

Basic English Grammar

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BASIC ENGLISH GRAMMAR

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Written by Mothi(Matthew) Ashraf.

To the creator.



ACKNOWLEDGMENTS



This is a special kind of emotional and mind blowing book .There are also contemporary issues.

I have written this book to increase your knowledge. That's why I have to spend a lot of time and research and then write.I wish you success.And one more point I would be happy if you will be benefited from my words.

Mothi is an educationist in India and connected with the education department .



I WROTE MANY BOOKS like.....

FOUNTAINS , BULB THE SPEECH OF CREATIVI-
TY, SPOKEN ENGLISH(Fountains) , GET JOBS , INTER-
VIEW YOUR PREPARATION , How to Answer , WIN-
NER , My first Gift , SUCCESS , PREPARE FOR JOB , A
Story of an Unlucky Girl (poetry) etc.

This one is also very helpful and friendly to the mind.

I am indebted to them for inspiring me to write this book

:-

N.KHAN , ANGURA BEGAM, Jasmine Ashraf , Main-uddin,Najma,Sairaf,Ismatara,Ni-jam,joli,Jiyaul,dhoni,Juyel,Royel AND Many more.....

—Mothi Ashraf.

September, 2020.

India.



VERBS:-

Basic Forms of Verbs

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

Base form: Children play in the field.

Infinitive: Tell them not to play

Past tense: They played football yesterday.

Past participle: I have eaten a burger.

Present participle: I saw them playing with him today.

Gerund: Swimming is the best exercise.

Different Types of Verbs

Finite Verbs

Non-finite Verbs

Action Verbs

Linking Verb

Auxiliary Verbs

Modal Verbs

Finite Verbs:

Finite verbs are the actual verbs which are called the roots of sentences. It is a form of a verb that is performed by or

refers to a subject and uses one of the twelve forms of tense and changes according to the number/person of the subject.

Example:

Alex went to school. (Subject – Alex – performed the action in the past. This information is evident only by the verb ‘went’.)

Robert plays hockey.

He is playing for Australia.

He is one of the best players. (Here, the verb ‘is’ directly refers to the subject itself.)

Non-finite Verbs:

Non-finite Verbs are not actual verbs. They do not work as verbs in the sentence rather they work as nouns, adjectives, adverbs, etc. Non-finite verbs do not change according to the number/person of the subject because these verbs, also called verbals, do not have any direct relation to the subject. Sometimes they become the subject themselves.

The forms of non-finite verbs are – infinitive, gerund, and participle (participles become finite verbs when they take auxiliary verbs.)

Example:

Alex went abroad to play (Infinitives)

Playing cricket is his only job. (Present participle)

I have a broken bat. (Past participle)

Walking is a good habit. (Gerund)

Action Verbs:

Action verbs indicate what the subject of a sentence performs. Action verbs can make the listener/reader feel emotions, see scenes more vividly and accurately.

Action verbs can be transitive or intransitive.

Transitive verbs must have a direct object. A transitive verb demands something/someone to be acted upon.

Example:

I painted the car. (The verb 'paint' demands an object to be painted)

She is reading the newspaper. (The verb 'read' asks the question "what is she reading?" – the answer is the object)

Intransitive verbs do not act upon anything. They may be followed by an adjective, adverb, preposition, or another part of speech.

Example:

She smiled. (The verb 'smile' cannot have any object since the action of 'smiling' does not fall upon anything/anyone)

I wake up at 6 AM. (No object is needed for this verb)

Note: {Subject + Intransitive verb} is sufficient to make a complete sentence but {Subject + Transitive verb} is not sufficient because transitive verbs demand a direct object.

Linking Verb:

A linking verb adds details about the subject of a sentence. In its simplest form, it connects the subject and the complement — that is, the words that follow the linking verb. It creates a link between them instead of showing action.

Often, what is on each side of a linking verb is equivalent; the complement redefines or restates the subject.

Generally, linking verbs are called 'be' verbs which are - am, is, are, was, were. However, there are some other verbs which can work as linking verbs. Those verbs are:

Act, feel, remain, appear, become, seem, smell, sound, grow, look, prove, stay, taste, turn.

Some verbs in this list can also be action verbs. To figure out if they are linking verbs, you should try replacing them with forms of the be verbs. If the changed sentence makes sense, that verb is a linking verb.

Example:

She appears ready for the game. (She is ready for the game.)

The food seemed delicious. (The food was delicious.)

You look happy. (You are .)



Auxiliary Verbs:



Auxiliary verbs are also called helping verbs. An auxiliary verb extends the main verb by helping to show time, tense, and possibility. The auxiliary verbs are – be verbs, have, and do.

They are used in the continuous (progressive) and perfect tenses.

Linking verbs work as main verbs in the sentence, but auxiliary verbs help main verbs.

Do is an auxiliary verb that is used to ask questions, to express negation, to provide emphasis, and more.

Example:

Alex is going to school.

They are walking in the park.

I have seen a movie.

Do you drink tea?

Don't waste your time.

Please, do submit your assignments.

Modal Verbs:

A modal verb is a kind of an auxiliary verb. It assists the main verb to indicate possibility, potentiality, ability, permission, expectation, and obligation.

The modal verbs are can, could, must, may, might, ought to, shall, should, will, would.

Example:

I may want to talk to you again.

They must play their best game to win.

She should call him.

I will go there.

Participles are words formed from verbs. Present participles always end in -ing and function as adjectives. They help form progressive verb tenses. Past participles end in -ed, or other past tense irregular verb endings, and function as adjectives.

If you have questions about a particular verb, check your dictionary. In the following table, the first column is the infinitive form of the verb. (The infinitive is the “to + verb” form — to laugh, to cry, to learn grammar, and so on.) The second column is the simple past tense. The third column is the past participle, which is combined with has (singular) or have (plural) to form the present perfect tense. The past participle is also used with had to form the past perfect tense.

Participles are words formed from verbs. Present participles always end in -ing and function as adjectives. They help form progressive verb tenses. Past participles end in -ed, or other past tense irregular verb endings, and function as adjectives.



Forms of Irregular Participles



Verb	Past	Past Participle
bear	bore	borne
become	became	become
begin	began	begun
bite	bit	bitten
break	broke	broken
bring	brought	brought
catch	caught	caught
choose	chose	chosen
come	came	come
do	did	done
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
feel	felt	felt
fly	flew	flown
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got or gotten
go	went	gone
know	knew	known
lay	laid	laid

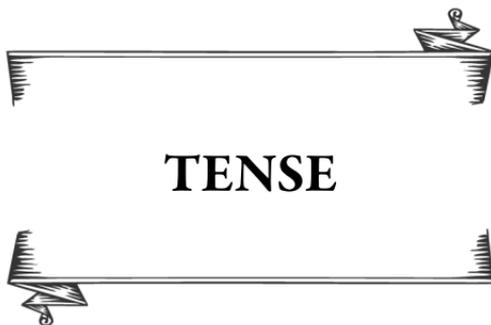
lead led led
lend lent lent
lie lay lain
lose lost lost
ride rode ridden
ring rang rung
rise rose risen
run ran run
say said said
see saw seen
set set set
shake shook shaken
sing sang sung
sink sank or sunk sunk
sit sat sat
sleep slept slept
speak spoke spoken
steal stole stolen
swim swam swum
take took taken
throw threw thrown
wear wore worn
win won won
write wrote written

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TENSE

100, 1 of them might give you an intelligent answer - if you were lucky. The other 99 would know little about terms like "past perfect" or "present continuous". And they would know nothing about aspect, voice or mood. But they can all speak fluent English and communicate effectively. Of course, for ESL it helps to know about tenses, but don't become obsessed with them. Be like those native speakers! Speak naturally

Tenses demonstrate the time of an action in a sentence usually performed by or centered around the subject of the sentence. The actions are called verbs. Verbs change according to tenses and other issues. As verbs are the most important elements of English sentences, tenses also carry paramount importance in English grammar.

Present Simple

I do, I do do

Present Continuous

I am doing

Present Perfect

I have done

Present Perfect Continuous

I have been doing

Past Simple

I did, I did do

Past Continuous

I was doing

Past Perfect

I had done

Past Perfect Continuous

I had been doing

Future Simple

I will do

Future Continuous

I will be doing

Future Perfect

I will have done

Future Perfect Continuous

I will have been doing

Present Simple

Present Simple tense

The Present Simple tense is the most basic tense in English and uses the base form of the verb (except for the verb be). The only change from the base is the addition of s for third person singular.

How do we make the Present Simple tense?

Tenses are mainly categorized into three types.

1. Present Tense

2. Past Tense

3. Future Tense

Present Tense

Each of the types of tenses has four different forms.

Present Indefinite Tense

Present Progressive (Continuous) Tense

Present Perfect Tense

Present Perfect Progressive (Continuous)

Examples of Present Tense

Present Indefinite Tense

The present indefinite tense, also known as simple present tense, denotes a stative or habitual or eternally true action.

Generally simple present tense is used to indicate an action which happens – always, regularly, every day, daily, normally, generally, usually, occasionally, sometimes, often, rarely, frequently, nowadays, naturally, seldom, constantly, never, every a week, every year, once a year, on a week, at times, at present, now and then, or all the time.

Structure:

Subject (third person singular number) + verb in simple present form + s/es +

Subject (all other kinds) + verb in simple present form +

Examples:

I know Billy Bob.

He understands it.

They love swinging in the park.

Some people do not believe in God.

I usually wake up at 6.00 AM.

He plays cricket, but his brother plays football.

Earth is bigger than Mercury.

The heat of the sun is the least in the polar.

Present Progressive (Continuous) Tense

The present progressive is used to indicate the ongoing time (now). However, the stative verbs do not usually take the

form of present progressive even though they refer to the present time.

Now, continually, perpetually, at this moment, at the moment, right now, This season, this year, forever, etc. are usually the signs of a verb to take present progressive tense. However, these signs are not necessary all the time for a verb to present progressive tense.

Structure:

Subject + am/is/are + verb + ing +

Example:

I am going to the college field.

He is coming here for some tips.

They are making a basketball ground.

Why are you working in that horrible place?

Four teams are playing at this moment.

This structure is also used to demonstrate future time.

Example:

Alex is leaving for Portugal tomorrow.

I am going to complete my task tomorrow.

Our bus is leaving at 6.00 PM.

They are flying to Australia next month.

Present Perfect Tense

The present perfect tense is used when one intends to indicate:

An action that occurred at a time which is indefinite and has its effect on the subject

Or an action that occurred many times and has the possibility to occur in the present/future

An action that began in the past and still going on in the present.

Structure:

Subject + have/has + verb in the past participle form + ...

....

Example:

Alex has read the book through. (No time is indicated)

I have read this poem many times. (Not habitual but occurred many times in the past)

He has lived in this apartment for 15 years. (Still going on)

Just, already, yet, just now, ever, lately, recently, etc. are some of the signs for present perfect tense.

Note: Already comes between have/has and the past participle; yet appears with a negative form at the end of the sentence.

Example:

Alex has already reached there.

Alex has not reached yet.

I have already cleaned the house.

I have not cleaned the house yet

Present Perfect Progressive (Continuous)

It is the least used form of present tense. Present perfect progressive is used to indicate an action that began in the past and is still occurring in the present. Both present perfect and present perfect continuous can be used to indicate this type of action.

Structure:

Subject + have/has + been + [verb + ing] +

Example:

Alex has been reading for 3 years.

I have been sleeping since 10.00 AM

Robert has been working in that shop for 6 years.

We have been living together for four years.

Past Indefinite Tense

The past indefinite tense, also known as simple past tense, is used to indicate a finished or completed action/task that occurred/happened at a specific point in time in the past. 'A specific time' can be diverse and can cover a long period of time but it cannot be undeterminable.

Structure:

Subject + verb in the past form + + adverb of time +

Note: Adverb of time can also be at the beginning of the sentence. Other sentences can also refer to that adverb and can use simple past tense.

Example:

Alex went to Mexico last year.

I ate a mango a few minutes ago.

He had an exam yesterday.

I used to travel around the world when I was fit. (It can also indicate a habit of the past which is not a habit in the present.)

Practice more: Past Indefinite Tense Examples.

Past Progressive (Continuous) Tense

The past progressive tense is used to demonstrate an action that was happening in the past for a period of time in a particular context. The context can be a specific time or another action.

Structures:

Subject + was/were + verb + ing + a specific time

Alex was sleeping yesterday at 6.30 AM

I was cleaning the dishes at around 5.30-6.30 yesterday.

When + subject + simple past tense + subject + was/were + verb+ing

When I went out, you were shouting from behind.

When Alex came, I was sleeping.

Subject + was/were + verb+ing + when + subject + simple past tense

You were shouting from behind when I went outside.

I was sleeping when Alex came home.

While + subject + was/were + verb+ing + subject + was/were + verb+ing

While I was sleeping, you were making noises.

While Alex was playing, I was sleeping.

Note: While can also be placed between the two clauses, and one of the clauses can be of simple past tense.

Practice more examples of Past Continuous Tense Examples.

Past Perfect Tense

The past perfect is used to demonstrate an action that occurred before another action in the past. There are usually two completed actions in the sentence; one happens before the other.

Structures:

Subject + had + past participle form of the main verb + before + subject + simple past tense

Alex had completed the task before the teacher asked.

I had bought a phone before you came here.

Before + subject + simple past tense + subject + had + past participle form of the verb +

Before I went to the office, I finished some business with her.

Before she went home, she had taken a test.

Subject + simple past tense + after + subject + had + past participle

Mark ate after I had bought him a bat.

I went to the office after I had finished some business with her.

After + subject + had + past participle + subject + simple past tense

After I had bought a phone, she came to the shop.

After she had gone, I came in.

Note: When can be used in place of before or after in any of the above structures.

Practice more examples of Past Perfect Tense Examples.

Past Perfect Progressive Tense

The past perfect progressive tense is an extension to the past perfect tense and its structures. Past perfect progressive is used to demonstrate an action which continued for a specific period of time but stopped before another action.

Structure:

Subject + had + been + verb+ing + + for/since + + before + subject + past simple tense

Alan had been playing cricket for 18 years before he retired.

Jack had been living in Sydney since 2010 before he moved to Melbourne.

Note: This tense can be replaced by the past perfect tense withdrawing for/since.

Simple Future (Future Indefinite) Tense

The simple future tense is used when an action is promised/thought to occur in the future.

Structure:

Subject + shall/will + verb +

Example:

We shall move to another city.

He will come to New York tomorrow.

They will make a phone which has artificial intelligence.

Note: The structure of the present progressive tense also can be used when an action is promised/arranged/planned to take place in the near future.

Example:

We are moving to Texas next week.

The bus is leaving at 6.00 PM.

Practice more: Examples of Simple Future Tense

Future Continuous Tense

The future continuous tense is used when an action is promised/thought to be going on at a specific time/context in the future.

Structure:

Subject + shall/will + be + verb+ing

Example:

I shall be sleeping at around 6.00 AM tomorrow.

They will be playing at this time tomorrow.

She will be watching TV when I come home.

I will be working in the office while you watch a movie.

Practice more: Examples of Future Continuous Tense

Future Perfect Tense

The future perfect tense is used to demonstrate an action which is promised to be done by a certain time in the future.

Structure:

Subject + shall/will + have + verb in the past participle . . .

.....

Example:

I shall have completed the assignment by Monday.

She will have cleaned the house before her father comes.

Alex will have submitted the tender by tomorrow.

Before I go to see her, she will have left the place.

They will have finished making the bridge by January.

Practice more: Examples of Future Perfect Tense

Future Perfect Continuous Tense

Note: There is no practical use of this tense.



IN TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR, word is the basic unit of language. Words can be classified according to their action and meaning, but it is challenging to define.

A word refers to a speech sound, or a mixture of two or more speech sounds in both written and verbal form of language. A word works as a symbol to represent/refer to something/someone in language to communicate a specific meaning.

Example : 'love', 'cricket', 'sky' etc.

'[A word is the] smallest unit of grammar that can stand alone as a complete utterance, separated by spaces in written language and potentially by pauses in speech.' (David Crystal, The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. Cambridge University Press, 2003)

Morphology, a branch of linguistics, studies the formation of words. The branch of linguistics that studies the meaning of words is called lexical semantics.

There are several criteria for a speech sound, or a combination of some speech sounds to be called a word.

There must be a potential pause in speech and a space in written form between two words.

For instance, suppose 'ball' and 'bat' are two different words. So, if we use them in a sentence, we must have a potential pause after pronouncing each of them. It cannot be like "Idonotplaywithbatball." If we take pause, these sounds can be regarded as seven distinct words which are 'I,' 'do,' 'not,' 'play,' 'with,' 'bat,' and 'ball.'

Every word must contain at least one root. If you break this root, it cannot be a word anymore.

For example, the word 'unfaithful' has a root 'faith.' If we break 'faith' into 'fa' and 'ith,' these sounds will not be regarded as words.

Every word must have a meaning.

For example, the sound 'lakkanah' has no meaning in the English language. So, it cannot be an English word.

A sentence is the largest unit of any language. In English, it begins with a capital letter and ends with a full-stop, or a question mark, or an exclamation mark.

The sentence is generally defined as a word or a group of words that expresses a thorough idea by giving a statement/order, or asking a question, or exclaiming.

Example:

He is a good boy (statement), Is he a good boy? (question),
What a nice weather! (exclaiming).

Ideally, a sentence requires at least one subject and one verb. Sometimes the subject of a sentence can be hidden, but the verb must be visible and present in the sentence. Verb is called the heart of a sentence.

Example:

Do it. (In this sentence, a subject 'you' is hidden but verb 'do' is visible)

"[A sentence is] a group of words, usually containing a verb, that expresses a thought in the form of a statement, question, instruction, or exclamation and starts with a capital letter when written." - (Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary & Thesaurus © Cambridge University Press.)



IN OTHER WORDS, A COMPLETE English sentence must have three characteristics:

First, in written form, a sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with a period (i.e., a full stop) [.] , a note of interrogation (i.e., a question mark) [?], or a note of exclamation (i.e., an exclamation mark) [!].

Second, it must express a complete thought, not fragmented.

Third, it must contain at least one subject (hidden/visible) and one verb comprising an independent clause. (An independent clause contains an independent subject and verb and expresses a complete thought.)



TYPES OF SENTENCES

Structurally, sentences are of four types:

Simple sentence

Compound sentence

Complex sentence, and

Compound-complex sentence.

Simple sentence

A simple sentence must have a single clause (a single verb) which is independent, and it cannot take another clause.

Example:

I always wanted to become a writer. (One clause – one verb)

Compound sentence

A compound sentence must have more than one independent clause with no dependent clauses. Some specific conjunctions, punctuation, or both are used to join together these clauses.

Example:

I always wanted to become a writer, and she wanted to become a doctor. (Two independent clauses – two verbs)

Complex sentence

A complex sentence also has more than one clause but of one them must be an independent clause and the other/others must be (a) dependent clause(es). There are also some particular connectors for the clauses of a complex sentence to be connected.

Example:

I know that you always wanted to be a writer. (Here, a dependent clause is followed by a connector and an independent clause. The other way around is also possible.)

Compound-complex sentence

A compound-complex sentence (or complex-compound sentence) is a mixture of the features of compound and complex sentences in one sentence. So, it must contain at least two independent clauses and at least one dependent clause.

Example:

I know that you always wanted to become a writer, but I always wanted to become a doctor. (Here, one dependent clause is followed by a complex connector and two independent clauses with a compound conjunction between them.)



FUNCTIONALLY, SENTENCES are of mainly four types:

Declarative sentence

Imperative sentence

Interrogative sentence, and

Exclamatory sentence

Declarative sentence:

An assertive sentence (declarative sentence) simply expresses an opinion/feeling, or makes a statement, or describes things. In other words, it declares something. This type of sentence ends with a period (i.e., a full-stop).

Examples:

I want to be a good cricketer. (a statement)

I am very happy today. (a feeling)

Imperative sentence:

We use an imperative sentence to make a request or to give a command. Imperative sentences usually end with a period (i.e., a full stop), but under certain circumstances, it can end with a note of exclamation (i.e., exclamation mark).

Examples:

Please sit down.

I need you to sit down now!

Interrogative sentence:

An interrogative sentence asks a question. Interrogative sentences must end with a note of interrogation (i.e., question mark)

Examples:

When are you going to submit your assignment?

Do you know him?

Exclamatory sentence.

An exclamatory sentence expresses overflow of emotions. These emotions can be of happiness, wonder, sorrow, anger, etc.

Examples:

What a day it was!

I cannot believe he would do that!



PARTS OF SPEECH



Parts of speech are the classification of words categorized by their roles and functions within the structure of the language.

Parts of speech encompass everything a language has in itself. Can you imagine all the words of a language can be sorted into these categories? They play different roles in the structure of a language.

In English, there are eight parts of speech:

Noun

Pronoun

Verb

Adjective

Adverb

Preposition

Conjunction

Interjection

Noun

Noun refers to people, places, things, ideas, concepts, etc.

Example: Michael is a good boy. Melbourne is the best city.

Pronoun

A pronoun is used to refer to a noun/noun phrase, or nouns/noun phrases; instead of the repeated use of the same noun(s)/noun phrase(s).

Example: Michael is a good boy. He gets up early in the morning.

Verb

Verb shows an action or an ongoing condition. It is considered as the heart of a sentence.

Example: Alex is going home. He loves his home.

Adjective

Adjective modifies or describes noun in a sentence.

Example: Alex loves his beautiful daughters. His daughters also love their caring father.

Adverb

Adverbs modify or describe adjectives, verbs, or other adverbs. It answers the questions When? Where? How? or How much?

Example: He is running fast. She always reads attentively.

Preposition

Preposition gives context to nouns in relationship to other nouns or pronouns.

Example: I am going to France. France is in Europe.

Conjunction

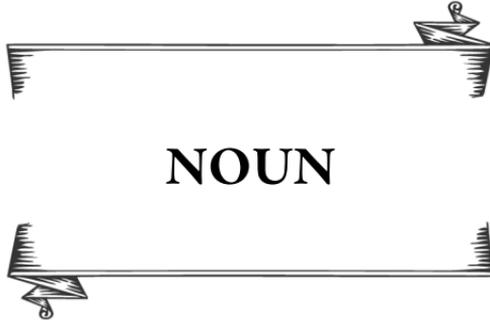
A conjunction connects nouns, noun phrases, clauses or sentences together.

Example: Julie love chocolate and chips. She loves pasta, but she hates pizza.

Interjection

Interjections are brief and abrupt pauses in speech, usually used for expressing emotions.

Example: Oh! That feels terrible. Alas! They have lost the match.



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

Noun can be a/an -

Person – a name for a person: - Max, Julie, Catherine, Michel, Bob, etc.

Animal – a name for an animal: - dog, cat, cow, kangaroo, etc.

Place – a name for a place: - London, Australia, Canada, Mumbai, etc.

Thing – a name for a thing: - bat, ball, chair, door, house, computer, etc.

Idea – A name for an idea: - devotion, superstition, happiness, excitement, etc.



DIFFERENT TYPES OF Noun:

Proper Noun

Common Noun

Abstract Noun

Concrete Noun

Countable Noun

Non-countable Noun

Collective Noun

Compound Noun

Proper Noun:

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

Example: Melbourne (it refers to only one particular city), Steve (refers to a particular person),

Australia (there is no other country named Australia; this name is fixed for only one country).

Common Noun:

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

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

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

Abstract Noun:

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

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

Concrete Noun:

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

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

Countable Noun:

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

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

Non-countable Noun:

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

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

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

Collective Noun:

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

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

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

Compound Noun:

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

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

Functions of Nouns

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

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

Direct object: I finally bought a new mobile.

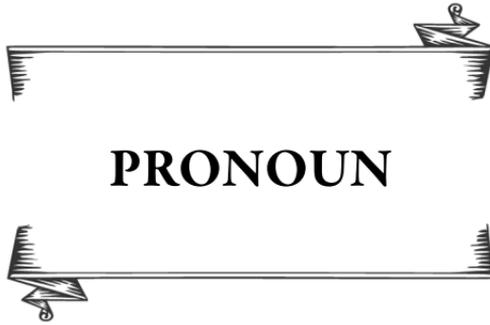
Indirect object: Max gave Carol another chocolate.

Object of preposition: Roses are the flowers of love.

Adverb: The train leaves today.

Adjective: The office building faces the mall.

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



A pronoun is used in place of a specific noun mentioned earlier in a sentence so that you don't have to keep saying/writing that particular noun.

Example:

Michael is a good boy. He gets up early in the morning.
(Here, you don't have to mention 'Michael' again)

The coach selected several key points. He wanted the team to memorize them. ('He' replaces 'the coach'; 'them' replaces 'several key points')

The word or phrase that a pronoun replaces is called the antecedent of the pronoun. In the previous example, original noun 'the coach' is the antecedent and the pronoun 'he' is the referent because it refers back to the original noun. The antecedent and the pronoun/s must agree in terms of number and gender.



TYPES OF PRONOUN:

Subject Pronouns

Object Pronouns

Possessive Pronouns

Reflexive Pronouns

Intensive Pronouns

Relative Pronouns

Demonstrative Pronouns

Interrogative Pronouns

Subject Pronouns

Subject pronouns work as the subject of the verb in a sentence. A subject pronoun normally replaces the subject/object (a noun) of the previous sentence.

Example:

Mike can't attend the party. He has gone to his grandparents.

Marta is a good storyteller. She told a ghost story that scared everyone.

Julie made some cakes. They look tasty. (Here, the subject pronoun replaced the object of the previous sentence)

Object Pronouns:

Object pronouns work as the object or indirect object in a sentence replacing the antecedent object. This form of the pronoun is also used after prepositions.

Example:

I'll give you a present on your birthday. I have a great idea for you (after preposition)

Tell her that you'll take the job.

I have a gift for your boss. Give it to your boss. (Here, 'it' works as an object)

Possessive Pronouns:

Possessive pronouns replace the nouns of the possessive adjectives: my, our, your, her, his, their. The possessive pronouns

are mine, ours, yours, hers, his, its, theirs. The pronoun 'who' also has a possessive form, whose.

Example:

I thought my bag was lost, but the one Kesrick found was mine. (Here, 'mine' refers to 'my bag')

Their vacation will start next week. Ours is tomorrow. (Here, 'ours' refers to 'our vacation')

Those four suitcases are ours.

Is this yours?

You have to take either her car or theirs. Hers is better than theirs. (Here, 'her' is possessive adjective and 'hers' and 'theirs' are possessive pronouns which replaced 'her car' and 'their car')

Reflexive Pronouns:

Reflexive pronoun redirects a sentence or a clause back to the subject, which is also the direct object of that sentence. A reflexive pronoun comes when the subject performs its action upon itself. Here, 'itself' is a reflexive pronoun.

Example:

Since she is her own boss, she gave herself a raise. (Here, 'herself' is the direct object of the clause and the same person is the subject)

She allowed herself more time to get ready.

The computer restarts itself every night.

We told ourselves that we were so lucky to be alive.

Intensive Pronouns:

Intensive pronouns add emphasis/importance but do not act as the object in the sentence. They can appear right after the subject.

Example:

I will do it myself. (Here, 'myself' is not an object)

I myself saw the missing boat into the harbor.

We intend to do all the work ourselves.

You yourselves are responsible for this mess.

Relative Pronouns:

Relative pronouns introduce the relative clause. They are used to make clear what is being talked about in a sentence. They describe something more about the subject or the object.

The relative pronouns are:

Subject

Object

Possession

Uncertainty

Which

Which

Whose

Whichever——(for things)

That

That



——(FOR BOTH THINGS AND people)

Who

Whom

Whose

Whoever/whomever/whosever——(for person)



EXAMPLE:

The car that was stolen was the one they loved most.

A person who loves nature is a good person.

Our school, which was founded in 1995, is being renovated.

I will accept whichever party dress you buy me on Christmas Day.

Whoever you are behind this great initiative, I want to thank you.

Demonstrative Pronouns:

Demonstrative pronouns normally indicate the closeness of or distance from the speaker, either literally or symbolically. This, these, that, and those are the demonstrative pronouns. They also work as demonstrative adjectives when they modify a noun. However, demonstrative pronouns do not modify anything rather replace the nouns/noun phrases.

Sometimes neither, none and such are also used as demonstrative pronouns.

Example:

That is a long way to go. (demonstrative pronoun)

This is my car. (demonstrative pronoun)

Hand me that cricket bat. (demonstrative adjective)

Neither is permitted to enter the building.

Such are ways of life.

Interrogative Pronouns:

Interrogative pronouns produce questions. They are what, which, who, whom, and whose.

Who, whom, and whose refer to questions related to a person or animal; what refers to an idea, object, or event; and which can indicate either a person/s or a thing/s.

Example:

What was the name of your dog?

Which is your favorite movie?

Who works for you?

Whom do you prefer in this competition?

There's a new bike on the lawn. Whose is it?



ADJECTIVE

An adjective describes or modifies noun/s and pronoun/s in a sentence. It normally indicates quality, size, shape, duration, feelings, contents, and more about a noun or pronoun.

Adjectives usually provide relevant information about the nouns/pronouns they modify/describe by answering the questions: What kind? How many? Which one? How much? Adjectives enrich your writing by adding precision and originality to it.

Example:

The team has a dangerous player. (What kind?)

I have ten candies in my pocket. (How many?)

I loved that red dress. (Which one?)

I earn more money than he does. (How much?)

However, there are also many adjectives which do not fit into these questions. Adjectives are the most used parts of speech in sentences. There are several types of adjectives according to their uses.



TYPES OF ADJECTIVES

Descriptive Adjectives
 Quantitative Adjectives
 Proper Adjectives
 Demonstrative Adjectives
 Possessive Adjectives
 Interrogative Adjectives
 Indefinite Adjectives
 Articles
 Compound Adjectives
 Descriptive Adjectives:

A descriptive adjective is a word which describes nouns and pronouns. Most of the adjectives belong in this type. These adjectives provide information and attribute to the nouns/pronouns they modify or describe. Descriptive adjectives are also called qualitative adjectives.

Participles are also included in this type of adjective when they modify a noun.

Examples:

I have a fast car. (The word 'fast' is describing an attribute of the car)

I am hungry. (The word 'hungry' is providing information about the subject)

The hungry cats are crying.

I saw a flying kite.

Quantitative Adjectives:

A quantitative adjective provides information about the quantity of the nouns/pronouns. This type belongs to the question category of 'how much' and 'how many'.

Examples:

I have 20 bucks in my wallet. (How much)

They have threebikes. (How many)

You should have completed the whole project. (How much)

Proper Adjectives:

Proper adjectives are the adjective form of proper nouns. When proper nouns modify or describe other nouns/pronouns, they become proper adjectives. 'Proper' means 'specific' rather than 'formal' or 'polite.'

A proper adjective allows us to summarize a concept in just one word. Instead of writing/saying 'a food cooked in Chinese recipe' you can write/say 'Chinese food'.

Proper adjectives are usually capitalized as proper nouns are.

Example:

American cars are very strong.

Chinese people are hard workers.

I love KFC chicken.

Marxist philosophers despise capitalism.

Demonstrative Adjectives:

A demonstrative adjective directly refers to something or someone. Demonstrative adjectives include the words: this, that, these, those.

A demonstrative pronoun works alone and does not precede a noun, but a demonstrative adjective always comes before the word it modifies.

Examples:

That building is so gorgeously decorated. ('That' refers to a singular noun far from the speaker)

This car is mine. ('This' refers to a singular noun close to the speaker)

These cats are cute. ('These' refers to a plural noun close to the speaker)

Those flowers are heavenly. ('Those' refers to a plural noun far from the speaker)

Possessive Adjectives:

A possessive adjective indicates possession or ownership. It suggests the belongingness of something to someone/something.

Some of the most used possessive adjectives are my, his, her, our, their, your.

All these adjectives always come before a noun. Unlike possessive pronouns, these words demand a noun after them.

Examples:

My car is parked outside.

His cat is very cute.

Our job is almost done.

Her books are interesting.

Interrogative Adjectives:

An interrogative adjective asks a question. An interrogative adjective must be followed by a noun or a pronoun. The interrogative adjectives are: which, what, whose. These words will not be considered as adjectives if a noun does not follow right after them. 'Whose' also belongs to the possessive adjective type.

Examples:

Which phone do you use?

What game do you want to play?

Whose car is this?

Indefinite Adjectives:

An indefinite adjective describes or modifies a noun un-specifically. They provide indefinite/unspecific information about the noun. The common indefinite adjectives are few, many, much, most, all, any, each, every, either, nobody, several, some, etc.

Examples:

I gave some candy to her.

I want a few moments alone.

Several writers wrote about the recent incidents.

Each student will have to submit homework tomorrow.

Articles

Articles also modify the nouns. So, articles are also adjectives. Articles determine the specification of nouns. 'A' and 'an' are used to refer to an unspecific noun, and 'the' is used to refer to a specific noun.

Examples:

A cat is always afraid of water. (Here, the noun 'cat' refers to any cat, not specific.)

The cat is afraid of me. (This cat is a specific cat.)

An electronic product should always be handled with care.

Compound Adjectives:

When compound nouns/combined words modify other nouns, they become a compound adjective. This type of adjective usually combines more than one word into a single lexical unit and modifies a noun. They are often separated by a hyphen or joined together by a quotation mark.

Example:

I have a broken-down bat.

I saw a six-foot-long snake.

He gave me an "I'm gonna kill you now" look.

The Degree of Adjectives:

There are three degrees of adjectives: Positive, comparative, superlative.

These degrees are applicable only for the descriptive adjectives.

Examples:

Positive degree: He is a good boy.

Comparative degree: He is better than any other boy.

Superlative: He is the best boy.



VERB BRIEFLY



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

Examples:

Jacob walks in the morning. (A usual action)

Mike is going to school. (A condition of action)

Albert does not like to walk. (A negative action)

Anna is a good girl. (A state of being)

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

Basic Forms of Verbs

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

Base form: Children play in the field.

Infinitive: Tell them not to play

Past tense: They played football yesterday.

Past participle: I have eaten a burger.

Present participle: I saw them playing with him today.

Gerund: Swimming is the best exercise.



DIFFERENT TYPES OF Verbs

Finite Verbs

Non-finite Verbs

Action Verbs

Linking Verb

Auxiliary Verbs

Modal Verbs

Finite Verbs:

Finite verbs are the actual verbs which are called the roots of sentences. It is a form of a verb that is performed by or refers to a subject and uses one of the twelve forms of tense and changes according to the number/person of the subject.

Example:

Alex went to school. (Subject – Alex – performed the action in the past. This information is evident only by the verb ‘went’.)

Robert plays hockey.

He is playing for Australia.

He is one of the best players. (Here, the verb ‘is’ directly refers to the subject itself.)

Non-finite Verbs:

Non-finite Verbs are not actual verbs. They do not work as verbs in the sentence rather they work as nouns, adjectives, adverbs, etc. Non-finite verbs do not change according to the number/person of the subject because these verbs, also called verbals, do not have any direct relation to the subject. Sometimes they become the subject themselves.

The forms of non-finite verbs are – infinitive, gerund, and participle (participles become finite verbs when they take auxiliary verbs.)

Example:

Alex went abroad to play (Infinitives)

Playing cricket is his only job. (Present participle)

I have a broken cycle. (Past participle)

Walking is a good habit. (Gerund)

Action Verbs:

Action verbs indicate what the subject of a sentence performs. Action verbs can make the listener/reader feel emotions, see scenes more vividly and accurately.

Action verbs can be transitive or intransitive.

Transitive verbs must have a direct object. A transitive verb demands something/someone to be acted upon.

Example:

I painted the car. (The verb 'paint' demands an object to be painted)

She is reading the newspaper. (The verb 'read' asks the question "what is she reading?" – the answer is the object)

Intransitive verbs do not act upon anything. They may be followed by an adjective, adverb, preposition, or another part of speech.

Example:

She smiled. (The verb 'smile' cannot have any object since the action of 'smiling' does not fall upon anything/anyone)

I wake up at 6 AM. (No object is needed for this verb)

Note: {Subject + Intransitive verb} is sufficient to make a complete sentence but {Subject + Transitive verb} is not sufficient because transitive verbs demand a direct object.

Linking Verb:

A linking verb adds details about the subject of a sentence. In its simplest form, it connects the subject and the comple-

ment — that is, the words that follow the linking verb. It creates a link between them instead of showing action.

Often, what is on each side of a linking verb is equivalent; the complement redefines or restates the subject.

Generally, linking verbs are called ‘be’ verbs which are - am, is, are, was, were. However, there are some other verbs which can work as linking verbs. Those verbs are:

Act, feel, remain, appear, become, seem, smell, sound, grow, look, prove, stay, taste, turn.

Some verbs in this list can also be action verbs. To figure out if they are linking verbs, you should try replacing them with forms of the be verbs. If the changed sentence makes sense, that verb is a linking verb.

Example:

She appears ready for the game. (She is ready for the game.)

The food seemed delicious. (The food was delicious.)

You look happy. (You are happy.)

Auxiliary Verbs:

Auxiliary verbs are also called helping verbs. An auxiliary verb extends the main verb by helping to show time, tense, and possibility. The auxiliary verbs are – be verbs, have, and do.

They are used in the continuous (progressive) and perfect tenses.

Linking verbs work as main verbs in the sentence, but auxiliary verbs help main verbs.

Do is an auxiliary verb that is used to ask questions, to express negation, to provide emphasis, and more.

Example:

Alex is going to school.

They are walking in the park.

I have seen a movie.

Do you drink tea?

Don't waste your time.

Please, do submit your assignments.

Modal Verbs:

A modal verb is a kind of an auxiliary verb. It assists the main verb to indicate possibility, potentiality, ability, permission, expectation, and obligation.

The modal verbs are can, could, must, may, might, ought to, shall, should, will, would.

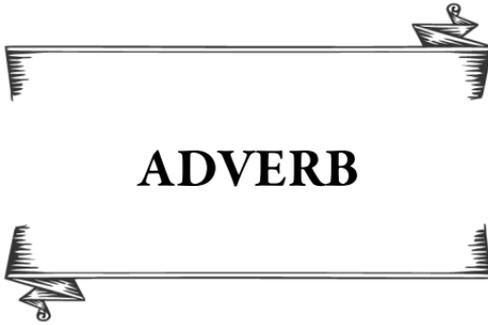
Example:

I may want to talk to you again.

They must play their best game to win.

She should call him.

I will go there.



ADVERB

An adverb is a word/a set of words that modifies verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs. It tells when, where, and how an action is performed or indicates the quality or degree of the action.

Many adverbs end in -ly but some words which end in -ly (such as friendly) are not adverbs. Many words can be both adverbs and adjectives according to their activity in the sentence.

Example:

Robin is always happy.

I love her very much.

He is running fast.

Alex works hard.

He wrote that willingly.

Adverb Clauses and Adverb Phrases are clauses and phrases that modify the verbs, adjectives or other adverbs in the sentence.

Example:

He ran toward the bus until he was tired. (Adverb Clause)

He came carrying his box with two hands. (Adverb Phrase)

We were panicked without any reason. (Adverb Phrase)



TYPES OF ADVERBS:

Conjunctive Adverbs

Sentence Adverbs

Adverbs of Time/Frequency (When?)

Adverbs of Place/Direction (Where?)

Adverbs of Degree (How Much?)

Adverbs of Manner (How?)

Conjunctive Adverbs:

A conjunctive adverb connects phrases or independent clauses. It provides transitions between ideas and shows relationships.

Conjunctive adverbs are also called connectors.

Example:

It rained last night. Nonetheless, the final match has not been canceled.

We are still confused, however, if the umpires will come.

Last season there was a great drought; consequently, we could not grow crops.

Sentence Adverbs:

A sentence adverb starts the sentence and modifies the whole sentence.

Example:

Hopefully, we will win the match.

Apparently, the sky is getting cloudy.

Certainly, I did not think of coming here.

Adverbs of Time/Frequency (When?)

Adverbs of time/frequency indicate time or frequency of the action in the sentence. They answer the question 'when/how frequently is the action performed?'

Always, never, often, eventually, now, frequently, occasionally, once, forever, seldom, before, Sunday, Monday, 10 AM, 12 PM, etc. are common adverbs of time/frequency.

Example:

I went to school a little late yesterday.

He always gets a good result.

I will leave Monday.

He smokes occasionally.

Adverbs of Place/Direction (Where?)

Adverbs of place/direction that indicate place/direction of the action in the sentence. They answer the question ‘where is the action performed?’

Across, over, under, in, out, through, backward, there, around, here, sideways, upstairs, in the park, in the field, in that place, etc. are some common adverbs of place/direction.

Example:

I went through the jungle.

He plays in the field.

Alex is going to school.

He is staying at my home.

Adverbs of Degree (How Much?)

Adverbs that express the importance/degree/level of the action in the sentence are called adverbs of degree. They answer the question ‘how much is the action performed?’

Completely, nearly, entirely, less, mildly, most, thoroughly, somewhat, excessively, much, etc. are common adverbs of degree.

Example:

She completely forgot about her anniversary.

I read the newspaper thoroughly.

I am so excited about the new job.

Robin hardly studies

Adverbs of Manner (How?)

Adverbs that express the manner/approach/process of the action in the sentence are called adverbs of manner. They answer the question 'how is the action performed?'

Beautifully, equally, thankfully, carefully, handily, quickly, coldly, hotly, resentfully, earnestly, nicely, tirelessly, etc. are common adverbs of manner. These adverbs usually end in ly.

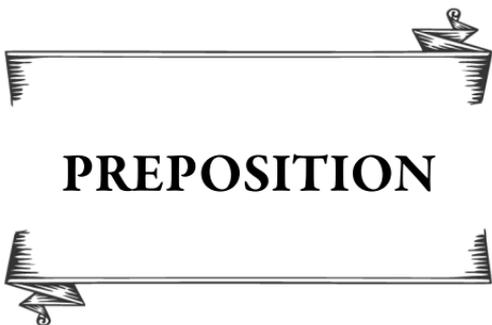
Example:

Let's divide the prizes equally.

Please, handle the camera carefully.

Mike is walking slowly.

He is running fast.



PREPOSITION

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 Iceland.

Alex threw a stone into the pond.

The present is inside the box.

They have gone out of the town.

There are a few interesting linguistic facts about preposition.

First, they are a closed class of words which means no new preposition gets added to the language. We use a fixed set of prepositions.

Second, prepositions do not have any other form. They cannot be plural, possessive, inflection, or anything else.

Third, most of the prepositions have many different contextual and natural uses. So, it is easy to be confused about preposition.

Fourth, sometimes a preposition works as nouns, adjectives, and adverbs.

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.

Read More: Prepositions of Time Usage

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.

Read More: Prepositions of Places & Direction Usage

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.

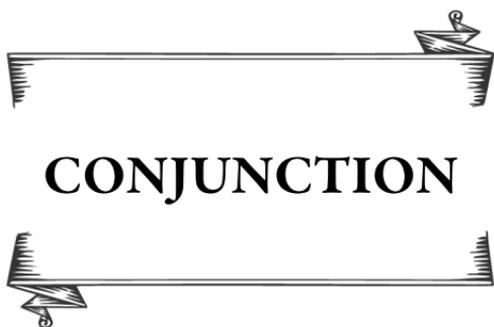
Example:

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.



Conjunctions are used to join clauses, phrases, and words together for constructing sentences. Conjunctions make a link between/among words or groups of words to other parts of the sentence and show a relationship between/among them.

Example:

Alex and Robin are playing together.

Alex plays well, but Robin plays better than him.

I play cricket, and Robin plays football.

When he was sick, I went to see him.



TYPES OF CONJUNCTIONS

Coordinating Conjunctions

Correlative Conjunctions

Subordinating Conjunctions

Coordinating Conjunctions:

The job of a coordinating conjunction is to join two words, phrases, or independent clauses, which are parallel in structure. There are seven coordinating conjunctions which are by far the most common conjunctions: and, but, for, nor, or, so, yet.

Example:

We went to the stadium and enjoyed the cricket match.

Do you want an ice cream or chocolate?

Go away and never come back.

Correlative Conjunctions:

A correlative conjunction uses a set of words in a parallel sentence structure to show a contrast or to compare the equal parts of a sentence. The words of correlative conjunctions have a special connection between them.

The correlative conjunctions are not only - but also, either-or, neither - nor, both - and, not - but, whether - or.

Example:

Neither Alex nor Robin can play baseball.

I want both ice cream and

He ate not only the ice cream but also the chocolate.

Subordinating Conjunctions:

A subordinating conjunction joins elements of an unparallel sentence structure. These elements are usually a dependent clause and an independent clause.

Most commonly used subordinating conjunctions are:

After, how, than, when, although, if, that, where, as, in order that, though, which, as much as, inasmuch as, unless, while, because, provided, until, who/whom, before, since, what, whoever/whomever.

Example:

Before we left home, I had had my breakfast.

Provided they come, we can start class Tuesday.

When he was washing my car, I went to the store.

Even though the weather was horrible, they still went outside.



INTERJECTION



An interjection is a kind of exclamation inserted into regular speech. Actually, it is a brief and abrupt pause in speech for expressing emotions.

Interjections are unique and have some interesting features:

Interjections don't have a grammatical function in the sentence construction.

They usually cannot be modified or inflected.

They do not have to have a relation to the other parts of the sentence.

They are highly context-sensitive.

In spoken language, interjections are the words we instantly use to show our reaction to something which influences our emotion. They are the initial reaction and sometimes do not even make sense. However, for formal speech or writing, using interjections is not appropriate.

Interjections mainly have four roles:

Rule 1: Interjections express sudden mood, emotions, and feeling with emphasis. There are also many taboo words that are usually used in everyday conversation but not in formal aspects. These words fall into the category of interjections.

Example:

Wow! That's an amazing scene.

Aw, I did not want him to come.

What? You never told me that!

Rule 2: Some interjections interrupt a conversation or a thought or hold someone's attention for a moment. These are just sounds, not words because these sounds do not make any sense.

Example:

Your, um, shirt has a stain on the back.

I want to, uh, ask you out on a date.

Rule 3: Some interjections express only yes or no.

Example:

Yes! I will most definitely do it.

Nah, we are not going.

Rule 4: Some interjections are used to get someone's attention.

Example:

Yo, Alex! Get in the car!

Hey! Will you give me that ball?

Yoo-hoo! Is there anyone?



ARTICLES

There is no doubt that articles are adjectives since they modify the nouns after them. But articles have some special significance as determiners. Articles determine the standard of nouns.

There are two types of articles:

Definite Article - the

The makes the noun something particular and definite.

Example:

Give me the ball.

(Here, the speaker is telling someone to give him/her a particular ball about which the speaker and the listener both are aware. There is no possibility of the ball to be anything else rather than the speaker and the listener idea of that particular ball.)

Indefinite Article - a & an

A & an - make the noun something general and indefinite.

Example:

Give me a ball.

(Here, the speaker is telling someone to give him/her a random ball about which the listener is not particularly aware of, and s/he might ask 'which/what kind of ball you want?')

Give me an egg. (It can be any kind of egg – the possibility is open.)

Rules of Using Articles

Definite article or Indefinite article, each of the articles has different uses in different situations.

Using Indefinite Article: a & an

Rule 1:

A common noun in the singular number always requires an article before it. But a plural common noun does not require an article always. A plural common noun can have the article 'the' if we want to particularise that noun.

Example:

I saw a snake. (Refers to a random snake)

I saw snakes in a zoo. (No article is required)

I have seen the snake again. (Refers to the snake I have already seen earlier)

I have seen the snakes again before leaving the zoo. (Refers to the particular snakes of the zoo which I saw earlier.)

Rule 2:

The choice between the two indefinite articles – a & an – is determined by sound. Words beginning with consonant sounds precede 'a' and words beginning with vowel sounds precede 'an'. There are some special cases also. For instance,

a university, a union, a useful book, etc.

a one-dollar note, a one-man army, etc.

an MA, a BA, an LLB, a BSC, etc.

Rule 3:

A or an - sometimes makes a Proper Noun a Common Noun. Proper nouns generally do not take any articles, but

when a proper noun needs to be used as a common noun, you must bring a or an - for it.

Example:

He thinks he is a Shakespeare. (Here, 'Shakespeare' does not refer to the actual person but someone like him.)

He seems to be an Australian. ('Australia' is a proper noun but 'Australian' is a common noun because there is only one Australia but a million of Australians.)

Rule 4:

Sometimes indefinite articles are used to refer the number 'one'/'each'/'per'.

Example:

I earned a thousand dollar in that job. (One thousand dollar)

I have a car. (One car)

It goes 50 miles an hour. (Per Hour)

Rule 5:

Indefinite articles often precede descriptive adjectives.

Example:

He is a good boy.

What a nice car!

Rule 6:

'A' sometimes comes before determiners, for example, a few, a little, a lot of, a most, etc. but in the case of many, a or an - comes after.

Example:

I have a few friends coming over.

There is a little milk in the jar.

Many a fan welcomed

Using Definite Article: the

Rule 1:

'The' is used to indicate a particular person(s) or thing(s) in the case of common nouns. Proper nouns generally do not take an article.

Example:

The man is running. (A particular man)

I saw the boy stealing.

Where is the pen I gave you last year?

I gave him a ball, but he lost the ball. ('a ball' became 'the ball' in the second clause because that ball was not a random ball anymore.)

Rule 2:

Sometimes 'the' is used to generalize a group/whole class.

Example:

The dog is a faithful animal. (Refers to the whole species of dog.)

The English are industrious. (Refers to the people of England as a nation)

The honest are respected. (The+adjectives = plural noun)

The poor are not always dishonest. (The+adjectives = plural noun)

Rule 3:

To particularise a non-count noun 'the' is required before it.

Example:

The water of the Arctic ocean is freezing.

Please return the money I lent you last year.

Rule 4:

'The' is mandatory before a thing which is only one of a kind in the universe.

Example:

The moon is shining tonight.

The earth is moving around the sun.



USE OF 'THE' BEFORE geographical places :

Rule 5:

Using 'the' with geographical nouns generally depends on the size and plurality of the things those nouns refer to. 'The' is generally used everywhere except some cases. So, it's better to know those exceptions first.

'The' must not precede:

Names of continents: Asia, Europe, Australia, Africa, South America, North America, Antarctica.

Names of countries: Australia, Bolivia, England, France, Spain, etc.

Names of states, cities, or towns: Los Angeles, Alaska, Sydney, London,

Names of streets: George street, Albion Street, New town street,

Names of singular lakes and bays: Lake Carey, Lake Eyre, Lake Hillier, Shark Bay,

Names of single mountains: Mount Everest, Mount Solitary, Mount Bindo, Mount Fuji, etc.

Names of single islands: Easter Island, Bare Island, Bird Island, Fatima Island,

Names of languages: Spanish, Russian, English, (When 'the' precedes these nouns, they refer to the population of those languages.)

Names of sports: cricket, football, basketball,

Names of discipline/subject of studies: biology, history, computer science, mathematics,

Note:

'The' is a widely used article in English. Except for the list mentioned above and proper nouns, 'the' is used before almost all the nouns which mean something definite/particular. The above list has some opposite factors also. Those factors are explained in the following list:

'The' must precede:

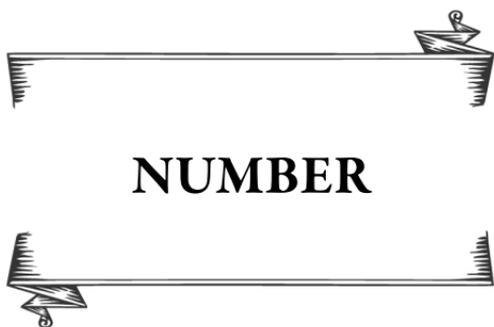
Names of oceans, gulfs, seas, and rivers: the Pacific, the Atlantic, the Coral Sea, the Timor Sea, the Persian Gulf, the Nile, the Murray River, the Darling River, etc.

Names of countries with united states or islands: the United States of America (the USA), the UK, the UAE, the Philippines, etc.

Names of great lakes: the Great Lakes, the African Great Lakes

Names of mountain ranges: the Himalayas, the Alps, the Andes, etc.

Names of a group of Islands: the West Indies, the Andamans, etc.



NUMBER

In grammar, the number refers to the count of a noun or pronoun.

Example: Boy-boys, wife-wives, my-our, ox-oxen, it-they, etc.

Types of Number:

Two types exist

Singular Number

Plural Number

Singular Number

It refers to the count of only one of a noun or pronoun.

Example: pen, table, aunt, father, goose, etc.

Plural Number

It refers to the count of more than one of a noun or pronoun.

Example: pens, tables, aunts, fathers, geese, etc.

How to change number

Numerous RULES are there to change the number from singular to plural. They are as follows-

Rule 1:

In general, "s" is used at the end of a singular noun to make it plural

Example:

Singular Plural

Pencil Pencils

Cow Cows

House Houses

Dog Dogs

Mobile Mobiles

Rule 2:

If there exist s, sh, ch, x and z in the end, “es” gets to be used.

Examples:

Singular Plural

Bus Buses

Dish Dishes

Branch Branches

Fox Foxes

Fez Fezes

Rule 3:

While pronunciation of ch is like “k”, just “s” is added at the end

Example:

Singular Plural

Monarch Monarchs

Patriarch Patriarchs

Matriarch Matriarchs

Stomach Stomachs

Hierarch Hierarchs

Part 1: when there’s a “y” in the end and a Consonant before that “y”, “i” substitutes it and an “es” thereafter.

Example:

Singular Plural

Story Stories

Hobby Hobbies

Army Armies

Fly Flies

Baby Babies

Part 2: but if there's a vowel ahead of that "y", no need to change it, only "s" to add.

Example

Singular Plural

Donkey Donkeys

Toy Toys

Day Days

Joy Joys

Play Plays

Rule 4:

"v" replaces f or fe and then adds an "es" to finish it.

Example:

Singular Plural

thief Thieves

Wife Wives

Knife Knives

Wolf Wolves

Leaf Leaves

Part 1: "es" to be added if the noun is finished by "o" and a consonant places ahead.

Example:

singular Plural

Hero Heroes

Mango Mangoes

Zero Zeroes

Potato Potatoes

Echo Echoes

Part 2: but when there's a vowel before that "o", only "s" is enough.

Example

Singular Plural

Cuckoo Cuckoos

Bamboo Bamboos

Studio Studios

Portfolio Portfolios

Cameo Cameos

Exception 1: though there's an "o" and a consonant ahead of it, some nouns use only "s".

Example:

Singular Plural

Photo Photos

Piano Pianos

Radio Radios

Canto Cantos

Memo Memos

Exception 2: for some, "s" and "es" both are correct.

Singular Plural

Mosquito Mosquitos/mosquitoes

Commando Commandos/commandoes

Portico Porticos/porticoes

Calico Calicos/calicoes

Memento Mementos/mementoes

Rule 5:

Some require changing the middle-vowel of the word to make it plural.

Example:

Singular Plural

Man Men

Woman Women

Foot Feet

Mouse Mice

Tooth Teeth

Rule 6:

Some require en, ren and ne to add at last.

Example:

Singular plural

Ox Oxen

Child Children

Brother Brethren (brothers also correct)

Cow Kine (cows also correct)

Sister Sistren (sisters also correct)

Part 1: if “man” means human being in a compound noun(a noun that contains two or more words that jointly make a single noun), “men” replaces that “man”.

Example:

singular plural

Fisherman Fishermen

Workman Workmen

Boatman Boatmen

Man-of-war Men-of-war

Salesman salesmen

Part 2: but when “man” is just a part of the word, or it refers to any ethnic group, race or civilian, there comes “s”.

Singular Plural

Mussalman Mussalmans

Brahman Brahmans

German Germans

Norman Normans

Rule 7:

“s” to be added when there’s a “ful” in the end.

Example:

singular plural

Handful Handfuls

Mouthful mouthfuls

Spoonful Spoonfuls

armful Armfuls

cupful cupfuls

Part 1: If compound noun contains several words, “s” comes to join with the main part of that noun.

Example:

Singular Plural

Brother-in-law Brothers-in-law

Passers-by Passers-by

Step-brother Step-brothers

Commander-in-chief Commanders-in-chief

Maid-servant Maid-servants

Part 2: in some cases, “s” comes in every part to make it so.

Example:

Singular Plural

Lord-justice Lords-justices

Man-servant Men-servants

Woman-servant Women-servants

Rule 8:

Besides, adding “s” only in the end gets it done for few.

Example:

Singular Plural

Book-shelf Book-shelves

Book-case Book-cases

Major-general Major-generals

Poet-laurete Poet-lauretes

Forget-me-not Forget-me-nots

Rule 9:

Some singular nouns have no plural form, only used in singular.

Example:

Furniture

Scenery

Issue

Bread

expenditure

Rule 9:

Adversely, some are always used as a plural form.

Example:

Mumps

Scissors

Trousers

Spectacles

Assets

Rule 10:

Though some nouns seem like singular, but actually they are plural.

Example:

Government

Peasantry

People

Cattle

Mankind

Rule 11:

Similarly, some nouns seem like plural though they are singular.

Example:

Physics

Politics

Ethics

News

Wages

Rule 12:

Some have the same singular and plural form.

Example:

Deer

Sheep

Species

Corps

Canon

Rule 12:

In case of letters, numbers and other symbols, it takes an apostrophe and s to change it.

Example:

Sam, write your g's and y's clearly.

John, add two 5's and three 8's.

Rule 13:

There is no specific rule for changing the number of pronouns. It's all about memorizing.

Singular plural singular plural

I We Him/her Them

My Our Your Your

Mine Ours This These
Me Us That Those
You You It They
He/she they His/her their



MODAL



Modal verbs are a kind of auxiliary verb. They facilitate the main verb for suggesting potential, expectation, permission, ability, possibility, and obligation.

When used with the main verb, modal verbs do not end with -s for the third-person singular. Modal auxiliary verbs never change form, but they have a different form for past tense.

The modal auxiliaries include:

Present Tense Past Tense

Will

Can

Must (have to)

May

Should (ought to) (had better)

Would (used to)

Could

(Had to)

Might

Should (ought to)

NB: The words in parentheses () are semi-modals. They have the same meaning, but they are different grammatically.

Will – Would

Will indicates a 'willingness' to do something in the future. The negative form of will – will not (won't) indicates an 'unwillingness' (refusal, reluctance) to do something.

Example:

I will give you another opportunity.

I will play tomorrow.

They will arrive at 10 AM.

She won't come today.

Would indicates general or repeated willingness in the past.

It also indicates preference in the present.

Example:

If you did not leave, I would still be taking care of you.

Whenever I had to go there, they would throw a party.

We thought that people would buy this book.

If I were you, I would not do it.

I would like to make a toast.



USED TO SOMETIMES REPLACES would but sometimes it would be grammatically incorrect if we use used to in place of would.

Example:

When I was in school, I used to make sketches.

He often used to cry at night without reason.

I used to take a break at this time of the year.

Can – Could – May – Might

These modals express possibility and ability.

Can indicates ability. Could indicates ability with an option.

Example:

I can do it. (The subject 'I' is sure about his/her ability)

I could do it. (The subject 'I' is not sure about his/her ability)

They cannot do it. (present)

They could not do it. (past)

Can & could also indicate possibility.

Example:

The temperature can rise this month.

They can't go too far by now.

It could rain later.

May and might both indicate possibility but might can suggest that there is less possibility than may.

Example:

It may rain later.

It might rain later.

They may come back.

They might come back.

Must

Must indicates necessity.

Example:

I must leave now.

He must study hard.

Alex must go home by 6.00 pm.

Have to has the similar meaning to must but implies less urgency.

Example:

I have to leave now.

He has to study hard.

Alex has to go by 6.00 pm.

I had to leave then. (past)

He had to study hard to pass the exam. (past)

Should

Should indicates obligation and probability.

Example:

You should come home early.

You should not smoke at all.

I should visit my parents more often.

There should be an extra key for the lock in the drawer.

(probability)

He should have reached by now. (probability)

I should have done that. (obligation in the past)

Ought to and had better sometimes replaces should.

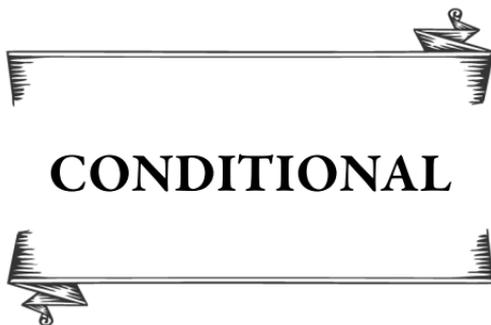
Example:

You ought to come home early.

We ought to have taken a taxi. (Past)

We had better leave. (Had better is generally used in spoken English.)

I think parents ought to give children more freedom. (Had better won't be appropriate here.)



CONDITIONAL

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RIGHT VERB FORMS



The verbs are the most variable element of the sentences. The right form of verb encompasses most of the grammatical rules of English language. Every element of a sentence eventually relates to the verb. The verbs appear differently in a sentence on the basis of their subjects (subject-verb agreement), tenses, moods, voices, different structures, modals, etc.

Forms of Verbs:

Base Past Past Participle Present Participle Gerund (noun)
Infinitive

Do, work, love Did, worked, loved Done, worked, loved
Doing, working, loving Doing, working, loving To do, to work,
to love

be (am, is, are) - (was, were) been being - - - - to be

have had had having to have

Note: Participles (without auxiliaries), infinitives, and gerunds do not work as the verb in a sentence. Gerunds work as nouns, but participles and infinitives work as adjectives/adverbs.

Rules:

Rule 1:

Subject-verb agreement: the verbs are customarily followed by the subjects, and they must agree with the subjects accord-

ing to their number and person. See the rules of Subject-Verb Agreement.

Rule 2:

The variability of the verbs mostly depends on different tenses of the sentences. A form of verbs depends on the time the actions have been performed. See the structures and details of The Present Tense, The Past Tense, and The Future Tense.

Rule 3:

The verbs are also related to the structures of different sentences and clauses. A clause has only one verb. In fact, a clause cannot contain more than one finite verb but can have participles (without auxiliaries), infinitives, and gerunds.

Example:

I wanted (main verb) to go (infinitive) to the wedding.

Swimming(gerund) is(verb) a good exercise to keep (infinitive) your body fit and healthy.

Pray (verb) for the departed (past participle)

Don't get(verb) down from a running (present participle)

Rule 4:

Clauses can be connected by conjunctions and connectors. Some connectors take some specific forms of verbs. Conditionals use the conjunction if and it has some different sentence structures. See conditionals.

Rule 5:

The connector since has two usages.

If since is used to indicate a cause, the verbs of the two clauses will be of the same tense.

Example:

I didn't go since you didn't come.

Since you were busy, I didn't disturb you.

If since is used to indicate time, the verb of the second clause will be different from the first.

Example:

We haven't seen (present perfect) each other since he left (simple past).

It has been 20 years since he played chess.

20 years passed (simple past) since we had met (past perfect).

I could not sleep well for a single night since you had left

Rule 6:

No sooner had, hardly had, scarcely had, etc. are the adverbials that require a past perfect tense and a past indefinite tense for the sentence.

Example:

No sooner had I reached home than she left.

Scarcely had the police reached when the man died.

Hardly had I finished writing before the teacher ordered to stop writing.

Rule 7:

Coordinating conjunctions (and, but, or, yet, so) and although/though, as, because, till/until, when, whenever, as soon as, while, which, what, that, etc. connect two clauses which have the verbs of the same tense.

Example:

We went to London when we were young.

I got up, and he left the room.

As soon as I came here, he greeted me.

I could not go there because I was sick.

Rule 8:

As conjunctions *after* and *before* are used to connect two clauses which use past perfect tense and past simple. The past perfect tense always comes with a clause of simple past tense. See the past perfect tense for details and examples.

Rule 9:

The conjunction *lest* requires a modal *should* in the following clause regardless of the tense of the first clause.

Example:

Run faster lest you should miss the bus.

He will work hard lest he should get fired.

He worked hard lest he should get fired.

Rule 11:

Modals always take the base form of the verbs after them. See Modals for details.

Rule 12:

The clause 'it is time' or 'it is high time' requires a verb in the simple past if there is a clause after it.

It is high time + subject + simple past. . . .

It was high time + subject + past perfect . . .

It is high time + infinitive

Example:

It is high time you studied attentively.

It is time to study attentively. (You can replace the clause by an infinitive removing the subject.)

It was high time we had returned home. (It was high time requires past perfect tense)

Rule 13:

The conjunction *as if/as though* takes simple past/past perfect tense in the following clause.

Subject + simple present + as if/ as though + subject + past simple

Subject + simple past + as if/ as though + subject + past perfect

Example:

Robert talks as if he were the prince. (Were is the only 'be verb' in this kind of sentence)

Latham played as though he had seen the ball very clearly.

I slept as if I had been dead.

He behaves as if he were her husband.

Rule 14:

Prepositions, articles, and possessives are always followed by nouns or gerund form of the verbs.

Example:

He is keen on moving to the city.

I am thinking about doing the job.

Alex insisted on going out then.

Rule 15:

To is the only preposition that takes the base form of the verb. However, there are some phrases with to being at the end of them, which require the gerund form of the verbs.

With a view to, look forward to, being accustomed to, being used to, admit to, confessed to

Example:

He went there with a view to confessing his crimes.

I am looking forward to meeting the princess.

I was used to sleeping at this hour of the day.

He confessed to stealing that phone.

Rule 16:

To be, being, having, getting, etc. are generally followed by the past participle form of the verbs and other adjectives.

Example:

Being tired, he took some time off from work.

He became astonished being robbed in the daylight.

John went to bazar having eaten a burger.

He wanted to be educated.

Rule 17:

The causative verbs always take the next verb in its base form. See causative verbs and their usages.

HAVE – GET – MAKE – HELP – LET

*Note: Get takes the next verb as infinitives/past participle.

Example:

I had him wash the dishes.

He makes me do all the work.

He got me to make his dinner.

I got the glass broken.

Let him help her finish the assignment.

Rule 18:

The base form of the verb is also used in the clauses that use the subjunctive mood. Some certain verbs + the conjunction that requires the next clause to use the subjunctive mood and the clause uses the base form of the verb in it.

The verbs are:

Advise – demand – prefer – require – ask – insist Propose
– stipulate – command – recommend Suggest – decree – order
– request – urge – move

Structure:

Subject + the verbs of the above box (any tense) + THAT
+ subject + base verb +

Example:

He insisted that I stay at home.

The office requires that we complete our work timely.

She commanded that he stop smoking.

I recommend that you wake up early.

Note: There are some clauses also which require the verb of the next clause to be in base form.

The clauses are:

It is/was + past participle form of the verb of the above box
+ THAT

It is/was urgent + THAT

It is/was necessary + THAT

It is/was important + THAT

Example:

It is important that you invite him.

It was necessary that I make a fence.

It was recommended that you meet the principal.

Rule 19:

Since a single clause cannot take two verbs, it usually converts the additional verbs to complement by making them infinitives or participles or gerunds.

- Some verbs always take the additional verbs as a complement by making them infinitives.

Verbs followed by the INFINITIVES

agree – desire – hope – plan – attempt – claim – decide – demand – expect – intend – prepare – tend – fail – learn – pretend – want – wish – refuse – need – forget – hesitate – offer – seem

Example:

He agreed to do it.

He desires to go to Disneyland.

I want to work on this project.

He failed to understand

Verbs followed by the GERUNDS

appreciate – admit – delay – miss – report – suggest – deny
– postpone – resent – avoid – enjoy – practice – resist – can't
help – finish – quit – resume – consider – mind – recall – risk

Example:

He admitted doing the crime.

We enjoyed riding the boat.

I can't help loving her.

Would you mind opening the door for me?



SV AGREEMENT



The subject and verb are the most important elements of a sentence. The relation between the subject and verb depends on two issues: person and number. The verb of a sentence must be in agreement with the subject in regard to person and number.

The number of the subject can be singular and plural. The verb must be singular if the subject is singular and the verb must be plural if the subject is plural.

So, identifying the number of the subject is required to take a verb.

The person of the subject can be first, second, and third. The verb changes according to the number and person of the subject.



RULES OF SUBJECT-VERB Agreement:

Rule 1:

Singular subjects need singular verbs, while plural subjects require plural verbs. 'Be' verbs change the most according to the number and person of the subject. Other verbs do not change much on the basis of the subjects except the verbs of the

simple present tense. If the subjects are a third person singular number, the verbs are used with s/es when they are in simple present tense. The verbs with s/es in the sentence are called singular verbs.

'Be' verbs according to number and person of the subject.

Person/Number Singular Plural

First am are

Second are are

Third is are

Example:

Person/Nmber Singular Plural

First I am an excellent tennis player. We are excellent tennis players.

Second You are a nice person. You all are nice people.

Third Alex plays well under pressure.

He is a good player. They are good at chasing.

They play well under pressure.

Rule 2:

When the prepositional phrases separate the subjects from the verbs, they have no effect on the verbs.

Example:

A study (singular subject) on African countries shows (singular verb) that 80% of the people (plural subject) of this continent live (plural verb) below the poverty line.

The perspective of different people varies from time to time.

The fear of terrorists and militants has made them flee the city.

Rule 3:

Nouns connected by the conjunction and in the subject work as the plural subject and take a plural verb.

Example:

Alex and Murphy are coming here.

Robin and his friends want to go on a tour.

Apples and mangoes are my favorite fruits.

Rule 4:

If the conjunction 'and' is replaced by together with/ along with/ accompanied by/ as well as, the verb will have no effect for the later part of these expressions. The words prior to these expressions are the subjects.

Example:

Tom, along with his brothers is going to the city. ('His brothers' is not the subject of this sentence.)

Alex, as well as his parents, is coming to the party.

The boys, accompanied by their teacher Mr. Robbins are planning a tour.

Note: If these expressions are replaced by 'and', the subjects will be regarded as plurals, and so the verbs have to be plural.

Example: Tom and his brothers are going to the city.

Rule 5:

Some nouns are always singular and indefinite. When these nouns become the subjects, they always take singular verbs.

Any + singular noun No + singular noun Some + sin.
noun Every + sin. noun Each + sin. noun

Anybody

Anyone

Anything Nobody

No one

Nothing Somebody

Someone

Something Everybody

Everyone

Everything Each student

Either*

Neither*

*Note: Either and neither are singular if they are not used with or and nor.

Example:

Everybody wants to live happily.

Something is bothering him.

No human being lives in that house.

Neither of you is responsible enough to handle it.

Each student has to submit a separate assignment.

Rule 6:

Some nouns are always plural. These nouns have two parts.

Scissors, shorts, eyeglasses, pants, thongs, jeans, trousers, etc.

Example:

My pants are in the drawer.

Your eyeglasses are dirty.

These scissors are useless.

Note: If these words are preceded by the phrase a pair of, they will be regarded as singular subjects.

Example:

A pair of pants is needed.

This pair of trousers is ugly.

Rule 7:

None is a singular subject when it is used alone. When it is used with a prepositional phrase starting with *of*, the subject can be both plural and singular.

None + of the + singular noun + singular verb



NONE + OF THE + PLURAL noun + plural verb

Example:

None of the money has been used.

None of the teacher wants failure for students.

None of the students want to fail.

None of the bottles are empty.

Note: No + plural noun takes plural verbs.

Example: no men are hungry now.

Rule 8:

Either . . . or, neither . . . nor, or, and nor take two nouns before and after them. The nouns placed after these conjunctions are regarded as the subjects of the sentence. The nouns placed prior to the words *or* and *nor* have no effect on the verbs.

Example:

Neither Alex nor his brothers are going to the party.

Either my brothers or I am doing it.

I or Robert opens the door when someone comes.

Neither the boys nor we are responsible for it.

Rule 9:

The sentences beginning with *here/there* are different in structure. In this case, the subject comes after the verb.

Here/There + verb + subject

Example:

Here comes(verb) the lion(subject).

There is a pond near the house.

There are some candies on the table.

Here is the document for your car.

Rule 10:

Collective nouns are usually regarded as singular subjects.

Examples:

The committee has decided to postpone the game.

The family was ecstatic by the news.

The crowd enjoys the excitement in the game.

Twenty dollars is not a lot of money. (Here, the noun is plural, but the subject is regarded as a collective noun.)

Note: The following phrases are also regarded as collective nouns and thus singular subjects.

Flock of birds/sheep, herd of cattle, pack of dogs/wolves, school of fish, pride of lions

Example:

A flock of sheep always moves together.

A pack of wolves is approaching towards the herd of cattle.

A school of fish always hides from the big fishes.

Rule 11:

A number of + noun is a plural subject, and it takes a plural verb. The number of + noun is a singular subject, and it takes a singular verb.

Example:

A number of dancers are coming to the party. (Indefinite number of dancers – plural)

The number of dancers coming to the party is 27. (Definite number of dancers – singular)

A number of people prefer cricket to football.

The number of days in this month is 29.

Rule 12:

If a gerund or an infinitive comes as a subject, the verb will always be singular.

Example:

Swimming is a good exercise.

Walking is a good habit.

Eating healthy food makes you healthy.

To err is human.

Rule 13:

If the + an adjective appears as the subject of a sentence, it will be plural.

Example:

The pious are loved by God.

The industrious are always not successful.

The best do not lack integrity.



PUNCTUATION



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Did you once think about your family? Your career? Your future? Your life? (Series of questions using the same subject and verb)

Note:

What? – So? – Right? (Single word questions are used only in informal writing.)

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Usually, a comma separates two independent clauses when they are connected by certain coordinating conjunctions (and, but, or, nor, or for). However, if the clauses are very short, no comma is needed.

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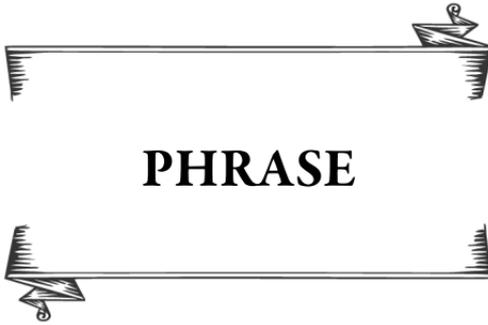
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PHRASE

Phrase and clause are the most important elements of English grammar. Phrase and clause cover everything a sentence has. Clauses are the center of sentences and phrases strengthen the sentences to become meaningful. If the clauses are the pillars of a building, the phrases are the bricks. A phrase usually is always present within a clause, but a phrase cannot have a clause in it.



THE BASIC DIFFERENCE between a clause and a phrase is that a clause must have a finite verb and a phrase must not.

A phrase, therefore, is a group of words which has no finite verb in it and acts to complete the sentence for making it meaningful.

“A phrase is a small group of words that form a meaningful unit within a clause.” -Oxford Dictionary

“In linguistic analysis, a phrase is a group of words (or possibly a single word) that functions as a constituent in the syntax of a sentence, a single unit within a grammatical hierarchy.” - Osborne, Timothy, Michael Putnam, and Thomas Gross (2011)

Types of Phrases

The phrases are generally of six types.

Noun Phrase

Adjective Phrase

Adverbial Phrase

Prepositional Phrase

Conjunctive Phrase

Interjectional Phrase

Noun Phrase

A noun phrase is usually assembled centering a single noun and works as a subject, an object or a complement in the sentence.

Example:

I like to swing the bat hard when I am at the crease. (An object)

Reading novels is a good habit. (A subject)

The probability of happening that match is not much. (A subject)

We are sorry for her departure.

Adjective Phrase

An adjective phrase is comprised of an adjective and works as a single adjective in the sentence.

Example:

Alex is a well-behaved man.

He is a man of friendly nature.

Julie is a woman of gorgeous style.

She leads a very interesting life.

A lot of people do not sleep at night.

Adverbial Phrase

An adverbial phrase modifies the verb or the adjective and works as an adverb in the sentence.

Example:

The horse runs at a good speed.

I was in a hurry then.

I ran as fast as possible.

He works very slowly.

Prepositional Phrase

A prepositional phrase always begins with a preposition and connects nouns.

Example:

He sacrificed his life for the sake of his country.

In the end, we all have to die.

He is on the way.

By working aimlessly, you will not get success.

In spite of working hard, he was insulted by his boss.

Note: Prepositional phrases include all other types of phrases.

Conjunctional Phrase

A conjunctional phrase works as a conjunction in the sentence.

Example:

As soon as you got in, he went out.

We have to work hard so that we can win the next match.

I will attend the ceremony provided that you come.

John started working early in order that he could finish early.

Interjectional Phrase

Interjections that have more than one words are called the interjectional phrases.

Example:

What a pity! He is dead.

What a pleasure! I won the first prize.

Oh please! Don't say that again.



D AND Q

Determiners

Determiners modify nouns by setting a limitation over the nouns to indicate how specific or general they are. A determiner usually appears at the beginning of the noun phrases and works as an adjective to modify the nouns. However, determiners are not necessary for every noun phrase.

Determiners include:

a. The definite article: the

Example:

Give me the book I read to you yesterday. (Specific book)

I want the pencil you borrowed yesterday.

b. The indefinite articles: a, an

Example:

Give me a book from the shelf. (A general/random book from a specific shelf)

I want an apple.

c. The possessives: my, your, his, her, our, their, its, whose

Example:

My car is parked outside. (Specific car)

His house is near the bridge.

d. The demonstratives: this, that, these, those

Example:

This is my book.

That house belongs to me.

Those ducks are beautiful.

e. Interrogatives: which, what

Example:

Which car do you want to buy?

What product do you use?



QUANTIFIERS

Quantifiers are also determiners which modify a noun to indicate its quantity. The quantifiers are any, all, many, much, most, some, a few, and a lot of, a little, a large amount of, none, and the cardinal numbers [one, two, three, four], etc.

Example:

I have some money but not a lot of it.

Many people died in that calamity.

Note: There are some rules for using determiners and quantifiers. Some of them can be used only with countable nouns and some of them with uncountable nouns while others can be used with either of them. Here is a chart for the determiners to be used with countable or uncountable nouns.

With Countable Nouns With Uncountable Nouns

a/an, the

this, that, these, those

none, one, two, three,

many

a (great/large) number of

a few

few
fewer than
a lot of
some
any the
this, that
none
much (in negatives or questions)
a large amount of
a little
little
less than
a lot of
some
any



MODIFIER



A modifier is a word/phrase/clause which modifies other words in a sentence. To be specific, a modifier is either an adjective or an adverb. The adjectives modify the nouns, and the adverbs modify the verbs or the adjectives or the other adverbs. See the details of adjectives and adverbs.

Example:

Alex bought a chocolate cake yesterday.

(Here, 'a' is an article which modifies the word 'cake' and the word 'chocolate' is the direct adjective of the word 'cake'. So both the words 'a' and 'chocolate' are adjectives which modify the noun 'cake'. The word 'yesterday' announces the time of the action, i.e., the verb 'bought'. So it is an adverb which modifies the verb.)

Murphy, the president's daughter, is very sick.

(Here, the phrase 'president's daughter' modifies the noun 'Murphy'. In this phrase, 'the president's' modifies the noun 'daughter' but the whole phrase itself becomes an adjective when it modifies the noun 'Murphy'. There is another adjective 'sick' which is modified by the adverb 'very'.)

The brown(adjective) dog was barking at me aggressively(adverb).

Generally, modifiers are of two types according to their position to the words they modify:

Pre-modifiers

Post-modifiers

Pre-modifiers:

Pre-modifiers are the modifiers which modify the words that follow them in the sentence. Conventionally the adjectives are usually placed before the nouns. So, most of the adjectives are pre-modifiers. Adverbs are often placed before the words they modify.

Articles, determiners, demonstratives, proper adjectives, descriptive adjectives, compound adjectives, participles, etc. are the adjectives which come before the nouns and modify them.

Conjunctive adverbs, sentence adverbs, and some other adverbs can work being placed before the verbs/adjectives/other adverbs.

Example:

Generally(adverb) the(article) brown(descriptive adjective) dogs are nice.

Apparently(adverb), that(demonstrative) bank has a lot of(determiners) security(adjective) porcess.

Give me that(demonstrative) black(descriptive adjective) covered(past participle) shining(present participle) box.

(In the above sentence the noun 'box' has four pre-modifiers [adjectives].)

Post-modifiers

Post-modifiers are the modifiers which come after the words they modify. Customarily, the adverbs come after the verbs and modify them. However, some adjectives also come after the nouns and modify them.

Most of the adverbs of time, adverbs of manner, adverbs of place/direction usually come after the verbs they modify.

Appositives, prepositional phrases (adjectives/adverbs), infinitives (adverbs/adjectives), dependent clause, etc. usually come after the nouns they modify.

Example:

Jason Roy, a cricketer,(appositive) has been selected in the squad(adverb).

Stark, our teacher, (appositive) gives us tasks to do(infinite - adjective) in the class(adverb of place).

Ronaldo, the captain of Portugal team,(appositive) plays exceptionally(adverb of manner) well.



TRANSFORMATION. OR SENTENCE CHANGE



There are three types of Transformation of sentences.
Those are –

Simple Sentences

Complex Sentences and

Compound Sentences

What is Clause?

The clause is where there will be a subject and a predicate as a group of words, but that will not be considered as a full sentence. The clause can be of two types. Those are –

1. Independent Clause:

A Clause that –

contains both a subject and a predicate.

can stand alone as a sentence or

can be a part of a multi-clause sentence.

uses conjunctions such as – or, for, nor, so, yet, and, but.

Example: We visited Agra, but we did not go to Taj Mahal.

2. Dependent Clause:

A Clause that is –

that have a subject and a predicate

cannot stand alone as a sentence

always be a part of a sentence, on which it depends for meaning.

A dependent clause is of three types – Adjective Clause, Adverb Clause, and Noun Clause.

1. Adjective Clause or Relative Clause:

An adjective clause or relative clause is like an adjective which comes before to change or modify the noun or pronoun by – who, which, that, where, when, whose, whom, whoever, etc.

Example:

This is a resort that we saw on the TV.

The Lady who was our tour guide is a American.

2. Adverb Clause or Adverbial Clause:

An adverbial clause or subordinate clause is a type of dependent clause which starts with subordinating conjunctions like – because, although, when, if, until, as if etc.

Example:

The homeless guy spent the night on the road.

We wanted to go to the Bashundhara Cineplex.

3. Noun Clause:

In a sentence when a clause functions as the complement, subject or object is called noun clause. It starts with the same words that begin adjective clauses, e.g., that, who, when, which, where, whether, why, how.

Example:

What we saw at the Thor movie was amazing.

To understand the types of transformation of sentences we need to know the definition of the Simple Sentences, Complex Sentences, and Compound Sentences.

Simple Sentence:

When in a sentence that has one independent clause it is called simple sentence.

Example: He confessed his illegal act.

Complex Sentence:

When in a sentence that has one clause and one or more subordinate clauses it is called a complex sentence.

Example: He confessed that he was guilty of his illegal act.

Compound Sentence:

When in a sentence that has more than one main clause it is called the compound sentence.

Example: I went to watch a movie named Justice League, but the movie was already houseful.

Transforming Simple Sentences into Complex Sentences:

Converting Simple Sentences into Complex Sentences can be done easily. And this can be done by simply expanding a word or a phrase into a clause. Moreover, we can do the same thing when we want to change the Complex Sentences into Simple Sentences. And this can be done by eliminating a clause into a word or a phrase.

Few examples are given below to understand the concept and conventional rules of transforming between Simple Sentence and Complex Sentences:-

Rule: 1:

“Present participle” in a simple sentence, to convert into complex sentences by adding “since/as/when” at the first half of the sentence.

Simple Sentence: Closing the door, I went back to school.

Complex Sentence: When I closed the door, I went back to school.

Rule: 2

“Being/ Verb+ing” in a simple sentence, to convert into a complex sentence by adding “as/when/since” at the first half of the sentence.

Simple Sentence: After winning a beauty contest she cried.

Complex Sentence: As she won the beauty contest, she cried.

Rule: 3

“Too...to” in a simple sentence, to convert into a complex sentence by adding “so...that (negative)”.

Simple Sentence: He is too weak to carry the box.

Complex Sentence: He is so weak that he cannot carry the box.

Rule: 4

“To” in the simple sentence, to convert into a complex sentence by adding “so that” in the sentence.

Simple sentence: We eat to live.

Complex Sentence: We eat so that we can live.

Rule: 5

In the simple sentence “in spite of/ despite”, to convert into the complex sentence by adding “though/ although” in the sentence.

Simple Sentence: In spite of being rich, she is hard working.

Complex Sentence: Though she is rich, she is hard working.

Rule: 6

“Because of” in the simple sentence, to convert it to the complex sentence by adding “since” at the beginning of the sentence.

Simple Sentence: Because of his illness, he could not join the meeting.

Complex Sentence: Since he was ill, he could not join the meeting.

Rule: 7

“Subject + verb + object + present participle” type of simple sentence, to convert it to the complex sentence by “subject + verb + object + relative pronoun of the object + be verb according to relative pronoun and tense + rest of the sentence”.

Simple Sentence: I saw a bird flying.

Complex Sentence: I saw a bird which was flying.

Rule: 8

In the simple sentence starts with “without”, by adding “if/ in case” is converted into the complex sentence.

Simple Sentence: Without adding the sugar the dish will taste bad.

Complex Sentence: If you do not add sugar the dish will taste bad.

Rule: 9

In the simple sentence “at the time” will be converted into “when” in the complex sentence.

Simple Sentence: She woke up at the time of load shedding.

Complex Sentence: She woke up when it was load shedding.

Rule: 10:

In the simple sentence, “adjective” will be converted into “that/which” in the complex sentence.

Simple Sentence: It was a blue shirt.

Complex Sentence: It was a shirt which was blue.



NARRATION



David said, “I’m baking a chocolate cake for you.”
David said that he was baking a chocolate cake for me.

If we consider these two sentences, we might notice that both of them convey the same message, but there is a difference if we look closely. In the first sentence, I am conveying the activities of David in his (D) own words without changing it; it is called direct speech or we can say reporting speech. In the second sentence, I am using my own words to convey the activities of the speaker (D) to the audience. This we can say indirect speech or reported speech.

There are some major rules to change these speeches from direct to indirect. We need to consider the tense, pronoun, words that describe time, place, distance, types of sentences, etc. let’s have a glance at the following rules:

1. Pronoun:

In an indirect speech the pronoun changes according to the speaker whether s/he is referring himself/herself or a third person. We can make this clearer if we learn this with some examples:

Direct: George said, “I cannot be with you.”

Indirect: George said that he could not be with me.

Direct: I said, "Leave me"

Indirect: I ordered to leave me alone. (Note: in this sentence the speaker is same, so there is no change in the indirect speech.)

Direct: They said, "We will be partying tonight."

Indirect: They said that they would be partying that night.

Direct: I told George, "You should stay."

Indirect: I told George that he should stay.

Direct: She asked, "How are you doing today?"

Indirect: She asked me how I was doing that day.

Direct: Robert said, "Can you pull me up?"

Indirect: Robert asked if I could pull him up.

2. Type of sentences:

a. Reporting Interrogative sentences:

I) If there is a yes-no question in the direct speech, then the reported speech will start with whether/if and the reported clause form will be (subject+verb).

Example:

Direct: Peter said, "Are you from Australia?"

Indirect: Peter asked if I was from Australia.

Direct: Tom asked, "Do you want to sit here?"

Indirect: Tom asked whether I wanted to sit there.

II) In indirect speech questions starting with who, whom, when, how, where and what the wh-word would be the subject or the object of the reported clause:

Example:

Direct: Brad said, "Who will come with me?"

Indirect: Brad asked who would go with him.

Direct: Tina said, "What will be the charges?"

Indirect: Tina inquired what the charges would be.

Direct: I said to the man, "Where is the hotel?"

Indirect: I asked the man where the hotel was.

Direct: Mother said, "How is the chicken?"

Indirect: Mother asked me how the chicken was.

b. Reporting statement sentences:

In a statement speech, we will use 'that' before the reported statement and the reported verb will be 'told' (followed by an object) or 'said' (will not be followed by an object).

Example:

Direct: Edward said, "I like the book."

Indirect: Edward said that he liked the book.

Direct: Alice said, "I want you to sing."

Indirect: Alice told me to sing.

c. Reporting imperative sentences:

We will use 'to' as joining clause before the reported command or request, and the reported verb will be changed according to the moods of the sentence (e.g., ordered, requested, urged, advised, forbade or begged)

Example:

Direct: The man said, "Please, bring me a chair."

Indirect: The man requested to bring him a chair.

Direct: The officer said, "Fall back!"

Indirect: The officer ordered to fall back.

Direct: Mother said, "Listen to your elders."

Indirect: Mother advised me to listen to my elders.

Direct: Mr. Murphy said, "Do not go near the house."

Indirect: Mr. Murphy forbade going near the house.

d. Reporting exclamatory sentences:

To change direct exclamatory speeches to the indirect one we need to replace interjection (hurrah, wow, alas, oh, etc.)

with joining clause 'that' and the exclamatory wh-words (what, how) will be replaced by 'very' before the adjective in the reported clause.

Examples:

Direct: Clare said, "Hurrah! Barcelona won the match!"

Indirect: Clare exclaimed with joy that Barcelona had won the match.

Direct: I said, "Alas! My pet died."

Indirect: I exclaimed with grief that my pet had died.

3. Tense:

Usually, the present changes to past tense while we change direct speech to indirect.

a. Simple present tense to simple past tense:

Example:

Direct: She said, "I work in New York Times."

Indirect: She said that she worked in New York Times.

Direct: Jim said, "Bill loves to drink Wine."

Indirect: Jim said that Bill loved to drink Wine.

Exceptions: If the content is still true or happening then we do not need to change the tense in the reported speech. Like;

Direct: She said, "I live in Paris."

Indirect: She said that she lives in Paris.

b. Present continuous to past continuous tense

Example:

Direct: Mother said, "Bob is taking a nap."

Indirect: Mother said that Bob was taking a nap.

Direct: He asked, "Are they writing the paper?"

Indirect: He asked if they were writing the paper.

c. Present perfect to past perfect tense:

Example:

Direct: Nicolas said, "I have made a donut."

Indirect: Nicolas said that he had made a donut.

Direct: The teacher said, "The dates have been decided."

Indirect: The teacher announced that the dates had been decided.

d. Present perfect continuous to past perfect continuous tense:

Example:

Direct: Mr. Parson asked, "How long have you been working here?"

Indirect: Parson asked me how long I had been working there?"

Direct: The boy said, "I have been waiting for my mother since morning."

Indirect: The boy said that he had been waiting for his mother since morning.

e. Simple past to past perfect tense

Example:

Direct: Robert Langdon said, "My mother gave me the Mickey watch."

Indirect: Robert Langdon said that his mother had given the Mickey watch to him.

Direct: The teacher said, "Shakespeare's playing company built Globe Theatre in 1599."

Indirect: The teacher said that Shakespeare's playing company had built the Globe Theatre in 1599.

f. Past Continuous to Past Perfect Continuous tense;

Example:

Direct: Jenny said, "Marlow was leaving Belgium."

Indirect: Jenny told me that Marlow had been leaving Belgium.

Direct: Maria said, "I was dialing your number, and you called."

Indirect: Maria said that she had been dialing my number and I had called.

Note: If two sentences are combined with a conjunction, and both sentences have different tenses then we need to change the tenses of both sentences according to the rule.

g. Past perfect tense does not change in the indirect speech;

Example:

Direct: Alex said, "I had stopped to visit you."

Indirect: Alex said that he has stopped to visit me.

Direct: She said, "Greece had tried to uphold their economy."

Indirect: She said that Greece had tried to uphold their economy.

h Simple future tense to present conditional;

Example:

Direct: Smith said, "My parents will be there at 9am."

Indirect: Smith said that his parents would be there at 9am.

Direct: Barbara asked, "Will you be my partner in the coming Summer Ball?"

Indirect: Barbara asked if I would be her partner in the coming Summer Ball.

Direct: John said, "I will be doing my CELTA next year."

Indirect: John said that he would be doing his CELTA next year. (Continuous conditional)

4. Modals:

a. Modal verbs like shall, will, can, may change in reported speech. Let's follow some examples:

Direct: John said, "I will be there."

Indirect: John promised that he would be there.

Direct: The boy said, "May I come in?"

Indirect: The boy asked if he could come in. (note: may becomes could when it implies permission)

Direct: "I may not call you." Said Bobby.

Indirect: Bobby said that she might not call me.

Direct: "I shall practice more." said Barbara.

Indirect: Barbara said that she would practice more.

Direct: Joseph said, "Shall I buy the car?"

Indirect: Joseph asked if he should buy the car.

Note: shall becomes should if it implies a question.

b. Modal verbs like could, should, need, must, might, used to do not change in reported speech.

Example:

Direct: she said, "I would not be the victim."

Indirect: she said that she would not be the victim.

Direct: David said, "You need to repair the car."

Indirect: David said that I need to repair the car.

Direct: Mary said, "I used to love dancing."

Indirect: Mary said she used to love dancing.

5. Adverbs and demonstratives:

Indirect speech differs from the direct speech's time and place. When someone is conveying the message to the listener, the speaker might not be on the same day or place. So the demonstrative (this, that etc.) and the adverb of time and place (here, there, today, now, etc.) change. We can look into the following chart for the usual changes:

direct indirect

now Then/at that moment

today That day

Tomorrow The next day

Yesterday The day before

come go

Bring take

this that

Examples:

Direct: I said, "Simon read Wordsworth yesterday."

Indirect: I said that Simon read Wordsworth the day before.

Direct: Mother said, "Come home now."

Indirect: Mother ordered me to go home at that moment.

Direct: "Bring the money with you." Said Jessie.

Indirect: Jessie demanded to take the money with me.

Direct: The lovers said, "We will meet here tomorrow."

Indirect: The lovers promised to meet there the next day.



PREFIXES

Prefixes are the letter/s which sit before a stem to make new words. These letters are also called affixes.

Affixes generally have no meaning by their own but can form meaningful words by sitting before/after the stems. In the case of prefixed words, affixes sit before the stems of the words.

“A prefix is an affix which is placed before the stem of a word.” – Wilson (2011)

A prefix is “a letter or group of letters that is added at the beginning of a word to change its meaning.” – Merriam Webster.

Example:

Prefix = ‘fix’ is a stem and ‘pre’ is a prefix which changes the meaning of the stem and creates a new word.

Antibiotic

Awake

Symphony

Hemisphere

List of Common Prefixes:

Prefix Meaning Examples

a on

in

from

up

not

without aboard (onboard)

asleep (in sleep)

arise (rise from)

awake (wake up)

atheist (not a theist)

apathy (without pathy)

ab

bad

not abuse (bad use)

abnormal (not normal)

ad to adjoin (to join)

ante before antedate (before date)

anti against

opposite of antiseptic (against septic)

anticlimax (opposite of climax)

auto self autobiography (self-biography)

bi two bilateral (two sides)

co with co-exist (exist with)

de down

reversal detrain (down train)

demerit

di two dioxide (two oxides)

dia through diameter

dis not

opposite disallowed (not allowed)

dishonor (opposite of honor)

en on

in enact (on action)

encage (in the cage)
ex out of
former extract (out of anything)
ex-student
il opposite of illegal (opposite of legal)
im the opposite of impossible (opposite of possible)
in the opposite of inability (opposite of ability)
ir the opposite of irrational (opposite of rational)
inter within interschool (within the school)
fore before foretell (telling before)
hemi half hemisphere (half sphere)
homo like/same homogeneous (same species)
hyper beyond/over hypersensitive (oversensitive)
hypo under hypothesis (under thesis)
mal bad
ill malpractice (bad practice)
malnutrition (ill nutrition)
mis bad misconduct (bad conduct)
mono single monologue (single logue)
non not/opposite nonsense (opposite of sense)
post after postmodern (after modern)
pre before pretext (before text)
peri round perimeter (round meter)
re again regain (again gain)
semi half semifinal (half final)
sub backup/alternate subway (alternate way)
super over/beyond supernatural (beyond natural)
to this today (this day)
trans across transform (across form)
ultra beyond ultramodern (beyond modern)

un not/opposite unable (not able)

vice alternative of vice-captain (alternative of captain)



SUFFIX

Suffixes are the letter/s which are added at the end of a stem to make new words. The affixes used in the suffixed words are different from the affixes used in the prefixed words, and they make different kinds of words.

Most of the affixes that are used in the suffixed words have no meaning of their own.

“A suffix (also called ending) is an affix that is placed after the stem of a word.”

– Wikipedia

Example:

Reader = ‘read’ is the stem of the word which has different meaning and different grammatical function in a sentence but the affix ‘er’ changes both the meaning and the grammatical function of the word to make a new word.

Reading

Readable

Creator

Creation

Note: It is not necessary that a suffix change both meaning and grammatical property of the words. It can perform either of them.

List of Common Suffixes

A suffix can make a word/stem of a word a noun, verb, adverb, or adjective. A suffix can also make a transition in the degree of an adjective or in the tense of a verb.

Noun Suffixes

Suffix Meaning Example

-age a condition leakage, bondage, marriage

-al an action denial, removal, approval

-ar one who performs the action beggar, liar, scholar

-cy state

quality urgency, emergency, fallacy

accuracy, decency, lunacy

-dom place

state of being kingdom, dukedom, earldom

boredom, freedom, stardom

-ee one who performs an action interviewee, internee, employee, nominee

-er one who performs the action reader, driver, maker, painter

-hood state of being boyhood, childhood, manhood

-ion condition union, opinion

-ism doctrine or belief marxism, Sufism, egotism

-ist one who is something dentist, chemist, Marxist, atheist

-ice the result of an action service, cowardice

-logy theory biology, geology, ecology

-ment the condition of an action acknowledgement, punishment, agreement

-on/en/an doer artisan, citizen, surgeon

-ness state of being sadness, happiness, rudeness, business

-nce state

quality abundance, absence, presence

brilliance, endurance, obedience

-or one who performs the action creator, supervisor, sailor

-ship position held internship, partnership, kinship

-sion state of being illusion, inclusion, extension

-tion state of being creation, information, confirmation

-tude result of an action fortitude, magnitude, servitude

-ty quality

state flexibility, sensibility, frailty

serenity, safety, reality

Verb Suffixes

-ate do captivate, annihilate, exterminate

-en do broaden, awaken, strengthen

-er do chatter, glitter, glimmer

-ish do publish, nourish, punish, banish

-fy make rectify, simplify, amplify

-ize become humanize, organize, socialize, legalize

Adjective Suffixes

-able capable of being presentable, readable, believable

-al belonging to legal, local, mental, mortal, fatal, musical

-ar quality familiar, regular, circular

-ed quality gifted, talented, learned, cultured

-en made of golden, wooden, woolen, leaden

-ful notable for beautiful, wonderful, doubtful

-ible capable of admissible, divisible, sensible

-ic pertaining to allergic, mythic, domestic, historic

-ish belonging to selfish, Turkish, Irish, Polish, childish

-istic characterized by an attribute fantastic, pessimistic,
optimistic, sarcastic

-ile having the nature of fragile, juvenile, servile

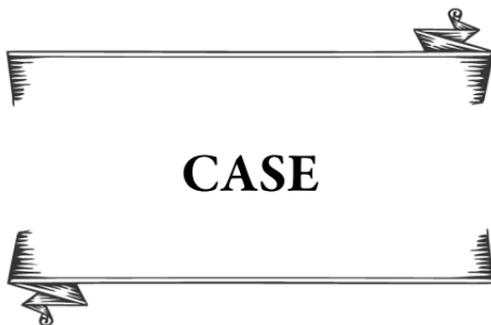
-ian/an belonging to Indian, American, Russian, Victorian

-ive having the nature of creative, punitive, divisive, decisive

-less without fearless, helpless, endless, tireless

-ous characterized by an attribute studious, pious, religious, joyous

-y characterized by smelly, healthy, greedy, wealthy



Cases indicate the grammatical functions of nouns and pronouns according to their relation with rest of the words in a sentence.

In modern English, there are only three kinds of cases.

Subjective Case

Objective Case

Possessive Case

Subjective Case (Nominative Case)

When a noun or a pronoun works as a subject in the sentence, a subjective case appears.

Example:

Louis works in the management.

He works very hard for the company.

I love to watch movies in my free time.

Reading is a very good habit.

Objective Case

When a noun or a pronoun works as an object in the sentence, an objective case appears.

Example:

Robert does not eat burgers.

He loves pizza.

Robert told me that.

Alex follows Robert.

Possessive Case

Possessive cases indicate a relationship of possession or belongingness between two nouns or a noun and a pronoun.

Example:

Robin's house is near the river. (Two nouns related in the basis of possession.)

His brother lives in the city. (A pronoun and a noun)

My family does not approve this.

Shaun's wife has passed away.

Note: The pronoun changes its form in different cases.

Subjective Objective Possessive

I

We

You

He

She

They

It

Who Me

Us

You

Him

Her

Them

It

Whom My, mine

Our, ours

Your, yours

His

Her, hers

Their, theirs

Its

Whose

There is another kind of case. It is called the vocative case. This case is similar to the subjective case in term of spelling. The vocative case indicates a person being addressed directly by his/her name. This name is separated by a comma.

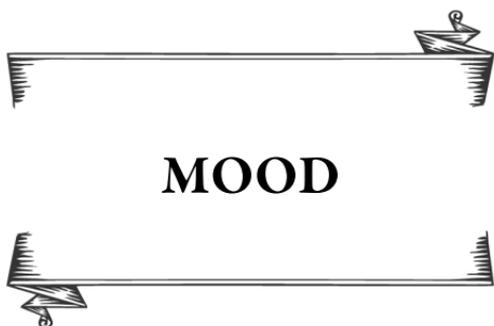
Example:

Robert, could you please open the door?

You, watch out the bus.

Listen to me, Russel.

How are you, Susan?



MOOD

The mood in English grammar does not refer to the emotion of the action or anything like that. Instead, the mood of the verbs refers to whether or not something is a fact. The intention of the speaker/writer is understood by the mood of the verbs.

In English, there are mainly three kinds of mood:

Indicative mood

Imperative mood

Subjunctive mood

Each of the types has a particular function.

Indicative Mood

Indicative mood tells the reader/listener something factual. This mood is generally used in making a statement or asking for a statement by a question. The statement can be factual or presumed to be factual.

Example:

Michel was the greatest musician.

Where are you going?

I am going to Texas.

Imperative Mood

Imperative mood makes a verb into a command or request. It always uses the second person as the subject of the sentence and most of the time the subject remains hidden.

Example:

Bring the bottle over here.

Make me a cup of tea, please.

Let her take her own decisions. (Here, 'let' is the verb of this sentence, not 'take'.)

Subjunctive Mood

Subjunctive mood indicates the possibility, wishes, or hypothetical statements. It is almost the opposite of the indicative mood. This mood usually mixes the tense of the verbs and does not follow the common usage of the tense.

Subjunctive has some different structures from the other structures of sentences.

Conditionals generally use the subjunctive mood.

Example:

If you change this dress, I will take you with me.

If I were in your shoes, I would not do it.

If they were in America, they could not escape from it.

If they had taken the vaccine, they would not have been affected.

Some certain verbs + the conjunction that requires the next clause to use the subjunctive mood and the clause uses the base form of the verb in it.

The verbs are:

Advise – demand – prefer – require – ask – insist Propose
– stipulate – command – recommend Suggest – decree – order
– request – urge – move

Structure:

Subject + the verbs of the above box (any tense) + THAT
+ subject + base verb +

Example:

He insisted that I stay at home.

The office requires that we complete our work timely.

She commanded that he stop drinking alcohol.

I recommend that you wake up early.

Note: There are some clauses also which require the verb of the next clause to be in base form.

The clauses are:

It is/was + past participle form of the verb of the above box
+ THAT

It is/was urgent + THAT

It is/was necessary + THAT

It is/was important + THAT

Example:

It is important that you invite him to the party.

It was necessary that I make a fence.

It was recommended that you meet the principal.



DO



In English grammar, 'do-insertion' or 'do-support' refers to the use of the auxiliary verb 'do', including its reflected forms 'does' and 'did'. There are some common uses of do-insertion which are described below.

To ask a question:

We consider a sentence, "You want money".

Here, 'you' is the subject, 'want' is the verb and 'money' is the complement. But there is no auxiliary verb in this sentence. That's why we need to add a dummy 'do' to turn this assertive sentence into an interrogative sentence.

You want money (You do want money).

-Do you want money?

Similarly,

She likes the dress (She does like the dress).

-Does she like the dress?

He got the job (He did get the job).

- Did he get the job?

To make a negative sentence:

We need to add the word 'not' to the auxiliary verb.

Example:

You want money.

-You do not want money/ You don't want money.

Similarly,

She likes the dress.

-She does not like the dress/ She doesn't like the dress.

He got the job.

-He did not get the job/ He didn't get the job.

Note: In most cases, we need to add the auxiliary 'do' to make a question or negative sentence except the use of the verb 'be' and the verb 'have'.

Be:

Example:

You are rich (are=be verb).

To make it negative, we can say

-You are not rich/ You aren't rich.

But we can't say say

-You don't are rich.

Similarly to make a question, we can say

-Are you rich?

But we can't say,

-Do you are rich?

So instead of adding an auxiliary 'do' with the verb 'be', we can invert the verb 'be' with the subject.

Have:

In UK/ England, the same rule works with the verb 'have' also. So when we say

I have a dream.

-Have I a dream? (Question)

Or, Do I have a dream? (Question)

-I have not a dream/ I haven't a dream/ I don't have a dream. (Negative)

So there are only two exceptions to the 'do-insertion' in question and in a negative sentence. These are with the verb 'be' and the verb 'have'.

To put emphasis in imperative sentence

We also use the do-insertion with an imperative sentence when we want to put the emphasis.

Example:

Instead of saying to a kid,

“Behave!”

We can say, “Do behave!”

It means to put emphasis on 'behave' which is like giving an order.

In tag question

Example:

You want a bike, don't you?

We are using dummy 'do' in this tag question because there is no auxiliary verb in this sentence. So we are adding an auxiliary as well as 'not' because the tag question usually has to be opposite to the actual sentence (if the question is positive, the tag question will be negative).

Similarly,

We want freedom, don't we?

She likes to play, doesn't she?

To answer a question by using 'yes/no'

When we need to answer shortly in 'yes' or 'no', we can use the dummy operator or the modal verb or the auxiliary to answer.

Example:

Are you busy?

-Yes, I do.

Here, the verb 'be' doesn't take the 'do' operator', so this reply is wrong. We can reply

-Yes, I am. (Positive)

-No, I am not. (Negative)

Similarly,

Have you a car?

-Yes, I have. (Positive)

-No, I don't have. (Negative)

Do you want a pen?

-Yes, I do.

-No, I don't.

'Tense inflection' and 'Third person inflection'

What's special about 'do' is that it takes the 'tense inflection' and the 'third person inflection'.

Example:

He has a sister.

-he have a sister (this is wrong because 'he' is third person singular number).

So we should say

-Does he have a sister?

So only one of a verb the 'do' takes a person inflection.

He doesn't have a sister.

-He doesn't has a sister. (Wrong)

-He don't has a sister. (Wrong)

When we say a sentence in the past tense

He had a sister.

-Did he have a sister? (Question)

Here, we put the tense inflection on the 'do'. So 'do' becomes 'did' and 'has' becomes 'have'.

He had a sister.

-He didn't have a sister. (Negative)

Modal verbs

Modal verbs are verbs that act like auxiliary verbs. For example: can, could, be able to, may, might, shall, should, must, have to, will, would, etc.

Example:

I will go.

-Will I go?

She should leave now.

-Should she leave now?

The modal verbs act like an auxiliary, and they invert with the subject to make a question, to make a negative sentence and to make tag question.



NAGATION

Negation, as maintained by the likes of Merriam Webster refers to

“the action or logical operation of negating or making negative”.

In simpler terms, negation defines the polar opposition of affirmative, denies the existence or vaguely – a refutation. This is also known as “Not”. Classical logic resembles negation with truth function which takes truth to falsity and is perfectly capable of running the opposite operation. It denies the truth of a sentence. It’s just the conversion of the affirmative sentence which converts the simple affirmative sentence into negative.

Example

I like to sing = I do not like to sing.

Rules of Negation:

By changing the auxiliary verb of the sentence into negative, we can apply Negation in a sentence.

1. Negation in tense

1. Present Indefinite Tense Do = do not/ don’t, does = does not/doesn’t.

2. Present Continuous Tense Am = am not, is = is not/ isn’t, are = are not, aren’t.

3. Present Perfect Tense Have = have not/haven't, has = has not/hasn't

4. Present Perfect Continuous tense Has been = has not been, have been = have not been

5. Past Indefinite tense Did = did not/didn't

6. Past Continuous tense Was = was not/wasn't, were = were not/weren't

7. Past Perfect Tense Had = had not/hadn't

8. Past Perfect Continuous Tense Had been = had not been/hadn't been

9. Future Indefinite Tense Shall = shall not, will = will not/won't

10. Future Continuous tense Shall be = shall not be, will be = will not/won't

11. Future Perfect Tense Shall have = shall not have, will have = will not have/won't have

12. Future Perfect Continuous Tense Shall have been = shall not have been,

will have been = will not have been/won't have been

Examples:

He drives the car = He does not drive the car

Alex ate rice = Alex did not eat rice

2. Negation in Modal-auxiliary

Modal Modal in negative Modal Modal in negative

Can Can not/ can't Shall Shall not

Could Could not/ couldn't Should Should not/shouldn't

May May not Will Will not/won't

Might Might not/mightn't would Would not/wouldn't

Must Must not/mustn't Ought to Ought not to

Need Need not/needn't

Examples:

Edward can swim= Edward cannot swim

We must go there= We must not go there

3. Negation in Words

Some words such as ever, anybody, anyone, anything, anywhere, instead of never, nobody, no one, nothing, nowhere, etc. represent the Negation.

Examples:

I do not think he can ever reach within time.

Double Negative

Double negative on the other hand, simply defines the existence of two forms of negation in the same sentence. Please, notice that a double negative can often result in an affirmation in the English language (e.g., He hardly stops for small-talks). The rhetorical term for such a phenomenon is 'litotes'.

Example:

I can not find him nowhere.

Uses of Double Negative

Double Negative can be used in two ways. They are:

1. Using negative words

such as never, nobody, anyone, nothing, nowhere, etc

Example:

He cannot go nowhere without informing me

2. Using prefix

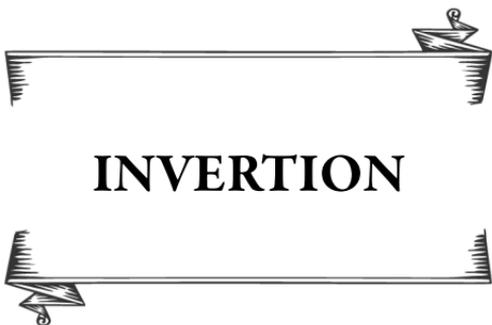
Such as ir, un, non, pre, anti, il, im, etc.

Example:

John is not uncontrollable by his family member though he is a special child.

In modern English, Double Negatives are highly avoidable as it is grammatically wrong. We know we cannot use more

than one negative word in a statement. It usually used in informal conversation or speech and in songs' lyrics as well. To form a correct sentence, we must avoid using a double negative in a single sentence formally.



INVERSION

Inversion of the verb before the subject is a common phenomenon in English sentences. The natural order of English sentences is (subject + verb + . . .) but sometimes it becomes (verb + subject). Inversion is most common with question form of the sentences. However, there are few other circumstances where inversion of subject and verb occurs.

Inversion in questions:

Almost all forms of interrogative sentences (without subject questions and embedded questions) use inversion. These sentences always place the auxiliary verb before the subject.

Example:

Is he going to the club?

Did he go to the club?

Where is the club?

Who is that guy standing there? (No inversion for it is a subject question)

Inversion in other expressions:

Many other negative and affirmative sentences use inversion.

1. Affirmative and negative agreement: only after so, nor, neither but not in the cases of either and too.

Examples:

Alex went to the club, and so did Jenny.

Alex went to the club, and Jenny did too. (No inversion)

Robert hasn't reached yet, neither has his brother.

Robert hasn't reached yet; Robin hasn't either. (No inversion)

Russel is not a footballer, and nor is his brother

2. Negative adverbial expressions at the beginning of the sentence.

Example:

In no way should we accept their offer.

Little did they know about me.

Never has he felt so embarrassed.

Seldom do they go

Rarely do we see gypsies.

Hardly ever do they talk to each other.

3. Beginning with only & not only.

Example:

Only if they come would I go

Only by researching can you solve this problem.

Only after lunch can you play.

Not only did they kill the adults, but they killed also the children.



4. ADVERBIALS AT THE beginning of a sentence.

Example:

Hardly had I reached there, he left.

Seldom does the teacher finishes his class early.

Rarely does Alex forget to do his

5. Adverbs of place (here & there) at the beginning of a sentence. This type of sentence requires the main verb (not the auxiliary verb) to come before the subject.

Example:

There is a lady standing in front of the club.

Here comes the king.

Here is your home-made cola.

There are so many people in that field.

6. Some prepositional phrases at the beginning of a sentence.

Example:

Into the room came she when I was sleeping.

Behind me cries a child.

Over the table hangs a painting.

7. Conditionals without the conjunction

Example:

Had he been there, he could have seen it.

Were I the president, I could do the good things.

Were he my brother, I would support him to reach his dreams.

Should you go there, I will go with you.



PREPOSITION OF TIME



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.

Read More: Prepositions of Places & Direction Usage

Read More: Use of Prepositions : Of, About, For, With, By



PREPOSITION OF PLACE



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.

BELLOW:

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.

Read More: Prepositions of Time Usage

Read More: Use of Prepositions : Of, About, For, With, By



MORE PREPOSITION



OF, ABOUT, FOR, WITH, BY
OF:

Of expresses the relationship of a part of something to its whole. It is the most used preposition in English.

Example:

He is a boy of 15.

Some parts of his body were injured.

Most of the guests are gone.

The plays of Shakespeare will always be classics.

ABOUT:

About means 'on the subject of' something or 'concerning of' something/someone. It also means 'approximately.'

Example:

I was about to leave.

He cares about his classes.

I have about 30 candies in my bag.

This article is about computers.

FOR:

For means 'with the object or purpose of'. It indicates a suiting of purpose for something/someone.

Example:

I will always be here for you.

I have done it for my benefit.

Cucumber is a good vegetable for making a salad.

Take my gratitude for your kind hospitality.

WITH:

With means 'accompanied by' something or someone.

Example:

I will always be with you.

I have brought some candies with me.

He is playing with his sisters.

It is free with this product.

BY:

By means 'as a means of' something or someone. This preposition often comes in a passive sentence.

Example:

Do you travel by bus/train/plane/bike?

He was undone by me.

The letter was written by him.



READ MORE: PREPOSITIONS of Time Usage

Read More: Prepositions of Places & Direction Usage



PRONOUN BEFORE THE GERUND



Both the infinitives and the gerunds can be both the subject and the complement of a sentence. When an infinitive or a gerund come as the subject of a sentence, it doesn't usually take any other word with it. However, when they come as a complement, they often take other parts of speech with them. Some specific transitive verbs require an indirect object (usually person) followed by the infinitives to complete a sentence.

Those specific verbs are:

allow ask beg convince expect

instruct invite order persuade prepare

remind urge want permit promise

If the complements of these verbs are the infinitives, they must take an indirect object (person) before them in the form of noun or object pronoun.

Example:

Incorrect: You allowed him going there after what he has done!

Correct: You allowed him to go there after what he has done!

Incorrect: He asked me helping him in this project.

Correct: He asked me to help him in this project.

Incorrect: I did not beg her giving me her number.

Correct: I did not beg her to give me her number.

Incorrect: He convinced me working with the president.

Correct: He convinced me to work with the president.

Incorrect: John expects you staying in that hotel.

Correct: John expects you to stay in that hotel.

Incorrect: I instructed him talking with her.

Correct: I instructed him to talk with her.

Incorrect: I urge you going there.

Correct: I urge you to go there.

Incorrect: He invited me coming to his town.

Correct: He invited me to come to his town.

Incorrect: He ordered me bringing the keys for him.

Correct: He ordered me to bring the keys for me.

Incorrect: My father permitted me going to the pilgrimage.

Correct: My father permitted me to go to the pilgrimage.

Incorrect: He persuaded me using the smartphone.

Correct: He persuaded me to use the smartphone.

Incorrect: I have prepared her living in the real world.

Correct: I have prepared her living in the real world.

Incorrect: I promised him reaching there on time.

Correct: I promised him to reach there on time.

Incorrect: He wants me being the best batsman in the team.

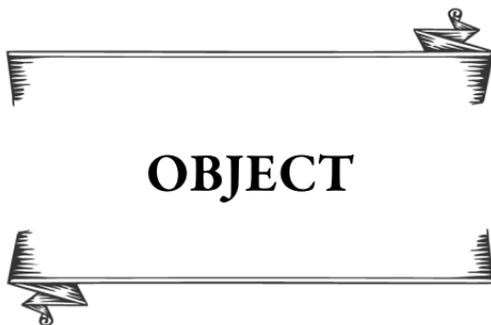
Correct: He wants me to be the best batsman in the team.

Incorrect: He reminded me completing the task.

Correct: He reminded me to complete the task.

However, other transitive verbs can be followed by a gerund as a complement but it must precede by a possessive adjective.

So, pronoun can come before a gerund in the form of possessive.



OBJECT

An object is a noun or pronoun that gives meaning to the subject and the verb in a sentence. It often follows the subject and verb in a sentence. There are two ways of writing the objects of many verbs without changing the meaning of the sentence: direct objects and indirect objects. The indirect object may appear before the direct object without being preceded by a preposition or it may occur after the direct object, preceded by a preposition. The prepositions that are generally used in this structure are for and to.

The direct object is a person or a thing and is the first receiver of the action. On the other hand, the indirect object is an animate object or objects to whom or for whom something is done.

Mary showed the photograph to me.

direct object indirect object

(the photograph is the direct object because the first action was that of showing the photo, and the second action, the indirect one, was to show to me.)

Although objects are basically nouns or pronouns, verbs play an important role in how the object will behave. There are some particular verbs that are allowed for object transforma-

tion (direct to indirect or indirect to direct). Here are some of the verbs that do transform.

bring get pay
 build give paint
 buy hand pass
 cut leave show
 draw lend teach
 feed make tell
 find offer write

All of these verbs must be followed by either the preposition for or to. If we want to the transformation which means exactly the same as the sentence with the original preposition happens, then we need to understand the following rules.

Subject + verb + direct object+ for/to+ indirect object



SUBJECT + VERB + INDIRECT object + direct object (no preposition)

Examples of direct and indirect objects:

Incorrect: The director's secretary sent to them the manuscript last night.

Correct: The director's secretary sent the manuscript to them last night.

Correct: The director's secretary sent them the manuscript last night.

Incorrect: John gave the essay his teacher.

Correct: John gave the essay to his teacher.

Correct: John gave his teacher the essay.

Incorrect: The little boy brought some flowers his grandmother.

Correct: The little boy brought some flowers for his grandmother.

Correct: The little boy brought his grandmother some flowers.

Incorrect: I fixed a drink Helena.

Correct: I fixed a drink for Helena.

Correct: I fixed Helena a drink.

Incorrect: He drew a picture his mother.

Correct: He drew a picture for his mother.

Correct: He drew his mother a picture.

Incorrect: We owe several thousand dollars the bank.

Correct: We owe several thousand dollars to the bank.

Correct: We owe the bank several thousand dollars.

Incorrect: I introduced Cena Dr. Lanister.

Correct: I introduced Cena to Dr. Lanister.

Incorrect: He mentioned the party me.

Correct: He mentioned the party to me.

Incorrect: I will send the books you next week.

Correct: I will send you the books next week.

Correct: I will send the books to you next week.

Incorrect: My sister sent a game my daughter for her birthday.

Correct: My sister sent a game to my daughter for her birthday.

Correct: My sister sent my daughter a game for her birthday.

Incorrect: Susan drew a lovely picture her boyfriend.

Correct: Susan drew her boyfriend a lovely picture.

Correct: Susan drew a lovely picture for her boyfriend.

Incorrect: That teacher taught grammar us last year.

Correct: That teacher taught grammar to us last year.

Correct: That teacher taught us grammar last year.

Incorrect: He brought the telegram her this morning.

Correct: He brought her the telegram this morning.

Correct: He brought the telegram to her this morning.

Incorrect: Jerry handed the tray his sister.

Correct: Jerry handed the tray to his sister.

Correct: Jerry handed his sister the tray.

Incorrect: John owes the money his friend.

Correct: John owes his friend the money.

Correct: John owes the money to his friend.

Incorrect: My girlfriend sent me to a bouquet of flower while I was in the Rehab.

Correct: My girlfriend sent me a bouquet of flower while I was in the Rehab.

Correct: My girlfriend sent a bouquet of flower to me while I was in the Rehab.

Incorrect: The clerk sold to us the records.

Correct: The clerk sold the records to us.

Correct: The clerk sold us the records.

Incorrect: They found a good, inexperienced car him.

Correct: They found him a good, inexperienced car.

Correct: They found a good, inexperienced car for him.

Incorrect: My father read us to the newspaper article.

Correct: My father read the newspaper article to us.

Correct: My father read us the newspaper article.

Incorrect: Pass me to the salt, please.

Correct: Pass me the salt, please.

Correct: Pass the salt to me, please.

Incorrect: The construction crew built them for a house in four weeks.

Correct: The construction crew built a house for them in four weeks.

Correct: The construction crew built them a house in four weeks.

Incorrect: The girls couldn't wait to show to us the bicycle.

Correct: The girls couldn't wait to show us the bicycle.

Correct: The girls couldn't wait to show the bicycle to us.

Incorrect: She bought for him a red jacket.

Correct: She bought him a red jacket.

Correct: She bought a red jacket for him.



SEQUENCE OF TENSE



The sequence of tense implies when two clauses make up a sentence the tense of the subordinate verb is changed according to the tense of the main verb.

So, we need to determine the tense of the principal clause and modify the tense of subordinate clause accordingly as there should be a relative coherence of time. If there is no coherence of time in the two clauses than the sentence will be incorrect.

For Example:

Example 1 I went to the restaurant as I am hungry. Incorrect

I went to the restaurant as I will be hungry. Incorrect

I went to the restaurant as I was hungry. Correct

Example 2 He is arrested as he will be robbing the bank. Incorrect

He is arrested as he is robbing a bank. Incorrect

He is arrested as he had robbed a bank. Correct

To maintain the sequence of tense, we should maintain the following rules:

Rule: If the principal clause is in present tense then the subordinate clause can be in present continuous, present perfect, future or past tense.

For example:

Examples Subordinate Clause

I know what you are thinking right now. Present Continuous

I think he has crossed the line. Present Perfect

She says that she will think about it. Future Indefinite

I hope you made the right choice. Past Indefinite

If the subordinate clause is in present continuous tense while the principal clause is in present indefinite tense, then it means both actions are simultaneous. If the subordinate clause is in present perfect tense while the principal clause is in present indefinite tense, then it means the action described in subordinate clause took place at an indefinite time before that of the principal clause. If the subordinate clause is in future indefinite tense while the principal clause is in present indefinite tense, then it means the action described in subordinate clause will take place after the action of the principal clause. If the subordinate clause is in past indefinite tense while the principal clause is in present indefinite tense, then it means the action described in the subordinate clause took place before the action of the principal clause.

Rule: If the principal clause is in past tense then the subordinate clause can be in past indefinite, continuous or perfect tense.

For Example:

Examples Subordinate Clause

He said he liked the idea. Past indefinite

She visited our home while she was studying in London.

Past Continuous

Melissa went there as her husband had told her. Past Perfect

If the subordinate clause is in past indefinite or continuous tense then it means the actions were simultaneous. If the subordinate clause is in past perfect tense then it means the action described in the subordinate clause happened before the action of the principal clause.

Rule: Usually, no present form is allowed in the subordinate clause if the principal clause is in past tense. But if the subordinate clause starts with “than”, then the subordinate clause can be in any tense.

For Example:

Examples Subordinate Clause

I miss my dad more than I miss anything. Present

I miss my dad more than I missed anything. Past

I miss my dad more than I will miss anything. Future

Rule: If the principal clause is in future tense then the subordinate clause is usually in present tense.

For example:

Example 1 I will go to play when the rain will stop. Incorrect

I will go to play when the rain stops. Correct

Example 2 He will text me when the teacher will arrive. Incorrect

He will text me when the teacher arrives. Correct



AFFIRMATIVE AND NEGATIVE



In daily-life language use, there is a lot of work that is done by one person and repeated the same action by another person. In this case, we need to use particular words or formula to express the words in most appropriate and precise way. So, we use different words and rules to avoid unnecessary repetition of words which is known as Affirmative and Negative Agreement.

Affirmative Agreement:

When mentioning that one person or thing does something and again that another does the same, we use the word *so* or *too*. By using conjunction *and*, followed by a simple statement using *so* or *too* we can avoid unnecessary repetition of words from the affirmative sentences. The array of this statement will rely on whether *so* or *too* is used.

1. In the main clause, if a form of the verb *be* is used then the same tense of the verb *be* will be used in the simple statement that follows.

Affirmative statement + *and* + subject + verb (*be*) + *too*
(*be*) *so* + verb (*be*) + subject

Examples:

- I am happy. You are happy.
- I am happy, and you are too.
- I am happy, and so are you.

2. In the main clause, when a compound verb (auxiliary + verb), for example, will go, should do, has done, have written, must examine, etc. comes, the auxiliary of the main verb is used in the simple statement, and the subject and verb must agree.

Affirmative statement (compound verb) + and + subject + only auxiliary + too

so + only auxiliary + subject

Examples:

– They will work in the lab tomorrow. You will work in the lab tomorrow.

– They will work in the lab tomorrow, and you will too.

– They will work in the lab tomorrow, and so will you.

3. In the main clause, when any verb except be comes without any auxiliaries, the auxiliary do, does, or did is used in the simple statement. The tense must be the same and the subject and verb must agree.

Affirmative statement + and + subject + do, does, or did + too

(single verb except be) so + do, does, or did + subject

Examples:

– Jane goes to that school. My sister goes to school.

– Jane goes to school and my sister does too.

– Jane goes to school and so does my sister.

Additional examples:

He has been seen her plays, and the girls have too.

He has been seen her plays, and so have the girls.

I will be in New Mexico in August, and they will too.

I will be in New Mexico in August, and so will they.

We are going to the movies tonight, and Sam is too.

We are going to the movies tonight, and so is Sam.

John went to the mountain on his vacation, and we did too.

John went to the mountain on his vacation, and so did we.

She will wear a costume for the party, and we will too.

She will wear a costume for the party, and so will we.

Ronaldo was a famous player, and Messi was too.

Ronaldo was a famous player, and so was Messi.

Negative Agreement

Either and neither in simple sentence function much like so and too in affirmative sentences. They are used to mention negative agreement. For this, the same rules for auxiliaries, be and do, does, or did apply.

Negative Sentence + and + subject + negative auxiliary + either

neither + positive auxiliary + subject

Examples:

– Matthews hasn't seen the new movie yet. I haven't seen the new movie yet.

– Matthews hasn't seen the new movie yet, and I haven't either.

– Matthews hasn't seen the new movie yet, and neither have I.

– I didn't see Mary this morning. John didn't see Mary this morning.

– I didn't see Mary this morning, and John didn't either

– I didn't see Mary this morning, and neither did John.

– Roxeta hasn't seen the movie yet. I haven't seen the movie yet.

– Roxeta hasn't seen the movie yet, and I haven't either.

– Roxeta hasn't seen the movie yet, and neither have I.

Additional examples:

We can't study in the library, and neither can they.

We can't study in the library, and they can't either.

John shouldn't run so fast, and neither should you.

John shouldn't run so fast, and you shouldn't either.

Your class hasn't begun yet, and mine hasn't either.

Your class hasn't begun yet, and neither has mine.

I don't like tennis, and she doesn't either.

I don't like tennis, and neither does she.

I am not interested in reading that book, and neither is she.

I am not interested in reading that book, and she isn't either.

I can't stand listening to that music, and Helena can't either.

I can't stand listening to that music, and neither can Helena.

The scientist isn't too happy with the project, and neither have his assistants.

The scientist isn't too happy with the project, and his assistants haven't either.



COMPARATIVE DEGREE



Comparisons indicate degrees of difference with adjectives and adverbs. Comparatives are the words that indicate a comparison between two entities. Some comparatives constitute different structures from others.

Comparatives in Different Structures:

Single Word Comparatives:

The adjectives and adverbs that do not require the word 'more' or 'less' before them and add 'er' or 'ier' with them are the single word comparatives.

Structure:

Subject + verb + adjective/adverb+(er) + than + noun/pronoun + verb (hidden)

Examples:

- Alex is taller than Max.
- Today is hotter than yesterday.
- He has a brighter skin than she has.

Double Word Comparatives:

The adjectives and adverbs that are of more than two syllables need an extra 'more' or 'less' before them to become comparatives.

Structure:

Subject + verb + more/less + adjective/adverb + than + noun/pronoun + verb (hidden)

Examples:

- She is more beautiful than Tina.
- He is less handsome than Alex.
- I am more tired than you.

Note: Comparatives always compare two entities based on a certain feature of those entities. They always compare similar entities.

Examples:

Incorrect: His watch is cheaper than his employee. (There cannot be any comparison between a thing and a person. It must be between two things or two persons.)

Correct: His watch is cheaper than his employee's watch.

Incorrect: My salary is lower than Alex. (This comparison is illogical.)

Correct: My salary is lower than Alex's salary.

Incorrect: The duties of a mother are harder than a father.

Correct: The duties of a mother are harder than that of a father.

Multiple Number Comparatives:

When something is compared with another thing according to their numbers, the sentence follows a different structure. Multiple number comparatives include half, twice, three times, four times, etc.

Structure:

Subject + verb + number + as + much/many + (noun) + as + noun/pronoun + verb

Examples:

- John has half as many wickets as Watson has.

- Robert works twice as much as Alex does.
- I have three times as many runs as he has.

Double Comparatives:

There is a unique structure of English sentence which starts with a comparative and takes another comparative to complete it. This type of sentence structure is unusual as it is generally used with proverbs.

Structure:

The + comparative 1 + subject + verb + the + comparative
2 + subject + verb

Examples:

- The more you write, the smarter it gets.
- The thinner you become, the easier you feel.
- The bigger they are, the cheaper they are sold.
- The more you eat, the fatter you become.
- The sooner I leave, the earlier I will reach home.

Note:

Generally, the article 'the' does not precede a comparative. But in this unique structure of the sentence, 'the' precedes both of the comparatives.

However, there is one more structure that allows 'the' to come right before a comparative.

Structure:

Subject + verb + the + comparative + of the two + (noun)
Or

Of the two + (noun) + subject + verb + the + comparative

Examples:

- Shaun is the better player of the two brothers.
- Of the Marsh brothers, Mitchel is the better bowler.
- Alex is the smarter of the two boys.

- She is the wiser of the two Bronte sisters.
- Of the two novels of Joyce, the Ulysses is the more intriguing one.



ONE



If the word “one” is used in a sentence to refer to any particular person then the following pronoun should be one, he or she to refer that same person. It is important to keep in mind that if “one” is used at the beginning of the sentence then it cannot be followed up by “you” or “them”. Because the word “one” refers to third person singular number whereas “you” refers to second person singular number and “they” refers to third person plural number.

So, it would mean the disruption of agreement between the noun and the subsequent pronoun which is unacceptable. Similarly, if the word “you” is used at the beginning of a sentence to refer to someone then the subsequent pronoun must also be you to refer that same person.

We cannot use he/she or them or one as the subsequent pronoun because the word “you” means second person singular number whereas he or she means third person singular number and ‘one’ or ‘they’ means third person singular or plural number.

For Example:

If one can afford something better, they should consider buying it. Incorrect

If one can afford something better, you should consider buying it. Incorrect

If one can afford something better, he/she should consider buying it. Correct

If one can consider something better, one should consider buying it. Correct

One should always keep their promises. Incorrect

One should always keep your promises. Incorrect

One should always keep his/her promises. Correct

One should always keep one's promises. Correct

If you know the best way, he/she should always follow it. Incorrect

If you know the best way, they should always follow it. Incorrect

If you know the best way, you should always follow it. Correct

You can never achieve success if they don't work hard regularly. Incorrect

You can never achieve success if he/she don't work hard regularly. Incorrect

You can never achieve success if you don't work hard regularly. Correct

You should always believe in himself/herself. Incorrect

You should always believe in themselves. Incorrect

You should always believe in yourselves. Correct



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