

Basic English Grammar Book for Students

Grammar is a set of rules that explain how words are used in a language. Words are classified into parts of speech such as NOUNS, PRONOUNS, ADJECTIVES, VERBS, ADVERBS, PREPOSITIONS, CONJUNCTIONS, and INTERJECTIONS. Some words belong to more than one part of speech depending on how they are used.

For example, the word 'round' can be used as a noun, an adjective, an adverb, a preposition, and a verb

Example:

Noun: I'm buying the next *round*.

Adjective: The baby has a *round* face.

Adverb: Gather *round* and listen to my story!

Preposition: She travels *round* the world.

Verb: The teacher *rounded* 638 to 640.

Abbreviations:			
noun	n.	preposition	prep.
pronoun	p.	conjunction	conj.
adjective	adj.	interjections	interj.
verb	v.	singular	sing.
adverb	adv.	plural	pl.

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NOUNS

DEFINITION:

A noun is a word that is the name of something (such as a person, animal, place, thing, quality, idea, or action) and is typically used in a sentence as subject or object of a verb or as object of a preposition.

A noun is defined as any member of a class of words that typically can be combined with determiners to serve as the subject of a verb, can be interpreted as singular or plural, can be replaced with a pronoun, and refer to an entity, quality, state, action, or concept.

Types of Nouns

Proper vs Common Nouns

Proper nouns are used to name SPECIFIC (or individual) persons, places, or things. Proper nouns begin with a capital letter.

Example: John, London, France, Mars

Common nouns are used to name NON-SPECIFIC persons, places, or things. Common nouns name people, places, or things in GENERAL. They are not capitalized unless they are used at the beginning of a sentence.

Example: man, city, country, planet

Abstract vs. Concrete Nouns

Abstract nouns are those referring to ideas, concepts, emotions, states, or qualities. Abstract nouns refer to “things” you can’t physically interact with. You can’t see, taste, touch, smell, or hear something named with an abstract noun.

Example: *love, time, fear, freedom*

Concrete nouns refer to tangible things that can be perceived through at least one sense.

Example: *dog, tree, apple, moon, hand*

Countable vs. Uncountable Nouns

Countable nouns are nouns that have singular and plural form. They can be used with a number or *a/an* before them. Anything that can be counted, whether singular – a dog, a house, a friend, etc. or plural – a few books, lots of oranges, etc. is a countable noun.

Example: *car, desk, pen, house, bag*

Uncountable nouns are nouns that cannot be counted. They often refer to substances, liquids, and abstract ideas. Even though uncountable nouns are not individual objects, they are always singular and one must always use singular verbs in conjunction with uncountable nouns.

Example: *wood, milk, air, happiness*

*There is no more **water** in the pond.*

Compound Nouns

Compound nouns are words for people, animals, places, things, or ideas, made up of two or more words. Most compound nouns are made with nouns that have been modified by adjectives or other nouns.

Usually, the first word describes or modifies the second word, giving us insight into what kind of thing an item is, or providing us with clues about the item's purpose. The second word usually identifies the item.

Compound nouns are sometimes written as one word, like *toothpaste*, *haircut*, or *bedroom*. They are often referred to as closed or solid compound nouns.

Sometimes compound nouns appear as two separate words. These are often referred to as open or spaced compound nouns. Example: full moon, Christmas tree, swimming pool

Sometimes compound nouns are connected with a hyphen. They are called hyphenated compound nouns. Example: *dry-cleaning*, *daughter-in-law*, *well-being*

Collective Nouns

Collective nouns refer to groups of people or things. They are usually singular unless it is clear that the members within the group are acting as individuals, as indicated in the second example. Collective nouns are words for single things that are made up of more than one person, animal, place, thing, or idea. You cannot have a team without individual members; even so, we discuss a team as a single entity.

People who are new to writing often encounter some trouble with sentence agreement when using collective nouns. This is understandable, because a collective noun can be singular or plural, depending on a sentence's context.

Example:

A colony of bees lives in my tree. (singular)

The jury disagree on the guilt of the accused. (plural)

Plural Nouns

Plural nouns are words used to indicate that there is more than one person, animal, place, thing, or idea. Most nouns form the plural by adding **-s**.

Example:

boy – boys

town – towns

pen – pens

Nouns ending in fricatives **s**, **sh**, **ch**, or **x** for the plural by adding **-es**.

Example:

bus – buses

wish – wishes

witch – witches

box – boxes

Note that some dictionaries list "busses" as an acceptable plural for "bus."

Most nouns ending in **-f** drop the **-f** and add **-ves**.

Example:

half – halves

knife – knives

wife – wives

loaf – loaves

wharf – wharves

BUT:

dwarf – dwarfs

roof – roofs

Noun ending in a **consonant +y** drop the **y** and add **-ies**

Example:

city – cities

sky – skies

spy – spies

daisy – daisies

Nouns ending in an **-o** preceded by a consonant add **-es**.

tomato – tomatoes

potato – potatoes

hero – heroes

BUT:

memo – memos

cello – cellos

stereo – stereos

There are nouns that maintain their Latin or Greek form in the plural.

Latin loanwords that end in **-us**, change the **-us** to an **-i**, **-era**, **-ora**, or **-es**.

Example:

nucleus – nuclei

syllabus – syllabi

focus – foci

fungus – fungi

cactus – cacti (cactuses is also acceptable)

genus – genera

radius – radii

uterus – uteri

viscus – viscera

Latin loanwords that end in **-is**, change the **-is** to an **-es**.

Example:

thesis – theses

crisis – crises

analysis – analyses

axis – axes

Latin loanwords that end in **-ex** or **-ix**, change the **-ex** or **-ix** to **-ices**.

Example:

index – indices (indexes is also acceptable)

appendix – appendices

matrix – matrices

vertex – vertices

Latin loanwords that end in **-a**, change the **-a** to an **-ae**.

Example:

formula – formulae (formulas also acceptable)

Latin loanwords that end in **-um**, change the **-um** to an **-a**.

Example:

addendum – addenda

millennium – millennia

memorandum- memoranda

datum – data

medium – media

Latin loanwords that end in **-on**, change the **-on** to an **-a**.

Example:

phenomenon – phenomena

automaton – automata

criterion – criteria

There are several nouns that have irregular plural forms. Plurals formed in this way are sometimes called mutated (or mutating) plurals or suppletive noun plural.

Example:

woman – women

child – children

man – men

person – people

mouse – mice

Thus, some irregular English nouns require a vowel sound change, or ablaut, between the singular and plural forms. foot – feet

Example:

goose – geese

louse – lice

man – men

mouse – mice

tooth – teeth

woman – women

Some irregular nouns in English are formed by the addition of an **-en** suffix.

Example:

child – children

ox – oxen

hose – hosen (archaic)

brother – brethren (archaic)

Greek loanwords that end in **-ma**, add the suffix **-ta** to the end of the word.

Example:

dogma – dogmata

schema – schemata

stigma – stigmata

stoma – stomata

For other irregular English nouns, the plural form is identical to the singular form.

Example:

bison

deer

fish

moose

offspring

sheep

A handful of nouns appear to be plural in form but take a singular verb.

Example:

The *news* is bad.

Gymnastics is a good sport.

Economics/mathematics/statistics is taught at my university.

Athletics is good for young people.

Linguistics is the study of language.

Darts is a popular game in England.

Billiards is played all over the world.

Another handful of nouns might seem to be singular in nature but take a plural form and always use a plural verb.

Example:

My pants are blue.

The scissors are on the table.

The glasses have fallen on the floor.

Some nouns have a fixed plural form and take a plural verb. They are not used in the singular, or they have a different meaning in the singular. Nouns like this include: *trousers, jeans, glasses, savings, thanks, steps, stairs, customs, congratulations, tropics, wages, spectacles, outskirts, goods, wits*

Example:

My *trousers* are too tight.

Her *jeans* are black.

Those *glasses* are his.

Compound words create special problems when we need to pluralize them. As a general rule, the element within the compound that word that is pluralized will receive the plural -s, but it's not always that simple. *Daughters-in-law* follows the general rule, but *cupfuls* does not.

Hyphenated compounds add -s to the main word.

Example:

brother-in-law – brothers-in-law

maid-of-honor - maids-of-honor

How Nouns Function

Nouns have several important functions in a sentence:

- **Nouns are subjects.** Every sentence has a subject, which is a noun that tells us what that sentence is all about.

Example: John swung the baseball bat.

- **Nouns are direct objects.** These nouns receive action from verbs.

Example: John threw the book.

- **Nouns are indirect objects.** These nouns receive the direct object.

Example: Brad threw John the ball.

- **Nouns are objects of prepositions.** These nouns follow the prepositions in prepositional phrases. **Example:** John swung the baseball bat at Greg.
- **Nouns are predicate nominatives.** These nouns follow linking verbs and rename the subject.

Example: John is a good player.

- **Nouns are object complements.** These nouns complete the direct object.

Example: They named their dog Max.

Possessive Nouns

DEFINITION: A possessive noun shows possession of an object by another object.

Possessive comes from the same root as **possession**, something you own.

Possessive nouns show ownership.

Example:

the car of John = *John's* car

the room of the girls = the *girls'* room

clothes for men = *men's* clothes

the boat of the sailors = the *sailors'* boat

FORMATION: To form the possessive, add 's (apostrophe + s) to the noun. If the noun is plural, or already ends in -s, just add an ' (apostrophe) after the -s.

Example:

Dog's collar

(*dog*+ 's)

sister's backpack

(*sister*+ 's)

car's engine

(*car*+ 's)

Plurals that don't end in -s:

Children's homework
(*children* + 's)

fish's bowls
(*fish* + 's)

octopi's tentacles
(*octopi* + 's)

For names ending in s, you can either add 's (an apostrophe + s), or just an apostrophe. The first option is more common. When pronouncing a possessive name, we add the sound /z/ to the end of the name.

Example:

Thomas's book (or *Thomas' book*)

James's shop (or *James' shop*)

the *Smiths's house* (or the *Smiths' house*)

To make hyphenated nouns possessive add 's (an apostrophe + s).

Example:

My *father-in-law's* hamburger recipe is the best.

When two nouns are joined but the ownership is separate each noun shows possession with 's (an apostrophe + s).

Example:

Mary's and *Michael's* coats are red and black. (Each owns his or her own coat and they are different coats.)

If two nouns are joined and the possession is the same, the last noun receives 's (apostrophe + s).

Example:

Carol and John's new car is the latest model.

FUNCTIONS OF THE POSSESSIVE: Possessive nouns can be used as **nouns** to express ownership of a noun previously mentioned, known as an *antecedent*.

Example:

Whose jacket is it? It's *John's*.

This pen? It's *Sean's*.

Possessive nouns can also be used as adjectives and are formed in the same way, by adding 's (apostrophe + s), or simply an apostrophe, depending on whether the noun is singular or plural.

Example:

John's mother is running late.

Mrs. Brown's colleague will not be coming to the meeting.

Possessives can also refer to restaurants, stores, colleges, and churches.

Example:

Let's go to *Pasquale's* for lunch.

Is *St. John's* a Catholic church?

Harvard's attendance was down last year.

Nouns that identify job titles can show possession as well.

Example:

The *doctor's* white coat was hanging in his office.

The *salesman's* pitch was very persuasive.

There are also some fixed expressions where the possessive form is used.

Example:

a *day's* work

a *month's* pay

today's newspaper

in a *year's* time

For *God's* sake! (= exclamation of exasperation)

a *stone's* throw away (= very near)

at *death's* door (= very ill)

in my *mind's* eye (= in my imagination)

PRONOUNS

DEFINITION: A pronoun is defined as a word or phrase that may take place of a noun or noun phrase. The replaced noun or noun phrase is known as the pronoun's antecedent.

TYPES OF PRONOUNS:

There five types of pronouns:

1. Personal pronouns
2. Possessive pronouns
3. Reflexive pronouns
4. Demonstrative pronouns
5. Relative pronouns
6. Interrogative pronouns
7. Indefinite pronouns
8. Reciprocal pronouns
9. Intensive (or Emphatic) pronouns

Personal Pronouns

Personal pronouns refer to particular persons or things. Personal pronoun describes the person speaking (*I, me, we, us*), the person spoken to (*you*), or the person or thing spoken about (*he, she, it, they, him, her, them*).

PERSONAL PRONOUNS				
	SUBJECT PRONOUNS		OBJECT PRONOUNS	
<i>person</i>	<i>singular</i>	<i>plural</i>	<i>singular</i>	<i>plural</i>
<i>1st</i>	I	we	me	us
<i>2nd</i>	you	you	you	you
<i>3rd</i>	he, she, it	they	him, her, it	them

We differentiate SUBJECT and OBJECT personal pronouns. SUBJECT personal pronouns function as the subject of the main verb hence 'subject' pronouns. SUBJECT pronouns represent Nominative case forms of pronouns while OBJECT personal pronouns represent Accusative case forms of pronouns. OBJECT personal pronouns

are used as the object of a verb, preposition or infinitive phrase, hence 'object' pronouns.

EXAMPLE:

I see John. *He* is wearing a red jacket. (Subject pronouns)

John saw *me* with my friends. John thinks I like *them*. (Object pronouns)

Possessive Pronouns

Possessive pronouns indicate close possession or ownership or relationship of a thing/person to another thing/person. Possessive pronouns can refer back to a noun and must agree with it in gender and number. Possessive pronouns never take apostrophes.

A possessive pronoun is used to avoid repeating information that has already been made clear. Thus, pronouns make sentences less confusing.

EXAMPLE:

Look at these bags. *Mine* is the red one.

Peter found his wallet but Jane couldn't find *hers*.

Steve and Mary don't like your house. Do you like *theirs*?

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS			
number	person	gender (of antecedent)	possessive pronouns
singular	1st	male/ female	mine
	2nd	male/ female	yours
	3rd	male	his
		female	hers
		neuter	its
plural	1st	male/ female	ours
	2nd	male/ female	yours
	3rd	male/ female/ neuter	theirs

Possessive adjectives (my, your, her, his, its, our, your, their) may be confused with possessive pronouns. Possessive adjectives modify noun in terms of possession. Both possessive adjective and possessive pronoun show possession or ownership, but possessive adjective is used (with noun) to modify the noun while possessive pronoun is used instead (in place of) a noun.

EXAMPLE:

The *boy* lost *his* hat. (possessive adjective)

All red hats are good. *His* are terrible. (possessive pronoun)

Both possessive pronoun and possessive adjective refer back to a noun and must agree with it in gender and number.

EXAMPLE:

Possessive adjective:

Incorrect: The boy lost *their* hats.

Correct: The boy lost *his* hat.

Possessive pronoun:

All three of my children wear shorts to school. Today John decided not to wear his.


Reflexive Pronoun

A reflexive pronoun is a pronoun that is preceded by the adverb, adjective, pronoun, or noun to which it refers, so long as that antecedent is located within the same clause. One could say that reflexive pronouns indicate that the person performing the action of the verb is also the recipient of the action.

A reflexive pronoun ends with “-self” or “-selves” and refers to another noun or pronoun in the sentence (usually the subject of the clause). The reflexive pronouns are *myself, yourself, herself, himself, itself, ourselves, yourselves* and *themselves*.

EXAMPLE:

I was in a hurry, so I typed the document *myself*.

She’ll have to drive *herself* today.

John cut *himself* on the sharp knife.

John and Steve bought drinks for *themselves*.

The exam *itself* wasn't difficult, but the examiner was too strict.

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS			
number	person	gender (of antecedent)	possessive pronouns
singular	1st	male/ female	myself
	2nd	male/ female	yourself
	3rd	male	himself
		female	herself
		neuter	itself
plural	1st	male/ female	ourselves
	2nd	male/ female	yourselves
	3rd	male/ female/ neuter	themselves

Demonstrative pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns indicate specific persons, places, or things. Demonstrative Pronouns are used to show or identify one or a number of nouns that may be far or near in distance or time. Demonstrative pronouns can be singular or plural. They are only

four in number - *this, that, these and those*. These pronouns point to thing or things in short distance/time or long distance/time.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS		
	short distance (near/close)	long distance (far)
singular	<i>this</i>	<i>that</i>
plural	<i>these</i>	<i>those</i>

EXAMPLE:

This is a beautiful house.

That is a great idea!

I see so many wonderful shoes in the store. Would you like to buy *these*?

Those were the days!

Demonstrative pronouns often function as adjectives. In this case, noun comes right after the demonstrative: *this, that, these, or those*. Such demonstratives agree with the noun they precede in number.

EXAMPLE:

This book is great!

Could you give me *that* bag over there?

These houses are big.

Relative pronouns

A relative pronoun is a pronoun that introduces a relative clause. It is called a "relative" pronoun because it "relates" to the word that its relative clause modifies. Relative pronouns introduce subordinate clauses functioning as adjectives and refer back to the noun (also a noun phrase) or pronoun that the clause modifies.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS		
	Refers to people	Refers to things
subject	<i>who</i>	<i>which, that</i>
object	<i>whom</i>	
possession	<i>whose</i>	

The most common relative pronouns are: *who, whom, whose, which, and that*. *Who* functions as the subject of a clause or sentence, while *whom* functions as the object of a verb or preposition. *Who* and *whom* are used for people. *Whose* is used to show

possession and can be used for both people and things. *Which* is used for things. *That* is used for people and things. In some situations, the words *what*, *when*, and *where* can also function as relative pronouns. Rules for using relative clauses:

- Relative clauses are introduced by relative pronouns. The relative pronoun can function as a possessive pronoun, an object, or a subject.
- When relative pronouns introduce restrictive relative clauses, no comma is used to separate the restrictive clause from the main clause.

EXAMPLE:

She will choose the color *which* looks good on her.

Here, *which* is joining the two related clauses about choosing a color and a color which would look good on her.

It is the girl *who* got first place in the race.

The man *whom* I met yesterday is our new neighbor.

It is the boy *whose* uncle is a police officer.

The athlete *who* won the race trained hard.

The store on the corner, *where* we usually buy all our groceries, was robbed.

The vase *that* was on the table is missing.

Interrogative pronouns

Interrogative pronouns introduce interrogative sentences (question and indirect questions). The interrogative pronoun represents the thing that we don't know. Thus, they are used to ask questions about a person or object that we do not know about.

The main interrogative pronouns: what, which, who, whom, whose.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS		
	Refers to people	Refers to things
subject	<i>who</i>	<i>what</i>
object	<i>whom</i>	
subject	<i>which</i>	
possession	<i>whose</i>	

What is used to ask questions about people or objects.

EXAMPLE:

What is your name?

What is the meaning of life?

Which is used to ask questions about people or objects.

EXAMPLE:

Which way should I go?

Which car do you prefer?

Who is used to ask questions about people?

EXAMPLE

Who told you that?

Who is coming to the party?

I asked him *who* would be at the party.

Whom is used to ask questions about people. It functions as an object of the sentence.

EXAMPLE:

Whom do you prefer to vote for?

To *whom* should I give my message?

Whose is used to ask questions about people or objects, always related to possession.

EXAMPLE:

Whose iPhone is this?

I wonder *whose* car is parked in front of our house.

Sometimes we use the suffix **-ever** to make compounds from some of interrogative pronouns. Interrogative pronouns with suffix **-ever** are used for emphasis, often to show confusion or surprise. Thus, we have: *whatever, whatsoever, whichever, whoever, whosoever, whomever, whomsoever, whosever*.

Indefinite pronouns

Indefinite pronouns are pronouns that refer to one or more unspecified (or non-specific) objects, beings, or places. They are called “*indefinite*” because they do not indicate the exact object, being, or place to which they refer.

Typical indefinite pronouns are: *all, another, any, anybody/anyone, anything, each, everybody/everyone, everything, few, many, nobody, none, one, several, some, somebody/someone*.

Most indefinite pronouns are always singular and take a singular verb. Some are always plural and take a plural verb.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS		
Singular	Plural	Singular / Plural
<i>another, anybody/anyone, anything, each, either, everybody/ everyone, everything, less, little, much, neither, nobody/no one, nothing, one, other, somebody/someone, something</i>	<i>both, few, fewer, many, others, several</i>	<i>all, any, more, most, none, some, such</i>

Indefinite pronouns include partitives, universals, and quantifiers. Many indefinite pronouns can also function as adjectives (determiners).

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS	
Partitive indefinite pronouns	<i>any, anybody, anyone, either, neither, nobody, no, someone, and some</i>
Universal indefinite pronouns	<i>every, all, both, and each</i>
Quantifying indefinite pronouns	<i>any, some, several, enough, many, and much</i>

EXAMPLE:

Somebody ate my chocolate!

Many have expressed their views.

A few of the customers were not satisfied with the service.

All were present at the meeting.

None of them showed up.

Is *anybody* here?

Either one is a good choice.

Each soccer player will receive a medal. (used as an adjective before a noun phrase)

Reciprocal pronouns

Reciprocal pronouns are used when two or more nouns are doing or being the same to one another. They are used when two subjects act in the same way towards each other, or, more subjects act in the same way to one another.

RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS	
two subjects reciprocate	<i>each other</i>
more than two subjects reciprocate	<i>one another</i>

The distinction in use is whether you refer to two people (*each other*) or to more than two (*one another*).

EXAMPLE:

Have you met *each other* before?

Jamie and Peter always sit next to *each other* at school.

Sean and Mary love *each other*.

The criminals were fighting *one another*.

They haven't seen *one another* since last year.

The soccer players spent the afternoon passing the ball to *one another*.

Intensive (or Emphatic) pronouns

Intensive pronouns are identical in form to reflexive pronouns. They are formed by adding suffix *-self* for singular and suffix *-selves* for plural to personal pronouns.

An intensive pronoun places emphasis on its antecedent by referring back to another noun or pronoun used earlier in the sentence. Because they are used for emphasis, intensive pronouns are sometimes called *emphatic pronouns*.

INTENSIVE PRONOUNS		
	singular	plural
1st person	<i>myself</i>	<i>ourselves</i>
2nd person	<i>yourself</i>	<i>yourselves</i>
3rd person	<i>himself, herself, itself</i>	<i>themselves</i>

You can test a word to see whether it is an intensive pronoun by removing it from the sentence and checking to see if the sentence has the same impact. If the sentence has the same impact, then it is an intensive pronoun and not a reflexive pronoun.

EXAMPLE:

She *herself* started to think about herself. (the first *herself* is used as intensive pronoun while the second *herself* is used as reflexive pronoun.)

They *themselves* knew that the prank was in bad taste. (the pronoun *themselves* is used to emphasize personal pronoun *they*; we can also say without emphasis: They knew that the prank was in bad taste.)

She *herself* told me.

NOTA BENE:

We should not confuse possessive adjectives with contractions:

POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVE	CONTRACTION
its (belongs to <i>it</i>)	it's (= it is)
your (belonging to <i>you</i>)	you're (=you are)
their (belonging to <i>them</i>)	they're (=they are)
whose (belonging to <i>whom</i>)	who's (=who is)

PRONOUNS		
Pronoun Type	Pronouns	Example
Personal	<i>I, you, he, she, it, we, they</i>	<i>I love you.</i>
Possessive	<i>mine, yours, his, hers, ours, theirs</i>	The big blue car is <i>mine</i> .
Reflexive	<i>myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves</i>	He injured <i>himself</i> playing soccer.
Demonstrative	<i>this, that, these, those</i>	<i>This</i> is my new house.
Relative	<i>that, which, who, whose, whom, where, when</i>	The movie <i>that</i> you recommended was really boring.
Interrogative	<i>who, what, which, what, whom, why, where, when, whose</i>	<i>What</i> is your name?
Indefinite	<i>anything, anybody, anyone, something, somebody, someone, nothing, nobody, none, no one...</i>	Have you seen <i>anyone</i> in the woods?
Reciprocal	<i>each other, one another</i>	The two friends talked to <i>each other</i> .
Intensive	<i>myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves</i>	

ADJECTIVES

DEFINITION: An adjective is a part of speech which describes, identifies, or quantifies a noun or a pronoun.

Types of Adjectives:

Based on how they are used adjectives can generally be classified into

1. Attributive adjectives

Attributive adjectives are part of the noun phrase followed by the noun they modify. They always come before the noun or noun phrase they modify

EXAMPLE:

happy people

funny story

2. Predicative adjectives

Predicative adjectives are linked via a copula (linking verb) to the noun or pronoun they modify.

Predicative adjectives are adjectives which follow a linking verb and describe the subject. Predicative adjective does not act as a part of the noun it modifies but serves as a complement of a linking verb.

EXAMPLE:

They are *happy*.

It is *funny*.

The weather is *cool* and *dry*.

The movie seems *interesting*.

The girl is *beautiful*.

Other types of adjectives are:

- Descriptive Adjectives
- Adjective of quantity
- Possessive Adjectives
- Demonstrative Adjectives
- Interrogative adjectives
- Personal Titles

There are three degrees or levels of adjectives, that is, degrees of comparison: *positive*, *comparative*, and *superlative*. When we talk about or describe only one single person, place, or thing, we use the *positive* degree. The *positive* form is the base form of the adjective. The following degrees of comparison will be explained in details:

- Comparative Adjectives

- Superlative Adjectives

Descriptive Adjectives

Descriptive adjectives describe nouns that refer to action, state, or quality. and answer one of these questions:

Which one?

What kind?

How many?

EXAMPLE:

He is a *tall* man.

They are *good* students.

She is a *beautiful* girl.

Adjectives of Quantity

Adjectives of quantity show the quantity of the noun and provides answer to the question of '*how much?*'. The adjectives of quantity show the quantity or the numbers present in the sentence.

EXAMPLE:

Peter has *little* knowledge about the world.

Monday will be the *first* day of school.

Possessive Adjectives

Possessive adjectives show possession. They are similar to possessive pronouns, but they are used as adjectives which modify a noun or a noun phrase.

EXAMPLE:

Have you seen *my* car?

This is *our* house.

Possessive adjectives (pronouns)		
Person	Singular	Plural
1 st	<i>my</i>	<i>our</i>
2 nd	<i>your</i>	<i>your</i>
3 rd	<i>his</i>	<i>their</i>
	<i>her</i>	
	<i>its</i>	

Demonstrative Adjectives

The demonstrative adjectives demonstrate something and are similar to demonstrative pronouns. They are *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*.

EXAMPLE:

This pencil is mine.

Those books over there are expensive.

Its skin is dry and rough.

Interrogative adjectives

Interrogative adjectives modify a noun or a noun phrase. They are similar to interrogative pronouns. Interrogative adjectives do not stand on their own. They are: *which*, *what*, *who*, *whose*, *whom*, and so on.

EXAMPLE:

Which snakes are poisonous?

Whose pencil is this?

Personal Titles

Personal titles are adjectives used as titles that function as adjectives to describe nouns. Personal titles are as follows: *Mr.*, *Master*, *Miss*, *Mrs.*, *Uncle*, *Auntie*, *Lord*, *Dr.*, *Prof.* and so on.

EXAMPLE:

Dr. Johnson will examine her later today.

Aunt Mary and *Uncle* Shane are coming to visit us.

Comparative Adjectives

Comparative adjectives are used to compare two things. They imply increase or decrease of the quality or quantity of the nouns.

FORM: The suffix **-er** is added to the base (stem) of the adjective to form most comparatives. When a two-syllable adjective ending in **-y** receives **-er** for comparative, we get **-ier**

(**-y + -er = -ier**)

EXAMPLE:

happy + **-er** = happier

pretty + **-er** = prettier

Adjectives with three or more syllables are preceded by the word **more** if we wish to emphasize increase in quality. However, if we wish to express decrease in quality, we use the word **less**.

EXAMPLE:

Increase in quality (<i>more</i>)	Decrease in quality (<i>less</i>)
careless – more careless forgetful – more forgetful	careless – less careless forgetful – less forgetful

Some adjectives have irregular comparative and superlative forms. These need to be memorized.

COMPARATIVE ADJECTIVES		
	base	comparative
+er	long	longer
	young	younger
	big	bigger
	early	earlier
two or more than two syllables in adjectives	beautiful	more beautiful
	faithful	more faithful
	beautiful	less beautiful
	faithful	less faithful
irregular comparison	good	better
	bad	worse
	little	less
	much	more

EXAMPLE:

The Ohio River is *longer* than the Mississippi River.

James is *taller* than Peter.

Science is *more* important than soccer.

This sandwich is *better* than the one we had yesterday.

Superlative Adjectives

Superlative adjectives are adjectives that show the greatest increase or decrease of the quality in a noun. If we are to compare more than two things, the superlative form of the adjectives should be used.

FORM: We use definite article **the** before the superlative form of the adjective.

For the most part monosyllabic adjectives form the superlative form by adding suffix -**est** to the base (positive form).

superlative: monosyllabic
adjectives

- the + POSITIVE FORM -est/iest

EXAMPLE:

She is *the smartest* girl in the class. (*smart – the smartest*)

Steven is *the youngest* soccer player in his team. (*young – the youngest*)

However, if the adjective has two or more syllables, we use the word **most** before the positive form to create the superlative form of the adjective. However, if we wish to express decrease in quality with superlative, we use the **the least** before the positive form of the adjective.

superlative: polysyllabic
adjectives

- the + most / least + POSITIVE FORM

EXAMPLE:

That must be *the most/ the least foolish* thing we have ever done. (*foolish – the most/the least foolish*)

Philip was *the most / the least cheerful* person on the team. (*cheerful – the most/ the least cheerful*)

Jennet is *the most/ the least beautiful* girl I have ever seen. (*beautiful – the most / the least beautiful*)

FORMING COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE ADJECTIVES

RULE 1: Positive (base) form of adjectives containing one syllable (monosyllabic) receive suffix **-er** to make a comparative form, and suffix **-est** to make a superlative form. Definite article **the** is used before the superlative form.

Forming Comparative and Superlative Adjectives: Rule 1		
Positive	Comparative	Superlative
young	<i>younger</i>	<i>the youngest</i>
great	<i>greater</i>	<i>the greatest</i>
tall	<i>taller</i>	<i>the tallest</i>

RULE 2: Monosyllabic positive form of adjectives ending in **-e** receive only **-r** for comparative and **-st** for superlative.

Forming Comparative and Superlative Adjectives: Rule 2		
Positive	Comparative	Superlative
nice	<i>nicer</i>	<i>the nicest</i>
large	<i>larger</i>	<i>the largest</i>

RULE 3: Monosyllabic positive form of an adjective that contains a short vowel between two consonants (CVC) gets its last consonant doubled before suffixes **-er** and **-est**.

Forming Comparative and Superlative Adjectives: Rule 3		
Positive	Comparative	Superlative
big	<i>bigger</i>	<i>the biggest</i>
thin	<i>thinner</i>	<i>the thinnest</i>

RULE 4: Disyllabic (two syllables) positive form of an adjective ending in **-y** undergoes a spelling change after adding suffixes **-er** for comparative and **-est** for superlative. In this case **-y** becomes **-i**, thus we have: **-y + -er = -ier** and **-y + -est = -iest**.

Forming Comparative and Superlative Adjectives: Rule 4		
Positive	Comparative	Superlative
happy	<i>happier</i>	<i>the happiest</i>
tiny	<i>tinier</i>	<i>the tiniest</i>

RULE 5: Word **more** is used before a polysyllabic (two or more syllables) adjective to form a *comparative form*. Words **the most** are used before a polysyllabic (two or more syllables) adjective to form a *superlative form*.

Forming Comparative and Superlative Adjectives: Rule 5		
Positive	Comparative	Superlative
beautiful	<i>more beautiful</i>	<i>the most beautiful</i>
careless	<i>more careless</i>	<i>the most careless</i>
interesting	<i>more interesting</i>	<i>the most interesting</i>

RULE 6: Some adjectives have *irregular comparative and superlative forms*.

Forming Comparative and Superlative Adjectives: Rule 6		
Positive	Comparative	Superlative
bad	<i>worse</i>	<i>the worst</i>
good	<i>better</i>	<i>the best</i>
far	<i>farther/further</i>	<i>the farthest/furthest</i>
little	<i>less</i>	<i>the least</i>
many/much	<i>more</i>	<i>the most</i>
near	<i>nearer</i>	<i>the nearest/next</i>

ORDER OF ADJECTIVES

Sometimes we use more than one adjective in front of a noun.

EXAMPLE:

Marry is a *nice intelligent young* woman.

In general, the adjective order in English is:

1. Determiners — articles, possessive pronouns, demonstrative adjectives, adjectives of quantity, or ...
2. Observation — postdeterminers (e.g., a real hero, a perfect idiot) and adjectives subject to subjective measure, known as **opinion** adjectives (e.g., beautiful, interesting), or objects with a value (e.g., best, cheapest, costly)
3. Size and shape — adjectives subject to objective measure (e.g., wealthy, large, round), and physical properties such as speed.
4. Age — adjectives denoting age (e.g., young, old, new, ancient, six-year-old).
5. Color — adjectives denoting color (e.g., red, black, pale).
6. Origin — denominal adjectives denoting source of noun (e.g., French, American, Canadian).
7. Material — denominal adjectives denoting what something is made of (e.g., woolen, metallic, wooden).
8. Qualifier — often regarded as part of the noun (e.g., rocking chair, hunting cabin, passenger car, book cover).

When we use two or more adjectives together, **opinion** adjectives (e.g. interesting, beautiful) usually go before **fact** adjectives (e.g. new, blue).

EXAMPLE:

This is an *interesting blue* whale.

I do not like that *ugly red* dress.

When two or more fact adjectives come before a noun, they normally go in the following order:

Size + Age + Shape + Color + Origin + Material + Purpose + Noun



EXAMPLE:

Peter saw a *small rubber* ball. (size + origin)

An *elderly German* lady stood in the corner of the room. (age + origin)

He always wore *white leather tennis* shoes. (color + material + purpose)

ORDER OF ADJECTIVES									
Determiner	Observation	Physical Description				Origin	Material	Qualifier	Noun
		Size	Shape	Age	Color				
<i>A</i>	<i>beautiful</i>			<i>young</i>		<i>Italian</i>			<i>lady</i>
<i>Five</i>		<i>big</i>			<i>red</i>	<i>Bulgarian</i>			<i>roses</i>
<i>His</i>	<i>lovely</i>	<i>small</i>			<i>blue</i>			<i>race</i>	<i>car</i>
<i>That</i>	<i>gorgeous</i>						<i>wooden</i>	<i>hunting</i>	<i>cabin</i>
<i>Several</i>			<i>square</i>		<i>black</i>				<i>boxes</i>

VERBS

DEFINITION: Verbs are words that express action or a state of being in the sentence. They tell us something about the subject.

TYPES:

We can classify verbs into FINITE (MAIN) and NON-FINITE verbs

Finite vs. Nonfinite Verbs	
Finite Verbs	Nonfinite Verbs
Finite verbs indicate a person, number and tense. It shows person (1 st , 2 nd , 3 rd) or number (singular or plural).	Nonfinite verbs do not indicate person and number, and for the most part tense.
Finite verbs have two main types: action verbs and linking verbs . They can act in 4 different ways: transitive active action verbs, transitive passive action verbs, intransitive complete action verbs, intransitive linking verbs.	Nonfinite verb forms are infinitive, participle (past and present participle) and gerunds .
Because English lacks most inflectional morphology, the finite and the nonfinite forms of a verb may appear the same in a given context. In such a case, the environment surrounding the verb must be examined to determine whether it is finite or nonfinite.	
- function as <i>predicate</i> in a clause (sentence).	- do NOT function as predicate; - can function as <i>subject, direct object, adverbial, or subject predicate</i> in a sentence.
Example: Mia <i>goes</i> to school by bus every day. Mia <i>went</i> to school yesterday. She <i>is</i> a good friend. They <i>are</i> good friends.	Example: <i>To love</i> is a wonderful thing. (subject) I love <i>eating pancakes</i> . (direct object) He went there <i>to see them</i> . (adverbial) The problem is <i>to decide on what to eat</i> . (subject predicate)

Non-Finite verbs

Nonfinite verbs are verbs that are not inflected by grammatical tense, person or number. This means they do not show tense, person or number. They sometimes are called verbals, but that term has traditionally applied only to participles and gerunds.

Typically, nonfinite verbs in English are:

- infinitive forms with and without **to** (e.g. *to go, go*),

- participle forms: *-ed* forms for past participle (e.g. *gone*) and *-ing* forms for present participle (e.g. *going*)
- gerunds: *-ing* forms (e.g. *going*).

A nonfinite verb (an infinitive or participle) does not show a distinction in tense and can occur on its own only in a dependent phrase or clause.

EXAMPLE:

While *walking* to school, she spotted a mocking jay.

She tiptoed round the house so as not *to wake* anyone.

You need to paint the whole cupboard, *starting* from the bottom.

Because English lacks most inflectional morphology, the finite and the nonfinite forms of a verb may appear the same in a given context. In such a case, the environment surrounding the verb must be examined to determine whether it is finite or nonfinite.

INFINITIVES

DEFINITION: The infinitive is the basic dictionary form of a verb when used non-finitely, with or without the particle **to**. Infinitives can be used as a noun or an adjective in a sentence.

FORM: The form with particle *to* is called the **full infinitive** or **to-infinitive**: *to* + base (e.g. *to go*, *to run*, *to smile*). The form without *to* is called the **bare infinitive** (e.g. *go*, *run*, *smile*).

EXAMPLE:

To love is the most important thing in the world. (*to love* is used as a noun, that is, it functions as the subject of the sentence.)

Peter wants *to swim*. (*to swim* is used as a noun, that is, it functions as object of the verb *wants*.)

Oh boy, he has stories *to tell*! (*to tell* modifies the noun *stories*; therefore, it is used as an adjective.)

PARTICIPLES

DEFINITION: A participle is a form of a verb that is used in a sentence to modify a noun, noun phrase, verb, or verb phrase. It plays a role similar to an adjective or adverb. It is one of the types of nonfinite verb forms.

There are two participles in English:

- Present participle, also sometimes called *active*, *imperfect*, or *progressive participle*, takes the suffix (ending) *-ing*. Present participle is identical in form to gerund (e.g. *doing*, *writing*, *putting*, *going*, ...).
- Past participle, also sometimes called *passive* or *perfect participle*, is identical to the past tense form (ending in *-ed*) in the case of regular verbs, but takes various forms in the case of irregular verbs, such as *done*, *written*, *put*, *gone*, etc.

FORMING PRESENT PARTICIPLE:



base form of the verb + ***-ing***

The following rules are used to form present participle:

1. If a monosyllabic (one syllable) verb ends in consonant, having consonant+ vowel + consonant, then we double the final consonant and add *-ing*.

EXAMPLE:

hop – hopping

beg – begging

clap – clapping

2. If a verb has more than one syllable and ends in consonant, having consonant+ vowel + consonant, we double the final consonant before *-ing* only if the final syllable is stressed.

EXAMPLE:

occur - occurring

begin - beginning

admit - admitting

refer - referring

3. When a verb ends in *-ic*, we add *-k* before the suffix *-ing*.

EXAMPLE:

picnic - picnicking

panic - panicking

4. When a verb ends with silent -e, the silent -e is dropped before the suffix -ing.

EXAMPLE:

close - closing	move - moving
live - living	have - having

5. When a verb ends with -e which is not silent, the final -e is not dropped before the ending -ing.

EXAMPLE:

be - being	see - seeing
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6. When a verb ends with -ie, the -ie is becomes -y before the suffix -ing.

EXAMPLE:

die - dying	lie - lying
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FORMING PAST PARTICIPLE:



base form of the regular verb + -ed

Regular verbs form past participle by adding the suffix -ed to its base form. The following rules should be applied to create past participle of regular verbs:

1. When the verb ends in -y preceded by a consonant, -y changes to -i after adding the suffix -ed.

EXAMPLE:

study - studied	hurry - hurried
apply - applied	worry - worried
try - tried	marry - married
cry - cried	tidy - tidied
busy - busied	carry - carried

2. When the verb ends in a vowel *-e*, we add *-d* to form past participle.

EXAMPLE:

live - lived	dance - danced
hope - hoped	love - loved
chase - chased	smoke - smoked
improve - improved	confuse - confused
move - moved	phone - phoned
care - cared	shave - shaved

3. when a monosyllabic (one syllable) verb ends with a constant preceded by a vowel having consonant + vowel + consonant pattern, we double the final consonant before the suffix *-ed*.

EXAMPLE:

stop - stopped	plan - planned
drop - dropped	ban - banned
rob - robbed	crop - cropped
step - stepped	

In a polysyllabic verb (more than one syllable), we double the final consonant when adding the suffix *-ed* only if the final syllable is stressed.

EXAMPLE:

permit - permitted	admit - admitted
prefer - preferred	regret - regretted

4. When the final syllable of the verb is not stressed, we do not double the final consonant before the suffix *-ed*.

EXAMPLE:

discover - discovered	remember - remembered
visit - visited	recover - recovered
listen - listened	develop - developed

In British English, the verbs that end in *-l* double the final consonant before the suffix *-ed* regardless of the stress.

EXAMPLE:

travel - travelled	cancel - cancelled
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5. When the verb ends in two consonants (-st-, -rt-, -ck-, -sk-, -rn-, -lk-), we do not double the final consonant before the suffix -ed.

EXAMPLE:

post - posted	trust - trusted
start - started	port - ported
kick - kicked	knock - knocked
ask - asked	mask - masked
warn - warned	turn - turned
walk - walked	talk - talked

6. If the verb ends with the following pattern vowel+vowel+consonant, we do not double the final consonant when adding the suffix -ed.

EXAMPLE:

boil - boiled	exploit - exploited
need - needed	explain - explained
shout - shouted	found - founded
want - wanted	cook - cooked

Irregular verbs form past participle irregularly. Unlike regular English past participles, irregular past participles do not follow any real pattern.

The table below contains the most common irregular verbs in the English language and their past participle forms.

Irregular Verbs forming PAST PARTICIPLE	
Base Form	Past Participle
be	<i>been</i>
have	<i>had</i>
say	<i>said</i>
make	<i>made</i>
go	<i>gone</i>
take	<i>taken</i>
come	<i>come</i>
see	<i>seen</i>
know	<i>known</i>
get	<i>got/gotten (US)</i>
give	<i>given</i>
find	<i>found</i>
think	<i>thought</i>
tell	<i>told</i>
become	<i>become</i>
show	<i>shown</i>
leave	<i>left</i>
feel	<i>felt</i>
put	<i>put</i>
bring	<i>brought</i>
begin	<i>begun</i>
keep	<i>kept</i>
hold	<i>held</i>
write	<i>written</i>
stand	<i>stood</i>
hear	<i>heard</i>
let	<i>let</i>
mean	<i>meant</i>
set	<i>set</i>
meet	<i>met</i>
run	<i>run</i>
pay	<i>paid</i>
sit	<i>sat</i>
speak	<i>spoken</i>
lie	<i>lain</i>
lead	<i>led</i>
read	<i>read</i>
grow	<i>grown</i>
lose	<i>lost</i>
fall	<i>fallen</i>
send	<i>sent</i>
build	<i>built</i>
understand	<i>understood</i>
draw	<i>drawn</i>
break	<i>broken</i>
spend	<i>spent</i>
cut	<i>cut</i>
rise	<i>risen</i>
drive	<i>driven</i>
buy	<i>bought</i>
wear	<i>worn</i>
choose	<i>chosen</i>

There are three **types of verbs**: action **verbs**, linking **verbs**, and helping **verbs**.

Action **verbs** are words that express action (give, eat, walk, etc.) or possession (have, own, etc.). Action **verbs** can be either transitive or intransitive.

Finite Verbs

DEFINITION: **Finite (main) verbs** are verbs that have a definite relation with the subject. The finite verb can be the main verb of a clause or sentence. They agree with the noun (subject) in person and number. Finite verbs represent an essential part of a sentence. **No finite verb, no sentence!**

EXAMPLE:

She *goes* to school. (3rd person singular)

I *go* to school. (1st person singular)

They *go* to school. (3rd person plural)

Finite verbs express tense (when?). They can show indicative or subjunctive mood, and active or passive voice. A finite verb can occur on its own in a main clause. Thus, there are different grammatical categories indicated in the form of the finite verb in English:

- **Person:** first person, second person or third person.
- **Mood:** imperative, indicative, or subjunctive
- **Voice:** active voice, passive voice
- **Number:** singular number, or plural number.
- **Aspect:** perfect, progressive (continuous)
- **Tense:** past tense, present tense or future tense

EXAMPLE:

I wish I *were* the President of the United States of America. (subjunctive)

I *am* a student. (indicative, active, present tense)

He *bought* a house. (indicative, active, past tense)

The store *was robbed*. (indicative, passive, past tense)

There are three types of verbs: ACTION verbs, LINKING verbs and AUXILIARY (helping) verbs. Action verbs and linking verbs are main verbs. Auxiliary (helping) verbs accompany main verbs to indicate tense, voice, mood, and number.

Action Verbs

DEFINITION: Action verbs express action that the subject carries out. They are expressing action, something that a person, animal, force of nature, or thing can do.

TYPES: Most of the action verbs are categorized as **transitive** or **intransitive**.

A **transitive verb** always has a noun that receives the action of the verb, called the direct object. Sometimes it has an indirect object, which names the object to whom or for whom the action was done.

EXAMPLE:

Jennifer *brings* Mrs. Jones lunch every day. (**Mrs. Jones** is the *indirect object* of verb **brings**, while **lunch** is *direct object*, and **Jennifer** is the *subject*)

An **intransitive verb** does not have a direct or indirect object. Although an intransitive verb may be followed by an adverb or adverbial phrase, there is no object to receive its action.

EXAMPLE:

His son *died* of pneumonia. (Verb **died** is followed by *preposition of*, that is by prepositional phrase **of pneumonia**.)

ACTION VERBS			
	Definition	Sample Verbs	Sentence Examples
Transitive Verbs	- used together with a <i>direct object</i> (a thing or a person). Sometimes <i>indirect object</i> is used with direct object.	1. <i>raise</i> 2. <i>owe</i> 3. <i>bring</i> 4. <i>make</i> 5. <i>drive</i> 6. <i>send</i>	1. Richard <i>raises</i> his hand. 2. Peter <i>owes</i> her some money. 3. Jennifer <i>brings</i> Mrs. Jones lunch every day. 3. Steven <i>makes</i> jewelry to sell at the market.
Intransitive Verbs	- don NOT have a direct object for their meaning to be communicated. In most cases, they are followed by an adverb, adjective, verb complement or a preposition.	1. <i>Die</i> 2. <i>Arrive</i> 3. <i>Come</i> 4. <i>Wait</i> 5. <i>Sit</i> 6. <i>Look</i> 7. <i>laugh</i>	1. His son <i>died</i> of pneumonia. 2. The children <i>arrived</i> at school very late. 3. He <i>came</i> from Serbia in 1999.

Linking Verbs

DEFINITION: Linking verbs express a state of being and connect subjects to predicates, describing or renaming the subjects. A linking verb is a verb that describes the subject. It connects a subject to its complement.

Linking verbs include copulas such as the English verb *to be* and its various forms, verbs of perception such as *to look*, *to sound*, *to feel*, *to smell*, or *to taste*, and some other verbs that reflect a state of being, such as *to seem*, *to become*, *to grow*, *to appear*, *to turn*, or *to remain*.

LINKING VERBS	
copula	<i>to be</i>
verbs of perception	<i>to look</i> <i>to sound</i> <i>to feel</i> <i>to smell</i> <i>to taste</i>
verbs that reflect a state of being	<i>to seem</i> <i>to become</i> <i>to grow</i> <i>to appear</i> <i>to turn</i> <i>to remain</i>

EXAMPLE:

John *is* in love with her.

In the 1990s, Angelina Jolie *became* a popular actress. (The verb, *became*, links the subject, *Angelina Jolie*, to its complement, *a popular actress*.)

Pizza *tastes* delicious.

Auxiliary Verbs

DEFINITION: An *auxiliary verb* (also known as a helping verb) determines the tense, voice, mood, and number of another verb (known as the main or lexical verb) in a verb phrase. In English, a *lexical verb* (also known as main verb) is any verb that is not an auxiliary verb. The lexical verb conveys a real meaning of the verb phrase.

The primary auxiliaries are the various forms of *be*, *have*, and *do*. The modal auxiliaries include *can*, *could*, *may*, *must*, *should*, *will*, and *would*.

Auxiliary Verb + Main Verb = Verb Phrase					
auxiliary verb	<i>will</i>	<i>has</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>have been</i>	<i>must</i>
main verb	<i>eat</i>	<i>taken</i>	<i>running</i>	<i>feeling</i>	<i>talk</i>
verb phrase	<i>will eat</i>	<i>has taken</i>	<i>is running</i>	<i>have been feeling</i>	<i>must talk</i>

Auxiliary verbs help main verbs in

- forming the passive, e.g. The man *was taken* to the hospital.
- expressing the continuity (progressive) aspect, e.g. The boy *is running*.
- expressing the perfect (completed) aspect, e.g. The rain *has stopped*.
- providing a dummy verb where a negative or interrogative sentence is to be made using a particular tense, e.g. I *don't* like it. or *Do* you like it?

Modal auxiliary verbs add meaning like:

- ability
- possibility
- permission
- command
- habitual action...

AUXILIARY VERBS	
primary auxiliary verbs	<i>to be, to have, to do</i>
modal auxiliary verbs	<i>can, may, must, will, shall, should, would, could, ought to, need</i>

EXAMPLE:

John *might have spilled* the chocolate milkshake. (*might have* – auxiliary verb, *spilled* – main verb)

Sean *is watching* TV now. (*is* – auxiliary verb, *watching* – main verb)

You *should see* a doctor as soon as possible. (*should* – auxiliary, *see* – main verb)

VERBS SUMMARY

- There are three categories of verbs: action verbs, linking verbs and auxiliary verbs.
- Only action and linking verbs can be main verbs in a verb phrase.
- A main verb can be the only verb in a sentence.
- Auxiliary verbs help action and linking verbs express mood, tense, voice, and number, hence the name helping verbs.
- An auxiliary verb and a main verb together make a verb phrase.

VERBS AND GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES (number, person, voice, mood, and tense)

Finite verbs express different grammatical categories: **number**, **person**, **voice**, **mood aspect**, and **tense**.

NUMBER shows whether the verb refers to singular (one item) or plural (two and more items).

PERSON shows which person or thing does the action. For example, we know if it is first person – *I* or *we*, second person – *you*, or third person – *he*, *she*, *it*, or *they*.

EXAMPLE:

I am at school. (first person singular)

She *likes* music. (third person singular)

John *doesn't believe* in superstitions. (third person singular)

They *play* soccer every Thursday. (third person plural)

TENSE helps us express *time*. Verbs come in three tenses: *past*, *present*, *future*.

The *past* is used to describe things that have already happened (e.g. *earlier in the day*, *yesterday*, *last week*, *three years ago*). The *present* tense is used to describe things that are happening right now, or things that are continuous. The *future* tense describes things that have yet to happen (e.g. *later*, *tomorrow*, *next week*, *next year*, *three years from now*).

ASPECT is a grammatical category that expresses how an action, event, or state, denoted by a **verb**, extends over time.

Thus, in English tense-aspect system offers:

The Present Tenses

Simple present

Present perfect

Present continuous

Present perfect continuous

The Past Tenses

Simple past

Past perfect

Past continuous

Past perfect continuous

The Future Tenses

Simple Future

Future perfect

Future continuous

Future perfect continuous

The Present Tenses		
Tense	EXAMPLE	When do we use it?
Present Simple Tense	I <i>wake up</i> every morning at 7 am. He <i>goes</i> to school every day. Cats <i>like</i> milk. The train <i>leaves</i> tonight at 6 PM.	- when it happens regularly (repeated or usual); a habit, a hobby, a daily event, a scheduled event or something that often happens; - to express facts or generalizations - to express scheduled events in the near future
Present Perfect Tense	I <i>haven't seen</i> her this month. I <i>have visited</i> London three times. My mom <i>has cooked</i> dinner for us. He <i>has known</i> Jane since 1999. They've <i>lived</i> in San Diego for 15 years.	- to express unfinished actions that started in the past and continue to the present - to express life experience - finished action with a result in the present - we use <i>since</i> with a fixed time in the past - we use <i>for</i> with a period of time
Present Continuous Tense	She <i>is washing</i> the car as we speak. She's <i>staying</i> with her friend for a week. He's <i>drinking</i> a lot these days. You <i>are always making</i> a mess in my room. <i>Are we going</i> to the party this weekend? My son <i>is getting</i> better at playing the flute.	we use it for - things that are happening at the moment of speaking. - temporary situations - temporary or new habits - annoying habits - definite future arrangements - talking about a situation which is slowly changing
Present Perfect Continuous Tense	She <i>has been working</i> here since 2004. They've <i>been watching</i> TV for three hours now. It's <i>been raining</i> . The pavement is wet.	we use it for - unfinished actions which started in the past and continue to the present (used with <i>for</i> and <i>since</i>) - actions which have just stopped and have a result, which we can often see, hear, or feel in the present

The Past Tenses		
Tense	EXAMPLE	When do we use it?
Past Simple Tense	World War II <i>started</i> in 1939. I <i>saw</i> a movie yesterday. John <i>arrived</i> from the airport at 9 am, <i>checked</i> into the hotel at 10 am, and <i>phoned</i> his boss at 11 am. They <i>lived</i> in Chicago for five years.	we use it for - finished events in the past with no connection to the present - for stories / lists of events - duration in past
Past Perfect Tense	After he <i>had put</i> his jacket on, he left the house. She <i>had never seen</i> a lion before she moved to Africa. It <i>had snowed</i> in the night, so the bus did not arrive.	we use it for - completed action before something else in the past - explaining or giving a reason for something in the past - something that started in the past and continued up to another action in the past
Past Continuous Tense	I <i>was watching</i> TV when Peter called. Yesterday at this time, I <i>was sitting</i> at my desk at work. Last night at 6 PM, I <i>was eating</i> dinner. When I walked into the office, several people <i>were</i> busily <i>typing</i> , some <i>were talking</i> on the phones, the boss <i>was yelling</i> directions, and customers <i>were waiting</i> to be helped. I didn't like them because they <i>were always complaining</i> . It <i>was raining</i> during lunch. Jane <i>was watching</i> TV and Peter <i>was reading</i> .	we use it to express: - a continuous action in the past which is interrupted by another action or a time - background information, to give atmosphere to a story - an annoying and repeated action in the past, usually with <i>always</i> - two actions which happened at the same time in the past
Past Perfect Continuous Tense	It was 5 o'clock; his parents <i>had been waiting</i> for him since 2 o'clock. Before they immigrated, my father <i>had been working</i> as a dentist and my mother <i>had been training</i> to be a psychiatrist. Sam gained weight because he <i>had been overeating</i> .	we use it to express: - continuous action before something in the past - cause of something in the past

The Future Tenses		
Tense	EXAMPLE	When do we use it?
Present Simple Tense	<p>I'll get you some tea.</p> <p>Don't worry, I'll be careful.</p> <p>Will you give me a hand?</p> <p>I will give up smoking!</p> <p>I think the Republicans will win the next election.</p> <p>The sun will set at 6 pm.</p>	<p>we use it to express:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - voluntary action - promise/ request / refusal - prediction based on opinion - future fact
BE GOING TO + INFINITIVE	<p>She is going to spend her vacation in Paris.</p> <p>Look at those boys playing soccer! They're going to break the window.</p>	<p>we use it to express:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - future plans made before the moment of speaking - prediction based on present evidence
Future Perfect Tense	<p>By next December, they will have moved to a new house.</p> <p>By the time he comes home, his wife is going to have cleaned the entire house.</p> <p>I will have been in San Diego for 15 months by the time I leave.</p> <p>By Monday, the repair shop is going to have had my laptop for a week.</p>	<p>we use it to express:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - completed action before something in the future - duration before something in the future (non-continuous verbs)
Future Continuous Tense	<p>I'll be returning home next Tuesday.</p> <p>My brother will be working now (= I think my brother is working now, but I'm not completely certain).</p> <p>Steve will be watching TV when his wife arrives tonight.</p>	<p>we use it to show:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - complete action in the future that will happen in the normal course of events. - a guess about the present. - interrupted action in the future
Future Perfect Continuous Tense	<p>They will have been talking for over an hour by the time Thomas arrives.</p> <p>By 2015, you will have been living in Mexico longer than you've lived anywhere else.</p> <p>In three months, they will have been seeing each other for a year.</p> <p>Jason will be tired when he gets home because he will have been jogging for over an hour.</p>	<p>we use it to indicate:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - action which starts before a time in the future and continues up to that time - cause of something in the future

ASPECT – TENSE SYSTEM IN ENGLISH CHEATSHEET

TENSES	TIME	EXAMPLE
Present	present action	He works every morning. I am happy today.
Past	completed action (past)	We went to the theater last night.
Future	future action	We will go Europe next month.
PROGRESSIVE		
Present Progressive	ongoing action	Peter is watching a movie right now.
Past Progressive	past ongoing action interrupted by another action	He was watching a movie when I called.
Future Progressive	future ongoing action	They will be studying at the library for the afternoon.
PERFECT		
Present Perfect	action began in the past and leading up to and including present	Peter has seen this movie twice.
Past Perfect	Action begun and completed in the past before another action occurred	Peter had already finished the movie by the time I arrived.
Future Perfect	Action to be completed by or before a specific future time	By next week, he will have sold his apartment.
PERFECT PROGRESSIVE		
Present Perfect Progressive	ongoing action begins in the past, continues in the present, and may continue into the future	She has been writing a book since March and she still hasn't finished it.
Past Perfect Progressive	ongoing past action completed before another action occurred	They had been shopping for three hours by the time I arrived.
Future Perfect Progressive	ongoing action begins in the past and continues to a specific future time	I will have been writing this e-mail for 45 minutes when the alarm starts ringing at 7am.

VOICE of a verb refers to passive or active state of the verb.

In the **active voice**, the subject and verb relationship is straightforward. The subject is the doer of the action.

EXAMPLE:

Janet *is* a teacher.

She *loves* teaching mathematics.

The children *have* lunch at twelve o'clock.

In the **passive voice**, the subject of the sentence is not the doer of the action. The subject is acted upon by some other agent or by something unnamed. The passive voice is used when we want to emphasize the action (the verb) and the object of a sentence rather than subject. This means that the subject is either less important than the action itself or that we do not know who or what the subject is.

EXAMPLE:

PASSIVE: My laptop *was stolen*. (*My laptop* – subject of passive but object in active sentence, *was stolen* – passive form of the verb)

ACTIVE: Someone *stole* my laptop. (*Someone* – subject, *stole* – active form of the verb, *my laptop* – object)

Fifty innocent people *were killed* in the bomb explosion.

PASSIVE: The chicken hawk *was killed* by Tim.

ACTIVE: Tim *killed* the chicken hawk.

When we know who the subject is, we put the subject at the end of the passive sentence. In that case, this subject is called an **agent**.

EXAMPLE:

Romeo and Juliet *was written* by William Shakespeare. (passive; William Shakespeare is an **agent**)

William Shakespeare *wrote* Romeo and Juliet. (active; William Shakespeare is a subject)

Only transitive verbs (those that take objects) can be transformed into passive constructions. Verbs that have no object (that is, no one to “receive” the action) cannot be put into passive. These verbs include *arrive, come, go, sleep, die, exist, live, have*, and so on.

FORMATION: We form passive voice with AUXILIARY VERB TO BE and PAST PARTICIPLE of the main verb.

FORMING PASSIVE VOICE:



PASSIVE VOICE IN EACH TENSE		
Tense	Auxiliary Verb + Past Participle (main verb)	Example
Present simple	am, is, are + PAST PARTICIPLE (main verb)	Many cars <i>are made</i> in Asia.
Present progressive	am, is, are + being + PAST PARTICIPLE (main verb)	Police <i>are being notified</i> that three prisoners have escaped.
Past simple	was, were+ PAST PARTICIPLE (main verb)	The whole suburb <i>was destroyed</i> by the forest fire.
Past progressive	was, were + being + PAST PARTICIPLE (main verb)	The customer <i>was being helped</i> by the salesman when the thief came into the store.
Future (will)	will be + PAST PARTICIPLE (main verb)	All the reservations will be made by the wedding planner.
Future (going to)	am, is, are + going to be + PAST PARTICIPLE (main verb)	Michael Jackson's Thriller <i>is going to be sung</i> at the Halloween party.
Present perfect	has, have + been + PAST PARTICIPLE (main verb)	Dinner <i>has been served</i> .
Past perfect	had + been + PAST PARTICIPLE (main verb)	Many cars <i>had been repaired</i> by John before he received his mechanic's license.
Future perfect	will + have been + PAST PARTICIPLE (main verb)	The project <i>will have been completed</i> before the holiday.
Modals (can, could, must, should, would, may, might)	can/could/should/would/may/might / must + PAST PARTICIPLE (main verb)	Criminals <i>must be stopped</i> before they commit more crimes.

Mood (imperative, indicative, and subjunctive) indicates the manner in which an action or condition is expressed.

Mood of the verb tells us how the speaker feels about what is being written or the way the thought is being expressed. The most commonly discussed moods are indicative, imperative, and subjunctive.

The **indicative mood** indicates a state of factuality and reality. It states, or indicates, a fact, asks a fact, or denies a fact.

EXAMPLE:

Washington D.C. *is* the capital of the U.S.A.

I *have finished* my homework.

She *loves* her teacher.

The **imperative mood** indicates a state of command. It gives a command, begs, or advises you to do something. The subject of all imperative sentences is the unstated **you**.

EXAMPLE:

Wash your hands before every meal.

Please *pass* the salt.

Be careful!

Don't forget your homework!

The **subjunctive mood** indicates a hypothetical state, a state contrary to fact or reality. It might be a wish, a desire, or an imaginary situation. Also, one could say that subjunctive mood expresses doubt or something contrary to fact.

Five hundred years ago, English had a highly developed subjunctive mood. After the 14th century, the subjunctive was used less frequently in English.

Subjunctive mood can also express a demand or recommendation if it follows **that**, or an uncertainty if it follows **if** or **whether**. Verbs such as *wish, hope, suggest, ask, demand, recommend, insist, order, command, advise, propose, request, urge* usually precede **that + subjunctive**. The verb **may** can be used to express a wish.

EXAMPLE:

She demanded that he *leave* the hospital premises

I suggest that he *implement* a budget cut in March.

May you *live* long and prosper.

If I *were* you, I wouldn't keep driving on those tires.

I demand that you *be* at home on time.

Whether you *be* right or wrong, you must follow the orders.

Indicative and Subjunctive Moods

Indicative	EXAMPLE	Subjunctive	EXAMPLE
<i>is</i>	Stefan <i>is</i> our presidential candidate.	<i>be</i>	I suggest Stefan <i>be</i> our presidential candidate.
<i>was</i>	I <i>was</i> in Disneyland last summer.	<i>were</i>	I wish I <i>were</i> in Disneyland now.
<i>will</i>	It <i>will</i> be sunny tomorrow.	<i>would</i>	I wish it <i>would</i> be sunny tomorrow.
<i>3rd person singular Present Simple Tense</i>	He <i>goes</i> to school on foot every morning.	<i>3rd person singular Present Simple Tense without suffix 's'</i>	I suggest he <i>go</i> to school by car every morning.

ADVERBS

DEFINITION:

An adverb is a word or set of words that modifies verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.

Adverbs tell us in what way someone does something. Adverbs are a very broad collection of words that may describe how, where, or when an action took place.

When they modify verbs, they answer the following questions: *how? when? Where? how often/much?* Adverbs can be used before or after the verb.

When they modify adjectives, they come before the adjectives.

When adverbs modify other adverbs, they are called **INTENSIFIERS**. Intensifiers always come before the adverbs they modify.

EXAMPLE:

He drove **slowly**. (adverb **slowly** modifies the verb drove: How did he drive?)

He drove a **very** fast car. (adverb **very** modifies adjective fast: How fast was his car?)

She moved **quite** slowly down the aisle. (adverb **quite** modifies adverb slowly: How slowly did she move?)

Adverbs frequently end in **-ly**. However, many words not ending in **-ly** as well as some phrases serve an adverbial function. Also, an **-ly** ending is not a guarantee that a word is an adverb. The words *lovely, lonely, motherly, friendly, neighborly*, for instance, are adjectives.

Other Types of Adverbs

There are different adverbs:

Adverbs of Frequency - always, sometimes, never, ...

Adverbs of Manner - carefully, slowly...

Adverbs of Time and Place - here, yesterday, then...

Adverbs of Relative Time - recently, already, soon...

Adverbs of Degree - very, extremely, rather...

Adverbs of Quantity - a few, a lot, much...

Adverbs of Attitude - fortunately, apparently, clearly...

Conjunctive Adverbs – furthermore, however, thus, also,

TYPES OF ADVERBS		
Types	Adverbs	Examples
Adverbs of Frequency	always, sometimes, never, usually, occasionally, seldom, rarely, hardly ever, ...	I always brush my teeth after dinner. I never swim in the cold ocean water.
Adverbs of Manner	carefully, slowly, badly, closely, easily, fast, quickly ...	She ran quickly . James, drive carefully !
Adverbs of Time and Place	here, outside, upstairs, yesterday, then, tomorrow, recently, already, soon...	We'll leave tomorrow . I live here . The students have already finished their assignment.
Adverbs of Degree	very, extremely, rather, almost, almost, absolutely, barely, completely...	This girl is very beautiful. The tea is extremely hot. The teacher has almost finished her lecture.
Adverbs of Quantity	a few, a lot, much	When I was a student, I studied a lot .
Adverbs of Attitude	fortunately, apparently, clearly, unfortunately, ...	Clearly , he doesn't know what he is doing. Unfortunately , there is no more room.
Conjunctive Adverbs	also, meanwhile, consequently, nevertheless, finally, next, furthermore, otherwise, however, still, indeed, then, instead, therefore, likewise, thus...	Sean went into the store; however , he didn't find anything she wanted to buy. Phillip kept talking in class; therefore , he got in trouble.

Adverbs Word Order

Generally, adverbs can go in three different positions. But remember that not all adverbs can go in all three positions: initial, mid-position, and end position.

Initial position – adverb used at the beginning of the sentence.

EXAMPLE:

Suddenly, John jumped out of his bed.

Sometimes I play golf at the weekend.

Quickly, I changed my opinion.

Mid-position – adverb can be used in the middle of the sentence either before the verb or after the first auxiliary verb but before the main verb.

EXAMPLE:

I *sometimes* play tennis at the weekend.

Jason *always* calls on his sister's birthday.

My father has *never* been a team player.

Do you *usually* have dinner that early?

However, adverbs are usually placed after the verb.

EXAMPLE:

He speaks *clearly*.

When there is an object, the adverb is usually placed after the object in the verb + object phrase.

EXAMPLE:

I put the vase *carefully* on the table.

However, it is unusual to put an adverb between the verb and its object.

EXAMPLE:

She wrote the letter *quickly*.

She wrote *quickly* the letter. (we would not say it like this)

End position – adverb can be used at the end of the sentence.

EXAMPLE:

They finished their drink ***quickly***.

Jack got out of his bed ***suddenly***.

She didn't play the piano ***very well***.

Adverbs of indefinite time and frequency (often, recently, sometimes) can go in mid-position or end position.

EXAMPLE:

His friend *often* comes here.

His friend comes here *often*.

Adverbs Word Order		
TYPE	POSITION	EXAMPLE
Adverbs of Manner	They usually go in end position. They sometimes go in mid position if the adverb is not the most important part of the clause or if the object is very long.	He drank quickly . He quickly drank his super strong beer and left the room.
Adverbs of Place	They usually go in end position. They sometimes go in initial position, especially in writing.	Put the cake there . His house is nearby . After a long day at work , we headed home. Here is the book I was telling you about.
Adverbs of Time	They usually go in end position. They sometimes go in initial position especially if we want to emphasize the adverb.	John went to the cinema yesterday . This month , she will graduate.
Adverbs of Frequency	They usually go in mid position. They sometimes go in initial position. They can also go in end position. Always , ever and never do not usually go in front position.	I always go to bed before 10 pm. I am never pleased to see him. She isn't usually bad tempered. We go on a vacation annually . Occasionally we meet for a coffee. Usually I don't give personal advice.
Adverbs of Degree	Really , very , quite usually go in mid position. A lot and a bit usually go in end position.	The man drove really badly. She travels a lot . My teacher is terribly grumpy today. They enjoyed the film immensely .
Adverbs of Attitude	They usually go outside the clause, often at the beginning – initial position . They might also go in end position. They can sometimes go in mid position, especially in formal writing.	Frankly , I don't think we'll win. I didn't like any of them, honestly . He obviously doesn't want to come.

PREPOSITIONS

Definition: A preposition is a word that links a noun, pronoun, or noun phrase to some other part of the sentence. Prepositions are short words (*on, in, to*) that usually stand in front of nouns.

There are about 150 prepositions in English.

Prepositions are challenging for learners of English because 1:1 translation is usually not possible. One preposition in your native language might have several translations depending on the situation, and vice versa.

Prepositions and nouns make up **PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES** that give details on time, space, and direction. **PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES** can function as a *noun*, an *adjective*, or an *adverb*.

EXAMPLE:

My mom is sitting **at** the desk.

My mom laughed **at** my joke.

My mom goes **to** bed **at** 9pm.

She goes **to** work **at** 7 am.

My friend told me all **about** it.

Mrs. Esteban lives **near** our house.

After recess we'll be **in** our classroom.

COMMON PREPOSITIONS IN ENGLISH

about	into
above	like
across	near
after	of
against	off
along	on
among	onto
around	out
at	outside
before	over
behind	past
below	since
beside	through
between	throughout
beyond	to
by	toward
down	under
during	until
except	up
for	upon
from	with
in	within
inside	without

CONJUNCTIONS

Definition: A conjunction (abbreviated **conj** or **cnj**) is a part of speech that connects words, sentences, phrases, or clauses. Conjunctions link (connect, conjoin) parts of a sentence. The most common conjunctions are **and**, **or**, and **but**.

EXAMPLE:

My boots look great **but** are not very comfortable.

Are there four **or** five people living in that apartment?

They gamble, **and** they drink.

My name is Johnnie, **and** I am five years old.

Types of Conjunctions

There are three basic types of conjunctions:

1. coordinating conjunctions

used to connect two independent clauses

2. subordinating conjunctions

used to establish the relationship between the dependent clause and the rest of the sentence








3. correlative conjunctions

used to join various sentence elements which are grammatically equal

COORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

The **coordinating conjunctions** are conjunctions that join two independent clauses, or two nouns, or two verbs, etc. They are: for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so.

Use the mnemonic “FANBOYS” to memorize coordinating conjunctions:

-  F = for
-  A = and
-  N = nor
-  B = but
-  O = or
-  Y = yet
-  S = so

When using coordinating conjunctions make sure you follow these instructions:

- ✓ Ensure that the coordinating conjunction is immediately followed by a main clause
- ✓ Don't use coordinating conjunctions to begin all of your sentences. Do so only when it makes your writing more effective.
- ✓ Use a comma before the coordinating conjunctions which separate two independent clauses (unless both clauses are very short).
- ✓ Although commas typically follow coordinating conjunctions, they should not be used after coordinating conjunctions used to open sentences unless an interrupter immediately follows.

EXAMPLE:

Do you like tea **or** coffee?

I like tea **and** coffee.

I want to work as an interpreter in the future, **so** I am studying English.

We didn't have much money, **but** we were happy.

I am allergic to dogs, **yet** I have three of them.

I go to the park every Sunday, **for** I love to watch the swans on the lake.

They do not gamble, **nor** do they drink.

COORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS	
F	for
A	and
N	nor
B	but
O	or
Y	yet
S	so

SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

A subordinating conjunction (also called a dependent word or subordinator) comes at the beginning of a **subordinate** (or **dependent**) **clause** and establishes the relationship between the **dependent** clause and the **independent** clause. Thus, a **subordinating conjunction** joins a **subordinate (dependent)** clause to a **main (independent)** clause. Here are some common subordinating conjunctions:

after, although, as, because, before, how, if, once, since, than, that, though, till, until, when, where, whether, while.

EXAMPLE:

Because I was hungry, I ate the apple.

She goes to the tennis club **because** she likes to play tennis.

When the doorbell rang, my dog Skippy barked.

As you couldn't see the film, we'll tell you all about it.

Although it was raining, Jason went swimming.

Unless we act now, all is lost.

He took to the stage **as though** he had been preparing for this moment all his life.

Some people make headlines **while** others make history.

Until spring arrives, we have to be prepared for more snow.

As soon as the alarm goes off, I jump out of bed.

A subordinate conjunction performs two functions within a sentence:

1. it illustrates the importance of the independent clause.
2. it provides a transition between two ideas in the same sentence. The transition always indicates a *place*, *time*, or *cause and effect* relationship.

USE COMMA after a dependent clause if the dependent clause comes at the beginning of the sentence: **As soon as** the alarm goes off, I jump out of bed.

COMMON SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS	
A	after, although, as, as far as, as if, as long as, as soon as, as though
B	because, before, by the time
E	even if, even though, every time
H	how
I	if, in order that
L	lest
O	once, only if
P	provided that
S	since, so, so that
T	till, than, though, that
U	unless, until
W	when, whenever, where, whereas, wherever, whether, while

CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTIONS

Correlative conjunctions work in pairs to join words and groups of words of equal weight in a sentence. Correlative conjunctions are pairs of conjunctions that work together, or correlate, to join phrases or words that carry equal importance within a sentence.

When joining singular and plural subjects, the subject closest to the verb determines whether the verb is singular or plural.

There are many different pairs of correlative conjunctions:

- + either...or
- + not only...but (also)
- + neither...nor
- + both...and
- + whether...or
- + just as...so
- + the...the
- + as...as
- + as much...as
- + no sooner...than
- + rather...than

EXAMPLE:

Not only am I finished studying for the exam, **but** I'm **also** finished with my paper.

I'll have **both** the cheesecake **and** the vanilla ice cream.

You **either** do your work **or** prepare for a trip to the office.

No sooner had I put my umbrella away, **than** it started raining.

Just as many Americans love basketball, **so** many Europeans love soccer.

Neither the basketball team **nor** the football team is doing well.

Would you **rather** go shopping **or** spend the day at the beach?

When using correlative conjunctions, you should pay attention to the following:

- ✓ When using correlative conjunctions, ensure verbs agree so your sentences make sense. This means that the verbs should agree in number (plural, singular), and tense (present simple, past simple, present perfect, past perfect, ...)

- ✓ When you use a correlative conjunction, you must be sure that pronouns agree.
For example: Neither *Debra* nor *Jane* expressed **her** annoyance when the cat broke the expensive lamp.
- ✓ When using correlative conjunctions, be sure to keep parallel structure intact. Equal grammatical units need to be incorporated into the entire sentence. This means that the correlation is between a noun phrase and a noun phrase, or between a prepositional phrase and a prepositional phrase, or between a clause and a clause ... For example: Not only did Jane grill burgers for John, but she also fixed a steak for her neighbor.

CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTIONS	
both ... and	just as...so
either ... or	the...the
neither ... nor	as ...as
not only ... but also	as much...as
so ... as	no sooner...than
whether ... or	rather...than

FILLERS

Definition:

A filler is a sound, word or a phrase that is spoken in conversation by one participant to signal to others a hesitation or a pause to think without giving the impression of having finished speaking. Thus, it is also known as a **pause filler**, **gap filler** or a **hesitation form**.

They are used to fill silence when you are speaking. They don't add any real value to the sentence.

When Are Filler Words Used in English?

- ✓ To show that you're thinking.
- ✓ To make a statement less harsh.
- ✓ To make your statement weaker or stronger.
- ✓ To stall for time.
- ✓ To include the listener in the conversation without ending your sentence.

English language learners should know about fillers if they want to sound natural when speaking English. Here is a list of some fillers:

List of FILLERS			
Actually	If you say so...	By all means	Precisely
Anyway	In fact	Not at all	right
As if...	Incidentally	No way	so
By the way	Meanwhile	Definitely	So what!
Come on.	Never	As if...	Surely
Definitely	No way	Come on.	Tell me something.
Do you mean to say?	Not a chance	Surely	Tell me.
Don't tell me.	Not at all	Never	Well!
However	Of course	Not a chance	Wow!
I know.	Oh! I see.	In fact,	You know...
I see.	Oh! Sure	Certainly	You mean to say?
I mean	ok	That thing	You mean...? Say.

Sometimes people make *sounds* to keep a conversation going on:

- ✓ ahh
- ✓ er
- ✓ um
- ✓ oh!
- ✓ ah!

Filler Sounds
ahh
er
um
oh!
ah!

How Are Fillers Used?

Well... – probably the most popular English word is used to buy time while considering the question you've just been asked.

Example:

Well, I guess \$50 is a good price for a good price of shoes.

You see... – it is usually used when you are explaining something to the person you are having a conversation with and you are hesitating a bit while thinking on how to explain the whole thing in detail. It is used to share a fact that you assume the listener doesn't know.

Example:

I was going to try this awesome @Reks spelling app, but **you see**, I ran out of space on my phone.

All right... – this phrase is used as an affirmative reply. But, it can also be used as a hesitation filler while you are coming up with the best way to put your thoughts into words.

Example:

He is not coming? **All right... all right ...**

I see... – this short phrase means “*I understand*”. It is used to fill the void while you are dwelling upon the matter at hand. It’s very similar to ***all right***.

Example:

A: Then, we went on a cruise because Mickey really wanted to be on a pirate ship so we picked an old sail ship.

B: ***I see...***

A: But, we all forgot how sea sick Mickey gets and

B: ***I see...***

A: ...

You know... – it is usually added to the end of a sentence to make the conversation more casual. It is used to share something that you assume the listener already knows.

Example:

We stayed at that hotel, ***you know***, the one down the street from Sintagma Square.

Like... – this word is used frequently in spoken English. Young people tend to use it is used excessively. It is sometimes used to mean something is not exact.

Example:

My neighbor has ***like*** ten cats.

Um / er / uh are mostly used for hesitation, such as when you don’t know the answer or don’t want to answer.

Example:

Um, I uh thought the homework was due tomorrow, not today.

Hmm is a thoughtful sound, and it shows that you’re thinking or trying to decide something.

Example:

Hmm, I like the pink bag but I think I’ll buy the black one instead.

I mean is used to clarify or emphasize how you feel about something.

Example:

I mean, he’s a great guy, I’m just not sure if he’s a good doctor.

You know what I mean? is used to make sure the listener is following what you’re saying.

Example:

I really like that girl, ***you know what I mean?***

At the end of the day is a phrase that means “*in the end*” or “*in conclusion*.”

Example:

At the end of the day, we’re all just humans, and we all make mistakes.

Or something is used as a sentence ending that means you’re not being exact.

Example:

The cake uses two sticks of butter and ten eggs, ***or something*** like that.

Okay and **so** are usually used to start sentences, and can be a sign that a new topic is starting.

Example:

So what are you doing next weekend?

Right, mhm, uh and **huh** are all affirmative responses—they all mean “yes”.

Example:

Right, so let’s prepare a list of all the things we’ll need.

Uh huh, that’s exactly what he told me too.

Fillers are not to be confused with *placeholder* names, such as thingamajig, whatsamacallit, whosawhatsa and whats'isface, which refer to objects or people whose names are temporarily forgotten, irrelevant, or unknown.