you, I **wouldn't go** out with that man.

NB:

We can use '*were*' instead of 'was' with 'I' and 'he/she/it'. This is mostly done in formal writing).

4. The Third Conditional

We make the third conditional by using the **past perfect** after 'if' and then 'would have' and the **past participle** in the second part of the sentence:

- **If + V1 (past perfect), V2 (Conditional perfect “would + have + stem).**

It talks about **the past**. It is used to describe a situation that didn't happen, and to imagine the result of this situation.

- If she **had studied**, she **would have passed** the exam (but, really we know she didn't study and so she didn't pass)
- If I **hadn't eaten** so much, I **wouldn't have felt** sick (but I did eat a lot, and so I did feel sick).
- She **would have become** a teacher if she **had gone** to university
- He **would have been** on time for the interview if he **had left** the house at nine

Exercices:

Exercise 01: Use the given information to complete the sentences. (Retrieved from:

<https://www.perfect-english-grammar.com/conditional-exercises.html>)

1. In truth, I am not from Italy. I can't speak Italian.
But if I were from Italy, I could speak Italian.
2. In truth, Ali has enough money. He won't ask for a loan.
But if I didn't have enough money, he would ask for a loan.
3. In truth, Tom doesn't need a new coat. He won't buy one.
But if Tom a new coat, he one.
4. In truth, Kate is tired. She won't finish her work.
But if Kate..... tired, she her work.
5. In truth, I don't have a ticket. I can't go to the concert.
But if I a ticket, I to the concert.
6. In truth, I am not an artist. I can't paint your picture.
But if I an artist, I..... your picture.
7. In truth, John doesn't understand the problem. He can't solve it.
But if John the problem, heit.

Exercise 02: Make the conditional in the following sentences. (Retrieved from:

<https://brainly.ph/question/6734333>)

1. If the students (not/be) late for the exam, they (pass)
..... (Third conditional)
2. If the weather (not/be) so cold, we (go) to the
beach. (Third conditional)
3. If she (have) her laptop with her, she (email)
me. (Second conditional)

4. If she (not/go) to the meeting, I (not/go)
either. (First conditional)
5. If the baby (sleep) better last night, I (not/be)
so tired. (Third conditional)
6. If the teacher (give) us lots of homework this weekend, I (not/be)
..... happy. (First conditional)

Exercise 03: Change the following sentences into conditional type 3. (Retrieved from: Alexander, L. G. (1998). Longman English Grammar Practice for intermediate students. UK: Longman, p. 210)

- John ate too much birthday cake, so he was sick

If John hadn't eaten too much birthday cake, he wouldn't have been sick.

1. We came home from our holiday early because we ran out of money.
.....
2. The house didn't burn down because the fire brigade came immediately.
.....
3. The men were wearing protective clothing, so they were all quite safe.
.....
4. I had an accident because I wasn't watching the road.
.....
5. I was sweating because it was so hot.
.....
6. My father didn't earn much money, so life wasn't easy for us.
.....
7. I didn't enjoy school, so I didn't do very well.
.....

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