## First Year: Group: 03

## Grammar

Lesson: Using Articles
What is an article? Basically, an article is an adjective. Like adjectives, articles modify nouns.
English has two articles: the and $\mathbf{a} / \mathbf{a n}$. The is used to refer to specific or particular nouns; $\mathbf{a} / \mathbf{a n}$ is used to modify non-specific or non-particular nouns. We call the the definite article and $\mathbf{a} / \mathbf{a n}$ the indefinite article.
the $=$ definite article
$\mathrm{a} / \mathrm{an}=$ indefinite article
For example, if I say, "Let's read the book," I mean a specific book. If I say, "Let's read a book," I mean any book rather than a specific book.
Here's another way to explain it: The is used to refer to a specific or particular member of a group. For example, "I just saw the most popular movie of the year." There are many movies, but only one particular movie is the most popular. Therefore, we use the.
"A/an" is used to refer to a non-specific or non-particular member of the group. For example, "I would like to go see a movie." Here, we're not talking about a specific movie. We're talking about any movie. There are many movies, and I want to see any movie. I don't have a specific one in mind.

Let's look at each kind of article a little more closely.

## Indefinite Articles: a and an

"A" and "an" signal that the noun modified is indefinite, referring to any member of a group. For example:

- "My daughter really wants a dog for Christmas." This refers to any dog. We don't know which dog because we haven't found the dog yet.
- "Somebody call a policeman!" This refers to any policeman. We don't need a specific policeman; we need any policeman who is available.
- "When I was at the zoo, I saw an elephant!" Here, we're talking about a single, non-specific thing, in this case an elephant. There are probably several elephants at the zoo, but there's only one we're talking about here.

Remember, using a or an depends on the sound that begins the next word. So...

- a + singular noun beginning with a consonant: a boy; a car; a bike; a zoo; a dog
- an + singular noun beginning with
- $\mathbf{a}+$ singular noun beginning with a consonant sound: $\boldsymbol{a}$ user (sounds like 'yoo-zer,' i.e. begins with a consonant 'y' sound, so 'a' is used); a university; a unicycle
- an + nouns starting with silent " h ": an hour
- a+ nouns starting with a pronounced "h": a horse
- In some cases where " h " is pronounced, such as "historical," you can use an. However, a is more commonly used and preferred.

A historical event is worth recording.

Remember that these rules also apply when you use acronyms:
Introductory Composition at Purdue (ICaP) handles first-year writing at the University. Therefore, an ICaP memo generally discusses issues concerning English 106 instructors.
Another case where this rule applies is when acronyms or initialisms start with consonant letters but have vowel sounds:
An MSDS (material safety data sheet) was used to record the data. An SPCC plan (Spill Prevention Control and Countermeasures plan) will help us prepare for the worst.
If the noun is modified by an adjective, the choice between a and an depends on the initial sound of the adjective that immediately follows the article:

- a broken egg
- an unusual problem
- a European country (sounds like 'yer-o-pi-an,' i.e. begins with consonant 'y' sound)

Remember, too, that in English, the indefinite articles are used to indicate membership in a group:

- I am a teacher. (I am a member of a large group known as teachers.)
- Brian is an Irishman. (Brian is a member of the people known as Irish.)
- Seiko is a practicing Buddhist. (Seiko is a member of the group of people known as Buddhists.)


## Definite Article: the

The definite article is used before singular and plural nouns when the noun is specific or particular. The signals that the noun is definite, that it refers to a particular member of a group. For example:
"The dog that bit me ran away." Here, we're talking about a specific dog, the dog that bit me.
"I was happy to see the policeman who saved my cat!" Here, we're talking about a particular policeman. Even if we don't know the policeman's name, it's still a particular policeman because it is the one who saved the cat.
"I saw the elephant at the zoo." Here, we're talking about a specific noun. Probably there is only one elephant at the zoo.

## Count and Noncount Nouns

The can be used with noncount nouns, or the article can be omitted entirely.

- "I love to sail over the water" (some specific body of water) or "I love to sail over water" (any water).
- "He spilled the milk all over the floor" (some specific milk, perhaps the milk you bought earlier that day) or "He spilled milk all over the floor" (any milk).
"A/an" can be used only with count nouns.
- "I need a bottle of water."
- "I need a new glass of milk."

Most of the time, you can't say, "She wants a water," unless you're implying, say, a bottle of water.

## Geographical use of the

There are some specific rules for using the with geographical nouns.
Do not use the before:

- names of most countries/territories: Italy, Mexico, Bolivia; however, the Netherlands, the Dominican Republic, the Philippines, the United States
- names of cities, towns, or states: Seoul, Manitoba, Miami
- names of streets: Washington Blvd., Main St.
- names of lakes and bays: Lake Titicaca, Lake Erie except with a group of lakes like the Great Lakes
- names of mountains: Mount Everest, Mount Fuji except with ranges of mountains like the Andes or the Rockies or unusual names like the Matterhorn
- names of continents (Asia, Europe)
- names of islands (Easter Island, Maui, Key West) except with island chains like the Aleutians, the Hebrides, or the Canary Islands

Do use the before:

- names of rivers, oceans and seas: the Nile, the Pacific
- points on the globe: the Equator, the North Pole
- geographical areas: the Middle East, the West
- deserts, forests, gulfs, and peninsulas: the Sahara, the Persian Gulf, the Black Forest, the Iberian Peninsula


## Omission of Articles

Some common types of nouns that don't take an article are:

- Names of languages and nationalities: Chinese, English, Spanish, Russian (unless you are referring to the population of the nation: "The Spanish are known for their warm hospitality.")
- Names of sports: volleyball, hockey, baseball
- Names of academic subjects: mathematics, biology, history, computer science


## Source: Purdue Owl https://owl.purdue.edu/owl/general_writing/grammar/using_articles.html

Explanations (1) a
(2)
(3)
(4)
(5)
(6)
a
no article
a
a
a
a
an
the
the
singular, countable noun; first mention
plural, countable noun; a number is used instead ('three streets')
singular, countable noun; first mention
singular, countable noun;
first mention
singular, countable noun;
first mention; someone's job
singular, countable noun;
first mention
singular, countable noun; first mention
plural, countable noun; we know which tins (the tins at the back of his cupboard), so the noun is specific
singular, countable noun;


## Exercise :

Try this exercise, putting a/an/the in the blanks. If there should be no article, then place a * in the blank. The answers and explanations follow.

Mr Coleman was (1) __ very fastidious person. He lived three (2) __ streets away from us, in (3)
$\qquad$ small house with (4) $\qquad$ beautiful garden. Having taken early retirement from his (5) $\qquad$ job as (6) ___ button counter, he now had plenty of time to worry, and this he did very successfully. He often spent sleepless nights trying to figure out how he could successfully cook both sides of (7) __ omelette without it breaking, or how he might achieve better access to (8) ___ tins at (9) ___ back of his cupboard. (10) ___ most of his home was exceptionally neat and tidy, but several loose cables behind (11) __ television set bothered him, and he never quite knew what to do with (12) __ empty plastic bags.

Then, one day, his life changed, and he began to experience some relief from his anguish. It seemed that other people underwent similar mental trials, for (13) __ new catalogue appeared on his doorstep. (14) __ catalogue contained solutions for many of his problems, and for others which had not yet given him any cause for concern. There was (15) ___ set of three egg timers, for example, shaped like (16) ___ chickens and designed to emit (17) $\qquad$ clucking sound at (18) $\qquad$ end of three, four and five minutes respectively. In this way he could cook (19) __ eggs to suit each of his friends individually, and then keep them warm with (20) __ specially designed covers which went with the timer, marked ' 3 ', ' 4 ' and ' 5 ' for identification purposes. And (21) ___ catalogue contained many other wonderful ideas, such as (22) __ toaster which could be adjusted to produce different degrees of brownness on (23) __ four slices toasted simultaneously, and (24) __ photo frame that rotated pictures at (25) __ touch of (26) __ invisible button, so that visiting relatives would never be offended by not seeing their pictures on display, unless, of course, they all turned up together -Mr Coleman eventually solved this problem too by ordering four frames.

## Source:

## WRITING CENTRE

Lesson Two:

Modal verbs and their meaning

What are modal verbs?

Modals (also called modal verbs, modal auxiliary verbs, modal auxiliaries) are special verbs which behave irregularly in English. They are different from normal verbs like "work, play, visit..." They give additional information about the function of the main verb that follows it. They have a great variety of communicative functions.

Here are some characteristics of modal verbs:

- They never change their form. You can't add "s", "ed", "ing"...
- They are always followed by an infinitive without "to" (e.i. the bare infinitive.)
- They are used to indicate modality allow speakers to express certainty, possibility, willingness, obligation, necessity, ability


## List of modal verbs

Here is a list of modal verbs:

## can, could, may, might, will, would, shall, should, must

The verbs or expressions dare, ought to, had better, and need not behave like modal auxiliaries to a large extent and my be added to the above list

Use of modal verbs:
Modal verbs are used to express functions such as:

1. Permission
2. Ability
3. Obligation
4. Prohibition
5. Lack of necessity
6. Advice
7. possibility
8. probability

Examples of modal verbs
Here is a list of modals with examples:

| Modal Verb | Expressing | Example |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| must | Strong obligation | You must stop when the traffic lights turn red. |
|  | logical conclusion / Certainty | He must be very tired. He's been working all day long. |
| must not | prohibition | You must not smoke in the hospital. |
|  | ability | I can swim. |
| can | permission | Can I use your phone please? |
|  | possibility | Smoking can cause cancer. |
| could | ability in the past | When I was younger I could run fast. |
|  | polite permission | Excuse me, could I just say something? |
|  | possibility | It could rain tomorrow! |
| may | permission | May I use your phone please? |
|  | possibility, probability | It may rain tomorrow! |
| might | polite permission | Might I suggest an idea? |
|  | possibility, probability | I might go on holiday to Australia next year. |
| need not | lack of necessity/absence obligation | I need not buy tomatoes. There are plenty of tomatoes in the fridge. |


|  | 50\% obligation | I should / ought to see a doctor. I have a terrible <br> headache. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| should/ought <br> to | advice | You should / ought to revise your lessons |
|  | logical conclusion | He should / ought to be very tired. He's been <br> working all day long. |
| had better | advice | You 'd better revise your lessons |

Remember
Modal verbs are followed by an infinitive without "to", also called the bare infinitive.

## Examples:

- You must stop when the traffic lights turn red.
- You should see to the doctor.
- There are a lot of tomatoes in the fridge. You need not buy any.


## Exercise:

Choose the right modal verb

1. There are plenty of tomatoes in the fridge. You

2. It's a hospital. You $\square$
3. He had been working for more than 11 hours. He
 work. He $\square$
4. I $\square$ speak Arabic fluently when I was a child and we lived in Morocco. But after we moved back to Canada, I had very little exposure to the language and forgot almost everything I knew as a child. Now, I $\triangle \square$ just say a few things in the language.
5. The teacher said we
 read this book for our own pleasure as it is optional. But we
 read it if we don't want to.
6. 



7. If you want to learn to speak English fluently, you

8. Take an umbrella. It $\square$ rain later.
9. You
 leave small objects lying around. Such objects
 swallowed by children.
10. People $\square$ walk on grass.
11. Drivers
 stop when the traffic lights are red.
12. $\square$ I ask a question? Yes, of course.
13. You
 take your umbrella. It is not raining.
14. $\square$ you speak Italian? No, I


Source: My English Pages: https://www.myenglishpages.com/site php files/grammar-exercisemodals.php

## Lesson 03: Defective Verbs

In English grammar, defective verb is a traditional term for a verb that doesn't exhibit all the typical forms of a conventional verb.

English modal verbs (can, could, may, might, must, ought, shall, should, will, and would) are defective in that they lack distinctive third-person singular and nonfinite forms.

As illustrated below, discussions of defective verbs commonly appeared in 19th-century school grammars; however, modern linguists and grammarians rarely use the term.

## David Crystal's Take

"In grammar, [defective is] a traditional description of words which do not display all the rules of the class to which they belong. The English modal verbs, for example, are defective in that they do not permit the usual range of verb forms, such as an infinitive or participle forms (*to may, *shalling, etc.). Because of its pejorative connotations in general usage, the term needs to be used cautiously. It tends to be avoided in modern linguistic analysis (which talks more in terms of irregular forms and exceptions to rules), but will be encountered in studies of linguistic historiography. The distinction between 'defective' and 'irregular' needs to be appreciated: a defective form is a missing form; an irregular form is present, but does not conform to the rule governing the class to which it belongs." (David Crystal, A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics, 6th ed. Blackwell, 2008)

Beware and Begone
"Some verbs are termed defective; they are such as want some of the parts ordinarily ascribed to verbs. Beware is a defective verb being used only in the imperative or to give a caution. . . . Begone may be accounted another defective verb like beware. Begone is a compound, made up of be and gone, that is get away; and beware is composed of be and ware found in aware, and wary." (John R. Beard, "Lessons in English, LXII." The Popular Educator, Vol. 3, 1860)

## A List of Defective Verbs

Defective verbs are those that can be used only in some particular modes and tenses. They are few in number and are as follows:

- am
- been
- can
- could
- may
- might
- shall
- should
- was
- will
- would

Source: Nordquist, Richard. (2020, February 11). Defective Verbs in English. Retrieved from https://www.thoughtco.com/defective-verb-english-grammar-4085836

## Present Uses

1: We use the present simple when something is generally or always true.

- People need food.
- It snows in winter here.
- Two and two make four.

2: Similarly, we need to use this tense for a situation that we think is more or less permanent. (See the present continuous for temporary situations.)

- Where do you live?
- She works in a bank.
- I don't like mushrooms.

3: The next use is for habits or things that we do regularly. We often use adverbs of frequency (such as 'often', 'always' and 'sometimes') in this case, as well as expressions like
'every Sunday' or 'twice a month'. (See the present continuous for new, temporary or annoying habits).

- Do you smoke?
- I play tennis every Tuesday.
- I don't travel very often.

4: We can also use the present simple for short actions that are happening now. The actions are so short that they are finished almost as soon as you've said the sentence. This is often used with sports commentary.

- He takes the ball, he runs down the wing, and he scores!


## Future Uses

5: We use the present simple to talk about the future when we are discussing a timetable or a fixed plan. Usually, the timetable is fixed by an organisation, not by us. $\bullet$ School begins at nine tomorrow.

- What time does the film start?
- The plane doesn't arrive at seven, it arrives at seven thirty.

6: We also use the present simple to talk about the future after words like ' 'when', 'until', 'after', 'before' and 'as soon as'. These are sometimes called subordinate clauses of time. - I will call you when I have time. (Not 'will have'.)

- I won't go out until it stops raining.
- I'm going to make dinner after I watch the news.


## Conditional Uses

7: We use the present simple in the first and the zero conditionals. (See the conditionals section for more information.) - If it rains, we won't come.

- If you heat water to 100 degrees, it boils.

4: We can also use the present simple for short actions that are happening now. The actions are so short that they are finished almost as soon as you've said the sentence. This is often used with sports commentary.

-     - He takes the ball, he runs down the wing, and he scores!


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- I won't go out until it stops raining.
- I'm going to make dinner after I watch the news.


## When should I use the Present Continuous?

## Present Uses

1: First, we use the present continuous for things that are happening at the moment of speaking. These things usually last for quite a short time and they are not finished when we are talking about them. • I'm working at the moment. • Please call back as we are eating dinner now. $\bullet$ Julie is sleeping.

2: We can also use this tense for other kinds of temporary situations, even if the action isn't
happening at this moment.

- • John's working in a bar until he finds a job in his field. (He might not be working now.)
- • I'm reading a really great book.
- • She's staying with her friend for a week.

Compare this with the present simple, which is used for permanent situations that we feel will continue for a long time.

-     - I work in a school. (I think this is a permanent situation.)
-     - I'm working in a school. (I think this is a temporary situation.)

3: We can use the present continuous for temporary or new habits (for normal habits that continue for a long time, we use the present simple). We often use this with expressions like

- He's eating a lot these days.
- She's swimming every morning (she didn't use to do this).
- You're smoking too much.
'these days' or 'at the moment'.
4: Another present continuous use is for habits that are not regular, but that happen very often. In this case we usually use an adverb like 'always', 'forever' or 'constantly'. Often, we use the present continuous in this way to talk about an annoying habit. • You're forever losing your keys!
- She's constantly missing the train.
- Lucy's always smiling!


## Future Uses

5: The next use is for definite future arrangements (with a future time word). In this case we have already made a plan and we are pretty sure that the event will happen in the future. • I'm meeting my father tomorrow.

- We're going to the beach at the weekend.
- I'm leaving at three.

We can't use this tense (or any other continuous tense) with stative verbs.

When should we use the Present Perfect Simple?

## Unfinished Actions

1: We use this tense when we want to talk about unfinished actions or states or habits that started in the past and continue to the present. Usually we use it to say 'how long' and we need 'since' or 'for'. We often use stative verbs. - I've known Karen since 1994.

- She's lived in London for three years.
- I've worked here for six months.


## 'Since' and 'For'

We use 'since' with a fixed time in the past (2004, April 23rd, last year, two hours ago). The fixed time can be another action, which is in the past simple (since I was at school, since I arrived).

- •I've known Sam since 1992.
- I've liked chocolate since I was a child.
- • She's been here since 2 pm .

We use 'for' with a period of time ( 2 hours, three years, six months).

- I've known Julie for ten years.
- I've been hungry for hours.
-     - She's had a cold for a week.


## Finished Actions

2: Life experience. These are actions or events that happened sometime during a person's • I have been to Tokyo.

- They have visited Paris three times.
- We have never seen that film.
life. We don't say when the experience happened, and the person needs to be alive now.
We often use the words 'ever' and 'never' here.
3: With an unfinished time word (this month, this week, today). The period of time is still continuing.
- I haven't seen her this month.
- She's drunk three cups of coffee today.
- I've already moved house twice this year!
- I've seen him yesterday.

We CAN'T use the present perfect with a finished time word.
4: A finished action with a result in the present (focus on result). We often use the present perfect to talk about something that happened in the recent past, but that is still true or important now. Sometimes we can use the past simple here, especially in US English. • I've lost my keys (so I can't get into my house).

- She's hurt her leg (so she can't play tennis today).
- They've missed the bus (so they will be late).

5: We can also use the present perfect to talk about something that happened recently, even if there isn't a clear result in the present. This is common when we want to introduce news and we often use the words 'just / yet / already / recently'. However, the past simple is also correct in these cases, especially in US English.
The Queen has given a speech.

- I've just seen Lucy.
- The Mayor has announced a new plan for the railways.


## Been and Gone

In this tense, we use both 'been' and 'gone' as the past participle of 'go', but in slightly different circumstances.
We use 'been' (often when we talk about life experience) to mean that the person we're talking about visited the place and came back.

-     - I've been to Paris (in my life, but now I'm in London, where I live).
-     - She has been to school today (but now she's back at home).
-     - They have never been to California.

We use 'gone' (often when we are talking about an action with a result in the present) to mean that the person went to the place and is at the place now.

- • 'Where's John? 'He's gone to the shops' (he's at the shops now).
-     - Julie has gone to Mexico (now she's in Mexico).
-     - They've gone to Japan for three weeks (now they're in Japan).

When should we use the Present Perfect Continuous?

## Unfinished actions

1: To say how long for unfinished actions which started in the past and continue to the present. We often use this with 'for' and 'since'. • I've been living in London for two years.

- She's been working here since 2004.
- We've been waiting for the bus for hours.
- I've been here for hours.
- NOT: I've been being here for hours.

This use is very similar to how we use the present perfect simple, and often it's possible to use either tense. Of course, with stative verbs, we can't use the present perfect continuous.
2: For temporary habits or situations. The action started in the past and continues to the present in the same way as with use number 1 , but we don't answer the questions about 'how long' so clearly. Instead, we use a word like 'recently'. • I've been going to the gym a lot recently.

- They've been living with his mother while they look for a house.
- I've been reading a lot recently.


## Finished actions

3: Actions which have recently stopped (though the whole action can be unfinished) and have a result, which we can often see, hear, or feel, in the present. We don't use a time word here. • I'm so tired, I've been studying.

- I've been running, so I'm really hot.
- It's been raining so the pavement is wet.

The present perfect simple has a very similar use, which focuses on the result of the action, whereas the present perfect continuous focuses on the action itself. See my page about the difference between the present perfect simple and the present perfect continuous for more explanation.

This is the basic past tense. We use it whenever we want to talk about the past and we don't have any special situation that means we should use the past perfect, present perfect, past continuous, etc.

## Finished actions, states or habits in the past.

1: We use it with finished actions, states or habits in the past when we have a finished time word (yesterday, last week, at 2 o'clock, in 2003). • I went to the cinema yesterday.

- We spent a lot of time Japan in 2007.

2: We use it with finished actions, states or habits in the past when we know from general knowledge that the time period has finished. This includes when the person we are talking about is dead. Leonardo painted the Mona Lisa.

- The Vikings invaded Britain.

3: We use it with finished actions, states or habits in the past that we have introduced with the present perfect or another tense. This is sometimes called 'details of news'. - I've hurt my leg. I fell off a ladder when I was painting my bedroom.

- I've been on holiday. I went to Spain and Portugal.

4: For stories or lists of events, we often use the past simple for the actions in the story and the past continuous for the background. • He went to a café. People were chatting and music was playing. He sat down and ordered a coffee.

## Unreal or imaginary things in the present or future.

5: We use the past simple to talk about things that are not real in the present or future. So we use it with the second conditional and after words like 'wish'. - If I won the lottery, I would buy a house.

- I wish I had more time!

When should we use the Past Continuous (also called the Past Progressive)?
1: An action in the past which overlaps another action or a time. The action in the past continuous starts before and often continues after the other shorter action or time. •I was walking to the station when I met John. (I started walking before I met John, and maybe I continued afterwards.)

- At three o'clock, I was working. (I started before three o'clock and finished after three o'clock.)

2: In the same way, we can use the present continuous for the background of a story. (We often use the past simple for the actions.) This is really a specific example of Use 1 . •The birds were singing, the sun was shining and in the cafés people were laughing and chatting. Amy sat down and took out her phone.

3: Temporary habits or habits that happen more often than we expect in the past. We often use 'always, constantly' or 'forever' here. This is the same as the way we use the present continuous for habits, but the habit started and finished in the past. This thing doesn't happen now.

- $\quad$ He was always leaving the tap running.
- She was constantly singing. 4: To emphasise that something lasted for a while. This use is often optional and we usually use it with time expressions like 'all day' or 'all evening' or 'for hours'. • I was working in the garden all day.
- He was reading all evening.
-When should I use the Past Perfect Simple?
1: A finished action before a second point in the past.
-     - When we arrived, the film had started (= first the film started, then we arrived).

We usually use the past perfect to make it clear which action happened first. Maybe we are already talking about something in the past and we want to mention something else that is further back in time. This is often used to explain or give a reason for something in the past.

-     - I'd eaten dinner so I wasn't hungry.
- It had snowed in the night, so the bus didn't arrive. - The film started before we arrived / the film had started before we arrived.

If it's clear which action happened first (if we use the words 'before' or 'after', for example), the past perfect is optional.
2: Something that started in the past and continued up to another action or time in the past. The past perfect tells us 'how long', just like the present perfect, but this time the action continues up to a point in the past rather than the present. Usually we use 'for + time'. We can also use the past perfect continuous here, so we most often use the past perfect simple with stative verbs. - When he graduated, he had been in London for six years. (= He arrived in London six years before he graduated and lived there until he graduated, or even longer.)

- On the 20th of July, I'd worked here for three months.

3: To talk about unreal or imaginary things in the past. In the same way that we use the past simple to talk about unreal or imaginary things in the present, we use the past perfect (one step back in time) to talk about unreal things in the past. This is common in the third
conditional and after 'wish'.

-     - If I had known you were ill, I would have visited you.
-     - She would have passed the exam if she had studied harder.
-     - I wish I hadn't gone to bed so late!

When should I use the Past Perfect Continuous?
1: Something that started in the past and continued up to another action or time in the past. The past perfect continuous tells us 'how long', just like the present perfect continuous, but this time the action continues up to a point in the past rather than the present. Usually we use - She had been working at that company for a year when she met James.

- I'd been walking for hours when I finally found the house.
- We'd been living in Berlin for three months when we had to leave.
'for + time'. (We can also use the past perfect simple here, often with stative verbs.)
2: Something that finished just before another event in the past. This is usually used to show a
result at a time in the past. It's very similar to the present perfect continuous, but the action finishes before another time in the past, rather than finishing before the present.
-     - The pavement was wet, it had been raining. (The rain had finished before the time I'm describing in the past. We could see the result of the rain.)
-     - The children had been playing and so the room was a mess!
-     - I'd been working before I saw you and that's why I was really tired.

When should I use the Future Simple?

## Will

1: We use the future simple with 'will' to predict the future. It is the basic way we talk about - The sun will rise at 7 am .

- I think the Conservatives will win the next election.
the future in English, and we often use it if there is no reason to use another future tense. We can use it for future facts and for things that are less certain.
2: Promises / requests / refusals / offers. This is sometimes called 'volitional' will. It's about
wanting to do something or not wanting to do something in the future.
-     - I'll help you with your homework.
- $\quad$ Will you give me a hand?
- I won't go! • A: I'm cold. B: I'll close the window.

In a similar way, we often use 'will' when we're talking about a decision at the moment of speaking. We are usually making an offer or promise or talking about something that we want to do. 3: We use the simple future with 'will' in the first conditional, and in other sentences that have a conditional feeling.

-     - If it doesn't rain, we'll go to the park.
- Let's arrive early. That will give us time to relax.


## Shall

'Shall' is used mainly in the forms 'shall I?' and 'shall we?' in British English. These forms are used when you want to get someone's opinion, especially for offers and suggestions.

-     - Shall I open the window? (= Do you want me to open the window?)
- Where shall we go tonight? (= What's your opinion?) $\square$ A: We've run out of milk. B: I know, I'm going to buy some.


## Be going to

1: We often use 'be going to' to talk about our future intentions and plans. We have usually made our plans before the moment of speaking.
2: We can also use 'be going to' to make a prediction about the future. Often it's possible to use both 'be going to' and 'will' but it's more common to use 'be going to' if we can see
evidence in the present.

- Look at those boys playing football! They're going to break the window.
- The sky is getting darker and darker. It's going to rain.

When should I use the Future Continuous?
1: We use the future continuous to talk about an action in the future that overlaps another, shorter action or a time. The action in the future continuous usually starts before and might continue after the second action or time. This is very similar to how we use the past continuous in the past. The verb after 'when' is usually in the present simple. • I'll be waiting when you arrive.

- At eight o'clock, I'll be eating dinner.

2: We can use the future continuous to talk about something that will happen if everything
happens as we expect. This is sometimes called 'future as a matter of course'. It's usually possible to choose the future simple as well, but we often choose the future continuous because then it's clear that we are not making a request or offer.

- The Government will be making a statement later.
- When will you be leaving? (This is more polite than 'when will you leave?' because it's definitely not a request for you to leave.)

Remember, we can't use the future continuous with stative verbs, so if we want to use a stative verb in one of the situations where we need to the future continuous, then we use the future simple with 'will'.

When should I use the Future Perfect Simple?
1: We use the future perfect to say 'how long' for an action that starts before and continues up to another action or time in the future. Usually we need 'for'. We can also use the future
perfect continuous here so we often use the future perfect simple with stative verbs. If we use 'when', we usually need the present simple.

-     - When we get married, I'll have known Robert for four years.
- At 4 o'clock, I'll have been in this office for 24 hours. - I've lived here for 11 months and three weeks. (This is correct, but the time is not an easy number.)
- On Tuesday, I will have lived here for one year. (A much easier number.)

Sometimes we could also use the present perfect in the same situation. But we like to use the future perfect to make the time an easy number.
2: We use the future perfect with a future time word, (and often with 'by') to talk about an action that will finish before a certain time in the future, but we don't know exactly when. - By 10 o'clock, I will have finished my homework. (= I will finish my homework some time before 10, but we don't know exactly when.)

- By the time I'm sixty, I will have retired. (= I will retire sometime before I'm sixty.

Source: www.perfect-english-grammar.com

## Reported Speech:

Reported speech is when we tell someone what another person said. To do this, we can use direct speech or indirect speech.
direct speech: 'I work in a bank,' said Daniel. indirect speech: Daniel said that he worked in a bank.

In indirect speech, we often use a tense which is 'further back' in the past (e.g. worked) than the tense originally used (e.g. work). This is called 'backshift'. We also may need to change other words that were used, for example pronouns.

Present simple, present continuous and present perfect

When we backshift, present simple changes to past simple, present continuous changes to past continuous and present perfect changes to past perfect.
'I travel a lot in my job.'

- Jamila said that she travelled a lot in her job.
'The baby's sleeping!'
- He told me the baby was sleeping.
'I've hurt my leg.'
- She said she'd hurt her leg.

Past simple and past continuous

When we backshift, past simple usually changes to past perfect simple, and past continuous usually changes to past perfect continuous.
'We lived in China for five years.'

- She told me they'd lived in China for five years.
'It was raining all day.'
- He told me it had been raining all day.

Past perfect

The past perfect doesn't change.
'I'd tried everything without success, but this new medicine is great.'

- He said he'd tried everything without success, but the new medicine was great.


## No backshift

If what the speaker has said is still true or relevant, it's not always necessary to change the tense.
This might happen when the speaker has used a present tense.
'I go to the gym next to your house.'

- Jenny told me that she goes to the gym next to my house. I'm thinking about going with her. 'I'm working in Italy for the next six months.'
- He told me he's working in Italy for the next six months. Maybe I should visit him!
'I've broken my arm!'
- She said she's broken her arm, so she won't be at work this week.

Pronouns, demonstratives and adverbs of time and place

Pronouns also usually change in indirect speech.
'I enjoy working in my garden,' said Bob.

- Bob said that he enjoyed working in his garden.
'We played tennis for our school,' said Alina.
- Alina told me they'd played tennis for their school.

However, if you are the person or one of the people who spoke, then the pronouns don't change.
'I'm working on my thesis,' I said.

- I told her that I was working on my thesis.
'We want our jobs back!' we said.
- We said that we wanted our jobs back.

We also change demonstratives and adverbs of time and place if they are no longer accurate.
'This is my house.'

- He said this was his house. [You are currently in front of the house.]
- He said that was his house. [You are not currently in front of the house.]
'We like it here.'
- She told me they like it here. [You are currently in the place they like.]
- She told me they like it there. [You are not in the place they like.]
'I'm planning to do it today.'
- She told me she's planning to do it today. [It is currently still the same day.]
- She told me she was planning to do it that day. [It is not the same day any more.]

In the same way, these changes to those, now changes to then, yesterday changes to the day before, tomorrow changes to the next/following day and ago changes to before.

Exercise: Complete the sentences in reported speech.

1. John said, "I love this town."
2. "Are you sure?" He asked me.
3. "I can't drive a lorry," he said.
4. "Be nice to your brother," he said.
5. "Don't be nasty," he said.
6. "Don't waste your money" she said.
7. "What have you decided to do?" she asked him.
8. "I always wake up early," he said.
9. "You should revise your lessons," he said.
10. "Where have you been?" he asked me.

Source: British Council website ( Teaching Grammar),

Exercise on: https://www.myenglishpages.com/site_php_files/grammar-exercise-reported-speech.php

## Lesson: Condition with all types

## Conditional clauses

The use of conditional clauses • 256
We often use if to express a condition.
If you're going into college, I could give you a lift.
Here there is a conditional clause (If you're going into college) and a main clause (I could give you a lift).

Conditions can be open or unreal.
Open: If it rains tomorrow, I won't go.
Unreal: If I was a bit taller, I could reach.
Verbs in conditional sentences • 257
There are many different combinations of verb forms. Here are some examples.
If I complain, no one ever takes any notice.
If I complain, no one will take any notice.
If I complained, no one would take any notice.
If I had complained, no one would have taken any notice.
Should, were, had and inversion • 258
We can use inversion in clauses with should, were and had.
Should it rain, the reception will be held indoors.
If, as long as, unless, in case etc • 259
Besides if we can use other conjunctions to express a condition.
You can picnic here as long as you don't leave litter.

## 256 The use of conditional clauses

1 This real conversation contains some conditional clauses.
RENEWING YOUR LIBRARY BOOKS
Reader: And if I want to renew my books, do I have to come in, or can I phone and renew them? I think there's a system where I can phone and tell you the numbers or something like that?
Librarian: Yes, that's quite all right. Or you can even send us a letter. As long as you give us the accession number of the book.

Reader: That's the number on the back?

Librarian: No, that's the class number. The number - the accession number you'll find if you open the book on the fly-leaf. It's usually about six numbers at least. And if you'd give us that, the date that is stamped on the date labelthe last date stamped - and your name and address.

Reader: Uh-huh. If I do that, how do I know that it's all right? I mean, if you want the book back, do you write to me?
Librarian: Yes, we would do that if you had written in, but of course, if you'd telephoned or called in we could tell you then.
(from M. Underwood Listen to This!)
Conditions express different degrees of reality. For example, a condition can be open or unreal.
Open: If you join the library, you can borrow books.
Unreal: If you'd arrived ten minutes later, we would have been closed.
An open condition expresses something which may be true or may become true.
(You may join the library). An unreal condition expresses something which is not true or is imaginary. (You did not arrive later.)

NOTE
A condition can also be definitely true.
I'm tired. ~ Well, if you're tired, let's have a rest.
The meaning here is similar to You're tired, so let's have a rest.
2 We can use conditional sentences in a number of different ways: for example to
request, advise, criticize, suggest, offer, warn or threaten.
If you're going into town, could you post this letter for me?
If you need more information, you should see your careers teacher.
If you hadn't forgotten your passport, we wouldn't be in such a rush.
We can go for a walk if you like.
If I win the prize, I'll share it with you.
If you're walking along the cliff top, don't go too near the edge.
If you don't leave immediately, I'll call the police.

## 257 Verbs in conditional sentences

1 Introduction
a We can use many different verb forms in conditional sentences. Here are some real examples.

If you haven't got television, you can't watch it.
If you go to one of the agencies, they have a lot of temporary jobs.
If someone else has requested the book, you would have to give it back.
If you lived on the planet Mercury, you would have four birthdays in a single Earth year.

In general we use verb forms in conditional sentences in the same way as in other kinds of sentences. In open conditions we use the present to refer to the future (if you go to one of the agencies). When we talk about something unreal we often use the past (if you lived) and would (you would have four birthdays).
NOTE
When the condition is true, we use verb forms in the normal way.
Well, if your friends left half an hour ago, they aren't going to get to Cornwall by tea time.
b There are some verb forms which often go together. These patterns are usually called Types 1, 2 and 3.

Type 1: If the company fails, we will lose our money.
Type 2: If the company failed, we would lose our money.
Type 3: If the company had failed, we would have lost our money.
There is another common pattern which we can call Type 0.
Type 0: If the company fails, we lose our money.
c The if-clause usually comes before the main clause, but it can come after it.

- 249(2,3)

We lose our money if the company fails.
2 Type 0 conditionals
a The pattern is $i f . . .+$ present... + present.
If the doorbell rings, the dog barks.
If you heat iron, it expands.
Here the pattern means that one thing always follows automatically from another.
We can use when instead of if.

If/When I reverse the car, it makes a funny noise.
(= Every time I reverse the car,...)
b We can also use Type $\mathbf{0}$ for the automatic result of a possible future action.
If the team win tomorrow, they get promotion to a higher league.
This is an open condition. It leaves open the question of whether the team will win or not.

NOTE
As well as the present simple, we can use the continuous.
If you're practising on the drums, I'm going out.
3 Type 1 conditionals
a The pattern is if...'+ present... + will.
If it rains, the reception will take place indoors.
If we don't hurry, we'll miss the train.
The milk will go off if you leave it by the radiator.
The if-clause expresses an open condition. It leaves open the question of whether it will rain or not. Here the present simple (if it rains) expresses future time; •77.

We do not normally use will in an open condition.
NOT if it will rain But • (3d).
NOTE
a We can use will in the if-clause for a result, something further in the future than the main clause.

If it does/will do me more good, I'll take a different medicine.
b We can use shall instead of will after $I / w e$.
If we don't hurry, we will/shall miss the train.
b As well as the present simple, we can use the continuous or perfect.
If we're having ten people to dinner, we'll need more chairs.
If I've finished my work by ten, I'll probably watch a film on TV.

## PAGE $335 \mathbf{2 5 7}$ Verbs in conditional sentences

## 32 CONDITIONAL CLAUSES PAGE 3

As well as will, we can use other modal verbs and similar expressions in the main clause.

If we miss the train, we can get the next one.
If Simon is hoping to borrow the car, he's going to be disappointed.
If you phone at six, they might be having tea.
We can also use the imperative.
If you're going out, take your key.
If you drink, don't drive.
c A present tense in the if-clause can refer to the present.
If you like tennis, you'll be watching Wimbledon next week, I suppose.
If it's raining already, I'm definitely not going out.
d We can use will in the if-clause for willingness and won't for a refusal.
If everyone will help, we'll soon get the job done.
If the car won't start, I'll have to ring the garage.
We can also use will in the if-clause for a request.
If you'll just take a seat, Mr Parsons will be with you in a moment.
4 Type 2 conditionals
a The pattern is $i f \ldots+\mathrm{p}$ a st...+ would.
If I had lots of money, I would travel round the world.
If Phil lived nearer his mother, he would visit her more often.
I'd tell you the answer if I knew what it was.
Here the past tense expresses an unreal condition. If I had lots of money means
that really I haven't got lots of money, but I am only imagining it.
We do not use would for an unreal condition.
NOT if I would have lots of money But • (4e).
NOTE
We can use should instead of would after I/we.
If had lots of money, I would/should travel round the world.
b We do not usually mix the patterns for open and unreal conditions.
NOT If I had lots of money, I will travel round the world.
c We also use the Type 2 pattern for a theoretical possibility in the future.
If you lost the book, you would have to pay for a new one.
If we caught the early train, we'd be in Manchester by lunch time.

Here the past tense expresses an imaginary future action such as losing the book.
Compare Types 1 and 2 for possible future actions.
Type 1: If we stay in a hotel, it will be expensive.
Type 2: If we stayed in a hotel, it would be expensive.
Type 1 expresses the action as an open possibility. (We may or may not stay in a hotel.) Type 2 expresses the action as a theoretical possibility, something more distant from reality.

NOTE
It can be more polite to use the Type 2 pattern because it is more tentative.
Would it be OK if 1 brought a friend? ~ Yes, of course.
Shall we go along the by-pass? ~ Well, if we went through the town centre, it would probably be quicker.

## PAGE 337257 Verbs in conditional sentences

d As well as the past simple, we can use the continuous or could.
If the sun was shining, everything would be perfect.
If I could help you, I would, but I'm afraid I can't.
As well as would, we can use other modal verbs such as could or might in the main clause.

If I had a light, I could see what I'm doing.
If we could roll the car down the hill, we might be able to start it.
e We can use would in the if-clause for a request.
If you wouldn't mind holding the line, I'll try to put you through.
Sometimes there is no main clause.
If you'd just sign here, please.
We can also use would like.
If you'd like to see the exhibition, it would be nice to go together.
5 Open conditions in the past
a We can use the past tense for an open condition in the past.
Perhaps Mike took a taxi. ~ Well, if he took a taxi, he ought to be here by now.
I used to live near the library. If I wanted a book, I went and got one/I would go
and get one.
b We can use a Type $\mathbf{2}$ pattern as the past of a Type $\mathbf{1}$.
Type 1: Don't go. If you accept the invitation, you will regret it.
Type 2: I told you that if you accepted the invitation you would regret it. And now you are regretting it, aren't you?
c We can combine a past condition with a future result.
If they posted the parcel yesterday, it won't get here before Friday.
6 Type 3 conditionals
a The pattern is $i f . . .+$ past perfect... + would + perfect.
If you had taken a taxi, you would have got here in time.
If I'd phoned to renew the books, I wouldn't have had to pay a fine.
The man would have died if the ambulance hadn't arrived so quickly.
We'd have gone to the talk if we'd known about it.
(= We would have gone if we had known.)
Here the past perfect refers to something unreal, an imaginary past action. Ifyou
had taken a taxi means that you didn't take one.
We cannot use the past simple or perfect in the main clause.
NOT If you had taken a taxi, you got/had got here in time.
NOTE
Would have (or had have) is not used in the if-clause except in very informal speech.
If you'd have taken a taxi, you'd have got here on time.
But many people regard this as incorrect.
b We can use could + perfect in the if-clause.
If I could have warned you in time, I would have done.
We can use other modal verbs such as could or might+ perfect in the main clause.
If I'd written the address down, I could have saved myself some trouble.
The plan might not have worked if we hadn't had one great piece of luck.
NOTE
We can also use continuous forms.
If he hadn't been evicted by his landlord, he wouldn't have been sleeping in the streets.
c We can mix Types 2 and 3.
If Tom was a bit more ambitious, he would have found himself a better
job years ago.
If you hadn't woken me up in the middle of the night, I wouldn't feel so tired now.

## NOTE

We can also use a Type 1 condition with a Type 3 main clause.
If you know London so well, you shouldn't have got lost.
Source: Oxford Guide to English Grammar, John Eastwood

## Lesson: Sentences Combination

Words
The words in the announcement are good, evening, ladies, and, gentlemen, on etc.
NOTE For word-building, e.g. air + ways $=$ airways, $\bullet 282$.
PAGE 1
1 ENGLISH GRAMMAR
2 Phrases and clauses
We use phrases to build a clause. Here is an example.
Subject Verb Complement
(noun phrase) (verb phrase) (noun phrase)
Our flight time will be approximately forty-five minutes.
Here the noun phrase our flight time is the subject of the clause. A clause has a subject and a verb. There can be other phrases, too. In this next example we use a prepositional phrase as an adverbial.
Adverbial Subject Verb Object Object
(prepositional phrase) (noun phrase) (verb phrase) (noun phrase) (noun phrase)
On behalf of the airline we wish you a pleasant flight.
For more about the different kinds of phrases, • 4 .
For subject, object, complement and adverbial, $\cdot 5$.
For finite and non-finite clauses, • 239 (3).
3 Sentences
A sentence can be a single clause.
On behalf of British Island Airways, Captain Massey and his crew welcome you on board the Start Herald flight to Southampton.
$A$ written sentence begins with a capital letter (On) and ends with a mark such as a full stop.
We can also combine two or more clauses in one sentence. For example, we can use and to link the clauses.
Our flight time will be approximately forty-five minutes, and we shall be climbing to an altitude of eight thousand feet and cruising at a speed of two hundred and fifty miles an hour.
For details about sentences with more than one clause, $\cdot 238$.

## 3 Word classes

1 There are different classes of word, sometimes called 'parts of speech'. The word come is a verb, letter is a noun and great is an adjective.
NOTE
Some words belong to more than one word class. For example, test can be a noun or a verb.
He passed the test. (noun)
He had to test the machine. (verb)
4 Phrases
NOTE There is also a small class of words called 'interjections'. They include oh, ah and mhm. 3 Verbs, nouns, adjectives and adverbs are 'vocabulary words'. Learning vocabulary means learning verbs, nouns, adjectives and adverbs.
Prepositions, determiners, pronouns and conjunctions belong to much smaller classes. These words are sometimes called 'grammatical words'.
4 Most word classes can be divided into sub-classes. For example:

Verb Ordinary verb: go, like, think, apply
Auxiliary verb: is, had, can, must
Adverb Adverb of manner: suddenly, quickly
Adverb of frequency: always, often
Adverb of place: there, nearby
Linking adverb: too, also
etc
Determiner Article: $a$, the
Possessive: my, his
Demonstrative: this, that
Quantifier: all, three
4 Phrases
There are five kinds of phrase.
1 Verb phrase: come, had thought, was left, will be climbing
$A$ verb phrase has an ordinary verb (come, thought, left, climbing) and may also
have an auxiliary (had, was, will).
2 Noun phrase: a good flight, his crew, we
A noun phrase has a noun (flight), which usually has a determiner (a) and/or adjective (good) in front of it. A noun phrase can also be a pronoun (we).
3 Adjective phrase: pleasant, very late
An adjective phrase has an adjective, sometimes with an adverb of degree (very).
4 Adverb phrase: quickly, almost certainly
An adverb phrase has an adverb, sometimes with an adverb of degree (almost).
5 Prepositional phrase: after lunch, on the aircraft
A prepositional phrase is a preposition + noun phrase.
1 ENGLISH GRAMMAR PAGE 4
5 Sentence elements
1 Each phrase plays a part in the clause or sentence. Here are some examples.
Subject Verb Adverbial
The flight is leaving shortly.
Subject Verb Complement
The weather is very good.
My father was a pilot.
Subject Verb Object
I was reading a newspaper.
Two stewards served lunch.
Subject Verb Object Adverbial
The aircraft left London at three o'clock.
We must book the tickets next week.
2 These are the elements of an English sentence and the kinds of phrase that we can use for each element.
Subject Noun phrase: the flight, I, two stewards
Verb Verb phrase: is, served, must book
Object Noun phrase: a newspaper, lunch
Complement Adjective phrase: very good
Noun phrase: a pilot

Adverbial Adverb phrase: shortly
Prepositional phrase: at three o'clock
Noun phrase: next week
NOTE
a The verb is central to the sentence and we use the word 'verb' for both the sentence element - 'The verb follows the subject' - and for the word class - 'Leave is a verb.'
For more details about sentence patterns, $\cdot 7$.
b The word there can be the subject. - 50
There was a letter for you.
2Word order
Word order is very important in English. As nouns do not have endings for subject or object, it is the word order that shows which is which.
Subject Verb Object
The woman loved the man. (She loved him.)
The man loved the woman. (He loved her.)
The subject-verb order is fixed, and we can change it only if there is a special reason.
3 Verb phrases
A verb phrase can have a complex structure. There can be auxiliary verbs as well as the ordinary verb.
I climbed up the ladder.
I was climbing the mountain.
We shall be climbing to an altitude of eight thousand feet.
The use of tenses and auxiliary verbs can be difficult for speakers of other languages.
4 Prepositions
The use of prepositions in English can be a problem.
We flew here on Friday. We left at two o'clock.
Both prepositions and adverbs combine with verbs in an idiomatic way.
They were waiting for the flight. The plane took off.
There are many expressions involving prepositions that you need to learn as items of vocabulary.
The simple sentence
7 Summary
This story contains examples of different clause patterns.
AN UNLUCKY THIEF
A man walked into a hotel, saw a nice coat, put it over his arm and walked out again. Then he tried to hitch a lift out of town. While he was waiting, he put the coat on. At last a coach stopped and gave him a lift. It was carrying forty detectives on their way home from a conference on crime. One of them had recently become a detective inspector. He recognized the coat. It was his. He had left it in the hotel, and it had gone missing. The thief gave the inspector his coat. The inspector arrested him. 'It seemed a good idea at the time,' the man said. He thought himself rather unlucky.
There are five elements that can be part of a clause. They are subject, verb, object, complement and adverbial.

## Basic clause patterns

Intransitive and transitive verbs • 8
Subject Intransitive verb
A coach stopped.
Subject Transitive verb Object
The detective arrested the thief.
2 THE SIMPLE SENTENCE PAGE 8
2 A transitive verb takes an object.
The man stole a coat.
Everyone enjoyed the conference.
The driver saw the hitch-hiker at the side of the road.
The man had no money.
Transitive verbs can express not only actions (stole) but also feelings (enjoyed), perception (saw) and possession (had).
After some transitive verbs we can leave out the object when it would add little or nothing to the meaning.
The man opposite was reading (a book). We're going to eat (a meal).
A woman was driving (the coach).
We can also leave out the object after these verbs:
ask/answer (a question), draw/paint (a picture), enter/leave (a room/building), pass/fail (a test/exam), play/win/lose (a game), practise (a skill), sing (a song), speak (a few words), study (a subject).
The following verbs can also be without an object if the context is clear: begin, choose, decide, hear, help, know, notice, see, start.
NOTE
There must be an object after discuss and deny.
The committee discussed the problem. He denied the accusation.
3 Many verbs can be either transitive or intransitive.
Transitive Intransitive
The driver stopped the coach.
He opened the door.
I broke a cup.
Someone rang the bell.
The coach stopped.
The door opened.
The cup broke.
The bell rang.
The two sentences can describe the same event. The transitive sentence has as its subject the agent, the person who made the event happen (the driver). The intransitive sentence describes the event but does not mention the agent.
Here are some common verbs that can be transitive or intransitive:
alter develop increase shine tear
begin divide join shut turn
bend drive melt slide weaken
boil dry mix smash unite
break end move soften
burn finish open sound
change fly pour spread
close freeze ring stand
cook hang roll start
combine harden sail stop
continue hurt separate strengthen
crash improve shake swing
NOTE
Raise is transitive, and rise is intransitive.
The oil companies will raise their prices.
The price of oil will rise.
For lay and lie, •11(2) Note b.

## 9 Linking verbs

1 Linking verb + complement
A complement is an adjective phrase or a noun phrase. A complement relates to the subject: it describes the subject or identifies it (says who or what it is). Between the subject and complement is a linking verb, e.g. be.
The hotel was quiet. The thief seemed depressed.
The book has become a best-seller. It's getting dark.
A week in the Lake District would make a nice break.
These are the most common verbs in this pattern.

+ adjective or noun phrase: appear, be, become, look, prove, remain, seem,
sound, stay
+ adjective: feel, get, go, grow, smell, taste, turn
+ noun phrase: make
There are also some idiomatic expressions which are a linking verb + complement, e.g. burn low, come good, come true, fall asleep, fall ill, fall silent, ring true, run dry, run wild, wear thin.
We can use some linking verbs in other patterns.
Linking: Your garden looks nice.
Intransitive: We looked at the exhibition.
NOTE
a After seem, appear, look and sound, we use to be when the complement is a noun phrase identifying the subject.
The woman seemed to be Lord Melbury's secretary.
NOT The woman seemed Lord Melbury's secretary.
But we can leave out to be when the noun phrase gives other kinds of information.
The woman seemed (to be) a real expert.
For American usage, • 303(1).
b There is a special pattern where a complement occurs with an action verb, not
a linking verb.
We arrived exhausted.
He walked away a free man.
I came home really tired one evening.
We use this pattern in a very small number of contexts. We can express the same meaning in two clauses: We were exhausted when we arrived.

2 Linking verb + adverbial
An adverbial can be an adverb phrase, prepositional phrase or noun phrase. An adverbial after a linking verb relates to the subject. It often expresses place or time, but it can have other meanings.
The coat was here. The conference is every year.
The drawings lay on the table. I'm on a diet.
Joan Collins lives in style. The parcel went by air.
Linking verbs with adverbials are be, go, lie, live, sit, stand and stay.
14 Phrases in apposition
Two noun phrases are in apposition when one comes after the other and both refer to the same thing.
Everyone visits the White House, the home of the President.
Joseph Conrad, the famous English novelist, couldn't speak English until he was 47.
When the second phrase adds extra information, we use a comma.
When the second phrase identifies the first one, we do not use a comma.
The novelist Joseph Conrad couldn't speak English until he was 47.
Pretty 25-year-old secretary Linda Pilkington has shocked her friends and neighbours.
The sentence about Linda is typical of newspaper style.
We can also use apposition to add emphasis. This happens in speech, too.
The man is a fool, a complete idiot.
Other kinds of phrases can be in apposition.
The place is miles away, much too far to walk.
The experts say the painting is quite valuable, worth a lot of money

Source: Oxford Guide To English Grammar

