

MAR GREGORIOS COLLEGE OF ARTS & SCIENCE

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DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

SUBJECT NAME: ASPECTS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE- PAPER I

SEMESTER: III

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Aspects of English Language-Paper-I

Syllabus

UNIT 1 Introduction

Language - Definition – Uses of language - Phatic

communio(n)(Language and Linguistics- J.F.Wallwork 1-

13)

Properties of language– Species specific and species uniform, Symbolic system, Arbitrariness, Duality of Structure, Productivity, Displacement, Cultural Transmission, discreteness, Inter changeability, Specialization, Non directionality (The Study of Language –George Yule Chapter 2)

Origin of Language – Divine Source, Natural sound source, Oral Gesture, GlasseGenetics

Development of Writing –Pictographic, Ideographic, Logographic, Rebus Writing,Syllabic Writing, Alphabetic Writing

UNIT 2 - English Language and Its Structure I - Word Classes – Content Words (Lexemes)

Naming Words (Noun) –Types, Nominal Cases – Functional Categories - Subject,Complement, Object and part of Prepositional Phrase, Pronoun types.

Action Words(Verb), Weak and Strong Verbs, Regular and Irregular, Transitive andIntransitive, Reflexive, „Be“ „Have“ „Do“ as Main Verbs.,

Auxiliaries – Primary and Secondary Modal, Time and Tense – simple continuous,perfect.

Describing words (Adjectives) - Kinds, Functions - Attributive and Predicative, Degree ofcomparison, Order of adjectives

Describing words (Adverbs) - Formation, Position of Adverbs, Comparison of Adverbs,Sentence Adverb

Language in Use – Error corrections, Rewrite changing tenses, number, substituting with pronouns.

UNIT 3 - English Language and Its Structure II

David Green - Contemporary English Grammar Structures and Composition

Randolph Quirk and Sidney Greenbaum- A University Grammar of English

S.K.Verma and N.Krishnaswamy “Word Classes – Form Words (Functors)”- Modern Linguistics: An Introduction 73-78

Articles, Determiners (A.J. Thomson and A.V. Martinet - A Practical English Grammar1-9)

Prepositions, Inflections

Conjunctions – Co- Ordinating and Subordinating Conjunctions

Linkers

Interjections

Language in Use – Error corrections, Rewrite changing tense and numbers

UNIT 4 English Language And Its Structure III - Phrases.

Nominal Phrase, its structure – Modifier, Qualifier Head, (Modern English - A Book of Grammar, Usage and Composition – Chapter 3)

Gerund (A.J. Thomson and A.V. Martinet - A Practical English Grammar pg.no. 228) Verbal Phrases, Verbal Patterns, Phrasal Verbs (A.J. Thomson and A.V. Martinet - A Practical English Grammar pg.no.315)

Adjectival, Adverbial Phrases and Prepositional Phrases, (Randolph Quirk and Sidney Greenbaum- A University Grammar of English 155-177)

Clauses.

Independent and Dependent Clauses Conditional Clauses (Modern English - A Book of Grammar, Usage and Composition – Chapter 4)

Sentences - Pattern -Types of sentences - Simple, Compound and Complex sentences -(David Green - Contemporary English Grammar Structures and Composition 143-144)

Kinds of sentences – Statement (Declarative), Interrogative, Imperative, Exclamatory

Voice

Reported Speech

Language in Use – Conversion, Transformation, Rearrange (jumbled word sentences) Sequencing

UNIT 5 English Language And Its Structure IV - Spelling

Common rules- „i“ before „e“, dropping the final „e“, changing final „y“ to „I“. Doubling of the final consonant.

Spelling – pronunciation differences

- single letter with multiple pronunciation

- single sound with multiple spelling

One word substitutions (for class work only. Not for testing)

Idioms and Phrases (for class work only. Not for testing)

Dictionary referencing (using Dictionaries to understand how words are entered in a Dictionary)

Language in Use – Error correction, unscrambling letters, commonly confused words

Unit-I

Language

Language, a system of conventional spoken, manual (signed), or written symbols by means of which human beings, as members of a social group and participants in its culture, express themselves. The functions of language include communication, the expression of identity, play, imaginative expression, and emotional release.

Definition of Language

Henry Sweet, an English phonetician and language scholar, stated: “Language is the expression of ideas by means of speech-sounds combined into words. Words are combined into sentences, this combination answering to that of ideas into thoughts.”

The American linguists Bernard Bloch and George L. Trager formulated the following definition: “A language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group cooperates.”

Functions of Language

There are two major functions of language:

- **Interactional Function:** It is related with how human use language to interact with each other socially or emotionally, how they express their feelings or their ideas.
- **Transactional Function:** It is related with how human use their linguistic abilities to transfer knowledge from one generation to the next.

Properties of Language

Unique Properties of Language

These features are uniquely a part of human language.

Displacement

Talking about things that happened in the past, happens now or will happen in the future.

There is no displacement in animal communication.

Exception: Bee communication has displacement in an extremely limited form. A bee can show the others the source of the food.

Arbitrariness

The word and object are not related to each other. e.g. dog. Cat

Exception

No arbitrary examples: Onomatopoeic sounds e.g. cuckoo, crash, squelch or whirr.

Majority of animal signals have a clear connection with the conveyed message. Animal communication is non-arbitrary.

Productivity

(Creativity / open-endedness) Language users create new words as they need them. It is an aspect of language which is linked to the fact that the potential number of utterances in any human language is infinite.

Animals have fixed reference. Each signal refers to sth, but these signals cannot be manipulated.

Cultural Transmission

Language passes from one generation to another. In animals there is an instinctively produce process but human infants growing up in isolation produce no instinctive language. Cultural transmission is only crucial in the human acquisition process.

Discreteness

Individual sounds can change the meaning. e.g. pack – back , bin – pin. This property is called discreteness.

Duality

To use some sounds in different places. e.g. cat – act . Sounds are the same but the meanings are different. There is no duality in animal communication.

Other Properties

- a-) Vocal- auditory channel: Producing sounds by the vocal organs and perceiving them by ears.
- b-) Reciprocity: Any speaker / reader can also be a listener / receiver.
- c-) Specialization: Language is used linguistically.
- d-) Non-directionality: Unseen but heard messages can be picked up by anyone.
- e-) Rapid fade: Linguistic signals are produced and disappeared quickly.

Origin of Language

We simply do not know how language originated. We do not know that spoken language developed well before written language. Yet we have no physical evidence relating to the speech of our ancestors and because of this absence of evidence speculations about the origins of human speech have been developed.

The Divine Source

The basic idea of the theory is that : “ If infants were allowed to grow up without hearing any language, then they would spontaneously begin using the original God-given language.

The Natural Sound Source

Primitive words could have been imitations of the naturel sounds which early men and women heard around them “Examples: cuckoo, splash, bang, boom. This view has been

called “bow-wow theory” of language origin and these words echoing natural sounds are called “onomatopoeic words”

A similar suggestion: “The original sounds of language came from natural cries of emotion such as pain, anger and joy. Examples: Ouch! Ah! Hey!”

Yo-heave-ho Theory

The sounds of a person involved in physical effort could be the source of our language, especially when that physical effort involved several people and had to be coordinated.

The importance of yo-heave-ho theory is that it places the development of human language in some SOCIAL CONTEXT.

The Oral-Gesture Source

The theory comes from the idea that there is a link between physical gesture and orally produced sounds. First of all a set of physical gestures was developed as a means of communication. Then a set of oral gestures specially involving the mouth developed in which the movements of the tongue, lips and so on were recognized according to patterns of movement similar to physical gestures.

Glossogenetics

The focus is on the biological basis of the formation. In the evolutionary development there are certain physical features, best thought of as partial adaptations that appear to be relevant for speech. By themselves, such features would not lead to speech production, but they are good clues that a creature possessing such features probably has the capacity for speech.

Physiological Adaptations

Human teeth, lips, mouth, tongue, larynx, pharynx and brain have been created in such a way to coordinate in producing speech sounds. Their places, connections and coordinative functions make humankind different from all the living creatures.

Development of Writing


















Much of the evidence used in the reconstruction of ancient writing systems comes from inscriptions on stone or tablets found in the rubble of ruined cities.

Pictograms and ideograms

A Picture representing a particular image in a consistent way it is called Picture-writing or Pictogram. There must be a link between the pictogram and its meaning. So, we can easily understand what it refers to when we look at the pictogram.

More abstract form of pictograms are called Ideograms. The relationship between the entity and the symbol is not easily understood like pictograms.

A key property of both pictograms and ideograms is that they do not represent words or sounds in a particular language.

Ancient Sumerian	Ancient Egyptian	Chinese
 Eye	 See (verb)	 Eye
 Forest	 Water	 Water
 Mountains	 Cities	 Mountain
 Torch	 Fire	 Fire
 Person	 Men	 Person
	 Women	 Woman

Logograms

A good example of logographic writing is the system used by the Sumerians, in the southern part of modern Iraq, around 5,000 years ago. Because of the particular shapes used in their symbols, these inscriptions are more generally described as cuneiform writing. The term cuneiform means 'wedge-shaped' and the inscriptions used by the Sumerians were produced by pressing a wedge-shaped implement into soft clay tablets. When we consider the relationship between the written form and the object it represents, it is arbitrary.

Rebus Writing

In this process, the symbol for one entity is taken over as the symbol for the sound of the spoken word used to refer to the entity. That symbol then comes to be used whenever that sound occurs in any words. One symbol can be used in many different ways, with a range of meanings. This brings a sizeable reduction in the number of symbols needed in a writing system.

Syllabic Writing

In the last example, the symbol that is used for the pronunciation of parts of a word represents a combination (ba) of a consonant sound (b) and a vowel sound (a). This combination is one type of syllable. When a writing system employs a set of symbols each one representing the pronunciation of a syllable, it is described as syllabic writing. There are no purely syllabic writing systems in use today, but modern Japanese can be written with a single symbols which represent spoken syllables and is consequently often described as having a syllabic writing or a syllabary.

Alphabetic Writing

An alphabet is essentially a set of written symbols which each represent a single type of sound.

Written English

- The spelling of written English took place in 15th century, via printing, so Latin and French affected the written forms.
- Many of the early printers were Dutch, so they were not very successful in English pronunciation.
- Since the 15th century spoken English has undergone a lot of changes.

Unit-2

Noun & Types

Nouns refer to persons, animals, places, things, ideas, or events, etc. Nouns encompass most of the words of a language.

Noun can be a/an -

- Person – a name for a person: - Max, Julie, Catherine, Michel, Bob, etc.
- Animal – a name for an animal: - dog, cat, cow, kangaroo, etc.
- Place – a name for a place: - London, Australia, Canada, Mumbai, etc.
- Thing – a name for a thing: - bat, ball, chair, door, house, computer, etc.
- Idea – A name for an idea: - devotion, superstition, happiness, excitement, etc.

Proper Noun

A proper noun is a name which refers only to a single person, place, or thing and there is no common name for it. In written English, a proper noun always begins with capital letters.

Example: Melbourne (it refers to only one particular city), Steve (refers to a particular person), Australia (there is no other country named Australia; this name is fixed for only one country).

Common Noun:

A common noun is a name for something which is common for many things, person, or places. It encompasses a particular type of things, person, or places.

Example: Country (it can refer to any country, nothing in particular), city (it can refer to any city like Melbourne, Mumbai, Toronto, etc. but nothing in particular).

So, a common noun is a word that indicates a person, place, thing, etc. In general and a proper noun is a specific one of those.

Abstract Noun:

An abstract noun is a word for something that cannot be seen but is there. It has no physical existence. Generally, it refers to ideas, qualities, and conditions.

Example: Truth, lies, happiness, sorrow, time, friendship, humor, patriotism, etc.

Concrete Noun:

A concrete noun is the exact opposite of abstract noun. It refers to the things we see and have physical existence.

Example: Chair, table, bat, ball, water, money, sugar, etc.

Countable Noun:

The nouns that can be counted are called countable nouns. Countable nouns can take an article: *a, an, the*.

Example: Chair, table, bat, ball, etc. (you can say 1 chair, 2 chairs, 3 chairs – so chairs are countable)

Non-countable Noun:

The nouns that cannot be counted are called non-countable nouns.

Example: Water, sugar, oil, salt, etc. (you cannot say “1 water, 2 water, 3 water” because water is not countable)

Abstract nouns and proper nouns are always non-countable nouns, but common nouns and concrete nouns can be both count and non-count nouns.

Collective Noun:

A collective noun is a word for a group of things, people, or animals, etc.

Example: family, team, jury, cattle, etc.

Collective nouns can be both plural and singular. However, Americans prefer to use collective nouns as singular, but both of the uses are correct in other parts of the world.

Compound Noun:

Sometimes two or three nouns appear together, or even with other parts of speech, and create idiomatic compound nouns. Idiomatic means that those nouns behave as a unit and, to a lesser or greater degree, amount to more than the sum of their parts.

Example: six-pack, five-year-old, and son-in-law, snowball, mailbox, etc.

Functions of Nouns

Nouns can be used as a subject, a direct object, and an indirect object of a verb; as an object of a preposition; and as an adverb or adjective in sentences. Nouns can also show possession.

Subject: The company is doing great. Roses are the flowers of love.

Direct object: I finally bought a new mobile.

Indirect object: Max gave Carol another chocolate.

Object of preposition: Roses are the flowers of love.

Adverb: The train leaves today.

Adjective: The office building faces the mall.

Possession: The lion's cage is dangerous. My brother's daughter is adorable.

Nominative Case

The nominative case is the case used for a noun or pronoun which is the subject of a verb. For example (nominative case shaded):

- Mark eats cakes.

(The noun "Mark" is the subject of the verb "eats." "Mark" is in the nominative case. In English, nouns do not change in the different cases. Pronouns, however, do.)

- He eats cakes.

(The pronoun "He" is the subject of the verb "eats." "He" is in the nominative case.)

- They eat cakes.

(The pronoun "They" is the subject of the verb "eats." "They" is in the nominative case.)

The nominative case is also used for a subject complement. For example:

- Mark is a **businessman**.

(Here, "Mark" is in the nominative case because it's the subject of "is," and "businessman" is in the nominative case because it's a subject complement; i.e., it renames the subject.)

- It was **I**.

(Here, "It" is in the nominative case because it's the subject of "was," and "I" is in the nominative case because it's a subject complement; i.e., it renames the subject.)

The nominative case is also known as the subjective case.

Subject

In English grammar, the *subject* is the part of a sentence or clause that commonly indicates (a) what it is about, or (b) who or what performs the action (that is, the agent).

The subject is typically a noun ("The dog . . ."), a noun phrase ("My sister's Yorkshire terrier . . ."), or a pronoun ("It . . ."). The subject pronouns are *I, you, he, she, it, we, they, who,* and *whoever*.

In a declarative sentence, the subject usually appears before the verb ("*The dog* barks"). In an interrogative sentence, the subject usually follows the first part of a verb ("Does *the dog* ever bark?"). In an imperative sentence, the subject is commonly said to be "*you* understood" ("Bark!"). Its etymology is from the Latin, "to throw".

Object

In English grammar, an object is a noun, a noun phrase, or a pronoun that is affected by the action of a verb. Objects give our language detail and texture by allowing the creation of complex sentences. Prepositions also have objects.

Types of Objects

Objects can function three ways within a sentence. The first two are easy to spot because they follow the verb:

1. Direct objects are the results of action. A subject does something, and the product is the object itself. For example, consider this sentence: "Marie wrote a poem." In this case, the noun "poem" follows the transitive verb "wrote" and completes the meaning of the sentence.
2. Indirect objects receive or respond to the outcome of an action. Consider this example: "Marie sent me an email." The pronoun "me" comes after the verb "sent" and before the noun "email," which is the direct object in this sentence. The indirect object always goes before the direct object.
3. Objects of a preposition are nouns and pronouns in a phrase that modifies the meaning of a verb. For instance: "Marie lives in a dorm." In this sentence, the noun "dorm" follows the preposition "in." Together, they form a prepositional phrase.

Complement

Complement is the term used for a word or words that are needed to complete the meaning of an expression.

Most phrases and clauses will include a complement of some kind. If you can't remove it from your sentence, then it's likely to be a complement. This is how complements differ from adjuncts. Adjuncts are optional as they are usually just descriptive. Complements are not optional. They are essential to ensure understanding.

Subject Complement. A subject complement is the adjective, noun, or pronoun that follows a linking verb. (Examples of linking verbs include *to be, to smell, to seem, to taste, to look.*)

Here are two easy examples of subject complements. (The subject complements are shaded and the subjects are bold.)

- **Lee** is weak.

(*Lee* is the subject, *is* is the linking verb, and the adjective *weak* is the subject complement. It tells us something about the subject. It completes the meaning.)

- **John** was a chicken.

(*John* is the subject, *was* is the linking verb, and the noun phrase *a chicken* is the subject complement. It tells us something about the subject. It completes the meaning.)

Object Complement. An object complement is the adjective, noun, or pronoun that follows a direct object (shown in bold) to rename the direct object or state what it has become.

Here are two easy examples of object complements. (The object complements are shaded and the objects are bold.)

- The vote made **John's position** untenable.

(Here, *John's position* is the direct object of the verb *made*, and the adjective *untenable* is the object complement that completes the meaning. The adjective *untenable* tells us something about the direct object (*John's position*). It can't be removed because it completes the meaning. This is an example of an object complement.)

- We voted **John** chairman.

(Here, *John* is the direct object of the verb *voted*, and the noun *chairman* is the object complement that completes the meaning. The noun *chairman* tells us something about the direct object (*John*). It can't be removed because it completes the meaning.)

Prepositional Phrase

A prepositional phrase is a group of words that lacks either a [verb](#) or a subject, and that functions as a unified part of speech. It normally consists of a preposition and a [noun](#) or a preposition and a [pronoun](#).

Remember the following rules for prepositional phrases and you will find that using them becomes much easier.

- Prepositional phrases always consist of two basic parts at minimum: the object and the preposition.
- In formal English, prepositions are almost always followed by objects.
- Adjectives can be placed between the prepositions and objects in prepositional phrases.
- Prepositional phrases can act as [adverbs](#) or [adjectives](#). When they are used as adjectives, they modify nouns and pronouns in the same way single-word adjectives do.
- When prepositional phrases are used as adverbs, they do the same way single-word adverbs and adverb clauses do, modifying adjectives, verbs, and other adverbs.

Just like bread and cheese are the minimum ingredients for making a cheese sandwich, a preposition and the object of a preposition are the minimum requirements for forming a prepositional phrase. The object of a preposition is the name for the noun or pronoun following the preposition.

Prepositional phrases don't have to be plain. Just as adding more ingredients to a sandwich dresses it up, adding more words such as adverbs or adjectives is a good method for spicing up prepositional phrases. As you read the following examples of prepositional phrases, you'll notice that the first sentence in each set contains a basic prepositional phrase, while the second one contains a more interesting one.

Examples of Prepositional Phrases

The following sentences contain examples of prepositional phrases; the prepositional phrase in each sentence is italicized for easy identification.

The cupcake *with sprinkles* is yours.

The cupcake *with colorful sprinkles* is yours.

We climbed *up the hill*.

We climbed *up the very steep hill*.

The rabbits hopped *through the garden*.

The rabbits hopped *through the perfectly manicured garden*.

Pronouns

What Is a Pronoun?

Pronouns are used in place of nouns. The purpose of pronouns is to avoid repetition and make sentences easier to understand. Some of the most common pronouns to remember when learning English as a second language are *he, she, it, they, and this*.

The Seven Types of Pronouns

There are seven types of pronouns that both English and English as a second language writers must recognize: the personal pronoun, the demonstrative pronoun, the interrogative pronoun, the relative pronoun, the indefinite pronoun, the reflexive pronoun, and the intensive pronoun.

1. Personal pronouns

Personal pronouns refer to a specific person or thing. Their form changes to indicate a person, number, gender, or case.

- Subjective personal pronouns are pronouns that act as the subject of a sentence. If you are learning English as a second language, remember that the subjective personal pronouns are *I, you, she, he, it, you, and they*. For example:
 - "I walked directly to the party."
 - "You showed up late; she was annoyed."
 - "He thought you had forgotten; we know you were just behind."
- Objective personal pronouns are pronouns that act as the object of a sentence. If you are learning English as a second language, remember that the objective personal pronouns are *me, you, her, him, it, us, you, and them*. For example:
 - "The police officer told my brother and me to slow down."
 - "He pointed to the pedestrians and said to be careful of them."
 - "The police officer said there are a lot of speedy motorists like us."
- Possessive personal pronouns are pronouns that show possession. They define a person (or a number of people) who owns a particular object. If you are learning English as a second language, remember that the possessive personal pronouns are *mine, yours, hers, his, its, ours, and theirs*. For example:
 - "Is this book yours or his?"
 - "All the books are mine."
 - "Nobody's house has as many books as theirs, not even ours."

2. Demonstrative pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns point to and identify a noun or a pronoun. *This* and *these* refer to things that are nearby in space or time, while *that* and *those* refer to things that are farther away in space or further away in time. For example:

- "This is the dress I will wear; that is the one I wore yesterday."
- "That is not true."
- "Please pay for those."

3. Interrogative pronouns

Interrogative pronouns are used to ask questions. The interrogative pronouns are *who, whom, which, and what*. If you are learning English as a second language, it is important to remember that *who* and *whom* are used to refer to people, while *which* is used to refer to things and animals. *Who* acts as the subject, while *whom* acts as the object. For example:

- "Which is the best restaurant?"
- "What did he tell you?"

- "Whom should we invite?"

4. Relative pronouns

Relative pronouns are used to link one phrase or clause to another phrase or clause. The relative pronouns are *who*, *whom*, *that*, and *which*. The compounds *whoever*, *whomever*, and *whichever* are also commonly used relative pronouns. For example:

- "Whoever added the bill made a mistake."
- "The bill, which included all our meals, was larger than expected."
- "The waiter who served us doesn't know how to add."

5. Indefinite pronouns

Indefinite pronouns refer to an identifiable, but not specified, person or thing. An indefinite pronoun conveys the idea of all, any, none, or some. If you are learning English as a second language, remember the following common indefinite pronouns: *all*, *another*, *any*, *anybody*, *anyone*, *anything*, *each*, *everybody*, *everyone*, *everything*, *few*, *many*, *nobody*, *none*, *one*, *several*, *some*, *somebody*, and *someone*. For example:

- "Everybody got lost on the way there."
- "Somebody forgot to bring the map."
- "No wonder so few showed up."

6. Reflexive pronouns

Reflexive pronouns refer back to the subject of the clause or sentence. The [reflexive pronouns](#) used in writing English are *myself*, *yourself*, *herself*, *himself*, *itself*, *ourselves*, *yourselves*, and *themselves*. For example:

- "She baked a cake for herself."
- "We decided to eat it ourselves."
- "We heard her say, 'They should be ashamed of themselves.'"

7. Intensive pronouns

Intensive pronouns are used to emphasize their antecedent. Intensive pronouns are identical in form to reflexive pronouns. For example:

- "I myself find pronouns fascinating."
- "They themselves think everyone should know about pronouns."
- "You yourself should tell everyone how great pronouns are."

Verb and its Types

A **verb** is a [word](#) or a combination of words that indicates action or a state of being or condition. A verb is the part of a [sentence](#) that tells us what the subject performs. Verbs are the hearts of English sentences.

Examples:

- Jacob walks in the morning. (A usual action)
- Mike is going to school. (A condition of action)
- Albert does not like to walk. (A negative action)
- Anna is a good girl. (A state of being)

Verbs are related to a lot of other factors like the *subject*, *person*, *number*, *tense*, *mood*, *voice*, etc.

Basic Forms of Verbs

There are **six basic** forms of verbs. These forms are as follows:

- **Base form:** Children play in the field.
- **Infinitive:** Tell them not to play
- **Past tense:** They played football yesterday.
- **Past participle:** I have eaten a burger.
- **Present participle:** I saw them playing with him today.

- **Gerund:** Swimming is the best exercise.

Base Verb

The **base verb** is the form of a verb where it has no ending (-ing, -ed, -en) added to it. It is also called the Root Verb since it is the very root form of a verb.

Examples:

- I **go** to school every day.
- You **run** a mile every morning.
- **Do** your homework.

Regular Verb

The Verbs that follow the most usual conjugations are considered **Regular Verbs**. It is regular since it abides by most if not all of the regular grammar rules there are.

Examples:

- Rehan **plays** cricket.
- Tam **called** out my name.
- You really **walked** all the way back?

Irregular Verb

The Verbs that have irregularities in terms of following grammar rules are Irregular Verbs, in general.

Examples:

- **Do** the dishes.
- I hardly ever **drink** enough water in a day.
- She **drove** all the way back.

Transitive Verb

The Main Verb that takes a direct object sitting right after it would be a Transitive Verb. They usually construct the most straightforward of sentences.

Examples:

- She **went** to the fair.
- We do not **like** being called out loud in crowds.
- I **love** visiting my village home.

Intransitive Verb

The main Verb that does not take a direct object specified right afterward and rather there is an indirect one mentioned somewhere along the line is called an Intransitive Verb. These verbs often make the corresponding sentences incomplete.

Example:

- I **laughed**.
- John **ran**.
- A ghaat of cold wind **blew**.

Weak Verb

Verbs that end with “-d” and “-t” in their Past Indefinite and Past Participle form are Weak Verbs. There is a tendency to associate Weak Verbs with Regular Verbs but not all Weak Verbs are Regular Verbs in the English language.

Examples:

Present Indefinite	Past Indefinite
Spend	Spent
Walk	Walked

Book	Booked
Learn	Learnt
Want	Wanted

Strong Verb

Strong Verbs are those in which the vowels in the verb stem changes from “i” to “a” to “u” in the Present Indefinite to Past Indefinite to Past Participle form of Verbs.

Examples:

Present Indefinite	Past Indefinite	Past Participle
Ring	Rang	Rung
Drink	Drank	Drunk
Cling	Clang	Clung
Swim	Swam	Swum
Sing	Sang	Sung
Wring	Wrang	Wrung

'Be' Verbs

A verb shows action or a state of being.

I go home. Home is my place to rest. I like the smell of my house. I feel totally relaxed. Home refreshes me. At home, I get ready for a new day.

"Be" verbs indicate a state of being.

Verbs must match subjects.

- I am a doctor.
- He is sleepy.
- We are here.

Negative sentences need 'not' after the verb.

- I am not a doctor.
- He is not sleepy.
- We are not there.

The verb comes first in interrogative sentences.

- Am I a doctor?
- Is he sleepy?
- Are we there?

"Are not" (is not) can be shortened to "aren't" (isn't).

- He isn't sleepy.
- We aren't there.

Remember the variations of "be" verbs:

Present	Negative	Interrogative
I am	I am not	Am I?
You are	You are not (aren't)	Are you?
He is	He is not (isn't)	Is he?

She is	She is not (isn't)	Is she?
It is	It is not (isn't)	Isn't it?
We are	We are not (aren't)	Are we?
You are	You are not (aren't)	Are you?
They are	They are not (aren't)	Are they?

Auxiliaries

Introduction

Auxiliaries - Helping verbs used to make the form of another verb Here,

- Studying - main verb
- Will have been - helping or auxiliary verbs

As of next August, I will have been studying chemistry for ten years.

Anomalous/Special Verbs – *Only verbs that come before the subject in questions and can combine with negatives. (isn't, haven't, mustn't)*

Modal Auxiliaries/Modals

Can, Could
Used, Need
May, Might
Will, Would
Must, Ought
Shall, Should

Features of Modals

Used in combination with **main verbs** to express:

- Permission
- Possibility
- Necessity
- Ability
- Mood

Defective Verbs – *can, could, may, might, shall, should, will, would, must and ought* (No -s in the third person singular, no infinitive, no *ing* forms)

Can and May - Usage

Can	May	Replacements
Expresses ability or capacity	Expresses permission, wishes (spoken)	<i>In spoken English, can often replaces may.</i>
1. I can swim across the river. 2. Can you lift this box?	1. May I borrow your bicycle? 2. May I go now?	1. You may/can go now. 2. May/Can I borrow your bicycle?
Used in negative sentences. <i>Can this be true?</i>	Expresses possibility in affirmative sentences. <i>It may rain tomorrow.</i>	<i>It cannot be true – impossibility</i> <i>It may not be true - improbability</i>

Should and Would - Usage

Both are past equivalents of shall and will



1. I expected that I **should** get first class.
2. She said she **would** carry my books.

Should is used to express duty/obligation/supposition



1. We **should** obey the laws.
2. If he **should** see me here, he will be annoyed.

Must - Usage

Must expresses:

- Necessity/Obligation
- Fixed determination



1. We **must** obey the laws.
2. I **must** be seventy now.

Adjectives

- Used to qualify noun or a pronoun.
- It describes how something 'is'. To express the quantity and quality of a noun.
- Ex: *He is a good doctor.*
- It is placed before the noun. And should not be placed after it.
- Ex: *a red apple*
- Rule: The adjective is always invariable.
- Ex: *Girls are beautiful / Boys are handsome*
- Adjectives don't have a singular and plural form. (It's Abstract not concrete)
- Don't have a masculine, feminine and neuter form.
- Adjectives are always the same!
- Never add a final -s to an adjective.
- Adjectives can also be placed at the end of a sentence if they describe the subject of a sentence.
- Ex: *she sings beautiful / she looks beautiful*

Types of Adjectives

- Adjectives of Quality
- Adjectives of Quantity
- Interrogative Adjectives

- Demonstrative Adjectives
- Distributive Adjective
- Possessive Adjective

Adjectives of Quality

- These adjectives are mostly descriptive in nature.
- They show the kind and quality of a person, place or thing.
- Ex: intelligent, tall, excellent etc
- This building is tall.
- Ramu is an intelligent boy.

Adjectives of Quantity

- These adjectives refer to quantity or how much of a thing is mentioned.
- The numbers, words like many, much, some, any are adjectives of quantity.
- Ex: There are many fruits.
- Nehru is our first Prime Minister

Interrogative Adjectives

- These words are used to frame questions.
- Words like what, which, whose are used to ask questions. These are called interrogative adjectives.
- Ex: Which team won the match?
- Whose books are these?

Demonstrative Adjectives

- These adjectives used to specify or point out a particular person, place or thing.
- Words like that, this, those, these are used as Demonstrative adjective
- Ex: This room has many windows.
- That is a ship.

Distributive Adjective

- Adjectives which are used to show the distribution of something are Distributive adjectives.
- They do not indicate any actual number.
- Words like each, every, neither and either are distributive adjectives.
- Ex: Each rose is beautiful.
- Everyone is busy.

Possessive Adjective

- Adjectives which indicate the possession or something that belongs to someone are Possessive adjectives.
- Words like my, your, his, her, our and their are possessive pronouns but they qualify the noun and becomes possessive adjectives.
- Ex: My books are kept at home.

List of Adjectives

- Time : Yearly , monthly, annually
- Ages : new, young, old, brand-new, second-hand
- Sound related Adjectives : loud, noisy, quiet, silent
- Touch related Adjectives : slippery, sticky
- Taste related Adjectives : juicy, sweet

DEGREES OF COMPARISON

Christo is a **tall** boy.

Christo is **taller** than Dev.

Christo is the **tallest** of all

- Tall-the quality of christo.
- Taller-comparison of the quality of christo.
- Tallest-higher degree of the quality of christo.

These adjectives, change in a form to show comparison .They are called three Degrees of Comparison.

Positive Degree -Tall.

Comparative Degree - Taller.

Superlative Degree - Tallest.

POSITIVE DEGREE

- Adjective in its simple form
- Use to denote the mere existence of some quality of what we speak about.
- Use when no comparison is made .
- Christo is a tall boy

COMPARATIVE DEGREE

- Adjective denotes a higher degree of quality than positive degree.
- Used when two things are compared.
- Christo is taller than Dev.

SUPERLATIVE DEGREE

- Adjective denotes the highest degree of the quality.
- Used when more than two things are compared.
- Christo is the tallest of all

FORMATION OF COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE

Most adjectives of one syllable and some of more than one, form the comparative by adding “-er” • The superlative by adding “-est”

e.g.

Sweet	sweeter	sweetest
Bold	bolder	boldest
Kind	kinder	kindest

- When the Positive ends in “e”, only “r” and “st” are added respectively

e.g.

Brave	braver	bravest
Large	larger	largest
Able	abler	ablest

When the positive ends in “y”, preceded by a constant , the “y” is changed into “I” before ending “er “ and ”est”.

e.g.

Happy	happier	happiest
Merry	merrier	merriest
Easy	easier	easiest

EXCEPTION

- In the case of word like “gay” which comprises one syllable only, then,

Gay	gayer	gayest
-----	-------	--------

It should be noted that ‘y’ in gay is preceded by vowel ‘a’ and not a consonant

- When the positive is word of one syllable and ends in a single consonant, preceded by a short vowel, this consonant is double before adding “er” and “est”.

e.g.

Big	bigger	biggest
Hot	hotter	hottest

- Adjectives of more than two syllables form the comparative and the superlative by putting more and most before the positive.

e.g.

beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
courageous	more courageous	most courageous
careful	more careful	most careful

- Two syllable adjectives ending in

ful -useful
less - hopeless
ing - boring
ed - surprised

and many others like modern, recent, foolish, famous, certain take “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.

Rama is braver than Balu.

But if we wish to say that courage of Rama is greater than his prudence.

Rama is brave than his prudent.

Adverbs

An adverb is a word that tells us more about a *verb*. It "qualifies" or "modifies" a *verb* (The man *ran* quickly). In the following examples, the adverb is in bold and the verb that it modifies is in *italics*.

- John *speaks* loudly. (How does John speak?)
- Afterwards she *smoked* a cigarette. (When did she smoke?)
- Mary *lives* locally. (Where does Mary live?)

Adverbs of Manner

Adverbs of Manner tell us the manner or way in which something happens. They answer the question "how?". Adverbs of Manner mainly modify *verbs*.

- He *speaks* slowly. (How does he speak?)
- They *helped* us cheerfully. (How did they help us?)
- James Bond *drives* his cars fast. (How does James Bond drive his cars?)

Adverbs of Place

Adverbs of Place tell us the place where something happens. They answer the question "where?". Adverbs of Place mainly modify *verbs*.

- Please *sit* here. (Where should I sit?)
- They *looked* everywhere. (Where did they look?)
- Two cars were *parked* outside. (Where were two cars parked?)

Adverbs of Time

Adverbs of Time tell us something about the time that something happens. Adverbs of Time mainly modify *verbs*.

They can answer the question "when?":

- He *came* yesterday. (When did he come?)
- I *want* it now. (When do I want it?)

Or they can answer the question "how often?" (frequency):

- They *deliver* the newspaper daily. (How often do they deliver the newspaper?)
- We sometimes *watch* a movie. (How often do we watch a movie?)

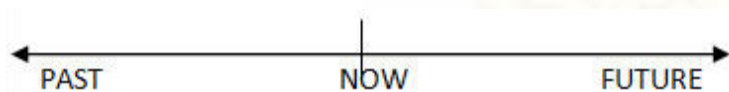
Adverbs of Degree

Adverbs of Degree tell us the degree or extent to which something happens. They answer the question "how much?" or "to what degree?". Adverbs of Degree can modify *verbs*, *adjectives* and other *adverbs*.

- She entirely *agrees* with him. (How much does she agree with him?)
- Mary is very *beautiful*. (To what degree is Mary beautiful? How beautiful is Mary?)
- He drove quite *dangerously*. (To what degree did he drive dangerously? How dangerously did he drive?)

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.



The table below gives a glimpse of the way tenses are used using the verb 'play'

	Past	Present	Future
Simple	Played (verb+ed)	Plays (verb+s)	will/shall play (will/shall+verb)
Perfect	had played (had+past participle)	has/have played (has/have+past participle)	will/shall have played (will/shall+past participle)
Continuous	was/were playing (was/were+verb+ing)	is/am/are playing (is/am/are+verb+ing)	will/shall be playing (will/shall be+verb+ing)
Perfect Continuous	had been playing (had been+verb+ing)	has/have been playing (has/have been+verb+ing)	will/shall have been playing (will/shall have been+verb+ing)

Articles

Definition:

A, AN, THE.

Examples

- This is a book (not, This is book)
- This is milk (not, This is a milk)
- That is an egg (not, That is a egg)

Articles are used with nouns but not all nouns are used with articles.

TYPES OF ARTICLES:

There are two kinds of articles

Definite- the
Indefinite- a/an

Indefinite Articles

- A/an is an article. So it belongs to the class of determiners.
- As a determiner, its position is before the objective.

- A good book
- An intelligent girl

Articles and number system

The use of articles is linked to the number system of nouns. A/an is never used with a plural noun:

1. This is a pen. (not, a pens)
2. That is an apple (not, an apples)

Usage on the basis of sound

The choice between a/an is determined by the initial sounds of the word following it.

A +Consonant sound

A is used before a word beginning with a consonant sound. a book, a cat, a dog, a fan,

An + Vowel /sound

- An is used before a word beginning with a vowel sound.
- an apple, an egg, an inkpot, an hour.

An + a mute h (silent h)

- Words beginning with a mute h take An, not a
 - 1.He is an honest man
 - 2.we had an hour's rest
 - 3.This is an honorary post

An + Abbreviations

An is used before abbreviations beginning with f,h,I,m,n, because each of these consonants has an initial vowel sound.

- 1.He is an FBI agent
- 2.This is an HMT watch
- 3.He is an LLB
- 4.He is an MP
- 5.He is an NCC officer

Definite Article usage

- The is used before adjectives or participles to represent a class of people.
 - 1.The rich are necessarily happy
 - 2.The blind deserve our sympathy.
- The is used before a noun whose identity is common knowledge or can be easily inferred. In this construction *the* denotes a person's title, rank or profession ect..*the president, the principal, the prime minister, the king/queen, the press/media.*
- The is used before the names of ranges of mountains and hills: the Himalayas, the khasi hills, the vindhyas.

Prepositions

- Preposition is a word, which is used before a noun, a noun phrase or a pronoun , connecting it to another word.
- A preposition is a word which shows the relationship between one thing and another.
- The word or phrase that the preposition introduces is called the object of the sentence.
- It may tell you where a thing is in relation to something else.
Eg. The juicy, red apple was on the book.

Simple prepositions: Prepositions which consists only one word.

e.g. in, on, at, with, against etc..,

Compound prepositions: Prepositions which consists of two or more words.

e.g. instead of, in the middle of, by the side of etc..,

There are three types in prepositions

- ❖ **Place of Prepositions**
- ❖ **Time of Prepositions**
- ❖ **Direction of Prepositions**

on, through, behind, for, beneath, against,
beside, over, during, without, abroad,
across, among, against, around, at the end, at
the bottom, between, behind, below, by,
inside, corner, into, via, after, to, about, in,
on, at, since, while, under, over, right, left

Prepositions of Place

- Some prepositions show where something happens. They are called prepositions of place.
- Examples:-
- John was sitting under a tree.
- There's a wooden floor underneath the carpet.
- Some geese flew over their house.

Prepositions of Time

Some prepositions show when something happens. They are called prepositions of time.

Examples:-

School starts at nine o'clock. grandparents during the summer.

You must finish the work by Friday.

I'll do my homework before dinner.

We're going to the zoo on Saturday.

No, you can't watch a video. It's past your bedtime already.

I visited my grandparents during the summer.

Prepositions of Direction

Some prepositions show where something is going. They are called prepositions of direction.

Examples:-

The boys chased after each other.

The football rolled down the hill.

A man was walking his dog along the riverbank.

The freeway goes right through the city.

We were travelling towards Miami.

Conjunctions

Definition: Conjunction is a word or phrase which joins words or sentences or parts of sentences

Types of conjunctions

- Co-ordinating Conjunction :
It joins two independent statements.
- Subordinating Conjunction :
It joins one independent statement with another dependent statement/s.

Cumulative Conjunction

- It is about the addition of two or more words or sentences
- The following are some of the Cumulative Conjunctions
AND, BOTH...AND..., ALSO, TOO, AS WELL AS, NOT ONLY....BUT ALSO...

And : (Nouns and pronouns)

- Ram and Joe played football and carrom .

And : (verbs, Adjectives, Adverbs)

- Joe sang and danced.

Both..... And.....

- I will eat both chicken and mutton

Also

- Tarun drives quickly and carefully also

Too

- Ben is intelligent and naughty too.

As well as

- Siva practises as well as performs well.

Not only..... but also.....

- She reads not only precisely but also fluently.

Alternative Conjunction

- It denotes the choice between two alternatives.
- The following are the Alternative Conjunctions
Or, Otherwise, Either...or..., Neither... Nor...,

Otherwise, or

- You study otherwise sleep
- You read quickly or slowly

Either or

- Either lion or fox hunted the deer.

Neither nor.....

- Neither lion nor fox hunted the deer.

Adversative Conjunction

- It implies the contrast between sentences.
- The following are the Adversative Conjunctions.
BUT, WHEREAS, STILL, YET

But, Whereas

- They do not speak shri whereas I speak to jai.
- I smoke but I am gentle.

Still/yet

- He is poor still he studies well.
- She stammers yet she speaks well.

Illative Conjunction

- It denotes the inference or result
- The following are the Illative Conjunctions
THEREFORE, SO

Therefore, so

- I found mistake so I corrected it.
- We voted for jack therefore he will win.

Linkers

There are other lexical (vocabulary) forms that support our expressions in composing a good paragraph. One such classification of lexis is linkers. Linkers are also called transitions or discourse markers. They help us establish our ideas explicitly. Linkers make it easy for us to compare, contrast, illustrate, define, and summarize our thoughts and develop coherent paragraphs.

What are linkers?

Linkers are words that relate one idea or sentence of the text with another. They connect the ideas logically.

Why are they used?

They give direction to the writer. They are also used to guide the reader through his thoughts. They make the meaning specific.

How to choose a linker?

Meaning is the first and the most important criterion in choosing a linker. The second is the logical relation that needs to be made distinctly clear. For example, linkers like because, so and therefore express logical relations which are different from those expressed by although, but and nevertheless.

What is their use in descriptive paragraphs?

It is important to use linkers while describing a person, place or thing. They help us in listing facts chronologically, linking events across time, comparing and contrasting sketches, explaining graphic images and illustrating the main idea.

Listed below are some of the important linkers.

type of linker	Examples	broad meaning	example
cause and effect	because, so, accordingly, thus, consequently, hence, therefore, as	introduces a reason and shows result	We had to wait because , it was raining.
Comparison	similarly, likewise, whereas, but, on the other hand, except, by comparison, when compared to, equally, in the same way	identifies similarities between two ideas	Life is difficult in extreme polls; similarly , it is horrible near the Equatorial regions.
Contrast	but, however, yet, still, even though, nevertheless, on the other hand, otherwise, after all, for all of that, on the contrary, notwithstanding, in contrast, unlike, whereas, instead of, alternatively, although	identifies differences between two ideas	Raj did not perform well in the exam; nevertheless , he got a distinction in English.
Time	at once, immediately, meanwhile, at length, in the meantime, at the same time, in the end, when, then, as, before that, after that	indicates time and frequency of events	The bell rang and the students left immediately .
Addition	and, also, even, again, moreover, further, furthermore, similarly, in addition, as well as	adds ideas in support of the main idea	It is very hot today; moreover , there is a power outage.

Example	for example, such as, for instance, in this case, in another case, on this occasion, in this situation, in this manner, to illustrate	introduces illustrations in support of the main idea	I think he is very rich; for example , he gave a hundred rupee note to a beggar.
Sequence	first, second, third, next, then, following, now, at this point, after, after this, subsequently, eventually, finally, previously	shows the importance of the ideas by listing according to the priority	There is a students' procession today; therefore , they diverted the traffic.
Summary	in brief, on the whole, in sum, to sum up, thus	draws conclusion by summarizing the ideas	It is a love story, the actors performed well, the direction is excellent, the settings are beautiful; in brief , it is a good film.

Interjections

Interjections are words used to express strong feeling or sudden emotion. They are included in a sentence (usually at the start) to express a sentiment such as surprise, disgust, joy, excitement, or enthusiasm.

An interjection is not grammatically related to any other part of the sentence.

Examples of Interjections

In the following examples, the interjections are shaded.

- **Hey!** Get off that floor!
- **Oh**, that is a surprise.
- **Good!** Now we can move on.
- **Jeepers**, that was close.

Unit-4

Nominal Phrase

What Is a Nominal?

As a grammatical category, nominal describes words or groups of words that function together as a noun. The words in a nominal grouping give more detail about the noun (the headword), making it specific. Nominal phrases and clauses can include other parts of speech such as articles, prepositions, and adjectives.

"For example, in the noun phrase *a nice cup of tea*, it makes sense to say that *nice* is a modifier of a *cup of tea*, rather than just the [head](#) noun *cup*," says Author Geoffrey Leech in "A Glossary of Grammar." In this phrase, "nice cup of tea" is a nominal; it provides more

description than simply saying "cup." Using a nominal gives the reader a more complete sense about what the writer is trying to convey.

Nominal Phrases

When constructing a nominal phrase, the headword for the phrase is a noun or pronoun, though it may not always be at the front of the phrase, as you would think from just looking at the term. Headwords can have articles, pronouns, adjectives, or even other phrases before them, and they may be followed by prepositional phrases, subordinate clauses, and more.

Author G. David Morley gives these examples of nominal phrases. The headwords are in italics.

- This Russian *course*
- My most enjoyable *climb*
- Her sister's new *bicycle*
- All of our recent *holidays*
- A *voice* from the past
- The *song* that Jill sang
- The *secretary* general

In all of these examples, the nominal gives more context to the noun. It's not just a course; it's this Russian course. It's more than just a climb; it was my most enjoyable climb. And, it's much more than just a bicycle; it's her sister's new bicycle.

To illustrate how nominals can function in a sentence just like nouns, here are ways to use "the attorney general" as a nominal phrase in different parts of the sentence:

- The attorney general is running for reelection. (It's the subject.)
- We took our concerns to the attorney general. (It's the indirect object.)
- A bulletproof limo took the attorney general to the conference. (It's the direct object.)
- The staff members went to lunch with the attorney general. (It's the object of a preposition.)

Authors have made great use of nominal phrases in literature. For example, using a version of the nominal phrase from the last section, authors Greg Mortenson and David Oliver Relin authored a book called "Three Cups of Tea: One Man's Mission to Promote Peace — One School at a Time." The book is about one man's quest to promote peace by sharing "three cups of tea" (together with thoughts of friendship and peace) with various individuals in Pakistan. In this title, "Three Cups of Tea" is the nominal phrase. It's not just a cup, but three cups of tea that Mortenson shared with others.

Gerund

A gerund is the *-ing* form of a verb that functions the same as a noun. For example, "Running is fun." In this sentence, "running" is the gerund. It acts just like a noun.

Adjective Phrase

What Is an Adjective Phrase? (with Examples)

An adjective phrase is a group of words headed by an [adjective](#) that describes a [noun](#) or a [pronoun](#).

Interactive Examples of Adjective Phrases

Here are some interactive examples to help explain the difference between single-word adjectives, adjective phrases, adjectival phrases, and [adjective clauses](#). (In each adjective phrase, the head adjective is shown in bold. Also, in each adjective clause, the subject is blue, and the verb is green.).

Example

We are expecting **some extremely sunny** days.

Dogs **covered in mud** are not allowed upstairs.

Beautifully clear stars **full of wonder** illuminated the field.

Adverbial Phrase

An adverbial phrase (also known as an adverb phrase) is a group of words that functions as an adverb in a sentence. That is, it modifies a verb, adjective, adverb, clause, or the sentence as a whole. Adverbial phrases often feature an adverb (known as the head word) being modified by other elements, but not always.

Here are some examples of adverbial phrases:

- very quickly
- in a while
- just a bit
- surprisingly well
- at the fairground
- slightly close
- as soon as possible

Here are some examples of adverb phrases being used in sentences:

- “Shelia rode her bike very hastily so she could get home sooner.”
- “The farmers worked like a single unit.”
- “The surf at the beach was coming in extremely quickly.”
- “After they woke up, they packed up their things and then went on a hike.”
- “He read the restaurant's menu rather slowly.”

Prepositional Phrase

A **prepositional phrase**, then, is a phrase that begins with a preposition, has an object, or a noun, and any modifiers of that object. Modifiers include the articles 'a', 'an' and 'the', or any adjective that describes the noun. Look at this sentence:

- Thor smashed Loki with his hammer.

In this sentence, the phrase 'with his hammer' is a prepositional phrase. The preposition is 'with', the object is 'hammer' and 'his' is a modifier of that object. There are two kinds of prepositional phrases: adjectival and adverbial. Let's look at adjectival phrases first.

Independent Clause

An independent clause is a group of words that contains a subject and verb and expresses a complete thought. An independent clause is a sentence.

Jim studied in the Sweet Shop for his chemistry quiz.

Dependent Clause

A dependent clause is a group of words that contains a subject and verb but does not express a complete thought. A dependent clause cannot be a sentence. Often a dependent clause is marked by a **dependent marker word**.

When Jim studied in the Sweet Shop for his chemistry quiz . . . (What happened when he studied? The thought is incomplete.)

Sentence Pattern

There are six basic or simple sentence patterns:

1. Subject/Predicate, Action Verb
2. Subject/Predicate, Action Verb/Direct Object
3. Subject/Predicate, Action Verb/Adverb
4. Subject/Predicate, Linking Verb/Predicate Nominative
5. Subject/Predicate, Linking Verb/Predicate Adjective
6. Subject/Predicate, Action Verb/Indirect Object/Direct Object

Examples of the six basis sentence types:

1. Subject/Predicate, Action Verb

- The class studied.
- The students and the teacher read.
- The students sat and read.
- The students and the teacher sat and read.

2. Subject/Predicate, Action Verb/Direct Object

- The class took a test.
- The class took a test and a quiz.

3. Subject/Predicate, Action Verb/Adverb

- The class worked carefully.
- The students sit here.
- The class worked like a team.
- Before school, in the gym, the class worked like a team.
- In the gym, the class worked like a team before school.
- Like a team, the class worked before school in the gym.

4. Subject/Predicate, Linking Verb/Predicate Nominative

- The teacher is Mr. Soto.
- The teachers are Mr. Soto and Ms. Lin

5. Subject/Predicate, Linking Verb/Predicate Adjective

- The teacher is kind.
- Ms. Kin is kind and helpful.

6. Subject/Predicate, Action Verb/Indirect Object/Direct Object

- The teacher gave the class a test.
- Mr. Soto gave Kim and John a test.

Kinds of Sentence

1. Declarative
2. Interrogative
3. Imperative
4. Exclamatory

Declarative Sentence

- Also called Assertive sentence.
- Makes a statement.
- Subject normally precedes the predicate.
- Ends with a period.

Eg; The house will be built on a hill.

Interrogative Sentence

- Asks a question
- The subject is sometimes located in the predicate.
- Ends with a question mark.

Eg: How did you find the card?

Imperative Sentence

- Give commands, requests or entreaties.

Eg: Be quiet.

Have mercy upon us.

Exclamatory Sentence

- Shows strong feeling.
- Ends with an exclamation mark.

Eg: How very cold the night is!

Types of Sentences

Simple Sentences

A simple sentence is a basic sentence that expresses a complete thought.

It contains: 1. A subject 2. A verb 3. A complete thought

Ex. The train was late.

Mary and Maggie took the bus.

Compound Sentences

A compound sentence contains two main clauses joined by a comma and a coordinating conjunction or a semi-colon.

Compound sentences connect two simple sentences, but they often do not show a clear relationship between the two parts.

Ex. I waited for the bus, but it was late.

Independent clause Independent clause

Complex Sentences

A complex sentence contains a main clause and one or more dependent clauses.

If the dependent clause comes before the independent clause, add a comma after the dependent clause. If the main clause comes first, no comma is needed between the two.

Complex sentences can show a more specific relationship between the parts of the sentence than a compound sentence.

Examples

We won the game because we worked together as a team.

Although I broke my arm, I still cheered for my team from the sidelines.

Active and Passive Voice

ACTIVE / PASSIVE VOICE

Active voice

In most English sentences with an action verb, the subject performs the action denoted by the [verb](#).

These examples show that the [subject](#) is *doing* the verb's action.

The man must have eaten five hamburgers

The **man** (subject) is doing the **eating** (verb).

Marilyn mailed the letter.

Marilyn (subject) is doing the **mailing** (verb).

Colorful parrots live in the rainforests.

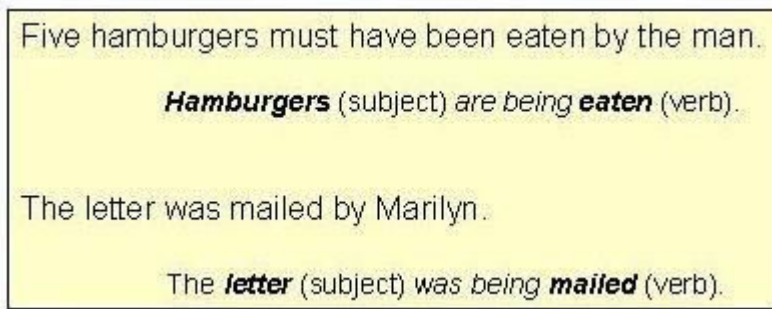
Parrots (subject) are doing the **living** (verb).

Because the subject does or "acts upon" the verb in such sentences, the sentences are said to be in the active voice.

Passive voice

One can change the normal word order of many active sentences (those with a **direct object**) so that the subject is no longer *active*, but is, instead, being *acted upon* by the verb - or *passive*.

Note in these examples how the subject-verb relationship has changed.

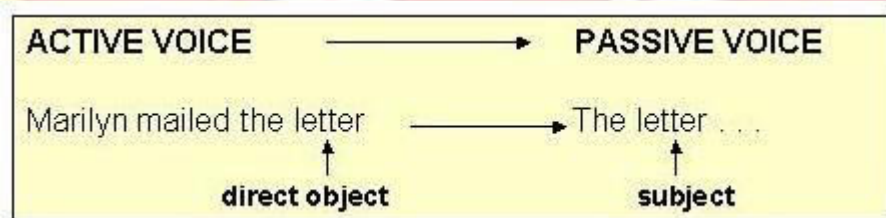


Because the subject is being "acted upon" (or is *passive*), such sentences are said to be in the passive voice.

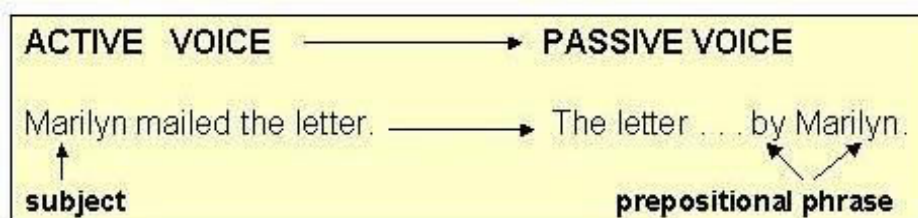
NOTE: *Colorful parrots live in the rainforests* cannot be changed to passive voice because the sentence does not have a direct object.

To change a sentence from active to passive voice, do the following:

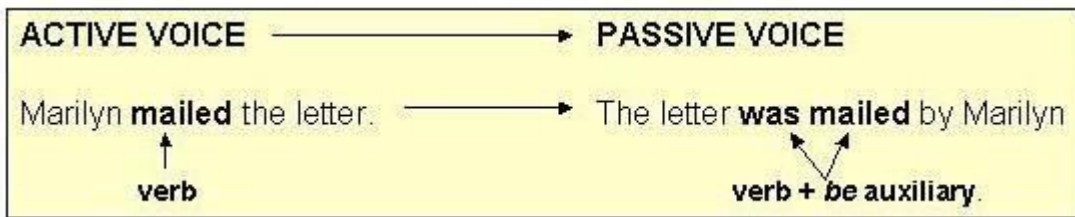
1. Move the active sentence's direct object into the sentence's subject slot



2. Place the active sentence's subject into a phrase beginning with the **preposition** *by*

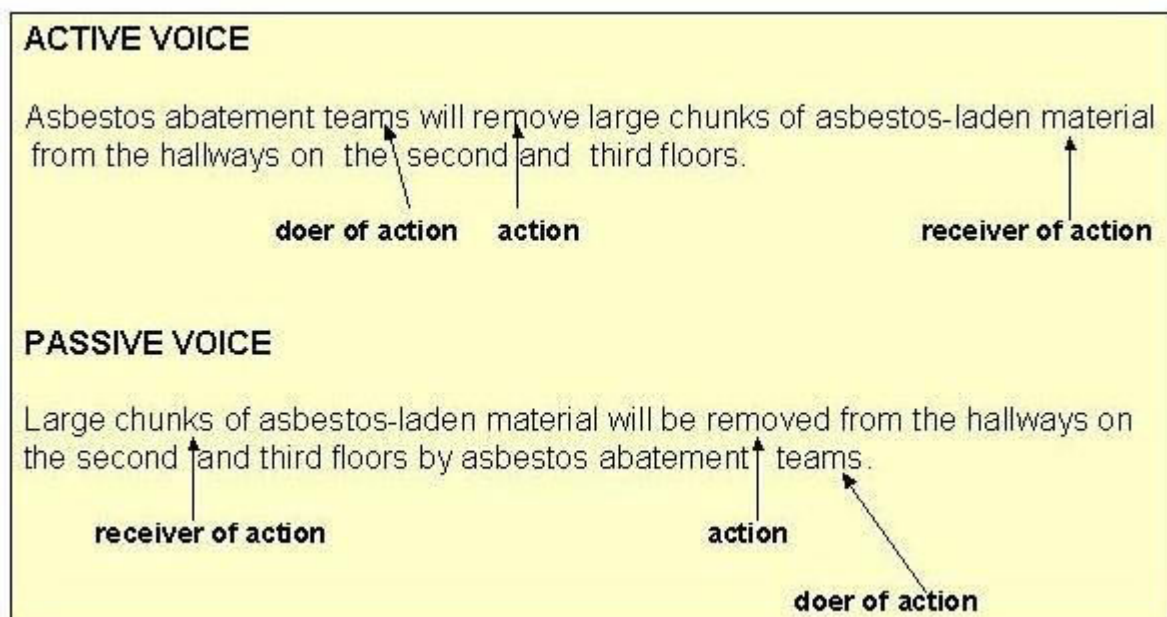
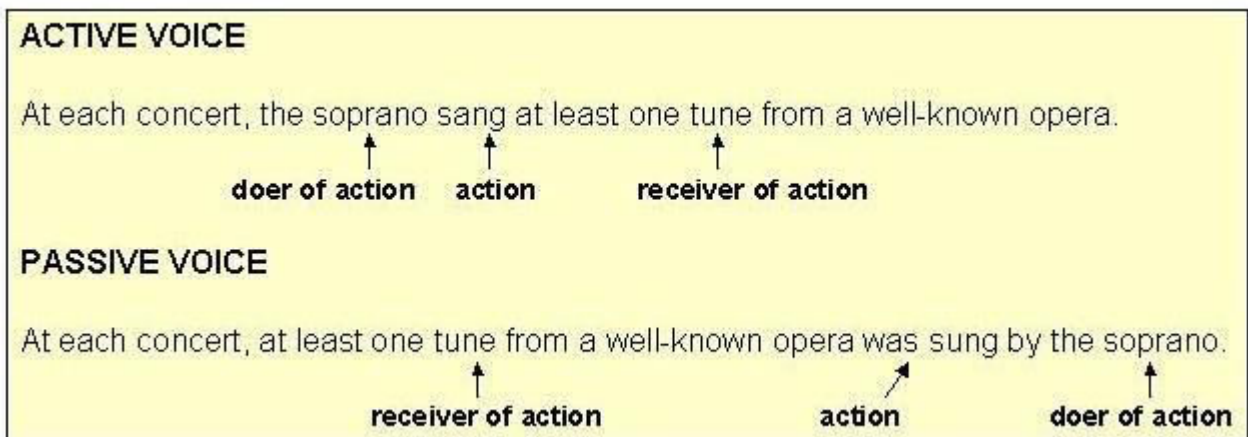


3. Add a form of the **auxiliary verb** *be* to the main verb and change the main verb's form



Because passive voice sentences necessarily add words and change the normal *doer-action-receiver of action* direction, they may make the reader work harder to understand the intended meaning.

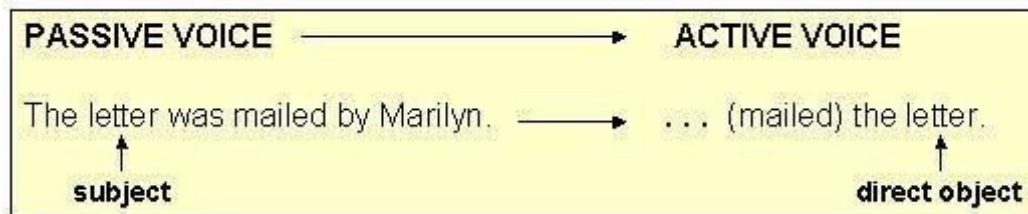
As the examples below illustrate, a sentence in active voice flows more smoothly and is easier to understand than the same sentence in passive voice.



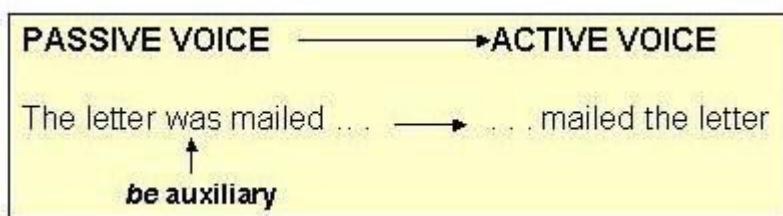
It is generally preferable to use the ACTIVE voice.

To change a passive voice sentence into an active voice sentence, simply reverse the steps shown above.

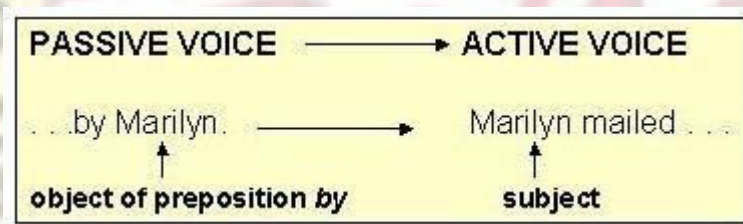
1. Move the passive sentence's subject into the active sentence's direct object slot



2. Remove the auxiliary verb *be* from the main verb and change main verb's form if needed



3. Place the passive sentence's object of the preposition *by* into the subject slot.



Because it is more direct, most writers prefer to use the active voice whenever possible.

The passive voice may be a better choice, however, when

- the doer of the action is unknown, unwanted, or unneeded in the sentence

Examples

The ballots have been counted.
Sometimes our efforts are not fully appreciated.

- the writer wishes to emphasize the action of the sentence rather than the doer of the action

Examples

The high-jump record was finally broken last Saturday.

A suspect was questioned for sixteen hours by the police.

- the writer wishes to use passive voice for sentence variety.

Reported Speech

DIRECT SPEECH/QUOTED SPEECH

Saying exactly what someone has said is called direct speech (sometimes called quoted speech)

□ Here what a person says appears within quotation marks ("...") and should be word for word.

For example:

□ She said, "Today's lesson is on presentations." or

□ "Today's lesson is on presentations," she said.

INDIRECT SPEECH/REPORTED SPEECH

□ Indirect speech doesn't use quotation marks to enclose what the person said and it doesn't have to be word for word.

□ When reporting speech the tense usually changes. This is because when we use reported speech, we are usually talking about a time in the past. The verbs therefore usually have to be in the past too.

Tense change

As a rule when you report something someone has said you go back a tense: (the tense on the left changes to the tense on the right):

Direct speech	Indirect speech
Present simple She said, "It's cold."	Past simple She said it was cold.
Present continuous She said, "I'm teaching English online."	Past continuous She said she was teaching English online.
Present perfect simple She said, "I've been on the web since 1999."	Past perfect simple She said she had been on the web since 1999.

Present perfect continuous She said, "I've been teaching English for seven years."	Past perfect continuous She said she had been teaching English for seven years.
--	---

Direct Speech	Indirect Speech
Past continuous She said, "I was teaching earlier."	Past perfect continuous She said she had been teaching earlier.
Past perfect She said, "The lesson had already started when he arrived."	Past perfect NO CHANGE - She said the lesson had already started when he arrived.
Past perfect continuous She said, "I'd already been teaching for five minutes."	Past perfect continuous NO CHANGE - She said she'd already been teaching for five minutes.

Modal verb forms also sometimes change:

Direct speech	Indirect speech
will She said, "I'll teach English online tomorrow."	would She said she would teach English online tomorrow.
can She said, "I can teach English online."	could She said she could teach English online.
must She said, "I must have a computer to teach English online."	had to She said she had to have a computer to teach English online.
shall She said, "What shall we learn today?"	should She asked what we should learn today.

may
She said, "May I open a new browser?"

might
She asked if she might open a new browser.

Note - There is no change to; could, would, should, might and ought to.

Direct speech

Indirect speech

"I might go to the cinema", he said.

He said he might go to the cinema.

Time change

If the reported sentence contains an expression of time, you must change it to fit in with the time of reporting.

For example we need to change words like *here* and *yesterday* if they have different meanings at the time and place of reporting.

Today

+ 24 hours - Indirect speech

"Today's lesson is on presentations."

She said yesterday's lesson was on presentations.

Expressions of time if reported on a different day

this (evening)

that (evening)

Today

yesterday ...

these (days)

those (days)

now

then

(a week) ago

(a week) before

last weekend

the weekend before last / the previous weekend

here	there
next (week)	the following (week)
tomorrow	the next/following day

In addition if you report something that someone said in a different place to where you heard it you must change the place (here) to the place (there).

At work	At home
<i>"How long have you worked here?"</i>	She asked me how long I'd worked there.

Pronoun change

In reported speech, the pronoun often changes.

For example:

Me	You
<i>"I teach English online."</i>	<i>She said she teaches English online.</i>

REPORTING VERBS

- Said, told and asked are the most common verbs used in indirect speech.

- We use asked to report questions:-

For example: I asked Lynne what time the lesson started.

- We use told with an object.

For example: Lynne told me she felt tired.

- We usually use said without an object.

For example: Lynne said she was going to teach online.

- If said is used with an object we must include **to** ;

*For example: Lynne **said to** me that she'd never been to China.*

Note - We usually use **told**.

*For example: Lynne **told** me that she'd never been to China.*

- There are many other verbs we can use apart from said, told and asked.

These include:-

accused, admitted, advised, alleged, agreed, apologized, begged, boasted, complained, denied, explained, implied, invited, offered, ordered, promised, replied, suggested and thought.

Using them properly can make what you say much more interesting and informative.

For example:

He asked me to come to the party:-

He invited me to the party.

He begged me to come to the party.

He suggested I should come to the party.

Use of 'that' in reported Speech

- In reported speech, the word *that* is often used.

For example: He told me that he lived in Greenwich.

However, *that* is optional.

For example: He told me he lived in Greenwich.

- *Note* - *That* is never used in questions, instead we often use *if*.

For example: He asked me if I would come to the party.

Unit-5

Spelling and its Rules

1. 'i before e except after c' rule

believe - receive

As a basic rule this is great

but what about ancient, leisure, neighbour/neighbor

We have a longer version of the rule:

"i before e except after a long c but not when c is a 'sh' sound and not when sounded like 'a' as in neighbour or weigh."

(i before e rule) believe, achieve, (except after c), receive, ceiling (but not when c is sounded like sh) ancient, proficient

not when sounded like 'a') eight, beige

But there are exceptions always exceptions so watch out for them.

2. Changing -y to -ies or -s

You might not know the spelling rule but you might know the spelling pattern - most people do.

When the word ends in a vowel + y just add 's'

key → keys

delay → delays

trolley → trolleys

(because we can't have three vowels in a row delaiies x)

If the word has a consonant before the 'y':

take off the 'y' and add 'ies'

baby → babies

company → companies

difficulty → difficulties

3. Adding -es to words ending in -s, -ss, -z -ch -sh -x

This was added centuries ago to stop the plural 's' clashing with these letters and it softens the 's' sound to a 'z' sound

bus → buses

business → businesses

watch → watches

box → boxes
quiz → quizzes

4. 1:1:1 doubling up rule

put - putting, big-bigger, quiz - quizzes, swim - swimming...

When a word has one syllable + 1 vowel next to 1 consonant we double up the final consonant with a vowel suffix:

sit - sitter, big - biggest, tap - tapping, shop - shopper/shopping, fat - fatten, fattening, fatter, fattest...

This happens in longer words when the stress is on the final syllable:

begin (beGIN) - beginner, beginning
refer (reFER) - referring, referred
occur (ocCUR) - occurring, occurred, occurrence

5. Drop the 'e' rule

We usually drop the final silent "e" when we add vowel suffix endings, for example:

write + ing → writing
hope + ed = hoped
excite + able = excitable
joke - joker
large - largish
close - closing
sense + ible = sensible
opposite + ion = opposition
imagine + ation = imagination

We keep the 'e' if the word ends in -CE or -GE to keep a soft sound, with able/ous

courage + ous = courageous
outrage + ous = outrageous
notice + able = noticeable
manage + able = manageable

6. Changing the -y to -i when adding suffix endings.

If a word ends in a consonant + Y, the Y changes to i (unless adding endings with "i" -ing -ish, which already begins with an i)

beauty + ful → beauti+ful = beautiful, beautify, beautician
happy + ness = - happiness, happily, happier, happiest
angry + er = angrier, angriest, angrily,
pretty: prettier, prettiest but prettyish
ready: readily readiness
dry: dried, BUT drying, dryish
defy: defies, defied, but defying
apply: applies, applied but applying

7. -f to -ves or -s

Most words ending in "-f" or "-fe" change their plurals to "-ves"

calf - calves
 half - halves
 knife - knives
 leaf - leaves
 loaf - loaves
 life - lives
 wife - wives
 shelf - shelves
 thief - thieves
 yourself - yourselves

Some words can have both endings -ves or -s:

scarf - scarfs/scarves
 dwarf - dwarfs/dwarves
 wharf - wharfs/wharves
 handkerchief - handkerchiefs/handkerchieves

Words ending in -ff you just add -s to make the plural.

cliff - cliffs
 toff - toffs
 scuff - scuffs
 sniff - sniffs

Some words ending in -f add -s:

Nouns which end in two vowels plus -f usually form plurals in the normal way, with just an-s

chief - chiefs
 spoof - spoofs
 roof - roofs
 chief - chiefs
 oaf - oafs

EXCEPTIONS: thief - thieves, leaf - leaves

8. Words ending in -ful

The suffix **-ful** is always spelt with one L, for example:

grate + ful = grateful
 faith + ful = faithful
 hope + ful = hopeful
 careful
 helpful
 useful
 grateful
 beautiful (notice the -y becomes -i)

9. Adding -ly

When we add -ly to words ending in -ful then we have double letters
 gratefully

faithfully
hopefully

We also add -ly to words ending in 'e'

love + ly = lovely

like + ly = likely

live + ly = lively

complete + ly = completely

definite + ly = definitely

BUT not **truly** (true + ly) This is a common misspelled word.

We change the end 'e' to 'y' in these -le words

gentle → gently

idle → idly

subtle → subtly

10. When we add "all" to the beginning of words we drop the l

all + so = also

all + most = almost

although

always

almighty

already

alright (all right as two words is used in more formal English)

altogether (Note that altogether and all together do not mean the same thing. Altogether means 'in total', as in there are six bedrooms altogether, whereas all together means 'all in one place' or 'all at once', as in it was good to have a group of friends all together; they came in all together.)

Idioms and Phrases

Idiom	Meaning
Beat around the bush	To avoid talking about what's important
Get your act together	Get organized and do things effectively
Hit the sack	Go to sleep
Your guess is as good as mine	I do not know
Good things come to those who wait	To have patience
Back against the wall	Stuck in a difficult circumstance with no escape
Up in arms	Being grumpy or angry about something
Scrape the barrel	Making the most of the worst situation or things because you can't do anything about it
Burn your boats/bridges	Doing something that makes it impossible to go back to the original state.
Break fresh/ new ground	Doing something that has never been done before

Sell like hot cakes	Quick sellout
Run around in circles	Putting efforts into something that is not worthwhile result
On cloud nine	Being very happy
Left out in the cold	Being ignored
Blow hot and cold	Alternate inconsistently between moods and actions
Cut corners	Doing something in an easier and least expensive manner
Boil the ocean	Taking up an almost impossible or overly ambitious project
Keep an ear to the ground	Staying informed and updated about everything
Eat like a horse	Eating too excessively
A snowball effect	The aspect of momentum in every event and how they build upon each other

