



SATHYABAMA

INSTITUTE OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
(DEEMED TO BE UNIVERSITY)

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SCHOOL OF SCIENCE AND HUMANITIES

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

UNIT – I MODERN ENGLISH GRAMMAR [SHS1607]

SHS1607	MODERN ENGLISH GRAMMAR	L	T	P	CREDIT
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Course Objectives:

- To make the students understand the concepts of grammar and to identify the constructions, and usages, with examples to illustrate the topics included to showcase their knowledge of the same.
- To make them construct grammatically correct sentences and identify errors with 80% accuracy.
- To think analytically and arrive at significant conclusions by evaluating the tasks given.

Learning Outcomes: At the end of the course, students acquire

- The jargon – that is, the labels – of English grammar that will allow them to talk professionally and specifically about grammar;
- An understanding and a working knowledge of English grammar and how the parts all fit together so that they can self correct, demonstrate understanding of the same by doing gap fill activities, editing, framing sentences, identify and label parts of sentences, words, phrases.
- Knowledge to produce and understand the sentences with grammatical accuracy

UNIT : I THE BASICS: FORM AND FUNCTION

9 Hrs

An overview of English grammar, The Study of Grammar-Grammar, Idiom, and Usage-The Parts of Speech-Units of Structure-Basic Sentence Types-Functions in the Sentence- Parts of Speech, Nouns-Structure of the Noun phrase, Noun classes, Noun Features, Number, Gender, Case, The Genitive, The Articles, Pronouns-Personal Pronouns, Possessive Pronouns-Reflexive /Emphatic pronouns, Relative Pronouns, Interrogative Pronouns, Demonstrative Pronouns, -Indefinite pronouns. Prepositions-Types, Functions, Prepositional Meanings, Some Idiomatic Usages

UNIT – II PHRASE AND CLAUSE PATTERNS.

9 Hrs

Types of Lexical Verbs, Forms of Lexical Verbs, Finite and Non-finite, The Infinitive-Gerunds and Participles, Gerund and the Infinitive, The Auxiliary, Modals, Mood and Modality-Tense, expressing future, mood Voice: Active and Passive, Structure of the Verb Phrase-Phrasal Verbs

UNIT : III CONJUNCTIONS AND COMPARATIVES

09 Hrs

Adjectives, Adverbs and Conjunctions. Adjective Features, Syntactic Functions of Adjectives, Order of Adjectives, Comparison of Adjectives. Adverbs-Adverb as a Part of Speech, Functions of Adverbs, Position of Adverbs, Comparison of Adverbs, Adjectives and Adverbs. conjunctions-Introduction, Co-ordinating and Subordinating Conjunctions, Subordinating Conjunctions, Co-ordinating Conjunctions, Complex phrases and coordination. Clause types and negation, Finite subordinate clauses, Non-finite and verbless subordinate clauses

UNIT :IV : GRAMMAR AT THE SENTENCE LEVEL

9 Hrs

The Simple Sentence, The Simple Sentence Defined. Clause Patterns in the Simple Sentence-Syntactic functions and Thematic Roles-Questions, Negatives, Commands, Exclamations-Complex And Compound Sentences-Introduction-Nominal Clauses, Relative clauses, Adverb Clauses, Comparative Clauses, Co-ordinate Clauses

UNIT : V GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE AND INFORMATION ORGANIZATION

9 Hrs

Tense and aspect, Mood, Information structuring, Some Principles of Information Organization Concord, Reported Speech, Punctuation

Text Book:

Yadurajan K.S. (2014) Modern English Grammar. Structure, Meanings, and Usage. Oxford University Press.

Reference Books:

Bas Aarts(2011) Oxford Modern English Grammar. Oxford University Press.

Betty Kirkpatrick (2008) Modern English Grammar. Amazon Books

Krishnaswamy. n(2000). Modern English a book of grammar usage and composition. Macmillan India Limited

Wood FT (1971) A Remedial English Grammar for Foreign Students. Macmillan

PARTS OF SPEECH

Words are divided into different kinds or classes, called Parts of Speech, according to their use; that is, according to the work they do in a sentence. The parts of speech are eight in number:

1. Noun.
2. Adjective.
3. Pronoun.
4. Verb.
5. Adverb.
6. Preposition.
7. Conjunction.
8. Interjection.

A Noun is a word used as the name of a person, place, or thing; as, Akbar was a great King.

Kolkata is on the Hooghly.

The rose smells sweet.

The sun shines bright.

His courage won him honour.

Note: The word thing includes (i) all objects that we can see, hear, taste, touch, or smell; and (ii) something that we can think of, but cannot perceive by the senses.

An Adjective is a word used to add something to the meaning of a noun; as,
He is a brave boy.

There are twenty boys in this class.

A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun; as,

John is absent, because he is ill.

The book are where you left them

A Verb is a word used to express an action or state; as

The girl wrote a letter to her cousin.

Kolkata is a big city.

Iron and copper are useful metals.

An Adverb is a word used to add something to the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb; as,

He worked the sum quickly.

This flower is very beautiful.

She pronounced the word quite correctly.

A Preposition is a word used with a noun or a pronoun to show how the person or thing denoted by the noun or pronoun stands in relation to something else; as,

There is a cow in the garden.

The girl is fond of music.
A fair little girl sat under a tree.

A Conjunction is a word used to join words or sentences; as,

Rama and Hari are cousins.
Two and two make four.
I ran fast, but missed the train.

An Interjection is a word which expresses some sudden feeling; as,

Hurrah! We have won the game. Alas! She is dead.

Some modern grammars include determiners among the parts of speech.

Determiners are words like a, an, the, this, that, these, those, every, each, some, any, my, his, one, two, etc., which determine or limit the meaning of the nouns that follow. In this book, as in many traditional grammars, all determiners except a, an and the are classed among adjectives.

VERB PATTERNS

Pattern 1

Subject+Verb.

This is the simplest of verb patterns. The subject is followed by an intransitive verb, which expresses complete sense without the help of any other words.

1. Birds -- fly.
2. Fire -- burns.
3. The moon -- is shining.
4. The baby -- is crying.
5. Kamala -- was singing.
6. The bell -- has rung.
7. The sun -- rose.

Pattern 2

Subject+verb+subject complement

The complement usually consists of a noun a pronoun or an Adjective.

1. This -- is -- a pen.
2. His brother -- became -- a soldier.
3. It -- is -- I me
4. That book -- is-- mine.
5. Gopal -- looks -- sad.
6. My father -- grew -- angry.

7. The children -- kept -- quiet.
8. The milk -- has turned -- sour.

Pattern 3

Subject + verb + direct object

Subject -- Verb -- Direct Object

1. I -- know -- his address.
2. The boy -- has lost -- his pen.
3. Mohan -- opened -- the door.
4. Who -- broke -- the jug?
5. Mr. Pill -- has bought -- a car.
6. You -- must wash -- yourself.
7. We -- should help -- the poor.

Pattern 4

Subject + verb + indirect object + direct object

Subject -- Verb -- Indirect -- Direct Object

1. I -- lent -- her -- my pen.
2. The teacher -- gave -- us -- homework.
3. We -- have paid -- him -- the money.
4. The old man -- told -- us -- the whole story.
5. You -- must tell -- the police -- the truth.
6. I -- have bought -- my sister -- a watch.
7. He -- didn't leave -- us -- any.
8. -- Show -- me -- your hands.

Pattern 5

Subject + verb + direct objects preposition + prepositional object

Subject -- Verb -- Direct -- Preposition -- Prepositional object

1. I -- lent -- my pen -- to -- a friend of mine.
2. The teacher -- gave -- homework -- to -- all of us.
3. We -- have paid -- the money -- to -- the proprietor.
4. He -- told -- the news -- to -- everybody in the village.
5. He -- promised -- the money -- to -- me (not to you).
6. I -- have bought -- a watch -- for -- my sister.
7. Mr. Raman -- sold -- his car -- to -- a man from Mumbai.
8. She -- made -- coffee -- for -- all of us.

Many verbs can be used both in Pattern 4 and in Pattern 5. Pattern 5 is preferred when the direct object is less important or when the indirect object is longer than the direct object.

Pattern 6

Subject + verb + noun/pronoun + adjective

Subject -- Verb -- Noun/ Pronoun -- Adjective

1. The boy -- pushed -- the door -- open.
2. The smith -- beat -- it --flat.
3. She -- washed -- the -- plates -- clean.
4. The -- thief -- broke -- the safe --open.
5. He -- turned -- the -- lamp --low.
6. You -- have made -- your shirt -- dirty.
7. I -- like -- my coffee -- strong.
8. We -- found -- the trunk -- empty.

In examples 1-6, the adjective denotes a state that results from the action expressed by the verb.

In the last two examples the noun and the adjective combine to be the object of the verb.

The chief verbs used in this pattern include, keep, beat, drive, make, paint, leave, turn, find, like, wish.

Pattern 7

Subject + verb + preposition + prepositional object

Subject -- Verb -- Preposition -- Prepositional Object

1. We -- are waiting -- for -- Suresh.
2. He -- agreed -- to -- our proposal.
3. You -- can't count -- on -- his help.
4. These -- books -- belong -- to -- me.
5. His uncle -- met -- with -- an accident.
6. She -- complained -- of -- his rudeness.
7. He -- failed -- in -- his attempt.

Pattern 8

Subject + verb + to-infinitive (as object of the verb)

Subject -- Verb -- to-infinitive, etc. (object of the verb)

1. She -- wants -- to go.
2. I -- forgot -- to post the letter.
3. He -- fears -- to speak in public.
4. They -- intend -- to postpone the trip.
5. Ramesh -- proposes -- to go into business.
6. We -- would like -- to visit the museum.
7. I -- hoped -- to get a first class.
8. He -- decided -- not to go there.

The commonest verbs used in this pattern are: like, love, prefer, begin, start, agree, try, attempt, choose, continue, intend, propose, desire, wish, want, hate, dislike, hope, expect, promise, refuse, fear, remember, forget, offer, learn.

Pattern 9

Subject + verb + noun/pronoun + to-infinitive.

Subject -- Verb -- Noun/ Pronoun -- to-infinitive, etc.

1. I -- would like -- you -- to stay.

2. We -- asked -- him -- to go.
3. He -- helped -- me -- to carry the box.
4. She -- advised -- him -- to study medicine.
5. The doctor -- ordered -- Gopi -- to stay in bed.
6. They -- warned -- us -- not to be late.
7. I -- can't allow -- you -- to smoke.
8. Who -- taught -- you -- to swim?

The chief verbs used in this pattern include ask, tell, order, command, persuade, encourage, urge, want, wish, request, intend, expect, force, tempt, teach, invite, help, warn, like, love, hate, allow, permit, remind, cause, mean, dare.

FOUR KINDS OF SENTENCES

- Declarative sentence
- Imperative sentence
- Interrogative sentence
- Exclamatory sentence

And there are only three punctuation marks with which to end a sentence:

- Period
- Question mark
- Exclamation point

Using different types of sentences and punctuation, students can vary the tone of their writing assignments and express a variety of thoughts and emotions.

A **declarative sentence** simply makes a statement or expresses an opinion. In other words, it makes a declaration. This kind of sentence ends with a period.

Examples of this sentence type:

“I want to be a good writer.” (makes a statement)

“My friend is a really good writer.” (expresses an opinion)

An **imperative sentence** gives a command or makes a request. It usually ends with a period but can, under certain circumstances, end with an exclamation point.

Examples of this sentence type:

“Please sit down.”

“I need you to sit down now!”

An **interrogative sentence** asks a question. This type of sentence often begins with who, what, where, when, why, how, or do, and it ends with a question mark.

Examples of this sentence type:

“When are you going to turn in your writing assignment?”

“Do you know what the weather will be tomorrow?”

An **exclamatory sentence** is a sentence that expresses great emotion such as excitement, surprise, happiness and anger, and ends with an exclamation point.

Examples of this sentence type:

“It is too dangerous to climb that mountain!”

“I got an A on my book report!”

NOUNS

THE NOUN: KINDS OF NOUNS

A Noun is a word used as the name of a person, place or thing.

Note: The word thing is used to mean anything that we can think of.

Asoka was a wise king.

The noun Asoka refers to a particular king, but the noun king might be applied to any other king as well as to Asoka. We call Asoka a Proper Noun, and king a Common Noun.

Sita is a Proper Noun, while girl is a Common Noun.

Hart is a Proper Noun, while boy is a Common Noun.

Kolkata is a Proper Noun, while city is a Common Noun.

India is a Proper Noun, while country is a Common Noun.

The word girl is a Common Noun, because it is a name common to all girls, while Sita is a Proper Noun because it is the name of a particular girl.

A Common Noun is a name given in common to every person or thing of the same class or kind.

A Proper Noun is the name of some particular person or place,

[Proper means one's own. Hence a Proper Name is a person's own name.]

He was the Lukman (= the wisest man) of his age.

Kalidas is often called the Shakespeare (= the greatest dramatist) of India.

A Collective Noun is the name of a number (or collection) of persons or things taken together and spoken of as one whole; as, Crowd, mob, team, flock, herd, army, fleet, jury, family, nation, parliament, committee.

A fleet = a collection of ships or vessels.

An army = a collection of soldiers.

A crowd = a collection of people.

The police dispersed the crowd.

The French army was defeated at Waterloo.

The jury found the prisoner guilty.

An Abstract Noun is usually the name of a quality, action, or state considered apart from the object to which it belongs; as.

Quality - Goodness, kindness, whiteness, darkness, hardness, brightness, honesty, wisdom, bravery.

Action - Laughter, theft, movement, judgment, hatred.

State - Childhood, boyhood, youth, slavery, sleep, sickness, death, poverty.

The names of the Arts and Science (e.g., grammar, music, chemistry, etc.) are also Abstract Nouns.

Abstract Nouns are formed:

(1) From Adjectives; as,

Kindness from kind; honesty from honest.

[Most abstract nouns are formed thus.]

(2) From Verbs; as,

Obedience from obey; growth from grow.

(3) From Common Nouns; as,

Childhood from child; slavery from slave.

Another classification of nouns is whether they are “countable” or “uncountable”.

Countable nouns (or countables) are the names of objects, people, etc. that we can count, e.g., book, pen, apple, boy, sister, doctor, horse.

Uncountable nouns (or uncountables) are the names of things which we cannot count, e.g., milk, oil, sugar, gold, honesty. They mainly denote substances and abstract things.

Countable nouns have plural forms while uncountable nouns do not. For example, we say “books” but we cannot say “milks”.

THE NOUN: GENDER

A noun that denotes a male animal is said to be of the **Masculine Gender**. [Gender comes from Latin genus, kind or sort.]

A noun that denotes a female animal is said to be of the **Feminine Gender**.

A noun that denotes either a male or a female is said to be of the **Common Gender**; as Parent, child, friend, pupil, servant, thief, relation, enemy, cousin, person, orphan, student, baby, monarch, neighbour, infant.

A noun that denotes a thing that is neither male nor female (i.e., thing without life) is

said to be of the **Neuter Gender**; as,

Book, pen, room, tree.

[Neuter means neither, that is, neither male nor female]

Objects without life are often personified, that is, spoken of as if they were living beings. We then regard them as males or females.

The **Masculine Gender** is often applied to objects remarkable for strength and violence;

as, The Sun, Summer, Winter, Time, Death,

The sun sheds his beams on rich and poor alike.

The **Feminine Gender** is sometimes applied to objects remarkable for beauty, gentleness, and gracefulness; as, The Moon, the Earth, Spring, Autumn, Nature, Liberty, Justice, Mercy, Peace, Hope, Charity.

The moon has hidden her face behind a cloud.

Spring has spread her mantle of green over the earth.

Peace hath her victories no less renowned than war.

THE NOUN: CASE

48. Examine these sentences:-

1. John threw a stone.

2. The horse kicked the boy.

In sentence 1, the noun John is the Subject. It is the answer to the question, "Who threw a stone?"

The group of words threw a stone is the Predicate.

The Predicate contains the verb threw.

What did John throw?-A stone. Stone is the object which John threw. The noun stone is therefore called the Object.

In sentence 2, the noun horse is the Subject. It is the answer to the question, "Who kicked the boy?"

The noun boy is the Object. It is the answer to the question, "Whom did the horse kick?"

When a noun (or pronoun) is used as the Subject of a verb, it is said to be in the

Nominative Case.

When a noun (or pronoun) is used as the Object of a verb, it is said to be in the **Objective (or Accusative) Case.**

Note-To find the Nominative, put Who? or What? before the verb.

To find the Accusative put, Whom? or What? before the verb and its subject.

A noun which comes after a preposition is also said to be in the Accusative Case; as,

The book is in the desk.

The Nominative generally comes before the verb, and the Accusative after the verb. Hence they are distinguished by the order of words, or by the sense.

52. Compare:-

1. Rama gave a ball.
2. Rama gave Hari a ball.

In each of these sentences the noun ball is the Object of gave.

In the second sentence we are told that Hari was the person to whom Rama gave a ball.

The noun Hari is called the Indirect Object of the verb gave.

The noun ball, the ordinary Object, is called the Direct Object.

It will be noticed that the position of the Indirect Object is immediately after the verb and before the Direct Object.

The Possessive Case does not always denote possession. It is used to denote authorship, origin, kind, etc. as,

Shakespeare's plays = the plays written by Shakespeare.

A mother's love = the love felt by a mother.

The President's speech = the speech delivered by the President.

Mr. Aggarwal's house = the house where Mr. Aggarwal lives.

Ashok's school = the school where Ashok goes.

A children's playground = a playground for children.

A week's holiday = a holiday which lasts a week.

ARTICLES

ARTICLES

The words a or an and the are called Articles. They come before nouns.

There are two Articles - a (or an) and the.

A or an is called the **Indefinite Article**, because it usually leaves indefinite the person or thing spoken of; as, A doctor; that is, any doctor.

The is called the **Definite Article**, because it normally points out some particular person or thing; as,

He saw the doctor; meaning some particular doctor. The indefinite article is used before singular countable nouns, e.g.

A book, an orange, a girl

The definite article is used before singular countable nouns, plural countable nouns and uncountable nouns, e.g., The book, the books, the milk

A or An

The choice between a and an is determined by sound. Before a word beginning with a vowel sound an is used; as,

An ass, an enemy, an ink-pad, an orange, an umbrella, an hour, an honest man. An heir.

It will be noticed that the words hour, honest, heir begin with a vowel sound, as the initial consonant h is not pronounced,
 Before a word beginning with a consonant sound a is used; as,
 A boy, a reindeer, a woman, a yard, a horse, a hole, also a university,, a union, a European, a ewe, a unicorn, a useful article.
 because these words (university, union, etc.) begin with a consonant sound, that of yu.
 Similarly we say,
 A one-rupee note, such a one, a one-eyed man.
 because one begins with the consonant sound of w.
 Some native speakers use an before words beginning with h if the first syllable is not stressed
 An hotel (More common: a hotel)
 an historical novel (More common: a historical novel)

Use of the Definite Article

The Definite Article the is used-

(1) When we talk about a particular person or thing, or one already referred to (that is, when it is clear from the context which one already referred to (that is, when it is clear from the context which one we mean); as,

The book you want is out of print. (Which book? The one you want.) Let's go to the park. (= the park in this town)
 The girl cried, (the girl = the girl already talked about)

(2) When a singular noun is meant to represent a whole class; as,

The cow is a useful animal.

[Or we may say, "Cows are useful animals."]

The horse is a noble animal.

The cat loves comfort.

The rose is the sweetest of all flowers.

The banyan is a kind of fig tree.

[Do not say, "a kind of a fig tree". This is a common error.]

The two nouns man and woman can be used in a general sense without either article.

Man is the only animal that uses fire.

Woman is man's mate.

But in present-day English a man and a woman (or men and women) are more usual.

A woman is more sensitive than a man.

(3) Before some proper names, viz., these kinds of place-names:

(a) oceans and seas, e.g. the Pacific, the black Sea

(b) rivers, e.g. the Ganga, the Nile

(c) canals, e.g. the Suez Canal

(d) deserts, e.g. the Sahara

(e) groups of islands, e.g. the West Indies

(f) mountain-ranges, e.g. the Himalayas, the Alps

(g) a very few names of countries, which include words like republic and kingdom (e.g. the Irish Republic, the United Kingdom) also: the Ukraine, the Netherlands (and its seat of government the Hague)

(4) Before the names of certain books; as,
The Vedas, the Puranas, the Iliad, the Ramayana.
But we say-
Homer's Iliad, Valmiki's Ramayana.

(5) Before names of things unique of their kind; as,
The sun, the sky, the ocean, the sea, the earth.
[Note-Sometimes the is placed before a Common noun to give it the meaning of an Abstract noun; as, At last the warrior (the warlike or martial spirit) in him was thoroughly aroused.]

(6) Before a Proper noun when it is qualified by an adjective or a defining adjectival clause; as,
The great Caesar : the immortal Shakespeare.
The Mr. Roy whom you met last night is my uncle.

(7) With Superlatives; as,
The darkest cloud has a silver lining.
This is the best book of elementary chemistry.

(8) With ordinals; as,
He was the first man to arrive

(9) Before musical instruments; as,
He can play the flute.

(10) Before an adjective when the noun is understood; as,
The poor are always with us.

(11) Before a noun (with emphasis) to give the force of a Superlative; as,
The Verb is the word (= the chief word) in a sentence.

(12) As an Adverb with Comparatives; as,
The more the merrier.
(= by how much more, by so much the merrier)
The more they get, the more they want.

Use of the Indefinite Article

The Indefinite Article is used-

(1) In its original numerical sense of one; as,

Twelve inches make a foot.
Not a word was said.
A word to the wise is sufficient.
A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.

(2) In the vague sense of a certain; as,
A Kishore Kumar (= a certain person named Kishore Kumar)
is suspected by the police.
One evening a beggar came to my door.

(3) In the sense of any, to single out an individual as the representative of a class; as,
A pupil should obey his teacher.
A cow is a useful animal.

(4) To make a common noun of a proper noun; as,
A Daniel comes to judgement! (A Daniel = a very wise man)

Omission of the Article

The Article is omitted-

(1) Before names of substances and abstract nouns (i.e. uncountable nouns) used in a general sense; as,
Sugar is bad for your teeth.
Gold is a precious metal.
Wisdom is the gift of heaven.
Honesty is the best policy.
Virtue is its own reward.
The wisdom of Solomon is great.

(2) Before plural countable nouns used in a general sense; as,
Children like chocolates.
Computers are used in many offices.
Note that such nouns take the when used with a particular meaning; as,
Where are the children? (= our children)

(3) Before most proper nouns (except those referred to earlier), namely, names of people (e.g. Gopal, Rahim), names of continents, countries, cities, etc. (e.g. Europe, Pakistan, Nagpur), names of individual mountains (e.g. Mount Everest), individual islands, lakes, hills, etc.

(4) Before names of meals (used in a general sense); as,
What time do you have lunch?
Dinner is ready.

Note: We use a when there is an adjective before breakfast, lunch, dinner, etc. We use the when we specify.
I had a late lunch today.

The dinner we had at the Tourist Hotel was very nice

(5) Before languages; as,
We are studying English.
They speak Punjabi at home.

(6) Before school, college, university, church, bed, hospital, prison, when these places are visited or used for their primary purpose; as,
I learnt French at school.
We go to church on Sundays.
He stays in bed till nine every morning.
My uncle is still in hospital.

(7) Before names of relations, like father, mother, aunt, uncle, and also cook and nurse, meaning 'our cook', 'our nurse', as,
Father has returned.
Aunt wants you to see her.
Cook has given notice.

(8) Before predicative nouns denoting a unique position, i.e., a position that is normally held at one time by one person only; as,
He was elected chairman of the Board.
Mr. Banerji became Principal of the College in 1995.

(9) In certain phrases consisting of a transitive verb followed by its object; as,
to catch fire, to take breath, to give battle, to cast anchor, to send word, to bring word, to give ear, to lay siege, to set sail, to lose heart, to set foot, to leave home, to strike root, to take offence.

(10) In certain phrases consisting of a preposition followed by its object; as,
at home, in hand, in debt, by day, by night, at daybreak, at sunrise, at noon, at sunset, at night, at anchor, at sight, on demand, at interest, on earth, by land, by water, by river, by train, by steamer, by name, on horseback.

PRONOUNS

1. Reflexive pronouns

Reflexive pronouns - myself, yourself or themselves

Look at these examples to see how reflexive pronouns are used.

1. She looked at herself in the mirror.
2. I'm trying to teach myself Italian with an app.

3. Our children walk to school by themselves.

Reflexive pronouns are words like **myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves** and **themselves**. They refer back to a person or thing.

I cut myself when I was making dinner last night.

I hope you enjoy yourselves at the party tonight!

My phone isn't working properly. It turns itself off for no reason.

We need to believe in ourselves more.

EXAMPLE:

1. I cut myself when I was making dinner last night.
2. I hope you enjoy yourselves at the party tonight!
3. My phone isn't working properly. It turns itself off for no reason.
4. We need to believe in ourselves more.

Adding emphasis

We can add a reflexive pronoun for emphasis when it's unusual or different.

*He wants to pass his driving test so that **he** can drive **himself** to work.*

*She broke her arm, so **she** couldn't wash **herself** very easily.*

We can use reflexive pronouns to emphasise that someone does it personally, not anybody else.

*The door was definitely locked. **I** locked it **myself**.*

*Are **you** redecorating your flat **yourselves**?*

We can also use a reflexive pronoun together with the noun it refers to in order to emphasise it.

*We talked to the **manager herself**, and she agreed to give us our money back.*

***Parents themselves** need to take more responsibility for their children's learning.*

By + reflexive pronoun

We can use *by* + reflexive pronoun to mean *alone*.

***He** usually goes on holiday **by himself**.*

*Do **you** enjoy being **by yourself**?*

Reciprocal pronouns

Notice the difference between plural reflexive pronouns and reciprocal pronouns (*each other, one another*).

*They're buying **themselves** a new television.*

*They're buying **each other** small gifts.*

*We looked at **ourselves** in the mirror.*

*We looked at **each other** in surprise.*

With reciprocal pronouns (e.g. *each other*), each person does the action to the other person/people but not to themselves.

Intensive Pronouns

An **intensive pronoun** is almost identical to a reflexive pronoun. It is defined as a pronoun that ends in self or selves and places emphasis on its antecedent by referring back to another noun or pronoun used earlier in the sentence.

An intensive pronoun is used to refer back to a noun or pronoun in order to emphasize it. Here is a list of the intensive pronouns:

- myself
- yourself
- herself
- himself
- itself
- ourselves
- yourselves
- themselves

These words can be either intensive pronouns or **reflexive pronouns**.

Note: Intensive pronouns are also known as **emphatic pronouns**.

Demonstrative Pronouns

A demonstrative pronoun is a pronoun that is used to point to something specific within a sentence. These pronouns can indicate items in space or time, and they can be either singular or plural.

- When used to represent a thing or things, demonstrative pronouns can be either near or far in distance or time:
 - Near in time or distance: *this, these*
 - Far in time or distance: *that, those*
- ✓ **This and these**

- We use **this** (singular) and **these** (plural) as pronouns:
- to talk about people or things near us:
This is a nice cup of tea.
 Whose shoes are **these**?
- to introduce people:
This is Janet.
These are my friends John and Michael.
- to begin a conversation on the phone:
 Hello, **this** is David. Can I speak to Sally?

that and those

- We use **that** (singular) and **those** (plural) as pronouns to talk about things that are not near us:
 - What's **that**?
 - **Those** are very expensive shoes.
 - This is our house, and **that**'s Rebecca's house over there.
- We also use **that** to reply to something someone has said:
 'Shall we go to the cinema?' 'Yes, **that**'s a good idea.'
 'I've got a new job.' '**That**'s great.'
 'I'm very tired.' 'Why is **that**'?

II. With nouns

We can also use **this**, **these**, **that** and **those** with nouns.

We use **this** and **these** for people or things near us:

- We have lived in **this** house for twenty years.
- Have you read all of **these** books?

and **that** and **those** for people or things that are not near us:

- Who lives in **that** house?
- Who are **those** people?

An **indefinite pronoun** is a pronoun that refers to a person or a thing without being specific.

Indefinite pronoun:

[are *all, any, anyone, anything, each, everybody, everyone, everything, few, many, nobody, none, one, several, some, somebody, and someone*.

We use indefinite pronouns to refer to people or things without saying exactly who or what they are. We use pronouns ending in *-body* or *-one* for people, and pronouns ending in *-thing* for things:

Everybody enjoyed the concert.

I opened the door but there was **no one** at home

We can add 's to an indefinite pronoun to make a **possessive**:

They were staying in **somebody's** house.

We use **else** after indefinite pronouns to refer to **other people or things**:

All the family came, but **no one else**.

If Michael can't come, we'll ask **somebody**

The indefinite pronouns can be grouped according to meaning, as follows:

A. General amounts and quantities: *most, some, none, any, all, both, half, several, enough, many, each.*

- *Many find it impossible to cope.*
- *Congratulations from all at the club.*
- *Judging by the comments, most wanted her to stay on.*
- *Although we lost a lot of stuff in the fire, some was saved.*
- *Enough has been said on this topic to fill a book.*

B. Choice or alternatives: *either, neither.*

- *Could you bring me one of those spanners? Either will do.*
- *Neither was keen on a traditional wedding.*

C. Undefined singular or multiple persons and things:

<i>someone</i>	<i>somebody</i>	<i>something</i>
<i>no one</i>	<i>nobody</i>	<i>nothing</i>
<i>anyone</i>	<i>anybody</i>	<i>anything</i>
<i>everyone</i>	<i>everybody</i>	<i>everything</i>

Interrogative Pronouns

An interrogative pronoun is a pronoun which is used to make asking questions easy. There are just five interrogative pronouns. Each one is used to ask a very specific question or indirect question. Some, such as “**who**” and “**whom**,” refer only to people. Others can be used to refer to objects or people.

I. The five interrogative pronouns are **what, which, who, whom, and whose**.

- **What** – Used to ask questions about people or objects. Examples:
 - What do you want for dinner?
 - I wonder what we’re doing tomorrow.
 - What is your friend’s name?
 - What time are we supposed to be there?
- **Which** – Used to ask questions about people or objects. Examples:
 - Which color do you prefer?
 - Which of these ladies is your mother?
 - She asked which train to take.
 - Which seat would you like?
- **Who** – Used to ask questions about people. Examples:
 - Who is that?
 - Who was driving the car?
 - I’m wondering who will be at the party.
 - Who is going to take out the trash?
- **Whom** – This interrogative pronoun is rarely seen these days, but when it shows up, it is used to ask questions about people. Examples:
 - Whom did you speak to?
 - Whom do you prefer to vote for?
 - You should ask whom to call.
 - Whom do you live with?
- **Whose** – Used to ask questions about people or objects, always related to possession. Examples:
 - Whose sweater is this?
 - Whose parents are those?
 - I wonder whose dog knocked our garbage can over.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

We may say-

Hari is absent, because Hari is ill.

But it is better to avoid the repetition of the Noun Hari, and say-
Hari is absent, because he is ill.

A word that is thus used instead of a noun is called a Pronoun

Def.- A Pronoun is a word used instead of a Noun.

I am young.

We are young.
You are young.
They are young.
He (she, it) is young.

I, we, you, he, (she, it), they are called Personal Pronouns because they stand for the three persons.

- (i) the person speaking. .
- (ii) the person spoken to, and
- (iii) the person spoken of.

The Pronouns I and we, which denote the person or persons speaking, are said to be Personal Pronouns of the First Person.

The Pronoun you, which denotes the person or persons spoken to, is said to be a Personal Pronoun of the Second Person.

You is used both in the singular and plural.

The pronouns he (she) and they, which denote the person or persons spoken of, are said to be Personal Pronouns of the Third Person. It, although it denotes the thing spoken of, is also called a Personal Pronoun of the Third Person.

Possessive pronouns

Possessive pronoun definition: Possessive pronouns are a part of speech that replaces a noun(s). Possessive pronouns demonstrate ownership.

What is a Possessive Pronoun?

- Possessive pronouns show ownership of a person, place, or thing. Because they are pronouns, a noun must be used before a possessive pronoun is used. Possessive pronouns replace nouns.
- Possessive pronouns may be in the absolute or adjective form. Regardless, they replace nouns when they are used.

Possessive pronouns show that something belongs to someone. The possessive pronouns are my, our, your, his, her, its, and their. There's also an "independent" form of each of these pronouns: mine, ours, yours, his, hers, its, and theirs. Possessive pronouns are never spelled with apostrophes.

- **A. Personal pronouns** have two possessive forms. The forms *mine, yours, ours, hers, his* and *theirs* cannot be used before a noun.
- **B.** The forms *my, your, our, her, his* and *their* are actually possessive adjectives. They are always used before a noun.

EXAMPLE:

Compare:

- That coat is mine. (NOT That coat is my. A possessive adjective cannot be used without a noun.)
- That is my coat. (NOT That is mine coat.)

Relative pronouns

Read the following pairs of sentences:

1. I met Hari. Hari had just returned.
2. I have found the pen. I lost the pen.
3. Here is the book. You lent me the book.

Let us now combine each of the above pairs into one sentence. Thus :-

1. I met Hari who had just returned.
2. I have found the pen which I lost.
3. Here is the book that you lent me.

The relative pronouns are the words *who*, *whom*, *which*, and *that*.

	<i>person</i>	<i>thing</i>
<i>subject</i>	<i>who or that</i>	<i>which or that</i>
<i>object</i>	<i>whom or that</i>	<i>which or that</i>
<i>possessive</i>	<i>whose</i>	<i>whose</i>

The function of a relative pronoun is to link a subordinate clause to a main clause.

- **He might lose his job, which would be disastrous.**
- **She promised to give away all the money, which was a bit ras**

THE PREPOSITIONS

1. There is a cow in the field.
2. He is fond of tea.
3. The cat jumped off the chair.

In sentence 1, the word in shows the relation between two things - cow and field.

In sentence 2, the word of shows the relation between the attribute expressed by the adjective fond and tea.

In sentence 3, the word off shows the relation between the action expressed by the verb jumped and the chair.

The words in, of, off are here used as **Prepositions**.

Def.- A Preposition is a word placed before a noun or a pronoun to show in what relation the person or thing denoted by it stands in regard to something else.

[The word Preposition means 'that which is placed before'.]

It will be noticed that in sentence 1, the Preposition joins a Noun to another Noun;

in sentence 2, the Preposition joins a Noun to an Adjective;

in sentence 3, the Preposition joins a Noun to a Verb.

The Noun or Pronoun which is used with a Preposition is called its Object. It is in the Accusative case and is said to be governed by the Preposition.

Thus, in sentence 1, the noun field is in the Accusative case, governed by the Preposition in.

A Preposition may have two or more objects; as,
The road runs over hill and plain.

A Preposition is usually placed before its object, but sometimes it follows it; as,

1. Here is the watch that you asked for.
 2. That is the boy (whom) I was speaking of.
 3. What are you looking at?
 4. What are you thinking of?
 5. Which of these chairs did you sit on?
-

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SCHOOL OF SCIENCE AND HUMANITIES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

UNIT – II MODERN ENGLISH GRAMMAR [SHS1607]

LEXICAL VERB

Lexical verb is also called as main verb or full verb. We can define it as “Lexical verb is any verb that is not an auxiliary verb (helping verb)”. The verb phrase used in a sentence is headed by the lexical verb.

Lexical verbs are used as the main verb in the sentence. It carries the real-world and semantic meaning that's why called the main verb. Lexical verbs are open-class of verbs that contain all verbs except auxiliary verb. The lexical verb denotes the main action to which the subject is engaged in. It does not require the presence of an auxiliary verb in the sentence. A lexical verb can exist alone in the sentence.

- He **laughed**.
- They **ran**.
- She **danced** in public

I. Differences between Lexical verbs and Auxiliary Verbs:

Auxiliary verbs become the helping verbs in the sentence. They help or support something else in the sentence and become the secondary to something more significant.

Lexical verbs become the main verbs in the phrase or sentence. Lexical verbs can be any verb which is not an auxiliary verb. It carries its own meaning that's why it can exist alone in the sentence and doesn't necessarily need the use of helping or auxiliary verb.

- In linguistics a lexical verb or main verb is a member of an open class of verbs that includes all verbs except auxiliary verbs. Lexical verbs typically express action, state, or other predicate meaning. In contrast, auxiliary verbs express grammatical meaning.

For example:

- I **was** *acting* very fast today at the carnival. (In this sentence, ‘was’ is auxiliary verb whereas ‘acting’ is lexical verb as it describes the main state or action of the subject.
- Whenever I go to the restaurant, I **will** *want* the crab. (In this sentence, ‘will’ is auxiliary verb and ‘want’ is lexical verb as it shows main action of the subject).
- **Examples of auxiliary verbs:** may, be, was, is, had, has, have, could, would, can, did, might, etc.
- **Examples of lexical verbs:** run, laugh, see, think, want, act, pull, walk, go, make, etc.

I. Lexical verbs are categorized into five categories:

1. Copular
2. Intransitive
3. Transitive
4. Ditransitive
5. Ambitransitive.

1. Copular:

In linguistics, a copula is a word or phrase that links the subject of a sentence to a subject complement, such as the word *is* in the sentence "*The sky is blue*".

A **copular verb** is a special kind of verb used to join an adjective or noun complement to a subject.

Common examples are: *be* (*is, am, are, was, were*), *appear, seem, look, sound, smell, taste, feel, become* and *get*

A **copular verb** expresses either that the subject and its complement denote the same thing.

For example in the sentence '*Peter is my boyfriend*' the copular verb **is** asserts that Peter and my boyfriend are the same person; whereas in the sentence

'*Peter is British*' the copular verb **is** assigns the quality of Britishness to Peter.

Few Examples are given below.

- Honey is sweet. (Here the copular verb **is** assigns the quality of sweetness to honey.)
- The stew smells good.
- The milk turned sour.
- The night grew dark.

2. Transitive and Intransitive Verb

1. Transitive verbs
2. Intransitive verbs

I. TRANSITIVE VERBS

Transitive verbs require an object to complete their meaning.

Imagine that I say:

- I **bought**.

This sentence is **incomplete**. There is information that is missing.

You are probably wondering what I bought. (What did you buy Rob?)

Why is this sentence incomplete?

The object after a transitive verb can be a **noun** or a **pronoun**.

- I **bought** *a car*.

Now the sentence is complete and we can understand it. We added the object "*a car*" after the verb.

Let's look at some other examples.

If someone says:

- She likes. (incomplete - incorrect)

You probably think ... She likes WHAT? (What does she like?)

Like is a transitive verb so we need an object after the verb.

- She **likes** *chocolate*.

Now we know what she likes so this sentence is complete and correct.

- I **invited** *Angelica*.

You cannot just say *I invited* because the sentence is incomplete. The person who is listening would probably ask "Whom did you invite?" So we need an object (in this case a person) after the transitive verb **invite**.

- I **cut** *my finger*.

You cannot just say *I cut* because the sentence is incomplete. The person who is listening would probably ask "Cut what?"

Cut is a transitive verb because you need to cut something (an object, a thing).

- The man **stole** *a bike*.

We need to say WHAT the man stole in order to understand the sentence/situation. **Steal** (stole is the past tense of steal) is a transitive verb. The object in this sentence is **the bike**.

So we have seen that transitive verbs need an object after them.

This object receives the action of the verb.

Transitive verbs always ask "what?" or "whom?"

- What did you buy? – I **bought** *a car*.
- What did you cut? – I **cut** *my finger*.
- Whom did she invite? – I **invited** *Angelica*.

II. INTRANSITIVE VERBS

Intransitive verbs **cannot** have a direct object after them.

The subject is doing the action of the verb and nothing receives the action. An intransitive verb does not pass the action to an objects.

- He **arrived**.

Here we cannot have an object after the intransitive verb **arrive**.
You cannot “**arrive** something” (incorrect).

An intransitive verb expresses an action that is complete in itself and it doesn't need an object to receive the action.

- The baby **smiled**.

Here we cannot have an object after the intransitive verb **smiled**.
You cannot “**smile** something” (incorrect).

Example sentences using INTRANSITIVE verbs

- We **arrived** around midday.
- She **sneezed** loudly.
- Your baby **cries** a lot.
- His grandfather **died** last year.
- The rain **fell** heavily.
- I **was waiting** but nothing **happened**.
- I **walk** to work every day.
- We **sat** on the bench.
- He **stood** in the corner.
- We **waited** but nobody **came**.

Ditransitive Verb

A *Ditransitive* Verb is one that takes both a direct object and an indirect object.

The meaning of a ditransitive verb can be understood by breaking it into two parts: Di and Transitive.

- **Di** = two
- **Transitive** = that has an object

Eg: *He gave her the letter.*

('The letter' is the direct object, what he gave, and 'her' is the indirect object, the person he gave it to.)

Some common Ditransitive verbs in English:

get	buy	order	throw
give	suggest	buy	sing
gift	ask	bring	serve
teach	show	hand	sell
tell	read	promise	owe

Examples:-

- My father **gifted** me a car on my last birthday.
The verb gifted is ditransitive. It is followed by an indirect object (me) and a direct object (a car).
Gifted what = a car
Gifted whom = me
- She **gave** him some chocolates.
She gave what = **some chocolates** (Direct object)
She gave some chocolates to whom = **him** (Indirect object)

*Note: Ask **WHAT** to find out the direct object and **WHOM** to find out the indirect object.*

FINITE AND NON-FINITE VERBS

I. **A Finite Verb** has a subject. In order for a sentence to make sense, it must contain a finite verb. Finite verbs can be simple or accompanied by an auxiliary verb.

a. *The plane **crashed** to the bush.*

If you ask—what crashed?—The answer you'll get is “plane”, which is the subject of the verb “crashed”. Thus, crashed is a **finite verb**.

Here, “crashed” is a simple finite verb, standing alone without the need of an auxiliary verb.

b. *Margaret **is going** to the Disney Tour.*

If you ask—who is going?— The answer will be “Margaret”, which is the subject of the verb “is going”. Thus, is going is finite.

“Going” by itself is **non-finite**. It needs the help of the auxiliary verb “is” to make it finite.

II. Non-Finite Verb

Non-Finite Verbs do not have a subject. If you ask the question “who?” or “what?” did the action, you will get no answer.

There are two types of non-finite verbs: the infinitive and the participle.

The Infinitive is the verb without any connection to a subject. Infinitives usually have a “to” in front of them: to run, to jump, to be, to have, to go, etc.

Example:

a. *It is not the right time **to go** to the shops.*

Ask—who or what to go? The answer is void, because there is no subject, and as such, the infinitive “to go” is **non-finite**

GERUNDS AND INFINITIVES:

A gerund is a noun made from a verb. To make a gerund, you add "-ing" to the verb.

- **Gerund: VERB + -ING** (eating, going, studying)
- **Infinitive: TO + BASE VERB** (to eat, to go, to study)

Gerunds and **infinitives** can replace a *noun* in a sentence.

Gerund = the present participle (-ing) form of the verb, e.g., singing, dancing, running.

Gerunds can be used after certain verbs including enjoy, fancy, discuss, dislike, finish, mind, suggest, recommend, keep, and avoid.

e.g. **For example:**

In the sentence "I swim every day", the word "swim" is a verb.

In the sentence "I like swimming", the word "swimming" is a noun.

Therefore, "**swimming**" is a **gerund**.

1) After *prepositions* of place and time.

I made dinner *before getting* home.

He looked unhappy *after seeing* his work schedule.

2) To replace the *subject or object* of a sentence

Lachlan likes *eating* coconut oil.

Infinitive = to + the base form of the verb, e.g., to sing, to dance, to run.

Both gerunds and infinitives are action words (i.e., verbs) in meaning, but they act like nouns in the sentence. They always take a noun position: a subject or an object of the main verb.

Infinitives can be used after certain verbs including agree, ask, decide, help, plan, hope, learn, want, would like, and promise.

1) After many *adjectives*:

It is hard *to make* dinner this late.

I find it difficult *to describe* my feelings about writing research essays.

2) To show *purpose*:

I left for Russia *to study* Russian.

I came to the office *to solve* the mystery of the missing keys.

MODAL AUXILIARY VERBS

Modal Auxiliary Verb (also called Modal Verb, or Modal Auxiliary) is a type of that is combined with another verb to express certainty, ability, intention, necessity, obligation, opinion, permission, possibility, probability, etc.

can	could
may	might
must	must
shall	should
will	would

We use modals to show if we believe something is certain, possible or impossible:

- My keys must be in the car.
- It might rain tomorrow.
- That can't be Peter's coat. It's too small.

A. 'can' and 'could'

Possibility and impossibility

We use **could** to show that something is possible, but not certain:

- They could come by car. (= Maybe they will come by car.)
- They could be at home. (= Maybe they are at home.)

We use **can** to make general statements about what is possible:

- It can be very cold here in winter. (= It is sometimes very cold here in winter.)
- You can easily get lost in this town. (= People often get lost in this town.)

We use **can't** or **cannot** to say that something is impossible:

- That can't be true.
- You cannot be serious.

We use **could** have to make guesses about the past:

- It's ten o'clock. They could have arrived by now.
- Where are they? They could have got lost.

I. Ability

We use **can** and **can't** to talk about someone's skill or general abilities:

- She can speak several languages.
- He can swim like a fish.
- They can't dance very well.

We use **can** and **can't** to talk about the ability to do something at a specific time in the present or future:

- I can see you.
- Help! I can't breathe.

We use **could** and **couldn't** to talk about the past:

- She could speak several languages.
- They couldn't dance very well.

II. Permission

We use **can** to ask for permission to do something:

- Can I ask a question, please?
- Can we go home now?

Could is more formal and polite than **can**:

- Could I ask a question please?
- Could we go home now?

We use **can** to give permission:

- You can go home now.
- You can borrow my pen if you like.

We use **can** to say that someone has permission to do something:

- We can go out whenever we want.
- Students can travel for free.

We use **can't** to refuse permission or say that someone does not have permission:

- You can't go home yet.
- Students can't travel for free.

IV. Requests

We use **could you** ... as a polite way of telling or asking someone to do something:

- Could you take a message, please?
- Could I have my bill, please?

Can is less polite:

- Can you take a message, please?

V. Offers

We use **can** I ... to make offers:

- **Can** I help you?
- **Can** I do that for you?

VI. Suggestions

We use **could** to make suggestions:

- We **could** meet at the weekend.
- You **could** eat out tonight.

VII. Questions and negatives

We make questions by putting the subject after can/could:

Can I ...?

Could I ...?

Can you ...?

B. 'may' and 'might'

We use **may**:

when we are not sure about something in the present or future:

- Jack may be coming to see us tomorrow.
(= Perhaps Jack will come to see us tomorrow.)
- Oh dear! It's half past ten. We may be late for the meeting.
(= Perhaps we will be late for the meeting.)
- She's had no sleep. She may be tired.
(= Perhaps she is tired.)

to ask for permission in a formal way:

- May I borrow the car tomorrow?
- May we come a bit later?

to give permission in a formal way:

- You may go now.
- You may come at eleven if you wish.

to say that someone has permission in a formal way:

- Students may travel for free.

We can use **may not** to refuse permission or to say that someone does not have permission, but it is formal and emphatic:

- You may not borrow the car until you can be more careful with it!
- Students may not wear jeans.

We use **might** when we are not sure about something in the present or future:

- I might see you tomorrow.
- It looks nice, but it might be very expensive.
- It's quite bright. It might not rain today.

C. will' and 'would'

We use will:

- to express beliefs about the present or future
- to talk about what people want to do or are willing to do
- to make promises, offers and requests.

would is the past tense form of will. Because it is a past tense, it is used:

- to talk about the past
- to talk about hypotheses (when we imagine something)
- for politeness.

I. Beliefs

We use will to express beliefs about the present or future:

- John will be in his office. (present)
- We'll be late. (future)
- We will have to take the train. (future)

We use would as the past of will, to describe past beliefs about the future:

- I thought we would be late, so we would have to take the train.

II. Willingness

We use will:

to talk about what people want to do or are willing to do:

- We'll see you tomorrow.
- Perhaps Dad will lend me the car.

We use **would** as the past tense of will:

to talk about what people wanted to do or were willing to do in the past:

- We had a terrible night. The baby wouldn't go to sleep.
- Dad wouldn't lend me the car, so we had to take the train.

D. Shall/Should/ Ought to/ need to/ have to

Shall: willingness, intention, suggestion, and insistence.

Should: obligation, necessity, expectation, and advisability.

I. Shall

Mainly used in American English to ask questions politely. For the future tense, will is more frequently used in American English than shall.

- Shall we dance?
- Shall I go now?
- Let's drink, shall we?

Often used in formal settings to deliver obligation or requirement:

- You shall abide by the law.
- There shall be no trespassing on this property.
- Students shall not enter this room.

II. Should (past form of shall)

Often used in auxiliary functions to express an opinion, suggestion, preference, or idea:

- You should rest at home today.
- I should take a bus this time.
- He should be more thoughtful in the decision-making process.

Used to express that you wish something had happened but it didn't or couldn't

- You should have seen it. It was really beautiful.
- I should have completed it earlier to meet the deadline.
- We should have visited the place on the way.

Used to ask for someone's opinion:

- What should we do now?
- Should we continue our meeting?
- Should we go this way?
- Where should we go this summer?

Used to say something expected or correct:

- There should be an old city hall building here.
- Everybody should arrive by 6 p.m.
- We should be there this evening.

E. Ought to

The use of **ought to** is similar to **should**, but it is much less frequent.

Like **should**, the verb **ought to** does not have a past form. It is only used with reference to the present and the future.

Ought to is used as follows:

to express an obligation or an expectation that someone should do something.

- You ought to listen carefully.
- We ought to leave now.
- Lucy ought to go by herself.
- People ought to be a bit nicer to us

F. must

Use of **must**

In general, **must** expresses personal obligation. **Must** expresses what the speaker thinks is necessary. Look at these examples:

- I must stop smoking.
- You must visit us soon.
- He must work harder

We can use **must** to talk about the present or the future. Look at these examples:

- I must go now. (present)

I must call my mother tomorrow. (future)

ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE

Transitive verbs have both **active** and **passive** forms:

active		passive
The hunter killed the lion.	>	The lion was killed by the hunter.
Someone has cleaned the windows.	>	The windows have been cleaned.

Passive forms are made up of **the verb be** with a **past participle**:

	<i>be</i>	past participle	
<i>English</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>spoken</i>	<i>all over the world.</i>
<i>The windows</i>	<i>have been</i>	<i>cleaned.</i>	
<i>Lunch</i>	<i>was being</i>	<i>served.</i>	
<i>The work</i>	<i>will be</i>	<i>finished</i>	<i>soon.</i>
<i>They</i>	<i>might have been</i>	<i>invited</i>	<i>to the party.</i>

If we want to show the person or thing doing the action, we use **by**:

*She was attacked **by** a dangerous dog.*

*The money was stolen **by** her husband.*

the passive infinitive is made up of **to be** with a **past participle**:

*The doors are going **to be locked** at ten o'clock.*

*You shouldn't have done that. You ought **to be punished**.*

We sometimes use **the verb get** with a **past participle** to form the passive:

*Be careful with that glass. It might **get broken**.*

*Peter **got hurt** in a crash.*

We can use the **indirect object** as the **subject** of a passive verb:

active		passive
<i>I gave him a book for his birthday.</i>	>	<i>He was given a book for his birthday.</i>
<i>Someone sent her a cheque for a thousand euros.</i>	>	<i>She was sent a cheque for a thousand euros.</i>

We can use **phrasal verbs** in the passive:

active		passive
<i>They called off the meeting.</i>	>	<i>The meeting was called off.</i>
<i>His grandmother looked after him.</i>	>	<i>He was looked after by his grandmother.</i>
<i>They will send him away to school.</i>	>	<i>He will be sent away to school.</i>

PHRASAL VERBS

Phrasal Verbs in English

Verb	Meaning	Example
bring up	mention a topic	My mother <u>brought up</u> that little matter of my prison record again.
bring up	raise children	It isn't easy to <u>bring up</u> children nowadays.
call off	cancel	They <u>called off</u> this afternoon's meeting
do over	repeat a job	<u>Do</u> this homework <u>over</u> .
fill out	complete a form	<u>Fill out</u> this application form and mail it in.
fill up	fill to capacity	She <u>filled up</u> the grocery cart with free food.
find out	discover	My sister <u>found out</u> that her husband had been planning a surprise party for her.
give away	give something to someone else for free	The filling station was <u>giving away</u> free gas.
give back	return an object	My brother borrowed my car. I have a feeling he's not about to <u>give</u> it <u>back</u> .

hand in	submit something (assignment)	The students <u>handed in</u> their papers and left the room.
hang up	put something on hook or receiver	She <u>hung up</u> the phone before she hung up her clothes.
hold up	delay	I hate to <u>hold up</u> the meeting, but I have to go to the bathroom.
leave out	omit	You <u>left out</u> the part about the police chase down Asylum Avenue.
look over	examine, check	The lawyers <u>looked over</u> the papers carefully before questioning the witness. (They <u>looked them over</u> carefully.)
look up	search in a list	You've misspelled this word again. You'd better <u>look it up</u> .
make up	invent a story or lie	She knew she was in trouble, so she <u>made up</u> a story about going to the movies with her friends.
make out	hear, understand	He was so far away, we really couldn't <u>make out</u> what he was saying.
pick out	choose	There were three men in the line-up. She <u>picked out</u> the guy she thought had stolen her purse.
pick up	lift something off something else	The crane <u>picked up</u> the entire house. (Watch them <u>pick it up</u> .)
point out	call attention to	As we drove through Paris, Francoise <u>pointed out</u> the major historical sites.
put away	save or store	We <u>put away</u> money for our retirement. She <u>put away</u> the cereal boxes.
put off	postpone	We asked the boss to <u>put off</u> the meeting until tomorrow. (Please <u>put it off</u> for another day.)
put on	put clothing on the body	I <u>put on</u> a sweater and a jacket. (I <u>put them on</u> quickly.)
put out	extinguish	The firefighters <u>put out</u> the house fire before it could spread. (They <u>put it out</u> quickly.)
read over	peruse	I <u>read over</u> the homework, but couldn't make any sense of it.
set up	to arrange, begin	My wife <u>set up</u> the living room exactly the way she wanted it. She <u>set it up</u> .
take down	make a written note	These are your instructions. <u>Write them down</u> before you forget.
take off	remove clothing	It was so hot that I had to <u>take off</u> my shirt.
talk over	discuss	We have serious problems here. Let's <u>talk them over</u> like adults.
throw away	discard	That's a lot of money! Don't just <u>throw it away</u> .

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SCHOOL OF SCIENCE AND HUMANITIES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

UNIT – III MODERN ENGLISH GRAMMAR [SHS1607]

ADJECTIVES

Functions of Adjectives

Adjectives describe the aspects of nouns. When an adjective is describing a noun, we say it is "modifying" it. Adjectives can:

Describe feelings or qualities

He is a lonely man.

They are honest.

Give nationality or origin

I heard a French song.

This clock is German.

Our house is Victorian.

Tell more about a thing's characteristics

That is a flashy car.

The knife is sharp.

Tell us about age,

He's a young man.

My coat is old.

Tell us about size and measurement

John is a tall man.

This film is long.

Tell us about colour,

Paul wore a red shirt.

The sunset was crimson.

Tell us what something is made of,

The table is wooden.

She wore a cotton dress.

Tell us about shape,

I sat at a round table.

The envelope is square.

Express a judgement or a value.

That was a fantastic film.

Grammar is complicated.

DEGREE OF COMPARISON

Degrees of Comparison are used when we compare one person or one thing with another.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

1. Rama's mango is sweet.
2. Hari's mango is sweeter than Rama's.
3. Govind's mango is the sweetest of all.

In sentence 1, the adjective sweet merely tells us that Rama's mango has the quality of sweetness, without saying how much of this quality it has.

In sentence 2, the adjective sweeter tells us that Hari's mango, compared with Rama's, has more of the quality of sweetness.

In sentence 3, the adjective *sweetest* tells us that of all these mangoes Govind's mango has the greatest amount or highest degree of the quality of sweetness.

We thus see that Adjectives change in form (*sweet, sweeter, sweetest*) to show comparison. They are called the three Degrees of Comparison.

The Adjective *sweet* is said to be in the **Positive Degree**.

The Adjective *sweeter* is said to be in the **Comparative Degree**.

The Adjective *sweetest* is said to be in the **Superlative Degree**.

The Positive Degree of an Adjective is the Adjective in its simple form. It is used to denote the mere existence of some quality of what we speak about. It is used when no comparison is made.

The Comparative Degree of an Adjective denotes a higher degree of the quality than the Positive, and is used when two things (or sets of things) are compared; as,
This boy is stronger than that.

Which of these two pens is the better?

Apples are dearer than oranges.

The **Superlative Degree** of an Adjective denotes the highest degree of the quality, and is used when more than two things (or sets of things) are compared; as,

This boy is the strongest in the class.

Note 1:- There is another way in which we can compare things. Instead of saying 'Rama is stronger than Balu' we can say 'Balu is less strong than Rama'. Instead of saying 'Hari is the laziest boy in the class', we can say 'Hari is the least industrious boy in the class'.

Note 2:- **The Superlative** with *most* is sometimes used where there is no idea of comparison, but merely a desire to indicate the possession of a quality in a very high degree; as,

This is most unfortunate.

It was a most eloquent speech.

Truly, a most ingenious device!

This usage has been called the **Superlative of Eminence**, or the **Absolute Superlative**.

Formation of Comparative and Superlative

Most Adjectives of one syllable, and some of more than one, form the Comparative by adding *er* and the Superlative by adding *est* to the positive.

Positive -- Comparative -- Superlative

Sweet -- sweeter -- sweetest

Small -- smaller -- smallest

Tall -- taller -- tallest

Bold -- bolder -- boldest

Clever -- cleverer -- cleverest

Kind -- kinder -- kindest

Young -- younger -- youngest

Great -- greater -- greatest

When the Positive ends in *e*, only *r* and *st* are added.

Brave -- braver -- bravest
Fine -- finer -- finest
White -- whiter -- whitest
Large -- larger -- largest
Able -- abler -- ablest
Noble -- nobler -- noblest
Wise -- wiser -- wisest

When the Positive ends in j, preceded by a consonant, the y is changed into i before adding er and est.

Happy -- happier -- happiest
Easy -- easier -- easiest
Heavy -- heavier -- heaviest
Merry -- merrier -- merriest
Wealthy -- wealthier -- wealthiest

When the Positive is a word of one syllable and ends in a single consonant, preceded by a short vowel, this consonant is doubled before adding er and est.

Red -- redder -- reddest
Big -- bigger -- biggest
Hot -- hotter -- hottest
Thin -- thinner -- thinnest
Sad -- sadder -- saddest
Fat -- fatter -- fattest

Adjectives of more than two syllables form the Comparative and Superlative by putting more and most before the Positive.

Positive -- Comparative -- Superlative

Beautiful -- more beautiful -- most beautiful
Difficult -- more difficult -- most difficult
Industrious -- more industrious -- most industrious
Courageous -- more courageous -- most courageous
Two-syllable adjectives ending in -ful (e.g. useful), -less (e.g. hopeless), -ing (e.g. boring) and -ed (e.g. surprised) and many others (e.g. modern, recent, foolish, famous, certain) take more and most.

The following take either er and est or more and most. :

polite
simple
feeble
gentle
narrow
cruel
common
handsome
pleasant
stupid

She is politer/more polite than her sister.

He is the politest/most polite of them.

The-Comparative-in er is not used when we compare two qualities in the same person or thing. If we wish to say that the courage of Rama is greater than the courage of Balu, we say

Rama is braver than Balu.

But if we wish to say that the courage of Rama is greater than his prudence, we must say, Rama is more brave than prudent.

When two objects are compared with each other, the latter term of comparison must exclude the former; as,

Iron is more useful than any other metal.

If we say,

Iron is more useful than any metal, that is the same thing as saying 'Iron is more useful than iron' since iron is itself a metal.

Irregular Comparison

The following Adjectives are compared irregularly, that is, their Comparative and Superlative are not formed from the Positive:-

Positive -- Comparative -- Superlative

Good, well -- better -- best

Bad, evil, ill -- worse -- worst

Little -- less, lesser -- least

Much -- more -- most (quantity)

Many -- more -- most (number)

Late -- later, latter -- latest, last

Old -- older, elder -- oldest, eldest

Far -- farther -- farthest

(Nigh) -- (nigher) -- (nighest), next

(Fore) -- (former) -- foremost, first

(Fore) -- further -- furthest

(In) -- inner -- inmost, innermost

(Up) -- upper -- upmost, uppermost

(Out) -- outer, (utter) -- utmost, uttermost

ADVERBS & ITS KINDS

An adverb is a word used to modify a verb, adjective, or another adverb. An adverb usually modifies by telling how, when, where, why, under what conditions, or to what degree. An adverb is often formed by adding *-ly* to an adjective.

Kinds of Adverbs:

There are different kinds of adverbs expressing different meanings. The following are some of the common ones.

1. Adverb of time

An adverb of time tells us when something is done or happens. We use it at the beginning or at the end of a sentence. We use it as a form of emphasis when we place it at the beginning.

Adverbs of time include **afterwards, already, always, immediately, last month, now, soon, then, and yesterday.**

Examples:

- He collapsed and died **yesterday**.
- His factory was burned down **a few months ago**.
- **Last week**, we were stuck in the lift for an hour.

2. Adverb of place

An adverb of place tells us where something is done or happens. We use it after the verb, direct object or at the end of a sentence. Adverbs of place include words such as **above, below, here, outside, over there, there, under, and upstairs.**

Examples:

- We can stop **here** for lunch.
- The schoolboy was knocked **over** by a school bus.
- They rushed for their lives when fire broke out in the floor **below**.

3. Adverb of Manner

An adverb of manner tells us how something is done or happens. Most adverbs of manner end in **-ly** such as **badly, happily, sadly, slowly, quickly**, and others that include **well, hard** and **fast**.

Examples:

- The brothers were **badly** injured in the fight.
- They had to act **fast** to save the others floating on the water.
- At the advanced age of 88, she still sang very **well**.

4. Adverb of Degree

An adverb of degree tells us the level or extent that something is done or happens. Words of adverb of degree are **almost, much, nearly, quite, really, so, too, very**, etc.

Examples:

- It was **too** dark for us to find our way out of the cave. (Before adjective)
- The referee had to stop the match when it began to rain **really** heavily. (Before adverb)
- Her daughter is **quite** fat for her age.
- The accident victim **nearly** died from his injuries.
- After all these years, she is still feeling **very** sad about her father's death.

5. Adverb of frequency

An adverb of frequency tells us how often something is done or happens.

Words used as adverbs of frequency include **again, almost, always, ever, frequently, generally, hardly**

ever, nearly, nearly always, never, occasionally, often, rarely, seldom, sometimes, twice, usually and weekly.

Examples:

- They were **almost** fifty when they got married.
- He hardly **ever** says something nice to his wife.
- While overseas, he **frequently** phoned home.
- She is not **nearly** always right although she thinks she is **always** right.
- He complained that she **never** smiled back.
- We only write to each other very **occasionally**.
- Peter **seldom** reads the Bible.

ORDER OF ADJECTIVES

In many languages, **adjectives** denoting attributes usually occur in a specific order.

Quantity or number

Let's talk about the first one – quantity.

These adjectives answer the question “How much?” or “How many?” They can refer to specific numbers, like two or 31, or to more general amounts, like “whole” “half” “a lot” or “several.”

Let's hear an example:

I'm about to order two large pizzas. Which toppings do you like?

The adjective “two” comes before the adjective “large” and they both describe the noun “pizza.”

If the person had said, “I'm about to order large two pizzas,” the listeners would have probably been confused. That's strong evidence that these are cumulative adjectives.

Quality or opinion

Next in word order comes opinion adjectives, which express how we feel about something. Descriptive words like “tasty” “strong” “ugly” “costly” “**stubborn**” and “happy” are examples of our opinions.

For instance:

I ordered two tasty large pizzas for the game.

The three adjectives -- two, large and tasty -- all work as a group to build meaning onto one another rather than act as individual descriptions of the noun “pizza.”

Size

OK, now onto size. This includes any number of descriptive size words, such as “large” “big” and “little.”

In our pizza example, the size (large) follows the established order.

Here it is again. Listen for the word “large” after the other adjectives.

I ordered two tasty large pizzas for the game.

Age

OK, next is age. This can refer to specific age adjectives, such as 16-year-old, or such words as “young” “old” “middle-aged” and so on.

One thing to note is that, in English, it is possible but not common for more than three adjectives to describe one noun in speech or writing.

In addition, not all native speakers or English experts put age after opinion. With that in mind, consider this example:

*The big old ugly pick-up truck **pattered** along the road.*

That is how I – along with many American English speakers – would say it. Notice that I put the word “old” before the opinion “ugly.”

But, based on the traditional order, it would go like this:

The ugly big old pick-up truck pattered along the road.

Shape

Next up, we have shape. This includes words like “long” “short” and “round” or words for specific shapes, like **square**.

Here’s how you might use it:

The ugly big old wide pick-up truck pattered along the road.

That’s a lot of adjectives for one noun -- a rarity but not impossible.

Color

And now we come to color. We normally use color adjectives to describe objects and animals:

The ugly big old wide red pick-up truck pattered along the road.

Does this sound like too many descriptive words? That’s because it probably is.

Origin

Alright, let’s talk about the next group: **origin**, ethnicity and religion. Words like Persian or Christian fall in this group.

But, instead of putting several adjectives before one noun, let’s hear what a real person might say:

*We found a beautiful 200-year-old blue Persian **rug**.*

Material

OK, then there’s material. Material adjectives are usually nouns that act as adjectives when used to describe other nouns -- like metal, paper and **silk**.

We’ll build on the rug example, like this:

*We found a beautiful 200-year-old blue Persian **silk rug**.*

As you can hear, five adjectives do not sound very appealing! But technically speaking, it is both correct and acceptable.

Purpose

Finally, we have purpose. Remember back when I described the bike I hoped to buy? I used the word “folding” to describe a very specific kind of bike.

For purpose adjectives, we usually also use a noun as an adjective. “Folding” is a gerund – a kind of noun ending in *-ing*.

So, let’s suppose I got my wish. I might say this:

My pretty new electric folding bike is so much fun! I’m very happy with it.

TYPES OF ADVERBS AND THEIR POSITIONS

Different types of adverbs go in different places.

Type	Position	Example
Manner	<p>They usually go in end position.</p> <p>They sometimes go in mid position if the adverb is not the most important part of the clause or if the object is very long.</p>	<p><i>She ate quickly.</i></p> <p><i>She quickly ate her dinner and ran out.</i></p>
Place	<p>They usually go in end position.</p> <p>They sometimes go in front position, especially in writing.</p>	<p><i>Can you come over here?</i></p> <p><i>We'll be at that table there.</i></p> <p><i>Here she sat.</i></p> <p><i>Outside, there was a small pond.</i></p>
Time	<p>They usually go in end position.</p> <p>They sometimes go in front position especially if we want to emphasise the adverb.</p>	<p><i>I'm flying to Edinburgh tomorrow.</i></p> <p><i>Today, I'm going to clean the house.</i></p>
Duration	<p>They usually go in end position.</p>	<p><i>I'm not staying long.</i></p>
Frequency	<p>They usually go in mid position.</p> <p>They sometimes go in front position.</p> <p>They can also go in end position.</p> <p><i>Always, ever and never</i> do not usually go in front position.</p>	<p><i>We often have friends to stay.</i></p> <p><i>I usually get up late on weekends.</i></p> <p><i>I could never swim fast.</i></p> <p><i>Sometimes she wore a woollen hat.</i></p> <p><i>We don't see them very often.</i></p> <p>Not: Never I could swim fast.</p>
Degree	<p><i>Really, very, quite</i> usually go in mid position.</p> <p><i>A lot</i> and <i>a bit</i> usually go in end position.</p>	<p><i>I really like those pink flowers.</i></p> <p><i>We go to Ireland a lot.</i></p> <p><i>I'd just like to change things a bit.</i></p>
Focusing	<p>They usually go in mid position.</p>	<p><i>He simply walked out without saying a word.</i></p>

Type	Position	Example
Certainty or obligation	Some go in mid position: <i>probably, possibly, certainly</i> . Others go in front position: <i>maybe, perhaps</i> or in end positions after a comma.	<i>It'll probably rain.</i> <i>Maybe Nick will know the answer.</i> <i>Can I get you a drink, or something to eat, perhaps?</i>
Viewpoint	They usually go outside the clause, often at the beginning. They can sometimes go in mid position, especially in formal writing.	<i>Personally, I'd rather not go out.</i> <i>This must, frankly, be the craziest idea anyone has ever had.</i>
Evaluative	They usually go outside the clause, often at the beginning. They can sometimes go in mid position. In informal speaking they can go in end position.	<i>Unfortunately, I forgot my swimming costume so I had to sit on the side and watch.</i> <i>We have stupidly forgotten the tickets.</i> <i>They missed the bus, apparently.</i>

Conjunctions & Its Types

Conjunction is a word that connects or joins clauses, words, phrases together in a sentence.

Conjunctions are used to coordinate words in a sentence.

Three types of conjunctions are

1. Coordinating Conjunctions
2. Subordinating Conjunctions
3. Correlative Conjunctions

Conjunctions are very important words used in English. You use them every day! A

Conjunction is a word that joins parts of a sentence, phrases or other words together.

Conjunctions are used as single words or in pairs.

Example: **and, but, or** are used by themselves, **whereas, neither/nor, either/or** are conjunction pairs.

1. Coordinating conjunctions– are single words that join similar words or phrases or elements.

Coordinating Conjunctions link equal parts of a sentence including clauses and phrases. A comma is used when two a coordinating conjunction is used to **join two independent clauses**.

The most commonly used coordinating conjunctions are easily remembered by the mnemonic **FANBOYS: For, And, Nor, But, Or, Yet, So**.

- **For**- It explains reason or sights purpose.
- **And**- It helps to add one clause or phrase to another similar one.
- **Nor**- It is used to add a negative idea to an already existing negative idea.
- **But**- Helps to show a contrast.
- **Or**- Helps to add an alternative to an already existing positive alternative.
- **Yet**- Provides a contrasting idea to an existing logical idea or point.

Example:

- *She couldn't make it to the meeting, **so** I had to take over.*
- *I love ice- cream **but** due to the flu, I couldn't have it.*
- *Would you like rice **or** noodles with your Chinese gravy?*
- *I don't like apples **nor** do I like pears.*
- *My sister **and** I look alike.*

2. Subordinating Conjunction:

The subordinating conjunction is a type of conjunction that connects or joins an independent clause with a subordinate clause. An independent clause is essentially a clause that can exist by itself in a given sentence which means that it doesn't need any additional information to exist.

A subordinate or dependent clause is one which **cannot exist** by itself as a sentence and only provides some **additional information** to the main clause. Sentences where there is an independent and at least one dependent clause, it is known as a complex sentence. Subordinating conjunctions are therefore found in complex sentences where they try to join or link the clauses together.

The subordinating conjunctions are many in number and we use them regularly in our daily communication without knowing. Subordinating conjunctions have different properties and they can be grouped accordingly:

- Those which show cause and effect(that show reason)
- Those which show the significance of time or place
- Those which show condition

Subordinating conjunctions that show Cause and Effect:

Few commonly used subordinating conjunctions that show cause and effect are because, since, though, as, hence, as a result of, in order that, so that, even though, although, unless, because of, unless, provided that etc. These conjunctions are used to show the cause and effect of something

- *I took an umbrella **because** it was raining.*
- ***Although** she was disabled, she was involved in many social service campaigns.*
- *He was working very hard **while** his wife was recovering at home.*
- ***Though** they were not very rich, they made yearly donations for the betterment of society.*
- *Ever **since** she left her job, she has been actively taking care of her children at home.*
 - *I am not going to work because I am sick.*
 - *I will not release her payment unless she completes her work.*

Subordinating conjunctions that show the significance of Time or Place:

Few subordinating conjunctions are used to show the transition of place or time. Examples of this type of conjunctions are where, wherever, as soon as, as long as, once, when, till, until, while, whenever etc. Some examples are given below

- ***Whenever** his wife was out working, he would take care of the house.*
- ***As long as** she lived, she took care of the orphanage.*
- *I won't be back in Mumbai **until** early next week.*
- *The child ran to her mother **as soon as** she saw her.*

3. Correlative Conjunctions:

Correlative Conjunctions are paired conjunctions that are generally used together.

Correlative conjunctions work in pairs to join words, phrases, or clauses. The correlative conjunctions are ***either...or, neither...nor, both...and, not only...but also, whether...or.***

- ***Either** he **or** she cooks dinner.*
- *I have **neither** tea **nor** coffee.*
- *He is **not only** intelligent, **but also** very funny.*
- *Would you **rather** go shopping **or** spend the day at the beach?*

Correlative conjunctions are sort of like tag-team conjunctions. They come in pairs, and you have to use both of them in different places in a sentence to make them work. They get their name from the fact that they work together (co-) and relate one sentence element to another.

Correlative conjunctions include pairs such as “both/and,” “either/or,” “neither/nor,” “not/but” and “not only/but also.” For example:

- either/or - I want **either** the cheesecake **or** the chocolate cake.
- both/and - We’ll have **both** the cheesecake **and** the chocolate cake.
- whether/or - I didn’t know **whether** you’d want the cheesecake **or** the chocolate cake, so I got both.
- neither/nor - Oh, you want **neither** the cheesecake **nor** the chocolate cake? No problem.
- not only/but also - I’ll eat them both - **not only** the cheesecake **but also** the chocolate cake.

FINITE AND NON-FINITE CLAUSES

I. Finite clause

A finite clause is a main clause or a subordinate clause that must have a verb to show tense.

The verb can be in the present tense or past tense. The tense can be changed from the present tense to the past tense or past tense to the present tense. Because the verb in the present tense or past tense is called a finite verb, the clause that contains a finite verb is called a finite clause.

Examples:

- The fishermen **are mending** their nets.
(Present tense is used in the finite/main clause.)
- We **dined** at a cheap restaurant last night.
(Past tense used in the finite/main clause.)
- We **were not allowed** in because we **arrived** late.
(Past tense is used in the main clause [finite clause] **we were not allowed in** and in the subordinate clause [finite clause] **because we arrived late**.)

II. Non-finite clause

A **non-finite clause** is a subordinate clause that is based on a to-infinitive or a participle. It contains a verb that does not show tense, which means it does not show the time at which something happened. There are three types of nonfinite clauses.

a) To-infinitive clause

In this clause, the verb comes after the word **to**.

- He gave up his job **to travel the world**.
- We wanted **to ask her to come along**.
- The person **to make the report to at the police station** was the Sergeant.

b) Present participle clause (or –ing clause)

In this clause, the verb ending in – **ing** is used.

- He is a thoroughly spoilt child **being the only one in the family**.
- You are the only one capable of **solving the problem**.
- **Before becoming a bank robber**, he was a police officer.
- **Seeing no employment prospect**, he became self-employed.

c) Past participle clause

In this clause, the past participle form of the verb is used.

- **Trained as an acrobat since young**, she has amazed audiences with her superb skills.
- All the children, **gathered in that group**, were ready to perform a traditional dance.
- A woman **recognized as one of the hostages** was found unharmed in the building.
- The child intends to be a bank robber **when asked what he would like to be**.

NEGATION

When we want to say that something is not true or is not the case, we can use negative words, phrases or clauses. Negation can happen in a number of ways, most commonly, when we use a negative word such as *no*, *not*, *never*, *none*, *nobody*, etc:

A: *Is there a bus at ten o'clock?*

B: **No.** *The last one goes at nine forty-five.* (*No* = There isn't a bus at ten o'clock.)

Kieran doesn't play the piano. (It is not true that Kieran plays the piano.)

The most common negative words are *no* and *not*. Other negative words include:

neither, *never*, *no one*, *nobody*, *none*, *nor*, *nothing*, *nowhere*:

*She's **never** been abroad.*

*There were **no** newspapers left in the shop by one o'clock.*

***Nobody** came to the house for several days.*

Neither, neither ... nor and not ... either

a. Neither :

Neither allows us to make a negative statement about two people or things at the same time. *Neither* goes before singular countable nouns.

***Neither** parent came to meet the teacher.* (The mother didn't come and the father didn't come.)

***Neither** dress fitted her.* (There were two dresses and not one of them fitted her.)

b. Neither ... nor:

We can use *neither* as a conjunction with *nor*. It connects two or more negative alternatives. This can sound formal in speaking:

***Neither** Brian **nor** his wife mentioned anything about moving house.* (Brian didn't mention that they were moving house and his wife didn't mention that they were moving house.)

***Neither** Italy **nor** France got to the quarter finals last year.*

c. No one, nobody, nothing, nowhere

No one, nobody, nothing and nowhere are indefinite pronouns.

We use *no one, nobody, nothing* and *nowhere* to refer to an absence of people, things or places. We use them with a **singular** verb:

Nobody ever goes to see her. She's very lonely.

You usually have to wait for a long time. ***Nothing*** happens quickly.

There was ***nowhere*** to park the car.

No one remembers the titles of the books they've read.

No one or nobody?

No one and *nobody* mean the same. *Nobody* is a little less formal than *no one*. We use *no one* more than *nobody* in writing:

I knew ***nobody*** at the party.

No one moved; ***no one*** said anything.

We write *no one* as two separate words or with a hyphen: *no one* or *no-one* but not ~~*noone*~~.

Nobody or not ... anybody, etc.

Nobody, no one, nothing, nowhere are stronger and more definite than *not ... anybody/anyone/anything/anywhere*:

I did ***nothing***. (stronger than *I didn't do anything*.)

She told ***no one***, not even her mother. (stronger than *She didn't tell anyone ...*)

Nothing will make me change my mind.

Not: ~~Not anything will make me change my mind.~~

We don't use *nobody, no one, nothing, nowhere* after *no, not, never* or other words which have a negative meaning (*hardly, seldom*). We use *anyone, anybody, anything, anywhere*:

I can't do ***anything***.

Not: ~~I can't do nothing.~~

She talks to ***hardly anyone***.

Not: ~~She talks to hardly no one.~~

d. We can also make negative meanings using prefixes (e.g. *de-, dis-, un-*) and suffixes (*-less*):

*He was very **disrespectful** to the teacher.*

*This new printer is **useless**; it's always breaking down.*

We can also use the following words to make negative or negative-like statements:

few, hardly, little, rarely, scarcely, seldom.

*There are **rarely** ducks in this pond.*

*We **seldom** hear any noise at night.*

II. Forming negative statements, questions and imperatives:

A. Negative statements

We form negative statements with *not* or *n't* after *be*, modal and auxiliary verbs.

*Jan **isn't** coming. She's not feeling very well.*

*She **might not** be joking. It could be true.*

*I **hadn't** decided whether to take the train or go in the car.*

*They **can't** be hungry again. They've only just eaten.*

B. Negative questions

We use *not* or *n't* to form negative questions. When there is no modal verb or *be*, we use auxiliary verb *do* + *n't* (*don't, do not, doesn't, does not, didn't*):

*Why **didn't** you ask Linda?*

*What **don't** you understand?*

***Won't** we able to see the film?*

***Isn't** that Mike's brother?*

C. Negative imperatives

We use *do* + *not* or *don't* + the base form of a verb to form negative orders or commands:

***Do not** open until instructed.*

***Don't** take the car. Go on your bike.*

III. Negative prefixes and suffixes

We use these prefixes most commonly in negation: *de-, dis-, il-/im-/in-/ir-, mis-, non-, un-*:
*What he said was very **impolite**.*

*There was a **misunderstanding** about who should sign the contract.*

*The refugees also need **non**-food items such as tents and blankets. (items which are not food)*

-less is the most common suffix for negation:

*Too many people are **homeless** in this city.*

We just have endless meetings at work – they're so boring.

IV. Negation: emphasising

When we want to emphasise something negative, we often use *at all*. We normally use *at all* immediately after the word or phrase we are emphasising:

*There's **nothing at all** left in the fridge.*

*I'd rather **not** be here **at all**.*

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SCHOOL OF SCIENCE AND HUMANITIES

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

UNIT – IV MODERN ENGLISH GRAMMAR [SHS1607]

TRANSFORMATION OF SENTENCES

(SIMPLE, COMPOUND, COMPLEX SENTENCES)

Simple sentence: A Simple sentence is also called an independent clause. It contains a Subject and a Verb, and it expresses a complete thought.

Some students like to study in the morning.

Mother ordered a birthday cake.

Compound sentence: A compound sentence consists of two main clauses of equal importance, joined together with a conjunction.

I like coffee and she likes tea.

I can go to college or study at home.

Complex sentence: A complex sentence consists of an independent clause and one or more dependent clauses.

After the storm hit the town, trees lay broken in the streets.

I am glad to know that he had succeeded.

Conversion of simple sentence into complex sentences

a) By expanding a word or a phrase into a noun clause

1. Simple : I was glad to know of his success.

Complex : I was glad to know that he had succeeded.

2. Simple : He pleaded ignorance of the law.

Complex : He pleaded that he was ignorant of the law.

3. Simple : The report of his failure has surprised us all.

Complex : The report that he has failed has surprised us all.

b) **By expanding a word or a phrase into an adjective clause**

1. Simple : A dead man tells no tales.

Complex : A man who is dead tells no tales.

2. Simple : The boy with the blue shirt is our Captain.

Complex : The boy who is wearing blue shirt is our Captain.

3. Simple : I still remember the joys of my childhood.

Complex : I still remember the joys which I experienced in my childhood.

c) By expanding a word or a phrase into an adverb clause

1. Simple : He felt sorry on finding out his mistake. (Time)
Complex : He felt sorry when he found out his mistake.
2. Simple : Being rich, he can afford this expensive treatment. (Cause/ reason)
Complex : As he is rich, he can afford this expensive treatment.
3. Simple : He is too simple minded to see through the game.
Complex : He is so simple minded that he can not see through the game.
4. Simple : He is working day and night to improve his prospects. (Purpose)
Complex : He is working day and night so that he may improve his prospects.

Conversion of complex sentences into simple sentences

a) By converting a noun clause into a word or a phrase

1. Complex : I am responsible for what I do.
Simple : I am responsible for my actions.
2. Complex : He wanted to know why he had been dismissed.
Simple : He wanted to know the reason for his dismissal.

b) By converting an adjective clause into a word or a phrase

1. Complex : All that glitters is not gold.
Simple : All glittering things are not gold.
2. Complex : He can not forget the losses that he has suffered.
Simple : He can not forget the losses suffered by him.

c) By converting an adverb clause into a word or a phrase

1. Complex : You may do it when you please.
Simple : You may do it at your pleasure.
2. Complex : Because he was ill, he stayed at home.
Simple : He stayed at home on account of his illness.

Conversion of Simple sentences into Compound sentences

a) By using Cumulative Conjunctions like, and, not only...but also, etc.

1. Simple : Taking off his clothes, he jumped into the river.
Compound : He took off his clothes and jumped into the river.

2. Simple : In addition to useful advice, he gave me financial help.

Compound : He gave me not only a useful advice but also a financial help.

b) By using Adversative Conjunctions like, but, still, yet, etc.

1. Simple : In spite of very bad weather, they succeeded in conquering Mt. Everest.

Compound : The weather was very bad, still they succeeded in conquering Mt. Everest.

2. Simple : He had every qualification for the post except sincerity.

Compound : He had every qualification for the post, but he was not sincere.

c) By using Alternative Conjunctions like, or, otherwise, else, etc.

1. Simple : You must take rich diet to gain weight.

Compound : You must take rich diet, or you will not gain weight.

2. Simple : Take another step at the peril of your life.

Compound : Don't take another step, else your life will be at the peril.

Conversion of Compound sentences into simple sentences

a) By using Prepositional phrase

1. Compound : He is a Russian by birth, but he speaks Hindi like his mother tongue.

Simple : In spite of being a Russian by birth, He speaks Hindi like his mother tongue.

2. Compound : This book is not beautifully printed, but is free from mistakes also.

Simple : Besides being beautifully printed, this book is free from mistakes.

b) By using Participle

1. Compound : The umpire found the light poor and decided to call off the day's play.

Simple : Finding the light poor, the umpire decided to call off the day's play.

c) By using Infinitive

1. Compound : You must observe austerity, or you will not become morally strong.

Simple : You must observe austerity to become morally strong.

Conversion of Compound sentences into complex sentences

a) Compound sentences with Cumulative conjunctions, and

1. Compound : He wanted to win the prize and worked hard.

Complex : He worked hard so that he might win the prize.

b) Compound sentences with Adversative conjunctions like but, still, however, nevertheless etc.

1. Compound : Attend your classes regularly, or you will fall short of attendance.

Complex : If you do not attend your classes regularly, you will fall short of attendance.

c) Compound sentences with Alternative conjunctions like or, otherwise, else, therefore either...or etc.

1. Compound : I cannot afford to buy many books, therefore I usually study in the library.

Complex : Since I can not afford to buy many books, I usually study in the library.

Conversion of Complex sentences into Compound sentences

a) **By using Cumulative conjunctions, and**

1. Complex : Everybody knows that man is mortal.

Compound : Man is mortal and this fact everybody knows.

2. Complex : If I am right, I should be supported.

Compound : I may be right and in that case I should be supported.

b) **By using Adversative conjunctions like but, still, however, nevertheless etc.**

1. Complex : Although they lost the match, they were not disgraced.

Compound : They lost the match, but they were not disgraced.

c) **By using Alternative conjunctions like or, otherwise, else, either...or etc.**

1. Complex : If you don't surrender your arms immediately, you will be shot dead.

Compound : Surrender your arms immediately, or you will be shot dead.

SENTENCE STRUCTURE: STATEMENTS, QUESTIONS AND EXCLAMATIONS

Simple sentences may be divided into 4 major syntactic types which correlate with four classes of discourse functions:

DECLARATIVE: They keep the structure S+P. The verb can be in the affirmative or in the negative form. They correspond to statements, whose main aim function is to convey information.

INTERROGATIVE : They are divided in two classes:

Yes / No questions: require the presence of an operator before the subject

Wh- questions: require the presence of a wh- element followed by the operator and the subject. They correspond to questions which seek information on a specific point.

IMPERATIVES They do not have an overt grammatical subject. They correspond to directives, whose main function is to instruct somebody to do something.

EXCLAMATIONS They are characterised by the presence of an initial WHAT / HOW phrase. They keep the regular order S + P. They correspond to Exclamations, whose main function is to express the speaker's impression about something.

Notice that **syntactic type** and **discourse functions** do not always match. For example, some declaratives are semantically a question: *You've got the tickets?*

While some rhetorical questions are semantically a statement: *Haven't you got anything better to do?*

DECLARATIVES: Affirmative & Negative sentences

AFFIRMATIVE SENTENCES

In the affirmative sentence:

- The subject is normally present
- The subject usually precedes the verb (*John drinks beer*)

But sometimes the order may change:

- In the case of declaratives without a subject there is a **situational ellipsis**
Sorry about that / See you later
- When the subject is given special **emphasis** the verb comes first
Out rushed the thief
- **MUCH / MANY**, when they are followed by an object, take an initial position
Many trout has he fished in this river
- A structure with **HERE / THERE** and the verb 'to be' also falls in an initial position
Here's the milkman (meaning: *at last!*)

QUESTIONS

Questions are used to express lack of information on a specific point, and to request the listener to supply this information verbally.

Questions can be divided into three major classes according to the answer they expect:

Yes / No questions: Those that expect only affirmation or negation

Have you bought the eggs?

Wh- questions: Those that contain a wh- element and expect an answer from an open range of answers.

What's his name?

Alternative questions: They expect as an answer one of two or more options presented in the question.

Would you like tea or coffee?

Other minor classes of questions are:

Exclamatory questions: They function as an exclamation but are questions in form
Has he grown?

Rhetorical questions: This type of question doesn't expect an answer; moreover
it has the force of an assertion.
Isn't his car red? (surely his car is red)

YES-NO QUESTIONS

This type of questions are characterised because of the type of answer they require: they expect an affirmative or negative answer.

One of its main features is the presence of an **operator**. This operator is normally placed before the subject:

BE and modal auxiliaries are used as operator.

Are you ok?

Also main verb **HAVE** (BrE); informally **HAVE?GOT**

Have you (got) a cold?

If there is no item in the verb phrase that can function as operator, **DO** is introduced.

Do they work in a hospital?

C. DECLARATIVE QUESTIONS

A declarative question is formed by a statement with a final rising intonation. There are two types according to the orientation of the statement:

- Statements with a positive form have a positive orientation:

You've got the tickets?

You understand what I mean?

- Statements with a negative form have a negative orientation:

Nobody called last night?

You didn't drink anything?

Declarative questions are used as an alternative formula for recapitulatory question.

What did you say?

I beg your pardon? (Reduced form: pardon?)

WH- QUESTIONS

These questions demand an answer containing some information required by an interrogative word. Their main features are:

The presence of interrogative words: **WHO, WHOM, WHOSE, WHAT, WHICH, WHEN, WHERE, HOW, WHY.**

A clause element containing the Wh- comes first. The Wh. Word takes the first position in the clause.

What school do you study at?

(But also: *At what school do you study?* ? formal)

They have a falling intonation.

Interrogative words are used to differentiate person and/or clause function. The most frequent interrogative words are:

WHO

This is used to ask about a person's identity. It can be SUBJECT, OBJECT or COMPLEMENT OF A PREPOSITION. A special formal variant is **WHOM**. This always functions:

- As an object.
- As complement of a preposition.

For whom do the bells toll?

Another variant is **WHOSE**:

- It indicates possession
- It can be used as a determiner within a NP
- It can also be used as a pronoun with personal reference

Whose car have you borrowed?

Whose is this car?

WHAT

This is mainly used with non-human reference as an alternative to WHO

What did you see?

It can be SUBJECT, OBJECT or COMPLEMENT of a preposition. It can also be used as a determiner.

What language do they speak?

WHAT is also used as a **recapitulatory question**.

What did you say?

But notice that *?What??* is impolite (except among friends). AN alternative formula is used instead:

I beg your pardon? / Pardon? / Sorry? (BrE)

It is also used as an **Exclamatory question** showing general incredulity:

I bought her a new car

What? You must be mad

WHICH

This interrogative word is used to identify one out of a number of people or things. It has both human and non-human reference. It can function as SUBJECT, OBJECT or COMPLEMENT of a PREPOSITION. And it can also be used as a determiner.

Which car do you prefer?

HOW

This word is used to identify a clause of manner. To ask about the method used for doing something, or about the way in which something can be answered. The reference can be an adverb, an adjective or a clause:

- It is also a modifier of adjectives. It can be combined with an adjective when you ask to what extent something has a particular quality or feature.

How big is it?

– And adverbs:

How much do you want?

HOW can be combined with other words at the beginning of questions:

How many and **how much** are used to ask what number of things there are or what amount of something there is. ?How many? is followed by a plural countable noun and ?how much? by an uncountable noun.

WHEN

This word is used to ask questions about the time something happened, happens or will happen.

When did you meet her?

WHERE

This word is used to ask questions about place, position or direction.

Where does she live?

WHY

It is used to ask a question about the reason for something:

Why are you here?

EXCLAMATIONS

Exclamations are words and sentences that express something emphatically.

As a formal category of sentences, exclamative sentences are restricted to introductory **WHAT** and **HOW**. Their main features are:

They appear at initial position, but there is no subject-operator inversion.

The wh- word can only appear where an expression of degree is possible.

How quickly they learn.

They can be transformed into statements by using the emphatic degree items **SUCH** and **SO**.

He scored such a goal!

You learn so quickly!

In speech, they are frequently reduced by ellipsis of the other parts of the sentence.

What a girl!

How quickly!

5. There are exclamations that show reaction.

Good Heavens!

Oh, dear!

Bother! (porras!)

NOMINAL CLAUSE

In English grammar, a *noun clause* is a dependent clause that functions as a noun (that is, as a subject, object, or complement) within a sentence. Also known as a *nominal clause*.

Two common types of noun clause in English are *that*-clauses and *wh*-clauses:

- **that-clause:** I believe *that everything happens for a reason*.
- **wh-clause:** How do I know *what I think*, until I see *what I say*?
- How to Form Relative Clauses
- Imagine, a girl is talking to Tom. You want to know who she is and ask a friend whether he knows her. You could say:
- A girl is talking to Tom. Do you know the girl?
- That sounds rather complicated, doesn't it? It would be easier with a relative clause: you put both pieces of information into one sentence. Start with the most important thing – you want to know who the girl is.
- Do you know the girl ...
- As your friend cannot know which girl you are talking about, you need to put in the additional information – the girl is talking to Tom. Use „the girl“ only in the first part of the sentence, in the second part replace it with the relative pronoun (for people, use the relative pronoun „who“). So the final sentence is:
- Do you know the girl **who** is talking to Tom?

Relative Pronouns

relative pronoun	use	example
who	subject or object pronoun for people	I told you about the woman <i>who</i> lives next door.
which	subject or object pronoun for animals and things	Do you see the cat <i>which</i> is lying on the roof?
which	referring to a whole sentence	He couldn't read, <i>which</i> surprised me.

whose	possession for people animals and things	Do you know the boy <i>whose</i> mother is a nurse?
whom	object pronoun for people, especially in non-defining relative clauses (in defining relative clauses we colloquially prefer <i>who</i>)	I was invited by the professor <i>whom</i> I met at the conference.
that	subject or object pronoun for people, animals and things in defining relative clauses (<i>who</i> or <i>which</i> are also possible)	I don't like the table <i>that</i> stands in the kitchen.

Subject Pronoun or Object Pronoun?

Subject and object pronouns cannot be distinguished by their forms - who, which, that are used for subject and object pronouns. You can, however, distinguish them as follows:

If the relative pronoun is followed by a verb, the relative pronoun is a *subject pronoun*. Subject pronouns must always be used.

the apple **which** *is* lying on the table

If the relative pronoun is not followed by a verb (but by a noun or pronoun), the relative pronoun is an *object pronoun*. Object pronouns can be dropped in defining relative clauses, which are then called *Contact Clauses*.

the apple (**which**) *George* lay on the table.

ADVERB CLAUSE

What Is an Adverb?

An adverb is a part of speech that describes an adjective, another adverb or a verb. Adverbs give more information about how an action was performed. In general, they answer questions like, how, why, where and when.

An adverb does this with just one word, but groups of words can also perform this function in sentences. For example:

- She walked *slowly*.
- She walked *like an old lady*.
- She walked *as if she were heading to the gallows*.

In each of these sentences, the italicized word or words answer the question how and describe the verb "walked." In the first sentence there is only one adverb, but in the other two sentences, a group of words work together to act as an adverb.

A clause is a group of words that contain both a subject and a verb. This differs from a phrase, which doesn't have a subject and a verb. For example, let's revisit our examples of words being used together as adverbs:

- She walked *like an old lady*.
- She walked *as if she were heading to the gallows*.

In these examples, "like an old lady" does not contain a subject and a verb, and is, therefore, an adverb phrase. However, "as if she were heading to the gallows" does contain a subject (she) and a verb (were heading), making it an adverb clause. Clauses can be either independent or dependent. Independent clauses are also called sentences. They can stand alone and express a complete thought. Dependent clauses, or subordinate clauses, cannot stand alone as a complete sentence. For example:

- *Because he has a college degree*, he got a great job.
- *When the storm started*, she was at the store.
- Bob wore the coat *that I gave him*.

Each of these groups of words has a subject and a verb, but do not form a complete sentence on their own. They are dependent on an independent clause for meaning.

What Is an Adverb Clause?

Adverb clauses, also known as adverbial clauses, are dependent clauses that function as adverbs. Since they are dependent clauses, they must have a subordinating conjunction to connect them to the rest of the sentence.

Being able to spot a subordinating conjunction will help you recognize an adverb clause. Below are some examples, which are grouped by what type of adverb question they answer:

- **When:** after, when, until, soon, before, once, while, as soon as, whenever, by the time
- **How:** if, whether or not, provided, in case, unless, even if, in the event
- **Why:** because, as, since, so, in order that, now that, inasmuch as
- **Where:** wherever, where

Adverb clauses can be placed at the beginning, middle or end of a sentence. When placed at the beginning or in the middle, they require a comma to offset them from the rest of the sentence:

- *Whether you like it or not*, you have to go.
- The boy, *although he is very bright*, failed math.

COMPARATIVE CLAUSE

In English grammar, a *comparative clause* is a type of subordinate clause that follows the comparative form of an adjective or adverb and begins with *as*, *than*, or *like*.

As the name indicates, a comparative clause expresses a comparison—for example, "Shyla is smarter **than I am**."

A comparative clause may contain ellipsis: "Shyla is smarter *than I*" (formal style) or "Shyla is smarter **than me**" (informal style). A construction in which the verb has been omitted by ellipsis is called a *comparative phrase*.

The apple is **the same weight as** the orange.

The apple is **as heavy as** the orange.

The apple is **as light as** the orange.

You are the same age as **I am**.

You are the same age as **I / me**.

Coordinate Clauses

Conjunctions connect words or groups of words.

Conjunctions are either coordinate or subordinate.

A **coordinate conjunction** connects words or groups of words that are independent of each other.

1. Hay and grain are sold here.
2. Will you take tea or coffee?
3. He was pale but undaunted.
4. The messenger replied courteously but firmly.
5. The troops embarked rapidly but without confusion.
6. Noon came, and the task was still unfinished.
7. We must hide here until night falls and the street is deserted.

A **subordinate conjunction** connects a subordinate clause with the clause on which it depends.

1. Harmon did not quail, though he saw the danger.

2. Take this seat, if you prefer.
3. I hesitated because I remembered your warning.
4. Unless you reform, your career will be ruined.

The chief coordinate conjunctions are....

and (both ... and)
not only ... but also
or (either ... or)
nor (neither ... nor)
but
for
however
moreover
therefore
then
yet
still
nevertheless
notwithstanding

Several of these are much used for transition, whether from sentence to sentence or from one paragraph to another.

Such are however, moreover, therefore, then, nevertheless, notwithstanding, yet, still.

Then is an adverb when it denotes time, a conjunction when it denotes consequence or the like.

1. Then the boat glided up to the pier. [Time.]
2. Men are imperfect creatures: we must not, then, expect them to be angels. [Consequence.]

YET and STILL are adverbs when they express time or degree, conjunctions when they connect.

1. We have not started yet. [Time.]
 2. It is still raining. [Time.]
 3. This hatchet is dull, but that is duller still. [Degree.]
 4. I miss him, yet I am glad he went. [Conjunction.]
 5. I like dogs; still I do not care to own one. [Conjunction.]
-

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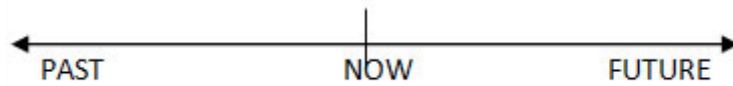
SCHOOL OF SCIENCE AND HUMANITIES

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

UNIT – V MODERN ENGLISH GRAMMAR [SHS1607]

TENSES

Tenses play a crucial role in the English language. It denotes the time an action takes place, whether sometime in the past, in the present or will take some time in the future.



Types of Tenses

PAST TENSE

1) Simple Past Tense-

Indicates an action took place before the present moment and that has no real connection with the present time.

For example, "He danced in the function." (The action took place in the past, is finished and is completely unrelated to the present)

"He flew to London yesterday."

a. **The verb** 'flew' is an irregular verb which does not take 'ed' in the past tense like regular verbs.

b. The form of **Simple Past Tense** is - verb + ed

2) Past Perfect Tense-

Indicates an action in the past that had been completed before another time or event in the past.

For example, "He had exercised before it started to rain."

"He had slept before I came back from the market."

a. The form of **Past Perfect Tense** is- had + verb (past participle form or the 3rd form of the verb)

3) Past Continuous Tense-

Indicates an action going on at some time in the past or an action in the past that is longer in duration than another action in the past.

For example, "It was getting darker."

"The light went out while they were reading."

a. The form of **Past Continuous Tense** is- was/were + verb + ing

4) Past Perfect Continuous Tense-

Indicates an action in the past that took place before another time or event in the past and continued during the second event/time point in the past.

For example, "At that time, he had been writing a novel for two months."

"He had been exercising when I called."

a. The form of **Past Perfect Continuous Tense** is- had + been + verb + ing

PRESENT TENSE

1) Simple Present Tense-

Indicates an action that is generally true or habitual. That is, it took place in the past , continue to take place in the present, and will take place in the future. This tense is used to denote -a habitual action- for instance, "He walk to school."

-general truths- for instance, "The sun rises in the east", "Honesty is the best policy."

-a future event that is part of a fixed timetable- for instance, "The match starts at 9 o' clock."

a. The form of **Simple Present Tense** is- verb (infinitive without 'to' and agreeable with the subject)

2) Present Perfect Tense-

Indicates an action that has been completed sometime before the present moment, with a result that affects the present situation.

For example, "He has finished the work."

"He has slept."

a. The form of **Present Perfect Tense** is- has/have + verb (past participle form or 3rd form of the verb)

3) Present Continuous Tense-

Indicates an action that is taking place at the moment of speaking.

For example, "She is walking."

"I am studying."

a. the form of **Present Continuous Tense** is- is/am/are + verb + ing

4) Present Perfect Continuous Tense-

Indicates an action that started in the past and is continuing at the present time.

For example, "He has been sleeping for an hour."

a. The form of **Present Perfect Continuous Tense** is- has/have + been + verb + ing

1) Simple Future Tense-

Indicates an action that will take place after the present time and that has no real connection with the present time.

For example, "She will visit her ailing grandmother soon."

"He will walk home."

a. the form of **Simple Future Tense** is- will/shall + verb

2) Future Perfect Tense-

Indicates an action in the future that will have been completed before another time or event in the future.

For example, "By the time we arrive, he will have studied."

a. The form of **Future Perfect Tense** is- will/shall have + verb(past participle form or 3rd form of the verb)

3) Future Continuous Tense-

Indicates an action in the future that is longer in duration than another action in the future.
For example, "He will be walking when it starts to rain."

Note

a. The form of **Future Continuous Tense** is-will/shall be + verb + ing

4) Future Perfect Continuous Tense-

Indicates an action in the future that will have been continuing until another time or event in the future.

For example, "He will have been exercising an hour at 2:00."

SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT

Subjects and verbs must agree in number. In addition to the explanations on this page, also see the post on **Subject—Verb Agreement**.

- If the subject is singular, the verb must be singular too.

Example: She writes every day.

Exception: When using the singular "they," use plural verb forms.

Example: The participant expressed satisfaction with their job. They are currently in a managerial role at the organization.

- If the subject is plural, the verb must also be plural.

Example: They write every day.

Sometimes, however, it seems a bit more complicated than this.

- When the subject of the sentence is composed of two or more nouns or pronouns connected by and, use a plural verb.

Example: The doctoral student and the committee members write every day.

Example: The percentage of employees who called in sick and the number of employees who left their jobs within 2 years are reflective of the level of job satisfaction.

- When there is one subject and more than one verb, the verbs throughout the sentence must agree with the subject.

Example: Interviews are one way to collect data and allow researchers to gain an in-depth understanding of participants.

Example: An assumption is something that is generally accepted as true and is an important consideration when conducting a doctoral study.

- When a phrase comes between the subject and the verb, remember that the verb still agrees with the subject, not the noun or pronoun in the phrase following the subject of the sentence.

Example: The student, as well as the committee members, is excited.

Example: The student with all the master's degrees is very motivated.

- Example: Strategies that the teacher uses to encourage classroom participation include using small groups and clarifying expectations.

Example: The focus of the interviews was nine purposively selected participants.

- When two or more singular nouns or pronouns are connected by "or" or "nor," use a singular verb.

Example: The chairperson or the CEO approves the proposal before proceeding.

- When a compound subject contains both a singular and a plural noun or pronoun joined by "or" or "nor," the verb should agree with the part of the subject that is closest to the verb. This is also called the rule of proximity.

Example: The student or the committee members write every day.

Example: The committee members or the student writes every day.

- The words and phrases "each," "each one," "either," "neither," "everyone," "everybody," "anyone," "anybody," "nobody," "somebody," "someone," and "no one" are singular and require a singular verb.

Example: Each of the participants was willing to be recorded.

Example: Neither alternative hypothesis was accepted.

Example: I will offer a \$5 gift card to everybody who participates in the study.

Example: No one was available to meet with me at the preferred times.

- Noncount nouns take a singular verb.

Example: Education is the key to success.

Example: Diabetes affects many people around the world.

Example: The information obtained from the business owners was relevant to include in the study.

Example: The research I found on the topic was limited.

- Some countable nouns in English such as earnings, goods, odds, surroundings, proceeds, contents, and valuables only have a plural form and take a plural verb.

Example: The earnings for this quarter exceed expectations.

Example: The proceeds from the sale go to support the homeless population in the city.

Example: Locally produced goods have the advantage of shorter supply chains.

- In sentences beginning with "there is" or "there are," the subject follows the verb. Since "there" is not the subject, the verb agrees with what follows the verb.

Example: There is little administrative support.

Example: There are many factors affecting teacher retention.

- Collective nouns are words that imply more than one person but are considered singular and take a singular verb. Some examples are "group," "team," "committee," "family," and "class."

Example: The group meets every week.

Example: The committee agrees on the quality of the writing.

However, the plural verb is used if the focus is on the individuals in the group. This is much less common.

Example: The committee participate in various volunteer activities in their private lives.

REPORTED SPEECH

DIRECT AND INDIRECT SPEECH

We may report the words of a speaker in two ways:-

- (i) We may quote his actual words. This is called Direct Speech.
- (ii) We may report what he said without quoting his exact words. This is called Indirect (or Reported) Speech.

Direct. -- Rama said. "I am very busy now."

Indirect. -- Rama said that he was very busy then.

It will be noticed that in Direct Speech, we use inverted commas to mark off the exact words of the speaker. In Indirect Speech we do not. It will be further noticed that in changing the above Direct Speech into Indirect certain changes have been made. Thus:

- (i) We have used the conjunction that before the Indirect statement. (The that is often omitted especially in spoken English)

(ii) The pronoun I is changed to he. (The Pronoun is changed in Person.)

(iii) The verb am is changed to was. (Present Tense is changed to Past.)

(iv) The adverb now is changed to then.

Rules for changing Direct Speech into Indirect

When the reporting or principal verb is in the Past Tense, all Present tenses of the Direct are changed into the corresponding Past Tenses. Thus:-

(a) A simple present becomes a simple past.

Direct. -- He said, "I am unwell."

Indirect. -- He said (that) he was unwell.

(b) A present continuous becomes a past continuous.

Direct. -- He said, "My master is writing letters."

Indirect. -- He said (that) his master was writing letters.

(c) A present perfect becomes a past perfect.

Direct. -- He said, "I have passed the examination."

Indirect. -- He said (that) he had passed the examination.

Note:- The shall of the Future Tense is changed into should. The will of the Future Tense is changed into would or should. As a rule, the simple past in the Direct becomes the past perfect in the Indirect.

Direct. -- He said, "The horse died in the night."

Indirect. -- He said that the horse had died in the night.

The tenses may not change if the statement is still relevant or if it is a universal truth. We can often choose whether to keep the original tenses or change them.

Direct. -- "I know her address," said Gopi.

Indirect. -- Gopi said he knows/knew her address.

Direct. -- The teacher said, "The earth goes round the sun."

Indirect. -- The teacher said the earth goes/went round the sun.

Direct. -- "German is easy to learn", she said.

Indirect. -- She said German is/was easy to learn.

The past tense is often used when it is uncertain if the statement is true or when we are reporting objectively.

If the reporting verb is in the Present Tense, the tenses of the Direct Speech do not change. For example, we may rewrite the above examples, putting the reporting verb in the Present Tense, thus:

He says he is unwell.

He has just said his master is writing letters.

He says he has passed the examination.

He says the horse died in the night.

The pronouns of the Direct Speech are changed, where necessary, so that their relations with the reporter and his hearer, rather than with the original speaker, are indicated. Observe the following examples :-

Direct. -- He said to me, "I don't believe you."

Indirect. -- He said he didn't believe me.

Direct. -- She said to him, "I don't believe you."

Indirect. -- She said she didn't believe him.

Direct. -- I said to him, "I don't believe you."

Indirect. -- I said I didn't believe him.

Direct. -- I said to you, "I don't believe you."

Indirect. -- I said I didn't believe you.

Words expressing nearness in time or place are generally changed into words expressing distance. Thus :-

now -- becomes -- then

here -- becomes -- there

ago -- becomes -- before

thus -- becomes -- so

today -- becomes -- that day

tomorrow -- becomes -- the next day

yesterday -- becomes -- the day before

last night -- becomes -- the night before

Direct. -- He says, "I am glad to be here this evening."

Indirect. -- He says that he was glad to be there that evening.

The changes do not occur if the speech is reported during the same period or at the same place ; e.g.,

Direct. -- He said, "I am glad to be here this evening."

Indirect. -- He said that he was glad to be there that evening.

Questions

In reporting questions the Indirect Speech is introduced by some such verbs as asked, inquired, etc.

When the question is not introduced by an interrogative word, the reporting verb is followed by whether or if.

Direct. -- He said to me, "What are you doing?"

Indirect. -- He asked me what I was doing.

Direct. -- "Where do you live?" asked the stranger.

Indirect. -- The stranger enquired where I lived.

Direct. -- The policeman said to us, "Where are you going?"

Indirect. -- The policeman enquired where we were going.

Direct. -- He said, "Will you listen to such a man?"

Indirect. -- He asked them whether they would listen to such a man.

[Or] Would they, he asked, listen to such a man?

Direct. -- "Do you suppose you know better than your own father?"
jeered his angry mother.

Indirect. -- His angry mother jeered and asked whether he supposed that he knew better than his own father.

Commands and Requests

In reporting commands and requests, the Indirect Speech is introduced by some verb expressing command or request, and the imperative mood is changed into the Infinitive.

Direct. -- Rama said to Arjun, "Go away."

Indirect. -- Rama ordered Arjun to go away.

Direct. -- He said to him, "Please wait here till I return."

Indirect. -- He requested him to wait there till he returned.

Direct. -- "Call the first witness," said the judge.

Indirect. -- The judge commanded them to call the first witness.

Direct. -- He shouted, "Let me go."

Indirect. -- He shouted to them to let him go.

Direct. -- He said, "Be quiet and listen to my words."

Indirect. -- He urged them to be quiet and listen to his words.

Exclamations and Wishes

In reporting exclamations and wishes the Indirect Speech is introduced by some verb expressing exclamation or wish.

Direct. -- He said, "Alas! I am undone."

Indirect. -- He exclaimed sadly that he was undone.

Direct. -- Alice said, "How clever I am!"

Indirect. -- Alice exclaimed that she was very clever.

Direct. -- He said, "Bravo! You have done well."

Indirect. -- He applauded him, saying that he had done well.

Direct. -- "So help me, Heaven!" he cried, "I will never steal again."

Indirect. -- He called upon Heaven to witness his resolve never to steal again.

PUNCTUATION

The most common punctuation marks in English are: capital letters and full stops, question marks, commas, colons and semi-colons, exclamation marks and quotation marks.

In speaking, we use pauses and the pitch of the voice to make what we say clear.

Punctuation plays a similar role in writing, making it easier to read.

Punctuation consists of both rules and conventions. There are rules of punctuation that have to be followed; but there are also punctuation conventions that give writers greater choice.

Punctuation: capital letters and full stops (.)

We use capital letters to mark the beginning of a sentence and we use full stops to mark the end of a sentence:

We went to France last summer. We were really surprised that it was so easy to travel on the motorways.

The Football World Cup takes place every four years. The next World Cup will be held in South Africa. In 2006 it was held in Germany.

We also use capital letters at the beginning of proper nouns. Proper nouns include personal names (including titles before names), nationalities and languages, days of the week and months of the year, public holidays as well as geographical places:

Dr David James is the consultant at Leeds City Hospital.

They are planning a long holiday in New Zealand.

Can she speak Japanese?

The next meeting of the group will take place on Thursday.

What plans do you have for Chinese New Year?

We use capital letters for the titles of books, magazines and newspapers, plays and music:

'Oliver' is a musical based on the novel 'Oliver Twist' by Charles Dickens.

The Straits Times is a daily English language newspaper in Singapore.

They are performing Beethoven's Sixth Symphony.

In addition to closing sentences, we also use full stops in initials for personal names:

G. W. Dwyer

David A. Johnston, Accountant

Full stops are also used after abbreviations, although this practice is becoming less common:

Punctuation: question marks (?) and exclamation marks (!)

We use question marks to make clear that what is said is a question. When we use a question mark, we do not use a full stop:

Why do they make so many mistakes?

A: *So you're Harry's cousin?*

B: *Yes. That's right.*

We use exclamation marks to indicate an exclamative clause or expression in informal writing. When we want to emphasise something in informal writing, we sometimes use more than one exclamation mark:

Listen!

Oh no!!! Please don't ask me to phone her. She'll talk for hours!!!

Punctuation: commas (,)

We use commas to separate a list of similar words or phrases:

It's important to write in clear, simple, accurate words.

They were more friendly, more talkative, more open than last time we met them.

We do not normally use a comma before *and* at the end of a list of single words:

They travelled through Bulgaria, Slovakia, the Czech Republic and Poland.

American English does use a comma in lists before *and*:

We took bread, cheese, and fruit with us.

We use commas to separate words or phrases that mark where the voice would pause slightly:

I can't tell you now. However, all will be revealed tomorrow at midday.

We had, in fact, lost all of our money.

James, our guide, will accompany you on the boat across to the island.

Separating clauses with commas

When main clauses are separated by *and*, *or*, *but*, we don't normally use a comma if the clauses have the same subject. However, we sometimes use commas if the clauses have different subjects:

They were very friendly and invited us to their villa in Portugal. (same subject)

Footballers these days earn more money but they are fitter and play many more matches. (same subject)

It was an expensive hotel in the centre of Stockholm, but we decided it was worth the money. (different subjects)

When a subordinate clause comes before the main clause, we commonly use a comma to separate the clauses. However, we do not always do this in short sentences:

If you get lost in the city centre, please don't hesitate to text us or phone us.

If you get lost just phone us.

When we use subordinate or non-finite comment clauses to give further details or more information, we commonly use commas to separate the clauses:

You do need to wear a darker jacket, if I may say so.

To be honest, I thought they were very very rude.

Commas and relative clauses

We use commas to mark non-defining clauses. Such clauses normally add extra, non-essential information about the noun or noun phrase:

The ambulance, which arrived after just five minutes, took three people to the hospital immediately.

Hong Kong, where the first ASEAN meeting was held, is a very different city now.

The same is true for non-finite clauses:

The storm, lasting as it did for several days, caused serious damage to villages near the coast.

Commas and speech forms

We commonly separate tags and *yes-no* responses with commas:

They are going to the party, aren't they?

No, thank you. I've already eaten too much.

We also usually separate vocatives, discourse markers and interjections with commas:

*Open the door for them, **Kayleigh**, can you. Thanks.* (vocative)

***Well**, what do you think we should do about it?* (discourse marker)

***Wow**, that sounds really exciting.* (interjection)

We use commas to show that direct speech is following or has just occurred:

He said in his opening speech, 'Now is the time to plan for the future.' (or *He said in his opening speech: 'Now is the time to plan for the future.'*)

When the direct speech is first, we use a comma before the closing of the quotation marks:

'We don't want to go on holiday to the same place every year,' he said impatiently.

Punctuation: colons (:) and semi-colons (;)

We use colons to introduce lists:

There are three main reasons for the success of the government: economic, social and political.

We also use colons to indicate a subtitle or to indicate a subdivision of a topic:

Life in Provence: A Personal View

We often use colons to introduce direct speech:

Then he said: 'I really cannot help you in any way.'

We commonly use a colon between sentences when the second sentence explains or justifies the first sentence:

Try to keep your flat clean and tidy: it will sell more easily.

We use semi-colons instead of full stops to separate two main clauses. In such cases, the clauses are related in meaning but are separated grammatically:

Spanish is spoken throughout South America; in Brazil the main language is Portuguese.

Semi-colons are not commonly used in contemporary English. Full stops and commas are more common.

Punctuation: quotation marks ('...' or "...")

Quotation marks in English are '...' or "...". In direct speech, we enclose what is said within a pair of single or double quotation marks, although single quotation marks are becoming more common. Direct speech begins with a capital letter and can be preceded by a comma or a colon:

She said, "Where can we find a nice Indian restaurant?" (or *She said: 'Where can we find a nice Indian restaurant?'*)

We can put the reporting clause in three different positions. Note the position of commas and full stops here:

The fitness trainer said, 'Don't try to do too much when you begin.' (quotation mark after comma introducing speech and after full stop)

'Don't try to do too much when you begin,' the fitness trainer said. (comma before closing quotation mark)

'Don't try to do too much,' the fitness trainer said, 'when you begin.' (commas separating the reporting clause)

When we use direct speech inside direct speech, we use either single quotation marks inside double quotation marks, or double quotation marks inside single quotation marks:

"It was getting really cold," he said, "and they were saying 'When can we go back home?'"

Jaya said, 'They were getting really excited and were shouting "Come on!"'

We commonly use question marks inside the quotation marks unless the question is part of the reporting clause:

'Why don't they know who is responsible?' they asked.

So did they really say 'We will win every match for the next three weeks'?

We also use single quotation marks to draw attention to a word. We can use quotation marks in this way when we want to question the exact meaning of the word:

I am very disappointed by his ‘apology’. I don’t think he meant it at all.

Punctuation: dashes (–) and other punctuation marks

Dashes are more common in informal writing. They can be used in similar ways to commas or semi-colons. Both single and multiple dashes may be used:

Our teacher – who often gets cross when we’re late – wasn’t cross at all. No one could believe it!

Just wanted to thank you for a lovely evening – we really enjoyed it.

Brackets have a similar function to dashes. They often add extra, non-essential information:

Thriplow (pronounced ‘Triplow’) is a small village in the eastern part of England.

We use brackets around dates and page numbers in academic writing:

Heaton (1978) gives a convincing explanation of how hurricanes are formed (pages 27–32).

Punctuation: numerals and punctuation

In British English the date is usually given in the order day, month, year.

We use full stops in dates. Forward slashes or dashes are also commonly used:

Date of birth: 1.8.1985 (or 1/8/1985 or 1–8–1985)

In American English the day and the month are in a different order so that 8 January 1985 is written as follows:

1–8–1985 (or 1/8/1985 or 1.8.1985)

We don’t usually punctuate weights and measures and references to numbers:

4kg (4 kilograms) 10m (10 metres) 5m dollars (5 million dollars)

Commas are used in numbers to indicate units of thousands and millions:

7,980 (seven thousand, nine hundred and eighty)

11,487,562 (eleven million, four hundred and eighty-seven thousand, five hundred and sixty-two)

We use full stops, not commas, to indicate decimal points:

6.5 (six point five)

Not: *6,5*

We can punctuate times with full stops or colons:

The shop opens at 9.30. (or 9:30)

MOOD

Grammatical mood, also known as mode, refers to the quality or form of a verb in a sentence. More specifically, mood denotes the tone of a verb in a sentence, so the intention of the writer or speaker is clear.

Definition: Mood is the mode or manner in which the action denoted by the Verb is represented.

When considering mood in grammar, there are five basic types:

I. Conditional Mood:

A sentence with a conditional mood contains an auxiliary verb (a helping verb) and a main verb. You'll be able to spot the conditional mood if you see the auxiliary verbs "would" or "should." They'll support the main verb. Common examples include "would like" or "should have."

Another sign of the conditional mood is the "if this, then that" construct. "If/then" clearly indicates one action is dependent upon another.

For example, *"If she wasn't so mean, then he would have helped her."*

Here are a few more examples of the conditional mood:

- We **would live** in Ireland if we secured the proper documents.
- Knowing his history of bad behavior, she **should have** said no.
- After we go for a run, I **would like** some tea.
- If I lived in Ireland, then I **would write** a book.

II. Imperative Mood:

A sentence with an imperative mood makes a request or a command. These sentences don't make mild suggestions. Rather, they issue a direct command, telling someone what to do.

In these sentences, the verb will express a direct call to action. Sometimes the subject "you" will be understood, as in the first example. Other times, it'll be clear who the subject is.

Here are some examples of the imperative mood:

- [You] **Move** that book.
- **Make sure** Irene calls the him tomorrow.
- When you get home from school, **walk** the dog.
- When you arrive at the airport, **walk** to Gate 52.

III. Indicative Mood

A sentence with an indicative mood expresses a factual statement, at least from the perspective of the speaker. Most sentences are written in the indicative mood, sharing facts or details that we perceive to be correct.

Definition: A Verb which makes a statement of fact or asks a question, or expresses a supposition which is assumed as a fact, is in the Indicative Mood.

- **The Indicative Mood is used:**

(1) To make a statement of fact;

Rama goes to school daily.

We are taught Arithmetic.

She travels to Ireland frequently.

IV. Interrogative Mood:

A sentence with an interrogative mood asks a question. It expresses a sense of uncertainty. This may make you think of interrogative sentences, which also ask a question.

When dealing with the interrogative mood, there will typically be two verbs. One will be an auxiliary verb. Again, you can think of an auxiliary verb as a helping verb to the main verb. It provides further clarification for the main verb of the sentence.

Common auxiliary verbs include are, be, do, and have. In sentences with an interrogative mood, the auxiliary verb will often come before the subject of the sentence. A question mark will also be required for proper punctuation.

Here are some examples of the interrogative mood:

- **Are** you **coming** to the mall?
- Where **does** he **work**?
- **Did** you **bake** a pie for Thanksgiving?
- Where **have** the students **gone**?

V. Subjunctive Mood:

A sentence with a subjunctive mood expresses a condition that is doubtful, hypothetical, wishful or not factual. The subjunctive verb in these sentences will show action, but it will be dependent upon some other action (indicative), which is where you'll find the doubt or questioning.

A great way to spot sentences written in the subjunctive mood is to note clauses beginning with “if.” Then, you’ll clearly notice that the verb tends to express a doubt, wish, request, demand, proposal, or hypothetical situation.

Here are some examples of the subjunctive mood:

- If I **were** in your position, I’d never leave.
 - Jane wishes her sons **were** faster at getting ready in the morning.
 - The teacher requires all students **be** present for Thursday's event.
 - She demanded Sean **work** the night shift.
-

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