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University of Blida 2
Faculty of Arts and Languages
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وزارة التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي

جامعة البليدة 2

كلية الآداب واللغات

قسم اللغة الانجليزية

Course Title:

ENGLISH MORPHOLOGY

For first year LMD students

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Introduction

Morphology is a branch of grammar that studies the internal structure of words, word formation processes, as well as word forms that appear in different grammatical contexts.

Most words are complex structures that can be divided further into smaller meaningful units called morphemes. The combination of morphemes is not a random process, rather it is governed by combinatorial rules that ensure the systematicity of word forms and word formation processes. To become a proficient speaker of English, it is essential therefore to be aware of typical combinatorial patterns in morphology in order to be able to use words and their forms correctly in different grammatical contexts.

The course ‘English Morphology’ will introduce students to the internal structure of English words. Upon the completion of the course, students will be able to recognize typical combinatorial patterns of English morphemes and use them as building blocks in their speech and writing.

I. Course Description

The course contains 11 lessons that first introduce students to the basic concepts in morphology (morpheme, allomorph, root, affix, base) and then tackle each lexical part of speech from two perspectives – inflection and derivation. Additionally, the course introduces criteria for the differentiation between different parts of speech and focuses specifically on the use of their forms in context.

Each lesson contains a theoretical part which is devoted to the explanation of key terms, rules and grammatical structures and a practical part consisting of a series of exercises. In terms of practice, each lesson proceeds from recognition to production: students are first trained to identify word forms in context and then practice using these forms in their own speech and writing. This approach allows to reinforce both receptive and productive language skills which are essential for effective communication in the target language. Exercises include activities of different types such as opening the brackets, filling in the gaps, correcting mistakes, dividing words into morphemes, making sentences to describe pictures and writing short paragraphs. Activities are done either individually or in pairs and small groups which helps to enhance students’ sense of responsibility, on the one hand, and their collaborative skills, on the other. Students receive regular homework assignments to practice what they’ve learnt in classroom.

The time allotted for the course is 3 hours, or two sessions, per week. The course is taught during the first semester of the first year and comprises 13 weeks.

II Syllabus

LESSON ONE: Morphology. Types of morphemes

LESSON TWO: Inflection and derivation

LESSON THREE: Parts of speech

LESSON FOUR: Nouns

LESSON FIVE: Adjectives and adverbs

LESSON SIX: Pronouns

LESSON SEVEN: Verbs

LESSON EIGHT: The use of tenses to talk about the future

LESSON NINE: The use of tenses to talk about the present

LESSON TEN: The use of tenses to talk about the past

LESSON ELEVEN: Mood and voice

LESSON TWELVE: Revision (part 1)

LESSON THIRTEEN: Revision (part 2)

III Prerequisites

In order to benefit from this course, students should fulfill the following requirements:

- B2 English level (upper-intermediate);
- having basic knowledge about English parts of speech (their form, meaning and usage);
- having basic knowledge about the structure of the English sentence (word order, basic grammatical structures).

A prerequisite test is available at the online teaching platform of Blida2 university:

<https://elearning.univ-blida2.dz/>

IV The Place of the Course in the Curriculum

"English Morphology" represents the first module of the course "Grammar of the Language of Study" which is taught during the first two years (L1 and L2) at the department of English language in Blida 2 University.

Cross-curricula unit: **UEF1.1/Grammar**

Coefficient: **2**

Credit: **4**

V Course Objectives

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

- explain the key terms used in morphology
- divide words into morphemes
- differentiate between parts of speech in context
- identify different forms of the same word in context
- use different word forms appropriately in their speech and writing
- develop their analytical and collaborative skills.

VI Modes of Assessment

The final assessment is composed of:

- a. **The exam** (60% of the final mark) that includes all students have learnt during the semester. In the exam, students will have to:

- ✓ do exercises similar to those given to them in class during TD sessions or available online in quizzes;
- ✓ answer summary questions (MCQ, short answer questions);
- ✓ make their own sentences according to specific criteria or write a short paragraph.

- b. **Continuous assessment** (the remaining 40% of the mark) will be comprised of:

- ✓ the mark for the **midterm test (15 pts.)**;
- ✓ **participation** in classroom activities (participation in discussions, answers to questions, doing exercises during TD sessions, doing homework assignments) (**5 pts.**).

The test is held on week 7 or 8 of the first semester. It contains exercises similar to those previously done in class. The time allotted for the test is 1H.

VII Useful Resources

Hewings, M. (2013). *Advanced grammar in use : A self-study reference and practice book for advanced learners of English*. Cambridge University Press.

LESSON ONE

Morphology. Types of Morphemes

Objectives

At the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

- define morphology as a field of study
- explain the key terms used in morphology
- classify morphemes according to their types.

1. Levels of Linguistic Analysis

Language has a very complex structure which, in terms of its organisation, can be likened to a living organism. As you, probably, know, any living organism can be studied at different levels: cells combine together to create tissues, tissues compose organs which, in turn, combine into systems, and all systems together finally create a living organism functioning as a single unit.

The same can be said about language. Individual sounds combine into morphemes, morphemes make words, words create sentences, and sentences link to form a text. All these elements of language, being closely related to each other, can, nevertheless, be analysed separately at their own structural level. Therefore, the following five levels of linguistic analysis can be distinguished : **PHONETICS, MORPHOLOGY, SYNTAX, SEMANTICS** and **PRAGMATICS**.

1.1 Phonetics

Phonetics is a branch of linguistics that studies how humans produce and perceive sounds of speech. The main object of study at this level is called a phoneme.

E.g. /æ/, /k/, /s/, /t/

Phonemes in themselves are meaningless.

1.2 Morphology

Morphology studies *the internal structure of words*, how words can be divided into smaller meaningful units called *morphemes*.

E.g. **cat** (one animal) + **s** (the idea of plurality) → **cats** (more than one animal)

1.3 Syntax

Syntax studies how words combine together in a sentence.

E.g. **Cats eat mice.**

1.4 Semantics

Semantics studies word meanings and relations between them in the lexicon.

E.g. **Cats, dogs, wolves are animals.**

1.5 Pragmatics

Pragmatics studies how language is used in different social contexts.

E.g. **The cat Kitty wins the first prize!**

Just by pronouncing this sentence, we attribute a new social status to the cat called Kitty.

***Grammar** is a set of rules that define how different meaningful units of language are combined together to make up words and sentences of the given language. Grammar is a combination of **morphology** and **syntax**. Therefore, the study of morphology is part of the general grammar course.*

2. Morphology

The word ‘morphology’ comes from Greek: morph- (shape, form) + -ology (the study of something).

Morphology studies the smallest meaningful units of language – morphemes.

2.1 Morphemes and syllables

IMPORTANT!

Do not confuse morphemes with sounds and syllables which are not meaningful.

Morpheme is the smallest **meaningful** unit of language.

Let's compare the two words CATS and CATEGORY.

cat (domestic animal) + **s** (plural) → **two morphemes** (But! four sounds and one syllable)

category → **one morpheme** (But! eight sounds and four syllables - ca-te-go-ry)

In the word ‘category,’ the sequences of sounds 'cat,' ‘ego’ and 'gory' are not meaningful. In terms of meaning, the word 'category' has nothing to do with either cats, blood or the idea of being selfish. Therefore, these sequences of sounds can not be considered morphemes.

2.2 Criteria for the Differentiation of Morphemes

1. A morpheme is part of a word that has **meaning**. It's meaning should be related to the meaning of the whole word.
2. It **cannot be further divided** into smaller meaningful units.
3. It **occurs in different words** with a relatively stable meaning.

EXERCISE 1: *Divide the following words into morphemes. Apply the criteria mentioned above.*

Rewrite, reply, dogma, dogcatcher, fearful, tiger, lawn, unlawful

2.3 Morphemes and their Allomorphs

The same morpheme can have different variants in different contexts. Compare the following words: *dogs, horses, cats, tables, fists, checks, judges, eyelashes, days*. The -s of plural is pronounced differently in these words depending on the context.

/S/	/Z/	/IZ/
cats fists checks	dogs tables days	horses judges eyelashes

The plural -s has three phonetic variants. It is pronounced as :

[s]: if it is preceded by a **voiceless consonant** such as t, k, p, f, etc.

[z]: if it is preceded by a **vowel or a voiced consonant** such as b, d, g, etc.

[IZ] or [əZ]: after the **sibilants** such as s, z, ʃ, ʒ.

In this case, we say that the plural morpheme -s has **three allomorphs**. The choice of the allomorph depends on the phonetic context, namely the type of sound that immediately precedes this morpheme. Its meaning does not change, however. In all the words mentioned above, it is used to mark the plural form.

An **allomorph** is a phonetic variant of a morpheme. Allomorphs of one morpheme have the **SAME MEANING**, but **DIFFERENT PRONUNCIATION**.

HOMEWORK ASSIGNMENT: *Think of the past tense suffix -ed. How many allomorphs does it have? What factors determine their distribution? Draw a table providing your own examples.*

2.4 Types of Morphemes

Morphemes can be classified according to their:

- meaning
- position in the word
- function.

2.4.1 Meaning

Morphemes contribute differently to the general meaning of the word they compose. Therefore, they can be divided into two major categories :

- **roots** whose meaning is more precise and evokes a particular type of situation
- **affixes** whose meaning is much broader. They specify different aspects of the situation evoked by the root morpheme.

Compare the following words divided into morphemes: **help-ful, un-help-ful, help-ful-ness, help-ful-ly, help-er, help-less, help-less-ly, help-less-ness**. The part of the word that evokes a particular type of situation in all these words is **HELP** (*assisting someone who is in trouble*). This is the most meaningful part of the word and is called **a root morpheme**.

Other morphemes such as **-ful, -ness, -ly, -er** specify different aspects of the situation evoked by the root HELP. For example, **-ful** means that *someone or something possesses the quality expressed by the root* (in our case, being able to assist someone in trouble), **-less**, on the contrary, marks *the absence of such quality* (being unable to assist someone in trouble). Such morphemes are called **affixes**.

2.4.2 Position in the Word

According to their position in the word, morphemes can be classified into:

- **prefixes** (affixes that go before the root): **unscrew, rewrite, misinterpret**
PREFIX + ROOT
- **suffixes** (affixes that go after the root): **helpful, agreeable, childhood**
ROOT + SUFFIX

2.4.3 Function

Morphemes can also be divided into **free** and **bound**. Free morphemes can function as words by themselves, whereas bound morphemes must be attached to another form to be able to function as a word.

Compare root morphemes of the words in the right column to those in the left column.

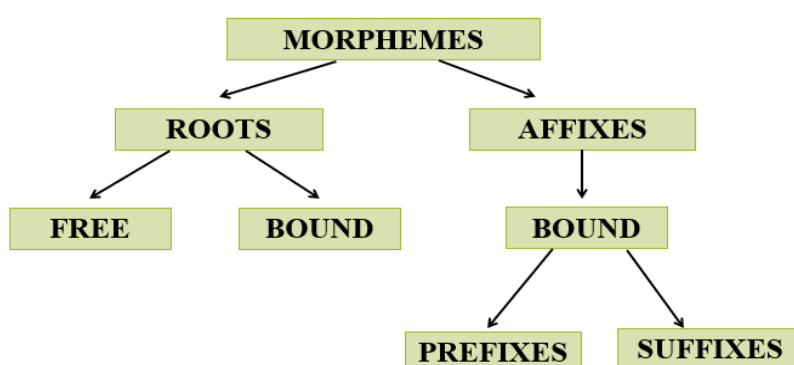
hear - ing en - large perform - ance white -ness dark - en seek - er	audi - ence magn - ify rend - ition clar - ity obfusc - ate applic - ant
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In the left column, all root morphemes (-hear-, -large-, -perform-, -white-, -dark-, -seek-) can function as words by themselves (hear, large, perform, etc.). These are **free morphemes**.

By contrast, the root morphemes of the words in the right column can not function as words without the necessary affixes (magn*, rend*, clar*, obfusc*, applic*). These are **bound morphemes**.

Note that affixes are always bound, whereas roots can belong to both types.

Fig. 1 Types of Morphemes



EXERCISE 2: Fill in the table below using the following morphemes.

un-friend-ly, loc-ation, un-comfort-able, fear-less, re-cogn-ition

ROOT		AFFIX	
FREE	BOUND	PREFIX	SUFFIX

EXERCISE 3: Use the following morphemes to build as many words as possible. Identify the type of each morpheme in your words.

y	ation	sleep	dis	ing	a	ate
ly	loc	al	less	er	norm	
ity	re	ab	para	over	ize	

EXERCISE 4: Make as many new words as possible using the following root morphemes: **-WAKE-**, **-BAKE-**. What types of morphemes did you use?

REFERENCES

Carstairs-McCarthy, A. (2002). An Introduction to English Morphology. Words and their Structure. Edinburgh University Press.

Veselovská, L. (2017). English Morphology. Syllabi for the Lectures. Examples and Exercises. Palacky University Olomouc.

LESSON TWO

Inflection and Derivation

Objectives

At the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

- explain the difference between inflectional and derivational affixes
- recognize a lexeme among other forms of the same word
- identify the structural type of the word (simple, complex, compound).

2.1 Inflectional Morphology

Morphology can be approached from two different perspectives - paradigmatic and syntagmatic. Approached from the syntagmatic perspective, morphology studies how the choice of a word form depends on the word's relation to other words in the sentence. Such study is called **inflectional morphology**. Consider the following examples:

I **walk** every day. (I → walk)

She **walks** every day. (She → walks)

We are **walking** now. (now → walking)

The choice of a particular form of the word 'to walk' depends on the context : 'I' requires the form 'walk', 'she' requires the form 'walks', and 'now' requires the form 'walking'. All these forms represent the same word in different grammatical contexts.

Inflectional morphology studies how the same entity takes different forms in different contexts. Look at the pictures below. You can see the same person in both pictures. Her looks are very different, however. Why?



Lady Gaga with and without makeup

A person may look very different in different social contexts. We wear casual clothes at home and an evening gown at a cocktail party. The same with words. One word may take one suffix in one context and another suffix in another context.

Note that inflectional suffixes are always required by the context. Consider the following example:

The boy**s**/ car**s**/ rabbit**s**/ plane**s** **are** fast.

The use of the plural suffix -s in this sentence is required by the plural form of the verb to be. So whatever noun you use in this sentence, it will have to take the plural form.

2.1.1 Properties of Inflectional Suffixes

Inflectional suffixes have the following properties:

1. They never change the part of speech of the base.
Ex: bed (n.) – bed**s** (n.), like (v.) – like**d** (v.)
2. They are always found at the very end of the word.
Ex: paint + er + **s** NOT paint + **s** + er
3. They can be attached to many (though not all) words belonging to the same part of speech.

Ex: cat –cats BUT sheep - sheep
 car – cars

2.1.2 Lexemes

The **initial form** of a word is called a **lexeme**. It is this form that you find as a headword in a dictionary entry.

HAPPY → **lexeme**

happier }
 happiest } Forms of the lexeme HAPPY

2.2 Derivational Morphology

Approached from the paradigmatic perspective, morphology studies how different words are grouped together into conceptual categories by sharing certain elements in their internal structure. Such study is called **derivational morphology**. Consider the following examples:

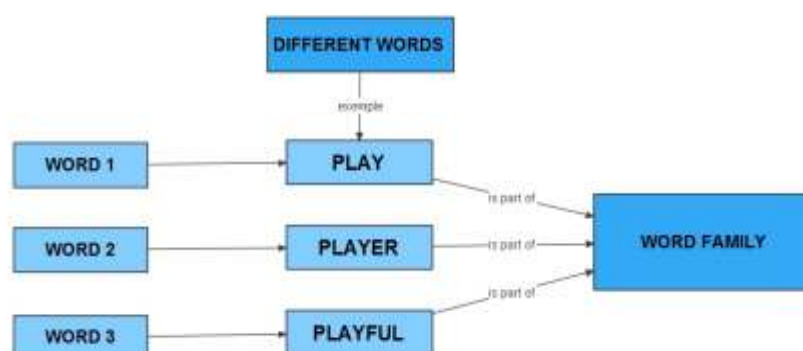
play
player
playful

worker
writer
builder
painter

tenderness
madness
redness

In the first column, all words are related to the idea of 'playing.' They share the same root **-play-**. In the second column, all words refer to people who perform a particular type of action. They share the same suffix **-er**. As for the third column, all words there refer to a particular quality. They share the same suffix **-ness**. In each of these groups, words share the same structural units - morphemes (-play-, -er, -ness) - which allows us to group them together into the same conceptual categories - **word families** (see fig. 2).

Figure 2: A Word Family



Derivational morphology studies different words that are related to each other by the fact that they share the same element in their internal structure. Look at the picture below. You can see a group of people. These people look similar, however. Why ?



Different people, similar traits

Family members share some genetic information and, therefore, look similar. They are, nevertheless, different entities - different people. The same with words. Different words may share certain structural elements which put them into the same conceptual category.

Note that derivational affixes are not required by the context. Consider the following example:

The movie/ perform**ance**/ recital**al**/ training**ing**/ explan**ation** was amazing.

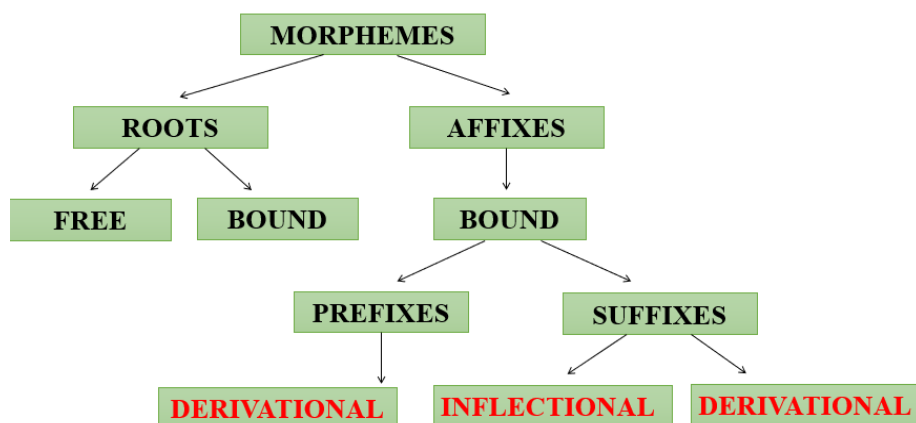
Here, suffixes -ance, -al, -ing, -ation are not required by the context; any of them may appear in this sentence depending on the structure of individual words.

2.3 Summary

	INFLECTIONAL MORPHOLOGY	DERIVATIONAL MORPHOLOGY
Purpose	the study of the modification of words to fit into different grammatical contexts	the study of the formation of new words that differ either in part of speech or in meaning from their bases
Types of affixes	affixes that indicate some grammatical information about a word	affixes that change either the meaning or the part of speech of the word
Result	new forms of the same word	new words

Affixes in English are divided into inflectional and derivational. Note that prefixes are always derivational; whereas, suffixes can belong to both types: some suffixes are inflectional, while others are derivational (see Fig. 3).

Figure 3: Types of Morphemes



EXERCISE 1: Write all possible word forms for the following lexemes. Compare words that belong to the same part of speech. What do you notice?

CHECK (verb)	PEN (noun)	CHEAP (adjectif)	BIG (adjectif)	PLAY (verb)	DOOR (noun)

EXERCISE 2: Modify the word in brackets so that it fits in the context. Did you use an inflectional or a derivational affix? What lexeme corresponds to each form?

- There were so many _____ playing in the yard. (BOY)
Her husband died, leaving her _____. (CHILD)
- I won't tell you my score, that would be too _____. (BOAST)
I do hate the way Bill _____ about his new car yesterday. (BOAST)
- He's the _____ kid I've ever met. (SMART)
Here are a few tips that will help you to shop _____. (SMART)
- You can also _____ and fast forward the episodes. (WIND)
I was _____ through the twisty streets behind the Blue Mosque. (WIND)

Note that a derivational morpheme is always part of the lexeme, whereas an inflectional morpheme is not.

EXERCISE 3: *Fill in the table using words in bold. What is the lexeme? What are other forms of these words?*

1. He **likes** to paint by himself.
2. She is a very good **dancer**.
3. He always looks **friendly**.
4. It wasn't me who **dropped** the book.
5. They are **taller** than me.
6. Those **horses** are fast.
7. She is **riding** a bike.
8. How can you be so **cheerful**?
9. You were terribly **unkind** to her.

INFLECTIONAL MORPHOLOGY	DERIVATIONAL MORPHOLOGY

EXERCISE 4: *Compare the structure of the following groups of words. What do you notice? Which group does the word 'horses' belong to?*

1. food, house, grass, tree, fish
2. performance, collection, recognition, disintegration
3. greenhouse, blackbird, blueberry, doorbell

2.4 Word Structure

Based on the types of morphemes they contain, words can be divided into three groups: **simple**, **complex** and **compound**.

1. **SIMPLE** words contain only **one root** and **NO derivational affixes** (but may contain an inflectional suffix)
dog, read, the, tell
2. **COMPLEX** words contain **a root** and at least **one derivational affix (affixes)**
loud-ly, un-kind, pleas-ant-ly
3. **COMPOUND** words contain at least **two roots**
black/board, rain/bow, wrong/do-er

EXERCISE 5: Use words in bold to fill in the table below. Write each morpheme into the appropriate box according to its type.

1. He is the **happi-est** person in the world.
2. This tube is **re-mov-able**.
3. He wanted to kill me, and I **black-mail-ed** him into saving me instead.
4. Don't approach those **bag-s**.
5. His criticism is based on the common **mis-interpret-ation** of the theory.
6. I can't find any **baby-sit(t)-er-s**.
7. She **re-produc-ed** this painting with an amazing precision.
8. It can't be Mary, she always **knock-s** on the door.
9. Fortunately, they had just **re-loc-at-ed** the birds away from the tree.

PREFIX		ROOT		SUFFIX		TYPE
Derivational	Inflectional	Free	Bound	Derivational	Inflectional	

HOMEWORK ASSIGNMENT 1: Read the text below, then write out:

1. Words with allomorphs
2. Words with derivational affixes
3. Words with inflectional affixes
4. Two compounds, two complex and two simple words.

Sleeping only seven hours a night, Kilian Jornet looks almost superhuman. His resting heartbeat is extremely low at 33 beats per minute, compared with the average man's 60 per minute or an athlete's 40 per minute. He breathes more efficiently than average people too, taking in more oxygen per breath, and he has a much faster recovery time after exercise [...] It would take a book to list all the races and awards he's won and the mountains he's climbed. And somehow, he finds time to record his career on his blog and has published three books. (*A biography of Kilian Jornet*)

HOMEWORK ASSIGNMENT 2: Use the following morphemes to make two compounds, two complex and two simple words. Then use these words in a sentence of your own.

-RAIN-	-DEAD-	-Y
-S-	-FLY-	-ING
-BUTTER-	-LESS	-COAT-
-LY	-ED	-LINE-

REFERENCES

Carstairs-McCarthy, A. (2002). *An Introduction to English Morphology. Words and their Structure*. Edinburgh University Press.

Veselovská, L. (2017). *English Morphology. Syllabi for the Lectures. Examples and Exercises*. Palacky University Olomouc.

LESSON THREE

Parts of Speech

Objectives

At the end of this course, students will be able to:

- explain criteria used for the differentiation of parts of speech in English
- distinguish between lexical and functional parts of speech
- identify different parts of speech in context.

Compare the following sentences: *My father drives carefully. The daulphin swims well.* These sentences contain very different information - one is about your close relative, another one is about an animal you've, probably, never seen. However, if you analyze them, you will notice certain similarities in the way words in these sentences behave. In both sentences, there is a doer (father/ daulphin) who performs an action (drives/ swims) in a particular manner (carefully/ well). Such **similarities of function** allow us to group words together into different categories called **parts of speech**.

3.1 Criteria for Distinguishing Parts of Speech

Word classes (parts of speech) are usually established on the basis of the following three types of criteria:

- **notional** (related to the similarities in meaning)
- **morphological** (related to the similarities in the internal structure of words)
- **syntactic** (related to the similarities of function in the sentence).

3.1.1 Notional Criteria

Notional criteria refer to generalizations about the meaning of words belonging to the same word class. Read the following groups of words. Do they have anything in common in terms of meaning ?

- **nouns** : *dog, spoon, star, girl, ambition, cruelty*;
- **verbs** : *jump, eat, sing, dwell*.

You might say that the words in the first group refer to things or people, and that would be the classical definition of a noun. Nouns have been notionally defined as names of things, persons and places. This definition, however, does not account for the presence of such abstract words as 'ambition' and 'cruelty' in the same group and, therefore, seems inadequate. A better solution might be to characterise nouns as words that denote stable features of human experience ; whereas, verbs denote features of experience that unfold in time.

Notional criteria cannot be adequately applied to all groups of words. Read the following sentence:

My sister went to the post office to buy stamps.

Let's try to remove some words:

Sister went post office buy stamps.

The sentence is awkward, but it is still comprehensible. Now, let's do it the other way round:

My to the to.

This time, the result is absolutely meaningless. This experiment shows us that words have different degrees of 'meaningfulness.' Those words that are *high in meaning* are called **lexical**; whereas, words that are *low in meaning* are called **functional**. Notional criteria might work well for the first category of words, but they are hardly applicable to the latter.

3.1.2 Morphological Criteria

Morphological criteria refer to the similarities in the internal structure of words belonging to the same word class. Compare :

nouns: *cat - cats, ambition - ambitions, place - places*

adverbs: *slowly, quickly, terribly, maddeningly*.

You may have noticed that most nouns take the plural suffix -s; whereas, most adverbs are formed by adding the suffix -ly to an adjective. Such common structural patterns help to establish word classes.

3.1.3 Syntactic Criteria

Syntactic criteria refer to the similarities of the grammatical function of the word in relation to other words in the sentence. Compare :

- The heavy **rain** stopped.
- A striped **cat** jumped up and tried to attack me.

- An old **gentleman** came in.

In these sentences, nouns in bold are preceded by articles (the, a), premodified by adjectives (heavy, striped, old) and function as subjects of the sentences.

IMPORTANT

Note that none of the abovementioned criteria is self-sufficient. They should be employed together to establish word classes more or less adequately.

3.2 Parts of Speech in English

Based on the criteria that we have identified in the previous section, most grammar books distinguish nine parts of speech in the English language.

3.2.1 Lexical Parts of Speech

Parts of Speech	Meaning and Function	Examples
NOUN	1. Refer to the stable features of human experience. 2. Take the plural -s and may contain derivational suffixes typical of nouns (e.g. -ion, -ance, -ment) 3. Can be preceded by articles (a, the) and adjectives.	The wall is white. Monkeys are funny. The mutual agreement was achieved.
VERB	1. Refer to the features of human experience that unfold in time. 2. Take inflectional suffixes -s, -ed, -ing and may contain derivational suffixes typical of verbs (e.g. -ify, -ize, -ate). 3. Can be preceded by a noun or a pronoun and followed by an adverb.	The cat jumps quickly on the table. He closed the door. He clarified his idea.
ADJECTIVE	1. Describe properties of nouns (what kind of?). 2. Take inflectional suffixes -er, -est and may contain derivational suffixes typical of adjectives (e.g. -ous, -y). 3. Can precede nouns and follow linking verbs like to be.	I had a busy day. It is an interesting story. The dog was dangerous.

ADVERB	1. Describe properties of verbs (how? in what manner?), adjectives (to what extent?) or other adverbs. 2. Often take the derivational suffix -ly. 3. Can follow verbs or precede adjectives and adverbs.	She sings well. He reads slowly. The book was extremely funny.
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3.2.2 Functional Parts of Speech

Parts of Speech	Function	Examples
PRONOUN	Replace other parts of speech (nouns, adjectives).	He offered me a drink. Behave yourself !
ARTICLE (the, a(n))	1. Link nouns to the broader context of speech (as something known or unknown to the speaker). 2. Always precedes a noun.	The doll is broken. I saw a girl.
PREPOSITION	1. Introduce a noun or a pronoun to the sentence. 2. Always followed by a noun or a pronoun.	Your bag is under the chair. I left a message for you.
CONJUNCTION	Join clauses or sentences.	Try hard and you'll win.
INTERJECTION	Show strong emotions or feelings.	Ouch , that really hurt!

As we have seen above, morphology is one of the criteria used to distinguish between different parts of speech. Words belonging to the same word class have certain similarities in their internal structure. Therefore, we shall proceed by exploring each part of speech in order to establish similarities of form in different grammatical contexts.

EXERCISE 1: *What part of speech do the words in bold belong to? Are they lexical or functional?*

1. He did well **in** the **tests**.
2. **The** car was **speeding** up the hill.
3. **He** looked **down** – there was **something** strange **under** his feet.
4. **Wow**, **werewolves** heal even **faster** than vampires.
5. He had **loved** a **singer**, but he had married the farmer's daughter.
6. Are you going to tell **everyone** those **awful stories about** my aunt?

EXERCISE 2: *What part of speech does the word 'up' belong to in the following sentences? What do you notice?*

1. She turned her palms **up**.
2. They went **up** the roof.
3. The wind is **up**.
4. I've had **ups** in my life, and I've had downs.
5. For both vegetarians and vegans, the daily value of iron is **upped** to 14 mg for men and 32 mg for women.

3.3 Grammatical Homonyms

Certain lexical items may belong to different parts of speech, while at the same time having a link in their lexical meaning. This word formation process is called **conversion**, and such words are called **grammatical homonyms**. Let us compare the following examples:

Example	Part of Speech	Explanation
<i>She turned her palms up.</i>	adverb	In this sentence, the word 'up' describes the property of the verb 'turned'.
<i>They went up the roof.</i>	preposition	Here, the word 'up' is used to introduce the noun 'roof'.
<i>The wind is up.</i>	adjective	Here, the word 'up' characterizes the noun 'wind' and follows the linking verb to be.
<i>I've had ups in my life, and I've had downs.</i>	noun	In this sentence, the word 'up' functions as an object of the verb 'have'. Moreover, it takes the inflectional suffix -s which marks the plural form of a noun.
<i>For both vegetarians and vegans, the daily value of iron is upped to 14 mg for men and 32 mg for women.</i>	verb	Here, the word 'up' denotes an action and it takes the inflectional suffix -ed , which marks the past simple form of verbs.

All these sentences contain the same lexical item – ‘up.’ It’s function and internal structure, however, are different. We may conclude, therefore, that it belongs to different parts of speech. In fact, these are different words created by conversion and called grammatical homonyms.

EXERCISE 3: *Identify the part of speech of the words in bold. Justify your answer.*

1. They put the patient **under** for surgery.
The servants were the **under** ones.
We were sitting **under** a tree.
2. He always **goes** with the chairman.
He has been on the **go** since morning.
3. My watch is **fast**.
He always drives **fast**.
4. She has gone **out**.
Truth will **out**!

EXERCISE 4: *Identify the part of speech of the words in bold. Then, make up sentences of your own using their grammatical homonyms. What part of speech did you use in your sentence? Explain.*

1. When things that we are used to are done differently, it could **spark** the strongest reactions in us.
2. The knowledge of the potential differences should be kept at the **back** of our minds.
3. The doctor was led **above**.
4. I met her in the **early** hours of Saturday morning.
5. Take advantage of this opportunity to learn the **ins** and outs of a particular camera.
6. Finally, after passing the **narrows** of Guaracayo, we saw the valley.

EXERCISE 5 (GROUP WORK): *a. In small groups, write short sentences to describe the picture. Use grammatical homonyms of the words provided below. Pay attention to their part of speech.*

b. Exchange your notebooks and identify the part of speech of these words in the sentences produced by another team.

LEFT (noun – adjective – adverb), **DRY** (verb – adjective), **NEAR** (preposition – adjective – adverb).



HOMEWORK ASSIGNMENT: *Identify the part of speech of each word in the following sentence using the appropriate criteria. Are they functional or lexical? Identify cases of conversion (grammatical homonyms).*

Whether you are looking for a great blouse to wear to the next party or need a new look to wow everyone at school, this is a great option.

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LESSON FOUR

Nouns

Objectives

At the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

- divide nouns into morphemes
- derive nouns from other parts of speech
- use nouns with irregular plurals in their speech and writing.

4.1 Derivation of Nouns

Nouns in English can be derived from other parts of speech, such as adjectives and verbs. They can also be derived from other nouns. In each case, specific derivational suffixes are used.

4.1.1 Nouns Derived from Adjectives

The following suffixes are used to create nouns from adjectives:

-ity: clear → clarity, pure → purity, real → reality, secure → security;
-ness: bright → brightness, kind → kindness, dark → darkness, weak → weakness;
-ism: professional → professionalism, real → realism, social → socialism;
-th: long → length, strong → strength, wide → width, deep → depth.

All these suffixes mean '**property of being X** ,' where X is the base adjective.

4.1.2 Nouns Derived from Verbs

The following suffixes are used to create nouns from verbs:

-ance, -ence: perform → performance, guide → guidance, confide → confidence;
-ment: govern → government, agree → agreement, employ → employment;
-ing: paint → painting, build → building, say → saying, meet → meeting;
-((a)t)ion: deprive → deprivation, combine → combination, evaluate → evaluation;
-al: refuse → refusal, arrive → arrival, portray → portrayal, approve → approval;
-ure: press → pressure, fail → failure, legislate → legislature.

These suffixes mean '**activity or result of X-ing** .'

4.1.3 Nouns Derived from Nouns

Nouns can also be derived from other nouns. In this case there will be a significant shift in meaning:

'small X ': -let, -ette, -ie

book → booklet, cigar → cigarette, dog → doggie

'female X ': -ess, -ine

waiter → waitress, prince → princess, hero → heroine

'inhabitant of X ': -er, -(i)an

London → Londoner, Texas → Texan, Canada → Canadian

'state of being an X ': -ship, -hood

king → kingship, mother → motherhood

'devotee or an expert on X': -ist, -(i)an

contortion → contortion**ist**, history → histor**ian**

'a person who does something specified': -eer

mutiny → mutine**er**, engin → engine**er**, auction → auction**eer**

EXERCISE 1: *Turn the following adjectives into nouns and use them to fill in the gaps below. Circle the suffix.*

sweet, true, creative, safe, sharp, ideal, similar

1. Put _____ first and be careful.
2. He told her the _____, just as her father lied to her.
3. Add a slice of lemon to cut some of the _____.
4. She saw the _____ in features between him and Andre.
5. Using your imagination and _____ is the best way to get started.
6. First, forget _____ and get pragmatic!
7. The _____ of her tone made her jump.

EXERCISE 2: *Turn the following verbs into nouns and use them to fill in the gaps below. Circle the suffix.*

remove, agree, propose, find, inform, differ, achieve

1. In my research, I collect data and present _____.
2. This theory is his greatest _____.
3. The cause of this change is attributed to the _____ of vegetation.
4. What _____ does it make if we wait a few weeks?
5. It was no surprise that Darcie had accepted your kind _____.
6. There was a mutual _____ to stop the fight.
7. I did not find any interesting _____ on this topic.

EXERCISE 3: *Divide the following nouns into morphemes.*

development, kitchenette, representation, warmth, removal, probability

4.2 Forms of Nouns (Inflectional Morphology)

It is usually said that nouns have three grammatical categories:

- gender (masculine, feminine, neuter)
- case
- number (singular, plural).

Does it mean that nouns in all languages have the same grammatical categories? Let's investigate...

4.2.1 Gender

Compare the following words in Russian and in English. What do you notice?

Gender	Russian	English
masculine	мальчикØ учительØ внукØ	boy teacher nephew
feminine	девочка учительница внучка	girl teacher niece
neuter	яблоко облако небо	apple cloud sky

You might have noticed that in **Russian nouns have specific inflections that mark them for gender** (masculine, feminine or neuter). All nouns that end in -a are feminine, all nouns that end in -o are neuter; whereas, nouns that are masculine do not have any inflection and always end in a consonant. Furthermore, this distinction is not restricted to biological gender. For example, the word дом (house) is masculine, the word стена (wall) is feminine, the word окно (window) is neuter. In Russian, therefore, the category of gender is inflectional - there are specific inflectional suffixes that mark Russian nouns for gender.

In English, by contrast, there are no specific inflectional suffixes that mark nouns for gender. There is no morphological marker in the structure of the word teacher that can help you identify the person as male or female. This biological distinction is expressed lexically, i.e. with the help of another word, - male teacher / female teacher. Therefore, **English nouns have no morphological category of gender**.

4.2.2 Case

In many languages, nouns have the category of case. Compare the following sentences in Arabic. What determines the usage of kasra in the first sentence, the usage of damma in the second sentence and the usage of fatha in the third sentence?

- اعيش في المدينة
- المدينة جميلة
- احب المدينة

In the first sentence the form with kasra is required by the preposition; whereas, in the second and in the third sentences, it is determined by the syntactic function of the word: we use damma for the subject of the sentence, and fatha for the object. This is called the category of case. **Cases are inflected forms that indicate the grammatical function of a noun with respect to other words in the sentence.**

Do English nouns have cases? If we translate the Arabic sentences given above, we will notice that the word 'city' takes the same form in all three sentences:

- I live in a **city**.
- The **city** is beautiful.
- I like the **city**.

In English, there are no inflections that mark the role of the noun 'city' in the sentence (subject - object – object of a preposition). Therefore, **English nouns don't have the category of case.**

4.2.3 Number

Most **countable nouns** in English have **two word forms** that contrast in **number**.

Singular	Plural
mushroom	mushrooms
tree	trees
book	books

Most English nouns have regular plural forms that are created by adding the plural suffix **-s**. Certain nouns, however, have irregular forms. Look at the table provided below. How many patterns can you identify?

foot → feet	crisis → crises	alumna → alumnae
tooth → teeth	curriculum → curricula	erratum → errata
child → children	datum → data	ox → oxen
mouse → mice	focus → foci	oasis → oases
sheep → sheep	series → series	stimulus → stimuli
fish → fish	tuna → tuna	trout → trout
leaf → leaves	index → indices	genus → genera
goose → geese	man → men	diagnosis → diagnoses
woman → women	ellipsis → ellipses	knife → knives
aircraft → aircraft	larva → larvae	analysis → analyses

You have, probaly, identified the following patterns:

1. **A vowel change in the root** (foot – feet, tooth – teeth, mouse – mice, goose – geese, woman – women, man – men)
2. **f → v + the regular suffix -s** (leaf → leaves, knife → knives)
3. **No change in the form** (sheep → sheep, fish → fish, aircraft → aircraft, series → series, tuna → tuna, trout → trout)
4. **Suffix -(r)en** (child → children, ox → oxen)
5. **Suffix -a** (datum → data, erratum → errata, genus → genera)
6. **Suffix -i** (focus → foci, stimulus → stimuli)
7. **Suffix -ae** (larva → larvae, alumna → alumnae)
8. **Suffix -(c)es** (crisis → crises, index → indices, oasis → oases, diagnosis → diagnoses, analysis → analyses).

Most of the nouns in group 2 are of either Greek or Latin origin. Therefore, these suffixes are not productive in the English language. It means that they appear in a limited set of words that have to be learnt by heart. You will find the list of irregular plurals in Appendix 1 at the end of this paper.

EXERCISE 4 (GROUP WORK): *Look at the pictures below. In small groups, make sentences of your own using the following words in the singular and in the plural.*



alga - algae



fungus - fungi



larva - larvae



loaf - loaves



oasis - oases



stratum - strata



phenomenon - phenomena



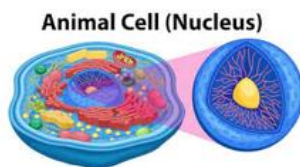
alumna - alumnae



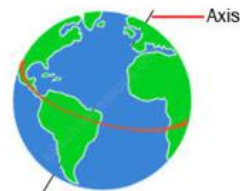
diagnosis - diagnoses



bacterium - bacteria



nucleus - nuclei



axis - axes



grouse - grouse



trout - trout



deer - deer



swine - swine



bison - bison



tuna - tuna

HOMEWORK ASSIGNMENT 1: *Open the brackets. Use the appropriate derivational suffix.*

1. Any _____ would be immediately detected as a lie (DENY).
2. It was a majestic beach towel that featured a lion and a _____ (LION).
3. He was in his chair, trying to control his _____ (CURIOUS).
4. To raise a child to _____ requires your heart, energy and time (ADULT).
5. I just had dinner and the _____ was a little slow (SERVE).
6. Two armies under English _____ were now in the field against him (LEADER).
7. His gentle tug was all the _____ she needed (ENCOURAGE).
8. The _____ of her body was strikingly out of proportion (LONG).
9. Now add a bit of pond water using a _____ (PIPE).
10. He showed genuine _____ for his disloyalty (REPENT).
11. Put _____ first and be careful (SAFE).

HOMEWORK ASSIGNMENT 2: *Fill in the gaps with the plural form of the following nouns:*

loaf, axis, phenomenon, stratum, criterion, diagnosis, species, alga, larva, half.

1. Many people were from different lower _____ of the urban society.
2. Cut potatoes in _____ or into quarters if they are large.
3. Science uses experimentation to explain natural _____
4. An interesting feature of this _____ is that it often migrates.
5. You have to draw the y and x _____ on paper in 2D.
6. She is studying ice _____ and zooplankton in coastal Antarctic seas.
7. A chest X-ray is more helpful in excluding other _____
8. Take the _____ out of the oven.
9. This job met all my _____
10. The _____ have soft, white bodies and no legs.

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LESSON FIVE

Adjectives and Adverbs

Objectives

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

1. derive adjectives and adverbs from other parts of speech
2. divide adjectives and adverbs into morphemes
3. use forms of adjectives and adverbs in their speech and writing.

5.1 Derivation of Adjectives and Adverbs

5.1.1 Adjectives Derived from Verbs

Adjectives can be derived from verbs using the following suffixes:

-able 'able to be X-ed ': break → break**able**, read → read**able**, rely → reli**able**
-ent, -ant 'tending to X ': differ → different, expect → expect**ant**, excel → excell**ent**
-ive 'tending to X ': repulse → repuls**ive**, explode → explos**ive**, speculate → specul**ative**

5.1.2 Adjectives Derived from Nouns

Adjectives can be derived from nouns using the following suffixes:

-ful: beauty → beautif**ul**, success → success**ful**, power → power**ful**, use → use**ful**
-less: home → home**less**, care → care**less**, fear → fear**less**, help → help**less**
-al: nation → nation**al**, origin → origin**al**, nature → natur**al**, tradition → tradition**al**
-ish: girl → girl**ish**, boy → boy**ish**, self → self**ish**, style → styl**ish**
-y: wind → wind**y**, sun → sun**y**, cloud → cloud**y**, dust → dust**y**
-ous: danger → danger**ous**, right → right**eous**, hazard → hazard**ous**

5.1.3 Adjectives Derived from Adjectives

Adjectives can be derived from other adjectives using the suffix **-ish** 'somewhat X': green**ish**, small**ish**, remot**ish**.

EXERCISE 1 (DISCUSSION): Read the following adjectives: **greenish, green, greener, greenest**. You've probably noticed that in terms of meaning they represent a continuum - from the lowest (greenish) to the highest degree (greenest). Why do we consider the suffixes **-er** and **-est** inflectional and the suffix **-ish** derivational? Discuss the issue in small groups. Prove your point of view.

5.1.4 Derivation of Adverbs

Adverbs can be derived:

- from adjectives using the suffix **-ly**: lately, carefully, terribly, loudly
- from nouns using the suffix **-ward (Br. E.) / -wards (Am. E.)**: backward(s), southward(s), homeward(s)
- from nouns, adjectives and verbs using the **prefix a-**: aboard, ahead, astray.

EXERCISE 2: *Open the brackets. Use the appropriate derivational affix to make adjectives.*

1. He lay _____ in his bed. (FEVER)
2. The night was _____ and quiet. (CHILL)
3. I was strong, _____, indifferent to consequences. (ACT)
4. Their dark-brown upper bodies and white or _____ underbellies are ideal camouflage. (WHITE)
5. The best solution to this health problem is to make some _____ changes. (DIET)
6. The restaurant is _____ and can hold large groups. (SPACE)
7. The final blow was _____ - the man fell and never stood up again. (FATE)
8. The teen was far more _____ this evening. (DEFY)
9. Stunned, he was _____ for a long moment. (SPEECH)
10. During the afternoon, western coasts may become _____. (MIST)

EXERCISE 3: *Divide the following adjectives into morphemes: **invisible, furious, unlucky, disorganized, asleep, friendlier**. Write each morpheme into the appropriate box in the table below. For each morpheme you've identified, provide another word containing the same morpheme.*

PREFIX		ROOT		SUFFIX		TYPE
derivational	inflectional	free	bound	derivational	inflectional	

5.1.5 Adverbs with and without -LY

Some simple adverbs are informal variants of complex adverbs in -ly. The most common of them are *cheap(ly), loud(ly), quick(ly), slow(ly), direct(ly)*. Compare:

1. You can buy floppy disks **cheap** in the market. (informal)

You can buy floppy disks **cheaply** in the market.

2. Must you talk so **loud**? (informal)

Must you talk so **loudly**?

3. Go **slow** here. (informal)

Go **slowly** here.

There is no difference in meaning and both adverbs can be used interchangeably. In more formal contexts, however, the derivational adverb is preferred:

EX: Do you have to criticize the performance so **loudly**. (NOT loud)

In some cases, the derivational adverb with -ly and the corresponding simple adverb have different meanings and can't be used interchangeably. Compare:

DERIVATIONAL ADVERBS	SIMPLE ADVERBS
There's hardly any food left in the fridge. <i>= very little, almost not</i>	You'll have to work hard today. <i>= a lot</i>
The novel is nearly finished. <i>= almost</i>	There's a disco quite near . <i>= not far</i>
They praised his work very highly . <i>= very much</i>	How high does this kite fly? <i>= up</i>
He deeply regrets his outburst. <i>= very much</i>	The scuba diver went very deep . <i>= down</i>
I can't talk freely about my private life. <i>= easily</i>	You can have these brochures free . <i>= without money</i>
I mostly eat cornflakes for breakfast. <i>= usually</i>	Paul spoke most of all. <i>= to a greater degree</i>
The problem is fairly easy. <i>= quite</i>	Are you going to fight fair ? <i>= honestly</i>
Mix the batter with finely chopped nutmeg. <i>= into small pieces</i>	That suits me fine . (informal) <i>= well</i>
The two women were wrongly accused of murder. <i>= by mistake</i>	You guessed wrong , the answer is no. <i>= in a way that is not correct</i>
The baby was dressed prettily . <i>= beautifully</i>	That's pretty awkward. <i>= quite</i>

EXERCISE 4: Choose the appropriate adverb. Explain your choice. Write a sentence of your own using the other adverb to illustrate the difference in meaning.

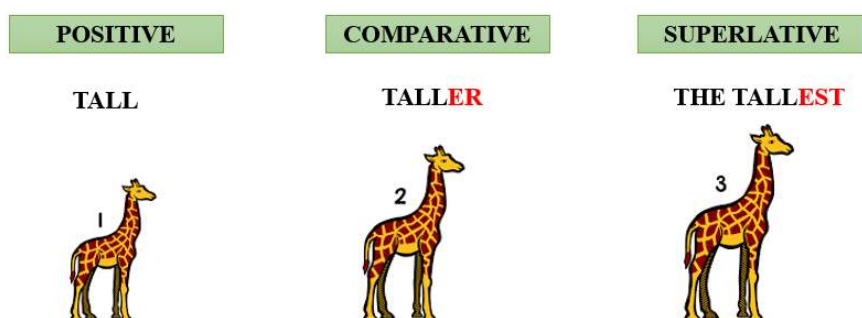
1. He left us _____ after dinner. (RIGHT/ RIGHTLY)

2. Her voice trailed off when he glanced up _____, obviously stung by her words. (SHARP/ SHARPLY)
3. I can _____ wait for the fun to begin! (HARD/ HARDLY)
4. These pills are generally taken _____ before a meal. (SHORT/ SHORTLY)
5. The hawk was circling _____ in the sky. (HIGH/ HIGHLY)
6. Why rent a movie when you can get it _____ from the library? (FREE/ FREELY)
7. He cares about you _____ if he came here by choice. (DEEP/ DEEPLY)
8. He opened his arms _____. (WIDE/ WIDELY)
9. She prayed by the members of her own family, realizing for the first time how _____ she had acted toward them. (WRONG/ WRONGLY)

5.2 Forms of Adjectives and Adverbs (Inflectional Morphology)

5.2.1 Forms of Adjectives

English adjectives have only three forms that contrast on the dimension of **comparison**. Adjectives have **two inflectional suffixes** (-er and -est) that mark the **comparative** and the **superlative forms** respectively.



Note that the suffixes **-er** and **-est** appear on adjectives whose basic form has **one syllable**, or **two** provided that the second syllable **ends in a vowel** (e.g. tidy, yellow). **Longer adjectives** usually require **periphrastic forms with more and most**.

One syllable	Two syllables with the final vowel	Two syllables with the final consonant + longer adjectives
tall – taller – the tallest	tidy – tidier – the tidiest	cheerful – more cheerful – the most cheerful
big – bigger – the biggest	friendly – friendlier – the friendliest	sensitive – more sensitive – the most sensitive
large – larger – the largest	dirty – dirtier – the dirtiest	

The comparative and superlative forms of some adjectives are created **using different root morphemes**. Such forms are called **suppletive**:

- good – better – the best
- bad – worse – the worst
- much/ many – more – the most
- little – less – the least.

5.2.2 Forms of Adverbs

Adverbs can be classified as **variable** and **invariable**. Most adverbs are invariable, which means they have only one form (e.g. *just, never, perhaps*). Variable adverbs have three forms that contrast on the dimension of comparison (*soon – sooner – the soonest*). Forms of such adverbs are created following the same rule that has been discussed in the previous paragraph.

Some adverbs also have **suppletive forms**:

- well – better – the best
- badly – worse – the worst
- much – more – the most
- little – less – the least.

EXERCISE 5: *Identify mistakes in the following sentences. Are words in bold adjectives or adverbs?*

1. When I was about your age, I wasn't more **smart** than you.
2. The Japanese cars were **reliable** more than their American counterparts.
3. Things move more **fast** nowadays.
4. The most **commonnest** way to eat fried green tomatoes is with a little dressing.
5. The children behave **badlier** and badlier.
6. This is the **beautifullest** dress I've ever had.
7. His eyes moved to the TV and his jaw dropped more **lower**.
8. I shot him the most **dirty** look I could and then ignored him.

EXERCISE 6: a. *Choose two people you know well (e.g. your parents, siblings, friends) and write ten sentences comparing them (physical appearance, abilities, tastes, habits, character). Use comparative and superlative forms of **adjectives** and **adverbs**.*

b. *Exchange your notebook with your partner and identify the part of speech of words that your partner used in the comparative or superlative form. Explain.*

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LESSON SIX

Pronouns

Objectives

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

- identify different types of pronouns in context
- use reflexive pronouns in their speech and writing
- use the indefinite pronoun 'one' in their speech and writing.

Some of the pronouns share the essential properties of nouns (e.g. *someone*), while others have much in common with adjectives (e.g. *this* book). Their main function is **substitution**. As substitutes, **pronouns act as syntactic representatives of other parts of speech**, taking on their meaning in context.

According to their function, pronouns can be divided into the following groups:

- | | |
|---------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. personal | 4. demonstrative |
| 2. possessive | 5. indefinite |
| 3. reflexive | 6. interrogative/ relative. |

6.1 Personal Pronouns

Personal pronouns have four grammatical categories in English:

- number (singular and plural)
- person (1st, 2nd, 3rd)

- gender (masculine and feminine)
- case (nominative and accusative).

Categories of number, person and gender are represented lexically. There are different pronouns, for example, to refer to a man and to a woman (he, she). All personal pronouns in English are given in the table below.

	PERSON	PERSONAL PRONOUN
SINGULAR	1st	I
	2nd	you
	3rd	he, she, it
PLURAL	1st	we
	2nd	you
	3rd	they

The category of case (see lesson 4) is represented morphologically. Each personal pronoun has two forms – the **nominative case** (subject) and the **accusative case** (object). The relationship between the nominative and the accusative forms is **suppletive** (see lesson 5) for most pronouns.

LEXEME	I	WE	YOU	HE	SHE	IT	THEY
Nominative case	I	we	you	he	she	it	they
Accusative case	me	us	you	him	her	it	them

EX: John loves Mary. Mary loves John.

He (subject) loves **her** (object).

She (subject) loves **him** (object).

6.2 The Use of Personal Pronouns (Special Cases)

6.2.1 The Authorial WE

The pronoun WE can be used by a writer when referring to himself/ herself if the writer seeks to involve the reader in a joint mental effort. The use of I here would seem too patronizing (arrogant).

EX: **We** are about to demonstrate how both methods can be implemented.

(the nominative case)

A reader has pointed out to **us** that some of the statistics were inaccurate.

(the accusative case)

6.2.2 HE or SHE for Animals

We usually refer to animals using the pronoun IT. However, pets and domestic animals can be called HE or SHE when their sex is known to the speaker.

EX: Don't touch my dog – **he** sometimes bites.

We unleashed the dog and let **her** run loose for a while.

When a wild animal is thought of as having a personality or feelings, it can also be referred to as HE.

EX: Look at that squirrel; isn't **he** a clever fellow?

6.2.3 SHE/ THEY for Avoiding Masculine Bias

Nowadays, it is considered inappropriate to use the masculine pronoun HE when referring to human beings in general or when talking about a person whose gender is not known to the speaker, for reasons of political correctness. In such cases, we may use HE/ SHE interchangeably or use the gender neutral pronoun THEY/ THEM instead.

SHE is often used to replace a gender neutral noun with generic reference, i.e. a noun referring to a class as a whole (here, for example, the word 'child' refers to all children).

EX: If a child does not mix happily with **her** peer group, **she** should be given special attention by the teacher.

THEY, THEM and THEIR have been increasingly used in correlation with gender neutral nouns in the singular form (if the gender is unknown).

EX: **A student** who attended Pr. White's seminar on linguistics has left **their** course-book behind.

THEY, THEM and THEIR are used to replace an indefinite pronoun that can denote either a male or a female person.

EX: If **anybody** calls, tell **them** I'm out.

No one objected to your proposal, did **they**?

6.2.4 The Generic THEY

The generic THEY is used to refer to people in general or to the government, local authorities, some unknown groups or organizations that control the lives of ordinary citizens.

EX: **They** say petrol prices are going to rise in the near future.

They are building a new school in the area.

They don't publish any good novels nowadays.

EXERCISE 1: Fill in the gaps using the appropriate personal pronoun. Justify your choice.

1. _____ would like to remind you that the taking of photographs is prohibited and is hazardous to the performers.
2. I just don't want to see anybody lose _____ life over this.
3. It is a very sweet bedtime book that imparts a warm feeling about bedtime and how the parent is nearby if the child needs _____.
4. _____ say women who ate snails were able to remain calm during even the worst of the bombing.
5. It always irritates me when a coworker parks _____ car in my spot.

6.3 Possessive Pronouns

Possessive pronouns indicate ownership. They can be **dependent** and **independent**. Dependent possessive pronouns are always used as determiners, i.e. before a noun:

EX: She recognized **her** suitcase.

Where's **your** cousin?

Independent possessive pronouns are used as substantives, i.e. in place of nouns:

EX: She recognized the suitcase as **hers**.

Where's that cousin of **yours**?

Pronouns	First person		Second person	Third person			
	singular	plural		singular			plural
				masc.	fem.	neut.	
dependent	MY	OUR	YOUR	HIS	HER	IT	THEIR
independent	MINE	OURS	YOURS	HIS	HERS	IT	THEIRS

6.4 Reflexive Pronouns

A reflexive pronoun is a pronoun that refers to another noun or pronoun within the same sentence. Compare:

EX: Jane can see **herself** in the mirror. (herself = Jane)

Jane can see **her** in the mirror. (her = another person)

Reflexive pronouns are formed by adding **–self** (singular) or **–selves** (plural) to the possessive pronouns in the first and the second person and to the objective case forms of the third person.

Number	First person	Second person	Third person		
			Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
singular	MYSELF	YOURSELF	HIMSELF	HERSELF	ITSELF
plural	OURSELVES	YOURSELVES	THEMSELVES		

6.4.1 Obligatory Use of Reflexive Pronouns

If the object of a verb refers to the same person or thing as the subject, then that object must be a reflexive pronoun:

EX: **He** walked around the golf course to familiarise **himself** with it.

Reflexive pronouns are also obligatory after the following verbs:

Absent oneself from	Busy oneself with	Pride oneself on
Avail oneself of	Concern oneself with	Tear oneself away from
Accustom oneself to	Occupy oneself by/ with	Trouble oneself about/ with

EX: She **availed herself** of the offer. (= make use of)

He never **absents himself** from meetings.

6.4.2 Optional Use of Reflexive Pronouns

With some verbs we can use a reflexive pronoun or leave it out with little difference in meaning.

Acclimatize (oneself)	(Un)dress (oneself)	Identify (oneself)
Adapt (oneself)	Hide (oneself)	Prepare (oneself)
Behave (oneself)	Wash (oneself)	Shave (oneself)

EX: The boys **hid (themselves)** in the attic.

Reflexive pronouns can be used for **emphasis**, meaning «that person/ thing and nobody/ nothing else.» In this case, they are an optional sentence element.

EX: *Did you make this pullover (yourself)? - Did you (yourself) make this pullover?*

6.4.3 Reflexive or Personal Pronoun?

When the subject and object after a preposition refer to the same person or thing, we use a reflexive pronoun after the preposition.

EX: He was pleased **with himself**.

However, if the verb has a direct object, we use a personal pronoun.

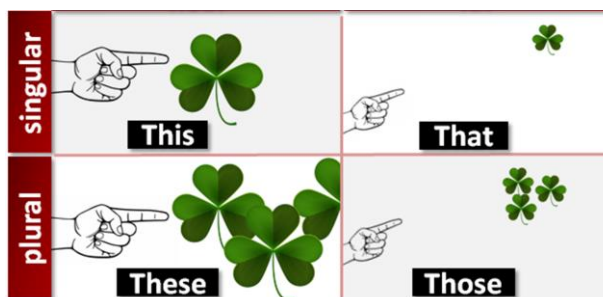
EX: I remember closing the door **behind me**.

EXERCISE 2: *Underline the correct option. If both are possible, note the difference in meaning.*

1. Can you post this letter for *myself* / *me*, please?
2. I was bored, and I just didn't know what to do with *myself* / *me*.
3. This town prides *itself* / *it* / $\emptyset$ on being welcoming to visitors.
4. His boss said that he'd caught hepatitis *himself* / $\emptyset$ when he was in Africa.
5. We put the voice recorder on the table between *ourselves* / *us*.
6. She prepared *herself* / *her* / $\emptyset$ for the interview by reading the job description again.
7. It will take you some time to adapt *yourself* / *you* / $\emptyset$ to the pace of life in Tokyo.
8. They dragged the tree behind *themselves* / *them* all the way to the trailer.
9. Jack just expects to be given a job without making any effort. He won't even trouble *himself* / *him* / $\emptyset$ with filling in any application forms.
10. He is no longer a small boy. It's time he started to behave *himself* / *him* / $\emptyset$.

6.5 Demonstrative Pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns THIS and THAT have only one grammatical category – that of number. As a result, they have two forms – the singular form and the plural form.



6.6 Indefinite Pronouns

Indefinite pronouns are used to refer to someone or something in a general way. In terms of structure, they can be simple and compound.

SIMPLE	COMPOUND
some, any, no, one all, every, each, other, another, either, neither, both	somebody, anybody, nobody someone, anyone, noone something, anything, nothing everybody, everyone, everything

6.7 The Use of the Indefinite Pronoun ONE

ONE is used to replace a previously mentioned noun, singular or plural.

EX: I received **a letter** yesterday, and my sister received **one**, too.

ATTENTION! There are some restrictions on the use of the replacive pronoun ONE:

- ONE cannot replace non-countable mass nouns. Instead, they are omitted.
EX: Which sugar would you like – the white or the brown?
- We usually use ONES (pl.) to refer to things rather than people.
EX: We need two people to help. We could ask those men over there.
- ONES can only be used in compararative sentences to refer to groups of people.
EX: Older students seem to work harder than younger ones.
- ONE is not used after own.
EX: Thank you for offering your pen, but I'd rather use my **own**.
- ONE is not used after cardinal numerals.
EX: I have only **one** orange and you have **two**.
- ONE is not used after nouns used as adjectives before another noun.

EX: I thought my memory stick was in my **trouser** pocket, but it was in my **coat** pocket.

EXERCISE 3: *If necessary, correct the sentences below. Explain.*

1. Bilal brought in the wood and put ones on the fire.
2. Normally, I don't like wearing a scarf, but it was so cold I put one on.
3. He used to work for a finance company, but he's moved to an insurance one.
4. Those aren't your gloves. You must have picked the wrong ones.
5. Many people are happy about the new road being built, but there are some angry ones, too.
6. David's car is broken, so I'll have to drive my own one.
7. Was it these earrings you wanted? – No, the ones on the left of those, please.
8. On one channel was a war film and on the other was a horror one.
9. I have two eggs and my sister has three ones.
10. Cameron drove us to the restaurant because she was the only one who had her driving licence on her.

6.8 Interrogative/ Relative Pronouns

Interrogative pronouns are used in questions:

WHO (the nominative case = subject) – WHOM (the accusative case = object)

WHOSE

WHICH

WHAT

EX: **Who** made this mess?

Whose is that handbag?

EXERCISE 4: *Identify pronouns in the following sentences. What is their type? Label their form (if the pronoun has more than one form).*

1. Nobody came to meet me.
2. A psychoanalyst could tell you a lot about yourself.
3. If you notice anything unusual, give him a call at once.
4. This poem is much better than that written by her last year.
5. Whose are these glasses?

6. What colour is her hair?
7. I'd prefer a long novel to a short one.

EXERCISE 5: *Correct mistakes in the following sentences.*

1. The school prides on the high achievement of its students.
2. My sister usually drinks apple juice, and I prefer cherry one.
3. I didn't have time to clean your room, so I cleaned only my own one.
4. Please tear away from your laptop for two seconds.
5. He doesn't like movie stars, but he worships all rock ones.
6. Why did you absent from the meeting yesterday?

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LESSON SEVEN

Verbs

Objectives

At the end of the lesson, students will be able to:

- divide verbs into morphemes
- derive verbs from other parts of speech
- identify different verb forms in context
- differentiate between verb forms used in British and American English.

7.1 Derivation of Verbs

Verbs can be derived from nouns, adjectives and from other verbs.

7.1.1 Verbs Derived from Nouns

Verbs can be derived from nouns using the following suffixes:

-ise (Br. E.)/ **ize** (Am. E.): **organise**, **terrorise**, **patronise**
-(i)fy: **beautify**, **acidify**, **classify**
-ate: **stimulate**

7.1.2 Verbs Derived from Adjectives

Verbs can be derived from adjectives using the following suffixes:

-ise/ ize: **nationalise**, **familiarise**, **finalise**
-(i)fy: **purify**, **clarify**, **humidify**
-ate: **activate**
-en: **weaken**, **tighten**, **loosen**, **redde**

Verbs can also be derived from nouns or adjectives using the following prefixes:

de- (N→V): **deforest**, **delouse**
be- (N/A→V): **befriend**, **belittle**
en-/em- (N/A→V): **enslave**, **enthron**, **empower**

Note that these are the only prefixes in English that change the part of speech of the base.

7.1.3 Verbs Derived from Verbs

Verbs can be derived from other verbs using a variety of prefixes. Here are some examples:

re- (again or back): **rebuild**, **reappear**, **revisit**
dis- (reverses the meaning): **disconnect**, **disarm**
un- (reverses the meaning): **unfasten**, **unbend**
de- (reverses the meaning): **deselect**, **decompose**
mis- (badly or wrongly): **misunderstand**, **misinform**
co- (together): **coexist**, **cooperate**
pre- (before): **prepay**, **predetermine**

Note that *prefixes do not usually change the part of speech of the base*. Adding a prefix to a verb results in a new verb, while adding a prefix to an adjective results in a new adjective.

EXERCISE 1: Turn the following words into verbs and use them to fill in the gaps below. Circle the affix.

glory, sick, courage, apology, captive, simple, short

1. Try to _____ your explanation for the children.
2. In November, the temperatures drop and the days _____.
3. The purpose was to _____ the American nation in the eyes of the whole world.
4. I _____ for disrupting your dinner.
5. This reality TV show _____ the whole nation.
6. If his father was that ill, maybe she could _____ him to go to the doctor.
7. Don't show me your wound, I _____ at the sight of blood.

EXERCISE 2: Divide the following complex verbs into morphemes. Write each morpheme into the appropriate box according to its type. For each morpheme you've identified, provide another word containing the same morpheme.

destabilize, enables, tolerate, strengthened, enlighten, notify

PREFIX		ROOT		SUFFIX		TYPE
derivational	inflectional	free	bound	derivational	inflectional	

7.2 Forms of Verbs (Inflectional Morphology)

English verbs can have maximum five forms:

1. **The basic form – GIVE.** This form is used in the Present Simple with the 1st, 2nd person pronouns and 3rd person pronouns in the plural; after modal verbs; in the infinitive.

EX: *Mary and John **give** a lecture every year.*

*Mary may **give** a lecture.*

*Mary wants to **give** a lecture.*

2. **Third person singular present tense – GIVES.** This form is used with the 3rd person pronouns, singular in the Present Simple tense.

EX: *Mary **gives** a lecture every year.*

3. **The simple past form – GAVE.** This form is used in the Past Simple tense.

EX: *Mary **gave** a lecture last week.*

4. **The gerund or progressive participle (I) – GIVING.** This form is used in all continuous tenses after the auxiliary BE.

EX: *Mary is **giving** a lecture today.*

5. **The perfect or passive participle (II) – GIVEN.** This form is used in all perfect tenses and in the passive voice.

EX: *Mary has **given** a lecture today.* – **perfect**

*Mary was **given** a bunch of flowers.* - **passive**

For the summary of all inflectional word forms in English, see the Appendix 2 at the end of this paper.

The following morphological mechanisms are involved in the creation of verb forms in English:

INFLECTIONAL SUFFIXES	VOWEL CHANGE	SUPPLETION
-S: builds, puts -ING: building, acting -ED: played, acted -T: built, slept -EN: given, striven	dig – dug speak – spoke strive - strove grow - grew	go – went be – was/were – am – is - are

7.3 Verb Forms in American and British English

Certain verbs have different forms in American and British English.

Some verbs are irregular in British and regular in American English.

British English		American English	
burnt	leapt	burned	leaped
knelt	spoilt	kneeled	spoiled
spelt	dreamt	spelled	dreamed
The flowers smelt nice.		The flowers smelled nice.	
I hope you have learnt from your mistake.		I hope you have learned from your mistake.	

Some verbs, by contrast, are regular in British and irregular in American.

British English		American English	
quitted	dived	quit	dove
fitted	wetted	fit	wet
The lifeguard dived into the pool to save the little boy. She wetted her hair in the rain.		The lifeguard dove into the pool to save the little boy. She wet her hair in the rain.	

EXERCISE 3: Label the form of the verbs in bold. Circle the inflectional suffix, if any. Is the form American, British or both?

1. He **thought** they were **trying** to encourage him.
2. If Mary cares, she'll **call** her after she **reads** the note.
3. The last Turkish soldiers **quitted** the island in 1898.
4. The diploma was **given** to her in the privacy of the principle's office.
5. Do you think they may have **given** up?
6. He barely **talked** to me.
7. My heart is **singing** for joy this morning.
8. He had always **dreamed** of growing lavender on a large scale.
9. The parcel was **delivered** to me right after dinner.
10. He **knelt** beside his brother.
11. We are **analysing** data from the questionnaire.

EXERCISE 4: Write your own sentence for each of the following forms.

1. The simple past of the verb FEEL
2. The perfect participle of the verb CHECK
3. The third person singular of the verb LOOK
4. The basic form of the verb TRY
5. The progressive participle of the verb CUT
6. The passive participle of the verb TELL

HOMEWORK ASSIGNMENT: Divide the following words into morphemes. Write each morpheme into the appropriate box according to its type. For each morpheme you've identified, provide another word with the same morpheme. Mention the part of speech (POS) of each word.

disrespectfully, inorganic, bigger, localization, productions, impersonally, strengthened, earrings, uneasiness, touched

PREFIX		ROOT		SUFFIX		TYPE	POS
derivational	inflectional	free	bound	derivational	inflectional		

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LESSON EIGHT

The Use of Tenses to Talk about the Future

Objectives

At the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

- explain the difference between tense and aspect
- use future tenses in their speech and writing
- use the expressions ‘be going to, be about to, be due to’ to talk about the future
- use Present Simple and Present Continuous to talk about the future.

8.1 Grammatical Categories of Verbs

English verbs have six grammatical categories:

- | | | |
|----------|----------|----------|
| • person | • tense | • mood |
| • number | • aspect | • voice. |

8.1.1 Person and Number

These categories show *the connection between the subject and the verb* in the sentence.

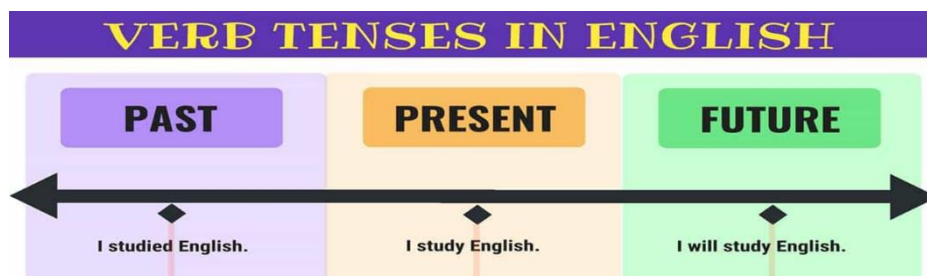
EX: Mary gives a lecture every day.

Mary and John give_ a lecture every day.

The suffix –s contrasts the forms of the verb both in person (3rd person vs. 1st and 2nd person) and in number (singular vs. plural).

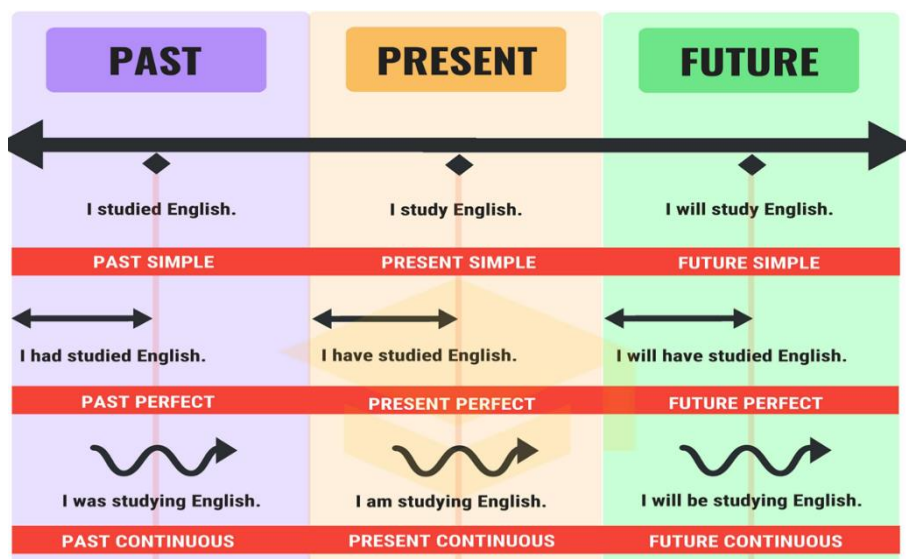
8.1.2 Tense

The category of tense locates the moment when the described situation occurs by relating it to the time of speaking. Therefore, there are three tenses in English: the past, the present and the future.



8.1.3 Aspect

Aspects are different ways of viewing the internal temporal structure denoted by a verb. If the action is viewed as a simple fact, the aspect is **simple**. If the action is viewed as being in progress, the aspect is **continuous**. If the action is perceived as being completed, the aspect is **perfect**. It is the combination of both grammatical categories – tense and aspect -which gives us the system of twelve tenses in English.



The category of tense is always expressed by the first auxiliary verb; whereas, the category of aspect is expressed by the 2nd or 3rd auxiliaries and the main lexical verb in the sentence. Such forms are called **analytical** because the meaning of the whole is conveyed by a combination of different words. Compare:

Analytical Forms	Tense	Aspect
Present Continuous	IS (present)	DRIVING (continuous)
Past Continuous	WAS (past)	DRIVING (continuous)
Present Perfect	HAVE (present)	DRIVEN (perfect)
Past Perfect	HAD (past)	DRIVEN (perfect)
Past Perfect Continuous	HAD (past)	BEEN (perfect) DRIVING (continuous)

8.2 The Use of Analytical Forms to Talk about the Future

In English, there are different ways of talking about the future: all future tenses, expressions ‘be going to,’ ‘be due to,’ ‘be about to,’ Present Simple as well as Present Continuous.

8.2.1 Future Simple vs. Be going to

Both **Future Simple (will + V)** and the expression ‘**be going to**’ can be used to talk about predictions, decisions and plans, however, in different situations.

Future Simple is used for:

- **Predictions** (often with *I bet, I expect, I hope, I imagine, I reckon, I think, I wonder, I’m sure*) based on our opinion or experience.
EX: That cheese smells awful. *I bet* nobody **will eat** it.
- **Decisions** made at the moment of speaking.
EX: ‘Pineapples are on special offer this week.’ ‘In that case, I’**ll buy** two.’
- **Possible plans** before you’ve made a decision.
EX: - What are your plans for the week-end? – I’**ll probably hang out** with some friends.
- With **if-clauses**.
EX: If you give her money, she’**ll spend** it on sweets.
You’**ll knock** the glass over, if you’re not careful.

‘**Be going to**’ is used in the following situations:

- **Predictions** based on some present evidence.
EX: *The sky’s gone really dark.* There’**s going to be** a storm.
- **Decisions** about the future that have already been made.
EX: When I’ve saved up enough money, I’**m going to buy** a smartphone.
- With **if-clauses ONLY WHEN** the event does not depend on the action described in the if-clause (the if-clause does not express a real condition).

EX: We're **going to plant** these trees, if you want to help us. (= *Would you like to join us?*)

Note that 'be going to' is not used with if-clauses if they express a real condition.

EXERCISE 1: Complete the conversation with the appropriate form of 'be going to' or will.

Nora: I'm so excited! We have two weeks off! What _____ you _____ do?

Lily: I'm not sure. I guess I _____ just stay home. Maybe I _____ hang out with some friends. What about you? Any plans?

Nora: Yeah, I _____ relax at the beach with my cousin. We _____ go surfing every day. And my cousin likes to snorkel, so maybe we _____ go snorkeling one day.

Lily: Sounds like fun.

Nora: Hey, why don't you come with us?

Lily: Do you mean it? I'd love to! I _____ bring my surfboard!

Nora: That's great! The more the merrier!

EXERCISE 2: Correct the sentences where necessary by changing the italicised will ('ll) forms to 'be going to'.

1. I can't come over during the day. – I'll see you tomorrow evening then.
2. Are these new skis yours? Will you take up skiing?
3. Wherever you go in Brazil, you'll find the people very friendly.
4. If you want me to, I'll explain how the equipment works.
5. It's getting very humid – we'll have a thunderstorm.
6. I hear you'll sell your car. How much do you want for it?
7. I'll meet Laura this weekend, if you'd like to come too.
8. What's the matter with Paula? – She says she'll be sick.
- She'll feel better with some fresh air.
9. I've been offered a new job in Munich, so I'll leave Camco. – When will you tell your boss? – I'm not sure. Perhaps I'll try to see him later today.
10. Did you get the tickets? – No, I forgot. I'll book them tomorrow.

8.2.2 Future Tenses

Future Continuous (will + be + V-ing) is used:

- for an action that is viewed as *developing at a particular moment* or period in the future

EX: Immigration officials **will be conducting** interviews *over the next few days*.

- for a future action or situation that is part of the normal regular pattern of events

EX: **Will you be driving** to work as usual?

- as a polite way of asking about somebody's plans. Compare:

EX: **Will you be staying** with us again tomorrow? (= asking about their plans)

Will you stay with us again tomorrow? (= invitation)

Future Perfect (will + have + V-ed) is used:

- for saying that something will be completed by a particular point in the future

EX: *By the time you get home, I **will have cleaned** the house from top to bottom.*

- for a continuous action or state part of which will have been completed by a particular point in the future (usually with verbs that cannot be used in the continuous form)

EX: We'll **have been** married *for a year* in July.

Future Perfect Continuous (will + have + been + V-ing) is used for emphasising the duration of an activity in progress at a particular moment in the future.

EX: *Next year I **will have been working** in the company **for 30 years**. (and I'm going to continue working there)*

*At 2 o'clock, she **will have been sleeping** for four hours already.*

EXERCISE 3: *Make sentences with the beginning from (i), a verb from (ii) (either in the Future Perfect or in the Future Perfect Continuous), and an ending from (iii).*

(i) BEGINNING	(ii) VERB	(iii) ENDING
1. The weather forecast says that the rain...	act	...the objectives we set ourselves when we took over.
2. If the company is making a profit by the end of the year then we...	achieve	...by the morning and tomorrow will be dry.
3. In two years' time Morneau...	clear	...for 50 years, and shows no sign of retiring from the theatre.
4. I am confident that I...	finish	...the report before the end of the week.
5. This book is really difficult. On Saturday I...	read	...it for a month, and I'm still only half way.

8.2.3 Present Simple and Present Continuous to Talk about the Future

In English, present tenses can also be used to talk about future events.

Present Simple (V or V-s) is used to express the future in the following cases:

- for **fixed timetables** without an element of personal agreement, intention or planning

EX: They **leave** tomorrow at 12 and arrive at 18:30.

The sun **rises** at 5:16 tomorrow.

- in **time clauses** with *after, as soon as, before, by the time, when, while, until*

EX: I should be finished *by the time* you **get** back.

- in **conditional clauses** with *if, in case, provided, and unless*

EX: *Provided* the right software **is** available, I should be able to solve the problem.

- for talking about **possible future events** with *suppose, supposing, and what if*

EX: *Suppose* we **miss** the bus – how will we get home?

Present Continuous (be + V-ing) is used for future actions or events that have already been decided, pre-arranged, or agreed upon. This usage of the Present Continuous is similar to ‘be going to.’

EX: I’**m meeting** him tonight. = I’**m going to** meet him tonight. (We have already arranged a meeting.)

8.2.4 Expressions ‘Be due to’ and ‘Be about to’

‘**Be due to**’ is used for actions that are expected to happen according to some **timetable** or **schedule**. It is a formal equivalent of the Present Simple.

EX: The plane **is due to land** at 3. (= The plane lands at 3.)

‘**Be about to**’ is used for actions that are going to happen in the **very near future**.

EX: The taxi is here and we **are about to go**.

EXERCISE 4 (GROUP WORK): *Read the following sentences. What tenses are used? Is there any difference in meaning? Discuss in small groups and suggest possible situations for each of these sentences.*

1. I’ll see him about it tomorrow.
I’m seeing him about it tomorrow.
I’ll be seeing him about it tomorrow.
2. Will you join us out for the party?
Will you be joining us out for the party?
3. We are spending our vacation in Italy.
We are going to spend our vacation in Italy.
4. I’m going to collect the children at eight.
I’ll collect the children at eight.

5. I'm going to open a bottle of lemonade, if you want some.
I will open a bottle of lemonade if you want some.

EXERCISE 5: *Complete these dialogues with either the Present Simple, the Present Continuous, the Future Simple or be going to.*

1. A: Simon Bianchi (1) _____ (join) us for dinner. You know, the novelist.
B: Yes, I've read some of his books.
A: I'm sure you (2) _____ (like) him. His latest book (3) _____ (come) out at the end of this week. If you want, I'm sure he (4) _____ (give) you a signed copy.
2. A: Have you heard that BMW (1) _____ (sack) 300 workers?
B: That's bad news. Supposing they (2) _____ (close) completely – that would be awful.
A: But I've heard that they (2) _____ (build) a new factory in Ireland. If you look on their website, you (4) _____ (see) a lot of information about it.

HOMEWORK ASSIGNMENT: *Open the brackets using the appropriate way to express the future. Justify your choice.*

1. I offered him a job last week and I think he _____ (take) it.
2. Put your wallet away. I _____ (pay) for the tickets.
3. At 5pm, it _____ (rain) for three days exactly.
4. Suppose we _____ (fail) – what _____ we _____ (do) then?
5. What _____ (happen) if my parachute _____ (open).
6. She _____ (visit) ten countries in 12 days by the time she _____ (get) back.
7. _____ you _____ (eat) with us this evening?
8. This time next week, I _____ (sit) on the beach in Barbados.
9. At two o'clock, she _____ (sleep) for twelve hours.
10. Final exams _____ (start) next week.
11. What do you want to eat? – I think I _____ (have) a sandwich.
12. I _____ (play) football this afternoon, so I can't make it to the party.

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LESSON NINE

The Use of Tenses to Talk about the Present

Objectives

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

- use present tenses in their speech and writing
- use future tenses about hypothetical situations in the present
- use Past Simple and Past Continuous for polite requests in the present.

9.1 The Use of Present Tenses

Present Simple (V or V-s) is used to talk about:

- general truth
EX: Water **boils** at 100 C.
- permanent actions or states
EX: She **teaches** German and English, and she **lives** on campus.
- recurrent or habitual actions (*often, seldom, sometimes, occasionally, always, never, ever, every year (week, month, day), usually, once (twice, etc.) a month, daily, on Sunday, etc.*)
EX: Mary **comes** here every week.
- for a succession of single actions or events occurring at the present moment (often used by radio and TV commentators)
EX: He **turns, shoots** – and he **scores**!
- in declarations or other 'performative' utterances, i.e. verbs which perform the action they describe (*admire, agree, apologize, approve, confess, confirm, congratulate, excuse, express, guarantee, guess, maintain, note, offer, promise, propose, suggest, sympathize*)
EX: I **declare** the meeting open.
I **pronounce** you man and wife.

I **wish** you all a happy New Year.

Note that all these verbs can be used in the progressive form if the process is emphasized.

EX: - What are they doing?

- They **are wishing** each other merry Christmas.

- in step-by-step instructions

EX: First you **boil** some water. Then you **warm** the teapot. Then you **add** three teaspoons of tea. Next you **pour** on boiling water.

- to express thoughts and feelings at the present moment (with verbs that do not normally take the progressive form)

EX: I **understand** him perfectly.

I **want** a breath of fresh air.

I **see** a long path ahead.

I **hear** somebody's steps.

Present Continuous (be + V-ing) is used in the following cases:

- for actions or events considered as being in progress at the moment of speaking

EX: What **is** he **doing**? – He **is cutting** the vegetables.

- for temporary situations (may not be happening at the moment of speaking)

EX: Don't take the hammer away. Your father's **using** it.

- for repeated actions that are characteristic of certain people or objects and *provoke emotions* in the speaker (irritation, disapproval, praise, etc.). Adverbs *always, continually, constantly, forever, repeatedly* can be used.

EX: She's always **grumbling**. (=negative emotion)

Kate **is** always **helping** people. (=positive emotion)

- stative verbs can occur in the progressive form if the ideas they denote are being emphasized (especially as being unusual)

EX: Something's wrong with my eyes. I'm **seeing** double.

Don't shout! I'm **hearing** you perfectly well.

- some stative verbs can take the progressive form when they are used *in their other meanings* (e.g. *expect, feel, fit, have, measure, think, weigh*). Compare:

STATIVE	ACTION
The app doesn't appear to work on my phone. (= seem)	Carley Rob is currently appearing in a musical on Broadway. (= take part)
I see a long path ahead. (= perceive)	He is seeing her home. (= accompany)
The room measures 7 by 5 metres. (= permanent quality)	I'm measuring the distance between these two points. (= count)
This jumper doesn't fit me, so I'll have to take it back. (= the wrong size)	My car's in the garage. They are fitting new brakes. (= equip)
Your shirt feels like silk. (= permanent quality)	I'm not feeling very well today. (= physical condition)
I expect you will be absent. (= my opinion)	Are you expecting anyone today? (= wait)
She has a cat. (= possession)	They are having dinner. (= action)
I think it's true. (= opinion)	I'm thinking of launching a website. (= considering pros and cons)

EXERCISE 1: *Open the brackets using the Present Simple or the Present Continuous. Pay attention to the use of stative verbs.*

- Johnny, you _____ (be) naughty. You can reach the books on the upper shelf yourself.
You _____ (be) tall enough.
- Rodriguez _____ (pass) to Messi who _____ (shoot) just over the bar. Barcelona _____ (attack) much more in this half.
- Can I borrow \$10? You forever _____ (ask) for money.
- Poulson _____ (have) treatment for a knee injury, but should be fit to play on Saturday.
- My sister _____ (have) blonde hair. You're bound to recognize her.
- I don't know what _____ (go on) with him today! He _____ (be) so rude to everyone!
- I cannot make the 3 p.m. meeting. I _____ (see) my doctor at this time.
- Thanks for your message. I _____ (apologize) for not getting back to you sooner.

EXERCISE 2 (GROUP WORK): *Watch a short video of a sports game. Imagine that you are a radio commentator. Write a paragraph to describe what is going on in the field. Use the Present Simple for a succession of short single actions, use the Present Continuous for longer-lasting actions.*

Present Perfect (have/ has + V-ed) is used:

- for situations or events that extend from some time in the past to the present and may or may not continue in the future (*so far, until now, up to now, some time now, for two years (now), etc.*)

EX: Up to now, I **have enjoyed** myself. (=I'm still enjoying myself)

So far she **has written** only three letters. (=perhaps she will write some more)

- if the period of time within which the action was performed is not yet over at the moment of speaking (*today, this morning/ week/ month/ year*)

EX: I **haven't seen** her *today*.

They **have returned** from England *this week*.

- for actions completed at some indefinite or irrelevant time in the past. Especially, if the event is still relevant to the present (*lately, recently, at last, finally, just, yet, already, still, etc.*)

EX: The escalator **has broken** down.

Have you passed the driving test?

- in clauses of time and condition to denote an action completed before a certain time in the future

EX: I'll stay with you until you've **finished** your work.

Present Perfect Continuous (have/has + been + V-ing) is used:

- for actions that started in the past and are still in progress in the present

EX: Prices **have been decreasing** recently. (=they are still decreasing)

- to emphasize that an activity was in progress until recently

EX: She's **been writing** the book since she was in her twenties and at last it's finished.

- when we draw a conclusion from what we can see, hear, etc about an action in progress until recently. We often use this form to criticise

EX: You've **been eating** chocolate, haven't you? *There's some on your shirt.*

EXERCISE 3: Use the Present Perfect in one sentence and the Present Perfect Continuous in another. Use negative forms where appropriate.

1. Martina Gozalez _____ (stay) in a rented flat since returning to Buenos Aires.
We _____ (stay) at this hotel a couple of times before.
2. All day, police _____ (stop) motorists to question them about the accident.

- Good, the noise _____ (stop). I can start concentrating on my work again.
3. I _____ (read) any of Dickens' novels.
I _____ (read) this book on astrophysics for hours and I'm still on page six.
4. Dr. Fletcher _____ (give) the same lecture to students for the last ten years.
Mr. Sato _____ (give) nearly a million pounds to the charity this year.
5. I did 20 lengths of the pool today. I _____ (swim) that far since I was at school.
I _____ (swim) and I feel exhausted.
6. An important file _____ (disappear) from my office.
Plants and vegetables _____ from my garden since we had new neighbours.
7. You _____ (do) your homework! _____ you _____ (play) computer games the whole day?

9.2 The Use of Future Tenses

The negative form **WON'T** can be used to talk about refusal when it relates to present situations. This use is emotional.

EX: I can't get these picture to download. I keep clicking on this icon, but they **won't download**.

It's no good trying to persuade him. He **won't go** and that's that.

EXERCISE 4: Look at the pictures. What would you say in the following situations? Use Present Perfect Continuous and won't for refusal.

Ex: I've been trying hard to pack this suitcase, but it won't close!

A.



B.



C.



D.



E.



F.



The Future Continuous (will + be + V-ing), Future Perfect (will + have + V-ed) and Future Perfect Continuous (will + have + been + V-ing) can be used to say what we believe or imagine is happening right now.

EX: We could ask to borrow Joe's car. He **won't be using** it today – he went to work by bike.

Most people **will have forgotten** the fire by now.

Most fans **will have been queuing** at Wimbledon all day to buy tickets.

EXERCISE 5: *Underline the correct option. Pay attention to the use of future tenses for hypothetical situations in the present.*

Hi Rosa,

Greetings from Osaka! Hope this finds you all well. I suppose by now school (1) *will close* / *will have closed* for Christmas and you (2) *will be enjoying* / *will have been enjoying* a rest.

My main news is that my brother Joe, and his family (4) *will have been arriving* / *will be arriving* next Friday as part of their big trip around the world. By the time they get here they (5) *will be going* / *will have been* to California and New Zealand. No doubt Joe's children (6) *will have been planning* / *will plan* it all out for months! They (7) *won't be spending* / *won't have spent* all their time with me. Joe has to go to Tokyo on business, so I (8) *will have kept* / *will be keeping* the rest of the family entertained while he's away. Then they (9) *will all be going* / *will all have been going* to Kyoto...

9.3 The Use of Past Simple and Past Continuous for polite requests

Past Simple and **Past Continuous** can be used to refer to the present time when we want to sound more polite and tentative (esp. with verbs like think, hope, wonder).

EX: I **was hoping** you could lend me money.

I **thought** you might help us.

EXERCISE 6 (PAIR WORK): *In pairs, make short dialogues about the situations provided below. Student A makes a tentative request using Past Simple or Past Continuous, student B responds to the request.*

1. You would like to borrow your Dad's car.
2. You would like to ask your colleague to buy you a slice of pizza when they go out for the break.
3. You would like to ask your teacher for a better TD mark.
4. You would like to ask your elder sister to help you with your homework assignment.

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LESSON TEN

The Use of Tenses to Talk about the Past

Objectives

At the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

- use past tenses in their speech and writing
- use present tenses for past events in narration
- write a short paragraph to describe a past event.

10.1 Past Tenses

10.1.1 Past Simple

Past Simple (V-ed) is used:

- for events or states that occurred at a particular time in the past (*e.g. yesterday, an hour ago, last night, when he came, etc.*)

EX: It **was** cold yesterday.

NOTE! In when-questions, we can only use the Simple Past because ‘when’ implies reference to a certain moment in the past. The answer can be either in the Past Simple or in the Present Perfect.

EX: *When* **did** he **leave**? – He **left** *an hour ago*. / He **has** *just left*.

- for actions or situations which occupied a period of time now terminated

EX: I **lived** in this house *until I was ten*. (= I don’t live in this house any longer)

- for a sequence of events in the past

EX: Some British armoured cars **came** and **began** shooting from a distance and in the chaos I **shouted** out to four or five brother officers and we **drove** off in a truck. We **were fired** at but not hit.

- for past habits or for events that took place regularly in the past (but no longer do)

EX: *When I **was** a child*, we always **went** to the seaside in summer.

10.1.2 Other Ways of Expressing a Past Habit

Besides Past Simple, there are **other ways of expressing a past habit**:

Used to + infinitive

Affirmative: He **used to play** tennis every weekend.

Negative: He **didn't use to play** tennis every weekend.

He **didn't used to play** tennis every weekend.

He **used not to play** tennis every weekend.

Interrogative: **Did** he **used to play** tennis every weekend?

Would + infinitive

It can be used only for repeated actions, not states or situations.

EX: They **would spend** long winter nights reading and talking to each other.

10.1.3 Past Continuous

Past Continuous (was/ were + V-ing) is used:

- for a temporary action in progress at a particular moment in the past

EX: What **were** you **doing** *at five o'clock yesterday*.

- for a continuous action that was happening during a limited period of time in the past

EX: She **was playing** the piano *from five till six*.

- for repeated actions characteristic of certain persons in the past, especially to convey some kind of negative attitude

EX: He *was very absent-minded* and **was** constantly **losing** his things.

- in sentences depicting two simultaneous events. The Past Continuous can refer to an event that serves as a longer « background » for a shorter action or event expressed by the Past Simple.

EX: I **was having** a bath when the telephone *rang*.

NOTE! When a sentence describes two continuous actions that went on at the same time, the Past Continuous and the Past Simple are both possible.

EX: While I **was listening** to her story, I **was thinking** of how to help her.

While I **listened** to her story, I **thought** of how to help her.

10.1.4 Past Perfect

Past Perfect (had + V-ed) is used:

- for making a time distinction between two events or situations in the past – it refers to the earlier of the two

EX: It was not as nice there as she **had expected**.

- for actions completed before some moment in the past

EX: She **had fallen** asleep *before 8 o'clock yesterday*.

- When we give an account of a sequence of past events, we usually put these events in chronological order using the Past Simple. If we want to refer to **an event out of order** – an event which happened before the last event in the sequence – we use the Past Perfect.

EX: I *wrote* (1) to Clara an email to thank her for the present. But as soon as I *pressed* (2) the 'send' button, I *realised* (5) that I **had made** (3) a mistake and *sent* (4) it to her sister instead.

- with the conjunctions *hardly... when*, *barely... when*, *scarcely... when*, *no sooner... than*

EX: I **had hardly closed** the door *when* somebody started knocking on it.

We **had scarcely started** dinner *when* the doorbell rang again.

NOTE! These structures are sometimes used with **inverted word order**.

EX: *No sooner* **had** we **heard** the noise *than* we rushed to the spot.

Hardly **had** I **closed** my eyes *when* I began to imagine fantastic shapes.

- for actions or situations which had been in progress up to a certain moment in the past, especially with stative verbs which do not normally take the progressive form

EX: I **had not seen** him for a few months when he suddenly phoned me.

10.1.5 Past Perfect Continuous

Past Perfect Continuous (has/ have + been + V-ing) is used:

- for actions in progress that began before a certain moment in the past
EX: He **had been staying** in the hotel *for a week when his friends arrived*. (= he was still staying there)
- for actions in progress that were, in fact, completed before a certain moment of time in the past (especially if the evidence was still visible)
EX: *Her eyes were red*, I saw that she **had been crying**. (= she was no longer crying)

10.2 The Use of Present Tenses in Narration

Present tenses can be used to talk about past events:

- in **narration** (talks, conversations, novels), to bring the event closer to the listener or reader (the historic present)
EX: I'm **driving** along the country and I'm completely **lost**. Then, I **see** this old fellow. He's **leaning** against the gate. I **stop** the car and **ask** him the way. He **thinks** a bit, then **says** « Well, if I were you, I wouldn't start from here. »
- to introduce news that we have heard, read or seen (verbs of reporting: *I hear; I gather, they say, (someone) tells me/ says*)

EX: I **hear**, you're moving.

I've never been at a greyhound racing, but they **tell** me it's a fascinating sport.

Sophia **tells** me you're thinking of emigrating.

EXERCISE 1: Make one sentence out of A and C using conjunctions in B. Pay attention to the word order and the use of tenses.

A	B	C
Martin sat down. I arrived at the station. I came home. The train left the station. She finished reading. The company launched its new product. She agreed to marry him.	<i>No sooner... than</i> <i>Hardly... when</i> <i>Barely... when</i> <i>Scarcely... when</i>	The phone rang. The train came. The rain started. There was an explosion. She fell asleep. It went bankrupt. She started to have terrible doubts.

EXERCISE 2: *Open the brackets. Use the verb in the appropriate past tense or 'used to.'*

1. Marisol _____ (work) in the office when Kim _____ (call).
2. Marisol _____ (hand) over her purse to the guard. He _____ (pull) up the radio. Two hours earlier, Marisol _____ (work) in the office when Kim _____ (call).
3. Vikram and I _____ (have) epic battles. He _____ (have) a temper. Yeah, we _____ (have) a bad one the day he _____ (die). He _____ (drink) and I _____ (tell) him not to take the boat out.
4. Carl _____ (ball up) the sheet of paper and _____ (throw) it at Myron. Then, he _____ (turn off) the lights above the beds, and _____ (turn on) the projector, which he _____ (make) from a shoe box, a magnifying glass, and his phone.
5. Swann hardly _____ (begin) to recover from her loss when he _____ (suffer) another.
6. Yesterday, while I _____ (work) in the museum, an elderly guest _____ (suffer) massive heart failure.

EXERCISE 3: *Open the brackets using past tenses.*

How I bought my dream house

When I first ____ (see) the old house I just ____ (move) to the area. It ____ (be) empty for about a year and ____ (begin) to need some repairs, but the house ____ (be) exactly what I ____ (want). But by the time I ____ (put) together enough money I ____ (learn) that a property developer ____ (buy) it and ____ (plan) to turn it into a hotel. Six months later I nearly ____ (give up) hope of finding anywhere to live in the village when I ____ (hear) that the house was for sale again. The property developer ____ (decide) to invest his money in a new housing development on the edge of the village. I ____ (buy) the house immediately and ____ (live) there happily ever since.

EXERCISE 4: *Report the following pieces of news to your friend. Use **I hear, I gather, they say, (someone) tells me/ says.***

- They are building a new public school in the area.
- Your brother got married.
- The workers of this company will go on strike next week.
- There was a plane crash yesterday.
- The whole area is flooded after the heavy rain.
- You are expecting another baby.
- Linda's grandmother has passed away.
- You are looking for another job.

EXERCISE 5 (GROUP WORK): *Look at the picture and make up a story. Write a paragraph to tell this story using as many past tenses as possible.*



HOMEWORK ASSIGNMENT: *Imagine that the story in activity 5 happened to you. Describe what happened in a letter to your friend. Use the Present Simple and the Present Continuous to engage your reader.*

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LESSON ELEVEN

Mood and Voice

Objectives

At the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

- differentiate between the indicative, imperative and subjunctive mood
- use the subjunctive mood in their speech and writing
- use verbs in the passive voice in different tenses.

11.1 Mood

Mood is a means of expressing modality, i.e. the speaker's attitude to actions / states or the relation of actions / states to reality.

The English language distinguishes between three moods:

- the **indicative** mood
- the **imperative** mood
- the **subjunctive** mood.

INDICATIVE	IMPERATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
It is used to represent an action or a state as <i>a real fact</i> . EX: Barbara lives in London.	It represents an action or a state as desirable and expresses a <i>request or a command</i> . EX: Be quiet! Do be quiet! (for emphasis) Let's go there. Let us not go there.	It is used to express an action that is <i>unreal or desirable</i> (a wish often unreal). EX: I wish I were sixteen again. It is imperative that the game begin at once.

11.2 The Subjunctive Mood

The **present subjunctive** mood corresponds to the **bare infinitive for all persons**.

EX: I insist that he **come** here at once.

It is essential that everybody **be** present.

The use of the **past subjunctive** is limited to the verb **were**.

EX: He behaved as if he **were** drunk.

The subjunctive mood is often used after the verbs: *command, order, wish, suggest, recommend, ask, insist, demand*. The following acronym may help you memorize these verbs – **COWSRAID**. Each letter of the acronym stands for the first letter of one of the verbs (see the picture below).

COWS RAID			
C	command	I command he <u>leave</u> .	
O	order	I will order the game <u>be</u> restarted.	
W	wish	I wish I <u>were</u> rich.	
S	suggest	I suggested John <u>take</u> the train.	
R	recommend	I recommend she <u>stop</u> talking.	
A	ask	All I ask is that Sarah <u>be</u> quiet.	
I	insist	I must insist that he <u>finish</u> the task.	
D	demand	I demand she <u>sing</u> again.	

The subjunctive mood is also used after the following adjectives: *important, necessary, imperative, crucial, essential*. To memorize these adjectives, you may use the acronym – **INICE** (see the picture below).

INICE			
I	important	It is important that Jack <u>arrive</u> on time.	
N	necessary	It is necessary that he <u>be</u> quiet.	
I	imperative	It is imperative that Jack <u>sit</u> with Jill.	
C	crucial	It is crucial that I <u>be</u> there.	
E	essential	It is essential that Jill leave immediately.	

The subjunctive mood is also used in some **fixed expressions**.

So be it!

Be it as you wish.

God/ Heaven/ Lord help/ save sb

God/ Heaven forbid!

Peace be upon his ashes.

God rest his soul.

God damn it!

(God) bless you!

Come what may...

Be it rain or snow...

in whatever
circumstances

If truth be known/ told... (to tell real facts)

...if need be... (if sth is necessary)

...as it were (in a way, used to be less precise)

Blast the fool!

EXERCISE 1: Paraphrase the sentences below using the following verbs: *command, order, wish, suggest, recommend, ask, insist, demand*, or adjectives: *important, necessary, imperative, crucial, essential*. Use the subjunctive mood.

EX: It is imperative that the election **be held** at the appointed time.

1. The election should be held at the appointed time. 2. Military exercises should be held outside our territorial waters. 3. He should work full time. 4. She must have a chance. 5. She might make us sushi. 6. She must be here. 7. You should be truthful. 8. We want the president to be likeable. 8. According to the UN resolution, the President must disarm and destroy his chemical weapons. 9. It's cold, she should wear a sweater. 10. I'd like Lee to play the guitar. 11. He must practice every day. 12. Robin should join the group discussion.

EXERCISE 2: Look at the pictures. What might be their wish? Write sentences starting with: *He / she wishes he/ she were...*



EXERCISE 3: React to these statements using fixed expressions with the subjunctive mood.

1. Your tax declaration is due by the end of the week. - ...
2. The astronauts are ready to take off, sir. - ...
3. Chicago Bulls have lost a second game. - ...
4. The boat is sinking, Jane. We may soon be dead. - ...
5. I have made my mind and I need your permission. - ...
6. The damned computer has lost our file. - ...
7. Bless him Father, for he died a hero. - ...
8. Atishoo! God, when will I stop sneezing. - ...
9. I'm sure you will leave me when I become old and ugly. - ...
10. Did your son get a good mark for the exam? - ...
11. What if it rains! I don't have a raincoat. - ...

11.3 Voice

The category of voice indicates whether the subject or the semantic object of the sentence is the agent (doer) of the action denoted by the verb.

In the **active voice**, the subject is the doer of the action; whereas, in the **passive voice**, the subject corresponds to the semantic object, i.e. the person or thing that undergoes the action.

ACTIVE

The subject = **the doer**

Mary wrote *the letter*.



PASSIVE

The subject = **the semantic object**

The letter was written by *Mary*.



Both active and passive voice can be used in different tenses. The **passive voice** is formed as follows: **auxiliary BE in the appropriate tense + the passive participle of the main verb**.

TENSE	ACTIVE VOICE	PASSIVE VOICE
PRESENT SIMPLE	She asks a question.	A question is asked by...
PAST SIMPLE	She asked a question.	A question was asked by...
FUTURE SIMPLE	She will ask a question.	A question will be asked by...
PR. CONTINUOUS	She is asking a question.	A question is being asked by...
P. CONTINUOUS	She was asking a question.	A question was being asked by...
PR. PERFECT	She has asked a question.	A question has been asked by...
PAST PERFECT	She had asked a question.	A question had been asked by...
FUTURE PERFECT	She will have asked a question.	A question will have been asked by...

We typically use a passive rather than an active voice in the following situations:

1. When we prefer to omit the agent. It may happen if the agent:

- is not known: *My office was broken into when I was on holiday.*
- is 'people in general': *An order form can be found on page 2.*
- is unimportant: *He is thought to be somewhere in Russia.*
- is obvious: *She is being treated in hospital.*

2. In factual writing (e.g. describing procedures or processes):

EX: Nuclear waste will still be radioactive even after 20,000 years, so it **must be disposed** of very carefully. It **can be stored** as a liquid in stainless-steel containers which **are encased** in concrete.

Note that in **informal contexts** we often use active sentences with a subject such as *people, somebody / someone, something, they, we, or you* even if we do not know who the agent is. In more **formal contexts**, we often prefer to use *a passive*.

EX: *They are installing* the new computer system next month. (informal - active)

The new computer system is being installed next month. (formal - passive)

EXERCISE 4: Write passive sentences starting with the words in italics.

1 They built *the main stadium* in under three years.
The main stadium was built in under three years.

2 They have designed *the main stadium* to accommodate many different sports.

3 They will take down *the temporary stands* after the Games.

4 They will have completed *the basketball arena* by the end of May.

5 They are holding *the rowing competition* on the River Nene.

6 They had completed *the athletics track* only a year after the city got the Olympics.

7 They were using *the handball venue* as a warehouse until a year ago.

8 They should have finished *the badminton arena* by now.

EXERCISE 5: Put the verb in brackets into the correct tense of the passive voice.

1. The principle of bottling is very simple. Food _____ (put) in jars, the jars and their contents _____ (heat) to a temperature which _____ (maintain) long enough to

ensure that all bacteria and viruses _____ (destroy). Then the jars _____ (seal) airtight and _____ (store) in cool storage. 2. I think we might have a snack while our car _____ (wash). 3. We bitterly _____ (disappoint) when we lost our court action. 4. At the coming examination the passage _____ (read) to you once. 5. When we returned to our hotel, our room _____ (clean) and we had to wait in the lobby. 6. You cannot possibly see our President right now. He _____ (interview) by a team of journalists. 7. Heavy snow has fallen in the North of England. Many roads _____ (block) completely and traffic _____ (bring) to a standstill. One town, Castlepool in Yorkshire, _____ (cut) entirely off. Supplies _____ (drop) urgently into the town by air later this afternoon. 8. The facade of the building _____ (decorate) with a set of statues that _____ (carve) from stone about three hundred years before they _____ (mount) into the portico of Stonewall Hall.

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LESSONS TWELVE/ THIRTEEN

Revision

EXERCISE 1: *A. Divide the words into morphemes. Write each morpheme into the appropriate box according to its type: prefix, root, suffix, free, bound, inflectional (I), derivational (D).*

B. Identify the part of speech of each word.

C. Identify the word type (simple, complex, or compound).

strengthened, unsuccessfully, greediest, activities, rainbows, enormity, depersonalization, hotter, bathrooms, babysits, unbelievably

prefix		root		suffix		part of speech	type
D	I	free	bound	D	I		

EXERCISE 2: *Derive another part of speech from the following bases according to the pattern and use the new word in a sentence of your own.*

1. **VERB** → **NOUN**: arrive, announce
2. **ADJECTIVE** → **VERB**: pure, weak
3. **ADJECTIVE** → **ADVERB**: slow, back
4. **NOUN** → **VERB**: class, apology
5. **VERB** → **ADJECTIVE**: rely, explode
6. **ADJECTIVE** → **NOUN**: warm, equal

EXERCISE 3: *Read the text and fill in the table.*

If your view of the world comes from watching the news and reading newspapers, you could be forgiven for lying awake at night worrying about the future. Apparently, rising violence and population rates mean humans are both killing each other in ever larger numbers and being born at rates the world's resources can't sustain. To make matters worse, all the wealth is concentrated on a handful of people in the world's richest countries. People in low-income countries live in poverty while the West gets richer. Bad, isn't it?

But do the statistics support our negative world view or is the world actually improving? [...]
(*The State of World, British Council*)

words with allomorphs	suppletive forms	lexical morphemes	functional morphemes	words with inflectional affixes	words with derivational affixes

EXERCISE 4: *Use the following forms in a sentence of your own.*

1. The plural form of the noun PHENOMENON
2. The passive participle of the verb LEAVE
3. The comparative form of the adjective NARROW
4. The progressive participle of the verb STRUGGLE
5. The plural form of the noun ANALYSIS
6. The past simple form of the verb LAY

7. The superlative form of the adjective BUSY
8. The perfect participle of the verb FALL
9. The accusative case of the pronoun WE
10. The passive participle of the verb BUILD

EXERCISE 5 (GROUP WORK): *In small groups, make three pairs of sentences to describe any of the pictures below. Use grammatical homonyms in each pair of sentences. Then, exchange your sentences with another group. Identify grammatical homonyms in their sentences and label the forms.*

EX: The airplane has **landed** on the football field. (the perfect participle of the verb LAND)
The **land** looks dry. (the singular form of the noun LAND)



EXERCISE 6: *In which of the following sentences the reflexive pronoun can be removed?*

1. I could barely tear myself away from the pages of this book.
2. While the water heated, she busied herself with the chores around the room.
3. Gradually his eyes accustomed themselves to the gloom and he looked at the girl.
4. We live in a free society which prides itself on encouraging free expression.
5. Some animals have adapted themselves to urban and suburban life.
6. Holding my breath, I hid myself in the shadows, and continued to watch.
7. Don't trouble yourself about this issue any more.

8. About half of the adults identified themselves as middle class.
9. Phileas Fogg had not absented himself from London for many years.
10. We must prepare ourselves for what is to come.
11. The teacher occupied himself with grading papers and reading books.
12. Confucius concerned himself with how people behaved themselves and treated each other.

EXERCISE 7: *Circle adverbs in the following sentences. Then make your own sentences using the corresponding derivational adverbs with -ly.*

1. At that I stopped short before them, hesitating to enter.
2. The task was pretty simple.
3. I exercise until I breathe hard.
4. The sun was climbing high in the sky.
5. Elderly people can get these pills free from the local health department.
6. Our feet sank deeper into the mud.
7. They'll respect you as long as you play fair.

EXERCISE 8: *Correct mistakes in the following sentences.*

1. This is the most sharp knife I have.
2. The Berlin train will leave at 11:25.
3. I think John is moving into a better house shortly.
4. Naipaul has emigrated to England when he was ten and lived and worked there ever since.
5. I finished hardly my homework when Dad arrived.
6. This small town prides on its beautiful landscape.
7. I don't want cherry juice, I'd rather drink orange one.
8. Our turkey was ate by the dog.
9. This street is narrower more than that one.
10. My cousin will arrive this Saturday. We will meet him at the airport at 10 o'clock. Then we will take a drive around town so that he can see the sights.

EXERCISE 9: *Complete the email with the verbs in brackets in the correct form.*

Hi Jess,

How are you? I (1) _____ (try) to ring you all evening, but no reply. I wanted to say goodbye as I (2) _____ (leave) London tomorrow for a new life in Brazil! Yes, this is a major life change for me. But my job (3) _____ (get) more and more stressful recently, and I (4) _____ (feel) the need for a change of scene for some time now. Then, just before Christmas, I (5) _____ (surf) the Internet when I (6) _____ (come) across an advertisement for a locum doctor in Brazil. So, to cut a long story short, I (7) _____ (apply) and they (8) _____ (offer) me the job.

It's hard to believe that this time tomorrow I (9) _____ (sit) on a plane on my way to another continent. I must admit I (10) _____ (feel) a little apprehensive right now, but I (11) _____ (know) it's the right thing to do.

Sorry not to be able to say goodbye properly, but if you get this email, give me a ring on my mobile – my plane (12) _____ (leave) at 4:00 tomorrow afternoon so you can catch me any time before that.

Lots of love,

Emma

EXERCISE 10: *Find three sentences that are grammatically correct. Then correct the verb forms in the other sentences.*

1. I see a friend tomorrow evening.
2. The weather is getting much warmer these days.
3. Don't phone me at six as I'll work.
4. I currently stay with friends while my kitchen is extended.
5. His son was often crying when he was a baby.
6. My boss is being rather uncooperative at the moment.
7. I've been driving 200km today.
8. My sister is always borrowing my clothes without asking.

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APPENDIX 1

Irregular Plural Nouns

1. Vowel change in the root:

Foot – feet	Woman - women
Goose – geese	Mouse – mice
Louse – lice	Tooth – teeth
Man – men	

2. F in the singular → V in the plural + the regular suffix:

Calf – calves	Self – selves
Elf – elves	Sheaf – sheaves
Half – halves	Shelf – shelves
Knife – knives	Thief – thieves
Life – lives	Wife – wives
Loaf – loaves	Wolf - wolves

3. No change in the form:

Aircraft – aircraft	Species – species
Bison – bison	Swine – swine
Deer – deer	Trout – trout
Grouse – grouse	Tuna – tuna
Sheep – sheep	

4. Suffix -(r)en:

Brother - brethren
Child – children
Ox – oxen

5. Suffix -a:

Bacterium – bacteria	Erratum – errata
Corpus – corpora	Genus – genera
Criterion – criteria	Medium – media
Curriculum – curricula	Phenomenon - phenomena
Datum – data	Stratum – strata

6. Suffix –i (pronounced as [aɪ] or [i:]):

Alumnus – alumni	[ə'λʌmnəs] - [ə'λʌmnaɪ]/ [ə'λʌmni:]
Bacillus – bacilli	[bə'sɪləs] - [bə'sɪlaɪ]/ [bə'sɪli:]
Focus – foci	['fəʊkəs] - ['fəʊsaɪ]/ ['fəʊkaɪ]/ ['fəʊsi:]
Fungus – fungi	['fʌŋɡəs] - ['fʌŋgi:] / ['fʌŋgaɪ]
Nucleus – nuclei	['nju:kliəs] - ['nju:kliɪaɪ]/ ['nju:klii:]
Stimulus – stimuli	
Syllabus – syllabi (also syllabuses)	

7. Suffix –ae (pronounced as [aɪ] or [i:]):

Alga – algae	['ælgə] - ['ældʒi:]
Alumna – alumnae	
Formula – formulae	
Larva – larvae	
Nebula – nebulae	

8. Suffix –es [i:z] typical for words of Greek origin ending in -is:

Analysis – analys <u>es</u>	Ellipsis – ellips <u>es</u>
Axis – ax <u>es</u>	Oasis – oas <u>es</u>
Basis – bas <u>es</u>	Parenthesis -parenthes <u>es</u>
Crisis – cris <u>es</u>	Prognosis – prognos <u>es</u>
Diagnosis – diagnos <u>es</u>	Thesis – thes <u>es</u>

APPENDIX 2

Word Forms (Inflectional Morphology)

IMPORTANT!

All suffixes highlighted red are INFLECTIONAL.

VERB FORMS:

1. The basic form

a. with modal verbs

I can swim. (*the basic form of the verb SWIM*)

b. in the Present Simple

They swim very well. (*the basic form of the verb SWIM*)

c. the infinitive

She likes to swim. (*the basic form of the verb SWIM*)

2. Third person singular

He swims very well. (*the third person singular of the verb SWIM*)

3. Simple past

We travelled together. (*the simple past of the verb TRAVEL*)

4. Perfect/ passive participle

a. all perfect tenses (with auxiliary HAVE)

I have seen this film before. (*the perfect participle of the verb SEE*)

b. passive voice (with auxiliary BE)

We were given this task. (*the passive participle of the verb GIVE*)

5. Progressive participle

I am talking to my friends. (*the progressive participle of the verb TALK*)

NOUN FORMS

1. Singular

The cat is under the tree. (*the singular form of the noun CAT*)

2. Plural

The cats are under the tree. (*the plural form of the noun CAT*)

FORMS OF PRONOUNS

1. The nominative case (=subject of the sentence)

I (he, she, it, you, we, they) gave him the book. (*the nominative case of the pronoun I*)

2. The accusative case (= object)

I gave him (her, them, us, me, you, it) the book. (*the accusative case of the pronoun HE*)

FORMS OF ADJECTIVES

1. The positive form

The house is big. (*the positive form of the adjective BIG*)

2. The comparative form

That house is bigger. (*the comparative form of the adjective BIG*)

3. The superlative form

This house is the biggest. (*the superlative form of the adjective BIG*)

FORMS OF ADVERBS

1. The positive form

He came early. (*the positive form of the adverb EARLY*)

2. The comparative form

You came earlier. (*the comparative form of the adverb EARLY*)

3. The superlative form

She came earliest. (*the superlative form of the adverb EARLY*)