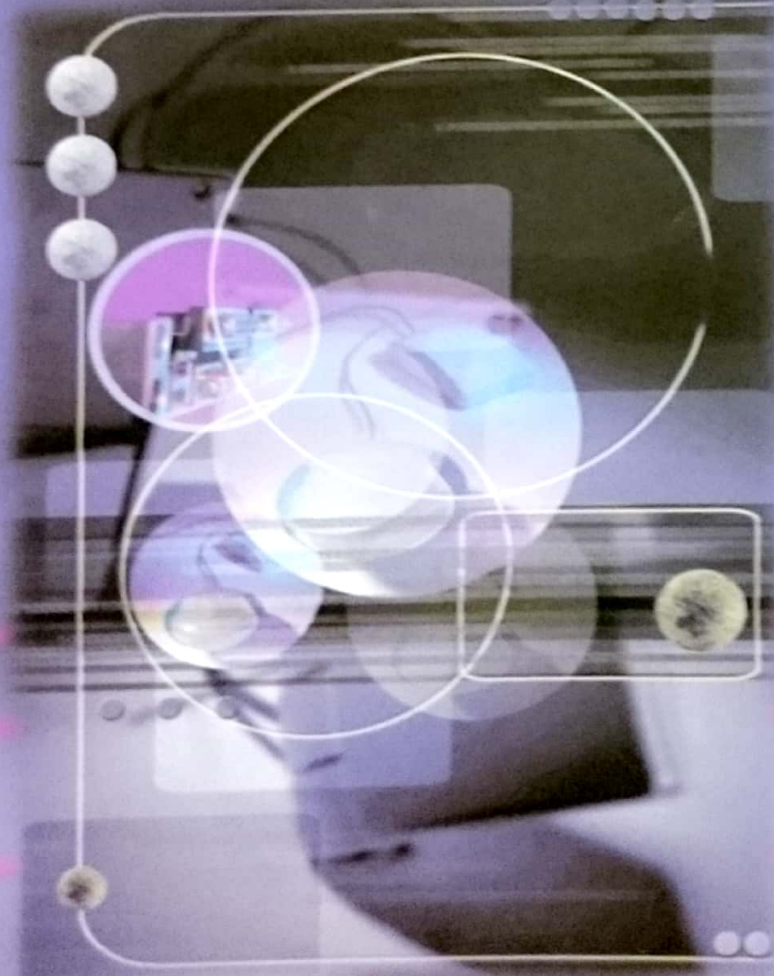


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GRAMMAR BASICS BOOK 1



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Introduction

The purpose behind the making of the book *Grammar Basics* for the Open University students at Damascus University is to provide learners with basic knowledge of the workings of English grammar. The approach adopted in producing this book aimed at simplifying and clearly explaining the fundamental issues of English grammar without overburdening the learner with extra details. Thus, *Grammar Basics* is a compact account which utilizes simple and direct explanations that describe all the main terms and concepts necessary for understanding English grammar.

Since this book is initially designed for self-study, an extra effort has been made to supply the learner with ample examples illustrating each grammatical point that has been mentioned. At times, further explanation of the examples given has been provided to ensure that the learner understands the point under consideration.

The examples that have been used in this book, as in any other, undoubtedly carry a lot of cultural elements in them. For this purpose, we made it a point to use both Arab and foreign names of people and places. It is believed that in the age of globalization, the learner needs to be exposed to a diversity of cultures.

The wealth of exercises presented at the end of each chapter together with the answer key provide the learner with ample opportunities for testing oneself and ensuring that the point under consideration has been assimilated.

Although the learner can start with any chapter in the book, for maximum benefit, it is advisable that this book is read in the order presented.

Chapter one presents a thorough definition of all the basic terms that are necessary for understanding English grammar.

Chapter two moves a step forward to show learners how words in English come together in certain specific patterns to form grammatically acceptable sentences that are meaningful.

Chapter three concentrates on the tenses in English since they are equally important in giving meaning to sentences.

How to express different meanings through the use of modal verbs is the main concern of chapter four.

Chapter five moves on to show learners the differences between the active and passive sentences.

Finally, chapter six takes the learner beyond the single sentence and illustrates how more than one sentence can come together to express more detailed and complex ideas.

This is the first attempt to produce a Grammar Basics book for the Open University in Syria, and we have tried our best to do it well. As a first attempt, however, it is perhaps inevitable that we encountered some pitfalls that have escaped our attention. We would truly appreciate it if the readers could communicate with us personally, by letter or e-mail regarding any comment relevant to improving this attempt. We can be contacted at the following address:

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It only remains for us to acknowledge the brave decision taken by the educational authorities to initiate this 'local' authoring of our own books, from our cultural point of view, for our students at the Open University in Damascus, and present our gratitude to all those involved in this decision directly or indirectly. We would also like to acknowledge with gratitude the immense help of Miss Hanan Almaghout for reading earlier drafts of this book and for the many valuable comments and suggestions that she offered.

We hope that we have managed to present a worthwhile effort that satisfies the needs of our learners. We must, clearly, accept that all mistakes, misprints and/or faults that remain in the book are exclusively ours.

August 31, 2002

Dr Hala Dalbani
Dr T S Toumajian

Chapter One

Word Classes and Elements of Sentence Structure

Contents of this chapter:

1.1 English Word Classes/Parts of Speech

1.2. The Elements of Sentence Structure

1.3. Defining types of word classes in English:

1.3.1. Nouns

1.3.2. Pronouns

1.3.3. Verbs

1.3.4. Adjectives

1.3.5. Adverbs

1.3.6. Determiners

1.3.7. Prepositions

1.3.8. Conjunctions

1.4. Defining the elements of sentence structure in the English sentence:

1.4.1. Subject

1.4.2. Object

1.4.3. Adverbial

1.4.4. Complement

1.4.5. Verb

1.5. Defining Clauses and phrases in English

1.6. Exercises

1.1. Word Classes

Look at the different kinds of words in this sentence:

She <i>pronoun</i>	has <i>verb</i>	an <i>determiner</i>	important <i>adjective</i>	meeting <i>noun</i>
at <i>preposition</i>	work <i>noun</i>	tomorrow, <i>adverb</i>	so <i>linking word</i>	she <i>pronoun</i>
is <i>verb</i>	rather <i>adverb</i>	busy. <i>adjective</i>		

Each word in the sentence above belongs to a particular set or class, depending on how it is used. **There are eight different kinds of words in English.** They are called **'word classes'** or **'parts of speech'** and they are:

1. **Noun:** classroom, work, tea, party, Friday, boy, friends, park
2. **Pronoun:** I, it, you, they, he, we
3. **Verb:** have, is, am, like, come, are, sitting, do, would, look
4. **Adjective:** important, lazy, clever, good, cheap
5. **Adverb:** yesterday, rather, really, here
6. **Determiner:** an, the, a, our, this
7. **Prepositions:** at, to, on, in, with, for
8. **Conjunction/linking word:** so, and, but, however, nevertheless

Many words can act as more than one part of speech. It is not unusual for an English word to be a noun in one sentence and a verb in another sentence. i.e. some words can belong to different classes depending on how they are used in a sentence:

He **works** on Friday. ('works' here is used as **verb**)

He'll be at **work** on Friday afternoon. ('work' here is used as **noun**)

Jamal scored several **runs**. ('runs' here is used as **noun**)

He **runs** half a mile each morning. ('runs' here is used as **verb**)

I am in the **play** which is on in the village. ('play' here is used as **noun**)

Chris and John **play** tennis together on Fridays. ('play' here is used as **verb**)

1.2. Elements of Sentence Structure

Study the following examples of English sentences:

The **middle line** is the actual sentence.

The **top line** indicates the word class of each word in the sentence.

The **bottom line** indicates the function of each element of the sentence.

<i>noun</i>	<i>verb</i>	← word class
1. Something	happened.	
subject	verb	← the function of element of the sentences

<i>pronoun</i>	<i>verb</i>	<i>noun phrase</i> ¹
2. I	need	a break.
subject	verb	object

<i>noun phrase</i>	<i>verb</i>	<i>adjective</i>
3. The course	is	interesting.
subject	verb	complement

<i>noun phrase</i>	<i>verb</i>	<i>prepositional phrase</i> ²
4. Their flat	is	on the second floor.
Subject	verb	adverbial

<i>Noun</i>	<i>verb</i>	<i>noun phrase</i>	<i>noun phrase</i>
5. Laila	bought	her mother	a gift.
Subject	verb	indirect object	object

Thus, sentences consist of a number of standard parts, which are called 'word classes' or 'parts of speech' (nouns, adjectives, determiners, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and verbs). However it is important to know that a 'part of speech' in a sentence has a function, and is linked with other parts of speech to form a meaningful sentence. These functions have different labels from those of parts of speech. The most important units or elements of sentence structure are:

¹ Noun phrase = determiner + noun

² Prepositional phrase = preposition + determiner + noun

1. Subject,
2. Object,
3. Verb,
4. Adverbial,
5. Complement.

Having briefly introduced the 'word classes' that are found in English and their 'functions' in the sentence, the following part shall define each of them in detail.

1.3. Word Classes

1.3.1. Nouns

Nouns are the names we give to people, things, places, etc. in order to identify them. It can be the name of a person (Sami, Jack); a job title (doctor); the name of a thing (television); the name of a place (Homs, Manchester); the name of quality (patience); or the name of an action (laughter/laughing).

Nouns can be singular or plural in grammatical number:

Singular	plural
Book	books
Table	tables
Computer	computers
Man	men
Box	boxes

Nouns can be classified as follows:

Proper nouns (Syria, London, Indonesia), and **common nouns** (table, chair, thought).

Common nouns can be **countable** (book: books) and **uncountable** (furniture, grass).

Countable nouns can be **concrete** (book) or **abstract** (idea).

Uncountable nouns can also be **concrete** (clothing, homework) or **abstract** (courage, anger).

A Noun Phrase

When more than one word make up the noun, we call it a **noun phrase**. For example, the woman, a woman, this woman ... We can combine other words into the noun phrase, for example, The woman next door, That tall woman, The old woman in the taxi, this young girl, the pretty young girl, the pretty girl on the bus.

1.3.2. Pronouns

A **pronoun** is a word like 'he' or 'she' that can be used in the place of a noun or a whole noun phrase. In other words, a pronoun is a substitute for a noun or a noun phrase.

Susan liked Sue so she helped her. (The pronoun 'she' is a substitute for the noun 'Susan' and the pronoun 'her' is a substitute for the noun 'Sue')

The children were hungry so they had an early lunch. (The pronoun 'they' is a substitute for the noun 'children')

a) The Uses of pronouns

① We use pronouns in place of a noun or a noun phrase that has already been mentioned, when the repetition of the noun or noun phrase would be very strange.

Incorrect: Sami has to go to the university. ~~Can you give Sami a lift?~~

Correct: Sami has to go to the university. Can you give him a lift?

② We also use pronouns when we know perfectly well who or what is referred to. When, for example, I use the pronoun *I*, it is because it would be unusual to refer to myself by name.

Tomorrow, I am going to be in all day.

They have just rung to say that they are not coming. (The speaker here used the pronoun 'they' because it is obvious for his listeners who 'they' refers to)

③ We use pronouns when the name of someone or something is not known.

She was a short fat woman of about fifty in a torn raincoat.

That thing on the table. What is it for?

b) Types of Pronouns

There are eight different types of pronouns, classified according to their meaning and use.

1. Personal pronouns: They are used to refer to people and things (I, you, he, she, it, we, they) and they can be used as **subject**³ or **object**⁴ in a sentence.

He (subject) gave her (object) a bunch of red roses.

They (subject) saw them (object) during the weekend.

I (subject) can see you (object).

2. Reflexive pronouns: (myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, themselves, ourselves, yourselves) are **used in object position** when the action of a verb is performed on the subject by the subject. They are obligatory with certain verbs.

History repeats itself.

She stretched herself out flat on the sofa.

The kitten entangled itself in the woolen thread.

I have cut myself with the broken glass.

All of us shook hands and introduced ourselves.

That is the question you have to ask yourself.

Reflexive pronouns are also used for **emphasis**.

I'll prepare dinner myself.

The professor himself did not know the answer.

She herself admitted that she was responsible for the accident.

They themselves typed the report.

You yourselves are responsible for what had happened.

³ A subject is normally a noun, pronoun or noun phrase. It usually comes before the verb. The verb must 'agree' with the subject, so the subject dictates the form of the verb (I wait, he waits, I am, you are, I have, she has).

⁴ An object is normally a noun, pronoun or noun phrase. It usually goes after the verb in the sentence if the sentence is in the active voice and it refers to the person or thing affected by the action expressed by the verb. I ate lunch. Randa was reading a new novel. Jack found it.

3. **Possessive pronouns** (mine, yours, ours, hers, his, theirs) indicate ownership. It is used alone without a noun following it.

Give it back, it's mine.

Perhaps it really is theirs after all.

Is that book yours or mine?

My marks were higher than hers.

It was their fault, not ours.

The pronouns *my, your, her, his, our, and their* are called **possessive adjectives** because they are used in front of nouns. e.g. my book, our book.

4. **Demonstrative pronouns** (this, that, those, these) indicate items that are near to or far from us.

This is Lama's and that is Lamia's.

These are nice. Where did you buy them?

That looks interesting.

Those are easy questions to answer.

These are no ordinary students.

5. When a sentence consists of a main clause⁵ followed by a relative clause introduced by **who, whom, which, or that**, these words are known as **relative pronouns**. Relative pronouns do two things at the same time. Like other pronouns, they refer to somebody or something that has already been mentioned. At the same time they are **conjunctions**, because they join clauses together.

I don't know what you mean.

That student is the one who came first.

He is the boy who(m) I saw last night.

That is the woman who(m) I gave the form to.

He is the man for whom I have immense respect.

There is the house in which I was born.

There is the woman whose name I have forgotten.

⁵ A clause is a group of words consisting of a subject + finite verb (+ complement or object if necessary). e.g. She gives money to charity.

6. Interrogative pronouns (who, whose, whom, what, and which) are used to ask a question about the noun phrase they stand in for.

What would you like for breakfast?

Which is the fresh juice?

Who was at the door?

Whose book is this?

To whom is she engaged?

7. Indefinite pronouns (someone, anyone, no one, everyone, etc...) are used when you want to refer to people or things but you do not know exactly who or what they are, or their identity is not important.

I was there for over an hour before anybody came.

It seemed that she was waiting for somebody.

Everyone had a pen and a paper.

There is someone on the phone asking for you.

World trade is improving, but one can't expect miracles.

Here is a list of indefinite pronouns:

anybody	everybody	nobody	somebody
anyone	everyone	no one ⁶	someone
anything	everything	nothing	something

8. Reciprocal pronouns (each other, one another, etc...) are used to indicate that people do the same thing, feel the same way, or have the same relationship:

We help each other a lot.

You and I understand each other.

We phone each other from time to time.

The two boys were jealous of each other.

The two beasts were moving towards one another.

They did not dare to look at one another.

⁶ Note that all indefinite pronouns are written as one word except 'no one'.

1.3.3. Verbs

Verbs are words that allow us to talk about such things as activities, processes, states of being, and states of mind.

This box holds quite a lot.

Joumana was reading Rana's essay.

John is preparing his lunch.

Hannan feels much happier now.

Mary forgot to do her homework.

Sami owned several old coins.

A Verb Phrase

A verb phrase may contain a single verb, for example: he walks, or a combination of verbs, for example: he had walked, he has been walking, he might have been walking, he is walking, he can walk.

Verbs divide into two major groups according to the way they are used in a clause. The first group is that of 'main verbs'. The second group is that known as auxiliary or helping verbs. A main verb is sometimes called a 'doing word'. Auxiliary verbs combine with main verbs to form different tenses such as the progressive and the perfect tenses.

Main Verbs And Auxiliary Verbs

Main verbs

These are the verbs that we use to indicate actions and states. Most of the verbs in English are main verbs. They are also called lexical verbs. Main verbs are divided or classified in several ways:

a) Action Versus Stative Verbs

1. Some verbs are used to talk about states of being or states of mind.

These include:

i) Verbs of the senses, e.g. *feel, hear, see, smell, taste*

ii) Verbs of emotion, e.g. *adore, fear, hate, like, love, want, wish*

iii) Verbs of mental activity, e.g. *agree, believe, expect, forget, mean*

iv) Verbs of possession, e.g. *belong, own, possess*

This book **belongs** to John.
I **detest** his way of dealing with others.
Laila **likes** to stay in at home alone.
I **feel** happy to hear such good news.
I **hate** quarrels.
The food **smells** nice.
Randa **wishes** she had studied harder.
We **mean** you no harm.
That house **belonged** to my parents once.

Verbs of State are not usually used in progressive tenses. When they are used in progressive tenses, they change their meaning. For more on verbs that are not used in the progressive or continuous tense see appendix 2.

The doctor **is feeling** Peter's leg to see if the bone is broken.
(The doctor is examining Peter's leg to see if it is broken)

Mary **is expecting** her first child. (Mary is pregnant with her first baby)

2. Verbs that are used to refer or describe **actions**. These verbs can occur in all tenses:

They **were crossing** the road.

They **drove** for five hours before they reached London.

He **is running** to catch the bus.

Maria **has just bought** a new personal computer.

The play **was broadcast** on radio late at night.

b) **Regular Versus Irregular Verbs**

Verbs in English can also be classified into **regular** and **irregular** verbs according to the spelling of their forms.

Regular: play, plays, playing, played.

Irregular: sing, sings, singing, sang, sung.

Irregular: do, does, doing, did, done.

For a list of some of the **irregular verbs** in English, see appendix 1.

For more on the **spelling endings** of words in English see appendix 4.

c) Transitive Versus Intransitive Verbs

Verbs in English can also be classified according to whether or not they are followed by an object. That is, whether they are **transitive** (a verb that is always followed by an object) or **intransitive** (a verb that is not followed by an object).

I **slept** at my grandparents'. (Verb without object: intransitive)

We both **read** *the same chapter*. (Verb + indirect object + direct object: transitive)

Don't **tell** *her* our secret. (Verb + object: transitive)

We both **sat down** at the same time. (Verb without object: intransitive)

Sue found a **golden necklace**. (Verb + object: transitive)

Yesterday, I **met** *my friend* in the library. (Verb + object: transitive)

There are verbs which are always transitive like *afford, blame, contain, enjoy, fix, have, let, like, make*. There are also verbs that have both transitive and intransitive uses, for example, *break, burn, close, drop, fly, move, open*.

Someone **opened** *the door*. (Verb + object: transitive)

The door **opened**. (Verb without object: intransitive)

Auxiliary Verbs

These verbs are used in combination with main verbs in order to allow us to talk about different times or periods of time, different degrees of completion, and different amounts of certainty or doubt. Auxiliary verbs may be divided into two types **primary** and **modal** auxiliary verbs. The **primary** auxiliaries help express time, and the **modal** auxiliaries help express the attitudes of the speaker like certainty, doubt, etc.

Primary auxiliary verbs:

A **primary auxiliary** verb is used together with a main verb in order to expand the range of different meanings that the main verb is capable of expressing, especially those about time and continuity. The primary auxiliary verbs in English are: *be, have* and *do*. The verbs *be* and *have* are used to construct compound tenses and the verb *do* is used to construct questions, negative, and emphatic statements.

The Auxiliary Verb *be*

Uses:

1) The auxiliary verb 'be' is used to help form the **Present and Past Progressive** tenses.

Present progressive

Randa is working on the computer.

Past progressive

Last night, we were all playing chess.

2) The auxiliary verb 'be' is used to help form the **passive voice**.

Present

Sana is liked by all her friends.

Past

The thief was sent to prison.

The Auxiliary Verb *have*

Uses:

1) The auxiliary verb 'have' is used to make **Present and Past Perfect** tenses.

Present perfect

The technician has finished fixing the television.

Past perfect

Amanda had already slept when we arrived.

The Auxiliary Verb *do*

Uses:

The auxiliary verb 'do' is slightly different in use from the primary auxiliary verbs **be** and **have**. It is sometimes called the **supporting auxiliary** because it is used in forming **negatives, questions, and emphatic statements** in clauses which have simple verbs.

I do not like sweets. (A negative statement)

Do you like sweets? (A question)

I do like sweets. I love them. (An emphatic statement)

Some characteristics of auxiliary verbs

The auxiliary verb, or if there is more than one of them, the first auxiliary verb, performs these grammatical functions:

i) It shows tense and is therefore the finite⁷ part of the verb phrase.

I have been to Jordan. (Present perfect)

I had been to Jordan. (Past perfect)

Note that it is the first auxiliary (which happens to be the auxiliary verb 'have' in this example) that changes with the change in tense.

ii) It shows number and person agreement with the subject.

I have been to Jordan. They had been to Jordan.

I am looking for my book You are looking for your book.

iii) It will take any negative immediately after it.

He has not been thinking about it.

iv) It can come before the subject to make a question.

Have you got the right time?

There are other functions of auxiliary verbs. These include the following:

a) Auxiliary verbs are used to form tag questions.

You are only joking, aren't you?

She arrived late, didn't she?

b) Auxiliary verbs are used to make a short addition (positive or negative) to a statement.

I told you I'll do it and I did. (Positive addition)

⁷ A finite verb is a verb that has a subject and tense. He writes, she wrote, and he has written, but written by itself is not finite.

A: I don't have any money.

B: And neither have I. (negative addition)

c) Auxiliary verbs are also used to give emphasis.

A: I do like learning Arabic.

B: So do I.

d) Auxiliary verbs are also used in short responses.

A: Do you like courgettes?

B: Yes I do.

Contracted Forms of auxiliaries

Auxiliaries are very often used in contracted forms. In the case of *be* and *have*, the contracted form can involve linking the subject and the auxiliary verb into a single form, e.g. *I'm (I am)*, *I've (I have)*, *we'd (we had, we would)*, *she's (she has or she is)*.

They're (are) back!

I've (have) finished my work.

They'd (had) gone when we got there.

Samia's (is) here.

The contracted negative form, auxiliary + *n't*, is common with all the auxiliaries except *am*, e.g. *hasn't*, *wouldn't*, *don't*.

She isn't (is not) crying.

We don't (do not) live there.

He hasn't (has not) been there.

I can't (cannot) go with you.

In British English, the contracted form of *am I not*, when it is part of a question, is *aren't I*.

Aren't I going to be allowed to go too?

I'm getting a lift with you, aren't I?

Contracted forms are more informal than full forms. They are therefore more common in spoken English. Full forms are usually preferred in formal written English.

Modal Auxiliary Verbs

Will, would, may, might, shall, should, can, could, must, ought to are all modal auxiliary verbs, usually called simply, modal verbs or modals. A modal verb allows us to talk about the future as a fact or to talk about future actions as possible, doubtful, or necessary. We may use modals to ask for permission to do something; grant permission to someone; give or receive advice; make or respond to requests and offers, etc.

Peter **may** leave on Friday. (Expressing possibility)

Peter **can** leave on Friday. (Expressing ability)

Peter **must** leave on Friday. (Expressing obligation)

A number of Auxiliaries can be combined together in a single verb phrase. For example, a verb phrase may consist of a modal + a form of *have* + a form of *be* + a form of a main verb.

I could have been making a terrible mistake by trusting Samia.

You must have been given the wrong address.

1.3.4. Adjectives

An adjective (kind, shy, cold, angry, wonderful, bad, unusual, mad) gives further information about a noun and makes the meaning more specific. i.e. it describes or qualifies the person, thing etc. which the noun refers to.

If you use the noun '*cat*' it can mean any animal of that species. As soon as you say '*Siamese cat*' or '*Persian cat*' you have given a more specific description; it belongs to this special class of cats. If you say '*a large, brown cat*' you have given two of its attributes, colour and size, and these qualities might help us select that cat from a lot of others. A noun is said to be modified by its adjectives.

Adjectives have two main features:

i) Adjectives can go before a noun; this is termed their **attributive use**.

A young man

The blue sky

This green grass

Four talkative young girls

ii) Adjectives can also go after a link verb such as *be*; this is termed their predicative use.

He seems young.

The grass is green.

The girl grew tall.

These books are interesting.

Any word that can go into both of these positions is a normal adjective. When used predicatively (after a link verb), an adjective can be either a subject complement or an object complement.

When the adjective is a subject complement, it tells us more about the subject:

Lamia is a nice person.

These peaches are delicious.

When it is an object complement, it tells us more about the direct object. It relates directly to the object and is placed after it.

They painted the house white.

The children made their parents angry.

Adjective Order Before Nouns

In English, many adjectives can be used to modify or describe a single noun, however when you use more than one adjective to qualify a noun, the usual order for the adjectives is that the **qualitative adjectives** (adjectives that identify a quality that someone or something has, such as 'sad', 'pretty', 'small', 'happy', 'wise') come first. Then they are followed by **colour adjectives** which in turn are followed by **classifying adjectives** (adjectives that place something into a class such as American, Syrian, Lebanese, British, Islamic, Victorian, wooden, metallic):

... a little white wooden house.

... a pretty black lacy dress.

... a large circular pool of water.

... a beautiful pink suit.

... a nice red apple.

More specifically, the order of adjectives usually goes as follows:

First, adjectives that describe feelings, opinions or qualities

Pleasant childhood memories

A terrible boy

A nice outfit

Funny pictures

A beautiful dress

A nice day

Second, adjectives of size, age, temperature, or measurement

A young teacher

A new school

Some hot scones

Those round biscuits

A small house

The little cat

Third, adjectives of colour.

Those pale girls

Some little brown biscuits

Her beautiful blue eyes

Red boots

A brown mug

Fourth, adjectives of nationality or origin

A nice cup of Turkish coffee.

Those three black Arab stallions.

Old black Spanish boots.

Fifth, adjectives denoting substance or material

A large wooden spoon

An elegant silver teapot

Old red leather boots

Although it is possible to pile up adjectives in English, but in practice more than four is most uncommon.

A happy young blonde Syrian girl
An elegant old brown Indian wooden cupboard
Old red Spanish leather riding boots

1.3.5. Adverbials/Adjuncts

Adverbials or adjuncts are members of the group of words called adverbs, but they are not necessarily just single words (quickly, beautifully, kindly). They can also be word groups (at the party, at nine o'clock, on the table). They are sometimes called **adverb phrases** or **adverbial phrases**.

The function of an **adjunct** is to say something about the circumstances of an event or situation, for example **when** it occurs, **how** it occurs, **how much** it occurs, or **where** it occurs. It is usually an optional part of the sentence.

She ran **quickly**. (How did she run?)

She played the violin **beautifully**. (How did she play?)

She spoke **kindly** but **shyly**. (How did she speak?)

He answered me **coldly**. (How did he answer me?)

He closed the door **angrily**. (How did he close the door?)

We met them **at the party**. (Where did we meet them?)

They arrived **at nine o'clock**. (When did they arrive?)

Many adjuncts are formed from adjectives by adding **-ly**. (Beautiful/ beautifully, calm/ calmly, cheap/ cheaply, clear/ clearly, slow/ slowly, soft/ softly, terrible/ terribly, unhappy/ unhappily).

Form of adjuncts

Adjuncts may be formed from just one adverb or they can be formed of more than one adverb which are then called **adverbial phrases**. They can also be in the form of **prepositional phrases**. However, sometimes **noun phrases** and **adverbial clauses** may act as adjuncts too.

a) Adverbs and adverbial phrases:

i) Adverbial phrases usually consist of more than one adverb.

He acted **very clumsily**.

I cannot speak **too highly** of him.

He takes his studies **very seriously indeed**.

He did not play **well enough**.

ii) However, adverbs very often occur on their own.

She spoke **gently**.

He **greatly** admired his work.

The number will **probably** be higher than we expected.

b) Prepositional phrases:

Adjuncts consisting of a preposition and a noun phrase, such as 'in a book' and 'to the airport', are called **prepositional phrases**. The most basic use of prepositional phrases is to indicate position and direction.

All her notes lay **on the table**.

The voice was coming **from our house**.

c) Noun phrases:

Occasionally, **noun phrases** can also be used as adverbials.

We were having an exam **this time yesterday**.

d) Adverbial clause:

Sometimes, a group of words including a verb functions as an adverb, this is called **adverbial clause**:

I'll tidy up the dining table **when everybody finishes eating lunch**.

Laila prepared her lessons **when everybody was asleep**.

Uses of Adjuncts

1. Adjuncts generally modify the meaning of a verb.

The most common way in which adverbs or adverbials give additional information is by adding something to the meaning of a verb phrase within a clause.

We greatly admire your recent paintings.

The spider scrambled hurriedly into a corner.

Monica hummed softly as she ironed her shirt.

The fireworks exploded with a loud bang.

He ran over the lawn towards the fence.

2. They may modify the meaning of an adjective.

Harry is particularly afraid of dogs.

We must admit that they can be rather annoying.

That is quite silly.

Fears like that are very real to the sufferer.

I am extremely happy.

He is a rather tall man.

Her dress was fairly nice.

This cake is quite nice.

It is a very hot day.

3. They may modify the meaning of another adverb.

I am quite seriously annoyed with you.

He is behaving remarkably stupidly.

They objected very strongly to their parents' decision.

4. They may modify the meaning of a whole sentence.

Adverbs can be used to introduce a sentence, so they add meaning to a whole clause, for example, by giving the writer or speaker's comment on it.

Certainly, the harm has been done.

Frankly, I think he is lying. Nevertheless, we must give him a chance.

Honestly, I didn't mean to be rude to you. **However**, I know that it sounded as if I did.

Honestly, I can't help it.

5. They may modify the meaning of a prepositional phrase.

Their house is really in an awful mess.

Most adjuncts are optional parts of a clause or phrase, but there are a few verbs that need an adverb to complete their meaning. For example, conditional sentences must have an adverbial clause, usually one beginning with *if* or *unless*.

Types of Adjuncts

Adverbials may be divided into the following types:

1) Adverbials of manner, which express *how*: e.g. *slowly, with care, well*.

The two men were walking slowly up the mountain yesterday.

2) Adverbials of place, which express *where*: e.g. *there, here, up, in town*.

The two men were walking slowly up the mountain yesterday.

3) Adverbials of time, which express *when*: e.g. *now, today, last night, lately*.

The two men were walking slowly up the mountains yesterday.

Professor Ahmad will visit Aleppo University next week.

Next week, Professor Ahmad will visit Aleppo University.

4) Adverbials of degree, which express *to what extent*: e.g. *largely, extremely, much*.

It was largely my own fault.

The journey was extremely tiring.

5) Adverbials of frequency, which express *how often*: e.g. *rarely, often, sometimes, twice daily*.

There is a train to Aleppo **every hour**.

Position of adjuncts

The position of adjuncts within clauses is flexible, allowing many changes of emphasis and focus. Adjuncts are normally placed at the end of the clause after the verb group, or after an object or complement if there is one.

He packed **slowly**.

We were talking **for hours**.

I enjoyed the course **tremendously**.

You can emphasize the adjunct by placing it at the beginning of the clause, in front of the subject.

Gently, she leaned forward and wiped the child's tears away.

Some adverbs typically occur in the middle of a sentence, not at the beginning or end of a sentence. These adverbs, such as *always, often, probably, etc* are called "mid-sentence adverbs."

We **often** swam in the river.

He **carefully** read the paper and signed his name.

I **always** get up at 6:30.

You **probably** know the right answer.

For more details on mid-sentence adverbs see appendix 3.

If a clause has two adjuncts, and one is an adverb and the other is a prepositional phrase, you can usually place either of them first.

The teacher shouted at the student **savagely**.

or the teacher shouted **savagely** at the student.

He got into his car **quickly**.

or he got **quickly** into his car.

However, if the prepositional phrase is rather long, it is more common to place the adverb first, immediately after the verb.

The boss listened *carefully* to the report of his employees.

In clauses with more than one adjunct, the meaning of the adjuncts can also affect their order. The usual order is adjunct of manner, then adjunct of place, then adjunct of time.

I tried to reach you at work several times.

John was imprisoned in London in 1985.

Her daughter eats badly at her grandparents'.

1.3.6. Determiners

Determiners are words we use in front of common nouns (or an adjective + common noun). We call them determiners because they affect, identify or determine the meaning of the noun. Determiners make it clear, for example which particular thing(s) we are referring to or how much of a substance we are talking about. It's a basic rule in English that a singular countable noun must have a determiner in front of it. Determiners can be divided into two classes:

1) Words that classify or identify, like *a/an, the, this/that/these/those* and *my, your, their, our, his, her, its*:

I bought a new dress yesterday.

The dress I am wearing is new.

I bought this dress yesterday.

Do you like my new dress?

Is this your dress?

2) Words that indicate quantity like numbers and quantifiers (*some, many, any, another, other, all, both, either, each, every, little, much, more, few, less, etc.*)

I bought two dresses yesterday.

There were many dresses in the shop.

There is some evidence that the medicine works.
You can stop any time you like.
Could I have another cup of tea?
Most people enjoy going to the theatre.
There are several reasons behind this problem.
Each exam question has five answers to choose from.

1.3.7. Prepositions

A preposition is one of a small group of words that can be used with nouns and verbs. Prepositions give information about position or movement. There are simple prepositions that consist of one word such as *in, on, under* and there are complex prepositions that consist of more than one word such as *in spite of, on top of, together with, due to*.

on the bridge
in the morning
over the rooftops
near the gates

When a preposition is used in front of a noun, the two together do the work of an adverb.

He is coming in the morning.
I found him near the gates.

In English, prepositions also combine with some verbs to make new meanings from the combination. These are one type of what is known in English as **phrasal verbs** or **multi-word verbs**.

I believe in God.
She went through some bad times in her life.

1.3.8. Conjunctions

A conjunction joins two or more words or clauses to each other. Conjunctions are sometimes called 'joining words' like *'and', 'but', 'as soon as', 'since', 'when', 'until'* etc. Conjunctions fall into two classes:

1) **Coordinating conjunctions** which are used to form compound sentences⁸ consisting of two or more co-ordinate clauses:

I parked my car in the car park (main clause) and walked to the station (main clause).

She turned (main clause) and left the room (main clause).

2) **Subordinating conjunctions** which are used to introduce subordinate or dependent clauses in complex sentences⁹:

The alarm was raised (main clause) as soon as the fire was discovered (subordinate clause).

If he had studied harder (subordinate clause), he would have passed (main clause).

The clause that starts with the subordinating conjunction is the subordinate clause.

Words like *after, before, as, since, till* and *until* can function as prepositions (when followed by an object) and conjunctions (when followed by a clause):

I have not seen him **since this morning**. (Since here is a preposition)

I have not seen him **since he left** this morning. (Since here is a conjunction)

1.4. Sentence elements

1.4.1. The Subject

A **subject** is normally a noun, pronoun or noun phrase. The verb must 'agree' with the subject, so the subject dictates the form of the verb (I wait, he waits, I am, you are, I have, she has). This agreement between subject and verb is often called **concord**.

⁸ A compound sentence is a sentence that is formed by joining together a number of main (independent) clauses that are of equal importance and give information of equal value.

⁹ A complex sentence is a sentence that consists of a main (independent) clause plus one or more subordinate (dependent) clauses.

Normally, in an English sentence, the subject comes before the verb phrase.

The girls had been revising.

The new student arrived late.

They had finished their work on time.

1.4.2. The Object

The object is normally a noun, noun phrase or a pronoun.

Jack found it.

I ate lunch.

Randa was reading a new novel.

However, not all verbs need an object.

The baby slept.

They relaxed by the seaside.

Normally, the object, when there is one, comes after the verb phrase in the active and can become the subject of the verb in the passive. Only a transitive verb can have an object or can be used in the passive:

Active: **They drove him (object) away in a police car.**

Passive: **He (subject) was driven away in a police car.**

Some verbs may also need an indirect object.

The daughter bought *her mother* a gift.

Hani gave *me* a party invitation.

Ruth gave *Jill* a nice bunch of flowers.

Direct and Indirect Objects

The object of a sentence (if there is one) normally comes after the verb phrase. Whether there is an object or not depends on the meaning of the verb. For example, if you want to talk about what someone is doing, you might say '*He is reading*' but if you want to talk about what his activity is directed towards, you might say, '*He is reading a book*'.

He was reading. (Intransitive)
He was reading a book. (Transitive)

She was eating. (Intransitive)
She was eating lunch. (Transitive)

An object that follows a verb in this manner is called the **direct object**.

Jack found a watch.
I don't like aubergines.

Some verbs also have another sort of object, called an **indirect object**. An indirect object names the person for or to whom something is done. It is usually needed with verbs like *give*, *find*, *owe*. For example, with *give*, we need to name both the thing given and the person to whom it is given.

You owe *me* an apology. ('me' is the indirect object and 'an apology' is the direct object)

Ron gave *John* the notes. ('John' is the indirect object and 'the notes' is the direct object)

Grandma bought the children some toys. ('the children' is the indirect object and 'some toys' is the direct object)

1.4.3. The Adverbial

Refer back to section 1.3.5. on adverbials.

1.4.4. The Complement

Complements

Some verbs e.g. *be*, *become*, *seem*, do not have an object but a **complement**. The subject complement is a word or phrase that tells us more about the subject. It is linked to the subject by a verb, and the order is: **subject + verb + subject complement**

Sami (subject) is (be) **clever** (complement).

Sami (subject) is (be) **an architect** (complement).

A complement (generally an adjective, a noun, noun phrase or a pronoun or even a prepositional phrase) completes the sense of an utterance by telling us something about the subject.

They became **good friends**.

Andrew is an **engineer**.

He is **tall and handsome**.

Amal is a **nice person**.

Rania is an **experienced nurse**.

Rosemary is **herself** again.

This is for **you**.

That's **it**.

Object complements that tell us more about the direct object are less frequent. They relate directly to the object and come directly after it. Verbs that can take an object complement with their direct object include *make*, *call*, and *appoint*. The order is as follows:

Subject + verb + direct object + object complement

They appointed him the dean of the Faculty of Engineering.

1.4.5. The Verb

Refer back to section 1.3.3. on verbs.

In the following section, the two grammatical terms: **clauses** and **phrases** are defined to help learners get a better understanding of the grammatical concepts that are presented in the coming chapters.

1.5. Clauses and Phrases

Before we move on to part two to look at the English sentence as a whole, it is important to define the terms **clause** and **phrase**.

1.5.1. A Clause

A clause is a group of words consisting of a **subject + finite verb** (+complement or object if necessary).

A clause always contains a **verb** (run, think walk, believe). The following are all examples of clauses:

I live in Damascus.

... where I live.

Joumana lived in Latakia at first.

He was living in Aleppo that year.

... when he had eaten lunch.

A sentence may contain one or more clauses. Clauses can be either main or subordinate.

A main clause is the principal one in a sentence. It is also called independent because it is the one that can stand as a sentence on its own with meaning complete.

A subordinate clause is also called a dependent clause because it cannot stand on its own. It is subordinate to a main clause on which it depends for its meaning. It is usually introduced by a linking word like 'as soon as', 'when', 'if', 'because', 'that' etc.

She is watching television. (Main clause)

I can help you (main clause) if you will let me (subordinate clause).

Whenever you need to talk to someone (subordinate clause), just pop in and see (main clause) if I'm here (subordinate clause).

A sentence may contain one or more clauses and that is why we have different types of sentences in English. These types of sentences will be dealt with in detail in chapter six of this book. A sentence, however, does not always have to be a clause.

Certainly not.

Until tomorrow then.

Yes.

Why?

The above sentences are all complete units of meaning but they are clauses because they do not have a finite verb in them.

1.5.2. A Phrase

A phrase is just a group of words, which can be part of a sentence. The term is usually kept for words, which go together naturally.

A phrase may take the form of:

A noun phrase: a tube of toothpaste, a box of chocolates, my friend Sami.

A prepositional or (adverbial) phrase: over the bridge, over the hill, in spite of.

A verb phrase: will tell, will have done, would have been walking.

A question-word + infinitive: what to do, when to go

Having reviewed the basic information about the parts that make up English sentences and their grammatical functions, the next step is to look at English sentences in more detail.

1.6. Exercises

1) Word Classes

1A) What kind of word?

Read this paragraph and then say which word class each underlined word belongs to. The first two are done for you as examples.

Anas didn't go to the party with the other students. Riyadh told him they were going there, but he wanted to finish his work. Andrew isn't very sociable. He stays in his room and concentrates totally on his studies. He's an excellent student, but he doesn't have much fun.

to *preposition*

party *noun*

1 the

2 told

3 they

4 there

5 he

6 finish

7 sociable

8 in

9 and

10 totally

11 an

12 excellent

13 but

14 fun

1B) Is the underlined word a verb, a noun or an adjective? The first two are done for you as examples.

Shall we go for a walk? *noun*

Shall we walk into town? *verb*

1 Lama talks to Rula on the phone everyday.

2 Lama wanted a talk with Rula.

3 The windows aren't very clean.

4 Doesn't anyone clean the windows?

- 5 We went to a fabulous show in Cairo.
- 6 Lamia wanted to show Rula her photos.
- 7 Hiba thought Sana looked beautiful.
- 8 A strange thought came into Andrew's head.
- 9 Sana is feeling quite tired now.
- 10 Studying all night had tired Andrew out.

2) Parts of the Sentence

2A) Mona and Hisham are on holiday. They have written a postcard to Dana and Imad. Look at each underlined phrase and say what part of the sentence it is: subject, verb, object, complement or adverbial. The first one is done for you as an example.

We're having a great time *object*

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1 <u>The weather</u> is marvelous | 4 We're <u>on a farm</u> . |
| 2 We really <u>enjoy</u> camping | 5 We like <u>this place</u> . |
| 3 It's <u>great fun</u> | 6 The scenery is <u>beautiful</u> |

2B) After moving the furniture, the five friends had a rest and a cup of tea.

Look at this part of their conversation and then write the letters a) — e) in the correct place. The first one is done for you as an example.

- a) Dani: That was a difficult job.
- b) Talib: I agree.
- c) Mohammad: I'm on my deathbed.
- d) Dani: Someone should give us a medal.
- e) Hana: I've made some more tea.

Subject + verb

- 1 Subject + verb + object
- 2 Subject + verb + complement
- 3 Subject + verb + adverbial
- 4 Subject + verb + object + object

b

3) Word order

3A) Put the words in the correct order and write the statements. The first one is done for you as an example.

is / Mona / very nice *Mona is very nice.*

1 football / likes / Talib

2 an accident / Dani / had

3 moved / the furniture / we

4 a tall woman / Hana / is

5 sat / on the floor / everyone

6 gave / some help / Hisham's friends / him

4) Adverbials.

4A) These sentences are from a news report. Write down the two adverbials in each sentence. Each adverbial is a prepositional phrase or an adverb. The first one is done for you as an example.

The Minister of Health opened a new hospital *in Damascus*
In Damascus yesterday. *yesterday*

1 He also spoke _____

with several young doctors. _____

2 The Hospital was first planned in 1999. _____

3 Naturally, the government financed the project. _____

4 Fortunately, they managed to finish the project _____

in March 2002. _____

5) Order of Adjectives

5A) Rewrite each description in the right order. The first one is done for you as an example.

books: old, terrible

terrible *old books*

1 city: Lebanese, beautiful, little

2 centre: sport, local

3 soup: excellent, hot

4 buildings: modern, industrial

- 5 dress: evening, red, silk
- 6 eyes: narrow, green
- 7 frame: flat, gold
- 8 furniture: old, lovely
- 9 ink: drawing, Chinese
- 10 jacket: short, leather
- 11 squares: brick, little
- 12 lace: Swiss, beautiful
- 13 tie: blue, woollen
- 14 trousers: cotton, gray
- 15 trunks: black, nylon, swimming

6) Order of adverbs

6A) Put the adverbs in the right places?

- 1 You are here when something happens. (*usually*)
- 2 Her mum cooks a meal in the evening. (*always*)
- 3 We book that April holiday in January. (*usually*)
- 4 They think that we have got bread. (*probably*)
- 5 You should look where you're going. (*always*)
- 6 She is going to stay overnight. (*probably*)
- 7 Chocolate cakes are the best. (*definitely*)
- 8 I will be able to get it cheaper. (*probably*)
- 9 I have had an illness in my life. (*never*)
- 10 We saw sweets in those days. (*never*)
- 11 I remember buying some. (*definitely*)
- 12 Do you read upside down? (*usually*)
- 13 I can manage to get there. (*usually*)
- 14 She has done that before. (*never*)
- 15 Something is burning. (*definitely*)
- 16 She has been nervous. (*always*)
- 17 I feel cold in your house. (*never*)
- 18 They were against me. (*always*)
- 19 We are going to win. (*definitely*)
- 20 February is the worst. (*usually*)
- 21 It is very difficult. (*sometimes*)
- 22 I buy them in boxes. (*always*)
- 23 I have tried to find it. (*often*)
- 24 They are fighting. (*always*)
- 25 She saw this dream. (*often*)
- 26 You are right. (*probably*)

6B) Put the words in brackets into the sentences (not before the verb).

- 1 I work at night. (*best*)
- 2 I paid the bill. (*at once*)
- 3 He always moves very slowly. (*in the morning*)
- 4 She speaks Italian. (*fluently*)
- 5 I think we'd better open the parcel. (*now*)
- 6 She was crying in her room. (*quietly*)
- 7 We talked about it briefly. (*at lunchtime*)
- 8 I'm going to break the eggs into the bowl. (*carefully*)
- 9 Ahmad works at the local shop. (*on Fridays*)
- 10 I can't explain my feelings. (*clearly*)
- 11 The team played yesterday. (*brilliantly*)
- 12 I always worked at school. (*very hard*)
- 13 She practises the piano here. (*every evening*)
- 14 I don't think she plays tennis. (*very well*)
- 15 He read every word. (*slowly*)
- 16 Put the yogurt in the fridge. (*at once*)

7) Non-Progressive Verbs

7A) These verbs aren't normally used in progressive forms. Use some or all of them to complete the sentences. More than one answer may be possible.

Believe belong contain forget hate like love matter need
own prefer realize remember suppose understand want

1. This book _____ to me.
2. I _____ you're right.
3. Do you _____ this music?
4. His father _____ a chain of hotels.
5. She says she _____ to see Fred.
6. I _____ a drink of water.
7. you don't _____ me.
8. I _____ how old she is.
9. She _____ her.
10. Money doesn't _____ to me.
11. 'Coke?' 'I _____ water.'
12. I _____ his face, but not his name.
13. That bottle _____ vinegar.

7B) Action Versus Stative (Non-Action) Verbs. Read this journal entry. There are eight mistakes in the use of action and non-action verbs. Find and correct them. The first mistake is already corrected.

May 7th

Not a good day! I feel kind of depressed and ~~I am having~~ have a headache. I am needing to do something right away to change my mood and get rid of the pain. Last week, I read an article about how smells can affect mood and even health, so right now I smell an orange (for the depression) and a green apple (for the headache). They smell nice, but I am not thinking that I notice a difference in how I feel! I think I'm preferring to eat something when I feel down. But I worry that I am weighing too much. So, at the moment I have a cup of peppermint tea with lemon. The article says that the peppermint smell helps you eat less. Well, I don't know about that! A chocolate ice cream sounds pretty good right about now! It's seeming that there are no easy solutions.

Chapter Two

Word Order in English Sentences

Contents of this chapter:

2.1. Inflection versus Word Order Languages

2.2. Mood in English:

2.2.1. The Declarative Mood

2.2.2. The Interrogative Mood

2.2.3. The Imperative Mood

2.3. Negation: word order in English negative sentences

2.4. Exercises

2.1. Inflection versus Word Order Languages.

The order of words in an English sentence is very important. There are languages, such as Arabic, that use inflection (a change in the form of words) to show how the parts of a sentence fit together. The absence of inflections in English makes it a word order language, not an inflected language. Thus, the order of words or the place that a word occupies in a sentence is essential to the meaning of a sentence and a change in this order usually results in a change of meaning:

The thief shot the police.

The police shot the thief.

Focusing

In English, most sentences have a subject, and then something that is said about the subject, which is usually the rest of the sentence. This divides the sentence into two parts: **subject** and **predicate**. The predicate comprises all the words in a sentence except the subject.

Judith (subject) [bought the dress on Saturday] (predicate).

The old building (subject) [was brought down] (predicate).

My elderly grandfather (subject) [is rather deaf] (predicate).

Most sentences put the information that they carry in this order; i.e. subject first and then predicate. This is known as **neutral word order**. When this neutral order is changed, the meaning of a sentence also changes.

The lion killed the lamb. (The lamb is dead)

The lamb killed the lion. (The lion is dead)

When we want to focus the attention of a reader or a listener on a particular word or phrase, we can use variations on neutral word order, such as putting the subject last, splitting the clause into two, or repeating some part of the sentence:

Some variations on the theme of neutral word order:

The one who paid the bill was Jalal.

All Jalal did was pay the bill.

Jalal paid the bill, didn't he?

The bill was paid by Jalal, I think.

It was on Thursday that Jalal paid the bill.

Sentences can be used to do many different things:

1) Giving information is the most common use of sentences.

He joined the department of journalism at the Open University.

2) Sometimes you use a sentence to obtain information, rather than to give it.

Where are my glasses?

Which course did you like best?

How long have you been living in the Sudan?

3) At other times you want to express an opinion, give an order, make a suggestion, or make a promise.

That's an excellent idea.

Go home, all of you.

Shall we listen to the news?

If you have any questions, I'll do my best to answer them.

Often it is the order of words which indicates which way a sentence is being used. For example, if you say, "the door is opened", the word order makes it clear that you are making a statement. If you say "is the door opened?", the word order indicates that you are asking a question. If you start with the verb, rather than the subject and you say: "open the door", it is clear that you are giving an order or instruction, rather than making a statement or asking a question.

2.2. Mood in English

These ways of distinguishing between uses of language are examples of **mood**. The main clause of every sentence is in a particular **mood**. There are three main moods in English, they are:

- a) The **declarative mood**,
- b) The **interrogative mood**,
- c) The **imperative mood**.

2.2.1. The Declarative Mood

The **declarative mood** is used to make statements. A statement is usually the expression of a fact or of an opinion, as in all the examples below. Statements can be both, positive or negative. A denial, for example, is a form of negative statement. When a clause is in this mood, the subject is placed in front of the verb. The declarative mood is sometimes called the **indicative mood**.

Our cat eats any thing.

Our cat won't just eat any thing.

The cat has already been fed.

The cat hasn't been fed yet.

The normal word order in the declarative mood can be one of the following:

1) Subject + verb phrase

Karim is working.

Tim was writing.

She stared at me in surprise.

2) Subject + verb phrase + direct object

Ronald is reading a novel.

Peter reserved several library books.

Salma prefers a vegetarian diet.

3) Subject + verb phrase + adverbial

Fadwa was eating very slowly

Laila was studying in the library.

Iris laughed happily

4) Subject + verb phrase + direct object + adverbial

Fadwa was eating her lunch very slowly

Laila had been reading a journal in the library

Certain verbs must have following objects, e.g. *see, find, prefer, take etc...*

She saw the film.

He found a CD player.

They took a holiday brochure

5) Other verbs need, or can have, both a direct and an indirect object, e.g. *give, buy, offer*. The word order can be either:

i) Subject + verb + indirect object + direct object

Kamal gave *Jamal* his pen.

Steven bought *his mother* a birthday present.

ii) Subject + verb + direct object + *to / for* + indirect object.

Kamal gave his pen *to Jamal*.

Steven bought a birthday present *for his mother*.

Another group of verbs must be followed either by an object and an adverbial expression, or an adverbial expression on its own e.g. *put, place, stand*.

Richard placed **the recorder** *on the table*. (verb followed by object + adverbial phrase)

Diana put **her notes** *in the folder*. (verb followed by object + adverbial phrase)

Michael stood *in the middle of the classroom*. (verb followed by adverbial phrase only)

6) A further type of declarative mood statement has the same basic order of subject and verb, but with a complement replacing the direct object. i.e. **subject + verb + complement**.

Elisabeth seems to have been **very unhappy** lately.

This dessert is **delicious**.

2.2.2. The Interrogative Mood

The interrogative mood is the mood usually used in questions. In clauses in this mood, the subject is often placed after the main verb or after the auxiliary verb. There are two main types of questions: those that can be answered by *yes* or *no* and they are known as **yes/no questions**, and those that have to be answered with a specific piece of information or a sentence such as *I don't know*. These are known as **WH-questions**. Each type of question has its own special word order.

Yes/No questions

Is she your only child? Yes, she is.

Are you planning to travel soon? No, I am not.

Are you interested in reading about history? Yes, I am.

When the subject does come first it will be a special question word.

WH-questions

Who won the match? Manchester United.

Which book was it? It was the book about time management.

Exceptionally, we can ask questions using the declarative mood. We do this by using a special tone of voice.

You're telling me he has a new car? I don't believe it.

It's raining again? That makes three days running.

In what follows, the two different types of questions in English will be discussed.

1) Yes/no questions:

Questions that expect the answer *yes* or *no* are called *yes/no* questions. The interrogative mood is used to form such questions and the normal sentence order for the interrogative mood is:

Modal / auxiliary verb + subject + base form of the main verb

Did you ring the school? — Yes, I did.

Was the car serviced yesterday? — No / I don't think so.

Have you seen May yet? — Yes, I have.

Were the children playing? — No, they weren't.

Have the girls been studying? — Yes, they have.

May Ahmed go too? — No, he may not.

When a sentence does not contain a modal verb or an auxiliary verb, i.e. a sentence with the main verb in the Simple Present or Simple Past tense, the question is formed by placing a form of the supporting auxiliary verb *do*, *does* or *did* before the subject and following it with the base form of the main verb. i.e. **Auxiliary do + subject + base form of the main verb**

They enjoy watching the game. *statement*

Do they enjoy watching the game? *question*

It hurts very much. *statement*

Does it hurt much? *question*

If the verb is 'be', you do not use 'do'. You simply put the verb at the beginning of the clause, followed by the subject.

Are you coming?
Is she your sister?
Was it difficult?

Yes/no questions also have a negative form. Negative yes/no questions are almost always contracted. The negative in its contracted form *n't* comes immediately before the subject.

Doesn't he like to talk about his old school?
Can't we have one too?
Don't you speak Arabic?

If the full negative form *not* is used, it comes immediately after the subject. The full form is very formal.

Does he not like to talk about his former employer?
Can one not live in peace without interruptions all day?
May a man not have peace in his own house?

2) WH-Questions

When you want to get a detailed answer, not just *yes* or *no*, you must use a WH-question, which allows for many possible answers. The words *who*, *whom*, *whose*, *what*, *which*, *when*, *where*, *why*, and *how* are used to form this sort of question. These words are referred to as WH- words.

Who(m) did you ring? — I was ringing the school.
What happened about getting the car serviced? — It's done.
When did you see May? — Last Wednesday.
Where is Peter going? — To work.
When did they arrive? — Yesterday.
Why have you stopped playing sports? — I am too busy.
Who is she? — she is a friend of mine.

2.2.3. The Imperative Mood

The **imperative mood** is the mood used to tell someone to do something. Thus most commands are in the imperative mood. In clauses in imperative mood, the subject is usually omitted and the base form of verb is used. If the subject is omitted, it is understood to be 'You'.

Commands in the imperative mood can sound rude or impatient.

You should pay the rent. (The subject is not omitted)

Shouldn't you pay the rent? (The subject is not omitted)

Pay the rent now. (The subject is omitted)

Don't play out in the garden. (The subject is omitted)

Eat it up! (The subject is omitted)

Form

The basic form of the imperative remains the same whether it is addressed to one or more people:

Come on, Mary. I am waiting.

Come on, children. You're late.

There is a special type of imperative, using **let's**, which is used when you need to include the speaker:

Let's go home.

The word order of a sentence in the imperative mood is:

Verb + object (if needed)

The negative imperative is made with **do + not** or **don't + Verb + object (if needed)**:

Don't lose your money.

Do not come back without it, do you understand.

Uses

The uses of the imperative mood are as follows:

i) To give an order:

You should tell your mother.

Stop it!

Get out.

Stay away.

ii) To give instructions:

Leave the dough for half an hour to rest.
Switch off all electric appliances before you leave the house.
Boil up a little water with some salt in it.

iii) To give advice or warnings:

Be careful!
Be sensible!
Don't forget to take your keys.
Don't drink too much coffee.

iv) To make an offer or an invitation:

Have another pizza.
Come over to our place some time.

• We can make a request (which is a type of command) sound more polite by using the interrogative mood.

Would you water the plants, please.
Would you mind shutting the window.
Could I have that book now, thank you.

• Not all imperative mood sentences are orders or commands. They can be social expressions.

Have a nice day.
Get well soon.
Have a safe journey.

There is also a **subjunctive mood**. However, it is rarely used in English now. It may be used when you want to talk about an improbable or unlike situation.

If I were rich, I would build an orphanage.

In all types of mood, word order also varies according to whether the sentence is **negative** or **positive**. Thus, it is important to look into the topic of **negation**.

2.3. Negation : Word Order in Negative Statements

Negative statements usually contain the word **not**. In such sentences, the basic word order for subject and object is the same as in positive statements.

Jamal has gone to school.

Jamal has not gone to school.

The difference is that, as well as containing **not**, negative statements must have as part of the verb phrase one of the following:

i) A primary auxiliary verb.

We had not arrived in time.

She is not reading.

He was not working.

ii) A modal auxiliary verb.

I warn you, you may not arrive in time.

The driver could not see his way clearly in the dark.

iii) A form of 'be' used as a main verb.

That is not my book.

If there is more than one primary auxiliary in the sentence, the word **not** is added right after the first one of the auxiliary verbs then the main verb follows. The word order is, therefore:

Subject + first primary auxiliary + not + main verb

She has not been herself lately.

A negative sentence may contain a modal verb and one or more primary auxiliaries as well. In this case the word order is:

Subject + modal + *not* + primary auxiliary + main verb

I may not have finished it by then.

They could not have finished their work.

They should not have been watching television.

iv) If the verb phrase does not already contain one of these verbs, then it is necessary to add the supporting auxiliary verb *do*. The Simple Present and the Simple Past tenses of main verbs insert the appropriate form of *do* and then add *not* followed by the base form of the main verb.

The word order is, therefore: **subject + *do-* auxiliary + *not* + main verb**

She does not work overtime now.

The bus service did not run during the holidays.

• The contracted form of *not*, which is *n't*, can be used after every auxiliary verb except *am*. This is the most common spoken form. The full form with *not* tends to be used more in writing.

He doesn't run.

He didn't run.

Lynn doesn't work on Sundays.

She hasn't been to work all week.

He isn't going to come after all.

Bill went swimming but *Ann didn't* go.

• Other words with a negative meaning, *never*, *barely*, *hardly*, *scarcely*, *rarely* do not change the order of words in a statement.

She doesn't buy *Vogue*. ___ *She never* buys *Vogue*.

He doesn't earn enough to live on. ___ *He barely* earns enough to live on.

I hardly think that is going to be enough.

I scarcely saw my brother last month.

2.4. Exercises

1) Questions Making

1A) Put the words in the right order and ask the question. The first one is done for you as an example.

Everyone / is / ready
Is everyone ready?

- 1 been/ have / where / you
- 2 do / postcards/ sell / you
- 3 belong/ dictionary/ does / this / to / who
- 4 are/ here / how/ long/ staying / you
- 5 is / like/ new/ office / what / your
- 6 are/ flights/ full/ of/ the / which
- 7 carnival/ does/ start/ the/ time/ what
- 8 decided/ has / holiday/ Nancy/ on / what

1B) Put in the correct question word or phrase. The first one is done for you as an example.

What did you buy? - A box of chocolates.

- 1 _____ is your chateau? It's about four hundred years old.
- 2 _____ does your team play in? Blue.
- 3 _____ bag is Maya carrying? Hanan's.
- 4 _____ money do you earn? About £450 a week.
- 5 _____ hand do you write with? My left hand.
- 6 _____ of shop do you work in? A toyshop.
- 7 _____ first stepped on the moon? Neil Armstrong, wasn't it?
- 8 _____ is your grandfather? He's much better, thank you.
- 9 _____ is it to the baker's? About two hundred metres.
- 10 _____ do you take a holiday? Twice a year.
- 11 _____ name will you give the twins? We haven't decided yet. My wife has suggested Mayan and Layan.

1C) Write the sentences correctly. The first one has been done for you as an example.

~~Would like you to go shopping?~~

Would you like to go shopping?

- 1 Do you be a student here?
- 2 How many cakes have eaten you?
- 3 Enjoyed you your walk?
- 4 Where your friends have gone?
- 5 What kind music do you like?
- 6 Does Peter plays tennis?
- 7 About what are you talking?
- 8 What has it happened?

1D) Read about each situation and write down the question. The first two are done for you as examples.

You want to know if it is snowing. *Is it snowing?*

You need to ask Zainab where she lives. *Where do you live?*

1 You would like to ask Nawal where she bought her evening dress.

2 You want to ask Susan if Lena can swim.

3 You want to ask Simon which team he supports.

4 On the phone you want to know who you are speaking to.

5 You need to know how much a vacuum cleaner costs.

6 You are asking permission to leave early.

7 You need to find out how long the journey takes.

8 You want to ask Adrian what he locked the door for.

9 You want to ask what happens next.

10 You want to suggest that you all go out together.

1E) Write the questions to which the underlined words are the answers. The first one is done for you as an example.

Christopher is going to London by train.
How is Christopher going to London?

- 1 The Smiths have got three cars.
- 2 Janet works at the bookshop.
- 3 Nada is learning French because she will need it in her job.
- 4 The film was really so romantic.
- 5 The meeting will take place next Tuesday.
- 6 Ali switched off the computer.
- 7 Mr. Johnson's mobile phone was ringing.
- 8 Nadia went to the wedding party with Maha.

Chapter Three

Tense and Aspect

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3.4. Exercises

3.1. Tense And Aspect

3.1.1. Tense

We need to be able to refer to time in sentences. When we are making a statement, we usually need to indicate whether we are referring to a situation that exists now, existed in the past, or is likely to exist in the future. The point in time that a statement relates to is usually indicated in part by the verb group used in the clause. Tense is the name given to the way verb forms help us make time reference.

Thus, a tense is a set of verb forms that indicate a particular point in time or period of time in the past, present, or future.

The set of forms belonging to a particular tense is usually obtained by the addition of inflections (-ed, -s) to the base form of the verb, or by the inclusion of primary auxiliaries (do, be, have) or modal auxiliaries (may, might, can, could, etc) in the verb group.

Play ... played (The inflection '-ed' is added to form the past tense)

Was playing ... had played ... has been playing (In these examples, the auxiliaries *be* and *have* are added to form the past progressive, the past perfect, and the present perfect progressive respectively)

Will play ... may play (The modal auxiliaries 'will' and 'may' are added to express futurity and the possibility of some future action)

Nadia hopes to study medicine at the university. (The present tense expressing futurity)

Jessica works in the Dean's office. (The present tense expressing a fact about Jessica)

Larry is working as an accountant during his vacation. (The present progressive is referring to a continuous action)

Talib opened another supermarket. (The past tense is referring to a past action)

3.1.2. Aspect

When we use a verb, we need to be able to refer to more than the time at which an event took place. We need to be able to refer to actions and states as completed or not completed. **Aspect** refers to the form of a verb that tells us, for example, whether an action is in progress or completed. In English, there are two aspects the **progressive** and the **perfect**. These are formed through the help of the **compound tenses**¹ of the verb.

Thus, the compound tenses of the verb (which are formed when we add an auxiliary to a main verb) enable us to talk about a number of things:

¹ A compound verb is when we add one or both of the auxiliary verbs *be* and *have* to a main verb. **I am writing.** **I have written my essay.** **I have been writing my essay for the past week.**

a) The continuity of an action. This is achieved through using a form of the auxiliary *be* + *-ing* (the present participle) to form the progressive aspect: present and past.

The Present Progressive = present of *be* + *-ing* participle.

Hanan is waiting until her friend Jumana comes.

I am still studying French.

James is helping out with the house chores.

The Past Progressive = past of *be* + *-ing* participle.

Marcia was watching an old film on TV when Jo called.

He was living in London all that year.

We were looking for a new flat in the same neighbourhood.

b) The completion of an action is another aspect that compound tenses enable us to talk about. This is achieved through using a form of the auxiliary *have* + a past participle, usually *-ed* to form the perfect aspect, present and past.

The Present Perfect = present of *have* + *-ed* participle.

I have studied French for four years.

James has helped out before.

Lamia has seen several CD's that she likes to buy.

He has bought some useful equipment.

The Past Perfect = past of *have* + *-ed* participle.

He had lived in Lebanon for a year before coming to Syria.

Betty had really believed what she was told.

The old man had tied up the dog to stop it wandering away.

Robert had had enough of this interference in his affairs.

c) The two aspects of the verb can also be joined so that we can talk about both, the **duration and the completion** of an action in the same verb phrase. Thus we can combine both the progressive and perfect aspects, using two auxiliary verbs and a main verb.

Present Perfect Progressive = present *of have* + past participle of *be* + *-ing* participle.

I have been studying French for four years.

James has been helping us this week.

We have been trying to finish that project since January.

Past Perfect Progressive = past *of have* + past participle of *be* + *-ing* participle.

I had been sleeping before the telephone rang.

We had been living in Lebanon for four years when we met them.

d) The **modal auxiliaries** can also be used in compound tenses to add extra meaning to the main verb of the clause.

She might be seeing her cousins on Friday.

In the old days, Larry would be sitting here every Friday.

I may have eaten something which disagreed with me.

Nadia will have bought something for our supper.

e) Other compound verb forms

Other compound verb forms are made by choosing the **passive** rather than the **active** voice in a sentence. This shall be looked into in detail in chapter five.

Compound verbs, therefore, enable us to express different meanings. They enable us to express different **aspects: continuity, completion or both**. They also enable us to show **modality** with the help of modal auxiliary verbs. Other compound verb forms are made by choosing the appropriate **voice of a sentence, active or passive**.

The rest of this chapter shall be dedicated to the discussion of all types of tenses found in English. Modality will be discussed in chapter four and voice will be the topic of chapter five.

3.2. Tenses

The following is a description of the form and uses of tenses in English.

3.2.1. The Present Time: The Simple Present and The Present Progressive

i) The Simple Present Tense: Form and Uses

Form

Statements:

I work for a private company.

He works for a private company.

Questions:

Because the Simple Present consists of one word only, the Simple Present tense of *do* is used as the supporting auxiliary when you want to ask a question,

Do I tell lies?

Does she tell lies?

Negative statements:

You use *not* with the verb *do* when you want to make a negative statement,

I do not tell lies.

She does not tell lies.

Responses for questions:

We may use *do* when we want to make a response.

Do you just work for three hours daily? — Yes, I do.

Uses

The Simple Present tense is used in the following instances:

- 1) To express our thoughts and feelings at the present moment.

I am awfully tired.

I feel dizzy.

2) In statements that indicate the speaker's general belief or feeling.

I like reading novels but my sister prefers reading magazines.

I believe that he is a very wise man.

I don't like fatty food.

They both look alike.

3) To talk about habits or things that happen regularly. (When we talk about habits, we often add adverbs such as *often, always, usually, sometimes, or never*, or adverbial phrases such as *on Fridays* or *in the winter etc...*)

Our lectures usually start at 8 a.m. and finish at 6 p.m.

I don't usually take sugar with my coffee.

What do you usually have for a snack?

They often go to the mosque on Fridays.

I wake up early every morning.

4) In statements of fact that are scientific truths or generally true.

Water boils at 100 degrees Celsius.

The earth is round.

The sun sets in the west.

5) In statements of fact that are about a permanent state.

We live in Damascus.

His father works in Saudi Arabia.

She plays the flute well.

Syria produces cotton.

6) We sometimes choose the Simple Present for dramatic narrative to tell a story or describe an action vividly.

He walks slowly to the checkout and puts his bag on the counter.

As the cashier opens the till he draws a gun...

7) We also use the **Simple Present** when we want to describe something that we have read in a book, or seen in play or a film.

The divorce rate, the writer says, is increasing due to many social problems.

In the film, he plays the center character.

8) It is also used when giving a commentary on a sports event or public function.

Becker takes the ball and passes it to Gray.

ii) The Present Progressive Tense: Form and Uses

Form

Statements:

I am working at the moment.

He is working at the moment.

Questions:

Am I working?

Is she working?

Negative statements:

I am not working at the moment.

He is not working at the moment.

Negative questions:

Aren't I working?

Am I not working?

Is she not working?

Isn't she working?

The positive contracted forms are:

'm = am,	I'm working right now.
's = is,	He's working right now.
're = are,	They're working right now.

The negative contracted forms are:

isn't = is not,	He/she/it isn't working at the moment.
Aren't = are not,	They/you/we/ aren't working at the moment.

Uses

The present progressive is used for the following:

1) To talk about things that are happening now, at the time when we are talking.

Mother's preparing lunch, I'm doing my homework, but my brother isn't doing anything.

The children aren't studying. They're playing.

We are having a meeting right now. I'll see you afterwards.

My whole body is aching.

I am feeling tense. I cannot concentrate on my work.

2) To talk about a temporary activity even if it is not happening at the time when we are talking.

She is studying Arabic Literature at Damascus University.

I'm saving to buy a new car.

She is spending the summer in Lebanon.

3) To talk about a temporary situation in contrast to a permanent situation.

I am living in Homs for the present.

My grandparents live in Lebanon but they are visiting Syria this weekend.

4) To talk about a changing state or situation.

My headache is getting better.

The daylight is slowly fading.

Big cities are changing.

Her English is improving.

The population in big cities is increasing.

Infant mortality rate is decreasing.

5) To talk about a situation that can happen at any time.

I wear my glasses when I'm watching television.

I listen to classical music when I am studying.

6) To talk about habitual actions that take place regularly, especially those, which are new or temporary.

You are smoking too many cigarettes nowadays.

You are watching too much television these days.

You are investing too much in this project.

7) We also use it to express annoyance. In this case one of the following adverbs is used with the verb: *always, forever, constantly, continually.*

She's always coming in late to the lecture and disturbing everyone.

Some main verbs are not normally used in the progressive. These are generally verbs about states rather than actions. See appendix 2 for more details on non-progressive verbs.

I am writing. *But not: ~~I am liking it.~~*

I am not writing. *But not: ~~I am not liking it.~~*

3.2.2. Past Time to Present Time: Present Perfect and Present Perfect Progressive

i) The Present Perfect Tense: Form and Use

The Present Perfect tense is used to talk about events that are relevant to the present but that happened in the past. (The word 'perfect' here means 'before' and 'present perfect' means before the present)

Form

Statements:

I have found it.

They've found it.

He has finished.

They've finished.

Questions:

Have they found it? — No, they haven't.

Has she finished yet? — No, she hasn't.

Negative statements:

I have not found it.

He has not finished.

Rula hasn't found her bracelet yet.

They haven't seen her.

The contracted forms are:

has = 's

have = 've

has not = hasn't

have not = haven't

Uses

The Present Perfect is used in the following instances:

- 1) An action or emotion that started in the past and has continued into the present.

We have lived in Damascus since 1992.

I have thought about this problem several times. I still cannot find a solution.

2) To indicate the number of times an action has been done or the number of things that have been done.

I have revised my lessons several times.

She has already solved six mathematics problems.

3) To indicate an action that started, or that failed to start, in the past, without mentioning a specific time.

Her daughter has fallen ill.

We have seen the ruins at Palmyra.

She has enrolled at the university.

Ann has not finished her composition.

The teacher has not corrected our papers.

Mum has cooked dinner.

My sister has washed the dishes.

When the time is given, the simple past is used.

Her daughter fell ill last week.

We saw the ruins of Palmyra during the summer holiday.

Yesterday, he enrolled at the university.

Ann finished her composition two days ago.

The teacher corrected it last night.

• When used with *just* and *already*, the present perfect expresses an act that started in the past but finished recently or very close to the moment speaking.

A: Don't forget to pay the electricity bill.

B: I've already paid it. I've just returned home from Electricity Board.

The difference between *already* and *just* is that we use *just* if we want to show that the action has very recently been completed as is clear from the above example.

- If the event did not take place you can use *never*. If you want to check if it did take place, you can use *ever*.

Have you ever been to Egypt? — No, I have never been there.

- In questions and negative sentences the Present Perfect can be used with *yet*, meaning 'at the time of speaking'.

Haven't you finished yet?

Have you bought the tickets yet?

- The present perfect is also to answer the question *How long...?* together with *for* to talk about a period of time, or with *since* to talk about duration from a point in time.

How long have you lived in Saudi Arabia? — Since 1997.

I have lived in Saudi Arabia for five years. — Since 1997.

ii) The Present Perfect Progressive Tense: Form and Uses

Form

Statements:

I have been working for hours. I've been working for hours.

She has been working for hours. She's been working for hours.

Questions:

Have I been waiting? — Yes, I have.

Has he been waiting? — No, he hasn't.

Have you been waiting long? — No, I haven't.

Negative statements:

I have not been working.

She has not been working.

Uses

The present perfect progressive is used more than the present perfect for actions that are more recent in nature.

Ahmad has been making a lot of money since he began his new job seven months ago.

She has been working hard lately.

2) The present perfect progressive is used to emphasize the duration of an action, not the number of times an action has been done.

I've been reading the papers for the past hour.

BUT I have read that magazine several times.

I've been trying to solve this math problem all night.

BUT I have solved five problems already.

3) It is also used to talk about actions and states that began in the past and are still continuing at the time of speaking or have only just finished.

I have been holding this ladder for half an hour now. When are you going to come down?

There you are! **I have been waiting** for hours!

4) The Present Perfect Progressive is also used for repeated actions.

I have been buying my clothes here for years.

I have been jogging for the past hour.

• We can use *for* and *since* with the progressive form in the same way as with the Present Perfect form.

I have been waiting for her since she called.

I have been waiting here for the past hour.

• Sometimes there is little difference between the meaning of the Present Perfect and the meaning of the Present Perfect Progressive when they are used for long-term actions.

Compare:

I have been living in London since I started work.

I have lived in London since birth.

We usually choose the progressive form for more temporary actions or states and the Present Perfect form for more permanent ones.

Native speakers of English choose between the present perfect and the present perfect progressive depending on their desire to make the listener or reader *feel* the uninterrupted nature of an activity or to make the listener or reader *feel* the speaker's attitude or emotion toward the activity.

I have been waiting for you for half an hour.

I have waited for you for half an hour.

While both sentences are grammatically correct, a native speaker would probably say the first, which is more effective than the second if the speaker wants to express his or her annoyance at waiting so long. Which of the following sentences seems to indicate that the speaker is tired?

I have been reviewing this chapter for three hours.

I have reviewed this chapter for three hours.

We cannot use this tense with verbs such as *be*, *know*, and *like*, which are not used in progressive forms. See appendix 2 for more on non-progressive verbs.

• The present perfect progressive is not used to express an action that is not continuous in nature. The present perfect is used instead.

Correct: I have finally returned the books to the library.

Incorrect: ~~I have finally been returning the books to the library~~

Correct: The plane has arrived. It's over there. (A plane arrives only once.)

Incorrect: ~~The plane has been arriving. It's over there.~~

3.2.3. Past Time: The Simple Past and the Past Progressive

i) The Simple Past Tense: Form and Uses

When talking about the past, an adjunct of time or other time expression is necessary to specify the particular time in the past you are referring to. The time reference can be established in a previous clause and the verbs in the following clauses are therefore put in the past tense.

Form

Statements:

I worked yesterday. She worked yesterday.
I prayed an hour ago. She prayed an hour ago.

Questions:

Because the Simple Past consists of one word only, the Simple Past tense of *do*, which is *did*, is used as the supporting auxiliary when you want to ask a question,

Did I work yesterday? Did she work yesterday?
Did I lie to you? Did it finish all the food?

Negative statements:

We use *not* to make negative statements,
I did not work yesterday. He did not work yesterday.
I did not go yesterday. She did not go yesterday.

Making responses:

Did you see Elizabeth today? — No, I didn't.
Did Elizabeth phone you? — Yes, she did.

Uses

The simple past is used in the following instances:

- 1) To describe actions that took place over a period of time in the past.

Dr. Kamel taught at Cairo University for thirty years.

2) To describe single actions or actions of short duration in the past.

He locked the car and went into the house.

I met my friend in college yesterday, and we talked for a few minutes.

3) We also use the Simple Past for habitual actions in the past, often with *always, never, or often*.

In those days we always went to the mountains in the summer.

We walked daily and that soon made us fit.

We often played football during weekends.

We went swimming every week.

4) To refer to past actions where a definite time is mentioned. It is often used with a time expression such as *ago* or *last month*, when the action is seen as finished.

Last summer, we went to Algeria for a holiday.

We bought our mobile phone a year ago.

I met Laila a little while back.

5) To refer to points where the main action is broken or when an action goes on during or alongside another. The rest of the sentence uses the Past Progressive tense to describe the past activity or action.

I was watching television when the children came home.

We were leaving the house when the phone rang.

Huda was reading the paper while the lunch cooked.

Penny was watching television as she ironed her blouse.

• You can instead use two Simple Past verbs to indicate an action which goes on during or alongside another.

Huda read the paper while the lunch cooked.

Penny watched television as she ironed her blouse.

ii) The Past Progressive Tense: Form and Uses

Form

Statements:

I was working. But not: ~~I was liking it.~~

She was working.

They were working.

Questions:

Was I talking in class? Was she talking in class?

Were you talking in class?

Negative statements:

I was not working yesterday. But not: ~~I was not liking it.~~

We were not working yesterday.

We weren't working yesterday.

I wasn't working either.

Some main verbs are not normally used in the progressive. These are generally verbs about states rather than feelings. See appendix 2 for more details.

Uses

The Past Progressive is used in the following instances:

1) It is used with a time expression, such as *at 7p.m., yesterday, etc.*... to talk about an action that began before that time and finished after it. The exact length of time the action took is not important.

She was writing her essay at nine o'clock. An hour later she was handing it in to the teacher.

2) To talk about a longer action in contrast to a shorter action in the past. Note that for the shorter action we use the Simple Past tense.

While I was paying for my things I dropped my purse.

Susan was still standing in the queue when the film began.

The students were not sitting in their places when the bell rang.

3) To describe a scene in the past, especially in a story.

It was a dreadful morning. The snow was still falling, the wind was blowing, and the cars were skidding on the icy roads.

4) To talk about slow or gradual action in the past.

The sun was setting.

The snow was falling.

She made some coffee while her guests were waiting.

5) To talk about two or more longer actions which took place over the same period of time in the past.

They were all making the pizza. Jane was chopping the vegetables, Janet was preparing the dough, and Jenny was shredding the cheese.

6) During a period of time, the past progressive is used to express the beginning and ending of an action.

Every Friday from eight o'clock in the morning till four o'clock in the afternoon, we were attending the Open University lectures.

3.2.4. The Past Perfect Tense: Form and Uses

Form

Statements:

I had finished my work.

She had finished her work.

I'd finished.

She'd gone.

They had found her. They'd found her.

Questions:

Had I gone?

Had it gone?

Had the doctor arrived? — No, she hadn't.

Negative statements:

I had not gone. He had not gone.

I had not finished. It had not worked.

Contracted forms:

The contracted forms are:

had = 'd

had not = hadn't

Uses

The Past Perfect tense goes one step further back into the past than the Present Perfect. (The word 'perfect' means 'before', and past perfect means before the past)

Had you ever seen her before then? — No, I hadn't.

Just as the Present Perfect tense is used to talk about a recently completed action, The Past Perfect tense is used to talk about an action that took place in the past before something else took place.

Present perfect

I have just made some fresh orange juice. Would you like some?

Past perfect

She had just made some orange juice when I arrived, so I stayed and drank some.

• The Past Perfect tense is used with a time expression such as *always* or *for several days. etc...* to talk about an action that began before another action in the past and continued up to the time of the second action and perhaps even beyond that time.

We had wanted to visit Turkey for a long time, so last year we went there for our holiday.

Ahmad had known my brother for two years before I met him.

3.2.5. The Past Perfect Progressive Tense: Form and Use

Form

Statements:

I had been working for days. I'd been working for days.

She had been working for days. She'd been working for days.

Questions:

Had I been working long, she asked?

Had he been working long?

Had you been working long? No, I hadn't.

Negative statements:

I had not been working.

She had not been working.

They hadn't been working.

Uses

1) The Past Perfect Progressive tense is used to talk about an action which began before another action in the past and either continued up to the time of the second action, or was completed before the second action happened.

She had been looking at the book for ~~some~~ time before she realized that it was her friend's.

I had been studying and then I decided to go for a walk to clear my mind.

We had been cleaning the house for hours, so we felt quite pleased with ourselves.

2) The Past Perfect Progressive is often used to talk about a repeated action.

She had been trying to telephone her mother all day

The Past Perfect can be used in the same way as the Past Perfect Progressive. It is often possible to use either tense with little difference in meaning.

I had been driving for about an hour when I heard a noise in the engine.

I had driven for about an hour when I heard a noise in the engine.

Remember that you cannot use the Past Perfect Progressive with verbs such as *like*, which are not used in the progressive. See appendix 2 for more details on non-progressive verbs.

3.3. Future Reference

Verb forms

English has no future tense of the verb as such. However several forms and certain set groups of the verb, especially the modal verbs *will* and *shall*, can be used to make future reference. These forms are the following:

- a) *Will / shall* + the base form of the verb.
- b) *Be going to* + the base form of the verb.
- c) The Present Progressive tense.
- d) The Simple Present tense.
- e) The Future Perfect tense (*will have* + the past participle).
- f) The Future Progressive tense: (*will be* + the present participle).
- g) Future Perfect Progressive: *will (not) + have been* + the present participle.
- h) *Be about to* + the base form of the verb.
- i) *Be to* + the base form of the verb.

3.3.1. Future Reference: Will / Shall + Base Form of the Verb.

Form

The modal verbs *will* or *shall* followed by the base form of a main verb are used to express future reference.

We will need the money on the 20th.
Will all the family be at the wedding?
It will be autumn soon.
She'll be here in a few minutes.

Statements:

I will (or shall) work tomorrow.
You will work tomorrow.
He/she/it will work tomorrow.
We will (or shall) work tomorrow.
They will work tomorrow.

Will can be used with all persons of the verb, although some speakers prefer to use *shall* in the first person singular and plural.
I/we will and *I/we shall* are used with no difference of meaning in most situations in modern British English. However, *Will* is more common than *shall*.

Questions:

Will/shall I work tomorrow?

Negative statements:

I will/shall not work tomorrow.

Contracted forms: The contracted form is 'll for both verbs: will and shall, so there is no difference between them in informal speech.

I'll (I shall) come by train, but they'll (they will) come by car.

Negative contracted forms: The contracted negative forms in British English are *won't* and *shan't*. *Won't* = will not, *shan't* = shall not.

We shan't work tomorrow. We won't work tomorrow.

- If there are two verbs in the sentence, it is normal not to repeat the modal form before the second one.

People will look at these pictures and know how we dressed in the 1990's.

Uses

1) We often use *will/shall* to predict the future — to say what we think, guess or calculate will happen.

Tomorrow **will** be very hot.
Who do you think **will** win?
You'll never **finish** that book.

2) We also use *will* (or *shall*) to express a firm intention in the future.

I'll **be** home in time for supper.
I **shan't** see Mary next week.

3) To announce an action that the speaker has just decided on.

Right then. We **will** meet again on Monday.

4) To express a negative intention, using *won't*. In the first person, *shan't* is an alternative.

This **won't** happen again, I can assure you.
She was very rude to me so I **won't** talk to her.
I **shan't** buy my vegetables there again.

5) To talk about an event in the future, possibly in the distant future. A time clause *may* or *may not* be used.

People **will** look at these pictures and **see** how we dressed in the 1970's.

6) To refer to inevitable actions or events that will take place in the future.

Winter is past, but it **will** come again next year.
The roses **will** flower in the spring.

7) To express an opinion about a future event after verbs such as *believe*, *expect*, *hope*, *know*, and *think*.

I expect he will be home soon.

8) To express a real possibility in conditional sentences

If you phone after six I'll be in.

3.3.2. Future Reference: be Going to + Base Form of the Verb.

Future reference can be made with *be + going to + the base form of the main verb*. We often use present verb forms to talk about the future, For example, we say that something is going to happen. This is common when we talk about plans, decisions and firm intentions, especially in an informal style.

Form

Statements:

I am going to travel abroad. He is going to travel abroad.

Negative statements:

I am not going to wait. He is not going to wait.

Questions:

Is he going to wait? Are they going to wait?

We're going to get a new car soon.

When are you going to get your haircut?

I'm going to keep working hard.

Uses

This form is used in the following instances:

1) To express intention about the future and to talk about things that we have already decided.

Mary isn't going to study art; she's going to be a nurse.

Is Jim going to share your flat? — Yes, he is.

Where's Mary? She said she was going to come early.

2) To make a prediction about the future, often the very near future, based on something in the present.

Watch the milk! It is going to boil over!

Sally never does any work; she is going to fail her exams.

3) If the past tense of 'be' is used, a past intention or prediction can be expressed.

Judy was going to meet me, but she was ill and couldn't come.

She was obviously going to get tired with those new shoes.

Be going to is usually used for future events where the speaker expresses his or her intention. *Will* is used as a more neutral expression.

I'm going to go to the pictures on Friday; would you like to come? (Here the speaker expresses an intention)

Yes, I'll come. (The speaker here agrees to someone else's arrangements)

3.3.3. Future Reference: Present Progressive.

Uses

1) The Present Progressive tense is used to talk about plans for the future or specific arrangements that people have made for future events.

The City Mall is having a sale next week; I'm planning to go shopping.

My car's having a service next week.

We're going to Italy in June.

Sarah and Hanna are meeting at ten o'clock on Thursday.

2) It is often used in questions about future arrangements.

What are you doing on Friday? — We are going on a picnic.

When are you going on holiday? — At the end of June.

'What are you doing this evening?' 'I'm going out with my parents.'

What are we having for lunch?

Did you know I'm getting a new job?

• If there are two verbs in the sentence, it is normal not to repeat the modal form before the second one.

We are meeting at 8.00 a.m., having a quick breakfast, and starting work at 9.15.

3.3.4. Future Reference: The Simple Present Tense

Uses

1) The simple present tense is used with a time adverb to talk about future plans. It is mostly used for events that form part of a timetable or programme or previous arrangement.

The train leaves Damascus at 10.10 a.m. and reaches Aleppo at 4.20 p.m.

The meeting begins at 7.30 p.m.

The film starts at 6:00 p.m.

We leave tomorrow at 4.00 p.m.

2) The simple present can also be used to give and ask for instructions.

When you get to the office you go up to the first floor, you knock on the first door on the right and you ask for Mrs. Jones.
OK?

What do we do now?

Where do we pay?

3.3.5. Future Reference: The Future Perfect

Form

The future perfect is formed with *will (not) + have + the past participle of the main verb.*

I will (not) have finished by next week.

The contracted positive form is *'ll have.*

Can you come swimming next Friday? —Yes, I can. I'll have finished my exams by then.

He'll have made some sandwiches by the time we get back, so we can all go for a picnic.

The contracted negative is *won't have.*

Peter's essay is due on Thursday, but he won't have completed it by then. He won't even have read all the references!

Questions

In questions the subject comes after *will.* The short answer to a question is *will* or *will have* without the past participle.

Will you have read all the notes before the next lecture?

— Yes, I will (have).

Uses

1) This form is used to talk about an action that will be complete at a time in the future that you are talking about. It is often used with the main verb *finish* or *complete.* English speakers do not usually use this tense unless the completion time of the activity is clear.

The next time we meet I will have completed the courses for my Masters degree.

Rania already has her Masters, and she will have finished her Ph.D. before she's 26.

2) The future perfect is often used with *by + a time*, *before + a time*, or *in + a time*.

We will have finished this review of tenses by the end of this week.

Before this course is finished, my classmates and I will have taken 20 lectures.

3.3.6. Future Reference: The Future Progressive Tense

Form

The future progressive is formed with *will (not) + be + the present participle of the main verb* or with a form of *be going to + be + the present participle*.

Tomorrow, I will be revising for my exams from morning till evening.

Tomorrow, I am going to be revising for my exams from morning till evening.

The verb group *will be* forms negatives, contractions, questions, and short answers in the usual way.

Will I/we/she/he/you/they/it be working tonight?

Are we/you/they going to be working tonight?

Is she/he/it going to be working tonight?

Uses

1) The Future Progressive is used in a rather informal way to suggest that something is about to happen or will happen at some time that is not clear or precise.

I'll be seeing you.

I'll be getting an e-mail from them soon.

2) It is also used to indicate normal future reference, especially when you wish to talk about a process that is about to take place.

Will you be coming with us next week?

— No, I won't. I'll be starting my new job.

3) The future progressive expresses an action that will be in progress at a specific time in the future.

Don't call me tonight between seven and eleven. I'll be revising for my test.

This is Riyadh's last course in the intensive English program. This time next semester he's going to be taking engineering courses.

4) The future progressive also expresses an action that will continue to happen at different times in the future.

Instructor: Welcome to the class. In this course, you will have a test after every chapter, a midterm exam, and a final exam.

Student: Is that all?

Instructor: No. I'm going to be giving surprise quizzes from time to time.

Student: And I'll be suffering from headaches all semester.

5) The future progressive also expresses an action that will happen at an unknown time in the future. This will happen as a matter of course.

Compare:

They will call us next week

They will be calling us next week.

(The latter is less formal.)

3.3.7. Future Reference: Future Perfect Progressive

The future perfect progressive is formed with *will (not) + have been + the present participle*.

Form

Statement

She will (not) have been studying English for six months by the end of this course.

Questions

Will she have been studying English for six months by the end of this course?

Uses

1) The future perfect progressive emphasizes the progressive nature of an action that will be in progress at a specific time in the future before another action.

By the time we get to Damascus, we will have been driving for six hours.

The future perfect progressive cannot be used with verbs that do not usually occur in a continuous form. Only verbs that show continuous action can be used. These verbs include *study, work, travel, write, listen, and watch*. For more details on non-progressive verbs see appendix 2.

Correct: I will have been studying English for three semesters by the time I take the TOEFL exam.

Incorrect: ~~I will have been finishing the review for the test by next week.~~ (A person can't keep on finishing something.)

3.3.8. Future Reference: *Be + about to + the base form*

The form is *be + about to + the base form of a main verb*

Uses

This form of future reference is used in the following instances:

1) It is used to talk about events in the very near future.

Turn off the gas — the milk is about to boil over.

We were about to go into the lecture when she joined us.

2) It is sometimes used with *just* following the 'be' word to give even more immediacy.

Quick, jump in! The coach is (just) about to leave.

3) *Be about to* can also be used in the past to suggest that someone was on the point of carrying out an action. In this case it is usually followed by *when*.

The plane was (just) about to take off when a loud bang was heard on board.

3.3.9. Future Reference: *Be to* + the base form

Form

The form is *be + to + the base form of a main verb*.

Uses

1) It is used mainly in fairly formal English to talk about plans, arrangements, and instructions. It indicates that what will happen is part of an expected process.

The ministers are to meet in order to discuss the agenda for future action.

The President has left for Egypt, where he is to attend the talks with other Arab presidents.

Compare:

They will call us on Thursday.

They are to call us on Thursday.

(The latter suggests that they are obliged to do something and is much more formal.)

3.4. Exercises

1) Simple Present and Present Progressive

1A) Choose the correct form (simple present or present progressive).
The first one has been done for you as an example.

1. I (*have*) a great time.

I am having a great time.

2. She (*have*) plenty of money just now.

3. He (*appear*) at the National Theatre next week.

4. She (*appear*) to have a problem.

5. Why (*you look*) at me like that?

6. It (*look*) as if it's going to rain.

7. I (*see*) what you're trying to say.

8. I (*see*) the doctor this afternoon.

9. I (*think*) you're right.

10. What (*you think*) about?

11. I (*feel*) very tired today.

12. I (*feel*) she's making a mistake.

1B) Complete the conversation between two students called Sam and Rita. Put in the present progressive or simple of the verbs. The first one has been done for you as an example.

Sam: Are you waiting for someone? (You) (wait)

Rita: Yes, for Dani. We walk (walk) home together most days. We
(1) _____ (live) in the same street.

Sam: I'm not sure, but I (2) _____ (think) he (3) _____ (talk) to
Mr. Brown about something.

Rita: Yes, I (4) _____ (know). He told me. What about you?
What (5) _____ (you do) here?

Sam: I (6) _____ (look) for Dr. Smith. I can't find him anywhere.

Rita: He isn't here today. He only (7) _____ (work) two days a week.

Sam: Oh, of course. I (8) _____ (waste) my time then.

1C) Complete the sentences with the verbs in between brackets. The first one has been done for you as an example.

I'm writing (write) to my relatives. I write (write) to them every month.

1. It _____ (snow) outside. It _____ (come) down quite hard, look.

2. Normally I _____ (start) work at ten o'clock, but I _____ (start) at nine this week. We're very busy just now.

3. Usually I _____ (read) one newspaper every day. On Fridays I _____ (buy) two or three.

4. We _____ (build) a garage next to our house. We _____ (want) somewhere to put the car.

5. I haven't got a car at the moment, so I _____ (go) to work on the bus this week. Usually I _____ (drive) to work.

6. The sun _____ (rise) in the east, remember. It's behind us, so we _____ (travel) west.

7. We _____ (go) camping every year. It's a good cheap holiday. Hotels _____ (cost) too much.

1D) Read Tahani's postcard to Amani and write the missing words. Use one word only in each space. The first one has been done for you as an example.

We're *having* a great time here. It's beautiful, and the sun (1) _____ shining. Yesterday I went diving! What (2) _____ you think of that?

I'm (3) _____ at a table in our hotel room and writing a few postcards. The room is fine, but we (4) _____ like the food very much. But it (5) _____ matter because we (6) _____ out to a restaurant every evening.

We're both (7) _____ very lazy at the moment. I (8) _____ up quite late in the morning, and Nadeem (9) _____ up even later. You know of course how much Nadeem's work (10) _____ to him and how he's always talking about it. Well, the holiday is so good that he's forgotten all about work. So it's the perfect holiday. The only problem is that it's (11) _____ us a lot of money. But we'll worry about that later.

1E) Each of these sentences has a mistake in it. Write the correct sentence. The first one has been done for you as an example.

The children is doing their homework now.

The children are doing their homework now.

1 The girls are play handball at the moment.

2 Both my sisters likes sport.

3 Anita wearing her new coat today.

4 What colour you like best?

5 My suitcase is weighing twenty kilos.

6 At the moment I stay at a relative's place.

7 Rita catch the same bus every morning.

8 What is this word here mean?

1F) Complete the conversations. Put in the correct form of each verb. Use the present progressive or the present simple. The first one has been done for you as an example.

A: Is Janet in, please?

B: Yes, but I think (I / think) she's busy at the moment. *She's washing up* (she / wash up) the dishes.

1 A: _____ (I/think) of buying a new computer.

B: But computers _____ (cost) so much money. What's wrong with the one we've got?

A: _____ (it / get) out of date now.

2 A: Your new shoes _____ (look) nice.

B: Thank you. The trouble is _____ (they / not / fit) properly. _____ (I / not / know) why I bought them, really.

3 A: What _____ (you/do)?

B: _____ (I / weigh) this parcel. _____ (I / need) to know how many stamps to put on it.

4 A: _____ (I / think) this road is really dangerous. Look how fast that lorry _____ (go).

B: _____ (I / agree). People shouldn't go so fast.

5 A: _____ (I / like) plays. And this is a great one, isn't it? _____ (You / enjoy) it?

B: Yes, I am _____ (I / love) every minute of it.

6 A: _____ (I / always / fall) asleep. I just can't keep awake.

B: What time _____ (you / go) to bed?

A: About eleven o'clock usually. But _____ (it / not / make) any difference.

7 A: Could you post the goods to me, please?

B: Yes, certainly.

A: _____ (I / live) at a relative's house at the moment as _____ (I/look) for a flat. So could you send it to my work address?

B: Yes, of course. And you'll have the goods by the end of the week, _____ (I / promise).

8 A: Why _____ (you / want) to change the whole plan?

B: I'm just not happy with it.

A: And _____ (I / not / understand) why _____ (you /be) so difficult about it.

2) Present Perfect

Regular Verb forms

2A) Put in the verbs. Use the present perfect. The first one has been done for you as an example.

Mike: How is the painting going? Have you started (you start) on the front door yet?

Russel: No, the paintbrush has disappeared . (disappear)

Mike: (1) _____ (you look) for it?

Russel: Of course I (2) _____ (look) for it. Can I borrow yours?

Mike: Well, I (3) _____ (not finish) with it. But there's one here. Andy (4) _____ (use) it to paint a door. I don't know if he (5) _____ (clean) it.

Russel: Yes, it's clean. I'll do the other door.

Mike: Janet (6) _____ (promise) to do that one.

Russel: Well, she (7) _____ (not start) yet. She can do the front gate. I (8) _____ (decide) to do the door.

Irregular verb forms

2B) Put in a verb in the present perfect. Sometimes the verb is negative. The first one has been done for you as an example.

When are you going to write to your father? You haven't written to him yet.

1 Carla buys lots of clothes. I expect she _____ some in town today.

2 A: Are you going to have a bath?

B: No, I _____ one already today.

3 Mr. Fares doesn't often cut the grass. He _____ it for ages now.

4 A: When did you last see Laila?

B: Oh, ages ago. I _____ her since her sister's graduation party.

5 My sister's fiancée rings every hour. He _____ five times already today.

2C) Put in the past participles of the verbs in brackets. The first one has been done for you as an example.

We've *found* (find) all the answers.

1 Have you _____ (wash) the car?

2 You haven't _____ (eat) very much.

3 They've _____ (open) a new mall in town.

4 You've _____ (write) it in ink.

5 I've _____ (make) the salad.

6 We've _____ (have) our dinner.

7 The Syrian football team has _____ (score) two goals.

8 The man in the parachute has _____ (land) in a field.

9 Who's _____ (break) this vase?

10 It's cool because the AC has _____ (be) on.

11 Have you _____ (sell) your car yet?

12 I've _____ (finish) that job at last.

2D) Complete the second sentence so that it follows on from the first. Use the present perfect. The first one has been done for you as an example.

My room is tidy now. *I've tidied* my room.

1 The window is open. Someone _____ the window.

2 This is Zaid's drawing, look. Zaid _____ a picture.

3 The calculator is broken. Someone _____ the calculator.

4 United are the winners. United _____ the game.

5 There's no more milk in the bottle. We _____ all the milk.

6 The kitchen is clean now. I _____ the kitchen.

7 I know my number now. I _____ my number by heart.

8 The guests are here now. The guests _____.

9 I'm still working on the computer. I _____ with the computer yet.

2E) Decide which word is correct. The first one is done for you as an example.

I'd like to borrow this book. Has Anna read it *yet*?

a) done b) for c) just d) yet

1 Bilal writes very quickly. He's _____ finished his essay.

a) already b) been c) for d) yet

2 What are you going to do? I don't know. I haven't decided _____.

a) just b) long c) since d) yet

3 Have you _____ done any sewing?

a) ever b) for c) just d) long

4 My daughter hasn't rung _____ week.

a) for b) last c) since d) this

5 I haven't seen that suit before. How _____ have you had it?

a) already b) for c) long d) since

6 I haven't seen my parents _____ last Eid.

a) already b) before c) for d) since

7 This is the first _____ I've ever lived away from home.

a) already b) since c) that d) time

8 This programme must be new. I've _____ seen it before.

a) ever b) never c) since d) yet

2F) Read about tennis star Martina Hingis. Underline all the verbs in the present perfect and all the time expressions with *since* or *for*. The first one has been done for you as an example.

Martina Hingis picked up her first tennis racket at the age of two. Since then, she has become one of the greatest tennis players in the world. Born in Slovakia, she has lived in Switzerland for many years. She became the outdoor Swiss champion at age nine. Since then she has won many international competitions including Wimbledon, the U.S. Open, and the Australian Open.

For young stars like Martina, life has its difficulties. They are under constant pressure to win, and they don't have time to just hang out with

classmates. In fact, Martina hasn't attended school since 1994, and she has been in the public spotlight for years. But she seems to be handling her success well. Since she turned professional, she has played tennis all over the world and has earned millions of dollars. She sees her life as normal because tennis has been the most important thing to her since she was a little girl.

2G) Read this magazine excerpt about a child genius. Complete it with the present perfect form of the verbs in parentheses. Choose between *since* and *for*. The first two have been done for you as examples.

Thirteen-year-old Ronnie Segal has loved (love) math since (since/for) he was a little boy. "I (1) _____ (be) interested in numbers (2) _____ (since / for) nine years, five months, three weeks, and two days," says Ronnie. (3) _____ (Since/For) the past year, Ronnie (4) _____ (attend) graduate-level classes at the university. He (5) _____ (not do) badly. (6) _____ (Since / For) January he (7) _____ (take) five exams and (8) _____ (not get) a grade of less than 100 on any of them. (9) _____ (Since/ For) Ronnie began classes, he (10) _____ (meet) an average of 1,324 people a month. And his future? Young Ronnie (11) _____ (not think) about it for years. He (12) _____ (know) (13) _____ (since/ for) he was a little boy that he is going to become a famous sports announcer, get married, and have exactly 2.2 kids.

2H) Some of these sentences are correct, and some have a word which should not be there. If the sentence is correct, write *correct*. If it is incorrect, cross the unnecessary *have* or *has* out of the sentence and write it next to the sentence. The first two have been done for you as examples.

Susan ~~has~~ lost her keys. She can't find them anywhere. *Correct*

Christopher ~~has~~ hurt his hand, but it's OK now. *has*

- 1 The guests have arrived half an hour ago, but they didn't stay long.
- 2 It's raining, and Peter has left his umbrella behind, look.
- 3 It's a long time since your parents have last visited us.
- 4 None of you have called me for weeks. Aren't we friends any more?
- 5 We can play table tennis now. The others have finished.
- 6 He has bought some land, but then he sold it.
- 7 The computer isn't on now. Someone has turned it off.
- 8 Rama has posted the letter. It's on its way to you.
- 9 Samer has left. He and Naser have left after lunch.

3) Past Simple and Past Progressive

3A) Read the story and write the missing verbs in the past simple. Use one word only in each space. The first one has been done for you as an example.

One day a man was walking past a house in Leeds when he (1) _____ a woman's voice shouting for help. The man (2) _____ someone (3) _____ probably trying to murder her. He ran to a phone box and (4) _____ the police. The police came quite quickly, but by now the shouting had (5) _____. However, the man (6) _____ quite sure that he (7) _____ heard cries for help. When the police (8) _____ on the door, there was no answer. So they broke down the door and went in. Inside the house was a woman who had just (9) _____ out of the shower. She explained to the police that she had been singing along to the Beatles song 'Help!'.

3B) Put in the past simple of the verbs in brackets. The first one has been done for you as an example.

The car *stopped* (stop) at the lights.

- 1 I _____ (leave) the cinema before the end of the film.
- 2 The streets _____ (be) crowded with people.
- 3 My grandfather _____ (die) ten years ago.
- 4 Everyone _____ (have) a marvellous time at the party.
- 5 We _____ (not / like) the food they gave us at the hotel.
- 6 Christine _____ (go) to Egypt last month.
- 7 The accident _____ (happen) the day before yesterday.
- 8 It _____ (not / be) a very comfortable journey.
- 9 She _____ (know) that ages ago.

3C) Write a second sentence so that it has a similar meaning to the first. Use the word in brackets. The first one has been done for you as an example.

There were lights on the spacecraft. (had)
The spacecraft had lights on it.

- 1 I had my old shoes on. (wearing)
- 2 I was working, and you were working, too. (we)
- 3 It isn't true that I made a mistake. (didn't)
- 4 The children were in the middle of a game of cards. (playing)
- 5 No one told me about the change of plan. (know)

6 My brother was the winner of the competition. (won)

7 Is it a fact that the Arabs built this castle? (did)

3D) Lorna Bright is a long-distance walker. Look at this part of her diary describing a morning's walk along the coast. Write the missing words. Use one word only in each space. The first one has been done for you as an example.

It was a fine day when I started out on the last part of my walk around the coast of Britain. The sun was (1) _____, and a light wind (2) _____ blowing from the south west. I was pleased that it (3) _____ raining. I knew by now that I (4) _____ like rain. In fact I (5) _____ it. I (6) _____ along the cliff top and then down into the lovely little fishing village of Wellburn, past a café where people (7) _____ having morning coffee. Three miles past Wellburn I (8) _____ down for five minutes and (9) _____ a drink. Now it (10) _____ getting warmer, so I (11) _____ off one of my sweaters. I (12) _____ stop for long because I (13) _____ to reach Seabury by lunchtime. (14) _____ I finally got there, it (15) _____ just after half past twelve.

3E) Each of these sentences has a mistake in it. Write the correct sentence. The first one has been done for you as an example.

The classroom were very quiet.

The classroom was very quiet.

1 It was peaceful and the students were read quietly.

2 I watched TV when the phone rang.

3 You came not to yesterday's lecture.

4 It taked ages to get to college.

5 We tried to keep quiet because the baby sleeping.

6 As I was watching her, the woman was suddenly running away.

7 We pass a petrol station two minutes ago.

8 Everything was seeming OK.

9 Where bought you that suitcase?

10 When I heard the fire alarm, I was leaving the room immediately.

3F) Complete the sentences. Put in the correct form of each verb. Use the past continuous or past simple. The first one has been done for you as an example.

When Mohammad *arrived* (arrive) home, Amal *was talking* (talk) to someone on the phone. Mohammad *started* (start) to prepare the coffee.

1 I _____ (lie) in the bath when the phone _____ (ring). It _____ (stop) after a few rings.

2 It _____ (be) cold when we _____ (leave) the house on Friday, and a light snow _____ (fall).

3 Your friend who _____ (come) to the party the other day _____ (seem) very nice. I _____ (enjoy) meeting her.

4 When I _____ (see) the beggar, he _____ (stand) outside the bank. He _____ (have) a black cap on.

5 When I _____ (open) the cupboard door, a pile of papers _____ (fall) out.

6 I _____ (walk) along the street when I suddenly _____ (feel) something hit me on the head. I _____ (not / know) what it was.

7 We _____ (go) to Latakia yesterday, but on the way we _____ (hear) about a storm. So we _____ (drive) back home straightaway.

8 Something very strange _____ (happen) to me on my way home from work yesterday afternoon. I _____ (drive) at the time. Suddenly I _____ (see) my mother in the seat beside me. But she died three years ago.

3G) Complete these sentences, putting the verbs in the past simple or the past progressive. The first one has been done for you as an example.

1 I was walking in the garden when the accident happened. (walk) (happen)

2 He _____ the magazine and _____ to read. (open) (start)

3 They _____ the film on TV, when suddenly the electricity _____ off. (enjoy) (go)

4 When she _____ the news, she _____ to cry. (hear) (begin)

5 Hana _____ quietly. Suddenly the door _____ open. (talk) (burst)

6 When I _____ the doorbell, I _____ to open the door. (hear) (run)

4) Present Perfect and Past Simple

4A) Put in the present perfect or past-simple of the verbs in brackets. The first one has been done for you as an example.

I've had (have) these eyeglasses since my eighteenth birthday.

I tidied (tidy) my desk, but now it's in a mess again.

1 The last time I _____ (go) to Beirut was in August.

2 I'd like to meet my pen pal. I _____ (never / see) her.

3 I've finished my homework. I _____ (do) it before lunch.

4 And the race is over! And the Arabian stallion Blacky _____ (win) it a record time!

5 I _____ (work) for a German company for a year. That was after my graduation from university.

6 What time _____ (you/ get) to work this morning?

7 Mohammad _____ (visit) Greece five times. He loves the place.

8 The Prime Minister _____ (come) out of the building and is going to make a speech.

9 You won't believe this, but I've got some tickets for the theatre.

— Oh, well done. How _____ (you/ get) them?

10 Of course I can drive. But I _____ (not/ drive) for years.

11 Nihad Al-Kali' _____ (be) in about twenty films.

12 (you/ ever / bake) _____ your own bread? — No, but I might try it some time.

13 Jumana _____ (be) very ill three years ago.

14 Riyadh has left a message for you. He _____ (ring) last night.

15 (you/ see) _____ the news today? — No, not yet. I'll watch it at eight.

16 We moved here in 1992. We _____ (be) here a long time now.

4B) Put in the verbs using the present perfect or the past simple:

Lama: Have you heard (you hear) the news about Lubna?

Anna: No, what (1) _____ (happen)?

Lama: She (2) _____ (have) an accident. She was running to catch the bus when she (3) _____ (fall) down and (4) _____ (break) her arm.

Anna: Oh, how awful! When (5) _____ (this happen)?

Lama: Yesterday morning. Samar (6) _____ (tell) me about it last night.

Anna: Last night! You (7) _____ (know) last night, and you (8) _____ (not tell) me!

Lama: Well, I (9) _____ (not see) you last night. And I (10) _____ (not see) you today, until now.

Anna: I hope she's all right. She (11) _____ (have) lots of accidents, you know. She (12) _____ (do) the same thing about one year ago.

5) Miscellaneous

Past and Perfect Tenses

5A) Write a second sentence so that it has a similar meaning to the first. Use the word in brackets. The first one has been done for you as an example.

Hiba had a black dress on. (wearing)
Hiba was wearing a black dress.

1 Dr. Ayham began work at six o'clock and is still working. (has)

2 Lena didn't have her key. (forgotten)

3 I didn't want to go without saying goodbye. (until)

4 Heveen has been writing the report. It is finished now. (written)

5 His wait in the queue has lasted thirty minutes so far. (He)

6 When we arrived, everyone was in the dining room. (eating)

7 The portable computer has been mine for four years. (had)

8 In the middle of our supper there was a knock at the door. (when)

9 Ammar felt sick from eating too many chocolates. (because)

5B) Write the sentences correctly. The first one has been done for you as an example.

I like this key holder. ~~I've been having it for ages.~~ *I've had it for ages.*

1 It was my first day back at work. I was on holiday.

2 I'm quite tired now. I play table tennis.

3 I had to sit down. I'd been having a shock.

4 You need a rest. How much have you been working?

5 The robbery happened at midday. Lots of people walked along the street outside.

6 My sister speaks good French. She is practising her French since last summer.

7 At last I have my degree. I've been passing my exam.

8 Maya looked really sun burnt. She'd lie in the sun for too long.

9 We got to the airport at nine yesterday. But the plane has already taken off.

5C) Complete the conversations. Put in the correct form of each verb.

A: *Did you buy* (you / buy) anything at the sale yesterday?

B: No. *I wanted* (I / want) to buy some clothes, but *I'd left* (I/leave) my purse at home.

1 A: Are you still writing your assignment?

B: No, _____ (I / finish) now.

2 A: The bus is never going to get here.

B: How long _____ (we / wait)?

A: At least half an hour. _____ (we / be) here since ten to five.

3 A: Did you have a nice chat with May?

B: No, not really. When _____ (we / drink) our coffee, _____ (she / hurry) off home.

4 A: It's terrible about that motorway accident, isn't it?

B: Yes, awful. _____ (I / have) breakfast when _____ (I / hear) the news.

5 A: So you write poetry, do you? How long _____ (you / write) poetry?

B: Oh, since I was sixteen. _____ (I / write) about a dozen poems.

6 A: Do you know what Rana was so upset about yesterday?
B: No, I don't. But I'm sure _____ (she / cry). Her eyes looked red.
A: Perhaps _____ (she / have) some bad news.

7 A: The shooting was very frightening, I suppose.
B: It certainly was. When we _____ (hear) the shot, we all _____
(throw) ourselves to the floor.

5D) Put in the verbs in the present perfect (have done) or past perfect (had done). The first one has been done for you as an example.
It isn't raining now. It has stopped. (stop)
We had no car at that time. We had sold our old one. (sell)

- 1 The classroom looked awful. Students _____ litter everywhere. (leave)
- 2 You can have that newspaper. I _____ with it. (finish)
- 3 There are no more apples. We _____ them all. (eat)
- 4 There was no sign of a taxi although I _____ one three quarters an hour before. (order)
- 5 This bill isn't right. They _____ a mistake. (make)
- 6 I spoke to Rana at lunchtime. Someone _____ her the news earlier. (tell)
- 7 I was really tired last night. I _____ a hard day. (have)
- 8 Do you want to see this programme? It _____ (start)
- 9 It'll get cooler in here. I _____ the AC on. (turn)
- 10 At last the committee were ready to announce their decision. They _____ up their minds. (make)

5E) Read this student's report. There are six mistakes in the use of the past perfect. Find and correct them. The first mistake is already corrected.

Oprah Winfrey is an amazing person. By the time she was twelve, she ~~has~~ had already decided on a career. Not long afterward, she got her first radio job. Although she hadn't have any experience, she became a news reporter. When she got her own TV talk show, she has already acted in a major Hollywood movie. By the late 1980s "Oprah Winfrey" had become a household word. Then in 1994 she decided to improve the quality of talk-show themes. She also made a personal change. She had always had a weight problem, but in 1995 TV viewers saw a new Winfrey. She had losed

almost ninety pounds as a result of dieting and working out. She had also compete in a marathon. She has really been an inspiration to many people.

5F) Put in the past perfect progressive of the verbs.

A: I had a terrible backache last week.

B: Oh, dear. What *had you been doing?* (you do)

A: I (1) _____ (dig) the garden. It was on Thursday afternoon. I (2) _____ (not do) it long when I felt a pain in my back. It was still aching the next day. When I finally got to see the doctor, I (3) _____ (wait) over an hour, She was late. She (4) _____ (deal) with an emergency. But she was able to help me. It's much better now.

5G) Add a sentence with the past perfect continuous to explain how the accidents happened. Use these words given below. The first one has been done for you as an example.

- play - with matches
- 1 clean - a window
- 2 play - by the lake
- 3 cross- the high way
- 4 play - on the railway line
- 5 walk - in her sleep
- 6 use - a faulty electric drill

Some children started a house fire. *They'd been playing with matches.*

- 1 A man fell off a ladder. _____
- 2 A girl drowned in the lake. _____
- 3 A young man was hit by a car. _____
- 4 Two boys were killed by a train. _____
- 5 A woman fell down the stairs in the middle of the night. _____
- 6 A man died of an electric shock. _____

5H) Complete the conversations. Put in the correct form of each verb. The first one has been done for you as an example.

A: Are you ready?

B: I will be in a moment. *I'm finishing* (I / finish) my homework.

1 A: Could you tell me your address?

B: Well, _____ (I / live) at my grandparents' house at the moment.
Luckily _____ (I / find) a place of my own now, but I can't move in until next week.

2 A: Is this your mobile phone?

B: No, it isn't mine _____ (I / think) _____ (it / belong) to Rita.

3 A: Can I borrow your calculator, please?

B: Well, _____ (I / use) it to work out these figures at the moment.
_____ (I / want) to finish doing them, now that _____ (I / start).

4 A: Why can't you wash your dirty plates sometimes? _____ (you / leave) them in the sink most of the time.

B: OK, sorry. The last few weeks _____ (I / have) so little time. _____ (I / rush) around all the time.

5I) Write a second sentence so that it has a similar meaning to the first. Begin with the word in brackets.

Our trip to Austria was in October. (We ...)
We went to Austria in October.

1 We've had ten hours of snow. (It ...)

2 It's the right thing to do in my opinion. (I think ...)

3 Our dining table is in a different place now. (We ...)

4 It was around lunchtime when Samia rang. (I ...)

5 ~~Their~~ game of cards is always on Thursday evening. (They ...)

5J) Write the correct answer in each space.

This isn't my first visit to Jordan. I've come here before.

a) I'm b) I've come c) I was

1 I've got my key. I found it when _____ for something else.

a) I looked b) I've looked c) I was looking

2 Sorry, I can't stop now _____ to an important appointment.

a) I go b) I'm going c) I've gone

3 I can't get Ruba on the phone. _____ all afternoon.

a) I'm trying b) I try c) I've been trying

4 The bank told him last week there was no money in his account. _____ it all.

a) He'd spent b) He spent c) He was spending

5 There's a new mall in the city centre. _____ it yesterday.

a) They'd opened b) They opened c) They've opened

5K) Some of these sentences are correct, and some have a word which should not be there. If the sentence is correct, write *correct*. If it is incorrect, cross the unnecessary word out of the sentence and write it next to the sentence.

Martin has changed his mind about next weekend. *correct*

We ~~were~~ enjoyed the holiday very much. *were*

1 Lama is practising on the violin.

2 It was lucky that we had been decided to book our flight tickets in advance.

3 We were swimming when suddenly I was felt a pain in my leg.

4 We are go to Lebanon for three weeks every summer.

5 They have built some new houses in our neighbourhood last year.

6 I suddenly realized I had been driving in the wrong direction.

7 Did you know that Iman has been won a prize?

8 No one told me that the parcel had arrived the week before.

5L) Complete the news report. Put each verb into the correct form.

The first one has been done for you as an example.

The actress Vanessa Kemp *has disappeared* (disappear). Yesterday she (1) failed (fail) to arrive at the Prince Charles Theatre in London's West End for her leading role in the comedy 'Don't look now!'. Ms Kemp, who (2) lives (live) in Hampstead, (3) left (leave) home at four o'clock yesterday afternoon for the theatre, a journey she (4) makes (make) several times the week before. Two people who (5) walked (walk) past her home at the time (6) saw (see) her leave. But no one (7) has seen (see) her since then. At half past seven she still (8) has not arrived (not / arrive) at the theatre. At eight o'clock the theatre manager had to break the news to the audience, who (9) waited (wait) patiently for the play to start. Since yesterday, theatre staff and friends (10) tried (try) to contact Ms Kemp, but they (11) have had (have) no success so far. The police (12) are taking (take) the matter seriously, but they (13) do not believe (believe) that she is unlikely to be in any danger. Her friends all (14) want (want) to hear from her soon.

6) Future Reference

6A) Complete the dialogues below using the verb in brackets with will or going to. The first one has been done for you as an example.

1 A: Have you decided how to spend the prize money?

B: Well I think we *are going to buy* a new car, but we haven't really decided yet. (buy)

2 A: Have you decided where to go on holiday?

B: Yes. We will visit Hiba's family in Beirut. (visit)

3 A: Did you know Susan is in hospital? Do you think you could send her a get-well card?

B: I didn't know that. Of course I will send her card. (send)

4 A: I heard yesterday that Susan is in hospital.

B: Yes I know. We will collect some money at work to send her some flowers. (collect)

5 A: Have you got tickets for the party?

B: Yes. We will go on Thursday night. (go)

6 A: Have you got tickets for the party?

B: Not yet. But I think we will go on Friday if we can. (go)

6B) Choose the correct verb form from the phrases in brackets. The first one has been done for you as an example.

1 A: How's your flat?

B: Well, the rent is very expensive. (I'll-move/I'm going to move) to a new place. I decided last week.

2 Have you got lights on your bike? (It'll be/It'll have been) dark soon.

3 A: I'd like a photo of Amal and me.

B: Well, (I'll take/I'm going to take) one with your camera then.

4 A: Have you booked a holiday?

B: Yes, (we go/we're going) to Egypt.

5 Look at that car! (It'll crash/It's going to crash)

6 A: Can I borrow your car on Saturday, please?

B: Oh, I'm afraid (I'll be using/I'll have used) it. I always drive to work.

6C) Complete the conversation. Look at the context and choose the best form of the verb to express the future. Sometimes more than one answer is correct.

A: Hello. Where are you going?

B: To my evening class. I'm learning English in the University. And I (1) _____ (speak) it for real this time next week. I (2) _____ (go) to Britain for three weeks. I (3) _____ (leave) on Friday evening. I (4) _____ (visit) friends there.

A: Oh, that (5) _____ (be) nice.

B: Oh, it's nearly half past. My lesson (6) _____ (start) in a minute.

A: Well, have a good time. I (7) _____ (see) you next month.

B: Thanks. I (8) _____ (tell) you all about it when I (9) _____ (get) back.

6D) Read this student's paragraph. Find and correct seven mistakes in the use of the future progressive. The ~~first~~ mistake is already corrected.

In the future, robots will be perform (**performing**) more and more tasks for humans. This will be having both positive and negative effects. On the one hand, while robots will be doing the boring and dangerous jobs, humans will be devoting more time to interesting pursuits. In this way robots is going to be making life a lot easier for humans. On the other hand, the widespread use of robots is going create a lot of future unemployment. People will losing their jobs as robots fill their positions. And some robots could even become dangerous. I'm afraid that in the not-too-distant future, robots will be operating nuclear power stations! And before too long, robots are going to be fight in wars. Although, on second thought, that will be better than humans killing each other!

6E) Read the telephone conversation. Then look at the answers below and write the correct answer in each space. The first one has been done for you as an example.

Nadia: When will I see you again?
a) am b) do c) going d) will

- 1 a) being b) going c) shall d) will
- 2 a) be b) do c) for d) to
- 3 a) are b) do c) was d) will
- 4 a) about b) aren't c) be d) don't
- 5 a) be b) have c) was d) will
- 6 a) are b) going c) to d) will
- 7 a) be b) for c) is d) to
- 8 a) about b) might c) probably d) will

Nariman: I don't know. I'm (1) _____ to be busy this week. And I'll (2) _____ going to Amman on Wednesday.

Nadia: Oh. But you (3) _____ be here for my engagement party, won't you?

Nariman: No, I (4) _____ get back until Friday evening.

Nadia: I (5) _____ going to invite you.

Nariman: Well, I'm sorry I can't come.

Nadia: What (6) _____ you doing in Amman?

Nariman: Oh, I'm just going (7) _____ see my relatives. Look, I must go. I'm cooking something that I think is (8) _____ to boil over.

6F) Some of these sentences are correct, and some have a word which should not be there. If the sentence is correct, write *correct*. If it is incorrect, cross the unnecessary word out of the sentence and write it next to the sentence.

They're probably going to knock the building down. *correct*

We are be going to get a car soon. *be*

1 The coach is leaves at eight twenty.

2 The doors of the theatre are about to open.

3 The match will be start at half past seven.

4 Edinburgh Festival is for to take place in August.

5 Khaled will be calling here tomorrow morning.

6 We were going to eat in the restaurant, but it was full.

7 I have to register for my course before the classes will begin.

8 I will to have finished my homework by two o'clock.

6G) Put in a form of the verb. Use the future continuous (*will be doing*), the future perfect (*will have done*) or *was/were going to*. The first one has been done for you as an example.

It's quite a long way, isn't it? *We'll have walked* (walk) about seven miles by the time we get back, I'd say.

1 It'll be better if you don't ring at nine o'clock. We _____ (have) a meeting then.

2 I _____ (drive) over and see you, but there's something wrong with the van.

3 I've got loads of work. I expect I _____ (work) all night. And I'm not looking forward to it.

4 I'll have much more time next week because I _____ (do) all my exams then.

5 We _____ (buy) that computer game, but they don't make it for the kind of computer we have got.

6 I know you'll put on a wonderful show. You _____ (have) so much practice by the time you perform it that it's sure to be brilliant.

6H) Write a second sentence so that it has a similar meaning to the first. Use the word in brackets. The first one is done for you as an example.

We have decided to help with the project. (going)
We are going to help with the project.

1 We're willing to wait for you. ('ll)

2 You can get off this train at Stirling. (stops)

3 His niece intended to visit us. (going)

4 Adrian's university interview is on 17 October. (having)

5 Our meal will be over by eight o'clock. (finished)

6 I think I'm going to go on the trip. (might)

7 The fire hasn't gone out yet, but it will in a minute. (about)

6I) Put in the missing words. Use one word only in each space. The first one has been done for you as an example.

I don't want a steak. I think I'll *have* the chicken.

1 There's a fireworks display tomorrow. The children are _____ to watch it.

2 We're at that table in the corner. _____ you join us?

3 I'm seeing the boss this afternoon. But I must study this report before I _____ her.

4 There will be fresh drinks at the reception, but there will _____ be any food.

5 The European heads of state are _____ meet in Brussels next week.

6 It's such a lovely day. _____ we go for a walk?

7 My birthday _____ on a Monday next year.

8 My brother is engaged to a wonderful girl. They're _____ married in June.

9 You won't be allowed to go in after the lecture _____ started.
10 Martin's got his coat on. I think he's _____ to go out.

6J) Write the underlined sentences correctly.

I'm hungry. I think I have something to eat. *I think I'll have something to eat.*

1 You say you're getting a coach at nine. What time is it getting to Leeds?

2 I'll give Lina the news. I'll tell her when I'll see her this evening.

3 Rania looks really tired. She's about falling asleep.

4 We've arranged to go out. We meet in town later.

5 I'm going to France next week. I send you a postcard.

6 I'm going to get to the station early. I can read a book while I'll be waiting.

7 I feel a bit tired. I go to lie down.

8 Why not come to the party? All your friends shall be there.

9 There's been a fire alarm. No one can go into the building until the firemen will have put the fire out.

6K) Read the news report and write the missing words. Use one word only in each space.

A big company is *going* to build a huge new shopping center in Homs, it was announced yesterday. There (1) _____ be at least one hundred shops, including a big department store. When the project (2) _____ complete, there (3) _____ be hundreds of new jobs for local people. But not everyone is happy. 'We're (4) _____ to fight this plan', said a spokesperson for the local Environment Group. 'Just think what is going (5) _____ happen to our countryside. When shopping malls (6) _____ covered the whole country, there (7) _____ be no green fields left. So we're (8) _____ a protest meeting tomorrow evening. It (9) _____ at half past seven.' Owners of shops in the town centre are also unhappy. 'The new center (10) _____ take our customers away', said one of them.

6L) Look at the answers below and write the correct answer in each space.

A: Let's go to the circus, shall we?

B: Yes, good idea. I expect it'll be fun.

a) it'll be, b) it's, c) it's being

1 A: Could I have a word with you, please?

B: Sorry, I'm in a big hurry. My train _____ in fifteen minutes.

a) is going to leave b) leaves c) will leave

2 A: Have you decided about the MA course?

B: Yes, I decided last weekend. _____ for a place at the University.

a) I apply b) I am to apply c) I'm going to apply

3 A: I'm trying to move this cupboard, but it's very heavy.

B: Well, _____ you, then.

a) I help b) I'll help c) I'm going to help

4 A: Is the mall open yet?

B: No, but there's someone inside. I think _____.

a) it opens b) it's about to open c) it will open

5 A: Do you mind not leaving your books all over the table?

B: Oh, sorry. I'll take them all with me when _____.

a) I go b) I'll go c) I'm going

- 6 A: It's a school holiday next Thursday.
B: Yes, I know. _____ any thing special?
a) Are you doing b) Do you do c) Will you do

6M) Write the sentences using a future form of the verb. Use the word in brackets. The first one has been done for you as an example.

Express your instant decision to take a taxi. (I'll)
I'll take a taxi.

- 1 Express your intention to study. (going)
- 2 Express the idea that the timetable shows the start of term on 15 September. (starts)
- 3 Predict a world war in five years' time. (there)
- 4 Express the idea that you and Sami have arranged a game of chess for tomorrow. (playing)
- 5 Give your prediction of a probable fall in prices. (probably)
- 6 Warn your passenger about the van crashing. (going)

6N) Read each numbered sentence. Write T (True) or F (False) for the statement that follows. The first one has been done for you as an example.

1. By this time tomorrow, I'll have decided which car to buy. T I haven't decided yet which car I'm going to buy.

2. We'll have already finished the grocery shopping by the time you get home.

_____ You will get home while we are shopping.
3. By next year, Mary will have been working at the newspaper for five years.

_____ Next year, Mary can celebrate her fifth anniversary at the newspaper.

4. By ten o'clock, she won't have finished writing her column yet.
_____ She will finish writing at ten o'clock.

5. We will have moved to a larger office by the year 2010.
_____ We will move to a larger office after the year 2010.

6. By next year, we'll have been publishing the newsletter for fifteen years.
_____ We started the newsletter less than fifteen years ago.

Chapter Four

Modal Verbs

Contents of Chapter Four:

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4.1. Modal Verbs

Language is not always used just to exchange information by making simple statements and asking questions. Sometimes we want to make requests, offers, or suggestions, or we may want to express our wishes or intentions. We may also want to be polite or tactful, or to indicate our feelings about what we are saying. We can do all these things by using a set of verbs called **modal verbs** or **modals**. Modals are always used with other verbs. They are a special kind of auxiliary verbs.

Modals sharing the same grammatical characteristics are: *can/could; may/might, will/would, shall/should, must* and *ought to*.

Look, I can do it! — So can you.

Might I use your telephone? — Of course you may.

Do you think the teacher will come? — I'm sure she will

I must revise for my exams.

Modal auxiliaries often indicate time, but their main job is to denote different shades of meaning. The grammatical construction of each of the following sentences is the same, but are the meanings the same?

I will help you.
I might help you.
I can help you.
I should help you.
I must help you.

The meanings are certainly not the same. It all depends on the speaker; what he wants to express in a particular situation, his knowledge about the situation and his feelings towards it.

4.2. The Main Uses of Modals

In English, modals are mainly used to add special elements of meaning to a main verb. They usually indicate the speaker's attitude towards the following:

i) Attitude to information

When you are giving information, you sometimes use modals to indicate how certain you are that what you are saying is true or correct.

ii) Attitude to intentions

You can use modals to indicate your attitude towards the things you intend to do, or intend not to do.

iii) Attitude to people

When you use language, you are affecting and responding to a particular person. Modals are often used to produce a particular effect, and the modal you choose depends on several factors, such as the relationship you have with your listener, the formality or informality of the situation, and the importance of what you are saying.

4.3. Special Features of Modal Verbs

1) Modal verbs are followed by the base form of the verb if there is no other auxiliary verb present.

I must leave fairly soon.

Yes, you may borrow my notes for tonight.

You can go at 7 p.m. It's too early to go now.

People must think about the consequences of their actions.

If one of the auxiliary verbs *have* or *be* follows the modal verb, the main verb will take the appropriate present or past participle form.

I **may have** hurt her.

You **could have** done it yourself.

Julian **might be** coming too.

Her mother **will have been** worried about her, I'm sure.

2) Unlike other verbs, modal verbs do not inflect. They have only one form: the base form. They do not have an '-s' form in the third person singular, and they don't have an '-ing' or an '-ed' forms.

I **must** leave now.

She **must** leave not.

I **may** be late home.

She **may** be late home.

• Since modal verbs do not have past tense forms you have to use other verbs to provide some of the modal meanings in the past, for example, past necessity is expressed by *had to* instead of *must*.

I **must** visit my grandparents today.

I **had to** visit my grandparents yesterday.

3) Modals do not have a *to* infinitive

4) **Negatives** are formed by putting a negative word such as 'not' immediately after the modal. In the case of 'ought to', you put the negative word after 'ought'. 'Can not' is usually written as one word 'cannot'.

You **must not** stay out late.

He **ought not** to have said that.

I **cannot** finish it on my own.

Amal **may not** wait for her friends.

They **might not** wait for you.

5) **Questions** are formed by putting the modal in front of the subject. In the case of 'ought to', you put 'ought' in front of the subject and 'to' after it.

Could you pass me the salt, please?

Will you be able to help me?

Ought you to make some notes about it?

Will you be doing some shopping?

6) In negative questions, the modal comes in front of the subject, and the negative particle 'not' follows the subject.

Will he not be calling us this week?

If the contracted negative form of the modal is used, then it comes before the subject and the rest of the verb.

Won't he be calling us this week?

7) In responses, if a modal verb is first in the verb phrase, some speakers prefer to use the modal and the auxiliary form together as the response form.

Might he have left the keys somewhere? — Yes, he might or Yes, he might have.

Laura could be coming with us then. — Yes, she could or Yes, she could be.

8) Modals are used in question tags.

They cannot be serious, can they?

You won't forget to write to me, will you?

9) The contracted forms of modal verbs

The modals *shall* and *will* are usually contracted to 'll in spoken English. All the negative forms can be contracted to form a single word such as *can't*, *won't*, *wouldn't*. These contracted forms are common in both spoken and written English.

I will / shall = I'll

We will / shall = we'll

You mustn't use my things, Jenny.

Jane can't come to my place; I don't want her.

There are other contracted forms such as *he'll*, *we'll*, *shan't*, and *they'll*, which are common in spoken English but rare in written English.

• Several verbs such as *dare*, *need*, *etc.* act as modals sometimes and as full main verbs at other times. These are called semi-modal verbs.

How dare she! (In this example 'dare' is acting as a modal)

She dares to ask me to do her washing! (In this example, 'dare' is acting as a full main verb)

She need not come if that is how she feels. (In this example 'need' is acting as a modal)

Mona needs a new costume. (In this example, 'need' is acting as a full main verb)

4.4. Modal Verbs

The following is a description of each of the English modal verbs:

- a) Can and Could.
- b) May and Might.
- c) Must.
- d) Shall and Will.
- e) Should.
- f) Would.
- g) Ought to.

4.4.1. Can and Could

Both these verbs indicate ability in some respect. The use of *could* is usual in clauses that contain a reference to past time.

Maya can speak French quite well now.

She can play chess now but she couldn't play it three years ago.

When I was younger I could play table tennis really well.

Uses of Can and Could

1) To indicate that you have a skill or ability or you know how to do something.

Mohammad **can** speak French quite well now.

I **can** play chess now but I **couldn't** play it two years ago.

Some people **can** act better than others.

She **cannot** dance well, but she **can** play the piano.

I **could** swim when I was very young.

When I was younger I **could** play the guitar really well.

Winston is so strong he **can** lift me right off my feet.

2) To make polite requests or to ask for permission:

Could is more tentative than **can**. (This use of **can** is not ungrammatical, but it blurs the distinction between ability and possibility in requests: **may** is more formal.)

Can I borrow your book for tomorrow?

Could I use your phone?

Could you please be quiet?

May I take the book home to finish the project? (More formal)

3) To express the possibility of an action in the future, especially when the possibility is related to plans or projects. (Compare with **may**, where the possibility referred to is still uncertain and in the future.)

We **can** go to the seaside next week since you are free.

We **could** go to the seaside next week if you are free.

We **may** go to the seaside but it depends on our finances.
(Possibility in the future is still uncertain)

4) To express the possibility of an action in the present.

Don't stop your car suddenly. You **can** cause an accident.

Be careful with those matches! You **could** start a fire.

We can swim near the shore; it is quite safe.
We could swim near the shore; it is quite safe.

5) To talk about actions that were possible but did not happen, using *could* + the Perfect form of *have*.

My mother could have stopped the fight between us but she didn't interfere.

6) Using the Perfect form of *have*, to speculate about actions that have recently taken place.

Who could have broken the door lock?
Who could have guessed that she will be there?

7) Can/could can also be used to make a suggestion.

Sam: My neighbours are a nuisance.

Jim: You can try and talk to them.

You could get your mother a scarf on mother's day.

A distinction between *can* and *could* is observed in conditionals. *Could* is used when the conditions are not met.

If Laila is coming, she can look after the children for a while.

If Huda had more money, she could buy a computer

When changing sentences from direct to reported speech *can* is usually changed to *could*.

Betty said, "I can do it for you, Susan."

Betty said that she could do it for Susan.

4.4.2. May and Might

Both *may* and *might* are used in requests and in expressions of possibility for the present and future.

Uses of May and Might

1) *May* is used to ask permission in a more formal way than *can*.

Dr. Fox, **may** I borrow your lecture notes, please?

May I have a glass of water, please?

May I use your telephone?

Might is also sometimes used to ask permission, especially when you want to show that you are uncertain about the response.

Might I bring my friend with me to your dinner party?

2) *May* is used to give permission, particularly when applied to *you, he, she, they*, or a proper noun, to show that the speaker is allowing something to happen.

You **may** watch the film since you have finished writing your homework.

3) To express the possibility of some future action, *might* is more tentative than *may*.

I **may/might** go home after this lecture.

We **may/might** go to the party tomorrow.

It **may/might** snow tonight.

4) *May* is often used for politeness, to make an order appear as a request; *might* is used to make the speaker more remote from the request. Because of this it can seem very formal.

May I take a few minutes of your time?

May I have a word with you?

Might I have a word with you?

5) **Might** is used when someone is trying to persuade another person to do something, perhaps with some degree of irritation,

Peter, you **might** tell me what he said. I want to know.

But it can also be used for a casual request.

If you're going out, **might** I ask you to get me some bread?

• When **might** is used in a conditional sentence, the **if** clause can be in the present or the past tense. Compare with **could**.

If she **comes**, she **might** baby sit for us.

If she **came**, she **might** baby sit for us.

When changing sentences from direct to reported speech **may** is usually rewritten as **might**.

"May I revise with you?" Norma asked.

Norma asked if she **might** revise with them.

4.4.3. **Must**

Must is used to express obligation, compulsion and accepted truths. It can only be used for present and future reference. When the past is involved, you use **have to**.

Must is used:

1) To express obligation.

All participants **must** report at the enquiry desk before the conference.

2) To give orders firmly and positively.

You **must** go and see your grandparents.

You **must** not talk in class.

You **must** get to work on time.

3) To give advice or make recommendations emphatically.

You **must** get one of these new mobile phones — they're great!
You really **must** read Shakespeare's 'Hamlet' — it's very good.

4) To express a positive assumption that the speaker is making about the truth of something.

She **must** be a good writer because she has won many awards.
You cannot be serious, you **must** be joking!
There **must** be a mistake: it cannot be me.

When this sort of statement is made in the negative or interrogative, **can** is used instead.

Can she be joking?

Can she really mean that?

You **can't** be serious!

It **can't** be true!

• **Must** can be used in the interrogative, but many speakers prefer **have to** instead.

Must she go alone?

Must I invite Helen?

Does she **have to** go alone?

Do I **have to** invite Helen?

5) You can use **must** with a negative to give a definite prohibition.

You **must not** cross the road when the light is green.

You **must not** throw your litter on the road.

You **must not** smoke in public.

6) You can use **must** with a negative to talk about an event or state that is unacceptable.

There **mustn't** be a mistake. ...
Endangered animals **must not** become extinct.

• It is necessary to change **must** to **have to** when changing sentences from direct to reported speech.

"I **must** visit my grandparents this evening," said Amal.
Amal said that she **had to** visit her grandparents.

4.4.4. Shall and Will

The modal verb **will** followed by the base form of a main verb is the normal way to express simple future time reference in English.

The uses of shall

1) With questions involving *I* and *we* when the speaker is making a suggestion.

Shall I type the report for you?
Shall we tidy up the place together?
Shall we go out for a walk?
Shall we go shopping?

2) With *I* and *we* to show intentions and to make promises.

Don't worry. I **shan't/won't** use your comb.
We **shall/will** be in touch.
I **shall/will** try to ensure that you get a good place.

3) With *you*, *he*, *she*, *it*, and *they*, to show willingness.

He **shall** be well treated.
You **shall** have your money by next week.

4) To show insistence. Full forms are normally used, and are stressed in speech.

You shall do what I ask you to do!
I shall/will make a scene and you can't stop me.

The uses of will

1) Everywhere that *shall* can be used, except for questions with *I* or *we*.

2) To make polite requests and to give invitations.

Will you help me look for my gold watch?
Will you come over to our place on Friday?

3) To give orders.

You will finish your food before you go out to play, won't you?
Lina, will you please go to sleep!

4) To show persistence (full form with stress).

The children will argue with their mother, whatever she does.

5) To show prediction.

The exam will be finished by now.
She will have reached home by now.

4.4.5. Should

The uses of should

1) To indicate moral obligation. Compare with *ought to*.

They should do what their parents suggested.
The rich should do more to help the poor.

2) To give advice or instructions.

You **should** keep your identity card in a safe place.

You **should** turn off the light whenever you leave the room.

3) To suggest that something follows on logically from what has just been said.

They left Damascus at 6 o'clock; they **should** be in Aleppo by now.

4) In a conditional clause, **should** can be used to show politeness. This use is usual in formal written communication.

If you **should** decide to go, please contact us.

Should you need more information, call the secretary.

• **should** + the perfect form of **have** can be used to express regret or annoyance about something that was done or not done. Compare with **ought to**.

He **should have stopped** at the red light.

You **should have told** me you were going away.

• When changing sentences from direct to reported speech **should** usually replaces **shall** after the first person singular or plural (**I, we**). Historically, **should** was the past tense of **shall**.

Amal said that I **should** go to Lebanon next week.

4.4.6. Would

The uses of **would**

1) To signal a polite request.

Would you mind shutting the window?

Would you lend me your eraser, please?

2) To offer something politely.

Would you like a cold or a hot drink?

3) Together with *like* as a polite form of *want*.

We would like to see the manager, please.

My friends would like to see your house.

4) To refer to characteristic activity, with the meaning of *used to*.

Janet would eat sweets all day — no wonder she is so fat.

5) To show persistence in an activity.

Would is sometimes stressed here. It can also be used to answer a complaint when the speaker feels that someone has brought about his or her own misfortune.

He would keep nagging at his mother, though I advised him not to.

Well, you would keep doing it. I warned you.

I wish my friend wouldn't keep asking me to lend her my things.

6) To express and ask about probability.

_ I saw an old man near our house.

_ Who would that be?

_ Oh, that would be our neighbour's gardener!

7) To suggest what the speaker believes would take place in a certain set of circumstances, usually with an 'if' clause.

I would have done my homework if I had the time.

I wouldn't refuse if you had asked me to type it for you.

When changing sentences from direct speech to reported speech, *will* is usually changed to *would*. Historically, *would* was the past tense of *will*.

Betty said, "Raymond will help you tomorrow."

Betty said that Raymond would help us the following day.

Jamal said, "The car won't start!"

Jamal said that the car wouldn't start.

4.4.7. Ought to

The verb **ought to** does not have a past form. It is only used with reference to the present and the future.

The uses of ought to

1) To express an obligation or an expectation that someone should do something.

They knew they **ought to** come on time.

Lamia **ought to** go today and Hiba **ought to** go later.

People **ought to** give more money to the poor.

Children **ought to** learn to clean their teeth regularly.

2) To express the likelihood of something happening.

Anna **ought to** be here by now.

They **ought to** finish cooking lunch soon.

The exam results **ought to** be announced by now.

3) **Ought to + have + past participle of main verb** is used to express regret that something was not done or to reproach someone for doing or not doing something.

I **ought to** have told you earlier. I am sorry I didn't.

You **ought to** have come to help.

We **ought to** have given more money to help the poor.

The use of **ought to** is less strong than **should** or **must**.

Compare:

You ought to consider the feelings of others.

You really should be more considerate in future.

You must consider the feelings of other people.

The distinctions are as follows:

- To give general advice, use **ought to**.
- When you want to add a reproach, use **should**.
- If you want to be insistent or suggest a threat, use **must**.

• In questions **should** is frequently used instead of **ought to** because it sounds more natural.

Ought I to report it to his parents?

Should I report it to his parents? (The use of 'should' here makes the sentence sound more natural)

4.5. Exercises

1) Modal Verbs

1A) Decide which word is correct. The first one has been done for you as an example.

Could I have some more juice, please?

a) Could, b) Shall, c) Will, d) Would

1 My father's asleep. We _____ make a noise.

a) couldn't/could not, b) mustn't, c) needn't, d) wouldn't/would not

2 _____ you like to go for a ride with us?

a) Do, b) Should, c) Will, d) Would

3 I wonder if this is the right bus. It _____ not be.

a) can, b) could, c) might, d) must

4 I don't think I want to see this play. Oh, I think you _____ enjoy it.

a) can, b) shall, c) will, d) would

5 I'm quite happy to walk. You _____ drive me home.

a) don't/do not b) haven't/have not c) mustn't/must not
d) needn't/need not

6 " _____ I give you a lift?" "Oh, thank you."

a) Do, b) Shall, c) Will, d) Would

7 It's late. I think we _____ better take a taxi.

a) had b) have c) should d) would

8 We all tried to push the van, but in vain; it _____ move.

a) can't/cannot b) couldn't/could not c) won't/will not
d) wouldn't/would not

1B) Some of these sentences are correct, and some have a word which should not be there. If the sentence is correct, write *correct*. If it is incorrect, cross the unnecessary word out of the sentence and write it in the gap next to the sentence. The first two have been done for you as examples.

I won't be able to come to the meeting. *correct*

I ~~didn't~~ shouldn't have watered the garden because it's raining. *didn't*

1 Would you like to be in the staff?

2 Did scouts have to bring their own sleeping-bags?

3 I could to swim when I was quite twelve.

4 Would you mind for typing these letters?

5 We may be go camping next week.

6 I knew that he would be sorry later.

7 If you had fallen, you could have been hurt yourself.

8 We're not supposed to use this entrance.

9 You don't have to do all the work yourself.

10 Visitors weren't be allowed to take photos.

1C) Write a second sentence so that it has a similar meaning to the first. Use the word in brackets. The first one has been done for you as an example.

Perhaps Moustafa knows the address. (may)

Moustafa may know the address.

1 You should be more careful. (ought)

2 I realize that it was a terrible holiday for you. (must)

3 It is possible that the university did not receive my e-mail. (might)

4 It's impossible for Martin to be jogging in this weather. (can't/cannot)

1D) Say what the speaker is doing. After each sentence write one of the phrases from the box. The first one has been done for you as an example.

Asking for advice
Giving an order
Making a suggestion
Refusing permission
Asking permission
Inviting
~~Offering food~~
Expressing a wish
Making a request
Offering to help

Will you have a piece of cake? *offering food*

1 May I come in?

2 You must write to me every day.

3 Which universities should I apply for?

4 Would you like to spend the weekend with us?

5 Shall I do the shopping?

6 Shall we eat out?

7 I'm sorry. You can't smoke here.

8 Could you fill in this form, please?

9 We really must have a nice big party.

1 E) Here is some information for visitors to Syria. Write the missing words. Use one word only in each space.

Before you travel to Syria, you (1) _____ find out what documents you need. Arab people do not (2) _____ to get a visa, but there are different rules for different nationalities. But there's one rule you can be sure about: everyone (3) _____ to show their passport. The roads in Damascus are very busy, but don't worry - you (4) _____ get around cheaply and easily by microbus. Remember that you (5) _____ not smoke on public transport. And don't forget either that you are supposed to tip taxi drivers and waiters. Damascus is one of the safest cities in the world. So you (6) _____ walk along empty streets at any time of the night.

Chapter five

Active and Passive Voice

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5.1. The Active and Passive Voice

The term 'voice' refers to the relationship between the verb (or action) and the subject of a sentence.

5.1.1. The Active Voice

In an active voice sentence, we place the subject before the verb because we want to emphasize who or what performs the action, i.e. we want to emphasize the doer of the action. In the example below, the verb is in the active voice.

They sell fresh meat in this market.

The subject of the above active-voice sentence is the person or thing that carries out the action that the verb expresses. The active voice is used in most English speech and writing, because we usually want to inform our listener or our reader who or what carried out the action of the verb.

Other examples of sentences in the active voice:

Samer hid the money in the safe.

The car knocked over our neighbour's cat.

The publishers are sending the book from Hong Kong.

A famous surgeon operated on the patient.

The police arrested the runaway prisoner.

5.1.2. The Passive Voice

In a passive voice sentence, we want to emphasize the action, i.e. what happened, rather than who or what performs the action. In the passive voice sentence, the subject (doer) of the active voice sentence is placed after the verb or is omitted entirely. In the following example, the verb is in the passive voice.

Fresh meat is sold in this market (by them).

The subject in the above passive-voice sentence is not the person or thing that does the action of the verb. It is the person or thing that is acted on by the verb.

Other examples of sentences in the passive voice:

The money was hidden in the safe.

Our neighbour's cat was knocked over (by a car).

The book is being sent (by the publishers) from Hong Kong.

The patient was operated on (by a famous surgeon).

The runaway prisoner was arrested (by the police).

5.2. Forming the Passive

Passive verbs are made from a form of *be* + the **past participle of a main verb**. In the passive voice, the form of the auxiliary verb *be* indicates the tense.

They sell fresh poultry in this supermarket. (Active voice: simple present)

Fresh poultry is sold in this supermarket. (Passive voice: simple present)

They once sold live poultry in this supermarket. (Active voice: simple past)

At one time live poultry was sold in this supermarket. (Passive voice: simple past)

5.2.1. The Tenses in the Passive Voice.

The following are examples of sentences (statements and questions) in the active and the passive voice in most of the tenses in English:

Simple Present

Statement

Active: Many people use the Sports Center in our area.

Passive: The Sports Center in our area is used by many people.

Question

Active: Do many people use the Sports Center in our area?

Passive: Is the Sports Center in our area used by many people?

Simple Past

Statement

Active: Many children used the Sports Center in our area during the summer holidays.

Passive: the Sports Center in our area was used by many children during the summer holidays.

Question

Active: Did many children use the Sports Center in our area during the summer holidays?

Passive: Was the Sports Center in our area used by many children during the summer holidays?

Present Continuous

Statement

Active: Workmen are painting our house.

Passive: Our house is being painted.

Question

Active: Are workmen painting our house?

Passive: Is our house being painted?

Past Continuous

Statement

Active: Yesterday, they were painting my room.

Passive: Yesterday, my room was being painted.

Question

Active: Were they painting my room yesterday?

Passive: Was my room being painted yesterday?

Future with Will

Statement

Active: They will paint my parent's room tomorrow.

Passive: My parent's room will be painted tomorrow.

Question

Active: Will they paint my parent's room tomorrow?

Passive: Will my parent's room be painted tomorrow?

Future with going to

Statement

Active: An interior designer is going to redecorate the living room.

Passive: The living room is going to be redecorated by an interior designer.

Question

Active: Is an interior designer going to redecorate the living room?

Passive: Is the living room going to be redecorated?

Present Perfect

Statement

Active: The interior designer has ordered a lot of equipment.

Passive: A lot of equipment has been ordered by the interior designer.

Question

Active: Has the interior designer ordered a lot of equipment?

Passive: Has a lot of equipment been ordered?

Past Perfect

Statement

Active: Workmen had already redecorated part of the living room.

Passive: Part of the living room had already been redecorated.

Question

Active: Had workmen already redecorated part of the living room?

Passive: Had part of the living room been already redecorated?

Future Perfect

Statement

Active: The workmen will have painted the house by the end of next week.

Passive: The house will have been painted by the end of next week.

Question

Active: Will the workmen have painted the house by the end of next week?

Passive: Will the house have been painted by the end of next week?

Present Infinitive

Statement

Active: My father has to install a new computer.

Passive: A new computer has to be installed.

Question

Active: Does my father have to install a new computer?

Passive: Does a new computer have to be installed?

Modals

Statement

Active: We should finish the redecoration before September 1st.

Passive: The redecoration should be finished before September 1st.

Question

Active: Should we finish the redecoration before September 1st?

Passive: Should the redecoration be finished before September 1st?

Modals

Statement

Active: We should have finished the redecoration before September 1st.

Passive: The redecoration should have been finished before September 1st.

Question

Active: Should we have finished the redecoration before September 1st?

Passive: Should the redecoration have been finished before September 1st?

5.2.2. The Subject of a Passive Verb

The verb in a passive sentence has the word that would normally be its object in the position of the subject. When a verb has two objects, either the indirect object or the direct object of the active verb may become the subject of the passive verb. If the indirect object is mentioned after the passive verb, the sentence must use *to*. Some verbs that are often used this way are: *give, offer, lend, promise, sell, and tell*.

Laila gave Lamia some money. (The sentence is in the active voice)
Some money was given to Lamia (by Laila). (The sentence is in the passive voice with the direct object as the subject of the passive verb + *to*)

Lamia was given some money (by Laila). (The sentence is in the passive voice with the indirect object as the subject of the passive verb)

Jamal lent Hani his old car. (Active)

Jamal's old car was lent to Hani. (Passive + to)

Someone gave Rula Salma's copy of the grammar book. (Active)

Salma's copy of the grammar book was given to Rula. (Passive + to)

• Not every verb can be changed into the passive voice. A verb that can be changed into the passive must be a transitive one (one that has an object). Intransitive verbs cannot be changed into the passive voice.

• There is a small group of words that are only or mostly used in the passive, e.g. *be born*, where it is normally something that happens to you rather than something that someone does to you.

The King was born in a far land.

5.3. Uses of the Passive Voice

The passive voice is used in the following instances:

i) When it is more interesting or important to emphasize what happened rather than who or what performed the action.

There was a terrible flood in the North of the country and hundreds of houses were destroyed.

ii) When the doer of the action is unknown.

Someone broke into our neighbour's house last night.
Our neighbour's house was broken into last night.

iii) When the doer of the action is known, but the speaker or writer does not want to name the person who made a statement or did something wrong.

Milk was spilled on the floor accidentally.

iv) When the doers of the action represent a large group of people.

Good quality cotton is grown in Syria.

v) When the doer of the action is obvious.

The criminal has already been arrested (by the police).

Our exam papers have already been marked (by the teacher).

5.4. Exercises

1) Active or Passive verb?

1A) Choose the correct verb forms in this news report about a storm. The first one has been done for you as an example.

Millions of dollars' worth of damage has caused /has been caused by a storm which (1) swept/was swept across the north of China last night. Rivers (2) burst/was burst their banks after heavy rain. Many people (3) rescued/were rescued from the floods by fire fighters, who (4) received/were received hundreds of calls for help. Wind speeds (5) reached/were reached ninety miles an hour in some places. Roads (6) blocked/were blocked by fallen trees, and electricity lines (7) brought/were brought down, leaving thousands of homes without electricity. 'Everything possible (8) is doing/is being done to get things back to normal,' a spokesman (9) said/was said.

1B) In each of the following sentences underline who or what is doing the action. The first one is done for you as an example.

The traffic was all heading out of town.

- 1 The photo was taken by my father.
- 2 The water was pouring out of the ceiling.
- 3 A policeman has been murdered by the prisoners.
- 4 We were woken by the alarm.
- 5 The guide led a group of tourists around the citadel.
- 6 The dog has bitten several children.

1C) You are telling a friend some news. Use the notes and complete the second sentence. Sometimes you need to use the active and sometimes the passive.

(Past simple: Samar / go / to Paris / last month)
You remember Samar? She *went to Paris last month*.

(Present perfect: send / our luggage / to Dubai)
Bad news about our luggage. It's *been sent to Dubai*.

- 1 (Past simple: Ghada Shuaa / win / an Olympic medal)
Did you hear about the Olympic medal? It
- 2 (Past simple: Hadi / do / a parachute jump / last week)
You know Hadi? He
- 3 (Present perfect: a dog / attack / Dani)
Have you heard about Dani? He's
- 4 (Present continuous: build / the house)
Trevor and Laura have bought a house. It's still
- 5 (Present simple: Andy / like / Jessica)
Did I tell you about Andy? He
- 6 (Present perfect: throw away / your stamp collection)
Bad news about your stamp collection. It's
- 7 (Present perfect: criminal / kidnap / my neighbours)
Did I mention my neighbours? They ~~was~~
- 8 (Past simple: five people / see / the accident)
Did you hear about the accident? It

1D) Find and correct **eight** mistakes in the use of the passive. The first mistake is already corrected.

Two-thirds of Bolivia's five million people ~~locate~~ are located in the cool western highlands known as the Altiplano. For centuries, the grain quinoa has been ~~grew~~ in the mountains. Llamas raised for fur, meat, and transportation. And tin, Bolivia's richest natural resource, is mining by miners in the high Andes.

The Oriente, another name for the eastern lowlands, is mostly tropical. Rice is the major food crop, and cows are raised for milk. Oil is also find there. Although Spanish is the official language, Native American languages are still spoken by people. Traditional textiles are woven by hand, and music played on reed pipes whose tone resembles the sound of the wind blowing over high plains in the Andes.

1E) Rewrite these sentences beginning with the underlined words. The first one has been done for you as an example.

Thieves robbed a woman.

A woman was robbed.

- 1 They may ban the film because of the violence scenes in it.
- 2 The director offered Hanan a pay increase.
- 3 We need to correct the mistakes.
- 4 The bank manager reported that the situation was under control.
- 5 They are testing the new drug.
- 6 My sister hasn't read her e-mails for a week.

1F) Read the story and write the missing words. Use one word only in each space.

During periods of terrorist activity by the IRA, people in Britain are always *being* warned to look out for bombs. Any bag or parcel unattended (1) _____ seen as a risk to the public. Some time ago a cardboard box was found at the entrance to Bristol Zoo one day. It was noticed (2) _____ a visitor and reported to the director. Clearly, if it was a bomb and it went off, people might (3) _____ killed. So army bomb experts (4) _____ called in, and the box was safely blown up in a controlled explosion. Soon afterwards (5) _____ was reported that the box had (6) _____ left there by a boy wanting to find a new home for his pet rat. He was tired of the rat, he explained, but he was unwilling to (7) _____ it put to sleep by a vet, so he left it in a box outside the zoo. The director of the zoo is thought to be unenthusiastic about looking after people's unwanted pets. No one knows what the rat thought about (8) _____ blown up.

1G) Write a second sentence so that it has a similar meaning to the first. Use the word in brackets. The first one has been done for you as an example.

We have to test these products. (be)

These products have to be tested.

- 1 Asala sang a national song. (by)
- 2 They pay hairdressers a lot of money. (are)
- 3 Mike was cleaning the car. (being)
- 4 A mechanic is repairing Nawal's car. (having)
- 5 Everyone agreed that the plan should go ahead. (it)
- 6 When did they redecorate your house? (get)

1H) Which of the two sentences follows on best? The first one has been done for you as an example.

There's going to be a big art exhibition.

- a) A lot of visitors will be attracted to it.
- b) *It will attract a lot of visitors.*

1 My friend has got a cat and a parrot.

- a) A lot of mice are caught by the cat.
- b) The cat catches a lot of mice.

2 Last night Stewart dreamt he saw his dead fiancée.

- a) A white dress was being worn by the ghost.
- b) The ghost was wearing a white dress.

3 We've bought a new photocopier.

- a) It can do the job much more quickly.
- b) The job can be done much more quickly.

4 My grandmother is very ill.

- a) She's being looked after by my mother.
- b) My mother is looking after her.

5 We've completed the research.

- a) The newspapers will publish the results.
- b) The results will be published in the newspapers.

1I) Each of the following sentences is incorrect. Write the correct sentence. The first one has been done for you as an example.

~~Those nice vases got break.~~

Those nice vases got broken.

1 The poem was written John Donne.

2 The match do play at this stadium.

3 My new trousers need iron.

4 I got cut my hair yesterday.

5 It believes that there is going to be a war.

6 My parents divorce themselves last year.

7 I've got to report what is written.

8 To the winner athlete was given a prize.

9 This man on TV supposes to be the tallest person in the world.

Chapter Six

Beyond the Sentence

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6.5. Exercises

6.1. Finite and Non-finite Verbs

A sentence is formed of one or more clauses. The word **clause** refers to a group of words that has a subject and a verb. In each sentence there is normally at least one verb that has both a subject and a tense. This kind of verb is called a **finite verb**. Some parts of a verb are **non-finite**. The **present and past participles** and the **to infinitive** are the most common of these. The base form is often used in a non-finite way. Every verb can be used in a clause in either a finite or non-finite way.

We want Charles to act as class representative. ('want' is the finite verb and the infinitive 'to act' is non-finite one)

He likes to take photographs of nature. ('likes' here is the finite verb and the infinitive 'to take' is the non-finite one)

Coming home last night I saw a huge butterfly on the wall. (The participle 'coming' here is the non-finite verb and 'saw' is the finite one)

• A verb is **finite** if it is found in a clause in combination with a subject and a tense.

I walked home.

We saw a huge butterfly.

They appreciate a little praise now and then.

• A verb is **non-finite** if it is used without the verb having a tense, or with no agreement between the subject (if there is one) and the verb.

To open, tear off the sticker.

Looking around, she noticed blood on the floor.

Fatigued by the heat, they stopped for a drink.

6.2. Types of English Clauses

In English, there are two kinds of clauses:

— **Main or independent clauses.**

— **Subordinate or dependent clauses.**

6.2.1. Main or Independent Clauses.

An **independent or main clause** has a subject and a verb and makes sense by itself. All complete sentences contain an independent clause.

I saw Samia yesterday. (Independent clause)
She seemed very happy. (Independent clauses)
She was going to visit her grandmother. (Independent clauses)

6.2.2. Subordinate or Dependent Clauses.

A dependent or subordinate clause also has a subject and a verb, but it is not a complete sentence because it does not make sense by itself.

When I saw Samia yesterday (dependent clauses) **she was so happy** (main clause).

I don't know (main clause) **why she was so depressed** (dependent clauses).

She was happy (main clause) **because she was going to visit her grandmother** (dependent clauses).

Sometimes we want to make a statement which is too complex or detailed to be expressed in a single clause. We make statements of this kind by putting two or more clauses together in one sentence. In English several methods are used to express two or more ideas in the same sentence.

- 1) One way is to use one clause as a main clause and to add other subordinate clauses which express subordinate meanings.
- 2) The other way is simply to link or coordinate main clauses together.
- 3) Another way is to have both subordinate and co-ordinate clauses in the same sentence.

Due to this, different types of English sentences can be formed. The following part will describe these types.

6.3. Types of English sentences.

In English, there are four types of sentences depending on what type of clauses they are made up of:

6.3.1. Simple Sentences

Single clause sentences are called **simple sentences**. Such sentences contain only one main clause in which the verb is finite and there are no subordinate clauses.

He arrived on Friday. (Main clause)
My brother loves his work. (Main clause)
I parked my car in the car park. (Main clause)
He walked to school. (Main clause)
Amal went to the bank. (Main clause)
She withdrew some money. (Main clause)

6.3.2. Complex Sentences.

A sentence is called **complex** when it contains one main clause and one or more subordinate clauses that cannot stand alone. A complex sentence could also be a sentence with one main clause plus an infinitive or a participle construction:

The alarm was raised (main clause) **as soon as the fire was discovered** (subordinate clause).

To get to university (infinitive construction) you have to pass an entrance exam (main clause).

Seeing the door open (participle construction), the stranger entered the house (main clause).

When she arrives, I'll phone you

He stayed at home **because he had some work**.

The cat jumped on my father's lap **while he was reading his letters**.

When the bottle was full, he turned the water off.

Although I had a wonderful holiday, it was too short.

A subordinate clause is one that contains special information about the main clause. It will usually be introduced by a linking word such as *when*, *if*, *because*, or *that*. The linking words are called **subordinating conjunctions**.

Most subordinate clauses can come before, after, or within the main clause. Usually, when one clause is of principal importance and the other clause gives information about the principal one, we have a complex sentence with one main clause and one subordinate clause.

The position that a subordinate clause is placed in is determined largely by what is felt to be the main message of a sentence.

Since you seem to have made up your mind, I'll say no more.
(Here the subordinate clause is placed at the beginning of the sentence)

I stopped talking to her because she was impolite. (Here the subordinate clause is placed at the end of the sentence)

6.3.3. Compound Sentences.

A compound sentence is one that consists of two main clauses, joined by a word such as *and*, *but*, *or*, called a coordinating conjunction. Each clause is of equal importance and gives information of equal value. The order of the clauses can be very important for the meaning. For example, the timing of an action can be described by the order in which the clauses follow each other.

I parked my car in the car park (main clause) and walked to the station (main clause).

She tidied up the house (main clause) and did the washing (main clause).

We drove to Homs (main clause) and went on to Hama (main clause) and then we drove to Aleppo (main clause).

Her son lives at home (main clause) and has a steady job (main clause).

He is a shy man (main clause) but he is not scared of anything or anyone (main clause).

Visit your local dealer (main clause) or phone for a brochure (main clause).

She turned (main clause) and left the room (main clause).

6.3.4. Compound-Complex Sentences.

A sentence may be **compound-complex** when it contains both compound and complex sentences. These have more than one main clause and at least one subordinate clause.

The car went out of control (main clause) and hit the barrier several times (main clause) before it came to a stop on a grassy bank (subordinate clause).

'The car went out of control and hit the barrier several times' is a compound sentence with two coordinated main clauses. And the structure 'before it came to a stop on a grassy bank' is a subordinate clause.

Other examples of compound complex sentences

I met my friend (main clause) and we decided to go swimming (main clause) because we were both feeling bored (subordinate clause).

He went to visit his grandmother (main clause), who was in hospital (subordinate clause), and he took a box of chocolate with him (main clause).

6.4. Joining Clauses: Subordination and Coordination

6.4.1. Coordination

The process called **coordination** joins two short clauses of equal importance with a conjunction. This process produces **compound sentences**. Each clause becomes a main clause in the new sentence. The clauses are linked by words called **coordinating conjunctions**, such as *and, but, (either) or, neither, nor, yet*. Conjunctions come right at the beginning of a clause.

Amal went to the bank **and** withdrew some money.

Father goes to work **but** mother doesn't have a job.

Mother **(either)** stays at home **or** visits her family.

She is a university student **and** she has a part time job.

Their children are grown up **but** they do not help in the house chores.

They **(either)** study **or** they go out with their friends.

• If the subject of both clauses is the same, it does not have to be repeated in front of the second verb.

She is a university student **and** she has a part time job.
Or She is a university student **and** has a part time job.
They sang **and** they danced at the party.
Or They sang **and** danced at the party.

There are a number of ways by which main clauses can be coordinated or joined together in English and they are the following:

a) Coordinating by the use of coordinating conjunctions and parallel structures.

b) Coordinating by using correlative conjunctions.

c) Coordinating by using conjunctions.

In what follows a detailed description of each of the methods of coordination is presented:

6.4.1.1. Coordination through the Use of Coordinating Conjunctions and Parallel Structures.

In the list below, the coordinating conjunctions together with their meaning and examples are listed.

And	Addition	The phone rang, and someone knocked on the door.
Nor	Addition	You don't have to study, nor do you have to work.
Or	Alternative	You can stay at home, or you can go out.
Or (else)	Condition	I have to study or (else) I will fail the course.
But	Contrast	The teacher was sick, but he taught the class.
Yet	Contrast	His voice was very weak, yet the students heard him.
For	Cause	He couldn't lecture, for he had a sore throat.
So	Result	I've been working hard, so I'm going to take a holiday.

1. The conjunction **and** is used:

To join clauses where there is no contrast or choice.

Amal went to the bank **and** withdrew some money.

They lived in their hometown **and** they were very happy.

They stayed there, **for** they didn't have enough money to move.

To join more than two clauses, the earlier clauses can be joined by a comma, but the last two must be joined by *and*.

Amal got into the car, drove to the bank, withdrew some money, and went shopping.

2. The conjunction *but* is used to join clauses where there is a contrast.

He planned to buy a new suit but he couldn't find his size.

3. The conjunction *yet* is used to join clauses where there is a contrast that is of a somewhat surprising nature.

Sonia always gets up early, yet Jenny, who never gets up before nine, always gets to work earlier.

She wanted to leave yet she couldn't bring herself to ask for permission to leave.

Coordinating conjunctions are not only used to connect sentences but they can also connect single words, phrases, and dependent clauses, but they have to be of the same type:

i) Coordinating single words:

Nouns: Men and women are the same.

Adjectives: My parents were poor but happy.

Verbs: Last night I was sitting and thinking about the problem.

Objects: This typewriter is for the secretary but not for the students.

Infinitives: I have to write and to type this paper tonight.

ii) Coordinating prepositional phrases:

There is still plenty of food in the living room and in the kitchen.

You can lie down on the bed or on the sofa.

This was in the book yet not on the exam.

iii) Coordinating verb phrases:

I am sitting here and writing a letter.

Nobody wants to do homework or to listen to records.

She had left the room and had gone to bed.

iv) Coordinating dependent clauses:

Where you go and what you do is not my concern.

We can talk while you are here or when you return home.

He is the person whom I respect and whom I will always admire.

• Coordinating conjunctions cannot coordinate different structures:

CORRECT: She told her children that they should stay in the house and that they shouldn't open the door.

INCORRECT: ~~she told her children that they should stay in the house and not to open the door.~~

6.4.1.2. Coordinating Sentences Using Correlative Conjunctions:

Correlative conjunctions are conjunctions that are made up of more than one word. They are *either ... or, neither ... nor, not only ... but also, both ... and/too/ as well*.

1. **Either ... or:** When there is a positive choice between the subjects of two clauses, you use the pair of words *either* and *or* to join the clauses. The use of *either...or* emphasizes that the two clauses are alternatives and cannot both be true.

Either the baby is sick, **or** he is tired.

The baby is **either** sick **or** he is tired.

Either you come to my place **or** I'll meet you at work, which do you prefer?

If the subject of the joined clauses is the same, the subject is used in the first of the joined clauses only. This is often also true of any auxiliary verbs that may be present.

Mary said she would **either** meet them for lunch or take them to tea.
When it is used in this way **either** must come in one of these places:

i) Before the subject in the first clause of the group.

Either the baby is sick or he is tired.

ii) In front of the main verb and after any auxiliary verb.
The baby is **either** sick or tired.

You can use **either... or** to join more than two clauses if you repeat the use of **or**.

2. **Neither ... nor**: When there is a negative choice between the subjects of two clauses, you can use the pair of words **neither** and **nor** to join the clauses.

I will **neither** ask my parents for money nor will I borrow any money from my friends.

I have **neither** finished my composition nor completed the reading assignments.

Susan is **neither** coming nor planning to call.

Rochelle **neither** wants to come with us nor be left on her own.

3. **Not only ... but also**:

Not only do the children need new clothes, **but they also** need new school bags.

Not only is the baby sick, **but he is also** tired.

Not only is the book boring, **but it is also** difficult.

4. **Both ... and**:

Both my brothers and my sisters are arriving tonight.

Both ... and are usually used to connect words and phrases that are similar in structure. They are rarely used to connect main clauses.

6.4.1.3. Connecting Sentences using Conjunctive Adverbs

Conjunctive adverbs join main or independent clauses and express a logical relationship between the ideas in the sentences. Conjunctive adverbs cannot join single words, phrases, and dependent clauses. They are of different types:

1. **Conjunctive adverbs of contrast:** *however, nevertheless, still, on the contrary.*

People smoke less than in the past; **however**, the number of those who smoke the Hubble-bubble is increasing.

Taking drugs is dangerous to one's health; **however** (**nevertheless, still**), millions of people continue to take drugs.

Our last quiz wasn't difficult; **on the contrary**, it was easy.

2. **Conjunctive adverbs of addition:** *moreover, furthermore, in addition, besides, in fact.*

Her professor encouraged her to do a Masters degree; **furthermore** (**moreover, in addition**), she helped her apply for a grant.

She chose to study Arabic literature because she loved the language; **besides**, she knew it would help her get a good job.

She passed all her exams; **in fact**, she graduated with excellent marks.

3. **Conjunctive adverbs of cause/result:** *therefore, consequently, as a result, hence, thus.*

I cannot swim very well; **consequently** (**therefore, as a result**), I didn't enjoy our trip to the seaside.

There has been fewer people enrolling in the French Department; **hence**, many are fearful that the department might close.

Bus fares are going down; **thus**, more and more people are relying on public transport.

4. Conjunctive adverb of condition: *otherwise*.

We must find ways of saving the water resources; **otherwise**, the future wars are going to be wars over water. (The sentence here is affirmative and 'otherwise' is similar in meaning to 'if one does not')

Don't be absent from class; **otherwise**, you will lose your attendance marks.

(The sentence here is negative and 'otherwise' is similar in meaning to 'if one does')

5. Conjunctive adverbs of time sequence: *then, afterwards, later*.

The students gathered at the university's main entrance. **Then** they marched toward the main city square.

People joined in the march from all over the country. **Afterward** they all marched toward the city square.

At first, I was planning to sit for the exam; **later** I changed my mind.

Another way that is used to join sentences in English is subordination.

6.4.2. Subordination:

While coordination means connecting two or more independent clauses, subordination means joining independent clause(s) with dependent one(s). This method not only allows the speaker or writer to express a larger variety of relationships between ideas, but it also allows him/her to show the relationships between ideas or facts more clearly and specifically. The process of subordination produces **complex** sentences.

Compare these two sentences:

I opened the cupboard **and** a bottle fell out. (In this example, the coordinating conjunction '**and**' simply adds one fact to another).

When I opened the cupboard, a bottle fell out. (In this example, the subordinating conjunction '**when**' changes one of the independent clauses to a dependent adverb clause of time. The result of this is a change in the relationship between the two sentences from coordination to subordination).

There are several types of subordinate clauses:

6.4.2.1. Noun clauses

6.4.2.2. Adverbial Clauses

6.4.2.3. Relative Clauses or Adjectival Clauses

6.4.2.4. Conditional Clauses

6.4.2.5. Reported Clauses

Each of the subordinate clauses is associated with an introductory word that signals what type of clause it is that follows. These words are called **subordinating conjunctions**. They include:

- The WH- words
- Words like *since, if, when, because*
The word *that*, either on its own or used with another word,
e.g. *so that* or *supposing that*
- A phrase ending in *as*, e.g. *as soon as, as long as*

After she had read the diary, she returned it to the drawer.

As they were going downstairs, the phone rang.

He isn't coming with us **because** he is tired.

• Each of the subordinating clauses has a preferred position. For example, most adverbial clauses usually follow the main clause, although they can also come before the main clause or divide the main clause.

Shall I do the shopping **when** I finish work?

When I finish work, I could do the shopping for you.

Harry had found, **when** he was living in Jamaica, several old silver coins.

Reported clauses usually follow directly on from the main reporting clause.

The teacher said **that** we have all passed our exams.

The following is a detailed description of all types of subordinate clauses in English.

6.4.2.1. Noun clauses

Compare these two sentences:

Their villa is beautiful. ('Their villa' is a noun phrase acting as the subject of the sentence)

Where they live is beautiful. ('Where they live' is a noun clause acting as the subject of the sentence)

Noun clauses have the same functions in sentences as single-word nouns. Some of these functions are:

1. Subject of a sentence: **Whenever they come will be fine with us.**
2. Object of a sentence: **Did you know that they weren't planning to go with us?**
3. Object of the preposition: **Aren't you worried about how long it will take?**
4. Complement of the adjective: **I'm not sure how much money it will cost us.**

Noun clauses are introduced by **subordinating conjunctions or subordinators**, which are:
who, whoever, whom, whomever, what, whatever, which, whichever, where, wherever, when, whenever, how, however, whose, why, whether, that, how much, how many, how long, how often, how soon.

• The word order after a WH- word is the same as in a statement, i.e. the subject is followed by a verb which is followed by the remainder of the sentence.

That he will succeed is very probable.

I don't know where you live.

How the thief got in is a mystery.

Why she acts like this is beyond me.

I don't know where they went for holiday.

I can't understand why he behaved this way.

I don't believe what she said about you.

I can't tell you who told me that.

He understands what happened.

Nobody knows which way is safer.

- The subordinating conjunction *that* can often be omitted.

It is very probable **that he will succeed.**

It is very probable **he will succeed.**

6.4.2.2. Adverbial Clauses

Adverbial clauses are subordinate clauses that have the same function as adjuncts. They modify a verb by answering questions about the verb such as when?, where?, how and so on.

Punctuation of adverbial clauses

The punctuation of adverb clauses follows certain rules. If the adverb clause precedes an independent clause, a comma must follow the adverb clause.

When I was a child, I loved horror movies.

If the adverb clause is within an independent clause, a comma precedes and follows the adverb clause.

Once, after I had seen a horror movie, I had a nightmare.

If the adverb clause follows an independent clause, a comma is not needed.

My mother wouldn't let me watch any more horror movies because they gave me nightmares.

Adverbial clauses are of seven types. These types are:

- 1) Subordinating clauses of time.**
- 2) Subordinating clauses of place.**
- 3) Subordinating clauses of manner.**
- 4) Subordinating clauses of reason.**
- 5) Subordinating clauses of purpose.**
- 6) Subordinating clauses of result.**
- 7) Subordinating clauses of contrast.**

In what follows is a detailed description of the different types of subordinating conjunctions that are used to form the above-mentioned types of subordinating clauses.

1. Subordinating conjunctions of time:

They set the timing for the main clause. They may come before or after the main clause. They are introduced by *after, as, as soon as, as long as, before, once, since, till, the moment (that), until, whenever, when, while*.

We will call you **as soon as** the guests arrive.

I'll meet you **whenever** you want.

Since we had an accident, I have not been able to sleep.

I shall leave **the moment (that)** the lecture ends.

After it had stopped raining, we went outside.

As we were walking down the road, it began to rain again.

As soon as we returned home, it stopped raining.

I will never talk to her **as long as** I live.

They had decided to go to the movies **before** we returned.

I had never been abroad **until** I decided to do postgraduate studies.

While my mother was cooking we were tidying up the place.

When we were at college, we had a lot of fun.

2. Subordinating clauses of place:

They set where the action of the main clause takes place and they are introduced by *where, wherever, or everywhere*.

Put the shopping **wherever** you want.

Did you find the books **where** I had put them?

I don't know **where** the children went.

I'll go **wherever** you want; it doesn't matter to me.

They went **everywhere** that they wanted.

I'll call you **wherever** you are.

3. Subordinating conjunctions of manner:

They set out how the main clause was carried out and they are introduced by *as, as if as though, how, just as, or the way that*.

Mandy looked **as if** she had seen a ghost.

Earl wandered in, **the way that** he does.

You have to fasten it **as though** it was a shoelace.

The room was prepared **just as** he had requested.

Just do it **how** I ask you.

4. Subordinating conjunctions of reason:

They set out the thinking behind the action of the main clause. They may come before or after the main clause and they are introduced by *as, because, or since*.

I don't want to go **because** I am too tired.

Since can be used both as time subordinating conjunction and as reason.

My sister wanted to be a teacher **since** she was very young.

(Time)

She will probably make a good teacher **since** it is her wish.

(Reason)

5. Subordinating conjunctions of purpose:

They set out what it was hoped would be achieved by carrying out the action of the main clause. They are introduced by *so that, in order that, in case, or lest*.

Put it just there **so that** it holds the window open.

Leave a little for Sam **in case** she wants some supper.

We need to finish this unit **so that** we can understand the following one.

Read the manual carefully **in order that** you can operate the device correctly.

The meeting was held later than usual **in order that** students from the provinces could attend.

• Purpose can also be indicated by *so as to*, *in order to* followed by the base form of a verb.

He put it down *so as to* hold the window open.

He put it against the window *in order to* hold it open.

6. Subordinating conjunctions of result:

They set out what happened when the main clause was carried out. They are introduced by:

— *so* + adjective / adverb + *that*

— or by *such (a)* + noun phrase + *that*.

He was *so* angry *that* he banged the door behind him.

It was *so* hot *that* we couldn't sleep.

The neighbours were *so* loud *that* we couldn't sleep.

Our house is *so* nice *that* I cannot imagine living anywhere else.

There were *so* many people in the lift *that* I couldn't breathe.

There was *so* much noise in the lecture theatre *that* we could not hear the professor.

He had *such* low grades *that* he hid his exam papers.

She wears *such* beautiful dresses *that* everybody compliments her.

She is *such* a nice person *that* everybody likes to be friends with her.

7. Subordinating conjunctions of contrast:

These conjunctions suggest that something else may need to be taken into account regarding the main clause. They may come before or after the main clause and they are introduced by *although*, *though*, *even though*, *even if*, *however*, *much as*, *in spite of the fact* or *while*.

Although London is a nice city, I just don't like cold weather

Although it has rained, the ground is still very dry.

There are many people in the world who are afraid to fly, *even though* it is one of the safest means of transportation.

I'll try to keep in touch with them from time to time, *in spite of the fact* that we will never be friends again.

The subordinating conjunction 'while' can mean both contrast and time. When 'while' shows contrast, it is usually placed at the beginning of a sentence.

While I don't like studying grammar, I know I have to. (In this example, the subordinating conjunction 'while' means contrast)

I met one of my old school friends while I was shopping the other day. (In this example, the subordinating conjunction 'while' means time)

Reduction of adverb clauses

Sometimes it is possible to reduce a long, complicated word group to a shorter, simpler word group. This is called **reduction**. To reduce a word group means to simplify it without changing the meaning of the statement.

While I was walking to university, I met my professor.

While walking to university, I met my professor.

Before I left the doctor's surgery, I made another appointment.
Before leaving the doctor's surgery, I made another appointment.

Since I started this course, I have learnt a lot about grammar.
Since starting this course, I have learnt a lot about grammar.

After I had taken this course, I understood more about English grammar.
After taking this course, I understood more about English grammar.

However, the following should be taken into consideration since not all adverb clauses can be reduced.

— An adverb clause can be reduced to an adverb phrase if the clause begins with *after, before, since, when, or while*.

— An adverb clause cannot be changed to a phrase if the subjects of the dependent and independent clauses are different.

While I was taking my exam, the student beside me was cheating. (In this sentence reduction is not possible because the subject of dependent clause is 'I' and the subject of the independent clause is 'the student'.)

— To reduce an adverb clause to a phrase, omit the subject and the 'be' form of the verb in the adverb clause.

I fell while I was climbing up the stairs.

I fell while climbing up the stairs.

— When there is no 'be' form of the verb in the adverb clause, omit the subject and change the verb to its *-ing* form.

Before I left home, I had a lot of things to check. (Adverb clause)

Before leaving home, I had a lot of things to check. (Reduced phrase)

6.4.2.3. Relative or Adjectival Clauses

Relative clauses are another kind of subordinate clauses that function as adjectives. They describe and modify nouns. They are found as **post modifiers** in a noun phrase. The noun that is modified is called the antecedent. Relative clauses normally begin with either of the following:

i) With *that* or with the subordinators *when, where or why*.

ii) The relative pronouns *who, whom, whose, which*

The following presents a description of the two different types of subordinating conjunctions that introduce relative or adjectival clauses.

i) Relative clauses introduced by the subordinators: *when, where or why.*

1. The subordinator *when* introduces adjective clauses describing nouns referring to time.

January is the time of the year *when* it is usually very cold.

2. The subordinator *where* introduces adjective clauses referring to location.

This is the house *where* my grandparents live.

3. The subordinator *why* introduces adjective clauses that modify such words as reason and explanation.

The student didn't tell his parents the reason *why* he dropped out of college.

It is important not to confuse adjective clauses beginning with *when* and *where* with adverb clauses beginning with *when* and *where*. The point to remember is that adjective clauses always modify nouns whereas adverb clauses always modify verbs.

I study at the library *where* I work. (In this example, the subordinate clause 'where I work' is modifying the noun 'library', thus it is an adjectival clause)

I study *where* I work. (In this example, the subordinate clause 'where I work' is modifying the verb 'study', thus it is an adverbial clause)

Your friend Sami called on the day *when* you were out. (In this example, the subordinate clause 'when you were out' is modifying the noun phrase 'the day', thus it is an adjectival clause)

Your friend Sami called *when* you were out. (In this example, the subordinate clause 'when you were out' is modifying the verb 'called', thus it is an adverbial clause)

ii) **Relative clauses introduced by relative pronouns: *who, whom, whose, which and that***

1. *Who* refers only to people.

The woman **who** lives on the third floor is a physician.

2. *Whom* is the objective form of *who* and refers only to people. It is replaced by *who* in informal speech.

She is a person **whom** all the neighbours respect very much.

3. *Which* refers to animals, things, and groups of people (the crowd, audience ...etc).

That is the cat, **which** was hit by a car.

4. *That* refers to people, animals, and things.

She was happy with the new book **that** I bought her as a gift.

5. *Whose* indicates possession and is used for animals, people, groups of people, and things.

The house, **whose** roof is leaking, is very old.

Jimmy is a little boy **whose** love for airplanes is very strong.

Grammatical Functions of Relative Pronouns:

A relative pronoun can be the **subject** or **object** of the verb in the relative clause. It can also be the **object of a preposition**

1. A relative pronoun as the **subject of the verb of the relative clause.**

The people **who** live upstairs are going on holiday. (In this sentence, 'who' replaces the subject 'people', thus it is the subject of the verb in the relative clause)

People shouldn't have parties **that** disturb the neighbours. (In this sentence, 'that' replaces the subject 'parties', thus it is the subject of the verb in the relative clause)

2. A relative pronoun as the **object of the verb of the relative clause.**

I like the music **that** you are playing. (In this sentence, 'that' replaces the object 'music', thus it is the object of the verb in the relative clause)

The man **whom** they met at the lecture is a scientist. (In this sentence, 'whom' replaces the object 'the man' _ they met the man _ thus, it is the object of the verb in the relative clause)

If the relative pronoun is the object, it can be left out in ordinary informal speech and writing.

I like the music you are playing.

The man I met on the stairs said hello to me.

3. A relative pronoun as the **object of a preposition.**

The man **to whom** I sold my car was an engineer.

This card game, **at which** we can all excel if we want, is called tricks.

Types of relative clauses

There are two types of relative clauses:

i) **Restrictive or Defining Relative Clauses**

ii) **Non-Restrictive or Non-Defining Relative Clauses**

i) **Restrictive Relative Clauses:**

Sometimes an adjective clause is needed to identify a noun and to make the meaning of the sentence clear. A necessary adjective clause is called a 'restrictive' or defining adjective clause. This type of clause is used to limit the possible reference of a noun to what the clause tells us about it. A defining relative clause is never separated from the noun by a comma. It is also often marked by using the relative pronoun **that** or by using no relative pronoun at all.

All students who do not attend will lose marks. (Will all students lose marks? No. Only those who do not attend. Thus, it has a restrictive meaning)

The books that are on the third shelf are only for postgraduate students. (Are all books for postgraduate students? No. Only those books that are on the third shelf. Thus it has a restrictive meaning)

ii) Non-Restrictive Relative Clauses:

The other type of relative clauses adds extra information to the whole of the main clause. This information in an adjective clause is interesting, but it is not needed to identify the noun or to make the meaning of the sentence clear. These are non-defining relative clauses or **non-restrictive** relative clauses. This type of clause is separated from the main clause by commas.

My cousin, who lives in the north of Syria, got married yesterday. (In this sentence the adjective clause gives additional information, but because the speaker has only one cousin, the clause is not needed to identify which cousin.)

An unnecessary adjective clause is separated by commas from the rest of the sentence.

Compare with a similar example but with a restrictive relative clause:

My cousin who lives in the north of Syria got married yesterday. (In this sentence, the speaker has many cousins. Which cousin got married? Thus the adjective clause tells you that it is the cousin who lives in the north of Syria that got married)

His brother, who lives in Dubai, is a lawyer. (This is an example of a non-restrictive relative clause because the speaker has only one brother. He is a lawyer. He happens to live in Dubai.)

His brother who lives in Dubai is a lawyer. (This is an example of a restrictive relative clause because the speaker has many brothers and the one who lives in Dubai is a lawyer.)

Reduction of Adjective Clauses:

Adjective clauses can often be reduced to adjective phrases with no change in meaning. However, they can only be reduced if the clause begins with **who, which, or that** as the subject of the clause and if the clause also contains a 'be' form of the verb.

To reduce an adjective clause to a phrase, omit the relative pronoun and the 'be' form of the verb.

The lady **who is wearing a black suit** is my aunt.

The lady **wearing a black suit** is my aunt.

He is the one **who is most concerned** about money.

He is the one **most concerned** about money.

The essays **that were written by grade eight students** were interesting.

The essays **written by grade eight students** were interesting.

If there is no 'be' form of the verb, it is often possible to omit the relative pronoun and change the verb to its *-ing* form.

Anyone **who has a car** may join us.

Anyone **having a car** may join us.

Conditional clauses are another type of subordinate clauses in English. The following presents a description of their form and uses.

6.4.2.4. Conditional Clauses

Conditional sentences consist of a main clause and a **conditional clause** (sometimes called an if-clause). The conditional clause usually begins with *if* or *unless*. The conditional clause can come before or after the main clause.

As far as punctuation is concerned, a comma follows an if-clause when it is at the beginning of a sentence. However, we do not use a comma when the if-clause follows the main clause.

The children will be tired **if they don't sleep now**. (A comma is not needed here)

If the children don't sleep now, they'll be tired.

(A comma is needed here after the if-clause)

They'll be late to school unless they leave now. (A comma is not needed here)

Unless they leave now, they'll be late to school.
(A comma is needed here after the if-clause)

The Uses of conditional clauses:

Conditional sentences enable us to communicate many different ideas such as:

— Making predictions

If I work overtime this month, I will be able to earn extra money.

— Discussing mistakes in the past

If I had worked overtime last month, I would have earned extra money.

— Expressing dreams

If I were taller, I would be a policeman.

— Giving advice

If I were you, I would stop smoking.

— Making apologies

If I had known you were here, I would not have stayed out for so long.

There are three main types of conditional sentences in English. Each type expresses a different meaning, refers to a different time, and uses a different combination of tenses.

In what follows is a detailed description of each of the types of conditional clauses in English.

Type 1: Future Real

Form: The main clause uses *will, can, may, or might* + the base form of a main verb. The if-clause uses the Simple Present tense.

Meaning: refers to a situation that may or may not happen in the future.

If you leave home by seven, you will be in time.

She'll be sick, if she doesn't wear a woolen jacket.

If you need help, I can come.

Forming the future real (type 1 conditional)

If-clauses (dependent clause)

1. If + simple present: **if he studies, ...**
2. If + present continuous: **if he is studying, ...**
3. If + present perfect: **if he has studied, ...**
4. If + present perfect continuous: **if he has been studying ...**
5. If + modals: **if he can study, ...**

Main clause (independent clause)

1. Will + base form of the verb: **he will pass the test.**
2. Be going to + base form of the verb: **he is going to pass the test.**
3. Should/may/might/ought to + base form of the verb: **he should/may/might/ought to pass the test.**

The choice of the tense in the if-clause depends on the **specific time** referred to. Similarly, the modal used for the independent **clause** depends on the **specific meaning** you want to communicate.

Type 1 sentences refer to the future. They suggest that the action in the main clause is quite likely to happen.

They will not pass their exams unless they revise.

If you sleep early, you will get up on time.

However, the use of the modal verb *may* or *might* in the main clause suggests that there is some doubt whether the main verb action will be achieved.

If you sleep early, you may get up on time.

She might help you, if you ask her.

Type 2: Present or Future Unreal

Form: The main clause uses *would*, *could*, or *might* + the base form of a main verb. The if-clause uses the Simple Past tense.

Meaning: refers to a situation that does not exist in the present and /or will not exist in the future.

If Jim lent me his pen, I could finish writing my homework.

We would save a lot of money if we didn't eat out.

If a burglar broke into my house, he would not find any thing to steal.

Would she be angry if I didn't help her?

Forming the present/future unreal (type 2 conditional sentence)

If-clauses (dependent clause)

1. If + simple past: If he studied, ...
2. If + past continuous: If he was studying, ...
3. If + modals: If he could study, ...

Main clause (independent clause)

1. Would + the base form of the verb: he would pass the test.
 2. Could + base form of the verb: he could pass the test.
 3. Should + base form of the verb: he should pass the test.
- Or Might + base form of the verb: he might pass the test.

Type 2 may also refer to the **past subjunctive**. The subjunctive 'were' is used for all persons.

If I were rich, I would travel all round the world.

If they were rich, they would travel all round the world.

If she were rich, she would travel all round the world.

Type 2 sentences refer to an imaginary situation. They imply that the action in the if-clause will probably not happen.

If I won the lottery, I would buy an expensive car. (But I do not think I will win the lottery.)

If you didn't spend all your money on clothes, you could afford a holiday. (But you do spend all your money on clothes.)

They are often used when giving advice to someone, especially about what the person should do.

If I were you, I'd marry her straight away.

Type 3: Past Unreal

Form: The main clause uses *would, could, or might + have + the past participle* of a main verb. The **if-clause** uses the Past Perfect tense.

Meaning: They refer to a situation that did not happen.

We could have taken a longer holiday, if we had not spent so much money on the house this year.

If I had known before today that he wasn't serious, I might have wasted less time on the project.

Forming the past unreal (type 3 conditional sentence)

If-clauses (dependent clause)

1. If + past perfect: If he had studied, ...
2. If + past perfect continuous: If he had been studying, ...
3. If + past perfect passive: If he had been told about the exam, ...

Main clause (independent clause)

1. Would + have + past participle: he would have passed the test.
 2. Could + have + past participle: he could have passed the test.
 3. Should + have + past participle: he should have passed the test.
- Or Might + have + past participle: he might have passed the test.

In Type 3 sentences the speaker is looking back from the present to a past time and event. The speaker is talking about what might have happened but did not, either because the wrong thing was done or because nothing was done. This type of sentence is used when making excuses and recriminations or giving an explanation.

Other Forms and Uses of Conditional Clauses

Conditional clauses can also be used to talk about consequences or to give an opinion about a situation in the following ways:

i) The if-clause uses the Simple Present tense and the main clause uses the Simple Present tense too. This is used to refer to **universal truths**. This type of if-clauses is sometimes called the **zero conditional**.

If you drop an egg, it breaks.

If you heat water to 100°C, it boils.

Plants die if they don't get enough water.

ii) The if-clause uses the Simple Present tense and the main clause is in the imperative mood. This is used to give advice or orders for particular situations or sets of circumstances.

If you want an appointment, phone in advance.

If a red light shows here, switch off the machine.

iii) The if-clause uses the Present Progressive or Simple Present tense and the main clause uses a modal verb. This is used to make suggestions and give advice.

If you are thinking of buying a CD player, you can try my new one first.

iv) The if-clause uses *will / would* and the main clause uses a modal verb. This is used *to* make a request or give a polite order.

If you'll wait a minute, the doctor can see you.

If you would sign here, please, I'll be able to give you the documents.

• Note that a 'd in the main clause is the contracted form of *would*. However, a 'd in an if-clause is the contracted form of *had*.

I'd have gone if he'd invited me.

I would have gone if he had invited me.

I would've gone if he'd invited me.

In the main clause the contracted forms of the modals used in speech and informal writing are:

I'd have *or* I would've

I could've I might've

The last type of subordinate clauses under consideration is the 'type of clauses that we use to report other peoples' words. The following is a description of the uses and form of the direct and indirect or reported speech.

6.4.2.5. Direct And Indirect Speech

In the English language, there are two ways of reporting what a person has said: **direct speech** and **indirect speech**.

In **direct speech**, we repeat the actual words used by the speaker, as in this sentence:

Mona said, "There is a good film on television".

In **indirect speech**, we build the words into our own sentences, that is, we do not give the exact words of the speaker, but we keep the exact meaning of those words. Another name for indirect speech is **reported speech**.

Mona said that there was a good film on television.

i) Direct Speech

In reporting direct speech, a reporting verb is needed such as *agree*, *answer*, *ask*, *inquire*, *explain*, *say*, *tell*, and *wonder*. The reporting verb may come before the words that were actually spoken, or after them, or at a natural pause inside the reported sentence.

Mona said, "There is a good film on television."

"There is a good film on television," Mona said/said Mona.

"There is," Mona said, "a good film on television."

The actual words spoken always begin with a capital letter, unless the reporting verb comes within a sentence. They are separated from the reporting verb by a comma, unless they are followed by a question mark or an exclamation. The words spoken are enclosed in inverted commas.

"I've already done it," he replied.

"Why did you do it?" she shouted.

"Oh, mind your own business!" he snapped back.

ii) Indirect Speech

Indirect or reported speech reports something that was said, but does not use the actual words that the speaker uttered.

Direct speech

'Have you been to the new shopping centre yet?' asked Shadia.

'No,' said Laila, 'but I hear that it has some really nice shops.'

Indirect speech

Shadia asked whether Laila had been to the new shopping centre. Laila replied that she had not, but she had heard that it had some really nice shops.

Indirect speech always has two clauses. The words spoken are put in a reported clause. There is also a **main** clause that contains a **reporting verb**. The **main** clause with the reporting verb usually comes before the reported clause.

The newspaper says that the new government is going to resign.

Peter enquired if John was feeling better.

The reporting verb in the main clause tells us how the sentence was uttered, e.g. *comment, remark, say, tell*.

If the reported clause is a **statement**, the main clause is linked to the reported clause by **that**.

Mary said that her favourite subject was physics.

John replied that he preferred chemistry.

• The linking word **that** can be left out after most reporting verbs, but the links **if** or **whether** cannot be left out.

Vicky told Nadia (that) she had passed her driving test.

• Speech in a reported clause is not separated from the reporting verb by a comma, is not enclosed in inverted commas, and does not begin with a capital letter unless it is a proper noun. Reported questions are not followed by question marks.

Changes in the Reported Words

When you use indirect speech, the words put into the reported clause do not exactly match the words actually spoken.

"I'll leave here at 8.30 on Friday."

She says that she will leave home at 8.30 tomorrow.

"I'm looking forward to seeing you."

She says she's looking forward to seeing us.

The changes that usually take place in the process of changing clauses from direct to indirect speech are the following:

i) Pronouns and possessive determiners have to change in reported speech because of the change of speaker, e.g. **I** may become **she**; **you** may become **us** or **him**.

"I believe you."

She said that she believed us.

"I am leaving you"

She said that she was leaving him.

"I have finished."

She said that she had finished.

ii) Expressions of place and time may also have to change, e.g. *here* may become *there*; *Friday* may become *in three days' time* depending on the time when the speech took place.

"I have been here before."

She said that she had been there already.

"I will see you on Friday."

She said that she would see him in three days' time.

iii) The tense in reported clauses:

The verb in the direct speech may also change, e.g. *must* becomes *had to* in reported speech. The most common change is a change of tense.

Direct speech

"Hello Jack? It's me, Jenny. I've arrived here on time and I'll take a bus to your place. One is coming now, so I must run."

Indirect speech

She rang to say that she had arrived at New Street Station on time and would take a bus to our place. She went on to say that one was coming at that very moment, so she had to run.

The changes of tense may be summarized as follows:

Direct speech

Simple Present

Present Progressive

Present Perfect

Present Perfect Progressive

Simple Past

Future

Reported speech

Simple Past

Past Progressive

Past Perfect

Past Perfect Progressive

Past Perfect or Simple Past

Conditional

Simple Present becomes Simple Past.

He said, "I work hard."

He said (that) he worked hard.

Present Progressive becomes Past Progressive

He said, "I am working hard."

He said (that) he was working hard.

Present Perfect becomes Past Perfect

He said, "I have worked hard."

He said (that) he had worked hard.

Simple Past becomes Past Perfect or Simple Past

He said, "I worked hard."

He said (that) he had worked hard.

Present Perfect Progressive becomes Past Perfect Progressive

He said, "I have been working hard."

He said (that) he had been working hard.

Future with *Be + Going to* in the present becomes *be + going to* in the past

He said, "I am going to work hard."

He said (that) he was going to work hard.

The Future using will, can, may, have to, must, should, ought to, becomes would, could, might, had to, had to, should, and ought to respectively.

He said, "I will work hard."

He said (that) he would work hard.

He said, "I can work hard."

He said (that) he could work hard.

He said, "I may work hard."

He said (that) he might work hard.

He said, "I have to work hard."

He said (that) he had to work hard.

He said, "I must work hard."

He said (that) he had to work hard.

He said, "I should work hard."

He said (that) he should work hard.

He said, "I ought to work hard."

He said (that) he ought to work hard.

6.4.2.5.1. Reporting Questions

If the reported clause asks a question, the main verb will be a question verb, e.g. *ask, inquire, wonder, query, want to know*. The link between the main clause and the reported clause will be *if* or *whether*.

Miriam asked *if* she could borrow Mary's notes.

Miriam wondered *whether* she could borrow Mary's notes.

Verb tenses in reported questions undergo the same changes as in statements.

"Are you ready?" (Simple present)

He asked (us) if/whether we were ready. (Simple past)

If the question is a *yes/no* question, then it is linked to the reporting clause by *if* or *whether*. However, if it is a WH-question, WH-question words like *who*, *when*, *where*, will be used in both direct and indirect questions.

Yes/no question

"Are you hungry?"

She asked me if /whether I was hungry.

WH-questions

"What time is it?"

He inquired what time it was.

"Where has Jim gone?"

He wanted to know where Jim had gone.

The word order in a reported question is the same as that of a direct statement. Question order is not used in reported speech, i.e. no part of the verb comes before the subject.

6.4.2.5.2. Reporting Orders and Requests

Orders are reported with *tell* + object + *to* infinitive.

"Stop smoking!"

"You must stop smoking."

Both sentences become:

The doctor told him to stop smoking.

Positive requests for action are reported with *ask* + object + *to* infinitive.

Positive

"Tidy up your room, please"

She asked us to tidy up our room.

If the request or order is in the negative, then requests for action are reported with *ask* + object + *not* + *to* infinitive

Negative

"Please don't eat in the living room."

She asked us not to eat in the living room.

Requests for objects are reported with *ask for* + object.

"May I have a pen?"

He asked for a pen.

6.4.2.5.3. Reporting Suggestions, Advice, Promises, etc.

A variety of verbs can be used for reporting suggestions and similar types of speech. Some of these are:

— *suggest, insist on* + Present participle.

"Let's go for a picnic."

He suggested going for a picnic.

— *advise, invite, warn* + direct object + *not* + *to* infinitive

"I wouldn't buy that one, if I were you."

She advised me not to buy that one.

— *refuse, threaten* + *to* infinitive

"I certainly won't tell you!"

She refused to tell me.

— *offer, promise* + *to* infinitive

"I'll help you."

He promised to help me.

6.5. Exercises

1) Relative Clauses

1A) Combine the two sentences into one. The first one has been done for you as an example.

That woman was Anita's stepmother. She just walked past.

The woman *who just walked past* was Anita's stepmother.

1 The plane had been hi-jacked twice. It crashed today.

The plane _____ hi-jacked twice.

2 One day grandma was ill in bed. Khaled came.

The day _____ ill in bed.

3 Our offices are in the City Mall. They are new.

Our _____ in the City Mall.

4 Some documents have been found. They were stolen from a car.

The documents _____ found.

5 That photocopying machine is out of order. We were trying to operate it.

The photocopying machine _____ out of order.

6 The ruins are in Arwad Island. They date from three centuries BC.

The ruins _____ in Arwad Island.

7 Our neighbour was terribly upset. Her cat was run over.

Our neighbour _____ terribly upset.

8 Joumana solved the puzzle. She did it before everyone else.

Joumana was _____ the puzzle.

9 A man was standing next to the bus stop. He was selling newspapers.

A man _____ next to the bus stop.

10 The talk was so boring that I slept. Fareed gave it.

The talk _____ so boring that I slept.

11 The villa is empty now. I used to live there.

The villa _____ empty now.

1B) Complete the story about a thief's punishment. Write the missing words. Use one word only in each space.

This is a true story *which* is supposed to have happened somewhere in the US. A man called Harry (1) _____ was accused of a robbery appeared in court. He had threatened the teller with a gun in a bank and stolen some money (2) _____ was kept inside. The argument (3) _____ the man's lawyer put forward wasn't very convincing. He said that (4) _____ was the man's arm (5) _____ had committed the crime and not the man himself. 'You cannot punish a man for (6) _____ his arm has done,' said the lawyer. Now the judge in (7) _____ court the man was appearing wanted to show how stupid the lawyer's argument was. Instead of finding the man guilty, he found the man's arm guilty and sent it to prison. 'He can go with his arm or not, as he chooses,' the judge added, (8) _____ made everyone laugh. But (9) _____ the judge didn't know was that the man had an artificial arm. He took the arm off, gave it to the judge — (10) _____ could hardly believe his eyes — and walked out of the court.

2) Conditional Sentences

2A) Read these conversations about Syria. Summarize the advice with conditional sentences. The first one has been done for you as an example.

A: I hate hot weather.

B: The best time to go to Syria is in autumn or in spring.

If you hate hot weather, the best time to go to Syria is in autumn or in spring.

1) A: I'm traveling with my children.

B: Take them to the coast.

2) A: We need a nice hotel.
B: I suggest the Meridian.

3) A: We like seafood.
B: There are wonderful seafood restaurants in Latakia.

4) A: I'm fascinated by the mountains.
B: You might like to go to Kasab.

5) A: I'd like to get a good view of the coast.
B: You should go to Oum Al- Touyour.

2B) Read each numbered sentence. Write T (True) or F (False) for the statement that follows. The first one has been done for you as an example.

1. If I had had time, I would have watched the film on TV last night. T
I didn't have time to watch to watch the film on TV last night.

2. I would have taped the movie if my VCR hadn't/had not broken.
_____ I taped the movie.

3. If Carmen hadn't/had not been there, George might have hurt himself.
_____ Carmen was there.

4. Jamal wouldn't/would not have met his wife if he hadn't/had not gone to his brother's wedding.
_____ Jamal didn't go to the party.

5. Ibrahim would have been happier if he had become an architect.
_____ Ibrahim became an architect.

6. The movie wouldn't/would not have been so good if Anthony Quinn hadn't/had not played the part of the prophet's (pbuh) uncle. _____
Anthony Quinn played the part of the prophet's (pbuh) uncle.

2C) Jamal is thinking about the past. Complete his thoughts with the correct form of the words in parentheses. The first one has been done for you as an example.

1. I didn't go into business with my friend Sami. If I had gone (go) into business with him, I would have become (become) a success.
2. I couldn't go into the army because I had flat feet. I (go) _____ into the army if I _____ (have) flat feet.
3. Mona and I weren't able to go on a honeymoon. We _____ (can/ go) away if my father _____ (not/get) sick.
4. Mona showed me how the world would look without me. I (not know) _____ that I was so important if Mona _____ (not show) me.
5. My old boss once made a terrible mistake. If I _____ (not help) him, he _____ (can / go) to jail.
6. Mona _____ (may / not lead) a happy life if she _____ (not marry) me.
7. Life here _____ (be) really different if I _____ (not be) here.

3) Reported Speech

3A) Some of these sentences are correct, and some have a word which should not be there. If the sentence is *correct*, write the word correct. If it is incorrect, cross the unnecessary word out of the sentence and write it next to the sentence. The first two have been done for you as examples.

You promised you wouldn't be late. *correct*
Susan thought 'That I can't understand what's happening.' *that*

- 1 Do you know me what time the underground leaves?
- 2 Pauline asked if did the price included breakfast.
- 3 Sarah insisted on showing us her fiancé's photos.
- 4 The waitress asked us whether that we had eaten lunch.
- 5 Nicole told me she had started the job the week before.

- 6 Rashed said me he wanted to come with us.
7 My sister's friend said that she did liked her new flat.
8 My aunt asked us for not to wake the baby.

3B) Decide which word is correct. The first one has been done for you as an example.

What did that man say *to you*?

- a) at you b) for you c) to you d) you

1 I rang Joanna in Nottingham yesterday, and she said it _____ raining there.

- a) is b) should be c) to be d) was

2 The last time I saw Heveen, she looked very relaxed. She explained that she'd been on holiday the _____ week.

- a) earlier b) following c) next d) previous

3 I would like to know _____ the tickets are on sale yet.

- a) what b) when c) where d) whether

4 I told you _____ switch on the AC, didn't I?

- a) don't, b) not, c) not to, d) to not

5 Hazem _____ me there's been an accident on the motorway.

- a) asked b) said c) spoke d) told

6 When I rang Ruba some time last week, she said she was busy _____ day.

- a) that b) the c) then d) this

7 When she was at Susan's flat yesterday, Mona asked if she _____ use the phone.

- a) can b) could c) may d) must

8 Rania _____ eating outdoors, but no one else wanted to.

- a) admitted b) offered c) promised d) suggested

3C) Read the news report and write the missing words. Use one word only in each space. Sometimes there is more than one possible answer.

Police have warned people to watch out for two men and a woman who have tricked their way into an old widower home and stolen money. The burglars called on Mr. Eric Adams and said (1) _____ were from the water company and wanted to check (2) _____ his water was OK.

They asked if (3) _____ would mind letting them into his house. The man didn't ask (4) _____ see their identity cards. He said he (5) _____ know about any problem with the water.

One of the men explained that he (6) _____ just discovered the problem but that it was very simple and (7) _____ take long to check. Mr. Adams asked (8) _____ the service was free, and they said yes. They (9) _____ to know where the water tank was. While one woman ran water in the garden, the men went in and took several hundred pounds and precious antiques from the house. The thieves then left saying that they would return the (10) _____ day to have another look.

3D) Complete each sentence by reporting what was said to you yesterday. Use *said* and change the tense in the reported speech. The first one has been done for you as an example.

Serine: I'm really tired.

When I saw Serine yesterday, she said she was really tired.

1 Samar: I feel quite excited.

When I saw Samar yesterday, _____

2 Tareq: I can't/cannot remember the phone number.

When I saw Tareq yesterday, _____

3 Ruba: I won't/will not be at the next meeting.

When I saw Ruba yesterday, _____

4 The Browns: We've/we have got a problem.

When I saw the Browns yesterday, _____

5 Nisreen: I've/I have been doing the shopping.

When I saw Nisreen yesterday, _____

6 Fares and Talal: We would like to be in the show.

When I saw my friends yesterday, _____

7 Amer: I don't/do not need any help.

When I saw Amer yesterday, _____

8 Khaled: My sister is coming to talk to you.

When I saw Khaled yesterday, _____

3E) Report the sentences. They were all spoken last week. Use the verbs in brackets. The first two are done for you as examples.

Joanna to Hanan: Don't forget to sign the form. (remind)

Joanna reminded Hanan to sign the form.

Sawsan: What time will the office close this evening? (ask)

Sawsan asked what time the office would close that evening.

1 A traffic warden to the driver: Stop shouting. (tell)

2 Renée: It was me. I ate all the cake yesterday. (admit)

3 Maher: I'm sorry I was rude. (apologize)

4 Laila to Samar: Would you like to join me for lunch? (invite)

5 Anas to Raneem: Did someone ring you an hour ago? (ask)

6 Oswald: I really must leave. (insist)

3F) Orders and Requests. Rewrite the sentences below as orders or requests with a 'to'-infinitive clause, and the words in brackets. The first one has been done for you as an example.

1 'Do you think you could look after the children?' (Vera/ ask/ babysitter)
Vera asks the babysitter to look after the children.

2 'I think you should try to get more sleep.' (Jamal's doctor/ advise / him)

3 'You can come round and see us any time.' (We/ invite/ our friends)

4 'Will you take the money to the bank, please?' (Jalal / tell / me)

5 'Don't forget to come half an hour early on Tuesday.' (Dr Mahmoud / remind / the students)

6 'Please write to me every day.' (Basima / beg/ Meriam)

Now do these with **not** and a **'to-infinitive clause**.

7 'You shouldn't play with fire.' (I/warn /the children)
I warned the children not to play with fire.

8 'I don't think you should go to Moscow in the winter.' (My grandfather/ advise/ me)

9 'You really ought not to go out alone after dark.' (They/ tell / the visitors)

10 'Please don't make an official complaint.' (The director/ persuade/ her)

3G) Now do these sentences with **asked** and a **'wh'-word clause**.

1 'What time does the match start please?' (I/ a policeman)

I asked the policeman what time the match started.

2 'Where are you going to spend the holiday?' (Samar/ Rima)

3 'Why are the books so expensive?' (Everybody/ us)

4 'How old are Maya's children?' (Firas/ his wife)

5 'Who's going to buy your house?' (Mrs. Jones/ her neighbour)

6 'When are you planning to come to Damascus?' (Basel / his friend)

7 'What are you going to do next?' (I / my mother)

8 'Where can I get the bus to Latakia?' (Bilal / a policeman)

Appendix 1 Irregular Verbs

NOTE: Some verbs have two past forms: -ed and -t, as in burned, burnt. The -ed form is usually used.

<i>Present and Infinitive</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
awake	awoke	awaked
be	was/were	been
bear (bring forth)	bore	born
bear (carry)	bore	borne
become	became	become
begin	began	begun
bend	bent	bent
bite	bit	bitten
bleed	bled	bled
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
bring	brought	brought
build	built	built
burn	burned, burnt	burned, burnt
burst	burst	burst
buy	bought	bought
catch	caught	caught
choose	chose	chosen
cling	clung	clung
clothe	clothed, clad	clothed, clad
come	came	come
cost	cost	cost
creep	crept	crept
cut	cut	cut
deal	dealt	dealt
dig	dug	dug
dive	dived, dove	dived
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
dream	dreamed, dreamt	dreamed, dreamt
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
flee	fled	fled
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown
forbid	forbade, forbad	forbidden
forget	forgot	forgot

Appendix 1

Present and Infinitive
forsake
freeze
get
give
go
grind
grow
hang (suspend)
hang (kill)
have
hear
hide
hit
hold
hurt
keep
kneel
know
lay (put, place, prepare)
lead
leap
leave
lend
let
lie (tell a falsehood)
lie (recline, be situated)
light
lose
make
mean
meet
pay
prove
put
read
rid
ride
ring
rise
run
say
see
seek
sell
send

Past
forsook
froze
got
gave
went
ground
grew
hanged, hung
hanged, hung
had
heard
hid
hit
held
hurt
kept
knelt
knew
laid
led
leaped
left
lent
let
lied
lay
lighted, lit
lost
made
meant
met
paid
proved
put
read
rid
rode
rang
rose
ran
said
saw
sought
sold
sent

Past Participle
forsaken
frozen
got, gotten
given
gone
ground
grown
hung
hanged
had
heard
hidden, hid
hit
held
hurt
kept
knelt
known
laid
led
leaped, leapt
left
lent
let
lied
lain
lighted, lit
lost
made
meant
met
paid
proved, proven
put
read
rid
ridden
rung
risen
run
said
seen
sought
sold
sent

Appendix 1

Present and Infinitive set (place, put)

shake
shine
shoot
show
shrink
shut
sing
sink
sit
sleep
slide
sling
speak
speed
spend
spin
spread
spring
stand
steal
stick
sting
stink
strike
string
swear
sweep
swell
swim
swing
take
teach

Past

set
shook
shone
shot
showed
shrank
shut
sang
sank
sat
slept
slid
slung
spoke
sped
spent
spun
spread
sprang
stood
stole
stuck
stung
stink, stank
struck
strung
swore
swept
swelled
swam
swung
took
taught

Past Participle

set
shaken
shone
shot
shown, showed
shrunk, shrunken
shut
sung
sunk, sunken
sat
slept
slid
slung
spoken
sped
spent
spun
spread
sprung
stood
stolen
stuck
stung
stunk
struck
strung
sworn
swept
swelled, swollen
swum
swung
taken
taught

Appendix 1

<i>Present and Infinitive</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
tear	tore	torn
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
throw	threw	thrown
understand	understood	understood
wake	woke	woken
wear	wore	worn
weep	wept	wept
wet	wet	wet
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
wring	wrung	wrung
write	wrote	written

Appendix 2

Non-Progressive Verbs

These verbs can be divided into four types:

- a) Verbs Expressing Sense Perceptions
- b) Verbs of Thinking, Attitudes, or Opinion
- c) Verbs Expressing Possession
- d) Verbs Expressing Emotion

a) Verbs Expressing Sense Perceptions

feel hear see smell taste

1. These verbs do not usually occur in the continuous tenses (present continuous, present perfect continuous, past continuous, past perfect continuous, future continuous).

2. These verbs usually refer to involuntary actions of the senses; we do these actions without consciously thinking about them.

3. Some of these verbs, however, can also express a voluntary use of the senses. When these verbs are used to express voluntary actions, they *can* be used in the continuous form.

Compare:

Involuntary Actions

I feel cold. Close the window.

I smell something burning.

Your soup tastes great.

Do you see my keys anywhere?

I hear voices. Someone is downstairs.

Voluntary Actions

Amal is feeling the material to see if it's real silk.

I'm smelling the meat to see if it's spoiled.

Ali is tasting the soup to see if it needs salt.

4. **Feel** can also be used in the continuous form when it is used in a medical sense.

I'm not feeling well today. I have a cold.

5. **See** can be used in the continuous form when it has the following meanings:

Meet by appointment: Amy is seeing the doctor today.

Visit places of interest: Maria is out seeing the sights of Damascus today.

b) Verbs of Thinking, Attitudes, or Opinion

appear	doubt	guess	need	remember	think
believe	feel	know	prefer	seem	understand
consider	forget	mean	realize	sound	

1. These verbs seldom occur in the continuous tenses.

2. When **feel** indicates *opinion*, it cannot be used in the continuous form.

Correct: I **feel** we should stay home tonight.

Incorrect: ~~I am feeling we should stay home tonight.~~

3. **Consider** and **think** can be used in the continuous form if the speaker is *not* giving an opinion.

Not Giving an Opinion

I'm **thinking** about my exams.

They are **considering** buying a new house.

Giving an Opinion

I **think** it is just a waste of money.

She **considers** it a good buy.

c) Verbs Expressing Possession.

belong have own possess

1. These verbs also do not usually occur in the continuous tenses.

2. *Have* can be used in the continuous form when it does *not* express possession.

Compare:

Non-Possession:

We're having a party today.

Ted and Pam are having a test tomorrow.

The Smiths are having a good time in Morocco.

My sister is having a baby in July.

Possession:

The teacher has the papers.

They have a beautiful house.

She has a lot of money.

They already have five children.

d) Verbs Expressing Emotion

care hate

desire like

love

refuse

want

forgive

wish

1. These verbs also do not usually occur in the continuous tenses.

2. *Wish* can be used in the continuous form when the speaker expresses a desire silently to himself or herself.

Mother: Why do you have your eyes closed and your fingers crossed?

Little girl: I'm wishing for a baby brother to play with.

Appendix 3

List of common mid-sentence adverbs

Frequency adverbs:

Positive: *Ever, always, almost always, usually*, often*, frequently*, generally*, sometimes*, occasionally*,*

Negative: *seldom, rarely, hardly ever, almost never, never, not ever*

Other mid-sentence adverbs: *already*, finally, just, probably*

The adverbs in the list usually occur in the middle of a sentence. When these adverbs occur in the middle of a sentence, they have special positions, as shown in the following examples:

The adverbs with the asterisk* may also occur at the beginning or end of a sentence.

I sometimes get up at 6:30.

Sometimes I get up at 6:30.

I get up at 6:30 sometimes.

The other adverbs in the list (without asterisks) rarely occur at the beginning or end of a sentence. Their usual position is in the middle of a sentence.

In a **statement**, mid-sentence adverbs come in front of simple present and simple past verbs (except *be*).

He always comes to class.

She finally finished her work.

Mid-sentence adverbs follow *be* in the simple present (*am, is, are*) and simple past (*was, were*).

They are always on time for class.

He was probably at home last night.

Mid-sentence adverbs come between a helping verb and a **main verb**.

I will **always** remember her.

She is **probably** sleeping.

They have **finally** finished their work.

In a question, the adverbs come directly after the subject.

Do you **always** eat breakfast?

Did Tamer **finally** finish his work?

Is she **usually** on time for class?

In a **negative** sentence, most adverbs come in front of the negative verb (except *always* and *ever*).

She **usually** doesn't eat breakfast.

I **probably** won't go to the meeting.

Always and *ever* follow a negative helping verb or negative *be*.

He isn't **ever** on time for class,

She doesn't **always** eat breakfast.

Correct: She **never** eats meat.

Incorrect: ~~She doesn't never eat meat.~~

Negative adverbs (*seldom*, *rarely*, *hardly ever*, *never*) are NOT used with a negative verb.

Appendix 4: The Spelling of Endings

A) Plural Nouns

We add 's' to a noun to form the plural.

a cat two cats, a name some names

- 1 After 's', 'sh', 'ch' and 'x' we add 'es' /iz/
glass glasses, dish dishes
match matches, box boxes

- 2 A few nouns ending in 'o' have 'es'.
Heroes, potatoes, tomatoes,

But most have 's'.

Discos, kilos, photos, pianos
Radios, stereos, studios, zoos

- 3 When a noun ends in a consonant + 'y', the 'y' changes to 'ies'.
Penny pennies, story stories

We do not change 'y' after a vowel.

Day days, journey journeys

B) The Present Simple 's' Ending

In the third person singular, a present simple verb ends in 's'.

I know he knows, I work she works

- 1 After 's', 'sh', 'ch' and 'x' we add 'es' /iz/.
Pass passes, wash washes
catch catches, mix mixes

- 2 Some verbs ending in 'o' have 'es'.
Go goes, do does

- 3 When a verb ends in a consonant + 'y', the y changes to 'ies'.
Hurry hurries, copy copies

We do not change 'y' after a vowel.

Stay stays, enjoy enjoys

C) The 'ed' Ending

Most verbs have 'ed' in the past tense. Most past participles also end in 'ed'.

look looked, call called

- 1 If the verb ends in 'e', we add 'd'.
hope hoped, save saved

- 2 When a verb ends in a consonant + 'y', the y changes to 'ied'.
Hurry hurried, copy copied

- 3 Sometimes we double a final consonant. This happens when a one-syllable verb ends with one vowel and one consonant.

Beg begged, plan planned

D) The ing-form

- 1 We normally leave out e when we add 'ing' to a verb.

Take taking, drive driving

But we keep a double 'e' before 'ing'.

See seeing, agree agreeing

- 2 When a verb ends in 'ie', it changes to 'ying'.

Die dying, lie lying

But 'y' does not change.

Hurry hurrying

- 3 Sometimes we double a final consonant. This happens when a one-syllable verb ends with one vowel and one consonant, e.g. *win, put*.

Win winning, put putting

E) Adverbs

We form many adverbs from an adjective + ly.

Slow slowly, calm calmly

- 1 We do not leave out 'e' before 'ly'.

Safe safely, strange strangely

But there are a few exceptions.

Due duly, True truly, Whole wholly

- 2 When an adjective ends in a consonant + 'y', the 'y' changes to 'ily'.

Angry angrily, happy happily

An exception is: *shy shyly*.

- 3 When an adjective ends in a consonant + 'le', the 'e' changes to 'y'.

probable probably, sensible sensibly

- 4 When an adjective ends in 'ic', we add 'ally'.

Automatic automatically

Romantic romantically

But there is one exception.

Public publicly

F) The Comparison of Adjectives

We form the comparative and superlative of short adjectives with 'er' and 'est'.

Old → older, oldest

Quick → quicker, quickest

- 1 If the adjective ends in 'e', we add 'r' and 'st'.

late → later, latest fine → finer, finest

- 2 When an adjective ends in a consonant + 'y', the 'y' changes to 'ier' or 'iest'.

Heavy → heavier, heaviest

Lucky → luckier, luckiest

3 Sometimes we double a final consonant. This happens when a one-syllable adjective ends with one vowel and one consonant,
Big → bigger, biggest flat → flatter, flattest

G) The Doubling of Consonants

When we add 'ed', 'ing', 'er' or 'est' to a word, we sometimes double a final consonant. This happens when a one-syllable word ends with one vowel and one consonant,

Stop stopped, get getting

Thin thinner, sad saddest

2 We do not double 'y', 'w' or 'x'.

play played, new newest, fax faxing

We do not double when there are two consonants.

Ask asking, short shortest, rich richer

And we do not double when there are two vowels.

Seem seemed, shout shouting, Fair fairest

3 The rule about doubling is also true for words of more than one syllable (e.g. *permit = per + mit*), but only if the last syllable is stressed.

Permit permitted

Prefer preferring

We do not usually double a consonant when the syllable is unstressed.

Open opened, enter entering

An exception is that in British English *l* is usually doubled, even if the syllable is unstressed.

Travel traveled (In US English: *traveled*)

Appendix 5: Punctuation

A) Full stop (.), question mark (?) and exclamation mark (!)

A sentence ends with one of these punctuation marks.

Full stop:

It's hot today. The shop was closed. Please be careful

Question mark:

Who's that? Did you see the film? Could you wait, please?

Exclamation mark: *Oh, no! I don't believe it!*

In the US a full stop is called a 'period'.

B) Semi-colon (;)

We can use a semi-colon between two separate statements which are linked in meaning.

Mona is a very kind person; she visits her friend in hospital every day.

We could also use a full stop here.

C) Colon (:)

We can use a colon before an explanation or before a list.

Vivien felt nervous: she hated going to the dentist.

There wasn't much in the fridge: a couple of eggs, some cheese, and half a bottle of milk.

D) Dash (—)

A dash is rather informal. It is sometimes used instead of a colon or a semi-colon.

I'm having a great time — there are lots to do here.

Vivien felt nervous — she hated going to the dentist.

E) Comma (,)

We often use a comma when we link two statements with **and**, **but** or **or**.

Ahmad was tired, and his feet were hurting.

It's a really good computer, but I can't afford it.

Note the two subjects in each sentence: *Ahmad... his feet* and *It... I*. When there is only one subject, we do not use a comma.

Ahmad sat down and took his shoes off.

We can also use a comma when a sentence has a linking word like 'when' or 'although'.

When the office is busy, Samia has to work late.

Sometimes a comma can separate off an adverb or a phrase.

Samia, unfortunately, has to work late.

On busy days, Samia has to work late.

Here the commas separate off *on busy days* and *unfortunately*.

The rules about commas are not very exact. In general, commas are more likely around longer phrases. With a short phrase there is often no comma.

On busy days Samia has to work late.

Sometimes she has to work late.

It is less usual to separate off something at the end of the sentence.

Samia has to work late when the office is busy.

She stayed late to get the work done.

We do not usually put a comma before *to* expressing purpose.

We also use commas in a list of more than two. The last two are linked by *and*, often without a comma.

I went out with Rania, Laila, Iman and Maha.

F) Quotation marks (“ ”)

We put direct speech in quotation marks.

Leslie said, 'You haven't put those shelves up yet.'

'I haven't had time,' replied Tony.

We normally use a comma to separate the direct speech from the rest of the sentence. The comma comes before the quotation mark. Quotation marks are also called 'quotes' or 'inverted commas'.

Double quotation marks are sometimes used.

Leslie said, "You haven't put those shelves up yet."

We can put quotation marks around titles.

Do you watch that British comedy series called 'Keeping up appearances'?

We often use quotation marks when we mention a word or phrase.

What does 'punctuation' mean?

G) Hyphen (-)

We sometimes use hyphens in these structures.

Compound noun: *eating ice cream*

Compound expression before a noun: *an oven-ready meal*

Noun formed from a phrasal verb: *ready for take-off*

Noun + ing-form: *interested in rock-climbing*

Before the last word of a compound number: *a hundred and ninety nine people*

After some prefixes: *anti-aircraft guns*

Letter + noun: *sending an e-mail*

The rules about hyphens are not very exact. For example, you may see a compound noun written as **phonecard**, **phone-card** or **phone card**.

Hyphens are not very frequent in British English, and they are used even less in American English. If you are unsure, it is usually safer to write two separate words.

H) Apostrophe (')

Look at these examples.

Today we're going shopping in the afternoon.

Everyone is looking at Nadeem's car.

We use an apostrophe (') in short forms, when there is a missing letter, e.g. we're (= we are).
We also use an apostrophe with 's' to form the possessive of a noun, e.g. Nadeem's car.

1) Capital letters

There are two capital letters (big letters) in this sentence.
The teacher said I could leave early.

We use a capital letter at the beginning of a sentence and for the word I.

We also use a capital letter to begin the names of people, places, companies, etc.

Mazen and Samia, Saudi Arabia, Damascus University, Microsoft, General Motors,

This includes the names of books, films, magazines, etc. All the important words start with a capital letter.

My Left Foot, Four Weddings and a Funeral, Cosmopolitan, Newsweek,

We also use a capital letter for days of the week, months of the year, holidays and festivals, historical times, nationalities and most abbreviations.

Friday, July, Easter, the New Year, the French Revolution, Italian, the UN (= the United Nations)

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Key to the Exercises

Chapter One Answer Key

1) Word Classes

- 1A)
- | | |
|--------------|-----------------|
| 1 determiner | 8 preposition |
| 2 verb | 9 linking word |
| 3 pronoun | 10 adverb |
| 4 adverb | 11 determiner |
| 5 pronoun | 12 adjective |
| 6 verb | 13 linking word |
| 7 adjective | 14 noun |

1B)

- 1 verb 2 noun 3 adjective 4 verb 5 noun 6 verb 7 verb 8 noun
9 adjective 10 verb

2) Parts of the Sentence

2A)

- 1 subject 2 verb 3 complement 4 adverbial 5 object 6 complement

- 2B) 1. e 2. a 3. c 4. d

3) Word order

3A)

- Talib likes football.
Dani had an accident.
We moved the furniture.
Hana is a tall woman.
Everyone sat on the floor.
Hisham's friends gave him some help.

4) Adverbials

4A)

- 1) also, with several young doctors
2) first, in 1999
3) naturally
4) fortunately, in March 2002

5) Order of Adjectives

5A)

- 1 a beautiful little Lebanese city
- 2 a local sport centre
- 3 an excellent hot soup
- 4 modern industrial buildings
- 5 a red silk evening dress
- 6 narrow green eyes
- 7 a flat gold frame
- 8 lovely old furniture
- 9 Chinese drawing ink
- 10 a short leather jacket
- 11 little brick squares
- 12 beautiful Swiss lace
- 13 a blue woollen tie
- 14 gray cotton trousers
- 15 black nylon swimming trunks

6) Order of adverbs

6A)

- 1 You are usually here
- 2 Her mum always cooks
- 3 We usually book
- 4 They probably think
- 5 You should always look
- 6 She is probably going to stay
- 7 Chocolate cakes are definitely the best.
- 8 I will probably be able
- 9 I have never had
- 10 We never saw sweets
- 11 I definitely remember
- 12 Do you usually read
- 13 I can usually manage
- 14 She has never done that
- 15 Something is definitely burning
- 16 She has always been nervous
- 17 I never feel cold
- 18 They were always against me
- 19 We are definitely going to win
- 20 February is usually the worst
- 21 It is sometimes very difficult.

- 22 I always buy them
- 23 I have often tried
- 24 They are always fighting.
- 25 She often saw this dream
- 26 You are probably right.

6B)

- 1 I work best at night.
- 2 I paid the bill at once.
- 3 He always moves very slowly in the morning.
- 4 She speaks Italian fluently.
- 5 I think we'd better open the parcel now.
- 6 She was crying quietly in her room.
- 7 We talked about it briefly at lunchtime.
- 8 I'm going to break the eggs carefully into the bowl.
- 9 Ahmad works at the local shop on Fridays.
- 10 I can't explain my feelings clearly.
- 11 The team played brilliantly yesterday.
- 12 I always worked very hard at school.
- 13 She practises the piano here every evening.
- 14 I don't think she plays tennis very well.
- 15 He read every word slowly.
- 16 Put the yogurt in the fridge at once.

7) Non-Progressive Verbs

7A)

- 1 belongs
- 2 believe/realise/suppose
- 3 hate/like/love/prefer/remember/understand
- 4 owns
- 5 hates/Likes/needs/prefers/wants
- 6 need/want
- 7 believe/like/love/need/remember/understand/want/hate
- 8 forget/remember
- 9 believes/hates/likes/loves/needs/remembers/understands/wants/
- 10 matter
- 11 prefer/want
- 12 remember
- 13 contains

7B)

May 7th

Not a good day! I feel kind of depressed and **have** a headache. I ~~am needing~~ **need** to do something right away to change my mood and get rid of this pain. Last week I read an article about how smells can affect mood and even health, so right now I ~~smell~~ **am smelling** an orange (for the depression) and a green apple (for the headache). They smell nice, but I ~~am not thinking~~ **don't think** that I notice a difference in how I feel! I think I ~~am preferring~~ **prefer** to eat something when I feel down. But I worry that I ~~am weighing~~ **weigh** too much. So, at the moment I ~~am having~~ **have** a cup of peppermint tea with lemon. The article says that the peppermint smell helps you eat less. Well, I don't know about that! A chocolate ice cream sounds pretty good right about now! It ~~is seeming~~ **seems** that there are no easy solutions.

Chapter Two Answer Key

1) Question Making

1A)

- 1 Where **have** you been?
- 2 do you **send** postcards?
- 3 Who **does** this dictionary belong to?
- 4 How **long** are you staying here?
- 5 What **is** your new office like?
- 6 Which of **the** flights are full?
- 7 What **time** does the carnival start?
- 8 What **holiday** has Nancy decided on?

1B)

- 1 How **old** 2 **What** colour 3 **Whose** 4 How **much** 5 **Which** 6 **What** kind
- 7 **Who** 8 **How** 9 How **far** 10 How **often** 11 **What**

1C)

- 1 Are you **a** student here?
- 2 How **many** cakes have you eaten?
- 3 Did you **enjoy** your walk?
- 4 Where **have** your friends gone?
- 5 What **kind** of music do you like?
- 6 Does Peter play tennis?
- 7 What are you talking about?
- 8 What has happened?

1D)

- 1 Where did you buy your evening dress?
- 2 Can Lena swim?
- 3 Which team do you support?
- 4 Who am I speaking to?
- 5 How much does a vacuum cleaner cost?
- 6 May/Can I leave early ('please')?
- 7 How long does the journey take?
- 8 What did you lock the door for?
- 9 What happens next?
- 10 Shall we (all) go out together?

1E)

- 1 how many cars have the Smiths got/do the Smiths have?
- 2 Where does Janet work?
- 3 Why is Nada learning English?
- 4 What was the film like?
- 5 When will the meeting take place?
- 6 Who switched off the computer?
- 7 Whose mobile phone was ringing?
- 8 Who did Nadia go to the wedding party with?

Chapter Three Answer Key

1) Simple Present and Present Progressive

1A)

2 has 3's appearing/is appearing 4 appears 5 're you looking/are you looking 6 looks 7 see 8 'm seeing/am seeing 9 think 10 're you thinking/are you thinking 11 'm feeling/am feeling / feel 12 feel

1B)

1 live 2 think 3 's talking/ is talking 4 know 5 're you doing/are you doing 6 I'm looking/am looking 7 works 8 I'm wasting/I am wasting

1C)

1 is snowing/ 's snowing; is coming/ 's coming
2 start; am starting/ 'm starting
3 read; buy 4 are building/ 're building; want
5 am going/ 'm going; drive 6 rises; are travelling/ 're travelling
7 go; cost

1D)

1 is 2 do 3 sitting 4 don't 5 doesn't 6 go 7 being 8 get 9 gets
10 means 11 costing

1E)

1 The girls are playing handball at the moment.
2 Both my sisters like sport.
3 Anita is wearing her new coat today.
4 What colour do you like best?
5 My suitcase weights twenty kilos.
6 At the moment I'm staying at a relative's place.
7 Rita catches the same bus every morning.
8 What does this word here mean?

1F)

1 I'm thinking/ I am thinking, cost, it's getting/ it is getting
2 look, they don't fit/ do not fit, I don't know/ I do not know
3 are you doing/'re you doing, I'm weighing/ I am weighing, I need
4 I think, is going/'s going, I agree
5 I like, Are you enjoying, I'm loving/ I am loving

6 I'm always falling/ I am always falling, do you go, it doesn't make/ does not make

7 I'm living/ I am living, I'm looking/ I am looking, I promise

8 do you want, I don't understand/ I do not understand, you're being/ you are being

2) Present Perfect

Regular Verb forms

2A)

1 Have you looked

2 've looked/ have looked

3 haven't finished/ have not finished

4 has used/ 's used

5 has cleaned/ 's cleaned

6 has promised/ 's promised

7 hasn't started/ has not started

8 've decided/ have decided

Irregular verb forms

2B)

1 's bought/ has bought

2 've had/ have had

3 hasn't cut/ has not cut

4 haven't seen/ have not seen

5 has rung/ 's rung

2C)

1 washed 2 eaten 3 opened 4 written 5 made 6 had 7 scored 8 landed 9 broken 10 been 11 sold 12 finished

2D)

1 's opened/ has opened

2 's drawn/ has drawn

3 's broken/ has broken

4 have won/ 've won

5 've drunk/finished *or* have drunk/finished

6 've cleaned/ have cleaned

7 've learnt/ learned *or* have learnt/learned

8 have arrived/have come *or* arrived/ come

9 haven't finished/ have not finished

2E) 1 already 2 yet 3 ever 4 this 5 long 6 since 7 time
8 never

2F) Martina Hingis picked up her first tennis racket at the age of two. Since then, she has become one of the greatest tennis players in the world. Born in Slovakia, she has lived in Switzerland for many years. She became the outdoor Swiss champion at age nine. Since then she has won many international competitions including Wimbledon, the U.S. Open, and the Australian Open.

For young stars like Martina, life has its difficulties. They are under constant pressure to win, and they don't have time to just hang out with classmates. In fact, Martina hasn't attended school since 1994, and she has been in the public spotlight for years. But she seems to be handling her success well. Since she turned professional, she has played tennis all over the world and has earned millions of dollars. She sees her life as normal because tennis has been the most important thing to her since she was a little girl.

2G)

1 've been/ have been 2 for 3 For 4 has attended/ 's attended
5 hasn't done/ has not done 6 Since 7 has taken/ 's taken
8 hasn't got/ has not got 9 Since 10 has met/ 's met
11 hasn't thought/ has not thought 12 's known/ has known
13 since

2H)

1 have 2 correct 3 have 4 correct 5 correct 6 has 7 correct
8 correct 9 have

3) Past Simple and Past Progressive

3A) 1 heard 2 thought 3 was 4 called/rang/phoned 5 stopped 6
was 7 had 8 knocked 9 got/come

3B) 1 left 2 were 3 died 4 had 5 didn't like/ did not like 6 went
7 happened 8 wasn't/ was not 9 knew

3C)

- 1 I was wearing my old shoes.
- 2 We were (both) working.
- 3 I didn't make/ did not make a mistake.
- 4 The children were playing (a game of) cards.
- 5 I didn't know/ did not know about the change of plan.
- 6 My brother won the competition.
- 7 Did the Arabs build this castle?

3D)

- 1 shining 2 was 3 wasn't/ was not 4 didn't/ did not
5 hated/detested 6 walked/went 7 were 8 sat 9 had 10 was 11
took 12 didn't/ did not 13 wanted/hoped/had/ intended 14
When 15 was

3E)

- 1 It was peaceful and the students were reading quietly.
- 2 I was watching TV when the phone rang.
- 3 You didn't come to yesterday's lecture.
- 4 It took ages to get to college.
- 5 We tried to keep quiet because the baby was sleeping.
- 6 As I was watching her, the woman suddenly ran away.
- 7 We passed a petrol station two minutes ago.
- 8 Everything seemed OK.
- 9 Where did you buy that suitcase?
- 10 When I heard the fire alarm, I left the room immediately.

3F)

- | | |
|----------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1 was lying, rang, stopped | 2 was, left, was falling |
| 3 came, seemed, enjoyed | 4 saw, was standing, had |
| 5 opened, fell | 6 was walking, felt, didn't know |
| 7 were going, heard, drove | 8 happened, was driving, saw |

- 3G)** 2. opened, started 3. were enjoying, went 4. hear, began 5. was talking, burst 6. heard, ran.

4) Present Perfect and Past Simple

4A)

- 1 went 2 've never seen/have never seen 3 did 4 has won/ 's won
5 worked 6 did you get 7 has visited/ 's visited 8 has come/ 's come
9 did you get 10 haven't driven/ have not driven 11 was
12 have you ever baked 13 was 14 rang 15 have you seen
16 've been/ have been

- 4B) 1. 's happened/ has happened 2. 's had/ has had 3. fell
4. broke 5. did this happen 6. told 7. knew 8. didn't tell/ did not tell
9. didn't see/ did not see 10. haven't seen/have not seen
11. 's had/has had 12. did

5) Miscellaneous

Past and Perfect Tenses

5A)

- 1 Dr. Ayham has been working since six o'clock.
2 Lena had forgotten her key.
3 I didn't want to go until I'd/I had said goodbye.
4 Heven has written the report.
5 He's/He has been waiting in the queue (for) thirty minutes (so far).
6 When we arrived, everyone was eating.
7 I've had/I have had the portable computer for four years.
8 When we were having/eating supper, there was a knock at the door.
9 Ammar felt sick because he'd/he had eaten too many cakes.

5B)

- 1 I'd/I had been on holiday.
2 I've/I have been playing table tennis.
3 I'd had/I had had a shock.
4 How long have you been working?
5 Lots of people were walking along the street outside.
6 She's/She has been practising her French since last summer.
7 I've/I have passed my exam.
8 She'd/She had been lying in the sun for too long.
9 But the plane had already taken off.

5C)

- 1 I've/I have finished
- 2 have we been waiting, We've/We have been
- 3 we'd drunk/ we had drunk, she hurried
- 4 I was having, I heard
- 5 have you been writing, I've written/ I have written
- 6 she'd been crying/ she had been crying, she'd had/ she had had
- 7 heard, threw

5D)

- 1 had left
- 2 've finished/have finished
- 3 've eaten/have eaten
- 4 had ordered/'d ordered
- 5 've made/have made
- 6 had told/'d told
- 7 had had/'d had
- 8's started/has started
- 9've turned/have turned
- 10 had made/'d made

5E)

Oprah Winfrey is an amazing person. By the time she was twelve, she ~~has~~ had already decided on a career. Not long afterward, she got her first radio job. Although she hadn't ~~have had~~ any experience, she became a news reporter. When she got her own TV talk show, she ~~has had~~ already acted in a major Hollywood movie. By the late 1980s "Oprah Winfrey" had ~~became~~ become a household word. Then in 1994 she decided to improve the quality of talk-show themes. She also made a personal change. She had always had a weight problem, but in 1995 TV viewers saw a new Winfrey. She had ~~losed~~ lost almost ninety pounds as a result of dieting and working out. She had also ~~compete~~ competed in a marathon. She has really been an inspiration to many people.

5F)

- 1 'd been digging/had been digging
- 2 hadn't been doing/had not been doing
- 3 'd been waiting/had been waiting
- 4 'd been dealing/had been dealing

5G)

- 1 He'd/He had been cleaning a window.
- 2 She'd/She had been playing by the lake.
- 3 He'd/He had been crossing the high way.
- 4 They'd/They had been playing on the railway line.
- 5 She'd/She had been walking in her sleep.
- 6 He'd/He had been using a faulty electric

5H)

- 1 I'm living/ I am living, I've found/ I have found
- 2 I think, it belongs
- 3 I'm using/ I am using, I want, I've started/ I have started
- 4 you leave, I've had/I have had, I've been rushing/ I have been rushing

5I)

- 1 It's / it has been snowing for ten hours.
- 2 I think it's the right thing to do.
- 3 We've moved our dining table.
- 4 I was having/eating lunch when Samia rang.
- 5 They always play cards on Thursday evening.

5J)

1. I was looking
2. I'm going
3. I've been trying
4. He'd spent/he had spent
5. They opened

5K)

- 1 correct
- 2 been
- 3 was
- 4 are
- 5 have
- 6 correct
- 7 been
- 8 correct

5L)

- 1 failed
- 2 lives
- 3 left
- 4 had made
- 5 were walking
- 6 saw
- 7 has seen
- 8 hadn't arrived
- 9 had been waiting/ were waiting
- 10 have been trying/have tried
- 11 have had
- 12 are taking
- 13 believe
- 14 want

6) Future Reference

6A)

- 2 are going to visit
- 3 will send
- 4 are going to collect
- 5 are going
- 6 will go

6B)

2. It'll be
3. I'll take
4. we're going
5. It's going to crash
6. I'll be using

6C)

- 1 'll be speaking/ will be speaking
- 2 am going/ 'm going
- 3 leave/'m leaving/ am leaving
- 4 am visiting/ 'm visiting/ am going to visit/ 'm going to visit
- 5 'll be/ will be
- 6 starts/ is starting/ 's starting/ 's about to start/ is about to start
- 7 'll see/ will see
- 8 'll tell/ will tell
- 9 get

6D)

In the future, robots ~~will be perform~~ performing more and more tasks for humans. This ~~will be having~~ have both positive and negative effects. On the one hand, while robots ~~will be doing~~ are doing/ do the boring and dangerous jobs, humans will be devoting more time to interesting pursuits. In this way robots ~~is~~ are going to be making life a lot easier for humans. On the other hand, the widespread use of robots is going to create a lot of future unemployment. People will be losing their jobs as robots fill their positions. And some robots could even become dangerous. I'm afraid that in the not-too-distant future, robots will be operating nuclear power stations! And before too long, robots are going to be ~~fight~~ fighting in wars. Although, on second thought, that will be better than humans killing each other!

6E) 1 going 2 be 3 will 4 don't 5 was 6 are 7 to 8 about

6F) 1 is 2 correct 3 be 4 for 5 correct 6 correct 7 will 8 to

6G)
1 'll be having/ will be having
2 was going to drive
3 'll /will be working
4 'll have done/ will have done
5 were going to buy
6 'll have had/ will have had

6H)
1 We'll wait for you
2 This train stops at Stirling.
3 His niece was going to visit us.
4 Adrian is having a university interview on 17 October.
5 We'll/ we will have finished our meal by eight o'clock.
6 I might go on the trip.
7 The fire is about to go out.

6I)
1. going 2. will or won't 3. see 4. not 5. to 6. Shall 7. is 8. getting
9. has 10. about

6J)
1 What time does it get to Leeds?
2 I'll tell/ will tell/ shall tell her when I see her this evening.
3 She's about to/ is about to fall asleep.
4 We're meeting/We are meeting in town later. Or We're going to meet/
We are going to meet in town later.
5 I'll send/ will send you a postcard.
6 I can read a book while I'm waiting.
7 I'm going/I am going to lie down.
8 All your friends will be there.
9 No one can go into the building until the firemen have put the fire out.

6K)

1 will 2 is 3 will 4 going 5 to 6 have 7 will 8 having/holding
9 starts/begins 10 will

6L)

1 leaves 2 I'm going to apply 3 I'll help 4 it's about to open
5 I go 6 Are you doing

6M)

- 1 I'm going/ I am going to study.
- 2 The term starts on 15 September.
- 3 There will be a world war in five years' time.
- 4 Sami and I are/ We're playing chess tomorrow.
- 5 Prices will probably fall/ Prices are probably going to fall.
- 6 The van is/'s or We are/'re going to crash!

6N) 2. F 3.T 4. F 5. F 6. T

Chapter Four Answer Key

1) Modal Verbs

1 A)

1 mustn't/must not

2 Would

3 might

4 would

5 needn't/ need not

6 Shall

7 had

8 wouldn't/would not

1B)

1 correct 2 correct 3 to 4 for 5 be 6 correct 7 been 8 correct

9 correct 10 be

1 C)

1 You ought to be more careful.

2 It must have been a terrible holiday for you.

3 The university mightn't have/might not have received my e-mail.

4 Martin can't be jogging in this weather.

1D)

1 asking permission

2 giving an order

3 asking for advice

4 inviting

5 offering to help

6 making a suggestion

7 refusing permission

8 making a request

9 expressing a wish

1E) 1 must 2 have/need 3 has 4 can 5 must 6 can

Chapter Five Answer Key

1) Active or Passive verb?

1A)

1 swept 2 burst 3 were rescued 4 received 5 reached 6 were blocked
7 were brought 8 is being done 9 said

1B)

1 my father 2 The water 3 the prisoners 4 the alarm 5 The guide
6 The dog

1C)

1 was won by Ghada Shuaa.
2 did a parachute jump last week.
3 been attacked by a dog.
4 being built.
5 likes Jessica.
6 been thrown away.
7 been kidnapped by a criminal.
8 was seen by five people.

1D)

Two-thirds of Bolivia's five million people ~~locate~~ are located in the cool western highlands known as the Altiplano. For centuries, the grain quinoa has been ~~grew~~ grown in the mountains. Llamas ~~raised~~ are raised for fur, meat, and transportation. And tin, Bolivia's richest natural resource, is ~~mining~~ mined by miners in the high Andes.

The Oriente, another name for the eastern lowlands, is mostly tropical. Rice is the major food crop, and cows are raised for milk. Oil is also ~~find~~ found there.

Although Spanish is the official language, Native American languages are still spoken ~~by people~~. Traditional textiles are woven by hand, and music ~~played~~ is played on reed pipes whose tone resembles the sound of the wind blowing over high plains in the Andes.

1E)

1 The film may be banned because of the violence scenes in it.
2 Hanan was offered a pay increase.
3 The mistakes need correcting/need to be corrected.
4 The situation was reported to be under control.
5 The new drug is being tested.

6 The e-mails haven't been read for a week.

1F)

1 is 2 by 3 be 4 were 5 it 6 been 7 have 8 being

1G)

1 A national song was sung by Asala.

2 Hairdressers are paid a lot of money.

3 The car was being cleaned.

4 Nawal is having her car repaired.

5 It was agreed that the plan should go ahead.

6 'When did you get your house redecorated?'

1H) 1 b) 2 b) 3 a) 4 a) 5 b)

II) Answers

1 The poem was written by John Donne.

2 The match is played at this stadium.

3 My new trousers need ironing/need to be ironed.

4 I got my hair cut yesterday.

5 It is believed that there is going to be war.

6 My parents got divorced last year.

7 I've got a report to write.

8 The winner athlete was given a prize.

9 This man on TV is supposed to be the tallest person in the world.

Chapter Six Answer Key

1) Relative Clauses

1A)

- 1 (that/which) crashed today had been
- 2 (when/that) Khaled came (,) grandma was
- 3 new offices are /offices, which are new, are
- 4 stolen from a car have been or (that/which) were stolen from a car have been
- 5 (that/which) we were trying to operate is
- 6 which date from three centuries BC, are
- 7 whose cat was run over was
- 8 the first (person) to solve /the first (person) who solved
- 9 selling newspapers was standing / who was selling newspapers was standing
- 10 (that/which) Fareed gave was /, which Fareed gave, was
- 11 where they used to live is or (that/which) they used to live in

1B)

- 1 who/that 2 that/which 3 that/which 4 it 5 that/which 6 what
- 7 whose 8 which 9 what 10 who

2) Conditional Sentences

2A)

- 1) If you're traveling with your children, take them to the coast.
Or Take your children to the coast if you're traveling with them.
- 2) If you need a nice hotel, I suggest the Meridian.
Or I suggest the Meridian if you need a nice hotel.
- 3) If you like seafood, there are wonderful seafood restaurants in Latakia.
Or There are wonderful seafood restaurants in Latakia if you like seafood.
- 4) If you're fascinated by the mountains, you might like to go to Kasab.
Or You might like to go to Kasab if you're fascinated by the mountains.
- 5) If you'd like to get a good view of the coast, you should go to Oum Al-Touyour.
Or You should go to Oum- Al-Touyour if you'd like to get a good view of the coast.

2B) 2. F 3. T 4. F 5. F 6. T

- 2C)
2. could (or would) have gone, did not have.
 3. could have gone, hadn't/had not got.
 4. wouldn't/would not have known, hadn't/had not shown.
 5. hadn't/had not helped, could have gone.
 6. might not have led, hadn't/had not married.
 7. would have been, hadn't/had not been here.

3) Reported Speech

3A)

1 me 2 did 3 correct 4 that 5 correct 6 me 7 did 8 for

3B)

1 was 2 previous 3 whether 4 not to 5 told 6 that 7 could
8 suggested

3C)

- 1 they
- 2 that/if/ whether
- 3 he
- 4 to
- 5 didn't/did not
- 6 had
- 7 (wouldn't / would not) / (didn't/did not)
- 8 if/whether
- 9 wanted/needed/ had
- 10 next/ following/ same

3D)

- 1 she said she felt quite excited.
- 2 he said he couldn't/could not remember the phone number.
- 3 she said she wouldn't/ she would not be at the next meeting.
- 4 they said they had/they'd got a problem.
- 5 she said she'd /she had been doing the shopping/she had been doing the shopping.
- 6 they said they would like to be in the show.
- 7 he said he didn't/did not need any help.
- 8 he said his sister was coming to talk to me.

3E)

- 1 A traffic warden told the driver to stop shouting.
- 2 Renée admitted eating all the cake/having eaten all the cake the day before/the previous day.
- 3 Maher apologized for being rude/for having been rude.
- 4 Laila invited Samar to join her for lunch.
- 5 Anas asked Raneem if/whether someone rang her or if/whether someone had rung her an hour before.
- 6 Oswald insisted on leaving.

3F)

- 2 Jamal's doctor advised him to get more sleep
- 3 We invited our friends to come round and see us any time.
- 4 Jalal told me to take the money to the bank.
- 5 Dr Mahmoud reminded the students to come half an hour early on Tuesday.
- 6 Basima begged Meriam to write to her every day.
- 7 I warned the children not to play with fire.
- 8 My grandfather advised me not to go to Moscow in the winter.
- 9 They told the visitors not to go out alone after dark.
- 10 The director persuaded her not to make an official complaint.

3G)

- 2 Samar asked Rima where she was going to spend the holiday.
- 3 Everybody asked us why the books were so expensive.
- 4 Firas asked his wife how old Maya's children were.
- 5 Mrs. Jones asked her neighbour who was going to buy their house.
- 6 Basel asked his friend when he was planning to come to Damascus.
- 7 I asked my mother what she was going to do next.
- 8 Bilal asked a policeman where he could get the bus to Latakia.