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ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Level -1-

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SIMPLE PRESENT

The simple present tense in English is used to describe an action that is regular, true or normal.

We use the present tense:

1. For repeated or regular actions in the present time period.

- *I **take** the train to the office.*
- *The train to Berlin **leaves** every hour.*
- *John **sleeps** eight hours every night during the week.*

2. For facts.

- *The President of The USA **lives** in The White House.*
- *A dog **has** four legs.*
- *We **come** from Switzerland.*

3. For habits.

- *I **get up** early every day.*
- *Carol **brushes** her teeth twice a day.*
- *They **travel** to their country house every weekend.*

4. For things that are always / generally true.

- *It **rains** a lot in winter.*
- *The Queen of England **lives** in Buckingham Palace.*
- *They **speak** English at work.*

Verb Conjugation & Spelling

We form the present tense using the base form of the infinitive (without the TO). In general, in the third person we add 'S' in the third person.

Subject	Verb	The rest of the sentence
I/ You / We/ They	learn	
He/ She / It	learns	English at home.

The spelling for the verb in the third person differs depending on the ending of that verb:

1. For verbs that end in **-O, -CH, -SH, -SS, -X, or -Z** we add **-ES** in the third person.

- go – goes
- catch – catches
- wash – washes
- fix – fixes
- buzz – buzzes

2. For verbs that end in a **consonant + Y**, we remove the **Y** and add **-IES**.

- study – studies
- carry – carries
- worry – worries

NOTE: For verbs that end in a **vowel + Y**, we just add **-S**.

- play – plays
- enjoy – enjoys
- say – says

Negative Sentences in the Simple Present Tense

To make a negative sentence in English we normally use **Don't or Doesn't** with all verbs EXCEPT **To Be** and **Modal verbs** (can, might, should etc.).

Affirmative: You speak French.

*Negative: You **don't** speak French.*

You will see that we add **don't** between the subject and the verb. We use **Don't** when the subject is **I, you, we** or **they**.

Affirmative: He speaks German.

*Negative: He **doesn't** speak German.*

When the subject is **he, she** or **it**, we add **doesn't** between the subject and the verb to make a negative sentence. Notice that the letter **S** at the end of the verb in the affirmative sentence (because it is in third person) disappears in the negative sentence.

Negative Contractions

Don't = Do not

Doesn't = Does not

I **don't** like meat = I **do not** like meat.

There is no difference in meaning though we normally use contractions in spoken English.

Word Order of Negative Sentences

The following is the word order to construct a basic negative sentence in English in the Present Tense using **Don't** or **Doesn't**.

Subject		Verb	The rest of the sentence
I/ You / We/ They	Don't	have /buy	cereal for breakfast
He/ She / It	Doesn't	eat /like	

Remember that the infinitive is the verb before it is conjugated (changed) and it begins with **TO**. For example: to have, to eat, to go, to live, to speak etc.

Examples of Negative Sentences with Don't and Doesn't:

- *You **don't** speak Arabic.*
- *John **doesn't** speak Italian.*
- *We **don't** have time for a rest.*
- *It **doesn't** move.*
- *They **don't** want to go to the party.*
- *She **doesn't** like fish.*

Questions in the Simple Present Tense

To make a question in English we normally use **Do or Does**. It is normally put at the beginning of the question.

- *Affirmative: You speak English.*
- *Question: **Do** you speak English?*

You will see that we add **DO** at the beginning of the affirmative sentence to make it a question. We use **Do** when the subject is **I, you, we** or **they**.

- *Affirmative: He speaks French.*
- *Question: **Does** he speak French?*

When the subject is **he, she** or **it**, we add **DOES** at the beginning to make the affirmative sentence a question. Notice that the letter **S** at the end of the verb in the affirmative sentence (because it is in third person) disappears in the question.

We **DON'T** use **Do** or **Does** in questions that have the verb **To Be** or **Modal Verbs** (can, must, might, should etc.)

Word Order of Questions with Do and Does

The following is the word order to construct a basic question in English using **Do** or **Does**.

	Subject	Verb	The rest of the sentence
Do	I/ You / We/ They	have / need/ want etc.	a new bike?
Does	He/ She / It		

Examples of Questions with Do and Does:

- *Do you need a dictionary?*
- *Do we have a meeting now?*
- *Does it rain a lot in winter?*
- *Do they want to go to the party?*
- *Does he like pizza?*
- *Does Mary need a dictionary?*

Short Answers with Do and Does

In questions that use do/does it is possible to give short answers to direct questions as follows:

Question	Short answer (positive)	Short answer (negative)
Do you like chocolate?	Yes, I do.	No, I don't
Do I need a pencil?	Yes, you do.	No, you don't
Do you both like chocolate?	Yes, we do.	No, we don't
Do they like chocolate?	Yes, they do.	No, they don't
Does he like chocolate?	Yes, he does.	No, he doesn't
Does it have four wheels?	Yes, it does.	No, it doesn't

However, if a question word such as **who, when, where, why, which** or **how** is used in the question, you cannot use the short answers above to respond to the question.

We use some adverbs to describe how frequently we do an activity. These are called adverbs of frequency and include:

Frequency	Adverb of frequency	Example sentence
100%	always	He is always very punctual. I'll see if he is here yet.
90%	usually	I usually have cereal for breakfast.
80%	normally	I normally go to the gym.
70%	often	I often surf the internet.
50%	sometimes	I sometimes forget my wife's birthday.
30%	occasionally	I occasionally eat junk food.
10%	seldom	I seldom read the newspaper.
5%	rarely	I rarely drink coffee.
0%	never	I never smoke cigarette.

The Position of the Adverb in a Sentence

An adverb of frequency goes **before** a main verb (except with To Be).

Subject + adverb + *main verb*

E.g. I always remember to do my homework.

E.g. he normally gets good marks in exams.

An adverb of frequency goes **after** the verb To Be.

Subject + *to be* + adverb

E.g. they are never pleased to see him.

E.g. She isn't usually bad-tempered.

SIMPLE PAST TENSE

The **simple past tense** is used to describe:

1. an action that happened in the past
 2. a truth about a time in the past
- Add “**ed**” or “**ied**” to *regular* verb endings in simple past tense when used to describe any subject (**I, you, we, they, he, she, it**).

Subject [verb + “ed” or “ied”]

The verb “**to be**” has an irregular conjugation:

I / he / she / it [was] you / we / they [were]

Example: He walked to school yesterday.

Example: She was happy.

PAST SIMPLE: Irregular

I		
You		
He		
	ate	dinner.
She		
It		
We		
They		

I			
You			
He			
	didn't	eat	dinner.
She			
It			
We			
They			

didn't = did not

				Yes,					No,
Did	I	eat	dinner?	did.	I	didn't.			
	you				you				
	he				he				
	she				she				
	it				it				
	we				we				
they	they								

The Simple Future Tense (“Will”)

The simple future refers to a time later than now, and expresses facts or certainty.

The simple future is used:

-To predict a future event that we don't know for sure, but we think that it will happen:

E.g. It will rain tomorrow.

-With I or We, to express a spontaneous decision:

E.g. I'll pay for the tickets by credit card.

- To express willingness:

E.g. He'll carry your bag for you. I'll do the washing-up.

- In the negative form, to express unwillingness:

E.g. The baby won't eat his soup.

E.g. I won't leave until I've seen the manager!

Forms of the Simple Future Tense

- In affirmative, the structure of the Future Simple Tense is:

S + auxiliary will + Vb1

SUBJECT	AUXILIARY	VERB	COMPLEMENT
I	shall/will	Study	at Yale University next year.
You	will	Go	to the cinema next Tuesday.
He/She/It	will	Play	outside during the summer.
We	shall/will	Order	some food.
You	will	Leave	tomorrow.
They	will	Go	to Italy next spring.

- For negative sentences in the Simple Future tense, we insert **not** between the auxiliary verb and main verb.

SUBJECT	AUXILIARY	NOT	VERB	COMPLEMENT
I	shall/will	not	study	at Yale University next year.
You	will	not	Go	to the cinema next Tuesday.
He/She/It	will	not	Play	outside during the summer.
We	shall/will	not	order	some food.
You	will	not	leave	tomorrow.
They	will	not	Go	to Italy next spring.

- In the interrogative form, we exchange the subject and auxiliary verb.

AUXILIARY	SUBJECT	VERB	COMPLEMENT
Shall/Will	I	study	at Yale University next year?
Will	you	go	to the cinema next Tuesday?
Will	he/she/it	play	outside during the summer?
Shall/Will	we	order	some food?
Will	you	leave	tomorrow?
Will	they	go	to Italy next spring?

- **Contracted forms:**

I will	I'll	I will not	I won't
You will	you'll	You will not	You won't
He will She will It will	he'll she'll it'll	He will not She will not It will not	He won't She won't It won't
We will	we'll	We will not	We won't
They will	they'll	They will not	They won't

Articles: Explanation, Examples, and Exceptions

Two types of articles can be placed before a noun: **definite** (*the*) and **indefinite** (*some/a/an*). The use of each article depends on whether specific or general reference is made to any member of a group. **Definite means that *the* refers to some specific thing**, as contrasted with *a* or *an*, which does not refer to one specific noun or plural noun. *The* is used only when referring to a particular thing and may be used to refer to one or many of those things (E.g., ***The* Labrador puppy was seen running after *the* cats.**).

Indefinite articles are *indefinite* because they do not refer specifically to *the* (definite article) particular object being discussed. **An *indefinite* article refers to an object in a general sense**. Place the word *a* before any noun referring to one item within a type, though not limited to one specific item within the category type (i.e., use *a* for any one dog but not necessarily a specific dog; E.g., *A dog at the kennel jumped onto my lap.*). Articles in English are invariable, which means they do not change according to the gender or number of the noun to which they refer (E.g., ***the* woman, *the* man, *the* people, *a* girl, *a* boy, *the* children**).

Definite Articles: *The*

- *The* is used before both singular and plural specific nouns that indicate a particular thing or member of a group and may be used to refer to one or many of these things (E.g., ***The* teacher indicates one particular teacher. *A* teacher could refer to any teacher. *The* dog was seen running after *the* cats.**)
- *The* is used when the noun cannot be counted (E.g., ***The* coffee I had this morning was too sweet. *The* ink in my pen has run out.**). *The* is not used with non-countable nouns that refer to something in the general sense, unless the

noncountable noun is made more specific by a modifying phrase or clause (E.g., *Coffee is my favorite drink; **the** coffee that I had this morning was stale.*).

The is also used...

1. To refer to something which has already been mentioned (E.g., *An elephant chased **a** mouse. **The** mouse quickly ran away, with **the** elephant hot on its heels.*).
2. When both the speaker and listener know what is being talked about, even if it has not been mentioned before (E.g., “*Where’s **the** bathroom?*” “*It’s on **the** first floor.*”).
3. To refer to objects we regard as unique (E.g., ***the** sun, **the** moon, **the** world*).
4. In sentences or clauses where we define a particular person or object (E.g., ***The** man who wrote this book is famous. My house is **the** one with **a** blue door.*).
5. Before superlatives and ordinal numbers (E.g., ***the** highest building, **the** first page, **the** last chapter*).
6. With named geographical areas and oceans (E.g., ***the** Caribbean, **the** Sahara, **the** Pacific*).
7. With decades, or groups of years (E.g., *She grew up in **the** seventies.*).

Definite Article Exceptions: There is **no** definite article used with...

1. Names of countries, if singular (E.g., *Germany is an important economic power. He’s just returned from Zimbabwe. I’m visiting **the** United States next week.*).
2. Names of languages (E.g., *French is spoken in Tahiti. English uses many words of Latin origin. Indonesian is a relatively new language.*).
3. Names of meals (E.g., *Lunch is at midday. Dinner is in the evening. Breakfast is the first meal of the day.*).
4. People’s names, if singular (E.g., *John’s coming to the party. Alex King is my uncle. We’re having lunch with **the** Morgans tomorrow.*).
5. Possessive case before the noun (E.g., *His brother’s car. Peter’s house.*).
6. Professions (E.g., *Engineering is a useful career. He’ll probably go into*

medicine.)

7. Titles with names (E.g., *Prince Charles is Queen Elizabeth's son. President Kennedy was assassinated in Dallas. Dr. Watson was Sherlock Holmes' friend. **The** Queen of England and **the** Pope appeared in London.*)

8. Names of shops (E.g., *I'll get the card at Smith's. Can you go to Starbucks for me?*)

9. Uncountable nouns (E.g., *Rice is the main food in Asia. Milk is often added to tea in England. War is destructive.*)

10. Years (E.g., *1948 was a wonderful year. Do you remember 2000?*)

11. Names of individual mountains, lakes, and islands (E.g., *Mount McKinley is the highest mountain in Alaska. She lives near Lake Windermere. Have you visited Long Island?*)

12. Most names of towns, streets, stations, and airports (E.g., *Victoria Station is in London. Can you direct me to Bond Street? She lives in Florence. They're flying from Heathrow.*)

13. Some fixed expressions (E.g., *by car, by train, by air, on foot, on holiday, on air* (in broadcasting), *at school, at work, at university, in church, in prison, in bed.*)

Indefinite Articles: *Some, A, An*

Some

The indefinite word *some* is used for plural general nouns (E.g., some students).

A and an

- The use of *a* and *an* indicates that the noun modified is indefinite (no particular member of a group). They are used when the noun modified is singular and general.
- *A* and *an* are used when the noun can be counted (E.g., ***a*** vehicle, ***an*** apple).
- Place the word *a* in front of any noun referring to one thing within a type but not constrained to one token thing. In other words, use *a* for any one dog

but not necessarily that dog (E.g., *A dog jumped onto the chair.*).

- If an amount is referred to (such as *any* or *one*) the *a* is no longer required (E.g., *Any box will do.*).

- *A* precedes singular nouns that begin with a consonant (E.g., *a student*).

Exception #1: When a singular noun begins with a vowel that sounds like a consonant, *a* is used (*a uniform*; *u* in *uniform* sounds like *yoo*).

Exception #2: *An* before an *h* mute (E.g., *an hour*, *an honor*).

- *An* precedes singular nouns that begin with a vowel (E.g., *an address*).

- When the article and the noun are separated by an adjective, the article that agrees with the initial sound of the adjective is used (E.g., *an English student*, *a wrong address*).

- Neither *a*, *an*, or *the* should be used when referring to proper names unless it is part of the name (E.g., *George went to Cedar Point*; *Kelly's favorite book is **The Lion, the Witch, and the** Wardrobe.*).

The Indefinite Article is also used ...

1. To refer to something for the first time (E.g., ***An** elephant chased **a** mouse.*).

2. To refer to a particular member of a group or class, such as the names of jobs, nationalities, religions, musical instruments and days of the week (E.g., *Emily is **a** doctor. John is **an** Englishman. Sherlock Holmes was playing **a** violin when they came. I was born on **a** Thursday.*).

3. To refer to a “kind of” or “example of” something (E.g., *The mouse had **a** tiny nose. The elephant had **a** long trunk. It was **a** very strange car.*).

4. With singular nouns, after the words “what” and “such” (E.g., *What **a** shame! He's such **a** good man.*).

5. When meaning “one,” referring to a single object or person (E.g., *I'd like **an** orange and two lemons please. The burglar took **a** diamond necklace and **a** valuable painting.*).

Prepositions: The Glue Holding the Nouns Together

Prepositions connect nouns by allowing writers to create complex sentences. Prepositions show the relationship between nouns by modifying the noun that follows them (also called the object of the preposition). Together, a preposition and its object are called a prepositional phrase. For example, if a writer needs to discuss a book on a table. He or she needs to use the following sentence: The book lies on (a preposition) the table (the object of the preposition). Anyone reading the sentence needs to know where the book is located, so the preposition (on) connects the table (a second noun) to the book.

E.g. Alongside the car (a complete prepositional phrase)

E.g. The cat ran under the bed.

(a preposition) (the object of the preposition)

The Most Common Prepositions:

About	Above	Across	After	Against
Along	Alongside	Amidst	Among	Around
At	Behind	Below	Beneath	Beside
Besides	Between	Beyond	By	Concerning
Down	During	For	From	In
Inside	Into	Near	Of	Off
On	Onto	Out	Outside	Over
Regarding	Through	Throughout	To	Toward
Under	Underneath	Up	Upon	With
Within	Without			

Using Articles with Prepositions

Many writers hesitate when using articles (a, an, the) and prepositions. They must decide if they are using the preposition to demonstrate a specific noun. When using a preposition and a noun, a writer often needs an article. (An adjective or pronoun

can also be inserted after the preposition.)

E.g. The athlete threw the ball to me.

E.g. The pianist composed a song for the symphony.

This informal rule also applies to plural nouns.

E.g. The dog happily played with the boys.

E.g. The pilot soared above the clouds.

Verbs That Take Prepositions

A few verbs take prepositions when conveying the action of a sentence. For these verbs, the preposition completes their meaning. A few examples include:

Account For	Agree On	Agree With	Angry At	Angry With
Apply For	Argue About	Compare To	Compare With	Conform To
Consists Of	Convenient For	Correspond With	Differ From	Identical to
Interested In	Speak To	Speak With		

Ending a Sentence with a Preposition

When composing formal documents, such as academic essays, writers should avoid ending sentences with a preposition. The rule also applies to questions ending in prepositions. Admittedly, this rule changes depending on the formality of the piece being written, but for essays and most materials used in classes, writers should avoid ending a sentence with a preposition whenever possible.

Unneeded Prepositions

Watch out for unnecessary use of prepositions. Often, writers only need to use one preposition at a time. Frequently, multiple prepositions can be eliminated by relying on a single preposition or by rewording the sentence.

Original: She sat down on the chair.

Revised: She sat on the chair.

Original: He walked up to the top of the hill.

Revised: He walked to the top of the hill.

Original: The book is inside of the drawer.

Revised: The book is in the drawer.

Prepositional Units

Yet, sometimes prepositions form larger groups. Writers become familiar with these larger units with experience, but a few of the most common are listed below.

Alongside of In Front Of In Regards To Out of Together With

E.g. The man ran alongside his girlfriend's car, begging her to come back.

E.g. Unfortunately, it would be an unhappy ending. She ran him over as he raced in front of the car.

Capitalizing Prepositions in Titles

When using prepositions in a title, do not capitalize them unless they are the first word of the title or the first word following a subtitle. Also, capitalize the first word following a colon in a title.

E.g. On the Treatment of Chronic Pain

E.g. The Effects of Stress on Cardiovascular Health

E.g. Advances in Cardiology: Towards Better Patient Outcomes

Archaic and Idiomatic Usage

Sometimes words fade away with time, and upon is becoming one of those words. Although the word can be used to describe someone or something that has moved up and then onto something else, most writers use up or on now. For example, the cat jumped on the table. Instead of, the cat jumped upon the table.

Often prepositions can bend their rules of usage. Sometimes, a writer will need to decide if a preposition is warranted, and a few prepositions may seem to go against common sense. Yet, with time, a writer can master these smaller units of grammar.

Prepositions: Definitions and Examples

Below are a list of basic definitions and examples for when and how to use each preposition.

About: Shows approximation; describes a topic of discussion.

E.g. The cord should be about three inches long.

E.g. We talked about Susie for an hour.

Above: Illustrates an object in relation to another object. The first item is represented over the second object.

E.g. The picture hangs above the television.

E.g. The shelf sits above the door.

Across: Demonstrates distance between objects. Often useful when giving directions.

E.g. He could not get across the chasm.

E.g. Do you see the building across the street?

After: Suggests the passage of time and prior events. Establishes cause/effect relationships; demonstrates the position of one object behind another object.

E.g. After the movie, I read an exciting book.

E.g. After he failed to appear, I left.

E.g. She trailed after her sister.

Against: Shows a lack of distance between objects. Reveals a negative reaction to a situation or person.

E.g. Push the chair against the wall.

E.g. He was against the plan already.

Along: Illustrates one object following another. Often used in place of with or beside.

E.g. We left the yard, and the dog followed along.

E.g. If you behave, we will take you along (with us).

Alongside: Shows one object next to another, usually in close proximity.

E.g. The police cruiser pulled alongside my car.

E.g. The gerbil ran alongside the chair.

Amidst: Describes a noun's location between two other nouns; refers to the middle of an event or occurrence, often used in place of middle.

E.g. The trophy lay amidst the messy clothes.

E.g. Amidst the meeting, she called.

Among: Describes the closeness of objects, usually used with groups; indicates fellowship.

E.g. The dog sat among the tulips.

E.g. He felt welcomed sitting among the students.

Around: Illustrates movement that bypasses without harming an object. When used figuratively, implies dodging an area of concern or worry.

E.g. I crashed my bike when I did not go around the tree.

E.g. I must find a way around my financial problems.

At: Demonstrates specific location. When describing future locations or goals, often used in place of toward.

E.g. I am at home.

E.g. I am aiming at having a degree in five years.

Behind: Shows an object's location in relation to another. The first object precedes the second one. When used figuratively, implies procrastination or delay.

E.g. The magazine fell behind the couch.

E.g. I am behind on my project (because I was sick).

Below: Reveals an object's location underneath another object. When used figuratively, indicates substandard performance.

E.g. Many organisms live below the water's surface.

E.g. The test scores were below average.

Beneath: Suggests the location of one object below another object; often used in place of under.

E.g. The cat raced under the table after his toy mouse.

Beside: Shows one object's position next to or alongside another object.

E.g. The trashcan sits beside the desk.

Besides: Illustrates extra information. Often used in place of in addition.

E.g. Besides snacks, he brought music for the party.

Between: Reveals the location of one object in the middle of two others.

E.g. Put the tomato between the lettuce and the meat.

Beyond: Indicates extended distance between objects; shows an object as out of reach.

E.g. Her house lies beyond the shopping center.

E.g. The shelf is too high. It is beyond my reach.

By: Demonstrates responsibility of passive actions; illustrates how to complete an action; indicates authorship.

E.g. The riddle was solved by me.

E.g. Cut the rope by using the three-inch blade.

E.g. The book is by Mostafa Mahmood.

Concerning: Suggests a degree of action. Often used in place of about.

E.g. The letter is concerning your meeting with Charles.

E.g. If reading magazines concerning cars, check that you have a reputable source.

For: Reveals intended ownership; shows causal relationships.

E.g. Is that gift for me?

E.g. This step is crucial for our plan to succeed.

From: Demonstrates prior ownership; reveals causal relationships.

E.g. The gift is from all of us.

E.g. She learned French from the language tapes.

In: Suggests motion moving toward and inside an object; indicates a moment of time; marks a specific location.

E.g. Place the cereal in the cupboard.

E.g. In the future, cars will run on less gasoline.

E.g. I found my book in the den.

Inside: Describes a location within another place. Also, indicates motion toward a specific location.

E.g. The key lies inside the decorative box.

E.g. We will go inside the museum at 2:00.

Into: Demonstrates motion moving between objects. Figuratively, suggests inner workings of problems.

E.g. Everyone needs to move into the museum.

E.g. We need to delve into his psyche.

Near: Reveals the proximity of one object to another; also suggests that a desire is within reach.

E.g. The creamer is near the sugar.

E.g. He is near his goal of graduating.

Of: Shows the relation of one object to another; suggests kinship; indicates possession.

E.g. I am aware of your plans.

E.g. She is from the Kansas part of the Ross family.

E.g. This is the book of the girl.

Off: Suggests a change in location. Idiomatically, recommends avoidance of a subject or person.

E.g. The cat fell off of the chair.

E.g. Get off the subject already.

On: Shows location at a specific place, usually atop something. Idiomatically, indicates preciseness.

E.g. Set the book on the table.

E.g. Your numbers are dead on!

Onto: Reveals movement from one location to the top of another locale.

E.g. The cat jumped onto the chair again.

Out: Illustrates movement when exiting a location; indicates a lack of resources.

E.g. She needed to get out of the building.

E.g. He realized that he was out of paper.

Outside: Demonstrates the relationship between objects separated by a wall or partition. Implies a distance between objects or ideas.

E.g. The cat watched the dogs play outside.

E.g. Your paper is outside the assignment parameters.

Over: Indicates the location of one object above another one.

E.g. The papers fell over the coins.

Regarding: Shows a degree of concern; used in place of about or concerning.

E.g. Send me an email regarding those books.

Through: Illustrates motion that moves inside of an object. Idiomatically, indicates finality.

E.g. The train raced through the tunnel.

E.g. I'm glad that project is through!

Throughout: Suggests permeation of an object or idea; implies a duration.

E.g. The rumors spread throughout the school.

E.g. Throughout the project, track your eating habits.

To: Indicates changes in possession or location.

E.g. I returned the book to the shelf.

Toward: Demonstrates motion coming near an object.

E.g. The ball flew toward my head by mistake.

Under: Shows an object's location below another one. Figuratively, implies a lack of something.

E.g. The ball rolled under the table.

E.g. The numbers are under the CEO's expectations.

Underneath: Describes the location of an object under another one.

E.g. The cat remained underneath the bed.

Up: Indicates movement of one object over another.

E.g. The car raced up the hill.

Upon: Demonstrates location, (archaic) used in place of on; denotes a temporal occurrence.

E.g. The car sat upon the hill.

E.g. Upon finishing the book, loan it to Rasheeda.

With: Implies a method of action; suggests association.

E.g. She quickly recorded the number with her pen.

E.g. He left with Mike and Rachel, not Chris.

Within: Illustrates an object's position inside of another.

E.g. The project fits within the assignment boundaries.

Without: Shows the importance of a crucial yet lacking object; figuratively, applies to people as well as objects.

E.g. We cannot make the cake without flour.

E.g. I cannot finish the project without her.

Yes/No Questions

* The only possible answer is Yes or No.

1) Questions with TO BE

PRESENT SIMPLE				
Aux. (To be)	Subject	Complement	Short Answer	
Am	I	Chilean?	Yes, I am.	No, I'm not.
Is	he/she		Yes he/she is.	No, he/she isn't
Are	we/you/ they		Yes, we/you/they are.	No, we/you/they aren't

PAST SIMPLE				
Aux. (To be)	Subject	Complement	Short Answer	
Was	I	at school yesterday ?	Yes, I was.	No, I wasn't.
Was	he/she		Yes he/she was.	No, he/she wasn't
Were	we/you/ they		Yes, we/you/they were.	No, we/you/they weren't

2) Questions with DO/DOES -

PRESENT SIMPLE					
Aux	Subject	Verb	Complement	Short Answer	
Do	I	like	chocolate?	Yes, I do.	No, I don't.
Does	he/she			Yes he/she does.	No, he/she doesn't
Do	we/you/they			Yes, we/you/they do.	No, we/you/they don't
PAST SIMPLE					
Aux.	Subject	Verb	Complement	Short Answer	
Did	I	going	to the cinema?	Yes, I did.	No, I didn't.
	he/she			Yes he/she did.	No, he/she didn't
	we/you/they			Yes, we/you/they did.	No, we/you/they didn't

Wh Questions

How to form WH-questions?

There are two main types of questions: Yes/No questions and WH-question. WH-questions are questions starting with WH-words including: *what, when, where, who, whom, which, whose, why and how*. Question words are used to ask about specific qualities, times, places, people and so on.

Forming wh-questions

1. With auxiliary

We usually form wh-questions with

wh- + an auxiliary verb (be, do or have) + subject + main verb

or with

wh- + a modal verb + subject + main verb.

Wh-word + auxiliary + subject + main verb ...?

- Auxiliary verbs are helping verbs (not main verbs).
- Common auxiliary verbs include **be, do, have**. Others are **will, shall, would, can, could, must, should, may, might, etc.**
- We usually form **wh-questions** with:
 1. **wh-** + an auxiliary verb
Wh+ (be, do or have) + subject + main verb)?
 2. **wh-** + a modal verb
Wh+ (will, shall, would, can, could, must, should, may, might) + subject + main verb)

Below is a list of question words and example sentences:

(1) What asks about things.

*E.g. Ali is playing **football** (present continuous)*

Wh-word + auxiliary + subject + main verb ...?

What is Ali playing?

*E.g. Ali played **football**. (past simple)*

What did Ali play?

*E.g. The students play **football**. What do the students play?*

E.g. Ali will play **football**.

*What will (**would, shall, should, can, could, may, might**) Ali play?*

(2) When asks about time.

E.g. *The train will arrive (**on Monday, at 7 o'clock, at night..etc.**).(future simple)*

When will the train arrive?

E.g. *The moon shines **during the night**.*

When does the moon shine?

(3)Where asks about place.

E.g. *I live in **France (Iraq, England, America, Baghdad, Hilla, etc.)**.*

Where do you live?

E.g. *She left her jacket **in her bed room**.*

Where did she leave her jacket?

E.g. *He will travel **to Basrah**.*

Where will he travel?

(4) Why asks about the reason.

E.g. *Ahmed went to the doctor **because he was sick**.*

Why did Ahmed go to the doctor?

E.g. *The girl jumps into the water **to swim**.*

Why does the girl jump into the water.

E.g. *They will arrive late **because they miss the train**.*

Why will they arrive late?

(5) Whom asks about the object.

E.g. *We should talk to **our teacher**.*

Whom should we talk to?

E.g. Muna saw **her sister** yesterday?

Whom did Muna see yesterday?

E.g. Ahmed knows **Sahara** in this class.

Whom does Ahmed know in this class?

. Without any auxiliary

(when WH- words replace subjects already)

Wh-word + main verb ...?

E.g. What happened to Peter?

A bad accident happened to him today.

E.g. What was written on the board?

A note was written on the board.

E.g. What caused the problem?

A storm caused the problem.

(6) **Who** asks about the subject and the object. When **who** asks about the **subject** there is no version. The word order is the same as in a statement.

E.g. Linda invites you.

Who invites you?

E.g. **My friend** broke the window.

Who broke the window?

E.g. **Suzan** will leave the class.

Who will leave the class.

Exercises

Match the jobs and the pictures.

a doctor / a nurse / a student / a teacher / a shop assistant / a bus driver / a businessman / a police officer / a builder



Tick (✓) the correct sentence.

1. She's name's Anna. / Her name's Anna.
2. Her job is teacher. / She's a teacher.
3. He's phone number is 796542. / His phone number is 796542.
4. I'm not a doctor. / I amn't a doctor.
5. They aren't from Italy. / They're no from Italy.
6. She is no married. / She isn't married.

Complete the sentences. Use has or have.

1. I ----- two brothers and a sister.
2. My parents ----- a house in the country.
3. My wife ----- a Japanese car.
4. My sister and I ----- a dog.
5. You ----- a very nice family.
6. Our school ----- fifteen classrooms.
7. We ----- English classes in the evening.

Match the questions and answers.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. How is your mother? | a- Smith. |
| 2. What's your sister's job? | b- He's a student from Madrid. |
| 3. How old are your daughters? | c- It's in the centre of town. |
| 4. Who is Pedro? | d- She's very well, thank you. |
| 5. Where's your office? | e- They're ten and thirteen. |
| 6. What's your surname? | f- She's a nurse. |

Tick (✓) the correct sentence.

1. Mary's children are married. / Mary is children are married.
2. What's your daughter name? / What's your daughter's name?
3. What's he's job? / What's his job?
4. They're from Germany. / Their from Germany.
5. They're parents have a house in Bonn. / Their parents have a house in Bonn.
6. My brother have a good job. / My brother has a good job.
7. We have a lovely teacher. / We has a lovely teacher.

Tick (✓) the correct sentence.

1. Live you in Berlin? / Do you live in Berlin?
2. Where do you come from? / Where you come from?
3. Do you speak Portuguese? / Are you speak Portuguese?
4. I don't speak Chinese. / I no speak Chinese.
5. 'Do you like football?' 'Yes, I like.' / 'Do you like football?' 'Yes, I do.'
6. He's a actor. / He's an actor.

Read and complete the text with the verbs.

cooks	goes (x2)	lives	eats	gets	gets up	has	invites
listens to	phones	plays	works				

Lois Maddox is 25 and she's an artist. She (1) ----- in a small house by the sea in Cape Cod, Massachusetts. She always (2) ----- late, at ten o'clock in the morning. She (3) ----- a big breakfast - coffee, eggs and toast - and then she (4) ----- to the beach with her dog.

When she (5) ----- home, she (6) ----- in her studio until seven o'clock in the evening. She never (7) ----- lunch but she always (8) ----- a big dinner and she often (9) ----- friends.

After dinner; she usually (10) ----- music or (11) ----- the piano.
Sometimes she (12) ----- her brother, Elliot, in New York. She (13) -----
to bed very late, at one or two o'clock in the morning.

Find the question word that completes the questions.

- 1- -----do you live?
- 2- ----- are you married to?
- 3----- does your husband do'
- 4- -----are you in Sydney again?
- 5- -----are the kids in the photos?
- 6- -----old are they?
- 7- -----do your daughters have Swedish names? Because
- 8- -----shows do you do every year?
- 9- -----do you work so hard? Because ...
- 10- -----do you do in your free time?

Tick (✓) the correct sentence.

1. What do you do at the weekend? / Where do you do at the weekend?
2. Who is your boyfriend? / When is your boyfriend?
3. How many money do you have? / How much money do you have?
4. I don't drink beer. I don't like. / I don't drink beer. I don't like it.
5. Our teacher gives us a lot of homework.
Our teacher gives we a lot of homework.

Put the words in the correct order to make questions.

1. many /How /are /bedrooms /there

.....?

2. there / kitchen / Is / a / phone / the / in

.....?

3. in / living / the / a / television / Is / room / there

.....?

4. DVD player / a / under / Is / there / the / television

.....?

5. there / in / Are / your / bedroom / books / a / lot / of

.....?

6. Are / the / there / on / pictures / any / wall

.....?

Reading Comprehension

What is the medicine?

The Medicines Act divides medicines for human use into three categories: General Sale List (GSL), Pharmacy (P) and Prescription Only Medicine (POM).

- General Sale List. The purpose of this list is to specify those medical products which can be sold with reasonable safety without the supervision of a pharmacist, for example in a supermarket.
- Pharmacy. Pharmacy medicines do not require a prescription and may be sold or supplied only in a registered pharmacy by or under the supervision of a pharmacist. The package gives information on dosage.

- Prescription Only Medicine. These medicines may be sold or supplied only from a registered pharmacy and in accordance with a prescription issued by a doctor or dentist.

A completely safe medicine will probably never exist. Even aspirin can occasionally cause problems. When an authority decides whether to grant a license for a medicinal product, it balances the risk from possible side-effects against the likely benefits to patients from taking that particular product.

Therefore, a greater risk for perceived benefit may be taken for one product as against another. However, all medicines that are effective have some side-effects and should be used only when needed. The same medicinal product may affect different people in different ways. The fact that in the UK medicines are classified into the above three categories indicates that some medicines are considered to be appropriate for the public to use without the supervision or advice of a doctor or pharmacist.

Medicines come in a variety of pharmaceutical forms depending on the condition to be treated and the way in which this may be done. For example, solid dosage forms such as lozenges, pastilles, tablets, pills and capsules can be designed to dissolve slowly in the mouth; or more rapidly in the stomach for better absorption or to pass through the stomach to dissolve lower in the gut; or to give a controlled release of medicament throughout the gut.

External forms of medication include lotions, creams, ointments, liniments and skin patches. Aerosols can provide medication topically to the lungs for the rapid relief of asthma; drops can carry medicaments to the eyes, ears and noses.

The purpose of these various forms of medication is to carry the active constituent (the drug) to the area where it is most needed and in so doing to avoid, or keep to a minimum, any unwanted effects on other areas of the body.

Reading Comprehension

Immediate Aid

When a friend breaks her leg or a stranger is struck down by a heart attack, most of us want to help, to do something to alleviate the pain and suffering. Yet few carry bandages or other gear to use in such emergencies. Immediate aid reflects a national opinion survey of the general public and a survey of the 911 system. In the national survey conducted annually from 1973 to 1982, the general public rated heart disease and cancer as the most critical health problems affecting families, and first aid was ranked third out of fifteen health and welfare activities. Although criticism was also among the three most frequent reasons why people did not call 911 for assistance, a major survey of the emergency 911 system showed Americans would prefer first aid help in catastrophic circumstances even before the quickest possible ambulance.

Immediate first aid is important to the survival of a patient during the time usually consumed in summoning and waiting for emergency medical personnel to arrive. Two factors have already been found to be critical in emergencies: the time consumed in summoning a physician or trained medical personnel, and the time from the summons until the arrival of medical aid. It is also clear that a standard for immediate medical aid does exist. For example, the federal and state Occupational Safety and Health Acts apply to all industries involved with hazardous materials. In its recommendations to industries handling any hazardous material, the National Fire Protection Association states that an employee trained to render appropriate first-aid measures should be on duty during any period of hazardous material operations.

Reading Comprehension

Emergency Medicine

Any medical specialty evolves constantly, modifying its knowledge and conduct as time and technology advance. One of the modern and recent medical specialties is emergency medicine, which in a very short time has noted greater development and recognition. This specialty deals with preventing, generating, and providing assistance to solve the multiple requirements and urgencies that emerge in the population, at any age and in any place, with any level of health and complexity, attending any type of patient with any problem of medical, surgical, traumatic, gynecological, pediatric, or psychiatric nature, 24 hours a day, during all days of the year, with any pathophysiological cause and physiological consequences, retraining before and basic and subsequent reintegration. It is necessary to know that emergency medicine originates from a socio-cultural and epidemiological reality that conditions a society—a way of understanding the production and distribution of wealth and resources—a particular health structure organized specifically to respond to traumatic and non-traumatic urgent needs. And a different care process with clinical assistance management, treatment, and control of emergency and disaster factors. The goal is to favor the convergence, articulation, and coordination of the different technical specialties that are fragments of medicine and surgery. The results will depend on the quality and quantity of resources assigned by the hospital, health administration, and territorial management, and the means available in access. The emergency can be considered from an organizational point of view, a witness who testifies to the effective role performed by the health system in the territory to meet the demand. Emergency medicine is called to give the patient and society an effective, responsible, and efficient response with the greatest available means.