Fast Track Grammar Review for EFL Teachers
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What is Grammar?
Check all the answers that you feel are true.

☐ A system designed to confuse students and teachers
☐ An antiquated system of rules that no one uses anymore
☐ An incomprehensible jumble of rules with too many exceptions
☐ The first thing to embarrass me in the classroom

If you checked all four responses, you are not alone. This course book is designed to get you up and running and comfortable with the basics in just a few weeks. Here we go . . . Hold on tight!
What is Grammar?

Different sources define grammar in different ways.

Merriam-Webster’s online dictionary defines grammar as:
1 a : the study of the classes of words, their inflections, and their functions and relations in the sentence b : a study of what is to be preferred and what avoided in inflection and syntax
2 a : the characteristic system of inflections and syntax of a language b : a system of rules that defines the grammatical structure of a language

Are you confused yet? Here’s another one:

Ask Jeeves has a “Quick Definition” that reports grammar as “studies of the formation of basic linguistic units.”

Some grammarians also refer to descriptive and prescriptive grammars. Descriptive grammar refers to the way language is actually used. Prescriptive grammar is the way experts say it should be used. Consider how you would research how to write a language that has no writing system. First, you might listen to how people speak the language. Then you might also ask the more educated speakers how it should be spoken.

Perhaps the easiest way to get a good grasp of the concept is with the TOEFL© test’s use of the word “Structure” as the name of the grammar component of the test. Think of grammar as providing the structure and organization for language.

Exercise 1.1.
Start thinking about a definition of grammar that is simple and useful. Make it simple enough that you can use it to explain grammar to your students. Write that definition here:

_______________________________________
_______________________________________
_______________________________________

When you finish this book, return to this exercise and see if you wish to improve your definition, or leave it as it is. If you have improved it, write it here:

_______________________________________
_______________________________________
_______________________________________
Why do I need to know grammar?
Check all the answers that you feel are true.

☐ so I don’t get embarrassed in the classroom
☐ because it is an important part of learning English
☐ so I can explain it to my students when they ask about it
☐ to help increase my confidence level in the classroom

Once again, if you checked all the answers, no need to worry. Most new teachers have all these concerns and more.

The Most Important Reasons

Professional:
A taxi driver needs to know his/her way around town. You need to know your way around grammar. Grammar is an important part of most EFL programs. You need a good grasp of grammar and to know how to explain it simply and clearly to your students.

Student Expectations:
Your students will expect you to have an in-depth understanding of grammar, and will quickly lose confidence in you if you can’t deliver.

Confidence:
When you are standing in front of a classroom of five, ten, or even twenty or more students, you’ll be much more confident when those grammar questions show up. When you least expect it, students can ask you the most obscure questions, often in front of a large classes. Won’t you feel a lot better knowing you have put in the effort to communicate the basics in a professional and effective manner?

Last of all, remember that EFL students or their parents, often pay what is for them, a very large amount of money for English lessons. Do a good job for them and deliver the value and quality education they deserve.
Word Classification
according to grammatical function

2.1 How many parts of speech are there?
Check the box with the correct answer

□ 8
□ 9
□ 10
□ 12

What are the parts of speech?
Write their names on the lines below

__________________________________________________
__________________________________________________
__________________________________________________

What part of speech is the word the?
Write the answer below

__________________________

Find the answers on the bottom of the next page
How many parts of speech are there?
It depends on who you ask. Depending on your source, you will find anywhere from eight to nine or even more! Confused yet? Maybe you should be. But, most of all, don’t be intimidated by it. Remember if you write the book, you get to decide how many parts of speech there are and it is only a matter of classification or how they are sorted into categories. Some grammarians avoid the subject altogether by not even addressing the issue.

What are the parts of speech?
There is fairly common agreement about nine parts of speech: nouns, pronouns, verbs, prepositions, adverbs, adjectives, conjunctions, articles, and interjections. On some lists you will also find determiners instead of articles (articles are in this class) and possibly quantifiers, most of which can also be classed as determiners. It’s important to know that many words can be used as more than one part of speech. Their classification will depend on how they are used in a sentence.

What is a noun?
A noun is a part of speech that represents the name of a person, animal, place, thing, quality (such as kindness), action (reading), or measurement (hour, kilogram).

Nouns can be categorized as very specific “proper nouns” - which are capitalized and typically used without an article, and more general “common nouns” - which are typically accompanied with a determiner.

Nouns may also be classified as countable and uncountable (sometimes called count and non-count nouns). Countable nouns can have a plural form.

There are also “collective” nouns. These names are for groups, such as committee, government, team, jury, family, etc.

What is a pronoun?
The most simple forms of pronouns (personal pronouns) substitute for nouns and noun phrases. They can be further classed as first, second, and third-person pronouns (me, you, them). They can also be classified by case as subjective or objective (used as the subject or object of a sentence). Examples: I vs. me; she vs. her; they vs. them.

Pronouns representing noun phrases can make speech or writing easier by representing much longer passages and ideas with a simple pronoun.
**Demonstrative pronouns** are pronouns such as *this, that, these* and *those*, which by their very use indicate or demonstrate what is being talking about. *Example: I want those.* If they are used in front of a noun, they are called **demonstrative adjectives**. *Example: I want those pencils.*

**Possessive pronouns** indicate ownership. That car is hers. It is mine.

If a pronoun is used to indicate to whom an object belongs, it is called a **possessive adjective**. *Example: That is her car.* Some grammarians would classify such use as determiners, not adjectives.

**Reflexive pronouns** indicate that the subject receives the action of the verb. *Example: I treated myself to a big piece of chocolate cake.*

**Intensive or emphatic pronouns** strengthen the action of the subject. *Example: I’ll do it myself.*

**Interrogative pronouns** introduce questions - which, what, who, whom, and whose are examples. *Who did that?*

**Relative pronouns** are used to tie together related groups of words. Examples are which, what, who, whom and whose. *I went to the doctor that my friend recommended.*

**What is an article?**
Sometimes called a noun marker, sometimes classed as a determiner, articles precede nouns. **A** and **an** are called **indefinite articles**, **the** is called the **definite article**.

**How about determiners?**
Determiners are a broader class of words than articles and include most quantifiers. Determiners can be defined as words that begin noun phrases and help limit or specify the nouns they precede. This class of words would also include possessive and demonstrative adjectives. Examples include **a, the, your, this, each, several, some**.

**Quantifiers?**
As long as we have stepped in these waters, let’s finish it with quantifiers. They are simply words that precede nouns that give some indication of how many or how much of a noun we are talking about. Examples include **few, little, many, much, a lot, several**. Quantifiers are typically classified as determiners. In a system in which determiners are not used, quantifiers would typically be classified as adjectives.
What are Adjectives?
Adjectives are words that describe nouns and pronouns. They give us more information about them.
*She is hungry. The big red car is beautiful.*

**Possessive adjectives** do that by telling us who the noun belongs to:
*It is my car.*

**Demonstrative adjectives** do it by telling us which nouns we are talking about:
*I want those pencils.*

Adjectives are sometimes said to modify or limit nouns. They modify or limit them by making it more clear which one or how many are being talked about:
*I want only one large egg.*

In classification systems with only eight parts of speech, articles are typically classified as adjectives.

### 2.2 Classify These Words

Write the name of the part of speech on the blank line.
Be as specific as possible, name more than one class if possible.
(answers are below)

1. I’d like **those** eggs, please. _____________________________
2. Who **did that?** _____________________________
3. Many **students** don’t enjoy studying. _____________________
4. That’s **my** car. _____________________________
5. Our football **team** won the game. _____________________________
6. San Francisco **is a beautiful city.** _____________________________
7. He did it **himself.** _____________________________
8. The **cat in the hat.** _____________________________

1. demonstrative adjective 2. interrogative pronoun 3. quantifier/adjective 4. possessive adjective 5. collective noun 6. proper noun 7. intensive or emphatic pronoun 8. article, determiner, adjective
What is a Verb?
Verbs are words that express action (run) or a state of being (love). The action can also be abstract rather than visible, such as the words think and decide.

Verb Tenses — what are they, how do they work?
Verb tenses are the twelve categories of verb usage that are related to the time at which something happens and its duration.

2.3 Classify the following verb forms - pretest
(see answers below)

1. Had run >__________ A. present simple
2. Had been running >__________ B. Present progressive
3. Will have been running >__________ C. Past simple
4. Ran >__________ D. Past progressive
5. Runs >__________ E. Future simple
6. Will have run >__________ F. Future progressive
7. Was running >__________ G. Present perfect simple
8. Has run >__________ H. Present perfect progressive
9. Has been running >__________ I. Past perfect simple
10. Will be running >__________ J. Past perfect progressive
11. Will run >__________ K. Future perfect simple
12. Is running >__________ L. Future perfect progressive

How do the Verb Classifications Work?
These twelve classifications are all time related. Six are simple and six are continuous or progressive forms (continuous or progressive may be - and often are - used interchangeably here). Simple forms are used when we view the action or state as being complete. The continuous or progressive form is used when the action or state is seen as being incomplete.

Examples:

I think so. Simple form - the subject has taken a position and is not continuing to consider or evaluate it.

I am thinking about it. Progressive form - the subject continues to evaluate or consider the issue at hand. His evaluation is not yet complete.
There are also six *perfect* and six *non-perfect* forms. The *perfect* forms are used when the actions being talked or written about looks back into the past (from the speakers perspective - *this is important*).

**Examples:**

I *am talking*.  
non-perfect form: The action is happening right now.

I *have been talking*.  
perfect form: The action began in the *past* and continues into the present time.

When we mix the simple and continuous forms with the perfect and non-perfect forms and use them to talk about the past, present and future, we end up with the twelve major verb tenses we will focus on in this text.

**Present Simple:** The most basic and simple form of the verb. *Think, run, talk, sleep, and work* are all examples. This form is generally used to talk about present time and expressive habitual action and things that are believed to be true. The easiest way to remember this is as *fact and habit*. You will see this tense expressed as *present simple* in some texts and as *simple present* in others. Use it the way your students are most familiar with.

**Examples:**

I *brush* my teeth everyday.  
This is my daily habit.

My teeth *are* very clean.  
I believe this to be true.

On a *time line* this tense can be expressed as being *now*.

**Past Simple:** This tense denotes *past time* - an action or condition that was completed in the past.
Examples:

I *was* sick yesterday.

I *ran* five miles every day when I was young.

The condition (sick) and the action (ran) occurred and were completed sometime in the *past*.

**Future Simple:** This tense is used to denote future time - an action or condition that will occur in the future. The future is expressed using *will* + *the base form of the verb* (or “simple” unchanged form).

Examples:

I *will be* tired tomorrow.

I *will run* five miles every day when I get old.

The condition (tired) and the action (run) will occur and be completed sometime in the *future*.

Progressive Forms:

These forms use a structure of *be* + *main verb* + *ing*

**Present Progressive:** This tense is used to denote an action or condition that began in the past and continues into present time.

Examples:

I *am feeling* sick today. This condition began sometime earlier and continues even now.

I *am studying* French. I study French, but I started sometime in the past - and I continue to study it now.

The condition (sick) and the action (study) both started in the past and continue at the present time.
On a time line present progressive looks like this:

I was feeling sick yesterday. This condition began and ended sometime earlier - I am no longer sick.

I was studying French. I studied French. I started sometime in the past, but I don’t study it now.

The condition (sick) and the action (study) both started and stopped in the past and do not continue at the present time. It is clear also that the speaker could have used the past simple form to provide the same meaning. It is the speaker’s choice and in this case the speaker may have wanted to stress that something else was happening (or happened) at the time.

I was feeling sick yesterday, so I went to the doctor.

I was taking a shower when the phone rang.

On a time line past progressive forms look like this:

I was studying grammar when I got really sleepy.
**Future Progressive:** This tense is used to denote an action or condition that will be taking place sometime in the future. Here we must add *will* to the standard progressive form of *be + main verb + ing*.

**Examples:**

I *will be feeling* sick tomorrow. This condition will begin in the future and continue for an unspecified or unknown period of time.

I *will be studying* French soon. I will study French in the future and will continue for an unspecified or unknown period of time.

Note again that the speaker could have used the future simple form, but chose to use the future progressive form. This is the speaker’s choice and s/he may chose this form to emphasize another action or condition.

On a time line future progressive looks like this:

```
past                       now                       future
```

**The Perfect Simple Forms:**

Perfect simple forms use the following structure: *have + past participle of the verb*. Perfect forms are generally used to express the time relationship between two events or conditions.

**Present Perfect Simple:** This form denotes action that is completed at the time of speaking or writing, but may also indicate action that is continuing into the present.

**Examples:**

I *have felt* sick for two days. This condition began in the past continues into the present.

I *have studied* French for a long time. Study began in the past and continues to the present time.

I *have studied* enough! My study began in the past and continues to the present time but is stopping now.
On a time line the **present perfect simple** form looks like this:

![Time Line](image)

**Past Perfect Simple:** This form is used to denote the relationship of two events or conditions that occurred in the past. It uses the same form as the present perfect simple, but uses the past form of *have* - **had**.

**Examples:**

*I had been* sick for two days when I went to the doctor.

*I was sick* before I went to the doctor.

*I had studied* French for a long time before I traveled to France.

*I studied French first.* I went to France second.

*They had sold* all the tickets before I got there.

*The tickets were sold out first.* I got there second.

On a time line the **past perfect simple** form looks like this:

![Time Line](image)

**Future Perfect Simple:** This form establishes the time relationship between two conditions or actions that will occur and be completed in the future. The structure is *will* + *have* + *past participle*.

**Examples:**

By the time I get to Chiang Mai, *I will have walked* 500 kilometers.

I am going to walk to Chiang Mai. When it is all done - 500km will have been walked. When I leave Phuket, my studies will have been completed.

*I will have completed* my studies by the time I leave Phuket.
The Perfect Progressive Forms

Perfect progressive forms use the following structure: *have* + *past participle of be* + *main verb + ing*.

**Present Perfect Progressive:** This tense is used to show that an action or condition that began in the past is continuing into the present and/or future.

**Examples:**

I *have been feeling* sick for two days.

I *have been studying* French for a long time.

Both of these examples indicate the condition or action began in the past and continues at the present - and may continue into the future.

On a time line *Present Perfect Continuous* looks like this:

Past **Perfect Progressive:** This tense is used to denote and action or condition that began in the past and was interrupted by another action or condition.

**Examples:**

I *had been feeling* sick for two days, when suddenly I felt better.

I *had been studying* French for a long time, then I just gave it up.
Both of these examples indicate the condition or action began in the past and was interrupted by something else.

On a time line **Past Perfect Continuous** looks like this:

![Past Perfect Continuous Time Line](image)

**Future Perfect Progressive:** This tense is used to indicate that an action or condition will continue until a specific time in the future. The form for this tense is *will* + *have* + *been* + *main verb* + *ing*

**Examples:**

By the time I get to France, I *will have been studying* French for two years.

By the time I get married, I *will have been looking* for a wife for a long time.

Both of these examples indicate the condition or action will continue until (at least) a specific time in the future.

On a time line **Future Perfect Continuous** looks like this:

![Future Perfect Continuous Time Line](image)

Okay, this has been pretty exciting, but I think it is time for a break.
2.4 Classify the verb tenses in the following sentences

1. By the time I finish studying grammar, I **will be** an old man. _______
2. I **love** sushi! _______
3. I **went** to Koh Phuket last year and really loved it. _______
4. Ramon **had been planning** to buy an airplane, after he finished his pilot training, but he ran out of money._______
5. By the time I finish my TEFL certification course, I **will have been sitting** in a classroom far too long. _______
6. My dog **has been walking** to work everyday since he was just a pup. _______
7. He **will be walking** to work for the rest of his life. _______
8. Jenny’s Alfa Romeo **was running** poorly by the time she drove back to Chiang Mai. _______
9. My student **had talked** me out of an “F”, so I gave him a “D”. _______
10. I hope that when I die, I **will have lived** a good enough life to come back next time as a sea otter. They really enjoy life! _______
11. Most teachers **are making** so much money that they don’t know what to do with it all! True or False? _______
12. Big bucks! Big bucks! I **have earned** big bucks this year! _______

Measure your expertise!
**TEFL Genius:** 12 correct
**Pretty d*mn smart:** 10-11
**Know it all:** 9
**Party Guy/Gal:** 7-8
**Back to the books!** 0-6
What is an Adverb?
Adverbs are modifiers of verbs and adjectives and other adverbs. They generally answer questions about when (tonight), where (downtown), how (carefully), in what manner (quickly), and to what extent or degree (very).

Remember earlier we said some words can have several functions? Notice here that you would ordinarily think of downtown as a noun, but if we use it in the sentence: *Please meet me downtown tonight*, then downtown tells us where and is functioning as an adverb. So is tonight as it says *when*. Nouns that can express time, place, size, measurement, degree or number are often used as adverbs.

**Examples:**
Let’s go *home*.
Leopards can run through the night *very quickly*.

*Home* tells us *where* (part of the definition of an adverb). *Quickly* is an adverb as it tells us to what manner the leopard runs and *very* is an adverb as it tells to what degree (*very quickly*) and it modifies the adverb quickly.

**Interrogative Adverbs** are used at the beginning of a sentence to form a question. These adverbs are *when, where* and *how*. These make sense if you revisit the definition of an adverb above.

**Examples:**
*When* did you get here?
*Where* are going tonight?
*How long* were you gone?

What are Prepositions?
Prepositions denote relationships between certain words in a sentence. Prepositions are placed before a noun (or the article/quantifier preceding the noun) and helps establish a relationship between that noun and another noun or between that noun and a verb.

*The book is on the table* establishes the relationship of the book to the table. *Bob’s car fell off the bridge* establishes the relationship of the verb fell to Bob’s car. Notice that this prepositional phrase *off the bridge* is working as an adverb. The phrase says *where* the car fell.

Uh-oh, things can get complicated from here . . .
What are Conjunctions?
In Latin conjunction means “join together” and that’s what conjunctions do. They join words together. The most commonly used conjunctions are and, or and but. We’ll talk about others later in this guide.

Examples:
I am hot and tired, but still ready to party!
Oscar jumped into the pool and swam to the other side.
You can have the cash or the prize.

What are Interjections?
Interjections are used to express strong feeling or emotion, usually that occur quickly. Sometimes called exclamations, you’ll notice they always come with an exclamation mark.

Examples:
Ouch!
Great!
Oh no!

Oh no! We are finished with the parts of speech section! What will we do for entertainment now?

2.5
Classify the underlined words in the sentence below.
(mark the part of speech under each word—be as specific as possible)

It was way after midnight when we finally got Raoul to confess that he had planned the most successful bank robbery ever on Mars.

How did you do?
2.6 Classify the underlined words in the sentences below.
(Mark the part of speech - and verb tenses - under each word. Be as specific as possible)

1. International schools often pay more than language schools.
   - frequency adverb, adjective

2. As a career, TEFL opens many international doors.
   - preposition, indefinite article

3. What do you intend to do with your TEFL certification?
   - pronoun, noun

4. I had started teaching EFL before my 39th birthday.
   - verb phrase: past perfect, possessive adjective

5. Many trials and tribulations await the classroom teacher.
   - adjective, verb: simple present

6. When Ted turns 35, he will have been teaching for ten years.
   - proper noun, verb phrase: future perfect progressive

7. I was already teaching when you were still a baby.
   - verb phrase: past progressive, verb: past simple

8. If I had started teaching when I was younger, I would have saved a lot more money.
   - verb phrase: past perfect (teaching is a gerund here), verb phrase: present perfect

9. How is it that life can be so rewarding, yet so challenging?
   - adverb (to what extent or degree), adjective (participial adjective)

10. When the tsunami struck, I was sleeping on the couch.
    - interrogative adverb, definite article
Phrases, Clauses, and Sentences

The Building Blocks of Language

Which of the following groups of words are phrases, clauses, or sentences? (mark them with a “P”, “C”, or “S”)

1. What time is it?
2. on the table
3. on the way to the bank
4. We talk.
5. Because I am tired
6. When I get there
7. run

Section 3

Let’s start by defining what we are talking about

**What is a phrase?**
A phrase is two or more related words that work together that do not contain a subject *and* a verb.

**Examples:** *in jail* *big monkey* *running slowly*

When we talk about phrases we can include: prepositional phrases (that can work as adjectives and adverbs), adverbial phrases (adverbials), noun phrases, verb phrases (phrasal verbs), verbals (participial, gerund, and infinitive), and compound phrases. Wow! More on these later.

**What is a clause?**
A clause is two or more words related words that work together that contains a subject *and* a verb. Compare this definition to that of a phrase. There are two types of clauses: one called independent (or main) which can stand alone as a sentence; and two, dependant (or subordinate) which can not stand along as a complete sentence.

**Examples:**

*Because he was crazy* dependent clause

*The monkey is rabid* independent clause

Dependent clauses serves many purposes and can be classified a variety of way—depending on who you read—as relative, participial, adjectival, adverbial, noun, and elliptical. More detail on these later.

**What is a sentence?**
A sentence is a group of words that express a complete thought. While a simple definition, similar ones being used in many reference books, what is a “complete thought”? Some definitions will say that it must have a subject and verb and final punctuation. Look up several definitions in reference books—and try to find one that you will feel most comfortable with and able to explain, in simple English, to your students.

**Examples:**

*I want to go home now.*

*When is the next movie?*
Notice that a sentence is a main or independent clause.

Sentences can be broken into subject and predicate parts. They can be classified as simple, compound, complex and compound-complex sentences.

Depending on the purpose of the sentence they can also be classified as declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory sentences.

More on the variety of possible classifications later.

**Phrases**

Phrase classifications that we need to become familiar with include: prepositional phrases (that can work as adjectives and adverbs), noun phrases, verb phrases (phrasal verbs), verbals (participial, gerund, and infinitive), and compound phrases.

What is a prepositional phrase?

A prepositional phrase (PP) opens with a preposition and ends with a noun or pronoun (the object of the phrase). A PP functions as a multi-word adjective phrase (adjectival) or adverb phrase (adverbial).

**The prepositional phrase as an adjective:**

*Examples:*

The monkey *in the red hat* . . . helps describe the monkey

The man *with the organ* . . . helps describe the man

**The prepositional phrase as an adverb:**

*Examples:*

She dances *with grace and style.* describes how she dances

The hair on his back grows quickly and *with great vigor.* describes how his hair grows

His is afraid *of his own shadow.*

Modifies the adjective afraid.

These type of prepositional phrases are sometimes called *adverbials* or *adverbial phrases.*
A common point of confusion is that prepositional phrases that tell *where* can work either as an adjective or an adverb depending on if it is modifying a noun or verb.

**Examples:**

**Adjective:**
The monkey *next to the man* plays the organ well.
This PP says where the *monkey* is in relation to the man.

**Adverb:** He works *at home*. This PP says where the man *works*.

**Noun and Verb Phrases**

**Noun phrases** are groups of words that act as the subject, object or complement of a clause or sentence.

**Examples:**

*The red Ferrari* is mine.

That monkey is playing a *large purple organ*.

**Verb phrases (or Phrasal Verbs)** are multi-word verbs, usually a main verb followed by preposition.

**Examples:** *take off, run out of, fill up*

---

**What type of phrase is this?**

The hat on the monkey’s head bounced with the beat of the music.

A  B  C

The last bus to Chiang Mai leaves from the station at midnight.

D  E  F

Luckily, I took off my shirt before the Jello fight started.

G  H
**Verbal Phrases**

A verbal is verb form working as another part of speech. The verbal and the other words related to it are called a verbal phrase. There are three types, called participial phrases, infinitive phrases, and gerund phrases.

**Participial Phrases** use the present or past participle form of a verb and function as adjectives.

Examples:

*Shaken by her fear of ghosts,*
McGillacuddy ran wildly into the night.

Later, we found her *drenched in sweat* and *trembling with fear.*

**Gerund Phrases** use the present participle form of a verb and function as a noun.

Examples:

*Running every day* is the best way to stay in shape.

*Getting my hair cut* is a chore I hate.

**Infinitive Phrases** use the infinitive form of a verb and function as nouns, adjectives and adverbs.

Examples:

*To live a full life* is the goal of many an adventurer.

Ramon had no choice but *to study grammar every night* if he wished to pass the examination.
Clausess

A clause is a group of words that contains a subject and a verb.
An independent or main clause can stand alone as a sentence.
A dependent or subordinate clause can not.
The famous Santa Clause is more fun and can stand alone.

Example:

*When I started running, I was really out of shape.*

subordinate clause    independent clause

*When I started running* can not stand on its own. It has a sense of being incomplete, but *I was really out of shape* is fine on its own.

Dependent Clauses

Depending on its function in a sentence, a clause may be classified as an adjectival, adverbial, noun, or elliptical.

What is an adjectival (relative) clause?

This is a clause that acts as an adjective - so it describes a noun or pronoun. Some begin with a relative pronoun: which, what, whatever, who, whose, whom, whoever, whomever, or that. Others begin with a relative adverb: when, where, before, since, or why. To avoid confusion, adjectival clauses should be placed as close as possible to the noun they describe.

Examples:

That’s the guy *who invented the bungee jump.*

This is the house *that I told you about.*

Subordinate (dependent) clauses that begin with who can be classified as identifying (restrictive) or non-identifying (non-restrictive) relative clauses.
Examples:
This is Jim Bungee, **who invented the bungee jump**.
    (non-indentifying as we already know who he is)

This the guy **who invented the bungee jump**.
    (indentifying as we don’t know who he is until specified)

Notice the comma in the sentence with non-identifying clause.
More on relative clauses later in the guide.

**What is an adverbial clause?**
We can easily guess that this clause acts as an adverb, so it describes a
verb, adverb or adjective.

Adverbial clauses always begin with subordinating conjunctions.
Examples include *before, since, after, because, when, and if*.
A more complete list of conjunctions can be found later in this guide.

Examples:

*Because Jeff was so angry*, he couldn’t concentrate on his studies.

*When I finished the TEFL course*, I landed a great job.

**What is a noun clause?**
A noun clause is a group of words that function as a noun - and play the role of the subject, object, or complement of a sentence. These clauses usually begin with a relative pronoun or *how, why, when, if, or whether*.

Examples:

*Whether you like grammar or not* doesn’t matter.  (subject)

The prize will be won by *whoever gets the job done first*. (object)

**What is an elliptical clause?**
Since ellipsis means leaving something out - we can guess that these clauses have something missing. As a result they may be grammatically incomplete but their meaning will still be clear.
Examples:

She is as old as I (am).

Though (he is) seventy years old,

Ted is still quite frisky.

And now, finally . . .

Sentences

We covered the definition of a sentence back on page 23 so here we’ll add information about sentence functions and structures.

Functions:

We use sentences to make statements - called declarative sentences - (He is crazy.), to make commands - called imperative sentences - (Close the door.), to make interjections - called exclamatory sentences - (Ouch!), and ask questions - called interrogative sentences - (What’s your name?).

The structure and complexity of a sentence is classified in the following ways: Simple sentences, compound sentences, complex sentences, and compound-complex sentences.

Don’t worry, we can make sense of all this before sundown . . .

What is a simple sentence?

A simple sentence has a subject and a verb in one clause. The subject and/or verb may be compound (more than one verb and/or subject).

Example:

Jane and Bill talked and walked for hours. simple sentence
(compound subject) (compound verb)
**What is a compound sentence?**
A compound sentence is formed by joining together two or more independent clauses. They are often joined together with a conjunction.

**Examples:**

Jim likes to dance. He doesn’t know how.

Jim likes to dance **but** he doesn’t know how.

He got an “A+” on the exam. He was cheating.

He got an “A+” on the exam; however, he was cheating.

You can pay me now. You can pay me later.

You can pay me now **or** you can pay me later.

**What is a complex sentence?**
These sentences contain at least one independent clause **and** at least one dependent clause.

Examples:

When Fredo returned home late that night. Fredo was broke.

Fredo was broke when he returned home late that night.

**or**

When Fredo returned home late that night, he was broke.

Because Mars is so hot at night. Zark didn’t wear a coat.

Because Mars is so hot at night, Zark didn’t wear a coat.

**or**

Zark didn’t wear a coat because Mars is so hot at night.
What is a compound-complex sentence? These sentences have at least two independent clauses (the compound part) and at least one dependent clause (creating the complex part).

Examples:

When I don’t have any money.
I start to worry.
I should look for a new job.

When I don’t have any money, I start to worry that I should look for a new job.

Because my dog was sick.
I took him to the vet.
I got my dog a shot.

Because my dog was sick, I took him to the vet and got him a shot.

Sentences Quiz

Are the following sentences simple (S), compound (C), complex (CX), or compound-complex (CCX)?

1. Zark is hot.
2. When Derrick got home Belinda was really angry.
3. What time is it?
4. How can you be successful, when you don’t know anything?
5. Songkran is one big giant water fight.
6. Reynaldo ran out of money so he went home.
7. Because Samui was so crowded, we bought bus tickets and then we went to Phuket.
8. It started raining just as we got to bus station.
9. I want to travel the world because it is so interesting.
10. The customs guys fined me and they yelled at me for an hour because I forgot to declare the three bottles of vodka in my suitcase.
11. I want to get a TEFL certificate and then I want to teach all around the world.
The Section 3 Super Quiz

Check back through the previous pages of Section 3 and classify each of the following phrases, clauses, and sentences.

1. on the beach
2. When I get home.
3. When did you get here?
4. I want the puppy in the window.
5. A nicotine patch is a good way to quit smoking because they help wean you off cigarettes.
6. Riding a motorcycle is a great way to get around outside Bangkok.
7. Traveling on a screamingly fast motorcycle is great fun, and scary.
8. Grammar was so confusing that I just wanted to throw up.
9. He drives his Alfa Romeo with great style and verve.
10. I need to fill up the gas tank before we head out for Chiang Mai.

A+
Pretest
Answer the following questions

Identify the underlined sentence component as subject (s), predicate (p), or complement (c)

1. After the party, Ian took a taxi home. _____________
2. Robert is a very handsome guy. _____________
3. Jung Ah loves foreign foods. _____________

Correctly reorder the adjectives

4. The blue big cotton shirt fit my puppy poorly. _______________
5. The Australian EFL middle-aged teacher was rich.

Rewrite the following sentences with correct subject verb agreement.

6. One of his cars are red. _____________________
7. A majority of the students is destined to fail their physics class.

Sentence Structure + Components

We’ll use simple sentences to illustrate some basic ideas about sentence structure. A simple sentence has a subject and a main verb. It may also contain a describing phrase (or complement).

What is a subject? What is a verb?

A subject is the noun or pronoun that identifies the person, place, or thing the sentence is about. The verb tells the action done by the subject or explains its condition.

Examples:

Subject  Verb
She    studies.
He     runs.
My dog   is a Lothario.
My dog and cat are dancing.

What is a complement?

A sentence may also have a describing phrase (or complement), but it does not have to have one. A describing phrase or complement gives additional information about the meaning about the subject or verb.

Following are examples of simple sentences with describing phrases (or compliments). Note that the complements or phrases can function as adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, and nouns.

Subject  Verb  Describing Phrase or Complement
He    loves   her.  (pronoun)
Her new car    is   super fast. (adjective phrase)
Her major   was   English Literature. (noun phrase)
She    runs    fast. (adverb)
She    owns    her own tour business. (noun phrase)

A complement can also be a verb phrase or a prepositional phrase.

His girlfriend wants to buy a new car. (verb phrase)
Professor Lee is in the classroom. (prepositional phrase)
You may also combine descriptive phrases.

He wants to start a new business on the Internet. (verb phrase + prepositional phrase)

Joanne bought a new car yesterday. (noun phrase + adverb)

Write three descriptive sentences below.

1.__________________________________________________________________________

2.__________________________________________________________________________

3.__________________________________________________________________________

Sentence Structure: Subject-Verb Agreement

A singular subject must be followed by a singular verb, and a plural subject must be followed by a plural verb. This rule is called **subject-verb agreement**.

**Examples:**

Her book is missing. (singular)
Her books are missing. (plural)
Her books and pens are missing. (plural)

Generally agreement is not a difficult issue, but it can be when dealing with certain **terms** and or **terms + prepositions**. We’ll try to cover most of them—just for good reference.

Each and every, when used with a singular noun, should be followed by a singular noun.

**Examples:**

Each pencil is of the highest quality. (singular)
Every pencil is of the highest quality. (singular)

The following subject nouns require a singular verb.

   everyone, anyone, someone, no one, everybody, anybody, somebody, nobody, everything, anything, something, nothing
Examples:

Everyone is going to the party tonight. (singular)
Anything is better than nothing at all. (singular)
Something is wrong. (singular)
Someone came by to see you. (singular)

It is difficult sometimes to decide if a subject is singular or plural. This is especially true when there is additional information following the subject, but before the verb. The additional information is often written in a **prepositional phrase**.

A **prepositional phrase** connects a subject to the rest of the sentence and usually tells where, when, how, or why. Thus a prepositional phrase works as an *adverb* or *adjective*.

Examples:

at my house  at noon
of my friends  on Monday
on the edge of town  of books
on the chairs  under the table

A prepositional phrase often comes after the subject of a sentence, but before the verb. The phrase is not a part of the subject, so it should not be used to determine for the form of the verb.

**Examples which use singular verbs:**

None of my friends is a student. The subject *none* is singular.
One of his cars is red. The subject *one* is singular.
Each of them wants to come. The subject *each* is singular.

Phrases referring to amounts, measurements, and quantities use a singular verb.

**Examples:**

Five hundred baht is all I have.
The number of people here tonight is frightening!
Three tablespoons of mocha is all I need.
Examples which use plural verbs:

Both of us are tired.
Several of us are going to the cinema tonight.

There are times when you will need to use the noun in the prepositional phrase to determine the correct verb form. This is true when using a lot, any, none, plenty, the majority, most, some, a number, a/the majority and all. If the noun in the prepositional phrase is a non-count noun, you should use a singular verb. If it is a plural noun, use a plural verb. If it is a singular noun, use a singular verb.

Following is a chart of terms and their verb requirements:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>term + preposition</th>
<th>noun</th>
<th>verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>any of</td>
<td>plural noun</td>
<td>singular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>each of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>either of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neither of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>most of</td>
<td>plural</td>
<td>plural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>some of</td>
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<tr>
<td>all of</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>a lot of</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>a/the majority of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a number of</td>
<td></td>
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<td>plenty of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the number of</td>
<td>plural</td>
<td>singular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the majority of</td>
<td>non-count noun</td>
<td>singular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>most of</td>
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<td>plenty of</td>
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<td>all of</td>
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<tr>
<td>a lot of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Verb Agreement Quiz

Fill in the blanks in the following sentences.

Use the correct present simple form of the verb in parenthesis.

1. The number of students on the TEFL course _______ (have) increased this year.
2. A lot of the problems on the test _______ (be) impossible to solve.
3. Most of my friends _______ (go) to the beach for the holidays.
4. Neither of my pets _______ (have) studied at Doggy University.
5. A majority of the voters _______ (be) not going to vote for him.
6. None of them _______ (be) coming to the party tonight.
7. Each of them _______ (have) their own crazy ideas.
8. The price of the chocolate pencils _______ (be) 10 baht.
9. Something _______ (need) to be done about Gary’s hygiene.
10. None of that stinking alien coffee _______ (be) left.

Time for a quick Grammar Wacky®

**Percent, per cent, or %** require a singular verb.

But! If they are followed by **of + plural noun** use a plural verb.

And, if they are followed by **of + collective noun** (group noun) that can be thought of as an individual unit **or** a group of individuals you may correctly use a singular **or** a plural noun.

**Examples:**

Fifty-five percent of my head aches **are** due to Chang beer.

Only 35% of the team want/wants to win the game!?**

Seventy-seven percent of the asking price **sounds** fine to me.

**Percentage** is different—it is a number—and requires a singular verb.

**this may vary according to British or American English usage**
Conditionals

Three (or four?) types of conditional sentences

Depending on which grammar book you reference, you will see three or four conditional sentence types referred to. There are actually many more than three or four but the books tend to focus on the most common. So don’t get confused when you read about three, if you studied four - or four, if you studied three. As long as you understand the basics, you’ll do just fine. Following is one common way of describing conditional sentences. Note the verb forms used in each instance.

The Zero Conditional - describes general truths or facts - situations that are always true.

Form: If + present simple, + present simple
Examples: If I get angry, my blood pressure goes up.
If you melt ice, it turns to water.

The First Conditional - describes possible situations - situations which take place if certain conditions are met.

Forms: If + present simple, + present progressive
, + may + simple present
, + future simple
, + (be) going to [future]
Examples: If the weather is good, I am going to Chiang Mai.
, I may go to Chiang Mai.
, I will go to Chiang Mai.
, I am going to go to Chiang Mai.

Unless the weather is good, I am staying home.

The Second Conditional - describes an impossible or unlikely situation. Sometimes called the “unreal” because it is used for improbable situations.

Form: If + past simple, + would + base form of verb.
Examples: If the sun burned out, it would be very cold here.
If I got rich, I would buy a house on the beach.
If cats had wings, they would fly.
The Third Conditional - is used to describe events that have happened in the past. Sometimes called the “past” conditional as it provides a hypothetical result for past situation.

**Form:** If + past perfect simple, + would have + past participle

**Examples:** If you had studied, you would have passed the test.
If you had worked harder, you wouldn’t be so poor.

With all the conditional sentence examples above you may put the dependent conditional [if] clause after the main [independent] clause. If you do, do not use a comma after the independent clause.

Three other issues:

[1] The use of if is not always a conditional,
[2] other terms may be used in conditionals such as whether, provided (that), and unless, and
[3] if may be left out of some conditional sentences.

**Examples:**
[1] He asked if I had been to Phuket before.
[2] Whether it rains or not, I will go to Samui next week.
[2] Unless you do your work, we won’t go to the beach.
[3] (If) You really want something, you’ll go get it.

**Conditionals Quiz**

Mark the following sentences with 0, 1, 2, or 3 for their conditional form

_____1. If you do your work, you always get good scores.
_____2. If I had known he was nuts, I would not have hired him.
_____3. If lived upcountry, I would buy a bigger house.
_____4. If I had owned a motorcycle, I’d have driven it to Malaysia.
_____5. If weekends were warm, we would picnic in the park.
Pretest

Write the correct article or quantifier in the blank

1. I don’t have _____ money.  Sorry!
2. Jenny just went to _____ hospital.
3. He doesn’t have ______ sense.
4. Lek’s arm may be broken.  I think she needs _____ x-ray.
5. Is that _____ motorbike you bought yesterday?
6. Love is _____ essence of life.
Articles
and how to use them

Grammar authority Michael Swan, in his book *Practical English Usage* (Second Edition, Oxford University Press, 1995) tells us that: "The correct use of the articles (a/an and the) is one of the most difficult points in English grammar." So, in this section we will try to make it as simple and as clear as possible.

Collins Cobuild Publishers report that 8.5% of all English communication is the, a, or an. So, if you can improve your understanding in this area it'll be a big plus for you and your students!

**When should articles not be used?**
Don’t use articles before a common noun in the singular if it is preceded by:
- demonstrative terms such as *this, that, these* or *those*;
- possessive adjectives such as *his, her, my, their, our* or *your*; or

When referring to:
- the name of a specific mountain or island;
- the name of a city, country, continent, or season; and
- one’s own parents (father or mother);
- meals (breakfast, lunch, supper, dinner) and sports;
- the names of diseases, and
- after phrases such as *kind of* or *sort of*, or after *whose*.

**Examples:**
I had breakfast this morning.
That is my car.
I am from Phuket.

**What about the indefinite article - *a/an***?
Note that when *a* is used, it is used before nouns that begin with a *consonant sound*. *An* is used before nouns that begin with a *vowel sound*. Many students incorrectly say *an university* or *a hour*.

**Example:** They had to take an x-ray of his broken arm.
*X-ray* begins with a vowel sound and should take the article *an*. 
When should the indefinite articles not be used?

Don’t use *a/an* before:
- uncountable nouns such as advice, furniture, machinery, money and work;
- nouns such as work, health and permission;
- plural countable nouns such as dogs and cats; and
- cardinal numbers (one, two, etc.) that precede nouns.

**Examples:**
- The teacher gave her permission to miss class.
- I bought furniture for the office today.

When should the *indefinite* articles (*a/an*) be used:

1. When referring to one specific type of person, place or thing

**Example:** I saw a policeman at your house yesterday.

2. Before the words trillion, billion, million, thousand, hundred and dozen—if no cardinal number precedes them.

**Example:** I’d like a dozen pencils please.

3. Before professional titles - if not preceded by a cardinal number

**Example:** I need a doctor fast!

4. When referring to a member of a class

**Example:** A man should serve his country in the army.

5. Before exclamations beginning with what

**Example:** What an exciting horse race!

6. Before certain clauses and phrases such as:
   - It’s a big problem.
   - It’s a pity.
   - to keep a secret
   - to have an opportunity
   - to have a plan
   - to make an effort
   - to have an illness (common illnesses, not diseases)

**Examples:**
- I have a cold.
- He made an effort to pass the class.
Quickie Article Quiz

Choose a or an for each of the following terms

_____unit
_____heir
_____honest person
_____SAT score
_____yellow hourglass
_____UFO

The Definite Article - The

What about articles in a general and specific sense?
In general, nouns do not use the when they are used in a general sense, but if they are used in a specific sense the definite article is needed.

Note the inclusion or omission in the following examples:

1. Plural Nouns

Life is too short to spend worrying about things.
A life not lived to the fullest, is not worth living

Cats are smarter than dogs.
A dog can be a man’s best friend.

2. Abstract Nouns

Love is the essence of life.
A love such as ours, makes life worth living.

3. Material Nouns

We can’t live without air to breathe.
The air in Bangkok is really polluted.
4. Days, Months, Seasons

Mondays are always a bad day at work.
The Monday I was hired was a great day!

5. Names of Languages

Chinese is really difficult to learn.
The Chinese language is tonal.

6. Meals

Breakfast is my biggest meal of the day.
The breakfast I had yesterday made me sick.

7. Colors

Green is the color of my true love’s hair,
in the morning, when we rise.
The blue in the sea today is beautiful!

**When must the definite article (the) always be used?**

1. Singular countable nouns when there is only one
   - the house next to mine
   - the sun
   - the Earth

   **Example:** *The house* I live in is very small.

2. Occupational titles, positions, or family names
   - the prime minister
   - the Smiths
   - the accountant

   **Example:** *The lawyer* said that I should plead, “Not Guilty”.

3. The names of canals, rivers, seas, oceans, deserts, mountain ranges, groups of islands, gulfs, hotels, theaters, and ships

   **Example:** I took a vacation in *the Rocky Mountains*. 

**karma**
The total effect of a person's actions and conduct during the successive phases of the person's existence, regarded as determining the person's destiny.

pronunciation: *yin guoh*
left character - *cause, because of*
right character - *fruit, result*
4. Names of countries formed as a union of states, tribe or provinces.

Examples: The United Arab Emirates, The United States, The European Union, The Philippines

5. Names of Newspapers, certain books, and instruments

Examples: I read the Bangkok Post every day. My mother reads the Bible everyday. Lek played the trumpet while she was in high school.

6. Nouns that are made specific by some modifying phrase or clause

Examples: The ring that Gecko lost. The CD that I decided to buy.

7. Nouns which represent people, places or things that we meet, employ, or use regularly - even if the specific persons, places or things are unknown to our listener or reader. British and American usage may vary here.

Examples: My husband went to the bank today. I had to put my cat in the pet hospital. My sister is at the market right now.

8. Singular nouns that represent a whole class

Examples: The cat is a beautiful animal.

9. Adjectives being used as a noun to form a class

Examples: The poor need our help. The rich pay a lot of money in taxes. The homeless are the responsibility of the government.

10. Common nouns being used as abstract nouns

Example: Sports bring out the animal in me!

11. Proper nouns only when they are qualified by an adjective, or defined by an adjective clause

Examples: The incomparable William Shakespeare wrote over a thousand works.
Try these exercises to see if you learned everything from this section.

1. We ate _______ lunch at noon.
   a. the  b. a  c. no article

2. The big BMW is his _______ car.
   a. the  b. a  c. no article

3. My favorite magazine is _______ Economist.
   a. the  b. a  c. no article

4. She used to play _______ saxophone.
   a. the  b. a  c. no article

5. My mom is really sick. She’s in _______ hospital.
   a. the  b. a  c. no article

6. _______ car I drive is really old and beat up.
   a. the  b. a  c. no article

7. They took _______ x-ray of her broken finger.
   a. a  b. an  c. no article

8. This is _______ big opportunity for you.
   a. an  b. a  c. no article

9. To pass this class, you’ll have to make _______ effort.
   a. an  b. a  c. no article

10. I need to buy _______ ten pencils for school.
    a. an  b. a  c. no article

Don’t worry!
We will finish this grammar course soon.
What about QUANTIFIERS?
Students of English usually have as much trouble with quantifiers as they do with articles. Therefore, quantifiers are introduced here as they often act as article-equivalents when plural countable nouns or uncountable nouns are referred to in a way that doesn’t specify exactly how many or how much, but still implies a specific group or quantity. We’ll look at the most commonly used (and abused) quantifiers here.

SOME and ANY

_Some_ and _any_ are the most common quantifiers. _Some_ is used with affirmative statements and _any_ is used with questions and negative statements.

English speakers do not normally say:

I bought apples.
Do you have bananas?
The baby needs milk.
Are there people waiting?

Instead, they generally say:

I bought _some_ apples.
Do you have _any_ bananas?
The baby needs _some_ milk.
Are there _any_ people waiting?

MUCH and MANY, (A) LITTLE, (A) FEW, A LOT OF

_A few, few, many_ are used with countable nouns.
_An little, little, much_ are used with uncountable nouns.
_A lot of_ is used with both countable and uncountable nouns.

_Much_ and _many_ are used with the negative and interrogative forms.

Examples: I have a _little_ money.
I have _some_ money.
Do you have _much_ money?
I have _many_ friends.
Quickie Quantifier Q&A
fill in the blanks with the appropriate quantifier

some/any
1. I don’t have ______ cash, how about you?
2. Let’s buy ______ beer for the party tonight.
3. If you’ve got ______ time, we could review for the grammar test tomorrow.
4. Ramon is a tough teacher, he doesn’t have ______ patience with students.
much/many
5. I don’t have ______ time for this.
6. He has so ______ excuses for his problems - I think he is just nuts.
7. Traveling around world gives you ______ exciting experiences.
a little, a few, a lot of
8. I don’t have ______ money. I just have ______.
9. There is only ______ coffee left. Do you want it?
10. It only costs ______ pounds. Why don’t you buy it?

Let’s move on to the next section
Holy Moly! What are Verbals?

We can guess from the name that these are something made from verbs - and we would be correct. Verbals are verb forms that can function as nouns, adjectives, or adverbs.

Just for fun, let’s say there are three kinds of verbals. **Participles, gerunds and infinitives.** We’ll try to define them for you and get some practical knowledge of them as their usage is often a problem for EFL students.

**What’s a participle?**
A participle is a verbal that functions as an adjective. The participles you may be most familiar with are words like boring and bored, interesting and interested. These are also called (depending on what reference books you read) participial adjectives. Most people know that verbs have past participles (usually verb + ed), but you should know that verbs also have present participles (verb + ing) and it is these forms that are used to modify nouns and pronouns.

**Examples:**
I’m bored.  
Thailand is interesting.  
Shopping malls are popular hangouts in Bangkok.  
Long airplane flights can lead to dizzying headaches.  
He accidentally stepped on some broken glass.

Many EFL students have trouble with participial adjectives and it works best to remind them that when describing feelings about something - the -ing form adjectives describe what caused the feeling and the -ed adjectives describe the person/people experiencing the feeling.

**Examples:**
The class is boring.  
I am bored.  
Buddhism is interesting.  
I am interested in it.

**What’s a Gerund?**
A gerund can look just like a participle, so remember that the part of speech a word, term or phrase takes is determined by its position in the sentence. A gerund is a verb form (verb + ing) that functions as a noun.
Examples:

Teaching is my profession.
Jogging is my number one sport.
I love swimming in the sea.
Shopping is the hobby of many wealthy people.

Notice that shopping was a participle in the examples of the previous section. There it was functioning as an adjective.

What’s an Infinitive?
An infinitive is the "to" form of the verb. To run, to sleep, to fight, to enjoy are examples. Infinitives may function as nouns, adjectives, or adverbs depending on their placement in a sentence.

Examples:

The question to answer is why people get so fat so easily.
(adjective - modifying question)

The only way to stop smoking is to quit.
(noun - complement of the subject the only way)

Most smokers find the habit difficult to quit.
(adverb - modifies difficult)

Review of Verbals

Label the underlined word/term/phrase as an infinitive (I), Participial Adjective (P), or Gerund (G)

_____1. Biking to work every day is great exercise.
_____2. I love smoking. But I quit anyway.
_____3. To love and have lost is better than to not have loved at all.
_____4. Burma’s fascinating history is a great story _____5. to read.
Sometimes called *reporting*, reported speech is simply one person telling what another has said. There are two ways of reporting what someone has said.

They are *direct speech* and *indirect speech*. We can guess that *direct speech* will involve the use of quotation marks as we report exactly word for word what someone else has stated.

*Indirect speech* will not use quotes and the speaker will convert the original speaker’s statement to third person (he, she, his, her) terminology.

**Examples:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Direct Speech</th>
<th>Indirect Speech</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Romero said, “I hate you!”</td>
<td>Mr. Romero said that he hated you.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She said, “Get out of my life!”</td>
<td>She told him to get out of her life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lek said, “Someone stole my motorcycle!”</td>
<td>Lek said that someone had stolen her motorcycle.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Many grammatical changes happen in the conversion of direct speech to indirect speech as you will notice from the examples above. These changes primarily involve pronouns, verb tenses, time markers, location markers, and the addition of the conjunction *that*.

**Pronouns** in indirect speech typically change from *I* and *we* to the third person we are reporting about: *he*, *she* and *they*. Possessive adjectives will also make a shift.

**Examples:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Direct Speech</th>
<th>Indirect Speech</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Romero said, “I hate you!”</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lek said, “Someone stole my motorcycle!”</td>
<td>Lek said that someone had stolen her motorcycle.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Verb tenses logically change as we report speech that occurred in the past - and shift one time segment back. An exception is when reporting what someone has said immediately following their statement. Then the statement will be in the present or present continuous tense.

Examples:
Mr. Romero said, “I hate you!”  
Mr. Romero said that he hated you.

Lek said, “Someone stole my motorcycle!”  
Lek said that someone had stolen* her motorcycle.

- While correct usage here would be the past perfect, a more common usage would be stole as there is a growing tendency to avoid using perfect tenses.

Some place indicators will change such as from here to there.

Time indicators also change as we shift the statement to the past and change words such as today, now, tomorrow, the next day, etc.

Examples:
Chuckie said, “I told him to meet me here.”  
Chuckie said that he [had] told him to meet him there.

Chuckie said, “I told him to meet me now.”  
Chuckie said that he [had] told him to meet him then.

The conjunction that may be omitted when using reporting verbs such as said, told, asked, etc.

Examples:
Chuckie said that he [had] told him to meet him there.  
Chuckie said he [had] told him to meet him there.

Chuckie said that he [had] told him to meet him then.  
Chuckie said he [had] told him to meet him then.
Reported Speech Quiz
rewrite the following sentences using indirect speech

1. He said, “I am going home now.”
   ____________________________________________

2. Lenna asked, “When are we leaving?”
   ____________________________________________

3. The masked man is saying, “I am Zorro!”
   ____________________________________________

4. He told me, “Meet me here tomorrow.”
   ____________________________________________

5. Jenny said, “It’s not as bad as I thought.”
   ____________________________________________

Time for a short break.
Go hang out on the beach for a while.
Coordination, Subordination, and Punctuation Review

Pretest

Combine and rewrite the following sentences with the suggested conjunction:

1. He’s a little nuts. People like him. (yet)

2. I don’t have any money. I can’t buy anything. (since)

3. The pizza was burned. We ate it anyway. (but)

These sentences have already been combined.
Insert an appropriate conjunction.

4. __________ you see her, run for your life!

5. Phuket is __________ a lovely place __________ everyone loves it.
Coordination & Subordination

Clauses, whether independent or dependent, need to be joined together in some way to make speech and writing smooth and to make the relationship between clauses clear. Clauses are joined together with the use of clause connectors. There are four kinds of clause connectors: subordinating conjunctions, coordinating conjunctions, correlative conjunctions, and conjunctive adverbs.

Subordinating conjunctions (also called subordinators) are words at the beginning of a dependent clause and are used to connect a dependent clause to an independent clause. A subordinating conjunction may appear at the beginning of the sentence or between the dependent and independent clause. Note the punctuation with the use of subordinating conjunctions. If the subordinating conjunction and the dependent clause are at the beginning of the sentence, a comma follows the dependent clause. No comma is used if the subordinating conjunction and the dependent clause are at the end of the sentence.

Examples:

After I ate the giant lobster, I went to bed.

I went to bed after I ate the giant lobster.

If I jog more than ten kilometers at one time, my feet get really sore.

My feet get really sore if I jog more than ten kilometers at one time.

Look at the partial list of subordinating conjunctions on the following page. Note that different subordinating conjunctions can introduce specific functions or situations.
**Subordinating conjunctions:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time:</th>
<th>when</th>
<th>whenever</th>
<th>while</th>
<th>as soon as</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>after</td>
<td>since</td>
<td>as</td>
<td>before</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>until</td>
<td>once</td>
<td>by the time that</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place:</td>
<td>here</td>
<td>anywhere</td>
<td>wherever</td>
<td>everywhere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manner:</td>
<td>as</td>
<td>as if</td>
<td>as though</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reason:</td>
<td>because</td>
<td>as</td>
<td>since</td>
<td>inasmuch as</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in order that</td>
<td>so that</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose:</td>
<td>so that</td>
<td>in order that</td>
<td>may/might</td>
<td>have to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>can/could</td>
<td>will/would</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concession:</td>
<td>although</td>
<td>though</td>
<td>even though</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparison:</td>
<td>as</td>
<td>just as</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contrast:</td>
<td>while</td>
<td>whereas</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditions:</td>
<td>if</td>
<td>unless</td>
<td>only if</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>even if</td>
<td>providing (that)</td>
<td>in the event (that)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance:</td>
<td>as + adverb + as</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Result:</td>
<td>so + adjective + that</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Coordinating Conjunctions** are used to connect two independent clauses, both with equal importance in the sentence. This link joins the clauses into one grammatical unit. A comma separates the two independent clauses, with the coordinating conjunction immediately following the comma.

**Examples:**

Mr. Lee was already extremely tired, **but** he continued working until well after midnight.

Mr. Dragon had not finished cooking dinner, **nor** had he completed all the housework before Mrs. Dragon came home from work.

**List of Coordinating Conjunctions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>for</th>
<th>and</th>
<th>nor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>but</td>
<td>or</td>
<td>yet</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The coordinating conjunctions are easy way to remember with the mnemonic device **FANBOYS**.

**Correlative conjunctions** are pairs of coordinating conjunctions that work together to join two similar or contrasting thoughts together. The correlative conjunctions are:

- both ... and
- not only ... but also
- either ... or
- neither ... nor

**Examples:**

The Democratic Party in America is committed to higher taxes for both big business and the wealthy.

Cheetahs are not only fast, but also powerful.

If a person is attempting to lose weight they should neither eat excessively, nor avoid exercise.

A popular axiom in war is ‘You are either with us, or against us’.

**Conjunctive Adverbs** (such as besides, however, indeed), like coordinating conjunctions, are used to connect two independent clauses together. Conjunctive adverbs, however, do not join the two clauses into a single grammatical unit, as coordinating conjunctions do; they merely show the relationship between the two clauses.

**Examples:**

Economical motorbikes are widely available in Thailand; however, many of us prefer big and powerful sport bikes.

In the sentence above, however does not join the two clauses into a grammatical unit, it just shows how the clauses are related. Because a conjunctive adverb does not bind clauses together, as coordinating conjunctions do, they can be moved around.
Examples:

Kandi and Gigi had planned on going scuba diving; **however**, a sudden thunderstorm forced them to cancel the outing.

Kandi and Gigi had planned on going scuba diving; a sudden thunderstorm forced them to cancel the outing, **however**.

Compare the use of coordinating conjunctions and conjunctive adverbs and how the clauses are combined into grammatical units.

Examples:

Economical vehicles are widely available in Thailand, **but** many people still prefer gas guzzling big trucks.

Economical vehicles are widely available in Thailand, many people still prefer gas guzzling big trucks **but**.

The sentence above demonstrates that **but** binds the two clauses into a grammatical unit, which does not allow the movement of the coordinating conjunction to other places in the sentence.

Conjunctive adverbs are usually placed between two independent clauses. Note the punctuation used with conjunctive adjectives. A semi-colon separates the two independent clauses and a comma follows the conjunctive adverb if it is between the clauses, or a period if at the end of the sentence.

**List of Conjunctive Adverbs**

- accordingly
- furthermore
- in contrast
- meanwhile
- on the other hand
- besides
- hence
- indeed
- moreover
- otherwise
- consequently
- however
- instead
- nevertheless
- therefore
- for example
- in addition
- likewise
- nonetheless

Example:

I can’t afford a Honda Super Four; nevertheless, I bought one.

Some of the world’s best scuba diving is around Phuket; accordingly, the island is swamped with scuba schools and diving businesses.
Conjunctions Quiz

name the following types of conjunctions

1. “FANBOYS”
2. I enjoy studying grammar; however, it’s not how I spend my Friday nights.
3. After I got home, I went straight to bed.
4. Rachel said she was the “Grammar Queen,” but I don’t think so.
5. I’m willing to go anywhere you want to go.
6. You are really careless with your money; therefore, I’m not going to loan you even one more baht.
7. Either you pass this exam, or you aren’t going to pass the course.
Basic Punctuation Review

Ending Punctuation

**Period:** Use a period to end a sentence that is a statement, indirect question, or direction (mild commands that would not take an exclamation mark).

**Examples:** Please close the door.
He asked what time it was.
I am hungry.

**Question Mark:** Use a question mark to end a sentence, clause, phrase or word that asks a direct question.

**Examples:** What time should we leave? Noon? In the afternoon?

**Exclamation Mark:** Use an exclamation mark to end a sentence, clause, phrase or word that expresses strong emotion or a strong command.

**Examples:** Shut up! Run! Ouch! Close the door! Stick ‘em up!
Punctuation within a Sentence

Comma:

*Use a comma* to separate independent clauses of a compound sentence linked by *for, and, nor, but, or, or yet,* unless the compound sentence is very short.

**Examples:**

Jenny didn’t want to work today, but the boss asked her to so she did.

Jenny laughed about it and Bob cried.

*Use a comma* to set off introductory words, phrases, or clauses.

**Examples:**

Angry, James shouted at everyone and then left.

Having ridden my motorcycle from Chiang Mai to Bangkok, all I really wanted was a hot shower and a cold beer.

*Use a comma* for clarification and to avoid confusion.

**Example:** When she was 25, 15 different guys asked to marry her.

*Use a comma* to set off an interrupting word or phrase.

*Use a comma* to set off *non-restrictive* phrases.

**Example:** My new house, right on the beach, is on Phuket.

*Use a comma* to set off direct address.

**Example:** Lek, are you going singing with us tonight?
Use a comma to set off:

- [1] interjections
- [2] expressions of contrast
- [3] parenthetical comments
- [4] items in series
- [5] parts of dates, titles, addresses, and salutations

Examples:

- [1] Oh no, here he comes again.
- [2] It’s mostly rich people, not us paupers, who own the sea-view villas.
- [3] You may, if you feel it is necessary, explain your absence of the last few days.
- [4] Give me a pencil, to French fries, a sack of onions, and a fishing rod.
- [6] Dear Mr. Anderson,

The Colon and Semicolon:
Sometimes confused in usage - the colon is easier to figure out than the semicolon so we’ll get it out of the way first.

Use a colon:

- [1] to set off a list of items or details
- [2] before an appositive phrase or clause
- [3] after the salutation of a formal letter

Examples:

- [1] Please bring the following:
- [3] Dear Queen Elizabeth:

Use a semicolon:

- [1] to separate independent clauses that are closely connected in meaning when no coordinating conjunction is used
- [2] for clarity - before a coordinating conjunction when there is punctuation in one or both of the clauses
- [3] between independent clauses of when joined by conjunctive adverbs such as however, furthermore, nevertheless, etc. (see earlier in this section for an example list)

We’re almost done with the course; let’s have a barbie!
[4] before words that introduce a list or example(s), such as for example - a comma follows such words.

[5] when it is needed for clarity - to separate categories in a larger list.

**Examples:**

1. See the alien on the previous page; he’s a good example.
2. The alien on the previous page is preparing a BBQ for us; but he, like most aliens, is a vegetarian.
3. He said he was cooking Mars muskrat; however, it doesn’t look like muskrat.
4. Thailand offers so many great places to live; for example, Chiang Mai, Phuket, Samui, Bangkok and Hua Hin.
5. Attending today’s conference are Alien Bob, from Mars; Jimbo Johnson, from Bangkok; and Marshie Mango, from Chiang Mai.

**Quotation Marks:**

*Use quotation marks to*

1. set off a direct quotation - use single marks to set off a quotation within a quotation
2. set off the titles of magazine articles, songs, poems, and the names of chapters of books.
3. set off phrases, terms, or words referred to in a sentence.
4. to set off slang terminology

**Examples:**

1. Ricardo said, “I will return!”
2. “The Road Less Traveled” is one of my favorite poems.
3. The words “advice” and “advise” are frequently confused in common speech and writing.
4. Her motorcycle is so over customized it looks like a “pimpmobile.”

**Parentheses** are used to enclose words, phrases, clauses or sentences which are used to clarify, explain, translate or comment on other items in the sentence or writing. Parentheses are also used to set apart words, numbers, and symbols that are used for clarification.

**Examples:** Dave (my oldest brother) is arriving at noon.
Twelve (12) people are expected for the meeting.
Luckily the very last quiz!

**Punctuation Quiz**

Punctuate the following sentences

1. I want to fly home first class however I can’t afford it
2. When I get back to Thailand I will be one happy camper
3. My brother Dave said I am not coming to visit you this year
4. Hurt, Jenny started to cry when her own dog bit her

This quickie grammar review is Finished!
Grammar: Where to find more

Luckily the Internet has made it possible for us to research and find out just about anything. Grammar is no exception.

Once you’ve been a teacher for while, you’ll find Dave’s ESL Café to be a good place to find more information about anything ESL/EFL grammar related.

Start there for his grammar page which has a large number of links to other grammar sites.

Dave’s ESL Café:

http://eslcafe.com/search/Grammar/index.html