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وزارة التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research
جامعة الجلفة
University of Djelfa
كلية العلوم الاقتصادية والتجارية وعلوم التسيير
**Faculty of Economic, Commercial and Management
Sciences**

ملخصات دروس على الخط في مقياس الإنجليزية
Summaries of online lessons in English scale

موجهة لطلبة السنة الثالثة علوم اقتصادية
Addressed to third-year students of economic sciences

الجزء الأول
Part 1

إعداد الدكتور: بريني دحمان

Prepared by Dr. Berini Dahmane

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Part One

General Review of the Components of the Sentence (Verb, Subject, Object)

Traditionally speaking, the sentence is the basic grammatical unit of language that can stand alone. The basic ordering principle that is commonly used is to provide the familiar information at the beginning of the clause so that the readers have time to prepare for and orientate themselves towards what follows. The first part of the sentence usually tells us 'what the clause' is about; and what comes after it, this is usually the essential point, i.e. the new information.

Grammatical functions such as subjects, verbs, objects, complements, and modifiers may each consist of one word, a phrase, a clause or a sentence. This expansion of information about the various grammatical functions helps us to give accurate information about the constituents of the sentence as will be exemplified below:

1. Subjects

Subjects usually come immediately after the verb phrase in a clause, and they frequently consist of a noun phrase. They often tell us what the predicate (everything in the clause that comes after the subject) is about. Consider the different kinds of subjects:

Kind of subject	Subject	Predicate
Noun	Bill	slept.
Pronoun	They	study.
Phrase	The crowd	shouted.
Infinitive	To lose	hurts.
-ing form	Drinking	can kill.
Participial phrase	Making money	is not easy.
Non-finite clause	How to write efficiently	needs practice.
Noun clause	The man I told you about last month	has arrived at last.

2. Direct Objects

Direct objects usually come after the verb phrase, and they are normally noun or adverbial phrases.

Subject	Verb	Direct Object	Kind of DO
She	underwent	treatment.	noun
John	phoned	Susan.	name
They	invited	him.	pronoun
The student	wanted	to leave.	infinitive
Laura	decided	to do her homework.	infinitive phrase
They	like	shopping.	gerund
Turner	influence	a whole generation of painters.	noun phrase
They	don't know	whether they had done their work.	adverbial clause

3. Complements

Complements usually tell us something about the subject with regard to what it is, how it feels, or what it is like. Complements are sometimes called subject complements because they modify or describe something about the subject of the clause. Complements may consist of adjectives, nouns, noun phrases, adjective phrases, preposition phrases, and clauses. These are illustrated below:

Subject	Verb	Complement	Kind of Complement
This man	looks	stupid.	Adjective
She	became	a prime minister.	Noun phrase
My cousin	is	an old person.	Adjectival phrase
He	was	much more determined.	Adjectival phrase
The children	felt	under threat.	Prepositional phrase
Our holiday	wasn't	what we expected.	Finite clause

4. Adverbials

Grammar books use the word 'adverbial' to mean different things including subordinate and non-finite clauses. Adverbials are usually phrases beginning with a preposition, adverb or noun. They are flexible, but they generally come at the end or at the beginning of the clause. One-word adverbials are known as adverbs. Adverbials give information about how, where or when something is done. We can use more than

one adverbial together, e.g., at nine o'clock in the park, at the end of the academic year.

Subject	Verb	Adverbial	Kind of Adverbial
She	came	quickly.	Adverb
The students	arrived	at the end of the course.	Phrase
The job	was finished	by the time the boss came back.	Clause

Aspects of Word Order

Word order in simple sentences

English largely depends on the position that words occupy in the sentence structure or pattern. In some cases, the change of position means a radical change in meaning. The normal unmarked English word order is Subject-Verb-Object. Nevertheless, a neutral sentence may include just one word as in:

Go! Write! Sleep!

The meaning of these simple verbs is complete and definite because they represent imperatives or commands. They mean: You are to go. You are to write. You are to sleep. All in all, you are commanded to do so.

Students should recognise the main patterns of English in order to produce sentences which accord with the genius of the English sentence. Even though variety in sentence structure is desirable, the student should not strive to avoid the common normal order. Knowing the English word order, the student could avoid drawing on the structures of the language(s) acquired before and prevent himself from falling into erroneous patterns. Now let's examine the basic word order in simple declarative sentences.

1. SUBJECT-VERB

Birds twitter.

They are frightened.

2. SUBJECT-VERB-OBJECT

Alice likes fish.

The students respect the teacher.

3. SUBJECT-VERB-INDIRECT OBJECT-DIRECT OBJECT

Her mother will give her £5000.

The chef opened me a can of sardines.

4. SUBJECT-VERB-DIRECT OBJECT-INDIRECT OBJECT

John has a bunch of roses for Mary.

Laura gave all her money to the Salvation Army.

5. SUBJECT-VERB-COMPLEMENT

The man looks tired.

The boy appeared satisfied.

Mr. Smith is the chairman.

6. SUBJECT-VERB-OBJECT-COMPLEMENT

She left the child alone.

Bill had kept the money safe.

7. SUBJECT-VERB-ADVERB

Linda works at school.

Mrs. Ellis lives at 15 Oxford Street.

8. SUBJECT-VERB-OBJECT-ADVERB

She put the books on the shelf.

The secretary has put the papers in the drawer.

9. THERE-VERB-SUBJECT

There is no risk.

There are six patients in the hospital yard.

Note: In the interrogative form, the above patterns change the order as shown below:

11. AUXILIARY-SUBJECT-VERB?

Do birds fly?

Are they frightened?

12. AUXILIARY-SUBJECT-VERB-OBJECT?

Does Alice like fish?

Did Bill write a letter?

13. AUXILIARY-SUBJECT-VERB-INDIRECT OBJECT-DIRECT OBJECT?

Will her mother give her £5000?

Did the chief open me a can of sardines?

14. AUXILIARY-SUBJECT-VERB-DIRECT OBJECT-INDIRECT OBJECT?

Has he bought a bunch of roses for Mary?

Did she give all her money to the Salvation Army?

15. AUXILIARY-SUBJECT-VERB-COMPLEMENT?

Does the man look tired?

Did the boy appear satisfied?

16. AUXILIARY-SUBJECT-VERB-OBJECT-COMPLEMENT?

Did she lave the child alone?

Has she kept the money safe?

17. AUXILIARY-SUBJECT-VERB-ADVERB?

Does Lynda work at school?

Does Mrs. Smith live at 15 Oxford Street?

18. AUXILIARY-SUBJECT-VERB-OBJECT-ADVERB?

Did she put the books on the shelf?

Has the secretary put the papers in the drawer?

19. VERB-THERE-SUBJECT?

Is there any risk?

Are there any books on the table?

20. AUXILIARY-THERE-VERB-SUBJECT?

Has there been any risk?

Should there be only six books on the table?

Note: Subjects, verbs, and objects may be compound.

Examples:

The high wheeler and the safety bicycle were popular in the late nineteenth century. (Compound subjects)

A capable student can face and solve his problems and difficulties.

(Compound verbs and compound objects)

Review of the Direct and Indirect Object and the Adverb

1. Some adverbs go with the verb in the middle of a sentence

This dog always does this.

She always goes to school by bicycle.

These students rarely revise their lessons.

The wise person always tells the truth.

2. Adverbs come after the verb “to be”

She is always angry.

When an accident happens, the police are never on hand.

Some procedures are usually followed strictly.

3. If the verb consists of two or more words, the adverb comes after the first verb:

He has often changed jobs.

They haven't yet seen that movie.

We have surely known each other for along time.

The Common English Word order

The usual English word order runs as follows:

Subject + Verb + Object + Place + Modifier +Time

1. Verb + Object

The verb and the object normally go together, and no words should be put between them.

Examples:

Do you see your supervisor?

Peter plays Football.

She watched TV.

They bought an apartment two years ago.

2. Place + Time

The verb and the place usually go together:

Return home live in a city walk in a garden

If the verb has an object, the place comes after the verb + object:

Take me Home

Park the car in the garage

Meet a friend in the zoo.

3. Time usually comes after place

Laura goes to school every day.

She will move London next week.

She painted the house last week.

He has been abroad for six months.

4. Time

can be put at the beginning of the sentence

Yesterday the teacher came late.

By the end of next month, she will have saved £70000.

Every month, the patient goes to see the doctor.

Tense Review

The Present Simple

Uses of the Present Simple

The present simple is used to express:

A. Habitual, repeated or permanent actions especially with adverbs of frequency:

often, usually, sometimes, seldom, rarely, always, occasionally, never.

Examples:

1. Pupils usually **go** to school in time.
2. Birds **fly**, and **fish** swim.
3. My son **plays** all the morning and **sleeps** in the afternoon.
4. Housewives **work** very hard. They **cook** the meals, **lay** the table, **clean** the house, **mend** the clothes, and **do** the washing and ironing.

B. Eternal truths and facts; i.e., actions for all time.

Examples:

1. Water **boils** at 100°C.
2. Air **contains** oxygen and nitrogen.
3. Honesty **is** the best policy.
4. Wars **solve** no problem.

C. Planned future actions.

Examples:

1. I **start** work next week.
2. Next Monday **is** my birthday.
3. The Hegira Day **falls** on Wednesday next year.
4. The plane **leaves** at 9 o'clock from Algiers, and arrives in London at 11:30.

D. Past related as present or historic present

Examples:

1. Rachid **tells** me that your brothers **are** abroad.
2. Peter **says** he will come.
3. In 1830, France **occupies** Algeria.
4. Mohamed Dib **draws** his characters from the Algerian society.

The Present Continuous

Uses of the Present Continuous

The present continuous is used to express:

A. An action happening at the moment of speaking.

Examples:

1. Be quiet! I **am trying** to hear what the man **is saying**.
2. Please be quiet! The babies **are sleeping**.
3. Somebody **is knocking** at the door. Please see who it is.
4. The telephone **is ringing**. Answer it at once.

B. An action happening about this time but not necessarily at the moment of speaking.

Examples

1. He **is teaching** English and learning Spanish.
2. I **am reading** a novel by Dickens.
3. They **are building** a block of flats over there.
4. We **are looking** for a new house.

C. Existing arrangements, plans, or programmes for the future.

Examples:

1. My uncle is returning to France next week.
2. Are you coming to the party on Monday?
3. I am going to the theatre tonight.
4. We are having dinner with the Smiths tomorrow.

D. Characteristic habits in combination with some frequency adverbs such as *always*, *constantly*, *for ever*, *all the time* ... etc.

Examples:

1. My younger brother is constantly getting himself into trouble.
2. She is always quarrelling with her husband.
3. Her daughters are all the time visiting her.
4. He is constantly drawing attention to his own excellence.

The present Perfect Tense

Uses of the Present Perfect Tense

The present Perfect Tense is used to express:

A. Actions occurring at an unspecified time in the past.

Examples:

1. The police *have arrested* the suspect.
2. *Have you passed* your driving test?
3. I *have read* Hard Times.
4. She *has done* all the work.

B. Actions occurring in the recent past.

Examples:

1. She *has gone* out.
2. He *has* recently *arrived*.
3. I *have* already *passed* my driving test.
4. Bill *hasn't finished* yet.

C. Actions beginning in the past, and still continuing.

Examples:

1. I *have* always *walked* to work.
2. She *has lived* in London since last October.
3. He *has* never *seen* a dinosaur.
4. The house *has been* empty for ages.

D. Actions beginning in the past and finishing at the moment of speaking.

Examples:

1. I *haven't seen* you for a long time (but I see you now).
2. The room *hasn't been cleaned* for months (but we're cleaning it now).
3. It *has been* very cold lately, but it's getting warmer).
4. She *has not appeared* on TV before now.

The Present Perfect Continuous

Uses of the Present Perfect Continuous

The present perfect continuous is used to express:

A. An action which began in the past, and has only just finished.

Examples:

1. I'm sorry I'm late. *Have you been waiting* long?
2. Who *has been eating* my dinner?
3. I *have been writing* a letter to my uncle?
4. Hello! At last! I *have been phoning* you all evening.

B. An action which began in the past, and is still continuing.

Examples:

1. This class *has been studying* English since 1998.
2. This class *has been studying* English for six years.
3. They *have been working* hard since dawn.
4. We *have been living* here since 1980.

The Past Simple Tense

Uses of the Past Simple Tense

The Past Simple Tense is used to express:

A. An action completed at a definite time in the past with a time expression.

Examples:

1. I **met** him yesterday.
2. We **visited** Timgad last week.
3. I **saw** him two minutes ago.
4. The French **invaded** Britain in 1066.

B. An action which took place at a definite time even though this time is not mentioned.

Examples:

1. The train **was** ten minutes late.
2. He **sold** his car in the market.
3. I **slept** soundly.
4. How **did** you **get** your present job?

C. An action whose time is not mentioned, but which occupied a period of time now terminated, or occurred in a period of time now terminated.

Examples:

1. We **lived** in Algiers for a long time.
2. She **taught** in this school for five years.
3. My grand father once **met** Emir Abdelkader.
4. **Did** you ever **hear** Oum Kelthoum sing?

D. An action which expresses a past habit.

Examples:

1. He always **carried** an umbrella.
2. They never **drank** wine.
3. Jane **wore** glasses as a child.
4. She always **brought** flowers to her mother.

The Past Continuous Tense

Uses of the Past Continuous Tense

The Past Continuous Tense is used to express:

A. An action in continuity in the past.

Examples:

1. I **was working** all night.
2. The telephone **was ringing**, and someone **was knocking** at the door.
3. Between two and four, she **was doing** the shopping and walking the dog.
4. It **was raining** hard, but the children **were playing** in the garden.

B. An action in progress or continuity at a certain time in the past.

Examples:

1. I **was having** a bath when the telephone rang.
2. The headmaster came in while the teacher **was explaining** the lesson.
3. Peter caught the train just as it **was leaving**.
4. As Bill **was walking** down the street he saw a terrible accident.

C. An action which began before something else happened in the past and continued after it.

Examples:

1. Six years ago, I **was working** in the bank.
2. At this time yesterday, they **were playing** tennis.
3. Laura **was talking** to him at 9.30.
4. This time last week, we **were studying** grammar.

D. A past arrangement for future in the past.

Examples:

1. We **were** having dinner with the Benhennis the following day.
2. Ahmed was **going** to London that summer.
3. We **were** busy **packing**, for we **were leaving** that night.
4. **I was meeting** my parents the next day.

The Past Perfect Tense

Uses of the Past Perfect Tense

The Past Perfect Tense is used to express:

A. An action which began before another action in the simple past

Examples:

1. The patient had died when the doctor arrived.
2. When I arrived, everyone had left.
3. After she had done the washing, she had a cup of tea.
4. His friend phoned him before he had got dressed.

B. An action which began before a specific time in the past.

Examples:

1. By last June, I had only saved £400.
2. Before 1999, no one had ever heard of their marriage.
3. By 12 o'clock, she had cooked lunch.
4. Paul had worked in the bank since 1990.

C. A past equivalent of the present perfect or the simple past in indirect speech.

Examples:

1. He said, "I worked hard."
2. He said that he had worked hard.
3. She said, "I have come on time."
4. She said that she had come on time.

D. An action showing an unfulfilled hope or wish.

Examples:

1. I wish I had been here yesterday.
2. If only you had told me earlier.
3. I wish I had known you before.
4. I had hoped to congratulate him on his marriage, but I didn't succeed.

The Past Perfect Continuous Tense

Uses of the Past Perfect Continuous Tense

The Past Perfect Continuous Tense is used to express:

A. Repeated actions before another action in the past.

Examples:

1. He was tired because he had been working since dawn.
2. We knew that he had been drinking heavily since his wife died.
3. She dropped out of the race after she had been running for 30 minutes.
4. I had been speaking to him at 9 o'clock in the morning.

B. An action beginning before the time of speaking in the past, and continued up to that time, or stopped just before it.

Examples:

1. Bill was annoyed because his friend had been phoning him every night for a whole week.
2. The teacher got bored as the pupils had been asking the same questions.
3. Although he had been working for years, he couldn't afford buying a car.
4. They had been getting up at 7 am everyday for twenty years.

C. Drawing conclusions.

Examples:

1. Her eyes were red. It was obvious she had been crying.
2. She was nervous as she had been waiting for two hours.
3. His knees were knocking as he had been standing up at the wedding.
4. When I opened the door. I found him on his knees outside. I knew that he had been looking through the keyhole.

D. Reported speech of the present perfect continuous and past continuous.

Examples:

1. "I have been thinking about it", he said. (Present Perfect continuous)
2. He said that he had been thinking about it. (Past Perfect Continuous)
3. "Were you sleeping?", he asked. (Present Perfect Continuous)
4. He asked if I had been sleeping. (Past Perfect Continuous)

The Simple Future Tense

Uses of the Simple Future Tense

The Simple Future Tense is used to express:

A. Determination, certainty and scheduled events.

Examples:

1. I **will pass** this exam.
2. The wedding **will take** place tomorrow.
3. We **shall cut** taxes.
4. On the fast train, they **will arrive** at 8 o'clock.

B. Predictions, opinions, assumptions and speculations about the future.

Examples:

1. I **'ll be** twenty next month.
2. It **will rain** tomorrow.
3. I think Algeria **will win**.
4. She **will probably be** back in five minutes.

D. Volition, willingness, intention and insistence.

Examples:

1. **Will** you **help** me?
2. **Shall** I **do** the washing up for you?
3. **Shall** we **go** to the cinema tonight?
4. I **won't go**, and that's final.

D. Hopes and expectations.

Examples:

1. I hope she **will get** the job.
2. Perhaps he **will change** his mind.
3. I expect that I **shall be** back on Monday.
4. I believe he **will not be** late.

The Future Continuous Tense

Uses of the Future Continuous Tense

The Future Continuous Tense is used to express:

A. Arrangements and plans

Examples:

1. We **will be spending** our holiday in Egypt.
2. We **will be eating** at 7 o'clock.
3. He **will be arriving** at Constantine Airport at 8 o'clock.
4. Dr. Smith **will be giving** a lecture tomorrow evening.

B. Actions in progress in the future (i.e., they will start before the time mentioned and probably continue after it).

Examples:

1. This time tomorrow, I **shall be driving** through England.
2. When I reach London, it **will probably be raining**.
3. At 3 PM next Sunday, we **will be studying** grammar.
4. They **will be flying** to Paris this time next week.

The Future Perfect Tense

Uses of the Future Perfect Tense

The Future Perfect Tense is used to express:

A. An action which at a given future time will be in the past

Examples:

1. By the end of June, The students **will have finished** their exams.
2. In three years' time, I **shall have taken** my License degree.
3. We **shall have done** this work by dinner time.
4. I **shall have finished** my revisions by the end of next week.

B. Logical deductions, predictions and expectations

Examples:

1. He **will not have left** yet. (I think he's still at home.)
2. They still **won't have arrived**. (So, you won't be able to contact them.)
3. I expect you **will have changed** your mind by tomorrow.
4. They **will have just gone**. (If you hurry you might catch them.)

The Future Perfect Continuous Tense

Uses of the Future Perfect Continuous Tense

The Future Perfect Continuous Tense is used to express:

A. Continuous and repeated actions which begin before a certain time in the future, and will probably continue after that time

Examples:

1. By this time next week, I **will have been working** at that bank for ten years.
2. By the end of the month, he **will have been living** here for twenty years.
3. By July of next year, we **will have been studying** English for two years.
4. By the end of the year, she **will have been teaching** English for ten years.

B. Logical deductions, predictions and explanations

Examples:

1. He will be tired when he gets home. He'll **have been travelling** all day.
2. Bill will not come at 12 o'clock. He'll **have been working** till 5 pm.
3. Why is she rubbing her feet? She'll **have been standing** up too long.
4. I will need a shower. I **will have been gardening** for eight hours.

The Present Conditional Tense

Uses of the Present Conditional Tense

The Present Conditional Tense is used to express:

A. A past equivalent of the future tense

Examples:

1. I hope that I shall succeed.
2. I hoped that I **should succeed**.
3. I think it will rain.
4. I thought it **would rain**.

B. A reported speech

Examples:

1. I said, 'I shall see you.'
2. I said that I should see you.
3. She said, 'I shall help him.'
4. She said that she would help him.

C. A polite request, wish, duty or advice

Examples:

1. **Would** someone **open** the door, please?
2. I wish it **would stop** raining.
3. You **should respect** your neighbours.
4. You **should eat** more fruit.

D. A type II hypothetical improbable condition

Examples

1. If I were you I **would act** differently.
2. If she had a son she **would be** happy.
3. He **would pass** if he worked harder.
4. If he knew my address he **would write** to me.

The Perfect Conditional Tense

Uses of the Perfect Conditional Tense

The Perfect Conditional Tense is used to express:

A. A past equivalent of the future perfect tense

Examples:

1. I hope that he will have finished before we get back.
2. I hoped that he **would have finished** before we got back.
3. Bill thinks that he will have built his flat in two years' time.
4. Bill thought that he **would have built** his flat in two years' time.

B. An impossible type III condition

Examples:

1. If you had gone to Egypt, you **would have seen** the pyramids. (but you didn't go, so you didn't see.)
2. If I had known it was going to rain, I **would have brought** my umbrella. (but I didn't know it was going to rain, so I didn't bring my umbrella.)
3. We **would have been** there on time, if we had caught the earlier bus. (but we didn't catch the bus, so we weren't there on time.)
4. If you had saved money, you **would not have got** into trouble. (but you didn't save, so you got into trouble.)

C. A hypothetical (= not certain) meaning following a wish.

Examples:

1. I wish he **would have come**.
2. I wish you **would have helped** him.
3. He wishes he **would not have hurt** his feelings.
4. She wished she **would not have met** her at all.

D. An assumption (= supposition, guess) in the past.

1. I can't think why he **should have said** it was my fault.
2. He **should have finished** by now.
3. Peter **would have seemed** the best man for the job.
4. It **would have been** advisable to have called in expert help.

The Present Perfect Progressive

The meaning of the present perfect progressive corresponds to that of the present perfect, except that there is an emphasis on continuity. Generally, it indicates an action which began in the past and is still continuing or has only just finished.

The main uses of the present perfect progressive

A. Short-term present period

That is, recent activities –single or repeated

Examples:

- Ali has been writing.
- Peter has been cooking.
- He has been staying with friends.
- Henry has been operating on TV.
- She's been drinking.
- Have you been waiting long?

B. Present period

(Long or short term) is mentioned as

1. A still present period

Examples:

- George has been travelling on business this month.

Samir's been travelling on business this month.

Hello! At last! I have been telephoning you all the evening.

I've been hoping to visit The US all my life.

2. A length of time starting earlier (with for)

Examples:

I have been waiting for ages.

They have been living in London for the past ten years.

We've been visiting Stratford every summer for the past ten years.

You've been coming to see me for ages.

The weather has been very warm for a week now.

This class has been studying English for five years.

Peter has been working in this bank for ten years.

3. A period starting at a definite point (with since)

Examples:

Susan's been learning Arabic since 1996.

People have been behaving like that since the world began.

I've only been wearing glasses since last year.

We have been studying English since 1996.

Note

The present perfect progressive tense takes the same viewpoint to real time as the present perfect simple. But the progressive emphasises activity. This has two implications:

(a) If there is no time adverbial (A), the present perfect progressive usually implies recent activity. This is the basic meaning of this tense. (Contrast the present perfect simple, where the tense without time adverbials can imply an extensive period.) The sense of recentness can however be overruled by the addition of adverbials referring to some longer period (B).

(b) The achievement may be incomplete. This does not mean, as is sometimes said, that the action of the verb is unfinished and therefore continuing up to the moment of speaking. What is meant is that we are more concerned with activity than with result, so that the final result may be left vague.

Exercises

Exercise 1

Circle the appropriate tense, and justify your choice for all the sentences.

1. We for a new house now.

- a. look c. are looking
b. will look d. have looked

Justification:

2. We you for a long time.

- a. don't see c. didn't see
b. haven't seen d. hadn't seen

Justification:

3. Don't phone me at seven o'clock, I my supper.

- a. shall eat c. shall be eating
b. shall have eaten d. shall have been eating

Justification:

4. If the weather nice tomorrow, I will come and see you.

- a. is c. will be
b. will have been d. should be

Justification:

5. He usually up about seven.

- a. got c. gets
b. get d. will get

Justification:

6. The French Algeria in 1830.

- a. invaded c. have invaded
b. had invaded d. were invading

Justification:

7. Your eyes are very red.
- a. Are you crying? c. Have you been crying?
 - b. Have you cried? d. Do you cry?

Justification:

8. He gave me a hand after he
- a. had finished c. finished
 - b. has finished d. finishes

Justification:

9. If you had invited them, they
- a. would come c. would have come
 - b. have come d. came

Justification:

10. I am sure that I him.
- a. will recognise c. recognise
 - b. am recognising d. will have recognised

Justification:

11. I when the telephone rang.
- a. sleep c. slept
 - b. have been sleeping d. was sleeping

Justification:

12. By the end of June, students their exams.
- a. will have finished c. finish
 - b. will have been finishing d. will finish

Justification:

13. I hoped that you
- a. will succeed c. would succeed
 - b. succeeded d. will have succeeded

Justification:

14. He was tired because he for three hours.

- a. has been running c. was running
- b. had run d. had been running

Justification:

15. If you heat ice, it to water.

- a. turns c. will turn
- b. turned d. will have turned

Justification:

16. I hoped that he us before we got back.

- a. informed c. has informed
- b. would inform d. would have informed

Justification:

17. By the end of the year, they here for fifty years.

- a. will live c. will be living
- b. would live d. will have been living

Justification:

18. If we a car, we could get there quite quickly.

- a. had c. have
- b. have had d. would have

Justification:

19. This time last year, Peter with friends in France.

- a. had stayed c. has stayed
- b. was staying d. had been staying

Justification:

20. I usually wear a coat, but I one today as it isn't cold.

- a. don't wear c. hadn't worn
- b. didn't wear d. am not wearing

Justification:

Exercise 2

Put the verbs in brackets in the correct tenses

1. I am sure that I (to recognize) him.
2. He'll be ready as soon as you (to be).
3. The lift (not to stop) until you press the button.
4. When you come back I (to finish) all the housework.
5. I (to believe) it when I see it.
6. He (to arrest) if he had tried to escape.
7. The police (to hear) of the theft by this time.
8. If the fog (to get) thick the flight may be cancelled.
9. I (to know) him for ages.
10. The letter (to send) more than a week ago.
11. When I entered she (to leave).
12. I knew that it (to rain).
13. But for the tornado, they (to be) in time.
14. Her father pays her fees; otherwise she (not to be) there.
15. He was tired because he (to run) for two hours.
16. Your eyes are very red, (to cry) you?
17. She (to leave) ten minutes ago.
18. If the weather (to be) nice tomorrow, give me a ring.
19. If you were to miss the bus, you (to get) there very late.
20. They realized that their friends (to be) there.
21. He scarcely (to arrive) when he began to work.
22. She went out when she (to read) the paper.
23. I (to write) letters since breakfast.
24. Between 2 and 4 I (to revise) my lessons.
25. (To hear) you Maria Callas sing?
26. I wish I (to die) in my mother's womb.
27. We can go out as soon as we (to have) lunch.
28. I am afraid he (to leave)
29. It is necessary that he (to write) all the lessons.
30. If the captain had been more careful his ship (to not sink).

Determiners

What are determiners?

'Determiners' is not a category that occurs in old grammars. Instead, the words dealt with here such as articles were often treated as adjectives. This is now felt to be unsatisfactory. Words like *my*, *every* and *this* do not behave like ordinary adjectives. In addition, they often have corresponding or identical pronouns, e.g. *mine*, *everyone* *this* which ordinary adjectives do not. Yet to label them as pronouns, as older grammars often do, fails to show how differently they function from that word-class too.

Countable and Uncountable Nouns / Articles

I. Definitions

1. A countable noun (CN) is a N which refers to an entity we can count.
2. An uncountable noun (Unc.N) is a N which refers to a general entity we cannot count.
3. An Arti. is a Det. used before a N: the (Definite article: Def.Arti.) and a/an (Indefinite Article: Indef.Arti.).

II. In a Definite (Specific) Situation

E.g.1: The plate is cold.

Def. CN

Arti. Sing.

E.g.2: The chairs are broken.

Def. CN

Arti. Plur.

E.g.3: The coffee you sold me is nice.

Def. Unc.N

Arti.

E.g.4: The coffees I drank were very hot.

Def. CN

Arti. Plur.

Note: In a definite situation, a CN singular (Sing.) or plural (Plur.), an Unc.N must have the Def. Arti. “the”.

III. In an Indefinite Situation

E.g.1: I would like a dress, please!

Indef. CN
Arti. Sing.

E.g.2: This is an office.

Indef. CN
Arti. Sing.

E.g.3: X Dresses are expensive.

CN
Plur.

E.g.4: X Coffee is expensive.

Unc.N

Note: In an indefinite situation, a CN Sing. must have the Indef.Arti. “a” or “an”,
a
CN Plur. and an Unc.N do not take any article.

IV. CN or Unc.N?

E.g.1: X Fish is good for you.

Unc.N

E.g.2: I can see five fish.

Num. CN

Note: Some nouns can be countable or uncountable depending on the context.

V. The/ A/ An

E.g.1 - The giraffe is the tallest of all animals.

The giraffe as a specific type of animal, not any particular one.

- We saw a giraffe at the zoo.

One giraffe in particular.

E.g.2 - Can you play the guitar?

The instrument.

- I would like to have a guitar.

One guitar.

E.g.3 - The Chinese invented printing.

Adj. used as a N

The people of China

- Yesterday, a Chinese visited the university.

(*One Chinese*)

E.g.4 - The English are famous for their tea.

Adj. used as a N

The English people

- You can tell he is an Englishman.

E.g.5 - This applies to the homeless.

Adj. used as a N

- A homeless person can apply for a flat.

Order of Determiners

Some determiners can be used with others, but only normally in the order indicated.

More can itself follow *many / Much / a few / a little / several* and cardinal numbers.

1	2	3	4
pre-determiners	main determiners	Post determiners	Other quantifiers
all	Articles	Ordinals	many / much
both	a / an / the	first	more / most
half	Demonstratives	second	(a) few
	this / that	(etc)	(a) little
double	these / those	last	less / least
twice	quantifiers	next	several
three times	each / every		
(etc)	either / neither		Cardinals
	some / any / no	other	one / two (etc)
	possessives		
	my (etc)		
	Peter's		

Examples:

'all these last few cold days'

'both my next novels'

'half tom's juicy orange'

'twice that that amount'

'the first two days'

'every few hours'

'some more fresh bread'

'a little more time'

'another three more weeks'

'the least money'

Demonstratives

Usage and meaning

The term ‘demonstratives’ is used as a comprehensive term referring both to demonstrative pronouns and to demonstrative determiners.

There are four demonstratives: *this*, *that*, *these* and *those*. Each of them may be used as a pronoun and as a determiner. Basically, demonstratives denote the contrast ‘near / distant’, and in addition they exhibit number contrast.

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Near</i>	this	these
<i>Distant</i>	that	those

The near / distant contrast is typically illustrated by the following sentence:

I don’t want this book, but that.

Note that in the example *this* is used as a determiner and *that* as a pronoun. Although it is often avoided if the contrast is as explicit as in the example, we might add ‘replacive *one*’, in which case *that* as well, is used as a determiner:

I don’t want this book, but that one.

Like the definite article, demonstratives may be used to refer to entities outside the linguistic context (situational reference) or they may refer to elements in the linguistic context itself (linguistic reference). In the latter case they may refer back to something mentioned earlier (anaphoric reference) or they may point forward (cataphoric reference).

The use of demonstratives for situational reference is usually referred to as ‘deictic’ (i.e. ‘pointing’) use:

This is my eldest son and that is my daughter.

I’ll take those gloves.

Demonstratives are used anaphorically to refer back to:

- a. a noun phrase or noun phrase equivalent mentioned before;
- b. I decided to run the shop single-handed, but I'm afraid that was a very stupid thing to do.

Demonstratives are used cataphorically:

- a. as premodifiers or heads of noun phrases with a restrictive post modification ('determinative use');
- b. to point forward to a following sentence or clause ('discourse reference):

Examples:

- a. He is one of those people who never give up.
This ale is stronger than that (which) you had yesterday.
Those on the shelf are less expensive.
- b. This is what you'll do: you go up to the headmaster and tell him you're sorry.

Demonstratives may refer to personal as well as non-personal entities, but demonstrative pronouns are chiefly used with non-personal reference. The use of demonstrative pronouns with personal reference is restricted to contexts of introduction and identification:

This is Mary Boones.
These are my grand children
Is that the accused?
Those are our Austrian hosts.

Compare:

This is Mary Boones; *she* is our new neighbour.

Demonstratives are often used with emotional implications. In informal English, *this* and *these* may be used somewhat deprecatingly to express familiarity (what we both know) as in:

Now then, what's all this?
And then this policeman comes up to me ...
And then you start getting these cramps, you know.

That and *those* may also express familiarity with or without negative overtones:

She couldn't control that temper of hers.

Kill that fly!

It was one of those glorious midsummer days.

For discourse reference both *this* and *that* are used anaphorically, *this* being commoner in formal English, whereas cataphorically only *this* is possible:

I cried out in alarm, and this / that was exactly what they had all been waiting for.

This is what we'll do: first we'll go to the cinema and then we'll have supper at my place.

Possessives

The term 'possessives' is used as a comprehensive term referring both to possessive pronouns and to possessive determiners.

Possessives and noun-genitives

From a functional point of view the relation between possessives and personal pronouns corresponds to that between the genitive and the common case of nouns:

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. <i>Mary</i> made notes. | <i>She</i> made notes. |
| I was allowed to copy <i>Mary's</i> notes. | I was allowed to copy <i>her</i> notes. |
| 2. <i>Susan</i> also made notes. | <i>She</i> also made notes. |
| <i>Susan's</i> were better. | <i>Hers</i> were better. |
| 3. <i>Mary</i> has Susan as a friend. | <i>She</i> has Susan as a friend. |
| Susan is a friend of <i>Mary's</i> . | Susan is a friend of <i>hers</i> . |

In (1) *her* – like *Mary's* – functions as a determiner within a noun phrase, and in (2) and (3) *hers* –like *Susan's* and *Mary's*- is itself a noun phrase. In (2) *hers* corresponds to the elliptic genitive *Susan's*, In (3) it corresponds to the post-genitive *Mary's*. Together with *of*, the possessive in (3) may be referred to as the post-possessive. Its use is governed by the same rules as is that of the post-genitive.

Note the difference between:

- A picture of *his* (i.e. owned / painted by him)
- A picture of *him* (i.e. depicting him)

The functional range of possessives is somewhat narrower than that of genitives of nouns. Possessives do not occur in a role corresponding to that of:

a. local genitives:

We'll meet at my uncle's - *We'll meet at his.

b. classifying genitives:

A doctor's degree - *a his degree

Possessive genitives also differ from genitives of nouns in that they are not subject to the same referential constraints, i.e. that they are freely used to refer to non-personal as well as to personal, to inanimate as well as to animate entities:

The doors of the cupboards were open.

Their doors were open.

*The cupboards' doors were open.

Person, number, gender

As is the case with personal pronouns, possessives denote person and may denote number and degree:

Possessives

Determiners	Pronouns
--------------------	-----------------

my	mine
----	------

your	yours
------	-------

his	his
-----	-----

her	hers
-----	------

its	--
-----	----

our	ours
-----	------

their	theirs
-------	--------

Possessive or definite article

Compare the use of the possessive determiners and that of the definite articles in:

1. He knocked *his* head against the doorpost.
2. He had *his* hat in *his* hands.
3. The assassin shot him through *the* head.
4. He was shot through *the* head.

English normally uses the possessive determiner before nouns denoting parts of the body or articles of clothing if the 'possessor' is the subject of an active sentence: (1), (2). Before nouns denoting parts of the body the definite article is normally used in preposition phrases if the 'possessor' is the object of an active sentence –(3) –or the subject of a passive sentence (4).

Post-possessive and post-modifying *of* = personal pronoun

We do find *of* + personal pronoun in the following cases:

a. in certain idiomatic expressions such as:

That cough will surely *be the death of you*.

On the face of it your idea seems all right.

We did it just *for the fun / hell of it*.

I could not *get the hang of it*.

Anything will do *for the likes of you*.

I can't stand *the sight of him*.

b. after heads such as *picture*, *portrait*, and *statue* when the pronoun refers to the person or thing depicted:

I've got a picture *of it*.

They made a portrait *of him*.

You'll find a statue *of him* in the town where he used to live.

c. after heads denoting a *portion* of what is referred to by the pronoun (particularly with *it* and *them*):

I've only read the first few pages *of it*.

She sent me three letters a I still know every word *of them* by heart.

Possessives with own

Possessive determiners may be combined with (postdeterminer) *own* to emphasize or particularize their meaning:

Why don't you use your own money?

He has now got his own distillery.

We had not brought our own drinks.

Own may be used similarly in possessive postmodification:

We want a house of our own.

They have no children of their own.

Prepositions

Definition

Prepositions are parts of speech used in front of nouns, pronouns, and noun phrases usually indicating time or place.

A preposition shows a relationship between words in a sentence (things, people, events).

E.g. He gave a diamond ring **to** Mary.

I am looking for somewhere **to** stay.

The car is **in** the garage.

- Prepositions express relationship in **Space**.

E.g. The king lives **in** a castle.

The police tracked him **across** the continent.

- Prepositions express relationship in **Time**.

E.g. The train arrived **at** 11 o'clock.

He waited **for** a while.

- Prepositions also express other kinds of relationship.

CAUSE: **E.g.** He was absent **at** the meeting **because** he was ill.

MEANS: **E.g.** He always travels **by** plane.

There are a number of cases in everyday English where the preposition comes at the end of the sentence i.e., it is separated from its noun or pronoun. In most cases, a phrasal verb of the type Verb + Preposition is involved and the pronoun is either a Relative Pronoun (who, which, that), or an Interrogative Pronoun (what, where, when, which).

E.g. - Here is the book that I told you **about**.

- I have the money that you asked **for**.

- Who were you talking **to**?

- Where do you come **from**?

Here is a list of the common prepositions:

About, above, across, after, against, along, among, around, at, before, behind, below, beside, between, beyond, by, down, during, for, from, in, into, like, near, of, on, out, over, through, to, under, until, up, with, without.

These prepositions cannot be separated from the words they refer to.

Prepositions which express relationships in space:

The choice of the preposition to be used generally depends on the meaning we want to express when referring to space.

AT or IN

« **AT** » is used to describe where you are in a general way without defining exactly whether you are in, on, behind the space.

E.g. I am sitting **at** my desk.

I am **at** home.

I am **at** the university.

« **IN** » like on, under, behind is more specific.

E.g. I keep my pens **in** my desk.

You are welcome any time **in** my home.

There were some policemen **in** school today.

With the names of villages, towns, and cities, especially with the verb « arrive », the choice of « at » or « in » can be difficult.

1- Choose « arrive at » when you are thinking of the station, airport or seaport.

2- Choose « arrive in » when you are thinking of the place itself.

E.g. Arrive at London (at the airport - point).

Arrive in London (in the city-area).

AT or TO

« **AT** » describes the final point of the movement seen as something separate from the person or thing which moves.

« **TO** » suggests a relationship between the person or thing and the destination.

In other words, « at » suggests aggression, « to » suggests co-operation.

E.g. Do not throw it **at** me.

He is shouting **at** me. (Hey, you fool!).

Throw it **to** me.

Shouting **to** me. (Hello).

ON, ONTO

These prepositions describe movement or rest in relation to the surface. «**ON TO**», when written as two words, is used like «**INTO**» to make it clear or to emphasise that the movement is from one place to another.

E.g. The cat jumped **on** the table. (two meanings ; unclear)

1- The cat is jumping **on** the table.

2- The cat is jumping from the ground **on to** the table.

- Note the use of «on» in these expressions:

A calendar on the wall, a fly on the ceiling, the news on page 4, a program on T.V? on the left, on the right, on the one hand, on the other hand.

NEAR, NEXT TO, BY

1- «**NEAR**» is the most general preposition with the meaning «close to». It tells us that people are in the same general area.

2-«**NEXT TO**» tells us that the things or people are «side by side» in the same line.

3- «**BY**» means just at the «side of»; something that is by you may be closer than something that is near you.

E.g. He is sitting **near** me. (They are not together; they just happen to be sitting in the same area).

He is sitting **next** to me. (They are together; they know each other).

Come and sit **by** me. (It is a friendly invitation; sit close to me)

NOTE: Compare:

We live near the sea. (Perhaps three or four kilometres away)

We live by the sea. (We can see it).

SINCE, FOR, DURING, UNTIL, BY

1- « **SINCE** » expresses a point of time, i.e., starting from that point.

E.g. I have lived here **since** 1975.

2- « **FOR** » expresses a period of time, i.e., starting at X and finishing at Y

E.g. I have known her **for** years.

I will be absent **for** a week.

3- « **DURING** » expresses a period of time, but not necessarily for the whole period.

E.g. During my stay in England, I visited many interesting places.

4- « **UNTIL** » expresses a point of time, i.e., stopping only when that point is reached.

E.g.: You will not leave the room **until** the end of the lesson.

5- « **BY** » expresses a point of time, i.e., not later than and perhaps before.

E.g. We will be in Liverpool **by** nine.

Time Phrases with « AT »

« **AT** » is used to express a certain moment or point in time. It is also used with festivals which mark a point in the year.

Exact time: At 10 o'clock.

Meal times: At lunch-time; at tea time; at dinner time.

Other points of time: At dawn; at noon; at midday; at midnight; at sunset; at the end of the day; at the week end; at bed time.

Festivals: At Christmas; at Easter; at El-Aid.

Time Phrases with « ON »

Days of the week: on Monday; on Fridays.

Parts of the day: on Monday morning; on Friday evening.

Dates: on June the 1st; on 23rd March.

Day + date: on Monday, September 17th.

Anniversaries: on your birthday; on your wedding day.

Festivals: on Christmas day; on New Year's Day.

* In everyday speech, « **On** » is often omitted.

E.g. I'll see you Friday.

See you June 21st.

Time Phrases with « IN » (Some time during).

Parts of the day: in the evening; in the morning.

Years: in 1977; in 1998.

Seasons: in spring; in winter.

Centuries: in the 19th Century.

Festivals: in Ramadhan; in Easter week.

Periods of time: in that time; in that age; in the holidays.

Months: in December; in January.

- « **In** » and « **Within** » are used to refer to stated periods of time.
- « **In** » and more formally « **Within** » sometimes mean «before the end of a stated period of time»

E.g. I always eat my breakfast **in** ten minutes.

I finished the examination **in** (within) an hour and a half.

Prepositions after particular words and expressions

1- **ACCUSE OF** (Not For)

E.g. She accused me of poisoning her dog.

2- **AFRAID OF** (Not By)

E.g. Are you afraid of spiders?

3- **AGREE WITH** (a person, an opinion, a policy)

E.g. I entirely agree with you.

4- **AGREE ABOUT** (a subject, a discussion)

E.g. I agree about most things.

5- **AGREE ON** (a matter for decision)

E.g. Let's try to agree on a date.

6- **ANGRY WITH** (someone)

E.g. I'm angry with her for lying to me.

7- **ANGRY ABOUT** (something)

E.g. What are you so angry about?

8- **APOLOGIZE TO** (somebody) **FOR** (something)

E.g. I think we should apologise to the Smiths.

I must apologise for disturbing you.

9- **CONGRATULATE ON/FOR**

E.g. I must congratulate you on your exam results.

He congratulated the team for having won all the games.

10- **DISAPPOINTED WITH** (somebody)

E.g. My father never showed if he was disappointed with me.

11- DISAPPOINTED AT / ABOUT

E.g. You must be disappointed at / about your exam results.

12- IMPRESSED WITH / BY

E.g. I'm very impressed by / with your work.

13- INDEPENDENT OF (Independence From)

E.g. She got a job so that she could be independent of her parents.

Algeria got its independence from France in 1962.

14- INSIST ON (not to)

E.g. George's father insisted on paying.

15- KIND TO (not with)

E.g. People have always been kind to me.

16- LAUGH AT / ABOUT

E.g. I hate being laughed at.

We will laugh about this one day.

17- MARRIAGE TO (not with)

E.g. Her marriage to Philip didn't last very long.

How long have you been married to Sheila?

18- NICE TO (not with)

E.g.: You weren't nice to me last night.

19- PAY FOR (something) not (pay something)

E.g. Excuse me Sir; you haven't paid for your drink.

EXERCISE ON THE USE OF PREPOSITIONS

I- Complete the following sentences with **in, at or on**:

- 1- Write your namethe top of the page.
- 2- I like that picture hanging.... the wall.... the kitchen.
- 3- There was an accident.... at the crossroads this morning.
- 4- I wasn't sure whether I had come to the right office. There was no namethe door.
- 5- the end of the street there is a path leading to the river.
- 6- You will find the sports results.... the back page of the newspaper.
- 7- I wouldn't like an office job. I couldn't spend the whole day sitting.... a desk.
- 8- My brother lives.... a small village.... The south west of England.
- 9- The headquarters of the company are.... Milan.
- 10- Nicola was wearing a silver ring.... his little finger.

II- Complete the following using **in, at or on** + one of the following:

The window your coffee the mountains that tree

My guitar the river the island the next garage

- 1- Look at those people swimming
- 2- One of the strings is broken.
- 3- There's something wrong with the car. We'd better stop.....
- 4- Would you like sugar?
- 5- The leaves is a beautiful colour.
- 6- Last year, we had a wonderful skiing holiday.....
- 7- There's nobody living..... It's uninhabited.
- 8- He spends most of the day sitting And looking outside.

Finite and Non-finite Verbs

Verbs

Verbs are words which state or assert something about a person, place or thing. There are two main categories of verbs:

- (a) *auxiliary verbs*: to be, to have, to do, to need, to dare, to be able, can, may, must, will, shall, ought, and used.
- (b) *All other verbs* which are traditionally called ordinary verbs, and which are classified into regular and irregular verbs. The list of irregular verbs should be learned by heart to avoid errors in the use of tenses.

Verbs may be also classified as finite and non-finite as we see in the following:

Finite verbs

Finite verb forms differ from non-finite verb forms in that they carry present or past tense, or are conjugated and marked for mood. When tense is expressed, the finite verb may also exhibit person and number.

As a rule, independent clauses have a finite verb phrase: in simple verb phrases the lexical verb is the finite form, in complex verb phrases the first verb is the finite form.

Compare:

We always *spend* our holidays in England.

He *greeted* us warmly.

There *were* cats all over the house.

The oil *should* have been changed earlier.

God *bless* you.

Close the door, please.

It should be noted that with irregular verbs, tense is not always overtly marked. When this is the case, the context will usually provide the clues by means of which the verb form in question can be interpreted as a present tense form or as a past tense form:

Examples:

You always put me in the wrong, but I won't take it any longer.

What I objected to at the time was that you put me in the wrong.

Mood

Mood is a term used to refer to finite forms as serving to indicate the speaker's or writer's commitment regarding the factual status of what he / she is saying or writing. The imperative (or command mood) and the subjunctive (or non-fact mood) are regarded as marked moods, contrasting with the indicative (the unmarked fact mood)

Compare:

Indicative:

I like strawberries.

You know what I mean.

We went to Algiers last week.

Imperative:

Hurry up and finish your lunch.

Shut up, will you?

Be silent!

Subjunctive

God save the Queen.

So be it.

I should accept if I were you.

Note:

Although there is semantically a great deal of difference between the three moods, this difference does not find formal expression, as is illustrated in:

I work hard (Indicative)

'Work hard', he urged. (Imperative)

He urged that he work hard. (Subjunctive)

The Non-Finite Verbs

Simple forms

The non-finite parts of the verb are:

Base: bare infinitive (write)

Base: to-infinitive (to write)

-ing form: present participle (writing)

-en form: past participle (written)

Complex infinitives and participles

Following the rules for the formation of complex tenses (BE + -ing, HAVE + -en etc) it is possible to make complex infinitives and participles.

	Active	Active	Passive	Passive
Infinitives	Standard	Progressive	Standard	Progressive
Standard	To write	To be writing	To be written	To be being written*
Perfect	To have written	To have been Writing	To have been written	To have been being written*
Participles	writing	Writing	written	Being written
Standard				
Perfect	Having written	Having been writing	Having been written	Having been being written*

Some people deny forms marked with * exist. They are avoided by careful speakers and writers.

Complex forms are used in much the same way as simple ones:

She seemed to be listening. (progressive)

He denies having told anyone. (perfect)

To be notified in advance would be helpful. (passive)

The perfect infinitive can have the same sort of unreal / unachieved meaning as the past perfect tense:

I would like to have been invited.

They were to have telephoned us.

Negative infinitives and participles

Infinitives and participles are made negative by putting *not* in front of them:

He pretended not to understand.

It was unkind not telephoning us.

Not to have warned us was unforgivable.

Split infinitive

It is often considered bad grammar to split an infinitive by putting a word between *to* and the base word. However, it is sometimes acceptable:

(a) The United Nations is expected to strongly condemn (country X's) action in sending armed fighter planes over the territory of another independent sovereign state.

(b) Could I ask you to kindly ring my secretary?

In (a), is expected strongly would helplessly alter the meaning; to condemn strongly is possible but breaks another 'rule' about not separating a verb from its object. In (b) kindly cannot be moved.

Functions of non-finite forms

The non-finite parts of the verb have many functions

(a) The form parts of complex finite verbal groups (i.e., after catenative verbs)

(b) They can function alone in their own clauses

(c) Participles can function as adjectives.

(d) To-infinitives can 'complement' adjectives: 'difficult to understand', and can post-modify nouns: 'a book to read', 'a house to let'

(e) To-infinitives and -ing form also have many nominal functions.

Theoretically, these forms could be analysed as non-finite noun clauses, but the parallel with clauses is not always very apparent, -ing forms in particular being often much more like simple nouns. Some differences between the to-infinitive and -ing are discussed below:

To-infinitive and -ing form

Subject

To know all is to forgive all.

It isn't very nice to gossip about one's friends.

For him to have gossiped like that was disgraceful.

Seeing is believing.

Gossiping about friends is not very nice.

It's no use / no good crying over spilt milk.

Apposition

His ambition, to win the men's singles at Wimbledon, was understandable.

His great success, winning the men's singles, was well-deserved.

Complement

His ambition was (for his son) to win the men's singles.

The poor weather was to blame for the low attendance.

His great success was winning the men's singles.

The meaning of non-finites

Sometimes it seems as though the choice of different non-finite forms in a structure – as subject of a sentence, or other catenative verbs, for eg –is arbitrary. But there are connections between form and meaning.

A. To-infinitive

The to-infinitive (not, of course, the perfect infinitive)) frequently carries a general meaning of the future. Notice:

1 Auxiliaries that must be followed by a to-infinitive usually have a strong element of future. This is particularly true of *have to* and *be to*:

I have to go to the office tomorrow.

We are to meet his father at the weekend.

He was never to see his native land again.

2 To-infinitive as a non-finite adverbial clause often means purpose:

To open, cut along the dotted line.

3 To-infinitive postmodifying in a noun phrase can also mean purpose:

Is there any salt to put on the potatoes?

4 Predicative adjective + to-infinitive often looks to some future action:

He is keen to go/ certain to come.

5 Future plus consequence is found in some to-infinitive clauses:

I arrived to find (that) the bird had flown.

6 In catenative + to-infinitive, the second verb usually refers to an action later in time than the first:

I would like to play tennis.

7 for nominals, if there is a strong feeling of future, a to-infinitive may be essential (and an –ing form impossible):

His ambition was to win the men's singles.

B. –ing form

The –ing form looks backward, not forward. It suggests actions or states already existing or achieved.

1. Nominal

Winning the men's singles brought some useful prize money.

(The infinitive is impossible here.)

2. Catenative + -ing

Generally speaking the first (finite) verb looks back to an earlier action / state – or to generalised (timeless) action:

I enjoy playing tennis.

C. –en form

Basically, this is a mixture of achievement (hence the name ‘past’ participle) and passive:

I must get my suit cleaned.

The –ing form –gerund or participle?

A distinction is often made between gerunds (verbal nouns) and participles, which are more like verbs or adjectives

1/ At one extreme are words derived from verbs that are completely nominal. They take articles and adjectives and plural-s (eg a meeting / meetings, a booking / bookings.) When used like this, such words are unable to have their own subjects or objects as they could if they were verbal.

2/ Other –ing forms have varying degrees of verbalness. Some –ing forms are rather like an uncountable noun (eg singing):

The choir’s brilliant singing of Messiah.

Sometimes an –ing form is more verb-like, taking a direct object , but not determiners or adjectives:

Singing Messiah well is not easy.

At other times, there is an even greater fusion of both noun-like and verb-like characteristics:

Edward’s singing hymns loudly annoys me. (Singing is a noun)

Infinitive as main verb

Occasionally, the infinitive is used as a main verb

Why (not) DO

Why bother if you don’t like it?

Why not forget it?

Why don’t you forget it?

To think

To think that we wasted our time and money!

To think he never told us! (It’s amazing to think ...)

Non-finite forms as other word classes

Some participle forms, derived from verbs, are considered as other parts of speech .

They include:

A/ Conjunctions

Considering (that), providing (that), seeing (that), supposing (that), granted (that), provided (that):

Granted that he's kind, I still don't like him.

Seeing that you're so clever, why did you get it wrong?

B/ Prepositions

Concerning, expecting, including, regarding:

The report says nothing regarding costs. (about)

C/ Nouns

For -ing forms as nouns (gerunds), see section: the -ing form -gerund or participle?

D/ Adverbials

Occasionally a participle form is used like an adverb:

Boiling hot, hopping mad / angry, raving mad / crazy.

The Imperative and the Vocative

I. The Imperative

Use: We use the imperative to give an order, an advice, a direction, or an instruction.

Write clearly!

Follow the lines!

A. The second person imperative

1. It has the same form as the infinitive without *to*:

Stop! Wait! Come!

For the negative, we put *do not (don't)* before the verb:

Don't give up!

2. The person addressed is very often not mentioned, but can be placed at the end:

Do your home-works, students!

Be quiet, Bob!

3. *Do* can be placed before the affirmative imperative for either persuasion or irritation:

Do hurry! Do be quiet!

B. The first person imperative

Form: *Let us (Let's)* + Infinitive without *to*:

Let's finish our work.

Let's wait a minute.

Let's not tell anyone.

Let's not stop at this level.

C. The third person imperative

Form: *Let him / her / it / them* + Infinitive without *to*

Let him go by taxi.

Let her speak first.

In modern English, it would be more useful to say:

He had better go by taxi. / He must go by taxi.

She had better speak first. / She must speak first.

In the negative:

He had better not go by taxi. / He must not go by taxi.

She had better not speak first. / She must not speak first.

II. The Vocative

In general, there are four different functions of sentence elements: subject, predicator, complement and adverbial. Usually sentences can be analysed in terms of these four functions. However, we occasionally find sentences that contain a sentence element with a function different from these four:

Examples:

George, what are you doing?

Mr Chairman, I'd like to formulate a proposal.

You, listen to me for a moment!

I think, *John*, that we should leave now.

The sentence elements *George*, *Mr Chairman*, *You* and *John* do satisfy the criteria of adverbials: they can be left out