National Autonomous University of Nicaragua UNAN CUR Matagalpa

Seminar of Graduation

Tema: Methodology in English teaching process

Subtema: "Grammatical factors that influence in communication at Elieta Rizo schools specially fourth and fifth year of high school".

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I THEME:

Methodology in English teaching process

II SUB – THEME:

Grammatical factors that influence in communication at Elieta Rizo schools specially fourth and fifth year of high school.

III DEDICATION

I dedicate our investigation to:

GOD: Because he is the teacher of teachers.

My Parents: Because they give us life and their unconditional support.

My Teachers: They have dedicated themselves whole heartedly to our pursuit of knowledge.

My son Walter Miguel: Because he is one of the protagonists of my effort.

❖ *María Antonia Zelaya Úbeda*

DEDICATION

I dedicate our investigation to:

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My Parents: Because they give us life and their unconditional support.

My Teachers: They have dedicated themselves whole heartedly to our pursuit of knowledge.

My friends Teachers *Mercedes Pavón and Wendy Osegueda*: because they give me all your support for realize this difficult task.

❖   *Norma Teresa Zelaya Úbeda*

IV GRATEFUL ACKNOWLEDGMENT

Our special acknowledgment to:

❖ Julio César Roa Rocha: who stimulated us to realize this work and who also guided us in all the development of this difficult task.

❖ Marisela Coronado, Ligia Pineda, Juliet Khüll, Vicente Gutiérrez, Sergio Ortega, who helped us in the course of our career.

❖ Martha Nazarena Rivera: who helped us to collect information and the reproduction of our work.

V TEACHER'S VALUATIONS

NATIONAL AUTONOMOUS UNIVERSITY OF NICARAGUA
UNAN- CURN

TUTOR`S VALUATION

Through this letter, I certify that

students of the seminar class 2005-2006 have successfully fulfilled with

the components and characteristics of the research project.

This course was intended to improve

students' understanding of the research project and to provide practical

skills in designing, carrying out and reporting on the research project.

Observation and clarification were done

and taken into account by students when elaborating and preparing the

research to finally present an original research project.

_____
          TUTOR

VI SUMMARY

This work suggests a better method to teach grammar, this work is towards to teachers and students of the University and to the general society.

The objective of this work consist in give general information of the University and to provide to the students a way of consult in general, about grammatical structure and the common problems in this topic.

The raising of information for the conclusion of this work was realized using interviews, bibliography in existence this we permitted to obtain information about the general aspects of the grammar, it getting of satisfactory way the objectives for this work.

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VII INTRODUCTION

Our investigation like whichever has been originated of a problem like is the deficient of writing in students. How do we detect the problem?. Through ourselves as students of English. In our groups the low Academic Performance in some subjects it has been the incorrect use of grammatical structure in written and therefore in communication. This has motivated us to think what the problem is, and we believe that students there must that basic knowledge or training to use grammar accurately.

That's why we selected to fourth and fifth year of High School "Elieta Rizo", it is consider the best opportunity to know the deficient in the teaching and learning, specifically in grammar.

We decided to visit students and motivate them to write a text, to find the different difficulties they have when they use grammar in writing.

They were pleased when we asked to write a test, because they will contribute with our work by their providing the necessary information about the different difficulties found during a test coherently.

VIII JUSTIFICATION

Grammar is central and fundamental to the teaching and learning of language

Grammar also helps students to communicate, write, and understand more efficiently.

Grammar is considered one of the mayor tools that students have as learners to communicate and express themselves in another language.

IX OBJECTIVES

GENERAL OBJECTIVE:

To analyze the grammatical factors that influence in verbal and written communication in the teaching English process.

SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES:

- To define the importance and use of grammar in English teaching.

- To identify the grammatical problems that influence speaking and writing skills in the teaching English process.

To suggest some teaching and tips to improve the verbal and written communication of English.

X DEVELOPMENT OF THE SUB-THEME

1. Background of the development of the English Grammar

The English language in its widest sense includes the language of the native people from their first settlement in Britain to the present time. For the sake of convenience we distinguish three main stages in the history of the language, namely Old English (OE), Middle English (ME); and Modern English (MnE). OE may be defined as the period of full endings (moña, sunne, sune, stoñes); MnE as the period of lost endings (moon, sun, son, stones = stouns). We further distinguish periods of transition between these main stages, each of which is further divided into early and a late periods.

English, like any natural language, was, is and will be a social phenomenon. Throughout its history the language has constituted social relations in such a way as to advance or repress the interests of specific social group. When the grammatical structure of the language has changed, moreover, it has changed as much for reasons of social function as for any inherent qualities in its grammar.

One strand in linguistic research emphasizes the syntactic relevance of semantic functions; such as "agent", "location", etc. The strangest manifestation of this linguistic tradition is that many other aspects of structure (syntactic and lexical) are claimed to be subordinate to, or predictable from information concerning semantic function.
This linguistic tradition has come to be called "case grammar".

Few students will begin the serious study of the modern period without a knowledge of Old and Middle English, and for this reason many cross – references have been given to the Elementary Middle English Grammar, where the links

between Modern and Old English will be found. In this manner students will enabled to again, as it were, a full bird' eyes view of the long line of development of the sounds of forms in questions.

2. Definition of Grammar

Grammar is the system of a language. People sometimes describe grammar as the "rules" of a language, but in fact no language has rules. If we use the word "rules" we suggest that somebody created the rules first and then spoke the language like a new game. But languages didn't start like that. Language started by people making sounds which involved into words, phrases and sentences. No commonly-spoken language is fixed. All languages changes over time. What we call "grammar" is simply a reflection of a language at a particular time.

If you are serious about learning a foreign language you need to study grammar, because it can help you to learn a language more quickly and more efficiently it's important to think of grammar as sometimes that can help you, like a friend. When you understand the grammar (or system) of a language, you can understand many thinks yourself, without having to ask a teacher or look a book.

The grammar of English is some ways relatively simple, and in others quite complex. For example, word order is relatively fixes because English is an analytic language and this aspect of grammar is therefore relatively simple. The verbal system, on the other hand, is quite large and complex.

Importance of correct use of Grammar

Why is Grammar important?

Grammar is important because it is the language that makes it possible for us to talk about language. Grammar names the types of words and word groups that make up sentences not only in English but in any language. As human beings,

we can put sentences together events of children. We can all do grammar. But to be able of word and word groups that up sentences that knows about grammar.

People associate grammar whit errors and correctness. But knowing about grammar also helps us to understand what makes sentences and paragraphs clear and interesting and precise. Grammar can be part of the literature discussion when we and our students closely read the sentences in poetry and stories. And knowing about grammar means finding out that all languages and all dialects follows grammatical patterns.

Four of the twelve standards call on the students' understanding of language and sentence structure.

Standard # 3: Refers to the range of strategies and abilities students should use to comprehend and appreciate texts, and among these as their understanding of sentence structure.

Standard # 4: Explain that students should adjust their spoken and written language for different audiences and purposes, and these adjustments include change in the conventions and style of language.

Standard # 6: States that student should "apply" knowledge of language structure, language conventions (example spelling and punctuation), to create and critique both print and no print texts.

Standard # 9: Call for students to "develop and understanding of and respect for diversity in language use, patterns, and dialects across cultures, ethnic groups, geographic regions, and social roles. Understanding basic grammar can help students see the patters of different languages and dialects

Teaching grammar will no make writing errors go away. Students make errors in the process of learning, and as they learn about writing, they often make new errors, not necessarily fewer ones. But knowing basic grammatical terminology does provide student whit a tool for thinking about and discussing sentences. And

lots of discussion of language, along whit lots of reading and lots of writing are the three ingredients for helping students write in accordance whit the conventions of Standard English.

We try to teach the standard parts of speech and the usual rules for correct writing even though I'm not convinced the students retain the information for every long. What's the best way to approach grammar under these circumstances?

Two suggestions:

❖ The first is to be selective, to the extent that you can. Student benefit much more from learning a few grammar keys thoroughly than from trying to remember many terms and rules. Experiment with different approaches until you find the ones that work the best for you and your students. Some teachers focus on showing students how phrases add rich detail to sentences. Other teachers find the sentences diagrams help students see the organization of sentences. Some use grammar metaphors (the sentence, for example: as a bicycle, with the subject as the front wheel and the predicate as the back). Some emphasize the verb as the key part of speech, showing students how the sentence is built around it and how vivid verbs create vivid sentences.

❖ The second suggestion is that whatever approach you take to grammar; show students how to apply it not only to their writing but also to their reading and to their other language arts activities. For example, knowing basic grammar can help students when they come across a different story or poem. If they know how to find the main verb and the subject, they have a better chance of figuring out a difficult sentence. When they like the way a writer writes, they can identify the sentence structures that the writer uses, and they can experiment whit them themselves. Traditional drill and practice will be the most meaningful to students when they are anchored in the context of writing assignments or the study of literary models.

Students find the grammar more interesting when they apply it to authentic texts. Try using text of different kinds, such as newspapers and the students own writing, as sources for grammar relevant and alive. It also avoids the artificiality of studying sentences in isolation, a problem whit grammar books, in real texts, students can see how sentences connect and contrast to each other though their grammar.

Inexperienced writes find it difficult to make changes in the sentences that they have written. Expanding sentences, rearranging parts of the sentence, combining sentences these skills do not come easily. So any exercises that help students acquire sentence flexibility have value. Two methods have yielded good results. One in sentence combining sentences and progress towards exercises in embedding one clause in another. Another approach is for students to imitate model sentences, when the students read a mode passage and then write their version of it, imitating its grammatical features; they integrate reading skill writing practice and grammatical understanding.

Another type of grammar exercise is for students to practice using certain subordinate constructions then enrich sentence. Participles –ing and –ed verb form, can be used by themselves or as phrases, adding detail with a sense of action, drawing the reader into the sentences (as this sentence illustrates). An absolute phrase plus a following modifier that is related to the sentence as whole, its purpose to focus the reader on a detail as a zoom lens does (and as the preceding absolute phrase does).

Grammar is a large, complicated subject.

What topics in grammar will help my students?

Here are some recent additions to the traditional study of grammar that you can use in the classroom.

Learn some of the practical operations for applying every native speaker's institutive language ability to language analysis (ESL students can also benefit

from these suggestions, depending on their experience with English). Pass these methods on to your students, who will make good use of them.

1. The traditional definitions of the parts of speech can be difficult to apply. Students recognize the basic parts of speech more reliably and quickly by looking al the form of a word and by using sentence "frames". If a word can be made plural or possessive, or if its fits in the sentence. The _____went there". It is a noun. If a word can take both- ing and –s endings, it is a verb.

2. Is a group of words a whole sentence or a fragment? If it doesn't make sense after an opening such as I am convinced that, it is a fragment.

3. To help students find the verb phrase in a sentence, have them make the sentence negative by inserting didn't, don't or similar term. The verb phrase is usually next to the word not.

4. To help students find the subject of a sentence, have them add a tag question such as isn't it or aren't they the pronoun that ends the appropriate tag question will usually refer to the sentence subject

   Example

   Listening to loud music will damage your ears

   Listening to loud music will damage your ears, won't it?

5. substitute a pronoun for the complete subject. This immediately shows students where the division between subject and predicate lies, it is also a simple way to check an subject verb agreement.

   Example

   The girl with the saxophone is walking home.

   She / is walking home.

How to improve English Grammar Teaching

Language teachers and language learners are often frustrated by the disconnect between knowing the rules of grammar and being able to apply those rules automatically in listening, speaking, reading and writing.

This disconnect reflects a separation between declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge.

- Declarative knowledge is knowledge about something declarative knowledge enables a student to describe a rule of grammar and apply it in pattern drills.

- Procedural knowledge is knowledge of how to do something. Procedural knowledge enables a student to apply a rule of grammar in communication.

    Example:

    Declarative knowledge is what you have when you read

    and understand the instruction for programming the DVD

    player. Procedural knowledge is what you demonstrated

    when you program the DVD player.

Procedural knowledge doesn't translate automatically into the declarative knowledge; many native speakers can use their language clearly and correctly without begin able to state the roles of its grammar.

Like wise declarative knowledge does not translate into procedural knowledge; students maybe able to state a grammar rule; but consistently fail to apply the role when speaking or writing.

To address the declarative/ procedural knowledge dichotomy, teachers and students can apply several strategies.

1   Relate knowledge needs to learning goals.

Identify the relationship of declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge to student goals for learning the language. Students who plan to use the language exclusively for reading journal articles need to focus more on the declarative knowledge of grammar and discourse structures that will help them understand those texts. Students who plan to live in-country need to focus more on the procedural knowledge that will help them manage day to day oral written interactions.

2   Apply higher order thinking skills

Recognize that development of declarative knowledge can accelerate development procedural knowledge. Teaching students how the language works and given them opportunities to compare it with other languages they know allows them to draw on critical thinking and analytical skills. These processes can support the development of the innate understanding that characterizes procedural knowledge.

3   Provide plentiful, appropriate language input.

Understand that students develop both procedural and declarative knowledge on the basis of the input they receive. This input includes both finally tuned input that requires students to pay attention to the relationships among form, meaning, and use for a specific grammar rule, and roughly tuned input allows students to encounter the grammar rule in a variety of contexts.

4   Use predicting skills

Discourse analyst Douglas Biber has demonstrated that different communication types can characterize by the clusters of linguistic features that are common to those types. Verb tense and aspect, sentence length and structure, and larger

discourse patterns all may contributed to distinctive profile of a given communication type.

Limit expectation for drills

Mechanical drills in which students substitute pronouns for nouns or alternate the person number or tense can help students memorize irregular forms and challenging structures. However students do not develop the ability to use correctly in oral and written interaction by doing

Activities that foster real written communication.

Writing in English can often seem the most unnatural thing for teenage students to do. Her are some real classroom writing activities.

- ➢ Graffiti Wall: designate one wall, display area for English Graffiti Encourage Students to write up any thoughts, funny saying, gossip make writing English fun!
- ➢ Letters to teacher: Ask students to buy a separate exercise book to write letters to you. In class or for homework, ask students to write you a letter. They can tell you anything or ask questions. Respond to each individually and encourage them to continue this form of communication any time and only if they want to. This could also be done on e-mail. This may seem like a lot of won, but response can be amazing and helps build a relationship of trust between teacher and teen students.
- ➢ Organized for students to write to pen friends around the world.
- ➢ If students have a favorite international pop, movie or sports star, get them to write a letter to them of their fan club.
- ➢ If your students feel strongly about world issues, like the deforestation of the Amazon, get them to write letters to world leaders or keys organizations

expressing their feeling send them. Usually offices will respond and this will motivate students.

Strategies definition

Learning strategies are techniques, approaches or deliberate actions that students take in order to facilitate the learning and recall of both linguistic and content are information (Wenden 1987;6) considers that any specific action taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self directed, more effective and more transferable to new situation, is a language learning strategy.

Oxford (1990) divides strategies into major types direct and indirect. She defines direct strategies as those requiring mental processing of the language. However, the three groups that compose direct strategies do this processing differently and for different purposes. For Example: memory strategies, such a grouping or using imagery, have a highly specific function; which is to help students store and retrieve new information. Cognitive strategies on the other hand, such as summarizing or reasoning deductively, enable learners to understand and produce new language by many different means. Finally compensation strategies like guessing or using synonyms, allow learners to use the language despite their often-large gaps in knowledge.

The second group of strategies discussed by Oxford (1990) is indirect strategies: These are called "indirect" because they support and manage language learning without directly involving the target language. They are divided into metacognitive, affective and social strategies. Metacognitive strategies, like centering your learning and evaluating and monitoring, are "actions which go beyond purely cognitive devisees, and which provide a way for learners to coordinate their own learning process (p.136). Affective strategies however, such

as lowering your anxiety, encouraging yourself, and taking your emotional temperature, deal with emotion, attitudes, motivations, and values. Finally, the third indirect strategies , like asking questions, cooperating peers and proficient users of the target language and empathizing whit others.

Generally better language learners use strategies appropriate to their own stage of learning, personality, and example: purpose for learning the language and type of language.

There are five major aspects of successful language learning (about Ellis.1994).

- The first aspect of successful language learning is a concern for language form. The good language learners treat language as a system by making effective crosslingual comparisons, analyzing the target language, and using reference books.
- The second aspect can be also pay attention to meaning searching fot it in the L2 data in real communication by seeking out opportunities for natural language use.
- Third, good language learners show active involvement in language learning. Rather then developing dependence upon the teacher, they take charge of their own leaning by identifying and pursuing goals and by trying to introduce new topics into conversations.
- The fourth characteristic concerns their metacognitive awareness of the learning process. Successful FL learners are thoughtful and aware of themselves, make conscious decisions and follow their own preferred learning style.
- Finally, successful learners are flexible and appropriately use learning strategies, demonstrating the ability to choose those that were appropriate for particular tasks.

Testing Grammar
Difficulties of Teaching Grammar

Testing of Grammar

Using a piece of continuous prose rather then disconnects sentences is one way of cutting down on possible different interpretations of what goes into a particular blank, but it is probably impossible to entirely eliminate the possibility of different answer.

Transformation Items

Another type of grammar item makes use of transformation. In this type of item tests are given a sentence and the first few words of another sentence to change the original sentence without changing the meaning.

For Example:

1. - Jim hasn't been home in a long time.
   It's been a long time_____.

2. - I don't needs to go to the grocery store this week.
   It isn't _____.

3. - It is difficult to study when it is so noisy.
   Studying _____

There are variations on this type of item in which the word which starts the transformed sentence is underlined or the testee is given one word to use in the new sentence.
For example.

I don't need to go to the grocery store this week. (Necessary).
Again, this type of test is difficult to grade because the teacher has to be aware of the variety of possible answers. Another problem is that it does not in any way test the testees' knowledge of when each of the possible transformations would be most appropriate. For Example, the testee might be perfectly able to transform an active sentence to a passive sentence but not know when to use passive rather then active. However, it is still sometimes a useful test of grammatical knowledge.

Word Changing Items
Another type of item is one in which the testees are given a sentence and a word which they need to fit into the sentence by changing the form of the word. For Example,
1.- I have never_____ to Australia.(be)

2.- I will be with you _____.(moment)

This type of grammar test item tests students' knowledge of different word forms and how they are used in sentences.

What is an adverb?

Basically, most adverbs tell you how, where, or when something is done. In other words, they describe the *manner*, *place*, or *time* of an action. Here are some examples:

Type	Adverb	Example
Manner	slowly	*Jane drives slowly.*
Place	here	*The party is going to take place here.*
Time	yesterday	*I called him yesterday.*

How to recognize an adverb

Many adverbs end with the suffix -LY. Most of these are created by adding -LY to the end of an adjective, like this:

Adjective	Adverb
slow	slowly
delightful	delightfully
hopeless	hopelessly
aggressive	aggressively

However, this is NOT a reliable way to find out whether a word is an adverb or not, for two reasons: many adverbs do NOT end in -LY (some are the same as the adjective form), and many words which are NOT adverbs DO end in -LY (such

as *kindly*, *friendly*, *elderly* and *lonely*, which are adjectives). Here are some examples of adverbs which are the same as adjectives:

Adjective	Adverb
fast	fast
late	late
early	early

The best way to tell if a word is an adverb is to try making a question, for which the answer is the word. If the question uses *how*, *where* or *when*, then the word is probably an adverb. Here is an example:

Word in context	Question	Adverb?
Junko plays tennis *aggressively*.	*How* does Junko play tennis?	*Yes -- uses HOW.*
They have a *small* house.	*What kind of* house do they have?	*No -- uses WHAT KIND OF, so this is an adjective.*
Matthew called the police *immediately*.	*When* did Matthew call the police?	*Yes -- uses WHEN.*

Using adjectives and adverbs

Adjective	Adverb	Example
beautiful		Ann is beautiful.
	beautifully	Ann sings beautifully.
warm		The room is warm.
	warmly	Joe smiles warmly.
slow		The car is slow.
	slowly	Ann drives slowly.

2. Making adverbs from adjectives

Adverbs are usually made from adjectives, by adding -LY. However, there are some exceptions. These are the rules:

Adjective ending in...	How to make the adverb	Examples
y	Change Y to I and add -LY	*heavy - heavily* *happy - happily* *lazy - lazily*
[anything else]	Just add -LY	*warm - warmly*

		nice - nicely *loud - loudly*

However, there are some important exceptions:

Adjective	Adverb
good	well
late	late ("Lately" means recently. It is not the adverb from "late".)
early	early
fast	fast
hard	hard ("Hardly" means not much. It is not the adverb from "hard".)

An **adverb** can modify a verb, an adjective, another adverb, a phrase, or a clause. An adverb indicates manner, time, place, cause, or degree and answers questions such as "how," "when," "where," "how much".

While some adverbs can be identified by their characteristic "ly" suffix, most of them must be identified by untangling the grammatical relationships within the sentence or clause as a whole. Unlike an adjective, an adverb can be found in various places within the sentence.

In the following examples, each of the highlighted words is an adverb:

The seamstress quickly made the mourning clothes.

In this sentence, the adverb "quickly" modifies the verb "made" and indicates in what manner (or how fast) the clothing was constructed.

The midwives waited patiently through a long labour.

Similarly in this sentence, the adverb "patiently" modifies the verb "waited" and describes the manner in which the midwives waited.

The **boldly**-spoken words would return to haunt the rebel.

In this sentence the adverb "boldly" modifies the adjective "spoken."

We urged him to dial the number more **expeditiously**.

Here the adverb "more" modifies the adverb "expeditiously."

Unfortunately, the bank closed at three **today**.

In this example, the adverb "unfortunately" modifies the entire sentence.

Conjunctive Adverbs

You can use a **conjunctive adverb** to join two clauses together. Some of the most common conjunctive adverbs are "also," "consequently," "finally," "furthermore," "hence," "however," "incidentally," "indeed," "instead," "likewise,"

"meanwhile," "nevertheless," "next," "nonetheless," "otherwise," "still," "then," "therefore," and "thus." A conjunctive adverb is *not* strong enough to join two independent clauses without the aid of a semicolon.

The **highlighted** words in the following sentences are conjunctive adverbs:

> The government has cut university budgets; **consequently**, class sizes have been increased.
> He did not have all the ingredients the recipe called for; **therefore**, he decided to make something else.
> The report recommended several changes to the ways the corporation accounted for donations; **furthermore**, it suggested that a new auditor be appointed immediately.
> The crowd waited patiently for three hours; **finally**, the doors to the stadium were opened.
> Batman and Robin fruitlessly searched the building; **indeed**, the Joker had escaped through a secret door in the basement.

A **noun** is a word used to name a person, animal, place, thing, and abstract idea. Nouns are usually the first words which small children learn. The **highlighted** words in the following sentences are all nouns:

> Late last **year** our **neighbours** bought a **goat**.
> **Portia White** was an **opera singer**.
> The **bus inspector** looked at all the **passengers' passes**.
> According to **Plutarch**, the **library** at **Alexandria** was destroyed in 48 B.C.
> **Philosophy** is of little **comfort** to the **starving**.

A noun can function in a sentence as a subject, a direct object, an indirect object, a subject complement, an object complement, an appositive, an adjective or an adverb.

Noun Gender

Many common nouns, like "engineer" or "teacher," can refer to men or women. Once, many English nouns would change form depending on their [gender](#) -- for example, a man was called an "author" while a woman was called an "authoress" -- but this use of **gender-specific nouns** is very rare today. Those that are still used occasionally tend to refer to occupational categories, as in the following sentences.

David Garrick was a very prominent eighteenth-century actor.

Sarah Siddons was at the height of her career as an actress in the 1780s.

The manager was trying to write a want ad, but he couldn't decide whether he was advertising for a "waiter" or a "waitress"

Noun Plurals

Most nouns change their form to indicate [number](#) by adding "-s" or "-es", as illustrated in the following pairs of sentences:

When Matthew was small he rarely told the **truth** if he thought he was going to be punished.

Many people do not believe that **truths** are self-evident.

As they walked through the silent house. they were startled by an unexpected **echo**.

I like to shout into the quarry and listen to the **echoes** that returned.

He tripped over a **box** left carelessly in the hallway.

Since we are moving, we will need many **boxes**.

There are other nouns which form the [plural](#) by changing the last letter before adding "s". Some words ending in "f" form the plural by deleting "f" and adding "ves," and words ending in "y" form the plural by deleting the "y" and adding "ies," as in the following pairs of sentences:

The harbour at Marble Mountain has one **wharf**.

There are several **wharves** in Halifax Harbour.

Warsaw is their favourite **city** because it reminds them of their courtship.

The vacation my grandparents won includes trips to twelve European **cities**.

The children circled around the headmaster and shouted, "Are you a **mouse** or a man?"

The audience was shocked when all five men admitted that they were afraid of **mice**.

Other nouns form the plural irregularly. If English is your first language, you probably know most of these already: when in doubt, consult a good dictionary.

Possessive Nouns

In the possessive case, a noun or pronoun changes its form to show that it owns or is closely related to something else. Usually, nouns become possessive by adding a combination of an apostrophe and the letter "s."

You can form the possessive case of a singular noun that does not end in "s" by adding an apostrophe and "s," as in the following sentences:

The red suitcase is **Cassandra's**.

The only luggage that was lost was the **prime minister's**.

The exhausted recruits were woken before dawn by the **drill sergeant's** screams.

The **miner's** face was covered in coal dust.

You can form the possessive case of a singular noun that ends in "s" by adding an apostrophe alone or by adding an apostrophe and "s," as in the following examples:

The **bus's** seats are very uncomfortable.

The **bus'** seats are very uncomfortable.

The film crew accidentally crushed the **platypus's** eggs.

The film crew accidentally crushed the **platypus'** eggs.

Felicia Hemans's poetry was once more popular than Lord Byron's.

Felicia Hemans' poetry was once more popular than Lord Byron's.

You can form the possessive case of a plural noun that does not end in "s" by adding an apostrophe and a "s," as in the following examples:

The **children's** mittens were scattered on the floor of the porch.

The **sheep's** pen was mucked out every day.

Since we have a complex appeal process, a **jury's** verdict is not always final.

The **men's** hockey team will be play as soon as the **women's** team is finished.

The hunter followed the **moose's** trail all morning but lost it in the afternoon.

You can form the possessive case of a plural noun that *does* end in "s" by adding an apostrophe:

The concert was interrupted by the **dogs'** barking, the **ducks'** quacking, and the **babies'** squalling.

The **janitors'** room is downstairs and to the left.

My uncle spent many hours trying to locate the **squirrels'** nest.

The archivist quickly finished repairing the **diaries'** bindings.

Religion is usually the subject of the **roommates'** many late night debates.

Using Possessive Nouns

When you read the following sentences, you will notice that a noun in the possessive case frequently functions as an adjective modifying another noun:

The **miner's** face was covered in coal dust.

Here the possessive noun "miner's" is used to modify the noun "face" and together with the article "the," they make up the noun phrase that is the sentence's subject.

The concert was interrupted by the **dogs'** barking, the **ducks'** quacking, and the **babies'** squalling.

In this sentence, each possessive noun modifies a gerund. The possessive noun "dogs"' modifies "barking", "ducks"' modifies "quacking," and "babies"' modifies "squalling."

The film crew accidentally crushed the **platypus's** eggs.

In this example the possessive noun "platypus's" modifies the noun "eggs" and the noun phrase "the platypus's eggs" is the direct object of the verb "crushed."

My uncle spent many hours trying to locate the **squirrels'** nest.

In this sentence the possessive noun "squirrels"' is used to modify the noun "nest" and the noun phrase "the squirrels' nest" is the object of the infinitive phrase "to locate."

Types of Nouns

There are many different types of nouns. As you know, you capitalize some nouns, such as "Canada" or "Louise," and do not capitalize others, such as "badger" or "tree" (unless they appear at the beginning of a sentence). In fact,

grammarians have developed a whole series of noun types, including the proper noun, the common noun, the concrete noun, the abstract noun, the countable noun (also called the count noun), the non-countable noun (also called the mass noun), and the collective noun. You should note that a noun will belong to more than one type: it will be proper or common, abstract or concrete, *and* countable or non-countable or collective.

If you are interested in the details of these different types, you can read about them in the following sections.

Proper Nouns

You always write a **proper noun** with a capital letter, since the noun represents the name of a specific person, place, or thing. The names of days of the week, months, historical documents, institutions, organizations, religions, their holy texts and their adherents are proper nouns. A proper noun is the opposite of a common noun

In each of the following sentences, the proper nouns are **highlighted**:

> The **Marroons** were transported from **Jamaica** and forced to build the fortifications in **Halifax**.
> Many people dread **Monday** mornings.
> **Beltane** is celebrated on the first of **May**.
> **Abraham** appears in the **Talmud** and in the **Koran**.
> Last year, I had a **Baptist**, a **Buddhist**, and a **Gardnerian Witch** as roommates.

Common Nouns

A **common noun** is a noun referring to a person, place, or thing in a general sense -- usually, you should write it with a capital letter only when it begins a sentence. A common noun is the opposite of a proper noun.

In each of the following sentences, the common nouns are **highlighted**:

According to the **sign**, the nearest **town** is 60 **miles** away.

All the **gardens** in the **neighborhood** were invaded by **beetles** this **summer**.

I don't understand why some **people** insist on having six different **kinds** of **mustard** in their **cupboards**.

The road **crew** was startled by the **sight** of three large **moose** crossing the **road**.

Many child-care **workers** are underpaid.

Sometimes you will make proper nouns out of common nouns, as in the following examples:

The tenants in the **Garnet Apartments** are appealing the large and sudden increase in their rent.

The meals in the Bouncing **Bean Restaurant** are less expensive than meals in ordinary restaurants.

Many witches refer to the Renaissance as the Burning **Times**.

The **Diary of Anne Frank** is often a child's first introduction to the history of the **Holocaust**.

Concrete Nouns

A **concrete noun** is a noun which names anything (or anyone) that you can perceive through your physical senses: touch, sight, taste, hearing, or smell. A concrete noun is the opposite of a abstract noun.

The **highlighted** words in the following sentences are all concrete nouns:

The **judge** handed the **files** to the **clerk**.

Whenever they take the **dog** to the **beach**, it spends **hours** chasing **waves**.

The real estate **agent** urged the **couple** to buy the second **house** because it had new **shingles**.

As the **car** drove past the **park**, the **thump** of a disco **tune** overwhelmed the string **quartet's rendition** of a **minuet**.

The **book binder** replaced the flimsy paper **cover** with a sturdy, cloth-covered **board**.

Abstract Nouns

An **abstract noun** is a noun which names anything which you can *not* perceive through your five physical senses, and is the opposite of a concrete noun. The **highlighted** words in the following sentences are all abstract nouns:

Buying the fire extinguisher was an **afterthought**.

Tillie is amused by people who are nostalgic about **childhood**.

Justice often seems to slip out of our grasp.

Some scientists believe that **schizophrenia** is transmitted genetically.

Countable Nouns

A **countable noun** (or **count noun**) is a noun with both a singular and a plural form, and it names anything (or anyone) that you can *count*. You can make a countable noun can be made plural and attach it to a plural verb in a sentence. Countable nouns are the opposite of non-countable nouns and collective nouns.

In each of the following sentences, the **highlighted** words are countable nouns:

We painted the **table** red and the **chairs** blue.

Since he inherited his **aunt's library**, Jerome spends every **weekend** indexing his **books**.

Miriam found six silver **dollars** in the **toe** of a **sock**.

The oak **tree** lost three **branches** in the **hurricane**.

Over the **course** of twenty-seven **years**, Martha Ballad delivered just over eight hundred **babies**.

Non-Countable Nouns

A **non-countable noun** (or **mass noun**) is a noun which does not have a plural form, and which refers to something that you could (or would) not usually count. A non-countable noun always takes a singular verb in a sentence. Non-countable nouns are similar to collective nouns, and are the opposite of countable nouns.

The **highlighted** words in the following sentences are non-countable nouns:

Joseph Priestly discovered **oxygen**.

The word "oxygen" cannot normally be made plural.

Oxygen is essential to human life.

Since "oxygen" is a non-countable noun, it takes the singular verb "is" rather than the plural verb "are."

We decided to sell the **furniture** rather than take it with use when we moved.

You cannot make the noun "furniture" plural.

The **furniture** is heaped in the middle of the room.

Since "furniture" is a non-countable noun, it takes a singular verb, "is heaped."

The crew spread the **gravel** over the roadbed.

You cannot make the non-countable noun "gravel" plural.

Gravel is more expensive than I thought.

Since "gravel" is a non-countable noun, it takes the singular verb form "is."

Collective Nouns

A **collective noun** is a noun naming a group of things, animals, or persons. You could count the individual members of the group, but you usually think of the group as a whole is generally as one unit. You need to be able to recognize collective nouns in order to maintain subject-verb agreement. A collective noun is similar to a non-countable noun, and is roughly the opposite of a countable noun.

In each of the following sentences, the **highlighted** word is a collective noun:

The **flock** of geese spends most of its time in the pasture.

The collective noun "geese" takes the singular verb "spends."

The **jury** is dining on take-out chicken tonight.

In this example the collective noun "jury" is the subject of the singular [compound verb] "is dining."

The steering **committee** meets every Wednesday afternoon.

Here the collective noun "committee" takes a singular verb, "meets."

The **class** was startled by the bursting light bulb.

In this sentence the word "class" is a collective noun and takes the singular compound verb "was startled".

Every complete **sentence** contains two parts: a **subject** and a **predicate**. The subject is what (or whom) the sentence is about, while the predicate tells something about the subject. In the following sentences, the predicate is enclosed in braces ({}), while the subject is **highlighted**.

Judy {runs}.

Judy and her dog {run on the beach every morning}.

To determine the subject of a sentence, first isolate the [verb](#) and then make a question by placing "who?" or "what?" before it -- the answer is the subject.

The audience littered the theatre floor with torn wrappings and spilled popcorn.

The verb in the above sentence is "littered." Who or what littered? The audience did. "The audience" is the subject of the sentence. The predicate (which always includes the verb) goes on to relate something about the subject: what about the audience? It "littered the theatre floor with torn wrappings and spilled popcorn."

Unusual Sentences

Imperative sentences (sentences that give a command or an order) differ from conventional sentences in that their subject, which is always "you," is understood rather than expressed.

Stand on your head. ("You" is understood before "stand.")

Be careful with sentences that begin with "there" plus a form of the verb "to be." In such sentences, "there" is not the subject; it merely signals that the true subject will soon follow.

There were **three stray kittens** cowering under our porch steps this morning.

If you ask *who*? or *what?* before the verb ("were cowering"), the answer is "three stray kittens," the correct subject.

Simple Subject and Simple Predicate

Every subject is built around one noun or pronoun (or more) that, when stripped of all the words that modify it, is known as the **simple subject**. Consider the following example:

A **piece** of pepperoni pizza would satisfy his hunger.

The subject is built around the noun "piece," with the other words of the subject -- "a" and "of pepperoni pizza" -- modifying the noun. "Piece" is the simple subject.

Likewise, a predicate has at its centre a **simple predicate**, which is always the verb or verbs that link up with the subject. In the example we just considered, the simple predicate is "would satisfy" -- in other words, the verb of the sentence.

A sentence may have a **compound subject** -- a simple subject consisting of more than one noun or pronoun -- as in these examples:

Team **pennants**, rock **posters** and family **photographs** covered the boy's bedroom walls.
Her **uncle** and **she** walked slowly through the Inuit art gallery and admired the powerful sculptures exhibited there.

The second sentence above features a **compound predicate**, a predicate that includes more than one verb pertaining to the same subject (in this case, "walked" and "admired").

The verb is perhaps the most important part of the sentence. A **verb** or compound verb asserts something about the subject of the sentence and express actions, events, or states of being. The verb or compound verb is the critical element of the predicate of a sentence.

In each of the following sentences, the verb or compound verb is **highlighted**:

Dracula **bites** his victims on the neck.

The verb "bites" describes the action Dracula takes.

In early October, Giselle **will plant** twenty tulip bulbs.

Here the compound verb "will plant" describes an action that will take place in the future.

My first teacher **was** Miss Crawford, but I remember the janitor Mr. Weatherbee more vividly.

In this sentence, the verb "was" (the simple past tense of "is") identifies a particular person and the verb "remembered" describes a mental action.

Karl Creelman bicycled around in world in 1899, but his diaries and his bicycle **were destroyed**.

In this sentence, the compound verb "were destroyed" describes an action which took place in the past.

verb indicates the time of an action, event or condition by changing its form. Through the use of a sequence of tenses in a sentence or in a paragraph, it is possible to indicate the complex temporal relationship of actions, events, and conditions

There are many ways of categorizing the twelve possible verb tenses. The verb tenses may be categorized according to the time frame: past tenses, present tenses, and future tenses.

Verb Tense: Time

The four **past tenses** are

1. the simple past ("I went")
2. the past progressive ("I was going")
3. the past perfect ("I had gone")
4. the past perfect progressive ("I had been going")

The four **present tenses** are

1. the simple present ("I go")
2. the present progressive ("I am going")
3. the present perfect ("I have gone")
4. the present perfect progressive ("I have been going")

Note that the present perfect and present perfect progressive are a present not past tenses -- that idea is that the speaker is **currently** in the state of having gone or having been going.

The four **future tenses** are

1. the simple future ("I will go")
2. the future progressive ("I will be going")
3. the future perfect ("I will have gone")
4. the future perfect progressive ("I will have been going")

Verb Tense: Aspect

Verb tenses may also be categorized according to aspect. **Aspect** refers to the nature of the action described by the verb. There are three aspects: indefinite (or simple), complete (or perfect), continuing (or progressive).

The three **indefinite tenses**, or **simple tenses**, describe an action but do not state whether the action is finished:

- the simple past ("I went")
- the simple present ("I go")
- the simple future ("I will go")

A verb in the **indefinite aspect** is used when the beginning or ending of an action, an event, or condition is unknown or unimportant to the meaning of the sentence. The indefinite aspect is also used to used to indicate an habitual or repeated action, event, or condition.

The three **complete tenses**, or **perfect tenses**, describe a **finished** action:

- the past perfect ("I had gone")
- the present perfect ("I have gone")
- the future perfect ("I will have gone")

A verb in the **complete aspect** indicates that the end of the action, event, or condition is known and the is used to emphasize the fact that the action is complete. The action may, however, be completed in the present, in the past or in the future.

The three **incomplete tenses**, or **progressive tenses**, describe an **unfinished** action:

- the past progressive ("I was going")
- the present progressive ("I am going")
- the future progressive ("I will be going")

A verb in the **continuing aspect** indicates that the action, event, or condition is ongoing in the present, the past or the future.

It is also possible to combine the complete tenses and the incomplete tenses, to describe an action which was in progress and then finished:

- the past perfect progressive ("I had been going")
- the present perfect progressive ("I have been going")
- the future perfect progressive ("I will have been going")

The Function of Verb Tenses

The Simple Present Tense

The **simple present** is used to describe an action, an event, or condition that is occurring in the present, at the moment of speaking or writing. The simple present is used when the precise beginning or ending of a present action, event, or condition is unknown or is unimportant to the meaning of the sentence.

Each of the highlighted verbs in the following sentences is in the simple present tense and each sentence describes an action taking place in the present:

Deborah waits patiently while Bridget books the tickets.
The shelf holds three books and a vase of flowers.
The crowd moves across the field in an attempt to see the rock star get into her helicopter.
The Stephens sisters are both very talented; Virginia writes and Vanessa paints.
Ross annoys Walter by turning pages too quickly.

The simple present is used to express general truths such as scientific fact, as in the following sentences:

>Rectangles have four sides.
>
>Canada Day takes place on July 1, the anniversary of the signing of the British North America Act.
>
>The moon circles the earth once every 28 days.
>
>Calcium is important to the formation of strong bones.
>
>Menarche and menopause mark the beginning and the ending of a woman's reproductive history.

The simple present is used to indicate a habitual action, event, or condition, as in the following sentences:

>Leonard goes to The Jumping Horse Tavern every Thursday evening.
>
>My grandmother sends me new mittens each spring.
>
>In fairy tales, things happen in threes.
>
>We never finish jigsaw puzzles because the cat always eats some of the pieces.
>
>Jesse polishes the menorah on Wednesdays.

The simple present is also used when writing about works of art, as in the following sentences.

>Lolly Willowes is the protagonist of the novel Townsend published in 1926.
>
>One of Artemisia Gentleschi's best known paintings represents Judith's beheading of Holofernes.
>
>The Lady of Shallot weaves a tapestry while watching the passers-by in her mirror.
>
>Lear rages against the silence of Cordelia and only belatedly realizes that she, not her more vocal sisters, loves him.
>
>The play ends with an epilogue spoken by the fool.

The simple present can also be used to refer to a future event when used in conjunction with an adverb or adverbial phrase, as in the following sentences.

> The doors open in 10 minutes.
>
> The premier arrives on Tuesday.
>
> Classes end next week.
>
> The publisher distributes the galley proofs next Wednesday.
>
> The lunar eclipses begin in exactly 43 minutes.

The Present Progressive

While the simple present and the present progressive are sometimes used interchangeably, the **present progressive** emphasizes the continuing nature of an act, event, or condition.

Each of the highlighted verbs in the following sentences is in the present progressive tense. In each sentence the on-going nature of the action is emphasized by the use of the present progressive rather than the simple present.

> Nora is looking for the first paperback editions of all of Raymond Chandler's books.
>
> Deirdre is dusting all the shelves on the second floor of the shop.
>
> The union members are pacing up and down in front of the factory.
>
> KPLA is broadcasting the hits of the 70s this evening.
>
> The presses are printing the first edition of tomorrow's paper.

The present progressive is occasionally used to refer to a future event when used in conjunction with an adverb or adverbial phrase, as in the following sentences.

> The doors are opening in 10 minutes.
>
> The premier is arriving on Tuesday.
>
> Classes are ending next week.

The publisher is distributing the galley proofs next Wednesday.

The Present Perfect Tense

The **present perfect** tense is used to describe action that began in the past and continues into the present or has just been completed at the moment of utterance. The present perfect is often used to suggest that a past action still has an effect upon something happening in the present.

Each of the highlighted compound verbs in the following sentences is in the present perfect tense.

They have not delivered the documents we need.

This sentence suggest that the documents were not delivered in the past and that they are still undelivered.

The health department has decided that all high school students should be immunized against meningitis.

The writer of this sentence uses the present perfect in order to suggest that the decision made in the past is still of importance in the present.

The government has cut university budgets; consequently, the dean has increased the size of most classes.

Here both actions took place sometime in the past and continue to influence the present.

The heat wave has lasted three weeks.

In this sentence, the writer uses the present perfect to indicate that a condition (the heat wave) began in past and continues to affect the present.

Donna has dreamt about frogs sitting in trees every night this week.

Here the action of dreaming has begun in the past and continues into the present.

The Present Perfect Progressive Tense

Like the present perfect, the **present perfect progressive** is used to describe an action, event, or condition that has begun in the past and continues into the present. The present perfect progressive, however, is used to stress the on-going nature of that action, condition, or event.

Each of the highlighted verbs in the following sentences is in the present perfect progressive tense and each sentence suggests that the action began in the past and is continuing into the present.

> That dog has been barking for three hours; I wonder if someone will call the owner.
> I have been relying on my Christmas bonus to pay for the gifts I buy for my large family.
> They have been publishing this comic book for ten years.
> We have been seeing geese flying south all afternoon.
> Even though the coroner has been carefully examining the corpse discovered in Sutherland's Gully since early this morning, we still do not know the cause of death.

The Simple Past Tense

The **simple past** is used to describe an action, an event, or condition that occurred in the past, sometime before the moment of speaking or writing.

Each of the highlighted verbs in the following sentences is in the simple past tense and each sentence describes an action taking place at some point in past.

A flea jumped from the dog to the cat.

Phoebe gripped the hammer tightly and nailed the boards together.

The gem-stones sparkled in a velvet lined display case.

Artemisia Gentilsechi probably died in 1652.

The storyteller began every story by saying "A long time ago when the earth was green."

The Past Progressive Tense

The **past progressive** tense is used to described actions ongoing in the past. These actions often take place within a specific time frame. While actions referred to in the present progressive have some connection to the present, actions referred in the past progressive have no immediate or obvious connection to the present. The on-going actions took place and were completed at some point well before the time of speaking or writing.

Each of the highlighted verbs in the following sentences is in the past progressive tense.

The cat was walking along the tree branch.

This sentence describes an action that took place over a period of continuous time in the past. The cat's actions have no immediate relationship to anything occurring now in the present.

Lena was telling a story about the exploits of a red cow when a tree branch broke the parlour window.

Here the action "was telling" took place in the past and continued for some time in the past.

When the recess bell rang, Jesse was writing a long division problem on the blackboard.

This sentence describes actions ("ran" and "was writing") that took place sometime in the past, and emphasizes the continuing nature of one of the actions ("was writing").

The archivists were eagerly waiting for the delivery of the former prime minister's private papers.

Here the ongoing action of "waiting" occurred at some time unconnected to the present.

Between 1942 and 1944 the Frank and Van Damm families were hiding in a Amsterdam office building.

In this sentence, the action of hiding took place over an extended period of time and the continuing nature of the hiding is emphasized.

The Past Perfect Tense

The **past perfect** tense is used to refer to actions that took place and were completed in the past. The past perfect is often used to emphasis that one action, event or condition ended before another past action, event, or condition began.

Each of the highlighted verbs in the following sentences is in the past perfect.

Miriam arrived at 5:00 p.m. but Mr. Whitaker had closed the store.

All the events in this sentence took place in the past, but the act of closing the store takes place before Miriam arrives at the store.

After we located the restaurant that Christian had raved about, we ate supper there every Friday.

Here the praise ("had raved") precedes the finding ("located") of the restaurant. Both actions took place sometime before the moment of speaking or writing.

The elephant had eaten all the hay so we fed it oats for a week.

In this sentence, both actions take place in the past, but the eating of the hay ("had eaten") preceded the eating of the oats ("fed").

The heat wave had lasted three weeks.

While the sentence "The heat wave has lasted three weeks" suggests that a condition began in the past and continues into the present, this sentence describes an action that began and ended sometime in the past ("had lasted"). By using the past perfect the writer indicates that the heat wave has no connection to any events occurring in the present.

After she had learned to drive, Alice felt more independent.

Here the learning took place and was completed at a specific time in the past. By using the past perfect rather than the simple past ("learned"), the writer emphasizes that the learning preceded the feeling of independence.

The Past Perfect Progressive Tense

The **past perfect progressive** is used to indicate that a continuing action in the past began before another past action began or interrupted the first action.

Each of the highlighted compound verbs in the following sentences is in the past perfect progressive tense.

The toddlers had been running around the school yard for ten minutes before the teachers shooed them back inside.

Here the action of the toddlers ("had been running") is ongoing in the past and precedes the actions of the teachers ("shooed") which also takes place in the past.

We had been talking about repainting the front room for three years and last night we finally bought the paint.

In this example, the ongoing action of "talking" precedes another past action ("bought").

A construction crew had been digging one pit after another in the middle of my street for three days before they found the water main.

Here, the action of digging ("had been digging") took place in the past and occurred over a period of time. The digging was followed by the action of finding ("found").

Madeleine had been reading mystery novels for several years before she discovered the works of Agatha Christie.

In this sentence the act of discovery ("discovered") occurred in the past but after the ongoing and repeated action of reading ("had been reading").

The chef's assistant had been chopping vegetables for several minutes before he realized that he had minced his apron strings.

This sentence is a bit more complex in that it contains three different past verb tenses. The sequence of tenses conveys a complex set of information. The past perfect progressive ("had been chopping") is used to emphasise the ongoing nature of the past act of chopping. While a second past perfect progressive ("had been mincing") could be used, the past perfect ("had minced") is used to suggest that act of mincing was completed. The simple past ("realized") is used to describe

the action closest to the present, an action that followed both the chopping and the mincing.

The Simple Future Tense

The **simple future** is used to refer to actions that will take place after the act of speaking or writing.

Each of the highlighted verbs in the following sentences is in the simple future tense.

> They will meet us at the newest café in the market.
> Will you walk the dog tonight?
> At the feast, we will eat heartily.
> Bobbie will call you tomorrow with details about the agenda.
> The Smiths say that they will not move their chicken coop.

The Future Progressive Tense

The **future progressive** tense is used to describe actions ongoing in the future. The future progressive is used to refer to continuing action that will occur in the future.

Each of the highlighted compound verbs in the following sentences is in the future progressive tense.

> The glee club will be performing at the celebration of the town's centenary.
> Ian will be working on the computer system for the next two weeks.
> The selection committee will be meeting every Wednesday morning.
> We will be writing an exam every afternoon next week.
> They will be ringing the bells for Hypatia next month.

The Future Perfect Tense

The **future perfect** is used to refer to an action that will be completed sometime in the future before another action takes place.

Each of the highlighted verbs in the following sentences is in the future perfect tense.

The surgeon will have operated on 6 patients before she attends a luncheon meeting.

In this sentence, the act of operating ("will have operated") takes place in the future sometime before the act of attending ("attends").

The plumber and his assistant will have soldered all the new joins in pipes before they leave for the next job.

Here, the plumbers' act of soldering ("will have soldered") will precede the act of leaving ("leave").

By the time you get back from the corner store, we will have finished writing the thank you letters.

In this sentence, the act of returning from the store ("get back") takes place after the act of writing ("will have written").

If this year is like last year, I will have finished my holiday shopping long before my brother starts his.

In this example, the act of finishing ("will have finished") occurs well before the act of starting ("starts").

They will have written their first exam by the time we get out of bed.

Here, the act of getting out of bed occurs sometime after the writing of the exam.

The Future Perfect Progressive Tense

The **future perfect progressive** tense is used to indicate a continuing action that will be completed at some specified time in the future. This tense is rarely used.

Each of the highlighted verbs in the following sentences is in the future perfect progressive tense.

I will have been studying Greek for three years by the end of this term.

In this sentence, the future perfect progressive is used to indicate the ongoing nature of the future act of the studying. The act of studying ("will have been studying") will occur before the upcoming end of term.

By the time the meeting is over, the committee will have been arguing about which candidate to interview for three hours.

Similarly in this sentence, the ongoing nature of a future act ("will have been arguing") is emphasised by the use of the future perfect progressive. The act of sustained arguing will take place before the meeting is over.

When he returns, the wine will have been fermenting for three months.

Here the ongoing action of fermentation will precede ("will have been fermenting") the act of returning.

Using verbs in correct sequence is often difficult, especially for those people whose cradle tongue is not English or whose cradle tongue does not uses a similar tense system. The situation is further complicated by the fact that context, idiom, and style play as large a role in determining tense sequence as grammatical rules.

In order to determine correct **verb sequence**, you must be able to identify
independent and dependent clauses. The **sequence of tenses** in complex
sentences is usually determined by the tense of the verb in the independent
clause. (In compound sentences, use the tenses that fit the logic of the sentence.)

Present Tenses in Sequence

In general, present tenses may be followed by a wide variety of tenses as long as
the sequence fits the logic of the sentence.

The four present tenses are the simple present, the present progressive, the
present perfect, and the present perfect progressive. When these tenses are used
in an independent clause, the verb in the dependent clause can be a present tense
verb, a past tense verb or a future tense verb, as in the following sentences.

> Deborah waits patiently while Bridget books the tickets.

The simple present tense is used in both the independent clause and the
dependent clause.

> They have not delivered the documents we need.

The verb of the independent clause "They have not delivered the documents" is in
the present perfect tense. The verb in the dependent clause "we need" is in the
simple present tense. The simple future could also be used in the dependent
clause ("we will need").

> I have been relying on my Christmas bonus to pay for the gifts I buy for my
> large family.

In this sentence the compound verb of the independent clause ("I have been
relying on my Christmas bonus to pay for the gift") is in the present perfect
progressive. The simple predicate of the dependent clause ("I buy for my large

family") is in the simple present ("buy"). The simple future could also be used ("will buy").

> Even though the coroner has been carefully examining the corpse discovered in Sutherland's Gully since early this morning, we still do not know the cause of death.

In this sentence the compound verb of the independent clause ("we still do not know the cause of death") is in the simple present tense. The simple predicate of the dependent clause ("Even though the coroner has been carefully examining the corpse discovered in Sutherland's Gully since early this morning") in the present perfect progressive tense ("has been . . . examining").

> The government has cut university budgets; consequently, the dean has increased the size of most classes.

In this compound sentence, both predicates are in the present perfect. The simple future could also be used in the second independent clause ("consequently, the dean will increase the size of most classes") if the writer wants to suggest that the dean's action will take place in the future.

Past Tenses in Sequence

When the verb in the independent clause is the past tense, the verb in the dependent clause is usually in a past tense as well. The past tenses are the simple past, the past progressive, the past perfect, and the past perfect progressive.

The verb in dependent clause should accurately reflect the temporal relationship of the two clauses.

If the action in the dependent clause occurred before action in the independent clause, the past perfect is usually the most appropriate tense for the dependent clause, as in the following sentences.

Miriam arrived at 5:00 p.m. but Mr. Whitaker had closed the store.

The action of dependent clause ("but Mr. Whitaker had closed the store") is described with a past perfect tense ("had closed") because the act of closing takes place before the act of arriving. The simple predicate of the independent clause ("by the time Miriam arrived") is in the simple past.

After we located the restaurant that Christian had raved about, we ate supper there every Friday.

Since actions of the second dependent clause ("that Christian had raved about") precedes the other actions in the sentence, the past perfect is most appropriate verb tense.

We fed the elephant oats for a week because it had eaten all the hay.

In this sentence, both actions take place in the past, but the action of the independent clause (the feeding oats) follows the action of dependent clause (the eating of the hay) and as a result, the predicate of the dependent clause is in the past perfect ("had eaten").

After she had learnedd to drive, Alice felt more independent.

In this example the predicate of the dependent clause is in the past perfect ("had learned") because the act of learning preceded the independent clause's the act of feeling independent.

If the action in the dependent clause, occurs at the same time as the action in the independent clause, the tense usually match. So if the simple past is used in the independent clause, the simple past may also used in the dependent clause.

When the verb of the independent clause is one of the [progressive tenses](), the simple past is usually the most appropriate tense for the dependent clause, as in the following sentences:

> Lena was telling a story about the exploits of a red cow when a tree branch broke the parlour window.

Here the action "was telling" took place in the past and continued for some time in the past. The breaking of the window is described in the simple past.

> When the recess bell rang, Jesse was writing a long division problem on the blackboard.

This sentence describes actions ("ran" and "was writing") that took place sometime in the past, and emphasis the continuing nature of the action that takes place in the independent clause ("was writing").

One of the most common source of verb sequence error arises from a confusion of the present perfect ("has walked") and the past perfect ("had walked"). Both tense convey a sense of pastiness, but the present perfect is categorized as a present tense verb.

One of the easiest ways of determining whether you've used the perfect tenses correctly is to examine the [auxiliary verb](). Remember "has" is a present tense auxiliary and "had" and "have" are past tense auxiliaries. The future tense auxiliary is "will."

a [clause]() can stand alone as a [sentence](), it is an **independent clause**, as in the following example:

Independent
> the Prime Minister is in Ottawa

Some clauses, however, cannot stand alone as sentences: in this case, they are **dependent clauses** or **subordinate clauses**. Consider the same clause with the subordinating conjunction "because" added to the beginning:

Dependent
> when the Prime Minister is in Ottawa

In this case, the clause could not be a sentence by itself, since the conjunction "because" suggests that the clause is providing an explanation for something else. Since this dependent clause answers the question "when," just like an adverb, it is called a **dependent adverb clause** (or simply an adverb clause, since adverb clauses are always dependent clauses). Note how the clause can replace the adverb "tomorrow" in the following examples:

adverb
> The committee will meet **tomorrow**.

adverb clause
> The committee will meet **when the Prime Minister is in Ottawa**.

Dependent clauses can stand not only for adverbs, but also for nouns and for adjectives.

Noun Clauses

A **noun clause** is an entire clause which takes the place of a noun in another clause or phrase. Like a noun, a noun clause acts as the subject or object of a verb or the object of a preposition, answering the questions "who(m)?" or "what?". Consider the following examples:

noun
> I know **Latin**.

noun clause
> I know **that Latin is no longer spoken as a native language**.

In the first example, the noun "Latin" acts as the [direct object](#) of the verb "know." In the second example, the entire clause "that Latin ..." is the direct object.

In fact, many noun clauses are [indirect questions](#):

noun

Their **destination** is unknown.

noun clause

Where they are going is unknown.

The question "Where are they going?," with a slight change in word order, becomes a noun clause when used as part of a larger unit -- like the noun "destination," the clause is the subject of the verb "is."

Here are some more examples of noun clauses:

about **what you bought at the mall**

This noun clause is the object of the preposition "about," and answers the question "about *what*?"

Whoever broke the vase will have to pay for it.

This noun clause is the subject of the verb "will have to pay," and answers the question "*who* will have to pay?"

The Toronto fans hope **that the Blue Jays will win again**.

This noun clause is the object of the verb "hope," and answers the question "*what* do the fans hope?"

Adjective Clauses

An **adjective clause** is a dependent clause which takes the place of an adjective in another clause or phrase. Like an adjective, an adjective clause

modifies a noun or pronoun, answering questions like "which?" or "what kind of?" Consider the following examples:

Adjective

      the **red** coat

Adjective clause

      the coat **which I bought yesterday**

Like the word "red" in the first example, the dependent clause "which I bought yesterday" in the second example modifies the noun "coat." Note that an adjective clause usually comes *after* what it modifies, while an adjective usually comes *before*.

In formal writing, an adjective clause begins with the relative pronouns "who(m)," "that," or "which." In informal writing or speech, you may leave out the relative pronoun when it is not the subject of the adjective clause, but you should usually include the relative pronoun in formal, academic writing:

informal

      The books people read were mainly religious.

formal

      The books **that** people read were mainly religious.

informal

      Some firefighters never meet the people they save.

formal

      Some firefighters never meet the people **whom** they save.

Here are some more examples of adjective clauses:

      the meat **which they ate** was tainted

This clause modifies the noun "meat" and answers the question "which meat?".

      about the movie **which made him cry**

This clause modifies the noun "movie" and answers the question "which movie?".

they are searching for the one **who borrowed the book**

The clause modifies the pronoun "one" and answers the question "which one?".

Did I tell you about the author **whom I met**?

The clause modifies the noun "author" and answers the question "which author?".

Adverb Clauses

An **adverb clause** is a dependent clause which takes the place of an adverb in another clause or phrase. An adverb clause answers questions such as "when?", "where?", "why?", "with what goal/result?", and "under what conditions?".

Note how an adverb clause can replace an adverb in the following example:

adverb
The premier gave a speech **here**.
adverb clause
The premier gave a speech **where the workers were striking**.

Usually, a subordinating conjunction like "because," "when(ever)," "where(ever)," "since," "after," and "so that," will introduce an adverb clause. Note that a dependent adverb clause can *never* stand alone as a complete sentence:

independent clause
they left the locker room
dependent adverb clause
after they left the locker room

The first example can easily stand alone as a sentence, but the second cannot -- the reader will ask *what* happened "after they left the locker room". Here are some

more examples of adverb clauses expressing the relationships of cause, effect, space, time, and condition:

cause

Hamlet wanted to kill his uncle **because the uncle had murdered Hamlet's father**.

The adverb clause answers the question "why?".

effect

Hamlet wanted to kill his uncle **so that his father's murder would be avenged**.

The adverb clause answers the question "with what goal/result?".

time

After Hamlet's uncle Claudius married Hamlet's mother, Hamlet wanted to kill him.

The adverb clause answers the question "when?". Note the change in word order -- an adverb clause can often appear either before or after the main part of the sentence.

place

Where the whole Danish court was assembled, Hamlet ordered a play in an attempt to prove his uncle's guilt.

The adverb clause answers the question "where?".

condition

If the British co-operate, the Europeans may achieve monetary union.

The adverb clause answers the question "under what conditions?".

The punctuation marks that signal the end of a [sentence](#) are the period, the question mark and the exclamation mark.

You use **the period**, by far the most common of the **end punctuation** marks, to terminate a sentence that makes a statement. You may also use periods with **imperative sentences** that have no sense of urgency or excitement attached:

> Without a doubt, Lady Emily was much happier after her divorce.
> Turn right at the stop sign.
> Bring me a cup of coffee and a cheese danish.

When you want to express a sense of urgency or very strong emotion, you may end your imperative sentences and statements with an **exclamation mark:**

> Look out below!
> Leave this house at once!
> I hate him!

Exclamation marks are, however, rare in formal writing. Use them sparingly, if at all.

You should use the **question mark** at the end of a **direct question**:

> Who's on first?
> Where is my flowered cape?

Be careful not to use a question mark at the end of an [indirect question](#). Indirect questions are simply statements, and therefore end with a period:

I wonder who was chosen as Harvest King in the county fair. **Comma** usage is in some respects a question of personal writing style: some writers use commas liberally, while others prefer to use them sparingly. Most modern North American

style guides now recommend using fewer commas rather than more, so when faced with the option of using a comma or not, you may find it wise to refrain.

For instance, the use of a comma before the "and" in a series is usually optional, and many writers choose to eliminate it, provided there is no danger of misreading:

> We bought scarves, mittens and sweaters before leaving for Iceland. (comma unnecessary before "and")
>
> We ate apples, plums, and strawberry and kiwi compote. (comma needed before "and" for clarity)

Comma Usage

1. Use a comma before a [co-ordinating conjunction](#) that joins [independent clauses](#) (unless the independent clauses are very short):

   > I wrapped the fresh fish in three layers of newspaper, but my van still smelled like trout for the next week. (commas with two independent clauses)
   >
   > She invited him to her party and he accepted. (comma unnecessary with short [clauses](#))

2. Use a comma after an introductory [adverb clause](#) and, often, after an introductory [phrase](#) (unless the phrase is very short):

   > After the hospital had completed its fund-raising campaign, an anonymous donor contributed an additional $10,000. (after introductory adverb clause)
   >
   > From the east wall to the west, her cottage measures twenty feet. (after introductory [prepositional phrase](#))
   >
   > In the bottom drawer you will find some pink spandex tights. (no comma with short, closely related phrase)

3. Use a comma to separate items in a series:

   > Playing in a band can be exciting, but many people do not realize the hardships involved: constant rehearsals, playing until 2 a.m., handling

drunken audience members, and transporting heavy equipment to and from gigs. (the comma preceding "and" is optional unless needed to prevent misreading)

4. Use commas to set off **non-restrictive elements** and other parenthetical elements. A **non-restrictive modifier** is a phrase or clause that does not restrict or limit the meaning of the word it is modifying. It is, in a sense, interrupting material that adds extra information to a <u>sentence</u>. Even though removing the non-restrictive element would result in some loss of meaning, the sentence would still make sense without it. You should usually set off non-restrictive elements with commas:

The people of Haiti, who for decades have lived with grinding poverty and mind-numbing violence, are unfamiliar with the workings of a true democracy.

A **restrictive modifier** is a phrase or clause that limits the meaning of

 what it modifies and is essential to the basic idea expressed in the sentence. You should not set off **restrictive elements** with commas:

Those residents of Ottawa who do not hold secure, well-paying jobs must resent the common portrayal of the city as a land of opportunity.

Note that you can use two other punctuation marks to set off non-

restrictive elements or other **parenthetical information**: **parentheses** and **dashes**. Enclosing parenthetical information in parentheses reduces the importance of that information:

Mr. Grundy's driving record (with one small exception) was exemplary.

5. Placing parenthetical information between dashes has the opposite effect: it emphasizes the material:

Mr. Grundy's driving record -- with one exception -- was exemplary.

Nevertheless, you should usually set off parenthetical information with commas.

Equally important in understanding how to use commas effectively is knowing when *not* to use them. While this decision is sometimes a matter of personal taste, there are certain instances when you should definitely avoid a comma.

- Do not use a comma to separate the subject from its predicate:

  [WRONG] Registering for our fitness programs before September 15, will save you thirty percent of the membership cost.
  [RIGHT] Registering for our fitness programs before September 15 will save you thirty percent of the membership cost.

- Do not use a comma to separate a verb from its object or its subject complement, or a preposition from its object:

  [WRONG] I hope to mail to you before Christmas, a current snapshot of my dog Benji.
  She travelled around the world with, a small backpack, a bedroll, a pup tent and a camera.
  [RIGHT] I hope to mail to you before Christmas a current snapshot of my dog Benji.
  [RIGHT] She travelled around the world with a small backpack, a bedroll, a pup tent and a camera.

- Do not misuse a comma after a co-ordinating conjunction:

  [WRONG] Sleet fell heavily on the tin roof but, the family was used to the noise and paid it no attention.

[RIGHT] Sleet fell heavily on the tin roof, but the family was used to the noise and paid it no attention.

- Do not use commas to set off words and short phrases (especially introductory ones) that are not parenthetical or that are very slightly so:

  [WRONG] After dinner, we will play badminton.
  [RIGHT] After dinner we will play badminton.

- Do not use commas to set off restrictive elements:

  [WRONG] The fingers, on his left hand, are bigger than those on his right.
  [RIGHT] The fingers on his left hand are bigger than those on his right.

- Do not use a comma before the first item or after the last item of a series:

  [WRONG] The treasure chest contained, three wigs, some costume jewellery and five thousand dollars in Monopoly money.
  [WRONG] You should practice your punches, kicks and foot sweeps, if you want to improve in the martial arts.
  [RIGHT] The treasure chest contained three wigs, some costume jewellery and five thousand dollars in Monopoly money.
  [RIGHT] You should practice your punches, kicks and foot sweeps if you want to improve in the martial arts.

  She asked if she could play pinball.
  The teacher asked who was chewing gum.

You can use a **conjunction** to link words, phrases, and clauses, as in the following example:

  I ate the pizza **and** the pasta.
  Call the movers **when** you are ready.

Co-ordinating Conjunctions

You use a **co-ordinating conjunction** ("and," "but," "or," "nor," "for," "so," or "yet") to join individual words, phrases, and independent clauses. Note that you can also use the conjunctions "but" and "for" as prepositions.

In the following sentences, each of the **highlighted** words is a co-ordinating conjunction:

Lilacs **and** violets are usually purple.

In this example, the co-ordinating conjunction "and" links two nouns.

This movie is particularly interesting to feminist film theorists, **for** the screenplay was written by Mae West.

In this example, the co-ordinating conjunction "for" is used to link two independent clauses.

Daniel's uncle claimed that he spent most of his youth dancing on rooftops **and** swallowing goldfish.

Here the co-ordinating conjunction "and" links two participle phrases ("dancing on rooftops" and "swallowing goldfish") which act as adverbs describing the verb "spends."

Subordinating Conjunctions

A **subordinating conjunction** introduces a <u>dependent clause</u> and indicates the nature of the relationship among the independent clause(s) and the dependent clause(s).

The most common subordinating conjunctions are "after," "although," "as," "because," "before," "how," "if," "once," "since," "than," "that," "though," "till," "until," "when," "where," "whether," and "while."

Each of the **highlighted** words in the following sentences is a subordinating conjunction:

After she had learned to drive, Alice felt more independent.

The subordinating conjunction "after" introduces the dependent clause "After she had learned to drive."

If the paperwork arrives on time, your cheque will be mailed on Tuesday.

Similarly, the subordinating conjunction "if" introduces the dependent clause "If the paperwork arrives on time."

Gerald had to begun his thesis over again **when** his computer crashed.

The subordinating conjunction "when" introduces the dependent clause "when his computer crashed."

Midwifery advocates argue that home births are safer **because** the mother and baby are exposed to fewer people and fewer germs.

In this sentence, the dependent clause "because the mother and baby are exposed to fewer people and fewer germs" is introduced by the subordinating conjunction "because."

Correlative Conjunctions

Correlative conjunctions always appear in pairs -- you use them to link equivalent sentence elements. The most common correlative conjunctions are "both...and," "either...or," "neither...nor,", "not only...but also," "so...as," and "whether...or." (Technically correlative conjunctions consist simply of a co-ordinating conjunction linked to an adjective or adverb.)

The **highlighted** words in the following sentences are correlative conjunctions:

Both my grandfather **and** my father worked in the steel plant.

In this sentence, the correlative conjunction "both...and" is used to link the two **noun phrases** that act as the compound subject of the sentence: "my grandfather" and "my father".

Bring **either** a Jello salad **or** a potato scallop.

Here the correlative conjunction "either...or" links two noun phrases: "a Jello salad" and "a potato scallop."

Corinne is trying to decide **whether** to go to medical school **or** to go to law school.

Similarly, the correlative conjunction "whether ... or" links the two infinitive phrases "to go to medical school" and "to go to law school."

The explosion destroyed **not only** the school **but also** the neighbouring pub.

In this example the correlative conjunction "not only ... but also" links the two noun phrases ("the school" and "neighbouring pub") which act as direct objects.

Note: some words which appear as conjunctions can also appear as prepositions or as adverbs.

A **phrase** is a group of two or more grammatically linked words without a [subject](#) and [predicate](#) -- a group of grammatically-linked words *with* a subject and predicate is called a [clause](#).

The group "teacher both students and" is not a phrase because the words have no grammatical relationship to one another. Similarly, the group "bay the across" is not a phrase.

In both cases, the words need to be rearranged in order to create phrases. The group "both teachers and students" and the group "across the bay" are both phrases.

You use phrase to add information to a [sentence](#) and can perform the functions of a subject, an [object](#), a [subject](#) or [object complement](#), a [verb](#), an [adjective](#), or an [adverb](#).

The highlighted words in each of the following sentences make up a phrase:

> She bought some spinach when she went **to the corner store**.
> Lightning flashed brightly **in the night sky**.
> They heard **high pitched cries** in the middle of the night.
> In early October, Giselle **planted twenty tulip bulbs**; unfortunately, squirrels ate the bulbs and none bloomed.
> **Small children** often insist that they can do it by themselves.

A [phrase](#) may function as a [verb](#), [noun](#), an [adverb](#), or an [adjective](#).

Verb Phrases

A **verb phrase** consists of a verb, its <u>direct</u> and/or <u>indirect objects</u>, and any adverb, adverb phrases, or <u>adverb clauses</u> which happen to modify it. The <u>predicate</u> of a <u>clause</u> or <u>sentence</u> is always a verb phrase:

> Corinne **is trying to decide whether she wants to go to medical school or to go to law school**.
> He **did not have all the ingredients the recipe called for**; therefore, he **decided to make something else**.
> After she **had learned to drive**, Alice **felt more independent**.
> We **will meet at the library at 3:30 p.m.**

Noun Phrases

A **noun phrase** consists of a <u>pronoun</u> or noun with any associated <u>modifiers</u>, including adjectives, adjective phrases, <u>adjective clauses</u>, and other nouns in the <u>possessive case</u>.

Like a noun, a noun phrase can act as a <u>subject</u>, as the <u>object</u> of a verb or <u>verbal</u>, as a <u>subject</u> or <u>object complement</u>, or as the object of a <u>preposition</u>, as in the following examples:

subject
> **Small children** often insist that they can do it by themselves.

object of a verb
> To read quickly and accurately is **Eugene's goal**.

object of a preposition
> The arctic explorers were caught unawares by **the spring breakup**.

subject complement
> Frankenstein is **the name of the scientist not the monster**.

object complement
> I consider Loki **my favorite cat**.

Noun Phrases using Verbals

(by David Megginson)

Since some verbals -- in particular, the <u>gerund</u> and the <u>infinitive</u> -- can act as nouns, these also can form the nucleus of a noun phrase:

Ice fishing is a popular winter pass-time.

However, since verbals are formed from verbs, they can also take direct objects and can be modified by adverbs. A **gerund phrase** or **infinitive phrase**, then, is a noun phrase consisting of a verbal, its modifiers (both adjectives and adverbs), and its objects:

Running a marathon in the Summer is thirsty work.
I am planning **to buy a house next month**.

Adjective Phrases

An **adjective phrase** is any phrase which modifies a noun or pronoun. You often construct adjective phrases using <u>participles</u> or prepositions together with their objects:

I was driven mad by the sound **of my neighbour's constant piano practising**.

In this sentence, the **prepositional phrase** "of my neighbour's constant piano practising" acts as an adjective modifying the noun "sound."

My father-in-law locked his keys in the trunk **of a borrowed car**.

Similarly in this sentence, the prepositional phrase "of a borrowed car" acts as an adjective modifying the noun "trunk."

We saw Peter **dashing across the quadrangle**.

Here the **participle phrase** "dashing across the quadrangle" acts as an adjective describing the [proper noun](#) "Peter."

We picked up the records **broken in the scuffle**.

In this sentence, the participle phrase "broken in the scuffle" modifies the noun phrase "the records."

Adverb Phrases

A prepositional phrase can also be an **adverb phrase**, functioning as an adverb, as in the following sentences.

She bought some spinach when she went to the corner store.

In this sentence, the prepositional phrase "to the corner store" acts as an adverb modifying the verb "went."

Lightning flashed brightly in the night sky.

In this sentence, the prepositional phrase "in the night sky" functions as a adverb modifying the verb "flashed."

In early October, Giselle planted twenty tulip bulbs; unfortunately, squirrels ate the bulbs and none bloomed.

In this sentence, the prepositional phrase "in early October" acts as an adverb modifying the entire sentence.

We will meet at the library at 3:30 P.M.

In this sentence, the prepositional phrase "at 3:30 P.M." acts as an adverb modifying the verb phrase "will meet."

The dogs were capering about the clown's feet.

In this sentence, the prepositional phrase "about the clown's feet" acts as an adverb modifying the verb phrase "were capering."

If a clause can stand alone as a sentence, it is an **independent clause**, as in the following example:

Independent

the Prime Minister is in Ottawa

Some clauses, however, cannot stand alone as sentences: in this case, they are **dependent clauses** or **subordinate clauses**. Consider the same clause with the subordinating conjunction "because" added to the beginning:

Dependent

when the Prime Minister is in Ottawa

In this case, the clause could not be a sentence by itself, since the conjunction "because" suggests that the clause is providing an explanation for something else. Since this dependent clause answers the question "when," just like an adverb, it is called a **dependent adverb clause** (or simply an adverb clause, since adverb clauses are always dependent clauses). Note how the clause can replace the adverb "tomorrow" in the following examples:

adverb

The committee will meet **tomorrow**.

adverb clause

The committee will meet **when the Prime Minister is in Ottawa**.

Dependent clauses can stand not only for adverbs, but also for nouns and for adjectives.

Noun Clauses

A **noun clause** is an entire clause which takes the place of a noun in another clause or phrase. Like a noun, a noun clause acts as the subject or object of a verb or the object of a preposition, answering the questions "who(m)?" or "what?". Consider the following examples:

noun

I know **Latin**.

noun clause

I know **that Latin is no longer spoken as a native language**.

In the first example, the noun "Latin" acts as the direct object of the verb "know." In the second example, the entire clause "that Latin ..." is the direct object.

In fact, many noun clauses are indirect questions:

noun

Their **destination** is unknown.

noun clause

Where they are going is unknown.

The question "Where are they going?," with a slight change in word order, becomes a noun clause when used as part of a larger unit -- like the noun "destination," the clause is the subject of the verb "is."

Here are some more examples of noun clauses:

about **what you bought at the mall**

This noun clause is the object of the preposition "about," and answers the question "about *what*?"

>**Whoever broke the vase** will have to pay for it.

This noun clause is the subject of the verb "will have to pay," and answers the question "*who* will have to pay?"

>The Toronto fans hope **that the Blue Jays will win again**.

This noun clause is the object of the verb "hope," and answers the question "*what* do the fans hope?"

Adjective Clauses

An **adjective clause** is a dependent clause which takes the place of an adjective in another clause or phrase. Like an adjective, an adjective clause modifies a noun or pronoun, answering questions like "which?" or "what kind of?" Consider the following examples:

Adjective
>the **red** coat

Adjective clause
>the coat **which I bought yesterday**

Like the word "red" in the first example, the dependent clause "which I bought yesterday" in the second example modifies the noun "coat." Note that an adjective clause usually comes *after* what it modifies, while an adjective usually comes *before*.

In formal writing, an adjective clause begins with the relative pronouns "who(m)," "that," or "which." In informal writing or speech, you may leave out the relative

pronoun when it is not the subject of the adjective clause, but you should usually include the relative pronoun in formal, academic writing:

informal

> The books people read were mainly religious.

formal

> The books **that** people read were mainly religious.

informal

> Some firefighters never meet the people they save.

formal

> Some firefighters never meet the people **whom** they save.

Here are some more examples of adjective clauses:

> the meat **which they ate** was tainted

This clause modifies the noun "meat" and answers the question "which meat?".

> about the movie **which made him cry**

This clause modifies the noun "movie" and answers the question "which movie?".

> they are searching for the one **who borrowed the book**

The clause modifies the pronoun "one" and answers the question "which one?".

> Did I tell you about the author **whom I met**?

The clause modifies the noun "author" and answers the question "which author?".

Adverb Clauses

An **adverb clause** is a dependent clause which takes the place of an adverb in another clause or phrase. An adverb clause answers questions such as "when?", "where?", "why?", "with what goal/result?", and "under what conditions?".

Note how an adverb clause can replace an adverb in the following example:

adverb

The premier gave a speech **here**.

adverb clause

The premier gave a speech **where the workers were striking**.

Usually, a subordinating conjunction like "because," "when(ever)," "where(ever)," "since," "after," and "so that," will introduce an adverb clause. Note that a dependent adverb clause can *never* stand alone as a complete sentence:

independent clause

they left the locker room

dependent adverb clause

after they left the locker room

The first example can easily stand alone as a sentence, but the second cannot -- the reader will ask *what* happened "after they left the locker room". Here are some more examples of adverb clauses expressing the relationships of cause, effect, space, time, and condition:

cause

Hamlet wanted to kill his uncle **because the uncle had murdered Hamlet's father**.

The adverb clause answers the question "why?".

effect

Hamlet wanted to kill his uncle **so that his father's murder would be avenged**.

The adverb clause answers the question "with what goal/result?".

time

> **After Hamlet's uncle Claudius married Hamlet's mother**, Hamlet wanted to kill him.

The adverb clause answers the question "when?". Note the change in word order - - an adverb clause can often appear either before or after the main part of the sentence.

place

> **Where the whole Danish court was assembled**, Hamlet ordered a play in an attempt to prove his uncle's guilt.

The adverb clause answers the question "where?".

condition

> **If the British co-operate**, the Europeans may achieve monetary union.

The adverb clause answers the question "under what conditions?".

You should use the **comparative** form of an adjective or adverb to compare *exactly* two things. You can form the comparative by adding the suffix "-er" to the modifier (for some short words) or by using the word "more" with the modifier:

> Of the two designs, the architect is convinced that the city will select the **more experimental** one. (comparing two designs)
> Now that it is March, the days are getting **longer**. (longer now than before)

You should use the **superlative** form to compare three or more things. You can form the superlative by adding the suffix "-est" to the modifier (for some short words) or by using the word "most" with the modifier:

This is definitely the smartest, wittiest, most imaginative comic strip I have ever seen. (implying that I have seen more than two)

Note: if you are not certain, you should check a dictionary to see which words take use "more" and "most" and which words take the suffixes "-er" and "-est".

Common Problems with the Comparative and Superlative

There are certain modifiers which you cannot logically use in the comparative and superlative forms. Adjectives like "perfect" and "unique," for instance, express absolute conditions and do not allow for degrees of comparison. Something cannot be *more* perfect than another thing: it is either perfect or not perfect.

You should also avoid using a **double comparison** -- that is, using both a suffix and an adverb to indicate the comparative or superlative:

> [WRONG] I am convinced that my poodle is **more smarter** than your dachshund.
> [WRONG] Laurel and Hardy are the **most funniest** slapstick comedians in film history.
> [RIGHT] I am convinced that my poodle is **smarter** than your dachshund.
> [RIGHT] Laurel and Hardy are the **funniest** slapstick comedians in film history.

Similarly, although the **double negative** -- the use of two negative words together for a single negative idea -- is common in speech and has a long history in the English language, you should avoid using it in formal writing:

> [WRONG] We decided there **wasn't no** point in pursuing our research further.
> [WRONG] I **can't get no** satisfaction.
> [RIGHT] We decided there **wasn't any** point in pursuing our research further. *OR* We decided there **was no** point in pursuing our research further.
> [RIGHT] I **can't get any** satisfaction. *OR* I **can get no** satisfaction.

Double negatives involving "not" and "no" are fairly easy to spot and fix. However, some other adverbs -- for example, "hardly," "scarcely," "barely" -- *imply* the negative, and you should not use them with another negative:

[WRONG] Even though he has lived in Toronto for four years, he **does not** Traditional grammar classifies words based on eight **parts of speech**: the verb, the noun, the pronoun, the adjective, the adverb, the preposition, the conjunction, and the interjection.

Each **part of speech** explains not what the word *is*, but how the word *is used*. In fact, the same word can be a noun in one sentence and a verb or adjective in the next. The next few examples show how a word's part of speech can change from one sentence to the next, and following them is a series of sections on the individual parts of speech, followed by an exercise.

Books are made of ink, paper, and glue.

In this sentence, "books" is a noun, the subject of the sentence.

Deborah waits patiently while Bridget **books** the tickets.

Here "books" is a verb, and its subject is "Bridget."

We **walk** down the street.

In this sentence, "walk" is a verb, and its subject is the pronoun "we".

The mail carrier stood on the **walk**.

In this example, "walk" is a noun, which is part of a prepositional phrase describing where the mail carrier stood.

The town decided to build a new **jail**.

Here "jail" is a noun, which is the object of the infinitive phrase "to build."

The sheriff told us that if we did not leave town immediately he would **jail** us.

Here "jail" is part of the <u>compound verb</u> "would jail."

They heard high pitched **cries** in the middle of the night.

In this sentence, "cries" is a noun acting as the <u>direct object</u> of the verb "heard."

The baby **cries** all night long and all day long.

But here "cries" is a verb that describes the actions of the subject of the sentence, the baby.

have hardly any friends there.

[RIGHT] Even though he has lived in Toronto for four years, he **has hardly any** friends there. *OR* Even though he has lived in Toronto for four years, he **does not have many** friends there.

A **pronoun** can replace a <u>noun</u> or another pronoun. You use pronouns like "he," "which," "none," and "you" to make your <u>sentences</u> less cumbersome and less repetitive.

Grammarians classify pronouns into several types, including the personal pronoun, the demonstrative pronoun, the interrogative pronoun, the indefinite pronoun, the relative pronoun, the reflexive pronoun, and the intensive pronoun.

Personal Pronouns

A **personal pronoun** refers to a specific person or thing and changes its form to indicate <u>person</u>, <u>number</u>, <u>gender</u>, and <u>case</u>.

Subjective Personal Pronouns

A **subjective personal pronoun** indicates that the pronoun is acting as the subject of the sentence. The subjective personal pronouns are "I," "you," "she," "he," "it," "we," "you," "they."

In the following sentences, each of the **highlighted** words is a subjective personal pronoun and acts as the subject of the sentence:

I was glad to find the bus pass in the bottom of the green knapsack.

You are surely the strangest child **I** have ever met.

He stole the selkie's skin and forced her to live with him.

When **she** was a young woman, **she** earned her living as a coal miner.

After many years, **they** returned to their homeland.

We will meet at the library at 3:30 p.m.

It is on the counter.

Are **you** the delegates from Malagawatch?

Objective Personal Pronouns

An **objective personal pronoun** indicates that the pronoun is acting as an object of a verb, compound verb, preposition, or infinitive phrase. The objective personal pronouns are: "me," "you," "her," "him," "it," "us," "you," and "them."

In the following sentences, each of the **highlighted** words is an objective personal pronoun:

Seamus stole the selkie's skin and forced **her** to live with **him**.

The objective personal pronoun "her" is the direct object of the verb "forced" and the objective personal pronoun "him" is the object of the preposition "with."

After reading the pamphlet, Judy threw **it** into the garbage can.

The pronoun "it" is the direct object of the verb "threw".

> The agitated assistant stood up and faced the angry delegates and said, "Our leader will address **you** in five minutes."

In this sentence, the pronoun "you" is the direct object of the verb "address."

> Deborah and Roberta will meet **us** at the newest café in the market.

Here the objective personal pronoun "us" is the direct object of the compound verb "will meet."

> Give the list to **me**.

Here the objective personal pronoun "me" is the object of the preposition "to".

> I'm not sure that my contact will talk to **you**.

Similarly in this example, the objective personal pronoun "you" is the object of the preposition "to".

> Christopher was surprised to see **her** at the drag races.

Here the objective personal pronoun "her" is the object of the infinitive phrase "to see."

Possessive Personal Pronouns

A **possessive pronoun** indicates that the pronoun is acting as a marker of possession and defines who owns a particular object or person. The **possessive personal pronouns** are "mine," "yours," "hers," "his," "its," "ours," and "theirs." Note that possessive personal pronouns are very similar to possessive adjectives like "my," "her," and "their."

In each of the following sentences, the **highlighted** word is a possessive personal pronoun:

The smallest gift is **mine**.

Here the possessive pronoun "mine" functions as a [subject complement](#).

This is yours.

Here too the possessive pronoun "yours" functions as a subject complement.

His is on the kitchen counter.

In this example, the possessive pronoun "his" acts as the subject of the sentence.

Theirs will be delivered tomorrow.

In this sentence, the possessive pronoun "theirs" is the subject of the sentence.

Ours is the green one on the corner.

Here too the possessive pronoun "ours" function as the subject of the sentence.

Demonstrative Pronouns

A **demonstrative pronoun** points to and identifies a noun or a pronoun. "This" and "these" refer to things that are nearby either in space or in time, while "that" and "those" refer to things that are farther away in space or time.

The demonstrative pronouns are "this," "that," "these," and "those." "This" and "that" are used to refer to [singular](#) nouns or [noun phrases](#) and "these" and "those" are used to refer to [plural](#) nouns and noun phrases. Note that the demonstrative pronouns are identical to [demonstrative adjectives](#), though,

obviously, you use them differently. It is also important to note that "that" can also be used as a relative pronoun.

In the following sentences, each of the **highlighted** words is a demonstrative pronoun:

This must not continue.

Here "this" is used as the subject of the compound verb "must not continue."

This is puny; **that** is the tree I want.

In this example "this" is used as subject and refers to something close to the speaker. The demonstrative pronoun "that" is also a subject but refers to something farther away from the speaker.

Three customers wanted **these**.

Here "these" is the direct object of the verb "wanted".

Interrogative Pronouns

An **interrogative pronoun** is used to ask questions. The interrogative pronouns are "who," "whom," "which," "what" and the compounds formed with the suffix "ever" ("whoever," "whomever," "whichever," and "whatever"). Note that either "which" or "what" can also be used as an interrogative adjective, and that "who," "whom," or "which" can also be used as a relative pronoun.

You will find "who," "whom," and occasionally "which" used to refer to people, and "which" and "what" used to refer to things and to animals.

"Who" acts as the subject of a verb, while "whom" acts as the object of a verb, preposition, or a verbal.

The **highlighted** word in each of the following sentences is an interrogative pronoun:

Which wants to see the dentist first?

"Which" is the subject of the sentence.

Who wrote the novel Rockbound?

Similarly "who" is the subject of the sentence.

Whom do you think we should invite?

In this sentence, "whom" is the object of the verb "invite."

To **whom** do you wish to speak?

Here the interrogative pronoun "whom " is the object of the preposition "to."

Who will meet the delegates at the train station?

In this sentence, the interrogative pronoun "who" is the subject of the compound verb "will meet".

To **whom** did you give the paper?

In this example the interrogative pronoun "whom" is the object of the preposition "to."

What did she say?

Here the interrogative pronoun "what" is the direct object of the verb "say."

Relative Pronouns

You can use a **relative pronoun** is used to link one [phrase](#) or [clause](#) to another phrase or clause. The relative pronouns are "who," "whom," "that," and "which." The compounds "whoever," "whomever," and "whichever" are also relative pronouns.

You can use the relative pronouns "who" and "whoever" to refer to the subject of a clause or sentence, and "whom" and "whomever" to refer to the objects of a verb, a verbal or a preposition.

In each of the following sentences, the **highlighted** word is a relative pronoun.

You may invite **whomever** you like to the party.

The relative pronoun "whomever" is the direct object of the compound verb "may invite".

The candidate **who** wins the greatest popular vote is not always elected.

In this sentence, the relative pronoun is the subject of the verb "wins" and introduces the [subordinate clause](#) "who wins the greatest popular vote". This subordinate clause acts as an [adjective](#) modifying "candidate."

In a time of crisis, the manager asks the workers **whom** she believes to be the most efficient to arrive an hour earlier than usual.

In this sentence "whom" is the direct object of the verb "believes" and introduces the subordinate clause "whom she believes to be the most efficient". This subordinate clause modifies the noun "workers."

Whoever broke the window will have to replace it.

Here "whoever" functions as the subject of the verb "broke".

The crate **which** was left in the corridor has now been moved into the storage closet.

In this example "which" acts as the subject of the compound verb "was left" and introduces the subordinate clause "which was left in the corridor." The subordinate clause acts as an adjective modifying the noun "crate."

I will read **whichever** manuscript arrives first.

Here "whichever" modifies the noun "manuscript" and introduces the subordinate clause "whichever manuscript arrives first." The subordinate clause functions as the direct object of the compound verb "will read."

Indefinite Pronouns

An **indefinite pronoun** is a pronoun referring to an identifiable but not specified person or thing. An indefinite pronoun conveys the idea of all, any, none, or some.

The most common indefinite pronouns are "all," "another," "any," "anybody," "anyone," "anything," "each," "everybody," "everyone," "everything," "few," "many," "nobody," "none," "one," "several," "some," "somebody," and "someone." Note that some indefinite pronouns can also be used as [indefinite adjectives](#).

The **highlighted** words in the following sentences are indefinite pronouns:

Many were invited to the lunch but only twelve showed up.

Here "many" acts as the subject of the compound verb "were invited".

The office had been searched and **everything** was thrown onto the floor.

In this example ,"everything" acts as a subject of the compound verb "was thrown."

We donated **everything** we found in the attic to the woman's shelter garage sale.

In this sentence, "everything" is the direct object of theverb "donated."

Although they looked everywhere for extra copies of the magazine, they found **none**.

Here too the indefinite pronoun functions as a direct object: "none" is the direct object of "found."

Make sure you give **everyone** a copy of the amended bylaws.

In this example, "everyone" is the [indirect object](#) of the verb "give" -- the direct object is the noun phrase "a copy of the amended bylaws."

Give a registration package to **each**.

Here "each" is the object of the preposition "to."

Reflexive Pronouns

You can use a **reflexive pronoun** to refer back to the subject of the clause or sentence.

The reflexive pronouns are "myself," "yourself," "herself," "himself," "itself," "ourselves," "yourselves," and "themselves." Note each of these can also act as an intensive pronoun.

Each of the **highlighted** words in the following sentences is a reflexive pronoun:

Diabetics give **themselves** insulin shots several times a day.
The Dean often does the photocopying **herself** so that the secretaries can do more important work.
After the party, I asked **myself** why I had faxed invitations to everyone in my office building.

Richard usually remembered to send a copy of his e-mail to **himself**.

Although the landlord promised to paint the apartment, we ended up doing it **ourselves**.

Intensive Pronouns

An **intensive pronoun** is a pronoun used to emphasise its antecedent. Intensive pronouns are identical in form to reflexive pronouns.

The **highlighted** words in the following sentences are intensive pronouns:

I **myself** believe that aliens should abduct my sister.

The Prime Minister **himself** said that he would lower taxes.

They **themselves** promised to come to the party even though they had a final exam at the same time.

Noun and Pronoun Case

The **case** of a noun or pronoun determines how you can use it in a phrase or clause. There are three cases in Modern English (as opposed to eight in Classical Latin, four in German, and only two in French):

Subject

You use the **subject case** for a noun or pronoun which stands alone, is the subject of a clause, is the subject complement, or stands in apposition to any of these.

Object

You use the **object case** for the object of a preposition, a verb, or a verbal, or for any noun or pronoun which stands in apposition to one of these.

Possessive

You use the **possessive case** for any noun or pronoun which acts an an adjective, implicitly or explicitly modifying another element in the sentence.

Nouns always take the same form in the subject case and the object case, while pronouns often change their form. Both nouns and pronouns usually change their form for the possessive case:

Subject Case

The **man** travelled to Newfoundland.

He travelled to Newfoundland.

Object Case

The taxi drove the **man** to the airport.

The taxi drove **him** to the airport.

Possessive Case

The baggage handlers lost the **man's** suitcase.

The baggage handlers lost **his** suitcase.

For further information, see possessive nouns, possessive pronouns, and possessive adjectives.

Noun and Pronoun Number

The **number** of a noun or pronoun is either **singular**, if it refers to one thing, or **plural**, if it refers to more than one thing (if the noun or pronoun is the subject, then its number will also affect the verb). Note the difference in number in the following examples:

Singular

That **woman** is concerned about this issue.

She is concerned about this issue.

Plural

Those **women** are concerned about this issue.

They are concerned about this issue.

It is important to note that the pronoun "they" is in the processing of becoming singular as well as plural. For example, one might say

A person called and **they** did not leave **their** name.

This construction allows the speaker to avoid identifying the gender of a person, and it has been common in speech for decades, if not for centuries. Be aware, however, that some people still consider it unacceptable for formal writing.

For more information, see noun plurals.

Noun and Pronoun Gender

Unlike the Romance languages (such as French, Spanish, and Italian), English has *three* **genders** for nouns and pronouns: **masculine**, **feminine**, and **neuter**.

Generally, the English language uses **natural gender** rather than **grammatical gender** -- that is, the gender of a word is usually based on its biology (so there is little need to remember whether a word is masculine or feminine). A noun that refers to something with male sexual organs is masculine, a noun that refers to something with female sexual organs is feminine and most other nouns are neuter by default.

There was a time when you could use the masculine gender by default when you did not know a person's natural gender, but very few people accept this usage any longer.

There are, moreover, a few tricky points. First, you may refer to all animals in the neuter gender, or you may refer to them by their natural gender:

Neuter

What a beautiful dog! Does **it** bite?

Natural Gender

What a beautiful dog! Does **she** bite?

Second, You usually assign mythical beings (such as gods) to a natural gender, even if you do not believe that the beings have actual sexual organs:

God is great. God is good. Let us thank **her** for our food.

Finally, people sometimes assign natural gender to inanimate objects, especially if they live or work closely with them. When engineers were mostly men, for example, they tended to refer to large machines in the feminine:

She is a fine ship.

For more information, see the discussion of gender-specific nouns.

Noun and Pronoun Person

Personal pronouns always belong to one of three **persons**: **first person** if they refer to the speaker or writer (or to a group including the speaker or writer), **second person** if they refer to the audience of the speaker or writer (or to a group including the audience), and **third person** if they refer to anyone else (if the noun or pronoun is the subject, then its person will also affect the verb). Nouns and other types of pronouns are always in the third person. Note the differences in person in the following examples:

First Person

I will come tomorrow.

Bob showed the budget to **us**.

Second Person

You should not forget to vote.

Where is **your** coat?

Third Person

It arrived yesterday.

How can you stand working with **them**?

Traditionally, you were required to use the third person in formal academic writing, but some people now accept the first person. Whichever you choose, however, you must be consistent.

An **adjective** modifies a <u>noun</u> or a <u>pronoun</u> by describing, identifying, or quantifying words. An adjective usually precedes the noun or the pronoun which it modifies.

In the following examples, the **highlighted** words are adjectives:

The **truck-shaped** balloon floated over the treetops.

Mrs. Morrison papered her **kitchen** walls with **hideous** wall paper.

The **small** boat foundered on the **wine dark** sea.

The **coal** mines are **dark** and **dank**.

Many stores have already begun to play **irritating Christmas** music.

A **battered music** box sat on the **mahogany** sideboard.

The back room was filed with **large**, **yellow** rain boots.

An adjective can be modified by an <u>adverb</u>, or by a <u>phrase</u> or <u>clause</u> functioning as an adverb. In the <u>sentence</u>

My husband knits intricately **patterned** mittens.

for example, the adverb ``intricately'' modifies the adjective ``patterned.''

Some nouns, many pronouns, and many <u>participle phrases</u> can also act as adjectives. In the sentence

Eleanor listened to the **muffled** sounds of the radio **hidden** under her pillow.

for example, both **highlighted** adjectives are past participles.

Grammarians also consider **articles** (``the,'' ``a,'' ``an'') to be adjectives.

Possessive Adjectives

A **possessive adjective** (``my,'' ``your,'' ``his,'' ``her,'' ``its,'' ``our,'' ``their'') is similar or identical to a possessive pronoun; however, it is used as an adjective and modifies a noun or a noun phrase, as in the following sentences:

I can't complete **my** assignment because I don't have the textbook.

In this sentence, the possessive adjective ``my'' modifies ``assignment'' and the noun phrase ``my assignment'' functions as an object. Note that the possessive pronoun form ``mine'' is not used to modify a noun or noun phrase.

What is **your** phone number.

Here the possessive adjective ``your'' is used to modify the noun phrase ``phone number''; the entire noun phrase ``your phone number'' is a subject complement. Note that the possessive pronoun form ``yours'' is not used to modify a noun or a noun phrase.

The bakery sold **his** favourite type of bread.

In this example, the possessive adjective ``his'' modifies the noun phrase ``favourite type of bread'' and the entire noun phrase ``his favourite type of bread'' is the direct object of the verb ``sold.''

After many years, she returned to **her** homeland.

Here the possessive adjective ``her'' modifies the noun ``homeland'' and the noun phrase ``her homeland'' is the object of the [preposition](#) ``to.'' Note also that the form ``hers'' is not used to modify nouns or noun phrases.

> We have lost **our** way in this wood.

In this sentence, the possessive adjective ``our'' modifies ``way'' and the noun phrase ``our way'' is the direct object of the [compound verb](#) ``have lost''. Note that the possessive pronoun form ``ours'' is not used to modify nouns or noun phrases.

> In many fairy tales, children are neglected by **their** parents.

Here the possessive adjective ``their'' modifies ``parents'' and the noun phrase ``their parents'' is the object of the preposition ``by.'' Note that the possessive pronoun form ``theirs'' is not used to modify nouns or noun phrases.

> The cat chased **its** ball down the stairs and into the backyard.

In this sentence, the possessive adjective ``its'' modifies ``ball'' and the noun phrase ``its ball'' is the object of the verb ``chased.'' Note that ``its'' is the possessive adjective and ``it's'' is a [contraction](#) for ``it is.''

Demonstrative Adjectives

The **demonstrative adjectives** ``this,'' ``these,'' ``that,'' ``those,'' and ``what'' are identical to the [demonstrative pronouns](#), but are used as adjectives to modify nouns or noun phrases, as in the following sentences:

> When the librarian tripped over **that** cord, she dropped a pile of books.

In this sentence, the demonstrative adjective ``that'' modifies the noun ``cord'' and the noun phrase ``that cord'' is the object of the preposition ``over.''

This apartment needs to be fumigated.

Here ``this'' modifies ``apartment'' and the noun phrase ``this apartment'' is the subject of the sentence.

Even though my friend preferred **those** plates, I bought these.

In the subordinate clause, ``those'' modifies ``plates'' and the noun phrase ``those plates'' is the object of the verb ``preferred.'' In the independent clause, ``these'' is the direct object of the verb ``bought.''

Note that the relationship between a demonstrative adjective and a demonstrative pronoun is similar to the relationship between a possessive adjective and a possessive pronoun, or to that between a interrogative adjective and an interrogative pronoun.

Interrogative Adjectives

An **interrogative adjective** (``which'' or ``what'') is like an interrogative pronoun, except that it modifies a noun or noun phrase rather than standing on its own (see also demonstrative adjectives and possessive adjectives):

Which plants should be watered twice a week?

Like other adjectives, ``which'' can be used to modify a noun or a noun phrase. In this example, ``which'' modifies ``plants'' and the noun phrase ``which paints'' is the subject of the compound verb ``should be watered'':

What book are you reading?

In this sentence, ``what'' modifies ``book'' and the noun phrase ``what book'' is the direct object of the compound verb ``are reading.''

Indefinite Adjectives

An **indefinite adjective** is similar to an <u>indefinite pronoun</u>, except that it modifies a noun, pronoun, or noun phrase, as in the following sentences:

Many people believe that corporations are under-taxed.

The indefinite adjective ``many'' modifies the noun ``people'' and the noun phrase ``many people'' is the subject of the sentence.

I will send you any mail that arrives after you have moved to Sudbury.

The indefinite adjective ``any'' modifies the noun ``mail'' and the noun phrase ``any mail'' is the direct object of the compound verb ``will send.''

They found a few goldfish floating belly up in the swan pound.

In this example the indefinite adjective modifies the noun ``goldfish'' and the noun phrase is the direct object of the verb ``found'':

The title of Kelly's favourite game is ``All dogs go to heaven.''

Here the indefinite pronoun ``all'' modifies ``dogs'' and the full title is a subject complement. **interjection** is a word added to a <u>sentence</u> to convey emotion. It is not grammatically related to any other part of the sentence.

You usually follow an interjection with an <u>exclamation mark</u>. Interjections are uncommon in formal academic prose, except in direct quotations.

The **highlighted** words in the following sentences are interjections:

Ouch, that hurt!
Oh no, I forgot that the exam was today.

> **Hey**! Put that down!
>
> I heard one guy say to another guy, "He has a new car, **eh**?"
>
> I don't know about you but, **good lord**, I think taxes are too high!

The [punctuation](#) marks that signal the end of a [sentence](#) are the period, the question mark and the exclamation mark.

You use the **period**, by far the most common of the **end punctuation** marks, to terminate a sentence that makes a statement. You may also use periods with **imperative sentences** that have no sense of urgency or excitement attached:

> Without a doubt, Lady Emily was much happier after her divorce.
>
> Turn right at the stop sign.
>
> Bring me a cup of coffee and a cheese danish.

When you want to express a sense of urgency or very strong emotion, you may end your imperative sentences and statements with an **exclamation mark**:

> Look out below!
>
> Leave this house at once!
>
> I hate him!

You construct a **compound verb** out of an auxiliary verb and another [verb](#).

In particular, you may use an **auxiliary verb** (also known as a **helping verb**) with the verb in order to create the many of the [tenses](#) available in English.

In each of the following [sentences](#), the compound verb appears highlighted:

> Karl Creelman bicycled around in world in 1899, but his diaries and his bicycle **were destroyed**.

The compound verb in this sentence is made up of the auxiliary "were" and the [past participle](#) "destroyed."

The book Seema **was looking** for is under the sofa.

Here the compound verb is made up of the auxiliary verb "was" and the [present participle](#) "looking."

They **will meet** us at the newest café in the market.

In this example the compound verb is made up of the auxiliary verb "will" and the verb "meet."

That dog **has been barking** for three hours; I wonder if someone **will call** the owner.

In this sentence the first compound verb is made up of the two auxiliary verbs ("has" and "been") and a present participle ("barking"). The second compound verb is made up of the auxiliary verb "will" and the verb "call."

Exclamation marks are, however, rare in formal writing. Use them sparingly, if at all.

You should use the **question mark** at the end of a **direct question**:

Who's on first?
Where is my flowered cape?

Be careful not to use a question mark at the end of an [indirect question](#). Indirect questions are simply statements, and therefore end with a period:

I wonder who was chosen as Harvest King in the county fair.
She asked if she could play pinball.
The teacher asked who was chewing gum.

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In this sentence the first compound verb is made up of the two auxiliary verbs ("has" and "been") and a present participle ("barking"). The second compound verb is made up of the auxiliary verb "will" and the verb "call."

English speakers form many verb **tenses** by combining one of principal parts of the verb with one or more auxiliary verbs.

In order to form verb tenses you need a good grasp of the auxiliaries and the **principal parts** of the verb. There are four principal parts: the basic form, the present participle, the past form, and the past participle.

The **basic form** (or **root** of the verb is the form listed in the dictionary and is *usually* identical to the first person singular form of the simple present tense (except in the case of the verb "to be"):

> walk
>
> paint
>
> think
>
> grow
>
> sing

The **infinitive** form of the verb is a compound verb made up of the the preposition "to" and the basic form of the verb:

> to walk
>
> to paint
>
> to think
>
> to grow
>
> to sing

To form the present participle, add "-ing" to the basic form of the verb:

> walking
>
> painting
>
> thinking
>
> growing
>
> singing

Note that you cannot use the present participle as a predicate unless you use an auxiliary verb with it -- the word group "I walking to the store" is an incomplete and ungrammatical sentence, while word group "I am walking to the

store" is a complete sentence. You will often use the present participle as a [modifier](#).

The **past form** of verbs is a little trickier. If the verb is **regular** (or **weak**, you can create the past form by adding "-ed", "-d", or "-t" to the present form. When a basic form ends in "-y", you changed the "-y" to "-i-"; in many cases you should also double terminal consonants before adding "-ed" (see the section on [Spelling words with Double Consonants](#)).

walked

painted

thought

grew

sang

The past participle of regular verbs is usually identical to the past form, while the past participle of irregular verbs is often different:

walked

painted

thought

grown

sung

Irregular Verbs

Irregular verbs form the past participle and the past form without "-(e)d" or "-t", and frequently their past form and past participle are different. For example, the past form of the verb "break" is "broke" and the past participle is "broken".

This list contains the most common verbs that form their [past tenses](#) irregularly:

thrust, thrust The basic part of any word is the **root**; to it, you can add a **prefix** at the beginning and/or a **suffix** at the end to change the meaning. For example, in the word "un**flatter**ing," the root is simply "flatter," while the prefix "un-" makes the word negative, and the suffix "-ing" changes it from a <u>verb</u> into an <u>adjective</u> (specifically, a <u>participle</u>).

English itself does not use prefixes as heavily as it once did, but many English words come from Latin, which uses prefixes and suffixes (you can use the word **affix** to refer either to a prefix or a suffix) quite extensively. For example, the words "prefix," "suffix," and "affix" themselves are all formed from "fix" by the used of prefixes:

- "ad" (to) + "fix" (attached) = "affix"
- "pre" (before) + "fix" = "prefix"
- "sub" (under) + "fix" = "suffix"

Note that both the "-d" of "ad" and the "-b" of "sub" change the last letter.

Here are some of the most common Latin prefixes (for the meanings of the Latin roots, look up the words in a good dictionary):

ab

(away) abrupt, absent, absolve

ad

(to) adverb, advertisment, afflict

in

(not) incapable, indecisive, intolerable

inter

(between, among) intercept, interdependent, interprovincial

intra

(within) intramural, intrapersonal, intraprovincial

pre

(before) prefabricate, preface prefer

post

(after) postpone, postscript, postwar

sub

(under) submarine, subscription, suspect

trans

(across) transfer, transit, translate

wake

woke or waked, waked or woken

weep

wept, wept

win

won, won

wind

wound, wound

wring

wring, wrung

write

wrote, written

When a word ends in "y" preceded by a consonant, you should usually change the "y" to "i" before adding the suffix:

curly *becomes* curlier

party *becomes* parties

thirty *becomes* thirties, thirtieth

However, if the suffix already begins with "i", keep the "y" (except before the suffix "-ize"):

thirty *becomes* thirtyish

fry *becomes* frying

agony *becomes* agonize

memory *becomes* memorize

When the ending "y" is preceded by a **vowel** ("a" "e" "i" "o" or "u"), "y" does not change to "i":

journey *becomes* journeying

trolley *becomes* trolleys Objects

A [verb](#) may be followed by an **object** that completes the verb's meaning. Two kinds of objects follow verbs: direct objects and indirect objects. To determine if a verb has a **direct object**, isolate the verb and make it into a question by placing "whom?" or "what?" after it. The answer, if there is one, is the direct object:

Direct Object

The advertising executive drove **a flashy red Porsche**.

Direct Object

Her secret admirer gave her **a bouquet of flowers**.

The second [sentence](#) above also contains an **indirect object**. An indirect object (which, like a direct object, is always a [noun](#) or [pronoun](#)) is, in a sense, the recipient of the direct object. To determine if a verb has an indirect object, isolate the verb and ask *to whom?*, *to what?*, *for whom?*, or *for what?* after it. The answer is the indirect object.

Not all verbs are followed by objects. Consider the verbs in the following sentences:

The guest speaker **rose** from her chair to protest.

After work, Randy usually **jogs** around the canal.

Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

Verbs that take objects are known as **transitive verbs**. Verbs not followed by objects are called **intransitive verbs**.

Some verbs can be either transitive verbs or intransitive verbs, depending on the context:

Direct Object

I hope the Senators win *the next game*.

No Direct Object

Did we win?

Subject Complements

In addition to the transitive verb and the intransitive verb, there is a third kind of verb called a linking verb. The word (or phrase) which follows a linking verb is called not an object, but a **subject complement**.

The most common linking verb is "be." Other linking verbs are "become," "seem," "appear," "feel," "grow," "look," "smell," "taste," and "sound," among others. Note that some of these are sometimes linking verbs, sometimes transitive verbs, or sometimes intransitive verbs, depending on how you use them:

Linking verb with subject complement

He **was** a radiologist before he **became** a full-time yoga instructor.

Linking verb with subject complement

Your homemade chili **smells** delicious.

Transitive verb with direct object

I can't **smell** anything with this terrible cold.

Intransitive verb with no object

The interior of the beautiful new Buick **smells** strongly of fish.

Note that a subject complement can be either a noun ("radiologist", "instructor") or an adjective ("delicious").

Object Complements

An **object complement** is similar to a subject complement, except that (obviously) it modifies an object rather than a [subject](). Consider this example of a subject complement:

> The driver seems **tired**.

In this case, as explained above, the adjective "tired" modifies the noun "driver," which is the subject of the sentence.

Sometimes, however, the noun will be the object, as in the following example:

> I consider the driver **tired**.

In this case, the noun "driver" is the direct object of the verb "consider," but the adjective "tired" is still acting as its complement.

In general, verbs which have to do with perceiving, judging, or changing something can cause their direct objects to take an object complement:

> Paint it **black**.
> The judge ruled her **out of order**.
> I saw the Prime Minister **sleeping**.

In every case, you could reconstruct the last part of the sentence into a sentence of its own using a subject complement: "it is black," "she is out of order," "the Prime Minister is sleeping."

You will usually use the **semicolon** to link [independent clauses]() not joined by a [co-ordinating conjunction](). Semicolons should join only those independent clauses that are closely related in meaning.

> Abdominal exercises help prevent back pain; proper posture is also important.

The auditors made six recommendations; however, only one has been adopted so far.

Do not use a semicolon to link a dependent clause or a phrase to an independent clause.

[WRONG] Although gaining and maintaining a high level of physical fitness takes a good deal of time; the effort pays off in the long run.

[RIGHT] Although gaining and maintaining a high level of pWhen to Use a Colon

The **colon** focuses the reader's attention on what is to follow, and as a result, you should use it to introduce a list, a summation, or an idea that somehow completes the introductory idea. You may use the colon in this way, however, only after an independent clause:

He visited three cities during his stay in the Maritimes: Halifax, Saint John and Moncton.
Their lobbying efforts were ultimately useless: the bill was soundly defeated.
My mother gave me one good piece of advice: to avoid wasting time and energy worrying about things I cannot change.

When Not to Use a Colon

You should not place a colon between a verb and its object or subject complement, or between a preposition and its object:

[WRONG] His neighbour lent him: a pup-tent, a wooden canoe, and a slightly battered Coleman stove. (colon between verb and objects)
[RIGHT] His neighbour lent him a pup-tent, a wooden canoe, and a slightly battered Coleman stove.

[WRONG] Her three goals are: to improve her public speaking skills, to increase her self-confidence and to sharpen her sales techniques. (colon between verb and subject complement)

[RIGHT] Her three goals are to improve her public speaking skills, to increase her self-confidence and to sharpen her sales techniques.

[WRONG] We travelled to: London, Wales and Scotland. (colon between preposition and objects)

[RIGHT] We travelled to London, Wales and Scotland.

hysical fitness takes a good deal of time, the effort pays off in the long run.

Generally, you should not place a semicolon before a co-ordinating conjunction that links two independent clauses. The only exception to this guideline is if the two independent clauses are very long and already contain a number of commas.

[WRONG] The economy has been sluggish for four years now; but some signs of improvement are finally beginning to show.

[RIGHT] The economy has been sluggish for four years now, but some signs of improvement are finally beginning to show.

It may be useful to remember that, for the most part, you should use a semicolon only where you could also use a period.

There is one exception to this guideline. When punctuating a list or series of elements in which one or more of the elements contains an internal comma, you should use semicolons instead of commas to separate the elements from one another:

Henry's mother believes three things: that every situation, no matter how grim, will be happily resolved; that no one knows more about human nature than she; and that Henry, who is thirty-five years old, will never be able to do his own laundry.

The exact rules for **quotation marks** vary greatly from language to language and even from country to country within the English-speaking world. In North American usage, you should place double quotation marks (") before and after directly quoted material and words of dialogue:

> One critic ended his glowing review with this superlative: "It is simply the best film ever made about potato farming."
> May replied, "This is the last cookie."

You also use quotation marks are used to set off certain titles, usually those of minor or short works -- essays, short stories, short poems, songs, articles in periodicals, etc. For titles of longer works and separate publications, you should use italics (or underlined, if italics are not available). Use italics for titles of books, magazines, periodicals, newspapers, films, plays, long poems, long musical works, and television and radio programs.

> Once when I was sick, my father read me a story called "The Happy Flower," which was later made into a movie entitled *Flower Child*, starring Tiny Tim.

Sometimes, you will use quotation marks to set off words specifically referred to as terms, though some publishers prefer italics:

> I know you like the word "unique," but do you really have to use it ten times in one essay?
> "Well" is sometimes a noun, sometimes an adverb, sometimes an adjective and sometimes a verb.

Quotations Marks with Other Punctuation

One question that frequently arises with quotation marks is where to place other punctuation marks in relation to them. Again, these rules vary from region to region, but North American usage is quite simple:

1. Commas and periods always go inside the quotation marks.

   I know you are fond of the story "Children of the Corn," but is it an appropriate subject for your essay?
   "At last," said the old woman, "I can say I am truly happy."

2. Semicolons and colons always go outside the quotation marks.

   She never liked the poem "Dover Beach"; in fact, it was her least favourite piece of Victorian literature.
   He clearly states his opinion in the article "Of Human Bondage": he believes that television has enslaved and diminished an entire generation.

3. Question marks, exclamation marks, and dashes go inside quotation marks when they are part of the quotation, and outside when they do not.

   Where is your copy of "The Raven"?
   "How cold is it outside?" my mother asked.

Note that in North American usage, you should use single quotation marks (') only to set off quoted material (or a minor title) inside a quotation.

"I think she said `I will try,' not `I won't try,'" explained Sandy. You should use an **apostrophe** to form the possessive case of a noun or to show that you have left out letters in a **contraction**. Note that you should not generally use contractions in formal, academic writing.

   The convertible's engine has finally died. (The noun "convertible's" is in the possessive case)
   I haven't seen my roommate for two weeks. (The verb "haven't" is a contraction of "have not")

To form the possessive of a plural noun ending in "s," simply place an apostrophe after the "s."

He has his three sons' futures in mind.

In many suburbs, the houses' designs are too much alike.

Possessive pronouns -- for example, "hers," "yours," and "theirs" -- do not take apostrophes. This is the case for the possessive pronoun "its" as well: when you write "it's" with an apostrophe, you are writing a contraction for "it is."

The spaceship landed hard, damaging its radar receiver. ("its" is the possessive pronouAs noted in the section on commas, you can use a **dash** at the beginning and end of parenthetical information. Usually, you will use dashes when you want to emphasise the information, but you might also use them if the parenthetical information is too long or abrupt to be set off with commas.

I think you would look fine wearing either the silk blouse -- the one with the blue pattern -- or the angora sweater. (abrupt interruption)

The idea of returning to the basics in the classroom -- a notion which, incidentally, has been quietly supported for years by many respected teachers -- is finally gaining some currency with school administrators. (lengthy interruption containing internal commas)

You can use a dash to conclude a list of elements, focusing them all toward one point.

Chocolate, cream, honey and peanut butter -- all go into this fabulously rich dessert.

Dashes also mark sharp turns in thought.

We pored over exotic, mouth-watering menus from Nemo Catering, Menu du Jour, Taste Temptations, and three other reputable caterers -- and rejected them all.

n)

It's your mother on the phone. ("it's" is the contraction of "it is")

Adverbs and adjectives with –ly: some problems

He hardly works, she works hard

The commonest way to form an adverb is to ad –*ly* to the adjective:

quick – quickly, tidy – tidily, nice – nicely, preposterous – preposterously

There are however a number of exceptions and variations to this rule:

1. **Adjectives ending in –ly:**

a. These may have the same form as the adverb

   e.g.   He   was   a   **kindly**   and   reasonable   man.
   e.g. We went for a **leisurely** walk around the garden.

b. They may require an adverbial phrase.

   e.g. She was a **friendly** person, she always treated us in a **friendly** manner.

c. They may have no direct adverbial equivalent.

   e.g. He is a **likely** candidate.

- **Adjectives which have the same form as adverbs:**

   e.g.   They   woke   **early**   and   caught   the   **early**   train.
   e.g. He drove **fast** on the **fast** lane.

- **Adjectives which have the same form as adverbs (see above), but which also have a**

   –ly adverb with a different use.

e.g. She looked **deep** into his eyes, and she was **deeply** ashamed.

e.g. She arrived **late**. **Lately** it had become a habit of hers.

- **Adjectives with only a –ly adverb with a different use**

bare cold cool hot present warm

e.g. We can do nothing at the **present** time. We shall do something **presently**.

e.g. It was **cool** in the room, the teacher looked at me **coolly**.

e.g. It was **hot** in the police station, the thief **hotly** den

An adverb may be a single word, such as *quickly*, *here* or *yesterday*. However, adverbs can also be phrases, some made with prepositions, others made with infinitives. This page will explain the basic types of adverb phrases (sometimes called "adverbial phrases") and how to recognize them.

Basic types of adverbs

In the section on adverbs, you learned about three basic types of adverb: *manner*, *place* and *time* adverbs. There are at least two more that are important. *Frequency* adverbs answer the question "How often?" about an action. *Purpose* adverbs answer the question "Why?". Here are some examples:

Type	Adverb	Example
Frequency	usually	*Mika usually gets up early.*
Purpose	for fun	*I write computer*

programs for fun.

While the first example, *usually*, is a single word, the second example (*for fun*) is a phrase consisting of a preposition and a noun -- in other words, it is a *prepositional phrase* which functions as an *adverb phrase*.

Adverb phrases made with prepositions

All kinds of adverb phrases can be made with prepositions. Here are some examples:

Type	Adverb phrase	Example
Manner	with a hammer	*The carpenter hit the nail with a hammer.*
Place	next door	*The woman who lives next door is a doctor.*
Time	before the holidays	*We must finish our project before the holidays.*
Frequency	every month	*Jodie buys two CDs every month.*
Purpose	for his mother	*Jack bought the flowers for his mother.*

Adverb phrases made with infinitives

Another kind of adjective phrase can be made with the infinitive form of a verb. Most of these phrases express purpose, as in these examples:

Type	Adverb phrase	Example
Purpose	to buy a car	*I'm saving my money to buy a car.*
Purpose	to support the team	*The students all showed up to support the team.*
Purpose	to show to her mother	*Sally brought a painting home from school to show to her mother.*

Teaching Grammar

Goals and Techniques for Teaching Grammar

The goal of grammar instruction is to enable students to carry out their communication purposes. This goal has three implications:

- Students need overt instruction that connects grammar points with larger communication contexts.
- Students do not need to master every aspect of each grammar point, only those that are relevant to the immediate communication task.
- Error correction is not always the instructor's first responsibility.

Overt Grammar Instruction

Adult students appreciate and benefit from direct instruction that allows them to apply critical thinking skills to language learning. Instructors can take advantage of this by providing explanations that give students a descriptive understanding (declarative knowledge) of each point of grammar.

- Teach the grammar point in the target language or the students' first language or both. The goal is to facilitate understanding.

- Limit the time you devote to grammar explanations to 10 minutes, especially for lower level students whose ability to sustain attention can be limited.
- Present grammar points in written and oral ways to address the needs of students with different learning styles.

An important part of grammar instruction is providing examples. Teachers need to plan their examples carefully around two basic principles:

- Be sure the examples are accurate and appropriate. They must present the language appropriately, be culturally appropriate for the setting in which they are used, and be to the point of the lesson.
- Use the examples as teaching tools. Focus examples on a particular theme or topic so that students have more contact with specific information and vocabulary.
-

Relevance of Grammar Instruction

In the communicative competence model, the purpose of learning grammar is to learn the language of which the grammar is a part. Instructors therefore teach grammar forms and structures in relation to meaning and use for the specific communication tasks that students need to complete.

Compare the traditional model and the communicative competence model for teaching the English past tense:

Traditional: grammar for grammar's sake

- Teach the regular *-ed* form with its two pronunciation variants
- Teach the doubling rule for verbs that end in *d* (for example, *wed-wedded*)
- Hand out a list of irregular verbs that students must memorize
- Do pattern practice drills for *-ed*
- Do substitution drills for irregular verbs

Communicative competence: grammar for communication's sake

- Distribute two short narratives about recent experiences or events, each one to half of the class
- Teach the regular *-ed* form, using verbs that occur in the texts as examples. Teach the pronunciation and doubling rules if those forms occur in the texts.
- Teach the irregular verbs that occur in the texts.
- Students read the narratives, ask questions about points they don't understand.
- Students work in pairs in which one member has read Story A and the other Story B. Students interview one another; using the information from the interview, they then write up or orally repeat the story they have not read.

Error Correction

At all proficiency levels, learners produce language that is not exactly the language used by native speakers. Some of the differences are grammatical, while others involve vocabulary selection and mistakes in the selection of language appropriate for different contexts.

In responding to student communication, teachers need to be careful not to focus on error correction to the detriment of communication and confidence building. Teachers need to let students know when they are making errors so that they can work on improving. Teachers also need to build students' confidence in their ability to use the language by focusing on the content of their communication rather than the grammatical form.

Teachers can use error correction to support language acquisition, and avoid using it in ways that undermine students' desire to communicate in the language, by taking cues from context.

- When students are doing structured output activities that focus on development of new language skills, use error correction to guide them.

Example:

Student *(in class)*: I buy a new car yesterday.
Teacher: You *bought* a new car yesterday. Remember, the past tense of buy is bought.

- When students are engaged in communicative activities, correct errors only if they interfere with comprehensibility. Respond using correct forms, but without stressing them.

Example:

Student *(greeting teacher)* : I buy a new car yesterday!
Teacher: You bought a new car? That's exciting! What kind**.**

1 Provide Appropriate Input

Input is the language to which students are exposed: teacher talk, listening activities, reading passages, and the language heard and read outside of class. Input gives learners the material they need to develop their ability to use the language on their own.

Language input has two forms. *Finely tuned* input

- Is matched to learners' current comprehension level and connected to what they already know
- Focuses on conscious learning of a specific point: the pronunciation of a word, the contrast in the uses of two verb tenses, new vocabulary, useful social formulas
- Is controlled by the instructor or textbook author
- Is used in the presentation stage of a lesson

Roughly tuned input

- Is more complex than learners' current proficiency and stretches the boundaries of their current knowledge
- Focuses on authentic use of language in listening or reading passages
- Is used "as is," with minimal alteration by the instructor or textbook author
- Is used in the activity stage of the lesson

Roughly tuned input challenges student to use listening and reading strategies to aid comprehension. When selecting authentic materials for use as roughly tuned input, look for listening and reading selections that are one level of proficiency higher than students' current level. This will ensure that students will be challenged by the material without being overwhelmed by its difficulty.

2. Use Language in Authentic Ways

In order to learn a language, instead of merely learning about it, students need as much as possible to hear and read the language as native speakers use it. Instructors can make this happen in two ways.

Teacher talk: Always try to use the language as naturally as possible when you are talking to students. Slowing down may seem to make the message more comprehensible, but it also distorts the subtle shifts in pronunciation that occur in naturally paced speech.

- Speak at a normal rate
- Use vocabulary and sentence structures with which students are familiar
- State the same idea in different ways to aid comprehension

Materials: Give students authentic reading material from newspapers, magazines, and other print sources. To make them accessible,

- Review them carefully to ensure that the reading level is appropriate

- Introduce relevant vocabulary and grammatical structures in advance
- Provide context by describing the content and typical formats for the type of material (for example, arrival and departure times for travel schedules)

Advertisements, travel brochures, packaging, and street signs contain short statements that students at lower levels can manage. The World Wide Web is a rich resource for authentic materials. Reading authentic materials motivates students at all levels because it gives them the sense that they really are able to use the language.

3. Provide Context

Context includes knowledge of

- the topic or content
- the vocabulary and language structures in which the content is usually presented
- the social and cultural expectations associated with the content

To help students have an authentic experience of understanding and using language, prepare them by raising their awareness of the context in which it occurs.

- Ask them what they know about the topic
- Ask what they can predict from the title or heading of a reading selection or the opening line of a listening selection
- Review the vocabulary (including idiomatic expressions) and sentence structures that are usually found in that type of material
- Review relevant social and cultural expectations

4. Design Activities with a Purpose

Ordinarily, communication has a purpose: to convey information. Activities in the language classroom simulate communication outside the classroom when they are structured with such a purpose. In these classroom activities, students use the language to fill an information gap by getting answers or expanding a partial understanding. For example, students work in pairs, and each is given half of a map, grid, or list needed to complete a task. The pair then talk to each other until they both have all the information.

5. Use Task-based Activities

Fluent speakers use language to perform tasks such as solving problems, developing plans, and working together to complete projects. The use of similar task-based activities in the classroom is an excellent way to encourage students to use the language. Tasks may involve solving a word problem, creating a crossword puzzle, making a video, preparing a presentation, or drawing up a plan.

6. Encourage Collaboration

Whenever possible, ask students to work in pairs or small groups. Give students structure in the form of a defined task and outcome. This structure will allow students to collaborate as they develop a work plan, discuss the substance of the task, and report the outcome. They will thus use language in a variety of ways and learn from each other.

Effective collaborative activities have three characteristics.

- Communication gap: Each student has relevant information that the others don't have

- Task orientation: Activity has a defined outcome, such as solving a problem or drawing a map
- Time limit: Students have a preset amount of time to complete the task

7. Use an Integrated Approach

Integration has two forms. *Mode integration* is the combination of listening, speaking, reading, and writing in classroom activities. By asking students to use two or more modes, instructors create activities that imitate real world language use.

Content integration is bringing content from students' fields of study into the language curriculum. University students often find it instructive to read, discuss, and write about material whose content they already know, because their knowledge of the topic helps them understand and use the language. They are able to scaffold: to build on existing knowledge as they increase their language proficiency. For students who plan to study and/or work in a field that will require them to use the language they are learning, integration of content can be a powerful motivator.

8. Address Grammar Consciously

University students usually need and appreciate direct instruction in points of grammar that are related to classroom activities. These students often have knowledge of the rules associated with standard use of their native language (metalinguistic knowledge) and can benefit from development of similar knowledge in the target language and discussion of similarities and differences.

Discuss points of grammar in the contexts where they arise. Asking students to think through a rule in the context of an effort to express themselves clearly is a more effective way of helping them internalize the rule than teaching the rule in isolation.

Two types of grammar rules to address when using authentic materials:

- Prescriptive rules: State how the language "should" or "must" be used; define what is "correct." These are the rules that are taught in language textbooks.
- Descriptive rules: State how the language is actually used by fluent speakers. The degree to which descriptive rules differ from prescriptive rules depends on the setting (casual/formal use of language), the topic, and the backgrounds of the speakers.

9. Adjust Feedback/Error Correction to Situation

In the parts of a lesson that focus on form (see Planning a Lesson), direct and immediate feedback is needed and expected. Encourage students to self-correct by waiting after they have spoken or by asking them to try again.

Feedback techniques:

- Paraphrase a student's utterances, modeling the correct forms
- Ask students to clarify their utterances, providing paraphrases of their own

Avoid feeding students the correct forms every time. Gradually teaching them to depend less on you and more on themselves is what language teaching is all about.

In the parts of a lesson that focus on communication activities, the flow of talk should not be interrupted by the teacher's corrections. When students address

you, react to the content of their utterances, not just the form. Your response is a useful comprehension check for students, and on the affective level it shows that you are listening to what they say. Make note of recurring errors you hear so that you can address them with the whole group in the feedback session later.

10. Include Awareness of Cultural Aspects of Language Use

Languages are cognitive systems, but they also express ideas and transmit cultural values. When you are discussing language use with your students, it is important to include information on the social, cultural, and historical context that certain language forms carry for native speakers. Often these explanations include reference to what a native speaker would say, and why.

Culture is expressed and transmitted through magazines and newspapers, radio and television programs, movies, and the internet. Using media as authentic materials in the classroom can expand students' perspectives and generate interesting discussions about the relationships between language and culture.

Developing Grammar Activities

Many courses and textbooks, especially those designed for lower proficiency levels, use a specified sequence of grammatical topics as their organizing principle. When this is the case, classroom activities need to reflect the grammar point that is being introduced or reviewed. By contrast, when a course curriculum follows a topic sequence, grammar points can be addressed as they come up.

In both cases, instructors can use the Larsen-Freeman pie chart as a guide for developing activities.

For curricula that introduce grammatical forms in a specified sequence, instructors need to develop activities that relate form to meaning and use.

- Describe the grammar point, including form, meaning, and use, and give examples (structured input)
- Ask students to practice the grammar point in communicative drills (structured output)
- Have students do a communicative task that provides opportunities to use the grammar point (communicative output)

For curricula that follow a sequence of topics, instructors need to develop activities that relate the topical discourse (use) to meaning and form.

- Provide oral or written input (audiotape, reading selection) that addresses the topic (structured input)
- Review the point of grammar, using examples from the material (structured input)
- Ask students to practice the grammar point in communicative drills that focus on the topic (structured output)
- Have students do a communicative task on the topic (communicative output)

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When instructors have the opportunity to develop part or all of the course curriculum, they can develop a series of contexts based on the real world tasks that students will need to perform using the language, and then teach grammar and vocabulary in relation to those contexts.

For example, students who plan to travel will need to understand public address announcements in airports and train stations. Instructors can use audiotape simulations to provide input; teach the grammatical forms that typically occur in such announcements; and then have students practice by asking and answering questions about what was announced.

Assessing Grammar Proficiency

Authentic Assessment

Just as mechanical drills do not teach students the language, mechanical test questions do not assess their ability to use it in authentic ways. In order to provide authentic assessment of students' grammar proficiency, an evaluation must reflect real-life uses of grammar in context. This means that the activity must have a purpose other than assessment and require students to demonstrate their level of grammar proficiency by completing some task.

To develop authentic assessment activities, begin with the types of tasks that students will actually need to do using the language. Assessment can then take the form of communicative drills and communicative activities like those used in the teaching process.

For example, the activity based on audiotapes of public address announcements can be converted into an assessment by having students respond orally or in writing to questions about a similar tape. In this type of assessment, the instructor uses a checklist or rubric to evaluate the student's understanding and/or use of grammar in context.

Mechanical Tests

Mechanical tests do serve one purpose: They motivate students to memorize. They can therefore serve as prompts to encourage memorization of irregular forms and vocabulary items. Because they test only memory capacity, not

language ability, they are best used as quizzes and given relatively little weight in evaluating student performance and progress.

The following strategies are designed to enable ESL Learners to develop their English language skills in both social and academic contexts.

Broad Classroom Strategies:

- ❖ Create an environment where learners feel secure and are prepared to take risks

- ❖ Support and value learners' languages and cultures

- ❖ Build on the knowledge, skills and understandings that students bring to the learning context

- ❖ Build on the linguistic understandings students have of their own language

- ❖ Encourage the use of the learners' first language if the learner is literate in that language

- ❖ Use themes and topics which are relevant to learners' particular needs

- ❖ Expose learners to socio-cultural information which enables them to understand and participate in Australian culture and society

- ❖ Focus on purposeful communicative activities which are comprehensible and appropriate to the learner's age and needs

- ❖ Generally teach the macro skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing in an integrated way, although at times there may be a need to focus on a particular aspect of one eg pronunciation, listening to specific instructions

- ❖ Focus on developing learners' oral language skills for oral language development and to support writing

- ❖ Support the learners' language skills development through scaffolding the learners' language

❖ Explicitly teach new language (vocabulary, text types, grammar, sound knowledge, pronunciation, intonation) in the context of a theme or topic

❖ Use pair and group work and peer/cross age tutoring to maximise language interaction in a low stress environment and to encourage risk taking

❖ Jointly deconstruct and construct texts to model how texts work to achieve their purposes

❖ Use an experiential approach to provide meaningful contexts

❖ Use visual cues wherever necessary to clarify and reinforce concepts

❖ Use graphic organizers (diagrams, timelines, concept maps etc) to represent and organize ideas and to develop thinking skills

❖ Recycle language to ensure its learning

❖ Encourage older learners to keep a glossary or a personal dictionary of words and meanings

❖ Ensure that assessment tasks, activities and criteria are relevant to the student's stage of English language development

❖ Use SSO support to work with a student on individual needs

Teacher talk

❖ Keep talk to a minimum

❖ Use clear, common and consistent instructions and repeat or rephrase if necessary

❖ Speak at a normal pace and volume

❖ Don't use too much jargon

❖ Support instructions with visual cues as much as possible

Specific Strategies/Activities:

Teaching oral language

❖ To develop oral communication skills, focus on activities that encourage learners to talk in a supportive environment such as in pairs or groups.

Such activities include:

❖ information gap activities where learners have to exchange information in order to complete a task

❖ opinion gap activities where learners share and discuss their own personal feelings, attitudes or preferences about ideas or topics

❖ mime and role-play

❖ general communicative activities eg games, group work, songs

❖ everyday classroom interactions

To develop the more formal oral language skills:

❖ formal talks, including the oral genres, and reports

❖ debates

❖ performance

With different students, there may be a need to focus on particular aspects of oral language such as pronunciation – this can be done on an individual basis with SSO support.

ESL learners may experience difficulty in hearing and producing some English sounds because they do not appear in the learner's language.

Similarly, stress, rhythm and intonation will also differ from the first language.

Provide many opportunities to hear and practise language through rhymes, songs, chants, games, drama etc.

Classroom Planning with ESL in Mind

As ESL students are integrated into age-appropriate classes, teachers face the challenge of meeting their needs as well as those of their English-speaking peers. It is common for teachers to ask themselves questions such as:

- How can I address all of the prescribed learning outcomes in the curriculum when I have to "make haste slowly" with the ESL learner?
- How can I get the ESL student(s) to grasp the subject matter, understand instructions, and participate in classroom activities?
- Do I try to teach grammar? ... phonics?
- How much should I attempt to individualize instruction?
- What use, if any, should students be allowed or encouraged to make of their first language as part of classroom learning?

When first bringing ESL students into a mainstream class, some degree of special preparation is helpful. This can include:

- familiarizing yourself with the students' individual profiles (cultural background, prior education, current skills in English, etc.) by reviewing their initial assessment records and meeting with the ESL specialist
- conducting your own quick assessment of students' knowledge as appropriate for their grade level (e.g., for Primary students, vocabulary related to colours, numbers, shapes, directions, school facilities; for Secondary students, vocabulary related to science or math conceptssee the section on "Assessing, Evaluating, and Reporting on Student Progress")
- acquiring visual instructional aids or other materials and supplies that are

particularly useful for enhancing or complementing verbal explanations (see the section on "Finding and Using Resources" for suggestions).

Experienced teachers have found that ESL students make better, faster, progress in the long run if they are given sufficient time to absorb new input and are not pressured to complete work or meet the usual age-level performance expectations right away.

Instructional Tips and Strategies

ESL students who have been placed in a mainstream learning environment typically face a threefold challenge. They are simultaneously working to develop:

- a grasp of the knowledge, skills, and attitudes specific to various subjects
- a better command of the English language
- an ability to interact with others and function within the social environment of the school.

There are many possible ways in which teachers can adjust their instructional practice to help ESL students meet these challenges, without jeopardizing the learning of other students. Several adaptations are suggested here.[5] These are based on the recognition that:

- for ESL students, even teachers who do not think of themselves as teachers of language have an important role to play in facilitating linguistic development (teaching in any subject area consequently needs to involve some focus on language)
- teachers need to use varied forms of presentation and encourage students to represent their knowledge and understanding in a variety of ways in order to respond effectively to diversity within the student population.

Teachers will find that many of the strategies and approaches suggested here also help enhance the learning achievement of English-speaking students in their class (es). While most can be applied or adapted for use in any classroom that includes

ESL students, teachers will need to select from these strategies and approaches on the basis of their students' needs. It is important to note that, for funding purposes, where the only additional services provided to the students are adaptations within the mainstream classroom, there must be documentation of adaptations specifically designed to address the needs of the ESL student which are distinct from those that would normally be provided to address student differences. Some of the suggestions may work best with younger (e.g., primary and intermediate) students, while others might be more readily implemented with older students.

For ease of reference, the approaches and strategies have been grouped into two broad categories: those pertaining to how the teacher uses language to present information or interact with the students, and those pertaining to classroom procedures or instructional planning (i.e., provision of contextual supports to facilitate the learning of ESL and English-speaking students alike).

Definition:

- Of, relating to, or expressing the mood of a verb.

Formulas

- (Present): Subj + modal + verb + obj.
- (Present perfect): Subj + modal + have + past participle + obj.

may: Indicates possibility:

- Mr. Soo may be in his office.
- Also used to indicate permission: May I borrow your pen? Yes, you may.

might: Indicates possibility:

- I might go to the beach this weekend.

should: Indicates advice or an obligation somewhat less than "must":

- I really should call Tom about our date on Friday.

Also used to indicate a degree of certainty somewhat less than "must":

- It's nine o'clock. Vinny should be in the classroom by now.

ought to: Equal to but less frequently used than "should":

- You ought to consider the consequences before you make that decision.

have to: Indicates obligation somewhat more than "should" and less than "must":

- I have to take my clothes to the cleaners.

must: Indicates an obligation or necessity:

- You must have a working visa to get a job in the United States.

Also indicates certainty when used in present:

- I heard a noise. Someone must be downstairs.

And present perfect:

- It's late! Mary must have gotten stuck in traffic

can: Indicates ability (in the same sense as able to):

- I can pick you up at 4:30 Monday.

could: Indicate an ability in the past:

- I didn't go to the party last night, but I could have gone.

Note that the negative forms of "should", "must" and "ought" to are formed with don't have to :

- I must have a passport to enter Spain, but I don't have to have a visa.

An In-depth Look at Modals used in the Present and the Future

(be) able to	can	can't	could	don't have to
don't need to	had better	have (got) to	may	may as well/might as well
might	must	must not	need	needn't
ought to	shall	shan't	should	will
won't	would	wouldn't		

(be) able to	ability, less used than *can* e.g. I'm not able to come to the game on Friday.

can	ability e.g. Can you play the piano?
	asking for and giving permission e.g. "Mom, can I go the cinema tonight?" "No, you can't. You have homework to do"
	offer e.g. Can I help you?
	request, instruction e.g. Can you switch on the light for me?
	capability e.g. The summers in England can be really unpredictable.
	with *be* to make criticisms e.g. Susan can be a real pain in the neck at times.

can't	ability e.g. I can't come to the game on Friday.
	when you feel sure something is not possible (opposite of must) e.g. The tennis match can't be over yet. (I'm sure it isn't).

could	possibility or uncertainty (can also use *might*) e.g. He could be the one for you!
	request (more polite than *can*) e.g. Could you switch on the light for me?
	suggestion e.g. We could go on a picnic this afternoon.
	asking for and giving permission e.g. "Could I use your phone?" "Yes, of course you can"
	unwillingness e.g. I couldn't possibly leave Tom alone while he's in this state.
	with comparative adjectives to express possibility or impossibility e.g. I could be fitter. e.g. He couldn't study harder.

don't have to	when you don't need to do something (but you can if you want)

	e.g. You don't have to go to school if you don't want to.

	not necessary to do something (more used than *needn't*) e.g. You don't need to come to the party if you don't want to.
don't need to	

	strong advice (less used than *should*) e.g. You'd better do the washing up now. e.g. I'd better not go out tonight, because I have to get up early tomorrow.
had better	

	necessity, impersonal, not for personal feelings, but for a rule or situation. If you are unsure whether to use *must* or *have to*, it is usually safer to use *have to*. e.g. I have to get up early tomorrow to catch the train to the office.
have (got) to	

	to express *although* in clauses e.g. I may be married to you, but that doesn't give you the right to treat me like dirt.
may	possibility or uncertainty (formal) e.g. There may be a cure for AIDS within the next ten years.
	asking for and giving permission (less usual, more formal)

	e.g. "May I use your phone?" "Yes, of course you may"

may as well/might as well	describes the only thing left to do, something which the speaker is not enthusiastic about e.g. I'm so bored, I may as well do some housework.

might	possibility or uncertainty e.g. There might be a cure for AIDS within the next ten years.
	unreal situation e.g. If I knew her better, I might invite her to the ball.

must	when you feel sure something is true (opposite of *can't*) e.g. The tennis match must be over by now. (I'm sure it is).
	necessity, personal feelings e.g. I haven't spoken to Liz for ages. I must give her a call.
	order, strong suggestion e.g. You must stop smoking or you'll get lung cancer.

must not	prohibition (negative order)

	e.g. You must not leave the table until you have finished your dinner.

need	as a normal verb e.g. Do you need me to help you?
	in questions (less usual) e.g. Need you make so much mess?

needn't	not necessary to do something (unusual) e.g. You needn't come to the party if you don't want to.

ought to	expectation (can use *should*) e.g. If you like Picasso, you ought to enjoy the exhibition.
	recommendation (can use *should*) e.g. You ought to have more driving lessons before you take the test.
	criticism (can use *should*) e.g. You ought not to shout at your mother like that.

shall	certainty or desire (mainly British English) e.g. I shall give up chocolate for Lent.
	in formal rules and regulations (mainly British English)

	e.g. Racism or sexism shall not be tolerated in this building.
	in questions to ask for instructions and decisions, and to make offers and suggestions (mainly British English) e.g. What shall I do? When shall we come and see you? Shall we go to the cinema this evening?

shan't	certainty (less usual, mostly British English) e.g. I shan't be late for the meeting.

should	expectation (can use *ought to*) e.g. If you like Picasso, you should enjoy the exhibition.
	suggestion, advice, opinion (can use *ought to*) e.g. You should have more driving lessons before you take the test.
	when something is not right or as you expect it e.g. The price on this can of beans is wrong. It should say $1.20, not $2.20.
	criticism (can use *ought to*) e.g. You shouldn't shout at your mother like that.
	uncertainty e.g. Should I ask her out on a date?
	should + words of thinking, to make an opinion less direct e.g. I should think he could find a more

	compatible match.
	with *be* and adjectives describing chance, including *odd, strange, typical, natural, interesting, surprised, surprising, funny* (=odd) and *What a coincidence.* e.g. It's odd that he should ask you so many personal questions.
	after *in case* to emphasise unlikelihood e.g. I'm not going out tonight in case she should call me.
	If…..should e.g. If Jane should drop by when I am out, tell her to come back later.
	polite order or instruction e.g. Applications should be sent by 3rd January.

will	assumption e.g. Oh, that'll be John on the phone.
	request (*can* and *could* are more common) e.g. Will you go to the shop for me?
	intention or willingness e.g. "I'll take gran's pearls then". "You won't!" "I will!"
	order e.g. Will you please shut up?
	insistence e.g. "I won't clean my room!"

	"Yes you will!"
	habits and typical behaviour e.g. Sarah will sit and gaze at the stars all night.
	criticism e.g. She will drink too much when she goes out.

won't	**emphatically forbid an action, in response to a *will* expression** e.g. "I'll take gran's pearls then". "You won't!" "I will!"
	refusal e.g. "I won't clean my room!" "Yes you will!"

would	**request (*can* and *could* are more common)** e.g. Would you go to the shop for me?
	would like - offer/invitation e.g. Would you like a cup of tea?
	after *be*, followed by adjectives *doubtful, unlikely,* to emphasise a tentative action e.g. It's doubtful that he would be there in time of need.
	annoying habit, typical of a person e.g. She would ask me for money, wouldn't she?

	certainty in a suppressed conditional sentence e.g. I would never agree to that. (even if he asked me)

	certainty in a suppressed conditional sentence e.g. I wouldn't agree to that. (even if he asked me
wouldn't	

MODAL AUXILIARIES -- form

QUESTIONS, NEGATIVE, AUXILIARIES with MODAL AUXILIARY or SIMILAR PHRASE:

A. "TRUE" MODALS:	B. PHRASES WITH *BE**	ALL FOLLOWED BY:
He **should** .. . **Should** he .. ? He **shouldn't** .. .	He **is** able to .. . **Is** he able to .. ? He **isn't** able to .. .	
will ('ll) . . . . shall . . . . may would ('d) . . should . . might *can . . . . must could . . . . . (ought to)*	*be able to . . . . be going to be supposed to be allowed to be permitted to*	
C. PHRASES THAT NEED *DO**	D. SPECIAL CASES	... work
He ha**s** to .. . **Does** he have to.. ? He **doesn't** have to .. .	He **had** better .. . **Had** he better .. ? He **had** better **not**..	... have worked
	He has got to** ..	
have to need to use to	**(present only, no questions or negative)	

* these are "finite" verbs, and can have MANY tenses (*has never been able to .. / didn't have to ...* etc. (*used to* is only past) they can also FOLLOW "true" modals (except *used to*) (*should be able to / might have to ..* etc.)

FORMS FOLLOWING THE MODAL AUXILIARIES:

can*						
could*	eat					Simple
may		eaten			PRESENT/ FUTURE	Passive
might	be	eating				Progressive
must		being	eaten			passive progressive
(shall)						
should		eaten			P A S T	Simple
ought to			eaten			Passive
will**	have	been	eating			Progressive
would*			being	eaten		passive progressive

* no have after can (but possible after can't)

* * will have is perfect, not past (also shall?)

** *could and would can have both present and past meanings (even without have)

MODAL AUXILIARIES -- meaning -- a general overview

probability (guessing)			advisability (judging)			conditionality (if .., unreal) (a kind of probability)	
nonpast	(how sure?) %	past (unknown)	nonpast	(how advisable? / how much choice?)	past (*have* = unreal)	nonpast (unreal)	past (unreal)
can't couldn't	*disbelief* 0%	can't have couldn't have					
can	*ability/potential >0%*	could	**can**	*permission*	could	--	--
may might could*	*guessing <50% (maybe / maybe not)*	may have might have could* have	**may might could***	*permission* *suggestion/option*	-- -- could* have	**-- might could**	-- might have could have
should	*using logic >50%*	should	**shoul**	*advice*	*criticism*	(should = real/unlikel	

must	(expectation) (conclusion)	have* must have	d must	necessity	should have ___ had to*	y) ___ --	
will	future 100%??	(did/will have)	will	offer / willingness / refusal	would	would	would have

Tips for teaching grammar

Conjugations of the English Verb

To conjugate a verb means to make a systematic list of all of its various forms we use different forms of the same verb in situations like the change from count to count to counted and so on.

There are two general areas in which conjugation occurs; for person and for tense
Conjugation for person occurs when the verb changes form, depending on whether it is governed by a first second or third person subject. This gives three conjugations for any verb depending on who is acting as the subject of the verb for example, we have I count, you count, and he count. Note that only the third conjunction really shows a difference. In addition to the above, we can have the same three persons in the plural form.

While most English verbs simply do not show extensive conjugation forms for person, an exception is the verb to be. "To be" is conjugated for person as follows:

To be	*Past*	*Present*	*Future*
First Person	**Was**	**Am**	**will be**
Second Person	**Were**	**Are**	**will be**

Third Person	Was	Is	will be
First Person Plural	Were	Are	will be
Second Person Plural	Were	Are	will be
Third Person Plural	Were	Are	will be

In addition to person, conjugations for tense are significant for all verbs. All conjugations start with the infinitive form on the verb. The infinitive is simply the to form of the verb. From there, the verb takes on different forms depending on the tense type and time.

To count	*Past*	*Present*	*Future*
Simple	counted	Count	Will count
Perfect	had counted	Have/has counted	Will have counted
Progressive	was counting	Am/is/are counting	Will be counting
Perfect Progressive	had been counting	Have/has/been counting	Will have been counting

Tips for teaching grammar

Sentence diagramming to show phrases and clauses

Students today have little recognition of sentence segmentation they tend to think of a sentence as an ongoing stream, rather than as an assembly of discretely structured pieces therefore, it is a good beginning in grammar teaching simply to

have the students learn to recognize word clusters as genuine, discrete segments which compose the sentence teach them to see that a sentence consists of definite clusters called clauses and phrases clauses and phrases are closed pieces ,they move around the sentence as one complete piece ,and you can insert or delete then from the sentence as one piece. If students can learn to see the solid clusters within the sentence, that alone is a significant lesson in grammar

I have found that these three grammatical structures are a good basis

- **prepositional phrase:** always starts on a preposition and goes to the next noun.
- **clause conjunction:** for every additional clause added to a sentence, there will always be a clause conjunction
- **dependent clause:** contains the key subject – verb combination but is not an independent sentence.

I ask student to mark these structures as follows>

a) Each prepositional phrase in brackets
b) Each clause conjunction in capital letters
c) Each dependent clause underlined.

Examples:

(In those days,) *in such cases,) men did not think (of germs and infections,) but (of sins.) {H.G. Wells}

Your mother will never see you again IF you do not marry Mr Collins, AND I will never see you again IF you do. {Jane Austen}

Jane united a composure (of temper) (with a uniform cheerfulness) (of manner,) WHICH would guard her (from the suspicions) (of the impertinent). {Jane Austen}

This approach to sentence analysis will take your students from being structurally unaware to being structurally aware. The approach is an excellent precursor to the study of punctuation errors.

Tips for Teaching Grammar Phrasal Verbs (Telling Particles from Propositions)

Phrasal verbs (examples: shut off , pick up, turn down, take in, look over) are an interesting phenomenon in our language. The two words act in concert exactly as if they were a single verb. In the sentence 'He turned on the light,' 'He' is the subject, 'turned on' is the verb, and 'the light' is the direct object. Phrasal verbs can frequently be paraphrased by a single – word verb ('He activated the light'; turn down = refuse, look over = peruse, etc.)

The second word in a phrasal verb is called a particle. Words used elsewhere as prepositions (on, up, down, etc.) are most often used as particles in phrasal verbs, but so are some other words (e.g., 'forth' as in 'bring forth'). Students frequently confuse particles and prepositions. Compare:

He turned on the light. (phrasal verb + direct object)
He turned on a dime. (one – word verb + prepositional phrase)
Santa looked up the chimney. (one – word verb + prepositional phrase)

Santa looked the address. (phrasal verb + direct object)

One of the more curious features of phrasal verbs is that the particle can be moved to follow the next noun phrase in the sentence, with no effect on meaning:

He turned the light on.
She looked a friend up.
I put the fire out.

In these cases the 'action' of the sentence cannot be analyzed without considering the two words together. He didn't 'turn' anything; he 'turned on' something.
Transformational grammar's notion of a deep structure altered by transformations can account nicely for this phenomenon.

Tips for Teaching Grammar

Two Methods for Identifying a Sentence's Complete Subject and Predicate

Students can use their intuitive sense of English sentence structure in order to identify quite reliably the two major parts of a sentence.

1. Ask students to substitute a pronoun for the sentence subject. The pronoun will replace the entire noun phrase that forms the complete subject. What remains will be the predicate.

   This process helps students see an important feature of pronouns: that they stand in not just for single nouns but for entire noun phrases. It also provides a simple way to check that the subject and the verb agree with each other in number.

The red – headed girl with the saxophone was walking home.
She was walking home.

For many children around the world, the foundations that provide emergency relief and community support have meant the difference between survival and death.

For many children around the world, they have meant the difference between survival and death.

2. Another method is to turn a statement into a question that begins with who or what and that asks who or what did something or was something. The predicate will be those words from the statement that remain in the question. The subject will be the answer to the question.

    All the pieces of the puzzle fit together.
    What fit together?

    Every student knows a large part of the grammar of English before entering a classroom.
Who knows a large part of the grammar of English before entering a classroom?
(This method may not work unless the who or what is asking what the subject is or does. It is possible to formulate the question, "What is it that every student knows before entering a classroom?" such phrases as "What is it that" or "Who is it that" replace the object of the verb, not the subject,)

Tips for Teaching Grammar
THE PENCIL TEST: teaching coordinating conjunctions

The pencil test students understand when to use a comma whit the words and, but, or, so, yet, for, and nor. Although this test is an oversimplification, if your students

are using comma whenever they write the word and, this test will help solve the problem.

First, some background. I explain that a sentence has two parts: a subjects and a predicate. The subject answers the question Who or what? The predicate answers the question What about it?

1. If the words and, but, or, so, yet, for, and nor connect two sentences, use a comma. If and, but, or, so, yet, for, and nor connect two words or groups of words, do not use a comma.

2. To check or sentences, use the pencil test. Place your pencil on the conjunction. Read the words to the left and ask yourself who about it? If you have both a who or what (subject) and a what about it (predicate), you have a sentence.

3. Then read the words to the right, asking again who or what? If there is a subject and predicate on both sides, use a comma. If there is not a subject and predicate on both sides, do not use a comma.

Tips for Teaching Grammar

Verbs: Finding the Verb using Negation

When speakers of English put a sentence into the negative, they automatically insert the net the not into the sentence's verb phrase. So students can find the verb or verb phrase by making the sentence negative and then looking at the words before and after not.

1. I am hungry.

   I´m not hungry.

2. Those two players should have been practicing last week.

   Those two players should not have been practicing last week.

More specifically, the not (or its contraction, not) almost always appears right after the word in the verb phrase that carries the number (singular or plural) and the tense. (The word will be either an added auxiliary verb or the from of the verb to be.) This fact can be useful when students need to check subject-verb agreement in number.

4.   John plays baseball.

     John doesn't play baseball.

5.   Jane was so confident that she would get an A.

     Jane was not confident that she would get an A.

Another advantage: When a sentence is long or complex, students can have difficulty sorting out the main verb phrase from other tempting terms such as participles or nouns that refer to action. One advantage of the negation technique is that it gets them past the other potential verb candidates quickly.

5.   The woman walking up and down in the hallway is waiting to be interviewed for a job.

     The woman walking up and down in the hallway is not waiting to be interviewed for a job.

Conclusions:

- It achieved to collect necessary information for complete this work about the grammatical factors in the communication.

- This work is going to allow to find many for applying the grammar structures.

- This work will be provide a way of the information for apply better the teaching and learning process.

- It has been achieve of satisfactory way the conclusion of this work making use of the know ledges acquire along of our university career.

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Annexes

Irregular Verbs

arise

arose, arise

awake awoke or awaked, awaked or awoken

awaken

awakened, awakened

bear (to carry)

bore, borne

bear (to give birth)

bore

beat

beat, beaten or beat

be

was, been

become

became, become

begin

began, begun

bet

bet, bet

bid

bid, bid (to, offer)

bid (to order, invite)

bade, bidden

bind

bound, bound

bite

bit, bitten

bleed

      bled, bled

blow

      blew, blown

break

      broke, broken

breed

      bred, bred

bring

      brought, brought

burst

      burst, burst

buy

      bought, bought

cast

      cast, cast

catch

      caught, caught

choose

      chose, chosen

cling

      clung, clung

come

      came, come

creep

      crept, crept

cut

      cut, cut

deal

      dealt, dealt

dig

dug, dug

dive

dived or dove, dived

do

did, done

draw

drew, drawn

dream

dreamed or dreamt, dreamed or 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

fly

flew, flown

forbid

forbade, forbidden

forget

>forgot, forgotten

forgive

>forgave, forgiven

forsake

>forsook, forsaken

freeze

>froze, frozen

get

>got, got or gotten

give

>gave, given

go

>went, gone

grind

>ground, ground

grow

>grew, grown

hang (to suspend)

>hung, hung

hang (to execute)

>hanged, hanged

have

>had, had

hear

>heard, heard

hide

>hid, hidden

hit

>hit, hit

hold

held, held

hurt

hurt, hurt

keep

kept, kept

kneel

knelt or kneeled, knelt or kneeled

knit

knitted or knit, knitted or knit

know

knew, known

lay

laid, laid

lead

led, led

leap

leaped or leapt, leaped or leapt

leave

left, left

lend

lent, lent

let

let, let

lie

lay, lain

light

lighted or lit, lighted or lit

lose

lost, lost

make

made, made

mean

     meant, meant

meet

     met, met

mistake

     mistook, mistaken

overcome

     overcame, overcome

pay

     paid, paid

prove

     proved, proved or proven

put

     put, put

quit

     quit, quit

read

     read, read

ride

     rode, ridden

ring

     rang, rung

rise

     rose, risen

run

     ran, run

say

     said, said

see

     saw, seen

seek

sought, sought

sell

sold, sold

send

sent, sent

set

set, set

shake

shook, shaken

shed

shed, shed

shoot

shot, shot

shrink

shrank or shrunk, shrunk

shut

shut, shut

sing

sang, sung

sink

sank, sunk

sit

sat, sat

slay

slew, slain

sleep

slept, slept

slide

slid, slide

sling

slung, slung

slink

slunk, slunk

speak

spoke, spoken

speed

sped or speeded, sped or speeded

spend

spent, spent

spin

spun, spun

spit

spit or spat, spit or spat

split

split, split

spread

spread, spread

spring

sprang or sprung, sprung

stand

stood, stood

steal

stole, stolen

stick

stuck, stuck

stink

stank or stunk, stunk

strew

strewed, strewn

stride

strode, stridden

strike

struck, struck

string

strung, strung

strive

stove or strived, striven or strived

swear

swore, sworn

sweep

swept, swept

swell

swelled, swelled or swollen

swim

swam, swum

swing

swung, swung

take

took, taken

teach

taught, taught

tear

tore, torn

tell

told, told

think

thought, though

thrive

throve or thrived, throve or thriven

throw

threw, thrown

thrust

Adverbs

to

maybe

open, closed

now, afterwards

ever,
sometimes

now, later

at the same time (as)

around

often, seldom

above all

before, after

on purpose

by the way

here, there

right here, right there,
over there

above, below

so, thus

through

enough, little, much,
too much

well, badly

nearly

more and more

near, far from

in accordance with

with pleasure

with, without

of

in front of, behind

reluctantly

inside, outside

suddenly

from ... to

at, in, by

shortly

right   away, immediately

on (over, above), under

in front of, opposite to

in the first place

everywhere

then

tonight, last night

exactly

long time ago

onwards (backwards)

rather, quite

（）

together

better, worse

very

nothing at all

nothing of the kind

nothing more

not even

neither ... nor

either ... or

for, to, in order to

little by little

also, too

certainly, doubtless

at last, finally

to the right (left)

first of all

probably

quickly, slowly

really

always, never

unknowingly

everything, nothing

perhaps

neither

lately

+	*Indefinite Frequency*	sometimes normally, usually, occasionally, often, regularly, always, never, rarely, seldom, hardly ever,?			Indefinite Frequency	sometimes, normally, usually, occasionally, often, regularly briefly, again		
	Connecting	As a result, Similarly, As you can see, Furthermore, Nevertheless, Consequently,	*Focus*	just, even, only	*?lt;/span> Manner (There are many more)*	sweetly, well, badly, beautifully, slowly, quickly, meekly,	*Definite Frequency*	daily, hourly, monthly, weekly, etc

| Comment | Presumably, Unfortunately, Incidentally, Typically, Yes, No, | Degree | very, completely, totally, quite, rather, really, slightly | Degree adverbs when followed by a manner adverb | very, quite, fairly, rather, slightly, too,? very, so | Place (These are sometimes placed at the beginning.) | on?the table. in the kitchen, in the car, here, there, outside, inside, ?lt;/span>etc |
| Time | In October, Finally, Now, Recently, Soon, Yesterday, Tomorrow, | Time | recently, finally, already, still, | | | Time | in October, finally, now, recently, soon, today, yesterday, tomorrow |

Viewpoint	Scientifically, Logically, As far as I'm concerned,	*Negative*	didn't, not (usually precedes another adverb or follows did, does or will)	?lt;/span>
Question adverbs	When, Where			