Basic English Grammar

Compiled and Prepared

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Semarang

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PREFACE

This book is organised as student handout learning materials of Basic English Grammar. Competency of this level is that students are able to use the following sentence structure patterns containing grammatical forms covered in this term such as English Verbs, Nouns, Adjectives, Adverbs, Pronouns, Prepositions, Articles, Conjunctions, Interjections, and Verbals.

Using this handout, the students are guided to understand English Grammar through structural discussion and related quizzes.

The compiler realizes that the handout is far from being perfect so that constructive suggestions are welcome.

Semarang, 7 September 2016

The Compiler

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Lesson Plan Unit I

Term : 1st

Subject : English Verbs

Topic:	English Verbs in lesson.
Goals:	• Realizing English verbs in sentence. • Know way to use verbs in the right situation. • Choose English verbs in applying into sentence.
Objectives:	At the end of the lesson, the students should be able to: • Differentiate English verbs; • Identify English verbs in each sentence; • Rewrite the sentence changing English verbs from sentence to other sentence; • Appreciate the lesson by showing active participation of the students towards the lesson.
Materials:	• Internet Access: any resources based on the topic. • Basic definitions of English verbs. • Teaching English verbs. • English verbs websites or another explanation of verbs.
Introduction:	• Introduce about verbs in English. • Indicate kinds of verbs in English.
Development:	• Choose more formal language; students can adopt a more objective style which can result in a reliance on English verb constructions, a style that is more awkward than it is formal. • Inviting students to discover the relationship between the actor (or subject) and the action (or predicate) in using English verbs. It can provide students with more details on how the constructions work, better enabling students to choose the best language for their writing situation.
Practice:	• Give the lesson and ask student to indicate English verbs. • Ask student to translate in the different situation with English verbs. • Do multi choices exercise.
Accommodations:	• Once students have identified English verbs from the page(s) they're exploring, divide students into small groups to explore their findings. • Ask students to share their findings and use the collected information to draw conclusions about when they choose English verbs. • After teacher is satisfied that students have had enough time to explore their findings, gather as a group and ask students to share their conclusions. • Ask students to support their conclusions with specific details from the lesson.
Checking for Understanding:	• Once the lesson is complete, ask students to explore the pieces that they are writing, checking for English verbs. • Ask them to revise as necessary, based on whether verbs are appropriate for the particular sentence. Students may work during their in-class writing time or complete the revisions as homework.

1.1 English Verbs

The verb is king in English. The shortest sentence contains a verb. You can make a one-word sentence with a verb, for example: **Stop!** You cannot make a one-word sentence with any other type of word. Verbs are sometimes described as "action words". This is partly true.

Many verbs give the idea of action, of "doing" something. For example, words like *run, fight, do* and *work* all conveys action. But some verbs do not give the idea of action; they give the idea of existence, of state, of "being". For example, verbs like *be, exist, seem* and *belong* all convey state.

A verb always has a subject. In the sentence "John speaks English", (=*John* is the subject and *speaks* is the verb.) In simple terms, therefore, we can say that verbs are words that tell us what a subject **does** or **is**; they describe:

- **action** (Ram plays football)
- **state** (Ram is English)

There is something very special about verbs in English. Most other words (adjectives, adverbs, prepositions etc) do not change in form (although can have singular and plural forms). But almost all verbs change in form. For example, the verb *to work* has five forms:

- *to work, work, works, worked, working*

We divide verbs into two broad classifications:

- **Helping verbs** (also called "auxiliary verbs")
  These are verbs that have no real meaning. They are necessary for the grammatical structure of the sentence, but they do not tell us very much alone. For example, *will, would, may* are helping verbs. We usually use helping verbs with main verbs. They "help" the main verb.
- **Main verbs** (also called "lexical verbs")
  These are verbs that really mean something, they tell us something. For example, *love, make, work* are main verbs.

1.2 Types of Main Verb:

1.2.1 Transitive and intransitive verbs

Transitive verbs can take a direct object (subject + **verb** + **object**). Intransitive verbs do not take a direct object (subject + **verb** [**+ indirect object**]). Many verbs can be transitive or intransitive.

A. Transitive:

- He **speaks English**.
- We **are watching TV**.
- I **saw an elephant**.

B. Intransitive:

- He has **arrived**.
- She **speaks** fast.
- John **goes** to **school**.

1.2.2 Linking verbs

Linking verbs are always intransitive. A linking verb does not have much meaning in itself. It "links" the subject to what is said about the subject. Usually, a linking verb shows equality (=) or a change to a different state or place (>).

- Mary **is** a teacher. (Mary = teacher)
- Tara **is** beautiful. (Tara = beautiful)
- That **sounds** interesting. (that = interesting)
- The sky **became** dark. (the sky > dark)
- The bread **has gone** bad. (bread > bad)

1.2.3 Dynamic and static verbs:

Some verbs describe action. They are called "dynamic", and can be used with continuous Nouns. Other verbs describe state (non-action, a situation). They are called "static", and cannot normally be used with continuous Nouns (though some of them can be used with continuous Nouns with a change in meaning).

A. Dynamic verbs: examples

- hit, explode, fight, run, go

B. Static verbs: examples

- be
- like, love, prefer, wish
- impress, please, surprise
- hear, see, sound
- belong to, consist of, contain, include, need
- appear, resemble, seem

1.2.4 Regular and irregular verbs:

This is more a question of vocabulary than of grammar. The only real difference between regular and irregular verbs is that they have different endings for their past tense and past participle forms. For regular verbs, the past tense ending and past participle ending is always the same: -ed. For irregular verbs, the past tense ending and the past participle ending is variable, so it is necessary to learn them by heart.

A. Regular verbs: base, past tense, and past participle

- look, looked, looked
- work, worked, worked

B. Irregular verbs: base, past tense, and past participle

- buy, bought, bought
- cut, cut, cut
- do, did, done

1.3 Forms of Main Verbs

Main verbs are also called "lexical verbs".

English main verbs—except the verb "to be"—have only 4, 5 or 6 forms. "To be" has 9 forms.

		V1	V2	V3		
	Infinitive	**base**	**past simple**	**past participle**	**present participle**	**present simple, 3rd person singular**
regular	(to) work	work	worked	worked	working	works
irregular	(to) sing	sing	sang	sung	singing	sings
	(to) make	make	made	made	making	makes
	(to) cut	cut	cut	cut	cutting	cuts
	(to) do*	do	did	done	doing	does
	(to) have*	have	had	had	having	has
	Infinitive	**base**	**past simple**	**past participle**	**present participle**	**present simple**
	(to) be*	be	was, were	been	being	am, are, is

In the above examples:

- **to cut** has **4** forms: to cut, cut, cutting, cuts

- **to work** has **5** forms: to work, work, worked, working, works
- **to sing** has **6** forms: to sing, sing, sang, sung, singing, sings
- **to be** has **9** forms: to be, be, was, were, been, being, am, is, are

Note that the infinitive can be with or without **to**. For example, **to sing** and **sing** are both infinitives. We often call the infinitive without **to** the "bare infinitive".
The verb **to be** is always an exception, in many ways!

At school, students usually learn by heart the **base**, **past simple** and **past participle** (sometimes called V1, V2, V3, meaning Verb 1, Verb 2, Verb 3) for the irregular verbs. They may spend many hours chanting: sing, sang, sung; go, went, gone; have, had, had; etc.

They do not learn these for the regular verbs because the past simple and past participles are always the same: they are formed by adding "-ed" to the base.
They do not learn the **past participle** and **3rd person singular present simple** by heart—for another very simple reason: they never change.

The present participle is always made by adding "-ing" to the base, and the 3rd person singular present simple is always made by adding "s" to the base (though there are some variations in spelling).
* Note that "do", "have" and "be" also function as **helping or auxiliary verbs**, with exactly the same forms (except that as helping verbs they are never in infinitive form).

1.3.1 Forms of Main Verbs: Examples

A. Infinitive

- I want **to work**
- He has **to sing**.
- This exercise is easy **to do**.
- Let him **have** one.
- **To be**, or not **to be**, that is the question:

B. Base - Imperative

- **Work** well!
- **Make** this.

- **Have** a nice day.
- **Be** quiet!

C. Base - Present simple (except 3rd person singular)

- I **work** in London.
- You **sing** well.
- They **have** a lot of money.

D. Base - After modal auxiliary verbs

- I can **work** tomorrow.
- You **must** sing louder.
- They **might** do it.
- You **could** be right.

E. Past simple

- I **worked** yesterday.
- She **cut** his hair last week.
- They **had** a good time.
- They **were** surprised, but I **was** not.

F. Past participle

- I have **worked** here for five years.
- He needs a folder **made** of plastic.
- It is **done** like this.
- I have never **been** so happy.

G. Present participle

- I am **working**.
- **Singing** well is not easy.
- **Having** finished, he went home.
- You are **being** silly!

H. 3rd person singular, present simple

- He **works** in London.
- She **sings** well.
- She **has** a lot of money.
- It **is** Vietnamese.

1.3.2 Forms of Helping Verbs

Helping verbs are also called "auxiliary verbs".

All helping verbs are used with a main verb (either expressed or understood*). There are 2 groups of helping verbs:

- **Tense helping verbs**, used to change the tense of the main verb.
- **Modal helping verbs**, used to change the "mood" of the main verb.

<table>
<tr><th colspan="2">Tense helping verbs</th><th colspan="2">Modal helping verbs</th></tr>
<tr><td>Do</td><td>(to make simple Nouns)</td><td>can</td><td>Could</td></tr>
<tr><td>Be</td><td>(to make continuous Nouns)</td><td>may</td><td>Might</td></tr>
<tr><td>Have</td><td>(to make perfect Nouns)</td><td>will</td><td>would</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="3"></td><td>shall</td><td>Should</td></tr>
<tr><td>must</td><td rowspan="2"></td></tr>
<tr><td>ought (to)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">"Do", "be" and "have" as helping verbs have exactly the same forms as when they are <u>main verbs</u> (except that as helping verbs they are never used in infinitive forms).</td><td colspan="2">Modal helping verbs are invariable. They always have the same form.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Tense helping verbs are followed by the main verb in a particular <u>form</u>:
do + V1 (base verb)
be + -ing (present participle)
have + V3 (past participle)</td><td colspan="2">"Ought" is followed by the main verb in infinitive form. Other modal helping verbs are followed by the main verb in its base form (V1).
ought + to... (infinitive)
other modals + V1 (base verb)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">"Do", "be" and "have" can also function as <u>main verbs</u>.</td><td colspan="2">Modal helping verbs cannot also functions as <u>main verbs</u>.</td></tr>
</table>

Sometimes we make a sentence that has a helping verb and seems to have no main verb. In fact, the main verb is "understood". Look at the following examples:

- Question: **Can** you **speak** English? (The main verb **speak** is "expressed".)
- Answer: Yes, I **can**. (The main verb **speak** is not expressed. It is "understood" from the context. We understand: Yes, I **can speak** English.

But, If somebody walked into the room and said "Hello. I can", we would understand **nothing**!

Lesson Plan Unit II

Term : 1st

Subject : English Nouns

Topic:	English Nouns in lesson.
Goals:	• Realizing English nouns in sentence. • Know way to use nouns in the right situation. • Choose English nouns in applying into sentence.
Objectives:	At the end of the lesson, the students should be able to: • Differentiate English nouns; • Identify English nouns in each sentence; • Rewrite the sentence changing English tense from sentence to other sentence; • Appreciate the lesson by showing active participation of the students towards the lesson.
Materials:	• Internet Access: any resources based on the topic. • Basic definitions of English nouns. • Teaching English nouns. • English nouns websites or another explanation of nouns.
Introduction:	• Introduce about nouns in English. • Indicate kinds of nouns in English.
Development:	• Choose more formal language; students can adopt a more objective style which can result in a reliance on English nouns constructions, a style that is more awkward than it is formal. • Inviting students to discover the relationship between the actor (or subject) and the action (or predicate) in using English nouns. It can provide students with more details on how the constructions work, better enabling students to choose the best language for their writing situation.
Practice:	• Give the lesson and ask student to indicate English nouns. • Ask student to translate in the different situation with English nouns. • Do multi choices exercise.
Accommodations:	• Once students have identified English nouns from the page(s) they're exploring, divide students into small groups to explore their findings. • Ask students to share their findings and use the collected information to draw conclusions about when they choose English nouns. • After teacher is satisfied that students have had enough time to explore their findings, gather as a group and ask students to share their conclusions. • Ask students to support their conclusions with specific details from the lesson.
Checking for Understanding:	• Once the lesson is complete, ask students to explore the pieces that they are writing, checking for English nouns. • Ask them to revise as necessary, based on whether nouns are appropriate for the particular sentence. Students may work during their in-class writing time or complete the revisions as homework.

2.1. English Nouns

It is not easy to describe a noun. In simple terms, nouns are "things" (and verbs are "actions"). Like **food**. Food (noun) is something you eat (verb). Or, **happiness**. Happiness (noun) is something you want (verb). Or, **human being**. A human being (noun) is something you are (verb).

What are Nouns?

The simple definition is: **a person, place or thing**. Here are some examples:

- **person**: man, woman, teacher, John, Mary
- **place**: home, office, town, countryside, America
- **thing**: table, car, banana, money, music, love, dog, monkey

The problem with this definition is that it does not explain why "love" is a noun but can also be a verb.

Another (more complicated) way of recognizing a noun is by its:

1. **Ending**
2. **Position**
3. **Function**

2.1.1. Noun Ending

There are certain word endings that show that a word is a noun, for example:

- -ity > **nationality**
- -ment > **appointment**
- -ness > **happiness**
- -ation > **relation**
- -hood > **childhood**

But this is not true for the word endings of all nouns. For example, the noun "spoonful" ends in -ful, but the adjective "careful" also ends in -ful.

2.1.2. Position in Sentence

We can often recognize a noun by its position in the sentence.

Nouns often come after a determiner (a determiner is a word like a, an, the, this, my, such):

- a **relief**
- an **afternoon**
- the **doctor**
- this **word**

- my **house**
- such **stupidity**

Nouns often come after one or more adjectives:

- a great **relief**
- a peaceful **afternoon**
- the tall, Indian **doctor**
- this difficult **word**
- my brown and white **house**
- such crass **stupidity**

2.1.3. Function in a Sentence

Nouns have certain functions (jobs) in a sentence, for example:

- subject of verb: **Doctors** work hard.
- object of verb: He likes **coffee**.
- subject and object of verb: **Teachers** teach **students**.

But the subject or object of a sentence is not always a noun. It could be a pronoun or a phrase. In the sentence "My doctor works hard", the noun is "doctor" but the subject is "My doctor".

2.1.4. Countable and Uncountable Nouns

English nouns are often described as "countable" or "uncountable".
In this lesson we look at:

A. Countable Nouns

Countable nouns are easy to recognize. They are things that we can count. For example: "pen". We can count pens. We can have one, two, three or more pens. Here are some more countable nouns:

- dog, cat, animal, man, person
- bottle, box, litre
- coin, note, dollar
- cup, plate, fork
- table, chair, suitcase, bag

Countable nouns can be singular or plural:

- My **dog is** playing.
- My **dogs are** hungry.

We can use the indefinite article **a/an** with countable nouns:

- **A** dog is **an** animal.

When a countable noun is singular, we must use a word like **a/the/my/this** with it:

- I want **an** orange. (*not* I want orange.)
- Where is **my** bottle? (*not* Where is bottle?)

When a countable noun is plural, we can use it alone:

- I like oranges.
- Bottles can break.

We can use **some** and **any** with countable nouns:

- I've got **some** dollars.
- Have you got **any** pens?

We can use **a few** and **many** with countable nouns:

- I've got **a few** dollars.
- I haven't got **many** pens.

"People" is countable. "People" is the plural of "person". We can count people:

- There is one person here.
- There are three people here.

B. Uncountable Nouns

Uncountable nouns are substances, concepts etc that we cannot divide into separate elements. We cannot "count" them. For example, we cannot count "milk". We can count "bottles of milk" or "litters of milk", but we cannot count "milk" itself. Here are some more uncountable nouns:

- music, art, love, happiness
- advice, information, news
- furniture, luggage
- rice, sugar, butter, water
- electricity, gas, power
- money, currency

We usually treat uncountable nouns as singular. We use a singular verb. For example:

- **This** news **is** very important.

- Your luggage **looks** heavy.

We do not usually use the indefinite article **a/an** with uncountable nouns. We cannot say "an information" or "a music". But we can say **a something of**:

- **a piece of** news
- **a bottle of** water
- **a grain of** rice

We can use **some** and **any** with uncountable nouns:

- I've got **some** money.
- Have you got **any** rice?

We can use **a little** and **much** with uncountable nouns:

- I've got **a little** money.
- I haven't got **much** rice.

C. Uncountable nouns are also called "mass nouns".

Here are some more examples of countable and uncountable nouns. When you learn a new word, it's a good idea to learn whether it's countable or uncountable.

Nouns that can be Countable and Uncountable

Sometimes, the same noun can be countable *and* uncountable, often with a change of meaning.

Countable		Uncountable
There are two hairs in my coffee!	**hair**	I don't have much hair.
There are two lights in our bedroom.	**light**	Close the curtain. There's too much light!
Shhhhh! I thought I heard a noise.	**noise**	It's difficult to work when there is too much noise.
Have you got a paper to read? (= newspaper)	**paper**	I want to draw a picture. Have you got some paper?
Our house has seven rooms.	**room**	Is there room for me to sit here?
We had a great time at the party.	**time**	Have you got time for a coffee?
Macbeth is one of Shakespeare's greatest works.	**work**	I have no money. I need work!

Drinks (coffee, water, orange juice) are usually uncountable. But if we are thinking of a cup or a glass, we can say (in a restaurant, for example):

- Two teas and one coffee please

Proper Nouns (Names)

A proper noun is the special word (or name) that we use for a person, place or organization, like John, Marie, London, France or Sony. A name is a noun, but a very special noun - a proper noun. Proper nouns have special rules.

common noun	proper noun
man, boy	John
woman, girl	Mary
country, town	England, London
Company	Ford, Sony
shop, restaurant	Maceys, McDonalds
month, day of the week	January, Sunday
book, film	*War & Peace*, *Titanic*

In this lesson we look at the uses of proper nouns, followed by a quiz to check your understanding:

Using Capital Letters with Proper Nouns

We **always** use a **C**apital **L**etter for the first letter of a proper noun (name). This includes names of people, places, companies, days of the week and months. For example:

- They like **J**ohn. (*not* *They like john.)
- I live in **E**ngland.
- She works for **S**ony.
- The last day in **J**anuary is a Monday.
- We saw ***T****itanic* in the **O**deon **C**inema.

Proper Nouns without THE

We do not use "the" with names of people. For example:

first names	Bill (*not* *the Bill)
	Hilary
surnames	Clinton
	Gates
full names	Hilary Clinton Bill Gates

We do not normally use "the" with names of companies. For example:

- Renault, Ford, Sony, EnglishClub.com
- General Motors, Air France, British Airways
- Warner Brothers, Brown & Son Ltd

We do not normally use "the" for shops, banks, hotels etc named after a founder or other person (with -'s or -s). For example:

Shops	Harrods, Marks & Spencer, Maceys
Banks	Barclays Bank
hotels, restaurants	Steve's Hotel, Joe's Cafe, McDonalds
churches, cathedrals	St John's Church, St Peter's Cathedral

We do not normally use "the" with names of places. For example:

Towns	Washington (not *the Washington), Paris, Tokyo
states, regions	Texas, Kent, Eastern Europe
countries	England, Italy, Brazil
continents	Asia, Europe, North America
Islands	Corsica
mountains	Everest

Exception! If a country name includes "States", "Kingdom", "Republic" etc, we use "the":

States	the United States, the US, the United States of America, the USA

Kingdom	the United Kingdom, the UK
Republic	the French Republic

We do not use "the" with "President/Doctor/Mr etc + Name":

the president, the king	President Bush (*not* *the President Bush)
the captain, the detective	Captain Kirk, Detective Colombo
the doctor, the professor	Doctor Well, Dr Well, Professor Dolittle
my uncle, your aunt	Uncle Jack, Aunt Jill
	Mr Gates (*not* *the Mr Gates), Mrs Clinton, Miss Black

Look at these example sentences:

- I wanted to speak to **the doctor**.
- I wanted to speak to **Doctor Brown**.
- Who was **the president** before **President Kennedy**?

We do not use "the" with "Lake/Mount + Name":

the lake	Lake Victoria
the mount	Mount Everest

Look at this example sentence:

- We live beside **Lake Victoria**. We have a fantastic view across **the lake**.

We do not normally use "the" for roads, streets, squares, parks etc:

streets etc	Oxford Street, Trenholme Road, Fifth Avenue
squares etc	Trafalgar Square, Oundle Place, Piccadilly Circus
parks etc	Central Park, Kew Gardens

Many big, important buildings have names made of two words (for example, Kennedy Airport). If the first word is the name of a person or place, we do not normally use "the":

People	Kennedy Airport, Alexander Palace, St Paul's Cathedral

Places	Heathrow Airport, Waterloo Station, Edinburgh Castle

Proper Nouns with THE

We normally use "the" for country names that include "States","Kingdom", "Republic" etc:

States	the United States of America/the USA
Kingdom	the United Kingdom/the UK
Republic	the French Republic

We normally use "the" for names of canals, rivers, seas and oceans:

Canals	the Suez Canal
Rivers	the River Nile, the Nile
Seas	the Mediterranean Sea, the Mediterranean
oceans	the Pacific Ocean, the Pacific

We normally use "the" for **plural** names of people and places:

people (families, for example)	the Clintons
countries	the Philippines, the United States
island groups	the Virgin Islands, the British Isles
mountain ranges	the Himalayas, the Alps

Look at these sentences:

- I saw **the Clintons** today. It was Bill's birthday.
- Trinidad is the largest island in **the West Indies**.
- Mount Everest is in **the Himalayas**.

We normally use "the" with the following sorts of names:

hotels, restaurants	the Ritz Hotel, the Peking Restaurant
Banks	the National Westminster Bank
cinemas, theatres	the Royal Theatre, the ABC Cinema

museums	the British Museum, the National Gallery
buildings	the White House, the Crystal Palace
newspapers	the Daily Telegraph, the Sunday Post
organisations	the United Nations, the BBC, the European Union

We normally use "the" for names made with "of":

- the Tower of London
- the Gulf of Siam
- the Tropic of Cancer
- the London School of Economics
- the Bank of France
- the Statue of Liberty

Possessive's/ Possessive Noun

When we want to show that something belongs to somebody or something, we usually add an **'s** to a singular noun and an apostrophe **'** to a plural noun, for example:

- **the boy's ball** (one boy)
- **the boys' ball** (two or more boys)

Notice that the number of balls does not matter. The structure is influenced by the possessor and not the possessed.

	one ball	**more than one ball**
one boy	the boy's ball	the boy's balls
more than one boy	the boys' ball	the boys' balls

The structure can be used for a whole phrase:

- **the man next door's** mother (the mother of *the man next door*)
- **the Queen of England's** poodles (the poodles of *the Queen of England*)

Although we can use **of** to show possession, it is more usual to use possessives. The following phrases have the same meaning, but #2 is more usual and natural:

1. the boyfriend of my sister
2. my sister's boyfriend

Proper Nouns (Names)

We very often use possessive's with names:

- This is Mary's car.
- Where is Ram's telephone?
- Who took Anthony's pen?
- I like Tara's hair.

When a name ends in **s**, we usually treat it like any other singular noun, and add the **'s**:

- *This is Charles's chair.(Ragu)*

But it is possible (especially with older, classical names) to just add the apostrophe'

- Who was Jesus' father?

Irregular Plurals

Some nouns have irregular plural forms without **s** (man > men). To show possession, we usually add the **'s** to the plural form of these nouns:

singular noun	plural noun
my child's dog	my children's dog
the man's work	the men's work
the mouse's cage	the mice's cage
a person's clothes	people's clothes

Noun as Adjective

As you know, a noun is a person, place or thing, and an adjective is a word that describes a noun:

adjective	noun
clever	teacher

small	Office
black	Horse

Sometimes we use a noun to describe another noun. In that case, the first noun "acts as" an adjective.

noun as adjective	**noun**
history	teacher
ticket	Office
race	Horse

The "noun as adjective" always comes first

If you remember this it will help you to understand what is being talked about:

- a **race horse** is a **horse** that runs in races
- a **horse race** is a **race** for horses
- a **boat race** is a **race** for boats
- a **love story** is a **story** about love
- a **war story** is a **story** about war
- a **tennis ball** is a **ball** for playing tennis
- **tennis shoes** are **shoes** for playing tennis
- a **computer exhibition** is an **exhibition** of computers
- a **bicycle shop** is a **shop** that sells bicycles

The "noun as adjective" is singular

Just like a real adjective, the "noun as adjective" is invariable. It is usually in the singular form.

Right		**Wrong**
boat race	boat races	NOT boats race, boats races
Toothbrush	toothbrushes	NOT teethbrush, teethbrushes
shoe-lace	shoe-laces	NOT shoes-lace, shoes-laces
cigarette packet	cigarette packets	NOT cigarettes packet, cigarettes packets

In other words, if there is a plural it is on the real noun only.

A few nouns look plural but we usually treat them as singular (for example news, billiards, and athletics). When we use these nouns "as adjectives" they are unchanged:

- a news reporter, three news reporters
- one billiards table, four billiards tables
- an athletics trainer, fifty athletics trainers

Exceptions:

When we use certain nouns "as adjectives" (clothes, sports, customs, accounts, arms), we use them in the plural form:

- clothes shop, clothes shops
- sports club, sports clubs
- customs duty, customs duties
- accounts department, accounts departments
- arms production

How do we write the "noun as adjective"?

We write the "noun as adjective" and the real noun in several different ways:

- two separate words (car door)
- two hyphenated words (book-case)
- one word (bathroom)

There are no easy rules for this. We even write some combinations in two or all three different ways: (head master, head-master, headmaster)

How do we say the "noun as adjective"?

For pronunciation, we usually stress the first word:

- **shoe** shop
- **boat**-race
- **bath**room

Can we have more than one "noun as adjective"?

Yes. Just like adjectives, we often use more than one "noun as adjective" together.

Look at these examples:

car production costs: we are talking about the costs of producing cars

noun as adjective	noun as adjective	Noun
		Costs
	production	**Costs**
car	**production**	**Costs**

England football team coach: we are talking about the coach who trains the team that plays football for England

noun as adjective	noun as adjective	noun as adjective	Noun
			Coach
		Team	**Coach**
	football	**Team**	**Coach**
England	**football**	**Team**	**Coach**

Note: in **England football team coach** can you see a "hidden" "noun as adjective"? Look at the word "football" (foot-ball). These two nouns (foot+ball) have developed into a single noun (football).

This is one way that words evolve. Many word combinations that use a "noun as adjective" are regarded as nouns in their own right, with their own dictionary definition. But not all dictionaries agree with each other. For example, some dictionaries list "tennis ball" as a noun and other dictionaries do not.

government road accident research centre: we are talking about a centre that researches into accidents on the road for the government

noun as adjective	**noun as adjective**	**noun as adjective**	**noun as adjective**	**noun**
				centre
			research	**Centre**
		accident	**research**	**Centre**
	road	**accident**	**research**	**Centre**
government	**road**	**accident**	**research**	**Centre**

Newspapers often use many nouns together in headlines to save space. Look at this example:

BIRD HEALTH RESEARCH CENTRE MURDER MYSTERY

To understand headlines like these, try reading them backwards. The above headline is about a MYSTERY concerning a MURDER in a CENTRE for RESEARCH into the HEALTH of BIRDS.

Note, too, that we can still use a real *adjective* to qualify a "noun as adjective" structure:

- *empty* coffee jar
- *honest* car salesman
- *delicious* dog food
- *rising* car production costs
- *famous* England football team coach

Lesson Plan Unit III

Term : 1st

Subject : English Adjectives

Topic:	English Adjectives in lesson.
Goals:	• Realizing English adjectives in sentence. • Know way to use English adjectives in the right situation. • Choose English adjectives in applying into sentence.
Objectives:	At the end of the lesson, the students should be able to: • Differentiate English adjectives; • Identify English adjectives in each sentence; • Rewrite the sentence changing English adjectives from sentence to other sentence; • Appreciate the lesson by showing active participation of the students towards the lesson.
Materials:	• Internet Access: any resources based on the topic. • Basic definitions of English adjectives. • Teaching English adjectives. • English adjectives websites or another explanation of adjectives.
Introduction:	• Introduce about adjectives in English. • Indicate kinds of adjectives in English.
Development:	• Choose more formal language; students can adopt a more objective style which can result in a reliance on English Adjectives constructions, a style that is more awkward than it is formal. • Inviting students to discover the relationship between the actor (or subject) and the action (or predicate) in using English Adjectives. It can provide students with more details on how the constructions work, better enabling students to choose the best language for their writing situation.
Practice:	• Give the lesson and ask student to indicate English adjectives. • Ask student to translate in the different situation with English adjectives. • Do multi choices exercise.
Accommodations:	• Once students have identified English adjectives from the page(s) they're exploring, divide students into small groups to explore their findings. • Ask students to share their findings and use the collected information to draw conclusions about when they choose English adjectives. • After teacher is satisfied that students have had enough time to explore their findings, gather as a group and ask students to share their conclusions. • Ask students to support their conclusions with specific details from the lesson.
Checking for Understanding:	• Once the lesson is complete, ask students to explore the pieces that they are writing, checking for English adjectives. • Ask them to revise as necessary, based on whether adjectives are appropriate for the particular sentence. Students may work during their in-class writing time or complete the revisions as homework.

3.1 English Adjectives

It is said that the adjective is the enemy of the noun. That may be true, but adjectives are still very useful words. They add information to a sentence, and tell us more about nouns.

3.1.1 Determiners: A, An or The?

When do we say "**the** dog" and when do we say "**a** dog"? (On this page we talk only about singular, countable nouns.)

The and **A/An** are called "articles". We divide them into "definite" and "indefinite" like this:

Articles	
Definite	**Indefinite**
The	A, An

We use "definite" to mean sure, certain. "Definite" is particular. We use "indefinite" to mean not sure, not certain. "Indefinite" is general. When we are talking about one thing in particular, we use **the**. When we are talking about one thing in general, we use **a** or **an**. Think of the sky at night. In the sky there is 1 moon and millions of stars. So normally we could say:

- I saw **the** moon last night.
- I saw **a** star last night.

Look at these examples:

The	**A, An**
• **The** capital of France is Paris. • I have found **the** book that I lost. • Have you cleaned **the** car? • There are six eggs in **the** fridge. • Please switch off **the** TV when you finish.	• I was born in **a** town. • John had **an** omelette for lunch. • James Bond ordered **a** drink. • We want to buy **an** umbrella. • Have you got **a** pen?

Of course, often we can use **The** or **A/An** for the same word. It depends on the situation. Look at these examples:

- We want to buy **an** umbrella. (Any umbrella, not a particular umbrella.)
- Where is **the** umbrella? (We already have an umbrella. We are looking for our umbrella, a particular umbrella.)

This little story should help you understand the difference between **The** and **A, An**:

- **A** man and **a** woman were walking in Oxford Street. **The** woman saw **a** dress that she liked in **a** shop. She asked **the** man if he could buy **the** dress for her. He said: "Do you think **the** shop will accept **a** cheque? I don't have **a** credit card."

3.1.2 Determiners: Each, Every

Each and **every** have similar but not always identical meanings. Verbs with **each** and **every** are always conjugated in the singular.

Each = every one separately.

Every = each, all.

Sometimes, **each** and **every** have the same meaning:

- Prices go up **each** year.
- Prices go up **every** year.

But often they are not exactly the same.

Each expresses the idea of 'one by one'. It emphasizes individuality.

Every is halfway between each and all. It sees things or people as singular, but in a group or in general.

Consider the following:

- **Every** artist is sensitive.
- **Each** artist sees things differently.
- **Every** soldier saluted as the President arrived.
- The President gave **each** soldier a medal.
- **Each** soldier received a medal from the President.

Each can be used in front of the verb:

- The soldiers **each** received a medal.

Each can be followed by 'of':

- The President spoke to **each** of the soldiers.
- He gave a medal to **each** of them.

Every cannot be used for 2 things. For 2 things, **each** can be used:

- He was carrying a suitcase in **each** hand.

Every is used to say how often something happens:

- There is a plane to Bangkok **every** day.
- The bus leaves **every** hour.

3.1.3 Determiners: Some and Any

Some = a little, a few or a small number or amount

Any = one, some or all

Usually, we use **some** in positive (+) sentences and **any** in negative (-) and question (?) sentences.

	Some	Any	Example
+	I have **some** money.		I have $10.
-		I don't have **any** money.	I don't have $1 and I don't have $10 and I don't have $1,000,000. I have $0.
?		Do you have **any** money?	Do you have $1 or $10 or $1,000,000?

In general, we use **something/ anything** and **somebody/ anybody** in the same way as **some/any**.

Look at these examples:

- He needs **some** stamps.
- I must go. I have **some** homework to do.
- I'm thirsty. I want **something** to drink.
- I can see **somebody** coming.
- He doesn't need **any** stamps.
- I can stay. I don't have **any** homework to do.
- I'm not thirsty. I don't want **anything** to drink.
- I can't see **anybody** coming.
- Does he need **any** stamps?
- Do you have **any** homework to do?
- Do you want **anything** to drink?
- Can you see **anybody** coming?

We use **any** in a positive sentence when the real sense is negative.

- I refused to give them **any** money. (= I did not give them **any** money)
- She finished the test without **any** difficulty. (= she did not have **any** difficulty)

Sometimes we use **some** in a question, when we expect a positive YES answer. (We could say that it is not a real question, because we think we know the answer already.)

- Would you like **some** more tea?
- Could I have **some** sugar, please?

3.1.4 Adjective Order

There are 2 basic positions for adjectives:

1. **before** the **noun**
2. **after** certain **verbs** (be, become, get, seem, look, feel, sound, smell, taste)

		adjective	noun	verb	adjective
1	I like	big	cars.		
2			My car	is	big.

3.1.5 Adjective before Noun

We sometimes use more than one adjective before the noun:

- I like **big black** dogs.
- She was wearing a **beautiful long red** dress.

What is the correct order for two or more adjectives?

1 The general order is: **opinion, fact**:

- a nice French car (not 'a French nice car')

('Opinion' is what you **think** about something. 'Fact' is what is definitely **true** about something.)

2 The normal order for fact adjectives is **size, age, shape, colour, material, origin**:

- a big, old, square, black, wooden Chinese table

3 Determiners usually come **first**, even though they are fact adjectives:

- articles (a, the)
- possessives (my, your...)
- demonstratives (this, that...)
- quantifiers (some, any, few, many...)
- numbers (one, two, three)

Here is an example with **opinion** and **fact** adjectives:

adjectives			noun
determiner	**opinion**	**fact**	

		age	shape	colour	
Two	nice	old	round	red	candles.

When we want to use two **colour adjectives**, we join them with 'and':

- Newspapers are usually **black** and **white**.
- She was wearing a long, **blue** and **yellow** dress.

These rules are not always rigid. Consider the following conversations:

Conversation 1

A 'I want to buy a round table.'

B 'Do you want a new round table or an old round table?'

Conversation 2

A 'I want to buy an old table'.

B 'Do you want a round old table or a square old table?'

3.1.6 Adjective after Verb

We can use an **adjective** after certain *verbs*. Even though the adjective is after the verb, it does not describe the verb. It describes the subject of the verb (usually a noun or pronoun). For example:

subject *verb* **adjective**

- Ram *is* **English**.
- Because she had to wait, she *became* **impatient**.
- Is it *getting* **dark**?
- The examination did not *seem* **difficult**.
- Your friend *looks* **nice**.
- This towel *feels* **damp**.
- That new film doesn't *sound* very **interesting**.
- Dinner *smells* **good** tonight.
- This milk *tastes* **sour**.

3.1.7 Comparative Adjectives

When we talk about 2 things, we can "compare" them. We can see if they are the same or different. Perhaps they are the same in some ways and different in other ways.

A B

We can use comparative adjectives to describe the differences. "A is **bigger** than B."

Formation of Comparative Adjectives

There are two ways to form a comparative adjective:

- **short** adjectives: add **'-er'**
- **long** adjectives: use **'more'**

Short adjectives	
• 1-syllable adjectives	old, fast
• 2-syllable adjectives ending in -y	happy, easy
Normal rule: add '-er'	old > older
Variation: if the adjective ends in -e, just add –r	late > later
Variation: if the adjective ends in consonant, vowel, consonant, double the last consonant	big > bigger
Variation: if the adjective ends in -y, change the -y to -i	happy > happier
Long adjectives	
• 2-syllable adjectives not ending in -y	modern, pleasant
• all adjectives of 3 or more syllables	expensive, intellectual
Normal rule: use 'more'	modern > more modern expensive > more expensive

Tip With some 2-syllable adjectives, we can use '-er' *or* 'more':

- quiet > quieter/more quiet
- clever > cleverer/more clever
- narrow > narrower/more narrow
- simple > simpler/more simple

Exception! The following adjectives have irregular forms:

- good > better
- well (healthy) > better
- bad > worse
- far > farther/further

Use of Comparative Adjectives

We use comparative adjectives when talking about 2 things (not 3 or 10 or 1,000,000 things, only 2 things).

Often, the comparative adjective is followed by 'than'.

Look at these examples:

- John is 1m80. He is tall. But Chris is 1m85. He is **taller than** John.
- America is big. But Russia is **bigger**.
- I want to have a **more powerful** computer.
- Is French **more difficult** than English?

If we talk about the two planets Earth and Mars, we can compare them like this:

	Earth	**Mars**	
Diameter (km)	12,760	6,790	Mars is **smaller** than Earth.
Distance from Sun (million km)	150	228	Mars is **more distant** from the Sun.
Length of day (hours)	24	25	A day on Mars is slightly **longer** than a day on Earth.
Moons	1	2	Mars has **more** moons than Earth.
Surface temperature (°C)	22	-23	Mars is **colder** than Earth.

3.1.8 Superlative Adjectives

Comparison is between 2 things: "A is bigger than B."

A B

But the **superlative** is the extreme between 3 or more things. "A is **the biggest**."

A B C

Formation of Superlative Adjectives

As with comparative adjectives, there are two ways to form a **superlative adjective**:

- **short** adjectives: add **'-est'**
- **long** adjectives: use **'most'**

We also usually add 'the' at the beginning.

Short adjectives	
1-syllable adjectives	old, fast
2-syllable adjectives ending in –y	happy, easy
Normal rule: add '-est'	old > the oldest
Variation: if the adjective ends in -e, just add –st	late > the latest
Variation: if the adjective ends in consonant, vowel, consonant, double the last consonant	big > the biggest
Variation: if the adjective ends in -y, change the -y to –i	happy > the happiest
Long adjectives	
2-syllable adjectives not ending in –y	modern, pleasant
all adjectives of 3 or more syllables	expensive, intellectual
Normal rule: use 'most'	modern > the most modern expensive > the most expensive

Tip With some 2-syllable adjectives, we can use '-est' *or* 'most':

- quiet > the quietest/most quiet
- clever > the cleverest/most clever
- narrow > the narrowest/most narrow
- simple > the simplest/most simple

Exception! The following adjectives have irregular forms:

- good > the best
- bad > the worst
- far > the furthest

3.1.9 Use of Superlative Adjectives

We use a superlative adjective to describe 1 thing in a group of 3 or more things.

Look at these examples:

- John is 1m75. David is 1m80. Chris is 1m85. Chris is **the tallest**.
- America, China and Russia are big countries. But Russia is **the biggest**.
- Mount Everest is **the highest** mountain in the world.

If we talk about the three planets Earth, Mars and Jupiter, we can use superlatives like this:

	Earth	Mars	Jupiter	
Diameter (km)	12,760	6,790	142,800	Jupiter is **the biggest**.
Distance from Sun (million km)	150	228	778	Jupiter is **the most distant** from the Sun.
Length of day (hours)	24	25	10	Jupiter has **the shortest** day.
Moons	1	2	16	Jupiter has **the most** moons.
Surface temperature (°C)	22	-23	-150	Jupiter is **the coldest**.

When we compare one thing with itself, we do not use "the":

- England is **coldest** in winter. (*not* the coldest)

Lesson Plan Unit IV

Term : 1st

Subject : English Adverbs

Topic:	English Adverbs in lesson.
Goals:	• Realizing English adverbs in sentence. • Know way to use English adverbs in the right situation. • Choose English adverbs in applying into sentence.
Objectives:	At the end of the lesson, the students should be able to: • Differentiate English adverbs; • Identify English adverbs in each sentence; • Rewrite the sentence changing English adverbs from sentence to other sentence; • Appreciate the lesson by showing active participation of the students towards the lesson.
Materials:	• Internet Access: any resources based on the topic. • Basic definitions of English adverbs. • Teaching English adverbs. • English adverbs websites or another explanation of adverbs.
Introduction:	• Introduce about adverbs in English. • Indicate kinds of adverbs in English.
Development:	• Choose more formal language; students can adopt a more objective style which can result in a reliance on English adverbs constructions, a style that is more awkward than it is formal. • Inviting students to discover the relationship between the actor (or subject) and the action (or predicate) in using English adverbs. It can provide students with more details on how the constructions work, better enabling students to choose the best language for their writing situation.
Practice:	• Give the lesson and ask student to indicate English adverbs. • Ask student to translate in the different situation with English adverbs. • Do multi choices exercise.
Accommodations:	• Once students have identified English adverbs from the page(s) they're exploring, divide students into small groups to explore their findings. • Ask students to share their findings and use the collected information to draw conclusions about when they choose English adverbs. • After teacher is satisfied that students have had enough time to explore their findings, gather as a group and ask students to share their conclusions. • Ask students to support their conclusions with specific details from the lesson.
Checking for Understanding:	• Once the lesson is complete, ask students to explore the pieces that they are writing, checking for English adverbs. • Ask them to revise as necessary, based on whether adverbs are appropriate for the particular sentence. Students may work during their in-class writing time or complete the revisions as homework.

4.1 English Adverbs

An adverb is a word that tells us more about a verb. An adverb "qualifies" or "modifies" a *verb* (The man *ran* quickly). But adverbs can also modify *adjectives* (Tara is really *beautiful*), or even other *adverbs* (It works very *well*).

4.2 What Adverbs

Many different kinds of word are called adverbs. We can usually recognize an adverb by its:

1. **Function (Job)**
2. **Form**
3. **Position**

4.2.1 Function

The principal job of an adverb is to modify (give more information about) verbs, adjectives and other adverbs. In the following examples, the adverb is in **bold** and the word that it modifies is in *italics*.

- Modify a verb:
  - John *speaks* **loudly**. (How does John speak?)
  - Mary *lives* **locally**. (Where does Mary live?)
  - She **never** *smokes*. (When does she smoke?)
- Modify an adjective:
  - He is **really** *handsome*.
- Modify another adverb:
  - She drives **incredibly** *slowly*.

But adverbs have other functions, too. They can:

- Modify a whole sentence:
  - **Obviously**, *I can't know everything*.
- Modify a prepositional phrase:
  - It's **immediately** *inside the door*.

4.2.2 Form

Many adverbs end in -ly. We form such adverbs by adding -ly to the adjective. Here are some examples:

- quickly, softly, strongly, honestly, interestingly

But not all words that end in -ly are adverbs. "Friendly", for example, is an adjective.
Some adverbs have no particular form, for example:

- well, fast, very, never, always, often, still

4.2.3 Position

Adverbs have three main positions in the sentence:

- Front (before the subject):
  - **Now** we will study adverbs.
- Middle (between the subject and the main verb):
  - We **often** study adverbs.
- End (after the verb or object):
  - We study adverbs **carefully**.

4.3 Adverbs of Frequency

Adverbs of Frequency answer the question "How often?" or "How frequently?" They tell us how often somebody does something.

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

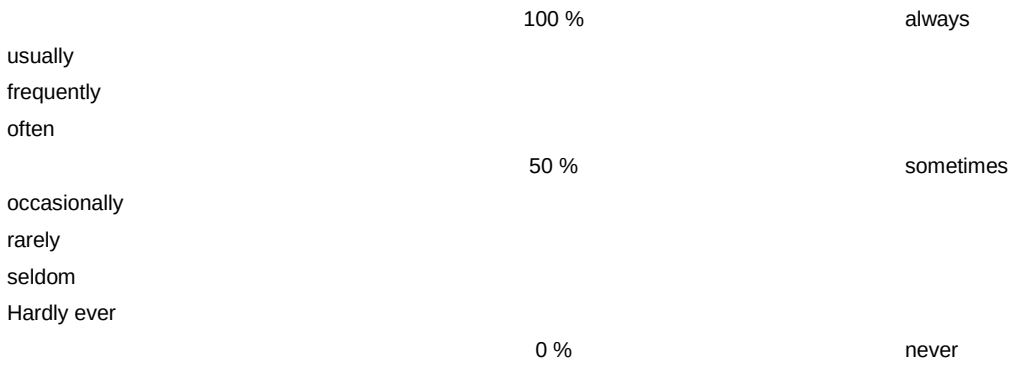
- We **usually** go shopping on Saturday.
- I have **often** done that.
- She is **always** late.

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

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

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

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



Lesson Plan Unit V

Term : 1st

Subject : English Pronouns

Topic:	English Pronouns in lesson.
Goals:	• Realizing English pronouns in sentence. • Know way to use English pronouns in the right situation. • Choose English pronouns in applying into sentence.
Objectives:	At the end of the lesson, the students should be able to: • Differentiate the be gong to; • Identify English pronouns in each sentence; • Rewrite the sentence changing English pronouns from sentence to other sentence; • Appreciate the lesson by showing active participation of the students towards the lesson.
Materials:	• Internet Access: any resources based on the topic. • Basic definitions of English pronouns. • Teaching English pronouns. • English pronouns websites or another explanation of pronouns.
Introduction:	• Introduce about pronouns in English. • Indicate kinds of pronouns in English.
Development:	• Choose more formal language; students can adopt a more objective style which can result in a reliance on English pronouns constructions, a style that is more awkward than it is formal. • Inviting students to discover the relationship between the actor (or subject) and the action (or predicate) in using English pronouns. It can provide students with more details on how the constructions work, better enabling students to choose the best language for their writing situation.
Practice:	• Give the lesson and ask student to indicate English pronouns. • Ask student to translate in the different situation with English pronouns. • Do multi choices exercise.
Accommodations:	• Once students have identified English pronouns from the page(s) they're exploring, divide students into small groups to explore their findings. • Ask students to share their findings and use the collected information to draw conclusions about when they choose English pronouns. • After teacher is satisfied that students have had enough time to explore their findings, gather as a group and ask students to share their conclusions. • Ask students to support their conclusions with specific details from the lesson.
Checking for Understanding:	• Once the lesson is complete, ask students to explore the pieces that they are writing, checking for English pronouns. • Ask them to revise as necessary, based on whether pronouns are appropriate for the particular sentence. Students may work during their in-class writing time or complete the revisions as homework.

5.1 English Pronouns

Pronouns are small words that take the place of a noun. We can use a pronoun instead of a noun. Pronouns are words like: **he**, **you**, **ours**, **themselves**, **some**, **and each**... If we didn't have Pronouns, we would have to repeat a lot of nouns. We would have to say things like:

- Do you like the President? I don't like the President. The President is too pompous.

With Pronouns, we can say:

- Do you like the President? I don't like **her**. **She** is too pompous.

5.1.1 Personal Pronouns

This summary of personal pronoun includes possessive adjectives for convenience and comparison.

Number	Person	Gender*	Pronouns				Possessive Adjectives
			Subject	Object	Possessive	Reflexive	
singular	1st	m/f	I	me	mine	Myself	My
	2nd	m/f	you	you	yours	Yourself	Your
	3rd	M	he	him	his	Himself	His
		F	she	her	hers	Herself	Her
		N	it	it	its	Itself	Its
plural	1st	m/f	we	us	ours	Ourselves	Our
	2nd	m/f	you	you	yours	Yourselves	Your
	3rd	m/f/n	they	them	theirs	Themselves	Their

* m=male f=female n=neuter

Examples:

Pronoun	**Subject**	**She** likes homework.
	Object	The teacher gave **me** some homework.
	Possessive	This homework is **yours**.
	Reflexive	John did the homework **himself**.
Possessive adjective		The Teacher Corrected **Our** Homework.

Lesson Plan Unit VI

Term : 1st

Subject : English Prepositions

Topic:	English Prepositions in lesson.
Goals:	• Realizing English prepositions in sentence. • Know way to use English prepositions in the right situation. • Choose English prepositions in applying into sentence.
Objectives:	At the end of the lesson, the students should be able to: • Differentiate the be gong to; • Identify English prepositions in each sentence; • Rewrite the sentence changing English prepositions from sentence to other sentence; • Appreciate the lesson by showing active participation of the students towards the lesson.
Materials:	• Internet Access: any resources based on the topic. • Basic definitions of English prepositions. • Teaching English prepositions. • English prepositions websites or another explanation of prepositions.
Introduction:	• Introduce about prepositions in English. • Indicate kinds of prepositions s in English.
Development:	• Choose more formal language; students can adopt a more objective style which can result in a reliance on English prepositions constructions, a style that is more awkward than it is formal. • Inviting students to discover the relationship between the actor (or subject) and the action (or predicate) in using English prepositions. It can provide students with more details on how the constructions work, better enabling students to choose the best language for their writing situation.
Practice:	• Give the lesson and ask student to indicate English prepositions. • Ask student to translate in the different situation with English prepositions. • Do multi choices exercise.
Accommodations:	• Once students have identified English prepositions from the page(s) they're exploring, divide students into small groups to explore their findings. • Ask students to share their findings and use the collected information to draw conclusions about when they choose English prepositions. • After teacher is satisfied that students have had enough time to explore their findings, gather as a group and ask students to share their conclusions. • Ask students to support their conclusions with specific details from the lesson.
Checking for Understanding:	• Once the lesson is complete, ask students to explore the pieces that they are writing, checking for English prepositions. • Ask them to revise as necessary, based on whether prepositions are appropriate for the particular sentence. Students may work during their in-class writing time or complete the revisions as homework.

6.1 English Prepositions

A preposition is a word governing, and usually coming in front of, a *noun or pronoun* and expressing a relation to another word or element, as in:

- She left **before** *breakfast*
- *What* did you come **for**?

There are more than 100 Prepositions in English. Yet this is a very small number when you think of the thousands of other words (nouns, verbs etc). Prepositions are important words. We use individual Prepositions more frequently than other individual words. In fact, the Prepositions **of**, **to** and **in** are among the ten most frequent words in English.

Here is a short list of 70 of the more common one-word Prepositions. Many of these Prepositions have more than one meaning. Please refer to a dictionary for precise meaning and usage. For a full list of 150 Prepositions (including one-word and complex Prepositions with 370 example sentences), try the e-book English Prepositions Listed.

- aboard
- about
- above
- across
- after
- against
- along
- amid
- among
- anti
- around
- as
- at

- before
- behind
- below
- beneath
- beside
- besides
- between
- beyond
- but
- by

- concerning
- considering

- despite
- down
- during

- except
- excepting
- excluding

- following
- for
- from

- in
- inside
- into

- like

- minus

- near

- of
- off
- on
- onto
- opposite
- outside
- over

- past
- per
- plus

- regarding
- round

- save
- since

- than
- through
- to
- toward
- towards

- under
- underneath
- unlike
- until
- up
- upon

- versus
- via

- with
- within
- without

6.2 English Preposition Rule

There is one very simple rule about Prepositions. And, unlike most rules, this rule has no exceptions.

Rule: A preposition is followed by a "noun". It is never followed by a verb.

By "noun" we include:

- **noun** (dog, money, love)
- **proper noun (name)** (Bangkok, Mary)
- **pronoun** (you, him, us)
- **noun group** (my first job)
- **gerund** (swimming)

A preposition cannot be followed by a verb. If we want to follow a preposition by a verb, we must use the "-ing" form which is really a gerund or verb in noun form.

Here are some examples:

Subject + verb	preposition	"noun"
The food is	on	the table.
She lives	in	Japan.
Tara is looking	for	you.
The letter is	under	your blue book.
Pascal is used	to	English people.
She isn't used	to	working.
I ate	before	coming.

Question:

In the following sentences, why is "to" followed by a verb? That should be impossible, according to the rule:

- I would like to go now.
- She used to smoke.

Answer:

In these sentences, "to" is **not** a preposition. It is part of the **infinitive** ("to go", "to smoke").

6.3 Prepositions of Place: at, in, on

In general, we use:

- **at** for a POINT
- **in** for an ENCLOSED SPACE
- **on** for a SURFACE

At	in	on
POINT	**ENCLOSED SPACE**	**SURFACE**
at the corner	in the garden	on the wall
at the bus stop	in London	on the ceiling
at the door	in France	on the door
at the top of the page	in a box	on the cover
at the end of the road	in my pocket	on the floor
at the entrance	in my wallet	on the carpet
at the crossroads	in a building	on the menu
at the entrance	in a car	on a page

Look at these examples:

- Jane is waiting for you **at** the bus stop.
- The shop is **at** the end of the street.
- My plane stopped **at** Dubai and Hanoi and arrived **in** Bangkok two hours late.
- When will you arrive **at** the office?
- Do you work **in** an office?
- I have a meeting **in** New York.
- Do you live **in** Japan?
- Jupiter is **in** the Solar System.
- The author's name is **on** the cover of the book.
- There are no prices **on** this menu.
- You are standing **on** my foot.
- There was a "no smoking" sign **on** the wall.
- I live **on** the 7th floor **at** 21 Oxford Street **in** London.

Notice the use of the Prepositions of place **at**, **in** and **on** in these standard expressions:

At	in	on
at home	in a car	on a bus
at work	in a taxi	on a train
at school	in a helicopter	on a plane
at university	in a boat	on a ship
at college	in a lift (elevator)	on a bicycle, on a motorbike
at the top	in the newspaper	on a horse, on an elephant
at the bottom	in the sky	on the radio, on television
at the side	in a row	on the left, on the right
at reception	in Oxford Street	on the way

6.4 Prepositions of Time: at, in, on

We use:

- **at** for a PRECISE TIME
- **in** for MONTHS, YEARS, CENTURIES and LONG PERIODS
- **on** for DAYS and DATES

At	In	On
PRECISE TIME	**MONTHS, YEARS, CENTURIES and LONG PERIODS**	**DAYS and DATES**
At 3 o'clock	in May	on Sunday
At 10.30am	in summer	on Tuesdays
At noon	in the summer	on 6 March
At dinnertime	in 1990	on 25 Dec. 2010
At bedtime	in the 1990s	on Christmas

		Day
At sunrise	in the next century	on Independence Day
At sunset	in the Ice Age	on my birthday
At the moment	in the past/future	on New Year's Eve

Look at these examples:

- I have a meeting **at** 9am.
- The shop closes **at** midnight.
- Jane went home **at** lunchtime.
- In England, it often snows **in** December.
- Do you think we will go to Jupiter **in** the future?
- There should be a lot of progress **in** the next century.
- Do you work **on** Mondays?
- Her birthday is **on** 20 November.
- Where will you be **on** New Year's Day?

Notice the use of the preposition of time **at** in the following standard expressions:

Expression	Example
At night	The stars shine **at night**.
At the weekend	I don't usually work **at the weekend**.
At Christmas/Easter	I stay with my family **at Christmas**.
At the same time	We finished the test **at the same time**.
At present	He's not home **at present**. Try later.

Notice the use of the Prepositions of time **in** and **on** in these common expressions:

In	on

In the morning	on Tuesday morning
In the mornings	on Saturday mornings
In the afternoon(s)	on Sunday afternoons
In the evening(s)	on Monday evening

When we say **last, next, every, this** we do not also use **at, in, on**.

- I went to London **last** June. (***not*** in last June)
- He's coming back **next** Tuesday. (***not*** on next Tuesday)
- I go home **every** Easter. (***not*** at every Easter)

We'll call you **this** evening. (***not*** in this evening)

Lesson Plan Unit VII

Term : 1st

Subject : English Articles

Topic:	English Articles in lesson.
Goals:	• Realizing English articles in sentence. • Know way to use English articles in the right situation. • Choose English articles in applying into sentence.
Objectives:	At the end of the lesson, the students should be able to: • Differentiate the be gong to; • Identify English articles in each sentence; • Rewrite the sentence changing English articles from sentence to other sentence; • Appreciate the lesson by showing active participation of the students towards the lesson.
Materials:	• Internet Access: any resources based on the topic. • Basic definitions of English articles. • Teaching English articles. • English articles websites or another explanation of articles.
Introduction:	• Introduce about articles in English. • Indicate kinds of articles in English.
Development:	• Choose more formal language; students can adopt a more objective style which can result in a reliance on English articles constructions, a style that is more awkward than it is formal. • Inviting students to discover the relationship between the actor (or subject) and the action (or predicate) in using English articles. It can provide students with more details on how the constructions work, better enabling students to choose the best language for their writing situation.
Practice:	• Give the lesson and ask student to indicate English articles. • Ask student to translate in the different situation with English articles. • Do multi choices exercise.
Accommodations:	• Once students have identified English articles from the page(s) they're exploring, divide students into small groups to explore their findings. • Ask students to share their findings and use the collected information to draw conclusions about when they choose English articles. • After teacher is satisfied that students have had enough time to explore their findings, gather as a group and ask students to share their conclusions. • Ask students to support their conclusions with specific details from the lesson.
Checking for Understanding:	• Once the lesson is complete, ask students to explore the pieces that they are writing, checking for English articles. • Ask them to revise as necessary, based on whether articles are appropriate for the particular sentence. Students may work during their in-class writing time or complete the revisions as homework.

7.1 English Article

Indefinite and Definite Articles

The words a, an, and the are special adjectives called articles.

7.1.1 Indefinite Articles—a, an

an—used before singular count nouns beginning with a vowel (a, e, i, o, u) or vowel sound:

- an apple, an elephant, an issue, an orange

a—used before singular count nouns beginning with consonants (other than a, e, i, o, u):

- a stamp, a desk, a TV, a cup, a book

7.1.2 Uses of Indefinite Article (a, an)

Used before singular nouns that are unspecified:

- a pencil
- an orange

Used before number collectives and some numbers:

- a dozen
- a gallon

Used before a singular noun followed by a restrictive modifier:

- a girl who was wearing a yellow hat

Used with nouns to form adverbial phrases of quantity, amount, or degree:

- I felt a bit depressed.

7.1.3 Definite Article—the

Can be used before singular and plural, count and non-count nouns

7.1.4 Use of Definite Article (the)

Used to indicate a noun that is definite or has been previously specified in the context:

- Please close the door.
- I like the clothes you gave me.

Used to indicate a noun that is unique:

- Praise the Lord!
- The Columbia River is near here.

Used to designate a natural phenomenon:

- The nights get shorter in the summer.
- The wind is blowing so hard.

Used to refer to a time period:

- I was very naïve in the past.
- This song was very popular in the 1980s.

Used to indicate all the members of a family:

- I invited the Bakers for dinner.
- This medicine was invented by the Smiths.

Lesson Plan Unit VIII

Term : 1st
Subject : English Conjunctions

Topic:	English Conjunctions in lesson.
Goals:	• Realizing English conjunctions in sentence. • Know way to use English conjunctions in the right situation. • Choose English conjunctions in applying into sentence.
Objectives:	At the end of the lesson, the students should be able to: • Differentiate the be gong to; • Identify English conjunctions in each sentence; • Rewrite the sentence changing English conjunctions from sentence to other sentence; • Appreciate the lesson by showing active participation of the students towards the lesson.
Materials:	• Internet Access: any resources based on the topic. • Basic definitions of English conjunctions. • Teaching English conjunctions. • English conjunctions websites or another explanation of conjunctions.
Introduction:	• Introduce about conjunctions in English. • Indicate kinds of conjunctions in English.
Development:	• Choose more formal language; students can adopt a more objective style which can result in a reliance on English conjunctions constructions, a style that is more awkward than it is formal. • Inviting students to discover the relationship between the actor (or subject) and the action (or predicate) in using English conjunctions. It can provide students with more details on how the constructions work, better enabling students to choose the best language for their writing situation.
Practice:	• Give the lesson and ask student to indicate English conjunctions. • Ask student to translate in the different situation with English conjunctions. • Do multi choices exercise.
Accommodations:	• Once students have identified English conjunctions from the page(s) they're exploring, divide students into small groups to explore their findings. • Ask students to share their findings and use the collected information to draw conclusions about when they choose English conjunctions. • After teacher is satisfied that students have had enough time to explore their findings, gather as a group and ask students to share their conclusions. • Ask students to support their conclusions with specific details from the lesson.
Checking for Understanding:	• Once the lesson is complete, ask students to explore the pieces that they are writing, checking for English conjunctions. • Ask them to revise as necessary, based on whether conjunctions are appropriate for the particular sentence. Students may work during their in-class writing time or complete the revisions as homework.

8.1 English Conjunctions

The conjunction is the part of speech used as a “joiner” for words, phrases, or clauses in a particular sentence. It links these words or groups of words together, in such a way that certain relationships among these different parts of the sentence will be established, and the thoughts that all of these convey will be connected.

In the English language, conjunctions come in three basic types: the **coordinating conjunctions**, the **subordinating conjunctions**, and the **correlative conjunctions**.

8.1.1 Coordinating Conjunction

Among the three types of conjunctions, this is probably the most common one. The main function of coordinating conjunctions is to join words, phrases, and clauses together, which are usually grammatically equal. Aside from that, this type of conjunctions is placed in between the words or groups of words that it links together, and not at the beginning or at the end.

Examples:

- Pizza and burgers are my favourite snacks.

In the sample sentence above, the underlined word serves as a coordinating conjunction that links two words together (pizza + burgers).

- The treasure was hidden in the cave or in the underground lagoon.

The example above shows how coordinating conjunctions can join together two (or more) phrases. The coordinating conjunction “or” in the sentence above links “in the cave” and “in the underground lagoon.”

- What those girls say and what they actually do are completely different.

In this sentence, you’ll see how the same coordinating conjunction ”and” from the first sample sentence can be used to link clauses together (“*what those girls say*” and “*what they actually do*”), instead of just single words.

How to Punctuate Coordinating Conjunctions

- In joining two words, phrases, or dependent clauses together, a comma is not required before the coordinating conjunction.

Examples:

- *aliens* and *predators*
- *by the beach* or *on the hill*
- *what you see* and *what you get*

- If, on the other hand, you are linking more than two words, phrases, and dependent clauses together, a series of commas must be placed in between the distinct elements.

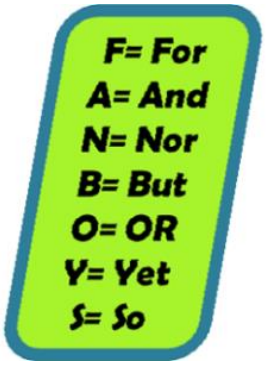
Examples:

- *spiders*, *snakes*, and *scorpions*
- *in the bedroom, in the garage,* or *at the garden*
- Lastly, for joining together two independent clauses, a comma must be used before placing the coordinating conjunction.

Examples:

- *Cassandra fell asleep*, so *Joaquin just went home*.
- *I don't really like spaghetti,* but *I can eat lasagne any day*.

For you to easily recall the different coordinating conjunctions that you can use, you can just remember the word "FANBOYS," which stands for:



8.1.2 Subordinating Conjunction

This type of conjunctions is used in linking two clauses together. Aside from the fact that they introduce a dependent clause, subordinating conjunctions also describe the relationship between the dependent clause and the independent clause in the sentence.

List of Common Subordinating Conjunctions:

- while
- as soon as
- although
- before
- even if
- because

- no matter how
- whether
- wherever
- when
- until
- after
- as if
- how
- if
- provided
- in that
- once
- supposing
- while
- unless
- in case
- as far as
- now that
- as
- so that
- though
- since

Sample Sentences:

- It is so cold outside, so I brought you a jacket.
- Because it is so cold outside, I brought you a jacket.

By looking at the sentences above, you will easily notice that a subordinating conjunction can be found either at the beginning of the sentence or between the clauses that it links together. Aside from that, a comma should also be placed in between the two clauses (independent clause and dependent clause) of the sentence.

8.1.3 Correlative Conjunction

The correlative conjunctions are simply pairs of conjunctions which are used to join equal sentence elements together.

List of Common Correlative Conjunctions:

- either… or

- neither… nor
- not only… but also
- both… and
- whether… or
- so… as

Sample Sentences:

- Both my brother and my father are lawyers.
- I can't decide whether I'll take Chemical Engineering or take Medical Technology in college.

8.1.4 What is a Conjunctive Adverb?

Although a conjunctive adverb is not a real conjunction, this kind of words functions as conjunctions in a sentence. Some examples of conjunctive adverbs are:

- in addition
- for example
- however
- therefore
- on the contrary
- hence
- in fact
- otherwise
- as a result
- indeed
- still
- thus
- on the other hand
- furthermore
- instead
- incidentally
- after all
- finally
- likewise
- meanwhile
- consequently

8.1.5 Final Thoughts

Conjunctions are very essential in speech and in writing. They improve the cohesion between the different parts of the text and enable you to construct long sentences without sounding awkward. Although the concept of conjunctions may seem too simple, you should still take time and make sure that you place the punctuations properly, choose the appropriate conjunctions, and see to it that you adhere to the standard rules of grammar.

Lesson Plan Unit IX

Term : 1st

Subject : English Interjections

Topic:	English Interjections in lesson.
Goals:	• Realizing English interjections in sentence. • Know way to use English interjections in the right situation. • Choose English interjection in applying into sentence.
Objectives:	At the end of the lesson, the students should be able to: • Differentiate English interjection; • Identify English interjection in each sentence; • Rewrite the sentence changing English interjections from sentence to other sentence; • Appreciate the lesson by showing active participation of the students towards the lesson.
Materials:	• Internet Access: any resources based on the topic. • Basic definitions of English interjections. • Teaching English interjection. • English interjections websites or another explanation of interjections.
Introduction:	• Introduce about interjections in English. • Indicate kinds of interjections in English.
Development:	• Choose more formal language; students can adopt a more objective style which can result in a reliance on English interjections constructions, a style that is more awkward than it is formal. • Inviting students to discover the relationship between the actor (or subject) and the action (or predicate) in using English interjections. It can provide students with more details on how the constructions work, better enabling students to choose the best language for their writing situation.
Practice:	• Give the lesson and ask student to indicate English interjections. • Ask student to translate in the different situation with English interjections. • Do multi choices exercise.
Accommodations:	• Once students have identified English interjections from the page(s) they're exploring, divide students into small groups to explore their findings. • Ask students to share their findings and use the collected information to draw conclusions about when they choose English interjections. • After teacher is satisfied that students have had enough time to explore their findings, gather as a group and ask students to share their conclusions. • Ask students to support their conclusions with specific details from the lesson.
Checking for Understanding:	• Once the lesson is complete, ask students to explore the pieces that they are writing, checking for English interjections. • Ask them to revise as necessary, based on whether the Interjections are appropriate for the particular sentence. Students may work during their in-class writing time or complete the revisions as homework.

9.1 English Interjections

Interjection is a big name for a little word. Interjections are short exclamations like **Oh!**, **Um** or **Ah!** They have no real grammatical value but we use them quite often, usually more in speaking than in writing.

When interjections are inserted into a sentence, they have no grammatical connection to the sentence. An interjection is sometimes followed by an exclamation mark (!) when written.

Here are some interjections with examples:

interjection	Meaning	example
ah	expressing pleasure	"Ah, that feels good."
	expressing realization	"Ah, now I understand."
	expressing resignation	"Ah well, it can't be helped."
	expressing surprise	"Ah! I've won!"
alas	expressing grief or pity	"Alas, she's dead now."
dear	expressing pity	"Oh dear! Does it hurt?"
	expressing surprise	"Dear me! That's a surprise!"
eh	asking for repetition	"It's hot today." "Eh?" "I said it's hot today."
	expressing enquiry	"What do you think of that, eh?"
	expressing surprise	"Eh! Really?"
	inviting agreement	"Let's go, eh?"
er	expressing hesitation	"Lima is the capital of...er...Peru."
hello, hullo	expressing greeting	"Hello John. How are you today?"
	expressing surprise	"Hello! My car's gone!"
hey	calling attention	"Hey! look at that!"
	expressing surprise, joy etc	"Hey! What a good idea!"
hi	expressing greeting	"Hi! What's new?"
hmm	expressing hesitation, doubt or disagreement	"Hmm. I'm not so sure."
oh, o	expressing surprise	"Oh! You're here!"
	expressing pain	"Oh! I've got a toothache."
	expressing pleading	"Oh, please say 'yes'!"
ouch	expressing pain	"Ouch! That hurts!"
uh	expressing hesitation	"Uh...I don't know the answer to that."
uh-huh	expressing agreement	"Shall we go?" "Uh-huh."

um, umm	expressing hesitation	"85 divided by 5 is...um...17."
well	expressing surprise	"Well I never!"
	introducing a remark	"Well, what did he say?"

Lesson Plan Unit X

Term : 1st

Subject : English Verbals

Topic:	English Verbals in lesson.
Goals:	• Realizing English verbals in sentence. • Know way to use English verbals in the right situation. • Choose English interjection in applying into sentence.
Objectives:	At the end of the lesson, the students should be able to: • Differentiate English interjection; • Identify English interjection in each sentence; • Rewrite the sentence changing English verbals from sentence to other sentence; • Appreciate the lesson by showing active participation of the students towards the lesson.
Materials:	• Internet Access: any resources based on the topic. • Basic definitions of English verbals. • Teaching English interjection. • English verbals websites or another explanation of verbals.
Introduction:	• Introduce about verbals in English. • Indicate kinds of verbals in English.
Development:	• Choose more formal language; students can adopt a more objective style which can result in a reliance on English verbals constructions, a style that is more awkward than it is formal. • Inviting students to discover the relationship between the actor (or subject) and the action (or predicate) in using English verbals. It can provide students with more details on how the constructions work, better enabling students to choose the best language for their writing situation.
Practice:	• Give the lesson and ask student to indicate English verbals. • Ask student to translate in the different situation with English verbals. • Do multi choices exercise.
Accommodations:	• Once students have identified English verbals from the page(s) they're exploring, divide students into small groups to explore their findings. • Ask students to share their findings and use the collected information to draw conclusions about when they choose English verbals. • After teacher is satisfied that students have had enough time to explore their findings, gather as a group and ask students to share their conclusions. • Ask students to support their conclusions with specific details from the lesson.
Checking for Understanding:	• Once the lesson is complete, ask students to explore the pieces that they are writing, checking for English verbals. • Ask them to revise as necessary, based on whether verbals are appropriate for the particular sentence. Students may work during their in-class writing time or complete the revisions as homework.

10.1 English Verbals

In one sense, the three verbals — gerunds, infinitives, and participles — should not be covered in this section on verbs. Although formed from verbs, verbals are never used alone as the action words in sentences; instead, they function as nouns, adjectives, or adverbs. These verbals are important in phrases.

Verbals are words that seem to carry the idea of action or being but do not function as a true verb. There are sometimes called "non-finite" (unfinished or incomplete) verbs. Because time is involved with all verb forms, whether finite or non-finite, however, following a logical Tense Sequence is important.

Sequence of Tenses: The relationship between verbs in a main clause and verbs in dependent clauses is important. These verb tenses don't have to be identical as long as they reflect, logically, shifts in time and meaning: "My brother *had graduated* before I *started* college." "My brother *will have graduated* before I *start*.

10.1.2 Kinds of Verbal

1. Gerund: a verb form, ending in *-ing*, which acts as a noun.
    - Running in the park after dark can be dangerous.

    Gerunds are frequently accompanied by other associated words making up a gerund phrase ("running in the park after dark").
2. Infinitive: the root of a verb plus the word *to*.
    - To sleep, perchance to dream.

    A present infinitive describes a present condition: "I like to sleep." The perfect infinitive describes a time earlier than that of the verb: "I would like to have won that game.
3. Participle: a verb form acting as an adjective.
    - The *running* dog chased the *fluttering* moth.

    A present participle (like *running* or *fluttering*) describes a present condition; a past participle describes something that has happened: "The completely *rotted* tooth finally fell out of his mouth." The distinction can be important to the meaning of a sentence; there is a huge difference between a *confusing* student and a *confused* student.

1. Gerunds

Gerunds are sometimes called "verbal nouns".

When a verb ends in -ing, it may be a gerund **or** a present participle. It is important to understand that they are not the same.

When we use a verb in -ing form more like a **noun**, it is usually a gerund:

- **Fishing** is fun.

When we use a verb in -ing form more like a **verb** or an **adjective**, it is usually a present participle:

- Anthony **is fishing**.
- I have a **boring** teacher.

Functions of Gerund

In this lesson, we look at the different ways in which we use gerunds, followed by a quiz to check your understanding.

Many grammarians do not like to use the expression "gerund". That is because there is sometimes no clear difference between a gerund and a present participle.

1. Gerunds as Subject, Object or Complement
2. Gerunds after Prepositions
3. Gerunds after Certain Verbs
4. Gerunds in Passive Sense

1. Gerunds as Subject, Object or Complement

Try to think of gerunds as verbs in noun form.

Like nouns, gerunds can be the subject, object or complement of a sentence:

- **Smoking** costs a lot of money.
- I don't like **writing**.
- My favourite occupation is **reading**.

But, like a verb, a gerund can also have an object itself. In this case, the whole expression [gerund + object] can be the subject, object or complement of the sentence.

- **Smoking cigarettes** costs a lot of money.
- I don't like **writing letters**.
- My favourite occupation is **reading detective stories**.

Like nouns, we can use gerunds with adjectives (including articles and other determiners):

- **pointless questioning**
- **a settling** of debts
- **the making** of *Titanic*
- **his drinking** of alcohol

But when we use a gerund with an article, it does not usually take a direct object:

- a settling of debts (*not* a settling debts)
- Making "Titanic" was expensive.
- The making of "Titanic" was expensive.

2. **Gerunds after Prepositions**

   This is a good rule. It has no exceptions!

   If we want to use a verb after a preposition, it must be a gerund. It is impossible to use an infinitive after a preposition. So for example, we say:

   - I will call you *after* **arriving** at the office.
   - Please have a drink *before* **leaving**.
   - I am looking forward *to* **meeting** you.
   - Do you object *to* **working** late?
   - Tara always dreams *about* **going** on holiday.

   Notice that you could replace all the above gerunds with "real" nouns:

   - I will call you *after* my arrival at the office.
   - Please have a drink *before* your departure.
   - I am looking forward *to* our lunch.
   - Do you object *to* this job?
   - Tara always dreams *about* holidays.

3. **Gerunds after Certain Verbs**

   We sometimes use one verb after another verb. Often the second verb is in the infinitive form, for example:

   - I *want* **to eat**.

   But sometimes the second verb must be in gerund form, for example:

   - I *dislike* **eating**.

This depends on the *first verb*. Here is a list of verbs that are usually followed by a verb in gerund form:

admit, appreciate, avoid, carry on, consider, defer, delay, deny, detest, dislike, endure, enjoy, escape, excuse, face, feel like, finish, forgive, give up, can't help, imagine, involve, leave off, mention, mind, miss, postpone, practise, put off, report, resent, risk, can't stand, suggest, understand

Look at these examples:

- She is *considering* **having** a holiday.
- Do you *feel like* **going** out?
- I *can't help* **falling** in love with you.
- I *can't stand* not **seeing** you.

Some verbs can be followed by the gerund form **or** the infinitive form without a big change in meaning: *begin, continue, hate, intend, like, love, prefer, propose, start*

- I like to play tennis.
- I like playing tennis.
- It started to rain.
- It started raining.

4. **Gerunds in Passive Sense**

We often use a gerund after the verbs *need, require* and *want*. In this case, the gerund has a passive sense.

- I have three shirts that *need* **washing**. (need to be washed)
- This letter *requires* **signing**. (needs to be signed)
- The house *wants* **repainting**. (needs to be repainted)

2. INFINITIVES

An ***infinitive*** is an uninflected form of a verb usually introduced by 'to'. An infinitive can serve either as a noun, adverb, or adjective. Examples:

As a noun:

- ***To Love*** is Divine.

As an adverb:

- Artists love ***to create*** art.

As an adjective:

- He has many tales ***to tell***.

Infinitive is the base form of the verb. The infinitive form of a verb is the form which follows "to".

For example:

(to) go, (to) be, (to) ask, (to) fight, (to) understand, (to) walk .

Infinitives may occur with or without the infinitive marker "to". Infinitives without "to" are known as "bare infinitives".

For example:

- Help me open the door.

after: the first, the last, the next

- Gagarin was the first to fly in a spaceship.
- Peter was the last to watch the film.
- He is the next to get his passport.

after: adjectives

- I'm happy to be here. It's better not to smoke.

after: certain verbs (agree, choose, forget, hope, learn, promise, regret, want, …)

- I learn to drive a car.

after: question words

- I don't know what to say.
- Can you tell me how to get to the bus stop?

after: want/ would like

- I want you to help me.

verb + object + to-infinitive

- I helped my dad to clean the car.

3. PARTICIPLES

A participle is a word formed from a verb that can function as part of a verb phrase. There are two participles: The present participle and the past participle. They can both be used as adjectives.

A. Present participle

The present participle is formed by adding "**-ing**" to the base form of a verb. It is used in:

Continuous or Progressive verb forms

- I'm **leaving** in five minutes.
- The girl is **swimming**

As an adjective

- A **dying** man
- Your mother is a **charming** person

As a gerund

- He is afraid of **flying**.

B. Past participle

The past participle is formed by adding "**-ed**" to the base form, unless it is an irregular verb. It is used:

As an adjective

- A **tired** group
- **Spoken** words cannot be revoked.

With the auxiliary verb "**have**" to form the perfect aspect

- The gas station **has closed**
- They**'ve** just **arrived**.

With the verb "**be**" to form the passive

- He **was robbed** a couple of days ago.
- The letter **was written**.

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