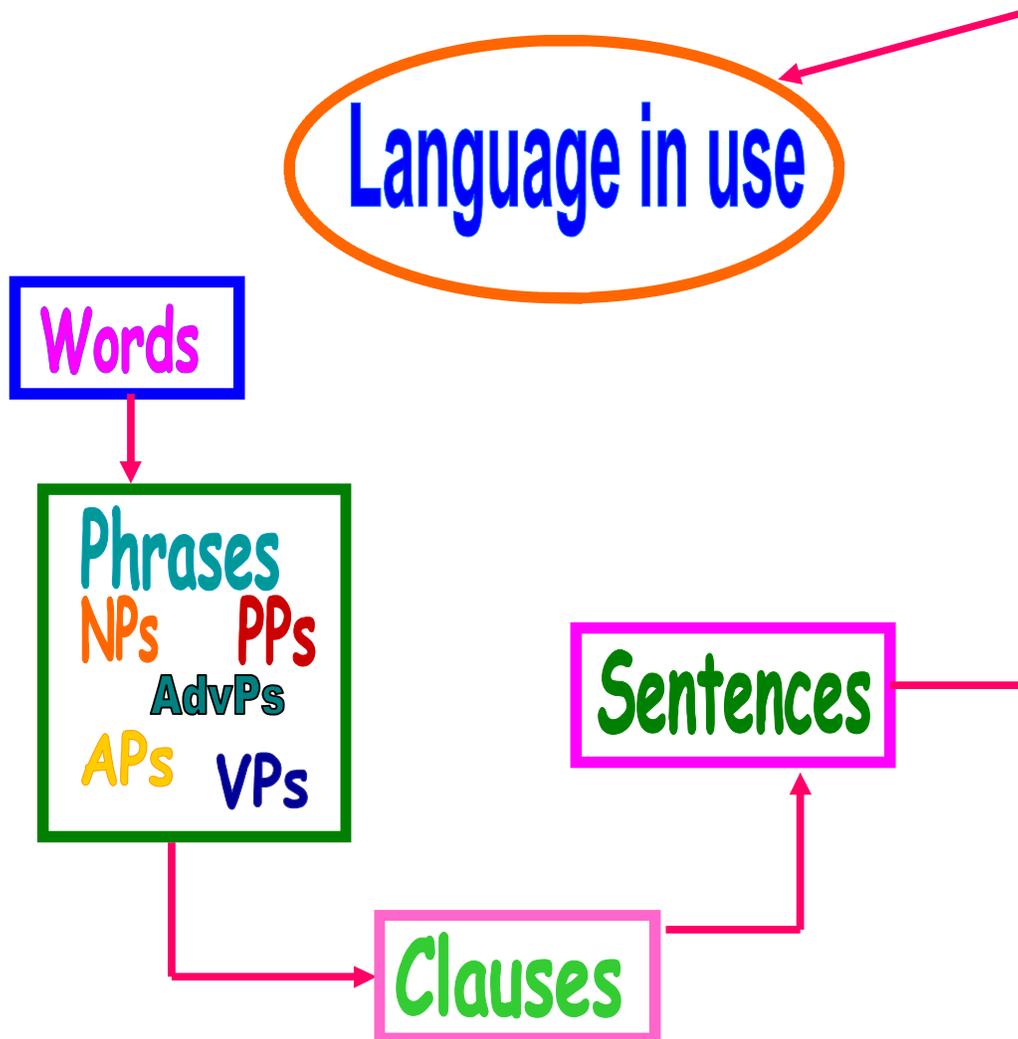


UNIVERSIDAD DE CARABOBO
FACULTAD DE CIENCIAS DE LA EDUCACIÓN
DEPARTAMENTO DE IDIOMAS MODERNOS
CÁTEDRA DE LINGÜÍSTICA Y GRAMÁTICA INGLESA

MY COMMUNICATIVE GRAMMAR STUDY GUIDE



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INDEX

Introduction	viii
PART I: The First Level of Grammar	1
Section 1.	
I.1. Parts of Speech	1
I.1.1. Semantic Criterion	2
I.1.2. Morphological Criterion	3
I.1.3. Syntactic Criterion	3
Section 2.	
I.2.1. Nouns: "The Naming Words"	5
I.2.2. Characteristics of Nouns	5
I.2.2.1. Noun Endings	5
I.2.2.2. Noun Markers	6
I.2.2.3. Number	7
I.2.2.4. Gender	10
I.2.3. Noun Classes	11
I.2.3.1. Concrete and Abstract Nouns	11
I.2.3.2. Common and Proper Nouns	11
I.2.3.3. Count and Non-count Nouns	12
I.2.4. Pronouns: A Subclass of Nouns	13
Section 3	
I.3.1. Determiners: The Specifiers of Nouns	16
I.3.2. Numerals and Determiners	19
I.3.3. The Ordering of Determiners	21
I.3.3.1. Predeterminers	21
I.3.3.2. Central Determiners.....	21
I.3.3.3. Postdeterminers	22
Section 4	
I.4.1. Adjectives: The Modifiers of Nouns	23
I.4.2. Characteristics of Adjectives	25
I.4.3. Attributive and Predicative Adjectives	27
I.4.4. Nominal Adjectives	28
I.4.5. The Ordering of Adjectives	29
I.4.6. Participial Adjectives	30

Section 10	
I.10.1 There and It as Minor Word Classes	72
I.10.1.1. The Existential <i>There</i>	72
I.10.1.2. Uses of <i>It</i>	72
PART II. The Second Level of Grammar Analysis	74
Section 1	
II.1.1. Phrases. The Constituents of Sentences	74
II.1.2. Defining a Phrase	74
Section 1.2.	
II.1.2.1. The Noun Phrase	77
II.1.2.1.1. Syntactic Functions of the Noun Phrase.....	80
Section 1.3.	
II.1.13.1. The Adjective Phrase	82
Section 1.4.	
II.1.4.1. The Prepositional Phrase	84
II.1.4.1.2. Syntactic Functions of the Noun Phrase	85
Section 1.4.	
II.1.5.1. The Verb Phrase	86
Section 1.6	
II.1.6.1. Adverb Phrase	87
Section 2	
II.2.1. Clauses and Sentences	90
II.2.1.1. Clauses	90
II.2.1.2. The Clause Hierarchy	91
II.2.1.3. Syntactic Classification of Clauses	93
II.2.1.4. Subordinate Clause Types	94
II.2.1.4.1. Relative Clauses	95
II.2.1.4.1. Small Clauses	96
II.2.1.5. Functions of the Subordinate Clause in the Sentence	97
II.2.2.2. Sentences	99
II.2.2.2. Sentence Classification	99
II.2.2.2.1. Declarative	100

II.2.2.2.2. Interrogative	100
II.2.2.2.3 Imperative	101
II.2.2.2.4. Exclamative	102
II.2.2.3. The Grammatical Hierarchy	103
II.2.2.4. Form and Function	105
II.2.2.4.1. Subject and Predicate	105
II.2.2.4.1.1. Subject	105
II.2.2.4.1.1.1. Subject-Verb Inversion ...	106
II.2.2.4.1.1.2. Position of the Subject ...	107
II.2.2.4.1.1.3. Subject-Verb Agreement	107
II.2.2.4.1.1.4. Subjective and	
Nominative Pronouns	108
II.2.2.4.1.1.5. Grammatical Realizations	
of the Subject	109
II.2.2.4.1.1.5.1. The NP Subject..	109
II.2.2.4.2.2.5.2. Clauses	
Functioning as Subjects.....	109
II.2.2.4.1.1.5.3. Prepositional	
Phrases as Subjects	110
II.2.2.4.1.1.5.4. Some unusual	
Subjects	110
II.2.2.4.1.2. Predicate.....	111
II.2.2.4.1.2.1 The Direct Object.....	112
II.2.2.4.1.2.1.1. Functions of	
The Direct Object	113
II.2.2.4.1.2.3. Indirect Object	114
II.2.2.4.1.2.3.1. Grammatical	
Realizations of the Indirect	
Object	115
II.2.2.4.1.3 Adjuncts	115
II.2.2.4.1.3.1. Noun Phrases	
Functioning as Adjuncts	116
II.2.2.4.1.3.2. Adverb Phrases	
Functioning as Adjuncts	116
II.2.2.4.1.3.3. Prepositional	
Phrases functioning as	
Adjuncts	116
III.2.2.4.1.3.4. Clauses	
Functioning as Adjuncts	117
II.2.2.3. Sentence Patterns from a Functional Perspective.....	118

PART III. Language in Use.

Section 1.

III.1.1. Modal Verbs	120
III.1.1.1. May	121
III.1.1.1.1 Present and Future Permission or Possibility.....	121
III.1.1.1.1a.Possibility.....	122
III.1.1.1.1.b. Permission.....	122
III.1.1.1.2. May be and Maybe.....	123
III.1.1.1.3. May in the Past.....	123
III.1.1.1.3.a. Direct Speech.....	123
III.1.1.1.3.b. Indirect Speech	123
III.1.1.2. Might.....	125
III.1.1.2.1. Present and Future Possibility.....	125
III.1.1.2.2. Important Aspects.....	125
III.1.1.2.3. Asking Permission and Making Requests.....	125
III.1.1.2.4. Might in Indirect Speech.....	127
III.1.1.3. Can	128
III.1.1.3.1. Ability.....	128
III.1.1.3.2. Asking and Giving Permission	129
III.1.1.3.3. Can/Could in Indirect Speech	131
III.1.1.4. Could	132
III.1.1.4.1. Polite Requests.....	132
III.1.1.4.2. Ability in the Past	133
III.1.1.4.3. Possibility	134
III.1.1.4.4. Unreal Conditions	135
III.1.1.4.5. Could Have.....	136
III.1.1.4.6. Couldn't Have	137
III.1.1.4.7. Unreal Past Conditions.....	138
III.1.1.4.8. Special Expressions	138
III.1.1.5. Shall	139
III.1.1.5.1. Intention/Advisability.....	139
III.1.1.5.2. Expressing Determination.....	140
III.1.1.6. Should	141
III.1.1.6.1. Expectation	143
III.1.1.6.2. Should in If Clauses.....	144
III.1.1.6.3. Should Have	145
III.1.1.7. Will	147
III.1.1.7.1. Willingness	148

III.1.1.8. Would	148
III.1.1.8.1. Polite Requests	149
III.1.1.9. Must	150
III.1.1.9.1. Obligation	150
III.1.1.10. Ought to	152
Section 2	
III.2.1. Used to	153
III.2.1.1. Meaning	153
III.2.1.2. Form	153
III.2.2. Be used to	154
III.2.3. Get used to	155
Section 3	
III.3.1. Emphasis	156
III.3.1.1. Focus and Emphasis in the Phonological Form	156
III.3.1.2. Morphological or Lexical Emphasis	157
III.3.1.3. Syntactic Emphasis	157
III.3.1.4. Passive Voice as a Syntactic Device for Emphasis	159
Section 4	
III.4.1. Reported or Indirect Speech	161
III.4.1.1. Using the Reported Speech	161
III.4.1.2. Changing Pronouns and Time Signifiers	162
III.4.1.3. Indirect Questions	162
III.4.1.4. Summary of Reported Speech Tense Changes	163
III.4.1.5. Modals in Reported Speech	164
III.4.1.6. Reported Questions	164
Section 5	
III.5.1. Passive Voice	166
III.5.1.1. Form	166
III.5.1.1.1. Simple Present	166
III.5.1.1.2. Simple Past	166
III.5.1.1.3. Other forms of the Passive	166
III.5.1.1.3.1. Present Progressive	166
III.5.1.1.3.2. Past Progressive	167
III.5.1.1.3.3. Present Perfect	167
III.5.1.1.3.4. Past Perfect	167
III.5.1.1.3.5. Future Perfect	167
III.5.1.2. Passive Voice and Modal Verbs	167
III.5.1.2.1. Present and Future	167
III.5.1.2.2. Past	168

III.5.1.2.3. Present/ Future Passive Infinitive	168
III.5.1.2.4. Past Passive Infinitive	168
III.5.1.2.5. Present Perfect Progressive	168
III.5.1.2.6. Past Perfect Progressive	169
III.5.1.2.7. Future Perfect Progressive	169
III.5.2. Using the Passive Voice	169
III.5.2.1. Verbs taking the Passive Voice	170
III.5.2.2. Passive with Direct and Indirect Objects...	172
Selected Exercises	174
Answers to Selected Exercises	216
Appendix 1. Contrastive Analysis of at, in, on	248
Appendix 2. Modal Verbs	255
Appendix 3. Sentence Diagrams	262

INTRODUCTION

The material presented here is the result of many hours of electronic search and the reading of grammar text books; compiling, adopting and adapting materials, making them suitable to actual students' needs.

Our primary intention was to produce a teaching material to be used with students of '*Gramática Comunicativa*'. That is, a material fitting the syllabus of that course. However, during the process of production, the fact that language is a system of systems and that they must be developed together became more real than ever. Therefore, the result is a material that may be used with those students, and with other students in '*Práctica del Idioma*,' '*Morfosintaxis*,' '*Lectura y Composición*' o '*Gramática Pedagógica*' because what it presents is a compilation of the notions needed to use language properly.

This material is not intended to be a textbook, not even a course book. It is a handy and affordable study guide to be used, either by the students themselves or with the help of the teacher, any time they need to clarify a grammar notion. As pointed above, it is the compilation of the notions of grammar adapted to the students' needs, providing examples and explanations, using a vocabulary appropriate to students of English as a foreign language. It also introduces the students to a set of selected 'getting started' exercises that can be expanded by the teacher, as practice in the classroom or homework, or by the students themselves using the electronic addresses provided in each case.

The Study Guide is presented in three Parts with separate Sections: Part I introduces the parts of speech needed to produce correct English sentences and explains the three criteria used for their analyses. Part II introduces the student to a second level of analysis; the combination of words into phrases, clauses and sentences. Finally Part III deals with language in use and communication.

When needed to clarify a point or to elaborate further on a specific notion, appendixes have been provided. A section with the answers to the selected exercises is also contained in the Guide.

Colour is important in this Study Guide. Every part of speech has been presented with a different colour. **Nouns** are orange; **Verbs** are dark blue and so on. Gradually, as the students view and review the different sections, they will associate colours and grammatical functions and this association becomes especially useful when analysing phrases and sentences.

Italics have been used within the paragraphs any time a specific part of speech is pointed out to distinguish them from the rest of the speech and diagrams have been used any time it has been considered convenient to elaborate a better explanation of the notion in question, especially in the case of prepositions.

In order to accommodate this Study Guide to the books used in other courses, the spelling used corresponds to the one used in British English. However, we consider it convenient to give the students the American English spelling version since they are in contact with reading material, and electronic texts written in this variety. Following Linguistics conventions, we have used an asterisk to point out the ungrammatical or unacceptable sentences or utterances used as examples.

I would like to point out that this is the first version of a study guide that pretends to be enriched by teachers' and students' products and comments. It is important to enlarge the set of exercises; so I invite you all to create new exercise corpora.

Teachers should feel free to use the Guide in any order they consider convenient to achieve teaching goals. You should also feel free to modify or provide diagrams you may find to be better than those presented here. Help me improve the guide with your valuable comments and new proposals.

I do hope you find this Study Guide useful and practical.

Ligia.

PART I

Section 1

The First Level of Grammar

I.1 PARTS OF SPEECH

Words or **parts of speech** are fundamental units in every sentence; therefore it is absolutely necessary to distinguish them to use the language properly. They can be exemplified for English as follows:

Noun	John, room, happiness, <u>play</u>
Pronoun	I, he, they, anybody, one, which
Determiner	The, a/an, <u>that</u> , this, two, many, few
Adjective	Happy, steady, new, large, <u>round</u> , <u>friendly</u>
Verb	Search, grow, <u>play</u> , be, have, do, <u>round</u>
Adverb	Steadily, <u>friendly</u> , completely, often, always
Preposition	In, on, at, without, in site of
Conjunction	And, <u>that</u> , when, although
Interjection	Oh, ah, ugh, phew

Notice that some of the parts of speech are presented in colored cells. The reason for this is because we want you to remember that most of the times, these words appear together with other words in the sentence forming phrases. Later, in this guide, we will study Noun Phrases (NPs) and Verb Phrases (VPs) as the main constituents of the sentences as well as Adjectival Phrases (APs), Prepositional Phrases (PPs) and Adverbial Phrases (AdvPs) as constituents.

Those colored parts of speech are also known as **major** or **open class** of words because they can be created anew. We as speakers of a language may invent new **nouns**, new **verbs**, new **adjectives**, etc. However, we cannot create new **prepositions** or new **determiners**. For this reason, the parts of the speech that are presented in non-colored cells are called **closed class** of words.

Even though pronouns belong to this last class of words, here they are presented with the same color of nouns (although clearer) since they are considered a subclass of nouns in the sense that in many occasions they substitute nouns.

Words or parts of speech that belong to the closed class are as important as open class words and they play a central grammatical role in the sentence.

Prepositions are almost always used with nouns to form **PPs** and they add important meaning. **Conjunctions** introduce clauses¹ which are sentences within sentences, and **Interjections** play an important role in the discourse.

It is also very important to notice that some of the examples appear as more than one part of speech: *play* as a noun and verb, *that* as a determiner and conjunction and *round* as adjective and verb. The fact that a word may play more than one lexical function should not cause confusion. Instead, it highlights an important principle in grammar, known as **gradience**. This refers to the fact that the boundaries between the word classes are not absolutely fixed. Many word classes share characteristics with others, and there is considerable overlap between some of the classes.

Therefore, in order to conduct an informed study of grammar, we need a much more reliable and more systematic method than this for distinguishing between word classes.

We use a combination of three criteria for determining the word class of a word:

1. The meaning of the word (Semantic criterion)
2. The form or “shape” of the word (Morphological criterion)
3. The position or “environment” of the word in a sentence (Syntactic criterion)

1.1.1. Semantic Criterion

Using this criterion, we generalize about the kind of meanings that words convey. For example, we could group together the words *John*, *room*, and *table* on the basis that they all refer to people, places, or things. In fact, this has traditionally been a popular approach to determining members of the class of **nouns**. It has also been applied to **verbs**, by saying that they denote some kind of “action” like *search*, or *play*, or a “state” like *be* or *grow*.

This approach has certain merits, since it allows us to determine word classes by replacing words in a sentence with words of “similar” meaning. For instance, in the sentence

My **son** plays soccer every Sunday

We can replace the word **son** by any other word that refers to people:

My **husband** plays soccer every Sunday
My **brother** plays soccer every Sunday

¹ We will study clauses in a later Section.

On the basis of this replacement test, we can conclude that all of these words belong to the same class, that of “**naming**” words, or **nouns**.

However, this approach also has some serious limitations. The definition of a noun as a word denoting a person, place, or thing, is wholly inadequate, since it excludes abstract nouns such as *time*, *imagination*, *repetition*, *wisdom*, and *chance*. So although this criterion has certain validity when applied to some words, we need other, more stringent criteria as well.

I.1.2. The Morphological Criterion.

Some words can be assigned to a word class on the basis of their form or “shape”.

For example, many nouns have a characteristic *-tion* ending:

action, condition, contemplation, demonstration, organization, repetition

Similarly, many adjectives end in *-able* or *-ible*:

acceptable, credible, miserable, responsible, suitable, terrible

Many words also take what are called INFLECTIONS, that is, regular changes in their form under certain conditions. For example, nouns can take a plural inflection, usually by adding an *-s* at the end:

car	cars
dinner	dinners
book	books

Verbs also take inflections:

walk -- walks -- walked -- walking

I.1.3. The Syntactic Criterion:

This criterion refers to where words typically occur in a sentence, and the kinds of words which typically occur near to them. We can illustrate the use of this criterion using a simple example. Compare the following:

1. I *cook* dinner everyday
2. The *cook* is busy today.

In [1], *cook* is a verb, but in [2], it is a noun. We can see that it is a verb in [1] because it may take the inflections which are typical of verbs:

He **cooks** dinner everyday. I **cooked** dinner last night. I am **cook**ing**** dinner now

And we can see that *cook* is a noun in [2] because it may take the plural -s inflection and because it is preceded by the definite article *the*

The **cooks** are busy today.

In conclusion, It should be clear from this discussion that there is **no one-to-one relation** between words and their classes. It all depends on how the word is used. Here are some more examples:

Turn on the **light** (noun)
I'm trying to **light** the fire (verb)
I want a **light** dinner (adjective)

PART I

SECTION 2

I.2.1 NOUNS: THE "NAMING" WORDS.

Nouns are commonly thought of as "naming" words, and specifically as the names of tangible and **concrete** things, persons or places. Nouns such as *Mary*, *Caracas*, and *table* certainly fit this description, but the class of nouns is much broader than this, nouns also denote **abstract** and intangible concepts such as *beauty*, *happiness*, *solution*, *technology*, *direction*, *revenge*, *politics*, *hope*, *love*, etc.

So, because of their meaning or function in the language, **nouns are the words that name**. However, by now you know that it is not very useful to study nouns solely in terms of their meaning. It is much more fruitful to consider them from the point of view of their formal characteristics:

I.2.2 Characteristics of Nouns

Nouns possess certain characteristics that allow us to recognize them:

I.2.2.1 Noun Endings:

Many nouns can be recognized by their endings:

Typical noun endings include:

-ion	<i>action, condition, contemplation</i>
-er/-or	<i>actor, worker, placer, examiner</i>
-ism	<i>fundamentalism, criticism, capitalism</i>
-ist	<i>economist, artist, dentist</i>
-ment	<i>management, government, establishment</i>
-tion	<i>prediction, destruction, election</i>
-ee	<i>employee, examinee</i>
-ness	<i>sadness, darkness</i>
-ity	<i>diversity, availability</i>

I.2.2.2: Noun Markers

- We can recognize many nouns because they often are preceded by determiners such as *the*, *a*, *some*, etc.; with which they form a noun phrase. Noun phrases will be studied in detail later in this course.

the book
a book
some books
an actor
the actor
some actors

- Nouns may take GENITIVE MARKER (an -'s) to indicate possession:

the student's book
a bee's hive
my friend's brother
Mary's house

If the noun already has an -s ending to mark the plural, then the genitive marker appears only as an apostrophe after the plural form:

the boys' pens
the spiders' webs
the Browns' house

The genitive marker should not be confused with the 's form of contracted verbs, as in *John's a good boy* (= *John is a good boy*).

Nouns often co-occur without a genitive marker between them, especially when they refer to inanimate or non-human objects or things

rally car
the legs of the table

We will look at these in more detail later, when we discuss noun phrases.

Exercises on page 174

I.2.2.3 Number

Most nouns have distinctive SINGULAR and PLURAL forms. The plural of regular nouns is formed by adding -s to the singular as shown in the following table

Singular	Plural
<i>car</i>	<i>cars</i>
<i>dog</i>	<i>dogs</i>
<i>house</i>	<i>houses</i>

Nevertheless, spelling creates numerous exceptions:

1. Nouns ending in **-y** take an **-s** as plural inflection:
 - a) with proper names: the Kennedys
 - b) when the -y is preceded by a vowel: boy-boys

However, when the **-y** is preceded by a consonant, the -y changes to **i** and **-es** is added to the root: spy-spies

2. Nouns ending in **-o** have plural in **-os** with some exceptions having either optional or obligatory **-oes**:
 - a) Nouns accepting **-os** and **-oes** plurals: archipelago, banjo, buffalo, cargo, commando, flamingo, halo, motto, tornado, volcano.
 - b) Nouns accepting only **-oes** plurals: echo, embargo, hero, Negro, potato, tomato, torpedo, veto.
3. Compound nouns (nouns with two or more elements) form their plural in different ways:

a) plural in the first element:

notary public notaries public

passer by passers by

mother in law mothers in law

man of war men of war

b) plural in both first and last element:

gentleman farmer gentlemen farmers

woman doctor women doctors
manservant menservants

c) plural in last element:

assistant director assistant directors
boy friend boy friends
breakdown breakdowns
take off take offs

4. However, there are many irregular nouns which do not form the plural by adding -s or -es. See for example:

Singular	Plural
<i>man</i>	<i>men</i>
<i>child</i>	<i>children</i>
<i>sheep</i>	<i>sheep</i>

Irregular plurals are by definition unpredictable and have to be learned as individual items.

1. Mutation: as in the first example in the chart above, mutation involves a change of vowel: foot-feet, tooth-teeth, goose-geese, louse-lice mouse-mice, woman-women.
2. As in child-children, -en is also the plural inflection for: ox-oxen and brother-brethren when it refers to a religious society; otherwise brothers is the regular plural form.
3. Zero plural as in sheep and fish.

Other forms of irregular plurals are the ones added to nouns with latin or greek roots:

Latin roots:

1. **-i** is added to nouns ending in -us : stimulus-stimuli; alumnus-alumni; bacillus-bacilli.
2. **-ae** is added to nouns ending in -a: alga-**algae**; larva-lar**vae**.
3. **-a** is added to nouns ending in -um: curriculum-curricula; stratum-strata; bacterium-bacteria.

Greek roots:

1. **-ices** is added to nouns ending in **-ex, -ix**: index-**indices**; codex-**codices**; matrix-**matrices**.
2. **-es** is added to nouns ending in **-is**: basis-**bases**; hypothesis-**hypotheses**, crisis-**crises**.
3. **-a** is added to nouns ending in **-on**: criterion-**criteria**; phenomenon-**phenomena**.

5. On the other hand, there are many names that end in **-s** but have a singular referent. They take a singular verb; for instance:

1. news:

The news is bad today.

2. some diseases: measles, mumps, shingles, etc.

Measles is a serious disease.

3. subject names: linguistics, phonetics, etc.

Phonetics is my favourite subject.

4. some games: billiards, checkers, darts, etc

Checkers is an interesting game.

5. some proper nouns. Athens, Naples, The United States. Etc.

Naples is a beautiful city.

There are other nouns that are invariably plural:

1. Tools and articles of dress consisting of two equal parts which are joined: Scissors, pincers, tongs, binoculars, pants, trousers, suspenders, etc.
2. Other nouns such as: amends, annals, ashes, arms (weapons), bowels, brains (intellect), customs, savings (a savings bank), thanks, series, species, etc.
3. Nouns with unmarked plurals: cattle, gentry, people (peoples when it refers to nations), police, youth, etc.

Find exercises on page 175

I.2.2.4 Gender:

Gender is another characteristic of nouns although English makes very few gender distinctions. Unlike Spanish it is further typical of English that special suffixes are not generally used to mark gender distinctions.

When it refers to people there are two types of gender derivation:

a) morphologically unmarked for gender:

Masculine	Feminine
father	mother
brother	sister
grandfather	grandmother
boy	girl
gentleman	lady
king	queen
uncle	aunt
monk	nun

b) morphologically marked for gender:

Masculine	Feminine
bridegroom	bride
duke	duchess
god	goddes
hero	heroine
host	hostess
widower	widow
steward	stewardess
waiter	waitress

c) personal dual gender: this is the largest class

Masculine or feminine
Artist
Musician
Servant
Speaker
Doctor
Teacher
Novelist
Writer
Servant
Friend
Student
Child

For clarity, it is sometimes necessary to use a 'gender marker': boy friend, male nurse, etc.

d) common gender: used with babies (when the sex is unknown or by people not emotionally involved with the child) or with animals when you are not referring to personal pets.

e) means of transportations such as ships, boats, etc. are usually referred as feminine:

That is a great ship, she was built in 1920.

I.2.3 NOUN CLASSES

I.2.3.1 Concrete and abstract nouns:

In Section I.2.1. we already introduced the notion of **concrete nouns**; that is, nouns that name concrete things, persons or places: *Mary, Caracas, table* and of **abstract nouns** which refer to abstract and/or intangible concepts: *happiness, beauty, revenge*

I.2.3.2 Common and proper nouns

Nouns which name specific people, places, countries, months, days, holidays, magazines and so forth are known as **proper nouns**.

John
Caracas
Italy
November
Friday
Christmas
Cosmopolitan

Many names consist of more than one word:

John Wesley
Queen Mary
South Africa
Atlantic Ocean
Buckingham Palace

All other nouns are **common nouns**.

Since proper nouns usually refer to something or someone unique, they do not normally take plurals. However, they may do so, especially when number is being specifically referred to:

There are three *Davids* in my class
We met two *Christmases* ago

For the same reason, names of people and places are not normally preceded by determiners *the* or *a/an* , though they can be in certain circumstances:

A Mrs. Smith called you this morning.
The Dr. Jones you want to see works at the Mayo Clinic.

Or when the article is part of the name itself:

The Washington Post; The Atlantic Ocean, The Himalayas

1.2.3.3 Count and non-count nouns

Common nouns are either count or non-count. **COUNT** nouns can be "counted", as follows:

one *book* , two *books* , three *books* , four *books* ...

NON-COUNT nouns, on the other hand, cannot be counted in this way:

one *furniture* , *two *furnitures* , *three *furnitures* , *four *furnitures* ...

From the point of view of grammar, this means that count nouns have singular as well as plural forms, whereas non-count nouns have only a singular form.

It also means that non-count nouns do not take *a/an* before them:

Count	Non-count
a book	*a furniture

They may however take some or other quantifiers:

Non-count
some furniture
a piece of luggage

In general, non-count nouns are considered to refer to indivisible wholes. For this reason, they are sometimes called **MASS** nouns.

Some common nouns may be either count or non-count, depending on the kind of reference they have. For example, in *I made a cake*, *cake* is a count noun, and the *a* before it indicates singular number. However, in *I like cake*, or *I want some cake* the reference is less specific. It refers to "cake in general", and so *cake* is non-count in this sentence.

Find exercises on page 175

I.2.4 Pronouns: A subclass of Nouns

Pronouns are a major subclass of nouns. We call them a subclass of nouns because they can sometimes replace a noun in a sentence:

Noun	Pronoun
<i>John</i> got a new job	~ <i>He</i> got a new job
<i>Children</i> should watch less television	~ <i>They</i> should watch less television

Semantically speaking, pronouns have the same reference as the nouns which they replace. In the case above, they refer to people, and so we call them **PERSONAL PRONOUNS**. There are three personal pronouns, and each has a singular and a plural form:

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	<i>I</i>	<i>we</i>
2nd	<i>you</i>	<i>you</i>
3rd	<i>he/she/it</i>	<i>they</i>

These pronouns also have another set of forms, which we show here:

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	<i>me</i>	<i>us</i>
2nd	<i>you</i>	<i>you</i>
3rd	<i>him/her/it</i>	<i>them</i>

The first set of forms (*I, you, he...*) exemplifies the SUBJECTIVE CASE, and the second set (*me, you, him...*) exemplifies the OBJECTIVE CASE. The distinction between the two cases relates to how they can be used in sentences or phrases. For instance, in our first example above, we say that *he* can replace *John*

<i>John</i> got a new job	~ <i>He</i> got a new job
---------------------------	---------------------------

But *he* cannot replace *John* in *I gave John a new job* or in *I bought a book for John*. Here, we have to use the objective form *him*:

I gave <i>John</i> a new job	I gave <i>him</i> a new job
I bought a book for <i>John</i>	I bought a book for <i>him</i>

In other words, pronouns after transitive verbs and after preposition take the objective case, whereas pronouns acting as subject of verbs take the subjective case.

As well as personal pronouns, there are many other types, which we summarize here.

Pronoun Type	Members of the Subclass	Example
Possessive	<i>mine, yours, his, hers, ours, theirs</i>	The book is <i>mine</i>
Reflexive	<i>myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, oneself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves</i>	She hurt <i>herself</i> with the kitchen knife.
Reciprocal	<i>each other, one another</i>	They really love <i>each other</i>
Relative	<i>that, which, who, whose, whom, where, when</i>	The book <i>that</i> you gave me was interesting
Demonstrative	<i>this, that, these, those</i>	<i>This</i> is a new car
Interrogative	<i>who, what, why, where, when, whatever</i>	<i>What</i> did he say to you?
Indefinite	<i>anything, anybody, anyone, something, somebody, someone, nothing, nobody, none, no one</i>	Something funny happened last night

Case and number distinctions do not apply to all pronoun types. In fact, they apply only to personal pronouns, possessive pronouns, and reflexive pronouns. It is only in

these types, too, that gender differences are shown (personal *he/she*, possessive *his/hers*, reflexive *himself/herself*). All other types are unvarying in their form.

Many of the pronouns listed above also belong to another word class - the class of **DETERMINERS**. They are pronouns when they occur independently, that is, without a noun following them, as in *This is a new car*. But when a noun follows them - *This car is new* - they are determiners. We will look at determiners in the next section.

A major difference between pronouns and nouns generally is that pronouns do not take *the* or *a/an* before them. Further, pronouns do not take adjectives before them, except in very restricted constructions involving some indefinite pronouns (*a little something, a certain someone*).

Finally, remember that while the class of nouns as a whole is an open class, the subclass of pronouns is closed.

Find exercises on page 175

PART I

SECTION 3

I.3.1 DETERMINERS: THE SPECIFIERS OF NOUNS

Determiners specify the range of reference of a noun in various ways; eg., by making it definite, indefinite, or by indicating amount or quantity. Determiners in English are:

Articles	Definite <i>the</i> ; indefinite <i>a/an</i>
Demonstratives	<i>This, that, these, those</i>
Possessives	<i>My, your, his, her, its, our, their</i>
Quantifiers	<i>Many, some, few, little, all (of), both, etc.</i>
Numerals	<i>One, two, three, first, second, last, etc.</i>
Expressions like	<i>Whatever, whoever, whichever, etc.</i>
Genitive	Peter 's book

Since the articles are the determiners more commonly used, they deserve a further explanation:

- The indefinite article *a/an* is used with singular countable nouns for indefinite meaning: I bought **a** book yesterday.
- For plural countable nouns with indefinite meaning the quantifier *some* or numerals are used: I bought **some** books/ I bought **two** books yesterday.
- For uncountable or mass nouns *some* is used: I need to buy **some** sugar.
- The definite article can be used with all kinds of nouns with definite meaning, either singular or plural, except with most proper nouns, when:
 1. identity has been established by an earlier mention:

*John bought a TV and **a radio** but he returned **the** radio.*
 2. identity is established by the postmodification:

*John returned **the radio that he bought yesterday***

3. the object or group of objects is the only one that exists or has existed:

the stars, the sun, the moon, the North Pole

4. reference is made to an institution shared by the community:

the radio, the television, the telephone.

5. plural countable nouns when used with a generic meaning NEVER take the definite article, in other words, they take ZERO article:

Children are adorable (referring to children in general)

But: *the children at the kindergarten.* (a specific group of children)

Also notice the following sentences with generic meaning

Tigers are animals in danger of extinction.

The tiger is an animal in danger of extinction.

A tiger is an animal in danger of extinction.

But never: * *The tigers are animals in danger of extinction.*

Recall that in Section 1 we already introduced the notion that proper names do not take articles unless they are part of the name itself:

Peter, New York, *The New York Times*

And also that in colloquial speech you can find proper names determined by articles:

A Peter called you this morning.

The doctor Smith I was referring to is the one who works at the Medical Center.

Finally, some common nouns without article may occur in idiomatic expressions or colloquial speech. In the following table you will find some of them:

Without article		With article
Institutions/Places		
Be in Go to	bed church prison Hospital	lie down on <i>the</i> bed walk towards <i>the</i> church drive past <i>the</i> prison look for <i>the</i> hospital
Be at	college school sea Home (go home)	The college is the new building go into the school look out towards the sea A university is the home of learning
Be in Lives in	town	Approach the town
Means of Transport		
travel leave by come	bicycle bus car boat/ship train plane	ride on <i>the</i> bicycle sit in <i>the</i> bus sleep in <i>the</i> car disembark from <i>the</i> ship catch <i>the</i> train board the plane
Times of day/night		
They met at	dawn/daybreak sunrise/sunset noon/midnight dusk/ twilight night	during <i>the</i> dawn admire <i>the</i> sunset in <i>the</i> afternoon invisible in <i>the</i> dusk wake up in <i>the</i> night
Meals		
It is lunch time I just had supper/breakfast.... Dinner will be served at 6.		Where you at <i>the</i> lunch for Mary? <i>The</i> supper was cold <i>The</i> dinner was delicious
Parallel Phrases		
They walk arm in arm/hand in hand They are husband and wife We met face to face		He took her by <i>the</i> arm/hand She's <i>the</i> wife of a famous artist He punched me right in <i>the</i> face

Exercises on page 176

I.3.2. Numerals and Determiners

Numerals are **determiners** when they appear before a noun. In this position, cardinal numerals express quantity:

one book
two books
twenty books

In the same position, ordinal numerals express sequence:

first impressions
second chance
third prize

The subclass of ordinals includes a set of words which are not directly related to numbers (as *first* is related to *one*, *second* is related to *two*, etc). These are called general ordinals, and they include *last*, *latter*, *next*, *previous*, and *subsequent*. These words also function as determiners:

next week
last orders
previous engagement
subsequent developments

When they do not come before a noun, as we have already seen, numerals are a subclass of nouns. And like nouns, they can take determiners:

the two of us
the first of many

They can even have numerals as determiners before them:

five twos are ten

In this example, *twos* is a plural noun and it has the determiner *five* before it.

As explained in Section 2, there is considerable overlap between the determiner class and the subclass of pronouns. Many words can be both:

Pronoun	Determiner
<i>This</i> is a very boring book	<i>This</i> book is very boring
<i>That's</i> an excellent film	<i>That</i> film is excellent

As this table shows, determiners always come before a noun, but pronouns are more independent than this. They function in much the same way as nouns, and they can be replaced by nouns in the sentences above:

<i>This</i> is a very boring book	~ <i>Ivanhoe</i> is a very boring book
<i>That's</i> an excellent film	~ <i>Witness</i> is an excellent film

On the other hand, when these words are determiners, they cannot be replaced by nouns:

<i>This</i> book is very boring	~ * <i>Ivanhoe</i> book is very boring
<i>That</i> film is excellent	~ * <i>Witness</i> film is excellent

The personal pronouns (*I, you, he*, etc) cannot be determiners. This is also true of the possessive pronouns (*mine, yours, his/hers, ours, and theirs*). However, these pronouns do have corresponding forms which are determiners:

Possessive Pronoun	Determiner
The white car is <i>mine</i>	<i>My</i> car is white
<i>Yours</i> is the blue coat	<i>Your</i> coat is blue
The car in the garage is <i>his/hers</i>	<i>His/her</i> car is in the garage
David's house is big, but <i>ours</i> is bigger	<i>Our</i> house is bigger than David's
<i>Theirs</i> is the house on the left	<i>Their</i> house is on the left

The definite and the indefinite articles can never be pronouns. They are always **determiners**.

Exercises on page 176.

I.3.3. The Ordering of Determiners:

Determiners occur before nouns, and they indicate the kind of reference which the nouns have. Depending on their relative position before a noun, we distinguish three classes of determiners.

	Predeterminer	Central Determiner	Postdeterminer	Noun
I met	<i>all</i>	<i>my</i>	<i>many</i>	friends

A sentence like this is somewhat unusual, because it is rare for all three determiner slots to be filled in the same sentence. Generally, only one or two slots are filled.

I.3.3.1. Predeterminers

Predeterminers specify quantity in the noun which follows them, and they are of three major types:

1. "Multiplying" expressions, including expressions ending in *times*:

twice my salary
double my salary
ten times my salary

2. Fractions

half my salary
one-third my salary

3. The words *all* and *both*:

all my salary
both my salaries

Predeterminers do not normally co-occur:

**all half* my salary

I.3.3.2. Central Determiners

Central determiners may be preceded by predeterminers and followed by postdeterminers:

1. The definite article *the* and the indefinite article *a/an* are the most common central determiners

all *the* book
half *a* chapter

2. As many of our previous examples show, the word *my* can also occupy the central determiner slot. This is equally true of the other possessives:

all *your* money
all *his/her* money
all *our* money
all *their* money

3. The demonstratives, too, are central determiners:

all *these* problems
twice *that* size
four times *this* amount

I .3.3.3. Postdeterminers

Postdeterminers follow central determiners:

1. Cardinal and ordinal numerals occupy the postdeterminer slot:

the *two* children
his *fourth* birthday

2. This applies also to general ordinals:

my *next* project
our *last* meeting
your *previous* remark
her *subsequent* letter

3. Other quantifying expressions are also postdeterminers:

my *many* friends
our *several* achievements
the *few* friends that I have

4. Unlike predeterminers, postdeterminers can co-occur:

my *next two* projects
several other people

Exercises on page 177

PART I

SECTION 4

I.4.1 ADJECTIVES: THE MODIFIERS OF NOUNS

Following the criteria we have been using in this manual to study parts of speech, we may begin by saying that adjectives typically describe an attribute of a noun:

cloudy weather *sad* woman *large* table

Morphologically, some adjectives can be identified by their endings. Typical adjectives ending include:

<i>-able/-ible</i>	<i>achievable, capable, illegible, remarkable</i>
<i>-y</i>	<i>noisy, easy, cloudy, tidy</i>
<i>-ish</i>	<i>childish, boyish, mannish</i>
<i>-al</i>	<i>biographical, functional, internal, logical</i>
<i>-like</i>	<i>businesslike, childlike</i>
<i>-ful</i>	<i>beautiful, careful, grateful, harmful</i>
<i>-ic</i>	<i>cubic, manic, rustic, terrific</i>
<i>-ive</i>	<i>attractive, dismissive, inventive, persuasive</i>
<i>-less</i>	<i>breathless, careless, groundless, restless</i>
<i>-ous</i>	<i>courageous, dangerous, disastrous, fabulous</i>
<i>-ly</i>	<i>daily, friendly, hourly</i>

Adjectives ending in *-ly* are, sometimes, mistakenly considered **adverbs**, since many adverbs (especially those derived from adjectives) also end in *-ly*. On the other hand, some of these can be used in both ways:

1. I had my **daily** pill

2. I have a pill **daily**

But remember the adjective modifies the noun. In [1] *daily* modifies the noun *pill*. A *daily pill* is the pill that you take everyday; whereas in [2] the adverb *daily* modifies the verb; that is *I have a pill daily* means that you have a pill everyday.

Particles *-ed* and *-ing* which are used to form gerund and participles may also function as adjectives:

This woman is suffering a lot This is a **suffering** woman
The game excited the audience This is an **excited** audience

-ed is also added to nouns to form adjectives:

This is a **three-legged** table

And a noun may be the modifier (function as adjective) of another noun:

He is a **bus** driver

Remember, however, it is a noun playing a modifier function but it is not an adjective, because:

Firstly, they do not take *very* or any other intensifier

*a very *rally* car
*a very *saloon* car
*a very *family* car

Secondly, they do not have comparative or superlative forms:

*rallier *ralliest /*more rally /*most rally
*salooner *saloonest /*more saloon /*most saloon
*familier *familiest /*more family /*most family

And finally, they cannot occur in predicative position:

*the car is *rally*
*the car is *saloon*
*the car is *family*

A large number of very common adjectives cannot be identified by their endings. They do not have typical adjectival form:

<i>bad</i>	<i>distant</i>	<i>quiet</i>
<i>bright</i>	<i>elementary</i>	<i>real</i>
<i>clever</i>	<i>good</i>	<i>red</i>
<i>cold</i>	<i>great</i>	<i>silent</i>
<i>common</i>	<i>honest</i>	<i>simple</i>
<i>complete</i>	<i>hot</i>	<i>strange</i>
<i>dark</i>	<i>main</i>	<i>wicked</i>
<i>deep</i>	<i>morose</i>	<i>wide</i>
<i>difficult</i>	<i>old</i>	<i>young</i>

As this list shows, adjectives are formally very diverse. However, they have a number of characteristics which we can use to identify them.

I.4.2.Characteristics of Adjectives

Adjectives can take a modifying word, such as *very*, *extremely*, or *less*, before them:

<i>Very</i>	<i>cold</i>	weather
<i>extremely</i>	<i>large</i>	windows
<i>less</i>	<i>violent</i>	storms

Here, the modifying word locates the adjective on a scale of comparison, at a position higher or lower than the one indicated by the adjective alone.

This characteristic is known as GRADABILITY. Most adjectives are gradable, though if the adjective already denotes the highest position on a scale, then it is non-gradable:

my <i>main</i> reason for coming	~*my very <i>main</i> reason for coming
the <i>principal</i> role in the play	~*the very <i>principal</i> role in the play

As well as taking modifying words like *very* and *extremely*, adjectives also take different forms to indicate their position on a scale of comparison:

big bigger biggest

The lowest point on the scale is known as the ABSOLUTE form, the middle point is known as the COMPARATIVE form, and the highest point is known as the SUPERLATIVE form. Here are some more examples:

Absolute	Comparative	Superlative
<i>dark</i>	<i>darker</i>	<i>darkest</i>
<i>new</i>	<i>newer</i>	<i>newest</i>
<i>old</i>	<i>older</i>	<i>oldest</i>
<i>young</i>	<i>younger</i>	<i>youngest</i>

In most cases, the comparative is formed by adding *-er*, and the superlative is formed by adding *-est*, to the absolute form. However, a number of very common adjectives are irregular in this respect:

Absolute	Comparative	Superlative
<i>good</i>	<i>better</i>	<i>best</i>
<i>bad</i>	<i>worse</i>	<i>worst</i>
<i>far</i>	<i>farther</i>	<i>farthest</i>

Some adjectives form the comparative and superlative using *more* and *most* respectively:

Absolute	Comparative	Superlative
<i>important</i>	<i>more important</i>	<i>most important</i>
<i>miserable</i>	<i>more miserable</i>	<i>most miserable</i>
<i>recent</i>	<i>more recent</i>	<i>most recent</i>

Exercises on page 178

I.4.3. Attributive and Predicative Adjectives

Most adjectives can occur both before and after a noun:

the <i>blue</i> sea	~ the sea is <i>blue</i>
the <i>old</i> man	~ the man is <i>old</i>
<i>happy</i> children	~ the children are <i>happy</i>

Adjectives in the first position - before the noun - are called **attributive adjectives**. Those in the second position - after the noun - are called **predicative adjectives**. Notice that predicative adjectives do not occur *immediately* after the noun. Instead, they follow a verb.

Sometimes an adjective *does* occur immediately after a noun, especially in certain institutionalized expressions:

The	Governor	<i>General</i>
the	Princess	<i>Royal</i>
times		<i>past</i>

We refer to these as **postpositive adjectives**. Postposition is obligatory when the adjective modifies a pronoun:

Something	<i>useful</i>
everyone	<i>present</i>
those	<i>responsible</i>

Postpositive adjectives are commonly found together with superlative, attributive adjectives:

The	<i>shortest</i>	route	<i>possible</i>
the	<i>worst</i>	conditions	<i>imaginable</i>
the	<i>best</i>	hotel	<i>available</i>

Most adjectives can freely occur in both the attributive and the predicative positions. However, a small number of adjectives are restricted to one position only. For example, the adjective *main* (the *main* reason) can only occur in the attributive position (predicative: *the reason is *main*). Conversely, the adjective *afraid* (the child was *afraid*) can only occur predicatively (attributive: *an *afraid* child).

Exercises on page 179

I.4.4. Nominal Adjectives:

Certain adjectives are used to denote a class by describing one of the attributes of the class. For example, *the poor* denotes a class of people who share a similar financial status. Other nominal adjectives are:

the *old*
the *sick*
the *wealthy*
the *blind*
the *innocent*

A major subclass of nominal adjectives refers to nationalities:

the *French*
the *British*
the *Japanese*

However, not all nationalities have corresponding nominal adjectives. Many of them are denoted by plural, proper nouns:

the *Germans*
the *Russians*
the *Americans*

Nominal adjectives do not refer exclusively to classes of people. Indeed some of them do not denote classes at all:

the *opposite*
the *contrary*
the *good*

Comparative and superlative forms can also be nominal adjectives:

the *best* is yet to come
the *elder* of the two
the *greatest* of these
the most *important* among them

We refer to all of these types as nominal adjectives because they share some of the characteristics of nouns (hence 'nominal') and some of the characteristics of adjectives.

They have the following nominal characteristics:

- they are preceded by a determiner (usually the definite article *the*)

- they can be modified by adjectives (the gallant *French*, the unfortunate *poor*)

They have the following adjectival features:

- they are gradable (the very *old*, the extremely *wealthy*)
- many can take comparative and superlative forms (the *poorer*, the *poorest*)

Exercises on page 180.

I.4.5. The Ordering of Adjectives:

When two or more adjectives come before a noun, their relative order is fixed to a certain degree. This means, for instance, that while *a huge red bomber* is grammatically acceptable, **a red huge bomber* is not. Similarly:

a <i>long narrow</i> road	~*a <i>narrow long</i> road
the <i>lovely little black Japanese</i> box	~*the <i>Japanese black little lovely</i> box

Central adjectives, as we saw earlier, are adjectives which fulfill all the criteria for the adjective class. In this sense, they are more "adjectival" than, say, nominal adjectives, which also have some of the properties of nouns.

This distinction has some significance in the ordering of adjectives. In general, the more adjectival a word is, the farther from the noun it will be. Conversely, the less adjectival it is (the more nominal), the nearer to the noun it will be.

Several schemes have been proposed, though none is completely satisfactory or comprehensive, you may find the following useful:

Value	Size/weight	Age/temp.	Shape	Color	Origin	Material
beautiful	small	old	round	red	domestic	iron
nice	little	young	square	yellow	urban	cotton
famous	tiny	new	circular	white	rural	plastic
important	light	cold	carved	black	Chinese	wood

So we may have sentences like:

A **beautiful old red Indian cotton** blouse, or

They used a **wonderful engraved black Chinese metal** in this vase.

Another important characteristic to notice is that sometimes adjectives are complemented; that is they are followed by a constituent which becomes part of the adjective itself.

See for instance:

Mary is **keen on** music , as compared to *Mary is keen music

The preposition **on** becomes part of the adjective keen, so does **of** in the following example:

He is **envious of** his brother

Other adjectives take **that**-clauses and **to**-clauses as complements (we will study clauses in Part II) as in:

I am **sure that he will be late** or This problem was very **easy to solve**

The clauses that *he will be late* and *to solve* complement the qualification introduced by the adjectives.

I.4.6. Participial Adjectives

We saw in Section I.4.1, that many adjectives can be identified by their endings. Another major subclass of adjectives can also be formally distinguished by endings, this time by *-ed* or *-ing* endings:

-ed form	<i>computerized, determined, excited, misunderstood, renowned, self-centred, talented, unknown</i>
-ing form	<i>annoying, exasperating, frightening, gratifying, misleading, thrilling, time-consuming, worrying</i>

Remember that some *-ed* forms, such as *misunderstood* and *unknown*, do not end in *-ed* at all. This is simply a cover term for this form. Adjectives with *-ed* or *-ing* endings are known as PARTICIPIAL ADJECTIVES, because they have the same endings as verb participles (he was *training* for the Olympics, he had *trained* for the Olympics). In some cases there is a verb which corresponds to these adjectives (*to annoy*, *to computerize*, *to excite*, etc), while in others there is no corresponding verb (**to renown*, **to self-centre*, **to talent*). Like other adjectives, participial adjectives can usually be modified by *very*, *extremely*, or *less* (*very determined*, *extremely self-centred*, *less frightening*, etc). They can also take *more* and *most* to form comparatives and superlatives (*annoying*, *more annoying*, *most annoying*). Finally, most participial adjectives can be used both attributively and predicatively:

Attributive	Predicative
That's an irritating noise	That noise is irritating
This is an exciting film	This film is exciting
He's a talented footballer	That footballer is talented

Many participial adjectives, which have no corresponding verb, are formed by combining a noun with a participle:

alcohol-based chemicals
battle-hardened soldiers
drug-induced coma
energy-saving devices
fact-finding mission
purpose-built accommodation

These, too, can be used predicatively (*the chemicals are alcohol-based, the soldiers were battle-hardened, etc*).

When participial adjectives are used predicatively, it may sometimes be difficult to distinguish between adjectival and verbal uses:

[1] the workers are **striking**

In the absence of any further context, the grammatical status of **striking** is indeterminate here. The following expansions illustrate possible adjectival [1a] and verbal [1b] readings of [1]

[1a] the workers are very *striking* in their new uniforms (= 'impressive', 'conspicuous')

[1b] the workers are *striking* outside the factory gates (= 'on strike')

Consider the following pair:

[2] the noise is **annoying**

[3] the noise is **annoying** the neighbours

In [2], we can modify **annoying** using *very*:

[2a] the noise is (very) **annoying**

But we cannot modify it in the same way in [3]:

[3a] *the noise is (very) **annoying** the neighbours

The acceptability of [2a] indicates that *annoying* is an adjective in this construction. In [3], the verbal nature of *annoying* is indicated by the fact that we cannot add *very*, as in [3a]. It is further indicated by the presence of *the neighbours* (the direct object) after *annoying*.

Notice also that we can turn [3] into a passive sentence (*the neighbours were annoyed by the noise*). In this case, *annoying* is the main verb of the sentence, and it is preceded by the progressive auxiliary verb *is*. In [2], there is only one verb, the main verb *is*.

We can distinguish between the following pairs using the same criteria:

Adjectival	Verbal
This film is terrifying	This film is terrifying the children
Your comments are alarming	Your comments are alarming the people
The defendant's answers were misleading	The defendant's answers were misleading the jury

We can also identify *-ing* forms as verbal if it is possible to change the *-ing* form into a non-progressive verb:

Progressive	Non-progressive
The children are <i>dancing</i>	The children <i>dance</i>
My eyes are <i>stinging</i>	My eyes <i>sting</i>
The wood is <i>drying</i>	The wood <i>dries</i>

Compare these changes from progressive to non-progressive with the following:

the work is rewarding	~*the work <i>rewards</i>
the job was exacting	~*the job <i>exacted</i>
your paper was interesting	~*your paper <i>interested</i>

In these instances, the inability to produce fully acceptable non-progressive sentences indicates **adjectival use**.

Similar indeterminacy occurs with *-ed* forms. Again, we can generally use *very* to determine whether the *-ed* word is adjectival or verbal:

The bomb was <i>detonated</i>	~*The bomb was very <i>detonated</i>
This document is <i>hand-written</i>	~*This document is very <i>hand-written</i>
My house was <i>built</i> in only twelve weeks	~*My house was very <i>built</i> in only twelve weeks
Ten people were <i>killed</i>	~*Ten people were very <i>killed</i>

The inability to supply *very* in these cases indicates a verbal rather than an adjectival construction. However, this test is less reliable with *-ed* forms than it is with *-ing* forms, since *very* can sometimes be supplied in both the adjectival and the verbal constructions:

Adjectival	Verbal
I was embarrassed I was very embarrassed	I was embarrassed by your behaviour I was very embarrassed by your behaviour
She was surprised She was very surprised	She was surprised by my reaction She was very surprised by my reaction

The presence of a *by-agent* phrase (*by your behaviour*, *by my reaction*) indicates that the *-ed* form is verbal. Conversely, the presence of a complement, such as a *that*-clause, indicates that it is adjectival. Compare the following two constructions:

Adjectival: The jury was convinced that the defendant was innocent
Verbal: The jury was convinced by the lawyer's argument

Here are some further examples of adjectival constructions (with complements) and verbal constructions (with *by-agent* phrases):

Adjectival	Verbal
I was delighted to meet you again	I was delighted by his compliments
John is terrified of losing his job	John is terrified by his boss
I was frightened that I'd be late	I was frightened by your expression
I was disappointed to hear your decision	I was disappointed by your decision

If the *-ed* form is verbal, we can change the passive construction in which it occurs into an active one:

Passive:	I was <i>delighted</i> by his compliments
Active:	His compliments <i>delighted</i> me

As we have seen, discriminating between adjectival and verbal constructions is sometimes facilitated by the presence of additional context, such as *by*-agent phrases or adjective complements. However, when none of these indicators is present, grammatical indeterminacy remains.

With *-ed* and *-ing* participial forms, there is no grammatical indeterminacy if there is no corresponding verb. For example, in the sentences: *the job was time-consuming*, and *the allegations were unfounded*, the participial forms are adjectives.

Similarly, the problem does not arise if the main verb is not *be*. For example, the participial forms in *this book seems boring*, and *he remained offended* are all adjectives. Compare the following

John was *depressed*
John felt *depressed*

Exercises on page 180

PART I

SECTION 5

I.5.1 PREPOSITIONS

Unlike other parts of speech prepositions cannot be distinguished by any formal features. A list of prepositions will illustrate this point:

across, after, at, before, by, during, from, in, into, of, on, to, under, with, without

We can, say, however, that prepositions typically come before a noun and they express a relation between the two entities:

across town, after lunch, at noon, by Shakespeare, during lunch, under the table

Between the preposition and the noun, determiners and adjectives can intervene:

after	the	storm
on	white	horses
under	the old	regime

Whether or not there are any intervening determiners or adjectives, prepositions are almost always followed by a noun. In fact, this is so typical of prepositions that if they are not followed by a noun, we call them "stranded" prepositions:

Preposition	Stranded Preposition
John talked <i>about</i> the new film	This is the film John talked about

Prepositions are invariable in their form, that is, they do not take any inflections.

The prepositions which we have looked at so far have all consisted of a single word, such as *in, of, at, and to*. We refer to these as **SIMPLE PREPOSITIONS**.

COMPLEX PREPOSITIONS consist of two- or three-word combinations acting as a single unit. Here are some examples:

<i>according to</i>	<i>due to</i>
<i>along with</i>	<i>except for</i>
<i>apart from</i>	<i>instead of</i>
<i>because of</i>	<i>prior to</i>
<i>contrary to</i>	<i>regardless of</i>

Like simple prepositions, these two-word combinations come before a noun:

according to Shakespeare
contrary to my advice
due to illness

Three-word combinations often have the following pattern:

Simple Preposition + Noun + Simple Preposition

We can see this pattern in the following examples:

<i>in</i>	<i>aid</i>	<i>of</i>	<i>in</i>	<i>line</i>	<i>with</i>
<i>on</i>	<i>behalf</i>	<i>of</i>	<i>in</i>	<i>relation</i>	<i>to</i>
<i>in</i>	<i>front</i>	<i>of</i>	<i>with</i>	<i>reference</i>	<i>to</i>
<i>in</i>	<i>accordance</i>	<i>with</i>	<i>with</i>	<i>respect</i>	<i>to</i>
<i>in</i>	<i>line</i>	<i>with</i>	<i>by</i>	<i>means</i>	<i>of</i>

Again, these combinations come before a noun:

on behalf of the Department

in line with inflation

There are some circumstances in which the preposition is not followed by a noun, either because the complement has to take first position in the clause, or because it is absent:

- Wh-questions: Which house is he staying **at**?
At which house is he staying? (formal)
- Relative clauses: The old house which I was telling you **about** is empty.
- Wh-clauses: What I am convinced **of** is that the world's population will grow to an unforeseen extent.
- Exclamations: What a mess he's got **into**!
- Passives: She was sought **after** by all the leading impresarios of the day.
- Infinitive clauses. He's impossible to work **with**.

A prejudice against such postponed prepositions remains in formal English, which offers (for relative clauses and for direct or indirect questions) the alternative of an initial preposition:

It was a situation **from which** no escape was possible.

This construction is often felt, however, to be stilted and awkward in informal English, especially in spoken form. [Exercises on pages 181-182.](#)

I.5.2. Prepositional Meanings:

Prepositions are probably one of the trickiest and more difficult areas of English grammar because they may indicate different meanings. They are best learned along with their accompanying nouns or verbs, i.e. as part of a phrase rather than being on their own.

In the following charts, prepositions are introduced within a sentence. Pay attention to the type of verb that goes with each preposition because they play an important role in indicating the intended meaning. It really takes time and practice to acquire the whole range of prepositions and their possible meanings, but, please, don't give up. Try hard and you'll succeed.

I.5.2.1 Place:

- ✓ Prepositions meaning place indicate position or direction as you can see in the following examples:

Direction	Position
Tom went to the door	Tom was at the door
Tom fell on (to) the floor	Tom was on the floor
Tom dived in (to) the water	Tom was in the water
Tom went away (from) the door	Tom was away from the door
Tom jumped off the roof	Tom was off the roof
Tom went out of the house	Tom was out of the house

Some of the prepositions above can be replaced by other prepositions with the same meaning: **upon** is a formal equivalent of **on**; **inside** and **within** can substitute for **in**, and **outside** for **out of**.

The following diagrams explain the notions of direction and position:

Direction	Position

- ✓ Apart this simple position, prepositions may express the relative position of two objects or groups of objects:

By; over; with; under; above; on top of; underneath; beneath; below; before; in front of; behind; after; beside; near (to); between; among

He was standing **by** his brother ('at the side' of).
I left the keys **with** my wallet ('in the same place as')

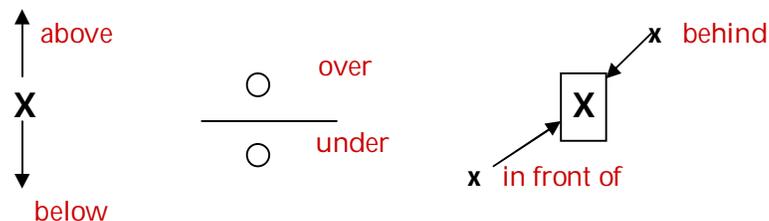
The prepositions **above** and **below**, and in **front of** and **behind** are not only antonyms but converse opposites:

The picture is **above** the mantelpiece= The mantelpiece is **below** the picture.
The bus is **in front of** the car= The car is **behind** the bus.

Over and **under** as place prepositions are roughly synonymous with **above** and **below** respectively. The main differences are that over and under tend to indicate a direct vertical relationship and/or spatial proximity, while above and below may indicate simply 'on a higher level than'

The castle stands on a hill **above** (rather than over)the valley.
The policeman was leaning **over** (rather than above) the dead body.

Underneath and **beneath** are less common substitutes for **under**; beneath is formal in style.



- ✓ With verbs of motion, prepositions may express the idea of passage (movement towards and the away from a place) as well as destination.

He jumped **over** the bridge.
Someone ran **behind** the goal-posts.

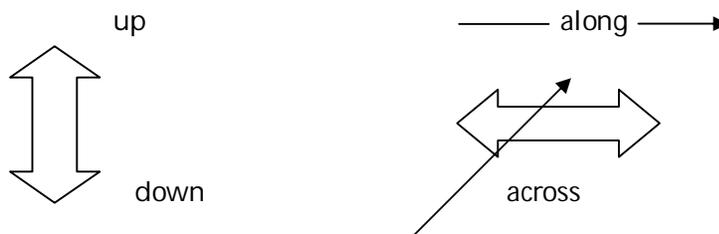
- ✓ The sense of passage is the primary locative meaning attached to: **across**; **through** and **by**.

The ball rolled **across** the lawn.
I walked **through** that field.

Come in **by** the side door. The others are locked.

- ✓ Other prepositions: **up; down; along; across; (a)round**, etc. with verbs of motion, make up a group of prepositions expressing movement with reference to an axis or directional path:

Just go straight **up/down/along** this road and you'll find the bank.



With **(a)round**, the directional path is an angle or a curve:

We ran **(a)round** the corner.

Exercises on page 183

I.5.2.2. Time

- ✓ Time-when: These prepositions are to some extent parallel to the same items as prepositions of position: **at, on; in**¹

At is used for:

- points of time, chiefly clock-time: **at 10 o'clock; at noon, at night; at that time**, etc.
- idiomatically, for holiday periods: **at Easter; at Christmas**

On is used with phrases referring to days: **on Monday; on May 24th**;

In (during) is used to indicate periods of time: **in the evening, during Holy Week; in August**.

- ✓ Time-duration: **for; from...to; over; (all)through; throughout** have a durational meaning parallel to their pervasive meaning in reference to place:

We camped here **for** the summer.

We camped here **through** the summer

We camped here **from** June **to** August.

¹ (See Appendix 1 for a contrasting analysis of at/in/on as prepositions of place and time)

- ✓ Time-exclusively: **before; after; since; until/till** occur almost exclusively as prepositions of time:

I need to see you **before** next class.
We slept **until** midnight.

- ✓ Other prepositions of time are **between, up to** and **by**:

By the time he got home, he was exhausted.
I'll phone you **between** lunch and two o'clock.
Up to last week, I hadn't received a reply.

Exercises on page 183

I.5.2.3. Other Meanings:

Cause-Purpose

- ✓ **Because of, since, on account of**, etc. express either the material cause or the psychological cause of a happening:

Because of the storm all the flights are delayed.
I **hide the money** for fear of what my parents would say.

- ✓ **For** is used to express a purpose or intended destination:

He died **for** his country.
He ran **for** shelter.

Recipient, goal or target:

For; to and **at** express intended goal or target:

He made a doll house **for** his daughter.
He gave a doll house **to** his daughter.
The hunter aimed carefully **at** the deer.

Source, origin:

From is used to express source or place of origin

I borrowed the book **from** Bill.
He comes **from** Austria.

Means and instrument:

- ✓ **By** expresses the meaning 'by means of':

I usually go to work **by** bus.

- ✓ **With**, on the other hand, expresses instrumental meaning:

He caught the ball **with** his left hand.

- ✓ **Without** expresses the negative meaning of with:

I drew the line **without** a ruler.

Stimulus:

The relation between an emotion and its stimulus can often be expressed by **at** or by the instrumental **by** :

I was alarmed **at/by** his behavior.

Accompaniment:

Especially when followed by an animate complement, **with** has the meaning 'in company with' or 'together with':

I'm so glad you're coming **with** us.

Rice **with** curry is my favorite dish.

Support and opposition:

For and **with** convey the idea of support whereas **against** conveys the contrary idea of opposition:

Are you **for** or **against** the plan?

Reference:

With regard to; with reference to; as for, in regard to; with respect to; in respect of express the idea of reference:

As for the burglar, he escaped through the attic window.

Exception:

Except; excepting and **but**

All the students **except/but** Bob passed the test.

Negative Condition:

It is important to notice that **but for** is not used in the sense of exception as listed above, but rather that of 'negative condition':

But for John, we should have lost the match.
(If it hadn't been for John).

Ingredient, Material:

With verbs of 'making' **with, of** and **out of** indicate the material or constituency of the whole thing:

You make a cake **with** eggs.
He made the frame **(out) of** wood.

Respect; Standard:

For and **at** may specify the meaning of a gradable adjective:

For an Englishman, he speaks Spanish remarkably well.
He is terrible **at** games.

Reaction:

- We can express reaction by using the preposition **to** followed by an abstract noun of emotion:

To my annoyance, they rejected the offer.

- **to** can be also used to identify the person reacting:

It looked **to** me a vast chasm.

Remember: each preposition may express different meanings; therefore, it is inconvenient to try to learn them by memorizing preposition lists. Gradually by using them and/or by analyzing the context in which they appear you will improve your command.

Exercises on page 184

PART I

SECTION 6

I.6.1. VERBS: THE 'ACTION' OR 'STATE' WORDS

Following the three criteria we have been using to study parts of speech, let's begin with the general meaning of verbs; that is with the semantic criterion:

Verbs have traditionally been defined as "action" words or "doing" words. The verb in the following sentence is *rides*:

Nelly **rides** a bicycle

Here, the verb *rides* certainly denotes an action which Nelly performs - the action of riding a bicycle.

However, there are many verbs which do not denote an action at all. For example, in:

Nelly **seems** unhappy

we cannot say that the verb *seems* denotes an action. We would hardly say that Nelly is performing any action when she seems unhappy. The sentence here is denoting a state of being. The state that Nancy *is* or *looks* unhappy.

Verbs like *ride* and *seem* are **lexical** or **main verbs** because they play an important lexical function; that is they have a syntactic and a semantic meaning of their own. There are other verbs which are called **auxiliary verbs** because they co-occur with lexical verbs in the sentences to have syntactic and semantic meaning. Auxiliary verbs are subdivided into **primary auxiliaries** and **modal auxiliaries**:

Verb classification according to their function:

Lexical	Walk, write, ride, look, seem, etc.
Primary auxiliary	Do, have, be.
Modal	Can, may, shall, will, could, might, should, would, must, ought to, used to, need, dare

Exercises on page 184

I.6.2 Verb Forms

On the other hand, we can achieve a more robust definition of verbs by looking first at their form or morphological features:

Certain endings are characteristic of the base forms of verbs:

Ending	Base Form
-ate	concentrate, demonstrate, illustrate
-ify	clarify, dignify, magnify
-ise	baptise, conceptualise, realise

Other verbs do not have those endings. Here are some examples of verbs in sentences:

- [1] She **travel-s** by train.
- [2] David **sing-s** in the choir.
- [3] We **walk-ed** five miles to the garage.
- [4] I **cook-ed** a meal for the family.

In these sentences the verbs are inflected. Notice that in [1] and [2], the verbs have an -s ending, while in [3] and [4], they have an -ed ending. These endings are known as INFLECTIONS, and they are added to the BASE FORM of the verb. In [1], for instance, the -s inflection is added to the base form *travel*.

These inflections express person, tense or aspect. Because of the kind of inflection they take, verbs are **regular** and **irregular**. Regular verbs form their past and past participle in the same way, adding the inflection -ed to their base. Irregular verbs have different forms to express past and past participle, as you can see in the following sentences

[1] I **call** you everyday/ I **called** you yesterday/ I had **called** you the day before yesterday.

[2] I **drink** orange juice everyday/ I **drank** orange juice yesterday/ I had **drunk** orange juice the day before yesterday.

[3] I always **put** flowers in that vase/ I **put** flowers in that vase yesterday/ I had **put** flowers in that vase the day before yesterday.

Normal verb inflections and their functions are explained in the following table:

Inflection	Verbs taking the inflection	FUNCTIONS
-s	Regular and irregular verbs	3 rd person singular present tense: He calls you everyday/ He drinks orange juice everyday.
-ed	Only regular verbs	Past tense. He called you yesterday.
-ing	Regular and irregular verbs	Progressive aspect: He is calling you He is drinking orange juice
-ed	Only regular verbs	1. Perfective aspect: He has called you. 2. Passive voice: He was called to participate in the contest.

On the other hand, verbs have no inflection (∅) in the following instances:

Inflection	Verbs	Functions:
∅	Regular and irregular	1. all the present tense except the 3 rd person: I call you everyday. 2. imperative: Call at once!/ Drink it up! 3. subjunctive: He demanded that she call and see him. 4. bare infinitive: He may call you. 5. to-infinitive: He wants you to call .

Exercises on page 185

I.6.3 Auxiliary Verbs

Auxiliary verbs have their own characteristics and functions. There are five types of auxiliary verbs in total:

Passive <i>be</i>	<p>This is used to form passive constructions, eg. :</p> <p>The film <i>was</i> produced in Hollywood.</p> <p>It has a corresponding present form:</p> <p>The film <i>is</i> produced in Hollywood.</p> <p>We will return to passives later, when we look at <i>voice</i>.</p>
Progressive <i>be</i>	<p>As the name suggests, the progressive expresses action in progress:</p> <p>The old lady <i>is</i> writing a play.</p> <p>It also has a past form:</p> <p>The old lady <i>was</i> writing a play.</p>
Perfective <i>have</i>	<p>The perfective auxiliary expresses an action accomplished in the past but retaining current relevance:</p> <p>She <i>has</i> broken her leg.</p> <p>(Compare: She broke her leg)</p> <p>Together with the progressive auxiliary, the perfective auxiliary encodes <i>aspect</i>, which we will look at later.</p>
Modal <i>can/could</i> <i>may/might</i> <i>shall/should</i> <i>will/would</i> <i>must</i>	<p>Modals express permission, ability, obligation, or prediction:</p> <p>You <i>can</i> have a sweet if you like.</p> <p>He <i>may</i> arrive early.</p> <p>Paul <i>will</i> be a footballer someday.</p> <p>I really <i>should</i> leave now.</p>

Dummy Do	<p>This subclass contains only the verb <i>do</i>. It is used to form questions:</p> <p><i>Do you like cheese?</i></p> <p>to form negative statements:</p> <p>I do not like cheese</p> <p>and in giving orders:</p> <p>Do not eat the cheese</p> <p>Finally, dummy <i>do</i> can be used for emphasis:</p> <p>I do like cheese</p>
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An important difference between auxiliary verbs and main verbs is that auxiliaries never occur alone in a sentence. For instance, we cannot remove the main verb from a sentence, leaving only the auxiliary:

I would like a new job	~*I <i>would</i> a new job
You should buy a new car	~*You <i>should</i> a new car
She must be crazy	~*She <i>must</i> crazy

Auxiliaries always occur with a main verb. On the other hand, main verbs can occur without an auxiliary:

I **like** my new job.

I **bought** a new car.

She **sings** like a bird.

In some sentences, it may appear that an auxiliary does occur alone. This is especially true in responses to questions:

Q. **Can** you sing?

A. Yes, I **can**

Here the auxiliary *can* does not really occur without a main verb, since the main verb -- *sing* -- is in the question. The response is understood to mean:

Yes, I can sing

This is known as *ellipsis* -- the main verb has been *ellipted* from the response.

Auxiliaries often appear in a shortened or contracted form, especially in informal contexts. For instance, auxiliary *have* is often shortened to 've:

I *have* won the lottery ~I've won the lottery

These shortened forms are called *enclitic* forms. Sometimes different auxiliaries have the same enclitic forms, so you should distinguish carefully between them:

I'd like a new job (= modal auxiliary *would*)
We'd already spent the money by then (= perfective auxiliary *had*)

He's been in there for ages (= perfective auxiliary *has*)
She's eating her lunch (= progressive auxiliary *is*).

The so-called **NICE** properties of auxiliaries serve to distinguish them from main verbs. **NICE** is an acronym for:

N egation	Auxiliaries take <i>not</i> or <i>n't</i> to form the negative, eg. <i>cannot</i> , <i>don't</i> , <i>wouldn't</i>
I nversion	Auxiliaries invert with what precedes them when we form questions: [I <i>will</i>] see you soon ~ [Will I] see you soon?
C ode	Auxiliaries may occur "stranded" where a main verb has been omitted: John never sings, but Mary <i>does</i> .
E mphasis	Auxiliaries can be used for emphasis: I <i>do</i> like cheese.

Main verbs do not exhibit these properties. For instance, when we form a question using a main verb, we cannot invert:

[John *sings*] in the choir ~ *[Sings John] in the choir?

Instead, we have to use the auxiliary verb *do*:

[John *sings*] in the choir ~ [Does John *sing*] in the choir?

I.6.3.1.Semi-auxiliaries

Among the auxiliary verbs, we distinguish a large number of multi-word verbs, which are called **semi-auxiliaries**. These are two- or three-word combinations, and they include the following:

get to	seem to	be about to
happen to	tend to	be going to
have to	turn out to	be likely to
mean to	used to	be supposed to

Like other auxiliaries, the semi-auxiliaries occur before main verbs:

The film *is about to* start.

I'm going to interview the Lord Mayor.

I *have to* leave early today.

You *are supposed to* sign both forms.

I *used to* live in that house.

Some of these combinations may, of course, occur in other contexts in which they are not semi-auxiliaries. For example:

I'm going to London.

Here, the combination is not a semi-auxiliary, since it does not occur with a main verb. In this sentence, *going* is a main verb. Notice that it could be replaced by another main verb such as *travel* (*I'm traveling to London*). The word *'m* is the contracted form of *am*, the progressive auxiliary, and *to*, as we'll see later, is a preposition.

Exercises on page 186

I.6.4. Tense and Aspect

TENSE refers to the absolute location of an event or action in time, either the present or the past. It is marked by an inflection of the verb:

David **walks** to school (present tense)
David **walked** to school (past tense)

Reference to other times -- the future, for instance -- can be made in a number of ways, by using the modal auxiliary *will*, or the semi-auxiliary *be going to*:

David **will walk** to school tomorrow.
David **is going to walk** to school tomorrow.

Since the expression of future time does not involve any inflection of the verb, we do not refer to a "future tense". Strictly speaking, there are only two tenses in English: present and past.

ASPECT refers to how an event or action is to be viewed with respect to time, rather than to its actual location in time. We can illustrate this using the following examples:

[1] David **fell** in love on his eighteenth birthday.
[2] David **has fallen** in love.
[3] David **is falling** in love.

In [1], the verb *fell* tells us that David fell in love in the past, and specifically on his eighteenth birthday. This is a simple past tense verb.

In [2] also, the action took place in the past, but it is implied that it took place quite recently. Furthermore, it is implied that it is still relevant at the time of speaking -- David has fallen in love, and that's why he's behaving strangely. It is worth noting that we cannot say **David has fallen in love on his eighteenth birthday*. The auxiliary *has* here encodes what is known as PERFECTIVE ASPECT, and the auxiliary itself is known as the PERFECTIVE AUXILIARY.

In [3], the action of falling in love is still in progress -- David is falling in love at the time of speaking. For this reason, we call it PROGRESSIVE ASPECT, and the auxiliary is called the PROGRESSIVE AUXILIARY.

Aspect always includes tense. In [2] and [3] above, the aspectual auxiliaries are in the present tense, but they could also be in the past tense:

David **had fallen** in love -- Perfective Aspect, Past Tense
David **was falling** in love -- Progressive Aspect, Past Tense

The perfective auxiliary is always followed by a main verb in the *-ed* form, while the progressive auxiliary is followed by a main verb in the *-ing* form. We exemplify these points in the table below:

	Perfective Aspect	Progressive Aspect
Present Tense	<i>has fallen</i>	<i>is falling</i>
Past Tense	<i>had fallen</i>	<i>was falling</i>

While aspect always includes tense, tense can occur without aspect (David *falls* in love, David *fell* in love).

I.6.4.1. The Communicative Function of Tense and Aspect:

Broadly, verbs may refer either to state or an action of event. This distinction gives rise to four basic kinds of verb meaning:

State: I'm hungry.

Single Event: Columbus discovered America.

Habit: He works in London.

Temporary: He is mowing the lawn.

Which, in turn, are expressed in different manners according to the tense and aspect used in the sentence.

I.6.4.1.1. The Present Tense:

The following are the main ways of referring to something which occurs at the present moment.

1. Present State (simple present tense): I'm hungry. Do you like coffee?
2. Present Event (simple present tense): I declare the meeting closed. This use is rather specialised, being limited to formal declarations, demonstrations etc.
3. Present Habit (simple present tense): He works in London.

4. Temporary Present (present progressive): It's raining. The meaning of the progressive aspect is 'limited duration'.
5. Temporary Habit (present progressive): I'm taking dancing classes. This use combines the temporary meaning of the progressive with the repetitive meaning of the habitual present.
6. In special circumstances, the past tense can be used to refer to the present: Did you want to speak to me? Here the past tense is an indirect and more tactful substitute for the simple present tense.

I.6.4.1.2.The Past Tense:

The present-time meanings introduced from 1 to 5 above are paralleled by similar past-time meanings. But there is a special problem of past-time reference in English: the question of how to choose between the use of the past tense and the use of the perfect aspect. By a past-time happening, we mean a happening taking place in the past but not necessarily in the present time. The PAST TENSE is used when the past happening is related to a definite time in the past. In contrast, the PERFECT ASPECT is used for a past happening which is seen in relation to a later event or time. Thus the present perfect means 'past time related to present time'; for example:

He was in prison for ten years (now he is out).

He has been in prison for ten years (he is still there).

I.6.4.1.3.The Present Perfect:

Four related uses of the present perfect may be noted:

1. State leading up to the present time: This house has been empty for ages.
2. Indefinite event(s) in a period leading up to the present time: All my family had the flu (in the last week).
2. Habit in a period leading up to the present time: He has attended lectures regularly (this semester).
3. Past event with results in the present time: The taxi has arrived (It is now here). Her doll has been broken (It is now broken).

In sense 2. the present perfect often refers to the recent indefinite past: Have you eaten?. I have studied your report already. For such sentences, there is a tendency for Americans to prefer the past tense: Did you eat?.

I.6.4.1.4.The Perfect Progressive:

The present perfect progressive has the same sort of meaning as the simple present perfect, except that the period leading up to the present has 'limited duration'.

I have been writing a letter to my nephew.

He has been attending lectures regularly.

The perfect progressive, like the present perfect, can suggest that the results of the activity remain in the present. However, unlike the present perfect, the present perfect progressive with event verbs usually suggests an action continuing into the present and not into the recent past:

I have read your book (I have finished it).

I have been reading your book (I am still reading it).

I.6.4.1.5.The Past Perfect:

The past perfect (simple or progressive) indicates 'past in the past'; that is, a time further in the past as seen from a definite point of view in the past:

The house had been empty for several months (when I bought it).

In meaning the past perfect is neutral as regards the differences expressed by the past tense and the present perfect. This means that if we put the events described in the following sentences further into the past, they both end up in the past perfect:

They tell me that the parcel arrived on April 15th/has already arrived.

When describing one event following another in the past, we can show their relation by using the past perfect for the earlier event, or else we can use the past tense for both, and rely on the conjunction (after, when) to show which event took place earlier:

After the teacher left/had left the room, the children started talking.
When the teacher left/had left the room, the children started talking.

All four of these sentences mean roughly the same, and indicate that the teacher left before the children started talking.

I.6.4.1.6.The Progressive Aspect:

The progressive aspect refers to activities in PROGRESS, and therefore suggests not only that the activity is TEMPORARY (of limited duration), but that it need not be complete.- This element of meaning is most evident in the past tense or in the present perfect.

He wrote a novel several years ago (he finished it).

He was writing a novel several years ago. (I don't know if he has finished it).

Similarly, with verbs referring to a change of state, the progressive aspect indicates movement towards the change, rather than completion of the change itself.

The girl was drowning (but someone rescued her).

The child was breaking the picture (when her mother caught him).

I.6.4.1.7.The Future Time:

There are five main ways of expressing future time in English. The most important future constructions are those which use *will (shall)* and *be going to*.

1. **Will/shall** express the neutral future of prediction:

He **will** be here on time. Tomorrow **will** be cloudy.

It can also suggest an element of intention:

I'**ll** meet you at the station.

It is particularly common in the main clause of a sentence with an if-clause or other conditional adverbial:

If you press the button, the door **will** slide back.

2. **Be going to + infinitive** tends to indicate the future as a fulfilment of the present. This construction may refer to a future resulting from a present intention:

He **is going to be** a doctor when he grows up.

It may also refer to the future resulting from other causative factors in the present:

I think it **is going to rain**.

In such sentences, **be going to** also carries the expectation that the event will happen in the near future.

3. Progressive (**be+V-ing**) aspect is used for the future events resulting from a present plan, program, or arrangement:

We **are inviting** several people to the party.

4. Simple present tense is used for future events which are seen as absolutely certain, either because they are determined in advance by calendar or because they are part of an unalterable plan:

Tomorrow **is** Monday / The class **starts** at 7:10 a.m.

5. **Will/Shall + progressive aspect** can be used in a regular way to add the temporary meaning of the progressive to the future meaning of the will construction:

Don't call her at seven. She **will be eating**.

I.6.4.1.7.1. Other Ways of Expressing Future:

1. The expressions **be about to**, **be on the point to** express the nearness of a future event:

He **was on the point to** leave the country when the telegram arrived.

2. Was/were to and would are examples of constructions which refer to future actions seen from a viewpoint in the past. They are, however, very uncommon and rather literary in style:

“Ceasar **was to** pay dearly for his ambition; a year later one of his best friends, Brutus, **would** lead a plot to assassinate him...”

3. Past expressed in the future by using **will+ Perfect Infinitive**:

Tomorrow Jean and Ken will have been married twenty years.

Exercises on page 186

I.6.5 Verbs taking and not taking the progressive:

Verbs that most typically take the progressive aspect are verbs denoting ACTIVITIES (*walk, read, drink, etc.*) or PROCESSES (*change, grow, improve, etc.*).

Verbs denoting MOMENTARY events (*knock, jump, nod, etc.*) if used with the progressive denote repetition.

State verbs often cannot be used with the progressive at all, because the notion of ‘something in progress’ cannot be easily applied to them.

The verbs which normally **do not take** the progressive include:

- a) Verbs of perceiving (*feel, hear, see, smell, etc.*). To express continuing perception, we often use these verbs with can or could: I can see someone but never *I am seeing someone.
- b) Verbs referring to a state of mind or feeling (*believe, adore, love, like, etc.*)
- c) Verbs referring to a relationship or state of being (*be, belong to, concern, remain, etc.*)

The verb *have*, when it is a state verb, does not go with the progressive: *he has a good job* but never **he is having a good job*. But *have* can go with the progressive when it denotes a process or activity: *He is having a good time. He is having dinner.*

- d) Verbs referring to internal sensation (*hurt, ache, feel, etc.*) can be used either with the progressive or the non-progressive with little difference of effect:

My back hurts/is hurting.

Exceptions:

Although the types of verbs a), b) and c) above may be labeled 'non-progressive', there are special circumstances in which you hear them used with the progressive. In many circumstances, one may say that the state verb has been changed into an 'activity verb', referring to an active form of behaviors). In place of *see* and *hear*, we have the equivalent activity verbs *look* (at) and *listen* (to):

I am looking at your drawings. He was listening to the news.

But for *smell, feel* and *taste*, there is no special corresponding activity verb, so these verbs have to do duty for the state meaning and the activity meaning:

The doctor is feeling her pulse. He says it feels normal.

We have been tasting the soup. It tastes delicious.

In the same way, *think, imagine, remember, etc.* can sometimes be used as 'mental activity' verbs:

I am thinking about what you said.

The verb *be* can go with the progressive when the adjective or noun which follows it refers to a type of behavior, or to the role a person is adopting:

He is just being awkward. He is being funny.

Exercises on page 187

I.6.6. The Syntactic Classification of Verbs:

There is a third classification of verbs; the one that has to do with the complements required by the verb; see, for example the following sentences:

Peter **ran** / Peter **ran** very fast.

Verb **run** in is an **INTRANSITIVE** verb because it takes no complement or direct object. You can say that Peter ran or you can also say how he ran (very fast), both sentences are possible and grammatical.

Now observe the following two sentences:

Peter searched the room carefully/*Peter searched carefully.

In this pair of sentences the second one is ungrammatical because the direct object or complement required by the verb is missing. It is not enough to say that Peter searched. You also have to say what was searched. These kinds of verbs that obligatorily take a complement or direct object are called **TRANSITIVE** verbs.

The complement of the transitive verb is commonly a Noun Phrase (a noun) like *the room* in the sentence above, or *the cake* in the following sentence:

She cut the cake very carefully.

However it is also very common to find clauses complementing transitive verbs:

She said that she was very happy.

There are also verbs that take two complements and they have been traditionally called **DITRANSITIVES**. *Give* is one example, because it takes a direct object and an indirect object.

She gave the children presents. She gave presents to the children.

In contrast to *She gave presents or *She gave the children.

Another type of verbs are the **LINKING** verbs, which are also called copula because they link the subject and its complement:

She **is** very nice

The verb be is the most common of the linking verbs but there are other verbs that also indicate something about the subject: either a state or the result of a process described by the verb:

She **feels** well He **became** a beggar.

Finally, there are two other kinds of verbs, the **PREPOSITIONAL** verbs and the **PHRASAL** verbs which need further explanation.

A **prepositional verb** forms a combination with a preposition: *look for, look after, comment on, depend on, insist on*, etc.

They are **looking for** a new job. Nobody **commented on** the case.

A **phrasal verb** forms combinations with adverbial particles which, in their form and behavior are like prepositional adverbs: *turn on, drink up, fill out, make up, show up*, etc.

She **showed up** unexpectedly. They **turned on** the light.

Although prepositional and phrasal verbs may seem very similar, they are different in the following aspects:

1. The preposition in the prepositional verb must come before the complement:

They are **looking for** a new job. *They are **looking** a new job **for**.

Whereas in the phrasal verb the particle may precede or follow the complement:

They **turned on** the light. They **turned** the light **on**.

2. The prepositional verb allows an adverb to be placed between the verb and the preposition:

They are **looking** **now** **for** a new job.

Whereas the phrasal verb does not:

*They **turned** **now** **on** the light

NOTE: The understanding and use of the syntactic classification of verbs is particularly useful in writing and in analysing sentences

Exercises on page 187

PART 1

SECTION 7

I.7.1. ADVERBS: THE MODIFIERS OF VERBS AND ADJECTIVES

Adverbs are used to modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb:

- [1] Mary sings **beautifully**
- [2] David is **extremely** clever
- [3] This car goes **incredibly** fast

In [1], the adverb *beautifully* tells us how Mary sings. In [2], *extremely* tells us the degree to which David is clever. Finally, in [3], the adverb *incredibly* tells us how fast the car goes.

Formal Characteristics of Adverbs

From our examples above, you can see that many adverbs end in *-ly*. More precisely, they are formed by adding *-ly* to an adjective:

Adjective	<i>slow</i>	<i>quick</i>	<i>soft</i>	<i>sudden</i>	<i>gradual</i>
Adverb	<i>slowly</i>	<i>quickly</i>	<i>softly</i>	<i>suddenly</i>	<i>gradually</i>

Because of their distinctive endings, these adverbs are known as **-LY ADVERBS**. However, by no means all adverbs end in *-ly*. Note also that some adjectives also end in *-ly*, including *costly*, *deadly*, *friendly*, *kindly*, *likely*, *lively*, *manly*, and *timely*.

Like adjectives, many adverbs are **GRADABLE**, that is, we can modify them using *very* or *extremely*:

<i>softly</i>	<i>very softly</i>
<i>suddenly</i>	<i>very suddenly</i>
<i>slowly</i>	<i>extremely slowly</i>

The modifying words *very* and *extremely* are themselves **adverbs**. They are called **DEGREE ADVERBS** because they specify the degree to which an adjective or another adverb applies. Degree adverbs include *almost, barely, entirely, highly, quite, slightly, totally, and utterly*. Degree adverbs are *not* gradable (**extremely very*).

Like adjectives, too, some adverbs can take COMPARATIVE and SUPERLATIVE forms, with *-er* and *-est*:

John works *hard* -- Mary works *harder* -- I work *hardest*

However, the majority of adverbs do not take these endings. Instead, they form the comparative using *more* and the superlative using *most*:

Adverb	Comparative	Superlative
<i>recently</i>	<i>more recently</i>	<i>most recently</i>
<i>effectively</i>	<i>more effectively</i>	<i>most effectively</i>
<i>frequently</i>	<i>more frequently</i>	<i>most frequently</i>

In the formation of comparatives and superlatives, some adverbs are irregular:

Adverb	Comparative	Superlative
<i>well</i>	<i>better</i>	<i>best</i>
<i>badly</i>	<i>worse</i>	<i>worst</i>
<i>little</i>	<i>less</i>	<i>least</i>
<i>much</i>	<i>more</i>	<i>most</i>

I.7.2. Adverbs and Adjectives

As noted earlier in Section 4, adverbs and adjectives have important characteristics in common -- in particular their gradability, and the fact that they have comparative and superlative forms. However, an important distinguishing feature is that adverbs do not modify nouns, neither attributively nor predicatively:

Adjective	Adverb
David is a <i>happy</i> child	*David is a <i>happily</i> child
David is <i>happy</i>	*David is <i>happily</i>

The following words, together with their comparative and superlative forms, can be both **adverbs** and **adjectives**:

early, far, fast, hard, late

The following sentences illustrate the two uses of *early*:

Adjective	Adverb
I'll catch the <i>early</i> train	I awoke <i>early</i> this morning

The comparative *better* and the superlative *best*, as well as some words denoting time intervals (*daily, weekly, monthly*), can also be adverbs or adjectives, depending on how they are used.

Exercises on page 188

I.7.3. Adverbial Meaning:

Although endings, gradability and comparison allow us to identify many adverbs, there still remain a very large number of them which cannot be identified in this way. In fact, taken as a whole, the adverb class is the most diverse of all the word classes, and its members exhibit a very wide range of forms and functions. Many semantic classifications of adverbs have been made, but here we will concentrate on just three of the most distinctive classes, known collectively as circumstantial adverbs.

I.7.3.1. Circumstantial Adverbs

Many adverbs convey information about the manner, time, or place of an event or action. **MANNER adverbs** tell us *how* an action is or should be performed:

She sang **loudly** in the bath.
The sky **quickly** grew

They whispered **softly**
I had to run **fast** to catch the bus

TIME adverbs denote not only specific times but also frequency:

I'll be checking out **tomorrow**.
Give it back, **now**.
John **rarely** rings any more.
I watch television **sometimes**.

And finally, **PLACE adverbs** indicate *where*:

Put the box **there**, on the table.
I've left my gloves **somewhere**

These three adverb types -- manner, time, and place -- are collectively known as **CIRCUMSTANTIAL adverbs**. They express one of the circumstances relating to an event or action - *how* it happened (manner), *when* it happened (time), or *where* it happened (place).

1.7.3.2. Adverbs of Frequency:

Adverbs of **FREQUENCY** answer the question "How often?" or "How frequently?" They tell us how often somebody does something:

100%	always
	usually
	frequently
	often
50%	sometimes
	occasionally
	rarely
	seldom
	hardly ever
0%	never

The percentage values represent how often something happens according to the adverb being used. For example, *I **never** watch TV*, means that I watch TV 0% of the time.

Adverbs of frequency are usually used with the simple present form of the verb; although, they can also be used with the progressive tense as well.

Exercises on page 189

I.7.4. Other Adverbial Meaning:

Other adverbs are considered as ADDITIVE **adverbs** because they "add" two or more items together, emphasizing that they are all to be considered equal. These adverbs are also and too:

Dogs are intelligent animals; dolphins are intelligent **too**.

The adverb too points to the similarities between the two kinds of animals.

In contrast with additives, **EXCLUSIVE adverbs** focus attention on what follows them, to the exclusion of all other possibilities:

[1] It's **just** a question of how we organise it

[2] The federal convention comes together **solely** for the purpose of electing the president.

In [1], *just* excludes all other potential questions from consideration, while in [2], *solely* points out the fact that the federal convention has no other function apart from electing the president. Other exclusives include *alone*, *exactly*, *merely*, and *simply*.

PARTICULARIZERS also focus attention on what follows them, but they do not exclude other possibilities:

[3] The pastoralists are **particularly** found in Africa.

[4] This book is **mostly** about what they call modulation.

In [3], it is implied that Africa is not the only place where pastoralists live. While most of them live there, some of them live elsewhere. Sentence [4] implies that most of the book is about modulation, though it deals with other, unspecified topics as well.

Other particularizers include *largely*, *mainly*, *primarily*, and *predominantly*.

Exercises on page 189

I.7.5. The Position of the Adverbs within the Sentence:

Adverbs have three main positions in the sentence:

- Front (before the subject):

Now we will study adverbs.

- Middle (between the subject and the main verb):

We **often** study adverbs.

- End (after the verb or object):

We study adverbs **carefully**.

In fact, the same adverb can be used in those three positions:

Carefully, the police searched the room.
The police, **carefully**, searched the room.
The police searched the room **carefully**.

However, adverbs can never go between the transitive verb and its direct object or complement:

* The police searched carefully the room.

There are a number of grammatical reasons for this to happen but you will learn about them in syntax courses.

Adverbs of frequency, on the other hand, come **before** the main verb (except the main verb "to be"):

- We **usually** go shopping on Saturday.
- I have **often** done that.
- She is **always** late.

Occasionally, sometimes, often, frequently and usually can also go at the beginning or end of a sentence:

- **Sometimes** they come and stay with us.
- I play tennis **occasionally**.

Rarely and seldom can also go at the end of a sentence (often with "very"):

- We see them **rarely**.
- John eats meat very **seldom**.

Sometimes when the adverb occurs at the beginning of the sentence, it qualifies the whole sentence and not just part of it.. Consider the following:

Honestly, it doesn't matter

Here the adverb *honestly* modifies the whole sentence, and it expresses the speaker's opinion about what is being said (*When I say it doesn't matter, I am speaking honestly*).

Here are some more examples:

Clearly, he has no excuse for such behavior.

Frankly, I don't care about your problems.

Unfortunately, no refunds can be given .

Other sentence adverbs of this type are *accordingly, consequently, hence, moreover, similarly, and therefore*.

I .7.6. Adverbials:

Besides adverbs, there are other words, phrases and clauses that supply information about the verb: How? Where? When? does something happen? Adverbials, like adverbs, address the nature of action: time, place, mood, strength, manner .

Nouns and Noun Phrases often become adverbials

I went **home last week**.

The noun "home" is used as an adverb to modify the verb "went". Thus, it is an **adverbial**. So is the Noun Phrase last week which tells us when the action happened.

Prepositional phrases and clauses can also be used as adverbials:

Prepositional phrase: I went **to my house**.

Adverbial clause: I went **when I was done**.

PART 1

SECTION 8

1.8.1. CONJUNCTIONS: THE 'JOINING' WORDS

Conjunctions are used to express a connection between words. The most familiar conjunctions are *and*, *but*, and *or*:

Paul **and** David
cold **and** wet
tired **but** happy
slowly **but** surely
tea **or** coffee
hot **or** cold

They can also connect sentences:

Paul plays football **and** David plays chess.
I play tennis **but** I don't play well.
We can eat now **or** we can wait till later.

There are two types of conjunctions. **COORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS** (or simply COORDINATORS) connect elements of 'equal' syntactic status:

Paul **and** David.
I play tennis **but** I don't play well .
meat **or** fish.

Items which are connected by a coordinator are known as **CONJOINS**. So in *I play tennis but I don't play well*, the conjoins are [*I play tennis*] and [*I don't play well*].

On the other hand, **SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS** (or SUBORDINATORS) connect elements of 'unequal' syntactic status:

I left early **because** I had an interview the next day.
We visited Madame Tussaud's **while** we were in London.
I'll be home at nine **if** I can get a taxi.

Other subordinating conjunctions include *although*, *because*, *before*, *since*, *till*, *unless*, *whereas*, *whether*

Exercises on page 190

I.8.2.Types of Coordination.

Coordination and subordination are quite distinct concepts in grammar. Notice, for example, that coordinators must appear *between* the conjoins

[Paul plays football] **and** [David plays chess]

However, we can reverse the order of the conjoins, provided we keep the coordinator between them:

[David plays chess] **and** [Paul plays football]

In contrast with this, subordinators do not have to occur between the items they connect:

I left early **because** I had an interview the next day.

Because I had an interview the next day, I left early.

But if we reverse the order of the items, we either change the meaning completely:

I left early **because** I had an interview the next day.

I had an interview the next day **because** I left early.

or we produce a very dubious sentence:

I'll be home at nine **if** I can get a taxi.

*I can get a taxi **if** I'll be home at nine.

This shows that items linked by a subordinator have a very specific relationship to each other -- it is a relationship of syntactic dependency. There is no syntactic dependency in the relationship between conjoins. We will further explore this topic when we look at the grammar of clauses.

Conjoins are usually coordinated using one of the coordinators *and*, *but*, or *or*. In [1], the bracketed conjoins are coordinated using *and*:

[1] [Quickly] **and** [resolutely], he strode into the bank.

This type of coordination, with a coordinator present, is called **SYNDETTIC COORDINATION**.

Coordination can also occur without the presence of a coordinator, as in [2]:

[2] [Quickly], [resolutely], he strode into the bank.

No coordinator is present here, but the conjoins are still coordinated. This is known as **ASYNDETTIC COORDINATION**.

When three or more conjoins are coordinated, a coordinator will usually appear between the final two conjoins only:

[3] I need [bread], [cheese], [eggs], **and** [milk].

This is syndetic coordination, since a coordinating conjunction is present. It would be unusual to find a coordinator between each conjoin:

[3a] *I need [bread] *and* [cheese] *and* [eggs] *and* [milk].

POLYSYNDETTIC COORDINATION is sometimes used for effect, for instance to express continuation:

[4] This play will [run] **and** [run] **and** [run].

[5] He just [talks] **and** [talks] **and** [talks].

Coordinators are sometimes used without performing any strictly coordinating role:

I'll come when I'm good **and** ready .

Here, the adjectives *good* and *ready* are not really being coordinated with each other. If they were, the sentence would mean something like:

I'll come [when I'm good] **and** [when I'm ready].

Clearly, this is not the meaning which *good and ready* conveys. Instead, *good and* intensifies the meaning of *ready*. We might rephrase the sentence as

I'll come when I'm *completely* ready.

Good and ready is an example of **FALSE COORDINATION** -- using a coordinator without any coordinating role. It is sometimes called **PSEUDO-COORDINATION**.

False coordination can also be found in informal expressions using *try and*:

Please *try and* come early .

I'll *try and* ring you from the office.

Here, too, no real coordination is taking place. The first sentence, for instance, does not mean *Please try, and please come early*. Instead, it is semantically equivalent to *Please try to come early*.

In informal spoken English, *and* and *but* are often used as false coordinators, without any real coordinating role. The following extract from a conversation illustrates this:

Speaker A: Well he told me it's this super high-flying computer software stuff. I'm sure it's the old job he used to have cleaning them

Speaker B: *But* it went off okay last night then did it? Did you have a good turnout?

Here, the word *but* used by Speaker B does not coordinate any conjoins. Instead, it initiates her utterance, and introduces a completely new topic.

Exercises on page 191

I.8.3. Subordinating Conjunctions:

Subordinating Conjunctions or Subordinators join clauses. We can distinguish between:

Simple:

after, (al)though, as, because, before, if, how(ever), like, once, since, that, till, unless, until, when(ever), who(ever), what(ever) whereas, etc.

Compound:

in that, so that, in order that, such that, for all that, now (that), providing (that), immediately (that), as far as, as long as, sooner than, as if, in case, etc.

Correlative:

If....then, (al)though.....yet, as....so, as....as, so...as, such....as, whethernot, etc.

PART 1

SECTION 9

I.9.1.INTERJECTIONS: THE WORDS TO EXPRESS EMOTIONS

We have now looked at the seven major word classes in English. Most words can be assigned to at least one of these classes. However, there are some words which will not fit the criteria for any of them. Consider, for example, the word *wow!*. It is clearly not a noun, or an adjective, or a verb, or indeed any of the classes we have looked at. It belongs to a minor word class, which we call **INTERJECTIONS**.

Interjections express a wide range of emotions, including surprise (*oh!*), (*wow*), exasperation (*shit!*), and disgust (*yuk!*). They generally occur only in spoken English, or in the representation of speech in novels.

There are also other words that like interjections do not fit the definition of any of the parts of speech we have studied so far but that play an important role in communication; the so-called **formulaic expressions**.

They consist of a single word or of several words acting as a unit that are used to express greetings, farewell, thanks, or apologies. Here are some examples:

<i>bye</i>	<i>excuse me</i>
<i>goodbye</i>	<i>thanks</i>
<i>hello</i>	<i>thank you</i>
<i>farewell</i>	<i>thanks a lot</i>
<i>hi</i>	<i>sorry</i>
<i>so long</i>	<i>pardon</i>

Some formulaic expressions express agreement or disagreement with a previous speaker:

yes, yeah, no, okay, right, sure

Formulaic expressions and interjections, are unvarying in their form, that is, they do not take any inflections.

PART I

SECTION 10

I.10.1.THERE AND IT AS MINOR WORD CLASSES

I.10.1.1.The Existential *There*

We have seen that the word *there* is an **adverb**, in sentences such as:

You can't park **there**.
I went **there** last year

Specifically, it is an adverb of place in these examples.

However, the word *there* has another use. As **EXISTENTIAL THERE**, it often comes at the start of a sentence:

There is a fly in my soup.
There were six errors in your essay.

Existential *there* is most commonly followed by a form of the verb *be*. When it is used in a question, it follows the verb:

Is **there** a problem with your car?
Was **there** a storm last night?

The two uses of *there* can occur in the same sentence:

There is a parking space **there**

In this example, the first *there* is existential *there*, and the second is an adverb.

I.10.1.2.Uses of *It*.

In the section on pronouns, we saw that the word *it* is a third person singular pronoun. However, this word also has other roles which are not related to its pronominal use. We look at some of these other uses here.

When we talk about time or the weather, we use sentences such as:

What time is *it*?

It is four o'clock.
It is snowing.
It's going to rain.

Here, we cannot identify precisely what *it* refers to. It has a rather vague reference, and we call this **DUMMY IT** or **PROP IT**. Dummy *it* is also used, equally vaguely, in other expressions:

Hold **it**!
Take **it** easy!
Can you make **it** to my party?

It is sometimes used to "anticipate" something which appears later in the same sentence:

It's great to see you.
It's a pity you can't come to my party

In the first example, *it* "anticipates" *to see you*. We can remove *it* from the sentence and replace it with *to see you*:

To see you is great

Because of its role in this type of sentence, we call this **ANTICIPATORY IT**.

Exercises on page 192.

PART II

SECTION 1

The Second Level of Grammar Analysis

II.1.1.PHRASES.THE CONSTITUENTS OF SENTENCES

We have now completed the first level of grammatical analysis, in which we looked at words individually and classified them according to certain criteria. That classification is important because, as we'll see, it forms the basis of the next level of analysis, in which we consider units which may be larger than individual words, but are smaller than sentences. In this section we will be looking at **PHRASES**.

II.1.2.Defining a Phrase

When we looked at **nouns** and **pronouns**, we said that a pronoun can sometimes replace a **noun** in a sentence. One of the examples we used was this:

Children should watch less television.

They should watch less television.

Here it is certainly true that the pronoun *they* replaces the noun *children*. But consider:

The children should watch less television.

They should watch less television.

In this example, *they* does not replace *children*. Instead, it replaces *the children*, which is a unit consisting of a determiner and a noun. We refer to this unit as a **NOUN PHRASE (NP)**, and we define it as any unit in which the central element is a noun. Here is another example:

I like [*the title of your book*]

I like [*it*]

In this case, the pronoun *it* replaces not just a noun but a five-word noun phrase, *the title of your book*. So instead of saying that pronouns can replace nouns, it is more accurate to say that they can replace *noun phrases*.

We refer to the central element in a phrase as the **HEAD** of the phrase. In the noun phrase *the children*, the Head is *children*. In the noun phrase *the title of your book*, the Head is *title*.

Noun phrases do not have to contain strings of words. In fact, they can contain just one word, such as the word *children* in *children should watch less television*. This is also a phrase, though it contains only a Head. At the level of word class, of course, we would call *children* a plural, common noun. But in a phrase-level analysis, we call *children* on its own a noun phrase. This is not simply a matter of terminology -- we call it a noun phrase because it can be expanded to form longer strings which are more clearly noun phrases.

Phrases consist minimally of a Head. This means that in a one-word phrase like *children*, the **Head** is *children*. In longer phrases, a string of elements may appear before the Head:

the small children

For now, we will refer to this string simply as the **SPECIFIER** string.

A string of elements may also appear after the Head, and we will call this the **COMPLEMENT** string:

the small children *in class 5*

So we have a basic three-part structure:

Specifier string	Head	Complement string
[<i>the small</i>	<i>children</i>	<i>in class 5</i>]

Of these three parts, only the Head is obligatory. It is the only part which cannot be omitted from the phrase. To illustrate this, let's omit each part in turn:

Specifiers	Head	Complement
[--	<i>children</i>	<i>in class 5</i>]
*[<i>the small</i>	--	<i>in class 5</i>]
[<i>the small</i>	<i>children</i>	--]

Specifier and complement strings can be omitted, while leaving a complete noun phrase. We can even omit the both strings at the same time, leaving only the Head:

Specifiers	Head	Complements
[--	<i>children</i>	--]

This is still a complete noun phrase.

However, when the Head is omitted, we're left with an incomplete phrase (**the small in class five*). This provides a useful method of identifying the Head of a phrase. In general, the Head is the only obligatory part of a phrase.

Just as a noun functions as the Head of a noun phrase, a verb functions as the Head of a verb phrase, and an adjective functions as the Head of an adjective phrase, and so on. We recognise five phrase types in all:

Phrase Type	Head	Example
Noun Phrase	Noun	[the <i>children</i> in class 5]
Verb Phrase	Verb	[<i>play</i> the piano]
Adjective Phrase	Adjective	[<i>delighted</i> to meet you]
Adverb Phrase	Adverb	[very <i>quickly</i>]
Prepositional Phrase	Preposition	[<i>in</i> the garden]

For convenience, we will use the following abbreviations for the phrase types. They are presented in the colour that identifies the part of speech head of each phrase:

Phrase Type	Abbreviation
Noun Phrase	<i>NP</i>
Verb Phrase	<i>VP</i>
Adjective Phrase	<i>AP</i>
Adverb Phrase	<i>AdvP</i>
Prepositional Phrase	<i>PP</i>

Now we will study each of these phrases in particular.

Exercises on page 193

PART II

SECTION 1.2

II.1.2.1.THE NOUN PHRASE

A **Noun Phrase (NP)** is made up of a noun or of a group of words with a noun as its head; therefore, the following are examples of **NPs**

Peter

The boy

He

The happy boy

The boy in the classroom

At the level of word class analysis *Peter* and *He* represent a noun and a pronoun, respectively. However, at this level of analysis they are considered NPs. Each colored underlined word in the examples above represents the **head** of the **NP**. They are presented in orange because they are nouns and they have been underlined because they are the head of the noun phrase.

We recognize a word as head of a group of words because it cannot be taken away without changing the meaning of the group of words as a phrase; see for instance:

*The

*The happy

*The in the classroom

In contrast to:

Happy boy or boy in the classroom

So, the word that cannot be missing is the **head** of the phrase. In other words, the head is the obligatory word in the string of words.

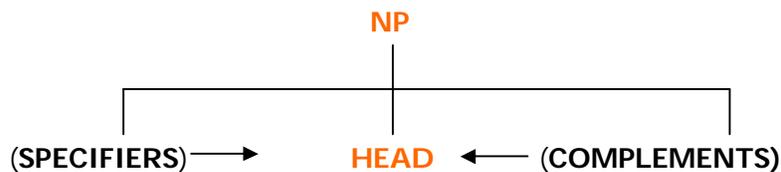
As you may notice in the examples above, the **head** of an **NP** does not have to be a common or a proper noun. Recall that pronouns are a subclass of nouns. This means that pronouns, too, can function as the **head** of an **NP**:

I like coffee.

The waitress gave **me** the wrong dessert

This is my car

In the previous section it was pointed out that the head may be preceded by a word or string of words that we called the specifier string (**SPECIFIERS**). It was also pointed out that the head may be followed by another string of words called the complement string (**COMPLEMENTS**) as we can see in the following diagram:



Specifiers and complements are presented within brackets because they, SOMETIMES, may be optional as you will learn later in this same Section.

Determiners and **Adjective Phrases (APs)** usually constitute the specifiers of the English **NP**:

the children...

happy children...

the happy children...

APs as specifiers of the NP are always optional; that is they depend on the intention of the speaker to qualify the noun. Let's consider the following **NPs**:

[1] [**The happy children**] playing in the sandbox.

[2] [**The children**] playing in the sandbox.

Both [1] and [2] express the idea of a group of children playing in the sandbox, however in [1] it has been made it clear that the children are happy. It means that if the adjective *happy* is taken out of the NP as in [2], the sentence would carry less information than [1] but they both are grammatical sentences.

Determiners are, on the other hand, more essential to NPs than APs. The use of the determiner, especially articles, is not discursively driven; that is, it does not rely upon the speaker's intention. It is grammatically driven; which makes its use **obligatory** in certain constructions:

[3] [The **children**] playing in the sandbox.

[4] ***Children** playing in the sandbox.

[4] is considered ungrammatical because it lacks the definite article that specifies that the group of children we are referring to is the group of children that are playing in the sandbox. Since the reference of the children has been established the use of the definite article *the* is **obligatory**.

Prepositional Phrases (PPs), **Clauses** and **APs** are the complements of the English NP:

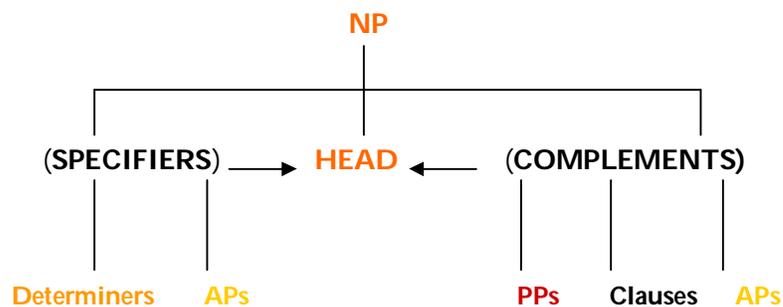
[**Boys with glasses**....]

[**Boys who are shy**....]

[**Something funny**....]

PPs are by far the most common type of NP complement in English, followed by the complement clauses and finally by the predicative APs.

The following diagram represents the whole structure of the English NP:



The complements of the noun in the NP post modify the noun. This information, like the one provided by the APs is discursively driven and it is used when it is important to add information about the noun.

[5] [Men] don't like dancing.

[6] [Men] **who are very young** don't like dancing.

Both [5] and [6] are grammatical sentences. The difference is that in [6] it has been pointed out that *men who are very young* are the ones that don't like dancing.

See however the following sentence read in the headlines of a newspaper:

[7] ?* The **destruction** was total.

The intended meaning of the sentence is incomplete. It is necessary to read the text to know what has been destroyed. In that case it would be better to say:

[8] [The **destruction of the city**] was total.

In which the noun destruction is complemented by PP. In fact, almost always, nouns ending in -ion need to be complemented. Thus, we would say that in the case of these nouns, complements are **obligatory**.

If the head is a pronoun, the NP will generally consist of the head only. This is because pronouns do not take determiners or adjectives, so there will be no specifiers. However, with some pronouns, there may be a complement:

[Those **who arrive late**] cannot be admitted until the interval.

Exercises on page 194

II.1.2.1.1. Syntactic Functions of the NP:

So far we have been focused on the NPs subjects of the sentences:

[I] like coffee

but the NPs play other syntactic functions. In the sentence above *coffee* is also an NP and it is the complement of the transitive verb *like*.

[I] like [coffee]

In fact, NPs are the ordinary complements of transitive verbs or ditransitive verbs like:

[The **waitress**] gave [me] [the wrong **dessert**]

In which the pronoun *me* is the direct object and the NP *the wrong dessert* the indirect object of the verb *give*.

If we express the sentence above differently:

[The **waitress**] gave [the wrong **dessert**] [to me]

We can see that in the **PP** *to me* the **NP** *me* is the **complement of the preposition**.

Finally, there is another function of the NP, the adverbial function in which the NP adds information about the action or state of the verb:

[**He**] phoned [me] [**last night**].

In which the **NP** *last night* indicates the time of the action.

Exercises on page 194

PART II

SECTION 1.3

II.1.3.1. The Adjective Phrase

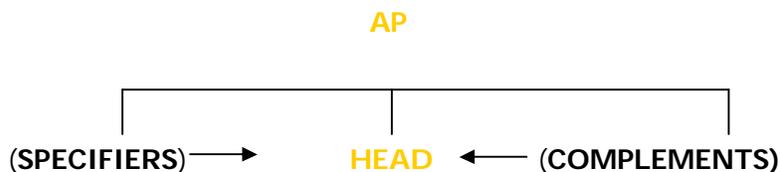
An **Adjective Phrase (AP)** is formed by an adjective or a group of words with an adjective as its head; therefore the following are examples of **APs**:

[**Clever**]

[**Very clever**]

Is [**sad**]

The structure of the **AP** is quite similar to the other Phrases studied so far:



There is only one kind of possible specifier in the AP and that will be quantifier adverbs (also called simply quantifiers) such as: *very, extremely, quite, etc.* The use of these quantifiers is always **optional**.

She is [**extremely sad**]

I am [**very happy**] to see you

Adjectives may be followed by complements, usually also optional :

[**happy** to meet you]

[**ready** to go]

[**afraid** of the dark]

As you can see in the examples above **clauses** and **PPs** are the common complements of **Adjectives** in the **APs**.

However, recall that in Section I.4.5. it was explained that a small number of adjectives **must** be followed by a complement.

The adjective *fond* is one of these. Compare:

My sister is [**fond of** animals] in contrast to *My sister is [**fond**]
 Mary is [**keen on**]music as compared to *Mary is [**keen** music]

The prepositions **on** and **of** become part of the adjectives keen and fond.

Other adjectives take **that**-clauses and **to**-clauses as complements (we will study clauses in Section II.2.1.) as in:

I am [**sure that he will be late**] or This problem was [**very easy to solve**]

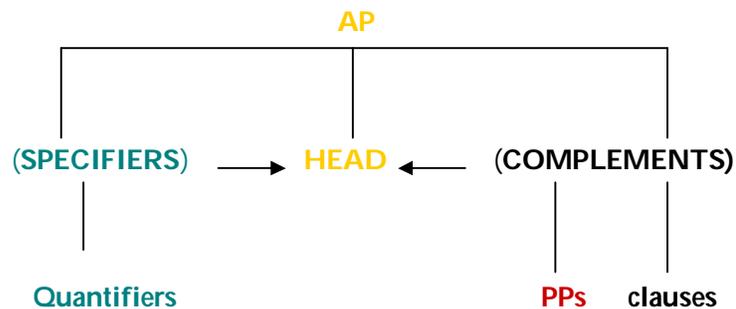
The clauses *that he will be late* and *to solve* complement the qualification introduced by the adjectives.

In all these cases, the complementation of the adjective is **obligatory**.

APs occur within the **NPs** as they may be specifiers or complements of the noun head. They also occur within the **VP** when the head of the VP is a linking verb.

NP	VP
[The poor] woman]	[was [very sad]]
[Something [weird]]	[happened]

The following diagram represents the whole structure of the English **AP**.



Exercises on page 195

PART II

SECTION 1.4

II.1.4.1. PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

Prepositional Phrases (PPs) are the only phrases that consist of two obligatory components: the preposition head and an **NP** as complement. Here are some examples:

[through [the window]]

[over [the bar]]

[across [the line]]

[after [midnight]]

This makes **PPs** easy to recognise

Sometimes the NPs complements of the prepositions are replaced by clauses:

[That] [depends [on what is decided on the meeting]]

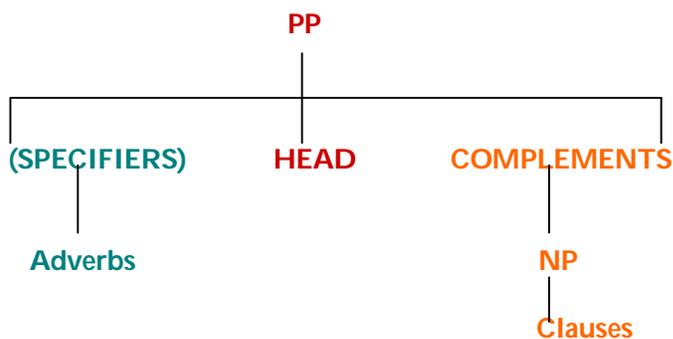
Like other heads, prepositions may also be preceded by specifiers which are normally adverbs such as: straight, just, right, etc.

[[straight] through [the window]]

[[right] over [the bar]]

[[just] after [midnight]]

The diagram represents the structure of the English PP:



Exercises on page.196

II.1.4.2. Syntactic Functions of the PP:

The PP occurs within the **NP** complementing the noun head:

[the house [beyond [the church]]]

It also occurs within the **VP** complements of certain intransitive verbs:

[Went [to [Caracas]] [yesterday]]

The PP occurs within the **AP** when it is complement of the adjective head:

[keen [on [good] [music]]]

As an **adverbial**, the PP may occur within the VP or at the beginning or the end of a sentence:

[During [winter]] a lot of people travel to Florida.

He moved to Europe [in [August]].

Exercises on page 197

PART II

SECTION 1.5

II.1.5.1 THE VERB PHRASE

A **Verb Phrase (VP)** is made up of a verb or of a group of words with a verb as its head; therefore, the following are examples of **VPs**

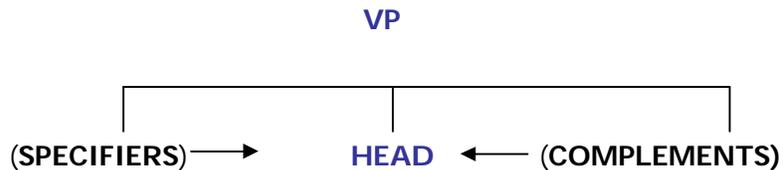
Made a cake

died

Gave Peter a book.

Is sad

The structure of the VP is quite similar to the one of the NP



The specifiers in the VP are always **optional**; and they will be a 'negative' word such as *not* [1] or *never* [2], or an **AdvP** [3]:

[1] He [*did not* compose an aria]

[2] He [*never* composed an aria]

[3] Paul [*deliberately* broke the window]

The use of complements in the VP is ruled out by the syntactic function of the verb head of the VP.

If the verb is transitive or ditransitive it **must** be followed by a complement or complements represented either by NPs or clauses:

My mother [**made a cake**] in contrast to *My mother [**made**]

I [**gave Peter a book**] in contrast to * I [**gave a book**]

I [**found what I was looking for**] in contrast to * I [**found**]

Some intransitive verbs are **never** followed by a direct object:

Susan [**smiled**]

The professor [**yawned**]

Other verbs entered in dictionaries as intransitive verbs take **PPs** as complements:

Susan [**went to Caracas**] in contrast to *Susan [**went**]

He [**said to me**] in contrast to *He [**said me**]

In fact, most verbs in English can be both transitive and intransitive, so it is perhaps more accurate to refer to transitive and intransitive *uses* of a verb. The following examples show the two uses of the same verb:

Intransitive: David [**smokes**]

Transitive: David [**smokes** cigars]

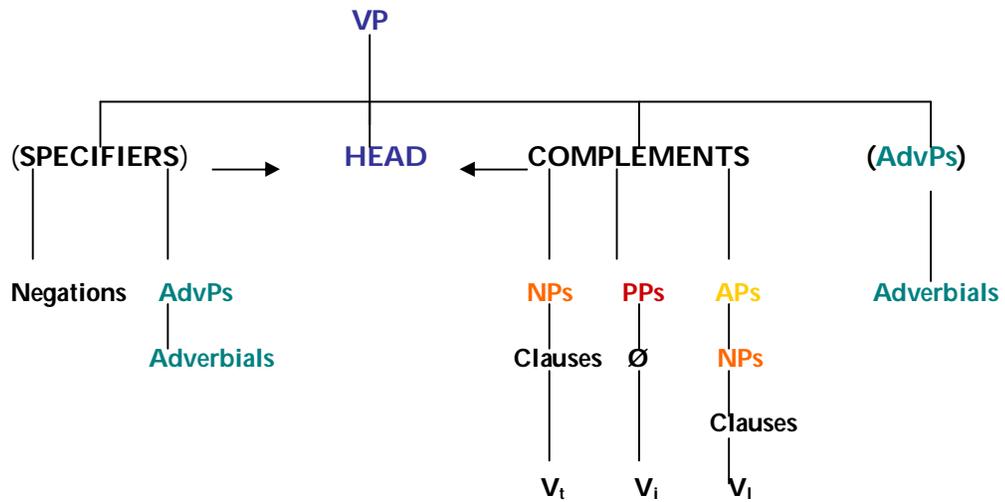
Finally, the linking verbs require other kinds of complements:

An NP :	He [became a beggar .]
A clause	She [seems to be a sweet girl .]
An AP	He [became very sick]

Adverbials and adverbs are also components of the VP; however, they are always **optional**. As you may recall they may occupy different positions within the sentence but they **never** occur between a transitive verb and its complement.

He [**went to Caracas yesterday**.]
The boy [**found the puppy in the backyard**.]

This diagram represents the whole structure of the English **VP**



Exercises on page 197

PART II

SECTION 1.6

II.1.6.1. Adverb Phrase (AdvP)

An **Adverb Phrase** -or Adverbial Phrase as it is called in several grammars- (**AdvP**) is formed by and adverb or by a quantifier and an adverb as **head**; therefore the following are examples of **AdvPs**:

[very recently]

[suddenly]

Unlike other Phrases studied so far, the English **AdvP** has no complements. However, because language is messy you may find an exception like the one presented in the following sentence:

[**Unfortunately** for him], his wife came home early

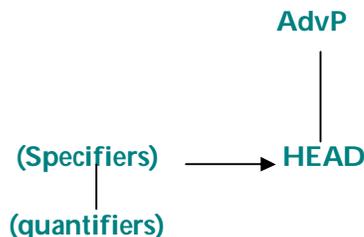
It is important to keep in mind that although adverbials are like adverbs in function they keep their structural form when analyzing sentences:

His wife came home [**early**] [**last night**]

Here, we find and **AdvP** represented by the adverb *early* and one **NP** (*last night*) with **adverbial function** and for this reason it has been presented in within sea blue brackets which is the colour we have been using to represent adverbs and adverbials.

Because **AdvPs** are part of the **VP** they occur within this phrase. By now you know that the **AdvP** may occur in several positions within the VP or it may precede the whole sentence.

This diagram represents the structure of the English **AdvP**:



PART II

SECTION 2

II.2.1. CLAUSES AND SENTENCES

II.2.1.1. Clauses:

So far we have been looking at phrases more or less in isolation. In real use, of course, they occur in isolation only in very restricted circumstances. For example, we find isolated **NPs** in public signs and notices:

[Exit]

[Sale]

[Restricted Area]

[Hyde Park]

We sometimes use isolated phrases in spoken English, especially in responses to questions:

Q: What would you like to drink?

A: [Coffee]_{NP}

Q: How are you today?

A: [Fine]_{AP}

Q: Where did you park the car?

A: [Behind the house]_{PP}

In more general use, however, phrases are integrated into longer units, which we call **CLAUSES**¹:

¹ In previous Sections we did not use a specific colour to identify clauses because by that moment they were elements within phrases. In this Section we are studying clauses as a component of sentences; therefore to differentiate among them we will use shades of green.

Q: What would you like to drink?

A: [I'd like coffee]

Q: How are you today?

A: [I'm fine]

Q: Where did you park the car?

A: [I parked the car behind the house]

You may argue that these bracketed clauses look like sentences. You are right! Remember that sentences are made up of clauses and that clauses are sentences within sentences. A sentence contains at least one clause and there are sentences that have two or more clauses.

When there is only one clause in a sentence the clause is considered the **main, principal or matrix clause**, but when there are two or more clauses one clause is the main clause and the other or others are **subordinate clauses**.

Subordinate clauses are almost always introduced by a subordinator. **That** is by far the most commonly used subordinator. Relative pronouns and Wh-words also show the subordination of a clause; as well as **conjunctions** which, to a certain point, specify the clause. (See Section 1.8. 1. for a review on conjunctions).

11.2.1.2. The Clause Hierarchy

A clause is considered to be the main clause in a sentence when it can stand by itself not needing any other clause to express complete meaning:

[[He said something]]

Here we find a sentence made up of one clause which expresses the meaning that he said something. But notice:

[[He said [that he wants his toy]]]

In this case we find a sentence made up of two clauses. One main clause that expresses the meaning that *someone said that he wanted his toy* and a subordinate clause expressing that *someone wants his toy*. However if we separate the clauses we find that the second one cannot stand by itself:

?*[that he wants his toy]

It looks awkward or incomplete. It needs to subordinate to the main clause to express complete meaning.

The terms **subordinate** and **main** are relative terms. They describe the relationship between clauses in what is called the **CLAUSE HIERARCHY**. We can illustrate what this means by looking at a slightly more complicated example:

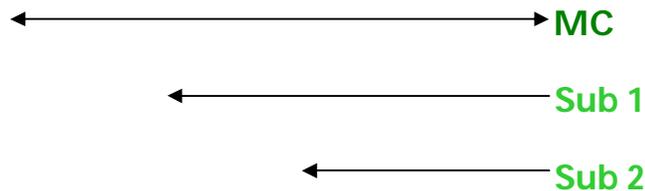
[[He said I think I'd like coffee]]

Here the main clause is:

[[He said I think I'd like coffee]]

This matrix clause contains two subordinate clauses, which we'll refer to as Sub1 and Sub2:

[He said [I think [I'd like coffee]]]



Sub1 is both subordinate and main. It is subordinate in relation to the main clause, and it is main in relation to Sub2.

Subordinate and **main**, then, are not absolute terms. They describe how clauses are arranged hierarchically relative to each other.

The sentence diagramed above is an example of embedded clauses. Here, the subordinate clauses are embedded within the matrix clause.

Exercises on page 198

11.2.1.3. Syntactic Classification of Clauses:

As a working definition, let us say that clauses contain at least a verb phrase:

[My solicitor **[VP sent me a letter]** yesterday]

[David **[VP composed an aria]** when he **[VP was twelve]**]

As these examples show, clauses can also contain many other elements, but for now we will concentrate on the **VP**. We have already seen that verbs (and therefore the VPs that contain them) are either **FINITE** or **NONFINITE**, so we can use this distinction to classify clauses. Clauses are either finite or nonfinite.

Finite verb phrases carry tense, and the clauses containing them are **FINITE CLAUSES**:

[1] [She **writes** home every day] (finite clause -- present tense verb)

[2] [She **wrote** home yesterday] (finite clause -- past tense verb)

On the other hand, nonfinite verb phrases do not carry tense. Their main verb is either a *to*-infinitive [3], a bare infinitive [4], an *-ed* form [5], or an *-ing* form [6]:

[3] [David loves **[to play the piano]**]

[4] [We made **[David play the piano]**]

[5] [**[Written in 1864]**, it soon became a classic]

[6] [**[Leaving home]** can be very traumatic]

These are **nonfinite clauses**.

Main clauses are always finite, as in [1] and [2]. However, they may contain nonfinite subordinate clauses within them. For example:

[David loves **[to play the piano]**]

Here we have a finite main clause -- its main verb *loves* has the present tense form. Within it, there is a nonfinite subordinate clause *to play the piano* -- its main verb *play* has the *to*-infinitive form.

On the other hand, subordinate clauses can be either finite or nonfinite:

Finite: [He said [that they *stayed* at a lovely hotel]]-- past tense

Nonfinite: [I was advised [to *sell* my old car]]-- *to*-infinitive

Exercise on page 199

11.2.1.4. Subordinate Clause Types:

Formal characteristics:

Subordinate clauses may be finite or non finite We will begin by looking at subordinate clauses which are distinguished by their *formal* characteristics.

Non finite subordinate clauses are sometimes named after the form of the verb which they contain:

TO-INFINITIVE clause:

[You need [to see a doctor]]

BARE INFINITIVE clause:

[They made [the professor *forget* his notes]]

-ING PARTICIPLE clause:

[His hobby is [*collecting* old photographs]]

-ED PARTICIPLE clause:

[[*Rejected* by his parents], the boy turned to a life of crime]

This is also true with finite clauses which are sometimes named after its first element:

IF-CLAUSE:

[I'll be there at nine [if I catch the early train]]

As we'll see later, *if*-clauses are sometimes called *conditional* clauses.

THAT-CLAUSE:

[David thinks [that we should have a meeting]]

The *that* element is sometimes ellipted:

[David thinks [we should have a meeting]]

II.2.1.4.1. Relative Clauses

An important type of subordinate clause is the **relative clause**. Here are some examples:

[The man [who lives beside us] is ill]

[The video [which you recommended] was terrific]

Relative clauses are generally introduced by a relative pronoun, such as *who*, or *which*. However, the relative pronoun may be ellipted:

[The video [you recommended] was terrific]

Another variant, the **relative clause**, has no relative pronoun, and the verb is nonfinite:

[The man [living beside us] is ill] = [The man [who lives beside us]]

Relative clauses also function in some respects like noun phrases:

[[What I like best] is football] (cf. *the sport I like best...*)

[The prize will go to [whoever submits the best design]] (*the person who submits...*)

The similarity with NPs can be further seen in the fact that certain nominal relatives exhibit number contrast:

Singular: [[What we need] is a plan]

Plural: [[What we need] are new ideas]

Notice the agreement here with *is* (singular) and *are* (plural).

11.2.1.4.2. Small Clauses:

Finally, we will mention briefly an unusual type of clause, the **verbless** or **small clause**. While clauses usually contain a verb, which is finite or nonfinite, small clauses lack an overt verb:

[Susan found [the job very difficult]]

We analyse this as a unit because clearly its parts cannot be separated. What Susan found was not *the job*, but *the job very difficult*. And we analyse this unit specifically as a clause because we can posit an implicit verb, namely, a form of the verb *be*:

[Susan found [the job (to be) very difficult]]

or

[Susan found [(that the) job (was) difficult]]

Here are some more examples of small clauses:

[Susan considers [David an idiot]]

[The jury found [the defendant guilty]]

11.2.1.5. Functions of the Subordinate Clause in the Sentence:

Subordinate clauses may occur in every position of the sentence. They can be:

1. Subjects of the main **verb**:

[[What we need] is a plan]

2. Complements of **transitive verbs** and **ditransitive verbs**:

[We **enjoyed** [seeing you again]]

[He **gave** Mary [what she wanted]]

3. Complements of the subjects with **linking verbs**:
[He **became** exactly [what everybody had foreseen]]
4. Complement of the **noun** within the **NP**:
[The **video** [which you recommended] was terrific]
5. Complement of the **adjective** within the **AP**:
[The exercise was too **difficult** [to solve]]
6. Complement of the **preposition** within the **PP**:
[He insisted **on** [visiting his relatives]]

Subordinate clauses may also function as adverbials modifying the verb in the VP or the whole sentences. Because the meanings expressed by the adverbial subordinate clause are of so many kinds they deserve a separate section: Pay attention to the following examples:

- [1] [When we meet], I'll explain everything]
- [2] [I'll call you before I leave]]
- [3] [She is going to prepare fish for dinner if she finds it fresh]]
- [4] [She wants to see a doctor] [because she doesn't feel well]]

The underlined subordinate clauses are adverbial clauses because like adverbs or adverbials they modify or add information to the one expressed by the verb. That is, they express time, reason, condition, etc.

The clauses in [1] and [2] add information about the time of the action. In [3] the clause expresses the condition for the action whereas in [4] it explains the reason for the action.

These are some of the many meanings that adverbial clauses may express:

Meaning	Example
Temporal	<p>[I'll ring you again [before I leave]]</p> <p>[David joined the army [after he graduated]]</p> <p>[[When you leave], please close the door]</p> <p>[I read the newspaper [while I was waiting]]</p>
Conditional	<p>[I'll be there at nine [if I can catch the early train]]</p> <p>[[Provided he works hard], he'll do very well at school]</p> <p>[Don't call me [unless its an emergency]]</p>
Concessive	<p>[He bought me a lovely gift, [although he can't really afford it]]</p> <p>[[Even though he worked hard], he failed the final exam]</p> <p>[[While I don't agree with her], I can understand her viewpoint]</p>
Reason	<p>[Paul was an hour late [because he missed the train]]</p> <p>[I borrowed your lawn mower, [since you weren't using it]]</p> <p>[[As I don't know the way], I'll take a taxi]</p>
Result	<p>[The kitchen was flooded, [so we had to go to a restaurant]]</p> <p>[I've forgotten my password, [so I can't read my email]]</p>
Comparative	<p>[This is a lot more difficult [than I expected]]</p> <p>[She earns as much money [as I do]]</p> <p>[I think London is less crowded [than it used to be]]</p>

The table does not cover all the possible types, but it does illustrate many of the various meanings which can be expressed by subordinate clauses.

Notice that the same word can introduce different semantic types. For instance, the word *while* can introduce a temporal clause:

[I read the newspaper *while* I was waiting]

or a concessive clause:

[*While* I don't agree with her], I can understand her viewpoint]

Similarly, the word *since* can express time:

[I've known him *since* he was a child]

as well as reason:

[I borrowed your lawn mower, *since* you weren't using it]

Exercises on page 200

II.2.2.1. SENTENCES

Most people recognise a sentence as a unit which begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop (period), a question mark, or an exclamation mark. Of course, this applies only to written sentences. Sentences have also been defined notionally as units which express a "complete thought", though it is not at all clear what a "complete thought" is.

It is more useful to define a sentence syntactically, as a unit which consists of one or more clauses. According to this definition, the following examples are all sentences:

[1] [Paul likes football]

[2] [You can borrow my pen *if* you need one]

[3] [Paul likes football] and [David likes chess]

Sentence [1] is a **SIMPLE SENTENCE** -- it contains only one clause.

Sentence [2] consists of a main clause *You can borrow my pen if you need one*, and a subordinate clause *if you need one*. This is called a **COMPLEX SENTENCE**. A

complex sentence is defined as a sentence which contains at least one subordinate clause.

Finally, sentence [3] consists of two clauses which are coordinated with each other. This is a **COMPOUND** sentence. Notice that both clauses are main clauses, no one is subordinated to the other.

By using subordination and coordination, sentences can potentially be infinitely long, but in all cases we can analyse them as one or more clauses.

Exercises on page 200

II.2.2.2. Sentence Classification:

Sentences may be classified according to their use in discourse. We recognise four main sentence types:

- declarative
- interrogative
- imperative
- exclamative

II.2.2.2.1. Declarative

Declarative sentences are used to convey information or to make statements:

[David plays the piano]

[I hope [you can come tomorrow]]

[We've forgotten the milk]

Declarative sentences are by far the most common type.

II.2.2.2.2. Interrogative

Interrogative sentences are used in asking questions:

[Is this your book?]

[Did you receive my message?]

[Have you found a new job yet?]

The examples above are specifically **YES/NO questions**, because they elicit a response which is either *yes* or *no*.

Alternative interrogatives offer two or more alternative responses:

[Should I telephone you] or [send an email?]

[Do you want tea, coffee, or milk?]

Yes/no interrogatives and alternative interrogatives are introduced by an auxiliary verb.

WH- questions, on the other hand, are introduced by a *wh-* word, and they elicit an open-ended response:

[What happened?]

[Where do you work?]

[Who won the Cup Final in 2003?]

Questions are sometimes tagged onto the end of a declarative sentence:

[David plays the piano, *doesn't he?*]

[We've forgotten the milk, *haven't we?*]

[There's a big match tonight, *isn't there?*]

These are known as TAG QUESTIONS. They consist of a main or auxiliary verb followed by a pronoun or existential *there*

II.2.2.2.3. Imperative

Imperative sentences are used in issuing orders or directives:

[Leave your coat in the hall!]

[Give me your phone number]

[Don't shut the door]

[Stop!]

Tag questions are sometimes added to the end of imperatives:

[Leave your coat in the hall, *will you?*]

[Write soon, *won't you?*]

In an imperative sentence, the main verb is in the base form. This is an exception to the general rule that matrix clauses are always finite.

11.2.2.2.4. Exclamative

Exclamative sentences are used to make exclamations:

[What a stupid man he is!]

[How wonderful you look!]

The four sentence types exhibit different syntactic forms, which we will be looking at in a later section. For now, it is worth pointing out that there is not necessarily a one-to-one relationship between the form of a sentence and its discourse function. For instance, the following sentence has declarative form:

[You need some help]

But when this is spoken with a rising intonation, it becomes a question:

[You need some help?]

Conversely, rhetorical questions have the form of an interrogative, but they are really statements:

[Who cares? (= I don't care)]

Exercise on page 201

11.2.2.3. The Grammatical Hierarchy:

Words, phrases, clauses, and sentences constitute what is called the GRAMMATICAL HIERARCHY. We can represent this schematically as follows:

sentences
consist of one or more...

clauses
consist of one or more...

phrases
consist of one or more...

words

Sentences are at the top of the hierarchy, so they are the largest unit which we will be considering (though some grammars do look beyond the sentence). At the other end of the hierarchy, words are at the lowest level, though again, some grammars go below the word to consider morphology, the study of how words are constructed.

At the clause level and at the phrase level, two points should be noted:

1. Although clauses are higher than phrases in the hierarchy, clauses can occur within phrases, as we've already seen:

The man who lives beside us is ill

Here we have a **relative clause** *who lives beside us* within the **NP** *the man who lives beside us*.

2. We've also seen that clauses can occur within clauses, and phrases can occur within phrases:

[[He said I think [I'd like coffee]]]

[People [around the world]]

Bearing these two points in mind, we can now illustrate the grammatical hierarchy using the following sentence:

[My sister bought a new car]

This is a simple sentence consisting of a main clause; therefore we can represent it within single brackets.

This main clause (which is a sentence) can be subdivided into an NP and a VP:

[[My sister] [bought a new car]]
 S NP VP

The VP contains a further NP within it:

[[My sister] [bought [a new car]]]
 S NP VP NP

This NP contains an AP within it:

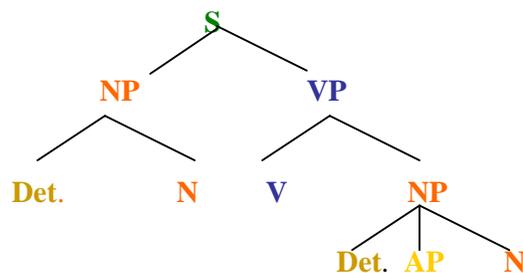
[[My sister] [bought [a [new] car]]]
 S NP VP NP

And each Phrase consists of individual words:

[[My sister] [bought [a [new] car]]]
 s Det N V Det A N
 NP VP NP

Each of the bracketed units here is a word, a phrase, or a clause. We refer to these as **CONSTITUENTS**. A constituent is defined as a word or a group of words which acts syntactically as a unit.

As a means of illustrating the grammatical hierarchy, the labelled brackets we have used here have at least one major drawback. You've probably noticed it already -- they are very difficult to interpret. And the problem becomes more acute as the sentence becomes more complex. For this reason, linguists prefer to employ a more visual method, the **TREE DIAGRAM**.



We will deal with more complex tree diagrams in later syntax courses:

Exercises on page 202.

II.2.2.4. Form and Function

One of the criteria we used to distinguish between word classes was the form or "shape" of a word. When we looked at phrases, we were also concerned with their form. We said that phrases may have the basic form (*Specifiers*) - *Head* - (*complements*). And finally, we classified clauses according to the form (finite or nonfinite) of their main verb.

In all of these cases, we were conducting a **formal** analysis. Form denotes how something looks -- its shape or appearance, and what its structure is. When we say that *the old man* is an NP, or that *the old man bought a newspaper* is a finite clause, we are carrying out a formal analysis.

We can also look at constituents -- phrases and clauses -- from another angle. We can examine the **functions** which they perform in the larger structures which contain them.

II.2.2.4.1. Subject and Predicate

II.2.2.4.1.1. Subject

The most familiar grammatical function is the SUBJECT. In notional terms, we can think of the Subject as the element which performs the "action" denoted by the verb:

[1] Peter swims very well

[2] The police interviewed all the witnesses

In [1], the Subject *Peter* performs the action of swimming. In [2], the Subject *the police* performs the action of interviewing all the witnesses. In these terms, this means that we can identify the Subject by asking a *wh*-question:

[1] Peter swims very well

Q. Who swims very well?

A. *Peter* (= Subject)

[2] The police interviewed all the witnesses

Q. Who interviewed all the witnesses?

A. *The police* (= Subject)

Having identified the Subject, we can see that the remainder of the sentence tells us what the Subject does or did. In [1], for example, *swims very well* tells us what Peter does. We refer to this string as the PREDICATE of the sentence. In [2], the Predicate is *interviewed all the witnesses*.

Here are some more examples of sentences labelled for Subject and Predicate.

Subject	Predicate
The dog	barked
He	swims well
She	loves cooking
The girl in the blue dress	arrived late
John	seems unhappy

In each of these examples, the Subject performs the action or experiences the state described in the Predicate

There are other characteristics of the grammatical subject that are useful for its identification:

II.2.2.4.1.1 Subject-Verb Inversion

In a declarative sentence, the Subject comes before the verb:

Declarative: David is sad

When we change this into a *yes/no* interrogative, the Subject and the verb change places with each other:

Is David sad?

If an auxiliary verb is present, however, the Subject changes places with the auxiliary:

Declarative: *Jim has* left already

Interrogative: *Has Jim* left already?

In this interrogative, the Subject still comes before the main verb, but after the auxiliary. This is true also of interrogatives with a *do*-auxiliary:

Declarative: Jim left early.

Interrogative: Did Jim leave early?

Subject-verb inversion is probably the most reliable method of identifying the Subject of a sentence.

II.2.2.4.1.1.2. Position of the Subject

In a declarative sentence, the Subject is usually the *first* constituent:

Jim was in bed.

Paul arrived too late for the party.

The Mayor of New York attended the banquet.

We made a donation to charity.

However, there are exceptions to this. For instance:

Yesterday, the theatre was closed.

Here, the first constituent is the adverb phrase *yesterday*, but this is not the Subject of the sentence. Notice that *the theatre*, and not *yesterday*, inverts with the verb in the interrogative:

Declarative: Yesterday the theatre was closed

Interrogative: Yesterday was the theatre closed?

So the Subject here is *the theatre*, even though it is not the first constituent in the sentence.

II.2.2.4.1.1.3. Subject-verb Agreement

Subject-verb AGREEMENT or CONCORD relates to number agreement (singular or plural) between the Subject and the verb which follows it:

Singular Subject: *The dog* howls all night

Plural Subject: *The dogs howl* all night

There are two important limitations to Subject-verb agreement. Firstly, agreement only applies when the verb is in the present tense. In the past tense, there is no overt agreement between the Subject and the verb:

The dog barked all night.

The dogs barked all night.

And secondly, agreement applies only to third person Subjects. There is no distinction, for example, between a first person singular Subject and a first person plural Subject:

I howl all night.

We howl all night.

The concept of NOTIONAL AGREEMENT sometimes comes into play:

The government *is* considering the proposal.

The government *are* considering the proposal .

Here, the form of the verb is not determined by the form of the Subject. Instead, it is determined by how we interpret the Subject. In *the government is...*, the Subject is interpreted as a unit, requiring a singular form of the verb. In *the government are...*, the Subject is interpreted as having a plural meaning, since it relates to a collection of individual people. Accordingly, the verb has the plural form *are*.

II.2.2.4.1.1.4. Subjective or Nominative Pronouns

The pronouns *I, he/she/it, we, they*, always function as Subjects, in contrast with *me, him/her, us, them*:

I left early **Me* left early

He left early **Him* left early

We left early **Us* left early

They left early **Them* left early

The pronoun *you* can also be a Subject:

You left early

but it does not always perform this function. In the following example, the Subject is *Tom*, not *you*:

Tom likes you

11.2.2.4.1.1.5. Grammatical realizations of the Subject

11.2.2.4.1.1.5.1. The NP subject:

In the sentence, *Jim was in bed*, the Subject is the NP *Jim*. More precisely, we say that the Subject is *realised* by the NP *Jim*. Conversely, the NP *Jim* is the *realisation* of the Subject in this sentence. Remember that **NP is a formal term**, while **Subject is a functional term**:

FORM	FUNCTION
Noun Phrase	Subject

Subjects are typically realised by **NPs**. This includes **NPs** which have pronouns [1], cardinal numerals [2], and ordinal numerals [3] as their Head word:

[1] **[We]** decided to have a party.

[2] **[One of my contacts lenses]** fell on the floor.

[3] **[The first car to reach Brighton]** is the winner.

However, other constituents can also function as Subjects, and we will examine these in the following sections.

11.2.2.4.1.1.5.2. Clauses functioning as Subject

Clauses can also function as Subjects. When they perform this function, we refer to them generally as *Subject clauses*. The table below shows examples of the major types of Subject clauses:

CLAUSES functioning as SUBJECTS	EXAMPLE
Finite <i>That</i> -clause	[1] [That his theory was flawed] soon became obvious

Nominal Relative clause	[2] [What I need]is a long holiday
Nonfinite	
To-infinitive clause	[3] [To become an opera singer] takes years of training
-ing clause	[4] [Being the chairman] is a huge responsibility

Notice that some of these Subject clauses have Subjects of their own. In [1], the Subject clause *that his theory was flawed*, has its own Subject, *his theory*. Similarly, in [2], the Subject of *what I need* is *I*.

Among nonfinite clauses, only *to*-infinitive clauses and *-ing* participle clauses can function as Subject. Bare infinitive clauses and *-ed* participle clauses cannot perform this function. In the examples above -- [3] and [4] -- the nonfinite Subject clauses do not have Subjects of their own, although they can do:

[3a] [For Mary to become an opera singer]would take years of training.

[4a] [David being the chairman] has meant more work for all of us.

11.2.2.4.1.1.5.3. Prepositional Phrases functioning as Subject

Less commonly, the Subject may be realised by a prepositional phrase (PP):

After nine is a good time to ring.

Prepositional phrases as Subject typically refer to time or to space.

11.2.2.4.1.1.5.4. Some Unusual Subjects

Before leaving this topic, we will point out some grammatical Subjects which may at first glance be difficult to recognise as such. For example, can you work out the Subject of the following sentence?

There is a fly in my soup.

As we've seen, the most reliable test for identifying the Subject is Subject-verb inversion, so let's try it here:

Declarative: There is a fly in my soup

Interrogative: Is there a fly in my soup?

The inversion test shows that the subject is *there*. You will recall that this is an example of existential *there*, and the sentence in which it is the Subject is an *existential sentence*.

Now try the same test on the following:

It is raining

The inversion test shows that the Subject is *it*:

Declarative: It is raining

Interrogative: Is it raining?

These two examples illustrate how limited the notional definition of the Subject really is. In no sense can we say that *there* and *it* are performing an "action" in their respective sentences, and yet they are grammatically functioning as Subjects.

On this page, we've seen that the function of Subject can be realised by several different forms. Conversely, the various forms (NP, clause, PP, etc) can perform several other **functions, and we will look at these in the following pages.**

Exercises on page 202

II.2.2.4.1.2. The Predicate:

Now we will look inside the Predicate, and assign functions to its constituents. Recall that the Predicate is everything apart from the Subject. So in *Peter swims well*, the Predicate is *swims well*. This Predicate consists of a verb phrase, and we can divide this into two further elements:

[swims] [well]

In formal terms, we refer to the verb as the PREDICATOR, because its function is to *predicate* or state something about the subject. Notice that **Predicate is a functional term**, while **verb is a formal term**:

FORM	FUNCTION
Verb	Predicator

However, since the Predicator is *always* realised by a verb, we will continue to use the more familiar term *verb*, even when we are discussing functions.

II.2.2.4.1.2.1. The Direct Object

In the sentence;

David plays the piano

the NP *the piano* is the constituent which undergoes the "action" of being played (by David, the Subject). We refer to this constituent as the DIRECT OBJECT.

Here are some more examples of Direct Objects:

We bought *a new computer*.

I used to ride *a motorbike*.

The police interviewed *all the witnesses*.

We can usually identify the Direct Object by asking *who* or *what* was affected by the Subject. For example:

We bought a new computer .

Q. What did we buy?

A. *A new computer* (= the Direct Object)

The Direct Object generally comes after the verb, just as the Subject generally comes before it. So in a declarative sentence, the usual pattern is:

Subject -- Verb -- Direct Object

The following table shows more examples of this pattern:

Subject	Verb	Direct Object
The tourists	visited	the old cathedral
She	sent	a postcard
The detectives	examined	the scene of the crime

II.2.2.4.1.2.1.1. Functions of the Direct Object

The function of the Direct Object is to complement the verb. It is most often realised by an NP, as in the examples above. However, this function can also be realised by a clause. The following table shows examples of clauses functioning as Direct Objects:

CLAUSES functioning as DIRECT OBJECT	EXAMPLES
Finite	
<i>That</i> -clause	[1] He thought [that he had a perfect alibi]
Nominal relative clause	[2] The officer described [what he saw through the keyhole]
Nonfinite	
<i>To</i> -infinitive clause	[3] The dog wants [to play in the garden]
Bare infinitive clause	[4] She made [the lecturer laugh]
<i>-ing</i> clause	[5] Paul loves [playing football]
<i>-ed</i> clause	[6] I'm having [my house painted]

Exercises on page 203

Subjects and Objects, Active and Passive

A useful way to compare Subjects and Direct Objects is to observe how they behave in active and passive sentences. Consider the following active sentence:

Active: *Fire destroyed the palace .*

Here we have a Subject *fire* and a Direct Object *the palace*.

Now let's convert this into a passive sentence:

The change from active to passive has the following results:

The palace was destroyed by fire.

1. The active Direct Object *the palace* becomes the passive Subject
2. The active Subject *fire* becomes part of the PP *by fire* (the *by-agent* phrase).

Some verbs occur with two Objects:

We gave [John] [a present] .

Here, the NP *a present* undergoes the "action" (a present is what is given). So *a present* is the Direct Object. We refer to the NP *John* as the INDIRECT OBJECT.

II. 2.2.4.1.3. The Indirect Object

Indirect Objects usually occur with a Direct Object, and they always come *before* the Direct Object. The typical pattern is:

Subject -- Verb -- Indirect Object -- Direct Object

Here are some more examples of sentences containing two objects:

	Indirect Object	Direct Object
Tell	<i>me</i>	<i>a story</i>
He showed	<i>us</i>	<i>his war medals</i>
We bought	<i>David</i>	<i>a birthday cake</i>
Can you lend	<i>your colleague</i>	<i>a pen?</i>

Recall that verbs which take an Indirect Object and a Direct Object are known as DITRANSITIVE verbs. Verbs which take only a Direct Object are called MONOTRANSITIVE verbs. The verb *tell* is a typical ditransitive verb, but it can also be monotransitive:

		Indirect Object	Direct Object
<i>Ditransitive</i>	David told	<i>the children</i>	<i>a story</i>
<i>Monotransitive</i>	David told		<i>a story</i>

As we've seen, an Indirect Object usually co-occurs with a Direct Object. However, with some verbs an Indirect Object may occur alone:

David told *the children*.

although we can usually posit an implicit Direct Object in such cases:

David told the children *the news*.

II.2.2.4.1.2.3.1. Grammatical Realizations of the Indirect Object

NPs are the most common realisations of the Indirect Object. It is a typical function of pronouns in the objective case, such as *me*, *him*, *us*, and *them*.

Less commonly, a clause will function as Indirect Object:

David told *whoever he saw* to report to the police.

II.2.2.4.1.3. Adjuncts:

As we learned in previous sections certain parts of a sentence may convey information about *how*, *when*, or *where* something happened:

He ate his meal **quickly** (how)

David gave blood **last week** (when)

Susan went to school **in New York** (where)

Those words may be **adverbs** (*quickly*) or **adverbials** (*last week; in New York*). In formal syntactic analysis adverbs and adverbials are called ADJUNCTS. Remember that these elements are optional, since their omission still leaves a complete sentence:

He ate his meal *quickly* ~He ate his meal

David gave blood *last week* ~David gave blood

Susan went to school *in New York* ~Susan went to school

The adverbial (adjunct) function of different elements of the sentence has been already explained in previous sections of this Study Guide; however it is convenient to review them in the light of the formal analysis of the sentence:

II.2.2.4.1.3.1. Noun Phrases functioning as Adjuncts:

David gave blood **last week**

Next summer, we're going to Spain.

We've agreed to meet **the day after tomorrow**.

NPs as Adjuncts generally refer to time, as in these examples.

II.2.2.4.1.3.2. Adverb Phrases² functioning as Adjuncts:

They ate their meal **too quickly**.

She walked **very gracefully** down the steps.

Suddenly, the door opened.

II.2.2.4.1.3.3. Prepositional Phrases functioning as Adjuncts:

Susan went to school **in New York**

I work late **on Mondays**.

After work, I go to a local restaurant .

PPs as Adjuncts generally refer to time or to place -- they tell us *when* or *where* something happens.

² Recall that Adverbial Phrases (AdvP) syntactically represent adverbs themselves; whereas adverbials are syntactically represented by means of the Phrase of clause with adverbial function.

II.2.2.4.1.3.4. Clauses functioning as Adjuncts

Subordinate clauses with adverbial function, like the ones presented in page 96 are Adjuncts. Here there are other examples of **subordinate clauses**:

Clauses functioning as Adjuncts	<i>EXAMPLES</i>
Finite	<p>[While we were crossing the park], we heard a loud explosion</p> <p>I was late for the interview [because the train broke down]</p> <p>[If you want tickets for the concert], you have to apply early</p> <p>My car broke down, [so I had to walk]</p>
Nonfinite <i>To</i> -infinitive clause Bare infinitive clause <i>ing</i> clause - <i>ed</i> clause Small clause	<p>[To open the window], you have to climb a ladder</p> <p>[Rather than leave the child alone], I brought him to work with me</p> <p>[Being a qualified plumber], Paul had no difficulty in finding the leak</p> <p>[Left to himself], he usually gets the job done quickly</p> <p>[His face red with rage], John stormed out of the room</p>

You will notice that these clauses express the range of meanings that we looked at earlier. In all cases, notice also that the Adjuncts express additional and optional information. If they are omitted, the remaining clause is still **syntactically** (grammatically) complete.

II.2.2.3. Sentence Patterns from a Functional Perspective.

In order to summarise what we have learned, we will now look at some typical sentence patterns from a functional perspective. We will then conclude this section by looking at some untypical patterns.

As we've seen, the Subject is usually (but not always) the first element in a sentence, and it is followed by the verb:

Pattern 1

Subject	Verb
<i>Peter</i>	<i>swims</i>
<i>The dog</i>	<i>barked</i>
<i>Susan</i>	<i>yawned</i>

In this pattern, the verb is not followed by any Object, and we refer to this as an **intransitive** verb.

Pattern 2

Subject	Verb	Direct Object
<i>David</i>	<i>sings</i>	<i>ballads</i>
<i>The professor</i>	<i>wants</i>	<i>to retire</i>
<i>The jury</i>	<i>found</i>	<i>the defendant guilty</i>

In this pattern the verb is **transitive**, it takes a Direct Object

Pattern 3

Subject	Verb	Indirect Object	Direct Object
<i>The old man</i>	<i>gave</i>	<i>the children</i>	<i>some money</i>
<i>My uncle</i>	<i>sent</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>a present</i>
<i>The detectives</i>	<i>asked</i>	<i>Amy</i>	<i>lots of questions</i>

Here the verb is **ditransitive** and it is followed by a Direct Object and an Indirect Object and, in that order:

Adjuncts are syntactically peripheral to the rest of the sentence. They may occur at the beginning and at the end of a sentence, as well as after the subject or between the auxiliary and the main verb. They may occur in all three of the patterns above:

	(Adjunct)	Subject	Verb	Indirect Object	Direct Object	(Adjunct)
[1]	<i>Usually</i>	<i>David</i>	<i>sings</i>			<i>in the bath</i>
[2]	<i>Unfortunately</i>	<i>the professor</i>	<i>wants</i>		<i>to retire</i>	<i>this year</i>
[3]	<i>At the start of the trial</i>	<i>the judge</i>	<i>showed</i>	<i>the jury</i>	<i>the photographs</i>	<i>in a private chamber</i>

We have bracketed the Adjuncts to show that they are optional.

The sentence patterns we looked at on the previous page represent typical or canonical patterns. But you will often come across sentences which do not conform to these patterns. We will look at some of these here.

Inside the house were two detectives.

It is a good idea to book early.

That he failed his exams is not surprising.

It was David who studied English at Oxford.

As you can see different elements of the sentence have been extraposed and the typical order has been disrupted. The motive for this movement is discursive. When, for communication you want to emphasise an element of the sentence, this element is moved to the beginning of the sentence. We will study those notions in Part III of this Study Guide which deals with language in use.

A VERY IMPORTANT NOTE TO REMEMBER: Since adjuncts may be present at all patterns, what really determines the pattern you are using is the position of the Direct and the Indirect Object.

Exercises on page 203

PART III

SECTION 1

Language in Use

III.1.1.MODAL VERBS

When we use language we use speech acts; that is we carry out an action through language. With the language we promise, we lie, we greet, etc. Many of these communicative functions are achieved by means of modal verbs. Modal verbs are auxiliary verbs which express permission, ability, and obligation among other communicative functions.

The English **modal verbs** are often challenging for learners of English. This happens for many reasons, including both grammar and meaning. We will study every modal in detail. There are, however, some important general guidelines on the use of modal verbs:

1. The English modal verbs are **auxiliary verbs**. Modal verbs are always combined with **other verbs** to show complete meanings.
2. There are both **single-word modals** and **phrasal modals**.

The **single-word modals** are:

can, could, may, might, must, shall, should, will, would

Phrasal modals include the following:

be able to, be going to, be supposed to, had better, have to, have got to, ought to, used to

- 3 All the single-word modals above are followed by the **simple form (infinitive)** of verbs:

He **may know** the answer (not *He **may knows** the answer).

- 4 Most of the phrasal modals include **to**:

be able to, be going to, be supposed to, have to, have got to, ought to, used to

With these phrasal modals, the **simple form** of a verb follows **to**:

He's able to **help** us.
He's going to **help** us.
He's supposed to **help** us.

5 One of the phrasal modals, **had better** does not include **to**. Use the **simple form** of a verb after **had better**:

He'd **better help** us. (not *He'd better to help us.)

6 All of the modal verbs show **meaning**. When they are used with a verb, they show someone's **feeling** or **attitude** toward the action or situation that the verb shows.

7 Every modal verb has **more than one** use and/or meaning.

8 In some grammar books, **dare** and **need** are included in lists of modals because their "behaviour," in some situations, is similar to the "behaviour" of modals:

Dare can be used with or without **to** and a simple verb in **negative statements** and in **questions**:

He didn't **dare** (to) leave early. /Do I **dare** (to) leave early?

Need can be used with **not** and a simple verb:

He **need not** leave early.

In other situations, the "behavior" of **dare** and **need** is not like the "behavior" of one-word modals.

Now, let's study each modal in particular:

III.1.1.1.MAY

III.1.1.1.1.Present and future permission or possibility:

For present and future time, the modal auxiliary **may** is used in two ways:

- (1) to talk about **possibility**
- (2) to ask for **permission**.

For these meanings in present and future time, use **may** + a **simple verb**.

III.1.1.1.1.a. Possibility

Where's George?

I don't know. He **may** be in class. (It's possible that George is in class.)

Do you have change for a dollar?

I'm not sure. I **may**. Let me see. (It's possible that I have change for a dollar.)

III.1.1.1.1.b. Permission:

We're finished with our work. **May** we leave? (Do we have your permission to leave?)

Yes, you **may**. (Yes, you may leave. / Yes, you have my permission to leave.)

May my friends go to the party with me? (Do my friends have your permission to go to the party with me?)

No, they **may** not. (No, your friends may not go to the party with you. / No, your friends do not have my permission to go to the party with you.)

Note:

When asking permission, do **not** use **may** with **you**:

*May you help me?

(It isn't logical to ask someone to give himself or herself permission to do something.)

III.1.1.1.2. Maybe and May be

Maybe and **may be** have similar meanings but different grammar:

Maybe she's worried. /She **may be** worried.

Maybe I'll be at Sarah's party. /I **may be** at Sarah's party.

Maybe there'll be a test tomorrow. /There **may be** a test tomorrow.

A: Is Bob angry?

B: I don't know. **Maybe**. / He **may be**.

Maybe is used before a sentence; **may be** comes after a subject--and often before a phrase.

III.1.1.1.3. May in the past

For past time, the modal verb **may** is used in quite differently in **direct speech** and in **indirect speech**.

III.1.1.1.3.a. Direct Speech

In direct speech, **may** is used **only to give information about possibility**--not both possibility and permission.

To show possibility in the past, use **may + have + the past participle** of the verb.

Examples: **may = possibility** in the past

Where's George?
I don't know. He **may have gone** home. (It's possible that George went home.)

Was Lily at the party? I'm not sure. She **may have been** there. (It's possible that she was there.)

III.1.1.1.3.b. Indirect Speech

In indirect (quoted or reported) speech, **may** often changes to **might** if the main verb is in a past tense.

Examples: **may** -----> **might** (because of the tense of the main verb):

Bob: "**May** I go with you?" (direct speech)

Bob asked if he **might** go with us. (indirect speech)

Ted: "Yes, you **may** borrow my car." (direct speech)

Ted told me that I **might** borrow his car. (indirect speech)

III.1.1.1.4. **Maybe and may have**

Maybe can also be used to give information about possibilities in the past.

Examples:

He **may have gone** home. /**Maybe** he went home.

She **may have been** there. /**Maybe** she was there.

Was Bob angry? I don't know. **Maybe**. /He **may have been**.

Did Sheila forget about our meeting? I don't know. **Maybe**. /She **may have**.

May have does **not** refer to **permission** in the past.

Examples:

"He **may have left** the room" means "Maybe he left the room" or "It's possible that he left the room." It does **not** mean "He had permission to leave the room."

"She **may have borrowed** your car" means "It's possible that she borrowed your car" or "Maybe she borrowed your car." It does **not** mean "She had permission to borrow your car."

In speech, contractions are much more common than they are in written English. Because of this, it is often difficult to understand **may have (may've)** when it is spoken at normal speed in conversational English. This contraction is very common in spoken American English, but it is not common in written English.

III.1.1.2.Might

III.1.1.2.1.Present and Future Possibility

We already learned that the modal auxiliary **might** is often used as a past form for **may** when (1) a sentence contains **indirect speech** and (2) the main verb of the sentence is in a **past tense**.

Might is also used in other ways, however. One of them is in showing **possibility** in present or future time. Both **might** and **may** are used in this way, but with **might**, the degree of possibility is weaker than it is with **may**.

Examples:

We **might** come to the party.

(The chances are not high that we will come to the party, but it's still possible that we will.)

I'm not sure where Frank is. He **might** be on vacation.

(There's a chance that Frank is on vacation, but I'm not very sure that he is.)

It **might** rain tomorrow.

(It's not very likely that it will rain, but rain is still possible.)

III.1.1.2.2.Important aspects of might

- **Might** is sometimes hard to understand because the final **t** is often not clearly pronounced. Because of this, **might** sometimes sounds like **my**.
- When **might** is used to show a slight possibility in present or future time (as it was used in the examples given above), it is **not** a past form

III.1.1.2.3.Asking Permission and Making Requests (very polite)

We have already seen that the modal auxiliary **might** is used to show **possibility** in present or future time. Two other uses are in asking very politely for **permission** and in making very polite **requests**. (In both of these uses, **may** is also possible, but **might** is "softer," more formal, more deferential, and less direct than **may**.)

Examples:

Might I help you?

(The meaning is the same as "**May** I help you?," but "softer," more formal, and less direct.)

Might we leave the room, sir?

(Again, the meaning is the same as "**May** we leave the room?," but the use of **might** makes this request less direct, more formal, and more deferential.)

Might I have a little more of that delicious cake, Mrs. Smith?

(The speaker is using very polite language in his/her request.)

Important to keep in mind:

- When someone uses **might** to ask for permission or make a request, the time is **present** or **future**, not past:

Might I have some more cake?

(The request is to do something now (have more cake), not something in the past.)

Might we leave the room?

(The request is to do something now (leave the room), not something in the past.)

- **Might** is used in asking permission and making requests only in very formal situations--situations in which the speaker is using his or her most polite language. If **might** is used to ask permission or make requests in situations which are "average" and not highly formal, **might** will probably be considered **too** polite.

Another way of using the modal auxiliary **might** is in **indirect (reported) speech**.

In indirect speech, the tense of a quoted verb (the verb in the indirect speech) depends on the tense of the main verb.

When the main verb is past (and it frequently is), the tenses of the indirect-speech verbs usually change to past forms (even if their meaning is not past) due to the "influence" of the main verb. In that situation, **may** often changes to **might**.

The modal auxiliary **might** has one form that is used only for past situations: **might have**. This form is followed by the past participle of a verb (might have seen / known / left / forgotten / heard / etc.)

Like **may have**, **might have** can mean that something was possible in the past. However, it also has another very different meaning: something was possible in the past, but it **didn't happen**.

Examples:

It's possible that Joe failed the test. = Joe **may have** / **might have** failed the test.

Joe almost failed the test, but he was lucky and passed it. = Joe **might have** failed the test, but he was lucky and passed it.

Maybe Mary left early. = Mary **may have** / **might have** left early.

It was possible for Mary to leave early, but she decided not to. = Mary **might have** left early, but she decided not to.

III.1.1.2.4. **Might in Indirect (Reported) Speech**

Examples:

Direct Speech

Joe said, "I **may** be late."

Indirect Speech

Joe said that he **might** be late.

When the direct-speech sentence has **might** in present or future time and the indirect-speech sentence has a past-tense verb, **might** does **not** change to a different form.

Examples:

Direct Speech

Joe said, "I **might** be late."

Indirect Speech

Joe said that he **might** be late.

When the outcome of something in the past is not known, either **may have** or **might have** may be used:

Why isn't Sam here yet?
I don't know. He **may have** / **might have** been delayed by traffic.

If the outcome of something in the past is known and something was possible but it didn't happen, only **might have** may be used:

Bob is really lucky, isn't he? Yes, he definitely is. He **might have** been badly injured if he hadn't been wearing his seat belt during the accident.

Might have, like **may have**, has a contracted form: **might've**. Because the 've sounds the same as "of," native speakers sometimes write "might of"--which is completely wrong.

Exercises on page 204

III.1.1.3.CAN

The modal auxiliary **can** is used in two main ways. One way is in showing **ability**; the other is in informal speech **asking and giving permission and in making requests**.

III.1.1.3.1.Ability:

Examples:

Larry **can** play piano well.

(Larry knows how to play piano well. /Larry has the ability to play piano well.)

Joan **can** solve that problem.

(Joan is able to solve that problem. /Joan knows how to solve that problem.)

The **negative** of **can** is **cannot** (one word), but **cannot** is generally contracted to **can't** in speaking.

Examples:

I'm sorry, but I **can't** (cannot) understand you.

Judy **can't** (cannot) swim very well.

João **can't** (cannot) speak Spanish, but he can understand it.

Notes:

Because **can** and **can't** (cannot) are **auxiliary** verbs, they are used with verbs in **simple** form:

He can't understand you. But never *He can't understanding you.

The pronunciation of **can** and **can't** is often confusing in everyday English, especially in connected speech because the sound /t/ is omitted. **Can** sounds /kæn/ or /kən/ and **can't** sounds something like /kæn/ but with a very nasal pronunciation). For this reason, **can't** sometimes sounds very much like **can**.

III.1.1.3.2. Asking and Giving Permission, Making Requests (Informal)

Another way to use the modal auxiliary **can** is in **informally asking and giving permission and in making requests**.

Examples:

Can I leave early?

Do I have your permission to leave early? [informal])

Yes, you **can** leave any time after 3:00.

(Yes, you have permission to leave any time after 3:00. [informal])

Can you tell me the time?

(request [informal]: Please tell me the time.)

Can you help me?

(request [informal]: Please help me.)

In the following examples, **can't** (cannot) shows that someone does **not** have permission or that someone **is not able** to do what is requested.

Examples:

I'm sorry, but you **can't** (cannot) leave early. The project that you're working on needs to be finished.

(Someone does **not** have permission to leave early. [informal])

Unfortunately I **can't** (cannot) tell you the time because I don't have a watch.

(Someone is **not** able to do what is requested--tell the time.)

Special Notes:

- **Informal** is not the same as **impolite**. **Informal** speech is used in relaxed, friendly situations. **Formal** speech is used to show respect. **Impolite** speech is angry, rude, and probably insulting
- Sometimes teachers use a kind of joke to show the difference between **can** and **may** in asking permission:

Can I smoke in here?

Yes, you are able to, but no, you do not have permission to.

(The teacher thinks that the student is asking for permission too informally and pretends to understand the meaning of **can** as **ability**, not as **permission**.)

- In requests, it's possible to use **can** with **you**, but not with **may**:

*May you help me?

Can you help me?

*May you tell me what time it is?

Can you tell me what time it is?

*May you tell me where the Post Office is?

Can you tell me where the Post Office is?

III.1.1.3.3. Could/Can in Indirect Speech when the Main Verb is Past

The modal auxiliary **could** is used in several very different ways. One happens when sentences with **can** are used in indirect (reported) speech and the main verb is past.

Examples:

Bill said, "Can you help me, Carol?" ----->Bill asked Carol if she **could** help him.

Carol replied, "I **can't** now, but I **can** later." ----->Carol replied that she **couldn't** help Bill then but added that she **could** help him later.

Bobby: "Can I have some dessert, Mom?" ----->Bobby asked his mother if he **could** have some dessert.

Bobby's mother said, "No, you **can't**, Bobby, because you haven't finished your vegetables. ----->Bobby's mother told him that he **couldn't** have any dessert because he hadn't finished his vegetables.

Special Notes:

- The time for **can** is still present or future in the indirect-speech sentences above. In the sentences, **can** changes to **could** "artificially" because the main verb is past.
- In an indirect-speech sentence, it's possible not to change the verb after **can** if it refers to something that is in general time:

Dave said, "I **can** understand Thai better than I can speak it. ----->
Dave said that he **can** understand Thai better than he **can** speak it.

(The sentence is also correct with **could**.)

- The negative of **could** in sentences such as the sentences above is **couldn't** (or could not).
- The English **modal verbs** are often challenging for learners of English. This happens for many reasons, including both grammar and meaning.

III.1.1.4. Could

III.1.1.4.1. Polite Requests

The modal auxiliary **could** is used in several very different ways. One happens when sentences with **can** are used in indirect (reported) speech and the main verb is past. Another way to use **could** is for **polite requests**. When **could** is used in this way, the time is present or future.

Examples:

Could I have your attention, please?

(**May** I . . . ? is also possible. So is **Can** I . . . ?, but **Can** I . . . ? is **informal** and **casual**, while **Could** I . . . ? is **formal** and **polite**)

Could you help me?

(**Will** you . . . ? is also possible. So is **Can** you . . . ?, but **Can** you . . . ? is **informal** and **casual**, while **Could** you . . . ? is **formal** and **polite**.)

Could we have a few minutes' break? We've been working hard for a long time!

(**May** we . . . ? is also possible. So is **Can** we . . . ?, but **Can** we . . . ? is **informal** and **casual**, while **Could** we . . . ? is **formal** and **polite**.)

Special Notes:

- In the sentences above, the **time** for **could** is present or future. It is **not** past.
- When native speakers of English use **could** instead of **can** in making requests, they feel that **could** is "softer," more polite, and more deferential than **can**.
- When native speakers of English **respond** to requests, they generally do **not** use **could** or any modal auxiliary. Instead, they say something like "Yes," "Certainly," "No, thanks," or "I'm afraid not." If a modal auxiliary is used in the response, it is usually **may** ("Yes, you may," "No, you may not.")
- Although **may** is not used in making requests, **might** sometimes is. When **might** is used in this way, it is in present or future (not past) time and refers to possibility:

Might you help me? (= Is it possible that you could help me?)

III.1.1.4.2. Could Ability in the Past

The modal auxiliary **could** is used in several very different ways. One happens when sentences with **can** are used in indirect (reported) speech and the main verb is past. Another use for **could** is in making **polite requests** (in present or future time). A third way to use **could** is in showing **ability** (but not permission) **in the past**.

Examples:

Sue was able to drive a car when she was 10 years old. ----->

Sue **could** drive a car when she was 10 years old.

Bobby knew how to read before he entered school. ----->
Bobby **could** read before he entered school.

Special Notes:

- In the sentences above, the **time** for **could** is **past**.
- **Could** shows **ability** in the past, but it does **not** show permission in the past. The meanings of the sentences below cannot be expressed with **could**.

Yes, Nadia had permission to miss class yesterday because it was a holy day in her religion.

No, Billy didn't have permission to stay up late last night. He had school the next day.

- The negative of **could** is **couldn't**:

Joe **couldn't** drive a car until he was 25 years old.

Bobby **couldn't** read until he entered school.

III.1.1.4.3. Could Possibility (present / future time)

Thus far, we have seen that the modal auxiliary **could** is used in several very different ways: (1) as an "artificial" past form that occurs when sentences with **can** are used in indirect (reported) speech and the main verb is past; (2) in making **polite requests** in present or future time; and (3) in showing **ability** (but not permission) **in the past**.

A fourth way to use **could** is showing **possibilities** in present or future time. (The degree of possibility shown by **could** is less than the degree of possibility shown by **may**.)

Examples:

Aren't you going to answer the phone? It **could** be an important call!

(It's possible, though not likely, that the call is an important one.)

Why can't I access my e-mail?

I don't know. There **could** be a problem with the server, I guess.

(It's possible, though not likely, that there is a problem with the e-mail server.)

Special Notes:

- **Could** is sometimes used in with affirmative comparatives to give a special meaning. When **could** is used in this way, the meaning is something like **not very**:

I **could** be better. =I'm **not very** well.

This soup **could** be hotter. =This soup **isn't very** hot.

My house **could** be cleaner. =My house **isn't very** clean.

- **Could** is also used with negative comparatives to give a special meaning, but the meaning is quite different from the meaning with affirmative comparatives. In this situation, **could** means something like **as ___ as it's possible to be** (or **very ___**):

I **couldn't** be better. =I'm as well as it's possible to be (in other words, very well).

This soup **couldn't** be hotter. =The soup is as hot as it's possible to be (in other words, very hot).

My house **couldn't** be cleaner. =My house is as clean as it's possible to be (in other words, very clean).

- **Couldn't** is also used in present or future time to indicate that something seems **impossible**:

Did you know that Frank is in England?

He **couldn't** be in England! I saw him just a few minutes ago!

Do you realize that it's almost midnight?

It **couldn't** be that late! The last time I looked at the clock, it was only 8:00 PM!

III.1.1.4.4. Could Unreal Conditions (present / future time)

Could is also used in **unreal conditional** ("if") **sentences**. Conditional sentences of this kind refer to situations that are hypothetical, impossible, contrary to fact--

in other words, to **unreal** situations. In them, **could** is used in place of **can** but the time is present or future, **not** past.

Examples:

If I **could** solve this problem, I wouldn't need your help.

(= I need your help because I can't solve this problem.)

If Julia **could** afford to buy a car, she wouldn't have to go to work by bus.

(= Julia has to go to work by bus because she can't afford to buy a car.)

If he **could** start all over again, he'd do a better job.

(= He can't start all over again, so he won't do as well with the job as he would like.)

Special Note:

- In all the sentences above, the time for both the "if" clause and the result clause is present or future, not past, because in conditional sentences, a difference in tense (above, past) and time (above, present or future) is a kind of "signal" used to show that the situations are hypothetical, contrary to fact, or impossible.

III.1.1.4.5. Could Have (possibility in the past)

We already know that **could** has many uses. Several of them are used for present or future time, but **could** is also used to show ability in the past.

Could also has another past form--**could have**. This form is followed by the **past participle** of the main verb:

could have been / **could have gone** / **could have finished** / **could have seen** / **could have done** / **could have taken** / etc.

When **could** is used in this way, it refers to **possibility** in the past. It does **not** refer to ability or permission in the past.

Examples:

I don't know why Bill left early.

He **could have had** some kind of emergency, I suppose.

(I don't know why Bill left early. Maybe he had some kind of emergency.)

I'm not sure where I met her. It **could have been** at a party or it **could have been** at a business meeting.

(I don't remember where I met her. Maybe I met her at a party or maybe I met her at a business meeting.)

III.1.1.4.6. Couldn't Have (impossibility in the past)

The negative form of **could have** is **could not have** (which is often contracted to **couldn't have**). **Couldn't have** is also followed by the past participle of the main verb. It is used to show someone's feeling that something in the past is **impossible**.

Examples:

You **couldn't have** seen Jerry yesterday. He's been out of town since last Tuesday!

(It's impossible for you to have seen Jerry yesterday because he wasn't here. He's been out of town since last Tuesday!)

Suzie's daughter **couldn't have** drawn this. She's only two years old!

It's impossible for Suzie's daughter to have drawn this because it's too sophisticated. Suzie's daughter is only two years old!

Special Notes:

- In spoken English, **could have** is often contracted to **could've**.
- In spoken English, the contraction **could've** is often contracted further. It sounds like /kʊdəv/ but it is **not** appropriate in most writing. (You might

see "coulda" in comics or in very informal writing, but it is primarily a spoken form, not a written form.)

III.1.1.4.7. Could Have (unreal past conditions)

The **could have** form is also used in "if" sentences to show **unreal conditions** in past time. Conditional sentences of this kind refer to hypothetical, impossible, contrary-to-fact, unreal situations. In them, **could have** shows a possibility that didn't happen.

Examples:

You **could have asked** for help if you had wanted to.

(It was possible for you to ask for help, but you didn't want to.)

If Julia had had enough money, she **could have bought** a car.

(It wasn't possible for Julia to buy a car because she didn't have enough money.)

Special Note:

- Remember that **could have** is used to show possibility in the past. It is **not** used to show past ability or past permission.

III.1.1.4.8. Could Have / Couldn't Have (special expressions)

We know from earlier sections that **could** has several different uses in present or future time and that **could** also shows ability in the past. In addition, we know that **could** has a past form, **could have**, which is followed by the **past participle** of the main verb and that **could have** shows possibility in the past and can also be used in past unreal conditional sentences.

The **could have** form is also used in another special way with comparative forms.

When **could have** is used in this way, the meaning is something like 'not (verb) as _____ as possible':

I could have done better. =I didn't do as well as possible (I didn't do very well).

I could have spent less. =I didn't spend as little as possible (I spent more than I planned).

More Examples:

A: How was your TOEFL score?

B: It **could have** been better.

(B's TOEFL score wasn't as good as possible: B didn't do well on the TOEFL.)

When **couldn't have** is used in this way, the meaning is '(verb) as _____ as possible' or 'very _____':

I couldn't have been more satisfied. =I was as satisfied as possible (I was very satisfied).

I couldn't have been more pleased. =I was as pleased as possible (I was very pleased).

Exercises on pages 205-206-207

III.1.1.5.Shall

III.1.1.5.1.Intention/Advisability

Many grammar books will tell you that **shall** is the indicator of future time used for **I** and **we**, while **will** is the indicator of future time used for **you, he, she, it, and they**.

This may be so in British English, especially in formal speech. In American English, however, **shall** is seldom used in this way except in extremely formal language.

The two main uses for **shall** are in asking what someone wants you (or another person) to do and in asking someone whether something is a good idea (that is, whether it is advisable).

Examples:

Shall I open the window?

(Do you think it would be advisable for me to open the window? / I think I should open the window. Do you agree that that's a good idea?)

Shall we dance?

(Do you want us to dance? / I'd like to dance with you. What do you think of my idea?)

Judy knows the answer to that difficult problem. **Shall** she explain it to us?

(Judy knows the answer to that difficult problem. Do you want her to explain it to us? / I think Judy should explain that difficult problem to us. What do you think?)

Special Note:

Do not use **shall** with **you**. (It's illogical to ask someone what she / he wants himself / herself to do. It's also illogical to ask whether someone thinks _____ is advisable for that person to do.)

* Shall you open the window?

* Shall you dance with me?

III.1.1.5.2. Expressing Determination

Another use for **shall** is in expressing **determination** or **a promise**. This use of **shall** is quite formal and specialized.

Examples:

We **shall** overcome our problems.

(We're determined to overcome our problems, and we'll do everything that we can to overcome them. We intend to overcome our problems, no matter how difficult this may be.)

You **shall** have everything that you require.

(I'm / we're determined to give you everything that you require, and I / we don't care how difficult it may be to do this. I / we promise that you will have everything that you require, even though this may be very difficult to accomplish.)

Special Notes:

In the examples above, **shall** is used in a very special way: to show strong determination or a promise for something that is difficult to do or for situations in which the results are considered to be difficult to accomplish.

In American English, "I **will** do something" and "I **shall** do something" have very different feelings. "I will" indicates that something is acceptable to me and I'm willing to do it. "I shall" indicates that I'm strongly determined to do something that others consider difficult to accomplish.

The negative of **shall** is **shall not**, which is sometimes contracted to **shan't**. It expresses determination or a promise for something which is negative:

You **shall not (shan't)** be disappointed.

(I'm determined you will not be disappointed, no matter what happens. / I promise that you won't be disappointed, even though this may be difficult to arrange.)

He **shall not (shan't)** be allowed to enter the building.

(I'm determined that he will not be allowed to enter the building under any circumstances. / I promise that he will not be allowed to enter the building, no matter how difficult this is to accomplish.)

Remember:

In American English, **shall** and **shall not (shan't)** are very formal and show very strong feelings. They are not simply forms that "I" and "we " use to show future time.

Exercises on page 207

III.1.1.6. Should

The modal auxiliary **should** has several uses. The most common one is probably in showing **advisability**--that is, in showing that something is a good idea. It's important to understand that when **should** is used in this way, there is **always a choice** for whether to do something or not--because **advisability** is not the same as a **requirement**.

Examples:

I **should** study tonight.

(It would be a good idea for me to study tonight, but maybe I'll study and maybe I won't.)

You look tired. You **should** rest.

(Because you look tired, I think it would be advisable for you to rest--but I know that maybe you'll rest and maybe you won't.) I think X was cheating on the test. **Should** I tell the teacher?

The negative form of **should** is **should not** (which is commonly contracted to **shouldn't**). **Shouldn't** can also be used to show advisability:

Examples:

I **shouldn't** surf the Internet tonight because I have a lot of homework to do.

(It wouldn't be a good idea for me to surf the Internet tonight because I have a lot of homework to do, but whether I surf the Internet or not is up to me.)

You look tired. You **shouldn't** work so hard.

(Because you look tired, I think you're working too hard. I also think it would be advisable for you not to work as hard as you do. Whether you work hard or not is up to you, however.)

Special Note:

- **Should** does **not** show a requirement. When **should** is used to show advisability, something is a good idea--but there is always a choice about whether or not to do it.

Expectation:

Another use for **should** is in showing **expectation**--that is, using information that is already known in order to state, based on the information, what one **expects** to happen (or what one expects **not** to happen).

Examples:

A: It's nearly 1:00 PM. Are you sure the bus is coming?

B: Yes, it **should** be here very soon. It's never arrived later than 1:05.

(B doesn't really know when / if the bus will arrive, but in the past it has arrived no later than 1:05. Because of this information, B **expects** that the bus will arrive no later than that time. (1:05 is B's "best guess," based on what she / he already knows.)

A: Do you think I'll do OK on the test?

B You **shouldn't** have any problems with it because you've studied really hard.

(Because B knows that A has studied really hard for the test, he / she **expects** that A won't have any problems with it and will do well on it. (This is B's "best guess," based on the information that B already knows.)

Special Note:

- This use of **should** does **not** show a requirement. It also doesn't show a promise. When **should** is used to show expectation; the expectation is not something that is definitely known, but is, instead, a conclusion or "best guess" based on that information. Because of this, the expectation may or may not actually happen.

("I should be home by 5:30" shows when I *expect* to be home, not when I *will* be home. "I should be home" is more definite than "I may be home" or "I might be home," but it is still not a promise that I will be home at 5:30.)

III.1.1.6.2. Should in "If" clauses before requests or suggestions

Another common use for **should** happens when **requests** or **suggestions** are preceded by an **"if" clause**:

If Bob **should** call, tell him that the meeting is at 10:00 AM.

If Bob **should** call, you might ask if he'd like to join us for dinner.

In sentences such as this, **should** shows a remote possibility. The speaker or writer doesn't really expect what is shown after **should** to happen, but realises that it might happen.

More examples:

If I **should** fall asleep, please wake me at 7:30.

(The speaker / writer doesn't really expect to fall asleep, but he / she knows it is still a possibility. The "if" clause could also be written "If I **happen to** fall asleep" with no change in meaning.)

If we **should** have any extra time, we might want to go out for dinner.

(The speaker / writer doesn't really expect to have any extra time, but he / she knows that it is still a possibility, and if it happens, the speaker / writer suggests going out for dinner. The "if" clause could also be written "If we **happen to** have any extra time" with no change in meaning.)

Special Notes:

- Sentences such as those above can also be written or spoken without **should**:

If I should fall asleep . . . /If I fall asleep

If we should have any extra time . . . /If we have any extra time

If you should see Jane . . . /If you see Jane.

The version without **should** is more direct and abrupt, however, than the version with **should**. In requests, therefore, the effect with **should** is "softer," less certain, and less demanding.

- When **should** is used in an "if" clause to show a remote possibility, "if" is often deleted, and the subject and **should** are then stated or written in **inverted** order:

If I **should** fall asleep ----->**Should** I fall asleep

If you **should** see Jane ----->**Should** you see Jane

If we **should** have any extra time ----->**Should** we have any extra time

- In speaking, this variation on "If _____ should" is used only in very formal situations, but in writing, this variation on "If _____ should" is commonly used as an ending to business letters:

Should you need further information, please don't hesitate to contact us.

Should you have further questions, please feel free to ask.

III.1.1.6.3. Should Have

The modal auxiliary **should** has a past form, **should have**, which is used before the past participle of a verb. When this past form is used, **should** and **have** are very often contracted to **should've**:

should have been / should've been

should have done / should've done

This past form may also be negative (**should not have** + the past participle); the full negative with **not** is also contracted to **shouldn't have** (+ past participle) very often:

should not have been / shouldn't have been

should not have done / shouldn't have done

Should have can show either advisability or expectation, but with a special "twist" in meaning: **should have** shows that something was advisable or expected, but **didn't happen**, while **shouldn't have** shows that something *wasn't* advisable or expected, but it happened.

Examples:

Gloria **should have** studied last night.

(It was advisable for Gloria to have studied last night, but she didn't.)

Bob's plane **should have** arrived over an hour ago.

(We expected Bob's plane to arrive over an hour ago, but it didn't arrive--and it *still* hasn't arrived.)

You **shouldn't have** had any problems with my computer. It was working perfectly the last time *I* used it.

(Because my computer was working perfectly the last time *I* used it, I didn't expect you to have any problems with it. You did, however.)

Special Notes:

- **Should have** and **shouldn't have** are used with all the personal pronouns (I, you, he, she, it, we, they):

I **should have** remembered.

You **should have** seen Luis!

Luis **shouldn't have** acted so foolishly!

Jennifer **shouldn't have** worked when she was sick.

We **should have** left ten minutes ago!

They **shouldn't have** left when they did.

- In fast, casual speech, **should've** /ʃʊdəv/¹ is often "simplified" so that it sounds something like /ʃʊdə/. This form is common in speaking, but it is not appropriate for most written work.
- Similarly, **shouldn't have** is often "simplified" so that it sounds something like /ʃʊdənə/. Again, this form is common in speaking, but not appropriate for most written work.

Exercises on page 208.

¹ Recall that in American English pronunciation the intervocalic alveolar /d/ is replaced by an alveolar flap: [ʃʊrəv]; [ʃʊrənə]

III.1.1.7. Will

III.1.1.7.1. Predictions

One use for the modal auxiliary **will** is in showing someone's **predictions** about the future--things that someone speaks or writes about before they actually happen.

When **will** is used, it's commonly contracted to 'll. It's also common to use a contraction for the negative form of **will**: **will not** becomes **won't**.

Both the affirmative and negative forms of **will** are used in making predictions:

Examples:

A: The sky's awfully dark.

B: It certainly is. I think we'**ll** have rain before morning.

(B is making a prediction. He or she doesn't actually *know* that there will be rain before morning.)

A: I'm worried about my algebra test.

B: You'**ll** do fine! You studied for a long time.

(B is making a prediction. He or she doesn't actually *know* that A will do fine.)

Special Note:

- **Be going to** may also be used in making predictions:

I think we'**re going to** have rain before morning.

You'**re going to** do fine!

- In fast, casual speech, **going to** sounds something like "gonna." This form is common in speaking, but it isn't appropriate for most written work.

III.1.1.7.2. Willingness (Volition)

Another use for **will** (but not **be going to**) is in showing **willingness** or **volition**--being agreeable to the idea of doing something. When **will** is used in this way, it can refer to either present or future time.

Examples:

Will you help me?

(The time in the above request may be now or future. The speaker wants to know if another person is **willing** to help--that is, if he or she accepts the request for help.)

I know it's your turn to cook dinner tonight, but **I'll** do it. You look too tired.

(The time in the above sentence is the near future. The speaker is showing her/his **willingness** to cook dinner.)

No, I **won't** wait any longer. I have too many other things to do.

(The time is now. The speaker isn't **willing** to wait any longer.)

Special Note:

Remember that only **will** (or **won't**) can be used to show willingness. **Be going to** cannot be used to show this meaning

Exercise on page 208

III.1.1.8. Would

The modal auxiliary **would** has several different uses. One of them is in making a kind of "artificial past" for **will** in **indirect** (reported) **speech**. (In indirect speech, the tense of the verb in a quoted sentence is controlled by the tense of the main verb. If the main verb is past, as it often is in indirect speech, **will** changes to **would** because of the influence of the main verb.)

The **negative** of **would** is **would not** (which is frequently contracted to **wouldn't**).

Examples:

Direct Speech: María said, "**Will** you help me?"

Indirect Speech: María asked Pedro if he **would** help her.

DS: Pedro replied, "I **will** if I have time."

IS: Pedro replied that he **would** if he had time.

DS: María said, "I **won't** need very much of your time."

IS: María told Pedro that she **wouldn't** need very much of his time.

III.1.1.8.1. Making polite requests:

Another use for **would** is in **making polite requests**. Requests with **would** are "softer" than requests with **will** in the same way that requests with **could** are "softer" than requests with **can**. When **would** (and **could**) are used in this way, the time does not change: it's still present or future. The only change is in the "softness": requests with **would** (and **could**) are more polite, deferential, and indirect than requests with **will** (and **can**).

Request with Will	"Softer" Request with Would
Will you help me, Mr. Thompson?	Would you help me, Mr. Thompson?
Will you please type these papers, Alice?	Would you please type these papers, Alice?
Will all of you please give me your attention?	Would all of you please give me your attention?

III.1.1.8.2. Would Like

Would is also commonly used in the expression **would like**. This expression (which is often contracted to **'d like** with pronouns) does *not* mean "like." Instead, it means **want** (though it is "softer," less direct, and much more polite).

Examples:

Sentences with Want

I **want** more coffee.
(very direct)

Do you **want** to come with us? (very direct)

Mrs. Pérez **wants** to say something. (very direct)

Sentences with Would Like

I'd **like** some more coffee.
(less direct, more polite)

Would you like to come with us? (less direct, more polite)

Mrs. Pérez **would like** to say something. (less direct, more polite)

Special Notes:

- When **would like** is contracted to **'d like** (I'd like, you'd like, she'd like, etc.), the contraction for **would** is very difficult to hear.
- In very casual speech, the end of **would** often combines with the beginning of **you** to make a new sound. As a result, **Would you** sounds something like "**Wouldja**": which is a spoken form, not a standard written form. In writing, it is not acceptable except in comics and in very informal messages to friends.
- In very casual speech, both **would** and **you** are sometimes omitted entirely in questions:

Like some coffee? (= **Would you** like some coffee?)

Like to dance? (= **Would you** like to dance?)

III.1.1.9 Must

III.1.1.9.1.Obligation

Must express **obligation or compulsion** in the present tense.

Examples:

You **must** be back by 10 o'clock.

(You are obliged to be back by 10 o'clock/ you have to be back by 10 o'clock.)

He **must** leave now
(He is obliged to leave now/ He has to leave now)

The **negative** of **must** is **must not** which is often contracted to **mustn't**.

Examples:

You **mustn't** keep us all waiting.
(You'll oblige me by not keeping us all waiting/ you shouldn't have kept us all waiting.)

Mustn't is not used at all (and **must not** only rarely) in the necessity sense; instead, we can use **can't** in the sense of impossibility.

Thus, the negation of

You **must** be telling lies.

is You **can't** be telling lies.

A common auxiliary negation of **must** is **needn't** which has the two meanings of **non-obligation** and **non-necessity**.

You **needn't** be back by 10 o'clock.

Special Notes:

- **Must** is not used in the past in direct speech; **had to** is used instead.

Yesterday you **had to** be back by 10 o'clock.

In indirect speech, however, **must** is possible:

You said that you **must** be back by 10 o'clock

- **Must** is not used in sentences with negative or interrogative meanings, **can** is used instead.

There **must** be a mistake / There **cannot** be a mistake

- **Must** can occur in superficially interrogative but answer-assuming sentences.

Mustn't there be another reason for his behaviour?

III.1.1.10. Ought to:

Like must, **ought to** express **obligation, expectation** and **probability**:

You **ought to** start at once.

They **ought to** be here by now.

She **ought to** receive the package tonight.

It also expresses recommendation or **advisability**:

Margaret **ought to** exercise more.

The **negative** of **ought** is **ought not**. It is rarely contracted to **oughtn't**. **Ought not** is used primarily to express **negative recommendation**.

Margaret **ought not** exercise too much. It might cause injury.

In other senses, **should not** (shouldn't) is preferred.

She **shouldn't** be there.

Special Note:

- As with must, **Ought to** is not used in the past tense except in reported speech. **had to** serves as its past
- **Ought to** is less categorical than must
- Both, **Ought to** and **should** mean advisability in the present and predictability in the future

Violeta **should** learn some English before she visits her sister in Chicago

Violeta **ought to** learn some English before she visits her sister in Chicago.

Exercises on page 209

On pages 209 to 211 you will also find exercises combining the different uses and meanings of the modals studied.

PART III

SECTION 2

III.2.1 USED TO

The special expression **used to** is common in sentences about the past

III.2.1.1. Meaning

Used to shows that something (the verb after **used to**) was true in the past, but isn't true now:

She used to **live** in London (but she doesn't live in London now.)

John used to **smoke** (but he doesn't smoke now.)

They used to **be** good friends (but they aren't good friends now.)

III.2.1.2. Form

Used to always occur with other verbs. The verbs after **used to** are in simple (base) form:

She **used to live** in London.

John **used to smoke**.

They **used to be** good friends.

With negatives sentences and questions it is necessary to use the auxiliary **didn't** or **did**:

She **didn't** use to live in London.

Did she **use to** live in London?

Didn't she **use to** live in London?

She **used to** live in London, **didn't** she?

She **didn't use** to live in London, **did** she?

Who **used to** live in London? Where did she **use to** live?

Special Note:

- When people pronounce **used to**, the ending of **used** "blends" with the beginning of **to**. The result is something that sounds like "use to." In casual, relaxed speech, the vowel sound in **to** also changes--to the vowel sound of "but" or "sun" or "won." Because of these sound changes, you might see **used to** written as **useta** in very informal writing (for example, in comics). Do **not** use this spelling in formal written work.
- When **used to** is followed by a **verb**, the sentence has a special meaning: it tells about something that happened or was true in the past but is **not** happening or true now:

Dave **used to have** a mustache. (Dave had a mustache in the past, but he doesn't have one now.)

III.2.2.Be used to:

There are, however, two other expressions that look almost the same as **used to + verb**:

be used to + noun / -ing verb (gerund)

get used to + noun / -ing verb

be used to + noun / (-ing) verb

When a form of **be** comes before **used to**, the meaning and grammar change. The expression **be used to** means 'be accustomed to' or 'be comfortable with':

She's **used to London**. / She's **used to living** in London.

(She's accustomed to London /living in London; she's comfortable with living there.)

John's **used to smoke**. / John's **used to smoking**.

(John's accustomed to smoke /smoking. It doesn't bother him.)

They're **used to fast food**. / They're **used to eating** fast food.

(They're accustomed to fast food /eating fast food. They're comfortable with fast food; it doesn't bother them.)

III.2.3. Get used to + noun / -ing verb

When **get** is before **used to**, a noun or -ing verb also follows (as with **be used to**). The meaning and grammar are very similar to the meaning and grammar of **be used to**, but here, **get** means **become, not be**:

She **got used to London**. / **living** in London.

(At first, she wasn't accustomed to London or living there, but that changed: now she is accustomed to it.)

John **got used to smoke / smoking**.

(John wasn't always accustomed to smoke / smoking, but it doesn't bother him now.)

They **got used to fast food**. / **eating** fast food.

(In the past, they weren't accustomed to fast food / eating fast food, but they are now.)

Special Notes

- **Become** can also be used with **used to**. The meaning is exactly the same as **get used to**:

She **became used to London**. / **living** in London = She **got used to London/living** in London.

John **became used to smoke / smoking** = John **got used to smoke/smoking**.

- Remember that **used to**, **be used to** and **get (become) used to** have different meanings and grammar.

Exercises on page 212.

PART III

SECTION 3

III.3.1. EMPHASIS

In Section II.2.2 we introduced the concept of emphasis in the sentence pattern. In this section we will elaborate on this concept on the basis of language in use or communication.

There are three particular ways in which focus and emphasis may be expressed in English:

1. phonologically; through stress and intonation (spoken language).
2. morphologically; through particular words and phrases (spoken/written language).
3. syntactically; through marked word order and / or distinctive syntactic constructions (written language).

III.3.1.1. Focus and emphasis in the phonological form:

It is characterized by a marked style of intonation whereby a special stress on a particular component of the sentence is assigned by the speaker which demarcates differing emphases and meaning. Moreover, the specific syllable that is marked for stress indicates the speaker's focus. See, for instance the following sentences in which some words have been capitalised and presented in bold characters:

[1] Alice **MADE** the bed

[2] **ALICE** made the bed

Each contains a special stress. The special stress placed on *MADE* in the first sentence emphasises the fact that Alice made the bed and not something else; whereas in [2] it was *ALICE* who made the bed and not someone else.

Phonological emphasis is achieved by raising the tone even more, making the stressed syllable even longer, and increasing the volume of the speech.

III.3.1.2. Morphological or lexical emphasis:

One of the lexical devices in English generally indicating emphasis on the nouns they follow is the use of emphatic reflexive pronouns:

[3] The owners **THEMSELVES** cannot explain it.

[4] Roger asked the expert **HERSELF**.

Normally, the reflexive pronouns represent the direct object of a transitive verb in which the subject and the complement of the verb have the same semantic referent (*Helen hurt herself* = *Helen hurt Helen*).

Here the function of the reflexive pronoun is to emphasize the noun. In [3] **THEMSELVES** emphasises the fact that not even the owners could explain the situation. In [4] **HERSELF** emphasises the fact that it was the expert (not somebody else) who was asked.

Lexical emphasis is also shown by the use of auxiliary verbs to focus on the meaning of the sentence:

[5] I **DO** know how to swim.

Here the auxiliary **DO** emphasizes the idea that "*I really can swim.*"

Other minor class words may also be used to express emphasis:

[6] Do you want pizza or spaghetti? -- I want pizza **AND** spaghetti

[7] **THAT** was a good movie

III.3.1.3. Syntactic emphasis:

In Section II 11.2.2. we already pointed out that sentences not always follow the canonical order. Sometimes, fronting [8];, inversion [9]; and special focus constructions [10], as seen in the use of it-clefts (which often imply contrast), are often used to syntactically express focus

[8] **Inside the house** were two thieves.

[9] **It is a good idea** to book early.

[10] **It was English** that David studied at Oxford

Sentence [8] presents an example of **fronting**. It is a discursive device to move an element of the sentence to the front position (also called subject position) to call special attention from the hearer, or reader. In [8] the speaker or writer wants to emphasize that *it was inside the house and not somewhere else where they found the thieves*. **Fronting is always optional.**

Unlike fronting which is optional, there is another type of movement that is considered **obligatory** for stylistic reasons. This movement is called **inversion**. [9] represents an example of inversion. Notice that the clause *to book early* is the subject of the sentence (it answers to the *wh*-question *what is a good idea?*). However, the clause is not occupying the subject position; instead an expletive *it* has been used to focus the attention of the reader or listener.

In fact, in the more typical pattern, this construction may sound stylistically awkward:

To book early is a good idea

Finally, sentence [10] is one example of the so called **cleft Sentences**. In these constructions the declarative sentence is divided into two clauses; each with its own verb. A sentence such as:

David studied English at Oxford

can be reformulated as:

[11] **It was David** who studied English at Oxford

[12] **It was English** that David studied at Oxford

[13] **It was at Oxford** that David studied English

Cleft sentences focus on one constituent of the original sentence, placing it after *it was* (or *it is*). Here we have focused on the Subject *David*, focused on the Direct Object *English* and on the Adjunct *at Oxford*.

Most cleft sentences begin with the pronoun *IT* followed by the verb *be*, which in turn is followed by the element on which the focus falls. Cleft constructions, then, exhibit the pattern:

It + be + focus + clause

The cleft sentence marks the focus of information in written English, where intonation is absent.

There are also the so called **pseudo cleft sentences** which also make explicit division between two parts of the communication giving emphasis to one of them. It occurs more often with a *What-clause* as subject. The pseudo cleft sentence is less restricted than the cleft sentence in that through the use of *do* it permits marked focus to fall on the verb or predication. See for instance the following declarative sentence:

[14] John spoiled the whole thing.

You can give emphasis to the Subject :

It was **John** who spoiled the whole thing.

Or to the Direct Object

It was **the whole thing** what John spoiled

However, by using clefting you cannot emphasise the verb:

?*It was spoiled the whole thing (by John??)

Even though the sentence could be produced in the passive voice (which is also a syntactic device for emphasis), its result is awkward and not commonly accepted by native speakers of English.

Pseudo clefting on the other hand, does permit focus to fall on the verb:

What John **spoiled** was the whole thing.

Many grammars will argue that what clauses used to form pseudo cleft sentences may also be analysed as nominal clauses, that is, clauses acting as subjects of the sentence.

The fact that two constructions may be analysed differently could be confusing. However, recall that it will depend on the focus of the analysis. If you are performing a **formal syntactic** analysis of the language you will be dealing with **nominal clauses**. On the contrary, if you are analyzing the use of language. The intention of the speaker; in other words, you are performing a **functional analysis** of the language; you will be dealing with **pseudo-cleft sentences**.

III.3.1.4. Passive voice as a syntactic device for emphasis:

Another syntactic device to show emphasis in one component of the sentence is the passive voice. Sentences in passive voice have the following pattern

Direct Object + be +-ed + (by phrase)

From the active sentence:

John spoiled the whole thing.

We can get the passive sentence:

The whole thing was spoiled by John.

In which the direct object *the whole thing* occupies the subject position; since, for the speaker or writer producing this sentence it is more important the action done or its result than the doer of the action it is moved to the front of the sentence. That is why in the pattern provided above the by-phrase -which introduces the doer of the action- is presented between brackets; since it is completely optional to the speaker or writer to mention it or not.

The use of passive voice is common in literary and scientific language styles and it deserves further analysis. We will study passive voice later in this same part of the Study Guide.

Exercises on page 213.

PART III

SECTION 4

III.4.1.REPORTED OR INDIRECT SPEECH

Indirect Speech (also referred to as 'reported speech') refers to a sentence reporting what someone has said. It is almost always used in spoken English.

Direct speech: He said: "I am very angry"

Indirect speech: He said that he was very angry.

In direct speech the words of the speaker are incorporated (in writing by quotation marks) within the reporting sentence retaining the status of independent clause. Indirect speech subordinates the words of the speaker in a *that*-clause within the reporting sentence; sometimes *that* as subordinator may be ellipied.

He said he was very angry.

III.4.1.1.Using the Reported Speech:

If the reporting verb (i.e. said) is in the past, the reported clause will be in a past form. This form is usually one step back into the past from the original.

For example:

He said (that) the test was difficult.

She said (that) she watched TV every day.

Jack said (that) he came to school every day.

- If simple present, present perfect or the future is used in the reporting verb (i.e. says) the tense is retained.

For example:

He says the test is difficult.

She has said that she watches TV every day.

Jack will say that he comes to school every day.

- If reporting a general truth the present tense will be retained.

For example: The teacher said that phrasal verbs are very important.

III.4.1.2.Changing Pronouns and Time Signifiers

When changing from direct speech to indirect speech, it is often necessary to change the pronouns to match the subject of the sentence.

For example:

- She said, "I want to bring **my** children." *BECOMES* She said **she** wanted to bring **her** children.
- Jack said, "**My** wife went with **me** to the show." *BECOMES* Jack said **his** wife had gone with **him** to the show.

It is also important to change time words (signifiers) when referring to present, past or future time to match the moment of speaking.

For example:

- She said, "I want to bring **my** children **tomorrow**." *BECOMES* She said **she** wanted to bring **her** children **the next day**.
- Jack said, "**My** wife went with **me** to the show **yesterday**." *BECOMES* Jack said **his** wife had gone with **him** to the show **the day before**.

III.4.1.3.Indirect Questions

When reporting questions, it is especially important to pay attention to sentence order.

- When reporting yes/ no questions connect the reported question using 'if'.
- She asked, "Do **you** want to come with **me**?" *BECOMES* She asked **me if** I wanted to come with **her**.
- When reporting questions using question words (why, where, when, etc.) use the question word.
- Dave asked, "**Where** did **you** go **last weekend**?" *BECOMES* Dave asked **me where** I had gone **the previous weekend**.

- He asked, "**Why** are **you** studying English?" *BECOMES* She asked **me** **why** **I** was studying English

III.4.1.4. SUMMARY OF REPORTED SPEECH TENSE CHANGES

DIRECT (QUOTED) SPEECH speech from the original source	INDIRECT (REPORTED) SPEECH reporting what someone has already said
Simple past (progressive) I watched TV. I was watching TV	→ Past Perfect (progressive) He said (that) he had watched TV He said (that) he had been watching TV
Present Perfect (progressive) I've watched TV I've been watching TV	→ Past Perfect (progressive) He said (that) he had watched TV He said (that) he had been watching TV
Past Perfect (progressive) I'd watched TV I'd been watching TV	→ Past Perfect (progressive) He said (that) he had watched TV He said (that) he had been watching TV
Simple Present (progressive) I watch TV I'm watching TV	→ Simple Past (progressive) He said (that) he watched TV He said (that) he was watching TV
Future (progressive) I will watch TV I will be watching TV I'm going to watch TV	→ Present Conditional (progressive) He said (that) he would watch TV He said (that) he would be watching TV He said (that) he was going to watch TV

III.4.1.5.Modals in Reported Speech

Direct Speech: "I will go to Caracas"

Indirect Speech: He said (that) he **would** go to Caracas

Although *He would go* is not the past of *He will go*, it is the back shifted form in reported speech. So too with the other modal auxiliaries:

"I **can** swim faster than **you**"

He said (that) he **could** swim faster than **me**.

"I **may** buy a new car"

He said (that) he **might** buy a new car.

"I **must** give Ken a call."

He said (that) he **had to** give Ken a call.

"I **have to** give Ken a call."

He said (that) he **had to** give Ken a call.

If a modal auxiliary in direct speech has no past tense equivalent (including auxiliaries which are already past like could or might) then the same form remains in indirect speech

"I **might** go to Denver."

He said (that) he **might** go to Denver.

"I **should** see a doctor"

He said (that) he **should** see a doctor.

"I **would** like some tea"

He said he **would** like some tea

III.4.1.6.Reported Questions

When questions are reported not only you have to make all appropriate tense changes, but also you have to change the word order as you may see in the following table:

DIRECT SPEECH	INDIRECT SPEECH
WHO WHAT WHEN + VERB + SUBJECT WHERE WHY	WHO WHAT WHEN + SUBJECT + VERB WHERE WHY
What did you study last night? When will she study English? Where does he work ? Why do they sleep so late? Have you been to Europe?	He asked what I studied last night? He asked when she would study English? He asked where he worked ? He asked why they slept so late? He asked if we had been to Europe?

Exercises on page 213.

PART III

SECTION 5

III.5.1.Passive Voice

III.5.1.1.Form

In English, verbs may be **active** or **passive**. In sentences with **active** verbs, the subject performs ("does") the action. In sentences with **passive** verbs, the subject **receives** the action. (That is, someone or something other than the actual subject grammatically performs the action.)

Passive verbs always have at least two parts: a form of **BE** and a **past participle**. In the simple present and simple past tenses, only these two parts are used:

III.5.1.1.1.Simple Present

English **is used** as an international language.

Examples **are written** in colour.

III.5.1.1.2.Simple Past

The window was broken by my younger son.

Dave and his wife **were married** in Thailand.

III.5.1.1.3.Other Forms of the Passive

The form of the passive in tenses other than simple present and simple past combines the required form for the tenses with the required form for passive:

III.5.1.1.3.1.Present Progressive:

BE (present) + being + past participle

This Guide **is being prepared** on a computer.

New WWW sites **are being created** every day.

III.5.1.1.3.2.Past Progressive:

BE (past) + being + present progressive

Dinner **was being served** when I entered the cafeteria.

The last tickets **were being sold** when we arrived at the box office.

III.5.1.1.3.3.Present Perfect:

HAVE (present) + been + past participle

"Dave's Cafe" **has been visited** by many people.

Many sections **have been added** to the original book.

III.5.1.1.3.4.Past Perfect:

HAVE (past) +been + past participle:

The last tickets **had** already **been sold** when we arrived at the box office.

Attendance **had** already **been taken** before I arrived in class.

III.5.1.1.3.5.Future Perfect

Will + have +been + past participle

We're going to be late! Dinner **will** already **have been served** by the time that we get there!

All of the work **will have been finished** by late tomorrow.

III.5.1.2.Passive voice and modal verbs:

III.5.1.2.1.Present and future:

Modal + BE + past participle

The meeting **may be canceled** if there are scheduling conflicts.

Applications **will be accepted** until 5:00 PM on Friday.

III.5.1.2.2.Past:

Modal + have + been + past participle

Your question **could have been answered** by several different people.
Why didn't you ask?

His car **might have been stolen** or it **might have been towed** by the police.

Other sentence patterns in the passive voice:

III.5.1.2.3.Present / Future Passive Infinitive:

To BE + past participle

He wants **to be elected** president.

We expect the work **to be completed** in about an hour.

III.5.1.2.4. Past Passive Infinitive:

to + have + been + past participle

He planned **to have been elected** president by the time he was 40 years old.

We expected the work **to have been completed** yesterday, but it wasn't.

Special Note:

Passives for the progressive forms of perfect tenses are not very common and are actually rather awkward. They should be used sparingly and carefully. However, since they sometimes occur in certain contexts here, we present the patterns in the following section:

III.5.1.2.5. Present Perfect Progressive: (Very uncommon but possible)

HAVE (present) + been + being + past participle.

Questions **have been being sent** to the Computer Center since its first days on the web.

His car **has been being repaired** for more than a week. When will it be ready?

III.5.1.2.6. Past Perfect Progressive:

Had + been + being + past participle

Those questions **had been being discussed** before the president arrived and changed the agenda.

Dishes **had been being washed** by hand before the restaurant got a machine to do that job.

III.5.1.2.7. Future Perfect Progressive:

Will + have + been + being + past

In May, 2009, these examples **will have been being written** for more than four years.

We're going to be late! Dinner **will have been being served** long before we arrive at the restaurant!

III.5.2. USING THE PASSIVE VOICE

In sentences with **passive** verbs, the subject is not the "doer" of the verb's action. Instead, it **receives** the action. For that reason, the passive is most often used when the **verb** and the **object** are known, but the **subject** is either unknown or unimportant.

That Church **was built** in 1560.

"Unknown subject," above, can also mean that there is a subject, but the *identity* of the subject is not known, or that the identity of the subject is very general--such as "people" or someone.

Bob's car **was stolen**
(someone stole Bob's car; unknown subject emphasis on the object)

A cure for cancer **has** not yet **been discovered**.
(unknown subject, emphasis on the object)

"Unimportant subject" means that the action of the verb (or the result) is more important than the doer of the action. Subject is not important in the sentence. In other words, the speaker or writer chooses to emphasize the verb and the object, even though they know the subject. In that case, there is always the possibility to introduce the doer using a **by-phrase**.

Radar **was invented** in 1940 **by** Watson-Watt.

(The emphasis is on the object, radar, not the actual subject, Watson-Watt.)

In 1969, an experimental version of the Internet **was established** **by** the U.S. Department of Defense

(The emphasis is on the object, the Internet, not the actual subject, the U.S. Department of Defense.)

Passive voice is a preferred pattern in newspapers' headlines and in scientific texts in which it is intended to emphasize the results of the actions rather than the doer of the action.

III.5.2.1. Verbs taking the Passive Voice:

active: Someone stole Bob's car.
passive: Bob's car was stolen.

active: Someone will serve dinner at 7:00 PM.
passive: Dinner will be served at 7:00 PM.

active: Someone has stayed in my house.
passive: *in my house has been stayed

Notice that the two first active sentences above, accept the passive transformation whereas the last one does not. This is because subjects of passive verbs **receive** the action. **ONLY TRANSITIVE** verbs can have passive forms. Verbs that cannot have objects (**intransitive** verbs) do not have passive forms. **BE** and **linking verbs**, for example, **do not have passive forms** as you may see in the following examples:

Intransitive verbs:

*was went, *were listened, *has been lived, *have been stayed, *had been belonged, *can be slept, *to be arisen, *to have been slept.

Be:

*is been, *am been, *are been, *was been, *were been, *has been been, *have been been.

Linking Verbs:

*is appeared, *are seemed, *were become, *was looked.

Special Notes:

- A few verbs (including the **sensory** verbs) have both transitive and intransitive meanings. For such verbs, the **transitive** meaning can be passive, but the **intransitive** meaning cannot:

Someone smelled the flower. (transitive) --->The flower **was smelled**.

The flower smelled sweet. (intransitive) --->**no passive**.

Someone tasted the food. (transitive) --->The food **was tasted**

The food tasted delicious. (intransitive) --->**no passive**.

- **Remember:** Only **transitive** verbs can have passive forms. Sometimes you may not be sure if a verb is transitive or intransitive. When this happens, check the verb in a dictionary. Most dictionaries will have **vt** (transitive verb) or **vi** (intransitive verb) to show this information

III.5.2.2. Passive with Direct and Indirect Objects

In sentences with **passive** verbs, the actual **direct object** of the verb becomes the **subject** of the verb in a passive sentence:

Someone **is stealing** Bill's car! (active) ----->Bill's car **is being stolen!**
(passive)

Someone **stole** Bill's car! (active) ----->Bill's car **was stolen!** (passive)

Someone **has stolen** Bill's car! (active) ----->Bill's car **has been stolen!**
(passive)

The passive can also be used in sentences with **ditransitive** verbs. That is, verbs that have **two** objects--a **direct** object and an **indirect** object. Because many sentences with both a direct and an indirect object can be written in two different ways (with and without **to** or **for**), the corresponding passive sentences can also be written in two different ways:

Someone gave a million dollars to Bill. ----->A million dollars **was given**
to Bill.

Someone gave Bill a million dollars. ----->Bill **was given** a million dollars

Someone sent a crazy letter to Cathy. ----->A crazy letter **was sent** to
Cathy.

Someone sent Cathy a crazy letter. ----->Cathy **was sent** a crazy letter.

Someone has bought a present for our boss. ----->A present **has been**
bought for our boss.

Someone has bought our boss a present. ----->Our boss **has been bought** a
present.

Someone will leave the directions for you. ----->The directions **will be left**
for you.

Someone will leave you the directions. ----->You **will be left** the
directions.

Special Notes:

Some verbs show indirect objects with **to**, other verbs show indirect objects with **for**, and a few verbs show indirect objects with both **to** and **for**. Here a few examples:

to + I.O.	for + I.O.	to / for + I.O.
ask	build	bring
feed	buy	leave
give	draw	
hand	fix	
lend	paint	
owe		
pass		
pay		
promise		
read		
sell		
send		
show		
teach		
tell		
write		

bring (something) **to** (someone) means 'bring (something) and give it to (someone).'

bring something **for** (someone) means 'bring (something) that is intended for (someone).'

leave (something) **to** (someone) means 'make arrangements for (someone) to have(something) as an inheritance.'

leave (something) **for** (someone) means 'leave (something) that is intended for (someone).'

Exercises on page 214.

SELECTED EXERCISES

PART I.

Section 2 NOUNS

I. 2.2 Identifying nouns

The following paragraph by Alfred Kazin, a New York writer, describes the most important room in the apartment of his childhood. Kazin's paragraph contains more than 80 nouns. You probably can recognize most of them. Read through the paragraph and underline each noun. The first line has been done for you. Remember that a noun can be used to modify other nouns. **Check your answers on page 216**

In Brownsville tenements the kitchen is always the largest room and the center of the household. As a child I felt that we live in a kitchen to which four other rooms were annexed. My mother, a "home" dressmaker, had her workshop in the kitchen. She told me once that she had begun dressmaking in Poland at thirteen; as far back as I can remember, she was always making dresses for the local women. She had an innate sense of design, a quick eye for all the subtleties in the latest fashions, even when she despised them, and great boldness. For three or four dollars she would study the fashion magazines with a customer, go with the customer to the remnants store on Belmont Avenue to pick out the material, argue the owner down -all remnants stores, for some reason, were supposed to be shady, as if the owners dealt in stolen goods- and then for days would patiently fit and baste and sew and fit again. Our apartment was always full of women in their housedresses sitting around the kitchen table waiting for a fitting. My little bedroom next to the kitchen was the fitting room. The sewing machine, an old nut-brown Singer with golden scrolls painted along the black arm and engraved along the two tiers of little drawers massed with needles and thread on each side of the treadle, stood between the window, and the great coal-

black stove which up to my last year in college was our main source of heat. By December the two outer bedrooms were closed off, and used to chill bottles of mild and cream, cold borscht, and jellied calves' feet.

I.2.2.3 Noun number

Write the plural form of each noun without looking in a dictionary. **Check your answers on page 216.** If you made any mistakes review the explanations in the Guide.

baby	phenomenon	fish	tooth	foot
hypothesis	analysis	duty	library	woman
passer by	stimulus	nucleus	half	potato

I.2.3.3 Count and non-count nouns

In each of the following sentences, indicate whether the highlighted noun is count or non-count. **Check your answers on page 216**

1. The **board** will meet tomorrow to consider your application.
2. The **information** you gave to the detective was very misleading.
3. I thought it was a strange **comment** to make.
4. Smoking damages your **health**.
5. Jean is studying **music** at college.
6. I'll have a **brandy**, please

I.2.4 PRONOUNS: A SUBCLASS OF NOUNS

In each of the following sentences a pronoun has been highlighted. What type of pronoun is it? Is it a **personal, reflexive, possessive, relative, indefinite, reciprocal, or an interrogative pronoun**? **Check your answers on page 216**

1. Lets contact **one another** once we've made some progress. _____

2. She wants to do it **herself** _____
3. I can't find **them**. _____
4. I can't believe it's finally **ours**. _____
5. The girl **who** usually cuts my hair has won the lottery. _____
6. **He** wants to go to Scarborough. _____
7. **Why** are you shouting at me? _____
8. Jane gave **me** the last copy _____
9. **Nobody** said a word all night _____

Check the following websites for more exercises on English nouns:

www.englishpage.com

www.sylvum.com/online/english.html

owl.english.purdue.edu/handouts/grammar/

perso.wanadoo.es/autoenglish

PART 1

SECTION 3. DETERMINERS

I.3.1 Determiners: The Specifiers of Nouns

In each of the following sentences, indicate whether the highlighted word is a determiner or a pronoun. **Check your answers on page 217**

1. **These** questions are easy. _____
2. Is **this** yours? _____
3. Can I borrow **some** sugar? _____
4. **This** play of yours - what's it about? _____
5. **These** are really tasty. _____

I.3.2. Numerals and Determiners

In each of the following sentences, indicate whether the highlighted word is a numeral or a determiner. **Check your answers on page 217**

1. Five twos are **ten**. _____
2. **Seven** is my lucky number. _____
3. Each team consists of **eleven** players. _____

4. They've invited me to a **second** interview. _____
5. He was the **last** to arrive, as usual. _____

I.3.3. The Ordering of Determiners

Underline all the determiners in each of the following sentences. **Check your answers on page 217**

1. I'll just have half a cup.
2. She calls her two children twice a week.
3. Your photograph is in all the papers.
4. Both these books were published last year.
5. Other people get double the amount we get.

Using Articles:

Write the appropriate article — *a, an, the* — in the spaces provided. **Check your answers on page 217**. If you made many mistakes review the Determiners section of the Guide.

"Cold Comfort"
by Michael Castleman
from *Mother Jones Magazine*, March/April 1998

Not so long ago, many of us resisted separating glass, cans, and paper out of our garbage. What hassle. Today, of course, every second-grader knows that world's resources are limited and that recycling helps preserve them.

We act locally, while thinking globally. It's time to bring same consciousness to health care as we face growing medical crisis: loss of antibiotic effectiveness against common bacterial illnesses. By personally refusing -- or not demanding -- antibiotics for viral illnesses they won't cure, we can each take step toward prolonging overall antibiotic effectiveness.

Media reports have likely made you aware of this problem, but they have

neglected implications. Your brother catches cold that turns into sinus infection. His doctor treats him with antibiotics, but bacteria are resistant to all of them. The infection enters his bloodstream -- a condition known as septicemia -- and few days later, your brother dies. (Septicemia is what killed Muppets creator Jim Henson a few years ago.) Or instead of cold, he has infected cut that won't heal, or any other common bacterial disease, such as ear or prostate infection.

Bacterial resistance to antibiotics is a direct outgrowth of the overuse of these drugs. In classic Darwinian fashion, more doctors prescribe antibiotics, more likely it is for some lucky bacterium blessed with minor genetic variation to survive antibiotic assault-and pass its resistance along to its offspring. The solution is obvious: Doctors should prescribe antibiotics only as last resort.

You may check on the following pages for additional practice on determiners.

webster.comnet.edu/grammar/determiners/determiners.htm
www.edufind.com/english/grammar/Determiners1.cfm
[/www.shared-visions.com/explore/english/determ.html](http://www.shared-visions.com/explore/english/determ.html)
grammar.englishclub.com/adjectives-determiners.htm
www.edufind.com/english/grammar/

PART 1

SECTION 4 ADJECTIVES

I.4.2 Adjectives Features:

In the following sentences, the highlighted words are adjectives. Select the adjective features that each exhibits. **Check answers on page 218**

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. His new car was stolen | a. It has a typical adjective shape
b. It is gradable
c. It can undergo comparison |
| 2. Something smells good | a. It has a typical adjective shape
b. It is gradable
c. It can undergo comparison |
| 3. Their restaurant is very successful | a. It has a typical adjective shape
b. It is gradable
c. It can undergo comparison |
| 4. What an unbelievable story. | a. It has a typical adjective shape
b. It is gradable
c. It can undergo comparison |
| 5. My uncle is an atomic scientist | a. It has a typical adjective shape
b. It is gradable
c. It can undergo comparison |

I.4.3. Attributive and Predicatives Adjectives

Assign the highlighted adjectives in each of the following examples to one of the three positions. [Check answers on page 219](#)

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. The green door opened slowly. | a. attributive
b. Predicative
c. Postpositive |
| 2. This stretch of water is dangerous . | a. attributive
b. Predicative
c. Postpositive |

- | | |
|---|---|
| 3. The share-holders present voted against the Chairman | a. attributive
b. Predicative
c. Postpositive |
| 4. Jan feels ill | a. attributive
b. Predicative
c. Postpositive |
| 5. A larger than normal pay increase was awarded to the nurses | a. attributive
b. Predicative
c. Postpositive |

I .4.4. Nominal Adjectives:

In each of the following sentences, indicate whether the highlighted word is an adjective or a noun. **Check your answers on page 219**

- | | |
|--|-------------------|
| 1. Life insurance is not cheap | Adjective
Noun |
| 2. The Prime Minister is a close friend of mine | Adjective
Noun |
| 3. The Chinese Embassy is just down the road | Adjective
Noun |
| 4. Friday is a busy day for me | Adjective
Noun |
| 5. Our patient records are confidential | Adjective
Noun |

I .4.6. Participial Adjectives

In each of the following sentences, indicate whether the highlighted word is a participial adjective or a verb. **Check your answers on page 219**

- | | |
|---|-----------------------|
| 1. He told me a moving story about his childhood | Participial Adjective |
|---|-----------------------|

- | | |
|---|-------------------------------|
| | Verb |
| 2. Our piano was tuned by a Mr. Smith | Participial Adjective
Verb |
| 3. I spent four hours calculating your tax returns | Participial Adjective
Verb |
| 4. His new novel is open-ended | Participial Adjective
Verb |
| 5. The whole affair became terribly complicated | Participial Adjective
Verb |

Check the following websites for more exercises on adjectives:

www.edu.ge.ch/cptic/prospective/projets/anglais/exercices/welcome.html
owl.english.purdue.edu/handouts/grammar
perso.wanadoo.es/autoenglish
www.edufind.com/english/grammar/toc.cfm

PART 1. SECTION 5

PREPOSITIONS

I.5.1 RECOGNIZING PREPOSITIONS

Underline all the prepositions in the following extract. **Check your answers on page 220**

Dorothy Gilman attended the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts from 1940 to 1945, the University of Pennsylvania, the Moore Institute of Art, and the Arts Students' League from 1963 to 1964. She worked as an instructor of drawing in adult evening school for two years at the Samuel Fleisher Art Memorial. She has also worked as a switchboard operator for the American Bell Telephone Company, and as an instructor in creative writing at Cherry Lawn School, Darien, Connecticut, from 1969 to 1970.

I.5.1 USING PREPOSITIONS

Fill the blanks with the appropriate preposition. **Check your answers on page 220**

-Good morning, how can I help you ?/ what can I do for you ?

- Good afternoon, sir. Would it be possible to make some travel arrangements behalf of my boss ? –

-Certainly, madam. Please have a seat. - Fine. Shall I start the first destination? -Well, Monday the 21st of March my boss, Mr Taylor that is, needs to be in Paris. 11 AM he has an appointment with a customer near Courbevoie. I know it takes about three quarters of an hour to get Coubevoie from Charles de Gaulle.

- I see. So Mr Taylor should land Paris around 10 AM.

- At the latest. Checking-out at the airport, collecting luggage, not to mention traffic.

- Yes, you're quite right- Would it be possible to catch an early morning flight Heathrow ?

- Let me see. I have the Heathrow flight schedules here in front of me. Early morning ? I'm afraid the first scheduled flight London is only 8 AM.

- That late ? Is there no earlier flight Paris ?

- Unfortunately not, madam.

- I guess the only solution is to fly down to Paris on Sunday evening then ?

- Yes that's right. But look at it this way, catching the early morning flight on Monday would have meant getting up as early as 4 AM anyway. There's the one-hour difference with continental time, the trip from Birmingham, check-in time etc.

- I suppose you're right. Let's take a look at the options for Sunday evening.

I.5.2.1 Place:

Fill the blanks with an appropriate preposition of place. **Check your answers on page 221**

1. Jane is waiting for you-----the bust stop.
2. My plane stopped ----- Dubai and Hanoi and arrived --- Bangkok two hours late.
3. I don't know his phone number. Look it -----in the Phone Directory.
4. The author's name is ----- the cover of the book.
5. Please write -----my new address.
6. I live on the 7th floor ----- 21 Oxford Street ----- London.
7. Suddenly, the cat jumped ----- the kitchen table.
8. Please keep ----- the animals.
9. Mary lives --- a big house in the city, but her mother owns an apartment --- -the coast.
10. Meet me ----the corner ----Main and Maple.
11. If the car is in front of the bus then the bus is -----the car.
12. The flower shop is in the middle of the street, ----- the pharmacy and the book store.
13. I chose this blouse -----lots of other beautiful blouses..
14. They climbed -----the wall.
15. My pen just fell----- the teacher's desk.
16. I'll see you -----home when I get there.

I.5.2.2. Time

Fill the blanks with an appropriate preposition of time. **Check your answers on page 221**

1. I have a meeting _____ 9 a.m.
2. Do you work _____ Sundays?
3. Her birthday is _____ November 20th.
4. In England, it often snows _____ December.
5. Saturday is _____ Sunday and Friday.
6. It's being snowing _____ Christmas morning.
7. This Church was built _____ 1798.
8. Meet me _____ 2 p.m.
9. She met her boyfriend _____ her last vacation.
10. In the summer, we camped _____ June _____ September.
11. My parents have been married _____ 25 years

I.5.2.3. Other meanings.

Fill the blanks with an appropriate preposition. **Check your answers on page 221**

1. The child responded to his mother's demands _____ throwing a tantrum.
2. He'll do anything _____ money.
3. I need to borrow some money _____ my parents.
4. Sorry. You can't pay _____ your credit card.
5. My fingers were injured so my sister had to write the note _____ me.
6. . I am not interested _____ buying a new car now.
7. What are the main ingredients _____ this casserole?
8. My best friend, John, is named _____ his great-grandfather
9. He usually travels to Philadelphia _____ train.
10. The workers went _____ strike because they thought their wages were too low
11. He tried to warn his daughter _____ the dangers _____ going out alone _____ night.
12. Although we had expected them to take a taxi, they came _____ car.
13. The fee charged _____ that lawyer _____ his services was too high.
14. John was later blamed _____ the accident.
15. The whole room smelled _____ lavender!
16. A good thing we could stop him _____ making that stupid remark
17. You shouldn't compare a Ferrari _____ a BMW
18. Why didn't you inform us _____ the strike ?
19. I agree _____ his proposal on the condition that he dropped all charges
20. Are we sufficiently insured _____ fire ?

Check the following websites for more exercises on prepositions

esl.about.com/library/grammar/blgr_prep1.htm
english-language.webpark.pl/prepositions.html
grammar.englishclub.com/prepositions-list.htm
iteslj.org/v/e/voa-prep.html
www.angelfire.com/on/topfen/testsprepplace3.html
www.educared.net/ProfesoresInnovadores/software/verSoft.asp?id=251
www.englishpage.com/prepositions/prepositions

PART I. SECTION 6

I.6.1 Identifying verbs:

Underline all the verbs in the following text. **Check your answers on page 222.**

- | | | | |
|---|------------|---------------|---------|
| 3. He was told not to laugh at them | a. Present | c. Infinitive | e. -ing |
| | b. Past | d. -ed | |
| 4. His arm swelled up after the accident | a. Present | c. Infinitive | e. -ing |
| | b. Past | d. -ed | |
| 5. The prices have increased by 6% | a. Present | c. Infinitive | e. -ing |
| | b. Past | d. -ed | |

I.6.3 Auxiliary Verbs

Is the highlighted verb a main verb or an auxiliary verb? [Check your answers on page 223.](#)

- | | |
|---|-------------------|
| 1. I will have the soup | a. Main verb |
| | b. Auxiliary verb |
| 2. Police are investigating the incident. | a. Main verb |
| | b. Auxiliary verb |
| 3. It is very peaceful here | a. Main verb |
| | b. Auxiliary verb |
| 4. Where does your brother work? | a. Main verb |
| | b. Auxiliary verb |
| 5. They have decided to advertise your job | a. Main verb |
| | b. Auxiliary verb |
| 6. He does his homework on the way to school | a. Main verb |
| | b. Auxiliary verb |

I.6.4/1. Tense/Aspect and Communicative Functions

Identify the tense/aspect and communicative function of the following sentences. An example has been made for you. [Check your answers on page 223.](#)

0. I am taking dancing classes Present Progressive; Temporary Habit

1. All my family have had the flu _____
2. We are inviting them to the party. _____
3. The sun rises in the east _____
4. He was in hospital for five weeks. _____
5. The house had been empty for years when I bought it _____
6. He was about to leave the country when the news arrived _____
7. He is going to be a doctor when he grows up. _____
8. I was walking along Church Street when I saw Mary _____
9. We will be calling you by noon tomorrow _____
10. The show will have finished by the time you have finished making the coffee _____

I.6.5. Verbs taking and not taking the progressive

Bracket the verbs that are **not usually** used in progressive tenses. Underline those verbs that accept progressive in certain constructions. Examples are made for you. **Check your answers on page 224.** If it is necessary review the corresponding Section on the Guide.

0. (see) as in * I'm seeing you 0. (feel) as in I'm feeling your pulse.

- | | | | | |
|-----------|-----------|----------|-----------|-----------|
| 1. study | 2. cost | 3. smell | 4. remain | 5. jump |
| 6. rest | 7. forget | 8. like | 9. run | 10. love |
| 11. drown | 12. be | 13. ache | 14. adore | 15. refer |

I.6.6. The Syntactic Classification of Verbs

Fill in the table with the verbs provided. Some have been made for you. Remember that some verbs may be transitive and intransitive. **Check your answers on page 224.**

kill	die	feel	faint	place	give
study	get down	arrive	cut	break	put
look for	decide	enjoy	walk	eat	write
read	say	watch	produce	seem	grow
invite	call	become	want	wander	sleep
find	love	go	head	attend	send
invade	abandon	tell	laugh	believe	hear

Transitives	Intransitives	Ditransitives	Linking	Phrasal
kill study	study die	give	feel	get down

Check the following websites for more exercises on verbs

- www.better-english.com/exerciselist.html
- webster.comnet.edu/grammar/quiz_list
- www.english-zone.com
- www.englishpage.com/verbpage/verbtenseintro
- www.englishclub.com/index.htm
- www.englishpage.com/irregularverbs/irregularverbs.html

PART 1. SECTION 7

I.7.2. Adverbs and Adjectives

In each of the following pairs, indicate whether the highlighted word is an adverb or an adjective. **Check your answers on page 225.**

- | | | |
|--|--------|-----------|
| 1. My train arrived late , as usual | Adverb | Adjective |
| 2. I'm watching the late film | Adverb | Adjective |
| 3. My brother loves fast cars | Adverb | Adjective |
| 4. He drives too fast | Adverb | Adjective |
| 5. This exercise is harder | Adverb | Adjective |
| 6. I hope you'll try harder in the future | Adverb | Adjective |
| 7. The Times is published daily | Adverb | Adjective |
| 8. The Times is a daily newspaper | Adverb | Adjective |

- | | | |
|---|--------|-----------|
| 9. You've just ruined my best shirt | Adverb | Adjective |
| 10. Computers work best if you kick them | Adverb | Adjective |

I.7.3. Adverbial Meaning:

In each of the following sentences, indicate whether the highlighted word is an adverb of manner, time, or place. [Check your answers on page 225.](#)

- | | |
|--|-------------------------------|
| 1. The thief crept silently across the rooftops | a.Manner
b.Time
c.Place |
| 2. I'm not feeling well today | a.Manner
b.Time
c.Place |
| 3. The teacher smiled enigmatically | a.Manner
b.Time
c.Place |
| 4. We'll meet here after the match | a.Manner
b.Time
c.Place |
| 5. My aunt never comes to visit. | a.Manner
b.Time
c.Place |

I.7.4. Other Adverbial Meaning:

An adverb has been highlighted in each of the following sentences. Indicate whether it is additive, exclusive, or a particulariser. [Check your answers on page 225.](#)

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. I was especially pleased to read about your award | a. Additive
b. Exclusive
c. Particulariser |
|---|--|

2. We're **only** trying to help, you know
- a. Additive
b. Exclusive
c. Particulariser
3. The rise in sea level is **largely** due to global warming
- a. Additive
b. Exclusive
c. Particulariser
4. Robert was **both** a coward and a thief.
- a. Additive
b. Exclusive
c. Particulariser
5. Realism is **precisely** what I am looking for
- c. Particulariser

Check the following websites for more exercises on adjectives and adverbs

english-solutions.20m.com/adjadv.htm
www.englisch-hilfen.de/en/exercises_list/adjektiv_adverb.htm
www.englishpage.com/miniutorials/adverbexercise.htm
www.edufind.com/english/grammar/toc.cfm

PART 1 SECTION 8

I.8.1.CONJUNCTIONS: THE 'JOINING' WORDS

In each of the following sentences a conjunction is highlighted. Is it a coordinator or a subordinator? **Check your answers on page 226.**

1. The proposal could not have been considered further **unless** it had been signed by all the members back in May_____
- 2.Last year we visited Venice **and** Pisa_____
3. Have there been any developments **since** we last met?

4. Conversation used to be entertainment, **whereas** now it's a means of exchanging information _____
5. Meg will drink red **or** white wine _____
6. I find it very difficult to forgive, **although** I do eventually _____
7. Karen's definitely coming **but** I don't think Pete can make it _____

I.8.2. Types of Coordination.

Each of the following sentences exhibits coordination. Is it syndetic, asyndetic or polysyndetic coordination? The conjoins have been bracketed. **Check your answers on page 226.**

- | | |
|---|---------------------------------------|
| 1. [John] and [Peter] called for you this morning | Syndetic
Asyndetic
Polysyndetic |
| 2. You wouldn't believe how many exams I've got.
I've got [semantics] and [pragmatics]
and [sociolinguistics] and [psycholinguistics] and [syntax]. | Syndetic
Asyndetic
Polysyndetic |
| 3. This wine has a [rich], [fruity], [full-bodied] quality | Syndetic
Asyndetic
Polysyndetic |
| 4. I'd like [ham], [eggs] and [fried bread] for breakfast. | Syndetic
Asyndetic
Polysyndetic |
| 5. It was [a happy time], [a carefree time],
[a period of our lives which we will never forget] | Syndetic
Asyndetic
Polysyndetic |

More exercises on conjunctions:

www.shared-visions.com/explore/english/conjunct.html
grammar.englishclub.com/conjunctions.htm
grammar.englishclub.com/conjunctions.htm
www.englishpage.com/grammar/Conjunctions

PART I

SECTION 10

I.10.1.2.Uses of It.

In each of the following sentences, indicate whether the highlighted word is pronoun *it*, dummy *it*, or anticipatory *it*. **Check your answers on page 227.**

- | | |
|---|-----------------|
| 1. It won't do any good to hide from me. | Pronoun it |
| | Dummy it |
| | Anticipatory it |
| 2. I think you've broken it | Pronoun it |
| | Dummy it |
| | Anticipatory it |
| 3. It's very kind of you to see me at short notice | Pronoun it |
| | Dummy it |
| | Anticipatory it |
| 4. It was after midnight when I left the office | Pronoun it |
| | Dummy it |
| | Anticipatory it |
| 5. I've had it with this place. I'm leaving! | Pronoun it |
| | Dummy it |
| | Anticipatory it |

More on impersonal *it*.

www.towson.edu/ows/expletives.htm

www.fsenglish.com/INFO/impers.htm

web2.uvcs.uvic.ca/elc/studyzone/330/grammar/impers.htm

PART II

SECTION 1

II.1. PHRASES.THE CONSTITUENTS OF SENTENCES

II.1.2.Defining a Phrase

Identify the following phrases and underline their heads. One is made for you as an example. **Check your answers on page 227.**

0. Very stupid man Noun Phrase

1. Something difficult_____
2. Went to the cinema with him_____
3. Quite sure about it_____
4. The man that I met in Italy_____
5. Rather fast_____
6. An exercise easy to solve_____
7. Just in the middle of the street_____
8. Too sweet to my taste_____
9. Was very nice_____
- 10.Right behind you_____
- 11.Gave me a book_____
12. Suddenly_____
13. Difficult to understand_____
14. The discussion of the contract_____

PART II

SECTION 1.2.

II.1.2.1 THE NOUN PHRASE

Following the example provided, identify the specifiers the head and the complements of the following NPs **Check your answers on page 228.**

0. The disturbing news about Asia

	Spec.	Head	Comp.
	[The disturbing]	<u>news</u>	[about Asia]
Determiner	AP		PP

1. A wonderful lady
2. Someone behind you
3. A very expensive book about Thai cooking
4. The woman that I met yesterday
5. Something stupid that happened to me
6. The very exciting story that your father told
7. People from Europe who travel a lot.
8. A very frightened old lady
9. Some of the lucky guys that won the lottery
10. A visiting professor from Austria

Check the following web pages for additional exercises:

englishmistakeswelcome.4t.com/phrases & clauses
webpages.ull.es/users/afagan/test1.htm
owl.english.purdue.edu/handouts/general/gl_concise.html
www.public.asu.edu/~gelder/314text/chap3.htm

II.1.2.1 Syntactic Functions of the NP

In the following sentences underline the NPs and state their syntactic function.
Check your answers on page 229.

0. He found the puppy in the bedroom
1 2 3

1. Subject of the sentence
2. Complement of the verb found
3. Complement of the preposition in

1. Johnny was playing tennis when he slipped and broke his arm.
2. The teacher gave a prize to the best students in her class.
3. Our candidate won the election in a landslide.
4. They threw a party last night.
5. Last week, we visited the new museum.
6. The committee raised enough money for the party.
7. The next train to arrive is from Chicago.
8. I want to see him next year.
9. My sorority gave the neighborhood children a party.
10. John's cat jumped over the fence when the farmer chased it.

Check the following web pages for additional exercises

www.world-english.org/english.htm
www.wsp.krakow.pl/neofil/ang/opisy/Grammar.html
www.geocities.com/Athens/Parthenon/2692/grammarlink.html
ccbbit.cs.umass.edu/.../annframeworks/english/7to8/language05.html

PART II. SECTION 1.4

II.4.1. The Adjective Phrase

Underline the APs in the following sentences and classify its components. **Check your answers on page 230.**

0. Anyone keen on good music shouldn't miss this opportunity

Specifier
Ø

Head
keen

Complements
on good music

1. This is an excited audience.
2. That poor woman is always sad.
3. I'm sure that he will be late.
4. Something very strange happened to me last night.
5. He's been interested in buying that house.
6. That man is extremely difficult to please.

7. That abandoned factory near the river belongs to my father.
8. Visiting scholars from England are lecturing in biology.
9. She ironed the shirt really flat.
10. I want to go to nursing school.

Check the following web pages for additional exercises

www.uncp.edu/home/canada/work/caneng/adjectiv.htm
 www.edunet.com/english/grammar
 owl.english.purdue.edu

PART II .SECTION 1.5

II .1.5.1.PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

Identify and analyse the PPs in the following sentences. Check your answers on page 231.

0. The car is parked right on the corner.

Specifier	head	complement
Right	on	the corner

17. My plane arrived in Bangkok two hours late.
18. Please write down my new address.
19. Please keep away from the animals.
20. The flower shop is between the pharmacy and the book store.
21. I chose this blouse among lots of beautiful blouses.
22. They climbed over the wall.
23. My pen fell just under the teacher's desk.
24. I'll see you at home when I get there.
25. It's being snowing since Christmas morning.
26. We camped from June through September.

II.1.5.2. Syntactic Functions of the PP:

Identify the semantic functions of the underlined PPs. Check your answers on page 232.

1. Teachers from France are visiting us next month to talk about French culture
2. It all depends on the author.
3. I am terribly bad at mathematics.
4. Three students in my class dropped the course
5. He is running for president at the next elections.
6. There is something odd about her complains.
7. They were referred to a new doctor.
8. Anyone keen on good music shouldn't miss this opportunity
9. Due to the heavy rains, classes have been cancelled all over the country.
10. That house near the river has become a youth center.

Check the following web pages for additional exercises:

webster.comnet.edu/grammar/**phrases**.htm
www-writing.berkeley.edu:16080/tesl-ej/ej15/r3.html
www.world-**english**.org/**english**.htm
users.utu.fi/micnel/refreshherlinks.htm

PART II. SECTION 1.3

II.1.3.1 THE VERB PHRASE

In the following sentences underline the VPs and identify the specifiers, the complements and the adverbials. Check your answers in page 233.

0. John never goes to Caracas on working days

Specifiers	Head	Complements	Adverbials
Never	goes	to Caracas	on working days

1. My husband doesn't like dancing very much.
2. He is always tired.
3. Most people in my country can't afford designer clothes.
4. She has been playing the piano for ages.

5. She suddenly ran away.
6. Mr. Mustard killed Mrs. Red with a knife in the kitchen.
7. They put the new toys in their room right away.
8. I never win any money in the competitions.
9. He fainted when he heard the news.
10. Peter donated money to the orphanage.
11. David is extremely clever.
12. Nancy walks every morning.
13. Nancy walks her dog every morning.
14. They have already eaten.
15. They eat three meals every day

Check the following web pages for additional exercises:

webster.commnet.edu/grammar/quiz_list.htm
 webster.commnet.edu/grammar/quiz_list.htm
 webster.commnet.edu/grammar/quiz_list.htm
 www.ub.es/filoan/dggram.html

PART II . SECTION 2

II .2. 1.2. The Clause Hierarchy

In the following sentences identify the main clause and the subordinate clause(s). **Check your answers on page 235.**

0. MC [My mother said **SC1**[that she will prepare fish for dinner] **SC2**[if she finds it fresh]]
1. This is the book that I bought in London.
 2. She said that her daughter had died a year ago.
 3. The manager suggested that we should consider leasing the apartment.
 4. When Mr. Robinson switched on the television he realized it didn't work.
 5. It is obvious that Peter knows what he is doing with his son because he has proved to be a responsible father.

6. When they got to the station the train had already gone.
7. That man is really difficult to please.
8. He insisted on going to Caracas to see another doctor.
9. I know that he knows that I'm pretty.
10. The boys that came to my sister party didn't dance because they are too shy.

II.2.1.3. Syntactic Classification of Clauses:

In each of the following sentences, decide whether the bracketed clauses are finite, non-finite or verbless (small clause). **Check your answers on page 235.**

- | | |
|--|----------------------------------|
| 1. [Everybody left just after the ceremony] | Finite
Non finite
Verbless |
| 2. [Inviting your sister] was not a great decision | Finite
Non finite
Verbless |
| 3. I'll be home around ten [if my train is on time] | Finite
Non finite
Verbless |
| 4. These apple will be delicious [when ripe] | Finite
Non finite
Verbless |
| 5. [They expect Susan to do all the work] | Finite
Non finite
Verbless |
| 6. [Deprived of oxygen], plants will quickly die | Finite
Non finite
Verbless |
| 7. They house, [now empty], was allowed to fall into ruins | Finite
Non finite
Verbless |

II.2.1.5. Functions of the Subordinate Clause in the Sentence

State the function of each subordinate clause in the following sentences. **Check your answers on page 236.**

1. This is the book that I bought in London.
2. She said that her daughter had died a year ago.
3. The manager suggested that we should consider leasing the apartment.
4. When Mr. Robinson switched on the television he realized it didn't work.
5. It is obvious that Peter knows what he is doing with his son because he has proved to be a responsible father.
6. When they got to the station the train had already gone.
7. That man is really difficult to please.
8. He insisted on going to Caracas to see another doctor.
9. I know that he knows that I'm pretty.
10. The boys that came to my sister party didn't dance because they are too shy.
11. He became exactly what everybody expected.

II.2.2.1. SENTENCES

In the following examples, determine the sentence type from the choices given. **Check your answers on page 237.**

- | | |
|--|----------|
| 1. We took a taxi home after the theatre | simple |
| | compound |
| | complex |

- | | |
|--|-------------------------------|
| 2. The policeman was not impressed by your alibi | simple
compound
complex |
| 3. As soon as I heard the news, I rushed straight to the police | simple
compound
complex |
| 4. Amy watches football on television, but she never goes to a game | simple
compound
complex |
| 5. If you give your details to our secretary, we will contact you when we have a vacancy | simple
compound
complex |

II.2.2.2. Sentence Classification

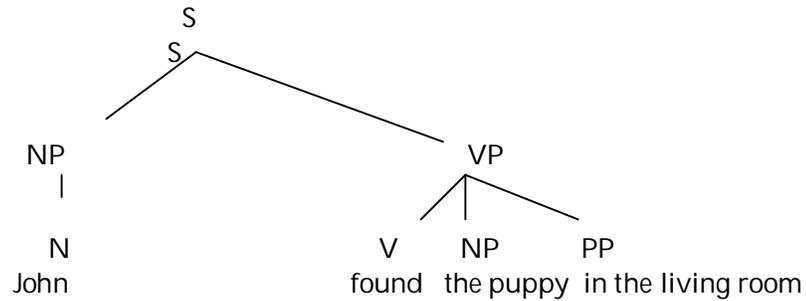
Say whether the following sentences are declarative ,interrogative ,imperative, or exclamative. **Check your answers on page 237.**

1. The manager suggested that we should consider leasing the apartment.
2. Come here right now!
3. What a wonderful world it is.
4. Will you please close the door?
5. You noisy people, be quiet.
6. For generations, Nepal has produced brilliant mountaineers.
7. Are we late, Mary?

II.2.2.3. The Grammatical Hierarchy

Following the example diagram the following sentences. **Check your answers on Appendix 3.**

0. John found the puppy in the living room



1. Peter went to the cinema last night.
2. That lady is wearing a beautiful hat.
3. The table is clean.
4. He died last year.
5. The sun melted the ice.
6. This tree diagram is very easy.
7. The poor woman suddenly fainted.

II.2.2.4.1. Subject and Predicate.

II.2.2.4.1.1. Subject

In each of the following sentences, underline the subject. **Check your answers on page 238.**

1. Your new neighbours are very noisy.
2. Drinking beer is not permitted.
3. Without thinking, the professor stepped off the pavement.
4. It is raining a lot on the coast.
5. To ensure confidentiality, we will conceal your name and address.
6. What I need is a good vacation.
7. There was a storm last night.
8. At noon is a good time to phone him.

9. There are a lot of people there.
10. Next month, visiting scholars are coming from France.

11.2.2.4.1.2. The Predicate

In each of the following sentences identify the Direct and the Indirect Objects.
 Check your answers on page 238.

1. Our programmer is testing his new software.
2. Peter bought Mary a new car.
3. He suddenly realised that someone was listening.
4. Any has decided to go to the University.
5. The professor explained the theorem to the new students.
6. They can't read what you have written.
7. What I need is to travel abroad.
8. They are feeding the birds.
9. He asked Nancy an important question.
10. This exercise involves identifying objects.

11.2.2.4.3. Sentence Patterns from a Functional Perspective.

Classify the sentences according to their functional pattern. An example has been made for you. Check your answers on page 239.

0. John gave Mary a new car for her birthday

Pattern 3

Subject	Verb	Indirect Object	Direct Object	(Adjunct)
John	gave	Mary	a new car	for her birthday

1. Nelly sings beautiful songs.
2. They can't read what you have written.

3. Suddenly the teacher asked Nancy a difficult question during the class.
4. Peter donated money to the University.
5. Peter swims well.
6. He wondered what to do.
7. Our programmer is testing his new software.
8. Peter went to the cinema last night.
9. That lady is wearing a beautiful hat.
10. He usually exercises during the day.

PART III. SECTION 1

III.1.1.MODAL VERBS

III.1.1.1.MAY/III 1.1.2.MIGHT

Complete the following sentences with the appropriate use of may or might.
Check your answers on page 240.

1. John _____study in the library tonight.
2. Peter_____go fishing next week.
3. He _____dance with me at the party tomorrow.
4. Nelly _____ visit her mother in Europe next year.
5. She _____ be transferred to another hospital next week.
6. We _____go shopping later.
7. My family _____move to their new house next month.
8. Pamela _____get a new job soon.
9. He_____cook for us tomorrow.
10. Helen _____go out with her family this weekend.

III.1.1.3.CAN/III 1.1.4.COULD

Complete the following sentences with the appropriate use of can or could.
Check your answers on page 240.

1. _____ I have some paper?
2. _____ I see your driver license please?
3. Do you think I _____ borrow your car?
4. I _____ bake wonderful cakes.
5. _____ I help you?
6. I _____ read by the age of four.
7. Nelly _____ swim very well.
8. This _____ be the answer to your prayers.
9. _____ I get you a cup of coffee?
10. This quiz is really easy. It _____ be answered in 10 minutes.

CAN, CAN'T COULD, MAY, MIGHT, MAY NOT, MIGHT NOT

Complete the following sentences with the appropriate use of the modals given above. Check your answers on page 240.

1. They _____ be away for the weekend, but I'm not sure.
2. You _____ leave now if you wish.
3. _____ you open the window a bit, please?
4. He _____ be French judging by his accent.
5. _____ you play the piano?
6. Listen please, you _____ speak during this exam.
7. The _____ still be out!
8. You _____ smoke on the bus.
9. With luck tomorrow _____ be a sunny day.
10. _____ I come in?

CAN, COULD, MAY, MIGHT

Choose the most appropriate modal auxiliary for each sentence. **Check your answers on page 241.**

1. I _____ (can/could) type very fast when I was in college. I'm much slower now.
2. I'm sorry, Mr. Martinez, the rules state that you _____ (may/can) visit your uncle in Ohio, but you _____ (might not/can't) stay longer than six months.
3. I don't know if I can, but I _____ (might/may) go to Toronto next week.
4. If you come to visit us next summer, you _____ (can/might) stay in the guesthouse.
5. Jay usually takes two courses each semester, but this semester he said he _____ (could/might) try to take three.
6. If Ashot looks out his back window, he _____ (could/can) see the Caspian Sea.
7. When Jacques was younger, he _____ (might/could) ride 30 km on his bicycle in an afternoon.
8. If you want to, you _____ (can/may) have a swim in the pool before dinner.
9. Next week I _____ (could/may) take a trip into the Sonora Desert.

CAN, COULD, MAY, MIGHT, WILL

Change the following sentences to sentences using one of these modals: can, could, may, might, will . **Check your answers on page 242.**

0. I promise to come to the office early tomorrow.

I will come to the office early tomorrow.

1. It is possible that Megan will have time to read that document today.

2. John will be able to meet you at 8 a.m. tomorrow.

3. My dad was able to run really fast when he was young.

4. John promised to buy me a new coat.

5. It's possible that he will have room for you in the car.

6. I think his car holds five people.

7. The contract states that you are allowed to take a leave of absence once a year.

8. They've remodeled the hotel and now it is open for tourists to stay there.

9. I was able to run four miles daily when I was a kid.

10. It seems possible that we will be able to travel to Europe next year.

III.1.1.5. Shall

The following questions will lead you through the different meanings and uses of *shall*. Check your answers on page 242. If you consider that your answers are not similar to the ones provided, review this section on modals.

1. What is the difference in the meaning of *shall* in the following questions:

Shall I call you when I arrive? and *Shall we go swimming?*

2. Can you say *Shall you call me when you arrive?*
3. What is the shortened form of *shall not*?
4. What is the meaning of *shall* in the sentence *She shall be here on time.*

III.1.1.6. Should/Should have

Complete the following sentences with should or should have. **Check your answers on page 242.**

1. He _____ (study) more before this examination.
2. You _____ (pay) more attention to what the teacher is saying.
3. John went to the movies last night but he _____ (stay) at home and _____ (prepare) his lessons.
4. How could you send that letter by ordinary mail. You _____ (send) it by express mail.
5. No one _____ (spend) as much money as she does.
6. I _____ (write) them a letter but I don't have anything to say.
7. You _____ (be) more generous with your money.
8. He _____ (try) to come to class on time.
9. You _____ (visit) Mexico during your last vacation.
10. You _____ (ask) permission before doing it.

III.1.1.7. Will

The following questions will lead you through the different meanings and uses of *will*. **Check your answers on page 243.** If you consider that your answers are not similar to the ones provided, review this section on modals.

1. What is the meaning of *will* in the sentence *Boys will be boys!*
2. What is wrong with the sentence *I'll keep opening my big mouth!*

3. What is the function of *will* in the sentence *Will you shut up!*
4. What's the difference between the question *Will you have some more cake?* and the question *Won't you have some more cake?*

III.1.1.9/Must have/ III.1.1.10.Ought to:

Complete the following sentences with *must have* or *ought to*. **Check your answers on page 243.**

1. He _____ (spend) more time on his practice.
2. Mr. Smith _____ (go) home by now.
3. She speaks English beautifully. She _____ (study) a long time.
4. You really _____ (see) a doctor.
5. She _____ (prepare) her homework more carefully.
6. One of the servant _____ (take) the money.
7. He _____ (come) by taxi if he wants to be here on time.
8. The car _____ (be/steal) by a professional thief.
9. They don't answer the phone. They _____ (go away) on their vacation.
10. She _____ (rest) more and try to build up.

MORE ON MODALS IN GENERAL

A) From the choices provided after each sentence select the verb that would correctly complete the sentence. **Check your answers on page 244.**

1. You seem to be having trouble there. _____ I help you?
 - a. Would
 - b. Will
 - c. Shall

2. I don't have enough money to buy lunch. _____ you lend me a couple of dollars?
- May
 - Could
 - Shall
3. That ice is dangerously thin now. You _____ go ice-skating today.
- Mustn't
 - Might not.
 - Won't
4. It's way past my bedtime and I'm really tired. I _____ go to bed.
- Should
 - Ought to
 - Could
5. He _____ have committed this crime. He wasn't even in the city that night.
- Might
 - Shouldn't
 - Couldn't
6. John is over two hours late already, He _____ missed the bus again.
- Should have
 - Must have
 - Will have
7. I'm really quite lost. _____ showing me how to get out of here?
- Would you mind
 - Would you be
 - Must you be
8. That bus is usually on time. It _____ be here any time now.
- Might
 - Have
 - Ought to
- 9 I read about your plane's near disaster. You _____ terrified!
- Might have been
 - Must have been
 - Shall have been
10. I read about your plane's near disaster. You _____ terrified!
- Might
 - Could
 - Have to

11. Professor Jones, we've finished our work for today. _____ we leave now, please?
- May
 - Can
 - Must.

B) Explain the meaning expressed by the modal used in each sentence. Check your answers on page.

0. Would you mind if I sat here? Permission

1. My I borrow your car?
2. They had to put out the fire with their blankets.
3. You ought to water the garden to have beautiful flowers.
4. The Dean may come to visit our office tomorrow
5. Julie can swim for hours.
6. Can I Help you?
7. You should take an umbrella. It's starting to rain.
8. John has studied all day. He should be ready for the exam.
9. You must be back by 10 o'clock.
10. Would you like to come with us?
11. No, I won't wait any longer. I have too many other things to do.
12. He shan't be allowed to enter the building.
13. Might I have a try at your computer game?
14. When I first came to Italy I couldn't understand anything.
15. Time will heal all wounds.
16. They might go to the cinema tonight.
17. No, you can't. It is a no parking zone.
18. You ought to thank them.
19. If she is English she hat to have drunk tea at least once.
20. He could have had some kind of emergency, I suppose

There are literally hundreds of electronic addresses in which you will find exercises and explanations on modals. Here are only some of them:

www.pacific.net/sperling/quiz/modal
www.oup.com/pdf/elt/catalogue

webster.comnet.edu/grammar/auxiliary htm
esl.lbcc.cc.ca.us/eesl/lessons/maymight
www.langust.ru/unit030i.shtml
www.tillyer.net/GLOW/fsi121.htm
www.goldenbear.com.br/Grammar/may might could asp
www.englishpage.com/modals
www.easyenglish.com/lessons
www.edu.ge.ch/cptic/prospective/projets/anglais/**exercises**/welcome
www.englisch-hilfen.de/en/**exercises_list**/hilfsverben.htm
perso.wanadoo.es/auto**english**/free**exercises**.htm
esl.about.com/library/grammar/blmodal.htm
www.kl.unibe.ch/kl/lbs1/english7modeaux

PART III. SECTION 2

III.2.1 USED TO

In each of the following sentences change the italicized verb to introduce the expression used to. **Check your answers on page 245.**

0. I do not *smoke* anymore I *used to smoke*

1. I never *made* so many mistakes in spelling.
2. The accounting department *was* on the 18th floor.
3. Mr. Smith *had* charge of the transportation division.
4. I *bought* all my clothes in Macy's.
5. I never *caught* a cold.
6. He never *did* his work poorly.
7. John *was* a good student and *worked* hard.
8. Mr. Smith *went* to the concert every week.
9. Mr. Jones *was* the official interpreter for the company.
10. He *took* a great interest in the English lessons.

PART III. SECTION 3

III.3.1. EMPHASIS

Rewrite the following sentences using a morphological and a syntactic device to show emphasis on the italicised verbs. **Check your answers on page 245.**

0. John *broke* the vase.

John himself broke the vase./John did brake the vase.

It was John who broke the vase.

1. I maintain that she *lives* in Brooklyn.

2. John *attends* class regularly.

3. You should *bring* John with you next time you come.

4. She really *seems* to enjoy her lessons.

5. Columbus *discovered* a new continent.

6. I *wrote* that letter. I am positive of it.

7. John *called* me on the phone.

8. I *did* it yesterday.

9. Maps *showed* that the earth was round.

10. You are mistaken. I *want* to learn English.

PART III. SECTION 4

III.4.1. REPORTED OR INDIRECT SPEECH

Rewrite the following sentences using reported speech. **Check your answers on page 246.**

1. Rosa asked Jose: "Have you been studying English very long?"

2. "What is it?" asked Miriam.

3. John said: "All I see is powder".

4. Monica Cheng asked Roeun, "Are you going to visit Cambodia?"

5. The teacher said, "Study chapters 1-4 for the final test!"

6. The teacher said, "Don't come to school on Monday because it is a holiday!"
7. "I believe it's pepper," said Arinas.
8. Anne said, "Don't listen to Mr. Bascomb because he is not an honest person!"
9. Olena said to Martha, "You should visit Russia in the summer."
10. Harold said, "Don't bring sodas near the computers!"
11. "I'm saving the last bit for Dr Haret," said Savni.
12. "Open it!" said Arinas.

PART III. SECTION 5

III.5.1.Passive Voice

Rewrite the following active sentences using the passive voice. **Check your answers on page 247.**

1. Someone told me that you bake the best bread in town, sir.
- 2.They will crown Eddy Merck sportsman of the century.
3. They have to work out a publicity campaign to restore the image of Belgium in the world.
4. They should do everything to bring war criminals to justice.
5. They have planted thousands of trees alongside the E19 motorway.
6. A client delayed Joanne when she was leaving the office.
7. The tennis club was holding a meeting at 6.30.
8. They were cooking dinner when I arrived.
9. Did the plan interest you?
10. The vet told Joanne to get out of the house.
11. The telephone call confused Joanne.
12. The dog had bitten off his fingers.
13. People must not leave bicycles in the driveway.
14. The students will finish the course by July.

15. They had finished the preparations by the time the guests arrived.

On line exercises on passive voice:

www.englisch-hilfen.de/en/exercises_list/passiv.htm

www.asu.edu/duas/wcenter/passive.html

www.smic.be/smic5022/index.htm

owl.english.purdue.edu/handouts/grammar/g_actpass.html

uark.edu/.../qwrtntr/resources/handouts/activepassive.htm

online.ohlone.cc.ca.us/~mlieu/passive/final.htm

Answers to Selected Exercises

Part I. Section 2. Nouns

I. 2.1 Identifying nouns

Child, kitchen, rooms, mother, home, dressmaker, workshop, kitchen, dressmaking, Poland, dresses, women, sense, design, eye, subtleties, fashions, boldness, dollars, fashion, magazine, customer, customer, remnants, store, Belmont, Avenue, material, owner, remnants, stores, reason, owners, goods, days, apartment, women, housedresses, kitchen, table, fitting, bedroom, kitchen, room, machine, nut, Singer, scrolls, arm, tiers, drawers, needles, thread, side, treadle, window, coal, stove, year, college, source, heat, December, bedrooms, bottles, milk, cream, borscht, calves, feet.

I.2.2.3 Noun number

babies	phenomena	fish	teeth	feet
hypotheses	analyses	duties	libraries	women
passers by	stimuli	nuclei	halves	potatoes

I.2.3.3 Count and non-count nouns

1. Count.
2. Non-count
3. Count
4. Non-count
5. Non-count
6. Count

I.2.4 PRONOUNS: A SUBCLASS OF NOUNS

1. **one another** is reciprocal
2. **herself** is reflexive
3. **them** is personal
4. **ours** is possessive
5. **who** is relative
6. He is persona
7. **why** is interrogative
8. **me** is personal
9. **nobody** is impersonal

PART 1

SECTION 3. DETERMINERS

I.3.1 Determiners: The Specifiers of Nouns

The determiners are **these** (1), **some** (3), and **this** (4). They all come before a noun.

The pronouns are **this** (2) and **these** (5). In each case, they can be replaced by a noun, or by *the* plus a noun: (2) Is *the dog* yours? (5) *Crisps* are really tasty.

I.3.2. Numerals and Determiners

Determiners always come before a noun, so the determiners in this exercise are **eleven** (3) and **second** (4). Notice that in (4), **second** co-occurs with another determiner, the indefinite article *a*.

The numerals are **ten** (1), **seven** (2), and **last** (5). In (5), the numeral **last** has a determiner of its own, the definite article **the**.

I.3.3. The Ordering of Determiners

1. **half, a**
2. **her, two, twice, a**
3. **your, all, the**
4. **both, these, last**
5. **other, double, the**
6. **a**

Using Articles:

Not so long ago, many of us resisted separating glass, cans, and paper out of our garbage. What hassle. Today, of course, every second-grader knows that world's resources are limited and that recycling helps preserve them. We act locally, while thinking globally. It's time to bring same consciousness to health

care as we face growing medical crisis: loss of antibiotic effectiveness against common bacterial illnesses. By personally refusing -- or not demanding -- antibiotics for viral illnesses they won't cure, we can each take step toward prolonging overall antibiotic effectiveness.

Media reports have likely made you aware of this problem, but they have neglected implications. Your brother catches cold that turns into sinus infection. His doctor treats him with antibiotics, but bacteria are resistant to all of them. The infection enters his bloodstream -- a condition known as septicemia -- and few days later, your brother dies. (Septicemia is what killed Muppets creator Jim Henson a few years ago.) Or instead of cold, he has infected cut that won't heal, or any other common bacterial disease, such as ear or prostate infection.

Bacterial resistance to antibiotics is a direct outgrowth of the overuse of these drugs. In classic Darwinian fashion, more doctors prescribe antibiotics, more likely it is for some lucky bacterium blessed with minor genetic variation to survive antibiotic assault-and pass its resistance along to its offspring. The solution is obvious: Doctors should prescribe antibiotics only as last resort.

You may check on the following pages for additional practice on determiners.

webster.commnet.edu/grammar/determiners/determiners.htm

www.edufind.com/english/grammar/Determiners1.cfm

[/www.shared-visions.com/explore/english/determ.html](http://www.shared-visions.com/explore/english/determ.html)

grammar.englishclub.com/adjectives-determiners.htm

www.edufind.com/english/grammar/

PART 1 SECTION 4 ADJECTIVES

I.4.2 Adjectives Features:

When you examine a word for a TYPICAL ADJECTIVE ENDING, try to think of other adjectives with the same ending. The typical endings in this exercise are

-ful successful,

-ble unbelievable

-ic atomic,

New and **good** do **not** have typical adjective endings.

An adjective is GRADABLE if it can take an intensifying word like *very* or *extremely* before it. In this exercise, all the adjectives are gradable **except *atomic* (a very **atomic* scientist)**.

An adjective undergoes COMPARISON if it has *-er* and *-est* forms (*newer*, *newest*), or if it can take *more* and *most* before it (*more successful*, *most successful*, *more unbelievable*, *most unbelievable*). Again, **only the word *atomic* in this exercise cannot undergo these changes** (**more atomic*, **most atomic*). Note that the word *good* undergoes comparison in an irregular way. Its comparative form is *better*, and its superlative form is *best*.

I.4.3. Attributive and Predicatives Adjectives

ATTRIBUTIVE adjectives come before the noun which they modify. In this exercise, there are two attributive adjectives - **green** (1) and **larger** (5). Sentence 5 is a bit difficult, because *larger* is separated from the noun by *than normal*. But it still comes before the noun, so it is an attributive adjective.

PREDICATIVE adjectives come after a verb, so the predicative adjectives in this exercise are **dangerous** (2) and **ill** (4).

POSTPOSITIVE adjectives come immediately after the modified noun - the shareholders **present** (3).

I.4.4. Nominal Adjectives:

The adjectives are **close** (2), **Chinese** (3), and **busy** (4). *Chinese* is a denominal adjective derived from the proper noun *China*.

You can easily see that **life is not an adjective** when you try putting *very* in front of it (**very life*). **Life is a noun**.

In (5), **patient is a noun**, if we take the sentence to mean "Records about our patients are confidential". The sentence is unlikely to refer to "records which exhibit patience". However, there is nothing in the syntax alone which tells us that **patient is not** an adjective in this sentence.

I.4.6. Participial Adjectives

The **participial adjectives** are **moving** (1), **open-ended** (4), and **complicated** (5). *Moving* is in attributive position, while *open-ended* and *complicated* are in predicative position. Notice that there is no verb which corresponds to *open-ended* (**to open-end*).

The *by*-agent phrase in (2) tells us that **tuned** is a **verb** (cf. *Mr. Beethoven tuned our piano*). In (3), the presence of *your tax returns* (the direct object) shows that **calculating** is a verb (cf. *your tax returns were calculated by me*).

PART I. SECTION 5. PREPOSITIONS.

I.5.1 RECOGNIZING PREPOSITIONS

of; from to; of; of; from to; as; of; for; at; as; for; as; in; at; from to.

I.5.1 USING PREPOSITIONS

-Good morning, how can I help you ?/ what can I do for you ?

- Good afternoon, sir. Would it be possible to make some travel arrangements on behalf of my boss ? –

-Certainly, madam. Please have a seat. - Fine. Shall I start with the first destination?

-Well, on Monday the 21st of March my boss, Mr Taylor that is, needs to be in Paris. At 11 AM he has an appointment with a customer near Courbevoie. I know it takes about three quarters of an hour to get to Coubevoie from Charles de Gaulle.

- I see. So Mr Taylor should land in Paris at around 10 AM.

- At the latest. Checking-out at the airport, collecting luggage, not to mention traffic.

- Yes, you're quite right- Would it be possible to catch an early morning flight at Heathrow ?

- Let me see. I have the Heathrow flight schedules here in front of me. Early morning ? I'm afraid the first scheduled flight from London is only at 8 AM.

- That late ? Is there no earlier flight to Paris ?

- Unfortunately not, madam.

- I guess the only solution is to fly down to Paris on Sunday evening then ?

- Yes that's right. But look at it this way, catching the early morning flight on Monday would have meant getting up as early as 4 AM anyway. There's the one-hour difference with continental time, the trip from Birmingham, check-in time etc.

- I suppose you're right. Let's take a look at the options for Sunday evening.

I.5.2.1 Place

1. Jane is waiting for you **at** the bust stop.
2. My plane stopped **at** Dubai and Hanoi and arrived **in** Bangkok two hours late.
3. I don't know his phone number. Look it **up** in the Phone Directory.
4. The author's name is **on** the cover of the book.
5. Please write **down** my new address.
6. I live on the 7th floor **at** 21 Oxford Street **in** London.
7. Suddenly, the cat jumped **onto** the kitchen table.
8. Please keep **away from** the animals.
9. Mary lives **in** a big house in the city, but her mother owns an apartment **on** the coast.
10. Meet me **in** the corner **of** Main and Maple.
11. If the car is in front of the bus then the bus is **behind** the car.
12. The flower shop is in the middle of the street, **between** the pharmacy and the book store.
13. I chose this blouse **among** lots of beautiful blouses.
14. They climbed **over** the wall.
15. My pen just fell **under** the teacher's desk.
16. I'll see you **at** home when I get there.

I.5.2.2. Time

1. I have a meeting **at** 9 a.m.
2. Do you work **on** Sundays?
3. Her birthday is **on** November 20th.
4. In England, it often snows **in** December.
5. Saturday is **before** Sunday and **after** Friday.
6. It's been snowing **since** Christmas morning.
7. This Church was built **in** 1798.
8. Meet me **at** 2 p.m.
9. She met her boyfriend **during** her last vacation.
10. In the summer, we camped **from** June **through** September.
11. My parents have been married **for** 25 years.

I.5.2.3. Other meanings

1. The child responded to his mother's demands **by** throwing a tantrum.
2. He'll do anything **for** money.

3. I need to borrow some money **from** my parents.
4. Sorry. You can't pay **with** your credit card.
5. My fingers were injured so my sister had to write the note **for** me.
6. I am not interested **in** buying a new car now.
7. What are the main ingredients **of** this casserole?
8. My best friend, John, is named **after** his great-grandfather
9. He usually travels to Philadelphia **by** train.
10. The workers went **on** strike because they thought their wages were too low
11. He tried to warn his daughter **of** the dangers **of** going out alone **at** night.
12. Although we had expected them to take a taxi, they came **by** car.
13. The fee charged **by** that lawyer **for** his services was too high.
14. John was later blamed **about** the accident.
15. The whole room smelled **of** lavender!
16. A good thing we could stop him **from** making that stupid remark
17. You shouldn't compare a Ferrari **with** a BMW
18. Why didn't you inform us **about** the strike ?
19. I agree **to** his proposal on the condition that he dropped all charges
20. Are we sufficiently insured **against** fire ?

PART I. SECTION 6. VERBS

I.6.1. Identifying verbs:

Underline all the verbs in the following text. Check your answers on page

In Brownsville tenements the kitchen is always the largest room and the center of the household. As a child I felt that we live in a kitchen to which four other rooms were annexed. My mother, a "home" dressmaker, had her workshop in the kitchen. She told me once that she had begun dressmaking in Poland at thirteen; as far back as I can remember, she was always making dresses for the local women. She had an innate sense of design, a quick eye for all the subtleties in the latest fashions, even when she despised them, and great boldness. For three or four dollars she would study the fashion magazines with a customer, go with the customer to the remnants store on Belmont Avenue to pick out the material, argue the owner down -all remnants stores, for some reason, were supposed to be shady, as if the owners dealt in stolen goods- and then for days would patiently fit and baste and sew and fit again. Our apartment was always full of women in their housedresses sitting around the kitchen table waiting for a fitting. My little bedroom next to the kitchen was the fitting room. The sewing machine, an old nut-brown Singer with golden scrolls painted along the black arm and engraved along the two tiers of little drawers massed with needles and thread on each side of the treadle, stood between the window and the great coal-black stove

which up to my last year in college was our main source of heat. By December the two outer bedrooms were closed off, and used to chill bottles of milk and cream, cold borscht, and jellied calves' feet.

I.6.2 Verb Forms

1. present
2. -ing
3. infinitive
4. past
5. -ed

I.6.3 Auxiliary Verbs

1. Main
2. Auxiliary
3. Main
4. Auxiliary
5. Auxiliary
6. Main

I.6.4/1. Tense/Aspect and Communicative Functions

1. Present Perfect; Indefinite event leading up to the present.
2. Present Progressive; Future event.
3. Simple Present; Present habit.
4. Simple Past; Past event.
5. Past Perfect; Past in the Past.
6. Simple Past; Future seen from a viewpoint in the past
7. Present Progressive; Future.
8. Past Progressive; Simultaneous activities in the past
9. Future Progressive; Future event

10. Future Perfect/Future Perfect Progressive; Future event as fulfilment from the present.

I.6.5. Verbs taking and not taking the progressive

- | | | | | |
|----------|------------|---------------------|-------------|------------|
| 1. study | 2. (cost) | 3. (<u>smell</u>) | 4. (remain) | 5. jump |
| 6. rest | 7.(forget) | 8.(like) | 9. run | 10. (love) |
| 11.drown | 12. (be) | 13.(<u>ache</u>) | 14. (adore) | 15. refer |

I.6.6.The Syntactic Classification of Verbs

Transitives	Intransitives	Ditransitives	Linking	Phrasal
kill	study	give	Feel	get down
study	die	place	Seem	look for
cut	faint	put	grow	
break	arrive	send	become	
decide	walk			
enjoy	eat			
walk	write			
eat	read			
write	wander			
say	sleep			
watch	go			
produce	head			
read	invite			
call	laugh			
want				
find				
love				
attend				
hear				
believe				
invade				
abandon				
tell				

PART 1. SECTION 7. ADVERBS

I. 7.2. Adverbs and Adjectives

1. My train arrived **late**, as usual Adverb
2. I'm watching the **late** film Adjective
3. My brother loves **fast** cars Adjective
4. He drives too **fast** Adverb
5. This exercise is **harder** Adjective
6. I hope you'll try **harder** in the future Adverb
7. The Times is published **daily** Adverb
8. The Times is a **daily** newspaper Adjective
9. You've just ruined my **best** shirt Adjective
10. Computers work **best** if you kick them Adverb

I. 7.3. Adverbial Meaning:

1. The thief crept **silently** across the rooftops a.Manner
2. I'm not feeling **well** today a.Manner
3. The teacher smiled **enigmatically** a.Manner
4. We'll meet **here** after the match c.Place
5. My aunt **never** comes to visit. b.Time

I. 7.4. Other Adverbial Meaning:

Like circumstantial adverbs, the subclasses in this exercise can only be distinguished semantically, that is, by referring to the kind of meanings that they convey.

There is only one additive adverb here -- **both** in (4). The adverb **both** emphasizes that Roberts' cowardice and his criminal tendencies are to be considered equal.

The exclusive adverbs are **only** (2) and **precisely** (5). They focus on what is being said, to the exclusion of other possibilities. Others particularise

In (1), the particularizer *especially* implies that the speaker was pleased to read about the award, and also about other, unspecified things which he read. Similarly, in (3), global warming is cited as the major factor in the rise in sea level. However, the particularizer *largely* implies that other, unspecified factors may also be at work.

Part I. Section 8. CONJUNCTIONS

I.8.1. CONJUNCTIONS

Coordinators are easy to identify because there are so few of them in English. The main ones are **and**, **but**, and **or**. They all appear in this exercise, **in (2), (7), and (5)** respectively. The order of the conjoins can usually be reversed (cf Venice *and* Pisa ~Pisa *and* Venice).

Subordinators connect items of "unequal" syntactic status. This means that the string of words introduced by a subordinator depends upon what precedes it . We can see this most clearly in (6), where the meaning of *I do eventually* depends upon the first item -- *I find it difficult to forgive*. The first item tells us that auxiliary *do* stands for *forgive* -- *I forgive eventually*. Incidentally, this use of *do* is an example of *code*, which we identified earlier as one of the NICE properties of auxiliary verbs.

I.8.2. Types of Coordination.

Syndetic coordination, in which a coordinating conjunction is present, is the most common type. In this exercise, **syndetic coordination is shown in (1) and (4)**. Remember that syndetic coordination can involve more than two conjoins, as in (4).

Asyndetic coordination, in which no coordinator is present, is found **in (3) and (5)**.

Sentence **(2)** exhibits **polysyndetic** coordination. It is used here for effect. By putting a coordinator between each pair of conjoins, the sentence is lengthened considerably, and the large number of exams to be taken is emphasized.

Part I. Section 10 MINOR WORD CLASSES

I.10.1.2. Uses of It.

There is only **one pronoun *it*** in this exercise, in sentence (2). As a pronoun, *it* can be replaced by a noun, or, more accurately, by *the* plus a noun: *I think you've broken the computer*

You can test for **anticipatory *it*** by "inverting" the sentence in which it appears:

(1) *It won't do any good to hide from me ~ To hide from me won't do any good*

The *it* in (3) is also anticipatory (cf. *To see me at short notice is very kind of you*).

Dummy *it* is found in (4) and (5). Dummy *it* refers to time, as in (4) or to the weather, or to something inspecifiable, as in (5).

PART II. SECTION 1.

II.1. PHRASES. THE CONSTITUENTS OF SENTENCES

II.1.2. Defining a Phrase

- | | |
|--|----------------------|
| 1. <u>Something</u> difficult | Noun Phrase |
| 2. <u>Went</u> to the cinema with him | Verb Phrase |
| 3. Quite <u>sure</u> about it | Adjective Phrase |
| 4. The <u>man</u> that I met in Italy | Noun Phrase |
| 5. Rather <u>quickly</u> | Adverbial Phrase |
| 6. An <u>exercise</u> easy to solve | Noun Phrase |
| 7. Just <u>in</u> the middle of the street | Prepositional Phrase |
| 8. Too <u>sweet</u> to my taste | Adjective Phrase |
| 9. <u>Was</u> very nice | Verb Phrase |
| 10. Right <u>behind</u> you | Prepositional Phrase |
| 11. <u>Gave</u> me a book | Verb Phrase |
| 12. <u>Suddenly</u> | Adverbial Phrase |
| 13. <u>Difficult</u> to understand | Adjective Phrase |

14. The discussion of the contract by the committee

Noun Phrase

PART II SECTION 1.2.

II.1.2.1 THE NOUN PHRASE

	Specifier(s)	Head	Complement(s)
1.	A wonderful Determiner AP	lady	∅
2.	∅	Someone	behind you PP
3.	A very expensive Det. AP	book	about Thai cooking PP
4.	The Det	woman	that I met yesterday Clause
5.	∅	Something	stupid AP that happened to me Clause
6.	The very exciting Det. AP	story	that your father told Clause
7.		People	from Europe PP who travel a lot Clause
8.	A very frightened old lady Det. AP AP		∅

9. Some of the lucky guys that won the lottery
 Det. Det. AP Clause

10. A visiting professor from Austria
 Det. AP PP

II.1.2.1 Syntactic Functions of the NP

1. Johnny was playing tennis when he slipped and broke his arm.

1 2 3 4

1. Subject of the sentence; 2 complement of the verb play; 3 subject of the verb slip; 4 complement of the verb break.

2. The teacher gave a prize to the best students in her class.

1 2 3 4

1. Subject of the sentence; 2 complement of the verb give; 3 complement of the preposition to; 4 complement of the preposition in.

3. Our candidate won the election in a landslide.

1 2 3

1. Subject of the sentence; 2 complement of the verb win; 3 complement of the preposition in.

4. They threw a party last night.

1 2 3

1. Subject of the sentence; 2 complement of the verb throw; 3 adverbial

5. Last week, we visited the new museum.

1 2 3

1. Adverbial; 2 subject of the sentence; 3 complement of the verb visit.

6. The committee raised enough money for the party.

1 2 3

1. Subject of the sentence; 2 complement of the verb raise; 3 complement of the preposition for.

7. The next train to arrive is from Chicago.

1 2

1. Subject of the sentence; 2 complement of the preposition from.

8. I want to see him next year.

1 2 3

extremely

difficult

to please

7. That abandoned factory near the river belongs to my father.

Specifier
∅

Head
abandoned

Complements
∅

8. Visiting scholars from England are lecturing in biology.

Specifier
∅

Head
visiting

Complements
∅

9. She ironed the shirt really flat.

Specifier
∅

Head
flat

Complements
∅

10. I want to go to nursing school.

Specifier
∅

Head
nursing

Complements
∅

PART II. SECTION 1.4

II.1.4.1. PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

1 My plane arrived in Bangkok two hours late.

Specifier
∅

head
in

complement
Bangkok

2. Please write down my new address.

Specifier
∅

head
down

complement
my new address

3. Please keep away from the animals.

Specifier
∅

head
away from

complement
the animals

4. The flower shop is between the pharmacy and the book store.

Specifier

head

complement

∅ between the pharmacy and the book store

5. I chose this blouse among lots of beautiful blouses.

Specifier	head	complement
∅	among	lots of beautiful blouses

6. They climbed over the wall.

Specifier	head	complement
∅	over	the wall

7. My pen fell just under the teacher's desk.

Specifier	head	complement
Just	under	the teacher's desk

8. I'll see you at home when I get there.

Specifier	head	complement
∅	at	home

9. It's being snowing since Christmas morning.

Specifier	head	complement
∅	since	Christmas morning

10. We camped from June through September.

Specifier	head	complement
∅	from.....through	June.....September

II.1.5.2. Syntactic Functions of the PP:

1. from France : complement of the noun; about French culture: adverbial
2. on the author Complement of the adjective.
3. at mathematics. Complement of the adjective.
4. in my class complement of the noun
5. for president; complement of the verb. at the next elections. adverbial
6. about her complains. Complement of the adjective
7. to a new doctor. Complement of the verb

8. on good music Complement of the adjective

9. Due to the heavy rains adverbial

10. near the river. complement of the noun

PART II. SECTION 1.5

II.1.5.1. THE VERB PHRASE

1. My husband doesn't like dancing very much.

Specifiers	Head	Complements	Adverbials
Doesn't	like	dancing	very much

2. He is always tired.

Specifiers	Head	Complements	Adverbials
∅	is	tired	always

3. Most people in my country can't afford designer clothes.

Specifiers	Head	Complements	Adverbials
Can't	afford	designer clothes	∅

4. She has been playing the piano for ages.

Specifiers	Head	Complements	Adverbials
∅	has been playing	the piano	for ages

5. She suddenly ran away.

Specifiers	Head	Complements	Adverbials
Suddenly	ran	∅	away

6. Mr. Mustard killed Mrs. Red with a knife in the kitchen.

Specifiers	Head	Complements	Adverbials
∅	killed	Mrs. Red	with a knife/in the kitchen

7. They put the new toys in their room right away.

Specifiers	Head	Complements	Adverbials
∅	put	the new toys/in their room	right away

8. I never win any money in the competitions.

Specifiers	Head	Complements	Adverbials
Never	win	any money	in the competitions

9. He fainted when he heard the news.

Specifiers	Head	Complements	Adverbials
∅	fainted	∅	when he heard the news

10. Peter donated money to the orphanage.

Specifiers	Head	Complements	Adverbials
∅	donated	money/to the orphanage	∅

11. David is extremely clever.

Specifiers	Head	Complements	Adverbials
∅	is	extremely clever	∅

12. Nancy walks every morning.

Specifiers	Head	Complements	Adverbials
∅	walks	∅	every morning

13. Nancy walks her dog every morning.

Specifiers	Head	Complements	Adverbials
∅	walks	her dog	every morning

14. They have already eaten.

Specifiers	Head	Complements	Adverbials
∅	have already eaten	∅	∅

15. They eat three meals every day.

Specifiers	Head	Complements	Adverbials
∅	eat	three meals	every day

PART II . SECTION 2

II.2.1.2.The Clause Hierarchy

- 1.MC [This is the book SC1 [that I bought in London]].
- 2.MC [She said SC1 [that her daughter had died a year ago]].
3. MC[The manager suggested SC1[that we should consider] SC2 [leasing the apartment.]]
4. SC1[When Mr. Robinson switched on the television] MC[he realized it didn't work].
5. MC[It is obvious SC1[that Peter knows] SC2[what he is doing with his son]SC3 [because he has proved SC4 [to be a responsible father].
6. SC1[When they got to the station] MC[the train had already gone].
7. MC[That man is really difficult SC1[to please]].
8. MC[He insisted SC1[on going to Caracas]SC2 [to see another doctor].
9. MC[I know SC1[that he knows] SC2 [that I'm pretty]]
10. MC[The boys SC1[that came to my sister party] didn't dance SC2 [because they are too shy.]]

II.2.1.3.Syntactic Classification of Clauses:

- | | |
|--|------------|
| 1. [Everybody left just after the ceremony] | Finite |
| 2. [Inviting your sister] was not a great decision | Non finite |
| 3. I'll be home around ten [if my train is on time] | Finite |
| 4. These apple will be delicious [when ripe] | Verbless |
| 5. [They expect Susan to do all the work] | Finite |
| 6. [Deprived of oxygen], plants will quickly die | Non finite |
| 7. They house, [now empty], was allowed to fall into ruins | Verbless |

II.2.1.5. Functions of the Subordinate Clause in the Sentence

1. This is the book SC1 that I bought in London.

SC1. Complement of the noun

2. She said SC1 that her daughter had died a year ago.

SC1. Complement of the verb

3. The manager suggested SC1 that we should consider SC2 leasing the apartment.

SC1 Complement of the verb / SC2 Complement of the verb consider.

4. SC1 When Mr. Robinson switched on the television he realised it didn't work.

SC1 Adverbial

SC2 Complement of the verb realise

5. It is obvious SC1 that Peter knows SC2 what he is doing with his son SC3 because he has proved SC4 to be a responsible father

SC1 Complement of the adjective obvious.

SC2 Complement of the verb know

SC3 Adverbial

SC4 Complement of the verb prove

6. SC1 When they got to the station the train had already gone.

SC1 Adverbial

7. That man is really difficult SC1 to please.

SC1 Complement of the adjective difficult.

8. He insisted SC1 on going to Caracas SC2 to see another doctor.

SC1 Complement of the preposition on.

9. I know SC1that he knows SC2 that I'm pretty.

SC1 Complement of the verb know

SC2 Compliment of the verb know

10.The boys SC1that came to my sister party didn't dance SC2 because they are too shy.

SC1 Complement of the noun boys

SCE Adverbial

11. He became exactly SC1 what everybody expected.

SC1 Complement of the subject he.

II.2.2.1.SENTENCES

A SIMPLE sentence consists of just one clause. Sentences 1 and 2 are therefore simple sentences.

Sentences 3 and 5 are COMPLEX. A complex sentence contains at least one subordinate clause. Sentence 3 contains the subordinate clause, *as soon as I heard the news*. In sentence 5, there are two subordinate clauses: *if you give your details to our secretary* and *when we have a vacancy*. The superordinate clause is *we will contact you*.

Sentence 4 is a COMPOUND sentence. It consists of two clauses which are coordinated using the coordinator *but*

II.2.2.2Sentence Classification

Say whether the following sentences are declarative ,interrogative ,imperative, or exclamative

1. The manager suggested that we should consider leasing the apartment. Declarative
2. Come here right now! Imperative
3. What a wonderful world it is. Exclamative
4. Will you please close the door? Interrogative
5. You noisy people, be quiet. Imperative

6. For generations, Nepal has produced brilliant mountaineers. Declarative

7. Are we late, Mary? Interrogative

II.2.2.4.1. Subject and Predicate.

II.2.2.4.1.1. Subject

1. Your new neighbours are very noisy.
2. Drinking beer is not permitted.
3. Without thinking, the professor stepped off the pavement.
4. It is raining a lot on the coast.
5. To ensure confidentiality, we will conceal your name and address.
6. What I need is a good vacation.
7. There was a storm last night.
8. At noon is a good time to phone him.
9. There are a lot of people there.
10. Next month, visiting scholars are coming from France.

II.2.2.4.1.2. The Predicate

1. Our programmer is testing his new software.
DO
2. Peter bought Mary a new car.
IO DO
3. He suddenly realised that someone was listening.
DO
4. Any has decided to go to the University.
DO
5. The professor explained the theorem to the new students.
DO IO
6. They can't read what you have written.
DO
7. What I need is to travel abroad.
DO
8. They are feeding the birds.
DO
9. He asked Nancy an important question.
DO IO

10. This exercise involves identifying objects.

DO

II.2.2.4.3. Sentence Patterns from a Functional Perspective.

Pattern 3

Subject	Verb	Indirect Object	Direct Object	(Adjunct)
John	gave	Mary	a new car	for her birthday

1. Nelly sings beautiful songs.

Pattern 2 Subject Verb Direct Object

2. They can't read what you have written.

Pattern 2 Subject Verb Direct Object

3. Suddenly the teacher asked Nancy a difficult question during the class.

Pattern 3 Adjunct Subject Verb Indirect Object Direct Object Adjunct.

4. Peter donated money to the University.

Pattern 3 Subject Verb Indirect Object Direct Object

5. Peter swims well.

Pattern 1 Subject Verb Adjunct.

6. He wondered what to do.

Pattern 2 Subject Verb Direct Object

7. Our programmer is testing his new software.

Pattern 2 Subject Verb Direct Object

8. Peter went to the cinema last night.

Pattern 2 Subject Verb Direct Object Adjunct.

9. That lady is wearing a beautiful hat.

Pattern 2 Subject Verb Direct Object

10. He usually exercises during the day.

Pattern 1 Subject Adjunct Verb Adjunct.

PART III. SECTION 1

III.1.1.MODAL VERBS

III.1.1.1.MAY/III 1.1.2.MIGHT

1. may
2. might
3. might
4. might
5. might.
6. may
7. might
8. may.
9. might
10. might

III.1.1.3.CAN/III 1.1.4.COULD

1. can
2. could
3. could
4. can
5. can
6. could
7. can
8. could
9. can
10. can

CAN, CAN'T, COULD, MAY, MIGHT, MAY NOT, MIGHT NOT

1. could
2. can
3. could
4. could
5. can
6. may not
7. can't
8. may not
9. might
10. may

CAN, COULD, MAY, MIGHT

1. could.
2. may/can't
3. might
4. can
5. might
6. can
7. could
6. can
9. may

CAN, COULD, MAY, MIGHT, WILL

1. It is possible that Megan will have time to read that document today.
Megan might have time to read that document today.
2. John will be able to meet you at 8 a.m. tomorrow.
John can meet you at 8 a.m. tomorrow.
3. My dad was able to run really fast when he was young.
My dad could run really fast when he was young.
4. John promised to buy me a new coat.
John will buy me a new coat.
5. It's possible that he will have room for you in the car.
He might have room for you in the car.
6. I think his car holds five people.
I think his car can hold five people.
7. The contract states that you are allowed to take a leave of absence once a year.

The contract states that you may take a leave of absence once a year

8. They've remodeled the hotel and now it is open for tourists to stay there.

They've remodeled the hotel and now tourists can stay there.

9. I was able to run four miles daily when I was a kid.

I could run four miles daily when I was a kid.

10. It seems possible that we will be able to travel to Europe next year.

It seems we may be able to travel to Europe next year.

III.1.1.5. Shall

1. In the sentence *Shall I call you when I arrive?*, *shall* means *Do you want me to call you .. ?* In the question *Shall we go swimming?*, *shall* has the function of making a suggestion; e.g. *Let's go swimming!*

2. *Shall you call me when you arrive?* is not possible. You have to say something like: *Why don't you call me ..* or *Please call me ..* or if you want to be tactful ... *Will you call me when you arrive?*

3. The shortened form of *shall not* is *shan't*. E.g. *I shan't be happy if you're late again.*

4. When *shall* has the function of referring to the future, it can only be used in the first person (I/we). For example: *I shall let you know as soon as she arrives.* So, when *shall* is used in the second or third person as in the quiz sentence, it is NOT a synonym for *will* - (It does not mean: *She will be here on time*). Instead, it expresses the speaker's determination that something will happen. *She shall be here on time* (with heavy stress on the word *shall*) means: *She has no choice - she must be here on time* or *If she is not here on time, she will be in deep trouble.*

III.1.1.6. Should/Should have

1. He should have studied more before this examination.

2. You should pay more attention to what the teacher is saying.

3. John went to the movies last night but he should have stayed at home and prepared his lessons.

4. How could you send that letter by ordinary mail? You should have sent it by express mail.
5. No one should spend as much money as she does.
6. I should write them a letter but I don't have anything to say.
7. You should be more generous with your money.
8. He should try to come to class on time.
9. You should have visited Mexico during your last vacation.
10. You should ask permission before doing it.

III.1.1.7. Will

1. In the sentence *Boys will be boys!* or *Accidents will happen!*, *will* expresses a general truth about the world.
2. The sentence *I'll keep opening my big mouth!* is possible if it expresses the speaker's intention to keep opening his/her big mouth; e.g. *I don't care what you say, I'll keep opening my big mouth any time I want.* (But it sounds highly unlikely!) A much more likely interpretation of the sentence is that the speaker wants to express his/her dismay at the fact that he/she keeps saying things that are embarrassing to himself/herself or the person he/she is speaking to. In this case, it is necessary to use the full form of *will* and put heavy stress on it; i.e. *I **will** keep opening my big mouth!* A similar sentence criticizing someone's behaviour is: *Well, if you **will** drive so fast, what do you expect?*
3. The function of *will* in the sentence *Will you shut up!* is to say: *I very much want you to stop talking!*
4. *Will you have some more cake?* is a neutral question, whereas *Won't you have some more cake?* pushes the other person a little more firmly to say yes.

III.1.1.9/ Must have/ III.1.1.10. Ought to:

1. He ought to more time on his practice.
2. Mr. Smith must have gone home by now.
3. She speaks English beautifully. She must have studied a long time.
4. You really ought to see a doctor.

5. She ought to prepare her homework more carefully.
6. One of the servants must have taken the money.
7. He ought to come by taxi if he wants to be here on time.
8. The car must have been stolen by a professional thief.
9. They don't answer the phone. They must have gone away on their vacation.
10. She ought to rest more and try to build up.

MORE ON MODALS IN GENERAL

A)

- | | | | |
|------------|--------------|-------------------|-------------|
| 1. Shall | 4. Should | 7. Would you mind | 10. Have to |
| 2. Could | 5. Couldn't | 8. Ought to | 11. May |
| 3. Mustn't | 6. Must have | 9. Must have been | |

B)

1. Permission.
2. Obligation.
3. Advisability
4. Possibility
5. Capacity/ability
6. Polite request/ offer
7. Advisability
8. Logical conclusion/inference
9. Obligation
10. Polite request/ offer
11. Determination.
12. Determination
13. Permission

14. Capacity/ability
15. Prediction
16. Possibility
17. Permission
18. Obligation
19. Logical conclusion/inference
20. Possibility.

PART III. SECTION 2

III.2.1 USED TO

1. I never *used to make* many mistakes in spelling.
2. The accounting department *used to be* on the 18th floor.
3. Mr. Smith *used to have* charge of the transportation division.
4. I *used to buy* all my clothes in Macy's.
5. I never *used to catch* a cold.
6. He never *used to do* his work poorly.
7. John *used to be* a good student and *used to work* hard.
8. Mr. Smith *used to go* to the concert every week.
9. Mr. Jones *used to be* the official interpreter for the company.
10. He *used to take* a great interest in the English lessons.

PART III. SECTION 3

III.3.1. EMPHASIS

1. I maintain that she does live in Brooklyn/ I maintain that it is she who lives in Brooklyn.
2. John does attend class regularly. It is John who attends class regularly.
3. You should bring John himself with you next time you come. It is John who you should bring with you next time you come.

4. She does seem to enjoy her lessons. It is she who enjoys her lessons.
5. Columbus himself discovered a new continent. It was Columbus who discovered a new continent.
6. I did write that letter. I am positive of it. / It was me who wrote the letter I am positive of it.
7. John himself called me on the phone. It was John who called me on the phone.
8. I myself did it yesterday. It was me who did it yesterday.
9. Maps did show that the earth was round. It was maps that show that the earth was round.
10. You are mistaken I do want to learn English. You are mistaken it is English what I want to learn.

PART III. SECTION 4

III.4.1.REPORTED OR INDIRECT SPEECH

Rewrite the following sentences using reported speech. Check your answers on page.

1. Rosa asked Jose if he had been studying English very long.
2. Miriam asked what it was.
3. John said (that) all he saw was powder.
4. Monica Cheng asked Roeun if he was going to visit Cambodia
5. The teacher told us to study chapters 1-4 for the final test.
6. The teacher told us not to come to school on Monday because it is a holiday.
7. Arinas said (that) he believed it was pepper.
8. Anne said not to listen to Mr. Bascomb because he is not an honest person.
9. Olena told Martha that she should visit Russia in the summer.
10. Harold told us not to bring sodas near the computers.
11. Savni said that he was saving the last bit for Dr. Haret.
12. Arinas told us to open it.

PART III. SECTION 5

III.5.1. Passive Voice

Rewrite the following active sentences using the passive voice. Check your answers on page.

1. I was told that you bake the best bread in town, sir.
2. Eddy Merck will be crowned sportsman of the century.
3. A publicity campaign has to be worked out to restore the image of Belgium in the world.
4. Everything should be done to bring war criminals to justice.
5. Thousands of trees have been planted alongside the E19 motorway.
6. Joanne was delayed by a client when she was leaving the office.
7. A meeting was being hold by the tennis club at 6.30.
8. Dinner was being cooked when I arrived.
9. Were you interested in the plan?
10. Joanne was told to get out of the house.
11. Joanne was confused by the telephone call.
12. His fingers had been bitten off by the dog.
13. Bicycles must not be left in the driveway.
14. The course will be finished by July.
15. The preparations had been finished by the time the guests arrived.

APPENDIX 1

CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF AT, IN, ON

1. at/in/on - prepositions of time and place. The prepositions *at*, *in* and *on* are often used in English to talk about places (positions) and times. Sometimes the choice of one over another in a particular phrase or sentence seems arbitrary. However if we analyze patterns of occurrence we can identify key concepts in meaning and usage which consistently apply and can be used as a platform for learning.

1.1 Prepositions of time

The preposition *at* is used in the following descriptions of time:

With clock times:

My last train leaves at 10:30.

We left at midnight.

The meeting starts at two thirty.

With specific times of day, or mealtimes:

He doesn't like driving at night.

I'll go shopping at lunchtime.

I like to read the children a story at bedtime.

With festivals:

Are you going home at Christmas/Easter?

In certain fixed expressions which refer to specific points in time:

*Are you leaving at the weekend?**

She's working at the moment.

He's unavailable at present.

I finish the course at the end of April.

We arrived at the same time.

**Note that in American English, *on the weekend* is the correct form.

The preposition *in* is used in the following descriptions of time:

With months, years, seasons, and longer periods of time:

I was born in 1965.

We're going to visit them in May.
The pool is closed in winter.
He was famous in the 1980's.
The play is set in the Middle Ages.
They've done work for me in the past.

With periods of time during the day:

He's leaving in the morning.
She usually has a sleep in the afternoon(s).
I tried to work in the evening.

To describe the amount of time needed to do something:

They managed to finish the job in two weeks.
You can travel there and back in a day.

To indicate when something will happen in the future:

She'll be ready in a few minutes.
He's gone away but he'll be back in a couple of days.

The preposition *on* is used in the following descriptions of time:

With days of the week, and parts of days of the week:

I'll see you on Friday.
She usually works on Mondays.
We're going to the theatre on Wednesday evening.

(Note that in spoken English, *on* is often omitted in this context, e.g.: I'll see you Friday.)

With dates:

The interview is on 29th April.
He was born on February 14th 1995.

With special days:

She was born on Valentine's day.
We move house on Christmas Eve.
I have an exam on my birthday.

If we examine these different aspects of usage for the three prepositions, a general pattern emerges. **At** is generally used in reference to specific times on the clock or points of time in the day. **In** generally refers to longer periods of

time, several hours or more. **On** is used with dates and named days of the week.

1.2 Prepositions of place.

The preposition **at** is used in the following descriptions of place/position:

With specific places/points in space:

She kept the horse at a nearby farm.

I had a cup of coffee at Helen's (house/flat).

Angie's still at home.

I'll meet you at reception.

There's a man at the door.

I saw her standing at the bus stop.

Turn right at the traffic lights.

The index is at the back of the book.

Write your name at the top of each page.

With public places and shops:

Jane's at the dentist/hairdresser.

I studied German at college/school/university.

Shall I meet you at the station?

We bought some bread at the supermarket.

With addresses:

They live at 70, Duncombe Place.

With events:

I met her at last year's conference.

She wasn't at Simon's party.

The preposition **on** is used in the following descriptions of place/position:

With surfaces, or things that can be thought of as surfaces:

The letter is on my desk.

There was a beautiful painting on the wall.

The toy department is on the first floor.

Write the number down on a piece of paper.

You've got a dirty mark on your jumper.

He had a large spot on his nose.

She placed her hand on my shoulder.

With roads/streets, or other things that can be thought of as a line, e.g.: rivers:

Debbie lives on Croft Lane.

The bank is on the corner of King's Street.

Koblenz is on the Rhine.

Bournemouth is on the south coast.

It's the second turning on the left.

The preposition **in** is used in the following descriptions of place/position:

With geographical regions:

Driving in France is very straightforward.

Orgiva is a very small village in the mountains.

With cities, towns and larger areas:

Do you like living in Nottingham?

They were having a picnic in the park.

She works somewhere in the toy department.

With buildings/rooms and places that can be thought of as surrounding a person or object on all sides:

Can you take a seat in the waiting room please?

I've left my bag in the office

There's a wedding in the church this afternoon.

Lots of people were swimming in the lake

With containers:

There's fresh milk in the fridge.

I think I've got a tissue in my pocket.

The money is in the top drawer of my desk.

With liquids and other substances, to show what they contain:

Do you take milk in your coffee?

I can taste garlic in this sauce.

There's a lot of fat in cheese and butter.

A general pattern again emerges if we consider these different aspects of usage. We can think of **at** as one-dimensional, referring to a specific place or position in space. **On** is two dimensional, referring to the position of something in relation to a surface. **In** is by contrast three-dimensional, referring to the position of something in relation to the things that surround it. Thinking of the prepositions in these terms helps us explain certain facts. For instance, **in** is

generally used for larger places and **at** for smaller, more specific places, so we say:

We arrived in Inverness two hours ago.

But:

We arrived at the campsite two hours ago.

However, if we think of a city or larger place as a specific point in space, we can use **at**, e.g.:

The train stops at Birmingham and Bristol.

Or if we think of a smaller place as three dimensional, we can use **in**, e.g.:

We've lived in this little village for many years.

2. at/in/on – extended meanings

A systematic analysis of the occurrence of the prepositions **at**, **in** and **on** in their core usage as indicators of time and place, helps us establish some key meaning concepts which will aid us in identifying and explaining their extended meanings:

at - is a mechanism for denoting the specific, it usually refers to fixed points in time (e.g.: clock times) and specific points in space.

on - is a mechanism which usually describes something in relation to a second, often linear dimension, hence it relates to the calendar (days and dates) and surfaces or lines.

in - is a mechanism for describing something in relation to the things that surround it in time or space, hence it relates to periods of time and three dimensional spaces or containers.

Here are some examples of other usages for the three prepositions which represent an extension of these concepts:

2.1 **At** is used for showing specific temperatures, prices and speeds, etc.

Tickets are now on sale at £15 each.

He denied driving at 110 miles per hour.

And more generally to talk about the level or rate of something, e.g.:

Interest rates have stayed at this level for several months.

The loan repayments are going up at an alarming rate.

At is used to show when someone is a particular age:, e.g.:

He began composing at the age of 5.

She chose not to retire at 65.

At is used to show that an activity is directed specifically towards someone or something:

He's always shouting at the children.

Jamie threw the ball at the wall.

Why are you staring at her like that?

At is used to show the specific cause of a feeling or reaction:

Audiences still laugh at her jokes.

We were rather surprised at the news.

2.2 **On** is used to show movement in the direction of a surface:

We could hear the rain falling on the roof.

I dropped my bags on the floor.

On is used to show when the surface of something accidentally hits or touches a part of the body:

I cut my finger on a sharp knife.

She banged her head on the cupboard door.

On is used to show that a part of someone's body is supporting their weight:

She was balancing on one leg.

He was on his hands and knees under the table.

On is used to show that something is included in a list:

He's not on the list of suspects.

How many items are on the agenda?

2.3 **In** is used to show movement towards the inside of a container, place or area:

She put the letter back in her briefcase.

The farmer fired a few shots in the air.

In is used to show when something is part of something else:

I've found one or two spelling mistakes in your essay.

Who's the little girl in the photograph?

There are several valuable paintings in the collection.

In is used to show that someone is wearing something:

Do you know that girl in the black dress?

A man in a brown suit was walking towards her.

In is used to show how things are arranged, expressed or written:

We gathered round in a circle.

Their names are given in alphabetical order.

Complete the form in block capitals.

She spoke to me in Spanish.

APPENDIX 2

The Modal auxiliary verbs

WILL, SHALL, MAY, MIGHT, CAN, COULD, MUST, OUGHT
TO, SHOULD, WOULD, USED TO, NEED

WILL and SHALL

WILL and SHALL + the infinitive of the verb (shall is rarely used in modern English) are used to form the future:

She will go to London next year.

They will visit us next August.

Sometimes SHALL can indicate obligation or a promise. In this case 'shall' is usually stressed in the pronunciation of the sentence.

He shall go to school! (obligation) I shall ask him! (promise)

WILL + infinitive = future :

Examples:

- a. Simon will leave for Poland tonight.
- b. His next trip will be to Australia.
- c. Lucy will change her job at Easter.
- d. My parents will celebrate their fortieth wedding anniversary next week.

MAY and MIGHT

1. MAY expresses :

- a. Permission
- b. Possibility

2. MIGHT expresses :

a. Possibility

MIGHT can replace **MAY** only when **MAY** is used to express possibility :

It **may** rain today.

It **might** rain today

MAY and MIGHT used to express possibility never take the negative form.

Affirmative form:

She may go to the cinema. They might go to the cinema.

Negative form:

She may not go to the cinema.

They might not go to the cinema.

Interrogative form:(N.B. Permission only)

May I go to the cinema?

May I leave now?

MAY for PERMISSION

Examples:

a. May I watch television tonight ? Yes, you may.

b. May I leave work at 16.00hrs ? No, you may not.

Note : Here 'may' has the same function as 'can':

Can I help you?

May I help you?

B.MAY and MIGHT for POSSIBILITY

Examples :

a. We **may** go to dinner tonight, I'm not sure.

Or

b. We **might** go to dinner tonight, I'm not sure.

c. It **may** snow tomorrow.

Or

d. It **might** snow tomorrow.

e. He **may** not go to Spain this year.

Or

f. He **might** not go to Spain this year.

CAN and COULD

CAN and COULD are used to express :

-CAPACITY / CAPABILITY

-PERMISSION

-POSSIBILITY.

1. CAN

Note: CAN and COULD cannot be used in the future. The future is formed with 'will be able to'.

CAN

Present

She can speak English.

They can swim.

Past

She could speak English.

They could swim.

Future

She will be able to speak English.

They will be able to swim .

FORM :

Affirmative

Present: can (is able to)

Past: could (was able to)

Future: will be able to

Negative

cannot (isn't able to)
could not (wasn't able to)
will not be able to

Affirmative:**CAN + infinitive:**

I can speak French.

Negative:**CAN + not + infinitive**

They can not (can't, cannot) play tennis.

Interrogative:

CAN or CAN NOT + subject + infinitive
 Can't she dance?

Can we come?

Examples:**a. CAPACITY**

- i. Howard can play the guitar.
- ii. Can Jennifer sing?
- iii. He can't understand German.

b. PERMISSION

- i. Can I park my car here?
- ii. No, you can't. It is a no parking zone.
- iii. Can I go to the theatre with Michael?

c. POSSIBILITY

- i. A car can be a useful means of transport or a dangerous weapon.
- ii. She can be very hard to understand sometimes.
- iii. We can live life with a positive or a negative attitude.

2. COULD

COULD is also the conditional of **CAN** and is often used in polite forms.

Could you help me ?

A. For polite requests

Examples:

In the conditional form

- a. Could you tell me the time, please?
- b. Could you help me, please?
- c. Could I have a coffee, please ?
- d. Could we come and visit you this evening?

As the past of CAN

- e. She couldn't come to dinner last night.
- f. They could walk faster when they were younger.
- g. Pierre could play the piano when he was a boy.

MUST

MUST = TO HAVE TO: To express obligation or necessity

- a. We only use '**must**' in the present. For all other tenses we use '**have to**'.
- b. MUST is used with the infinitive of the verb.

She must leave immediately.

1. Present

2. Past

3. Future

Affirmative

- 1. I must go
- 2. I had to go.
- 3. I will have to go.

Negative

- 1. I mustn't go.

2. I didn't have to go.

3. I won't have to go.

Interrogative

1. Must I go?

2. Do I have to go?

3. Will I have to go?

Examples :

Present tense:

a. I must see her tonight.

b. She must pass her exams.

c. They must leave before 2 p.m.

Simple Past with 'have to':

d. I had to see her last night.

e. She had to pass her exams.

f. They had to leave before 2 p.m.

Future with 'will have to':

g. I will have to see her tomorrow.

h. She will have to pass her exams.

i. They will have to leave before 2 p.m.

SHOULD and OUGHT TO

a. They are invariable.

b. They have three main uses :

1. Moral obligation

Examples:

You ought to thank them.

They should be happy.

A good mother ought to love her children.

2. Advice

Examples:

You should not (shouldn't) eat too much.

You ought to exercise every day.

He shouldn't drive his car too fast.

3. Probability

Examples:

It should be sunny on the weekend.

They should arrive before dinner.

He is tired. He should sleep well tonight.

FORM:

Affirmative

Subject + SHOULD/ OUGHT TO + infinitive of verb

You **should/ought to** see the doctor.

Negative

Subject + SHOULD NOT / OUGHT NOT TO + infinitive of verb

You **shouldn't / ought not to** see the doctor.

Interrogative*

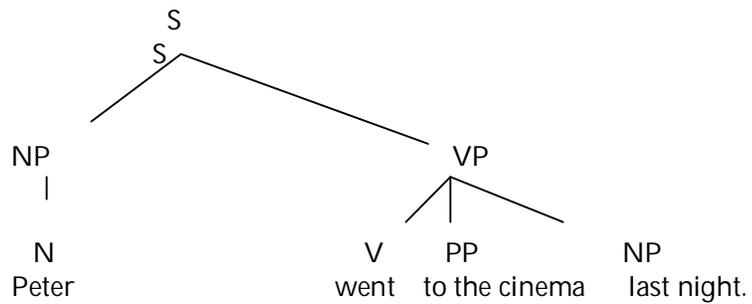
- **OUGHT TO is only used in the interrogative negative form.**
- **SHOULD + subject + verb in the infinitive**
Should I see the doctor?
- **Oughtn't she (to) see the doctor?**

APPENDIX 3

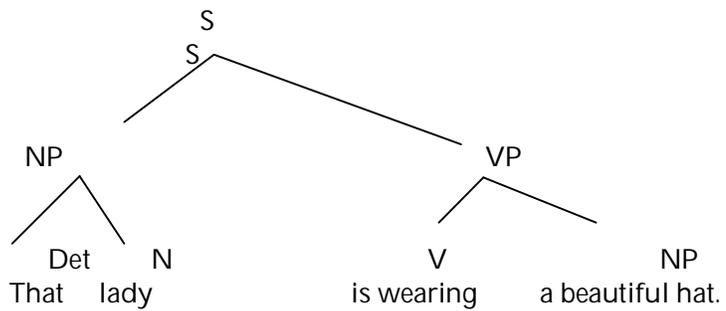
TREE DIAGRAMS

11.2.2.3 The Gramatical Hierarchy

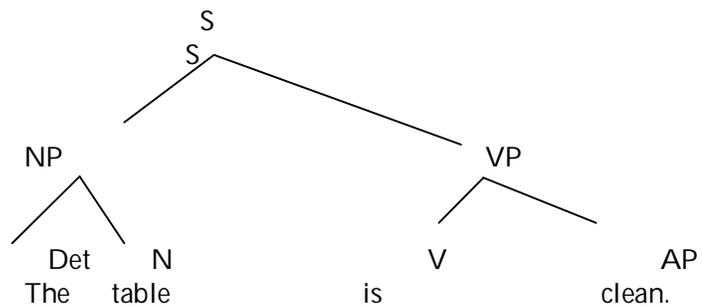
1. Peter went to the cinema last night



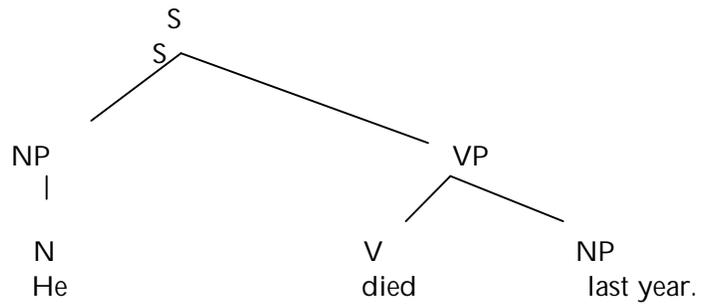
2. That lady is wearing a beautiful hat.



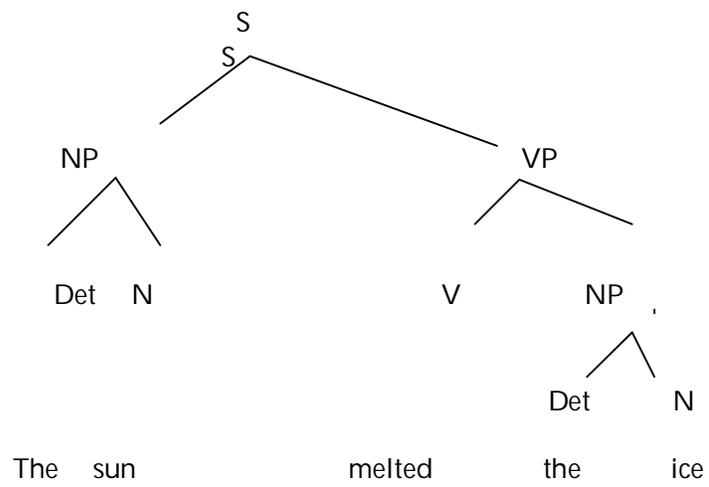
3. The table is clean



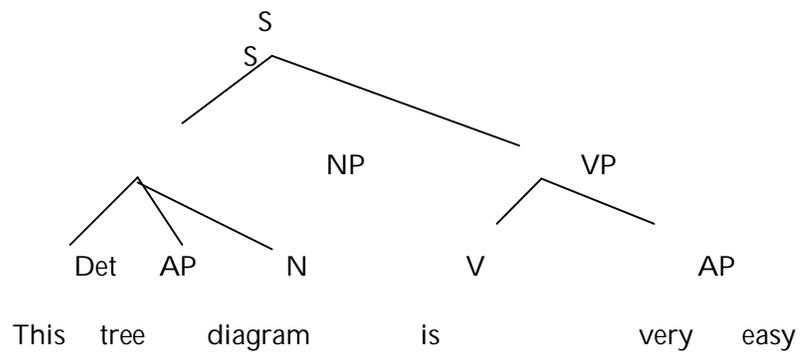
4. He died last year



5. The sun melted the ice.



6. This tree diagram is very easy.



7. The poor woman suddenly fainted

