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PARTS OF SPEECH AND BASIC GRAMMAR POINTERS

I. The name word

Basically, a noun is a word used for naming a person, an animal, a place, a thing, or an idea.

KINDS OF NOUNS

There are two main classes of nouns: the proper nouns and the common nouns.

A **Proper Noun** names a particular person, place, or thing. It is used when the speaker is talking about somebody, something or someplace specific. The first letter of a proper noun must be capitalized.

A **Common Noun** does not denote anybody, anyplace or anything in particular. It refers to anyone belonging to a class of persons, place, and things. Its first letter is not capitalized, except when the common noun is found at the beginning of a sentence.

Proper Nouns	Common Nouns
Rosella Ruiz	lady
Makati	city
Mt. Mayon	volcanoes

"A noun is the name of a person, place, thing, or idea. Whatever exists, we assume, can be named and that name is a noun."¹

Proper nouns are capitalized. Common nouns are not. Notice, too, that the noun *Makati* refers to a particular place whereas the noun *city* can mean Quezon City, Naga City, Cebu City, and even Makati City and all other places that belong to this category.

There are other kinds of nouns. There's what we call collective nouns and abstract nouns. They usually belong to common nouns.

A **Collective Noun** refers to a collectivity or a group of persons, animals, or things that are counted or deemed as one. Collective nouns are singular when we think of it as a group and plural when we think of

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the individuals acting within the whole (which happens sometimes, but not often). Following are some collective nouns.¹

audience	crowd	group	kind	team
band	dozen	heap	lot	[the] number
class	family	herd	staff	
committee	flock	jury	public	

An **Abstract Noun** denotes an intangible idea. It names a condition or a concept. Anything that names a quality is an abstract noun. Some abstract nouns may be formed by adding suffixes like *-ty*, *-ness*, *-hood*, *-ship*, *-ment*, *-ion*, *-ure*, and *-ity*. The following are some of collective nouns:

contentment loyalty friendship brotherhood

MODIFICATIONS OR QUALITIES OF NOUNS

Person. A noun may indicate the speaker, the one spoken to, or the one spoken about. A noun may be in the first, second, or third person. It is in the:

First Person	when it denotes the speaker Ex: I, your <u>friend</u> , would like to help you.
Second Person	when it denotes the one spoken to Ex: <u>Ladies</u> , lend me your ears.
Third Person	when it denotes the one spoken about Ex: I admire that <u>girl</u> for her generosity.

¹ These examples have been taken from *Guide to Grammar and Writing*. Capital Community College. 4 April 2004 <www.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/>.

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Number. A noun maybe singular or plural. A noun is:

Singular	when it refers to only one person, animal, thing, or place. Ex: The <u>child</u> left her <u>pet</u> tied with a <u>ribbon</u> to a <u>tree</u> in the <u>park</u> .
Plural	when it refers to more than one of them. Ex: The <u>boys</u> fed the <u>chickens</u> corn from the farm.

FOR THE RULES ON FORMING NOUN PLURALS, REFER TO APPENDIX A.

Gender. A noun may be masculine, feminine and neuter.

Masculine	masculine nouns denote the male sex. Ex: brother-in-law, uncle, bull
Feminine	feminine nouns denote the female sex. Ex: sister-in-law, aunt, cow
Neuter	neuter nouns denote objects that do not have sex. Ex: rice, bowl, table

Note: A noun that may be taken as masculine or feminine is considered masculine.
Ex: relative, children

The gender of somebody or something may be indicated in three ways:

- | | |
|----------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Use a different word | M: father
F: mother |
| 2. Use a different ending | M: host
F: hostess |
| 3. Change part of the word | M: chairman
F: chairwoman |

Uses of nouns in the Nominative Case:

1. Subject
2. Predicate Nominative or Subjective Complement
3. Address
4. Nominative in Apposition
5. Nominative of Exclamation

Case. A noun has a quality that denotes its relation to other words in a sentence. There are three cases: nominative, possessive and objective.

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1. Nominative Case

A noun may be used² differently in different sentences. The following uses are unique to nouns in the nominative case. Nouns used in the following ways are in the nominative case. A noun may be used as a:

- **Subject**, when it is what is being talked about or when it does the action in the sentence.
Your enthusiastic applause blew me over.
- **Predicate Nominative³ or Subjective Complement⁴**, when it is used to say something about the subject.
My sister is God's gift to our family.
- **Address**, when it is directly addressed (talked to) in the sentence.
My dear countrymen, let us unite in love.

An **appositive** follows a noun or a pronoun and explains its meaning. It may be *nonrestrictive* or *restrictive*.

An appositive is nonrestrictive if it is merely added information; that is, the sentence would still be complete without the appositive. If this is the case, the appositive is separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

An appositive is restrictive if it is necessary in order that we might know the exact person being referred to. When the appositive is restrictive, one must not separate it with commas from the rest of the sentence.

A nominative in apposition is in the same case as the noun it explains.

- **Nominative in Apposition**, when it denotes the same person, place, or thing as the noun being explained.

Lorna, my sister, fetches me from school everyday.

Note: Notice that the noun *sister* in the above sentence follows and explains *Lorna*, and that it is nonrestrictive. Also notice that *sister* is in the nominative case, same as the noun that is being explained.

That girl is my cousin Paula.

Note: Notice that *Paula* in this sentence follows and explains *cousin*, and that it is not separated by a comma from the rest of the sentence because it is restrictive. *Paula* is restrictive because it is

² The use or a word is what we call its Syntax.

³ A predicate is a word that completes the sentence. It is not only nouns that can be predicates.

⁴ A subjective complement is linked to the subject by linking verbs (all forms of *be*, as well as verbs like *become, seem, appear, sound, look, feel, taste*) and gives another name to the subject.

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necessary for us to know exactly to whom we are referring to. Putting a comma after cousin would indicate that Paula is the speaker's only cousin. Furthermore, *cousin* explains the noun *girl* while *Paula* explains the noun *cousin*. Thus, *Paula* has the same case as the noun it explains, *cousin*.

- **Nominative or Exclamation**, when it is used independently to express a strong emotion.
Love! Oh what a wonderful word love is.

2. Possessive Case

A noun may indicate ownership, possession or connection to another word in the sentence.

FOR RULES ON FORMING THE POSSESSIVE CASE OF NOUNS, REFER TO APPENDIX B

3. Objective Case

A noun is in the objective case when it has the following uses:

- **Direct Object**, when it is used as the receiver of the action indicated by the verb.
Lisa gave free meals.
- **Object of a Preposition**, when it is what the preposition in the sentence refers to. It usually follows the preposition.
Gina made tea in the kitchen.
- **Objective in Apposition**, when the noun is used as an appositive of (explains or specifies) a noun that is in the objective case, then that noun is in the objective case as well, functioning as an objective in apposition.
The audience crowded around the singer Lea Salonga.
- **Indirect Object**, when a noun refers to whom or for whom an action is done. In other words, it receives whatever is named by the direct object. It



Uses of nouns in the objective case:

1. Direct Object
2. Object of a Preposition
3. Objective in Apposition
4. Indirect Object
5. Adverbial Object
6. Retained Object
7. Objective Complement
8. Cognate Object



Some verbs which may take both a direct and indirect object:

assign	get	pardon	send
bring	give	pay	show
buy	grant	promise	sing
deny	hand	read	teach
do	lend	refuse	tell
forbid	offer	remit	wish
forgive	owe	sell	write

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is usually found between the verb and the direct object.

Cindy brought her nephew a present.

- **Adverbial Objective**, when a noun is used as an adverb—the part of speech that tells us when, where, why, how much, how far and how long.
The rope stretched ten yards.
- **Retained Object**, when the verb changes from active to passive but retains its direct object.
Active: The librarian lent the boy the books.
Passive: The boy was lent the books by the librarian.
- **Objective Complement**, when a noun is used to explain the direct object and complete the meaning of the verb.
I choose the artist Rogel.

Some verbs that may take objective complements:

Appoint	consider	choose	name
Call	declare	make	elect

Note: The above verbs were taken from Rev. Paul E. Campbell's and Sis. Mary Donatus Macnickle's Voyages in English 7. USA: Loyola University Press

- **Cognate Object**, when a noun that repeats the meaning implied by the verb is a direct object.
We ran an exhilarating run.

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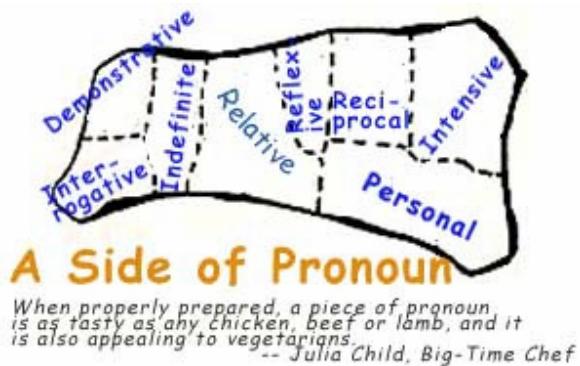
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II. The Sub

Pronouns are words that take the place of nouns. Most pronouns have an antecedent, or a noun that has already been specified previously, though some have no antecedent (e.g. everyone). These words take away the monotony of repeating the nouns over and over again.



KINDS OF PRONOUNS

Personal Pronouns are pronouns that replace persons or things.

Case	First Person Nominative	Singular I	Plural we
Possessive	my*, mine	our*	
Objective	me	us	
Second Person			
Nominative	you	you	
Possessive	your*, yours	your*, yours	
Objective	you	you	
Third Person			
Nominative	he, she, it	they	
Possessive	his*, her*, hers, its	their*, theirs	
Objective	him, her, it	them	

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Note: Verbs listed in the box above were taken from Rev. Paul E. Campbell's and Sis. Mary Donatus Macnickle's Voyages in English 7. USA: Loyola University Press. Those marked with an asterisk are only included for the sake of completeness.

Compound Personal Pronouns are formed by adding the suffixes *-self* or *-selves* to certain personal pronouns.

Forms of the Compound Personal Pronouns

	Singular	Plural
First Person	myself	ourselves
Second Person	yourself	yourselves
Third Person	himself, herself, itself	themselves

Types of Compound Personal Pronouns

- Intensive Pronoun
 - An intensive pronoun is used to give emphasis to the noun or pronoun that it replaces or refers to.
 - She herself must put things to right.
 - The members themselves are to blame.
- Reflexive Pronoun
 - A reflexive pronoun is used to indicate that the subject of the sentence also receives the action of the verb. That is, the Subject is also the Object.
 - I bathed myself.
 - You must love yourself.

Note that:

- When pronouns are combined, the reflexive will take the first person
 - Greg, Rita and I gave ourselves a pat on the back.*
- But when there is no first person, the reflexive will take the second person.
 - You and Rose injured yourselves.*
- The indefinite pronoun *one* has its own reflexive form but the other indefinite pronouns don't.

Interrogative Pronouns introduce questions. They are used to ask questions. There are three interrogative pronouns: who, which and what. They are used in Direct and Indirect Questions.

Direct Questions

- Who did this?
Which dress do you like?
What kind of work is that?

Indirect Questions

- My friend asked *who* did this.
Beatrice asked *which* dress you like.
The boss wondered *what* kind of work that is.

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Interrogative pronouns also sometimes act as **Determiners** or words which mark a noun. If interrogative pronouns are used this way, you'll know that they will be followed by a noun. In this sense, they act like adjectives.

Which car did you want?

What mood is he in?

Relative Pronouns—who, which, what, and that—relate groups of words to nouns or other pronouns. Relative pronouns function as conjunctions by joining to its antecedent the subordinate clause of which it is a part.

The student who studies hardest usually becomes the best in his class.

Forms of the Who		
Singular Plural		
Nominative	who	who
Possessive	whose	whose
Objective	whom	whom

Compound Relative Pronouns are formed by adding the suffix **-ever** or **-soever** to who, whom, which and what.

Do whatever you have to do. (Do the things which you have to do.)

Whosoever wishes to continue must do so. (The one who wishes to continue must do so.)

Adjective Pronouns are pronouns that may also be used as adjectives. They modify the noun that follows them.

Pronouns	Adjective Pronoun
<u>These</u> are cute.	<u>These</u> puppies are cute.
<u>Many</u> were angry.	<u>Many</u> people were angry.
<u>Each</u> may choose a gift.	<u>Each</u> child may choose a gift.

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Types of Adjective Pronouns																										
Demonstrative Pronouns	pronouns that identify or point to a definite person, place or thing. They are this, that, these, and those . Ex: <i>This</i> is my pet dog. <i>These</i> are the eggs I bought. <i>That</i> is my uncle. <i>Those</i> are my friends. <i>This</i> and <i>that</i> are used for objects near at hand. <i>That</i> and <i>those</i> are used to point at objects far from the speaker.																									
Indefinite Pronouns	pronouns that point out no particular person, place or thing. That is, they do not act as substitutes to specific nouns but stand as nouns themselves. <i>Commonly Used Indefinite Pronouns</i> <table><tbody><tr><td>all</td><td>everyone</td><td>one</td></tr><tr><td>another</td><td>everything</td><td>same</td></tr><tr><td>any</td><td>few</td><td>several</td></tr><tr><td>anybody</td><td>many</td><td>some</td></tr><tr><td>anyone</td><td>much</td><td>somebody</td></tr><tr><td>anything</td><td>no one</td><td>someone</td></tr><tr><td>both</td><td>nobody</td><td>something</td></tr><tr><td>everybody</td><td>none</td><td>such</td></tr></tbody></table>		all	everyone	one	another	everything	same	any	few	several	anybody	many	some	anyone	much	somebody	anything	no one	someone	both	nobody	something	everybody	none	such
all	everyone	one																								
another	everything	same																								
any	few	several																								
anybody	many	some																								
anyone	much	somebody																								
anything	no one	someone																								
both	nobody	something																								
everybody	none	such																								
Distributive Pronouns	pronouns that refer to each person, place or thing separately. They are each, either, and neither . Ex: <i>Each</i> has made his choice. <i>Either</i> will do. <i>Neither</i> is satisfactory.																									
Possessive Pronouns	pronouns used to denote possession or ownership by the speaker, the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken about. <i>Independent Possessives</i> are possessive pronouns that may be used alone to take the place of nouns. They are <i>mine, ours, yours, hers, its, and theirs</i> .																									

CASE OF PRONOUNS

Nominative Case. Pronouns used in the following ways are in the nominative case

1. Subject of a Verb

She and I arrived safely. Do not use *me* which is in the objective case since the pronoun is the subject.

2. Predicate Nominative / Subjective Complement

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It was he. Do not use *him* which is in the objective case since the pronoun is used as a predicate nominative.

Objective Case. Pronouns used in the following ways are in the objective case

1. Direct Object

Mother loves us. Do not use *we* which is in the subjective case since the pronoun here is used as a direct object of the verb *loves*.

2. Indirect Object

James promised her a cake. Do not use *she* which is in the nominative case since the pronoun here is used as an indirect object of the verb *promised*.

3. Object of a Preposition

I received a package from them. Do not use *they* which is in the nominative case since the pronoun here is used as an object of the preposition *from*.

CORRECT USE OF PRONOUNS

1. Pronouns used after the conjunctions **than** and **as** should be of the same case as the word with which it is compared.

Lorna is as intelligent as he.

He is compared to Lorna, which is in the nominative case. Thus, *he* must be used which is in the nominative case.

He has worked harder than they.

They is compared to *He*, which is in the nominative case. Thus, *they* should be used so that it may conform to the case of the pronoun it is compared with.

We like Joseph better than him.

Him is compared to *Joseph*, which is a direct object and is thus in the objective case. Therefore, *him* which is in the objective case as well should be used.

2. The interrogative pronoun **who** is used when the sentence requires a pronoun in the nominative case.

Whom is used when the sentence requires a pronoun to be in the objective case.

Who arrived safely?

The pronoun stands for the subject of the verb in this sentence. A pronoun used as a subject is in the nominative case. Therefore, the correct interrogative pronoun is *who*, which is in the nominative case.

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To whom do you send your love?

The pronoun underlined was used as an object of the preposition *to*. Remember that the object of a preposition should be in the objective case. Therefore, *whom* must be used instead of *who*.

Whom have you talked to?

The pronoun underlined was used as an object of the preposition *to*.

3. The relative pronoun **who** is used when the pronoun is the subject of a verb. **Whom** is used when the pronoun is the object of a verb or a preposition.

I have seen Larry who won the game for the school.

Remember that a relative pronoun's case depends on the way the pronoun is used in the subordinate clause. In this instance, the pronoun is used as the subject of the verb *won* in the subordinate clause. Thus, the pronoun used must be in the nominative case.

The guy whom we have invited did not come.

The pronoun in this instance is used as an object of the verb *have invited*. Thus, the pronoun must be in the objective case.

The man for whom she has dressed up has arrived.

The pronoun in this instance is used as an object of the preposition *for*. Thus, it is necessary that the pronoun be in the objective case.

4. A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in person, number, and gender.

A pronoun must have the same person (whether it be first, second, or third person) as the noun or pronoun it refers to. It must also be singular or plural, depending on whether the antecedent is singular or plural. Then the pronoun must be masculine, feminine, or neuter depending on whether the antecedent is feminine, masculine, or neuter.

I am grooming myself for the ball.

antecedent = *I* which is singular and in the first person

pronoun = *myself* which is singular and in the first person

Sheila hugged her father.

antecedent = *Sheila* which is feminine, singular, and in the first person

pronoun = *her* which is feminine, singular, and in the first person

5. If the distributive pronouns *each*, *either*, and *neither*, as well as the indefinite pronouns *one*, *anyone*, *no one*, *nobody*, *anybody*, *everyone*, *everybody*, *someone*, and *somebody* are used as the antecedents (or the word referred to), the pronouns referring to them must be **singular**.

Everyone must bring his date.

6. If the indefinite pronouns like *all*, *both*, *few*, *many*, *several*, and *some* which are generally plural are used as antecedents, the pronouns used after should also be plural.

All were afraid of their teachers.

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7. Compound personal pronouns also agree with their antecedents in person, number, and gender.

Intensive The teacher himself gave her money.

Reflexive The teacher made herself give the money away.

8. When a sentence contains a negative, such as *not* or *never*, use *anything* to express a negation. Use *nothing* only if the sentence does not contain a negative already.

I can't do anything. Using *anything* makes the sentence mean that the speaker cannot do anything. Using *nothing* instead of *anything* would make the sentence mean that the speaker can indeed do something.

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III. The descriptors

Adjectives are words that describe or modify another person or thing in the sentence. Adjectives describe or modify either nouns or pronouns.

CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES

Descriptive Adjectives. If there are proper and common nouns, there are also proper and common adjectives. Following are examples:

Proper	Common
Victorian gown	frilly gown
Spanish bread	delicious bread



A **descriptive adjective** is an adjective that **describes** a noun or a pronoun.

A **proper adjective** is an adjective that is **formed from a proper noun**.

A **common adjective** is an adjective that **expresses the ordinary qualities** of a noun or a pronoun.

Limiting Adjectives. The other class of adjectives is what we call the limiting adjectives. We further classify these adjectives into any of the following:

Numerical Adjectives

five ducks
ten fingers

Pronominal Adjectives

either cat
that bag

Articles

the song
a memory
an undertaker

A **limiting adjective** is an adjective that either **points out an object or denotes a number**.

A **numerical adjective** is an adjective that **denotes exact number**.

A **pronominal adjective** is an adjective that **may also be used as a pronoun**. Refer to the section on adjective pronouns for some examples.

Articles like *the*, *a*, and *an* are also limiting adjectives because they **denote whether a noun is definite or indefinite**.

Rule of thumb: If pronouns modify nouns, then they are considered as adjectives at that moment. Thus aside from the known adjective pronouns, interrogative pronouns that point to a noun or a pronoun are also considered as pronominal adjectives. Example:

Which girl did you say he liked?

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What mood is he in?

Whose turtle won the race?

POSITION OF ADJECTIVES

- Adjectives nearly always appear immediately before the noun or noun phrase that they modify.
considerable efforts
huge appetite
- Sometimes they appear in a string of adjectives, and when they do, they appear in a set order according to category. The following list and table show the usual order of adjectives when they appear in a string. There are exceptions, of course but this is the usual rule.
 - I. **Determiners** — articles and other limiters.
 - II. **Observation** — postdeterminers and limiter adjectives (e.g., a real hero, a perfect idiot) and adjectives subject to subjective measure (e.g., beautiful, interesting)
 - III. **Size and Shape** — adjectives subject to objective measure (e.g., wealthy, large, round)
 - IV. **Age** — adjectives denoting age (e.g., young, old, new, ancient)
 - V. **Color** — adjectives denoting color (e.g., red, black, pale)
 - VI. **Origin** — denominal adjectives denoting source of noun (e.g., French, American, Canadian)
 - VII. **Material** — denominal adjectives denoting what something is made of (e.g., woolen, metallic, wooden)
 - VIII. **Qualifier** — final limiter, often regarded as part of the noun (e.g., rocking chair, hunting cabin, passenger car, book cover)

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THE ROYAL ORDER OF ADJECTIVES										
Determiner	Observation	Size	Physical Description	Shape	Age	Color	Origin	Material	Qualifier	Noun
a	beautiful			long-stemmed	old	red	Italian	silver	touring	car
an	expensive			short	antique	black		silk		mirror
four	gorgeous			square			English			roses
her		big			old					hair
our						black				sheepdog
those	dilapidated	little			young		American	wooden	hat	boxes
that		enormous					Thai		hunting	cabin
several									basketball	players
some	delicious									food

Source: *Guide to Grammar and Writing*. Capital Community College. 4 April 2004 <www.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/>.

- When indefinite pronouns — such as something, someone, anybody — are modified by an adjective, the adjective comes after the pronoun:

Anyone capable of doing something horrible to someone nice should be punished.

Something wicked is coming our way.

- And there are certain adjectives that, in combination with certain words, are always “postpositive” or always come after the noun or pronoun they modify.

The president elect, heir apparent to the Glitz fortune, lives in New York proper.

- There are also adjectives that usually come after the linking verb and are thus called predicate adjectives. a-adjectives or adjectives that begin with the letter *a* are usually found after the linking verb and thus show up as predicate adjectives. The following are some common a-adjectives.

ablaze	alert	aloof	awake
afloat	alike	ashamed	aware
afraid	alive	asleep	
aghast	alone	averse	

Examples of Usage:

The children were *ashamed*.

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The professor remained *aloof*.

The trees were *ablaze*.

- Occasionally, however, you will find a-adjectives before the word they modify:
the *alert* patient
the *aloof* physician
- Most of them, when found before the word they modify, are themselves modified:
the nearly *awake* student
the terribly *alone* scholar
- And a-adjectives are sometimes modified by "very much":
very much *afraid*
very much *alone*
very much *ashamed*

Basic rules in the position of adjectives in a sentence:

1. The usual position of adjectives is before the noun. They are called *attributive adjectives* if they follow this rule.
Ex: The *humble* boy gave his thanks.
2. There are adjectives that follow a linking verb, completing the thought expressed. These adjectives show up as predicate adjectives.
Ex. The boy was *cold* and *afraid*.
3. An adjective may follow the direct object and at the same time complete the thought expressed by the transitive verb. These adjectives show up as objective complements.
Ex: We consider that work *excellent*.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

The Correct Use of the Positive, Comparative and Superlative Degrees

Adjectives can express different degrees of modification.

Gladys is a *rich* woman, but Josie is *richer* than Gladys, and Sadie is the *richest* woman in town.

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The degrees of comparison are known as the positive, the comparative, and the superlative.

Positive	denotes the quality of noun or pronoun. There's no comparison here. Ex: <i>sad girl</i>
Comparative	denotes the quality in a <i>greater</i> or <i>lesser</i> degree. Ex: <i>sadder girl</i>
Superlative	denotes the quality in the <i>greatest</i> or <i>least</i> degree. Ex: <i>saddest girl</i>

We use the comparative for comparing two things and the superlative for comparing three or more things. Notice that the word *than* frequently accompanies the comparative and the word *the* precedes the superlative. The inflected suffixes *-er* and *-est* suffice to form most comparatives and superlatives, although we need *-ier* and *-iest* when a two-syllable adjective ends in y (happier and happiest). When *-er*, *-est*, *-ier*, and *-iest* are not suitable, we use *more* and *most*, or *less* and *least* when an adjective has more than one syllable.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
wide	wider	widest
lovely	lovelier	loveliest
gorgeous	more gorgeous	most gorgeous
handsome	less handsome	least handsome

Some adjectives are irregular when it comes to forming the comparative and the superlative. These are the most frequently used:

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
little	less	least
bad, ill, evil	worse	worst
good	better	best
many, much	more	most
late	later, latter	latest, last
far	farther	farthest
fore	former	foremost, first
old	older, elder	oldest, eldest
near	nearer	nearest, next
	further	furthest

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inner	innermost, inmost
outer	outermost, outmost
upper	uppermost, upmost

Note: The positive for further, inner, outer, and upper do not exist that's why they are blank.

Some adjectives do not take to comparison.

absolute	ideal	perpetual
adequate	impossible	preferable
chief	inevitable	principal
dead	main	stationary
devoid	manifest	sufficient
entire	minor	supreme
eternal	paramount	unanimous
fatal	perpendicular	unbroken
final		universal

Both adverbs and adjectives in their comparative and superlative forms can be accompanied by **premodifiers**, single words and phrases that intensify the degree.

We were a lot more careful this time.

He works a lot less carefully than the other jeweler in town.

We like his work so much better.

You'll get your watch back all the faster.

The same process can be used to downplay the degree:

The weather this week has been somewhat better.

He approaches his schoolwork a little less industriously than his brother does.

And sometimes a set phrase, usually an informal noun phrase, is used for this purpose:

He arrived a whole lot sooner than we expected.

That's a heck of a lot better.

If the intensifier *very* accompanies the superlative, a **determiner** is also required:

She is wearing her very finest outfit for the interview.

They're doing the very best they can.

Occasionally, the comparative or superlative form appears with a determiner and the thing being modified is understood:

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Of all the wines produced in Connecticut, I like this one the most.

The quicker you finish this project, the better.

Of the two brothers, he is by far the faster.

The Correct Use of Fewer and Less⁵

When making a comparison between quantities we often have to make a choice between the words *fewer* and *less*. Generally, when we're talking about countable things, we use the word *fewer*; when we're talking about measurable quantities that we cannot count, we use the word *less*.

She had fewer chores, but she also had less energy.

We do, however, definitely use *less* when referring to statistical or numerical expressions. In these situations, it's possible to regard the quantities as *sums* of countable measures.

It's less than twenty kilometers to the city.

The shark's less than 10 feet long.

Your essay should be a thousand words or less.

We spent less than a thousand pesos on our excursion.

The Proper Use of Than⁶

When making a comparison with *than*, do we end with a subject form or object form? Which of the following expressions are correct?

- a. I am taller than she.
- b. I am taller than her.

The correct response is letter a, *taller than she*. We are properly looking for the subject form though we leave out the verb in the second clause, *is*.

We also want to be careful in a sentence such as "I like him better than she/her." The *she* would mean that you like this person better than she likes him; the *her* would mean that you like this male person better than you like that female person. To avoid ambiguity and the slippery use of *than*, we could write, "I like him better than she does" or "I like him better than I like her."

⁵ Guide to Grammar and Writing. Capital Community College. 4 April 2004 <www.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/>.

⁶ Ibid.

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TRICKY ADJECTIVES

The Correct Use of Good and Well⁷

In both casual speech and formal writing, we frequently have to choose between the adjective *good* and the adverb *well*. With most verbs, there is no contest: when modifying a verb, use the adverb.

He swims well.

He knows only too well who the murderer is.

However, when using a linking verb or a verb that has to do with the five human senses, you want to use the adjective instead.

How are you? I'm feeling good, thank you.

After a bath, the baby smells so good.

Even after my careful paint job, this room doesn't look good.

Many careful writers, however, will use *well* after linking verbs relating to health, and this is perfectly all right. In fact, to say that you are *good* or that you feel *good* usually implies not only that you're OK physically but also that your spirits are high.

"How are you?"

"I am well, thank you."

The Proper Use of Bad and Badly

When your cat died (assuming you loved your cat), did you feel *bad* or *badly*? Applying the same rule that applies to *good* versus *well*, use the adjective form after verbs that have to do with human feelings. You felt *bad*. If you said you felt *badly*, it would mean that something was wrong with your faculties for feeling.

Repetition of the Article

Analyze the meaning of the following sentences.

The chairman and president of the company walked into the meeting.

The chairman and the president of the company walked into the meeting.

The first sentence (where the article *the* is used only before the first noun) indicates that one person is both chairman and president of the company. The second sentence (where the article *the* is used before each noun) indicates that the chairman and the president are two different individuals.

⁷ Guide to Grammar and Writing. Capital Community College. 4 April 2004 <www.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/>.

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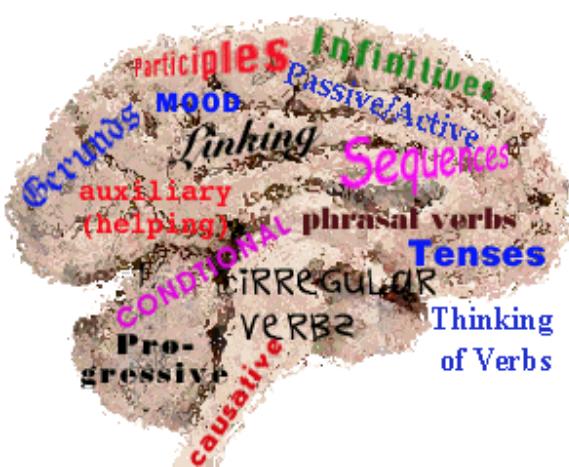
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IV. The action words



Verbs carry the idea of being or action in the sentence.

I *am* a student.

The students *passed* all their courses.

Verb Phrases are groups of word used to do the work of a single verb.

He could have gone abroad.

She is called the "Ice Lady".

Verb Phrases can be divided into two major components: the **principal verb** and the **auxiliary verb**.

The **principal verb** is the main verb in the verb phrase. In the above underlined examples, the main verbs are *gone* and *called*.

The **auxiliary Verb** is the helping verb; that which is used with the main verb to form its voice, mood and tense. Again in the above examples, the helping verbs are *could have* and *is*.

Following are examples of auxiliary verbs⁸:

be	are	do	has	will	might
am	was	did	had	may	could
is	were	have	shall	can	would

KINDS OF VERBS ACCORDING TO FORM

The principal parts of the verb are the present, the past, the present participle and the past participle.

⁸ Rev. Paul E. Campbell's and Sis. Mary Donatus Macnickle's *Voyages in English 7*. USA: Loyola University Press.
English I

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Name of verb	Present	Past form	Past participle
to work	I can work . I work .	I worked .	I have worked .
to write	I can write . I write .	I wrote .	I have written

Source: *Guide to Grammar and Writing*. Capital Community College. 4 April 2004 <www.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/>.

According to the manner by which their principal parts are formed, verbs may be regular, irregular, or defective.

Regular Verbs are verbs that form their past tense and their past participle by adding **d** or **ed** to the present tense.

Present	Past	Past Participle (these require helping verbs)
pull	pulled	pulled
create	created	created
greet	greeted	greeted

- Regular Verbs
- Irregular Verbs
- Defective Verbs

Irregular Verbs are verbs that do not form their past tense and their past participle by simply adding **d** or **ed** to the present form.

Present	Past	Past Participle (these require helping verbs)
grow	grew	grown
drink	drank	drunk
hear	heard	heard
wring	wrong	wrong
cut	cut	cut
go	went	gone

FOR MORE EXAMPLES OF IRREGULAR VERBS, REFER TO APPENDIX C

Defective Verbs are verbs that do not have all the principal parts.

Present	Past	Past Participle
beware	_____	_____
can	could	_____
may	might	_____

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must	must	_____
ought	ought	_____
shall	should	_____
will	would	_____

KINDS OF VERBS ACCORDING TO USE

Transitive Verbs are verbs that express action which passes from a doer to a receiver.

Doer	Action	Receiver
I	saw	you.
The monkey	bit	the zookeeper.

In some cases, the sentence is configured a different way.

Active voice: She greeted her neighbor.

Passive voice: Her neighbor was greeted by Sheila.

In the first case, the verb form is *greeted*. In the second case, the verb form is *was greeted*. In both cases, however, the verb is transitive because the action passes from a doer to a receiver.

Intransitive Verbs are verbs that have no receiver of their action.

Doer	Action	Receiver
The dog	whined
She	sat

Without a receiver, the above sentences are still complete. Unlike transitive verbs, however, intransitive verbs are always in the active voice since there is no receiver to start a sentence in a passive voice with.

Verbs become transitive and intransitive according to their use in the sentence.

She *gave* alms to the poor. (Transitive)

She regularly *gave* to the poor. (Intransitive)

Cognate Verbs are verbs whose object repeats the meaning implied by the verb itself. They are usually intransitive verbs used transitively. Cognate means related.

She <i>cried</i> buckets of <i>tears</i> .	Cognate verb: cried	object: tears
Lydia de Vega <i>ran</i> a brilliant <i>race</i> .	ran	race

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Linking Verbs connect a subject and its complement. Sometimes called *copulas*, linking verbs are often forms of the verb *to be*, but are sometimes verbs related to the five senses (*look, sound, smell, feel, taste*) and sometimes verbs that somehow reflect a state of being (*appear, continue, seem, become, grow, turn, prove, remain*). Their main function is linking or coupling the subject with a noun, a pronoun, or an adjective.

FOR MORE ON THE VERB TO BE, REFER TO APPENDIX D

A **subjective complement** is a word or a group of words used to complete the meaning of a linking verb. If the subjective complement is a noun or a pronoun, it is called a **predicate nominative**. If the subjective complement is an adjective, it is called a **predicate adjective**.

Subject	Linking Verb	Subjective Complement
Her dress	looked	stunning. (Predicate Adjective)
That gentleman	is	the king. (Predicate Nominative)

A handful of verbs that reflect a change in the state of being, are sometimes called **resulting copulas**. They, too, link a subject to a predicate adjective⁹:

His face *turned* purple.
She *became* older.
The dogs *ran* wild.
The milk *has gone* sour.
The crowd *grew* ugly.



"Hello? This is he."

A frequently asked question about linking verbs concerns the correct response when you pick up the phone and someone asks for you. One correct response would be "This is he [she]." The predicate following the linking verb should be in the nominative (subject) form — definitely *not* "This is him." If "This is he" sounds stuffy to you, try using "Speaking," instead, or "This is Fred," substituting your own name for Fred's — unless it's a bill collector or telemarketer calling, in which case "This is Fred" is a good response for everyone except people named Fred. ☺

⁹ Guide to Grammar and Writing. Capital Community College. 4 April 2004 <www.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/>.

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THE VOICE OF A VERB

Voice is that quality of a verb that indicates whether the subject is the doer or receiver of the action of the verb. Remember that only transitive verbs may be used in the passive voice. Intransitive verbs have no receivers (object) of the action. Verbs are also said to be either *active* or *passive* in voice.

Active Voice denotes the subject as the doer of the action. In the active voice, the subject and verb relationship is straightforward: the subject is a *be-er* or a *do-er* and the verb moves the sentence along.

The President of the Philippines *signed* the new bill into law.

Subject and Doer

The professor *scolded* the class for an hour.

Subject and Doer

Passive Voice denotes the subject as the receiver of the action. In the passive voice, the subject of the sentence is neither a *do-er* or a *be-er*, but is acted upon by some other agent or by something unnamed (when it is, it is usually named by an object of the preposition).

The new bill *was* finally *signed* into law.

Subject and Receiver

The class *was* *scolded* for an hour.

Subject and Receiver

Statements and sentences in the passive voice abound. Notice that when you use it yourself when using a computer, the grammar check usually tells you to change it to the active voice.

There is nothing inherently wrong with the passive voice, but if you can say the same thing in the active mode, do so.

The passive voice does exist for a reason, however, and its presence is not always to be despised. The passive is particularly useful (even recommended) in two situations:

- *When it is more important to draw our attention to the person or thing acted upon:* The unidentified victim was apparently struck during the early morning hours.
- *When the actor in the situation is not important:* The aurora borealis can be observed in the early morning hours.

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FOR RULES ON PASSIVE VERB FORMATION, REFER TO APPENDIX E

THE VERB TENSE

Tense is the quality of a verb which denotes the time of the action, the being, or the state of being.¹⁰

Simple Tenses	
Present Tense	signifies action, being, or state of being in present time
Past Tense	signifies action, being, or state of being in past time
Future Tense	signifies action, being, or state of being in future time
Compound Tenses	
Present Perfect Tense	signifies action, being, or state of being completed or perfected in present time. This is formed by prefixing the auxiliary <i>have</i> or <i>has</i> to the past participle of the verb Ex: She has written the article.
Past Perfect Tense	signifies action, being, or state of being completed or perfected before some definite past time. This is formed by prefixing the auxiliary <i>had</i> to the past participle of the verb. Ex: She had written the article before I came.
Future Perfect Tense	signifies action, being, or state of being that will be completed or perfected before some specified time in the future. This is formed by prefixing the auxiliary <i>shall have</i> or <i>will have</i> to the past participle of the verb. Ex: She will have written the article before I come.

FOR THE SEQUENCE OF VERB TENSES, REFER TO APPENDIX F

THE MOOD OF THE VERB

Mood or Mode is that quality of a verb that denotes the manner in which the action, the being, or the state of being is expressed.¹¹

Indicative Mood. The indicative mood of the verb is used to make a statement, to deny a fact or ask a question.

¹⁰ Rev. Paul E. Campbell's and Sis. Mary Donatus Macnickle's *Voyages in English 7*. USA: Loyola University Press.

¹¹ Rev. Paul E. Campbell's and Sis. Mary Donatus Macnickle's *Voyages in English 7*. USA: Loyola University Press.

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The exam was easy.
I did not get the prize.
What happened?

The Potential Form of the Indicative Mood

This is used to express permission, possibility, ability, necessity and obligation. Thus, they are formed by using the auxiliary verbs **may, might, can, could, must, should** and **would**. These are called modals.

Permission	You may begin.
Possibility	It might be so. It could happen.
Ability	The Philippines can do it.
Necessity	We must get out of this economic slump.
Obligation	Filipinos should start thinking of the collective good for a change.

Imperative Mood. The imperative mood of the verb is used when we're feeling sort of bossy and want to give a directive, strong suggestion, or order:

Get your homework done before you watch television tonight.

Please include cash payment with your order form.

Get out of town!

Notice that there is no subject in these imperative sentences. The pronoun *you* (singular or plural, depending on context) is the "understood subject" in imperative sentences. Virtually all imperative sentences, then, have a second person (singular or plural) subject. The sole exception is the first person construction, which includes an objective form as subject: "Let's (or Let us) work on this thing together."

Subjunctive Mood. The subjunctive mood of the verb is used in dependent clauses that do the following:

- 1) express a wish;
- 2) begin with *if* and express a condition that does not exist (is contrary to fact);
- 3) begin with *as if* and *as though* when such clauses describe a speculation or condition contrary to fact; and
- 4) begin with *that* and express a demand, requirement, request, or suggestion.

She wishes her boyfriend were here.

If Juan were more aggressive, he'd be a better hockey player.

We would have passed if we had studied harder.

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He acted as if he were guilty.
I requested that he be present at the hearing.

Important: The words *if*, *as if*, or *as though* do not always signal the subjunctive mood. If the information in such a clause points out a condition that is or was probable or likely, the verb should be in the indicative mood. The indicative tells the reader that the information in the dependent clause could possibly be true.

The present tense of the subjunctive uses only the base form of the verb.

He demanded that his students *use* two-inch margins.
She suggested that we *be* on time tomorrow.

The past tense of the subjunctive has the same forms as the indicative except for the verb *to be*, which uses *were* regardless of the number of the subject.

If I *were* seven feet tall, I'd be a great basketball player.
He wishes he *were* a better student.
If you *were* rich, we wouldn't be in this mess.
If they *were* faster, we could have won that race.

THE PERSON AND NUMBER OF VERBS

A verb may be in the first, the second, or the third person, and either singular or plural in number.

	Singular Number	Plural Number
First Person	I speak the truth.	We speak the truth.
Second Person	You speak the truth.	You speak the truth.
Third Person	She speaks the truth. He speaks the truth.	They speak the truth.

SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT

The verb must always agree with its subject in person and number. Of course, there are exceptions, as in the case of the verb *be* in the subjunctive mode. In this case, the verb always takes the form of *were* regardless of the number of the subject. (See above for the discussion).

A singular subject requires a singular verb while a plural subject requires a plural verb.

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He likes the smell of wet grass. He is the singular subject; likes is the singular verb. The dancers dance so gracefully. dancers is plural thus the verb dance is plural, too.

The Proper Use of Doesn't and Don't

If the subject of the sentence is in the third person and singular, *doesn't* is the correct form of the verb. If the subject is in the first or second person, irregardless of the number, the correct form is *don't*.

The girl in the yellow shirt doesn't like Math.

The volunteers don't care about money.

I don't know what I will do.

The Proper Use of There is and There are

There is (or *There was* or *There has been*) should be used when the subject that follows the verb is singular.

There are (or *There were* or *There have been*) should be used when the subject is plural.

There is a lot to be done yet.

There are awards to be had and medals to be won.

The Proper Use of Here is and Here are

Here is (or *Here was* or *Here has been*) should be used when the subject that follows the verb is singular.

Here are (or *Here were* or *Here have been*) should be used when the subject is plural.

Here is food for everyone.

Here are drinks for us all.

The Proper Use of You as a Subject

When *You* is the subject, the plural conjugation of verbs (are, were, have, etc.) should always be used, whether the *You* is meant in the singular or plural sense.

You alone are the apple of my eye. (subject is singular)

You (children) are the pride of your school. (subject is plural)

Subject-Verb Agreement when there are Parenthetical Expressions

Sometimes modifiers will get between a subject and its verb, but these modifiers must not confuse the agreement between the subject and its verb.

The mayor, who has been convicted along with his four brothers on four counts of various crimes but who also seems, like a cat that has several political lives, is finally going to jail.

Take note only of the subject. If the subject is singular, the verb is singular. If the subject is plural, the verb is plural.

She alone among all my classmates commutes to school.

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Phrases such as *together with*, *as well as*, and *along with* are not the same as *and*. The phrase introduced by *as well as* or *along with* will modify the earlier word (*mayor* in this case), but it does not compound the subjects (as the word *and* would do).

The mayor as well as his brothers is going to prison.

The mayor and his brothers are going to jail.

Subject-Verb Agreement for Compounded Positive and Negative Subjects

If your sentence compounds a positive and a negative subject and one is plural, the other singular, the verb should agree with the positive subject.

The department members but not the chair have decided not to teach on Valentine's Day.

It is not the faculty members but the president who decides this issue.

It was the speaker, not his ideas, that has provoked the students to riot.

Subject-Verb Agreement for Compound Subjects Connected by *and*

Compound subjects connected by *and* require a plural verb unless the subjects refer to the same person or thing, or express a single idea.

The president and the chairman are now taking their seats.

The president and chairman is now taking his seat.

Subject-Verb Agreement for Compound Subjects Preceded by *each* and *every*

Two or more singular subjects connected by *and* but preceded by *each*, *every*, *many a*, or *no* require a singular verb.

Each man and woman was affected by the emotional speech.

Many a child dreams to be a star.

Subject-Verb Agreement for Compound Subjects Connected by *or* or *nor*

Singular subjects connected by *or* or *nor* requires a singular verb.

Neither Rowel nor Madonna wants to go first.

Plural subjects connected by *or* or *nor* require a plural verb.

My grandparents or my sisters are attending my graduation.

When two subjects of different person or number are connected by *or* or *nor*, the verb agrees with the subject nearest to it.

Joanna or her siblings are in the living room.

Neither my friends nor I am watching the late-night movie.

Subject-Verb Agreement for Collective Nouns

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A collective noun requires a singular verb if the idea being expressed by the subject is a single unit. It requires a plural verb if the idea expressed by the subject denotes separate individuals. Note, however, that a collective noun is usually thought of as a single unit, and thus, the verb that goes with it is usually singular.

A dozen is enough.

The audience were on their feet.

Subject-Verb Agreement for Distributive and Indefinite Pronouns

The distributive pronouns—each, either, neither—and the indefinite pronouns—everyone, anyone, nobody, somebody, everybody, someone, somebody—are always used with a singular verb.

Each of us here is determined to get into a good college.

Everyone here likes the thought of passing the UPCAT.

Some indefinite pronouns — such as *all, some* — are singular or plural depending on what they're referring to. (Is the thing referred to countable or not?) Be careful choosing a verb to accompany such pronouns.

Some of the beads are missing.

Some of the water is gone.

On the other hand, there is one indefinite pronoun, *none*, that can be either singular or plural; it often doesn't matter whether you use a singular or a plural verb — unless something else in the sentence determines its number. (Writers generally think of *none* as meaning *not any* and will choose a plural verb, as in "None of the engines are working," but when something else makes us regard *none* as meaning *not one*, we want a singular verb, as in "None of the food is fresh.")

None of you claims responsibility for this incident?

None of you claim responsibility for this incident?

None of the students have done their homework. (In this last example, the word *their* precludes the use of the singular verb.)

Subject-Verb Agreement for Special Singular and Plural Nouns

Sometimes nouns take weird forms and can fool us into thinking they're plural when they're really singular and vice-versa.

Some nouns are plural in form but are really singular in meaning. Some words like this are *aeronautics, athletics* (training), *civics, economics, mathematics, statistics, measles, molasses, mumps, news and physics*.

Mathematics is Liza's favorite subject.

On the other hand, some words ending in -s refer to a single thing but are nonetheless plural and require a plural verb.

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My assets were wiped out in the depression.

The average worker's earnings have gone up dramatically.

Our thanks go to the workers who supported the union.

Words such as *glasses*, *pants*, *pliers*, and *scissors* are regarded as plural (and require plural verbs) unless they're preceded by the phrase *pair of* (in which case the word pair becomes the subject).

My glasses were on the bed.

My pants were torn.

A pair of plaid trousers is in the closet.

The names of sports teams that do not end in "s" will take a plural verb:

The Miami Heat have been looking ...

The Connecticut Sun are hoping that new talent ...

Subject-Verb Agreement of Fractional Expressions, Sums and Products, More Than One

Fractional expressions such as *half of*, *a part of*, *a percentage of*, *a majority of* are sometimes singular and sometimes plural, depending on the meaning. They take the form of the noun they are modifying and thus are singular or plural when the noun modified is singular or plural, respectively. (The same is true, of course, when *all*, *any*, *more*, *most*, and *some* act as subjects.) Sums and products of mathematical processes are expressed as singular and require singular verbs. The expression *more than one* (oddly enough) takes a singular verb: "More than one student has tried this."

Some of the voters are still angry.

A large percentage of the older population is voting against her.

Two-fifths of the troops were lost in the battle.

Two-fifths of the vineyard was destroyed by fire.

Forty percent of the students are in favor of changing the policy.

Forty percent of the student body is in favor of changing the policy.

Two and two is four.

Four times four divided by two is eight.

Subject-Verb Agreement of Money

When the subject of the sentence is money expressed in currency, the verb should be singular.

A hundred pesos is not enough as a daily salary.

Five hundred dollars was all she was able to save.

USES OF SHALL AND WILL

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Shall and Will

In the future tense of verbs, we use *shall* in the first person and *will* in the second and third persons to express simple futurity or expectation.

If we wish to indicate an act of the will, promise or determination on the part of the speaker, we use *will* in the first person and *shall* in the second and third persons.

Expectation/Simple Futurity

I shall go to the gym tomorrow.
You will attend the party.
She will be waiting.

Determination/Promise

I will go to the gym tomorrow.
You shall attend the party.
She shall be waiting.

Should and Would

The same rule as applies on *shall* and *shall* applies to *should* and *would*. To indicate an expectation or simple futurity, use *should* in the first person and *would* in the second and third persons. To indicate determination on the part of the speaker, use *would* in the first person and *should* in the second and third persons.

Expectation/Simple Futurity

I should be glad to help you.
You would cover for me.
They would love the idea.

Determination/Promise

I would be glad to help you.
You should cover for me.
They should love the idea.

Should can mean "ought to". When meant this way, *should* is frequently used in all three persons.

The youth should love their country.

Would can be used to express a wish or customary action. When thus meant, *would* is used in all three persons.

I would often sit here alone and listen to the music.
Would that you could hear the music I listen to.

Shall and Will in Questions

Shall is always used to ask a question when the subject is in the first person. In the second and third persons whichever word is expected in the reply is used in asking the question.

Question

Shall we dance?
Will she do it?
Will you do it?
Shall Gina play with us?
Shall you play with us?

Expected Reply

We shall.
She will.
I will.
She shall.
We shall.

English I

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TROUBLESONE VERBS (AND THEIR PRINCIPAL PARTS)

■ Lie, lay, lain

This verb means to recline or to rest. It is always intransitive.

■ Lay, laid, laid

This verb means to put or place in position. It is always transitive.

■ Sit, sat, sat

This verb means to have or to keep a seat. It is always intransitive.

■ Set, set, set

This verb means to place or fix in position. It is always transitive.

■ Rise, rose, risen

This verb means to ascend. It is always intransitive.

■ Raise, raised, raised

This verb means to lift. It is always transitive.

■ Let, let, let

This verb means to permit or allow.

■ Leave, left, left

This verb means to abandon or depart from.

WORDS USED AS NOUNS AND VERBS

A noun is a name-word, and a verb generally expresses action or state of being. There are words, however, that can be a noun or a verb depending on the way it is used in the sentence.

She appeared in my dream. (dream used as a noun)

Jose would often dream of being a famous actor. (dream used as a verb)

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VERBALS

Verbals are words that seem to carry the idea of action or being but do not function as true verbs. They are sometimes called "nonfinite" (unfinished or incomplete) verbs. Verbals are frequently accompanied by other, related words in what is called a verbal phrase.

- **Participle:** a verb form acting as an adjective.

The running dog chased the fluttering moth.

A present participle (like running or fluttering) describes a present condition; a past participle describes something that has happened:

The completely rotted tooth finally fell out of his mouth.

The distinction can be important to the meaning of a sentence; there is a huge difference between a confusing student and a confused student.

- **Infinitive:** the root of a verb plus the word to.

To sleep, perchance to dream.

A present infinitive describes a present condition:

I like to sleep.

The perfect infinitive describes a time earlier than that of the verb:

I would like to have won that game.

The Split Infinitive

If there is one error in writing that your boss or history prof can and will pick up on, it's the notorious **split infinitive**. An infinitive is said to be "split" when a word (often an adverb) or phrase sneaks between the *to* of the infinitive and the root of the verb: "to boldly go," being the most famous of its kind. The argument against split infinitives (based on rather shaky historical grounds) is that the infinitive is a single unit and, therefore, should not be divided. Because it raises so many readers' hackles and is so easy to spot, good writers, at least in academic prose, avoid the split infinitive. Instead of writing "She expected her grandparents to not stay," then, we could write "She expected her grandparents not to stay." Sometimes, though, avoiding the split infinitive simply isn't worth the bother. There is nothing wrong, really, with a sentence such as the following:

He thinks he'll be able to more than double his salary this year.

The Oxford American Desk Dictionary, which came out in October of 1998, says that the rule against the split

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infinitive can generally be ignored, that the rule "is not firmly grounded, and treating two English words as one can lead to awkward, stilted sentences." ("To Boldly Go," *The Hartford Courant*. 15 Oct 1998.) Opinion among English instructors and others who feel strongly about the language remains divided, however. Today's dictionaries allow us to split the infinitive, but it should never be done at the expense of grace. Students would be wise to know their instructor's feelings on the matter, workers their boss's.

Source: *Guide to Grammar and Writing*. Capital Community College. 4 April 2004 <www.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/>.

Gerund: a verb form, ending in *-ing*, which acts as a noun.

Running in the park after dark can be dangerous.

Gerunds are frequently accompanied by other associated words making up a **gerund phrase** ("running in the park after dark").

Gerunds and gerund phrases are nouns, so they can be used in any way that a noun can be used:

as subject: Being king can be dangerous for your health.

as object of the verb: He didn't particularly like being king.

as object of a preposition: He wrote a book about being king.

FOR SEQUENCE OF INFINITIVES AND GERUNDS, REFER TO APPENDIX G

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V. The intense words

An adverb is a word that modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

Adverbs often function as **intensifiers**, conveying a greater or lesser emphasis to something. Intensifiers are said to have three different functions: they can emphasize, amplify, or downtone. Here are some examples:

Emphasizers:

I really don't believe him.
He literally wrecked his mother's car.
She simply ignored me.
They're going to be late, for sure.

Amplifiers:

The teacher completely rejected her proposal.
I absolutely refuse to attend any more faculty meetings.
They heartily endorsed the new restaurant.
I so wanted to go with them.
We know this city well.

Downtoners:

I kind of like this college.
Joe sort of felt betrayed by his sister.
His mother mildly disapproved of his actions.
We can improve on this to some extent.
The boss almost quit after that.
The school was all but ruined by the storm.

CLASSIFICATIONS OF ADVERBS

Classifications According to Meaning

Adverbs may be classified according to their meaning.

- **Adverbs of Manner** (answer the question *how* or *in what manner*)
She moved slowly and spoke quietly.
- **Adverbs of Place** (answer the question *where*).
She has lived on the island all her life.
She still lives there now.

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- **Adverbs of Frequency** (answer the question *how often*)
She takes the boat to the mainland every day.
She often goes by herself.
- **Adverbs of Degree** (answer the question *how much* or *how little*)
I'm half finished with my project.
I'm much obliged.
- **Adverbs of Time** (answer the question *when*)
She tried to get back before dark.
It's starting to get dark now.
She finished her tea first.
She left early.
- **Adverbs of Purpose** (answer the question *why* or *for what purpose*)
He drives her boat slowly to avoid hitting the rocks.
She shops in several stores to get the best buys.

Classifications According to Use

- **Simple Adverbs**

A simple adverb is an adverb used merely as a modifier.
She does not think about it much.

- **Interrogative Adverbs**

An interrogative adverb is an adverb used in asking questions. The interrogative adverbs are *how*, *when*, *where*, and *why*.

- **Conjunctive Adverbs**

A conjunctive adverb is an adverb that does the work of an adverb and a conjunction. The principal conjunctive adverbs are *after*, *until*, *as*, *when*, *before*, *where*, *since*, and *while*.
We played poker while we were there.

While tells when the action happened and is therefore an adverb. However, it also connects the clause *while we were there* with the verb *played* and is therefore a conjunction.

- **Relative Adverbs**

A relative adverb is a word that does the work of an adverb and a relative pronoun. The principal relative adverbs are when, where and why.
A home *where* prayers are said is a spiritually-content one.

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Since where tells a place of the action, it is an adverb. However, as it joins the subordinate clause *where prayers are observed* to the noun *home* which is the antecedent of where, it also does the work of a relative pronoun.

▪ Adverbial Objectives

An adverbial objective is a noun that expresses time, distance, measure, weight, value or direction, and performs the function of adverbs.

The sun beat on the laborers' backs all *day*.

In the above example, *day*, a noun, tells how long the sun beat on the laborers' backs. The noun *day* modifies the verb *beat* and thus performs the function of an adverb.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

Regular Comparison

Some adverbs form the comparative by adding *-er* to the positive; and the superlative degree by adding *-est* to the positive degree.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative	
fast	faster	fastest	(walk <i>fast, faster, fastest</i>)
often	oftener	oftenest	

Other adverbs, particularly those ending in *-ly*, form the comparative degree by adding *more* or *less* to the positive; and the superlative degree by adding *most* or *least* to the positive.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
frequently	more frequently	most frequently
legibly	less legibly	least legibly

Irregular Comparison

Some adverbs are compared irregularly. In this case it is necessary to learn the comparative and superlative degrees.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
badly	worse	worst
far	farther	farthest
forth	further	furthest

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little	less	least
much	more	most
well	better	best

Many adverbs denoting time and place (here, now, then, when, where, again, always, down, above) and adverbs expressing absoluteness or completeness (round, eternally, universally, never, perfectly, forever) cannot be compared.

Pre-modifiers

Adverbs (as well as adjectives) in their various degrees can be accompanied by premodifiers:

She runs very fast.

We're going to run out of material all the faster.

THE CORRECT USE OF ADVERBS

Distinguishing Between Adjectives and Adverbs

Adjectives modify nouns and pronouns. Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs. Sometimes, however, the function of a word in the sentence is not so very obvious and one gets confused as to whether a word is a predicate adjective (when it modifies the subject) or an adverb that modifies the verb, an adjective or another verb.

There is a rule of thumb to easily distinguish one from the other. Predicate adjectives are used only with linking verbs (be and its forms, appear, become, continue, feel, grow, look, remain, seem, smell, sound and taste).

Gretchen looked happy. (equivalent to Gretchen *was* happy, and is thus an adjective.)

Gretchen looked closely at the book. (tells *how* Gretchen looked at the book and is thus an adverb)

Gretchen looked radiantly lovely. (tells *how* lovely and is thus an adverb)

“Farther” and “Further”

“Farther” denotes distance. “Further” denotes an addition. Both words may be used either as adjectives or adverbs.

The farther you go, the better.

The facilitator explained the rules further.

Uses of There

“There” may be an adverb denoting place, or it may be an expletive used to introduce a sentence.

There is the gift.

English I

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There is something missing.

In the first sentence, “there” is part of the sentence. In the second sentence, the expletive is not necessary for it merely introduces the subject to follow the predicate verb. Thus it can be removed from the sentence. The two sentences above can be rewritten as:

The gift is there.

Something is missing.

ADVERBIAL CLAUSES AND ADVERBIAL PHRASES

If a group of words containing a subject and verb acts as an adverb (modifying the verb of a sentence), it is called an **adverb clause**:

When this class is over, we're going to the movies.

When a group of words not containing a subject and verb acts as an adverb, it is called an **adverbial phrase**.

- **Prepositional phrases** frequently have adverbial functions (telling place and time, modifying the verb):
He went to the movies.
She works on holidays.
They lived in Canada during the war.
- **Infinitive phrases** can act as adverbs (usually telling why):
She hurried to the mainland to see her brother.
The senator ran to catch the bus.
- But there are **other kinds** of adverbial phrases:
He calls his mother as often as possible.

CORRECT POSITION OF ADVERBS

One of the hallmarks of adverbs is their ability to move around in a sentence. Adverbs of manner are particularly flexible in this regard.

Solemnly, the minister addressed her congregation.

The minister solemnly addressed her congregation.

The minister addressed her congregation solemnly.

Adverbs of frequency may appear

- **before the main verb**: I never get up before nine o'clock.

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- **between the auxiliary verb and the main verb:** I have rarely written to my brother without a good reason.
- **before the verb used to:** I always used to see him at his summer home.

Indefinite adverbs of time may appear either

- **before the verb, or**
He finally showed up for batting practice.
- **between the auxiliary and the main verb:**
She has recently retired.

Inappropriately placed adverbs

Adverbs can sometimes attach themselves to, and thus modify words that they ought not to modify.

They reported that Giuseppe Balle, a European rock star, had died on the six o'clock news.

Clearly, it would be better to move the underlined modifier to a position immediately after "they reported" or even to the beginning of the sentence — so the poor man doesn't die on television.

Misplacement can also occur with very simple modifiers, such as *only* and *barely*:

She only grew to be four feet tall.

It would be better if "She grew to be only four feet tall."

The Order of Multiple Adverbs

There is a basic order in which adverbs will appear when there is more than one.

THE ROYAL ORDER OF ADVERBS					
Verb	Manner	Place	Frequency	Time	Purpose
Beth swims	enthusiastically	in the pool	every morning	before dawn	to keep in shape.
Dad walks	impatiently	into town	every afternoon	before supper	to get a newspaper.
Linda naps		in her room	every morning	before lunch.	
In actual practice, of course, it would be highly unusual to have a string of adverbial modifiers beyond two or three (at the most). Because the placement of adverbs is so flexible, one or two of the					

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modifiers would probably move to the beginning of the sentence: "Every afternoon before supper, Dad impatiently walks into town to get a newspaper." When that happens, the introductory adverbial modifiers are usually set off with a comma.

Source: *Guide to Grammar and Writing*. Capital Community College. 4 April 2004 <www.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/>.

More Notes on Adverb Order

As a general principle, shorter adverbial phrases precede longer adverbial phrases, regardless of content. In the following sentence, an adverb of time precedes an adverb of frequency because it is shorter (and simpler):

Dad takes a brisk walk before breakfast every day of his life.

A second principle: Among adverbial phrases of the same kind (manner, place, frequency, etc.), the more specific adverbial phrase comes first:

My grandmother was born in a sod house on the plains of northern Nebraska.

She promised to meet him for lunch next Tuesday.

A third principle: Bringing an adverbial modifier to the beginning of the sentence can place special emphasis on that modifier. This is particularly useful with adverbs of manner:

Slowly, ever so carefully, Jesse filled the coffee cup up to the brim, even above the brim.

Occasionally, but only occasionally, one of these lemons will get by the inspectors.

Special Cases on Positioning Adverbs

1. "Enough"

The adverbs *enough* and *not enough* usually take a postmodifier position:

Is that music loud enough?

These shoes are not big enough.

In a roomful of elderly people, you must remember to speak loudly enough.

Notice, though, that when *enough* functions as an adjective, it can come before the noun:

Did she give us enough time?

The adverb *enough* is often followed by an infinitive:

She didn't run fast enough to win.

2. "Too"

The adverb *too* comes before adjectives and other adverbs:

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She ran too fast.

She works too quickly.

If *too* comes after the adverb it is probably a disjunct (meaning *also*) and is usually set off with a comma:
Yasmin works hard. She works quickly, too.

The adverb *too* is often followed by an infinitive:

She runs too slowly to enter this race.

Another common construction with the adverb *too* is *too* followed by a prepositional phrase — *for* + the object of the preposition — followed by an infinitive:

This milk is too hot for a baby to drink.

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VI. Prepositions, Conjunctions, Interjections

PREPOSITIONS

A preposition is a word or a group of words that describes a relationship between its object and another word in a sentence. In the following sentence, *on* describes the relationship between the verb *ride* and the object of the preposition (which is a noun) *bus*.

Do not ride on that bus.

The following is a list of the most commonly used prepositions:

about	behind	from	through
above	beside	in	throughout
across	between	into	to
after	beyond	near	toward
against	by	of	under
among	down	off	until
around	during	on	up
at	except	over	with
before	for	past	

1. The Object of a Preposition

The object of a preposition is a noun, a pronoun or a group of words used as a noun.

I run in the park every morning. (in + noun)

I always run into you. (into + pronoun)

We took the stool from under the desk. (from + phrase)

She passed near where you stood. (near + clause)

2. Words Used as Adverbs and Prepositions

An adverb tells *how*, *when*, and *where*. A preposition shows the relation between its objects and some other word in the sentence.

I would like to move in by the end of the month. (adverb)

I am just in the house. (preposition)

3. The Correct Use of Prepositions

- Prepositions of Time: *at*, *on*, and *in*

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We use *at* to designate specific times.

The train is due at 12:15 p.m.

We use *on* to designate days and dates.

My brother is coming on Monday.

We're having a party on the Fourth of July.

We use *in* for nonspecific times during a day, a month, a season, or a year.

She likes to jog in the morning.

It's too cold in winter to run outside.

He started the job in 1971.

He's going to quit in August.

▪ Prepositions of Place: *at*, *on*, and *in*

We use *at* for specific addresses.

Grammar English lives at 55 Boretz Road in Durham.

We use *on* to designate names of streets, avenues, etc.

Her house is on Boretz Road.

And we use *in* for the names of land-areas (towns, counties, states, countries, and continents).

She lives in Durham.

Durham is in Windham County.

Windham County is in Connecticut.

Prepositions of Location: *in*, *at*, and *on*
and No Preposition

IN	AT	ON	NO PREPOSITION
(the) bed*	class*	the bed*	downstairs
the bedroom	home	the ceiling	downtown
the car	the library*	the floor	inside
(the) class*	the office	the horse	outside
the library*	school*	the plane	upstairs
school*	work	the train	uptown

* You may sometimes use different prepositions for these locations.

Source: *Guide to Grammar and Writing*. Capital Community College. 4 April 2004 <www.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/>.

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▪ **Prepositions of Movement: *to* and *No Preposition***

We use *to* in order to express movement toward a place.

They were driving to work together.

She's going to the dentist's office this morning.

Toward and *towards* are also helpful prepositions to express movement. These are simply variant spellings of the same word; use whichever sounds better to you.

We're moving toward the light.

This is a big step towards the project's completion.

With the words *home*, *downtown*, *uptown*, *inside*, *outside*, *downstairs*, *upstairs*, we use no preposition.

Grandma went upstairs

Grandpa went home.

They both went outside.

▪ **Prepositions of Time: *for* and *since***

We use *for* when we measure time (seconds, minutes, hours, days, months, years).

He held his breath for seven minutes.

She's lived there for seven years.

The British and Irish have been quarreling for seven centuries.

We use *since* with a specific date or time.

He's worked here since 1970.

She's been sitting in the waiting room since two-thirty.

▪ **“Between” and “Among”**

“Between” is used in speaking of two persons or objects. “Among” is used in speaking of more than two.

I choose Group A between the two competing groups.

She divided her bounty among her loyal supporters.

▪ **“Beside” and “Besides”**

“Beside” means *at the side of*. “Besides” means *in addition to*.

Come and sit beside me.

Besides working days at the mall, she also worked nights at a coffee shop.

▪ **“From”**

Use “from”, not “off of”, to indicate the person from whom something is obtained.

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I bought this dog from that boy.

- **“Behind”**

Use “behind”, not “in back of”, to indicate location at the rear of.

The vase is directly behind you.

- **“Different From”**

Use “from”, not “than”, after the adjective *different*.

Everyone is different from everybody else.

- **“Differ From” and “Differ With”**

“Differ with” denotes disagreement of opinion. “Differ from” denotes differences in characteristic between persons or things.

The treasurer differed with the board on the budget allocation.

Candies differ from each other in color.

- **“Within”**

Use “within” not “inside of” to denote the time within which something will occur.

The seasons are changing within a few weeks.

- **“Angry with” and “Angry At”**

Use “angry with” a person and “angry at” a thing.

Sheila is very angry with Mark.

George was angry at the result of the election.

- **“Need of”**

Use “need of” not “need for”.

My son has no further need of your services.

- **“In” and “Into”**

“In” denotes position within. “Into” denotes motion or change of position.

I am in the city.

I am going into the building.

- **Idiomatic Expressions with Prepositions**

Agree: *to* a proposal, *with* a person, *on* a price, *in* principle

Argue: *about* a matter, *with* a person, *for* or *against* a proposition

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Compare: *to* to show likenesses, *with* to show differences (sometimes similarities)

Correspond: *to* a thing, *with* a person

Differ: *from* an unlike thing, *with* a person

Live: *at* an address, *in* a house or city, *on* a street, *with* other people

▪ Prepositions with Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs.

Prepositions are sometimes so firmly wedded to other words that they have practically become one word. The following groups of words are considered as one preposition when used with nouns or pronouns. This occurs in three categories: nouns, adjectives, and verbs.

NOUNS and PREPOSITIONS

approval of	fondness for	need for
awareness of	grasp of	participation in
belief in	hatred of	reason for
concern for	hope for	respect for
confusion about	interest in	success in
desire for	love of	understanding of

ADJECTIVES and PREPOSITIONS

afraid of	fond of	proud of
angry at	happy about	similar to
aware of	interested in	sorry for
capable of	jealous of	sure of
careless about	made of	tired of
familiar with	married to	worried about

VERBS and PREPOSITIONS

apologize for	give up	prepare for
ask about	grow up	study for
ask for	look for	talk about
belong to	look forward to	think about
bring up	look up	trust in
care for	make up	work for
find out	pay for	worry about

Source: *Guide to Grammar and Writing*. Capital Community College. 4 April 2004 <www.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/>.

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A combination of verb and preposition is called a **phrasal verb**. The word that is joined to the verb is then called a **particle**.

▪ Unnecessary Prepositions

In everyday speech, we fall into some bad habits, using prepositions where they are not necessary. It would be a good idea to eliminate these words altogether, but we must be especially careful not to use them in formal, academic prose.

She met ~~up with~~ the new coach in the hallway.

The book fell off ~~of~~ the desk.

He threw the book out ~~of~~ the window.

She wouldn't let the cat inside ~~of~~ the house. [or use "in"]

Where did they go ~~to~~?

Put the lamp ~~in back~~ of the couch. [use "behind" instead]

Where is your college ~~at~~?

▪ Prepositions in Parallel Form

When two words or phrases are used in parallel and require the same preposition to be idiomatically correct, the preposition does not have to be used twice.

You can wear that outfit *in* summer and *in* winter.

The female was both attracted *by* and distracted by the male's dance.

However, when the idiomatic use of phrases calls for different prepositions, we must be careful not to omit one of them.

The children were *interested in* and *disgusted by* the movie.

It was clear that this player could both *contribute to* and *learn from* every game he played.

He was *fascinated by* and *enamored of* this beguiling woman.

CONJUNCTIONS

A conjunction is a word that connects (conjoins) parts of a sentence. It connects words, phrases, or clauses in a sentence.

It's raining cats and dogs. (connects words)

That is not the norm, in times of peace or in times of turmoil. (connects phrases)

I did not mean to insult you but it seems I did. (connects clauses).

Kinds of Conjunctions

1. Coordinate or Coordinating Conjunctions

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Coordinate or coordinating conjunctions are conjunctions that connect words, phrases, or clauses of equal rank. The following are the coordinate conjunctions, arranged in an acronym that makes them easier to understand.

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

Be careful of the words *then* and *now*; neither is a coordinating conjunction, so what we say about coordinating conjunctions' roles in a sentence and punctuation does not apply to those two words.

Rules on Punctuation

- When a coordinating conjunction connects two independent clauses, it is often (but not always) accompanied by a comma:

Ulysses wants to play for UConn, but he has had trouble meeting the academic requirements.

- When the two independent clauses connected by a coordinating conjunction are nicely balanced or brief, many writers will omit the comma:

Ulysses has a great jump shot but he isn't quick on his feet.

- The comma is always correct when used to separate two independent clauses connected by a coordinating conjunction. A comma is also correct when *and* is used to attach the last item of a serial list, although many writers (especially in newspapers) will omit that final comma:

Ulysses spent his summer studying basic math, writing, and reading comprehension.

- When a coordinating conjunction is used to connect all the elements in a series, a comma is not used:

Presbyterians and Methodists and Baptists are the prevalent Protestant congregations in Oklahoma.

- A comma is also used with *but* when expressing a contrast:

This is a useful rule, but difficult to remember.

- In most of their other roles as joiners (other than joining independent clauses, that is), coordinating conjunctions can join two sentence elements without the help of a comma.

Hemingway and Fitzgerald are among the American expatriates of the between-the-wars era.

Hemingway was renowned for his clear style and his insights into American notions of male identity.

It is hard to say whether Hemingway or Fitzgerald is the more interesting cultural icon of his day.

Although Hemingway is sometimes disparaged for his unpleasant portrayal of women and for his glorification of *machismo*, we nonetheless find some sympathetic, even heroic, female figures in his novels and short stories.

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Beginning a Sentence with “And” and “But”

Beginning a Sentence with *And* or *But*

A frequently asked question about conjunctions is whether *and* or *but* can be used at the beginning of a sentence. This is what R.W. Burchfield has to say about this use of *and*:

There is a persistent belief that it is improper to begin a sentence with *And*, but this prohibition has been cheerfully ignored by standard authors from Anglo-Saxon times onwards. An initial *And* is a useful aid to writers as the narrative continues.

from *The New Fowler's Modern English Usage*
edited by R.W. Burchfield. Clarendon Press: Oxford, England. 1996.
Used with the permission of Oxford University Press.

The same is true with the conjunction *but*. A sentence beginning with *and* or *but* will tend to draw attention to itself and its transitional function. Writers should examine such sentences with two questions in mind: (1) would the sentence and paragraph function just as well without the initial conjunction? (2) should the sentence in question be connected to the previous sentence? If the initial conjunction still seems appropriate, use it.

Source: *Guide to Grammar and Writing*. Capital Community College. 4 April 2004 <www.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/>.

The Usual Meanings of the FANBOYS

The coordinate conjunctions can mean many things. The following outline their most common meanings.¹²

AND

- To suggest that one idea is chronologically sequential to another: "Jasmine sent in her applications and waited by the phone for a response."
- To suggest that one idea is the result of another: "Willie heard the weather report and promptly boarded up his house."
- To suggest that one idea is in contrast to another (frequently replaced by *but* in this usage): "Juanita is brilliant and Shalimar has a pleasant personality."
- To suggest an element of surprise (sometimes replaced by *yet* in this usage): "Hartford is a rich city and suffers from many symptoms of urban blight."
- To suggest that one clause is dependent upon another, conditionally (usually the first clause is an imperative): "Use your credit cards frequently and you'll soon find yourself deep in debt."

¹² Authority used for this section on the uses of *and*, *but*, and *or*: *A University Grammar of English* by Randolph Quirk and Sidney Greenbaum. Longman Group: Essex, England. 1993.

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- To suggest a kind of "comment" on the first clause: "Charlie became addicted to gambling — and that surprised no one who knew him."

BUT

- To suggest a contrast that is unexpected in light of the first clause: "Joey lost a fortune in the stock market, but he still seems able to live quite comfortably."
- To suggest in an affirmative sense what the first part of the sentence implied in a negative way (sometimes replaced by *on the contrary*): "The club never invested foolishly, but used the services of a sage investment counselor."
- To connect two ideas with the meaning of "with the exception of" (and then the second word takes over as subject): "Everybody but Jimmy is trying out for the team."

OR

- To suggest that only one possibility can be realized, excluding one or the other: "You can study hard for this exam or you can fail."
- To suggest the inclusive combination of alternatives: "We can broil chicken on the grill tonight, or we can just eat leftovers."
- To suggest a refinement of the first clause: "Smith College is the premier all-women's college in the country, or so it seems to most Smith College alumnae."
- To suggest a restatement or "correction" of the first part of the sentence: "There are no rattlesnakes in this canyon, or so our guide tells us."
- To suggest a negative condition: "The New Hampshire state motto is the rather grim "Live free or die."
- To suggest a negative alternative without the use of an imperative (see use of *and above*): "They must approve his political style or they wouldn't keep electing him mayor."

NOR

The conjunction *NOR* is not extinct, but it is not used nearly as often as the other conjunctions, so it might feel a bit odd when *nor* does come up in conversation or writing. Its most common use is as the little brother in the correlative pair, *neither-nor*:

He is neither sane nor brilliant.

That is neither what I said nor what I meant.

- It can be used with other negative expressions:

That is not what I meant to say, nor should you interpret my statement as an admission of guilt.

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- It is possible to use *nor* without a preceding negative element, but it is unusual and, to an extent, rather stuffy:

George's handshake is as good as any written contract, nor has he ever proven untrustworthy.

YET

The word *YET* functions sometimes as an adverb and has several meanings: in addition ("yet another cause of trouble" or "a simple yet noble woman"), even ("yet more expensive"), still ("he is yet a novice"), eventually ("they may yet win"), and so soon as now ("he's not here yet"). It also functions as a coordinating conjunction meaning something like "nevertheless" or "but." The word *yet* seems to carry an element of distinctiveness that *but* can seldom register.

John plays basketball well, yet his favorite sport is badminton.

The visitors complained loudly about the heat, yet they continued to play golf every day.

In sentences such as the second one, above, the pronoun subject of the second clause ("they," in this case) is often left out. When that happens, the comma preceding the conjunction might also disappear: "The visitors complained loudly yet continued to play golf every day."

Yet is sometimes combined with other conjunctions, *but* or *and*. It would not be unusual to see and yet in sentences like the ones above. This usage is acceptable.

FOR

The word *FOR* is most often used as a preposition, of course, but it does serve, on rare occasions, as a coordinating conjunction. Some people regard the conjunction *for* as rather highfalutin and literary, and it does tend to add a bit of weightiness to the text. Beginning a sentence with the conjunction "for" is probably not a good idea, except when you're singing "For he's a jolly good fellow. "For" has serious sequential implications and in its use the order of thoughts is more important than it is, say, with *because* or *since*. Its function is to introduce the reason for the preceding clause:

John thought he had a good chance to get the job, for his father was on the company's board of trustees.

Most of the visitors were happy just sitting around in the shade, for it had been a long, dusty journey on the train.

SO

Be careful of the conjunction *SO*. Sometimes it can connect two independent clauses along with a comma, but sometimes it can't. For instance, in this sentence,

Soto is not the only Olympic athlete in his family, so are his brother, sister, and his Uncle Chet.

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where the word *so* means "as well" or "in addition," most careful writers would use a semicolon between the two independent clauses. In the following sentence, where *so* is acting like a minor-league "therefore," the conjunction and the comma are adequate to the task:

Soto has always been nervous in large gatherings, so it is no surprise that he avoids crowds of his adoring fans. Sometimes, at the beginning of a sentence, *so* will act as a kind of summing up device or transition, and when it does, it is often set off from the rest of the sentence with a comma:

So, the sheriff peremptorily removed the child from the custody of his parents.

2. Correlative Conjunctions

Correlative Conjunctions are coordinate conjunctions used in pairs. The most commonly used correlative conjunctions are:

both . . . and	neither . . . nor
not only . . . but also	whether . . . or
not . . . but	as . . . as
either . . . or	

3. Subordinate Conjunctions

A subordinate conjunction is a conjunction that connects clauses of unequal rank. It connects a subordinate clause to a principal or an independent clause. A subordinate clause is one that depends upon some other part of a sentence.

Following is a list of the most common subordinate conjunctions:

Common Subordinating Conjunctions			
after	even if	since	when
although	even though	so that	whenever
as	if	than	where
as if	if only	that	whereas
as long as	in order that	though	wherever
as though	now that	till	while
because	once	unless	
before	rather than	until	

The **conjunctive adverbs**—the words that do the work of an adverb and a conjunction—such as *however*, *moreover*, *nevertheless*, *consequently*, *as a result* are used to create complex relationships between ideas and are likewise considered as subordinate conjunctions.

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The Case of *Like* and *As*

Strictly speaking, the word *like* is a preposition, not a conjunction. It can, therefore, be used to introduce a prepositional phrase ("My brother is tall like my father"), but it should not be used to introduce a clause ("My brother can't play the piano like as he did before the accident" or "It looks like as if basketball is quickly overtaking baseball as America's national sport."). To introduce a clause, it's a good idea to use *as, as though, or as if*, instead.

Like As I told you earlier, the lecture has been postponed.

It looks like as if it's going to snow this afternoon.

Johnson kept looking out the window like as though he had someone waiting for him.

In formal, academic text, it's a good idea to reserve the use of *like* for situations in which similarities are being pointed out:

This community college is like a two-year liberal arts college.

However, when you are listing things that have similarities, *such as* is probably more suitable:

The college has several highly regarded neighbors, like such as the Mark Twain House, St. Francis Hospital, the Connecticut Historical Society, and the UConn Law School.

Source: *Guide to Grammar and Writing*. Capital Community College. 4 April 2004 <www.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/>.

Omitting *That*

The word *that* is used as a conjunction to connect a subordinate clause to a preceding verb. In this construction *that* is sometimes called the "expletive *that*." Indeed, the word is often omitted to good effect, but the very fact of easy omission causes some editors to take out the red pen and strike out the conjunction *that* wherever it appears. In the following sentences, we can happily omit the *that* (or keep it, depending on how the sentence sounds to us):

Isabel knew [that] she was about to be fired.

She definitely felt [that] her fellow employees hadn't supported her.

I hope [that] she doesn't blame me.

Sometimes omitting the *that* creates a break in the flow of a sentence, a break that can be adequately bridged with the use of a comma:

The problem is, *that* production in her department has dropped.

Remember, *that* we didn't have these problems before she started working here.

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As a general rule, if the sentence feels just as good without the *that*, if no ambiguity results from its omission, if the sentence is more efficient or elegant without it, then we can safely omit the *that*. Theodore Bernstein lists three conditions in which we should maintain the conjunction *that*:

- When a time element intervenes between the verb and the clause: "The boss said yesterday that production in this department was down fifty percent." (Notice the position of "yesterday.")
- When the verb of the clause is long delayed: "Our annual report revealed that some losses sustained by this department in the third quarter of last year were worse than previously thought." (Notice the distance between the subject "losses" and its verb, "were.")
- When a second *that* can clear up who said or did what: "The CEO said that Isabel's department was slacking off and that production dropped precipitously in the fourth quarter." (Did the CEO say that production dropped or was the drop a result of what he said about Isabel's department? The second *that* makes the sentence clear.)

Authority for this section: *Dos, Don'ts & Maybes of English Usage* by Theodore Bernstein. Gramercy Books: New York. 1999. p. 217.

Source: *Guide to Grammar and Writing*. Capital Community College. 4 April 2004 <www.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/>.

Beginning a Sentence with *Because*

Somehow, the notion that one should not begin a sentence with the subordinating conjunction *because* retains a mysterious grip on people's sense of writing proprieties. This might come about because a sentence that begins with *because* could well end up a fragment if one is not careful to follow up the "because clause" with an independent clause.

Because e-mail now plays such a huge role in our communications industry.

When the "because clause" is properly subordinated to another idea (regardless of the position of the clause in the sentence), there is absolutely nothing wrong with it:

Because e-mail now plays such a huge role in our communications industry, the postal service would very much like to see it taxed in some manner.

Source: *Guide to Grammar and Writing*. Capital Community College. 4 April 2004 <www.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/>.

4. Other Connectives

Although the work of conjunctions is to connect, this does not mean that all connectives are conjunctions. *Relative adverbs* and *relative pronouns* are also used to connect clauses of unequal rank.

Since it is raining, the picnic will be postponed.

Wednesday is the day when we shall have the picnic. (Relative Adverb)

English I

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We shall have our picnic in the grove that adjoins the school grounds (Relative pronoun)

The Correct use of Conjunctions

1. “Than” and “As”

The conjunctions “than” and “as” are used to compare one thing with another, and there is usually an omission of words after each. The substantive word which follows “than” or “as” must be in the same case as the word with which it is compared. Particular care must be taken when the substantive is a personal pronoun.

She is smaller than I ~~am~~ small.

I am as small as she ~~is~~ small.

2. “Unless” and “Without”

“Unless” is a conjunction and introduces a clause. “Without” is a preposition and introduces a “phrase”.

We are going on as planned unless it rains.

We would go without umbrellas and hats.

3. “Like”, “As”, and “As If”

“As” and “As if” are conjunctions and are used to introduce clauses. “Like” is a preposition and is used to introduce a phrase.

He talks as a child talks. (Clause)

He talks as if he’s running out of words. (Clause)

He talks like a chipmunk. (Phrase)

INTERJECTIONS

Interjections are words or phrases used to exclaim or protest or command. They express some strong or sudden emotion. They sometimes stand by themselves, but they are often contained within larger structures.

Look! There’s a bird.

Wait! I don’t understand

Wow! I won the lottery!

Oh, I don’t know about that.

I don’t know what the heck you’re talking about.

No, you shouldn’t have done that.

An interjection is grammatically distinct from the rest of the sentence. They may express *delight, disgust, contempt, pain, assent, joy, impatience, surprise, sorrow*, and so forth. They are generally set off from the rest of the sentence by exclamation points. An entire sentence, however, may be exclamatory. If the sentence is

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exclamatory, the interjection is followed by a comma and the exclamation point is placed at the end of the sentence.

Following is a list of the most common interjections:

Ah!	Hark!	Listen!	Sh!
Alas!	Hello!	Lo!	What!
Beware!	Hurrah!	Oh!	
Bravo!	Hush!	Ouch!	
Good!	Indeed!	Pshaw!	

The Proper Use of “O” and “Oh”

The interjection “O” is used only before a noun in direct address. It is not directly followed by an exclamation point. “Oh” is used to express surprise, sorrow, or joy. It is followed by an exclamation point unless the emotion continues throughout the sentence.

O God! Help me please!
Oh, I love you!
Oh! She is here.

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