

April 2019

Diktat Mata Kuliah

Interactive Grammar I

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**FAKULTAS BAHASA DAN SASTRA
UNIVERSITAS NASIONAL
RENCANA PEMBELAJARAN SATU SEMESTER**

MATA KULIAH : Interactive Grammar I
SEMESTER : 1
SKS : 2
KODE : 03022105
JURUSAN : Sastra Inggris
KOMPETENSI : Memahami dan mampu berkomunikasi baik lisan maupun tulisan dengan menggunakan tata Bahasa yang tepat dan benar.

MINGGU KE	KEMAMPUAN AKHIR YANG DIHARAPKAN	BAHAN KAJIAN (MATERI AJAR)	BENTUK PEMBE LAJARAN	KRITERIA PENILAIAN (INDIKATOR)	BOBOT NILAI
1	Memahami bentuk dan fungsi dan mampu menggunakan dalam kalimat	Verbs to be	Ceramah, tanya jawab, dan diskusi kelompok (Model SCL)		
2	Memahami bentuk kalimat simple dan progressif	Simple and Progressive Verb Forms	Ceramah, tanya jawab, Latihan soal		
3	Memahami dan mampu menggunakan dalam kalimat	Simple and Progressive Verb Forms	Ceramah, tanya jawab, diskusi kelompok (Model SCL)		
4	Memahami dan mampu menggunakan bentuk future dalam kalimat	Future	QUIZ 1	Mampu menggunakan bentuk grammar dengan benar.	10%
5	Memahami dan mampu menggunakan bentuk kalimat perintah	Imperative	Ceramah, tanya jawab, simulasi		
6	Memahami dan mampu menggunakan dalam kalimat.	Articles	Dikusi kelompok dan latihan soal		
7	Memahami dan mampu menggunakan dalam kalimat	Adjectives	Ceramah, tanya jawab, simulasi		
8	Mampu menggunakannya dalam kalimat	Adjectives	Diskusi kelompok	UTS	30%
9	Memahami dan mampu menggunakannya di dalam kalimat	Noun Quantifiers	QUIZ 2	Kebenaran dan ketepatan dalam kalimat	10%
10	Memahami dan mampu menggunakan dalam kalimat	Pronouns	Ceramah, tanya jawab, presentasi		
11	Memahami dan dapat menggunakannya dalam kalimat	Prepositions	Ceramah, tanya jawab, diskusi kelompok (Model SCL)		
12	Memahami dan mampu menggunakannya dalam kalimat	Prepositions	QUIZ 3	kebenaran, dan kejelasan dalam presentasi	10%

13	Memahami bentuk-bentuk adverbs di dalam Bahasa Inggris	Adverbs	Ceramah, tanya jawab, simulasi dan presentasi		
14	Memahami dan mampu menggunakannya dalam kalimat	Adverbs	Ceramah, tanya jawab, diskusi kelompok (Model SCL)		
15	Memahami bentuk dan mampu menggunakannya dalam kalimat	Conjunctions	UJIAN AKHIR	kebenaran, dan kejelasan presentasi.	40%

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RENCANA TUGAS

MATA KULIAH : Interactive Grammar I
SEMESTER : 1
SKS : 2
MINGGU KE : 4,9,12 TUGAS KE : 1,2,3

1. Tujuan tugas : Memahami tata Bahasa Inggris dengan baik dan mampu menggunakannya dengan benar.
2. Uraian tugas :
 - a. Objek Garapan : Kemampuan dalam menggunakan tata bahasa dengan benar.
 - b. Yang harus dikerjakan dan batasan-batasan : Membaca, diskusi, dan Latihan soal, dan menggunakannya dalam kalimat.
 - c. Metode/cara pengerjaan, acuan yang digunakan : mengerjakan tugas, menyerahkan tugas.
 - d. Deskripsi luaran tugas yang dihasilkan/ dikerjakan : Memahami bentuk-bentuk tata Bahasa dan mampu menggunakannya dalam kalimat dengan benar.
3. Kriteria penilaian:
 - a. Kelengkapan, kejelasan dan kebenaran tata bahasa 10%
 - b. Kelengkapan, kejelasan dan kebenaran tata bahasa 10%
 - c. Kelengkapan, kejelasan dan kebenaran tata bahasa 10%

Kata Pengantar

Puji syukur penulis ucapkan kepada Tuhan Yang Maha Esa atas rahmat-Nya yang telah tercurah, sehingga penulis bisa menyelesaikan Diktat Kuliah Interactive Grammar I ini. Adapun tujuan dari disusunnya diktat ini adalah supaya para mahasiswa dapat lebih memahami dan mampu mempergunakannya di dalam reading, listening, speaking, dan writing

Tersusunnya diktat ini tentu bukan dari usaha penulis seorang. Dukungan moral dan material dari berbagai pihak sangatlah membantu tersusunnya diktat ini. Untuk itu, penulis ucapkan terima kasih kepada keluarga, sahabat, rekan-rekan, dan pihak-pihak lainnya yang membantu secara moral dan material bagi tersusunnya diktat ini.

Diktat yang tersusun sekian lama ini tentu masih jauh dari kata sempurna. Untuk itu, kritik dan saran yang membangun sangat diperlukan agar diktat ini bisa lebih baik nantinya.

Bekasi, April 2019

Penulis

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO VERBS

What is a Verb? When people begin learning the English language, one of the first things they are taught is the definition of verb. In fact, sentences can't be considered complete without including at least one verb. However, it gets trickier to analyze verb's definition and answer basic questions like *what is a verb*, *what is a verb phrase*, etc. Another definition of verb requires us to look at verbs as the heart of the sentence, without which, a sentence's central meaning would be lost.

If you ask, "what is a verb?", the simplest definition of verb would be 'words that describe action in all its forms'. To define verb further, this group of words explains three main things, namely, physical actions, mental actions, and states of being.

The **first** verb definition: Words that explain physical actions someone or something takes. This definition is the most common answer to the question 'what does verb mean?'. To understand this definition of a verb, look at the following examples:

- Martha **ran** around the block.

Martha is the noun and *ran* describes the action she takes.

- The ball **fell** on the other side of the fence.

In this example, *ball* is the noun and *fell* describes the physical action.

The **second** verb definition: These are the words that describe mental actions someone or something takes; they are also categorized under what are verbs. Here are some examples to grasp this definition of a verb:

- Steve **realized** he didn't do his homework.

Steve is the noun and *realized* describes what he just thought about.

- The dog *forgot* its toy at the park.

Dog is the noun and *forgot* describes the mental action that happened.

These first two forms describe action, identified as verbs, thus this part of speech is referred to as *action words*. However, there is one more component in verb definition.

The **third** verb definition: these are the words that describe a state of being. Here are a few examples to understand this definition of a verb:

- Jenny *is* happy.

Jenny is the noun and *is happy* is her current state of being.

- They *are* winning the football game.

They is the pronoun that stands for one of the teams playing a sport and *are winning* is the team's current state of being.

What are verbs that link nouns with pronouns or adjectives? They are the words that describe the state of being..To simply define verb of this form, they express your current state of existence;they work by connecting the two main parts of a sentence so that you get a complete idea of the situation. If people ask you to define verb or give the definition of a verb as a state of being, you can simply quote Hamlet, "To be or not to be", where both the 'be's in the statement represent a state of being, making understanding verbs definition easier.

Now, answering 'what is a verb?' doesn't seem so daunting, does it?

Definition of verb also requires you to learn the formal terms for the parts of a sentence, which we'll address a bit later. For starters, you must learn and understand the most common state

of being verb is ‘to be’, this verb (or one of its forms) connects words in a sentence. To completely understand this verbs definition, here are some examples:

- Tina *is* silly.
- You’ll *be* great during your dance recital!

What’s a verb that’s a true linking word? You have all the conjugations of *be*, including *being*, *been*, *am*, *was*, *are*, *were*, and *is*. To delve further in this verbs definition, understand that the verb *to become*, as well as *to seem*, and all their forms are also always linking words.

What Are Verbs? Define Verbs as both Active Words and Linking Words

Now we come to the application part of ‘what does verb mean’; some verbs act as both active words and linking words. Often, these verbs are referred to as the main verb because they complete the action in itself.

What’s a verb example? Here are a couple:

- I *love* running.
- She *turned* red with glee.

In these examples, the verbs are *love* and *turned*.

What is a verb that is both an active and linking word? That depends on the context. According to the verbs definition, when a sentence involves action, you’ll find an active verb and

when the sentence involves conditions or states of being, you'll find a linking word. Your understanding of a verb definition also needs to take into account that some words act as both active and linking words. Here are a few examples to understand this definition of a verb further:

Example 1

- **Active:** Stephanie *looked* around for her keys.
- **Linking:** The cake *looked* amazing.

Example 2

- **Active:** Jake *smelled* the fresh cut grass.
- **Linking:** The old egg *smelled* rotten.

These examples are in past tense; you'll learn more about verb and tenses in the verb tense definition provided later.

What are verbs that act as both active and linking words? Some examples are *appear, feel, grow, look, prove, remain, sound, taste, etc.*

Now that you know how to define verb, why not learn about MLA format and APA format? Understanding these styling formats will improve your writing assignments.

Now, let's go back to our key discussion on 'what does verb mean?'

What is a Verb Phrase or What is the Definition of a Verb Phrase?

Any verb definition would be considered incomplete unless the question 'what is a verb phrase' is addressed.

So, what is a verb phrase? Understanding verb phrase is important when using more than one action or linking word in a sentence. Verb phrases can be easily identified as they have an auxiliary verb followed by an action or main verb. To get a comprehensive understanding of what are verbs, know that they are necessary during an action or when there's a specific condition over a time period. Using multiple action or linking words together is the definition of a verb phrase.

What's a verb phrase equation?

When helping words are used with action words or linking words, a verb phrase is formed. Going by this definition of verb phrase, you'll always find the helping words before the action or linking words.

Helping word + action / linking word = a phrase.

What is a verb phrase example? Here are a few:

- I *was cooking* my dinner.
- Yes, Stephanie *does remember* your pet hamsters.

Now that you can answer the question 'what does verb mean?,' it wouldn't be hard for you to identify them. You can find most verb phrases in the predicate of the sentence. However, there are also times when a phrase contains an adjective clause or adverb phrase. These modifiers are crucial to the understanding of what is a verb phrase and, in extension, what does verb mean, as they give us more information on what's happening in the sentence.

To understand what's a verb phrase modifier, look at the following examples:

- Cleaning the house, *which we haven't done yet*, happens on Saturday mornings.
- Danny's father *frantically cleared* the table for dinner.

To answer 'what is a verb phrase?' completely, understand how the action/linking word is providing vital information in understanding the complete action.

Before getting into verb tense definition, look at this grammar check from Citation Machine Plus. It catches grammar mistakes you may have missed! Citation Machine also has easy-to-use citation tools for MLA format, APA format, and many more styles.

Verb Tense Definition

Apart from verbs definition and the role of verbs, it's also important to learn about verb tense definition. Understanding this verbs definition will help you in establishing when the action is happening. What is a verb tense? There are three tenses, past, present, and future, that you use to explain when something occurs or is going to occur. The following definition of verb will address tenses further.

Define verb in the past tense

So, what is a verb in the present tense? Recall what does verb mean or what are verbs. Using this tense, we communicate what has already happened in the past (be it a few hours ago, yesterday, or last year) to define verb in the past tense.

What's a verb in simple past tense?

- This morning *I rode* a horse for the first time.

Past continuous tense:

- He *was riding* a horse yesterday morning.

Past perfect:

- Rachel *had ridden* 12 different horses that year.

Past perfect continuous:

- Samantha *had been riding* horses since she was eight years old.

Now that we know a definition of verb for the past tense, let's look at one for the present tense.

Define verb in the present tense

What is a verb in present tense? This tense shows what is happening now or is ongoing. Here are the examples of each type; focus on how the same verb gets modified under each type and you'd grasp what are verbs in present tense:

What's a verb in simple present tense?

- I *work* every morning at 8 a.m.

Present continuous tense:

- He *is working* on the computer right now.

Present perfect tense:

- I *have finished* working.

Present perfect continuous:

- She *hasn't been working* today.

Define verb in the future tense

Finally, what is a verb in the *future tense*? You use this tense with events that will occur in the future. To add to this verb tense definition and to make this tense easily identifiable, remember that a verb form of *have*, *will*, or *be* would be used in all cases; look at the examples below to get a hang of what are verbs in future tense:

What's a verb in simple future tense?

- I ***will play*** video games tonight.

Future continuous tense:

- He ***will be playing*** video games all night.

Future perfect tense:

- I ***will have saved*** \$100 by the end of this month.

Future perfect continuous:

- Roger ***will have been working*** on his homework for three hours before eating lunch today.

What's a verb tense, then? These are the words that help in figuring out the time of the action.

This verb tense definition mostly talks about how words can be modified according to each tense. However, to simplify this verb definition, in some forms (especially present tense) the verb requires the state of being words to make the thought complete.

Now, when someone asks you what's a verb?" we're sure you'd be able to give a comprehensive verb definition. Simply say, it's a part of speech that describes an action someone or something takes or a state of being someone or something is in.

CHAPTER II

THE VERB “TO BE”

The verb "to be" - forms functions and usage

1. The verb to be as a main verb

The verb to be is the fundamental verb used to indicate the existence of an entity (person, object, abstraction) or to relate an entity to its qualities or characteristics. In linguistics, it is sometimes known as a copula.

Unlike transitive verbs, it does not take a direct object, but a complement, since the subject and complement of the verb to be relate to the same entity. The complement of to be can be a noun, a noun group, an adjective, or a prepositional phrase

Person		Present	past	Present perfect	Past perfect
1st sing.	I	am	was	have been	had been
2nd sing	you	are	were	have been	
3rd sing	he, she, etc.	is	was	has been	
1st plural.	we	are	were	have been	
2nd plural	you	are	were	have been	
3rd plural	they	are	were	have bee	

Examples of usage of the verb to be as main verb

Examples

- That man **is** the boss.
- That man **is** the winner of last year's Nobel Prize for physics.
- That man **is** very intelligent

- That man **is** in rather a difficult situation
- I **have been** here before
- She **was** much prettier in her younger days.
- The three people **were** all brothers.
- The man **had been** in the water for an hour, before anyone found him.

2. The verb to be as auxiliary

2.1. Progressive forms with be

The verb to be is used as an auxiliary to denote the progressive or continuous aspect of an action; it is thus used to form the "present progressive" and "past progressive" and other progressive tenses (also called the present continuous and past continuous tenses, etc.). In this case, be is followed by the present participle of a verb.

Model"stand"	Present progressive	Future progressive	Past progressive	Present perfect progressive	Past perfect progressive
1st sing	I am standing	I will be standing	I was standing	I have been standing	I had been standing
2nd sing	you are standing	You will be standing	You were standing	You have been standing	You had been standing
3rd sing	he / she... is standing	He / she ... will be standing	He/ she ... was standing	He / she... have been standing	he / she ... had been standing
1st plural	we are standing	We will be standing	We were standing	We have been standing	We had been standing
2nd plural	you are standing	You will be standing	You were standing	You have been standing	You had been standing
3rd plural	they are standing	They will be standing	They were standing	They have been standing	They had been standing

Other tenses can be formed, including tenses with modal auxiliaries:

Examples

- I could have been eating
- They must have been telling the truth

2.2. Passive forms with be

The verb to be is also used as an auxiliary to form passive tenses. In this case, the auxiliary be is followed by the past participle of a verb.

Sample verb "Take"	Present simple passive	Future passive	Past passive	Present perfect passive	Past perfect passive
1st sing	I am taken	I will be taken	I was taken	I have been taken	I had been taken
3rd sing	It... is taken	He / she ... will be taken	He / she ... was taken	He / she ... has been taken	He / she ... had been taken
Etc.	-	-	-	-	-

Other tenses can be formed, including tenses with modal auxiliaries.

Examples

- You could have been seriously injured.
- They must have been told the truth.

2.3. Progressive tenses in the passive

As to be is used both to form passive tenses, and tenses with progressive aspect, it follows that it is used twice in verb forms that are both passive and progressive.

While a complete range of tenses is theoretically possible, in practice English only has two passive progressive tenses, the present progressive passive, and the past progressive passive.

Sample verb "help"	Present progressive passive	Past progressive passive
1st sing	I am being helped	I was being helped
3rd sing	It... is being helped	He / she ... was being helped
Etc.		

Get used instead of be in passive forms :

In everyday English, the auxiliary be is often replaced by get to express a verb in the passive, whether in progressive or simple aspect.

Examples

- She was being / was getting taken to hospital, when suddenly she felt much worse.
- The computer network is down, as the server is being/ is getting changed.
- The window is being / is getting mended.
- The staff were being given their daily instructions.
- Next I was taken / got taken to see the director of human resources.

2.4. Avoid confusion

Remember that when the auxiliary to be is followed by a present participle , the verb is in the active mood; when it is followed by a past participle, the verb is in the passive mood.

Examples

- The chicken was eating its dinner
The chicken was eaten for dinner
- They were telling the truth, when they said that they knew nothing

They were told the truth, when the man finally confessed.

- The women have been asking to see the managing director.

The women have been asked to see the managing director

3. The verb to be as a modal verb

The verb to be is occasionally used as a modal auxiliary; but in this it is a strange verb, as it can have either a value of futurity, or a value of obligation, or something between the two, supposition.

In the first and third persons, it is a modal whose most common value is futurity: in the second person, its main value is one of obligation. However, this distinction is not always true.

Person		Present	Past
1st sing.	I	I am to make	was to make
2nd sing	You	You are to make	were to make
3rd sing	he, she, etc.	... is to make	was to make
1st plural.	We	... are to make	were to make
2nd plural	You	... are to make	were to make
3rd plural	They	... are to make	were to make

In other words, while "I'm to get a new car next week" would normally mean "I'm going to get a new car next week" (futurity), "You're to go to London next week" would normally mean "You should go to London next week" (mild obligation). However, in many cases, ambiguity is possible, even if context usually clarifies the meaning.

In other words, while "*I'm to get a new car next week*" would normally mean "*I'm going to get a new car next week*" (futurity), "*You're to go to London next week*" would normally mean

"*You should go to London next week*" (mild obligation). However, in many cases, ambiguity is possible, even if context usually clarifies the meaning.

Examples

1. The train *was to* leave at 8 (meaning: The train *was supposed to* leave at 8)
2. I'm *to* work in London next year (I'm *going to / have to* work in London.....)
3. I'm *to* make three of these cakes (I *must / am supposed to* make three.....)
4. He's *to* stand as candidate for the presidency (He *is going to* stand.....)
5. The children *were to* stay at home that afternoon (The children *were meant to / were going to*)
6. After that, they *were to* get lost. (After that, they *were going to* get lost).
7. After that, they *were to* go home (After that, *they were supposed to* go home).
8. You're *to* get better marks next time. (You *must* get better marks)
9. When you get home, you're *to* go straight to bed. (When you get home, you *must* go straight to bed).

CHAPTER III

SIMPLE AND PROGRESSIVE VERB FORMS

Meaning

In Academic English we need to use the correct verb form to show the time or duration of the action or whether it is complete, incomplete or ongoing. We divide verb forms into **simple** and **progressive**.

We use **SIMPLE VERB FORMS** to talk about actions or states which are complete, habitual or factual.

In academic writing we use the **present simple** to make general statements, conclusions or interpretations.

- Research **shows** that artificial sweeteners in many products actually **raise** blood sugar instead of reducing it.

We use the **past simple**, usually in the passive voice, to describe the methods and data used to compile a report or carry out some research.

- Data from diverse sources **was collated** and **analyzed** before the government completed the report.

We use the **present perfect simple** to show a connection between past and present and to describe developments or past findings without specifically referring to the original research, paper or writer.

- Many studies **have shown** that girls in single sex schools on the whole perform better in math than female adolescents in coeducational schools.

We use **PROGRESSIVE VERB FORMS** to emphasize duration or describe an incomplete, ongoing action at a point in time.

We use the **present progressive** to show an action currently in progress.

- A large number of astrophysicists **are** now **studying** dark matter almost exclusively .

We use the **past progressive** to show an action in progress at a particular time in the past.

- Students **were attending** the lecture when the earthquake happened.

Form

SIMPLE

1) Present: SUBJECT + BASE FORM

- Scientists observe and experiment in order to collect empirical evidence for their theories.

2) Past: SUBJECT + SIMPLE PAST FORM OF VERB

- She completed her dissertation two months ago.

3) Future: SUBJECT + WILL + BASE FORM

- This research will aim to demonstrate whether the workforce is sufficiently diverse to reflect the social makeup of the area.

4) Perfect: SUBJECT + HAVE/HAS + PAST PARTICIPLE

- Dinosaurs have survived and evolved into modern birds.

NOTE: In formal academic writing we avoid the contracted forms of the auxiliaries.

PROGRESSIVE

1) Present: SUBJECT + AM/ARE/IS = -ING

- Our faculty is currently undergoing some structural changes.

2) Past: SUBJECT + WAS/WERE + -ING

- When I completed my first essay some of my fellow students were already working on their long assignment.

3) Future: SUBJECT + WILL BE + -ING

- Academics, students and the general public will be commemorating the 400th anniversary of Shakespeare's death in 2016.

4) Perfect: HAVE/HAS + BEEN + -ING

- Galaxies have been accelerating away from each other for billions of years.

NOTE: In formal academic writing we avoid the contracted forms of the auxiliaries.

Right or Wrong

Look at these sentences. There are some mistakes. Which sentences are wrong? Explain why.

1. Psychologists define a narcissist as someone who had shown an excessive interest in or admiration of oneself and one's physical appearance.
2. She is considering majoring in economics but she has yet to decide.
3. The students will be completing their work before spring break.
4. When questioned by the janitor the two adolescents claimed they had waited for their friends.
5. Prior to any diagnosis it is essential to establish if the patient is taking their medication.

6. The two scientists have co-authored a number of influential papers in the last decade.
7. Water has boiled at 100 degrees.
8. Apparently she dropped out of her course before she had even finished her first semester.

Right or Wrong - Answers

1. Psychologists define a narcissist as someone who had shown an excessive interest in or admiration of oneself and one's physical appearance. ✘ shows
2. She is considering majoring in economics but she has yet to decide. ✓
3. The students will be completing their work before spring break. ✘ have completed
4. When questioned by the janitor the two adolescents claimed they had waited for their friends. ✘ been waiting
5. Prior to any diagnosis it is essential to establish if the patient is taking their medication. ✘ has been
6. The two scientists have co-authored a number of influential papers in the last decade. ✓
7. Water has boiled at 100 degrees. ✘ boils
8. Apparently she dropped out of her course before she had even finished her first semester. ✓

Right or Wrong – Feedback

1. Psychologists define a narcissist as someone who ~~had shown~~ shows an excessive interest in or admiration of oneself and one's physical appearance. ✘
 - We use the SIMPLE PRESENT to show that something is always true.
2. She is considering majoring in economics but she has yet to decide. ✓

3. The students will ~~be completing~~ **have completed** their work before spring break. ✘
 - We use the FUTURE PERFECT SIMPLE to show that an action will be completed before a specified time in the future.
4. When questioned by the janitor the two adolescents claimed they had ~~waited~~ **been waiting** for their friends. ✘
 - We use the PAST PERFECT PROGRESSIVE to show that an action lasted up to a specified point in the past.
5. Prior to any diagnosis, it is essential to establish if the patient is **has been taking** their medication. ✘
 - We use the PRESENT PERFECT PROGRESSIVE for an action that lasts until the present moment or finished recently.
6. The two scientists have co-authored a number of influential papers in the last decade. ✓
7. Water ~~has boiled~~ **boils** at 100 degrees. ✘
 - We use the SIMPLE PRESENT for something that is always true.
8. Apparently she dropped out of her course before she had even finished her first semester. ✓

Practice

Wei has researched how Japanese society has changed in recent years due to the increase in the use of mobile phones. She is giving a brief talk to her classmates. Fill in the blanks in the following text with the correct form of the verb.

Japanese society **1. (change)** dramatically over the past twenty years. As an example, Japanese cell phone manufacturers **2. (develop)** their products at an extremely fast rate.

Twenty years ago, most people **3.** (**use**) cell phones, but now the younger generation are hyper-connected.

Some experts say that the ties between families **4.** (**weaken**) recently because adolescents **5.** (**spend**) so much time every day on the phone. These people also state that the urge to take and publish selfies **6.** (**create**) a generation of narcissists. Others say that the new devices **7.** (**allow**) people from diverse backgrounds to communicate with each other. Most experts state that even the poorest people on the planet **8.** (**use**) cell phones soon.

Cell phones which are manufactured by Japanese companies **9.** (**evolve**) in recent years and they are now hi-tech devices. The new generation of young Japanese people **10.** (**live**) all their life with mobile devices. It is hard for them to imagine life without a cell phone.

Conclusion

In Academic English we need to choose the the correct verb form in order to produce language with accuracy and clarity. For example in scientific papers we use simple tenses to show facts, general truths, natural laws, or mathematical axioms.

- The earth **rotates** around its axis in approximately 24 hours.
- The Triassic period **occurred** between 251 and 199 million years ago.

We use progressive tenses to describe an experiment as it is taking place.

- We **are monitoring** the laboratory mice to establish whether there will be any side effects.

CHAPTER IV

FUTURE

There are a number of different ways of referring to the future in English. It is important to remember that we are expressing more than simply the time of the action or event. Obviously, any 'future' tense will always refer to a time 'later than now', but it may also express our attitude to the future event.

All of the following ideas can be expressed using different tenses:

- Simple prediction: There **will be** snow in many areas tomorrow.
- Arrangements: **I'm meeting** Jim at the airport.
- Plans and intentions: **We're going to spend** the summer abroad.
- Time-tabled events: The plane **takes off** at 3 a.m.
- Prediction based on present evidence: I think **it's going to rain!**
- Willingness: **We'll give you** a lift to the cinema.
- An action in progress in the future: This time next week **I'll be sun-bathing.**
- An action or event that is a matter of routine: **You'll be seeing** John in the office tomorrow, won't you?
- Obligation: You **are to travel** directly to London.
- An action or event that will take place immediately or very soon: The train **is about to leave.**
- Projecting ourselves into the future and looking back at a completed action: A month from now he **will have finished** all his exams.

It is clear from these examples that several tenses are used to express the future. The future tense section shows the form and function of each of these uses of future tenses.

There are four future verb tenses in English.

- Simple future tense
- Future continuous tense
- Future perfect tense
- Future perfect continuous tense

There are also several other ways to talk about the future without using a future verb tense.

- Using the present continuous to talk about future arrangements
- Using the simple present to talk about scheduled events
- Using "going" to talk about the future
- Future obligations
- The immediate future

Simple future tense

Functions of the simple future tense

The simple future refers to a time later than now, and expresses facts or certainty. In this case there is no 'attitude'.

The simple future is used:

- To predict a future event:
It **will rain** tomorrow.

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

I'll pay for the tickets by credit card.

- To express willingness:

I'll do the washing-up.

He'll carry your bag for you.

- In the negative form, to express unwillingness:

The baby **won't eat** his soup.

I **won't leave** until I've seen the manager!

- With I in the interrogative form using "shall", to make an offer:

Shall I open the window?

- With we in the interrogative form using "shall", to make a suggestion:

Shall we go to the cinema tonight?

- With I in the interrogative form using "shall", to ask for advice or instructions:

What **shall I tell** the boss about this money?

- With you, to give orders:

You **will do** exactly as I say.

- With you in the interrogative form, to give an invitation:

Will you come to the dance with me?

Will you marry me?

Note:In modern English **will** is preferred to **shall**. Shall is mainly used with **I** and **we** to make an offer or suggestion, or to ask for advice (see examples above). With the other persons (you, he, she, they) shall is only used in literary or poetic situations, e.g. *"With rings on her fingers and bells on her toes, She shall have music wherever she goes."*

Forming the simple future

The simple future tense is composed of two parts: *will / shall* + the infinitive without *to*

Subject	will	infinitive without to
Affirmative		
I	will	go
I	shall	go
Negative		
They	will not	see
They	won't	see
Interrogative		
Will	she	ask?
Interrogative negative		
Won't	they	try?

Contractions

I will = I'll

We will = we'll

You will = you'll

He will = he'll

She will = she'll

They will = they'll

Will not = won't

The form "it will" is not normally shortened.

To see: Simple future tense

Affirmative	Negative	Interrogative	Interrogative Negative
I will see	I won't see	Will I see?	Won't I see?
*I shall see		*Shall I see?	
You will see	You won't see	Will you see?	Won't you see?
He will see	He won't see	Will he see?	Won't he see?
We will see	We won't see	Will we see?	Won't we see?
*We shall see		*Shall we see?	
They will see	They won't see	Will they see?	Won't they see?

***Shall** is dated, but it is still commonly used instead of "will" with the affirmative or interrogative forms of **I** and **we** in certain cases (see above).

Future continuous

Form

The future continuous is made up of two elements:

the simple future of the verb 'to be' + the present participle (base+ing)

Subject	simple future of the verb 'to be'	present participle
You	will be	watching
I	will be	staying

To stay, future continuous

Affirmative	Negative	Interrogative	Negative Interrogative
I will be staying.	I won't be staying.	Will I be staying?	Won't I be staying?
You will be staying.	You won't be staying.	Will you be staying?	Won't you be staying?
He will be staying.	He won't be staying.	Will he be staying?	Won't he be staying?
She will be staying.	She won't be staying.	Will she be staying?	Won't she be staying?
It will be staying.	It won't be staying.	Will it be staying?	Won't it be staying?
We will be staying.	We won't be staying.	Will we be staying?	Won't we be staying?
They will be staying.	They won't be staying.	Will they be staying?	Won't they be staying?

Functions

The future continuous refers to an unfinished action or event that will be in progress at a time later than now. The future continuous is used for quite a few different purposes.

The future continuous can be used to project ourselves into the future.

Examples

- This time next week **I will be sun-bathing** in Bali.
- By Christmas **I will be skiing** like a pro.
- Just think, next Monday **you will be working** in your new job.

The future continuous can be used for predicting or guessing about future events.

Examples

- **He'll be coming** to the meeting, I expect.
- I guess **you'll be feeling** thirsty after working in the sun.
- **You'll be missing** the sunshine once you're back in England.

In the interrogative form, the future continuous can be used to ask politely for information about the future.

Examples

- **Will you be bringing** your friend to the pub tonight?
- **Will Jim be coming** with us?
- **Will she be going** to the party tonight?
- **Will I be sleeping** in this room?

The future continuous can be used to refer to continuous events that we expect to happen in the future.

Examples

- I'll be seeing Jim at the conference next week.
- When he is in Australia **he will be staying** with friends.
- **I'll be eating** with Jane this evening so I can tell her.

When combined with *still*, the future continuous refers to events that are already happening now and that we expect to continue some time into the future.

Examples

- In an hour **I'll still be ironing** my clothes.
- Tomorrow **he'll still be suffering** from his cold.
- Next year **will she still be wearing** a size six?
- **Won't stock prices still be falling** in the morning?
- Unfortunately, **sea levels will still be rising** in 20 years.

Future perfect

Form

The future perfect is composed of two elements

the simple future of the verb "to have" (will have) + the past participle of the main verb

Subject	+ will have	+ past participle of the main verb
He	will have	finished.
I	will have	finished.

To arrive, future perfect tense

Affirmative	Negative	Interrogative	Negative Interrogative
I will have arrived	I won't have arrived	Will I have arrived?	Won't I have arrived?
You will have arrived	You won't have arrived	Will you have arrived?	Won't you have arrived?
He will have arrived	He won't have arrived	Will he have arrived?	Won't he have arrived?
We will have arrived	We won't have arrived	Will we have arrived?	Won't we have arrived?
They will have arrived	They won't have arrived	Will they have arrived?	Won't they have arrived?

Function

The future perfect tense refers to a completed action in the future. When we use this tense we are projecting ourselves forward into the future and looking back at an action that will be completed some time later than now. It is most often used with a time expression.

Examples

- **I will have been** here for six months on June 23rd.
- By the time you read this **I will have left**.
- **You will have finished** your report by this time next week.
- **Won't they have arrived** by 5:00?

- **Will you have eaten** when I pick you up?

Future Perfect Continuous

Form

The future perfect continuous is composed of two elements

the future perfect of the verb "to be" (will have been) + the present participle of the main verb (base + ing)

<i>Subject</i>	<i>+ will have been</i>	<i>+ present participle</i>
He	will have been	playing.
I	will have been	playing.

To live, future perfect continuous tense

Affirmative	Negative	Interrogative	Negative Interrogative
I will have been living	I won't have been living	Will I have been living?	Won't I have been living?
You will have been living	You won't have been living	Will you have been living?	Won't you have been living?
He will have been living	He won't have been living	Will he have been living?	Won't he have been living?
We will have been living	We won't have been living	Will we have been living?	Won't we have been living?
They will have been living	They won't have been living	Will they have been living?	Won't they have been living?

Function

Like the future perfect simple, this form is used to project ourselves forward in time and to look back. It refers to events or actions that are currently unfinished but will be finished at some future time. It is most often used with a time expression.

Examples

- **I will have been waiting** here for three hours by six o'clock.
- By 2001 **I will have been living** in London for sixteen years.
- When I finish this course, **I will have been learning** English for twenty years.
- Next year **I will have been working** here for four years.
- When I come at 6:00, **will you have been practicing** long?

There are also several other ways to talk about the future without using a future verb tense.

Present continuous for future arrangements

Using the present continuous to talk about the future

The present continuous is used to talk about **arrangements** for events at a time later than now.

There is a suggestion that more than one person is aware of the event, and that some preparation has already happened. e.g.

- **I'm meeting** Jim at the airport = Jim and I have discussed this.
- **I am leaving** tomorrow. = I've already bought my train ticket.
- **We're having** a staff meeting next Monday = all members of staff have been told about it.

Examples

- **Is she seeing** him tomorrow?
- **He isn't working** next week.
- **They aren't leaving** until the end of next year.
- **We are staying** with friends when we get to Boston.

Note:In the first example, "seeing" is used in a continuous form because it means "meeting".

BE CAREFUL! The **simple present** is used when a future event is part of a programme or timetable.

Notice the difference between:

- a. **We're having** a staff meeting next Monday = just that once
- b. **We have** a staff meeting every Monday

Simple Present for Future Events

The simple present is used to make statements about events at a time later than now, when the statements are based on present facts, and when these facts are something fixed like a time-table, schedule, calendar.

Examples

- The plane **arrives** at 18.00 tomorrow.
- She **has** a yoga class tomorrow morning.
- The restaurant **opens** at 19.30 tonight.
- Next Thursday at 14.00 there **is** an English exam.
- The plane **leaves** in ten minutes.

Future with "going"

Form

When we use *going* in a phrase to talk about the future, the form is composed of three elements:

the verb *to be* conjugated to match the subject + going + the infinitive of the main verb

Subject	+ to be (conjugated)	+ going	+ infinitive
She	is	going	to leave.
I	am	going	to stay.
Affirmative			
He	is	going	to jog.
Negative			
He	is not	going	to jog.
Interrogative			
Is	he	going	to jog?
Negative Interrogative			
Isn't	he	going	to jog?

Function

The use of *going* to refer to future events suggests a very strong association with the present. The time is not important, it is later than now, but the attitude is that the event depends on something in the present situation that we know about. *Going* is mainly used to refer to our plans and intentions or to make predictions based on present evidence. In everyday speech, *going to* is often shortened to *gonna*, especially in American English, but it is never written that way.

Using "going" for plans and intentions

Examples

- **Is Freddy going to buy** a new car soon?
- **Are John and Pam going to visit** Milan when they are in Italy?
- I think **Nigel and Mary are going to have** a party next week.
- **We are going to have** dinner together tomorrow.
- **Aren't you going to stay** at the library until your report is finished?

Using "going" for predictions

Examples

- **He's going to be** a brilliant politician.
- **I'm going to have** a hard time falling asleep.
- **You're going to be** sorry you said that.
- **Is it going to rain** this afternoon?
- **Aren't they going to come** to the party?

Future obligation

Form

When we write about future obligations, we can use a formal pattern composed of two elements
the verb to be in the present tense conjugated to match the subject + the infinitive of the main verb

To travel, as a future obligation

Affirmative	Negative	Interrogative	Negative Interrogative
I am to travel.	I am not to travel.	Am I to travel?	Am I not to travel?
You are to travel.	You are not to travel.	Are you to travel?	Aren't you to travel?
He is to travel.	He is not to travel.	Is he to travel?	Isn't he to travel?
It is to travel.	It is not to travel.	Is it to travel?	Isn't it to travel?
We are to travel.	We are not to travel.	Are we to travel?	Aren't we to travel?
They are to travel.	They are not to travel.	Are they to travel?	Aren't they to travel?

Function

In written English, we can use this pattern to refer to an obligation or requirement that we do something at a time later than now. It is similar in meaning to *must*, but there is a suggestion that something has been arranged or organised for us. It is not normally used in spoken English.

Examples

- **You are to leave** this room at once, and **you are to travel** by train to London.
- In London **you are to pick up** your ticket from Mr Smith, and **you are to fly** to your destination alone.
- When you arrive, **you are to meet** our agent, Mr X, who will give you further information.
- **You are to destroy** this message now.

Immediate Future

Form

When we talk about the immediate future, we can use a pattern composed of three elements:

the verb "to be", conjugated in the present tense, + about + the infinitive of the main verb

Subject	+ to be	+ about (or just about)	+ infinitive
I	am	about	to be sick
They	are	about	to arrive.
It	is	just about	to explode.

To leave, in the immediate future

Affirmative	Negative	Interrogative	Negative Interrogative
I am about to leave.	I am not about to leave.	Am I about to leave?	Am I not about to leave?
You are about to leave.	You are not about to leave.	Are you about to leave?	Aren't you about to leave?
He is about to leave.	He is not about to leave.	Is he about to leave?	Isn't he about to leave?
We are about to leave.	We aren't about to leave.	Are we about to leave?	Aren't we about to leave?
They are about to leave.	They aren't about to leave.	Are they about to leave?	Aren't they about to leave?

Function

This pattern is used to refer to a time immediately after the moment of speaking, and emphasises that the event or action will happen very soon. We often add the word *just* before the word *about*, which emphasises the immediacy of the action.

Examples

- **She is about to cry.**
- **You are about to see** something very unusual.
- **I am about to go** to a meeting.
- **We are just about to go** inside.
- **Sally is just about to jump** off that diving board.

This pattern can also be used with the simple past tense of *to be* in place of the present tense, to refer to an action that was imminent, but was interrupted. That pattern is often followed by a clause introduced by *when*.

Examples

- **She was about to leave** when Jim arrived.
- When it started to rain, **I was about to go** out for a walk.

- **I was just about to call** her when she walked in.
- **The car was just about to flip** over when he regained control.

CHAPTER V

IMPERATIVE SENTENCE

Imperative sentences are used to issue a command or instruction, make a request, or offer advice. Basically, they tell people what to do. Below, you'll find some imperative sentence examples and learn about their function.

Imperative sentences usually end with a period but can occasionally end with an exclamation point. These sentences are sometimes referred to as **directives** because they provide direction to whoever is being addressed.

In the examples of imperative sentences here, you'll note that each line is issuing a command of some sort:

- Pass the salt.
- Move out of my way!
- Shut the front door.
- Find my leather jacket.
- Be there at five.
- Clean your room.
- Complete these by tomorrow.
- Consider the red dress.
- Wait for me.
- Get out!
- Make sure you pack warm clothes.
- Choose Eamonn, not Seamus.
- Please be quiet.
- Be nice to your friends.
- Play ball!

Identifying Imperative Sentences

The first indication of an imperative sentence is its punctuation. Most of these sentences end with a period, and sometimes an exclamation mark. Just be careful, as imperative sentences aren't the only sentences that end with a period or exclamation mark (as you'll see below). The punctuation is simply your first indication that you may be looking at an imperative sentence.

Next, take a look at the verb in these sentences. Typically, imperative sentences begin with verbs that issue a command. Another clue is the subject. Do you see one? Generally, the subject of an imperative sentence is implied, not stated, as it is giving a direct order.

No matter what, the main function of an imperative sentence is to provide instruction, make a request or demand, or offer an invitation or advice. Let's take another look at some imperative sentences and consider their function:

- Preheat the oven. (Instruction)
- Use oil in the pan. (Instruction)
- Don't eat all the cookies. (Request or demand)
- Stop feeding the dog from the table. (Request or demand)
- Come out with us tonight. (Invitation)
- Please join us for dinner. (Invitation)
- Choose the Irish wolfhound, not the German shepherd. (Advice)
- Wear your gold necklace with that dress. (Advice)

Other Types of Sentences

Imperative sentences are one of four main types of sentences. The other three types are:

- Declarative sentences
- Exclamatory sentences
- Interrogative sentences

Let's take a quick look at each type of sentence and how you can tell them apart from an imperative sentence.

Declarative Sentences

Imperative and declarative sentences are sometimes confused because each of them can end with a period.

Here's the main point of difference. Declarative sentences don't issue commands, provide instructions, or offer invitations; they simply make a statement or offer an opinion. Basically, they make a declaration.

- I am traveling to Ireland. (Statement)
- Ireland is really beautiful. (Opinion)

Exclamatory Sentences

An exclamatory sentence expresses heightened emotion such as excitement, surprise, anger, or joy. It always ends with an exclamation mark.

As an imperative sentence can also end with an exclamation mark, you have to ask yourself if the sentence is issuing a command (imperative) or expressing a feeling (exclamatory). For example:

- Get out of here! (Imperative sentence)
- I wish he would leave! (Exclamatory sentence)

Interrogative Sentences

An interrogative sentence actually asks a question. These sentences end with a question mark and often begin with such words as who, what, where, when, why, how, or do.

- When will your short story be finished?
- Do you still have my book?

Imperative Power

When issuing a command or instruction, know that you're in an imperative state of mind. Anything else would be classified as declarative, interrogative, or exclamatory. As you move forward in your reading and writing, have fun classifying each new sentence you come upon!

CHAPTER VI

ARTICLES

Articles are words that define a noun as specific or unspecific. Consider the following examples:

- After the long day, the cup of tea tasted particularly good.

By using the article *the*, we've shown that it was one specific day that was long and one specific cup of tea that tasted good.

- After a long day, a cup of tea tastes particularly good.

By using the article *a*, we've created a general statement, implying that any cup of tea would taste good after any long day.

English has two types of articles: definite and indefinite. Let's discuss them now in more detail.

The Definite Article

The definite article is the word *the*. It limits the meaning of a noun to one particular thing. For example, your friend might ask, "Are you going to **the** party this weekend?" The definite article tells you that your friend is referring to a specific party that both of you know about. The definite article can be used with singular, plural, or uncountable nouns. Below are some examples of the definite article *the* used in context:

- Please give me the hammer.
- Please give me the red hammer; the blue one is too small.
- Please give me the nail.
- Please give me the large nail; it's the only one strong enough to hold this painting.
- Please give me the hammer and the nail.

The Indefinite Article

The indefinite article takes two forms. It's the word *a* when it precedes a word that begins with a consonant. It's the word *an* when it precedes a word that begins with a vowel. The indefinite article indicates that a noun refers to a general idea rather than a particular thing. For example, you might ask your friend, "Should I bring *a* gift to the party?" Your friend will understand that you are not asking about a specific type of gift or a specific item. "I am going to bring *an* apple pie," your friend tells you. Again, the indefinite article indicates that she is not talking about a specific apple pie. Your friend probably doesn't even have any pie yet. The indefinite article only appears with singular nouns. Consider the following examples of indefinite articles used in context:

Example :

- Please hand me a book; any book will do.
- Please hand me an autobiography; any autobiography will do.

Exceptions: Choosing A or An

There are a few exceptions to the general rule of using *a* before words that start with consonants and *an* before words that begin with vowels. The first letter of the word *honor*, for example, is a consonant, but it's unpronounced. In spite of its spelling, the word *honor* begins with a vowel sound. Therefore, we use *an*. Consider the example sentence below for an illustration of this concept.

Incorrect My mother is a honest woman.

Correct My mother is an honest woman.

Similarly, when the first letter of a word is a vowel but is pronounced with a consonant sound, use *a*, as in the sample sentence below:

Incorrect She is an United States senator.

Correct She is a United States senator.

Article Before an Adjective

Sometimes an article modifies a noun that is also modified by an adjective. The usual word order is article + adjective + noun. If the article is indefinite, choose *a* or *an* based on the word that immediately follows it. Consider the following examples for reference:

Correct Eliza will bring a small gift to Sophie’s party.

Correct I heard an interesting story yesterday.

Indefinite Articles with Uncountable Nouns

Uncountable nouns are nouns that are either difficult or impossible to count. Uncountable nouns include intangible things (e.g., information, air), liquids (e.g., milk, wine), and things that are too large or numerous to count (e.g., equipment, sand, wood). Because these things can’t be counted, you should never use **a** or **an** with them—remember, the indefinite article is only for singular nouns. Uncountable nouns can be modified by words like *some*, however. Consider the examples below for reference:

Incorrect Please give me a water.

Water is an uncountable noun and should not be used with the indefinite article.

Correct Please give me some water.

However, if you describe the water in terms of countable units (like bottles), you can use the indefinite article.

Correct Please give me a bottle of water.

Incorrect Please give me an ice.

Correct Please give me an ice cube.

Correct Please give me some ice .

Note that depending on the context, some nouns can be countable or uncountable (e.g., hair, noise, time):

Correct We need a light in this room.

Correct We need some light in this room.

Using Articles with Pronouns

Possessive pronouns can help identify whether you're talking about specific or nonspecific items. As we've seen, articles also indicate specificity. But if you use both a possessive pronoun and an article at the same time, readers will become confused. Possessive pronouns are words like *his*, *my*, *our*, *its*, *her*, and *their*. Articles should not be used with pronouns. Consider the examples below.

Incorrect Why are you reading the my book?

The and *my* should not be used together since they are both meant to modify the same noun. Instead, you should use one or the other, depending on the intended meaning:

Correct Why are you reading the book?

Correct Why are you reading my book?

Omission of Articles

Occasionally, articles are omitted altogether before certain nouns. In these cases, the article is implied but not actually present. This implied article is sometimes called a “zero article.” Often, the article is omitted before nouns that refer to abstract ideas. Look at the following examples:

Incorrect Let’s go out for a dinner tonight.

Correct Let’s go out for dinner tonight.

Incorrect The creativity is a valuable quality in children.

Correct Creativity is a valuable quality in children.

Many languages and nationalities are not preceded by an article. Consider the example below:

Incorrect I studied the French in high school for four years.

Correct I studied French in high school for four years.

Sports and academic subjects do not require articles. See the sentences below for reference:

Incorrect I like to play the baseball.

Correct I like to play baseball .

Incorrect My sister was always good at the math .

Correct My sister was always good at math .

CHAPTER VII

ADJECTIVES

Adjectives are words that describe the qualities or states of being of nouns: *enormous, doglike, silly, yellow, fun, fast*. They can also describe the quantity of nouns: *many, few, millions, eleven*.

Adjectives Modify Nouns

Most students learn that adjectives are words that modify (describe) nouns. Adjectives do not modify verbs or adverbs or other adjectives.

Examples :

- Margot wore a **beautiful** hat to the pie-eating contest.
- **Furry** dogs may overheat in the summertime.
- My cake should have **sixteen** candles.
- The **scariest** villain of all time is Darth Vader.

In the sentences above, the adjectives are easy to spot because they come immediately before the nouns they modify.

But adjectives can do more than just modify nouns. They can also act as a complement to linking verbs or the verb *to be*. A linking verb is a verb like *to feel, to seem, or to taste* that describes a state of being or a sensory experience.

Examples:

- That cow sure is **happy**.
- It smells **gross** in the locker room.

- Driving is **faster** than walking.

The technical term for an adjective used this way is *predicate adjective*.

Uses of Adjectives

Adjectives tell the reader how much—or how many—of something you’re talking about, which thing you want passed to you, or which kind of something you want.

Example Please use **three white flowers** in the arrangement.

Three and *white* are modifying flowers.

Often, when adjectives are used together, you should separate them with a comma or conjunction. See “Coordinate Adjectives” below for more detail.

Example

- I’m looking for a **small, good-tempered dog** to keep as a pet.
- My new dog is **small and good-tempered**.

Degrees of Comparison

Adjectives come in three forms: *absolute*, *comparative*, and *superlative*. Absolute adjectives describe something in its own right.

Examples :

- A **cool** guy
- A **messy** desk
- A **mischievous** cat
- **Garrulous** squirrels

Comparative adjectives, unsurprisingly, make a comparison between two or more things. For most one-syllable adjectives, the comparative is formed by adding the suffix *-er* (or just *-r* if the adjective already ends with an *e*). For two-syllable adjectives ending in *-y*, replace *-y* with *-ier*. For multi-syllable adjectives, add the word *more*.

Examples :

- A **cooler** guy
- A **messier** desk
- A **more mischievous** cat
- **More garrulous** squirrels

Superlative adjectives indicate that something has the highest degree of the quality in question. One-syllable adjectives become superlatives by adding the suffix *-est* (or just *-st* for adjectives that already end in *e*). Two-syllable adjectives ending in *-y* replace *-y* with *-iest*. Multi-syllable adjectives add the word *most*. When you use an article with a superlative adjective, it will almost always be the definite article (*the*) rather than *a* or *an*. Using a superlative inherently indicates that you are talking about a specific item or items.

Examples :

- The **coolest** guy
- The **messiest** desk
- The **most mischievous** cat
- The **most garrulous** squirrels

Coordinate Adjectives

Coordinate adjectives should be separated by a comma or the word *and*. Adjectives are said to be coordinate if they modify the same noun in a sentence.

Examples :

- This is going to be a **long, cold** winter.
- Isobel’s **dedicated** and **tireless** efforts made all the difference.

But just the fact that two adjectives appear next to each other doesn’t automatically mean they are coordinate. Sometimes, an adjective and a noun form a single semantic unit, which is then modified by another adjective. In this case, the adjectives are not coordinate and should not be separated by a comma.

Examples:

- My cat, Goober, loves sleeping on this **tattered woolen** sweater.
- No one could open the **old silver** locket.

In some cases, it’s pretty hard to decide whether two adjectives are coordinate or not. But there are a couple of ways you can test them. Try inserting the word *and* between the adjectives to see if the phrase still seems natural. In the first sentence, “this tattered and woolen sweater” doesn’t sound right because you really aren’t talking about a sweater that is both tattered and woolen. It’s a *woolen sweater* that is *tattered*. *Woolen sweater* forms a unit of meaning that is modified by *tattered*.

Another way to test for coordinate adjectives is to try switching the order of the adjectives and seeing if the phrase still works. In the second sentence, you wouldn’t say “No one could open the silver old locket.” You can’t reverse the order of the adjectives because *silver locket* is a unit that is modified by *old*.

Adjectives vs. Adverbs

As mentioned above, many of us learned in school that adjectives modify nouns and that adverbs modify verbs. But as we've seen, adjectives can also act as complements for linking verbs. This leads to a common type of error: incorrectly substituting an adverb in place of a predicate adjective. An example you've probably heard before is:

Incorrect I feel **badly** about what happened.

Because “feel” is a verb, it seems to call for an adverb rather than an adjective. But “feel” isn't just any verb; it's a linking verb. An adverb would describe *how* you perform the action of feeling—an adjective describes *what* you feel. “I feel badly” means that you are bad at feeling things. If you're trying to read Braille through thick leather gloves, then it might make sense for you to say “I feel badly.” But if you're trying to say that you are experiencing negative emotions, “I feel bad” is the phrase you want.

It's easier to see this distinction with a different linking verb. Consider the difference between these two sentences:

- Goober smells badly.
- Goober smells bad.

“Goober smells badly” means that Goober, the poor thing, has a weak sense of smell. “Goober smells bad” means Goober stinks—poor us.

When Nouns Become Adjectives and Adjectives Become Nouns

One more thing you should know about adjectives is that, sometimes, a word that is normally used as a noun can function as an adjective, depending on its placement. For example:

- Never try to pet someone's **guide** dog without asking permission first.

Guide is a noun. But in this sentence, it modifies *dog*. It works the other way, too. Some words that are normally adjectives can function as nouns:

- Candice is working on a fundraiser to help the **homeless**.

In the context of this sentence, *homeless* is functioning as a noun. It can be hard to wrap your head around this if you think of adjectives and nouns only as particular classes of words. But the terms “adjective” and “noun” aren’t just about a word’s form—they’re also about its function.

CHAPTER VIII

NOUN QUANTIFIERS

Nouns in English are either countable or uncountable. If a noun is uncountable, it does not have a plural form.

We use quantifiers when we want to give someone information about the number of something: how much or how many.

Some countable nouns in English have countable and uncountable forms.

- This country exports a large amount of **coffee**. (uncountable)
- We've ordered three **coffees**. (=cups of coffee)

Some uncountable nouns have a plural form which is different in meaning.

- The earthquake caused 5000 worth of **damage**. (uncountable = physical harm)
- The court awarded him 5000 pounds in **damages**. (plural = financial compensation)

Quantifiers with countable nouns:

both, each, either, (a) few, fewer, neither, several, a couple, of hundreds of, thousands of

several, a few, quite a few, very few

Several and **a few** refer to countable nouns. **Several** means "more than a few".

- He speaks **several** languages (3, 4 or more)
- There are only **a few** seats left.

Quite a few emphasises the positive.

- I know **quite a few** Russian people.
- **Very few** emphasises a small number.

There are very **few people** there who speak Italian.

many, a number of, loads of, hundreds of, dozens of

These are all used with plural countable nouns. Many and a number of are used in more formal situations to talk about a non-specific number.

Loads of, hundreds of and dozens of are all used in conversation and informal contexts.

Too many is used with countable nouns to mean "more than we need or is good".

- I've eaten **too many** cakes.

Quantifiers with uncountable nouns

a little, very little, (quite) a bit of

A little and a bit of refer to uncountable nouns. A bit of is more used in conversation and informal situations.

- There's still **a bit of** wine left. Would you like it?
- There's **a bit of** cheese in the fridge.

Very little emphasises a small quantity.

- There's **very little** time left.

Quite a bit of is used to emphasise the positive. We cannot say quite a little.

- There's **quite a bit of** interest in his new book.

much, a great deal of

Much is used to talk about large quantities. It is used with uncountable nouns and is mainly used in questions and negatives.

- Hurry up, there isn't **much** time!

A great deal/good deal/an enormous amount of is used in positive sentences in more formal contexts.

- There is a **great deal** of concern about the new proposals.

too much

Too much is used with uncountable nouns to mean "more than we need or is good".

- I can't sleep. I think I drank **too much** coffee.

Quantifiers with countable and uncountable nouns:

all, any, enough, less, a lot of, lots of, more, most, no, none of, some, plenty of, heaps of, a load of, loads of, tons of

a lot of, lots of

A lot of is used with both countable and uncountable nouns. It is mainly used in informal situations. It is not usually used in negative sentences and questions. **Lots of** is used in the same way.

- **A lot of** people arrived late.

enough, plenty of

Enough is used with both countable and uncountable nouns to mean "as much as we need". Plenty of means "more than we need".

- Have you got **enough** money to pay the bill?
- Don't worry, we've got **plenty of** time to get to the airport.

some and any

Some and any are both used with plural and uncountable nouns, and in positive and negative sentences.

Some refers to a limited quantity or number. It can be followed by the phrase "but not all".

- **Some** (but not all) people like getting up early.
- I don't like **some** of his music.

Any refers to an unlimited quantity or number. With a positive verb it means "all" and with a negative verb it means "none".

- You can get on-line at **any** McDonald's restaurant (all of them, it doesn't matter which)
- I can't think of **any** reasons to ask him to stay. (=none)

What are quantifiers?

A quantifier is a word or phrase which is used before a noun to indicate the amount or quantity:

'Some', 'many', 'a lot of' and 'a few' are examples of quantifiers.

Quantifiers can be used with both countable and uncountable nouns.

Examples:

- There are *some* books on the desk
- He's got only *a few* dollars.
- How *much* money have you got?
- There is *a large quantity of* fish in this river.
- He's got *more* friends than his sister.

Examples of quantifiers

With Uncountable Nouns

- Much
- a little/little/very little *
- a bit (of)
- a great deal of
- a large amount of
- a large quantity of

With Both

- all
- enough
- more/most
- less/least
- no/none
- not any
- some
- any
- a lot of
- lots of
- plenty of

With Countable Nouns

- many
- a few/few/very few **
- a number (of)
- several
- a large number of
- a great number of
- a majority of

Note :

little, very little mean that there is not enough of something.

a little means that there is not a lot of something, but there is enough.

few, very few mean that there is not enough of something.

a few means that there is not a lot of something, but there is enough.

CHAPTER IX

PRONOUNS

Pronouns make up a small subcategory of nouns. The distinguishing characteristic of pronouns is that they can be substituted for other nouns. For instance, if you're telling a story about your sister Sarah, the story will begin to sound repetitive if you keep repeating "Sarah" over and over again.

Examples :

- Sarah has always loved fashion.
- Sarah announced that Sarah wants to go to fashion school.

You could try to mix it up by sometimes referring to Sarah as "my sister," but then it sounds like you're referring to two different people.

Examples:

- Sarah has always loved fashion.
- My sister announced that Sarah wants to go to fashion school.

Instead, you can use the pronouns *she* and *her* to refer to Sarah.

Examples:

- Sarah has always loved fashion.
- She announced that she wants to go to fashion school.

Personal Pronouns

There are a few different types of pronouns, and some pronouns belong to more than one category. *She* and *her* are known as **personal pronouns**. The other personal pronouns

are *I* and *me*, *you*, *he* and *him*, *it*, *we* and *us*, and *they* and *them*. If you learned about pronouns in school, these are probably the words your teacher focused on. We'll get to the other types of pronouns in a moment.

Antecedents

Pronouns are versatile. The pronoun *it* can refer to just about anything: a bike, a tree, a movie, a feeling. That's why you need an antecedent. An **antecedent** is a noun or noun phrase that you mention at the beginning of a sentence or story and later replace with a pronoun. In the examples below, the antecedent is highlighted and the pronoun that replaces it is bolded.

Examples:

- My family drives me nuts, but I love **them**.
- The sign was too far away for Henry to read **it**.
- Sarah said **she** is almost finished with the application.

In some cases, the antecedent doesn't need to be mentioned explicitly, as long as the context is totally clear. It's usually clear who the pronouns *I*, *me*, and *you* refer to based on who is speaking. It's also possible to use a pronoun before you mention the antecedent, but try to avoid doing it in long or complex sentences because it can make the sentence hard to follow.

Example:

- I love **them**, but my family drives me nuts.

Relative Pronouns

Relative pronouns make up another class of pronouns. They are used to connect relative clauses to independent clauses. Often, they introduce additional information about something

mentioned in the sentence. Relative pronouns include *that*, *what*, *which*, *who*, and *whom*. Traditionally, *who* refers to people, and *which* and *that* refer to animals or things.

Examples:

- The woman **who** called earlier didn't leave a message.
- All the dogs **that** got adopted today will be loved.
- My car , **which** is nearly twenty years old, still runs well.

Whether you need commas with *who*, *which*, and *that* depends on whether the clause is restrictive or nonrestrictive.

Who vs. Whom—Subject and Object Pronouns

Now that we've talked about relative pronouns, let's tackle the one that causes the most confusion: *who* vs. *whom*. *Who* is a subject pronoun, like *I*, *he*, *she*, *we*, and *they*. *Whom* is an object pronoun, like *me*, *him*, *her*, *us* and *them*. When the pronoun is the object of a verb or preposition, the object form is the one you want. Most people don't have much trouble with the objective case of personal pronouns because they usually come immediately after the verb or preposition that modifies it.

Incorrect Please mail it **to I**.

Correct Please mail it **to me**.

Incorrect Ms. Higgins **caught they** passing notes.

Correct Ms. Higgins **caught them** passing notes.

Incorrect Is this cake for **we**?

Correct Is this cake for **us**?

Whom is trickier, though, because it usually comes *before* the verb or preposition that modifies it.

Correct **Whom** did you speak **to** earlier?

Correct A man, **whom** I have never **seen** before, was asking about you.

Incorrect **Whom** should I say is calling?

One way to test whether you need *who* or *whom* is to try substituting a personal pronoun. Find the place where the personal pronoun would normally go and see whether the subject or object form makes more sense.

- **Who/whom** did you speak **to** earlier? Did you speak to *he/him* earlier?
- A man, **whom** I have never **seen** before, was asking about you. Have I seen *he/him* before?
- **Whom** should I say is calling? Should I say *she/her* is calling?

If the object pronoun (him or her) sounds right, use *whom*. If the subject pronoun (he or she) sounds right, use *who*.

Before we move on, there's one more case where the choice between subject and object pronouns can be confusing. Can you spot the problem in the sentences below?

- Incorrect : Henry is meeting Sarah and I this afternoon. There are no secrets between you and I. It doesn't matter to him or I.

In each of the sentences above, the pronoun *I* should be *me*. If you remove the other name or pronoun from the sentence, it becomes obvious.

- Incorrect: Henry is meeting I this afternoon. No one keeps secrets from I. It doesn't matter to I

Demonstrative Pronouns

That, this, these and *those* are demonstrative pronouns. They take the place of a noun or noun phrase that has already been mentioned.

This is used for singular items that are nearby. *These* is used for multiple items that are nearby. The distance can be physical or metaphorical.

- Correct: Here is a letter with no return address.

Who could have sent this?

What a fantastic idea!

This is the best thing I've heard all day.

If you think gardenias smell nice, try smelling these.

That is used for singular items that are far away. *Those* is used for multiple items that are far away. Again, the distance can be physical or metaphorical.

- Correct: A house like that would be a nice place to live.

Some new flavors of soda came in last week.

Why don't you try some of those?

Those aren't swans, they're geese.

Indefinite Pronouns

Indefinite pronouns are used when you need to refer to a person or thing that doesn't need to be specifically identified. Some common indefinite pronouns are *one, other, none, some, anybody, everybody*, and *no one*.

- Correct: Everybody was late to work because of the traffic jam.

It matters more to some than others.

Nobody knows the trouble I've seen.

When indefinite pronouns function as subjects of a sentence or clause, they usually take singular verbs.

Reflexive and Intensive Pronouns

Reflexive pronouns end in *-self* or *-selves*: myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves.

Use a reflexive pronoun when both the subject and object of a verb refer to the same person or thing.

- Correct : Henry cursed himself for his poor eyesight.

They booked themselves a room at the resort.

I told myself it was nothing.

Intensive pronouns look the same as reflexive pronouns, but their purpose is different. Intensive pronouns add emphasis.

- Correct : I built this house myself.

Did you yourself see Loretta spill the coffee?

“I built this house” and “I built this house myself” mean almost the same thing. But “myself” emphasizes that I personally built the house—I didn’t hire someone else to do it for me. Likewise, “Did you see Loretta spill the coffee?” and “Did you yourself see Loretta spill the coffee?” have similar meanings. But “yourself” makes it clear that the person asking wants to know whether you actually witnessed the incident or whether you only heard it described by someone else.

Occasionally, people are tempted to use *myself* where they should use *me* because it sounds a little fancier. Don’t fall into that trap! If you use a *-self* form of a pronoun, make sure it matches one of the uses above.

- Incorrect: Please call Sarah or myself if you are going to be late.

Loretta, Henry, and myself are pleased to welcome you to the neighborhood.

Possessive Pronouns

Possessive pronouns come in two flavors: limiting and absolute. *My, your, its, his, her, our, their* and *whose* are used to show that something belongs to an antecedent.

Examples: Sarah is working on **her** application.

Just put me back on **my** bike.

The students practiced **their** presentation after school.

The absolute possessive pronouns are *mine, yours, his, hers, ours, and theirs*. The absolute forms can be substituted for the thing that belongs to the antecedent.

- Correct : Are you finished with your application?

Sarah already finished hers.

The blue bike is mine.

I practiced my speech and the students practiced theirs.

Some possessive pronouns are easy to mix up with similar-looking contractions. Remember, possessive personal pronouns don't include apostrophes.

Interrogative Pronouns

Interrogative pronouns are used in questions. The interrogative pronouns are *who, what, which, and whose*.

- Correct : Who wants a bag of jelly beans?

What is your name?

Which movie do you want to watch?

Whose jacket is this?

CHAPTER X

PREPOSITIONS

A **preposition** is a word that indicates the relationship between a noun and the other words of a sentence. They explain relationships of sequence, space, and logic between the object of the sentence and the rest of the sentence. They help us understand order, time connections, and positions.

Example:

- I am going to Canada.
- Alex threw a stone into the pond.
- The present is inside the box.
- They have gone out of the town.

Prepositions can be of one, two, three, or even more words. Prepositions with two or more words are called phrasal prepositions.

There are some commonly used phrasal prepositions:

because of, in case of, instead of, by way of, on behalf of, on account of, in care of, in spite of, on the side of, etc.

Types of Preposition

Most of the prepositions have many uses. There are some prepositions which are common in every type of preposition as they function in a versatile way.

- Prepositions of Time
- Prepositions of Place and Direction

- Prepositions of Agents or Things
- Phrasal Prepositions

Prepositions of Time:

Prepositions of time show the relationship of time between the nouns to the other parts of a sentence.

On, at, in, from, to, for, since, ago, before, till/until, by, etc. are the most common preposition of time.

Example:

- He started working at 10 AM.
- The company called meeting on 25 October.
- There is a holiday in December.
- He has been ill since Monday.

Prepositions of Time Usage

Prepositions of time show the relationship of time between the nouns to the other parts of a sentence.

Common preposition of time: *On, at, in, from, to, for, since, ago, before, till/until, by*, etc. are the most common.

AT, ON, IN

AT:

At always indicates an exact and specific time.

Example:

- I started working at 10 AM.
- The movie starts at 6 PM.
- The shop closes at 30 AM.

Note: Exceptions are that we say – at the weekend, at night, at Christmas, at Easter, at the moment, etc.

ON:

On generally indicates a fixed date or a day.

Example:

- I'll see her on Friday.
- He broke a record on Monday morning.
- I have a meeting on 25 October.

IN

In generally indicates an indefinite and unspecific time of months, seasons, years, centuries, etc.

Example:

- I will get a holiday in December.
- Murphy was born in 2001.
- I love playing cricket in summer.

Note: Some very common exceptions are – in the morning, in the evening, in the afternoon, in five minutes, in six days, in two years, etc.

FROM....TO , UNTIL, SINCE, FOR

From....to

From....to indicates a fixed time-span with the beginning and the end.

Example:

- I worked there from 2010 to 2017.
- I usually work from Saturday to Thursday.
- I will stay there from 10 AM to 6 PM.

Until/till

Until/till indicates a specific or unspecific time/event up to a point.

Example:

- They will not return until Friday.
- Wait for me until I return.
- I do not give up until I am succeeded.
- I will be there until Monday.

Since

Since indicates a time-span beginning in a time in the past and still continuing in the present (now).

Example:

- Alex has been in the village since Sunday.
- He has been suffering from fever since Friday.
- Robin and Susan have been friends since childhood.

For

For indicates a period of time (amount of time) in the past, present or future.

Example:

- He stayed there for four days.
- I will be staying there for five months.
- I will work with them for a year.
- He was standing there for a long time.

BEFORE, AFTER, DURING, BY

Before

Before indicates a prior event/ period of time from a point.

Example:

- Robin was very nervous before the interview.
- I want to leave before lunch.
- These batsmen should not get out before the tea break.
- Before going, close all the window.

After

After indicates a following event/period of time from a point. This preposition is the exact opposite of *before*.

Example:

- Robin felt confident after the interview.
- I want to leave after lunch.

- After playing football, we went home.

During

During indicates a period of time throughout the course or duration of any event or action.

Example:

- Robert was sleeping during the film.
- They don't talk during dinner.
- I don't usually smoke during office time.

By

By means 'within the extent or period of; during' something.

Example:

- I will complete the assignment by Sunday.
- He will return by 6 PM.
- I will submit the list by 11 AM.

Prepositions of Place and Direction:

Prepositions of place show the relationship of place between the nouns to the other parts of a sentence.

On, at, in, by, from, to, towards, up, down, across, between, among, through, in front of, behind, above, over, under, below, etc. are the most common prepositions of place/direction.

Example:

- He is at home.

- He came from England.
- The police broke into the house.
- I live across the river.
-

Prepositions of Places and Direction Usage

Prepositions of place show the relationship of place between the nouns to the other parts of a sentence.

Common prepositions of places & direction: *On, at, in, by, from, to, towards, up, down, across, between, among, through, in front of, behind, above, over, under, below,* etc. are the most common.

IN, AT

IN:

In indicates something to be present in a place or enclosure. It does not say particularly where but gives an enclosure to the noun it connects with.

Example:

- Your shirt is in the closet. (Does not indicate an exact place)
- He lives in Australia.
- Alex works in that building.

AT:

At indicates an exact place.

Example:

- He is at the door.

- I am standing at 13/4 George Street.
- He is at home.

ON, ABOVE, OVER

ON:

On indicates a position above but touching the object.

Example:

- The phone is on the table. (Phone is touching with the table)
- He is on the third floor.
- Sit on the sofa.

ABOVE:

Above indicates a much higher position than the preposition *on* does. It also indicates something out of reach.

Example:

- The sky is above my head.
- Hold your hands above your head.
- Stars are above the sky.

OVER

Over means a position between *on* and *above* which is not touching.

Example:

- There are clouds over the hills.

- A bird flew over my head.
- My flat is over that shop.

UNDER, BELOW

UNDER:

Under is the opposite of *on* and means ‘below the surface of’ something.

Example:

- The cat is under the table.
- The carpet under my feet is very soft.
- That book is under my glasses.

BELOW:

Below indicates something at a slightly lower position than what *under* indicates.

Example:

- I have a scar just below my right eye.
- Do you see the line below the paper?
- Please, don't write below this line.

TO, FROM

TO:

To indicates a motion in the direction of a place.

Example:

- He went to college.

- We are going to Mexico.
- We walked from the farm to the beach.

FROM

From indicates the point of place at which a motion, journey, or action starts.

Example:

- He came from England.
- We walked from the beach to the farm.
- He drove here from Atlanta.

INTO, OUT OF

INTO:

Into indicates a motion towards/going inside something. It has many uses.

Example:

- He came into the house.
- The police broke into the bar.
- My car crashed into a street sign.

OUT OF:

Out of means the opposite of *into*. It indicates a motion towards outside of something.

Example:

- He is going out of the town.
- Get out of my house.

- Please, remain out of this. (Not indicating a place but an issue)

THROUGH, ACROSS, BESIDE, IN FRONT OF, BEHIND, TOWARDS, BY

THROUGH:

Through indicates a motion in the middle of something.

Example:

- We drove through the tunnel.
- They came through a forest.
- He came through a wedding gate.

ACROSS:

Across means going to the other side of a river or road or something straight.

Example:

- He went across the river.
- I walked across the road.
- My house is across the bank. (There is a road between the house and the bank)

BESIDE:

Beside means at the side of/ next to something.

Example:

- The car beside the cycle is mine.
- He is standing beside the shop.
- I will always be beside you.

IN FRONT OF

In front of means a position facing someone/something.

Example:

- He parked his car in front of my house.
- I have a pool in front of my resthouse.
- He was nervous in front of me.

BEHIND:

Behind means at the far side of something (might be out of sight). It is opposite of *in front of*.

Example:

- He parked his car behind my car.
- I have a pool behind my house.
- Go behind that tree.

TOWARDS:

Towards means a motion in the direction of something literary or metaphorically.

Example:

- Take five steps towards the post and stand there.
- They moved towards the Labour Party.
- I walked towards the car when you were standing.

BY

By means ‘near to or next to’ something or someone.

Example:

- He has a house by the river.
- I was standing by the car.
- My flat is by the saloon.

UP, DOWN

UP:

Up means a motion towards a higher place or position.

Example:

- We were climbing up the mountain.
- Lift your hands up.
- John is going up to London. (From a lower place of the country)
- Climb up the stairs.

DOWN:

Down indicates the opposite meaning of **up**. It means a motion towards a lower place or position.

Example:

- He was walking down the river.
- I am climbing down the hill.
- Go down the stairs.

BETWEEN, AMONG

BETWEEN:

Between indicates something/someone to be in the middle of two other things or persons.

Example:

- Alex is sitting between Robin and Robert.
- The cat is between the two boxes.
- This matter is between you and him.

Among:

Among indicates something/someone to be in the middle of three or more other things or persons.

Example:

- Alex is sitting among the patients.
- He is the best among them.
- Among all the people, John had the courage to speak up.

Prepositions of Agents or Things:

Prepositions of agents or things indicate a casual relationship between nouns and other parts of the sentence.

Of, for, by, with, about, etc. are the most used and common prepositions of agents or things.

Example:

- This article is about smartphones.
- Most of the guests have already left.
- I will always be here for you.

- He is playing with his brothers.

Phrasal Prepositions:

A **phrasal preposition** is not a prepositional phrase, but they are a combination of two or more words which functions as a preposition.

Along with, apart from, because of, by means of, according to, in front of, contrary to, in spite of, on account of, in reference to, in addition to, in regard to, instead of, on top of, out of, with regard to, etc. are the most common phrasal prepositions.

Example:

- They along with their children went to Atlanta.
- According to the new rules, you are not right.
- In spite of being a good player, he was not selected.
- I'm going out of the city.

CHAPTER XI

ADVERBS

Adverbs are a very broad collection of words that may describe how, where, or when an action took place. They may also express the viewpoint of the speaker about the action, the intensity of an adjective or another adverb, or several other functions. Use these pages about the grammar of adverbs in English to become more precise and more descriptive in your speaking and writing.

Adverbs in English

- What adverbs are and what they are for
- Forming adverbs from adjectives
- Forming the comparative and the superlative of adverbs
- Adverbs of place
- Adverbs of time
- Adverbs of manner
- Adverbs of degree
- Adverbs of certainty
- Viewpoint and commenting adverbs
- Relative adverbs
- Interrogative adverbs

Adverbs modify, or tell us more about, other words. Usually adverbs modify verbs, telling us how, how often, when, or where something was done. The adverb is placed after the verb it modifies.

Examples

- The bus moved **slowly**.
- The bears ate **greedily**.
- The car drove **fast**.

Sometimes adverbs modify adjectives, making them stronger or weaker.

Examples

- You look **absolutely** fabulous!
- He is **slightly** overweight.
- You are **very** persistent.

Some types of adverbs can modify other adverbs, changing their degree or precision.

Examples

- She played the violin **extremely** well.
- You're speaking **too** quietly.

Forming adverbs from adjectives

In most cases, an adverb is formed by adding *-ly* to an adjective

Adjective	Adverb
cheap	cheaply
quick	quickly
slow	slowly

If the adjective ends in *-y*, replace the *y* with *i* and add *-ly*

Adjective	Adverb
easy	easily
angry	angrily
happy	happily
lucky	luckily

If the adjective ends in *-able*, *-ible*, or *-le*, replace the *-e* with *-y*.

Adjective	Adverb
probable	probably
terrible	terribly
gentle	gently

If the adjective ends in *-ic*, add *-ally*. Exception: public -> publicly

Adjective	Adverb
basic	basically
tragic	tragically
economic	economically

Some adverbs have the same form as the adjective: *early*, *fast*, *hard*, *high*, *late*, *near*, *straight*, & *wrong*

Examples

- It is a **fast** car.
- He drives very **fast**.
- This is a **hard** exercise.
- He works **hard**.
- We saw many **high** buildings.
- The bird flew **high** in the sky.

Well is the adverb that corresponds to the adjective *good*.

Examples

- He is a **good** student.
- He studies **well**.
- She is a **good** pianist.
- She plays the piano **well**.
- They are **good** swimmers.
- They swim **well**.

Comparative and superlative adverbs

With adverbs ending in *-ly*, you must use *more* to form the comparative, and *most* to form the superlative.

Adverb	Comparative	Superlative
quietly	more quietly	most quietly
slowly	more slowly	most slowly
seriously	more seriously	most seriously

Examples

- The teacher spoke **more slowly** to help us to understand.
- Could you sing **more quietly** please?

With short adverbs that do not end in *-ly* comparative and superlative forms are identical to adjectives: add *-er* to form the comparative and *-est* to form the superlative. If the adverb ends in *e*, remove it before adding the ending.

Adverb	Comparative	Superlative
hard	harder	hardest
fast	faster	fastest
late	later	latest

Examples

- Jim works **harder** than his brother.
- Everyone in the race ran fast, but John ran the **fastest** of all.

Some adverbs have irregular comparative and superlative forms.

Adverb	Comparative	Superlative
badly	worse	worst
far	farther/further	farthest/furthest
little	less	least
well	better	best

Examples

- The little boy ran **farther** than his friends.
- You're driving **worse** today than yesterday !
- He played **the best** of any player.

Adverbs of place

Adverbs of place tell us **where** something happens. Adverbs of place are usually placed after the main verb or after the clause that they modify. Adverbs of place do not modify adjectives or other adverbs. Some examples of adverbs of place: here, everywhere, outside, away, around.

Examples

- John looked **around** but he couldn't see the monkey.
- I searched **everywhere** I could think of.
- I'm going **back** to school.
- Come **in**!
- They built a house **nearby**.
- She took the child **outside**.

Here and There

Here and *there* are common adverbs of place. They give a location relative to the speaker. With verbs of movement, *here* means "towards or with the speaker" and *there* means "away from, or not with the speaker".

Sentence	Meaning
Come here!	Come towards me.
The table is in here.	Come with me; we will go see it together.
Put it there.	Put it in a place away from me.
The table is in there.	Go in; you can see it by yourself.

Here and *there* are combined with prepositions to make many common adverbial phrases.

Examples

- What are you doing **up there**?
- Come **over here** and look at what I found!
- The baby is hiding **down there** under the table.
- I wonder how my driver's license got stuck **under here**.

Here and *there* are placed at the beginning of the sentence in exclamations or when emphasis is needed. They are followed by the verb if the subject is a noun or by a pronoun if the subject is a pronoun.

Examples

- **Here** comes the bus!
- **There** goes the bell!
- **There** it is!
- **Here** they are!

Adverbs of place that are also prepositions

Many adverbs of place can also be used as prepositions. When used as prepositions, they must be followed by a noun.

Word	Used as an adverb of place, modifying a verb	Used as a preposition
around	The marble rolled around in my hand.	I am wearing a necklace around my neck.
behind	Hurry! You are getting behind.	Let's hide behind the shed.
down	Mary fell down.	John made his way carefully down the cliff.
in	We decided to drop in on Jake.	I dropped the letter in the mailbox.
off	Let's get off at the next stop.	The wind blew the flowers off the tree.
on	We rode on for several more hours.	Please put the books on the table.
over	He turned over and went back to sleep.	I think I will hang the picture over my bed.

Adverbs of place ending in -where

Adverbs of place that end in -where express the idea of location without specifying a specific location or direction.

Examples

- I would like to go **somewhere** warm for my vacation.
- Is there **anywhere** I can find a perfect plate of spaghetti around here?
- I have **nowhere** to go.
- I keep running in to Sally **everywhere**!

Adverbs of place ending in -wards

Adverbs of place that end in -wards express movement in a particular direction.

Examples

- Cats don't usually walk **backwards**.
- The ship sailed **westwards**.
- The balloon drifted **upwards**.
- We will keep walking **homewards** until we arrive.

Be careful: *Towards* is a preposition, not an adverb, so it is always followed by a noun or a pronoun.

Examples

- He walked **towards the car**.
- She ran **towards me**.

Adverbs of place expressing both movement & location

Some adverbs of place express both movement & location at the same time.

Examples

- The child went **indoors**.

- He lived and worked **abroad**.
- Water always flows **downhill**.
- The wind pushed us **sideways**.

Adverbs of time

Adverbs of time tell us **when** an action happened, but also **for how long**, and **how often**. Adverbs of time are invariable. They are extremely common in English. Adverbs of time have standard positions in a sentence depending on what the adverb of time is telling us.

Adverbs that tell us when

Adverbs that tell us when are usually placed at the end of the sentence.

Examples

- Goldilocks went to the Bears' house **yesterday**.
- I'm going to tidy my room **tomorrow**.
- I saw Sally **today**.
- I will call you **later**.
- I have to leave **now**.
- I saw that movie **last year**.

Putting an adverb that tells us when at the end of a sentence is a neutral position, but these adverbs can be put in other positions to give a different emphasis. All adverbs that tell us when can be placed at the beginning of the sentence to emphasize the time element. Some can also be put before the main verb in formal writing, while others cannot occupy that position.

Examples

- **Later** Goldilocks ate some porridge. (the time is important)
- Goldilocks **later** ate some porridge. (this is more formal, like a policeman's report)
- Goldilocks ate some porridge **later**. (this is neutral, no particular emphasis)

Adverbs that tell us for how long

Adverbs that tell us for how long are also usually placed at the end of the sentence.

Examples

- She stayed in the Bears' house **all day**.
- My mother lived in France **for a year**.
- I have been going to this school **since 1996**.

In these adverbial phrases that tell us for how long, *for* is always followed by an expression of duration, while *since* is always followed by an expression of a point in time.

Examples

- I stayed in Switzerland **for three days**.
- I am going on vacation **for a week**.
- I have been riding horses **for several years**.
- The French monarchy lasted **for several centuries**.
- I have not seen you **since Monday**.
- Jim has been working here **since 1997**.
- There has not been a more exciting discovery **since last century**.

Adverbs that tell us how often

Adverbs that tell us how often express the frequency of an action. They are usually placed before the main verb but after auxiliary verbs (such as *be*, *have*, *may*, & *must*). The only exception is when the main verb is "to be", in which case the adverb goes after the main verb.

Examples

- I **often** eat vegetarian food.
- He **never** drinks milk.
- You must **always** fasten your seat belt.
- I am **seldom** late.
- He **rarely** lies.

Many adverbs that express frequency can also be placed at either the beginning or the end of the sentence, although some cannot be. When they are placed in these alternate positions, the meaning of the adverb is much stronger.

Adverb that can be used in two positions	Stronger position	Weaker position
frequently	I visit France frequently.	I frequently visit France.
generally	Generally, I don't like spicy foods.	I generally don't like spicy foods.
normally	I listen to classical music normally.	I normally listen to classical music.
occasionally	I go to the opera occasionally.	I occasionally go to the opera.
often	Often, I jog in the morning.	I often jog in the morning.
regularly	I come to this museum regularly.	I regularly come to this museum.
sometimes	I get up very early sometimes.	I sometimes get up very early.
usually	I enjoy being with children usually.	I usually enjoy being with children.

Some other adverbs that tell us how often express the exact number of times an action happens or happened. These adverbs are usually placed at the end of the sentence.

Examples

- This magazine is published **monthly**.
- He visits his mother **once a week**.
- I work **five days a week**.
- I saw the movie **seven times**.

Using Yet

Yet is used in questions and in negative sentences to indicate that something that has not happened or may not have happened but is expected to happen. It is placed at the end of the sentence or after *not*.

Examples

- Have you finished your work **yet**? (= simple request for information)
- No, not **yet**. (= simple negative answer)
- They haven't met him **yet**. (= simple negative statement)
- Haven't you finished **yet**? (= expressing surprise)

Using Still

Still expresses continuity. In positive sentences it is placed before the main verb and after auxiliary verbs such as *be*, *have*, *might*, *will*. If the main verb is *to be*, then place *still* after it rather than before. In questions, *still* goes before the main verb.

Examples

- She is **still** waiting for you.
- Jim might **still** want some.
- Do you **still** work for the BBC?
- Are you **still** here?
- I am **still** hungry.

Order of adverbs of time

If you need to use more than one adverb of time in a sentence, use them in this order:

1: how long 2: how often 3: when

Examples

- 1 + 2 : I work (1) **for five hours** (2) **every day**
- 2 + 3 : The magazine was published (2) **weekly** (3) **last year**.
- 1 + 3 : I was abroad (1) **for two months** (3) **last year**.
- 1 + 2 + 3 : She worked in a hospital (1) **for two days** (2) **every week** (3) **last year**.

Adverbs of manner

Adverbs of manner tell us **how** something happens. They are usually placed either after the main verb or after the object.

Examples

- He swims **well**.
- He ran **quickly**.
- She spoke **softly**

- James coughed **loudly** to attract her attention.
- He plays the flute **beautifully**. (after the direct object)
- He ate the chocolate cake **greedily**. (after the direct object)

An adverb of manner cannot be put between a verb and its direct object. The adverb must be placed either before the verb or at the end of the clause.

Examples

- He ate **greedily** the chocolate cake. [**incorrect**]
- He ate the chocolate cake **greedily**. [**correct**]
- He **greedily** ate the chocolate cake. [**correct**]
- He gave us **generously** the money. [**incorrect**]
- He gave us the money **generously**. [**correct**]
- He **generously** gave us the money. [**correct**]

If there is a preposition before the verb's object, you can place the adverb of manner either before the preposition or after the object.

Examples

- The child ran **happily** towards his mother.
- The child ran towards his mother **happily**.

Adverbs of manner should always come immediately after verbs which have no object (intransitive verbs).

Examples

- The town grew **quickly** after 1997.
- He waited **patiently** for his mother to arrive.

These common adverbs of manner are almost always placed directly after the verb: *well, badly, hard, & fast*

Examples

- He swam **well** despite being tired.
- The rain fell **hard** during the storm.

The position of the adverb is important when there is more than one verb in a sentence. If the adverb is placed before or after the main verb, it modifies only that verb. If the adverb is placed after a clause, then it modifies the whole action described by the clause. Notice the difference in meaning between the following sentences.

Example	Meaning
She quickly agreed to re-type the letter.	the agreement is quick
She agreed quickly to re-type the letter.	the agreement is quick
She agreed to re-type the letter quickly.	the re-typing is quick
He quietly asked me to leave the house.	the request is quiet
He asked me quietly to leave the house.	the request is quiet
He asked me to leave the house quietly.	the leaving is quiet

Literary usage

Sometimes an adverb of manner is placed before a verb + object to add emphasis.

Examples

- He **gently** woke the sleeping woman.
- She **angrily** slammed the door.

Some writers put an adverb of manner at the beginning of the sentence to catch our attention and make us curious.

Examples

- **Slowly** she picked up the knife.
- **Roughly** he grabbed her arm.

Adverbs of degree

Adverbs of degree tell us about the **intensity** of something. Adverbs of degree are usually placed **before** the adjective, adverb, or verb that they modify, although there are some exceptions.

The words "too", "enough", "very", and "extremely" are examples of adverbs of degree.

Adverb of degree	Modifying	Example
extremely	adjective	The water was extremely cold.
quite	adjective	The movie is quite interesting.
just	verb	He was just leaving.
almost	verb	She has almost finished.
very	adverb	She is running very fast.
too	adverb	You are walking too slowly.
enough	adverb	You are running fast enough.

Usage of "enough"

Enough can be used as both an adverb and as a determiner.

Enough as an adverb

Enough as an adverb meaning 'to the necessary degree' goes after the adjective or adverb that it is modifying, and not before it as other adverbs do. It can be used both in positive and negative sentences.

Examples

- Is your coffee **hot enough**?
- This box isn't **big enough**.
- He didn't work **hard enough**.
- I got here **early enough**.

Enough is often followed by "to" + the infinitive.

Examples

- He didn't work hard enough **to pass the exam**.
- Is your coffee hot enough **to drink**?
- She's not old enough **to get married**.
- I got here early enough **to sign up**.

Enough can also be followed by "for someone" or "for something".

Examples

- The dress was big enough **for me**.
- She's not experienced enough **for this job**.
- Is the coffee hot enough **for you**?
- He didn't work hard enough **for a promotion**.

Enough as a determiner

Enough as a determiner meaning 'as much/many as necessary' goes before the noun it modifies. It is used with countable nouns in the plural and with uncountable nouns.

Examples

- We have **enough bread**.
- You have **enough children**.
- They don't have **enough food**.
- I don't have **enough apples**.

Usage of "too"

"Too" is always an adverb, but it has two distinct meanings, each with its own usage patterns.

Too meaning "also"

Too as an adverb meaning "also" goes at the end of the phrase it modifies.

Examples

- I would like to go swimming **too**, if you will let me come.
- Can I go to the zoo **too**?
- Is this gift for me **too**?
- I'm not going to clean your room **too**!

Too meaning "excessively"

Too as an adverb meaning "excessively" goes before the adjective or adverb it modifies. It can be used in both affirmative and negative sentences.

Examples

- This coffee is **too hot**.
- He works **too hard**.

- Isn't she **too young**?
- I am not **too short**!

Too is often followed by "to" + the infinitive.

Examples

- The coffee was too hot **to drink**.
- You're too young **to have grandchildren**!
- I am not too tired **to go out tonight**.
- Don't you work too hard **to have any free time**?

Too can also be followed by "for someone" or "for something".

Examples

- The coffee was too hot **for me**.
- The dress was too small **for her**.
- He's not too old **for this job**.
- Sally's not too slow **for our team**.

Usage of "very"

Very goes before an adverb or adjective to make it stronger.

Examples

- The girl was very beautiful.
- The house is very expensive.
- He worked very quickly.

- She runs very fast.

If we want to make a negative form of an adjective or adverb, we can add "not" to the verb, we can use an adjective or adverb of opposite meaning, or we can use "not very" with the original adjective or adverb. The meanings of the phrases are not identical. Usually the phrase using "not very" is less direct, and thus more polite, than the other phrases.

Examples

Original phrase	Opposite meaning with "not"	Opposite meaning with "not very"	Opposite meaning with an opposite word
The girl was beautiful.	The girl was not beautiful.	The girl was not very beautiful.	The girl was ugly.
He worked quickly.	He did not work quickly.	He did not work very quickly.	He worked slowly.

Difference in meaning between "very" and "too"

There is a big difference in meaning between "too" and "very". "Very" expresses a fact while "too" suggests there is a problem.

Examples

- He speaks **very quickly**.
- He speaks **too quickly** for me to understand.
- It is **very hot** outside.
- It is **too hot** outside to go for a walk.

Other adverbs used like "very"

Some common adverbs are used in the same way as "very" to heighten the degree of adjectives and adverbs.

Expressing very strong feelings	Expressing strong feelings	Expressing somewhat doubtful feelings
extremely, terribly, amazingly, wonderfully, insanely	especially, particularly, uncommonly, unusually, remarkably, quite	pretty, rather, fairly, not especially, not particularly
The movie was amazingly interesting.	The movie was particularly interesting.	The movie was fairly interesting.
She sang wonderfully well.	She sang unusually well.	She sang pretty well.
The lecture was terribly boring.	The lecture was quite boring.	The lecture was rather boring.

Inversion with negative adverbs

Normally the subject goes before the verb, however, some negative adverbs can cause an inversion when placed at the beginning of the clause. The order is reversed and the verb goes before the subject. This inversion is only used in writing, not in speaking.

Adverb	Normal word order	Inversion
Never	I have never seen such courage.	Never have I seen such courage.
Rarely	She rarely left the house.	Rarely did she leave the house.
Not only	She did not only the cooking but the cleaning as well.	Not only did she do the cooking, but the cleaning as well.
Scarcely	I scarcely closed the door before he started talking.	Scarcely did I close the door before he started talking.
Seldom	We seldom cross the river after sunset.	Seldom do we cross the river sunset.

Adverbs of certainty

Adverbs of certainty express how certain we feel about an action or event. Adverbs of certainty go before the main verb unless the main verb is 'to be', in which case the adverb of certainty goes after.

Examples

- He **definitely** left the house this morning.
- He **surely** won't forget.
- He is **probably** in the park.
- He is **certainly** a smart man.

If there is an auxiliary verb, the adverb of certainty goes between the auxiliary and the main verb.

Examples

- He has **certainly** forgotten the meeting.
- He will **probably** remember tomorrow.
- He is **definitely** running late.

Sometimes these adverbs of certainty can be placed at the beginning of the sentence.

Examples

- **Undoubtedly**, Winston Churchill was a great politician.
- **Certainly**, I will be there.
- **Probably**, he has forgotten the meeting.

When the adverb of certainty *surely* is placed at the beginning of the sentence, it means the speaker thinks something is true, but is looking for confirmation.

Examples

- **Surely** you've got a bicycle.
- **Surely** you're not going to wear that to the party.

Viewpoint and commenting adverbs

There are some adverbs and adverbial expressions which tell us about the speaker's viewpoint or opinion about an action, or make some comment on the action. These adverbs are different from other adverbs because they do not tell us how an action occurred. Commenting and viewpoint adverbs modify entire clauses rather than single verbs, adverbs, or adjectives. There is no real distinction between commenting adverbs and viewpoint adverbs, except in their sentence placement. Many adverbs that can be used as viewpoint adverbs can also be used as commenting adverbs. However, in some cases, an adverb is far more common as one or the other.

Sentence placement

Viewpoint adverbs are placed at the beginning, or more rarely, at the end of the sentence. They are usually separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma. Commenting adverbs are placed before the main verb unless the verb "to be" is used, in which case placement can be either before or after the verb. In some cases, commenting adverbs placed before the main verb will also be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas, although in most cases they will not be. In the examples below, viewpoint and commenting adverbs are shown in the correct sentence placements. When a sentence placement is unusual, stilted, or too formal for spoken language, it is marked with an asterisk.

Viewpoint or commenting adverb	At the start of a sentence	Before the main verb	At the end of a sentence
clearly	Clearly , he doesn't know what he is doing.	He clearly doesn't know what he is doing.	He doesn't know what he is doing, clearly .
obviously	Obviously , you are acting silly.	You are obviously acting silly	You are acting silly, obviously .

Viewpoint or commenting adverb	At the start of a sentence	Before the main verb	At the end of a sentence
personally	Personally , I'd rather go by train.	I'd personally rather go by train.	I'd rather go by train, personally .
presumably	Presumably , he didn't have time to go to the post office.	He presumably didn't have time to go to the post office.	He didn't have time to go to the post office, presumably .
seriously	Seriously , I can't give this speech.	I seriously can't give this speech.	I can't give this speech, seriously .
surely	Surely you tried to get here on time.	You surely tried to get here on time.	You tried to get here on time, surely .
technically	Technically , we cannot fly to Mars and back.	We technically cannot fly to Mars and back.	We cannot fly to Mars and back, technically .
undoubtedly	Undoubtedly , he has a good reason not to come.	He undoubtedly has a good reason not to come.	He has a good reason not to come, undoubtedly .
bravely	Bravely , I kept on walking.	I bravely kept on walking.	*I kept on walking, bravely .
carelessly	Carelessly , she threw her book into the pond.	She carelessly threw her book into the pond.	*She threw her book into the pond, carelessly .
certainly	Certainly you should be there.	You certainly <u>should</u> be there. / You should certainly be there.	You should be there, certainly .
cleverly	Cleverly , Sally hid the jellybeans.	Sally cleverly hid the jellybeans.	*Sally hid the jellybeans, cleverly .
definitely	* Definitely , you are smart.	You definitely <u>are</u> smart. / You are definitely smart.	*You are smart, definitely .
foolishly	Foolishly , they cried out.	They foolishly cried out.	They cried out, foolishly .
generously	Generously , he donated the money.	He generously donated the money.	*He donated the money, generously .
stupidly	Stupidly , they played in the street.	They stupidly played in the street.	*They played in the street, stupidly .
obviously	Obviously , we are lost.	We are obviously lost. / *We obviously <u>are</u> lost.	We are lost, obviously .

Viewpoint or commenting adverb	At the start of a sentence	Before the main verb	At the end of a sentence
kindly	Kindly , she fed the cat first.	She kindly fed the cat first.	She fed the cat first, kindly .
luckily	Luckily , you got here on time.	You luckily got here on time.	You got here on time, luckily .
fortunately	Fortunately , we found the boat.	We fortunately found the boat.	We found the boat, fortunately .
naturally	Naturally , you cannot be in the circus now.	You naturally cannot be in the circus now.	You cannot be in the circus now, naturally .
wisely	Wisely , she stayed home to take a nap.	She wisely stayed home to take a nap.	She stayed home to take a nap, wisely .
confidentially	Confidentially , I never gave him the envelope.		I never gave him the envelope, confidentially .
theoretically	Theoretically , we could send astronauts to Mars.	We could theoretically send astronauts to Mars. / We theoretically could send astronauts to Mars.	We could send astronauts to Mars, theoretically .
truthfully	Truthfully , I don't like chocolate much.	I truthfully don't like chocolate much.	I don't like chocolate much, truthfully .
disappointingly	Disappointingly , she got fourth place.	She disappointingly got fourth place.	She got fourth place, disappointingly .
thoughtfully	Thoughtfully , I turned away.	I thoughtfully turned away.	I turned away, thoughtfully .
simply	* Simply , I don't want to come.	I simply don't want to come.	
unbelievably	Unbelievably , she showed up late again.	She unbelievably showed up late again.	She showed up late again, unbelievably .
unfortunately	Unfortunately , there is no more room.	There is unfortunately no more room. / There unfortunately is no more room.	There is no more room, unfortunately .

Relative adverbs

The relative adverbs *where*, *when* & *why* can be used to join sentences or clauses. They replace the more formal structure of *preposition + which* used to introduce a relative clause.

Formal structure, preposition + which	More common structure using a relative adverb
That's the restaurant in which we met for the first time.	That's the restaurant where we met for the first time.
That picture was taken in the park at which I used to play.	That picture was taken in the park where I used to play.
I remember the day on which we first met.	I remember the day when we first met.
There was a very hot summer the year in which he was born.	There was a very hot summer the year when he was born.
Tell me the reason for which you came home late.	Tell me (the reason) why you came home late.
Do you want to know the reason for which he is angry with Sally?	Do you want to know (the reason) why he is angry with Sally?

Interrogative adverbs

The interrogative adverbs *why*, *where*, *how*, & *when* are placed at the beginning of a question. These questions can be answered with a sentence or a prepositional phrase. After an interrogative adverb in a question, you must invert the subject and verb so that the verb comes first.

Examples

- **Why** are you so late? There was a lot of traffic.
- **Where** is my passport? In the drawer.

- **How** are you? I'm fine.
- **When** does the train arrive? At 11:15.

Uses of how

How can be used to form questions in four different ways. How can be used by itself to mean "in what way".

Examples

- **How** did you make this sauce?
- **How** do you start the car?
- **How** can I get to your house?

How can be used with adjectives to ask about the degree of an attribute.

Examples

- **How tall** are you?
- **How old** is your house?
- **How angry** is mother?

How can be used with much and many to ask about quantity. *Much* is used with uncountable nouns and *many* is used with countable nouns.

Examples

- **How many** people are coming to the party?
- **How much** flour do I need?
- **How much** are these tomatoes?

How can be used with other adverbs to ask about the frequency or degree of an action.

Examples

- **How quickly** can you read this?
- **How often** do you go to London?
- **How loudly** does your brother scream?

CHAPTER XII

CONJUNCTIONS

A conjunction is a part of speech that is used to connect words, phrases, clauses, or sentences. Conjunctions are considered to be invariable grammar particles, and they may or may not stand between items they conjoin.

Types of Conjunctions

There are several different types of conjunctions that do various jobs within sentence structures.

These include:

- ***Subordinating conjunctions*** – Also known as subordinators, these conjunctions join dependent clauses to independent clauses.
- ***Coordinating conjunction*** – Also known as coordinators, these conjunctions coordinate or join two or more sentences, main clauses, words, or other parts of speech which are of the same syntactic importance.
- ***Correlative conjunction*** – These conjunctions correlate, working in pairs to join phrases or words that carry equal importance within a sentence.
- **Conjunctive adverbs** – While some instructors do not teach conjunctive adverbs alongside conjunctions, these important parts of speech are worth a mention here. These **adverbs** always connect one clause to another, and are used to show sequence, contrast, cause and effect, and other relationships.

When people first learn to write, they usually begin with short, basic sentences like these: “*My name is Ted. I am a boy. I like dogs.*” One of the most important jobs conjunctions do is to connect these short sentences so they sound more like this: “*I am a boy named Ted, and I like dogs.*”

Conjunction Rules

There are a few important rules for using conjunctions. Remember them and you will find that your writing flows better:

- Conjunctions are for connecting thoughts, actions, and ideas as well as **nouns**, clauses, and other parts of speech. For example: *Mary went to the supermarket **and** bought oranges.*
- Conjunctions are useful for making lists. For example: *We made pancakes, eggs, **and** coffee for breakfast.*
- When using conjunctions, make sure that all the parts of your sentences agree. For example: “*I work busily **yet** am careful*” does not agree. “*I work busily **yet** carefully*” shows agreement.

Conjunctions List

There are only a few common conjunctions, yet these words perform many functions: They present explanations, ideas, exceptions, consequences, and contrasts. Here is a list of conjunctions commonly used in American English:

- And
- As
- Because
- But
- For
- Just as

- Or
- Neither
- Nor
- Not only
- So
- Whether
- Yet

Examples of Conjunctions

In the following examples, the conjunctions are in bold for easy recognition:

- I tried to hit the nail **but** hit my thumb instead.
- I have two goldfish **and** a cat.
- I'd like a bike **for** commuting to work.
- You can have peach ice cream **or** a brownie sundae.
- Neither the black dress **nor** the gray one looks right on me.
- My dad always worked hard **so** we could afford the things we wanted.
- I try very hard in school **yet** I am not receiving good grades.

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