In the Name of Allah who is Rahman and Raheem.

English Grammar

Contents

Parts of Speech

Noun----a person, place, thing or an idea.

person	boy	cat	Umer
place	house	Pakistan	ocean
thing	car	desk	phone
idea	freedom	happiness	sadness

Pronoun---a word used instead of noun.

Fatima---she   car---it

A few other pronouns: he, they, I, you, we, them, who, everyone, anybody, that etc.

Adjectives—describes a noun or pronoun

Answer the question, what kind, which one, how many and how much.

Articles are a sub category of adjectives and include the following three word, a, an and the.

Old car (what kind) that car (which one)

Two cars (how many)

Verb---action, condition or state of being

Action (things you can do) ----think, run, jump, climb, eat, grow.

Linking (or helping) am, is, are, was, were

Adverbs--- describe verbs, adjective and other adverbs.

Answer the question, how, when, where and to what extent.

Many words ending in "ly" are adverbs: quickly, smoothly, truly.

A few other adverbs; yesterday, ever, rather, quite, earlier.

Preposition----- show the relationship between a noun or pronoun and a word in the sentence.

Things of the box (things you have done to a box).

Some prepositions: over, under, on, from, of, at, through, in, next to, against, like.

Conjunctions---connecting words.

Connect ideas, nouns or sentences.

FANBOYS (for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so)

A few other conjunctions are found at the beginning of a sentence: however, while, since, because.

Interjections---show emotions.

Usually the first word (s) and are set off from the rest of the sentence by a comma (,) or exclamation point (!)

A few interjections: wow, ha, aha, oh, ouch, alas, hurrah.

Classifications of Nouns

Proper Nouns

Proper nouns are nouns that refer to specific entities. Writers of English capitalize proper nouns like *Quid-e-Azam Muhammad Ali Jinnah, Allama Iqbal, The Holy Quran, Lahore, Multan and Saeed* to show their distinction from common nouns.

Common Nouns

Common nouns refer to general, unspecific categories of entities. Whereas *Kashmir* is a proper noun because it signifies a specific state, the word *state* itself is a common noun because it can refer to any of Paskistani states. *Islamia University Bahawalpur* refers to a particular institution of higher learning, while the common noun *university* can refer to any such institution.

Material Nouns

Material nouns refer to materials or substances from which things are made. While *cotton* is an adjective when used in *cotton dress*, *cotton* is a material noun when used to describe a crop being grown - The farm grew *cotton*.

More Examples: Wheat, rice, sugar, milk and sand etc.

Compound Nouns

A compound noun contains two or more words which join together to make a single noun. Compound nouns can be words written together (closed form) such as *softball, class fellow* and *toothpaste*, words that are hyphenated (hyphenated form) such as *six-pack* and *son-in-law*, or separate words (open form) such as *post office* and *upper class* that go together by meaning.

Countable Nouns

The names of the things which can be counted are called concrete nouns. Bana

Uncountable Nouns or Mass Nouns

The names of the things which are substance and are measured.

Substances, liquids, and powders are entities that are often signified by mass nouns such as *wood, sand, water*, and *flour*. Other examples would be *milk, air, furniture, freedom and rice.*

Collective Nouns

In general, collective nouns are nouns that refer to a group of something in a specific manner. Often, collective nouns are used to refer to groups of animals. Consider the following sentences.

Look at the *gaggle* of geese. There used to be *herds* of wild buffalo on the prairie.
A *bevy* of swans is swimming in the pond.
A *colony* of ants live in the anthill.

In the above examples *herds, family, army, bunch* and *colony* are collective nouns.

Concrete Nouns

Concrete nouns are nouns that can be touched, smelled, seen, felt, or tasted. *table, Samra sand and salt*, and *wool* are all examples of concrete nouns.

 Please pass the *salt*. Your sweater is made of fine *wool*.

Concrete nouns can be perceived by at least one of our senses.

Abstract Nouns

More ethereal, theoretical concepts use abstract nouns to refer to them. Concepts like *freedom, love, power*, and *redemption* are all examples of abstract nouns.

They *hate* us for our *freedom*. All you need is *love*. We must fight the *power*.

In these sentences, the abstract nouns refer to concepts, ideas, philosophies, and other entities that cannot be concretely perceived.

The Different Types of Pronouns

Demonstrative Pronouns

These pronouns are used to demonstrate (or indicate). **This**, **that**, **these** and **those** are all demonstrative pronouns.

Examples:

This is the one I left in the car.

(In this example, the speaker could be indicating to a mobile phone, in which case, the pronoun *this* replaces the words *mobile phone*.)

Shall I take **those**?

Indefinite Pronouns

Unlike demonstrative pronouns, which point out specific items, indefinite pronouns are used for non-specific things. This is the largest group of pronouns. **All**, **some**, **any**, **several**, **anyone**, **nobody**, **each**, **both**, **few**, **either**, **none**, **one** and **no one** are the most common.

Example:

Somebody must have seen the driver leave.

(somebody – not a specific person)

We are **all** in the protest, but **some** of us are looking at the stars.

I have **nothing** to declare except my genius.

Interrogative Pronouns

These pronouns are used in questions. Although they are classified as pronouns, it is not easy to see how they replace
nouns. **Who**, **which**, **what**, **where** and **how** are all interrogative pronouns.

Example:

Who told you to do that?

Which dog won the race?

Personal Pronouns

The personal pronouns
are *I*, *you*, *he*, *she*, *it*, *we*, *they*, and *who*. More often than not (but not exclusively), they replace nouns representing people. When most people think of pronouns, it is the personal pronouns that usually spring to mind.

Example:

We can't all be heroes because somebody has to sit on the curb and clap as **they** go by.

I bought some batteries, but **they** weren't included.

Possessive Pronouns

Possessive pronouns are used to show possession. As they are used as adjectives, they are also known as possessive. **My**, **your**, **his**, **her**, **its**, **our** and **their,** are all possessive pronouns.

Have you seen **her** book?

(In this example, the pronoun *her* replaces a word like *Sarah's*.)

More on possessive pronouns...

Relative Pronouns

Relative pronouns are used to add more information to a
sentence. **Which**, **that**, **who** (including **whom** and **whose**) and **where** are all relative pronouns.

Examples:

Dr Syeda Samra, **who** lectured at Cambridge for more than 12 years, should have known the difference.

(In this example, the relative
pronoun *who* introduces the clause *who studied at Cambridge for 12 years* and refers back to *Syeda Samra Bukhari*.)

The man **who** first saw the comet reported it as a UFO.

(In this example, the relative
pronoun *who* introduces the clause *who first saw the comet* and refers back to *the man*.)

Absolute Possessive Pronouns

These pronouns also show possession. Unlike possessive pronouns (see above), which are adjectives to nouns, these pronouns sit by themselves. **Mine**, **yours**, **his**, **hers**, **ours** and **theirs** are all absolute possessive pronouns.

Examples:

The tickets are as good as **ours**.

Shall we take **yours** or **theirs**?

Reciprocal Pronouns

Reciprocal pronouns are used for actions or feelings that are reciprocated. The two most common reciprocal pronouns are **each other** and **one another**.

Examples:

They like one **another**.

They talk to **each other** like they're babies.

More on reciprocal pronouns...

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

Examples:

The cat is cute **itself**.

(In this example, the intensive pronoun *itself* refers back to the noun *the dog*.)

Are you talking to **yourself**?

I love him **myself**.

Intensive (or Emphatic) Pronouns
An intensive pronoun (sometimes called an *emphatic pronoun*) refers back to another noun or pronoun in the sentence to emphasize it (e.g., to emphasize that it is the thing carrying out the action).

Examples:

Sam bakes all the bread **herself**.

(In this example, the intensive pronoun *himself* refers back to the noun *Samra*.)

The cat opened the door **itself**.

Reflexive	*myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, oneself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves*	He injured *himself* playing football
Reciprocal	*each other, one another*	They really hate *each other*
Relative	*that, which, who, whose, whom, where, when*	The book *that* you gave me was really boring
Demonstrative	*this, that, these, those*	*This* is a new car
Interrogative	*who, what, why, where, when, whatever*	*What* did he say to you?
Indefinite	*anything, anybody, anyone, something, somebody, someone, nothing, nobody, none, no one*	There's *something* in my shoe

Table of Noun

Pronoun Type	Members of the Subclass	Example
Possessive	*mine, yours, his, hers, ours, theirs,my our,etc*	The white car is *mine*

Pronoun Table

	Case	Possessive Case	Case	Reflexive Case
1st Person (Speaker)	I	My	Me	Myself
	We	Our	Us	Ourselves
2nd Person (Listener)	You	Your	You	Yourself
3rd Person	He	His	Him	Himself
	She	Her	Her	Herself

(Absent)	They	Their	Them	Themselves
Indefinite	It	Its	It	Itself

Types of adjectives

Proper adjectives
It is formed from a proper name. for example he is <u>Pakistani</u>.

English, American, Punjabi etc.

Adjective of quality
It shows the quality of a person.

For example. He is a <u>good</u> boy.

Good, bad, large, hard etc

Adjective of quantity
It tells about the quantity of the things.

For example, <u>all</u> the boys are regular.

Some, much, little, huge, all, any,full, half etc

Numeral adjectives.
It tells about the numbers of things.

For example. He is <u>a single</u> man.

One, two, first, second, third or any etc.

Demonstrative adjectives
It tells about , which person or thing is meant.

For example, I like **these** books.

 this, that, these, those, such etc.

Distributive adjectives
It denotes a person or a thing separately.

For example, <u>each one</u> is hardworking.

Every, either, neither etc

Interrogative adjectives
It is used before a noun for asking a question.

Whose book is this ?

Whose, which, how many, how much etc.

Possessive adjectives
It tells about possession.

For example. This is <u>my</u> book.

His, our, your, their etc.

Kinds of Verbs in English

1. Transitive Verbs: Transitive verbs are action verbs that have an object to receive that action.

She drinks water. (Object)

He drove the car. (Object)

2. Intransitive Verbs: Intransitive verbs are actions verbs but unlike transitive verbs, they do not have an object receiving the action.

The sun shines.

She is crying.

Some verbs like (cheer, sing, visit, trip) can be transitive or intransitive, depending on how they are used in a sentence.

He sang.

He sang a song.

Ali tripped.

Ali tripped Hussain.

3. Dynamic/ Event Verbs: The verbs, in which the body movement is involved, are called dynamic or event verbs. These verbs show continued or progressive action on the part of the subject. Example of dynamic verbs are: act, build, complete, design, draw, gather, help, interview, justify, listen,

negotiate, outline, perform, record, save, show, travel, uncover, value, write, zoom…

She was writing a letter.

They are playing in the playground.

4. Stative Verbs:
The verbs that express a state rather than an action. They usually show mental feelings, emotions, state of a person, place, relationships, sense and measurements.

I believe in God.

I am believing in God.

It sounds like a great idea.

It is sounding like a great idea.

I feel your sadness.

I am feeling your sadness.

Please forgive him.

Some verbs like: verb to be, think, have and see can be both stative verbs and dynamic verbs depending on their meaning.

He is an intelligent teacher. (stative verb)

He is teaching the students. (dynamic verb)

5. Perception/Sensation Verbs:
The verbs which show our five senses are called perception/ sensation verbs.

I smell the flowers.

He is listening to the radio.

I feel great today.

6. Linking/Copular/Predicating Verbs:
Linking verbs do not express action. Instead, they connect the subject of the verb to additional information about the subject. These verbs are usually followed by an adjective or a noun.

The following verbs are true linking verbs: any form of the verb be [am, is, are, was, were, has been, are being, might have been, etc.], become, and seem. These true linking verbs are always linking verbs. Then you have a list of verbs with multiple personalities: appear, feel, grow, look, prove, remain, smell, sound, taste, and turn. Sometimes these verbs are linking verbs; sometimes they are action verbs.

7. Phrasal/Prepositional Verbs:
The verb which is formed by the combination of a preposition or adverbial particle is called Phrasal/prepositional verb.

Because a preposition always has an object, all prepositional verbs have direct objects.

I believe in God.

He is looking after the dog.

They are talking about the issue.

8. Modal Auxiliary Verbs:
Modal verbs are words like can, could, may, might, shall, should, will, would, must, ought to etc. They are used with other verbs to express ideas such as possibility, prediction, speculation, deduction and necessity. Or modal verbs show different moods and attitudes of the speaker.

You should work hard.

The weather may be colder tomorrow.

Click here to learn more about modal auxiliary verbs.

9. Helping Verbs/Auxiliary Verbs:
Auxiliary (or Helping) verbs are used together with a main verb to show the verb's tense or to form a negative or question. The most common auxiliary verbs are: have, has, had, do, does, did and to be verbs.

Have they completed the assignment?

Ali is writing an e-mail to a client at the moment.

10. Hypothesis Verbs:
These verbs are usually followed by subjunctives. Here, we wish against the present facts in the present, and the formulas are given like;

1. Sub + wish + (that) + sub. + the past indefinite tense

2. Sub + wish + (that) + sub. + were + object

3. Sub + wish + (that) + sub. + had + object

I wish that he helped me. (Means he does not help me)

I wish that he were a good teacher. (Means he is not a good teacher)

She wishes that I had a latest car. (Means I have not a latest car)

Here, we wish against the past facts in the present, and the formulas are given like;

1. Sub + wish + (that) + sub + the past perfect tense

2. Sub + wish + (that) + sub. + had been + object

3. Sub + wish + (that) + sub. + had had + object

I wish that he had taken admission. (Means he did not take admission)

I wish that I had been in London. (Means I was not in London)

She wishes that I had had a bus. (Means I had not a bus)

Click here to learn more about hypothesis verb "Wish."

11. Causative Verbs:
In causative verbs we do not perform an action directly, but we get it done indirectly by someone else means by the second person. The formula will be changed according to the absence or presence of the second person. English has three true causative verbs: let, have, make, but there are other verbs such as cause, allow, help, enable, keep, hold, force, require and persuade indeed which are not causative verbs but similarly used as causative verbs. Click here to learn more about causative verbs.

He gets Ali to wash his car.

He has Nadir help him.

12. Regular and Irregular Verbs:
Regular Verbs: Regular verbs are those verbs whose past tense and past participle (2nd and 3rd forms) are formed by adding "d" or "ed" to the end of the verb.

Cook = cooked

Play = played

Irregular Verbs: Irregular verbs are those verbs that do not take 'ed' ending for their past tense and past participle (2nd and 3rd forms). Click here to learn more about regular and irregular verbs.

Teach = taught

Write = wrote = written

Types of Adverb
An adverb is a word that modifies (gives us more information about) a verb in a sentence.
Example:
She is singing a song.
She is singing a song loudly.
The adverb "loudly" in the 2nd sentence modifies the verb "sing" by giving us more information that the song is sung with a loud voice .
Such a word is called an adverb.
Adverbs modify a verb by giving us information about the following aspects of a verb.
1. How an action occurs
2. Where an action occurs
3. When an action occurs

4. How often an action occurs

Depending on the above aspects of modification, the adverbs have following four types:

Adverbs of manner: Angrily, Happily, Easily, Sadly, Rudely, Loudly, Fluently, Greedily, etc

Adverbs of Place: Near, There, Here, Somewhere, Inside, Outside, Ahead, Top, High, Bottom, etc

Adverbs of time: Yesterday, Now, Then, Tomorrow, Today, Late, Early, Tonight, Again, Soon etc

Adverbs of frequency: Often, Sometimes, Usually, Frequently, Seldom, Daily, Again and again, Generally, Occasionally, Never, etc

Adverbs of Manner –Usage

These adverbs describe the manner of an action or the way of the occurrence of an action.

e.g. happily, sadly, sympathetically, harshly, carefully, carelessly, rudely, nicely, decently, etc

Examples:

They are living happily.

She completed her work nicely.

He was behaving angrily.

She treats the kids sympathetically.

Sara is driving carelessly.

Students were listening to lecture carefully.

Adverbs of Place – Usage

These adverbs express the place of the occurrence of an action or regarding an action.

e.g. here, there, near, outside, inside, bottom, top, ahead, somewhere, beneath, etc

Examples:

They were coming here.

Some is talking outside.

Please come inside.

They live somewhere in Paris.

Kids are playing near the house.

He went downstairs.

Adverbs of Time – Usage

These adverbs states the time of occurrence of the action. It may give sharp or rough idea about the time of occurrence of an action.

e.g. soon, late, today, to night, early, tomorrow, yesterday, then, now, etc.

Examples:

He will go to school tomorrow.

I met him yesterday.

Please call him now.

He will come soon.

I am still waiting for my friend.

Adverbs of Frequency – Usage

These adverbs tell about how often (or how many times) an action occurs. It gives an idea about the frequency of occurrence of an

action.

e.g. daily, weekly, seldom, frequently, usually, sometimes, most of the times, again and again, often, etc

Examples:

I meet him daily.

He usually sleeps in the day.

She is calling me again and again.

The failed student was frequently thinking about his failure in exam.

The always helped me.

What is a Preposition?

A **preposition** links nouns, pronouns and phrases to other words in a sentence. The word or phrase that the preposition introduces is called the object of the preposition.

A preposition usually indicates the temporal, spatial or logical relationship of its object to the rest of the sentence as in the following examples:

The book is **on** the table.

The book is **beneath** the table.

The book is leaning **against** the table.

The book is **beside** the table.

She held the book **over** the table.

She read the book **during** class.

In each of the preceding sentences, a preposition locates the noun "book" in space or in time.

A <u>prepositional phrase</u> is made up of the preposition, its object and any associated <u>adjectives</u> or <u>adverbs</u>. A prepositional phrase can function as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. The most common prepositions are "about," "above," "across," "after," "against," "along," "among," "around," "at," "before," "behind," "below," "beneath," "beside," "between," "beyond," "but," "by," "despite," "down," "during," "except," "for," "from," "in," "inside," "into," "like," "near," "of," "off," "on," "onto," "out," "outside," "over," "past," "since," "through," "throughout," "till," "to," "toward," "under," "underneath," "until," "up," "upon," "with," "within," and "without."

Each of the **highlighted** words in the following sentences is a preposition:

The children climbed the mountain **without** fear.

In this sentence, the preposition "without" introduces the noun "fear." The prepositional phrase "without fear" functions as an adverb describing how the children climbed.

Prepositions are not as scary as they appear! They are mostly logical in that they follow some basic principles and most have a complementary preposition with an opposite meaning. So, sit back and relax as we introduce you to

these principles. **Click on any word in RED** for the Portuguese translation of that word.

PREPOSITIONS: LOCATORS IN TIME AND PLACE

A preposition describes a relationship between other words in a sentence, locating something in time and space, modifying a noun, or telling when or where or under what conditions something happened.

Prepositions that describe location

The most common use of prepositions is in describing the location of an object, person or place in relation to another object, person or place.

For example: *The World Trade Center is **on** Av. Nações Unidas, **next to** the River Pinheiros and one block **from** Av. Berrini.*

Most prepositions that relate to location follow two basic principles: they relate to a **surface** or they relate to a **volume**. For example, a table is considered a two dimensional **surface**:

The instructor is UNDER the table.

Prepositions of Time

We use **at** to designate specific times.
For example: *The train is due **at** 12:15 pm.*

We use **on** to designate days and dates.
For example: *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.
For example: *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.*

For and **Since**

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

For example: *He's worked here **since** 1970.*
*She's been sitting in the waiting room **since** two-thirty.*

During

During is used for events that occurred or existed throughout the duration of a specific period of time.
For example: *Our young baby sleeps a lot **during** the day.*
***During** the Great Recession, interest rates stayed very low.*

By, Before and **Until**

By, before and **until** can all be used to indicate deadlines or to mark a specific point in time.

For example: If we have a 'deadline' of February:
*We must complete the project **by** February.*
*We must complete the project **before** February.*
*We have **until** February to complete the project.*

For example: When we wish to fix a sentence at a particular time or point in the past:

***Before** 1950, few people in Britain had flown in an airplane.*
***By** 1970, many people had flown in an airplane.*
***Until** the introduction of commercial airlines, few people experienced flying.*

A preposition links nouns, pronouns and phrases to other words in a sentence. The word or phrase that the preposition introduces is called the object of the preposition.

Prepositions work with other words in prepositional phrases. A prepositional phrase usually indicates where (by showing direction or location), how (in what way or by what means), or when (at what time or how long) the action in the sentence took place.

Prepositions are hard for most students. Why? Because there are hardly any rules as to when to use which preposition. The only way to learn prepositions is looking them up in a dictionary, reading a lot in English and memorizing useful phrases.

Ready? Let's start!

Prepositions That Express Time And Place
The following are a few examples of using in, at, and on to show time and place:

Time:

• In a month or a year
Example: "I moved here in 2007 in September"

• In a specific period of time
Example: "She will be in Rome in a few days (seconds, months, etc.)"

• In a specific period of the day
Example: We are going to the park in the afternoon (morning, evening exception: at night)"

• On a specific day
Example: "The party is on Saturday, on your birthday"

• At a specific time or specific period of time
Example: "We will eat at 3:00 at noon (at night at dawn at lunch)"

Place:

• In a location surrounded by something else
Example: " I live in the state of Nevada (in the livingroom in my apartment in the closet in the tub in downtown New York)"

• At a specified location
Example: "Let's meet at my house (at the store at the corner of Main St.)"

• On a surface
Example: "The poem is on page 32 (on Broadway on street level on the third floor)"
Exceptions: in the attic or in the basement.

Different types of conjunctions: definitions, uses and examples

In English, conjunctions are the words that connect words, phrases or clauses. They join different parts of speeches together, creating relationships between parts of a sentence or different ideas and objects. To demonstrate different relationships, there are different types of conjunctions: coordinating, subordinating and correlative conjunctions. So how do we define and use these different conjunctions? Here are some explanations and examples.

Coordinating Conjunctions

The most common, and simplest, conjunction is the coordinating conjunctions. These join words, phrases and clauses as a simple link, as equal grammatical components.

Cats **and** dogs are animals. *(connecting two words)*

We wanted to walk in the forest **or** on the hill. *(connecting two phrases)*

They went to the park **and** had a picnic. *(connecting two clauses)*

Coordinating conjunctions include *and, or, for, so, but, yet* and *nor*. These can create relationships that show, for example, a contrast, a decision, or consequences, but in all cases the they connect words, phrases and clauses that do not have a grammatical impact on each other.

I wanted to go, but decided to stay. (*contrast*)

She did not know whether to go left or right. (*decision*)

It started raining, so he went home. (*consequence*)

Coordinating conjunctions do not require a comma before them when connecting single words or ideas, but require a comma when listing more than one word, phrase or clause.

They ate cheese, biscuits and fruit for desert.

They also usually require a comma when connecting two independent clauses.

I liked the car, but I could not afford to buy it.

Subordinating Conjunctions

Subordinating conjunctions connect an independent clause to a dependent clause. They show consequences, connecting two ideas – and are different from coordinating conjunctions because they occur in sentences where the dependent clause would not work on its own.

They played football *while* it was sunny.

Here, *it was sunny* is a dependent clause; it is a grammatically complete idea but it does not really make sense on its own (leading you to ask what was sunny, or when was it sunny, without the independent clause to provide context).

Subordinating clauses can demonstrate a wide variety of relationships between two clauses. They can also come at the beginning of

13

clauses, as well as connecting clauses in the middle.

We were happy because our team won.

Because our team won, we were happy.

Common subordinating conjunctions include:

after

although

as

as far as

as if

as soon as

because

before

even if

how

if

in case

in that

no matter how

now that

once

provided

since

so that

supposing

though

unless

until

when

wherever

whether

while

while

Check the next edition of this blog to see examples for all of these conjunctions!

Correlative Conjunction
Correlative conjunctions are pairs of conjunctions that connect equal sentence parts in specific ways. These can connect or contrast ideas. An example that I have previously discussed in detail is not only…but also.

This is not only fun, but also interesting.

Other examples include:

both… and

either… or

neither… nor

not only… but also

so… as

whether… or

These create specific relationships between words that are generally used for emphasis. For example, we could connect two ideas

simply with **and**, but it emphasises that the two ideas share a certain quality if we say **both… and**.

My mother and sister were ill.

Both my mother and sister were ill.

In the second sentence, this may emphasise that for both people to be ill is surprising or alarming. The first sentence is more of a dry statement of fact.

Conjunctive Adverbs

Clauses and phrases can also be connected with certain adverbs which connect ideas. These can be used in the same way as conjunctions, but are not specifically conjunctions. They can be single adverbs or adverb phrases.

He bought two oranges **in addition** to the bag of grapes.

We finished watching the film, **although** no one understood it.

These are usually used in the form of subordinating conjunctions, although they can also introduce new sentences (following a related sentence). As such they can come at the beginning or middle of a sentence.

I like old books, for example *The Illiad*.

I like old books. For example, *The Illiad* is very good.

Examples of more conjunctive adverbs include:

after all

as a result

consequently

finally

for example

furthermore

hence

however

in addition

in fact

incidentally

indeed

instead

likewise

meanwhile

on the contrary

on the other hand

otherwise

still

therefore

thus

Using Conjunctions

Conjunctions, in all three forms, and including conjunctive adverbs, are very useful for connecting both simple and complex ideas in English. They create relationships and can be useful for flow. They are simple in theory, but can be as complicated as the phrases and ideas they connect

Phrase

 "A phrase is defined as a group of related words that lacks both subject and verb."

A phrase is a part of a sentence. It is a group of words (within a sentence) that does not contain both subject and verb, and does not express a complete idea.

Example.

He is standing near a wall.

The part of above sentence "near a wall" is a phrase because it does not contain subject and verb, and does not express a complete idea.

A phrase does not include both subject and verb at a same time and does not make a complete sense, hence a phrase cannot stand as a sentence on its own.

If a group of words include both subject and verb then it becomes a clause, so the difference in a clause and a phrase is that a clause contains subject and verb but a phrase does not contain subject and verb.

Here are some examples of phrases.

He is laughing at a joker.

She is making tea for the guests.

I saw a girl with blue eyes.

He always behaves in a strange way.

The boy in the red shirt is my cousin.

The boy, with a book in his hand, won a prize.

A sentence may consist of one or more phrases.

For example, The boy in the red shirt behaves in a strange way.

A phrase functions as a noun, adverb, or adjective in a sentence, therefore a phrase is also defined as "a group of words (lacking subject and verb), that functions as a single part of speech, in a sentence."

Examples

He is wearing a nice read shirt.   (as a noun/object)

The people at the party were dancing.   (as a noun/subject)

The man in the room is our teacher.   (as adjective, modifies noun man)

She gave me a glass full of water.   (as adjective, modifies noun glass)

He always behaves in a strange way.   (as adverb, modifies verb behave)

He returned in a short while.   (as adverb, modifies verb return)

On the basis of their functions and constructions, phrases are divided into various types i.e. noun phrase, verb phrase, adverb phrase, adjective phrase, appositive phrase, infinite phrase, participle phrase and gerund phrase

Types of Phrases

A phrase is a group of related words (within a sentence) without both subject and verb. For example, He is laughing at the joker.

A phrase functions as a noun, verb, adverb, adjective or preposition in a sentence. The function of a phrase depends on its construction (words it contains). On the basis of their functions and constructions, phrases are divided into various types i.e. noun phrase, verb phrase, adverb phrase, adjective phrase, appositive phrase, infinite phrase, participle phrase and gerund phrase.

Noun Phrase

A noun phrase consists of a noun and other related words (usually modifiers and determiners) which modify the noun. It functions like a noun in a sentence.

A noun phrase consists of a noun as the head word and other words (usually modifiers and determiners) which come after or before the noun. The whole phrase works as a noun in a sentence.

Noun Phrase = noun + modifiers   (the modifiers can be after or before noun)

Examples.

He is wearing a nice red shirt.   (as noun/object)

She brought a glass full of water.   (as noun/object)

The boy with brown hair is laughing.   (as noun/subject)

A man on the roof was shouting.   (as noun/subject)

A sentence can also contain more noun phrases.

For example. The girl with blue eyes bought a beautiful chair.

Prepositional Phrase.

A prepositional phrase consists of a preposition, object of preposition(noun or pronoun) and may also consist of other modifiers.

e.g. on a table, near a wall, in the room, at the door, under a tree

A prepositional phrase starts with a preposition and mostly ends with a noun or pronoun. Whatever prepositional phrase ends with is called object of preposition. A prepositional phrase functions as an adjective or adverb in a sentence.

Examples.

A boy on the roof is singing a song. (As adjective)

The man in the room is our teacher. (As adjective)

She is shouting in a loud voice.   (As adverb)

He always behaves in a good manner. (As adverb)

Adjective Phrase.

An adjective phrase is a group of words that functions like an adjective in a sentence. It consists of adjectives, modifier and any word that modifies a noun or pronoun.

An adjective phrase functions like an adjective to modify (or tell about) a noun or a pronoun in a sentence.

Examples.

He is wearing a nice red shirt. (modifies shirt)

The girl with brown hair is singing a song. (modifies girl)

He gave me a glass full of water. (modifies glass)

A boy from America won the race. (modifies boy)

Prepositional phrases and participle phrases also function as adjectives so we can also call them adjective phrases when they function as adjective. In the above sentence "The girl with brown hair is singing a song", the phrase "with brown hair" is a prepositional phrase but it functions as an adjective.

Adverb Phrase

An adverb phrase is a group of words that functions as an adverb in a sentence. It consists of adverbs or other words (preposition, noun, verb, modifiers) that

make a group with works like an adverb in a sentence.

An adverb phrase functions like an adverb to modify a verb, an adjective or another adverb.

Examples

He always behaves in a good manner. (modifies verb behave)

They were shouting in a loud voice. (modifies verb shout)

She always drives with care. (modifies verb drive)

He sat in a corner of the room. (modifies verb sit)

He returned in a short while. (modifies verb return)

A prepositional phrase can also act as an adverb phrase. For example in above sentence "He always behaves in a good manner", the phrase "in a good manner" is a prepositional phrase but it acts as adverb phrase here.

Verb Phrase
    A verb phrase is a combination of main verb and its auxiliaries (helping verbs) in a sentence.

Examples.

He is eating an apple.

She has finished her work.

You should study for the exam.

She has been sleeping for two hours.

According to generative grammar, a verb phrase can consist of main verb, its auxiliaries, its complements and other modifiers. Hence it can refer to the whole predicate of a sentence.

Example. You should study for the exam.

Infinitive Phrase

An infinitive phrase consist of an infinitive(to + simple form of verb) and modifiers or other words associated to the infinitive. An infinitive phrase always functions as an adjective, adverb or a noun in a sentence.

Examples.

He likes to read books.   (As noun/object)

To earn money is a desire of everyone.   (As noun/subject)

He shouted to inform people about fire. (As adverb, modifies verb shout)

He made a plan to buy a car.   (As adjective, modifies noun plan)

Gerund Phrase
A gerund phrase consists of a gerund(verb + ing) and modifiers or other words associated with the gerund. A gerund phrase acts as a noun in a sentence.

Examples

I like writing good essays. (As noun/object)

She started thinking about the problem. (As noun/object)

Sleeping late in night is not a good habit. (As noun/subject)

Weeping of a baby woke him up. (As noun/subject)

Participle Phrase
        A participle phrase consists of a present participle (verb + ing), a past participle (verb ending in -ed or other form in case of irregular verbs) and modifiers or other associate words. A participle

18

phrase is separated by commas. It always acts as an adjective in a sentence.

Examples

The kids, making a noise, need food. (modifies kids)

I received a letter, mentioning about my exam.   (modifies letter)

The table, made of steel, is too expensive. (modifies table)

We saw a car, damaged in an accident. (modifies car)

Absolute Phrase

Absolute phrase (also called nominative phrase) is a group of words including a noun or pronoun and a participle as well as any associated modifiers. Absolute phrase modifies (give information about) the entire sentence. It resembles a clause but it lack a true finite verb. It is separated by a comma or pairs of commas from the rest sentence.

Examples

He looks sad, his face expressing worry.

She was waiting for her friend, her eyes on the clock.

Samra is painting a wall, her shirt dirty with paint.

Clause

"A clause is a group of related words containing a subject and a predicate"

For example, he laughed.

A clause refers to a group of related words (within a sentence or itself as an independent sentence) which has both subject and predicate.

Example

I will meet him in office.

The part of above sentence "I will meet him" is a clause because it has a subject(I) and a predicate(will meet him). On the other hand, the rest part of above sentence "in office" lacks both subject and predicate(verb) such group of word is called phrase.

A clause may stand as a simple sentence or may join another clause to make a sentence. Therefore, a sentence consists of one, two or more clauses.

Examples.

• He is sleeping.
(one clause)

• The kids were laughing at the joker.
(one clause)

• The teacher asked a question, but no one answered.   (two clauses)

• I am happy, because I won a prize.
(two clauses)

• I like Mathematics, but my brother likes Biology,

because he wants to become a doctor.
(three clauses)

Clauses are divided into main clause (also called independent clause) and subordinate clause (also called dependent clauses).

Types of Subordinate Clause

Functions of Subordinate Clause.

A subordinate (dependent) clause may function as a noun, an adjective or an adverb in sentence. On the basis of their function in a sentence, subordinate clauses can be divided in to following types.

1. Noun Clause

2. Adjective Clause.

3. Adverb Clause

Noun Clause

"A dependent clause that functions as a noun in a sentence is called noun clause."

A noun clause performs same function like a noun in a sentence.

Example

What he did made a problem for his family.

In above sentence the clause "what he did" functions as a noun, hence it is a noun clause. A noun clause works as a noun that acts as a subject, object, or predicate in a sentence. A noun clause starts with words "that, what, whatever, who, whom, whoever, whomever".

Examples

Whatever you learn will help you in future.
(noun clause as a subject)

What you said made me laugh.
(noun clause as a subject)

He knows that he will pass the test.
(noun clause as an object)

Now I realize what he would have thought.
(noun clause as an object)

Adjective Clause

"A dependent clause that functions as an adjective in a sentence is called adjective clause."

An adjective clause works like adjective in a sentence. The function of an adjective is to modify (describe) a noun or a pronoun. Similarly a noun clause modifies a noun or a pronoun.

Example

He wears a shirt which looks nice.

The clause "which looks nice" in above sentence is an adjective clause because it modifies noun "shirt" in the sentence.

An adjective clause always precedes the noun it modifies.

Examples.

I met the boy who had helped me.

An apple that smells bad is rotten.

The book which I like is helpful in preparation for test.

The house where I live consists of four rooms.

The person who was shouting needed help.

Adjective clause begins with relative pronoun (that, who, whom, whose, which, or whose) and is also relative clause.

Adjective (relative) clauses can be restrictive clause or nonrestrictive clause

Restrictive and Nonrestrictive Clauses

Adjective (relative) clauses can be restrictive clause or nonrestrictive clause. A restrictive clause limits the meaning of preceding noun or pronoun. A nonrestrictive clause tells us something about preceding noun or pronoun but does not limit the meaning of preceding noun or pronoun.

Example

•The student in the class who studied a lot passed the test. (restrictive clause)

20

•The student in the class, who had attended all the lectures, passed the   test.
(nonrestrictive clause)

In the first sentence the clause "who studied a lot" restrict information to preceding noun(student), it means that there is only one student in the class who studied a lot, hence it is a restrictive clause.

In the second sentence the clause "who had attended all the lectures" gives us information about preceding noun but does not limit this information to the preceding noun. It means there can be several other students in the class who had attended all the lectures.

A comma is always used before a restrictive clause in a sentence and also after nonrestrictive clause if it is within a main clause. "That" is usually used to introduce a restrictive clause while "which" is used to introduce a nonrestrictive clause.

Example

The table that costs $ 100 is made of steel. (restrictive clause)

The table, which costs $ 100, is made of steel. (nonrestrictive clause)

Adverb Clause

"A dependent clause that functions as an adverb in a sentence is called adverb clause"

An adverb clause like an adverb modifies a verb, adjective clause or other adverb clause in a sentence. It modifies(describes) the situation in main clause in terms of "time, frequency (how often), cause and effect, contrast, condition, intensity (to what extent)."

The subordinating conjunctions used for adverb clauses are as follows.

Time: when, whenever, since, until, before, after, while, as, by the time, as soon as

Cause and effect: because, since, now that, as long as, so, so that,

Contrast: although, even, whereas, while, though

Condition: if, unless, only if, whether or not, even if, providing or provided that, in case

Examples.

Don't go before he comes.

He takes medicine because he is ill.

Although he tried a lot, he couldn't climb up the tree.

Unless you study for the test, you can't pass it.

I will go to the school unless it rains.

You are safe as long as you drive carefully.

You can achieve anything provided that you struggle for it.

Phrase and Clause comparison
Definitions

A clause is defined as a group of related words that contains a subject and predicate (verb).

e.g. he came.

A phrase is defined as a group of related words that does not contain a subject and a verb.

e.g. on the table.

Consider the following example

He is laughing at a joker.

The above sentence has two parts "he is laughing" and "at a joker".

The first part of the sentence "he is laughing" is a clause because it has a subject (he) and a predicate (is laughing).

The second part of the sentence "at a joker" is a phrase because it does not contain subject and verb.

The difference between a clause and a phrase is that a clause consists of both subject and verb, but a phrase lacks a subject and verb.

Examples.

The underlined part of each of following sentences shows a clause, while the rest part (non-underlined) of each sentence shows a phrase.

He reached school in time.

I was standing near a wall.

They are singing in a loud voice.

She made tea for the guests.

He a bought a book for his friend.

I will meet him in my office.

You look handsome in this picture.

A **clause** is a collection of words that has a subject that is actively doing a verb. The following are examples of clauses:
- since she laughs at diffident men
- I despise individuals of low character
- when the saints go marching in
- Obediah Simpson is uglier than a rabid raccoon
- because she smiled at him.

In the examples above, we find either a noun or a pronoun that is a **subject** (bold-print) attached to a predicate verb (underlined) in each case:
- since **she** laughs at diffident men
- **I** despise individuals of low character
- when the **saints** go marching in

- **Obediah Simpson** is uglier than a rabid raccoon.
- because **she** smiled at him

III. If the clause could stand by itself, and form a complete sentence with punctuation,
we call the clause an **independent clause**. The following are independent clauses:
- **I** despise individuals of low character
- **Obediah Simpson** is uglier than a rabid raccoon

We could easily turn independent clauses into complete sentences by adding
appropriate punctuation marks. We might say, "I despise individuals of low character."
Or we might write, "Obediah Simpson is uglier than a rabid raccoon!" We call them *independent* because these types of clauses can stand *independently* by themselves,
without any extra words attached, and be complete sentences.

- **IV. Dependent clauses** have a subject doing a verb, but they have a subordinate conjunction placed in front of the clause. That subordinate conjunction means that
the clause can't stand independently by itself and become a complete sentence.
Instead, the dependent clause is *dependent* upon another clause--it can't make a complete sentence by itself, even though it has a subject doing a verb.
Common Subordinating Conjunctions/Dependant Words
after because
who, whose, whom what, whatever
before since until

when	that	if
while	whether...or not	unless

as	although	even though
as if	which	so that

Here are some examples of dependent clauses:
• since **she** laughs at diffident men
• when the **saints** go marching in
• because **she** smiled at him
These clauses simply do not form complete thoughts or sentences by themselves.
Those subordinate conjunctions--since, when, and because, cause the listener to
expect the speaker to add some extra material. The thought is incomplete. If you walked
up to a friend in the dorms and said, "since she laughs at diffident men," and then
walked away without adding an independent clause, the friend would be completely
baffled.
It's important to understand the difference between phrases, dependent clauses, and
independent clauses because many punctuation marks--such as commas, semicolons,
and colons, require one or the other.

Subject: **Action Performer**

Verb: Action Word

Object: Action receiver

Umer hits the ball.

Umer---- subject

Hits----verb

The ball----object

Verbals: Gerunds, Infinitives, and Participles

The three verbals— **gerunds, infinitives,** and **participles**—are formed from verbs, but are never used alone as action words in sentences. Instead, verbals function as nouns, adjectives, or adverbs. These verbals are important in phrases.

The **gerund** ends in -*ing* and functions as a noun.

> *Jumping* is fun.

> He liked *skiing*.

> He had a unique way of *whistling*.

The **infinitive** is the base form of a verb with *to*. Usually it functions as a noun, although it can also function as an adjective or adverb.

> *To jump* is fun. (noun; subject of the verb *is*)

> I like *to ski*. (noun; direct object of the verb *like*)

> She had a suggestion *to offer*. (adjective modifying *suggestion*)

> He called *to warn* her. (adverb modifying the verb *called*)

A **participle** is a verb that ends in -*ing* (present participle) or -*ed, -d, -t, -en, -n* (past participle). Participles may function as adjectives, describing or modifying nouns.

> The *dancing* parrots entertained the crowd.

> The *wrecked* sailboat washed up on shore.

But participles have another function. When used with helping verbs such as *to be* and *to have*, they are action verbs and form several verb **tenses.**

She *is thinking* of the children.

The conference room *had been cleaned* before they arrived.

Types of Sentences (on the basis of function)

A combination of words which gives a complete meaning is called a sentence. There are various types of sentence depending

upon its structure and function. On the basis of its function, a sentence has the following four kinds.

1. Declarative Sentence

2. Interrogative Sentence

3. Imperative Sentence

4. Exclamatory Sentence

5. Optative Ssentences

Declarative sentence

A sentence which declares or asserts a statement is called declarative sentence. It simply announces an idea. It has a plan

statement. A declarative sentence ends with a full-stop mark or a period (.).

Examples:

10/14/2018 Types of Sentences (On basis of function)

http://www.studyandexam.com/sentence-kinds.html 3/4

He bought a new laptop.

They are playing footbal l.

He is going to college.

I saw my friend in the street.

He is studying a book.

She is watching a mov ie.

Interrogative sentence

A sentence that has a question is called Interrogative sentence. It is also called a question-sentence. An interrogative sentence

ends with a question-mark (?).

Examples:

How are you?

When will he come?

Where are you going ?

What is your hobby?

Will you help me?

Imperative sentence

A sentence which expresses a request, a command or an order is called imperative sentence. An imperative sentence mostly

ends with a period (.). It can also sometimes ends with an exclamation mark (!) depending upon the emotion in the sentence.

Examples:

Turn off the light. (command)

Give me some food. (request)

Please cooperate with me. (request)

Don't smoke. (adv ice)

Don't waste your time. (advice)

Get out of the room. (comma nd)

Exclamatory sentence

A sentence which expresses strong emotion or feeling is called an exclamatory sentence. It describes emotions or feelings of

joy, anger, sorrow, surprise, excitement, frustration and appreciation. An exclamatory sentence is ended with an exclamation

mark (!).

Examples:

Hurrah! We won the race! (emotions of joy)

Alas! I lost my purse! (emotions of so rrow)

What a nice car! (emotions of surprise)

Hurrah! I got selected for the job! (emotion of joy)

How nicely they are dancing! (emotions of surprise)

It's fantastic! (emotion of excit ement)

How intelligent you are! (emotions of surprise)

5. Optative Sentences

In these sentences there is wishing.

May you prosperous in life.

Sentences: Simple, Compound, and Complex

A common weakness in writing is the lack of varied sentences. Becoming aware of three general types of sentences--simple, compound, and complex--can help you vary the sentences in your writing.

The most effective writing uses a variety of the sentence types explained below.

1. Simple Sentences

A **simple sentence** has the most basic elements that make it a sentence: a subject, a verb, and a completed thought.

Examples of **simple sentences** include the following:

Joe waited for the train.
"Joe" = subject, "waited" = verb

The train was late.
"The train" = subject, "was" = verb

Mary and Samantha took the bus.
"Mary and Samantha" = compound subject, "took" = verb

I looked for Mary and Samantha at the bus station.
"I" = subject, "looked" = verb

Mary and Samantha arrived at the bus station early but waited until noon for the bus.
"Mary and Samantha" = compound subject, "arrived" and "waited" = compound verb

Tip: If you use many simple sentences in an essay, you should consider revising some of the sentences into compound or complex sentences (explained below).

25

The use of compound subjects, compound verbs, prepositional phrases (such as "at the bus station"), and other elements help lengthen simple sentences, but simple sentences often are short. The use of too many simple sentences can make writing "choppy" and can prevent the writing from flowing smoothly.

A simple sentence can also be referred to as an **independent clause**. It is referred to as "independent" because, while it might be part of a compound or complex sentence, it can also stand by itself as a complete sentence.

2. Compound Sentences

A **compound sentence** refers to a sentence made up of two independent clauses (or complete sentences) connected to one another with a **coordinating conjunction**. Coordinating conjunctions are easy to remember if you think of the words "FAN BOYS":

For

And

Nor

But

Or

Yet

So

Examples of **compound sentences** include the following:

Joe waited for the train, **but** the train was late.

I looked for Mary and Samantha at the bus station, **but** they arrived at the station before noon and left on the bus before I arrived.

Mary and Samantha arrived at the bus station before noon, **and** they left on the bus before I arrived.

Mary and Samantha left on the bus before I arrived, **so** I did not see them at the bus station.

Tip: If you rely heavily on compound sentences in an essay, you should consider revising some of them into complex sentences (explained below).

Coordinating conjunctions are useful for connecting sentences, but compound sentences often are overused. While coordinating conjunctions can indicate some type of relationship between the two independent clauses in the sentence, they sometimes do not indicate much of a relationship. The word "and," for example, only adds one independent clause to another, without indicating how the two parts of a sentence are logically

related. Too many compound sentences that use "and" can weaken writing.

Clearer and more specific relationships can be established through the use of complex sentences.

3. Complex Sentences

A **complex sentence** is made up of an independent clause and one or more **dependent clauses** connected to it. A dependent clause is similar to an independent clause, or complete sentence, but it lacks one of the elements that would make it a complete sentence.

Examples of **dependent clauses** include the following:

because Mary and Samantha arrived at the bus station before noon

while he waited at the train station

after they left on the bus

Dependent clauses such as those above **cannot** stand alone as a sentence, but they can be added to an independent clause to form a complex sentence.

Dependent clauses begin with **subordinating conjunctions**. Below are some of the most common subordinating conjunctions:

after

although

as

because

before

even though

if

since

though

unless

until

when

whenever

whereas

wherever

while

A complex sentence joins an independent clause with one or more dependent clauses.

The dependent clauses can go first in the sentence, followed by the independent clause, as in the following:

Tip: When the dependent clause comes first, a comma should be used to separate the two clauses.

Because Mary and Samantha arrived at the bus station before noon, I did not see them at the station.

While he waited at the train station, Joe realized that the train was late.

After they left on the bus, Mary and Samantha realized that Joe was waiting at the train station.

Conversely, the independent clauses can go first in the sentence, followed by the dependent clause, as in the following:

Tip: When the independent clause comes first, a comma should **not** be used to separate the two clauses.

I did not see them at the station because Mary and Samantha arrived at the bus station before noon.

Joe realized that the train was late while he waited at the train station.

Mary and Samantha realized that Joe was waiting at the train station after they left on the bus.

Complex sentences are often more effective than compound sentences because a complex sentence indicates clearer and more specific relationships between the main parts of the sentence. The word "before," for instance, tells readers that one thing occurs before another. A word such as "although" conveys a more complex relationship than a word such as "and" conveys.

The term **periodic sentence** is used to refer to a complex sentence beginning with a dependent clause and ending with an independent clause, as in "While he waited at the train station, Joe realized that the train was late."

Periodic sentences can be especially effective because the completed thought occurs at the end of it, so the first part of the sentence can build up to the meaning that comes at the end.

Beginning Sentences with "And" or "Because"

Should you begin a sentence with "and" or "but" (or one of the other coordinating conjunctions)?

The short answer is "no." You should avoid beginning a sentence with "and," "or," "but," or the other coordinating conjunctions. These words generally are used to join together parts of a sentence, not to begin a new sentence.

However, such sentences can be used effectively. Because sentences beginning with these words stand out, they are sometimes used for emphasis. If you use sentences beginning with one of the coordinating conjunctions, you should use these sentences sparingly and carefully.

Should you begin a sentence with "because"?

There is nothing wrong with beginning a sentence with "because."

Perhaps some students are told not to begin a sentence with "because" to avoid sentence fragments (something like "Because Mary and Samantha arrived at the bus station before noon" is a sentence fragment), but it is perfectly acceptable to begin a sentence with "because" as long as the sentence is complete (as in "Because Mary and Samantha arrived at the bus station before noon, I did not see them at the station.")

Independent/Dependent Clauses

When you want to use commas and semicolons in sentences and when you are concerned about whether a sentence is or is not a fragment, a good way to start is being able to recognize dependent and independent clauses.

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

For example: Jim studied in the Sweet Shop for his chemistry quiz.

There are two types of words that can be used as connector at the beginning of an independent clause:

Coordinating conjunctions – The seven coordinating conjunctions used as connecting words at the beginning of an independent clause are *and, but, for, or, nor, so*, and *yet*. When the second independent clause in a sentence begins with a coordinating conjunction, a comma is needed before the coordinating conjunction.

For example: Jim studied in the Sweet Shop for his chemistry quiz, *but* it was hard to concentrate because of the noise.

Independent marker word – A connecting word used at the beginning of an independent clause, like *also, consequently, furthermore, however, moreover, nevertheless*, and *therefore*. When the second independent clause in a sentence has an independent marker word, a semicolon is needed before the independent marker word.

For example: Jim studied in the Sweet Shop for his chemistry quiz; *however*, it was hard to concentrate because of the noise.

Dependent clause – A group of words that contains a subject and verb but does not express a complete thought. A dependent clause cannot be a sentence.

For example: When Jim studied in the Sweet Shop for his chemistry quiz…

Dependent marker words are words added to the beginning of an independent clause that make it a dependent clause such as *after, although, as, as if, because, before, even f, even though, in order to, since, though, unless, until, whatever, when, whenever, whether,* and *while*.

For example: *When* Jim studied in the Sweet Shop for his chemistry quiz…

(Without the word *When*, this would be a complete sentence and an independent clause; with *When*, it becomes a dependent clause. A reader would ask, "When what?")

Conditional Sentences—Rules You Need to Know

There are four types of conditional sentences.

It's important to use the correct structure for each of these different conditional sentences because they express varying meanings.

Pay attention to verb tense when using different conditional modes.

Use a comma after the if-clause when the if-clause precedes the main clause.

Conditional sentences are statements discussing known factors or hypothetical situations and their consequences. Complete conditional sentences contain a conditional clause (often referred to as the if-clause) and the consequence. Consider the following sentences:

If a certain condition is true, then a particular result happens.

I would travel around the world if I won the lottery.

When water reaches 100 degrees, it boils.

What Are the Different Types of Conditional Sentences? There are four different types of conditional sentences in English. Each expresses a different degree of probability that a situation will occur or would have occurred under certain circumstances.

Zero Conditional Sentences

First Conditional Sentences

Second Conditional Sentences

Third Conditional Sentences

Let's look at each of these different types of conditional sentences in more detail.

How to Use Zero Conditional Sentences

Zero conditional sentences express general truths—situations in which one thing *always* causes another. When you use a zero conditional, you're talking about a general truth rather than a specific instance of something. Consider the following examples:

If you don't brush your teeth, you get cavities.

When people smoke cigarettes, their health suffers.

There are a couple of things to take note of in the above sentences in which the zero conditional is used. First, when using the zero conditional, the correct tense to use in both clauses is the simple present tense. A common mistake is to use the simple future tense.

When people smoke cigarettes, their health will suffer .

Secondly, notice that the words *if* and *when* can be used interchangeably in these zero conditional sentences. This is because the outcome will always be the same, so it doesn't matter "if" or "when" it happens.

How to Use First Conditional Sentences

First conditional sentences are used to express situations in which the outcome is likely (but not guaranteed) to happen in the future. Look at the examples below:

If you rest, you will feel better.

If you set your mind to a goal, you'll eventually achieve it.

Note that we use the simple present tense in the if-clause and simple future tense in the main clause—that is, the clause that expresses the likely outcome. This is how we indicate that under a certain condition (as expressed in the if-clause), a specific result *will* likely happen in the future. Examine some of the common mistakes people make using the first conditional structure:

If you will rest , you will feel better.

If you rest , you will feel better.

Explanation: Use the simple present tense in the if-clause.

If you set your mind to a goal, you eventually achieve it.

If you set your mind to a goal, you'll eventually achieve it.

Explanation: Use the zero conditional (i.e., simple present + simple present) only when a certain result is guaranteed. If the result is likely, use the first conditional (i.e., simple present + simple future).

How to Use Second Conditional Sentences

Second conditional sentences are useful for expressing outcomes that are completely unrealistic or will *not* likely happen in the future. Consider the examples below:

If I inherited a billion dollars, I would travel to the moon.

If I owned a zoo, I might let people interact with the animals more.

Notice the correct way to structure second conditional sentences is to use the simple past tense in the if-clause and an auxiliary modal verb (e.g., could, should, would, might) in the main clause (the one that expresses the unrealistic or unlikely outcome). The following sentences illustrate a couple of the common mistakes people make when using the second conditional:

If I inherit a billion dollars, I would travel to the moon.

If I inherited a billion dollars, I would travel to the moon.

Explanation: When applying the second conditional, use the simple past tense in the if-clause.

If I owned a zoo, I will let people interact with the animals more.

If I owned a zoo, I might let people interact with the animals more.

Explanation: Use a modal auxiliary verb in the main clause when using the second conditional mood to express the unlikelihood that the result will actually happen.

How to Use Third Conditional Sentences

Third conditional sentences are used to explain that present circumstances would be different if something different had happened in the past. Look at the following examples:

If you had told me you needed a ride, I would have left earlier.

If I had cleaned the house, I could have gone to the movies.

These sentences express a condition that was likely enough, but did not actually happen in the past. The speaker in the first sentence was capable of leaving early, but did not. Along these same lines, the speaker in the second sentence was capable of cleaning the house, but did not. These are all conditions that were likely, but regrettably did not happen.

Note that when using the third conditional, we use the past perfect (i.e., had + past participle) in the if-clause. The modal auxiliary (would, could, shoud, etc.) + have + past participle in the main clause expresses the theoretical situation that *could* have happened.

Consider these common mistakes when applying the third conditional:

If you would have told me you needed a ride, I would have left earlier.

If you had told me you needed a ride, I would have left earlier.

Explanation: With third conditional sentences, do not use a modal auxiliary verb in the if-clause.

If I had cleaned the house, I could go to the movies.

If I had cleaned the house, I could have gone to the movies.

Explanation: The third conditional mood expresses a situation that could have only happened in the past if a certain condition had been met. That's why we use the modal auxiliary verb + have + the past participle.

Exceptions and Special Cases When Using Conditional Sentences

As with most topics in the English language, conditional sentences often present special cases in which unique rules must be applied.

Use of the Simple Future in the If-Clause

Generally speaking, the simple future should be used only in the main clause. One exception is when the action in the if-clause will take place *after* the action in the main clause. For example, consider the following sentence:

If aspirin will ease my headache, I will take a couple tonight.

The action in the if-clause is the aspirin easing the headache, which will take place only after the speaker takes them later that night.

"Were to" in the If-Clause

The verb phrase *were to* is sometimes used in conditional sentences when the likely or unlikely result is particularly awful or unthinkable. In this case, *were to* is used to place emphasis on this potential outcome. Consider these sentences:

If I were to be sick, I would miss another day of work.

If she were to be late again, she would have to have a conference with the manager.

If the rent were to have been a penny more, they would not have been able to pay it.

Note that the emphatic "were to" can be used to describe hypothetical scenarios in the present, future, and past.

Punctuating Conditional Sentences

Despite the complex nature of conditional sentences, punctuating them properly is really simple!

Here's the skinny:

Use a comma after the if-clause when the if-clause precedes the main clause.

If I'd had time, I would have cleaned the house.

If the main clause precedes the if-clause, no punctuation is necessary.

I would have cleaned the house if I'd had time.