

People's Democratic Republic of Algeria
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research
University of Ghardaia
Faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages
Department of English



Grammar Lessons for First Year LMD Students

By:

Dr. Siham Sartorio

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Teaching Unit: Fundamental

Module: Grammar

Credits: 04

Coefficient: 02

Objectives of the Course

By the end of the course, the students are expected to:

- Identify the different structures of English grammar.
- Develop accurate use of the grammatical structures.
- Demonstrate ability to make appropriate grammatical choices to express the intended meanings.

Assessment Method

Continuous assessment (50%) and a written exam (50%)

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Some Basic Definitions:

Phrase, Clause and Sentence

Objectives

The students will :

- Differentiate between phrases and clauses.
- Differentiate between independent and dependent clauses.
- Be able to create grammatically correct sentences using phrases and clauses.
- Understand sentence structure.
- Identify different types of sentences.

Phrase, Clause and Sentence

These three structures are a common part of English and are all composed of groups of words.

Clauses, phrases and sentences are very similar, but they do have different roles. Learning the difference between them will help you make a lot more sense of English grammar and will be very useful to improve your written English.

1. What is a phrase?

A phrase is a group of words used together within a sentence but doesn't contain a subject and verb combination. Phrases can be very short or quite long.

“After dinner”

“Waiting for the rain to stop”

Phrases can't be used alone, but you can use them as part of a sentence. There are different types of phrases:

i. noun phrase: it is a group of words that consists of a noun and its modifiers

,and together they act as a noun.

I had **a delicious dinner**.

ii. verb phrase: it is a group of words that includes the main verb and any of its modal and /

or auxiliary verbs.

We **are working hard as ever**.

iii. Adjective phrase: it is group of words that acts as an adjective in a sentence.

The man **with the black coat** is my father.

iv. Adverbial phrase: it is group of words that acts as an adverb in a sentence.

Delightfully, she jumped **up and down**.

v. prepositional phrase: : it is group of words consisting of a preposition, its object and any modifiers.

They climbed **up the hill**.

vi. infinitive phrase: it is group of words consisting of an infinitive and any of its modifiers and complements.

Lily wants **to travel abroad**.

vii. participle phrase: it is group of words consisting of a participle (ing or ed form of the verb) that acts as an adjective and any modifiers or complements.

The **newly- constructed** building is large and spacious.

vii. Absolute phrase: it is group of words that modifies an independent clause as a whole.

Today being Thursday, we are having dinner outside .

2. What is a clause?

A clause is a group of words that contains a subject and a verb or a verb phrase . Unlike phrases, a clause can sometimes act as a sentence. Clauses can be independent or dependent.

i. independent clause: it expresses a complete idea and can stand alone as a sentence.

The meeting ended abruptly; nothing had been decided.

Both clauses in this sentence express a complete thought, and each can stand alone as a meaningful sentence.

ii. dependent clause: it is not complete and can not stand on its own to form a sentence. It is also known as a subordinate clause.

Liza didn't come to the wedding party **because she was sick.**

The second clause in this sentence is a dependent or subordinate clause.

Dependent clauses are divided into three types:

i. adjective clause: it is a dependent clause that modifies a noun and acts as an adjective in the sentence. Adjective clauses are also called relative clauses, and they are usually used right after the noun they modify.

The man **who is standing next to the tree** is my brother.

ii. noun clause: it is a dependent clause acting as a noun in the sentence. Noun clauses are also called nominal clauses.

I like **what I hear.**

iii. adverbial clause: it is a dependent clause acting as an adverb.

Alice did the dishes **till her legs gave up**.

Exercise 1

Analyze these complex sentences

Step 1: Underline the independent clauses and double underline the dependent clauses.

Step 2: Draw a circle around the subordinator

Step 3: Add a comma if needed

1-Since summers are hot in Arizona the best time to go there is spring.

2-Tourists love to visit Arizona because it has many interesting things to see.

3-If you are interested I Native Americans you should visit the Navajo and Hopi reservations in northern Arizona.

4-The Navajo call themselves a “nation” because they govern themselves.

5-Because the Navajo language is so difficult the US military used it for secret messages during World War II.

3.What is a sentence?

A sentence is a group of words that expresses a meaningful thought. It can be composed of more than one clause.

You ate fish.

He went out to dinner , but he didn't enjoy the meal.

4. Sentence Types

In English, sentences can be classified according to two criteria: function (functional classification) and structure (structural classification). Each classification elicits a number of sentence types respectively.

4.1 Functional classification

Following this classification, sentence types are categorized according to their use in discourse i.e. the purpose they are used for.

i. Declarative sentence: it conveys information or makes a statement.

They will arrive tomorrow.

I don't like football.

ii. Imperative sentence : it expresses a command, gives an order or gives an instruction.

Bring your laptop with you, please.

Get out of here now.

When you reach the end of the street, turn left.

iii. Interrogative sentence: it is a sentence that elicits information or asks a question.

What is your favourite colour?

Will you come with me?

iv. Exclamatory sentence : it expresses a strong emotional feeling or surprise. It usually ends with an exclamation mark.

What a big house!

How amazing!

4.2 Structural Classification

The second type of classification refers to the number and types of clauses in the sentence.

i. Simple sentence: it contains one independent clause. It may have a compound subject, a compound verb and any number of phrases.

She smiled.

She is dancing and laughing.

Mary and John worked and saved enough money to go for a vacation in Italy.

ii. Compound sentence: it contains two (or more) independent clauses joined by a comma and a coordinating conjunction; a semicolon or a semicolon, a conjunctive adverb and a comma.

She was sick, but she did her homework.

The meeting ended at down; nothing has been decided.

She was sick; however, she did her homework.

iii. Complex sentence: it is composed of one independent clause and one (or more) dependent clause (s).

He didn't go to school because he is sick.

Although he got up early, he missed the bus.

iv. Compound- complex sentence : it is composed of two (or more) independent clauses and one (or more) dependent clause(s).

With pizza and soda at hand, they studied APA rules for many hours, and they decided that

writing in APA made sense because it was clear, concise and objective.

5. Sentence Constituents

Words can perform different functions in sentences: a subject and predicate, an object, a complement, an appositive, an adjective or an adverb.

5.1 Subject and predicate

Any complete sentence in English contains two main parts: a subject and a predicate. The subject is what (or whom) the sentence is about, and the predicate gives information about the subject.

John likes football.

In this sentence, John is the subject and likes football is the predicate.

Both subject and predicate can be one word or a group of words (phrase).

He smiles.

I and my friends love pizza.

However, there is an exception for the imperative sentence. The imperative sentence is the only kind of grammatically complete sentence which can be composed of only one verb form and related words (a predicate).

Come here.

This sentence is a request or an order towards one or more listeners who are customarily referred to by the word you.

An imperative sentence can be composed of only one word (a verb) such as:

Stop.

The simple form of the verb stop is the predicate.

5.2 Object

The object in the sentence is the person or the thing that receives the action of the verb in the sentence. Usually, it answers the questions: who? What? To what? For what? To whom? or for whom?

John eats **an apple**.

What does John eat?

An apple

There are three types of object: direct object, indirect object and object of a preposition.

1. Direct object: it follows an action verb, tells who or what receives the action.

Bob books **tickets**.

2. Indirect object: it comes after an action verb and before a direct object, tells to or for whom or what the action was performed.

She gave **her** a gift.

3. Object of preposition: it follows a preposition as part of a prepositional phrase.

The book is in **the drawer**.

While every sentence needs a subject and a verb, a sentence doesn't necessarily need an object.

e.g. He ran.

5.3 Complement

A complement is a word or a group of words (a phrase) that completes the predicate in a sentence.

1. Subject complement: it is a word or a phrase that modifies the noun or pronoun that acts as the subject in the sentence. The subject complement usually comes after a linking verb such as: to be, to smell, to taste, to feel, to seem, to appear, etc.

He is **a teacher**.

The driver seems **tired**.

It sounds **good**.

2. Object complement: it is similar to a subject complement except that it modifies the object rather than the subject in the sentence.

Paint it **black**.

I consider the driver **tired**.

I saw him **sleeping**.

5.4 Appositive

When two words or noun phrases stand close together and share the same part of the sentence, they are in apposition and are called appositives. In fact, an appositive is very much like a subject complement only without the linking verb.

My brother is **a research associate**. (subject complement)

My brother , **the research associate**, works at a large polling firm. (appositive)

5.5 Adjective

An adjective is a word that modifies or describes a noun or a pronoun . It usually answers the question of which one? what kind? or how many?

5.6 Adverbs

An adverb is a word that modifies or describes a verb, an adjective or another adverb. An adverb indicates manner, time, place or degree and answers questions such as how? when? where? How much?

Exercise 2

Label the function of the underlined words/phrases in the following sentences

1. They elected him a president.
2. He is a teacher.
3. She dances well.

4. My brother Mark is a police officer.
5. The girl is so cute.
6. He bought me a car on my birthday.
7. The policeman seated the thief.
8. It was a nice film.
9. They arrived late.
10. I have never seen Jane , the magistrate.
11. John is in the car.

6. Sentence Patterns

6. 1 Simple Sentence Patterns

A simple sentence in English is composed of one independent clause. It can have one of the following patterns:

1. SV (subject+ intransitive verb)

She smiles.

She is the subject.

Smiles is the verb.

The subject can be one word or a group of words (phrase)

The woman smiles.

The noun phrase (NP) the woman is the subject here.

2. SVO (subject+ verb (action verb)+ object)

John eats an apple.

John is the subject.

Eats is the verb.

The noun phrase an apple is the object.

3. SVOO (subject+ verb (action verb)+ indirect object+ direct object)

John gave Mary flowers.

John is the subject.

Gave is the verb.

Mary is the indirect object.

Flowers is the direct object.

4. SVC (subject+ verb (linking verb)+ subject complement)

The man is a doctor.

The noun phrase the man is the subject.

The linking verb to be (is) is the verb.

The noun phrase a doctor is the subject complement.

5. SVOC (subject+ verb+ object+ object complement)

They elected Fred a president.

They is the subject.

Elected is the verb.

Fred is the object.

The noun phrase a president is the object complement.

6. SVA (subject + verb+ adverb)

She speaks fluently.

She is the subject.

Speaks is the verb.

Fluently is the adverb

The adverb can be one word or a prepositional phrase.

John is in the car.

The prepositional phrase in the car is an adverb of place.

She smiled in a friendly way.

The prepositional phrase in a friendly way is an adverb of manner.

7. SVOA (subject + verb+ object+ adverb)

He drives the car fast.

He is the subject.

Drives is the verb.

The noun phrase the car is the object.

Fast is the adverb.

6.2Compound Sentence Patterns

1.Pattern one: independent clause , coordinating conjunction+ independent clause.

There are seven coordinating conjunctions: and, but, for, or, nor, so and yet.

Doctors are concerned about the rising death rate from asthma, but they don't know the reason for it.

2.Pattern two: independent clause; independent clause

The meeting ended at dawn; nothing had been decided.

3.Pattern three: independent clause; independent marker, independent clause.

Examples of independent markers are the following: therefore, however, thus, moreover, also, consequently.

Doctors are concerned about the rising death rate from asthma; therefore, they have called for more research into its causes.

6.3 Complex Sentence Patterns

1. Pattern one: dependent marker+ dependent clause, independent clause.

Examples of dependent markers are the following: because, before, since, while, though, although, when, if, then, until, after, as, as if.

Because doctors are concerned about the rising death rate from asthma, they have called for more research into its causes.

2. Pattern two: independent clause+ dependent marker+ dependent clause.

Doctors are concerned about the rising death rate from asthma because it is a common treatable illness.

3. Pattern three: first part of an independent clause, non essential clause or phrase, rest of the independent clause.

Many doctors, including both pediatricians and family practice physicians, are concerned about the rising death rate from asthma.

4. Pattern four: first part of an independent clause+ essential clause or phrase+ rest of the independent clause.

Many doctors who are concerned about the rising death rate from asthma have called for more research into its causes.

Exercise 3

Divide each of the following sentences into its constituent parts

1. My friends work very hard.
2. He was a king.
3. Few people attended the lecture.
4. People called him the nice doctor.
5. Someone knocked the door.

6. He bought me flowers.

7. I met John in the street.

8. The dog went mad.

9. Alas! They failed.

10. Both brothers become doctors.

Exercise 4

Form compound/ complex sentences out of these sentences

1) A-He missed the train.

B-He didn't hurry.

2) A-He ran fast.

B-He failed to win the race.

3) A-I was tired.

B-I went to sleep immediately.

4) A-The city was destroyed during the war.

B-It has now completely rebuilt.

5) A-My neighbour went to Paris.

B-He couldn't return back.

C-He didn't have enough money.

6) A-A fire broke out in a cinema.

B- Several people tried to leave the building.

C-A number of them were injured.

7) A-James Gallman will give a lecture at the local library next week.

B-His book on the arctic was published recently.

8) A-The police searched everywhere.

B-The missing boy couldn't be found.

C-His dog could not be found.

9) A-I made sure that the alarm worked.

B-I set it.

C-It would ring at 6 o'clock.

10) A-Fares have increased.

B-The company is still losing money.

C-The employees have demanded higher wages.

Parts of Speech

Objectives

- The students will be able to identify different parts of speech used in building correct English sentences and extended pieces of writing as paragraphs and essays.
- The students will be able to illustrate the learned parts of speech.
- The students will be able to categorise the sentence parts.

Traditional grammarians classify words based on eight parts of speech: nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections. Also known as word classes, these are the building blocks of grammar. It's quiet important to recognise parts of speech. This helps you to analyse sentences and understand them. It also helps you to construct good sentences.

Part of speech refers not to what a word is but how the word is used in a sentence . In fact, the same word can be a noun in one sentence and a verb or an adjective in another. The next few examples show how one word can be more than one part of speech when used in different contexts.

-They went to **work**.

In this sentence the word work is a noun which is part of the prepositional phrase describing the place where the men went to.

-They **work** hard.

While in the second example, the same word is used as a verb describing an action.

1. Word Categories

1.1 Noun

A noun is a word that names a person, a place, a thing or a concept.

1. Proper nouns: are those which name specific persons, places or things. They must start with a capital letter.

e.g. John, Italy, Times River.

2. Common nouns: are those which have unspecified and general reference. They are not capitalized except at the beginning of a sentence.

e.g. table, boy, key.

3. Collective nouns: they refer to nouns which name a group of elements (people, animals, things) as one unit.

e.g. family, class, school, musical band.

4. Possessive nouns: nouns that express ownership by adding an apostrophe and s if the noun is singular or an apostrophe if it is plural or ending with s.

e.g. Jim's home, birds' feathers,

1.2 Pronoun

A pronoun is a word that is used to replace the name of a person, a place, a thing or an idea in order to avoid repetition.

1. Personal pronouns: they refer to persons, places or things when replacing nouns. These pronouns include: I, we, he, she, it, they and you.

She is smart.

2. Possessive pronouns: they express ownership or relation. The possessive pronouns are: mine, ours, his, hers, its, yours and theirs.

The book is **mine**.

3. Reflexive pronouns: the words myself, ourselves, himself, herself, itself, themselves, yourself and yourselves are called reflexive pronouns. They refer to the person or animal that is the subject of the verb, but they usually act as objects. Sometimes reflexive pronouns come after a noun or a pronoun to emphasise it; they are called intensive or emphatic pronouns.

He hurts **himself**.

4. Demonstrative pronouns: they are used to identify or point to somebody or something near or far such as this, that, those and these.

This is my sister, Jane.

5. Interrogative pronouns: the pronouns who, whom, whose, what, which and the compounds forms with the suffix “ever” as whoever, whichever, whomever and whatever are called interrogative pronouns. They are used to ask questions.

What is your name?

6. Relative pronouns: they come immediately after a noun they modify. Relative pronouns include: who, whom, that, which, whose, whoever, whomever and whichever.

The man **who** wears glasses is my father.

7. Indefinite pronouns: they don't identify items specifically but generally such as someone, all, everyone, most, some, etc.

Somebody shouted.

1.3 Verb

A verb is a word that expresses an action or a state of being.

-She is happy. (a state)

-He is drawing. (an action)

1. Action verbs (dynamic): they usually express a physical action. These verbs can be divided into intransitive verbs and transitive verbs. Transitive verbs need an object to receive an action. Intransitive verbs do not need any direct object.

2. Stative verbs (linking): they express the state of the subject. They are related with feelings, senses, thoughts, opinions, possession, measure, cost, etc. These verbs are often not used with continuous tenses such as: to be, to like, to seem, to taste, to think, etc.

3. Auxiliary verbs (helping): they are used in compound tenses before the main verb.

He **is** sleeping.

4. Modals: they indicate ability, obligation, permission and possibility such as can, must, would, may, etc.

You **must** work hard.

5. Infinitives: to+verb; they act as nouns, adjectives or adverbs.

To lie is bad.

6. Participles: past or present participles; they always act as adjectives.

I saw the **sleeping** man.

7. Gerunds: verb+ing; they act as nouns.

Cooking is my favourite hobby.

1.4 Adjective

The adjective is a word that describes a noun or a pronoun.

1. Descriptive/ qualitative adjectives: are common adjectives.

The manager is a **tall** lady.

2. Demonstrative adjectives: when demonstrative pronouns (this, these, that, those) are used before nouns, they are called demonstrative adjectives.

That lady is the manager.

3. Distributive adjectives: distributive adjective is an adjective that refers to members of a group individually such as each, every, either, neither, any and both.

Every child has the right to go to school.

4. Interrogative adjectives: these include which, whose and what when followed by a noun. They are used to ask questions.

What colour is your car?

5. Possessive adjectives: words like my, our, his, her, its, their and your when followed by a noun. They express relation or ownership of something.

My car is black.

6. Quantitative adjectives: numbers such as four, six, etc and quantifiers as some, many, few, etc .

Few people attended the conference.

7. Proper adjectives: adjectives of nationality.

Italian food is delicious.

8. Articles: articles a, an and the are considered as adjectives.

The house is near to school.

9. Exclamatory adjectives: what and how are used to show a strong emotion.

What an idea!

How amazing it is!

1.5 Adverb

An adverb is a word that modifies (describes) a verb, an adjective or another adverb.

1. Manner (how)

She answered **clearly**.

2. Frequency (how often)

He **always** gets up early.

3. Time (when)

They arrived **early**.

4. Place (where)

Stay **far**.

5. Direction (which way)

Turn **left**.

6. Adverbs of degree: very, much, extremely, etc

They are **very** happy.

1.6 Preposition

A preposition is a word or a group of words that is used with a noun, pronoun, or noun phrase to show direction, location, or time, or to introduce an object.

1. Prepositions of Time: in, on and at

The class starts **at** 8:00.

2. Prepositions of place: in, on, inside, underneath, above, over, etc

They met **in** a coffee shop.

3. Prepositions of Location: in, on and at

There is a lot of dirt **on** the window.

4. Prepositions of Spatial Relationships: across, against, ahead of, along, etc

The post office is **across** the street from the grocery store.

1.7 Conjunction

A conjunction is a word that links two equal elements in a sentence (words, phrases and clauses).

1. Coordinating conjunctions: they join words, phrases or clauses within sentences (for, nor, and, or, but, yet and so).

He finished his homework, **and** he went to bed early.

2. Subordinating conjunctions: they link independent and dependent clauses within sentences such as: though, because, when, etc

Although she was sick, she attended the wedding.

3. Correlatives conjunctions: are conjunctions that work in pairs and link words, phrases or clauses within sentences such as: both...and, either.... or, neither.... nor.

Both Susan and Diana play tennis.

1.8 Interjection

Interjection is a word that shows a strong emotion of the speaker such as oh!, Wow!, Oops!, Alas!, etc. Interjections are always followed by an exclamation mark and sometimes inserted into a sentence.

Wow! It is amazing.

Exercise 1

Read the following sentences and identify what parts of speech the words in bold are

1. Tom lives in **New York**.
2. The tea is **too** hot.
3. Did **she** find the book she was looking for?.
4. **Unless** you work **hard**, you cannot score good marks.
5. **Alas!** **That** is really **sad**.
6. Mom asked me to go to the store **near** my school.
7. **What** are you doing **here**?
8. The movie was really **good**.
9. They **often** go to work **by** bus.
10. Savio reads the newspaper **everyday**.

11. Read the **third** chapter.
12. Susan **and** Maria like pizza.
13. She dances **well**.
14. My hair is longer than **hers**.
15. There is a mouse **underneath** the piano.
16. She looked **up**, but she didn't see anything.
17. **What** a big house!
18. She went to the market and bought **some** eggs.
19. I want to go now.
20. The baby likes his **mother's** tender voice.

2. Word Functions

Words can perform different functions in sentences: a subject and predicate, an object, a complement, an appositive, an adjective or an adverb.

2.1 Subject and predicate

Any complete sentence in English contains two main parts: a subject and a predicate. The subject is what (or whom) the sentence is about, and the predicate gives information about the subject.

John likes football.

In this sentence, John is the subject and likes football is the predicate.

Both subject and predicate can be one word or a group of words (phrase).

He smiles.

I and my friends love pizza.

However, there is an exception for the imperative sentence. The imperative sentence is the only kind of grammatically complete sentence which can be composed of only one verb form and related words (a predicate).

Come here.

This sentence is a request or an order towards one or more listeners who are customarily referred to by the word you.

An imperative sentence can be composed of only one word (a verb) such as:

Stop.

The simple form of the verb stop is the predicate.

2.2 Object

The object in the sentence is the person or the thing that receives the action of the verb in the sentence. Usually, it answers the questions: who? What? To what? For what? To whom? or for whom?

John eats **an apple**.

What does John eat?

An apple

There are three types of object: direct object, indirect object and object of a preposition.

1. Direct object: it follows an action verb, tells who or what receives the action.

Bob books **tickets**.

2. Indirect object: it comes after an action verb and before a direct object, tells to or for whom or what the action was performed.

She gave **her** a gift.

3. Object of preposition: it follows a preposition as part of a prepositional phrase.

The book is in **the drawer**.

While every sentence needs a subject and a verb, a sentence doesn't necessarily need an object.

e.g. He ran.

2.3 Complement

A complement is a word or a group of words (a phrase) that completes the predicate in a sentence.

1. Subject complement: it is a word or a phrase that modifies the noun or pronoun that acts as the subject in the sentence. The subject complement usually comes after a linking verb such as: to be, to smell, to taste, to feel, to seem, to appear, etc.

He is **a teacher**.

The driver seems **tired**.

It sounds **good**.

2. Object complement: it is similar to a subject complement except that it modifies the object rather than the subject in the sentence.

Paint it **black**.

I consider the driver **tired**.

I saw him **sleeping**.

2.4 Appositive

When two words or noun phrases stand close together and share the same part of the sentence, they are in apposition and are called appositives. In fact, an appositive is very much like a subject complement only without the linking verb.

My brother is **a research associate**. (subject complement)

My brother , **the research associate**, works at a large polling firm. (appositive)

2.5 Adjective

An adjective is a word that modifies or describes a noun or a pronoun . It usually answers the question of which one? what kind? or how many?

2.6 Adverbs

An adverb is a word that modifies or describes a verb, an adjective or another adverb. An adverb indicates manner, time, place or degree and answers questions such as how? when? where? How much?

3. Simple Sentence Patterns

A simple sentence in English is composed of one independent clause. It can have one of the following patterns:

1. SV (subject+ intransitive verb)

She smiles.

She is the subject.

Smiles is the verb.

The subject can be one word or a group of words (phrase)

The woman smiles.

The noun phrase (NP) the woman is the subject here.

2. SVO (subject+ verb (action verb)+ object)

John eats an apple.

John is the subject.

Eats is the verb.

The noun phrase an apple is the object.

3. SVOO (subject+ verb (action verb)+ indirect object+ direct object)

John gave Mary flowers.

John is the subject.

Gave is the verb.

Mary is the indirect object.

Flowers is the direct object.

4. SVC (subject+ verb (linking verb)+ subject complement)

The man is a doctor.

The noun phrase the man is the subject.

The linking verb to be (is) is the verb.

The noun phrase a doctor is the subject complement.

5. SVOC (subject+ verb+ object+ object complement)

They elected Fred a president.

They is the subject.

Elected is the verb.

Fred is the object.

The noun phrase a president is the object complement.

6. SVA (subject + verb+ adverb)

She speaks fluently.

She is the subject.

Speaks is the verb.

Fluently is the adverb

The adverb can be one word or a prepositional phrase.

John is in the car.

The prepositional phrase in the car is an adverb of place.

She smiled in a friendly way.

The prepositional phrase in a friendly way is an adverb of manner.

7. SVOA (subject + verb+ object+ adverb)

He drives the car fast.

He is the subject.

Drives is the verb.

The noun phrase the car is the object.

Fast is the adverb.

Exercise 2

Label the function of the underlined words/phrases in the following sentences

1. They elected him a president.
2. He is a teacher.
3. She dances well.
4. My brother Mark is a police officer.
5. The girl is so cute.
6. He bought me a car on my birthday.
7. The policeman seated the thief.
8. It was a nice film.
9. They arrived late.
10. I have never seen Jane , the magistrate.
11. John is in the car.

Exercise 3

Divide each of the following sentences into parts of speech and identify words' functions

1. My friends work very hard.
2. He was a king.
3. Few people attended the lecture.
4. People called him the nice doctor.
5. Someone knocked the door.
6. He bought me flowers.
7. I met John in the street.
8. The dog went mad.
9. Alas! They failed.
10. Both brothers become doctors.

Nouns

Objectives:

Upon the completion of this lesson, students will be able to:

- Explain what nouns are
- Identify the different types of nouns
- Effectively use nouns in sentence composition

1. What is a noun?

Noun is a word that refers a person (Bob), a place (London), an animal (cat), a thing (table), a job title (doctor), a quality (blackness), an action (resistance) or an abstract concept (philosophy).

2. Functions of nouns

Nouns can act different functions within a sentence:

- 1-**Subject:** **Susan** cleaned the room.
- 2-**Direct object:** John eats an **apple**.
- 3-**Indirect object:** He sent **Jim** a letter.
- 4-**Subject complement:** She is a **teacher**.
- 5-**Object complement:** They elected Fred a **president**.
- 6-**Appositive:** My doctor, **Mr. Smith**, lives in London.
- 7- **Adjective:** He works in a **shoe-** store.
- 8-**Adverb:** We walked **an hour** out of town.
- 9-**Object of a preposition:** They camped in a **tent**.

3. Types of nouns

Grammarians have made various divisions for nouns according to different criteria:

1-According to specificity and generality

Nouns are divided into two types: **common** and **proper** nouns.

Common nouns are those which have unspecified and general reference. They are not capitalized except at the beginning of a sentence such as: table, boy, pen.

Proper nouns, on the other hand, are those which name specific persons, places or things. They must start with a capital letter. Proper nouns include:

-Personal names (with or without titles): Andrew, Andrew Watson, Dr. Andrew Watson, President Kennedy.

-Forms of Address: Mum, Dad, Uncle Fred.

-Geographical names: Africa, India, Italy, Paris.

- Names of specific places and streets: Regent Street, China town

-Names of companies and organizations

-Titles of books, songs and films

2-According to senses

Nouns are divided into **concrete nouns** and **abstract nouns**.

Concrete nouns name things that can be experienced by one of the five senses (taste, touch, sight, hearing or smell). For example: house, music, book.

Abstract nouns name concepts which cannot be experienced by the five senses (immaterial things). For example: love, hate, faith, hope, freedom, mercy.

3-According to counting

Nouns are classified into **countable** and **uncountable** nouns.

Countable nouns refer to things that can be counted.

Countable nouns can be singular. They often have a/ an, the, this/ that in front of them.

Where's the **key**?

This **car** is amazing.

Countable nouns can also be plural. They often have the, some, these/ those in front of them.

I'd like some **oranges**.

Those **flowers** are beautiful.

Uncountable nouns refer to things that cannot be counted. They have one form (neither singular nor plural). They take a singular verb. They are used for liquids, substances, abstract concepts, feelings and subjects.

money, milk, hate, politics, information.

Uncountable nouns often have some in front of them.

Can I have some **milk** in my coffee?

Uncountable nouns are not used with a/an.

Can I have a bread? (not correct)

Can I have a slice of bread?

Uncountable nouns are always used with verbs in the singular.

There are some rice? (not correct)

There is some rice. (correct)

Some common uncountable nouns are:

1. materials: metal, paper, plastic, wood.

2. food: bread, cheese, meat, tea, coffee, milk, sugar, rice.

3. ideas and feelings: advice, love, news, education, information, progress, luck.

4. groups of similar things: furniture, luggage, equipment, rubbish, money.

5. school subjects and languages: art, music, English, Spanish.

Some nouns can be countable and uncountable with slightly difference in meaning.

It was a marvelous **experience**. (countable; something that happened)

We need someone with **experience**. (uncountable; skill and knowledge)

Can you switch on the **lights**? (countable; electric lights)

There isn't much **light** here. (uncountable; a substance)

Some nouns are countable when referring to a single item, but they are uncountable when referring to substance.

I broke a **glass** this morning. (countable; thing)

Glass is made from sand and lime. (uncountable; material)

I bought five **chickens** for the party yesterday. (countable; thing)

There is some chicken in the fridge if you'd like it. (uncountable; substance)

Uncountable nouns can become countable when the noun is in a container or measured.

a bar of chocolate, a box of chocolates

a slice of bread, a loaf of bread

five meters of cotton

a bottle of water

There is another type of nouns called **collective nouns**. They refer to nouns which name a group of elements (people, animals, things) as one unit.

family, football team, gang, class, school, army, musical band.

They can take singular or plural verb.

The family is happy.

The family are happy.

Another type of nouns is **compound nouns**. These nouns are made up of two or more words. Sometimes, compounds are spelled with a hyphen, sometimes not.

commander-in-chief, lifestyle, bathroom, armchair, headmaster.

1-Single- word compound nouns: cupboard, typewriter, seaside

2-Nouns formed with adjective+ noun: greenhouse, overweight

3-Nouns formed with gerund+ noun: swimming pool, driving license, walking stick

Here, the meaning is something that is used for doing something

A walking stick i.e. a stick that is used for walking

4- Nouns formed with noun+ gerund : horse-riding, sunbathing

Here, the meaning is the action of

Horse-riding i.e. the action of riding a horse

5-Nouns formed with adverb participles: these compound nouns are combinations of verbs and adverb participles

Make up, income, breakdown

6- Nouns formed with noun+ noun: when two nouns are used together to form a compound noun, the first noun usually functions like an adjective and it is very often singular

shoe- store, car key, London airport, Longman books

Exercise

Read the sentences below; then, identify the nouns used in each and name their types

1. Paris is known as the city of Love.
2. I met Diane in a coffee shop yesterday.
3. He is writing a critical essay about Eliot's The Hollow Men poem.
4. The Times River is not far from here.

5. The team won the champion.

6. Honesty is the best policy.

Exercise

Write C if the noun is countable and U if it is uncountable

Confidence, ox, research, crisis, baggage, bread, apples, flour, flower, coconuts, cheese.

Exercise

Identify the function of the underlined nouns/ noun phrases in the following sentences

1. The man hurts himself.

2. Nothing makes John angry.

3. He gave Mary flowers.

4. They work at University.

5. The girl is a student.

6. They have a party at night.

7. She wrote the soldier a long letter.

8. The shoe-store is not far from here.

9. Tylor threw the ball to Dylan.

Exercise

Circle the correct quantifier

1. A cup/ piece of coffee.

2. A loaf/ can of bread.

3. A bunch/ can of flowers.

4. A piece/ plate of chocolate.

5. A jar/ cartoon of honey.

6. A piece/ bowl of rice.

7. A bar/ piece of meat.

8. A slice/ bottle of ketchup.

4. Singular and plural nouns

Most nouns can be **singular** (one) or **plural** (more than one).

a pizza, two pizzas

an egg, some eggs

an apple, five apples

To form the plural of nouns, add **s** to the singular form.

Car, cars; book, books; door, doors.

Add **es** for nouns ending in **o, x, ch, sh, x, s**.

Potato , potatoes; box, boxes; dish, dishes; house, houses.

But for words of foreign origin or abbreviated words ending with o, an s sonly is added.

piano, pianos; photo, photos; kilo, kilos; soprano, sopranos; dynamo, dynamos

Nouns ending with a consonant + y , the y changes into i and es is added.

Country, countries; strawberry, strawberries; lady, ladies; baby, babies

Nouns ending with a vowel+ y , an s is added

day, days; key, keys; boy, boys; donkey, donkeys

For proper nouns ending with y, an s is added

Kennedys, Januarys

Twelve nouns ending with **f** or **fe** form their plural by changing the **f** into **v** and adding **es**.

Those nouns are: **calf, half, knife, life, wife, wolf, loaf, leaf, self, sheaf, shelf** and **thief**.

Wolf, wolves; self, selves; leaf, leaves

The nouns hoof, scarf, and wharf take either s or ves

hoofs/ hooves, scarfs/scarves, wharfs/ wharves

Some nouns form their plural by a vowel change (irregular plural)

foot, feet; man, men; woman, women; mouse, mice; tooth, teeth; goose, geese

The plural of child and ox are children and oxen

The plural has the same form as the singular for some nouns such as: sheep, fish and deer.

Collective nouns such as : crew, team, family, staff, government, committee, etc can take a singular or plural verb; singular if they are used to mean a single group or unit, and plural if they are used to mean a number of individuals.

Our **team** is the best.

Our **team** are wearing their new shirts.

Certain nouns are always plural and take a plural verb such as police and clothes

Your **clothes** are on the bed.

The **police** are searching for the missing boy.

Also, garments consisting of two parts such as: breeches, pants, pyjamas, trousers, etc

And also tools and instruments consisting of two parts like: glasses, scales, shears, spectacles, scissors, pliers, binoculars, etc

A number of words ending with ics such as: ethics, athletics, acoustics, hysterics, physics, mathematics, politics, etc are plural in form and take a plural verb.

His **mathematics** are weak.

But names of sciences can sometimes be considered singular.

Mathematics is an exact science.

Some words are plural in form but singular in meaning:

News

The **news** is good

Certain diseases such as: measles, rickets and shingles

Certain games such as: darts, dominoes, draughts, bowls, billiards

Some words of Latin and Greek origins form their plural according to the rules of Latin and Greek.

Crisis, crises; phenomenon, phenomena; erratum, errata; radius, radii; memorandum, memoranda; terminus, termini

5. Plural of compound nouns

The last word is made plural

Travel-agencies, swimming-pools

But when man and women are prefixed, both parts are made plural

Women drivers, men drivers

The first word is made plural with compounds formed of verbs+er nouns+ adverb

Runners-up, hangers-on

Also, with compounds composed of noun+ preposition+ noun

Sisters-in -law

6. Possessive nouns

S and an apostrophe are added to the singular and plural noun

The man's car, women's clothes

But if the noun ends with s, an apostrophe is added solely

Girls' school, birds' feathers, Mr. Jones' house

With compounds, the last word takes the s

My mother -in -law's house

Names composed of several words are treated similarly

The Prince of Wales' car

7. Use of the possessive case and of+ noun

1-The possessive case is chiefly used for people, countries and animals, but it can also be used:

- to refer to things of ships and boats: the ships' bell, the yacht's mast

-of planes, trains, cars and other vehicles, though here the of construction is safer

the trains' heating system or **the heating system of the train**

-in time expressions: week's holiday, ten minutes' break, two hours' delay, in two years' time

-with for+ noun+ sake: for goodness sake

2-Of + noun construction is used for possession

-when the possessed noun is followed by a phrase or a clause

I took the advice of a couple I met on the train, and I hired a car.

-with inanimate possessors except those listed in 1 above

The walls of the town, the roof of the church , the keys of the car

However, it is often possible to replace noun X+ of+ noun Y by noun Y+ noun X in this order

the walls of the town or the town walls

the roof of the church or the church roof

the first noun becomes a sort of adjective ,and it is not made plural

the roofs of the church or the church roofs

Unfortunately, noun+ of+ noun combinations cannot always be replace in this way and the student is advised to use of when in doubt.

Exercise

Form compound nouns for the following:

1. A shop for selling books **bookshop**
2. A shelf for books
3. A room for reading
4. A shop which sells toys
5. A case for putting pencils in
6. A film lasting two hours
7. An issue of human rights
8. A test to detect drugs
9. An essay which is four pages long
10. An engineer in robotics

Exercise

Write the plural form of the following nouns using “s” or “es”

- radio
- potato
- piano
- zoo
- kangaroo
- tomato
- hero
- mosquito
- photo

igloo

soprano

kilo

Exercise

Correct the mistakes in the following sentences if any

1. The government need to impose taxes.
2. The police hasn't arrived yet.
3. It was a good suggestion.
4. Tony computers have been stolen.
5. There were hundreds of bird's nests in the trees.
6. I need to buy a new pyjama.
7. Mathematics deal with calculating equations and matrix.
8. I took the books to Louis' house last week.
9. Buses drivers seem very angry.
10. An increase in taxes caused many crisis.
11. Susan is wearing a black jeans.
12. When the teacher called out the girl's names, they all stepped forward.
13. They are my mother-in-law's favourite sweets.
14. Good informations are necessary for making good decisions.

Pronouns

Objectives:

By the completion of this lesson, students will be able to:

- Recognize pronouns and distinguish them from other parts of speech
- Differentiate between singular, plural, subject and object pronouns
- Use the correct form of pronouns in sentences

1. What is a pronoun?

The pronoun is a word that is used to replace the name of a person, a place, a thing or an idea in a sentence in order to avoid repetition.

The boy writes a letter.

He writes a letter.

He here refers to the boy.

Pronouns also replace noun phrases.

Noun phrase= modifier (adjective) + noun

The kind girl died.

She is died.

She here refers to the kind girl.

2. Functions of pronouns

1. **Subject:** I like football.
2. **Direct object:** The boy met **him**.
3. **Indirect object:** He sent **me** a letter.

4-**Subject complement:** The book **is mine**.

5-**Object of a preposition:** I want to go with **you**.

6-**Appositive:** My friends, **those** who helped me, are the best.

3. Types of pronouns

There are eight types of pronouns:

1-**Personal pronouns:** they refer to specific persons, places or things when replacing nouns.

When personal pronouns act as subject in the sentence, they are called subjective pronouns.

These pronouns include: I, we, he, she, it, they and you.

You should help.

When pronouns function as object in the sentence, they are called objective pronouns.

Pronouns like me, us, him, her, it, them, you are used.

Sarah met **him** yesterday.

2-**Possessive pronouns:** they express ownership or relation. The possessive pronouns are:

mine, ours, his, hers, its, yours and theirs. Possessive pronouns are very similar to possessive adjectives: my, our, his, her, its, their and your.

This book is **mine**.

I'll show you your room. **Ours** is next door.

3-**Reflexive pronouns:** the words myself, ourselves, himself, herself, itself, themselves, yourself and yourselves are called reflexive pronouns. They refer to the person or animal that is the subject of the verb, but they usually act as objects.

Rachel has hurt herself.

Sometimes reflexive pronouns come after a noun or a pronoun to emphasise it; they are called intensive or emphatic pronouns.

She herself could not believe that.

4-**Demonstrative pronouns:** they are used to identify or point to somebody or something near or far.

	Near	Far
Singular	This	That
Plural	These	Those

This is a car.

These are cars.

Note: Pronouns are used before verbs (to be). When pronouns are used before nouns, they become adjectives.

That is my car. (pronoun)

That car is mine. (adjective)

5-Interrogative pronouns: the pronouns who, whom, whose, what, which and the compounds forms with the suffix “ever” as whoever, whichever, whomever and whatever are called interrogative pronouns. They are used to ask questions.

Who, whom and occasionally which are used to refer to people. Which and what are used to refer to things or animals.

Who came the first?

Note: When interrogative pronouns are used before nouns, they become adjectives.

Which is your car? (pronoun)

Which car is yours? (adjective)

6-Relative pronouns: they come immediately after a noun they modify. Relative pronouns include: who, whom, that, which, whose, whoever, whomever and whichever.

The man **who** wears black shirt is a doctor.

That is the man **who** lives next to me.

7-Indefinit pronouns: they don't identify items specifically but generally.

Singular	Plural	Singular
somebody, someone, something, anybody, anyone, everyone, everything, nothing, nobody, another, one, other, each, either, neither, no one, little, much	both, few, many, others, several	all, any, more, most, none, some, such

Many are absent today.

Note: If indefinite pronouns are followed by a noun , they become adjectives.

Many people are absent. (adjective)

8-Reciprocal pronouns: they express a mutual action or relationships as objects. These pronouns include each other and one another.

They love **each other**. (only two persons)

They love **one another**. (more than two persons)

Exercise

Identify the function of the pronoun written in bold

1. The man **himself** refused to leave.
2. I met **her** two days ago.
3. He bought **me** a car on my birthday.
4. John left with **her**.

5. **She** hurts **herself**.
6. That's **hers**.
7. This present is for **us**.
8. I prefer **this** to that.
9. He is meeting **this**.
10. **Whose** is this car?
11. **What** do you want?
12. **Who** did it?

Exercise

Combine the sentences below using appropriate relative pronoun

1. We approached the man.

He was waiting.

2. She knows my brother.

I rarely see my brother.

3. The bicycle is red.

I bought a bicycle.

4. The car is mine.

The bicycle is black.

5. The student is Petter.

Petter's coat has been stolen.

Exercise

Write the appropriate interrogative pronoun

1.is the man over there?
2.do you have to drink?
- 3.....of your brothers work here?
4.coat is the black? yours or Mary's?
- 5.....did you meet in the party?
6. do you like best? The green or the red?
- 7.....umbrella did you borrow?

Exercise

Write the appropriate reciprocal pronoun

1. Mary and John haven't seensince their childhood.
2. They often givepresents.
3. The three friends huggedvery hard.
4. Tom and Lilly are deeply in love with
5. The five men looked atwith surprise.
6. We often meetin a coffee shop.

Exercise

Write the appropriate indefinite pronoun

1. Doesmind if I smoke here?
- 2.....knocked the door.
3. Would you liketo eat?
4. I don't mind what you tell him. Tell himyou want.
- 5.....is going bad.

6. There ison the door. Can you go and see who is it ?.

7. Can I doto help you?

8. kept silent.

9. I didn't see

Verbs

Objectives:

After the completion of this lesson, students will be able to:

- Recognize different types of verbs
- Identify verbs in various sentences
- Make correct usage of different verbs including past and present tense verbs and helping verbs

1. What is a verb?

The verb is a word that informs us about the subject's actions or state.

John is writing a book. (actions)

John is happy. (state)

2. Types of verbs

Verbs in English are divided into three types:

2.1. Action verbs (dynamic)

They usually express a physical action.

-go, run, drive, play, see.

These verbs can be further divided into intransitive verbs and transitive verbs. Intransitive verbs do not need any direct object.

-It is raining.

-She smiles.

Transitive verbs, on the other hand, need an object to receive an action.

-He read a book.

-She writes letter.

2.2. State verbs (stative/ linking)

They express the state of the subject. They are related with feelings, senses, thoughts, opinions, possession, measure, cost, etc. These verbs are often not used with continuous tenses.

Feelings	Thoughts/opinions	Senses	Possessions	Measure/cost/ appearance
like, dislike, love, hate, prefer, want, need, mind, care.	know, think, understand, believe, guess, mean, suppose, realize, remember, forget, doubt.	feel, hear, see, smell, sound, taste, touch, look.	belong, own, have.	cost, measure, weigh, owe, seem, be, appear, consist.

State verbs are usually followed by an adjective.

-They seem happy.

-He feels bad.

They can be followed by a noun.

-She is a teacher.

-He became an engineer.

When the state verb is followed by an adjective, it is called predicate adjective. When it is followed by a noun, it is called predicate nominative.

3.3 Auxiliary verbs (helping)

They are used in compound tenses before the main verb.

- He is singing. (continuous tenses)

-He had studied. (perfect tenses)

Auxiliary verbs include verbs as to, to do, to have in addition to modal verbs as must, have to, will, can, may, need, ought to.

Adjectives

Objectives:

In this lesson, students will:

- Learn about adjectives and how they are used to describe people and objects
- Identify different types of adjectives
- Compose adjectives and be able to use them in their own sentences

1. What is adjective?

Adjective is a word (or sometimes a group of words) that is used to describe a noun, pronoun or a noun phrase which comes after it.

aggressive woman, **cute** girl.

But adjectives may come after a noun or pronoun.

- The man **in the car** is my brother. (**phrase adjective**)
- She is **angry**. (**predicate adjective**)
- I found the keys **which I had lost**. (**clause adjective**)

2. Types of adjectives

1-**Descriptive/ qualitative adjectives:** are common adjectives.

-tall, big, fat, brave, fast.

2-**Demonstrative adjectives:** when demonstrative pronouns (this, these, that, those) are used before nouns, they are called demonstrative adjectives.

-That woman is my mother.

3-**Distributive adjectives:** distributive adjective is an adjective that refers to members of a group individually. Some of most common distributive adjectives are: each, every, either, neither, any and both.

-Every child has the right to go to school.

-Either option sounds good to me.

4-Intrrogative adjectives: these include which, whose and what when followed by a noun. They are used to ask questions.

-Whose car is this?

5-Possessive adjectives: words like my, our, his, her, its, their and your when followed by a noun. They express relation or ownership of something.

-It is my house.

6-Quantitative adjectives:

a-**Numbers:** six windows.

b-**Quantifiers:** words like much, many, few, little, some and no when followed by a noun.

-Few people, many cars, much money.

7-Proper adjectives:

a. adjectives of nationality:

-British people, Italian pizza.

b-religion adjectives :

-Christian rituals, Islamic architecture.

c-names of holidays:

Christmas holiday

Proper adjectives are capitalized.

8 exclamatory adjectives

3. Formation of adjectives

Certain suffixes are added at the end of verbs or nouns to form adjectives.

-able: comfortable.

-ible: terrible.

-ant: elegant.

-ent: intelligent.

-al: economical.

-ic: scientific.

-ish : foolish.

-ive : attractive.

-ful : worthful.

-less: hopeless.

-tic: energetic

-ous: dangerous.

-ian: Italian

-y: shiny.

-ed: educated.

Comparative adjectives

We use comparative adjectives to compare between two people or things. We often use than after comparative adjectives.

John is taller than Mary.

To make comparative adjectives, we add **er** to the short adjective (one syllable)

tall **taller**

cheap **cheaper**

We add **r** to short adjectives ending with e

large **larger**

nice **nicer**

We **double the consonant** and add **er** for short adjectives composed of a vowel between two consonants.

big **bigger**

fat **fatter**

thin **thinner**

We change **y** to **i** and add **er** for adjectives ending with y

happy **happier**

Friendly **friendlier**

easy **easier**

For most adjectives with two syllables, we use **more** and the adjective.

My new mobile is **more modern** than my old one.

For adjectives with three or more syllables, we usually use **more** and the adjective.

Susan's dress is **more expensive** than Jane's.

We can use **less** the opposite of **more** in comparative forms.

Jane's dress is **less expensive** than Susan's.

Superlative adjectives

We use superlative adjectives when we compare one person or thing with several others. We use **the** before superlative adjectives.

I am the youngest in my family.

To make superlative adjectives, we add **est** to short adjectives (one syllable).

tall **tallest**

short **shortest**

We add **st** for adjectives ending with **e**.

wide **widest**

large **largest**

We **double the consonant** and add **est** for short adjectives composed of a vowel between two consonants.

thin **thinnest**

big **biggest**

We change **y** to **i** and add **est** for adjectives ending with **y**

happy **happiest**

lucky **luckiest**

dry **driest**

For most adjectives with two syllables and adjectives with three or more syllables, we use **most** and the adjective.

This is the **most beautiful** place I have ever visited.

Least, the opposite of **most**, can be used in superlative forms.

The **least expensive** way to go to Paris is to travel by bus.

Some comparative and superlative adjectives are irregular.

Adjective	comparative form	superlative form
Good	Better	Best
Bad	Worse	worst
Far	Further	farthest/ furthest
Little	Less	Least
Many	More	Most
Old	Older	Oldest/eldest

4. Order of adjectives

When you write several adjectives in row, sometimes you must put them in a particular order, and sometimes you can choose your own order depending on the kind of adjective.

Cumulative Adjectives

Cumulative Adjectives always go before a noun. They must be in a particular order.

For example, you cannot write the little black poor dog, you must write the poor little black dog.

The following list shows you the order of cumulative adjectives.

Kind of adjective	Examples
1- articles, demonstrative pronouns, possessives.	-an, a, the, this, those, her, their, Mary's.
2-quantity	-two, some, many, few.
3-opinion	-beautiful, ugly, interesting.
4-appearance	-size: large, big, little. -shape/ length: round, long, short. -condition: broken, wet, cold.
5-age, color	-old , new, young. -black, red, blond.
6-nationality, religion	-Asian, Muslim, Jewish, Protestant, English
7-material	-wood, silk, cotton.
8-noun used as an adjective	-shoe store, wedding dress.

Note:

Do not put commas between cumulative adjectives.

Coordinate adjectives:

Coordinate adjectives can go before a noun or after a linking verb. You can write coordinate adjectives in any order, and you can separate them from each other with commas.

Before a noun, and is optional:

A hungry, cold, wet dog.

A hungry, cold and wet dog.

After a linking verb, and is required:

The dog was hungry, wet and cold .

Remarks:

1. In English, the same adjective is used with all types of nouns (singular, plural, masculine and feminine)

They are **good** girls.

They are **good** boys.

He is a **good** boy.

She is a **good** girl.

2. Both past and present participles can be used as adjectives.

I saw the **sleeping** boy.

He fixed the **broken** window.

3. Nouns can be used as adjectives.

Gold watch, **glass** jar, **tennis** ball, **shoe** store.

4. Linking verbs (be, look, sound, seem, taste, smell) are followed by nouns or adjectives.

-He is **ill**. (adjective)

-He is a **doctor**. (noun)

5. The object complement after action verbs can be an adjective.

He makes me **happy**.

6. The articles **a**, **an** and **the** in English are considered as adjectives.

7. English has a kind of adjectives called compound adjectives. A compound adjective is two or more words that function together as one word. A compound adjective often has a hyphen or hyphens between its parts.

ten-week semester, **two-year-old** child.

8-Adjectives are always singular. Never add s to an adjective and never use a plural word as an adjective.

big feet (not bigs feet)

terrible memories (not terribles memories)

Be especially careful when a compound adjective containing a number comes before a noun.

a **six-foot** wall , a **five-dollar** bill.

Exercise 1

Choose the correct form of the adjectives in the following sentences

1. John isin his class.

a. smarter

b. smartest

c. the most smart

2. I can't find myjeans.

a. comfortablest

b. most comfortable

3. That wasI've ever eaten.

a. worse

b. worst

4. Mike isthan Bob.

a. funnier

b. more funny

5. This film isthan the last one.

a. boringer

b. more boring

6. They have to studysemester.

a. ten- weeks

b-ten- week

c. ten weeks

7. We took a ride onmotobike.

a. a red, new, Italian

b. an Italian new red

c. a new red Italian

Exercise 2

Much or many

1. There isn'tsugar in my coffee.

2. Howapples did you eat?

3. I've packedglasses of water.

4. I don't havefriends?

5. Howdoes it cost?

6. We seeadvertisements on TV.

7. I don't haveinformation about it.

Exercise 3

A little or a few

1. Can you bringoranges, please?

2. We need to addwater to it.

3. He only spentdollars there.

4. I putsugar with my coffee.

5. I havemoney left.

6. There arechairs in the room.

7. You havetime left.

Exercise 4

Any or some

1. Is there.....milk left?

2. We don't havemoney left.

3. There isjuice in the bottle.

4. Shesome money.

5. You didn't putsugar in my coffee.

6. I needtime to do it.

7. I don't havetime to go out.

Exercise 5

Farther or further

1. How muchdo I need to drive?

2. I just can't go any

3. Do you have anyplans for the holiday?
4. That's a lotthan I want to carry this heavy box.
5. Walk five meters
6. We are looking forsolutions to the problem.

Exercise 6

Step 1 Underline each adjective in the following sentences

Step 2 Mark each one cum for cumulative or coord for coordinate

Step 3 Add commas where they are necessary

The first sentence is done as an example

Cum coord coord

1. I found a small piece of smelly, moldy cheese in the car.
2. Four shiny black limousines were parked outside the castle.
3. I was thrilled to receive a beautiful big leather-bound book with my order.
4. The small red apples looked sweet crisp juicy and delicious.
5. The pretty new English teacher is from Brazil.
6. The room was bright clean and colourful.
7. The shop offers all kinds of interesting old antique objects .
8. The tall new football player played well.

Exercise 7

Find and correct the errors in the following sentences. In some sentences commas are missing. In other sentences, adjectives are in the wrong order.

1. The hungry frightened dog waited for someone to feed him.
2. The black little dog waited for someone to feed him.

3. His grandmother lives in a wood old small house near the sea.
4. My mother always bakes a chocolate delicious cake for my little brother's birthday.
5. I had a small delicious hot ball of soap for dinner.
6. For his tenth birthday, he received a metal new baseball bat.
7. The coach's enthusiastic supportive manner gave the team confidence.

Adverbs

Objectives

By the end of this lesson, students will:

- Learn how to use adverbs to modify verbs, adjectives, other adverbs or even sentences
- Learn how to form adverbs and how different types of adverbs are used in sentences
- Understand that adverbs often follow verbs, but adjectives follow linking verbs
- Understand when to use an adjective as opposed to an adverb based on knowledge that adjectives modify nouns and pronouns
- Understand when to use an adverb as opposed to an adjective based on knowledge that adverbs modify verbs, adjectives and other adverbs.

1. What is an adverb?

An adverb is a word that modifies (describes) a verb, an adjective, another adverb or even a whole sentence.

Tom speaks English **Fluently**. (verb)

She is **very** helpful. (adjective)

The race finished **too** quickly. (adverb)

Fortunately, I didn't go out. (sentence)

An adverb answers questions such as “how”, “when”, “where” , “how often” and “to what extent”.

2. Types of adverbs

i. Manner (how) an adverb that describes how an action happens.

-She drives **carefully**.

ii. Frequency (how often) an adverb that describes how many times something happens.

They **always** go to school on foot.

iii. Time (when) usually any word or a phrase that expresses time.

I met him **yesterday**.

She was born **in 1999**.

iv. Adverbs of place (where) usually any word or a phrase that expresses place.

They are **here**.

They were **in a coffee shop**.

v. Adverbs of direction (which way) words like right, left, west, east, south, north, etc.

Turn **left**.

vi. Adverbs of degree (to what extent) they tell about the degree of an adjective or an adverb. Words such as : very, extremely, too, so, fairly, just, nearly, quite, hardly, such, even, only, pretty, almost, enough, etc.

a. With verbs

We use **(very) much** and **a lot** to make verbs stronger.

She complains **a lot**.

They thanked him **very much**.

We use **a little** and **a bit** to make verbs weaker.

It annoys me **a bit**.

He can play the guitar **a little**.

We put these adverbs after the verb and the object.

I like **very much** skiing . (**not correct**)

I like skiing **very much** . (**correct**)

b. With adjectives/ adverbs

We use **really, very, too** and **extremely** to make adjectives and adverbs stronger.

He drove **extremely** fast.

The house is **very** large.

We can use **fairly** or **quite** to make adjectives and adverbs weaker.

She is **fairly** tall.

He had been **quite** good in drawing when he was at school.

c. With comparative adjectives

To describe a big difference between two things, we use **much** or **a lot**.

I feel **much** better today.

He looks **a lot older** than his wife.

3. Adverbs Formation

Most adverbs of manner add the suffix **ly** to the adjective.

badly, clearly, nervously

But adjectives ending in **y** change **y** to **i** and add **ly**.

happily, easily

Irregular adverbs

1- Some adverbs have the same form of their adjectives such as: low, high, hard, early, late, enough, yet, far, fast, much, ill, just, long, near, right, still, well, wrong, near, etc.

He has a **fast** car. (adjective)

He is driving **fast**. (adverb)

2- The words **friendly**, **lovely**, **silly** and **lonely** end in **ly** but they are adjectives not adverbs.

We cannot make them into adverbs, so we say in a...way.

He smiled at me **friendly**. (not correct)

He smiled at me **in a friendly way**. (correct)

3-Good is an adjective. The adverb for good is well.

She dances **good**. (**not correct**)

She dances **well**. (**correct**)

Remarks

1-There is one type of verbs doesn't mix well with adverbs. Linking verbs such as **feel, seem, sound, smell, appear** typically need an adjective not an abverb.

I feel **badly** about what happened. (**not correct**)

I feel **bad** about what happened . (**correct**)

2- Some can modify (describe) an entire sentence, theses are called **sentence adverbs**. Common ones include generally, fortunately, interestingly and accordingly. Sentence adverbs don't describe one particular thing in the sentence. Instead, they describe a general feeling about all of the information in the sentence.

Fortunately, we arrived on time.

At one time the use of the word **hopefully** as a sentence adverb was condemned. People continued to use it though, and many style guides and dictionaries now accept it. There are still plenty of readers out there who hate it though, so it's a good idea to avoid using it in formal writing.

Hopefully, I'll get this job.

3-Like adjectives, adverbs can show degrees of comparison. Although it is slightly less common to use them in this way.

To make the comparative form of an adverb that ends in **-ly**, add the word **more**.

She acted more politely than the others.

To make the superlative form of an adverb that ends in **-ly**, add the word **most**.

She acted most politely of all of them.

4-Place adverbs as close as possible to the words they are supposed to modify. Putting the adverb in the wrong spot can produce an awkward sentence at best and completely change the

meaning at worst. Be especially careful about the word **only**, which is one of the most often misplaced modifiers. Consider the difference between these two sentences:

-Phillip only fed the cat.

-Phillip fed only the cat.

The first sentence means that all Phillip did was feed the cat. He didn't pet the cat or pick it up or anything else. The second sentence means that Phillip fed the cat, but he didn't feed the dog, the bird, or anyone else who might have been around.

5-When an adverb is modifying **a verb phrase**, the most natural place for the adverb is usually the middle of the phrase.

We are **quickly** approaching the deadline.

I will **happily** assist you.

Exercise 1

Underline the adverb in each of the following sentences and identify its type

1. She sings delightfully.
2. He is too careless.
3. I saw him in the garden.
4. They arrived late.
5. Anna ran fast.
6. I started working there in 2004.
7. I broke my arm yesterday.
8. They frequently don't do their homework.
9. The children are playing outside.

Exercise 2

Underline the adverb in the following sentences and circle the verb, the adjective, the adverb, the phrase or the sentence it modifies

1. They were talking loudly.
2. Every soldier fought bravely.
3. Jack walked his dog to the park quickly.
4. The cat was carefully approaching the bird.
5. Finally, we will get rest.
6. She stood up proudly.
7. He is very comprehensive.

Exercise 3

Choose the correct form of the words in brackets in the sentences below (adjective or adverb)

1. James issinger. (marvelous, marvelously)
2. They won the race (easy, easily)
3. He did the work asas possible. (careful, carefully)
4. The bus driver wasinjured in the accident. (serious, seriously)
5. The train arrived(late, lately)
6. Bob looksWhat's the matter with him? (sad, sadly)
7. This steak smells(good, well)
8. Jane isupset about losing her keys. (terrible, terribly)
9. Susan isgirl. (pretty, prettly)
10. She waved(cheerful, cheerfully)

Exercise 4

Correct the mistake in the following sentences if any

1. They play good.
2. He drives the car fastly.
3. They behaved friendly.
4. John works hardly.
5. It smells bad.
6. I love a lot pizza.
7. It's terribly day today.

Prepositions

Objectives

By the end of this lesson, learners will be able to identify and use prepositions to write complete sentences .

1.What is a preposition?

A preposition is a word or a group of words that is used with a noun, pronoun, or noun phrase to show direction, location, or time, or to introduce an object.

2.Types of Prepositions

Because there are many types of prepositions, differentiating them helps to understand when and how to use them properly.

1-Prepositions of Time

To refer to one point in time use the prepositions “**in**”, “**on**” and “**at**”.

Use "**in**" with parts of the day (not specific times), months, years, and seasons.

e.g.

-I see you **in** the evening.

-Paris is cold **in** December.

-I was born **in** 1997.

-The weather is nice **in** springs.

Use "at" with the time of day. Also use "at" with noon, night, and midnight.

e.g.

-I have a class at 8:00 o'clock.

-I meet you at noon.

-They will arrive at night.

Use "on" with days.

e.g.

-I don't work on Fridays.

-We will have a meeting on Wednesday.

To refer to extended time, use the prepositions "since," "for," "by," "during," "from...to," "from...until," "with," and "within."

e.g.

- I have lived in Italy *since* 2005. (I moved there in 2005 and still live there.)

-I am visiting Algeria **for** three weeks. (I will stay three weeks in Algeria)

-He works part time **during** the summer. (For the period of time throughout the summer.)

- I will collect data *from* January *to* June. (Starting in January and ending in June.)

-She worked here **from** January **until** May, 2022. (Started working in January and stopped in June.)

- She will graduate *within* 2 years. (Not longer than 2 years.)

2-Prepositions of place

To refer to a place, use the prepositions "in" (the point itself), "at" (the general vicinity), "on" (the surface), and "inside" (something contained).

e.g.

-She works at University.

-They are in the shop.

-He lefts on his bed.

-The watch is inside the drawer.

To refer to an object higher than a point, use the prepositions "over" and "above." To refer to an object lower than a point, use the prepositions "below," "beneath," "under," and "underneath."

e.g.

- The bird flew **over** the house.
- The plates were on the shelf **above** the cups.
- Basements are dug **below** ground.
- There is hard wood **beneath** the carpet.
- The squirrel hid the nuts **under** a pile of leaves.
- The cat is hiding **underneath** the box.

To refer to an object close to a point, use the prepositions "by," "near," "next to," "between," "among," and "opposite."

e.g.

- The gas station is **by** the grocery store.
- The museum is next to the post office.
- The school is between the stadium and the hospital.
- There is a purple flower **among** the weeds.
- The garage is **opposite** the house.

3-Prepositions of Location

To refer to a location, use the prepositions "in" (an area or volume), "at" (a point), and "on" (a surface).

e.g.

- They live **in** the countryside. (an area)
- She will find him **at** the library. (a point)
- There is a lot of dirt on the window. (a surface)

4-Prepositions of Spatial Relationships

To refer to a spatial relationship, use the prepositions "above," "across," "against," "ahead of," "along," "among," "around," "behind," "below,"

"beneath," "beside," "between," "from," "in front of," "inside," "near," "off," "out of,"
 "through," "toward," "under," and "within."

-The post office is **across** the street from the grocery store.

-We will stop at many attractions **along** the way.

-The kids are hiding **behind** the tree.

Some Common Verb + Preposition Combinations

	About	At	On	From	For	In	Of	To	With
Worry	X								
Complain	X								
Read	X								
Arrive		X							
Smile		X							
Look		X							
Differ				X					
Suffer				X					
Account					X				
					X				
Allow									

	About	At	On	From	For	In	Of	To	With
Search			X						
Result						X			
Succeed						X			
Occur						X			
Consist							X		
Smell							X		
Approve							X		
Depend			X						
Insist			X						
concentrate			X						
Lead								X	
Belong								X	
Refer								X	
Contribute								X	
Agree									X
Argue									X

Some Common Adjective + Preposition Combinations

	Abo ut	A t	B y	Fro m	Fo r	I n	O f	To	Wit h
Accustom ed								X	
Aware							X		
Beneficial								X	
Capable							X		
Characteri stic							X		
Compose d			X				X		
Different				X					
Disappoin ted						X			X
Employed		X	X						
Essential								X	
Familiar									X
Good		X			X				

Grateful	X	X
Interested	X	

	About	At	By	From	For	In	Of	To	With
Happy	X				X				X
Opposed								X	
Proud							X		
Responsible					X				
Similar								X	
Sorry	X				X				

Exercise 1

Write the appropriate preposition

1-I don't like flying, so I went to Parisbus .

2-I haven't seen youages.

3-Put the booksthe table, please.

4-He bought me a carmy birthday.

5-Don't forget to bring the keysyou.

6-The police chased the robbersthe streets.

7-They will have a partythe end of the week.

8-Would you buy a coffeecredit card.

9-I will go to Francespring.

10-This flight goes to WashingtonCharlotte.

Exercise 2

Fill in the gaps with appropriate preposition

Goldilocks used to live her parents a cabin near the forest. One day, she decided to go a walk. She strolled down the lane that led the forest and came across a cottage. She knockedthe door, but no one answered. Then, she decided to goand check. Once she came the cottage, she saw three soup bowls kept the table. Feeling hungry, she drank the soup out of the smallest bowl. She saw a flight of stairs that led to a room She decided to go and see the room. On reaching the room, she saw three beds. Feeling sleepy with all the walking and hot soup, she decided to take a nap and slept the smallest bed. When she woke up, she saw three bears standing her, and the smallest bear among them crying loudly. Terrified, she started screaming and ran away.

Articles

Objectives

Students will be able to identify articles and use them correctly in sentences

In English there are three articles: *a*, *an*, and *the*. Articles are used before nouns or noun equivalents and are a type of adjective. The definite article (*the*) is used before a noun to indicate that the identity of the noun is known to the reader. The indefinite article (*a*, *an*) is used before a noun that is general or when its identity is not known.

a is used before a singular noun beginning with a consonant sound. **an** is used before a singular noun beginning with a vowel sound. There are certain situations in which a noun takes no article.

The following table summarizes the basic use of articles.

	COUNT NOUNS	NON COUNT NOUNS
Rule 1 Specific identity not known	<i>a, an</i>	(no article)
Rule 2 Specific identity known	<i>The</i>	The
Rule 3 All things <i>or</i> things in general	(no article)	(no article)

Rule 1 - Specific identity not known: Use the indefinite article a or an only with a singular count noun whose specific identity is not known to the reader. Use a before nouns that begin with a consonant sound, and use an before nouns that begin with a vowel sound.

- Use the article *a* or *an* to indicate any non-specified member of a group or category.

*I think **an** animal is in the garage*

*That man is **a** scoundrel.*

*We are looking for **an** apartment.*

- Use the article *a* or *an* to indicate one in number (as opposed to more than one).

*I own **a** cat and two dogs.*

- Use the article *a* before a consonant sound, and use *an* before a vowel sound.

***a** boy, **an** apple*

◇ Sometimes an adjective comes between the article and noun:

***an** unhappy boy, **a** red apple*

- The plural form of *a* or *an* is *some*. Use *some* to indicate an unspecified, limited amount (but more than one).

***an** apple, **some** apples*

Rule 2 - Specific identity known: Use the definite article *the* with any noun (whether singular or plural, count or noncount) when the specific identity of the noun is known to the reader, as in the following situations:

- Use the article *the* when a particular noun has already been mentioned previously.

*I ate **an** apple yesterday. **The** apple was juicy and delicious.*

- Use the article *the* when an adjective, phrase, or clause describing the noun clarifies or restricts its identity.

***The** boy sitting next to me raised his hand.*

*Thank you for **the** advice you gave me.*

- Use the article *the* when the noun refers to something or someone that is unique.

the theory of relativity

the 2003 federal budget

Rule 3 - All things or things in general: Use *no article* with plural count nouns or any noncount nouns used to mean *all* or *in general*.

Trees are beautiful in the fall. (All trees are beautiful in the fall.)

He was asking for advice. (He was asking for advice in general.)

I do not like coffee. (I do not like all coffee in general.)

Additional Information Regarding the Use of Articles

- When indicating an unspecified, limited amount of a **count** or **noncount** noun, use *some*.
My cousin was seeking some advice from a counselor (not advice in general or advice about everything, but a limited amount of advice).

I would love some coffee right now (not coffee in general, but a limited amount of coffee).

We might get rain tomorrow. Some rain would be good for the crops (a certain amount of rain, as opposed to rain in general).

There are some drops of water on the table (a limited number, but more than one drop).

- **Noncount nouns** are those which usually cannot be counted. Following are some common examples:

◇ **Certain food and drink items:** bacon, beef, bread, broccoli, butter, cabbage, candy, cauliflower, celery, cereal, cheese, chicken, chocolate, coffee, corn, cream, fish, flour, fruit, ice cream, lettuce, meat, milk, oil, pasta, rice, salt, spinach, sugar, tea, water, wine, yogurt

◇ **Certain nonfood substances:** air, cement, coal, dirt, gasoline, gold, paper, petroleum, plastic, rain, silver, snow, soap, steel, wood, wool

◇ **Most abstract nouns:** advice, anger, beauty, confidence, courage, employment, fun, happiness, health, honesty, information, intelligence, knowledge, love, poverty, satisfaction, truth, wealth

◇ **Areas of study:** history, math, biology, etc.

◇ **Sports:** soccer, football, baseball, hockey, etc.

◇ **Languages:** Chinese, Spanish, Russian, English, etc.

◇ **Other:** clothing, equipment, furniture, homework, jewelry, luggage, lumber, machinery, mail, money, news, poetry, pollution, research, scenery, traffic, transportation, violence, weather, work

- Geographical names are confusing because some require the and some do not.

◇ Use **the with**: united countries, large regions, deserts, peninsulas, oceans, seas, gulfs, canals, rivers, mountain ranges, groups of islands

the Gobi Desert

the United Arab Emirates

the Sacramento River

the Aleutians

◇ Do **not use the with**: streets, parks, cities, states, counties, most countries, continents, bays, single lakes, single mountains, islands

Japan

Chico

Mt. Everest

San Francisco Bay

Exercise

Write the appropriate article

1-Jane hasterrible headache.

2- Is your mother working inold office building.

3- Do you still live inHolloway Street?

4- The potatoes are 87 pencekilo.

5- Miss Lin speaksGerman.

6-apple a day keeps the doctor away.

7-One of the students said “.....professor is late today”

8- His father works asan electrician.

9- He bought menice car on my birthday.

10-I borrowedpen from my friend.

11-What do you usually have forbreakfast.

12-After this hard work, I have to sleepafternoon.

13-I preferpink dress rather thanyellow one.

14-Albany iscapital ofNew York state.

Present simple/ Present Continuous

Objectives

Students learn the difference between present simple and present continuous.

Use correctly the two tenses in meaningful sentences.

Read the following sentences carefully :

1. Birds fly in the air.
2. My brother flew to England last week.
3. I shall fly a kite on Sunday. –

In the first sentence the Verb ‘fly’ refers to the Present time, in the second sentence the Verb ‘flew’ refers to the action in the Past, while the Verb in the third sentence ‘shall fly’ refers to the Future.

2. The Tense of a Verb shows the time when an action takes place.

There are three Tenses :

I. Present Tense

II. Past Tense

III. Future Tense

3. In order to show at what stage an action is, each of the three tenses has been sub-divided into four heads. These sub-divisions are—

Tense	Indefinite	Continuous or	Perfect	Perfect Continuous
--------------	-------------------	--------------------------------	----------------	-------------------------------------

		Progressive		
Present	I play	I am playing	I have played	I have been playing
Past	I played	I was playing	I had played	I had been playing
Future	I shall play	I shall be playing	I shall have played	I shall have been playing

1. Simple Present Tense

Use

The Simple Present is used to express :

(i) Facts that are always true.

The sun rises in the east.

Two and two make four.

(ii) Habitual actions

I go for a walk daily.

He comes to school at 8 O'clock.

(iii) Things that we don't expect to change

Lin works as a TV reporter.

He lives in London.

(iv) Feelings (e.g. feel, hate, like, want, love, prefer, etc)

I like him a lot.

I love pizza.

She loves playing the piano.

(v) thoughts and ideas (e.g. agree , believe , know , mean, think, understand , etc)

I think he is very smart.

A red light means 'stop'.

I don't understand you.

Form

The present tense is the base form of the verb

Positive

I/ we/ you/ they live in London.

We add s or es to the verb after he , she and it.

He/ she/it lives in the village.

She speaks three languages.

He goes to school on foot.

She watches a lot of horror movies.

Negative

I/we/they/ you do not like big cities.

He/ she/it does not like the village.

Short forms

I/we/they/ you do't like big cities.

He/ she/it doesn't like the village.

2. Present Continuous

Use

We use the present continuous :

(i) To describe something that is happening while we are speaking.

I am doing my homework.

I am feeling sick.

(ii) To talk about something that is happening around now for a limited period of time
We are on a holiday this week. We are staying in a hotel near the beach.

. We often use time expressions (e.g. right now, at the moment, today, this week, etc).

I'm leaving the house now.

Form

We form the present continuous with am, is or are and the ing form of the main verb.

Positive

I am leaving.

She is dancing.

They are working.

Short form

I'm leaving.

She's dancing.

They're working.

Negative

I am not leaving.

She is not dancing.

They're not working.

Short form

I'm not leaving.

She's not dancing.

They're not working.

3. Present simple vs. present continuous

Present simple is used to talk about things we do regularly; with time expressions (e.g. usually, often, every day, once a month, etc)

I usually get up at 6 o'clock.

Present continuous is used to talk about things that are happening at the time we are speaking; with time expressions (e.g. right now, at the moment, etc)

They are having a meeting at the moment.

She is cooking.

Present simple is used to talk about permanent situations.

She works at University.

They live in France.

Present continuous is used to talk about temporary situations; with time expressions (e.g. this week, these days, this summer, etc)

He is working in London this week.

Exercise 1

Fill in the gaps conjugating the verb in the present simple

1. Where Sally (learn) English?
2. She always (go) to school on foot.
3. I (be) a teacher .
- 4 Tom and Jane (work) with their father.
5. She (not like) cats.
6. They (be) friends
7. He (speak) three languages.
8. Jane never (help) me with that.
9. Susan and Rayan (swim) twice a week.

10. They (not sleep) early.

Exercise 2

Write the correct form of the verb (present simple or present continuous)

1. He (be) at work now.

2. They (work) in America these days.

3. Tom (live) in London.

4. Susan (be) in the garden. She (water) the plants.

5. She (not like) fish.

6. He (act) aggressively recently.

7. Lucy is in the kitchen. She (prepare) dinner.

8. They (live) in a big house.

Present Perfect/ Past Simple

Objectives

Students learn the difference between present perfect and past simple.

Use correctly the two tenses in meaningful sentences.

1. Present perfect

Form

To conjugate a verb in the present perfect, we use:

Have/ has + past participle of the verb

We use have with pronouns I, we, you and they.

We use has with she, he and it.

Past participle of **regular verbs**: **verb +ed**

e.g. worked, washed, danced

Past participle of **irregular verbs**: they **change**. Look at the list of irregular verbs.

e.g. written, spoken, broken

Positive:

I/ we/ you/ they have finished.

He/ she/ it has finished.

Negative:

I/ we/ you/ they have not (haven't) finished.

He/ she/ it has not (hasn't) finished.

Yes/no questions:

Have I/ we/ you/ they finished?

Has he/ she/ it finished?

Short answers:

Yes, I/ we/ you/ they have.

Yes, he/ she/ it has.

No, I/ we/ you/ they haven't.

No, he/ she/ it hasn't.

Questions:

What have I/ we/ you/ they finished?

What has he/ she/ it finished?

Use

1-We use the present perfect to talk about past experiences in our lives.

e.g. I have travelled a lot.

She has visited many countries.

We can use before, once, twice, several times, etc to say how often.

e.g. I have visited Italy once.

He has been there several times.

We often use ever to ask about past experiences?

e.g. Has she ever been to America?

Have you ever tasted Indian food?

We use never in negative sentences

e.g. I have never met him before.

We use ever and never before the past participle.

e.g. Have you ever met Jane?

I have never seen his wife.

2- We use the present perfect to talk about things that happened a short time ago and that have a result now.

e.g. I've broken my arm. (it is broken now)

My friend has arrived. (he is here now)

3- We use the present perfect to introduce a new information.

e.g. Allen has found a job.

Dian has passed her driving test.

The US President has arrived to London.

Note: When we give more details about these events, we use the past simple.

e.g. Allen has found a job. She was very desperate.

Dian has passed her driving test. She took it yesterday.

The US President has arrived to London. He flew from Washington last night.

4- Present perfect with just, already and yet

We use **just** to talk about things that happened a short time ago. **Just** is used before the past participle of the verb.

e.g. She has just left.

I have just met him.

We use **already** in positive sentences when something happens before you expect it. We usually put **already** before the past participle of the verb.

e.g. The bus has already left.

We use **yet** in questions to ask about something we are expecting to happen. We usually put **yet** at the end of the question.

e.g. Has the five o'clock train arrived yet?

We use **yet** in negative sentences when we expected something to happen before now. We usually put **yet** at the end of the negative statement.

e.g. You haven't finished yet.

Note: We don't use yet in positive sentences or already in negative sentences.

e.g. I've paid for the meal yet. (not correct)

I've already paid for the meal. (correct)

She hasn't received her mail yet. (correct)

She hasn't received her mail already. (not correct)

5- Present perfect with for and since

We use the present perfect with for or since to talk about situations that started in the past and continue now.

For (few minutes, two days, five weeks, many years, a long time, etc)

e.g. I've known her for a few months.

Since (five o'clock, January, summer, etc)

e.g. He has worked here since 1989.

For and since both answer the question how long.

e.g. How long have you worked in this company?

I've worked in this company for ten years.

How long have you known George?

I've known him since childhood.

2. Past simple

Form

Positive

To conjugate a verb in past simple, we add **-ed** at the end of most verbs (regular verbs).

e.g. to play played

to stay stayed

Some verbs irregular. We do not add -ed to form the past simple. The form of the verb changes. Look at the list of irregular verbs.

e.g. to be was/were

to speak spoke

to eat ate

Negative

Did+ not+ verb

e.g. They did not (didn't) sleep last night.

Yes/no questions

Did he arrive?

Short answers

Yes, he did.

No, he didn't.

WH questions

What did you do last Sunday?

Where did you go last summer?

How much did the meal cost?

Use

1- We use the past simple to talk about a finished action in the past.

e.g. We met in 2003.

They visited their grandmother yesterday.

We often use expressions such as: yesterday, last month, last weekend, last summer, etc to say when something happened.

e.g. It rained all day yesterday.

We can also use when+ past simple.

e.g. When I left to Paris ,I had no money.

2- We use the past simple to talk about something that happened several times in the past.

e.g. When I was a child, I walked a mile to school every day.

We swam a lot while we were on holiday.

3- We use the past simple when an action happens after another in the past.

e.g. They reached the top of the mountain and spent the night there.

We can use then to say that one action happened after another one.

e.g. I finished school in 2005. Then, I went to University.

4- We use the past simple to talk about a situation that finished in the past.

e.g. I lived with my grandparents in childhood.

We use **from.....to** to say when a past situation started and finished.

e.g. I worked as a translator from 2002 to 2004.

I waited him from two to five o'clock.

We use **for** with expressions such as: ten minutes, an hour, a week, etc to say how long a past situation lasted.

e.g. I worked there for three years.

3. Present perfect or past simple

Present perfect is used to talk now about finished actions in the past when we don't know the time or it isn't important.

e.g. She has visited Paris twice.

Past simple is used to talk now about finished actions that happened at a definite time in the past

e.g. They went to cinema yesterday.

Present perfect is used to talk now about situations that started in the past and are still continuing.

e.g. I've known Martha for two years. (I still know her.)

Past simple is used to talk about situations that started and finished in the past.

e.g. I knew Martha for two years. (She moved away , and we lost touch)

Exercise 1

Give the past and past participle form of the verbs below

Infinitive	Past	Past participle
to pick		
to lend		
to cry		
to leave		

to stand		
to Shut		
to light		
to lose		
to show		
to steal		
to break		

Exercise 2

Write the appropriate form of the verb (past simple or present perfect)

1. Where you (be)? I'm looking for you.
2. I (not see) you for more than a week.
3. The bus (not arrive) yet.
4. Where you (be) at 7 pm yesterday?
5. I (know) her since 2005.
6. They (live) here for three years.
7. My friend (not go) to work yesterday.
8. My uncle John (not visit) us for years.
9. He (come) here a month ago.
10. Things (change) since I was a little boy.
11. You (see) him behaving like this before.
12. This is the most delicious dish I (eat)

Past Continuous

Objectives

Students learn the difference between past continuous and past simple.

Use correctly the two tenses in meaningful sentences.

1.Past Continuous

Form

We form the past continuous with was or were and ing form of the verb.

Positive:

I/ he/she was eating.

You/ they/we were eating.

Negative:

I/ he/she was not (wasn't) eating.

You/ they/we were not (weren't) eating.

Yes/no questions:

Was I/ he/she eating?

Were you/ they/we eating?

Short answers:

Yes, I/ he/she was eating.

Yes, you/ they/we were eating.

No, I/ he/she was not (wasn't) eating.

No, you/ they/we were not (weren't) eating

Use

1- The past continuous is used to describe an action at or around a time in the past.

e.g. At 7:00 o'clock yesterday evening , I was eating dinner.

2- The past continuous for temporary situations in the past.

e.g. Jane was living in Italy when she had her first baby.

3- The past continuous is used to describe a scene in the past especially when you are telling a story.

e.g. When we arrived to the house, the music was very high and all people inside were dancing and having good time.

4-The past continuous is used to describe something that happened before and continued after another action.

e.g. When we got home, the children were doing their homework.

5-The past continuous is used to describe something you did until an event interrupted you or stopped you.

e.g. The police stopped him when we was driving to the airport.

6- The past continuous is used to show that something continued for some time.

e.g. My head was aching.

Everyone was shouting.

7- The past continuous is used for something that happened again and again.

e.g. They were always fighting.

8- The past continuous is used with verbs which show change or growth.

e.g. The children were growing up quickly.

Her hair was going grey.

Note:

We do not normally use the past continuous with stative verbs. We use the past simple instead.

e.g. When I got home, I really needed shower. (not was needing)

2. Past continuous or past simple

Past simple is used to describe one or more finished actions in the past.

e.g. They met last week.

Past continuous is used to describe an unfinished action at or around time in the past.

e.g. When we arrived, they were playing football.

Past simple is used when one action happened after another.

e.g. They reached the top of the mountain and spent the night there.

Past continuous is used to describe something you were doing when another thing happened.

e.g. He was speaking on the phone when I met him.

Exercise

Put the appropriate form of the verb (Past simple or past continuous)

1. They (live) in Germany when they (be) young.
2. At 7 pm yesterday, we (be) to music.
3. Why you (stand) on a chair when I (enter) the class.

4. When I (leave) the house, it (snow).
5. What you (do) at 8 pm yesterday?
6. He (work) in a bank when he (meet) his wife.
7. What you (do) when I (call) yesterday.
8. Last week, we (visit) our grandmother.
9. We (play) football when John (arrive).
10. When her train (get) to the station, her friend (wait)
11. It (be) a day last October, the sun (shine) and the birds (sing). I (walk) along the street when I (meet) an old friend.
12. He (live) in France when the revolution (start).

Past Perfect

Objectives

Students learn the difference between past perfect, past simple and present perfect .

Use correctly the these tenses in meaningful sentences.

1. Past Perfect

Form

To conjugate a verb in the past perfect, we use:

Had + past participle of the verb

Positive

I/we/he/she/it/you/they had done the dishes.

Negative

I/we/he/she/it/you/they hadn't done the dishes.

Use

1. We use the past perfect to talk about a past event that occurred before another past event.

When I got home, I realized I had left my keys at the office.

2. We use the past perfect to talk about time up to a certain point in the past.

Had the police arrived when I called yesterday?

3. We use the past perfect in conditional sentences to talk about an unreal past event and its hypothetical consequence.

If you asked me, I would have picked you up.

4. We use the past perfect for regrets. We use wish and the past perfect.

I wish Jane had passed her driving test.

2. Present perfect vs. past perfect

While both the present perfect and past perfect tenses are used to refer to past actions and events, they serve different purposes:

-The present perfect is used to describe a past action that has present consequences or an action that began in the past and may continue.

-The past perfect is used to describe a past action that occurred before another action (in the past simple tense).

I have eaten at that restaurant before.

I had eaten at that restaurant many times before it closed.

3. Simple past vs. past perfect

Both the simple past tense and past perfect tense are used to describe past action or events. However, they have different functions:

-The past simple is used to indicate that an action or series of actions were completed in the past.

-The past perfect is used to indicate that an action occurred **before** another past action. Sentences that use the past perfect often have a clause in the simple past to indicate that one past action occurred before another.

We watched a movie, ate popcorn and drank cola.

Andrew had worked at the company for five years before he quit.

Exercise 1

Past simple or present perfect

1. Last year, Diana (pass) all her exams.
2. When we (arrived) at the station, the bus already (leave).
3. I (lose) my keys last night. I had to call my roommate to get in.
4. It (not rain) all the summer, so grass was completely dead.
- 5-Susan was very pleased to see that Jane (clean) the kitchen.
- 6-When he arrived, John just (leave).
- 7-We (get) home to find out that someone (steal) the TV.
- 8-I went to the library then I (buy) some eggs and (go) home.

Future Forms

Objectives

Students learn different forms of future tense

Use correctly these forms in meaningful sentences

1. Future with going to

Form

to be (am/is/are) +going to + infinitive of the verb

Positive

-I'm (am) going to watch a film in cinema next Sunday.

-He/ she/ it's (is) going to watch a film in cinema next Sunday.

-We/they/ you're (are) going to watch a film in cinema next Sunday.

Negative

-I'm not (am not) going to watch a film in cinema next Sunday.

-He/ she/ it isn't (is not) going to watch a film in cinema next Sunday.

-We/they/ you aren't (are not) going to watch a film in cinema next Sunday.

Questions

-Am I going to watch a film in cinema next Sunday?

-Is he/she/it going to watch a film in cinema next Sunday?

-Are we/they/ you going to watch a film in cinema next Sunday?

Short answers

-Yes, I am.

-Yes, he/she/it is.

-Yes, we/they/you are.

-No, I'm not.

-No, he/she/it isn't .

-No, we/they/you aren't.

Use

1- We use going to to talk about our future plans or intentions. We often use expressions such as tomorrow, next week, on Friday, etc.

-I'm going to visit my grandmother next Sunday.

-Bill isn't going to play football anymore.

2- We use going to to talk about predictions (things we expect to happen in the future because of something we know or can see now).

-I'm going to be late for work. (because I'm in traffic jam now)

Questions

-I think it is going to rain. (I can see the sky full of black clouds now)

2. Future with will

Form

Positive

-I/he/she/it/they/you/we will ('ll) come.

Negative

-I/he/she/it/they/you/we will not (won't) come.

-Will I/he/she/it/they/you/we come?

Short answers

-Yes, I/he/she/it/they/you/we will.

-No, I/he/she/it/they/you/we won't.

Use

1- We use will when we decide to do something while we are speaking; something that we didn't plan.

-I'm tired. I'll go to bed.

2- We use will to express our beliefs about the future (things we think will happen).

-Italy will win the match.

-They will enjoy it.

We can use probably and definitely to say how sure we are.

-She will definitely pass her driving test.

-They'll probably come tomorrow.

We usually use these adverbs after will but before won't.

-I will probably travel to London.

-I definitely won't go to Paris.

3- We use will to make offers, promises and warnings.

-I'll pay for you.

-I'll come to your birthday party.

-Don't eat too much. You'll be fat.

4-We use will to talk about things we want to or be willing to.

-I hope you will come to my birthday.

-James says he will help us.

5-We often use I think (or don't think)+ will

-I think they'll win.

-I don't think I'll come to the party.

6-It is possible to use shall to mean will after I and we. But in everyday English, we use shall to offer or suggest something.

-Shall I help you?

3. Future with present simple

1-We use the present simple with a time or a date to talk about future events that are on timetable or programme.

-The bus leaves at 5 pm.

-They have a meeting tomorrow.

Note: We don't use the present simple for things we have arranged to do, we use the present continuous.

-We have dinner with them this evening. (not correct)

-We're having dinner with them this evening.

2-We use the present simple not will to talk about the future after when, as soon as, before, after and until.

-I'll blame her when I'll see her. (not correct)

-I'll blame her when I see her.

4. Future with present continuous

1-We use the present continuous to talk about things that we have arranged to do. We usually give the time, period or date.

-we are going on a picnic this weekend.

-I'm leaving tomorrow.

2- We often use the present continuous to give the reason why we can't do something in the future.

-Are you coming to the wedding party?

-No, I'm afraid. I'm working on Friday.

5. Comparing future forms

i. Possible and certain future

We use will for things we think will happen, and we use going to for things we are sure will happen.

-He will probably go to Paris.

-He is going to meet her.

ii.Plans and arrangements

We use going to for things we plan to do but have not arranged yet.

I'm going to Paris this summer. (This is my plan, but I haven't arranged it yet)

We use present continuous to talk about future things we have already arranged.

I'm leaving to Paris tomorrow.

When we ask people about their plans for near future, it is more common to use the present continuous rather than going to.

Are you doing anything tonight?

We use will for immediate decisions, not the present simple or going to.

-It is so beautiful. I'll take it. (Not I take it or I am going to take it.)

Exercise 1

Circle the correct form of the verb

1. I'll blame her when Iher.

a-see b- will see

2. - What timeyour work on Monday?

a-do you finish b-will you finish

3-The bus to Washingtonat 11:45 am.

a-will leave b-leaves

4- I am sure the babyblue eyes like her father.

a-will have b- is going to have

5- It is really hot.....the window , please?

a-will you open b-do you open

6-.....this weekend?

a-will you go out b-are you going out

7-I don't think Icome tomorrow.

a-will be able to b-am able to

Exercise 2

Put the verbs into the correct future form (will, going to, present simple or present continuous)

1-I love London. I there next year. (probably/ go)

2-What.....at the party tonight. (you/ wear)

3-I haven't made up my mind yet, but I think I.....something nice in my mum's wardrobe. (**find**)

4-Hurry up! The conferencein 20 minutes. (**begin**)

5-Look at these black clouds. It(**rain**)

6-Where are you going? Isomething for dinner. (**buy**)

7- I'm sorry. I made you so angry. I.....it again. (**not do**)

Model Verbs

Objectives

-Identify functions of model verbs

- Students be able to explain how changing the model verb can change the meaning of the sentence.

- To use model verbs accurately to convey meaning.

Model verbs indicate ability, obligation, permission and possibility such as can, must, would, may, etc.

Model verbs are different from main verbs:

-We use the infinitive without to after them.

I can swim.

They must leave now.

He should work hard.

-We don't add s after he, she and it.

He can do it.

-We don't use do/ don't to form questions and negatives.

I can't swim.

Can you speak French.

1. Can/ can't

Form

Positive

I/ you/he/she/it/they/we can swim.

Negative

I/ you/he/she/it/they/we cannot (can't) swim.

Questions

Can I/ you/he/she/it/they/we swim?

Short answers

Yes, I/ you/he/she/it/they/we can.

No, I/ you/he/she/it/they/we can't.

Use

We use can/can't:

i. To talk about an ability in the present.

They can't speak French fluently.

ii. To say if something is possible or allowed in the present.

Can I ask a question?

You can't dive in the US until you are 16.

iii. To make an arrangement.

We can meet tomorrow at 10 o'clock.

The past form of can is could. We use could/ couldn't :

i. To talk about an ability in the past.

Could my great grandmother run really fast?

ii. To say if something was possible or allowed in the past.

Women could not drive cars in the past.

The future form of can is will be able to. We use will be able to/ won't be able to:

i. To talk about an ability in the future.

I've broken my arm. I won't be able to drive for weeks.

ii. To say if something will be possible in the future.

We'll be able to swim everyday in the hotel.

2. Can, could and may

We use them for:

2.1 Asking for permission

Asking for permission:

Can I use the phone? (informal)

Could I use the phone? (formal)

May I make a suggestion? (formal)

Giving permission

Yes, you can. (informal)

Yes, of course. (informal)

Yes, sure. (informal)

Yes, you can/ may. (formal)

Yes, of course/ certainly. (formal)

Refusing permission

No, you can't. (informal)

No, I'm sorry. (informal)

No, you can't/ may not. (informal)

No, I'm afraid not. (informal)

We can use can I/ we to ask for permission to do something.

Can I borrow your pen?

If we want to be very polite or formal, we use could or may

Could I use your phone, please?

May I make a suggestion?

We only use may/ may not in written instructions or very formal situations

The students may not take cell phones into the exam?

2.2 Making a request

Making a request

Can you lend me some money? (informal)

Could you pass me the salt? (formal)

Replying

Sure, how much do you need? (informal)

No, I'm sorry I don't have enough. (informal)

Yes, of course. (formal)

Certainly (formal)

We can use can you to make a request in an informal way

Can you help me?

If we want to be more polite, we use could

Could you send me the photos, please?

We use please with can/could to ask for something or make a request in a polite way

Could you close the door , please?

3. have to / need to

Form

Positive:

I/ we/ you / they have to/ need to leave.

She/he/ it has to/ needs to leave.

Negative:

I/ we/ you / they don't have to/ don't need to leave.

She/he/ it doesn't have to/ doesn't need to leave.

Questions

Do I/ we/ you/ they have to/ need to leave?

Does she/he/ it have to/need to leave?

Short answers

Yes, I/ we/ you/ they do.

Yes, she/he/ it does.

No, I/ we/ you/ they don't.

No, she/he/ it doesn't.

Use

We use have to :

i. When it is important to do something because there is a law or a rule.

You have to be at the hotel before 10 O'clock at night.

ii. When it is necessary to do something; we cannot choose not to do it.

I have to get up early tomorrow. The exam starts at 8 o'clock.

We use need to:

i. When we think something is necessary or a good idea.

I need to earn some more money.

ii. When something is necessary for our body or health.

You need to drink at least 2L of water everyday.

In everyday English, we often use the short form have got to ('ve/ 's got to). It means the same as have got to.

I've got to get up early tomorrow. The exam starts at 8:00 am

We use don't have to/ don't need to when it is not necessary to do something.

You don't have to/ don't need to call them.

It is possible to use needn't for don't need to. We use it with the infinitive without to

You needn't pay. I have enough money.

3. Must/ mustn't

We use must when we think it is important to do something. It is our opinion not a rule or a law.

We must leave now.

We also use must in formal instructions, signs and notices. It means "do this"

Passengers must put seat belts.

It is possible to ask questions with must, but it is more common to use have to

Must you leave so soon?

Do you have to leave so soon?

The negative form of must is must not /mustn't)

4. Should / ought to

We use should and ought to say that we think it is good idea to do something.

You should brush your teeth more often..

You ought to find out why that happened.

We can ask for advice with should.

Should I stay here or go with them?

We use shouldn't to say that we think it is bad idea or dangerous to do something

You shouldn't eat so much sweets.

We don't use to after should/ shouldn't.

5. Might (not) / may (not)

We use might (not) when we think something is true or will be true but we are not sure.

They might be there now.

In more formal English , we can use may (not) when we are not sure about something.

They may visit us tomorrow.

6. Must be / can't be

If we are almost certain that something is true, we use must be.

They spent the whole night working, they must be tired.

If we are almost certain that something is not true, we use can't be

The baby has just had his bottle of milk, he can't be hungry.

7. Had to

We use had to talk about things that were necessary in the past.

In 2020, we had to wear a mask outside the house.

We use didn't have to talk about something that was not necessary in the past.

Before corona virus, we didn't have to wear a mask outside the house.

8. Will have to/ won't have to

Will/ won't have to is the future form of both have to and must

She will have to stop smoking.

We use will/won't have to to talk about things that are necessary or not necessary in the future.

Exercise

Choose the appropriate modal verb

1. This is a hospital. Younot smoke here.

a-mustn't b- needn't c-don't have to

2-Take an umbrella. Itrain later.

a-should b-might c- need

3-You.....leave your door unlocked when you go out.

a-mustn't b-couldn't c-might

4-Mum says wewatch TV after we have finished our homework.

a-need to b-can c-should

5-Youpark here.

a-can't b-won't

6-.....I have a coffee, please?

a-could b-should c-must

7-Iplay football tomorrow.

a-wouldn't b-won't

8-Youdo more exercises.

a-would b-should c- can

9- This is impossible. Itbe a mistake.

a-can b-could c-must

10-He be tired after such a hard work. Hetake a rest.

a-should b- could c-must

Passive Forms

Objectives

- Students be able to distinguish between active and passive voice in sentences.
- Understand why active or passive voice is appropriate to use in certain contexts.
- Create sentences in active and passive voice.

1. Use

We usually use active form when we are interested in the person who does the action.

Lucy broke the window.

We use passive form:

1. When we are more interested in the action than the person who did it.

The museum was built in 1906.

2. When we don't know the person who did the action.

John's camera was stolen.

3. When the action is a law or a rule.

Smoking is not allowed here.

Note:

We can use passive+ by

The car was driven by Jane.

We don't make passives from verbs that don't have an object such as to come, to arrive, to happen, etc.

I grew up in a small village. (**correct**)

I was grown up in a small village. (**not correct**)

2. Forms

2.1 Present Simple

We make the passive of the present simple with **is/are + past participle of the verb**. The object in the active sentence becomes the subject in the passive sentence.

Jane opens the door.

The door is opened.

We don't allow children in this restaurant.

Children aren't allowed in this restaurant.

Does anyone ever clean this house?

Is this house ever cleaned?

2.2 Past Simple

We make the past simple in passive form with **was/were+ past participle of the verb**.

Susan cleaned the room.

The room was cleaned.

She didn't wash the windows.

The windows weren't washed.

When did they discover it?

When was it discovered?

2.3 Present Perfect

We make the passive of the present perfect with **has/ have + been+ past part of the verb.**

Scientists have discovered a new planet.

A new planet have been discovered.

He hasn't fixed the TV yet.

The TV hasn't been fixed yet.

Have they emptied the house?

Has the house been emptied?

2.7 Model Verbs

We make the passive form of model verbs with **the model verb+ be+ past participle.**

She will clean the house tomorrow.

The house will be cleaned tomorrow.

Exercise

Rewrite the sentences below in passive form

1. He published his book last summer.
2. They stole the keys.
3. He is listening to music.
4. She drives the car so fast.
5. Jane was preparing dinner.
6. He has broken his leg.

7. No one likes him.
8. He bought her a nice car.
9. She wears a pink dress.
10. All students attended the lecture.
11. You should do more exercises.
12. She can do the job.

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