Block

4

SENTENCE TYPE: FORM AND FUNCTION

BLOCK INTRODUCTION

In this block 'Sentence Type: Form and Function' we are going to touch upon some aspects of grammar with which you are already familiar. These refer to

Unit 1: Basic Sentence Patterns in English

Unit 2: The Noun Phrase

Unit 3: The Verb Phrase

Unit 4:   Compound and Complex Sentences

Unit 5: Sentence Transformation

These units will help you revise your grammar as well as give you new insights about 'old' information.

UNIT 1 BASIC SENTENCE PATTERNS IN ENGLISH

Structure

1.0 OBJECTIVES

The purpose of this unit is to introduce you to the basic patterns of sentences of English. By the end of this unit you will understand that English sentences are made of some **obligatory** and some **optional** elements. You will also clarify your understanding of these elements and their roles in sentences. Finally, you will also see that all sentences in English can be reduced to one of the **seven basic patterns** of sentences.

1.1 INTRODUCTION

You are well aware that sentences are not just groups of words randomly put together, but an ordered string of words which follow certain rules of combination. An awareness of these rules will help us not only in understanding how sentences are constructed, but also in making correct sentences. In order to understand different parts of a sentence and how they combine, let us first try to understand how they are named.

1.2 FUNCTIONAL AND FORMAL LABELS

A sentence consists of smaller units. These units may themselves be single words or combination of words (phrases). Each of these units performs some function in the sentence. To show what function a unit may be performing we use labels like subject, predicate, object, complement and adjunct. These are *functional labels,* which are different from *formal labels* like noun, adjective, adverb, etc. Let us first try to understand this difference.

Formal labels are related to the *form* of a word. The form of a word is always stable and independent of its position in a sentence. A word may occur in different positions in different sentences. It may have different functions in those sentences. We will use different functional labels to show these different functions. But in all these sentences its form will be the same, and hence the formal label will be the same.

Consider these examples:

1) Boys play more roughly than girls.

2) You will always see boys playing here in the evenings.

3) Even men become boys out on a picnic.

In all these sentences the word 'boys' is a noun. '*Noun*' is the formal label of this word. However, it performs different functions in these sentences. It is the *subject* in the first sentence, the *object* in the second and the *complement* in the third.

Let us try to understand this by analogy. Labels like 'man', 'woman', 'girl' and 'boy' are formal labels. Looking at the *form* (i.e. appearance) of a person we can tell whether that person is a man, a woman, a girl or a boy. Now suppose this person is a man. He may play different roles in relation to different people, and according to those roles we may say he is a 'father' in one case, a 'brother' in another, a 'boss' in a third, a 'junior employee' in a fourth case, a 'husband' in fifth, and so on. The labels like 'father', 'brother', 'husband' or 'boss' are functional labels. They depend on the relationship of the man in a given case. So these labels will change from situation to situation. But in all these situations, the formal label will not change. The person will be a 'man' everywhere.

If we use the same analogy for words, then labels like 'noun', 'adjective' or 'adverb' are formal labels. If a word is a 'noun', it will remain a noun in any sentence. But it can be a 'subject' in one sentence, an 'object' in another and a 'complement' in a third sentence. This will depend on what function the given noun is doing in the given sentence. Thus formal labels are constant and they are related to the form, while functional labels depend on the relationship and will change from sentence to sentence.

In the grammar of English we talk about the following **formal labels** (these are sometimes also called 'categorical labels' as they show the category of a word):

Noun (and noun phrase), verb (and verb phrase), adjective (and adjective phrase), adverb (and adverb phrase), pronoun, preposition (and prepositional phrase), articles, ordinals, quantifiers, demonstratives, conjunctions, etc.

And here are some common **functional labels**:

Subject, predicate, verb, object, complement, adjunct, modifier, classifier, etc.

NOTE: 1. Neither of the lists is exhaustive. 2. You may find slightly different lists in different grammar books. 3. Though the label 'verb' is found in both the lists, one is a 'formal' and the other a 'functional' label.

Check your progress 1

Look at the following sentence:

> The <u>teacher</u> told <u>us</u> inspiring <u>stories</u> in her classes.

In this sentence '*teacher*' is a noun performing the role of the subject of the sentence. Thus, its formal label will be 'noun' and functional label will be 'subject'. Similarly, the formal label of '*us*' is pronoun and functional label is object, while the formal and functional labels of '*stories*' will be noun and object respectively.

Now, list the formal and functional labels of the underlined words in the following sentences in the given table. The first one is done for you as an example.

a)   Delhi is the capital of India.

b)   'Shall' is not used much in the modern English.

c)   He disliked 'with' written at the end of that sentence.

d)   Let us take the guests upstairs.

e)   She won't give money to strangers.

Sentence	Word	Formal Label	Functional Label
a)	Delhi	Noun	Subject
a)	capital		
b)	shall		
c)	with		
d)	guests		
d)	upstairs		
e)	money		
e)	strangers		

1.3   SENTENCE ELEMENTS

We tried to understand the difference between formal and functional labels. It is important to understand this difference because sentences are made of *functional* elements. Now let us look at the common functional elements in sentences. The seven basic sentence patterns are related to them.

Every sentence has two basic parts – the subject and the predicate. Look at these sentences:

	Subject	*Predicate*
4)	Vikram	slowly opened the door for me.
5)	My college	has become the largest college in the region.
6)	The new boss	is very strict about our assignments.
7)	It	was a very hot afternoon in August.
8)	They	proudly called him the 'hero of the nation'.

Traditionally the subject has been described as related to 'what is being discussed', that is, the 'theme' of the sentence, while the predicate has been described as something that has been said about the subject. However this is just a general description, and cannot really define the subject and the predicate properly. (For example, this does not apply to sentence no. 7 above.) The distinction is still important. There is an easier way to understand this. What is the predicate? The predicate is what remains after you take away the subject. And how can we identify the subject? The subject is that part which determines **the concord**, i.e. **the agreement between the subject and the verb form**. For example, the verb becomes singular or plural depending on the form of the subject. Secondly, the

subject is that part of the sentence, which changes its place when the sentence is transformed into a question. For example, the sentences 5, 6 and 7 above:

5a)   Has *my college* become the largest college in the region?

6a)   Is *the new boss* very strict about our assignments?

7a)   Was *it* a very hot afternoon in August?

Moreover, it is the subject that is transformed into the object, when a sentence is changed from active to passive voice.

Every sentence has a subject and a predicate. (In some sentences, especially in the spoken language, the subject or the predicate may not be said but only implied.) The basic patterns of sentences are determined by what other elements are present in the predicate.

Here again we need to distinguish between *obligatory* and *optional* elements. Some elements in the predicate are essential for the sentence to be grammatically complete. If we remove any of these elements, the sentence will be incomplete. Such elements are **obligatory** elements. On the other hand, some other elements may not be necessary for the *grammatical completeness* of the sentences. We can remove these elements, and still we can get a grammatically complete sentence. Such elements are **optional** elements. In the sentences below only the underlined elements are obligatory (compulsory). Other elements are optional, because even if we take them away we still get grammatically complete sentences.

4)   Vikram slowly opened the door for me.

5)   My college has become the largest college in the region.

6)   The new boss is very strict about our assignments.

7)   It was a very hot afternoon in August.

8)   They proudly called him the 'hero of the nation'.

Check Your Progress 2

I)   Identify the subject and the predicate in each of the following sentences:

   a)   The students wanted some help from the office.

   b)   Fifteen girls were sent for the training.

   c)   Getting a good job is becoming more difficult now.

   d)   The director of the company was not interested in the new plans.

   e)   The Google search operations have been suspended for two months.

II)   Underline the obligatory elements in the following sentences:

   a)   Very soon the tourists found an interesting site along the river.

   b)   After every lecture our teacher had given us useful notes on key topics.

   c)   Only the local residents of the town can borrow books in this library.

   d)   All the senior members of the committee elected the newcomer in dark glasses their chairperson.

   e)   Coming from a small village the boy was feeling confused in the big city.

1.4   BASIC SENTENCE PATTERNS

You must remember that basic sentence patterns are related to the *obligatory* elements present in the sentence. These are called *basic* patterns, because any sentence can be ultimately reduced to one of these patterns. Even if you come across a long sentence you will see that it contains many optional elements, without which the sentence can still be grammatically complete. If you take these optional elements away, what remains is a *basic pattern*. For example, look at the following sentence:

9)   After a long chase <u>the hunter</u> ultimately <u>killed</u> <u>the lion</u> with a precise gunshot.

You will notice that this long sentence can be reduced to the basic structure:

9a)   The hunter killed the lion.

This is one basic pattern of sentences which consists of the subject, the verb and an object. Other patterns are similarly made of different obligatory elements. In all there are seven such patterns, which are sometimes also called 'basic clause patterns'. These seven basic sentence patterns are explained below.

Pattern 1. SV (Subject + Verb)

The minimum necessary elements for this kind of sentences are the subject and the verb. We can add any number of additional elements to enlarge the sentence, but they will all be optional.

e.g. 10)   Birds fly.

11)   The girl laughed.

12)   We sleep.

Pattern 2. SVA (Subject + Verb + Adjunct)

In this pattern of sentences the obligatory elements are the subject, the verb and the adjunct. It is easy to identify adjuncts. Adjuncts are expressions of place, time, direction, etc. You must remember that adjuncts are obligatory elements, that is, if you remove them the sentence will become grammatically incomplete. Most common adjuncts are adverbs or adverbial phrases, particularly adverbs of place.

e.g. 13)   The director is in the office.

14)   Everyone was on the street.

15)   My parents were upstairs.

You might have noticed that in such sentences the verb is usually some form of 'be'.

Pattern 3. SVC (Subject + Verb + Complement)

These types of sentences consist of the subject, the verb and the complement. The complement is obligatory, i.e. if you take away that element the sentence will be incomplete. A complement is normally a noun or an adjective. In such sentences the verb is usually '*be'* or '*become'*-type (like *become, turn, seem, look*, etc.)

e.g. 16) Suresh is a teacher.

    17) The students became uneasy.

    18) Her face turned red.

Pattern 4. SVO (Subject + Verb + Object)

In this pattern the obligatory elements are the subject, the verb and the object. In principle any type of word can be the object. But most commonly nouns take the position of objects. You may wonder how to differentiate between nouns as complements (see Pattern 3) and nouns as objects. It is not difficult. Nouns coming after 'be' or 'become' type verbs are complements, while nouns coming after other types of verbs are usually objects. Secondly, you can use the 'test of passivisation'. When you change a sentence into a passive form, the noun as the object will become the subject in the passive. This will confirm that the noun in the original sentence is an object.

e.g. 19) The car hit the truck.

    20) Someone has found a purse.

    21) He drops the ball.

Check Your Progress 3

So far we have seen four sentence patterns. Look at the sentences below and identify which basic pattern each belongs to – SV, SVA, SVC or SVO:

a) My brother missed his train.

b) Jaipur is a beautiful city.

c) Some people don't like the food sold on streets.

d) The officer appeared tired after the meeting.

e) The posters were everywhere, all over the town.

f) Every day she sleeps very peacefully.

g) The mother was feeling quite sad for the baby.

h) Colourful kites were flying in the sky.

i) No passengers were inside the train at that time.

j) The children looked very happy at the sight of the park.

Pattern 5. SVOA (Subject + Verb + Object + Adjunct)

In this pattern an adjunct is also necessary in addition to the subject, the verb and an object. Once again the adjuncts are usually adverbs or prepositional phrases.

e.g. 22) She put the book on the shelf.

    23) Mosquitoes kept the boys away from the field.

    24) The host left the guests at the Italian restaurant.

Pattern 6. SVOC (Subject + Verb + Object + Complement)

The obligatory elements in this pattern include a complement in addition to the subject, the verb and an object. The complement may be related to the subject or the object. Accordingly, it is called 'subject complement' or 'object complement'.

e.g. 25) We elected her the chairperson.

26) Americans call this lady a heroine of romance.

27) The timely support made Jesse a champion.

Pattern 7. SVOO (Subject + Verb + Object + Object)

The obligatory elements in this pattern include two objects together with the subject and the verb. One of the objects is considered the direct object and the other the indirect object. It is easy to identify the two objects. The object following a preposition is the indirect object. If there are no prepositions, then the first object after the verb is the indirect object. In other words, if the positions of the two objects are interchanged, the indirect object loses or gets a preposition.

e.g. 28) The woman gives the children useful gifts.

(*Compare*: The woman gives useful gifts _to_ the children. *Thus, 'gifts' is the direct and* 'children' *the indirect object.*)

29) She sent me some flowers.

30) His brother bought him a handsome shirt.

Thus, these seven basic sentence (or clause) patterns lie at the base of English sentences. In practice, several different kinds of expansion of these patterns are possible. There are also various combinations of different patterns together to form complex and compound sentences. It is quite natural to find two or more patterns co-occurring in a complex sentence.

Check Your Progress 4

Look at the following sentences and identify which basic sentence pattern they belong to – SVOA, SVOC or SVOO:

a) I left my keys at home.

b) Her grandpa reads her interesting stories every night.

c) The Mughals made Delhi their capital much later.

d) The whole nation called Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi 'Mahatma'.

e) He kept his parents in the dark about his new friends.

f) Newspapers called the new law a shame for democracy.

g) Her parents may give her a simple gift this birthday.

h) This new idea will make our boss quite happy.

i) The millionaire donated all her property to the school.

j) Challenges of life make us brave and hopeful.

1.5   LET US SUM UP

In this lesson we studied that sentences are made of obligatory (compulsory) and optional elements. On the basis of the obligatory elements present, there are seven basic sentence patterns in English:

1) **SV (Subject+Verb)**

   Examples: Birds fly.

                 People walk.

2) **SVA (Subject+Verb+Adjunct)**

   Examples: My house is there.

                 The doctor is in.

3) **SVC (Subject+Verb+Complement)**

   Examples: His face is attractive.

                 She looked angry.

4) **SVO (Subject+Verb+Object)**

   Examples: They closed down the shop.

                 We have forgotten our duty.

5) **SVOA (Subject+Verb+Object+Adjunct)**

   Examples: I left my keys at home.

                 She put her bag on the table.

6) **SVOC (Subject+Verb+Object+Complement)**

   Examples: They elected her the leader of the group.

                 The news made her very sad.

7) **SVOO (Subject+Verb+Object+Object)**

   Examples: Her parents gave her a lot of support.

                 The office will send you a formal invitation.

Revision Exercise

Identify the basic sentence pattern of the following sentences:

i)   A peacock was dancing in the jungle.

ii)   Nobody could answer this simple question.

iii)   Bamboo is the tallest grass in the world.

iv)   People considered Khali a powerful person.

v)   The commander sent a strong letter to the officer.

vi)   All your ideas have been strange.

vii)   The boys suddenly remembered an interesting experience.

viii) The company offered a good job to the young scholar.

ix)   Computers may make people lazy.

x)   I find him honest and hardworking.

xi)   We shall discuss the plan tomorrow.

xii)   You have taught new tricks to the old dog.

xiii) Radha is not at home now.

xiv) The parents kept the toys out of the baby's reach.

xv) Dr. Singh became the next finance minister.

xvi) People will think you a great fool.

xvii) The kids left the little puppy on the road.

xviii) The road was not ready for a long time.

xix) Farmers are waiting patiently for some help.

xx) Workers are installing the machine on a platform.

1.6   SUGGESTED READINGS

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1.7   ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

Sentence	Word	Formal Label	Functional Label
a	Delhi	Noun	Subject
a	capital	Noun	Complement
b	shall	Modal verb (auxiliary)	Subject
c	with	Preposition	Object
d	guests	Noun	Object
d	upstairs	Adverb	Adjunct
e	money	Noun	Object (direct)
e	strangers	Noun	Object (indirect)

Check Your Progress 2

I)	Subject	Predicate
a)	The students	wanted some help from the office.
b)	Fifteen girls	were sent for the training.
c)	Getting a good job	is becoming more difficult now.
d)	The director of the company	was not interested in the new plans.
e)	The Google search operations	have been suspended for two months.

II) Underline the obligatory elements in the following sentences:

a) Very soon <u>the tourists</u> <u>found</u> <u>an interesting site</u> along the river.

b) After every lecture <u>our teacher</u> <u>had given</u> <u>us</u> <u>useful notes</u> on key topics.

c) Only <u>the local residents</u> of the town <u>can borrow</u> <u>books</u> in this library.

d) All the senior <u>members</u> of the committee <u>elected</u> <u>the newcomer</u> in dark glasses <u>their chairperson</u>.

e) Coming from a small village <u>the boy</u> <u>was feeling</u> <u>confused</u> in the big city.

Check Your Progress 3

a.   My brother missed his train.   _____SVO_____

b.   Jaipur is a beautiful city.   _____SVC_____

c.   Some people don't like the food sold on streets.   _____SVO_____

d.   The officer appeared tired after the meeting.   _____SVC_____

e.   The posters were everywhere, all over the town.   _____SVA_____

f.   Every day she sleeps very peacefully.   _____SV_____

g.   The mother was feeling quite sad for the baby.   _____SVC_____

h.   Colourful kites were flying in the sky.   _____SV_____

i.   No passengers were inside the train at that time.   _____SVA_____

j.   The children looked very happy at the sight of the park._____SVC_____

Check Your Progress 4

a.   I left my keys at home.   _____SVOA____

b.   Her grandpa reads her interesting stories every night._____SVOO_____

c.   The Mughals made Delhi their capital much later.   _____SVOC_____

d.   The whole nation called Mohandas Karamchand   _____SVOC_____
     Gandhi Mahatma.

e.   He kept his parents in the dark about his new friends._____SVOA_____

f.   Newspapers called the new law a shame for democracy._____SVOC_____

g.   Her parents may give her a simple gift this birthday. _____SVOO_____

h.   This new idea will make our boss quite happy.   _____SVOC_____

i.   The millionaire donated all her property to the school._____SVOO_____

j.   Challenges of life make us brave and hopeful.   _____SVOC_____

Revision Exercise

i.   A peacock was dancing in the jungle.   SVO

ii.   Nobody could answer this simple question.   SVO

iii. Bamboo is the tallest grass in the world.   SVC

iv.   People considered Khali a powerful person.   SVOC

v.   The commander sent a strong letter to the officer. SVOO

vi.   All your ideas have been strange.   SVC

vii.	The boys suddenly remembered an interesting experience.	SVO
viii.	The company offered a good job to the young scholar.	SVOO
ix.	Computers may make people lazy.	SVOC
x.	I find him honest and hardworking.	SVOC
xi.	We shall discuss the plan tomorrow.	SVO
xii.	You have taught new tricks to the old dog.	SVOO
xiii.	Radha is not at home now.	SVA
xiv.	The parents kept the toys out of the baby's reach.	SVOA
xv.	Dr. Singh became the next finance minister.	SVC
xvi.	People will think you a great fool.	SVOC
xvii.	The kids left the little puppy on the road.	SVOA
xviii.	The road was not ready for a long time.	SVC
xix.	Farmers are waiting patiently for some help.	SVAC
xx.	Workers are installing the machine on a platform.	SVOA

UNIT 2   THE NOUN PHRASE

2.0   OBJECTIVES

In this unit you will learn about the English noun phrase, its structure and components. By the end of this unit you will have a fair idea of the key features the noun, which will help you in clarify the concept of 'noun'. You will study the main types of nouns and the important aspects of noun phrases like gender and number. Finally you will also understand how noun phrases are structured and which elements constitute noun phrases.

2.1   INTRODUCTION

Traditionally a noun was defined as "the name of a place, person or thing". Such a definition tried to describe a noun in terms of its meaning. But we now know that this kind of definition has many limitations. It cannot give us an idea of how to identify a noun; it cannot help us to distinguish nouns from other classes of words; and it cannot account for the inclusion of some words as nouns. For example, such a definition cannot explain how words like '*freedom*' or '*action*' can be considered as nouns. It cannot very clearly explain how a noun differs from a verb, etc. It is more common now to try to describe word classes, like nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc, by their features, i.e. by their form. Such description helps in identifying the class of a word; even without knowing its meaning. In the next section, and in other units of this block, you will find that word classes are usually described by 'how they look', i.e. by their form, so that one can identify a word class by 'looking at the word', even if one doesn't know what the word may mean.

2.2   FEATURES OF THE NOUN

A noun is a word having one or more of the following features:

*   Most nouns can form plurals by taking –s or its equivalent. e.g. *balls, trees*, etc.

*   Many nouns can take the possessive form by adding –'s. e.g. *father's, dog's*, etc.

*   Nouns are typically preceded by articles. e.g. *the house, a boy, an hour*, etc.

Although these tests are not foolproof (as some nouns may be exceptions), still this gives us a fair idea of the form of nouns. In this way, you may safely say that if a word has a plural form with *–s* (*books, papers*), or a possessive form with *-'s* (*brother's, lion's*), then it is a noun.

2.3 TYPES OF NOUNS

1) Proper Nouns and Common Nouns

Nouns like *Ravi, Lata, John, Delhi, Thames, Tommy*, etc are called **Proper Nouns**. They are related to uniquely identifiable entities. In other words they denote 'specific persons, places, things', etc. On the contrary, nouns like *boy, woman, city, river, dog, animal*, etc are **Common Nouns**, as they denote a whole class or group. There are some important differences between the two. Proper nouns normally do not take articles. (**a John, *the Lata, *an America*, etc are not used.) Such uses are restricted to only some special contexts. Secondly, proper nouns also do not take plurals, except again in very special limited contexts. (**Johns, *Delhis*, etc.) (Note: An asterisk * before a word/ phrase means that it is ungrammatical.)

2) Count Nouns and Non-count Nouns

These are also 'countable' and 'uncountable' nouns. Nouns, such as '*book*', '*class*', '*river*', etc., which denote countable entities, are **Count Nouns.** Nouns denoting a mass or continuum, which cannot be counted in numbers, are **Non-count Nouns**, e.g. *furniture, water, sugar, heat,* etc. Since count nouns can be counted as *one* and *more than one*, they have singular and plural forms (*book-books, class-classes, river-rivers*, etc). Non-count nouns do not show singular-plural pairing, because they are not differentiated into one and more than one. Grammatically, such nouns are either only singular (water, sugar, etc) or only plural (*people, cattle*, etc).

3) Abstract Nouns and Concrete Nouns

This is a distinction commonly made in the traditional grammar, and refers to the meanings of nouns. Nouns denoting abstract entities like emotions, feelings, ideas (e.g. *love, fame, misery, dream*, etc) are **Abstract Nouns**. Nouns denoting concrete objects (e.g. *table, book, sun, earth*, etc) are **Concrete Nouns**.

We must keep in mind that these divisions are overlapping and we cannot relate one division exactly with another.

Check Your Progress 1

I) Classify the following nouns into Proper Nouns and Common Nouns:

novels, paper, London, river, Elizabeth, Kaveri, forest, planet, Victor, committee, examination, Jupiter, Bollywood, the Olympics, the Guardian

Proper Nouns	Common Nouns

II) Classify the following nouns into Count Nouns and Non-count Nouns:

uncle, book, milk, feeling, chapter, ocean, people, courage, advice, news, decision, test, data, medium, sentence

Count Nouns	Non-count Nouns

2.4 ASPECTS OF THE NOUNS – NUMBER AND GENDER

There are two important aspects nouns in English have – number and gender. Number refers to whether the entity denoted by a noun is one or more than one or not countable. Gender refers to whether the given noun is considered grammatically masculine or feminine, etc. The grammatical notion of 'gender' is different from biological notion of 'sex' as explained below. Let us look at these aspects in more detail.

NUMBER

Number shows the quantitative aspect of a noun. **Count** nouns have two categories of number – **singular** and **plural**. In other words, a two-way distinction is made between one item and more than one item. (*book-books, hand-hands, child-children*, etc). **Non-count** nouns have only one category – either they are **invariable singular** or **invariable plural** nouns. (singular – *water, sugar, gold, music*, etc; plural – *people, cattle, remains, scissors*, etc.)

It must be remembered here that some nouns may belong to two or more different categories, depending on the sense in which they are used. For example, '*water*' in the sense of a liquid is a non-count, invariably singular noun. ('*Water boils at 100 degrees Celsius.*') But used in the sense of water-body, water-types, etc, it becomes a count noun, having a plural form. ('*India is washed by the waters of three seas.*') Similar other examples are words like '*people*', '*paper*', '*stone*', etc.

Plural Formation

English nouns may have **regular** plural forms or **irregular** plural forms. The regular plurals are formed by the suffix –s (and its varieties -es, -ies, etc).

> *boy – boys, spy – spies, rose- roses, mango – mangoes*, etc.

Irregular plural forms are formed in various ways. Some of the common ways are listed below:

- By change of sounds (*wife – wives, mouse – mice, foot – feet*, etc)

- By adding –en suffix (*child – children, ox – oxen*, etc)

- With zero suffix, i.e. no change (*sheep – sheep, fish – fish*, etc)

- Foreign plural forms, mostly for borrowed words (*radius – radii, larva – larvae, medium – media, index – indices, criterion – criteria,* etc.) However, several of such words now follow the pattern of regular plurals, e.g. *stadiums, syllabuses, mediums,* etc.

GENDER

Gender is a grammatical concept, which is not the same as the biological concept of 'sex'. For example, a boy is biologically a male, i.e. his 'sex' is male. The noun 'boy' is grammatically masculine, and the pronouns 'he', 'his' and 'him' are used for this noun. In English, the two ideas (biological 'sex' and grammatical 'gender') are more closely related than in many other languages (particularly Indian languages). But there are examples when the two do not match. For example, grammatically nouns like '*ship', moon'* or '*England'* are often treated as feminine (using pronoun 'she' for them), although these are not objects with female sex.

English nouns have four gender distinctions – **masculine**, **feminine**, **neuter** and **dual**. Usually animate nouns related to the male sex are <u>masculine</u>, e.g. *bull, boy, man, cock,* etc. Animate nouns related to the female sex are <u>feminine</u> nouns, e.g. *cow, girl, woman, hen,* etc. Most nouns denoting inanimate entities (non-living or abstract things) have <u>neuter</u> gender, e.g. *stone, school, mountain, dream, sleep,* etc. Some nouns can show both masculine and feminine genders depending on the context. Such nouns are said to have <u>dual</u> gender. Several nouns, particularly denoting professional designations, are of this type, e.g. *doctor, servant, student, teacher, person, speaker, enemy,* etc.

Check Your Progress 2

Classify the following nouns according to their gender and write them in the appropriate column of the table below:

town, tigress, killer, doctor, hen, bull, lesson, uncle, minister, ball, team, actress, niece, accident, editor, salesgirl, postman, chairman, mother-in-law, country

Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Dual

2.5 STRUCTURE OF THE NOUN PHRASE (NP)

Noun phrases are the phrases that contain a noun as the key word. In other words, every noun phrase (NP) has a compulsory element – a noun. A noun phrase must contain a noun, which is usually called the '**head noun**'. In the following examples, each underlined word is actually a noun phrase, which consists of just a noun.

1) <u>Indians</u> have become <u>leaders</u> in <u>computers</u>.

2) <u>Clouds</u> bring <u>rains</u>.

3) <u>John</u> killed <u>Mike</u> for <u>money</u>.

Thus, noun is an **obligatory** element of an NP. In addition to this head noun, an NP may have some more optional elements. Given below are the possible **optional** constituents of the noun phrase. A noun phrase may contain some or all of the following:

- Determiners (in short, det)

- Ordinals (ord)

- Quantifiers (quant)

- Adjective phrases (adj. phr.)

- Classifiers (class)

- Pre-determiners (pre-det)

If all these elements are present in an NP, they occur in a particular sequence. Using that sequence, the structure of an NP can be denoted as below.

NP ⟶ (pre-det) – (det) – (ord) – (quant) – (adj phr) – (class) – Noun

The arrow indicates that the NP consists of the element after the arrow. If an element is placed in the brackets, it means that it is an optional element.

Now let us look at each of these constituents in detail.

Determiners

Four kinds of words come under the head '**determiners**'. They are called determiners, as they help determine the specific reference of a noun. They are:

- Articles (a, an ,the)

- Demonstratives (this, that, these, those)

- Possessives (my, his, their, Ram's, doctor's,…)

- Wh-words (which, what, whose, etc, only when they occur before the noun)

For example, in the following sentences the underlined NPs consist of the **det + noun** combination:

4) *The* boys brought out *a* lizard.

5) *His* book is lying on *the* chair.

6) *What* colour does *your* brother like?

7) *This* room was decorated with *those* glasses.

Ordinals

Words denoting some sequence or order are **ordinals**. So words like *first, second, third, last, next*, etc are ordinals. In an NP ordinals come after the determiners. For example the following NPs have **det + ord + noun** structure:

8) The *first* rains were really lovely.

9) Her *next* album will be released soon.

Quantifiers

Quantifiers are the words that denote quantity. Words like *some, many, most, several, little, one, two, three, hundred*, etc are quantifiers. Out of these, 'number' words like *one, two, three, four, hundred*, etc are also called 'cardinal numerals'. Words like *first, second, third, hundredth*, etc are ordinal numerals. In an NP, quantifiers come after determiners and ordinals, in that sequence. But all the three may not be present in every NP, since they are optional elements.

10) His first *three* books sold poorly. (det + ord + quant + noun)

11) *Several* people were waiting for some help. (quant + noun)

12) They want a *little* break now. (det + quant + noun)

Adjective Phrases

Adjective phrases may contain just an adjective (*nice, good, large, beautiful*, etc.) or an intensifier and an adjective (*quite nice, very good, extremely large*, etc). An NP may contain one or more adjective phrases.

13) A *smart young* woman came in. (det + adj. phr. + adj. phr. + noun)

14) There lay some *fine* jewellery. (quant. + adj. phr. + noun)

15) It was a *very sad* scene. (det + adj. phr. + noun)

Classifiers

Classifiers are simply those nouns which modify other nouns. In other words, nouns which act like adjectives for other nouns are called **classifiers**. For example, the first nouns in such phrases as '*college canteen*', '*science college*', '*Diwali discount*', etc are classifiers.

16) *Shahrukh* fans clashed with *Salman* fans at the *dance* festival.

17) *Stone* buildings remained cool in the *Paris* summer.

Pre-Determiners

We have seen above the items that may occur in an NP. All the items above occur in the sequence in which they were listed. Thus, the structure of an NP is:

NP ⟶ (det) – (ord) – (quant) – (adj phr) – (classifier) – Noun

The brackets mean that the items in them are optional. It can be seen that determiners are at the extreme left. That means determiners are the first items in this sequence. But some items may occur even before the determiners. Such items which occur before determiners in an NP are called **pre-determiners**. Words like 'half of', 'all', 'all of', each of', 'some of', etc are pre-determiners.

18) All the shops were closed. (pre-det + det + noun)

19) Most of the time was wasted fruitlessly. (pre-det + det + noun)

Sentences and Phrases within NPs

Whole sentences and clauses can appear within an NP as a part of it. Usually such sentences/clauses are modifiers of the head noun. In the following examples the underlined sentences are the part of the whole NP, and modify the nouns in *italics*.

20) The *man* who brought the news was a stranger to them.

21) An attractive young *woman*, who had put on a graceful dress, came in slowly.

There are other kinds of phrases, too, which can be a part of an NP. Most common of these are prepositional phrases. These are also usually the modifiers of the head noun. In the following examples, the underlined NPs contain prepositional phrases.

22) Elephants are animals *with long trunks*.

23) The book *on the table* is for you.

24) Her writings *after her marriage* were more mature and interesting.

In all these cases, the phrases or sentences are a part of the NP and are counted within the structure of the NP. They normally perform the function of post-modifiers.

Check Your Progress 3

I)   Identify which types of element (determiner, ordinal, quantifier, classifier, etc) the underlined words are in the following Noun Phrases. The Noun Phrases are marked in *italics*.

1)   She was looking at *the tall man* in the corner.

Ans: ....

2)   Nobody will remember *the old name* of Chennai after another hundred years.

Ans: ....

3)   You will need *a million dollars* to buy that kind of house.

Ans: ....

4)   Girls are not allowed into *the boys' hostel*.

Ans: ....

5)   The factory rolled out *its thousandth car* in just one year.

Ans: ....

6)   *The mathematics teacher* was the most popular in the school.

Ans: ....

7)   *Half of the purified water* is being wasted through leaking pipelines.

Ans: ....

8)   The proud father gifted *a very costly mobile phone* to his son.

Ans: ....

II) What is the structure of the following Noun Phrases? Each Noun Phrase is underlined for your convenience.

1)   The taxi service was very good and cheap.

Ans: ....

2)   Their next direct question was about the delay in the project.

    Ans: ....

3)   She was surprised to find one small golden box at the doorstep.

    Ans: ....

4)   We are not interested in any of these old management books.

    Ans: ....

5)   After the first few very unsteady steps the child started walking more confidently.

    Ans: ....

2.6   LET US SUM UP

- A noun is a word having one or more of the following features:

  o   Most nouns can form plurals by taking –s or its equivalent. e.g. *balls, trees*, etc.

  o   Many nouns can take the possessive form by adding –'s. e.g. *father's, dog's*, etc.

  o   Nouns are typically preceded by articles. e.g. *the house, a boy, an hour*, etc.

- There are different ways of classifying nouns: proper or common nouns, count or non-count nouns, and abstract or concrete nouns, etc. Proper nouns denote uniquely identifiable entities, while common nouns denote a whole class or group of entities. Count nouns denote entities which are countable, while non-count nouns denote uncountable entities. Abstract and concrete nouns denote abstract and concrete entities respectively.

- Nouns have two aspects – number and gender. The number of a noun can be singular or plural, depending on whether it denotes single or more than one respectively. Only count nouns can have this two-way division of singular and plural. Non-count nouns are only singular or only plural.

- Gender is different from biological notion of 'sex'. English nouns may have masculine, feminine, neuter or dual genders.

- Any noun phrase has a noun as the compulsory element. In addition, there are many optional elements in a noun phrase – pre-determiner, determiner, ordinal, quantifier, adjective phrase, classifier, post-modifiers, etc. All these elements follow a particular sequence.

REVISION EXERCISE

I)   Identify which of the following are count nouns and which ones are non-count:

banana, nation, sugar, glass, scissors, report, miracle, furniture, emotion, chance.

Count Nouns: ....

Non-count Nouns: ....

II) What is the gender of the following nouns?

servant ....   air-hostess ....

computer ....   river................child ....

headmaster ....   daughter ....

waiter ....   friend .... director ....

III) Identify the noun phrases in the following sentences and give their structure.

1) The young girl was singing a beautiful song.

Ans: ....

2) Two large whisky glasses made him completely drunk.

Ans: ....

3) Most of the junior members were in favour of watching an old Hindi film.

Ans: ....

4) This is my third brand-new airconditioner which failed to cool properly.

Ans: ....

5) Children are usually not interested in long slow boring stories.

Ans: ....

2.7   SUGGESTED READINGS

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Leech, G. et al. 1982. *English Grammar for Today*. Hampshire: Macmillan.

Quirk, R. et al. 1972. *A Grammar of Contemporary English*. London: Longman

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Swan, M. 1996. *Practical English Usage*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

2.8   ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

I)   Proper and Common Nouns

Proper Nouns	Common Nouns
London, Elizabeth, Kaveri, Victor, Jupiter, Bollywood, the Olympics, the Guardian	novels, paper, river, forest, planet, committee, examination

II) Count Nouns and Non-count Nouns

Count Nouns	Non-count Nouns
uncle, book, feeling, chapter, ocean, decision, test, medium, sentence	milk, people, courage, advice, news, data

Check Your Progress 2

Gender of nouns

Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Dual
bull, uncle, chairman, postman	actress, niece, tigress, hen, salesgirl, mother-in-law	killer, doctor, minister, editor	town, lesson, ball, team, accident, country

Check Your Progress 3

I) Identifying elements in Noun Phrases

   1) *the tall man* – determiner

   2) *the old name* – adjective phrase

   3) *a million dollars* – quantifier

   4) *the boys' hostel* – determiner

   5) *its thousandth car* – ordinal

   6) *The mathematics teacher* – classifier

   7) *Half of the purified water* – pre-determiner

   8) *a very costly mobile phone* – adjective phrase

II) Structure of Noun Phrases

   1) the taxi service –   det – class – N

   2) their next direct question –   det – ord – adj. phr. – N

   3) one small golden box –   quant – adj. phr. – adj. phr. – N

   4) any of these old management books – pre-det – det – adj. phr. – class – N

   5) the first few very unsteady steps –   det – ord – quant – adj. phr. – N

Revision Exercise

I) Count nouns: banana, nation, glass, report, miracle, emotion, chance.

   Non-count nouns: sugar, scissors, furniture.

II) Masculine: headmaster, waiter,

   Feminine: air-hostess, daughter,

   Neuter: computer, river,

   Dual: servant, child, friend, director

III) Noun phrases and their structure.

1) the young girl: det – adj. phr. – N

   a beautiful song: det – adj. phr. – N

2) two large whisky glasses: quant – adj. phr. – class – N

3) most of the junior members: pre-det – det – adj. phr. – N

   an old Hindi film: det – adj. phr. – class – N

4) my third brand-new air conditioner det – ord – adj.phr.– class – N

5) Children: N

   long slow boring stories: adj.phr. – adj.phr. – adj.phr. – N

UNIT 3   THE VERB PHRASE

Structure

3.0   OBJECTIVES

In this unit you will refresh your understanding of the English verb and also learn about its features. You will also learn how verbs are classified, what various types of the English verb are and how the verb phrase is structured. More importantly, you will learn about two important features of the verb – tense and aspect. This may help you further clarify your understanding of how various tense forms are used in English.

3.1   INTRODUCTION

There is a general fear about English verbs – particularly various tense forms of them – in the minds of Indian learners of English. There is also a widespread misconception that English verbs are very irregular and do not follow set patterns. This may be only marginally true. English has only a small number of irregular verbs, while a large number of verbs do follow predictable patterns. In the traditional grammar verbs were defined as the words which denoted action. We now understand that such definition cannot properly explain the verb. In the modern grammars usually the verb is not defined, but described in terms of its forms and features. You will agree that this is a much easier and more logical way of understanding the verb. In the next section you will read about the five forms of the verb and their uses, while in the subsequent sections you will read about the types and features of the verb.

3.2   FORMS OF THE VERB

In general English verbs have five different forms performing the following functions:

1)   **The base form**, like *pull, sing, work*, which is used to denote the following:

- the present tense (except third person singular): *I pull the cart. They sing beautifully.*

- imperative: *Pull the cart! Sing again!*

- the bare infinitive: *We wanted to pull* the cart. *They try to sing*.

2) **The –s form**, like *pulls, sings, works*, which is used to denote **third person singular present tense**:

He pulls the cart. She sings beautifully.

3) **The past form,** like *pulled, sang, worked*, which is to denote the **past tense**:

He pulled the cart. They sang beautifully.

4) **The –ing form**, like *pulling, singing, working*, which is used to denote

- **the progressive aspect of verbs** (with forms of 'be'): *I was pulling the cart. She is singing beautifully.*

- in **participle clauses**: *Pulling the cart uphill, I sweated heavily. Singing beautifully, she managed to impress the audience.*

This form is also sometimes called the gerund or present participle form.

5) **The –ed/-en form**, like *pulled, sung, worked*, which is used to denote

- **the perfective aspect** (with forms of 'have'): *I have pulled the cart. We had sung beautifully. She has written a story.*

- **the passive voice** (with forms of 'be'): *The cart was pulled uphill. These songs have been sung by thousands. The story was written in 1857.*

- in **participle clauses**: *Pulled recklessly, the cart was badly damaged. Sung in a male voice, the song seemed very different. Written during the war, the story was deeply affected by the wartime experiences.* This form is also sometimes called **the past participle form**.

3.3 TYPES OF VERBS

English verbs can be broadly classified into two classes – **lexical verbs** and **auxiliary verbs** (sometimes called helping verbs or assistant verbs). Lexical verbs can be further grouped into regular and irregular verbs, while auxiliaries can be further classified into primary and modal auxiliaries. Schematically this can be shown as below:
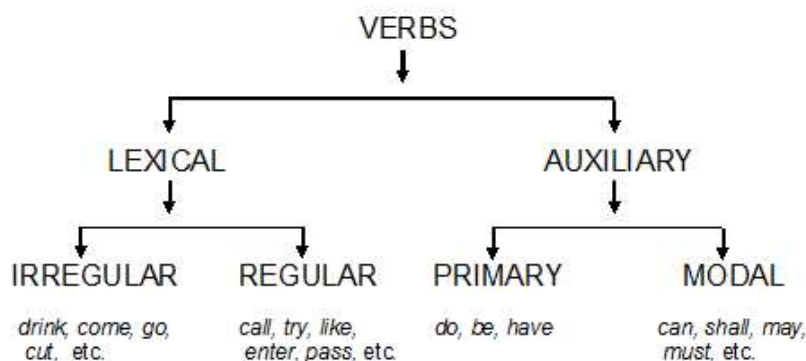
The class of auxiliaries is a closed set, i.e. it contains a limited (and small) number of words, and the set is stable (i.e. no new auxiliaries are being added to this set). So it is possible to list all the auxiliaries. In their *University Grammar of English* Quirk and Greenbaum give the following list of auxiliaries:

Primary: do, have, be

Modal: can, could, may, might, shall, should, will, would, must, ought to, used to, need, dare.

There are differences among grammarians regarding this list. For example, many grammarians do not like to include the last four in the list of auxiliaries. Even Quirk and Greenbaum admit that some auxiliaries in their list – like 'used to', 'need' and 'dare' – are different from other 'full' auxiliaries. They call these as 'marginal' auxiliaries. The auxiliary 'used to' occurs only in past form. 'Dare' and 'need' *as* auxiliaries occur mainly in interrogative and negative sentences. The use of these auxiliaries has become quite rare now.

There are some important points of difference between **lexical verbs** and **auxiliaries**:

- Lexical verbs are 'full' verbs in the sense that they can occur independently in a sentence. Auxiliaries are not independent; they always come together with a lexical verb.

- Lexical verbs have all the five forms described above. Auxiliaries do not have all the five forms. Auxiliaries (except the primary auxiliaries) have usually only two forms – the present and the past. So we do not have forms like **maying* or **cans* or **shalled*shallen*.

- In the present tense, lexical verbs have singular and plural forms to agree with the singular or the plural subject. (*He sings, They sing*, etc). Auxiliaries (except the primary) have only one present tense form. (*He may…, they may…*, etc.)

    Among the lexical verbs, there are some differences between **regular** and **irregular lexical verbs**:

- In case of regular verbs we can predict all the forms of a verb from its base form. For example, from the base form '*call*' we can predict all its other forms (*calls, called, calling*, etc), because the forms follow a regular pattern. In irregular verbs we do not find such a predictable pattern. For example, the irregular verb *speak* has *spoke* as the past form and *spoken* as the –ed (past participle) form, while *cut* has the same unchanged *cut* form as the past and –ed forms.

- Both regular and irregular lexical verbs have similar –ing and –s forms. The difference is in their past tense and participle forms. Regular verbs have the same past tense and -ed (past participle) forms, ending in /d/ or /t/ sounds and usually spelled -d, -ed, -t, etc. (e.g. *called, peeped…*). Irregular verbs often have different past and participle forms. (e.g. *drank, drunk; wrote, written…*)

- Whenever new verbs are added, whether by fresh coining or by borrowing from other languages, these new verbs follow the pattern of regular verbs. (e.g. *programme – programmed – programmed, radio – radioed – radioed*, …)

  Similarly, there are also important differences between **primary** and **modal auxiliaries**:

- The three primary auxiliaries '*do'*, '*have'* and '*be'* have a dual role. They can also perform as lexical verbs. Modal auxiliaries are just auxiliaries.

- The primary auxiliaries have different forms, like lexical verbs, for singular and plural subjects. (*He does….; They do….,*etc.) Moreover, the auxiliary '*be'* has in all eight forms for different numbers, persons and tenses. Modal auxiliaries have only two forms – present and past. (*may–might, shall–should*, etc.) Some auxiliaries like '*must'* or '*ought to'* have only one form.

- Primary auxiliaries have only grammatical (or structural) sense. They do not add any additional meaning to the meaning of the 'main' lexical verb apart from this grammatical sense. For example, forms of '*be'* suggest only the progressive aspect, forms of '*do'* work as 'dummy' elements for questions or negative sentences. Modal auxiliaries carry additional meanings. For example, '*may'* or '*can'* denote possibility or permission. '*Must'* denotes necessity or compulsion. (e.g. *You may go. She can speak ten languages. He must go to a doctor*.)

3.4 TYPES OF VERB PHRASES – FINITE AND NON-FINITE

Verb phrases can occur in one of the two forms – finite and non-finite. Finite verb phrases are those in which the verb phrase has some tense attached to it, either past or present. In non-finite forms verb phrases are used in their tenseless forms. The clauses containing finite verbs are called finite clauses, while the clauses with non-finite verbs are called non-finite clauses.

Look at the sentences below:

1) They <u>have</u> a lot of free time this week.

2) Amitabh <u>decided</u> <u>to join</u> the film industry.

3) He <u>found</u> his keys <u>lying</u> under the table.

4) They <u>brought</u> the box home <u>broken</u> in three places.

In sentence 1 '*have'* is in present tense form. So it is a finite verb. In sentence 2 '*decided'* is in past tense form, so it is also a finite verb. But '*to join'* is an infinitive, and tenseless, form. So this verb phrase is non-finite. In sentence 3 '*found'* is again finite, because it is in past form. But '*lying'* is non-finite, as it does not carry any tense. In the same way, in sentence 4 '*brought'* is finite, while '*broken'* is non-finite.

This shows that there are at least two important differences between finite and non-finite verb phrases:

- Finite verb phrases carry some tense, past or present. Non-finite verb phrases are tenseless.

- Finite verbs show a concord (agreement) with the subject. This means that they agree with the subject in person and number (singular/ plural, first/ third person, etc). Non-finite verb phrases do not show such an agreement.

  Non-finite verbs are either infinitives (e.g. '*to join*', '*to dance*') or participle forms (e.g. *joining, waiting, broken, danced*, etc).

Check your progress 1

I) Classify the following lexical verbs into regular and irregular verbs:

watch, produce, run, create, give, read, want, agree, buy, break, drive, attract, force, compel, desire, hide, hurry, linger, manage, try, supply, remember, comment, come, expect.

Regular verbs: ....

....

Irregular verbs: ....

....

II) Identify the main verb and the auxiliary in each of the following verb phrases. Also state whether the auxiliary is primary or modal. List your answers in the table below.

1) Some children were playing in the rain.

2) Nobody could solve the tough riddle.

3) Our parents have agreed on an interesting plan for the picnic.

4) The numbers in the box have been arranged in a simple sequence.

5) Trespassers shall be prosecuted.

6) Perhaps the doctors may know something about her health.

7) You may be telling a lie!

8) Scientists will have solved the mystery by that time.

9) This may be the last bus to our town.

10) They should have informed the police about the accident.

S. No.	Verb Phrase	Main Verb	Auxiliaries
1)			
2)			
3)			
4)			
5)			
6)			

7)			
8)			
9)			
10)			

3.5   THREE FEATURES OF VERB PHRASES

Finite verb phrases have three important features – **tense, aspect and mood**. Tense is a grammatical feature related to expressions of time. Many people believe that there is a direct equation between time and tense. They assume that past tense always shows past time, and present tense always shows present time. But this is not so. 'Time' is a concept related to our living world, representing an idea about the flow of events, sequence of happenings, etc. We divide time for our convenience into present, past and future time. On the contrary, 'tense' is the grammatical feature used for indicating different times in a language. Though 'tense' is a grammatical system of talking about time, there is no simple one-to-one relation between them like present tense = present time. 'Time' is divided in the same way all over the world, but all languages do not have the same three-way system of 'tenses' to show time. Some languages have six different tense forms to express time, while some other languages like **English have only two tense forms – the past and the present**. There are even languages which do not have any tense at all, and use some other ways to denote time.

Having only two tense forms in English does not create any problem, because these two forms can be used to denote any time. In fact, in any language there is no one-to-one correspondence between the tense and time. The relationship between tense and time is quite flexible in most languages. Past tense forms can indicate present time, present tense can show past or future time, and so on. Every language has its own way of using tense forms to denote time. **In English only two tenses – past and present – are used to indicate all kinds of time.**

This is done with the help of another feature – **the aspect. Tense and aspect together give us a complete expression of time**. 'Aspect' shows the manner in which the action (denoted by the verb) is experienced or considered – whether the action is regarded as complete or continuous, repetitive, frequent or 'one-time', and so on. English verbs have three main aspects – **progressive, perfect and passive**. The **progressive aspect is also called 'continuous'**, while the **perfective is sometimes called 'perfect'**.

Tense in English

- The present tense is shown by the –s form (*plays, writes, sleeps*, etc) for third person singular subjects, and by the base form (*play, write, sleep*, etc) for all other persons;

- The past form is formed by adding –ed, –d or –t to the base form for regular verbs (e.g. *played prepared, slept*, etc) or in different ways (like changing the base vowel) for irregular verbs (e.g. *wrote, sang, found,* etc).

- The progressive aspect is formed by the combination of a form of 'be' and the –ing form of the following verb. (*is coming, was being, are playing, be doing*, etc)

- The perfective aspect is formed by the combination of a form of 'have' and the –ed/–en participle form of the verb. (*has taken, have decided, had written, has been,* etc)

- The passive aspect is formed by the combination of a form of 'be' and the –ed/–en participle form of the verb. (*was taken, is decided, are written, were beaten,* etc)

It is possible that a verb phrase may have two or three aspects together. For example, the phrase '*has been waiting'* has both perfective and progressive aspects, while the phrase '*have been killed*' has perfective and passive aspects. The phrase '*had been being corrupted*' has all the three aspects. It is also possible that a verb phrase may not contain any aspect at all. This is usually called the 'simple' form of the verb phrase.

The feature of 'mood' relates to such conditions as certainty, possibility, necessity, obligation, capability, and so on. These can be expressed through modal auxiliaries as well. In English many grammarians talk of five major 'moods' – declarative, interrogative, imperative, exclamatory and subjunctive. We must remember that these terms refer to the forms (i.e. structure) of sentences and not their meanings. For example, "Could you please pass that book to me?" is an interrogative sentence, though it is not a question, but a request. "I request you to give me the book." is again a request, and not a statement, but its structure tells that it is a declarative sentence.

```
                        FEATURES OF VERBS
         |                    |                        |
      TENSE              ASPECT                     MOOD

   PRESENT   PAST   PROGRESSIVE      PASSIVE        DECLARATIVE
                         |              |           INTERROGATIVE
                    (BE + -ing)   (BE + -ed/-en)    IMPERATIVE
                                                    EXCLAMATORY
                       PERFECTIVE                   SUBJUNCTIVE
                          |
                    (HAVE + -ed/-en)
```
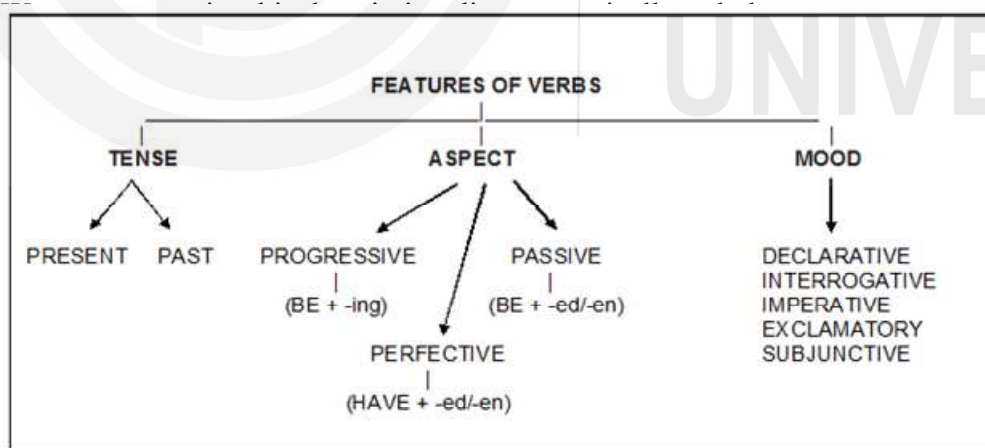
Check Your Progress 2

Identify the tense and the aspect of the verb phrases in the following sentences:

1)   She was driving her car along a hilly road.

      Tense: _____   Aspect/s: _____

2)   Some guests have arrived early in taxis.

      Tense: _____   Aspect/s: _____

3) You could have asked for our advice.

Tense: _____   Aspect/s: _____

4) These questions have been asked so many times by the media.

Tense: _____   Aspect/s: _____

5) The striking workers were shifted to a different venue.

Tense: _____   Aspect/s: _____

6) Who can explain the meaning of this strange word?

Tense: _____   Aspect/s: _____

7) None of the students was given a chance to speak.

Tense: _____   Aspect/s: _____

8) We are looking forward to our vacations so eagerly!

Tense: _____   Aspect/s: _____

9) The car has run out of fuel.

Tense: _____   Aspect/s: _____

10) The final plan is still lying on his table for approval.

Tense: _____   Aspect/s: _____

3.6 STRUCTURE OF THE VERB PHRASE

The verb phrase in a sentence may consist of just one word (the main verb), or may have several words in it. So there are different kinds of verb phrases possible. Let us now see what kinds of elements can occur in the verb phrase. Some of these elements are obligatory, while some others are optional.

The obligatory element of a verb phrase is the tense. Every finite verb phrase carries either past or present tense. Thus, in any verb phrase there will be at least two *elements* – the main verb and its tense.

e.g. 5) Tigers <u>killed</u> several animals in this forest.   (kill + past)

6) Every child <u>likes</u> to play with toys.   (like + present)

7) Thousands of tourists <u>visit</u> this spot every year.   (visit + present)

Some phrases may contain auxiliaries in addition to the main verb. In this case, auxiliaries occur before the main verb and they carry the tense.

e.g. 8) Nobody <u>can hate</u> a sweet smiling child.   (can + present + hate)

9) His parents <u>should listen</u> to him first.   (shall + past + listen)

10) It <u>might rain</u> tomorrow.   (may + past + rain)

Some phrases may contain forms of progressive aspect (be + -ing) or perfective aspect (have + -ed/-en) or both. If both aspects are present, then the perfective comes before the progressive. In addition, a verb phrase may also have the passive aspect.

34

e.g. 11) People <u>are waiting</u> for better times.   [progressive (are + -ing)]

12) She <u>has taken</u> a long leave for some reason. [perfective (has + -en)]

13) Guests <u>have been talking</u> too loudly.   [perfective (have + -en) +

progressive (be + -ing)]

14) This music <u>was composed</u> by Rahman.   [passive (be + -en)]

From all these examples we should notice the following important points:

- Verb phrases have two obligatory elements – the main verb and the tense.

- There can be some other optional elements. These include modal auxiliaries, progressive aspect markers, perfective aspect markers, etc.

- There may be any number of elements in a verb phrase, but always the *first* element carries the tense.

- The main verb is always the last element in the verb phrase.

- The obligatory and optional elements in a verb phrase follow a certain sequence. It can be shown as below. The elements in brackets are optional elements.

Verb phrase →Tense – (modal) – (perfective) – (progressive) – (passive) – Main verb.

The structures of some verb phrases are given below as examples.

have killed: VP → present – perfective – kill

can be arranged: VP → present – modal – passive – arrange

should be writing: VP → past – modal – progressive – write

would have been damaged: VP→ past – modal – perfective –passive – damage

Check Your Progress 3

Write the structure of the verb phrases in the following sentences:

1) Every year many water birds are killed in this area.

....

2) Groups of people were fighting for space in the old town.

....

3) A glass of cold drink may help you in this hot afternoon.

....

4) Several engineers had been wasting their energy for years on the track.

....

5) His diabetic father should have avoided anything sweet.

....

6) Wonderful pictures are being displayed every moment around us.

....

7) A small airplane could be arranged as a special case.

   ....

8) Hindi films would have been ruling the cine-world by then.

   ....

9) Simple puzzles may give useful ideas to young children.

   ....

10) The game of cricket was being used to settle some personal disputes.

   ....

3.7 MEANINGS OF MODAL AUXILIARIES

You will remember that, as said above, modal auxiliaries have their own shades of meaning. In a verb phrase, modal auxiliaries add some extra sense to the basic meaning of the main verb. Let us now look at some important meanings implied by different modal auxiliaries.

I)   WILL

1) <u>Prediction/ Simple futurity</u> – 'Will' in some sentences indicates reference to the future time.

   e.g. 15)   It will rain very soon.

   16)   He will kill his enemies.

2) <u>Willingness</u> – In some sentences the use of 'will' indicates willingness to do something.

   e.g. 17)   I will do this for you.

   18)   Who will come forward to take on this challenge?

3) <u>Request/ order/ invitation</u> – In many cases 'will' implies request, order or invitation.

   e.g. 19)   Will you stand up now?

   20)   Will you do me a favour?

   21)   Will you come with me?

4) <u>General facts</u> – Just like the simple present, 'will' can be used to state general facts.

   e.g. 22)   Hot weather will cause perspiration.

   23)   A cat will always land on its feet.

5) <u>Insistence</u> – Sometimes 'will' is used for showing insistence. In such cases 'will' is always said as 'will' and never contracted to ''ll' (like I'll, he'll, etc). 'Will' is also pronounced with stress.

   e.g. 24)   He will do it, whatever you say.

   25)   I will go there, come what may.

II) WOULD

1) <u>Willingness</u> – Like 'will', 'would' also suggests willingness. But use of 'would' implies certain tentativeness.

    e.g. 26) I would do this for you.

    27) She would send you her car.

2) <u>Request</u> – 'Would' can also be used for making requests in interrogative form. In requests 'would' seems more polite than 'will'.

    e.g. 28) Would you kindly come with me?

    29) Would you do me a favour?

3) <u>Habit/ Characteristic</u> – In some cases 'would' suggests habitual or characteristic feature, particularly in the past. In this sense it can be replaced by 'used to'.

    e.g. 30) Their children would always be naughty.

    31) He would come here and lie on the grass for hours.

4) <u>Probability</u> – 'Would' also indicates probability in some cases.

    e.g. 32) That would be a good choice.

III) SHALL

1) <u>Prediction/ simple futurity</u> – The use of 'shall' to refer to the future has become very restricted. In its place 'will' has become quite common now. 'Shall' is used with only the first person (I, we) to refer to the future.

    e.g. 33) I shall go there tomorrow.

    34) We shall come to you very soon.

    But even this use is not very common.

2) <u>Intention</u> – Used with the first person, 'shall' may imply intention on the part of the speaker.

    e.g. 35) I shall give you some money.

    36) We shall overcome.

3) <u>In legal language</u> – In the language of laws and the judiciary, 'shall' is used with any person, and denotes obligation or injunction.

    e.g. 37) No person shall enter this area.

    38) Trespassers shall be prosecuted.

IV) SHOULD

1) <u>Obligation or necessity</u> – This sense is similar to the meaning of 'ought to'.

    e.g. 39) She should listen to your advice.

    40) Doctors should be careful about patients' feelings.

2) <u>In conditional expressions</u> – 'Should' can have the sense of 'in case' or 'if'.

 e.g. 41) Should you decide to join, let us know immediately.

   42) Should anything unpleasant happen, we are free to leave the hall.

3) <u>'Putative' use</u> – after expressions like "It is strange that…", "I am surprised that…", "It is odd that…", "I am sorry that…", etc.

 e.g. 43) It is strange that you should have joined this group.

   44) I am sorry that this should have happened.

V) <u>CAN</u>

1) <u>Ability</u> – 'Can' indicates ability in the sense of 'know how to' or 'be able to'.

 e.g. 45) He can drive any four-wheeler.

   46) She can't cook any non-veg dishes.

2) <u>Permission</u> – 'Can' implies permission in some cases in the sense of 'be allowed/ permitted to'. 'May' also denotes permission, but 'may' is more formal than 'can'.

 e.g. 47) Can I use my mobile phone here?

   48) You can write your answers in blue or black ink.

3) <u>Theoretical possibility</u> – Sometimes 'can' suggests a theoretical possibility.

 e.g. 49) Anybody can make mistakes.

   50) Even a good plan can fail to work for simple reasons.

(Compare this with 'may' which suggests factual possibility – "He may make mistakes".)

VI) <u>COULD</u>

1) <u>Past Ability</u> – 'Could' denotes ability in the past.

 e.g. 51) At that time he could shoot a flying sparrow.

   52) I could not cook anything then.

2) <u>Permission</u> – Like 'can', 'could' also implies permission. However, sentences with 'could' seem more polite. This use of 'could' is more common in interrogative form.

 e.g. 53) Could I use your car this weekend?

   54) Could we miss the last session today?

3) <u>Making requests</u> – 'Could' is also used, again in interrogative forms, to make requests. Requests with 'could' seem more polite.

 e.g. 55) Could someone please hold this thing for me?

   56) Could you help me in arranging this room?

4) <u>In conditional sentences</u> – 'Could' is often used in the main clause of a conditional sentence.

 e.g. 57)   If we had more time, we could go swimming.

    58)   You could have beaten her, if you had used your brains.

VII) MAY

1) <u>Permission</u> – Like 'can', 'may' also implies permission. But in this use, 'may' is more formal than 'can'.

 e.g. 59)   You may go now.

    60)   Passengers may smoke now if they want.

2) <u>Factual possibility</u> – Both 'can' and 'may' suggest possibility. But 'can' suggests theoretical possibility, while 'may' usually suggests factual possibility.

 e.g. 61)   It may be raining now in Delhi.

    62)   That dog may bite you.

3) <u>Good/ Bad wishes</u> – In a very restricted way, 'may' is used to express one's good or bad wishes for someone or something. Such examples are formal, very limited and rare.

 e.g. 63)   May he rot in hell!

    64)   May your enterprise be a grand success!

VIII) <u>MIGHT</u>

1) <u>Permission</u> – In rare cases 'might' can be used to imply permission. It seems more formal.

 e.g. 65)   Might I join in?

    66)   They might use our library.

2) <u>Possibility</u> – Most commonly 'might' indicates possibility.

 e.g. 67)   We might go away next year.

    68)   This might be a useful book.

IX) <u>MUST</u>

1) <u>Obligation or compulsion</u> – 'Must' indicates obligation or compulsion. It is used only in the present tense form. For the past or future reference, we use 'had to' or 'will have to' with the same meaning.

 e.g. 69)   This letter must be sent immediately.

    70)   You must take rest for a week at least.

2) <u>Logical necessity</u> – 'Must' also implies logical necessity of something. It implies that something need to be there.

 e.g. 71)   There must be a solution to this problem.

    72)   Somebody must have broken this window.

X) <u>**OUGHT TO**</u>

'Ought to' is used in the same way as 'must'. In the above examples we can substitute 'ought to' in place of 'must' with the same sense. 'Ought to' also denotes obligation as well as necessity. However, 'must' and 'have to' are more categorical than 'ought to'.

e.g. 71a) There ought to be a solution to this problem.

72a) Somebody ought to have repaired this window.

XI) <u>**DARE and NEED**</u>

Both 'dare' and 'need' have very restricted use as compared to other auxiliaries. Firstly both occur as auxiliaries only in negative form.

e.g. 73) I dare not do such a thing.

74) You needn't worry about the tickets.

In positive forms, they become complete lexical verbs, may take auxiliaries and are followed by infinitives in such sentences.

73a) I (can) dare to do such a thing.

74a) You (may) need to worry about the tickets.

Secondly, only 'dare' can be used in the past tense. (cf. "I dared not do such a thing.") But 'need' is not used as auxiliary in the past tense. The meanings of these auxiliaries are obvious. 'Dare' (not) implies lack of courage to do something, while 'need' (not) implies lack or absence of necessity.

3.8   LET US SUM UP

- Verbs in English have five forms: the base form, the –s form, the past form, the –ing form and the –ed/–en form.

- Verbs are of two types: lexical verbs and auxiliary verbs. Lexical verbs can be further classified into regular verbs (which follow regular patterns of forms) and irregular verbs (which do not follow predictable patterns). Auxiliary verbs are sometimes called assistant or helping verbs. They can also be classified into two groups – primary and modal auxiliaries.

- Verb phrases can be finite or non-finite. Verb phrases which carry some tense are finite, while verb phrases which do not carry any tense are non-finite.

- Verb phrases have three features – tense, aspect and mood. Tense is a grammatical system of expressing time, while aspect is mainly related to indicating the nature of the action denoted by a verb. Mood is related to the expression of conditions like possibility, certainty, necessity, etc.

- English has two tenses – present and past. There are three kinds of aspect – progressive, perfective and passive. A verb phrase may contain no aspect, or may have one, two or all the three aspects.

- All finite verb phrases have at least two compulsory elements – tense and the main verb. In addition, they can also contain some optional elements like aspect and modals. The structure of the verb phrase can be shown by the following equation, where the bracketed elements are optional:

  Verb phrase →Tense – (modal) – (perfective) – (progressive) – (passive) – Main verb.

- Different modal auxiliaries add different shades of meaning to the meaning of the main verb.

REVISION EXERCISE

I) Complete the following table by identifying the tense and the aspect of the given verb phrases:

S. No.	Verb Phrase	Tense	Aspect
1)	can be bought		
2)	will declare		
3)	am studying		
4)	could be punished		
5)	has been spent		
6)	should be willing		
7)	expressed		
8)	does not need		
9)	are cancelled		
10)	shall be required		

II) Match the verb phrases in Column A with the structures in Column B:

Column A	Column B
1) have created	a) past – modal – V
2) might be leaving	b) present – modal – perfective – V
3) would propose	c) present – perfective – V
4) shall have recovered	d) past – modal – perfective – passive – V
5) could have been mistaken	e) past – modal – progressive – V

III) Which modal(s) can you use for the given sense? Write in the following table:

S. No.	Sense/ Meaning	Modals
1	Capacity	
2	Permission	
3	Possibility	
4	Necessity	
5	Compulsion	

3.9   SUGGESTED READINGS

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Leech, G. et al. 1982. *English Grammar for Today*. Hampshire: Macmillan.

Quirk, R. et al. 1972. *A Grammar of Contemporary English*. London: Longman

Quirk, R. & S. Greenbaum. 1995. *A University Grammar of English*. Harlow, Essex: Longman.

Swan, M. 1996. *Practical English Usage*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

3.10   ANSWERS

Check your progress 1

I)   Regular verbs: watch, produce, create, want, agree, attract, force, compel, desire, hurry, linger, manage, try, supply, remember, comment, expect.

Irregular verbs: run, give, read, buy, break, drive, hide, come.

II)

S. No.	Verb Phrase	Main Verb	Auxiliaries
1)	were playing	play	were (primary)
2)	could solve	solve	could (modal)
3)	have agreed	agree	have (primary)
4)	have been arranged	arrange	have, been (both primary)
5)	shall be prosecuted	prosecute	shall (modal), be (primary)
6)	may know	know	may (modal)
7)	may be telling	tell	may (modal), be (primary)
8)	will have solved	solve	will (modal), have (primary)
9)	may be	be	may (modal)
10)	should have informed	inform	should (modal), have (primary)

Check Your Progress 2

The tense and the aspect of the verb phrases:

S. No.	Verb Phrase	Tense	Aspect
1)	was driving	Past (was)	Progressive (be + ing)
2)	have arrived	Present (have)	Perfective (have + ed)
3)	could have asked	Past (could)	Perfective (have + ed)

4	have been asked	Present (have)	Perfective (have + en) + Passive (be + ed)
5	were shifted	Past (were)	Passive (be + ed)
6	can explain	Present (can)	No aspect
7	was given	Past (was)	Passive (be + en)
8	are looking	Present (are)	Progressive (be + ing)
9	has run	Present (has)	Perfective (have + en)
10	is lying	Present (is)	Progressive (be + ing)

Check Your Progress 3

Structure of the verb phrases:

1) are killed   VP → present – passive – kill

2) were fighting   VP → past – progressive – fight

3) may help   VP → present – modal – help

4) had been wasting   VP → past – perfective – progressive – waste

5) should have avoided   VP → past – modal – perfective – avoid

6) are being displayed   VP → present – progressive – passive – display

7) could be arranged   VP → past – modal – passive – arrange

8) would have been ruling VP → past – modal – perfective – progressive – rule

9) may give   VP → present – modal – give

10) was being used   VP → past – progressive – passive – use

Revision Exercise

I)   Tense and aspect of the given verb phrases:

S. No.	Verb Phrase	Tense	Aspect
1)	can be bought	Present	Passive
2)	will declare	Present	No aspect (simple)
3)	am studying	Present	Progressive
4)	could be punished	Past	Passive
5)	has been spent	Past	Perfective + Passive
6)	should be willing	Past	Progressive
7)	expressed	Past	No aspect
8)	does not need	Present	No aspect
9)	are cancelled	Present	Passive
10)	shall be required	Present	Passive

II) Matching the verb phrases with the structures:

1 – c; 2 – e; 3 – a; 4 – b; 5 – d.

III) Which modal(s) can you use for the given sense? Write in the following table:

S. No.	Sense/ Meaning	Modals
1)	Capacity	can
2)	Permission	can, could, may, might
3)	Possibility	can, could, may, might
4)	Necessity	need
5)	Compulsion	should, must, ought to

UNIT 4 COMPOUND AND COMPLEX SENTENCES

Structure

4.0   OBJECTIVES

In this unit we are going to look at the formation of complex and compound sentences. In this unit you will learn about how larger sentences are constructed through different combinations of clauses, and what kinds of relationships are possible between the clauses in complex and compound sentences. You will learn about the relation of coordination, which is the basis of compound sentences, and the relation of subordination, which is the basis of complex sentences. By the end of the unit you will also have a clearer idea of various types of coordinators and subordinators and types of subordinate clauses.

4.1   INTRODUCTION

Sometimes we come across larger sentences, in which smaller sentences or clauses are linked together to form larger sentences. The relationship between the clauses within a sentence may be of two types. The clauses in a sentence may be linked together through **coordination** or through **subordination**. **The relationship of coordination implies that two or more units are linked together on an equal footing.** All the units in the linked sentence are equal in status; none is superior or subordinate to the others. All elements are independent. **On the other hand, in subordination, one unit is the main, i.e. super-ordinate unit, while the others are subordinate to it.** In the following examples 1 and 2, the two clauses are joined together by coordination:

1)   The rains started and the landscape turned to green.

2)   The road was difficult, but she decided to take it.

In the following examples 3 and 4, the two clauses are related through subordination. The second clause is subordinate to the first.

3)   The landscape turned to green, when the rains started.

4)   She will not come to me, because she hates me.

In subordination, we can notice that there are one or more clauses or sentences *within* a larger sentence. In coordination we notice that two or more clauses or sentences are put side by side and connected by some connecting words. In other words, in subordination one clause (the main or superordinate clause) *includes* other subordinate (also called dependent) clauses. In a simple visual form, we can imagine the two relations in the following way:

Coordination
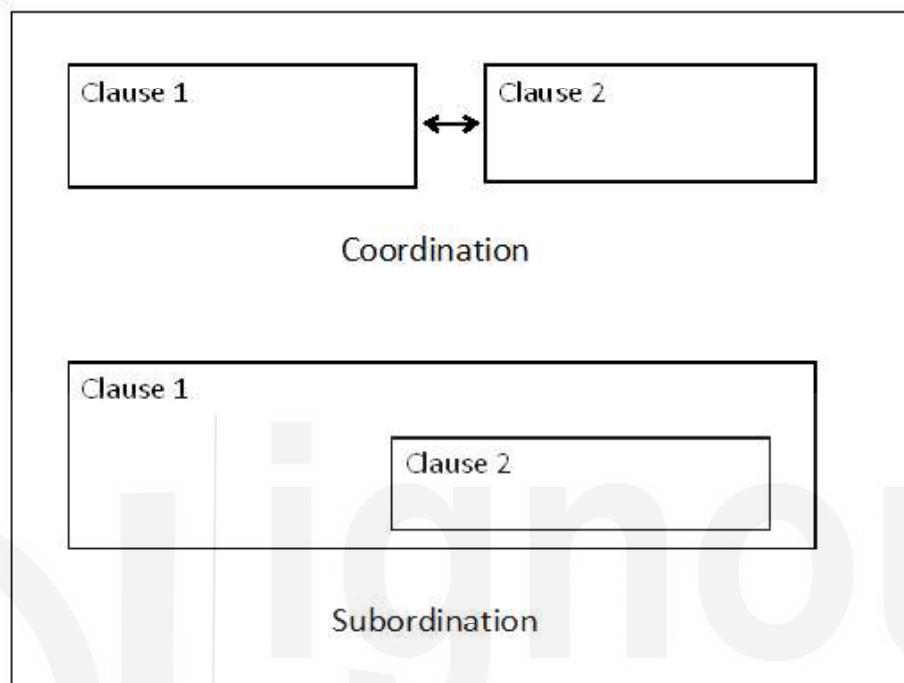
Subordination

Coordination results in compound sentences, while subordination results in complex sentences. Let us first look at compound sentences, which are based on the relations of coordination. We shall see how coordination is created, what different types of coordination are and their semantic implications. Later we shall look at complex sentences based on relations of subordination.

4.2 COMPOUND SENTENCES – HOW COORDINATION IS CREATED

In compound sentences clauses or sentences are linked together by some linking words and phrases, which are called coordinating links. There are three types of such words or links that can create relations of coordination. They can be shown schematically as below:

COORDINATION IN CLAUSES

Coordinators	Conjuncts	Correlatives
(and, or, but)	(nevertheless, besides, however, in addition, …, etc)	(not only … but also, either … or, neither… nor, both … and, etc)
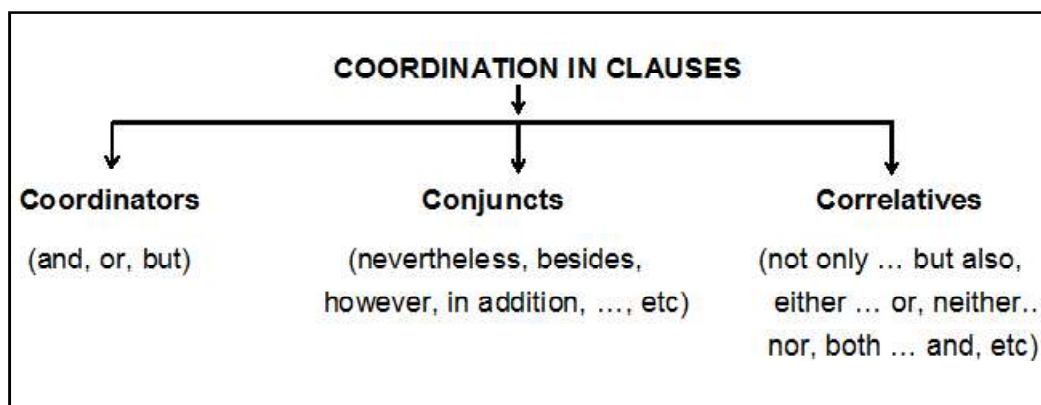
Here are some examples of compound sentences, which contain different links of coordination:

5) She must hurry now, <u>or</u> she will miss the train.

6) The new show on the TV is interesting, <u>but</u> it is still not popular.

7) We did not ask for advice <u>and</u> now we are suffering from our mistake.

8) <u>Not only</u> was the scheme badly planned, it was <u>also</u> started at a wrong time.

9) <u>Either</u> you should return the book, <u>or</u> you should pay the fine.

10) The bus was badly damaged, <u>nevertheless</u> most passengers were saved.

The underlined words act as links between two clauses within the larger sentence. All the phrases or words mentioned in the box above can be used to link various clauses. These links may have different meanings, as we shall see in the next section. However, we can notice the following two important features of the use of coordinating links:

- The coordinating links come *at the beginning* of the coordinated clauses. There may be some flexibility in case of conjuncts, but they are also usually placed at the beginning of a coordinated clause. For example, in the sentences 1 and 2 above, the coordinators 'and' and 'but' cannot be placed in the middle or end of the second clause.

- In coordination, the linked clauses follow a particular sequence. The clause with the coordinating link usually comes *after* the other clause. In the sentences 1 and 2 if we change the sequence as below (keeping the clause with coordinating link first), the sentence will not be grammatically acceptable.

11) *And* the landscape turned to green, the rains started.

12) *But* she decided to take it, the road was difficult.

[Reminder: An asterix mark * before a construction means that the construction is ungrammatical.]

4.3 COMPOUND SENTENCES – SEMANTIC IMPLICATIONS

Different coordination links have different shades of meanings. But the meanings of coordinating links can be broadly divided into three types – meanings of **inclusion**, meanings of **exclusion** and meanings of **contrast**.

Coordination by links like *and, besides, moreover, both ... and, in addition*, etc have the sense of inclusion. These phrases suggest that different items are brought together or included in a list of statements. Expressions like *or, either...or, alternatively*, etc suggest the sense of exclusion. The implication is of options or choices. Finally, the sense of contrast is suggested by expressions like *but, nevertheless, however*, etc. The following examples will make it clearer to you:

13) The film was very interesting and we also had wonderful company. (Inclusion)

14) Don't disturb the class, or I will punish you. (Exclusion)

15) He was a rich person, but his clothes did not show that. (Contrast)

16) Rivers in the Himalayas not only carry rainwater very fast, but also bring a lot of mud and rocks. (Inclusion)

Whenever we wish to form a compound sentence, or convert a sentence into a compound sentence, we should use one of the links discussed above. For example, we can join each of the following pairs into a compound sentence by using one of the linking words (coordinating phrases) depending on the relationship between them:

17) The examination was only a week away. A lot of the coursework was still incomplete.

17a) The examination was only a week away, but a lot of the coursework was still incomplete.

18) The sky was dark and cloudy. There was no shelter in view nearby.

18a) The sky was dark and cloudy and there was no shelter in view nearby.

19) The milk must be kept in cold storage. It will be spoiled by this heat.

19a) The milk must be kept in cold storage, or it will be spoiled by this heat.

20) He was given a special cell in the jail. He was allowed to take home food.

20a) He was given a special cell in the jail and he was allowed to take home food.

Check Your Progress 1

I) Identify the linking words in the following compound sentences and say which kind (or meaning) of relation (inclusion, exclusion or contrast) they indicate. List your answers in the table given below.

1) The water tap was not far away, but the old man was too tired to reach there.

2) The boxer gave a final punch to the opponent and the whole stadium burst into loud cheers.

3) This is a wonderful book, but you may not like the end of the story.

4) Either she gets only half share of the house, or she will get some money for it.

5) Not only were our plans accepted readily by the director, but he also granted a large fund to start our work.

6) Neither could the children's shouts disturb her, nor could she hear the loud chirping of birds.

7) A little library could both inspire some kids to read and give the villagers some place to visit.

8) One person came asking for some help, but left without waiting for our response.

9) These rivers are a good source of fresh fish, and they also serve as transport routes.

10) The boy was quick to move aside just in time, or he would have lost his hand in the machine.

Sentence No.	Linking Word(s)	Kind/ meaning of relation
1)		
2)		
3)		
4)		
5)		
6)		
7)		
8)		
9)		
10)		

II)   Form compound sentences from the following pairs of sentences.

   1)   Our driver was new to this area. He had never driven a large car.

   ....

   ....

   2)   Mathematics is a difficult subject. He had to study it for an important
        test.

   ....

   ....

   3)   Take the old lady to some hospital. At least call a doctor quickly.

   ....

   ....

   4)   Computers are very fast workers. They are also quite obedient.

   ....

   ....

   5)   The scientists spent a whole month on digging. They did not find
        anything important at the site.

   ....

   ....

4.4   COMPLEX SENTENCES – HOW
SUBORDINATION IS CREATED

As we saw in the introduction, clauses in sentences can be related together through
coordination or subordination. The relationship of coordination brings together
two or more clauses on an equal footing. In subordination, however, the clauses
are related to each other through hierarchy. In other words, one clause is considered
as the main clause, having an independent status, while the other clauses are

dependent on it. There is subordination of one or more clauses to a main clause. This main clause is also called super-ordinate clause or independent clause, while the dependent clause is also called subordinate clause. (In some modern grammars they are also called the matrix and the embedded clause respectively.) The result of a subordinated relationship is a complex sentence. Most of the times, the main clause actually includes one or more dependent clauses within it.

The words or phrases which are used to link clauses through subordination are commonly called **subordinators**. The main types of subordinators are as shown below:
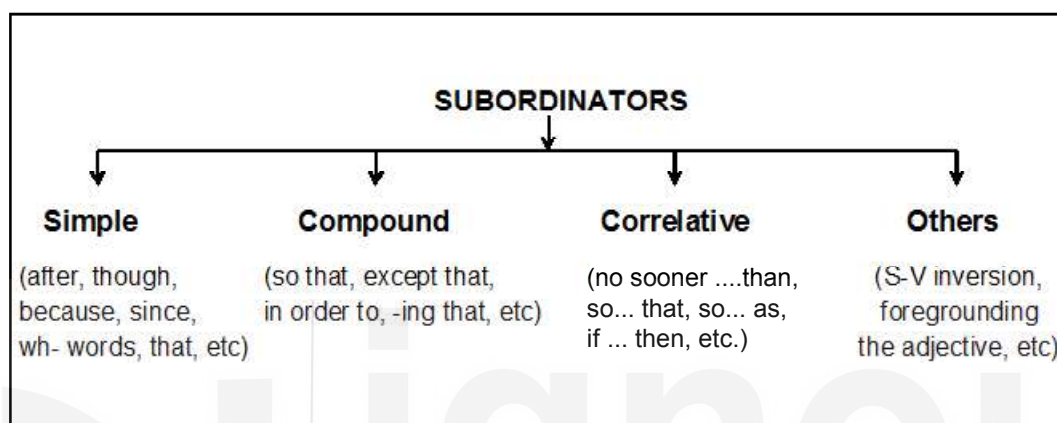
Simple Subordinators

Simple subordinators consist of single words. These subordinators can show a variety of relations between the coordinated clauses, such as reason, result, place, manner, etc. For example,

21)   He is feeling nervous, <u>since</u> this will be his first interview.

22)   I certainly feel <u>that</u> he will do well in the interview.

23)   We started liking the town <u>after</u> we had spent three years in it.

Compound Subordinators

As the label suggests, this kind of subordinators consist of two or more words. These can also show a wide variety of relations. For example,

24)   She arrived early, <u>so that</u> she could spend some time in the office.

25)   We wrote the names in English <u>in order to</u> make them intelligible.

26)   <u>Assuming that</u> this is true, we must act very fast.

Correlative Subordinators

These subordinators consist of a pair of related words or phrase. Both the elements of the pair do not come together, but are actually attached to different parts in the sentence. For example,

27)   <u>If</u> you wish to attend the programme, <u>then</u> you must reach here by ten.

28)   We were all <u>so</u> tired <u>that</u> we could hardly walk.

29)   <u>The farther</u> we walked, <u>the more</u> beautiful became the landscape.

Other Subordinators

Besides the types mentioned above, there are also other ways of creating subordination. One way is inverting the sequence of the subject and the verbal element (usually with 'had', 'should' and 'were'). Another way is to bring the adjective to the front (foregrounding) and change the sequence of the following elements. For example,

30) <u>Had</u> there been enough money, we could have survived.

31) <u>Should</u> you feel worried, please contact me immediately.

32) <u>Sad</u> as he was, he could not speak clearly.

Check Your Progress 2

Identify the subordinators in the following sentences. Also state the type of the subordinator (simple, compound, correlative, etc) in each case. You can compile your answers in the table below.

1) Nobody lives in this house, because it is too old and dark.

2) She managed to reach home in time, though it was heavily raining.

3) College students spend so much time in college canteens that they are hardly found in their classes.

4) The audience could not understand why the speaker suddenly stopped speaking.

5) You will never know whether the news about her marriage was actually false.

6) The historic palace was in good condition except that the front door had lost its shine.

7) If you are not happy with this model, then you should be ready to spend more money on another model.

8) We must take care of our earth today in order that our children tomorrow will have a good place to live in.

9) Visitors to the coloured stone offer coconuts there, believing that it must be some kind of local god.

10) Teachers try to keep their classes quiet so that they can show their class control.

Sentence No.	Subordinator	Type of subordinator
1		
2		
3		
4		
5		
6		

7		
8		
9		
10		

4.5   TYPES OF SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

Subordinate clauses can be classified into different types in two ways. One way is by looking at their structure, and classifying them on the basis of different structures. Subordinate clauses can also be classified into different types according to their functions. Let us first look at the types of subordinate clauses according to their structures.

Structural Types of Subordinate Clauses

Depending on their structure, subordinate clauses are classified into two types – finite and non-finite clauses. <u>Finite</u> clauses are those clauses in which the verb phrase is a finite verb phrase, i.e. it carries some tense. For example, in the following sentences the subordinate clauses (underlined) are finite clauses.

33)   <u>When the time is bad</u>, even a frog can kick an elephant.

34)   She decided to visit the temple, <u>because she loved the silence there</u>.

In the <u>non-finite</u> clauses, the verb phrase is non-finite, i.e. the verb phrase does not carry any tense. Non-finite clauses thus may contain tenseless verb phrases like the infinitive (*to project, to hide, …*), the –ing form (*projecting, hiding, …*) and the –ed/ –en participle form (*projected, hidden, …*). For example,

35)   <u>To project a better image</u>, the government announced several new schemes.

36)   <u>Hidden behind thick clouds</u>, the moon was out of our way.

37)   There was a young boy at the door, <u>panting and covered with blood</u>.

Check Your Progress 3

I)   Underline the subordinate clauses in the following sentences. Below each sentence also write whether the clause is finite or non-finite.

1)   Whatever they left on the table was taken away by the landlord.

Structural type of the clause: _____

2)   It was difficult to convince her that her health was more important than her job.

Structural type of the clause: _____

3)   The doctor was feeling quite exhausted, having finished three long surgeries in a row.

Structural type of the clause: _____

4)   Hidden completely behind thick bushes, the tiger was not visible to anyone on the road.

Structural type of the clause: _____

5) Mother started looking for the packet, which she had kept under the pile of books.

Structural type of the clause: _____

6) Merry is quite independent in her thinking, being brought up by her parents that way.

Structural type of the clause: _____

7) After their leader was killed by the enemy bullets, the soldiers started running in all directions.

Structural type of the clause: _____

8) The local committee demolished the old buildings in order to construct a new housing colony in their place.

Structural type of the clause: _____

9) Working on computers for several hours every day, they developed pain in their hands, shoulders and eyes.

Structural type of the clause: _____

10) The Indian hockey team was sure of winning, though they had a tough draw.

Structural type of the clause: _____

4.6 ANOTHER LABELLING FOR CLAUSES

Subordinate clauses are also classified into nominal clauses, adverbial clauses, adjectival clauses and so on. This naming is based on what kind of words a clause is replacing and what function that word may be performing in the given sentence. For example, the subordinate clauses which occupy the position of a noun in a sentence are called nominal clauses. Since nouns can typically occur as the subject, the object or the complement in sentences, nominal clauses can also do the same. The clauses which replace adverbs in sentences are called adverbial clauses. In this way, an easy test to see if a given clause is nominal or adverbial or adjectival is to try to substitute some word in its place. If a noun can be substituted for that clause, and we still get a grammatical sentence, then the clause is a nominal clause, and so on. For example,

38) I know <u>what you are thinking about.</u>

In place of the clause '*what you are thinking about*' we can substitute a noun like '*something*' or a pronoun like '*it*'. The resulting sentence is still grammatical. This shows that the given clause is a nominal clause. In the same way, we check adverbial and adjectival clauses. Given below is a detailed listing of nominal, adverbial and adjectival clauses.

NOMINAL CLAUSES

Nouns typically function as subjects, objects, complements, prepositional objects, etc. So nominal clauses can also come in all these positions. Some examples of each of these functions are given below.

A) Nominal clauses as subjects

39) <u>Who will bell the cat</u> is a big question.

40) <u>When they will arrive</u> is not certain.

41) <u>Reading the book while lying in water</u> was really a funny thing to do.

B) Nominal clauses as objects

As Direct Object

42) Bill Gates has donated <u>what he earned out of the new project to the Oxford Chair</u>.

43) With wonder we watched <u>how the young acrobat walked on the rope</u>.

44) We do not understand <u>what he is speaking about</u>.

As Indirect Object

45) The teacher was reading to <u>what she thought to be attentive boys</u>.

46) How can you give away such precious books to <u>just whoever comes to you</u>?

47) I have purchased something special for <u>what I may call my future life-partner</u>.

C) As complements

As Subject Complement

48) The captain seemed <u>deeply submerged in some serious thought</u>.

49) This little girl never became <u>what her parents expected</u>.

50) At the sunset, the western sky looked <u>burning with heavenly fire</u>.

As Object Complement

51) The experience made him <u>whatever he would call mature</u>.

52) You can call me <u>whatever names you like</u>.

As Prepositional Complement

53) We are waiting for <u>whoever comes next in the line</u>.

54) She tried to gain sympathy by <u>lying about her problems</u>.

55) Put this piece in <u>what seems to be a secure place</u>.

As Adjectival Complement

56) Since the accident she was always hesitant <u>to talk about her dead husband</u>.

57) We felt so sad <u>thinking about the poor children</u>.

ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

Adverbial clauses are those subordinate clauses which occupy the position of adverbs in a sentence. We can find out if a clause is adverbial or not by trying to substitute an adverb in its place. If we can replace the clause by an adverb and

still get a grammatical sentence, then the clause will be an adverbial clause. Some major kinds of adverbial clauses are discussed below.

A) Adverbial Clauses of Time

These clauses express time, and answer questions like *when, how long*, etc. For example,

58) My mother refers to recipe books <u>while cooking</u>.

59) Wild animals often become aggressive <u>when in danger</u>.

60) I will feel relieved <u>as soon as my book is finally published</u>.

B) Adverbial Clauses of Place

These clauses answer questions like *where*, and any other expressions related to place.

61) You always put things <u>wherever you find some space</u>.

62) Today you find a ruined structure <u>where once stood the magnificent palace</u>.

C) Adverbial Clauses of Cause/ Reason

Such clauses indicate the reason behind something. They are usually introduced by words like *because, since, as*, etc.

63) The child is crying <u>as she has lost her doll</u>.

64) <u>Since Delhi is a polluted city</u>, we must be careful.

65) You must go to him <u>because he needs your help</u>.

D) Adverbial Clauses of Condition

Adverbial clauses of condition introduce some condition. Usually it is introduced by *if* (positive condition) and *unless* (negative condition).

66) <u>If you think it necessary</u> I will come with you.

67) <u>Unless someone comes soon</u> for our help, we may not get out of here.

E) Adverbial Clauses of Manner

These clauses show the manner of some action. They answer questions like *how, in what way*, etc.

68) You must do it the way <u>your teacher told you</u>.

69) She looked at me <u>as if she never knew me</u>.

Relative /Adjectival Clauses

We often want to give more information about someone or something that we mention in a sentence. We usually use a relative clause to do so. Since relative clauses function as adjectives, they are also called adjectival clauses. Adjective clauses follow the words they modify and are typically introduced by relative pronouns like *that, which, who, whom* and *whose*. For example,

70) This section *which* is on subordinate relative clauses is not very long.

71) My daughter *who* is a third year medical student wants to be a surgeon.

72) Strawberries *which* are grown in Nasik are quite expensive.

73) The boy *whose* face is painted red is a very helpful fellow.

74) We relished the delicious chicken *that* my mother cooked.

Relative clauses that explain which person or thing you are talking about are called **Defining** or **Restrictive Relative Clause**. A defining clause narrows down or restricts the meaning of the noun they follow.

75) The boy *who* was here a minute ago is the son of a colleague.

76) Say something *which* would make everybody laugh.

Non-defining or **non-restrictive** relative clauses, on the other hand, give additional information which is not essential. They do not define the preceding noun but merely provide extra information.

77) The new stadium, *which* will be opened next month, can hold 75,000 people.

78) Sheila, *who* is a teacher, plans to open a pre-school play school.

A non-defining relative clause usually has a comma in front of it and a comma after it. If the clause is at the end of a sentence we just put a full stop.

Check Your Progress 4

Underline the subordinate clauses in the following sentences. Then in the table below match the clauses with their types by writing the correct sentence number next to each type.

1) When the much-awaited rains come, the whole world turns green around us.

2) In that total darkness she could not see what she crushed under her feet.

3) Because the payments did not come in time, the company stopped its service.

4) How to console the crying mother was the first challenge before them.

5) You may leave your bags wherever you can find place in this room.

6) Children will always do things as they like them to do.

7) People in this village seem as if they are scared of something.

Type of clause	Sentence number
Nominal clause as subject	
Nominal clause as object	
Nominal clause as complement	
Adverbial clause of time	
Adverbial clause of place	
Adverbial clause of reason	
Adverbial clause of manner	

Check Your Progress 5

1) Identify the relative clause(s) in the following sentences:

    i)   Marcus Terentius Varro (116-27 B.C.) advised anyone who intended to build a farm house to avoid swampy land.

ii) Malaria, which means bad air in Italian, was assumed to be caused by minute animals that entered the body by way of mouth and nose.

iii) In 1980, the French physician, Laveran, who was working as a surgeon with the French army in Algeria, noticed a microscopic organism in the red-blood corpuscles of malaria patients.

2) Complete the sentences with an appropriate relative clause

   i) I don't like stories that ……

   ii) An architect is someone who…..

   iii) Earth is the only planet which …..

   iv) The house which …..

3) Combine the sentences into a single sentence containing a relative clause.

   i) Have you found the keys? You lost the keys yesterday.

   ii) We met Ayushi. We met her yesterday. She is my daughter's roommate.

   iii) I slept in a bed last night. The bed was not comfortable.

4.7   LET US SUM UP

- Clauses within a sentence may be linked together through coordination or through subordination.

- In coordination, two or more clauses are joined together on equal basis. Each of these clauses is independent and equal. Sentences created out of coordination are called compound sentences, while sentences resulting from subordination are called complex sentences.

- In subordination one of the combined clauses is independent, while the others are dependent on it. The independent clause is called the main clause or superordinate clause, while the other clauses are called dependent or subordinate clauses.

- Coordination is created using any of the three types of linking words and phrases – coordinators, conjuncts and correlatives.

- Meanings of coordinating links can be grouped into three types – inclusion ('*and*' and similar expressions), exclusion ('*or*' and similar expressions) and contrast ('*but*' and similar expressions).

- Words or phrases which link clauses by subordination are called subordinators. Subordinators are of four kinds – simple, compound, correlative and others.

- By their structures, subordinate clauses can be finite or non-finite.

- Another way of labeling subordinating clauses is by referring to the word class which they replace. Clauses occurring in noun positions are called nominal clauses. Similarly, clauses occurring in adverb or adjective positions are called adverbial and adjectival clauses respectively.

4.8   SUGGESTED READINGS

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Swan, M. 1996. *Practical English Usage*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

4.9   ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

I)

Sentence No.	Linking Word(s)	Kind/meaning of relation
1)	but	contrast
2)	and	inclusion
3)	but	contrast
4)	either … or	exclusion
5)	not only … but also	inclusion
6)	neither … nor	inclusion
7)	both … and	inclusion
8)	but	contrast
9)	and	inclusion
10)	or	exclusion

II)   1)   Our driver was new to this area and he had never driven a large car.

2)   Mathematics is a difficult subject, but he had to study it for an important test.

3)   Take the old lady to some hospital, or at least call a doctor quickly.

4)   Computers are very fast workers and they are also quite obedient.

5)   The scientists spent a whole month on digging, but they did not find anything important at the site.

Check Your Progress 2

Sentence No.	Subordinator	Type of subordinator
1)	because	simple

2)	though	simple
3)	so … that	correlative
4)	why	simple
5)	whether	simple
6)	except that	compound
7)	if … then	correlative
8)	in order that	compound
9)	-ing that	compound
10)	so that	compound

Check Your Progress 3

I) 1) <u>Whatever they left on the table</u> was taken away by the landlord.

     Structural type of the clause: Finite

2) It was difficult to convince her <u>that her health was more important than her job</u>.

     Structural type of the clause: Finite

3) The doctor was feeling quite exhausted, <u>having finished three long surgeries in a row</u>.

     Structural type of the clause: Non-finite

4) <u>Hidden completely behind thick bushes</u>, the tiger was not visible to anyone on the road.

     Structural type of the clause: Non-finite

5) Mother started looking for the packet, <u>which she had kept under the pile of books</u>.

     Structural type of the clause: Finite

6) Merry is quite independent in her thinking, <u>being brought up by her parents that way</u>.

     Structural type of the clause: Non-finite

7) <u>After their leader was killed by the enemy bullets</u>, the soldiers started running in all directions.

     Structural type of the clause: Finite

8) The local committee demolished the old buildings <u>in order to construct a new housing colony in their place</u>.

     Structural type of the clause: Non-finite

9) <u>Working on computers for several hours every day</u>, they developed pain in their hands, shoulders and eyes.

     Structural type of the clause: Non-finite

10) The Indian hockey team was sure of winning, <u>though they had a tough draw</u>.

Structural type of the clause: Finite

Check Your Progress 4

1) <u>When the much-awaited rains come</u>, the whole world turns green around us.

2) In that total darkness she could not see <u>what she crushed under her feet</u>.

3) <u>Because the payments did not come in time</u>, the company stopped its service.

4) <u>How to console the crying mother</u> was the first challenge before them.

5) You may leave your bags <u>wherever you can find place in this room</u>.

6) Children will always do things <u>as they like them to do</u>.

7) People in this village seem <u>as if they are scared of something</u>.

Type of clause	Sentence number
Nominal clause as subject	4
Nominal clause as object	2
Nominal clause as complement	7
Adverbial clause of time	1
Adverbial clause of place	5
Adverbial clause of reason	3
Adverbial clause of manner	6

Check Your Progress 5

1) i) who intended to build a farm house to avoid swampy land.

   ii) which means bad air in Italian

   that entered the body by way of mouth and nose.

   iii) who was working as a surgeon with the French army in Algeria

2) i) have tragic endings.

   ii) designs houses/buildings.

   iii) supports life.

   iv) was bought for 35 lakhs was haunted.

3) i) Have you found the keys which you lost yesterday?

   ii) Ayushi, whom we met yesterday, is my daughter's roommate.

   iii) Last night, l slept in a bed which was not comfortable.

UNIT 5   SENTENCE TRANSFORMATIONS

Structure

5.0   OBJECTIVES

This unit is devoted to sentence transformations. In this unit you will learn about different types of sentences and how sentences can be converted from one type to another. In particular, you will learn more about how interrogative and negative sentences are formed, which is a problematic area for many Indian users of English.

5.1   INTRODUCTION

Different languages have different ways of forming sentences, and therefore, different types of sentences. English too have its own way of constructing sentences. According to how various elements are combined into sentences and what structural and intonation patterns are followed, English sentences can be broadly divided into four types, which we shall study in the subsequent sections. We shall also study how each type of sentences is expected to perform particular functions. In the process we may also become aware that there are some interesting differences between sentence types and functions related to them between English and most Indian languages. This awareness is important in order to use English appropriately.

5.2   TYPES OF SENTENCES

As mentioned above, there are four broad types of sentences in English – assertive (or declarative), interrogative, imperative and exclamatory. Let us look at the details of each type. Each of these types can be affirmative or negative. The negative versions contain some negative element like *no, not, nothing, none, nobody, never*, etc.

A)   Assertive/Declarative Sentences

Assertive or declarative sentences are various kinds of statements. In terms of punctuation they end in a full stop (period). For example,

1) Delhi is the capital of India.

2) The water in the tank was not safe for drinking.

3) Nobody was ready to accept the challenge.

4) Numbers were the biggest problem for the young Einstein.

5) I request you to go away immediately.

Assertive sentences can be affirmative or negative. Negative sentences contain some negative element like *not, nobody, none, never, nowhere, nothing*, etc. Affirmative sentences do not contain any such negative element. In the examples given above, sentences 2 and 3 are negative while the remaining are affirmative sentences. Here are more examples of affirmative and negative sentences:

Affirmative Sentences

6) I like eating out in evenings with friends.

7) Recently this writer published her autobiography.

8) Films in 1990s were more socially oriented.

9) Margaret Thatcher was the former prime minister of England.

10) You should take a taxi from here to save your time.

Negative Sentences

11) My friends don't like eating out frequently.

12) None of her books were published in India.

13) We shall never forget your great support.

14) You should not take a taxi at this late hour.

15) He remembers nothing from his visit to Russia.

To summarise from these examples, you will see that

• Assertive sentences follow subject–verb–object (if any) sequence;

• They end in full stop (period);

• Negative sentences contain some negative element.

In one of the following sections we are going to discuss the formation of negative sentences in more detail.

B) Interrogative Sentences

Interrogative sentences are questions. In terms of punctuation, an interrogative sentence ends in a question mark. For example,

16) Isn't that your house?

17) Who killed all the cheetahs in India?

18) What does the director know about our policy?

There are two main types of interrogative sentences – yes-no questions and wh-questions. In the examples above, sentence 16 is a yes-no question and sentences 17 and 18 are wh-questions. Yes-no questions are called so because they are answered in either 'yes' or 'no'. Wh-questions are called so, because they contain some wh- word like *who, which, where, why, when*, etc.

Yes-no questions are usually asked to check information or to seek agreement/ disagreement. Wh-questions are usually asked to get information. But both yes-no and wh- questions can also be used to make requests, to give suggestions, to invite, etc in a polite way. For example,

19) Can you please pass that file? (request)

20) Shall we go for a movie tomorrow? (invitation)

21) Why don't you try the new herbal treatment? (suggestion)

You must have noticed from these examples that

* Both in yes-no type and wh- type questions, the subject-verb order is reversed (e.g. '*you can*' becomes '*can you*', '*that is*' becomes '*is that*', etc.);

* The wh- word is always at the beginning of the wh- type questions;

* Interrogative sentences carry a question mark in the end;

* Interrogative sentences can be affirmative or negative.

    We shall look into more details of forming questions in one of the subsequent sections.

C) Imperative Sentences

An imperative sentence has the sense of '*do something*' or '*don't do something*'. They may end in full stop or exclamation mark, and they do not have a subject. (Actually imperative sentences have 'you' as an understood subject.) For example,

22) Keep this bag over there.

23) Don't shout at me!

24) Leave this room at once!

25) Please maintain complete silence in the reading hall.

26) Open the window, please!

In all these sentences 'You' is implied.

Imperative sentences are used to make requests, give commands, make suggestions, etc. There is another type – '*Let us*' type – of imperative sentences, which are generally used for invitations or suggestions.

27) Let us not go that way.

28) Let's order some nice, warm coffee!

29) Let us have a grand party on your success!

From all these examples you can understand that

* Imperative sentences have '*you*' as an understood subject, but it is not expressed;

* Imperative sentences may end in a full stop or an exclamation mark;

* They begin with the base form of the verb; negative sentences begin with '*don't*'; in addition, words like '*please*' may sometimes be added;

* Another type of imperative sentences begins with '*Let us*'.

D) Exclamatory Sentences

Exclamatory sentences are usually expressions of strong emotion.

30) What an amazing performance they gave!

31) How cruel of that boy to treat the dog that way!

32) How foolish of me to come here!

33) What a waste of time you had!

34) How very funny!

35) What a brilliant idea!

Looking at these examples you may have noticed that

• Exclamatory sentences start with '*what*' or '*how*', and end in exclamation marks;

• '*What*' is the beginning for a noun and '*how*' for an adjective;

• They may or may not have the subject–verb pair;

• If they have the subject-verb pair, it usually comes at the end of the sentence;

• Exclamatory sentences are normally only affirmative.

We shall see more details on the formation of exclamatory sentences in the section on forming exclamatory sentences below.

Check Your Progress 1

I) State whether the following sentences are assertive, interrogative, imperative or exclamatory:

1) Who has ever seen a car flying in the sky?
   _____

2) Mangoes cannot be packed in aluminum foil.
   _____

3) How sensible of him to refuse the offer!
   _____

4) Don't talk while eating!
   _____

5) Let's have another round of coffee!
   _____

6) Why did she always choose coloured dresses?
   _____

7) I am not in any mood to listen to your long speeches.
   _____

8) What a cruel joke to play on those kids!
   _____

9) Someone had just opened the window without warning.
   _____

10) How long will this bus take to reach Delhi?
    _____

II) State whether the following sentences are affirmative or negative. If a
     sentence is negative, underline the negative element in it.

1) Santa Claus is a popular figure among children.
    _____

2) Why did nobody tell me about the accident?
    _____

3) Do not leave your bags unattended on the platform.
    _____

4) How wonderful the food was in that little pub!
    _____

5) Save your work before shutting down the computer.
    _____

6) The young man would never tell the police about his family.
    _____

7) What a strange thing to say on the occasion!
    _____

8) Nowhere in Australia will one find a dirty beach full of garbage.
    _____

9) How she manages to get so much money is not my concern.
    _____

10) When will they understand the importance of our time?
    _____

5.3   SENTENCE TRANSFORMATIONS - NEGATIVE

In this and the next three sections we shall look at some of the common sentence
transformations which pose problems for Indian users of English. Here we shall
look at how negative sentences are formed, while in the next sections we shall
look at the formation of interrogative, imperative and exclamatory sentences.

As we saw in Section 5.2, negative sentences contain some negative element
like *no, not, none, nobody, never,* etc. This means that in order to form negative
sentences we should add a negative element to the original sentence. We shall
now look at how different types of sentences are transformed into negatives.

Assertive sentences

Look at the following examples, where negative elements are added to the original
sentences:

36) Weather on these islands is very pleasant.

     →   Weather on these islands is <u>not</u> very pleasant.

37) She could lift those heavy bags.

     →   She could <u>not</u> lift those heavy bags.

38) My friends were planning to arrange a surprise for me.

     →   My friends were <u>not</u> planning to arrange a surprise for me.

[Note: It is quite common to use contracted forms like '*isn't*', '*couldn't*' etc instead of full forms in negative sentences.]

You will see that the element 'not' is added after the first auxiliary (*can*, *were*, etc) or after the 'be' form (*is*). In case a sentence has only the main verb and no auxiliary, then we have to introduce '*do*', '*does*' or '*did*' before using '*not*'.

39) These children love the sticky chocolate milk.

> → These children <u>do not (don't)</u> love the sticky chocolate milk.

40) The special monitor helps in locating delivery vans.

> → The special monitor <u>does not (doesn't)</u> help in locating delivery vans.

41) A speeding car injured the old man.

> → A speeding car <u>did not (didn't)</u> injure the old man.

There is another way of forming negative sentences. If the original sentences contain words like *'anybody', 'somebody', 'everybody', 'anything', 'something', 'everything', 'somewhere', 'sometimes'*, etc, we can also form negatives by using related negative words like *'nobody', 'nothing', 'nowhere', 'never'*, etc.

42) Somebody was knocking on the door last night.

> → <u>Nobody</u> was knocking on the door last night.

43) Everything in this shop is very expensive.

> → <u>Nothing</u> in this shop is very expensive.

44) You could buy anything in a few rupees then.

> → You could buy <u>nothing</u> in a few rupees then.

You may have also noticed that the meaning of the negative sentence in all the above examples is opposite to the meaning of the original sentence. In practice we often come across tasks or examination questions, where students are asked to change a sentence into negative "without changing its meaning". Teachers teach students to use an antonym of some word in the sentence along with a negative element so that "the meaning remains the same". But it is really difficult not to change the meaning, because the meaning of a negative sentence will never be the same as that of the original affirmative sentence, in spite of any play of words. There will be some difference of meaning. Look at the following sentences:

45) She was feeling very sad the whole day.

> → She was <u>not</u> feeling very *happy* the whole day.

46) Everybody in this group is a good worker.

> → <u>Nobody</u> in this group is a *bad* worker.

47) I hate ice-cream.

> → I <u>don't</u> *like* ice-cream.

You will agree that both the sentences in each pair do not mean exactly the same thing. It makes better sense to ask students just to form negative sentences, and not insist on avoiding change of meaning, because the main purpose of such tasks/ questions is to see if students can use negative constructions.

Interrogative sentences

It is easy to form negatives of interrogative sentences. In interrogative sentences the first auxiliary is already shifted before the subject, or if there is no auxiliary, forms '*do*', *does*' or '*did*' are already in place. The negative is formed by adding 'n't' (contraction of '*not*') to these auxiliaries or forms of '*do*'. The process is the same in yes-no type and wh- type questions.

Please remember that there is a difference of construction when we use the contraction 'n't' and when we use the full form 'not' for making negative. The contraction '*n't*' is directly attached to the first auxiliary or forms of '*do*', but the full form '*not*' is placed after the subject. Both the constructions are given below so that you can compare them.

Yes-no questions

48) Is she coming to the theatre?

   →   <u>Isn't</u> she coming to the theatre?

   →   <u>Is</u> she <u>not</u> coming to the theatre?

49) Have you heard of the new film?

   →   <u>Haven't</u> you heard of the new film?

   →   <u>Have</u> you <u>not</u> heard of the new film?

50) Should the workers stop working now?

   →   <u>Shouldn't</u> the workers stop working now?

   →   <u>Should</u> the workers <u>not</u> stop working now?

51) Can someone tell the right password for this machine?

   →   <u>Can't</u> someone tell the right password for this machine?

   →   <u>Can</u> someone <u>not</u> tell the right password for this machine?

Wh- questions

52) When was the system working properly?

   →   When <u>wasn't</u> the system working properly?

   →   When <u>was</u> the system <u>not</u> working properly?

53) What does he like about his new job?

   →   What <u>doesn't</u> he like about his new job?

   →   What <u>does</u> he <u>not</u> like about his new job?

54) What do they want in the office?

   →   What <u>don't</u> they want in the office?

   →   What <u>do</u> they <u>not</u> want in the office?

55) Why has she left the town?

   →   Why <u>hasn't</u> she left the town?

   →   Why <u>has</u> she <u>not</u> left the town?

56) Who did the minister want to invite?

→ Who <u>didn't</u> the minister want to invite?

→ Who <u>did</u> the minister <u>not</u> want to invite?

Imperative sentences

Negatives of imperative sentences are formed by using 'd*o not*' or 'd*on't*'before the main verb. Generally these are the starting words of the negative sentences, if words like '*please*' are not there.

57) Answer the following question in detail.

→ <u>Don't</u> answer the following question in detail.

58) Please keep this instrument away from heat.

→ Please <u>do not</u> keep this instrument away from heat.

59) Stand here and wait for the next instructions.

→ <u>Don't</u> stand here and wait for the next instructions.

60) Leave the door open when you go out.

→ <u>Don't</u> leave the door open when you go out.

61) Kindly make cash payments at Counter No. 6.

→ Kindly <u>do not</u> make cash payments at Counter No. 6.

Check Your Progress 2

Transform the following sentences into negative:

1) It is easy to quit the habit of smoking.

   ....

   ....

2) Was the officer busy in meetings the whole day?

   ....

   ....

3) Who could tell the difference between the twin brothers?

   ....

   ....

4) We have been planning a special event since long.

   ....

   ....

5) Drop the bags on the floor of the room.

   ....

   ....

6) Why did he call the doctor immediately?

....

....

7) They like the large old-fashioned house by the river.

....

....

8) He gives all his salary to his wife every month.

....

....

9) Who allowed you to come through that gate?

....

....

10) Will a hundred rupees be enough for one day?

....

....

5.4 SENTENCE TRANSFORMATIONS - INTERROGATIVE

We have seen examples of interrogative sentences in the Section 5.2. From these examples we learnt an important feature of interrogative sentences in English – the reversing of subject-verb order to verb-subject. This is a crucial point, because in most Indian languages there is no such order change while making questions and therefore many Indian users form English question without changing the subject-verb sequence.

There are some simple points we should remember about this subject-verb reversal. If the verb phrase of a sentence has one or more auxiliaries with the main verb, or if the main verb is 'be', then only the first auxiliary or the form of '*be'* moves before the subject.

62) The lion was hunting alone for some animal.

→ Was the lion hunting alone for some animal?

63) Our guests will be arriving by the next train.

→ Will our guests be arriving by the next train?

64) The government should have cancelled the whole scheme.

→ Should the government have cancelled the whole scheme?

65) They must go away from their current job.

→ Must they go away from their current job?

66) One <u>cannot request</u> for any help from them.

 → <u>Can</u> one not request for any help from them?

67) Nina <u>was</u> the only person left behind.

 → <u>Was</u> Nina the only person left behind?

68) Green vegetables and fruits <u>are</u> good for our health.

 → <u>Are</u> green vegetables and fruits good for our health?

Note: If a contracted negative like *can't, don't, won't,* etc are used, the whole contracted form moves before the subject. E.g.

69) She <u>can't come</u> for the meeting.

 → <u>Can't</u> she come for the meeting?

70) Father <u>doesn't like</u> to take breaks in his work.

 → <u>Doesn't</u> father like to take breaks in his work?

If there are no auxiliaries in the verb phrase and the main verb is alone, we need to introduce '*do*', '*does*' or '*did*' for forming questions. If the main verb is in –s form we use '*does*'; if it is in the past tense form we use '*did*', and in all other cases we use '*do*'.

71) The programme started right on time.

 → Did the programme start right on time?

72) So many people live in just one room.

 → Do so many people live in just one room?

73) Regular exercise helps in controlling many problems.

 → Does regular exercise help in controlling many problems?

74) One university offered free laptops to all students.

 → Did one university offer free laptops to all students?

75) Birds migrate in thousands from cold to warm regions.

 → Do birds migrate in thousands from cold to warm regions?

All the examples so far show us how to form yes-no type questions. The process is basically the same for forming wh- type questions also. In wh- questions also we have to reverse the subject-verb order and use forms of '*do*' as above. In addition we have to use an appropriate wh- word in the beginning of the question.

In the following examples, we have to form wh- questions about the underlined parts. So the first important step is to choose a correct wh- word for that part. Then we can form the question by putting that wh- word in the beginning, by changing subject-verb order and by including forms of '*do*', if necessary. In the following examples the appropriate wh- word for the underlined part is given in the brackets for your convenience.

76) The little girl could see a <u>train</u> in the distance. (what)

 → <u>What</u> could the little girl see in the distance?

77) Earlier she had seen <u>a dream</u> about a fast train. (what)

→ <u>What</u> had she earlier seen about a fast train?

78) <u>The old woman</u> was listening to the speech of her son. (who)

→ <u>Who</u> was listening to the speech of her son?

79) It is difficult to write quickly <u>on cold mornings</u>. (when)

→ <u>When</u> is it difficult to write quickly?

80) The food in this restaurant is <u>very tasty</u>. (how)

→ <u>How</u> is the food in this restaurant?

81) The traffic on Delhi roads was disturbed <u>because of the heavy fog</u>. (why)

→ <u>Why</u> was the traffic on Delhi roads disturbed?

82) Sunil felt <u>a strong sadness</u> on the death of the little bird. (what)

→ <u>What</u> did Sunil feel on the death of the little bird?

83) Sheila sends <u>him</u> some wonderful gifts every year. (whom)

→ <u>Whom</u> does Sheila send some wonderful gifts every year?

84) The old man was painting <u>his car</u> himself. (what)

→ <u>What</u> was the old man painting himself?

85) Most children like <u>chocolate flavoured</u> sweets. (which)

→ <u>Which</u> sweets do most children like?

Check Your Progress 3

I) Convert the following sentences into yes-no type questions:

1) He was suffering from a severe back ache.

....

....

2) Hill stations are not good places to visit during heavy rains.

....

....

3) People like a warm cup of tea on cold mornings.

....

....

4) All the posters have been taken away by the organisers.

....

....

5) The protesters should have been told to avoid violence.

....

....

6) Political parties in India are an important part of democracy.

   ....

   ....

7) There was some confusion about the departure time of the train.

   ....

   ....

8) She grabbed her husband's shirt to save herself from falling.

   ....

   ....

9) A calendar does not show all the festivals of every community.

   ....

   ....

10) A learner finds it difficult to learn without support.

   ....

   ....

II) Change the following sentences into wh- type questions, where the wh-word corresponds to the underlined parts:

1) She may be telling <u>the truth</u> this time.

   ....

   ....

2) People gathered <u>in front of the royal palace</u> in large numbers.

   ....

   ....

3) My grandfather does not take any meal <u>in the evenings</u>.

   ....

   ....

4) There was a long line up of vehicles <u>because of the accident</u>.

   ....

   ....

5) <u>The students</u> sent a strong complaint to the principal.

   ....

   ....

6) Tourists can go to the temple <u>only by walking on foot</u>.

    ....

    ....

7) The final match between Williams and Sharapova lasted <u>almost three hours</u>.

    ....

    ....

8) There were <u>only sixty chairs</u> in the hall for the meeting.

    ....

    ....

9) The announcements have been posted <u>on all notice boards</u>.

    ....

    ....

10) We were asked to wear <u>only red-coloured shirts</u>.

    ....

    ....

5.5 SENTENCE TRANSFORMATIONS - EXCLAMATORY

In this section we shall see how assertive or interrogative sentences can be transformed into exclamatory sentences. As we have seen in Section 5.2, exclamatory sentences begin with '*what*' or '*how*' and, if there is subject-verb pair, it is moved to the end of the sentence without changing its sequence. In questions we change the sequence of subject and verb, but in exclamatory sentences we only shift them to the end of the sentence, but do not change their sequence.

The first important step for transforming into exclamatory sentence is to decide if the sentence should begin with '*what*' or '*how*'. If the reference is to a noun phrase we use '*what*', and if the reference is to an adjective phrase we use '*how*'. The use of an article or the plural form clearly tells us that it is a noun phrase. In other cases it is likely to be adjective phrase.

The next step is to shift the subject-verb pair to the end of the sentence, or sometimes to drop it altogether. In addition we may also drop words like 'very', because their sense is taken up by '*what*' or '*how*' in the beginning. Finally we end the sentence with an exclamation mark. Let us try to understand these steps with the following example:

86) It was <u>a fantastic performance</u> by the young group.

The exclamation is about the underlined part. It contains an article 'a', which

shows that it is a noun phrase. So we shall begin our exclamatory sentence with '*what*'. We may shift the subject-verb pair to the end (see 86a below) or we may drop it (see 86b below). We do not make any change in the remaining part of the sentence.

86a) What a fantastic performance by the young group it was!

86b) What a fantastic performance by the young group!

In the next example you will see an adjective phrase and not a noun phrase.

87) The child was <u>very excited </u>about the new house.

So our exclamatory sentence will begin with '*how*'. Once again we may think of two options – moving the subject-verb pair '*the child was*' to the end or dropping it. But you will see that dropping the subject-verb pair makes the sentence vague and incomplete (see 87b below). We may also choose to drop '*very*'.

87a) How excited about the new house the child was!

87b) How excited about the new house!

Here are some more examples of transformation into exclamatory sentences:

88) That was a brilliant idea.

→   What a brilliant idea (that was)!

89) People were greatly disappointed with the old king.

→   How greatly disappointed with the old king people were!

→   How greatly disappointed people were with the old king!

90) The song had such a beautiful tune.

→   What a beautiful tune the song had!

91) Kubla Khan built a massive royal palace for himself.

→   What a massive royal palace Kubla Khan built for himself!

When we need to transform a question into an exclamatory sentence, the simple trick is to turn it into an answer, i.e. into an assertive sentence, like the ones listed above. From there you can easily transform it into an exclamatory sentence.

92) Wasn't it a great miracle?

→   It was a great miracle. (assertive)

→   What a great miracle it was! (exclamatory)

93) Are they worried about their future?

→   They are worried about their future. (assertive)

→   How worried about their future they are! (exclamatory)

Check Your Progress 4

Change the following sentences into exclamatory sentences:

1) It was a very dull show.

....

2)   The new player was very graceful.

....

....

3)   The ants of this type are very attacking.

....

....

4)   The magician showed really amazing tricks.

....

....

5)   Wasn't it a really great speech?

....

....

6)   The bride was looking so charming in the red dress.

....

....

7)   It is extremely difficult to get honest followers now.

....

....

8)   Her face is looking really miserable.

....

....

9)   The second player made a clever move.

....

....

10) She is a very innocent child.

....

....

5.6   LET US SUM UP

- There are four broad types of sentences – assertive, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory. Out of these the first three can be affirmative or negative, while exclamatory sentences are usually affirmative.

- Negative sentences contain a negative element like *no, not, nothing, never, nobody, nowhere*, etc.

- Interrogative sentences are of two types – yes-no questions and wh-questions. Yes-no questions are called so, because they are answered in either '*yes*' or '*no*'. Wh- questions are called so because they contain a wh-word. In English interrogative sentences, the normal sequence of subject-verb is reversed to verb-subject.

- Imperative sentences do not have an expressed subject; they have '*you*' as an implied subject. Another type of imperative sentences begins with '*let us*'.

- Exclamatory sentences start with either '*what*' (referring to a noun phrase) or '*how*' (referring to an adjective phrase). The subject-verb pair is either shifted to the end of the sentence or dropped altogether.

- There are various important points and steps we should remember while transforming sentences into interrogative, negative or exclamatory.

REVISION EXERCISE

I)   State whether the following sentences are assertive, interrogatory, imperative or exclamatory:

1)   Two heads are better than one.

....

....

2)   Isn't the Mahabharata world's longest poem?

....

....

3)   Body tattoos have a long history of centuries.

....

....

4)   What will you do after completing this course?

....

....

5)   How crisp and crunchy these biscuits are!

....

....

6)   Don't touch these live wires!

....

7) How can anybody miss this large notice?

....

....

8) Should we call the fire service or the police?

....

....

9) She was such a smart person before her marriage.

....

....

10) Just look at that little blue bird without shouting!

....

....

II) Change the following sentences into negative:

1) Horse carriages were the only transport available in the town.

....

....

2) Who could have imagined such a sad end to his life?

....

....

3) Warm weather will quickly change the mood of these people.

....

....

4) All the details of your accounts must be given in this form.

....

....

5) Can one book a taxi or a car from the station?

....

....

6) Stop counting how many times this machine broke down!

....

....

7)   We need a specialist surgeon for this surgery.

....

....

8)   Even at 87 my father wants to watch Hindi films.

....

....

9)   It was the life-long hard work which affected his mind.

....

....

10) Answer the following questions in only one word each.

....

....

III) Form wh- questions from the following sentences:

1)   Her phone was lying on the table when the thieves came.

....

....

2)   After the examinations we went to a sports camp in Mumbai.

....

....

3)   Their 4-year old daughter can speak five languages.

....

....

4)   Due to her old age she can't easily remember names.

....

....

5)   The speaker spoke every word slowly and clearly.

....

....

6)   Only over-6-feet tall boys were selected in the basketball team.

....

....

7) One of the writers has been nominated for the national award.

....

....

8) Each magic show runs for about two hours.

....

....

9) The launch ceremony will be attended by six hundred guests.

....

....

10) The students should be examined by an experienced medical officer.

....

....

5.7   SUGGESTED READINGS

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5.8   ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

I)   1) Interrogative

2) Assertive

3) Exclamatory

4) Imperative

5) Imperative

6) Interrogative

7) Assertive

8) Exclamatory

9) Assertive

10) Interrogative

II) 1) Affirmative

2) Negative. 'Nobody'

3) Negative. 'Not'

4) Affirmative

5) Affirmative

6) Negative. 'Never'

7) Affirmative

8) Negative. 'Nowhere'

9) Negative. 'Not'

10) Affirmative

Check Your progress 2

1) It isn't/ is not easy to quit the habit of smoking.

2) Wasn't the officer busy in meetings the whole day?

Was the officer not busy in meetings the whole day?

3) Who couldn't/ could not tell the difference between the twin brothers?

4) We haven't/ have not been planning a special event since long.

5) Don't drop the bags on the floor of the room.

6) Why didn't he call the doctor immediately?

Why did he not call the doctor immediately?

7) They don't/ do not like the large old-fashioned house by the river.

8) He doesn't/ does not give all his salary to his wife every month.

9) Who didn't/ did not allow you to come through that gate?

10) Won't a hundred rupees be enough for one day?

Will a hundred rupees not be enough for one day?

Check Your Progress 3

I) 1) Was he suffering from a severe back ache?

2) Are hill stations not good places to visit during heavy rains?

3) Do people like a warm cup of tea on cold mornings?

4) Have all the posters been taken away by the organisers?

5) Should the protesters have been told to avoid violence?

6) Are political parties in India an important part of democracy?

7) Was there some confusion about the departure time of the train?

8) Did she grab her husband's shirt to save herself from falling?

9) Does a calendar not show all the festivals of every community?

10) Does a learner find it difficult to learn without support?

II) 1) What may she be telling this time?

2) Where did people gather in large numbers?

3) When does my grandfather not take any meal?

4) Why was there a long line up of vehicles?

5) Who sent a strong complaint to the principal?

6) How can tourists go to the temple?

7) How long did the final match between Williams and Sharapova last?

8) How many chairs were there in the hall for the meeting?

9) Where have the announcements been posted?

10) Which shirts were we asked to wear?

Check Your Progress 4

1) What a dull show it was!

2) How graceful the new player was!

3) How attacking the ants of this type are!

4) What amazing tricks the magician showed!

5) What a great speech it was !

6) How charming the bride was looking in the red dress!

7) How difficult it is to get honest followers now!

8) How miserable her face is looking!

9) What a clever move the second player made!

10) What an innocent child she is!

REVISION EXERCISE

I) 1) Assertive

2) Interrogative

3) Assertive

4) Interrogative

5) Exclamatory

6) Imperative

7) Interrogative

8) Interrogative

9) Assertive

10) Imperative

II) 1) Horse carriages weren't/ were not the only transport available in the town.

2) Who couldn't/ could not have imagined such a sad end to his life?

3) Warm weather won't/ will not quickly change the mood of these people.

4) All the details of your accounts mustn't/ must not be given in this form.

5) Can't one book a taxi or a car from the station?

Can one not book a taxi or a car from the station?

6) Don't/Do not stop counting how many times this machine broke down!

7) We don't/do not need a specialist surgeon for this surgery.

8) Even at 87 my father doesn't/does not want to watch Hindi films.

9) It wasn't/was not the life-long hard work which affected his mind.

10) Don't/Do not answer the following questions in only one word each.

III) Form wh- questions from the following sentences:

1) Where was her phone lying when the thieves came?

2) When did you/we go to a sports camp in Mumbai?

3) How many languages can their 4-year old daughter speak?

4) Why can't she easily remember names?

5) How did the speaker speak every word?

6) Which boys were selected in the basketball team?

7) Who has been nominated for the national award?

8) How long does each magic show run?

9) How many guests will the launch ceremony be attended by?

10) Who/Whom should the students be examined by?