SUMMARY

Review week

Unit 2 Punctuation in English grammar.

Why is punctuation important?

When we speak, we can pause or emphasize certain words and phrases to help people understand what we are saying.

In our writing, we use **punctuation** to show pauses and emphasis. Punctuation marks help the reader understand what we mean.

A **punctuation mark** is a mark, or sign, used in writing to divide texts into phrases and sentences and make the meaning clear.

In this lesson, we will look at some common punctuation marks and mistakes. You will see examples of what happens if you omit or misuse some common punctuation marks.

End Punctuation

End Punctuation is the most common punctuation in the English language. You **must** use end punctuation at the end of every sentence to avoid confusion.

The three most common ways to end a sentence are

- **period (.)**

  The elephant is big.

- **question mark (?)**

  Where is the man?

- **exclamation mark (!)**

  The huge elephant sat on the man!

End punctuation tells the reader where each sentence ends. It also helps the reader understand the writer's emotions about the subject. For example, an exclamation mark (!) tells the reader that I am excited or yelling.

Unit 3 Capital letters in English grammar.

Using Capital Letters
We can write each letter of the English alphabet as a **small letter (abc...)** or as a **large or capital letter (ABC...)**. Here is a full list of capital letters.

In English, we do NOT use capital letters very much. We use them mainly for the first letter of sentences, names, days and months as well as for some abbreviations. We always write the first person pronoun as a capital I.

It is not usual to write whole sentences in capitals. A sentence or paragraph written in capitals is very difficult to read. Did you ever see a book written in capital letters? Of course not! We cannot easily read lots of text in capital letters. Lawyers, for example, know that capitals are difficult to read and that is why they often write contracts in capital letters!

When do we Use Capital Letters?

1. Use a capital letter for the personal pronoun 'I':

- What can I say?

2. Use a capital letter to begin a sentence or to begin speech:

- The man arrived. He sat down.
- Suddenly Mary asked, "Do you love me?"

3. Use capital letters for many abbreviations and acronyms:

- G.M.T. or GMT (Greenwich Mean Time)
- N.A.T.O. or NATO or Nato (North Atlantic Treaty Organization)

4. Use a capital letter for days of the week, months of the year, holidays:

- Monday, Tuesday
- January, February
- Christmas
- Armistice Day

5. Use a capital letter for countries, languages & nationalities, religions:

- China, France
- Japanese, English
- Christianity, Buddhism

6. Use a capital letter for people's names and titles:

- Anthony, Ram, William Shakespeare
- Professor Jones, Dr Smith
- Captain Kirk, King Henry VIII

Unit 4 Articles in English grammar.

DEFINITE AND INDEFINITE ARTICLES

In English there are three articles: *a*, *an*, and *the*. Articles are used before nouns or noun equivalents and are a type of adjective. The definite article (*the*) is used before a noun to indicate that the identity of the noun is known to the reader. The indefinite article (*a*, *an*) is used before a noun that is general or when its identity is not known. There are certain situations in which a noun takes no article.

As a guide, the following definitions and table summarize the basic use of articles. Continue reading for a more detailed explanation of the rules and for examples of how and when to apply them.

Definite article

the (before a singular or plural noun)

Indefinite article

a (before a singular noun beginning with a consonant sound)
an (before a singular noun beginning with a vowel sound)

Count nouns - refers to items that can be counted and are either singular or plural

Non-count nouns - refers to items that are not counted and are always singular

	COUNT NOUNS	NON-COUNT NOUNS
Rule #1 Specific identity not known	*a, an*	(no article)
Rule #2	*the*	*the*

Specific identity known		
Rule #3 All things *or* things in general	(no article)	(no article)

Unit 5 Relative pronoun

What is a relative pronoun?

A relative **pronoun** is one which is used to refer to **nouns** mentioned previously, whether they are people, places, things, animals, or ideas. Relative pronouns can be used to join two sentences.

There are only a few relative pronouns in the English language. The most common are *which, that, whose, whoever, whomever, who,* and *whom.* In some situations, the words *what, when,* and *where* can also function as relative pronouns. Because there are only a few of them, there are also just a few rules for using relative pronouns.

Keep them in mind as you write.

- Relative clauses are typically introduced by relative pronouns, and that the relative pronoun can function as a possessive pronoun, an object, or a subject.
- When relative pronouns introduce restrictive relative clauses, no comma is used to separate the restrictive clause from the main clause.
- In American English, the relative pronoun *whom* is used rarely. You may notice this in conversations, but it is best to use the term when writing to ensure that your work is grammatically correct.

Relative pronouns are placed directly after the noun or pronoun they modify. For example:

- The driver ***who*** *ran the stop sign* was careless.
- The children, ***whom*** *we love dearly*, need better educations.
- Never go to a doctor ***whose*** *office plants have died*. (Erma Bombeck)
- I have a friend ***whose*** *cat is annoying*.
- The book, ***which*** *is now out of print*, has all the information you need.
- This is the book ***that*** *everyone is talking about*.

Unit 6 word order

Word order is important: it's what makes your sentences make sense! So, proper word order is an essential part of writing and speaking—when we put words in the wrong order, the result is a confusing, unclear, and an incorrect sentence.

In English, we follow one main pattern for normal sentences and one main pattern for sentences that ask a question.

a. Standard Word Order

A sentence's standard word order is **Subject + Verb + Object (SVO)**. Remember, the **subject** is what a sentence is about; so, it comes first. For example:
The dog (subject) *+ eats* (verb) *+ popcorn* (object).
The subject comes first in a sentence because it makes our meaning clear when writing and speaking. Then, the verb comes after the subject, and the object comes after the verb; and that's the most common word order. Otherwise, a sentence doesn't make sense, like this:

Eats popcorn the dog. (verb + object + subject)

B. Questions

When asking a question, we follow the order **auxiliary verb/modal auxiliary + subject + verb (ASV).** Auxiliary verbsand modal auxiliaries share meaning or function, many which are forms of the verb "to be." Auxiliary verbs can change form, but modal auxiliaries don't. Here's a chart to help you:

Auxiliary Verbs		
Be	**Do**	**Have**
am is are was were being been	does do did	has have had having
Modal Auxiliaries (Never change form)		
can might ought to will	could may must	should shall would

As said, questions follow the form **ASV**; or, if they have an object, **ASVO.** Here are some examples:

Can he cook? "Can" (auxiliary) "he" (subject) "cook" (verb)

Does your dog like popcorn? "Does" (A) "your dog" (S) "like" (V) "popcorn" (O)

Are you burning the popcorn? "Are" (A) "you" (S) "burning" (V) "popcorn" (O)

Unit 8 Comparison Degree

Degrees of Comparison are used when we compare one person or one thing with another.

There are three Degrees of Comparison in English.

They are:

1. Positive degree.

2. Comparative degree.

3. Superlative degree.

Let us see all of them one by one.

1.Positive degree.

When we speak about only one person or thing, We use the Positive degree.

Examples:

• This house is big.

In this sentence only one noun “The house" is talked about.

• He is a tall student.

• This flower is beautiful.

• He is an intelligent boy.

Each sentence mentioned above talks about only one noun.

2. Comparative degree.

When we compare two persons or two things with each other,

We use both the Positive degree and Comparative degree.

Examples:

a. This house is bigger than that one. (Comparative degree)

This house is not as big as that one. (Positive degree)

The term “bigger" is comparative version of the term “big".

Both these sentences convey the same meaning.

3. Superlative degree.

When we compare more than two persons or things with one another,

We use all the three Positive, Comparative and Superlative degrees.

Examples:

a. This is the biggest house in this street. (Superlative)

This house is bigger than any other house in this street. (Comparative)

No other house in this street is as big as this one. (Positive)

The term “biggest" is the superlative version of the term “big".

All the three sentences mean the same meaning.

Unit 9 Word formation

There are four main kinds of word formation: prefixes, suffixes, conversion and compounds.

Prefixes

We add prefixes before the base or stem of a word.

examples	prefixes
mono*rail*, ***mono****lingual*	*mono-* means ‘one’
multi*purpose*, ***multi****cultural*	*multi-* means ‘many’
post*-war*, ***post****graduate*	*post-* means ‘after’
un*usual*, ***un****democratic*	*un-* means ‘not’ or ‘opposite to’

Suffixes

We add suffixes after the base or stem of a word. The main purpose of a suffix is to show what class of word it is (e.g. noun or adjective).

examples	suffixes
*terror****ism***, *sex****ism***	*-ism* and *-dom* are used to form nouns
*employ****er***, *act****or***	*-er* and *-or* are used to form nouns to describe people who do

examples	suffixes
	things
*wid**en**, simpli**fy***	*-en* and *-ify* are used to form verbs
*reason**able**, unprofit**able***	*-able* is used to form adjectives
*unhappi**ly**, natural**ly***	*-ly* is a common suffix used to form adverbs

Conversion

Conversion involves the change of a word from one word class to another. For example, the verbs *to email* and *to microwave* are formed from the nouns *email* and *microwave*:
*Can you **text** her?* (verb from noun *text*, meaning *to send a text-message*)
*They are always **jetting** somewhere.* (verb from noun *jet*)
*If you're not careful, some **downloads** can damage your computer.* (noun from verb *download*)
*OK, so the meeting's on Tuesday. That's a **definite**.* (noun from adjective)
*It's a very big **if** and I'm not at all sure we can afford it.* (noun from conjunction, meaning 'it's not at all certain')
*All companies have their **ups** and **downs**.* (nouns from prepositions)
We also use conversion when we change a proper noun into a common noun:
*Has anybody seen my **Dickens**?* (copy of a book by Dickens)

Compounding

When we use compounding, we link together two or more bases to create a new word. Normally, the first item identifies a key feature of the second word. For example, the two bases *back* and *ache* can combine to form the compound noun *backache*, and the two bases *post* and *card* combine to form the compound noun *postcard*.
Compounds are found in all word classes. The most common types of compounds are:
Nouns: *car park, rock band*

Adjectives: *heartbreaking, sugar-free, airsick*
Verbs: *oven-bake, baby-sit, chain-smoke*
Adverbs: *good-naturedly, nevertheless*
It is sometimes difficult to know where to put hyphens in words that are compound ed. It is also difficult to know whether to separate words (e.g. *post box*) or to join the words (e.g. *postbox*). In such cases, it is best to check in a good learner's dictionary.

Abbreviation

Abbreviation involves shortening a word. We do this in three main ways: clipping, acronyms and blends.
We use clipping when we shorten or 'clip' one or more syllables from a word. We also commonly clip proper names for people:
ad: advertisement, advert
lab: laboratory
Matt: Matthew
Acronyms are a type of abbreviation formed when the initial letters of two or more words are combined in a way that produces consonant and vowel sequences found in words. Acronyms are normally pronounced as words:
RAM: **r**andom **a**ccess **m**emory (*RAM* is a term used to describe a computer's memory.)
Initials are similar to acronyms but are pronounced as sets of letters, not as words:
WHO: ***W**orld **H**ealth **O**rganisation*, pronounced *W–H–O*
CD: ***c**ompact **d**isc*, pronounced *C–D*
We form blends when we combine parts of existing words to form a new word:
blog: blend of *we**b*** and ***log***
motel: blend of ***mo**tor* and *ho**tel***
smog: blend of ***sm**oke* and *f**og***

Back-formation

We form words with back-formation when we remove part of a word, usually something which we think is a suffix (or occasionally a prefix). We do this commonly when we form verbs from nouns.
For example: *to liaise* (back-formed from the noun *liaison*); *to intuit* (back-formed from the noun *intuition*), *to enthuse* (back-formed from the noun *enthusiasm*):
*Can you **liaise** with Tim and agree a time for the meeting, please?*
*She's always **enthusing** about her new teacher.*

Unit 10 compound and complex sentences

Compound Sentences

Compound sentences are formed by combining two independent clauses. For example:

- Erin loves her brother, *and* he loves her too.
- The dog ran off, *but* I didn't care.
- I am tall, *yet* she is short.

Note that when independent clauses are joined, they need a coordinating conjunction between them. Coordinating conjunctions include the following words: for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so.

When you write a compound sentence, you need to use a comma before the coordinating conjunction to punctuate your sentence correctly.

Complex Sentences

When a dependent clause is joined to an independent clause, it forms a complex sentence. The dependent clause can come either at the beginning or the end of the sentence. For example:

- When I come home, I will eat dinner.
- If you sell the most cookies, you will win the prize.
- The college gave her a scholarship because she is so smart.

Note that when you place the dependent clause at the beginning of the sentence, you need to put a comma after it. When the dependent clause is at the end of the sentence, no comma is required.

Compound-Complex Sentences

As the name suggests, a compound-complex sentence brings both of these sentence forms together. That is, it contains at least two independent clauses (like a compound sentence) and at least one dependent clause (like a complex sentence). For example:

- Erin loves her brother, and he loves her too because she pays his bills.
- The dog ran off when I chased him, but I didn't care.
- Though my mother says it doesn't matter, I am tall, and she is short.

Note that the dependent clause can be at the beginning, middle, or end of a compound-complex sentence. No matter where it is placed, the punctuation follows the rules for both compound sentences and complex sentences.

That means that you need to put a comma before the coordinating conjunction and, if applicable, another comma after the dependent clause when it occurs at the beginning of the sentence.

See some additional examples to get a feel for how compound-complex sentences will help you add detail to your writing:

- When I went to the store, my parents wanted me to pick up some milk, but I didn't have enough money.

- Even if the child is hungry, he will never eat oatmeal, but he will always eat ice cream.
- The man was mean because he was lonely, but his attitude only made his situation worse.
- The dog needed a new leash, and he couldn't go for a walk until he had one.
- It is important to vote when the time comes, or you won't get a say in new laws.

Unit 11 preposition

Types of Prepositions

There are three types of prepositions, including time prepositions, place prepositions, and direction prepositions.
Time prepositions are those such as *before, after, during,* and *until;* **place prepositions** are those indicating position, such as *around, between,* and *against;* and direction prepositions are those indicative of direction, such as *across, up,* and *down.* Each type of preposition is important.

Type of Prepositions

Prepositions of Time
Basic examples of time prepositions include: *at, on, in, before* and *after*. They are used to help indicate when something happened, happens or will happen. It can get a little confusing though, as many different prepositions can be used.

Prepositions of time examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

For example:

- I was born **on** July 4th, 1982.
- I was born **in** 1982.
- I was born **at** exactly 2am.
- I was born two minutes **before** my twin brother.
- I was born **after** the Great War ended.

The above makes it seem quite difficult, with five different prepositions used to indicate when something happened. However, there is a set of guidelines that can help decide which preposition to use:

For years, months, seasons, centuries and times of day, use the preposition ***in***:

- I first met John **in** 1987.
- It's always cold **in** January
- Easter falls **in** spring each year.

- The Second World War occurred **in** the 20th century.
- We eat breakfast **in** the morning.
  For days, dates and specific holiday days, use the preposition ***on***.

1. We go to school **on** Mondays, but not **on** Sunday
2. Christmas is **on** December 25th.
3. Buy me a present **on** my birthday.

For times, indicators of exception and festivals, use the preposition ***at***:

- Families often argue **at** Christmas time.
- I work faster **at** night.
- Her shift finished **at** 7pm.
  Before and ***after*** should be much easier to understand than the other examples of prepositions of time. Both are used to explain when something happened, happens or will happen, but specifically in relation to another thing.

- **Before** I discovered this bar, I used to go straight home **after** work.
- We will not leave **before** 3pm.
- David comes **before** Bryan in the line, but **after** Louise.
  Other prepositions of time could include: *During, about, around, until and throughout.*

- The concert will be staged **throughout** the month of May.
- I learned how to ski **during** the holidays.
- He usually arrives **around** 3pm.
- It was **about** six in the morning when we made it to bed.
- The store is open **until** midnight.
  <u>Prepositions of Place</u>

To confuse matters a bit, the most common prepositions to indicate time – **on, at, in** – are also the most common prepositions to indicate position. However, the rules are a little clearer as place prepositions are a more rigid concept than time prepositions.

Prepositions of place examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

- The cat is **on** the table.
- The dogs are **in** the kennel.
- We can meet **at** the crossroads.
  The guidelines can be broken down as follows:

On is used when referring to something with a surface:

- The sculpture hangs **on** the wall.
- The images are **on** the page.
- The specials are **on** the menu, which is **on** the table.

In is used when referring to something that is inside or within confined boundaries. This could be anything, even a country:

1. Jim is **in** France, visiting his aunt **in** the hospital.
2. The whiskey is **in** the jar **in** the fridge.
3. The girls play **in** the garden.

At is used when referring to something at a specific point:

1. The boys are **at** the entrance **at** the movie theater.
2. He stood **at** the bus stop **at** the corner of Water and High streets.
3. We will meet **at** the airport.

Lot's of other prepositions of place, such as *under, over, inside, outside, above* and *below* are used in English. There is, however, a lot less confusion as they refer to rigid positions rather than abstract ones.

- The cat is **under** the table.
- Put the sandwich **over** there.
- The key is locked **inside** the car.
- They stepped **outside** the house.
- Major is ranked **above** corporal.
- He is waving at you from **below** the stairs.

<u>Prepositions of Movement</u>

Prepositions of movement are quite easy to understand as they are less abstract than prepositions of place and time. Essentially, they describe how something or someone moves from one place to another. The most commonly used preposition of movement is ***to***, which usually serves to highlight that there is movement towards a specific destination.

Prepositions of movement examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

- He has gone on vacation **to** France.
- She went **to** the bowling alley every Friday last summer.

- I will go **to** bed when I am tired.
- They will go **to** the zoo if they finish their errands.
  Other more specific prepositions of movement include: *through, across, off, down* and *into*. These prepositions can sometimes get mixed up with others. While they are similar, they have individual meanings that add context to the movement.

  Across refers to moving from one side to another.

- Mike travelled **across** America on his motorcycle.
- Rebecca and Judi are swimming **across** the lake.
  Through refers to moving directly inside something and out the other end.

- The bullet Ben shot went **through** the window.
- The train passes **through** the tunnel.
  Into refers to entering or looking inside something.

- James went **into** the room**.**
- They stare **into** the darkness.
  Up, over, down, past and ***around*** indicate directions of movement:

1. Jack went **up** the hill.
2. Jill came tumbling **down** after.
3. We will travel **over** rough terrain on our way to Grandma's house.
4. The horse runs **around** the track all morning.
5. A car zoomed **past** a truck on the highway

Unit 12 Grammatical construction of the sentence

sentence's "structure" is the way its words are arranged.
In English, we have four main **sentence structures**: the simple sentence, the compound sentence, the complex sentence, and the compound-complex sentence. Each uses a specific combination of independent and dependent clauses to help make sure that our sentences are strong, informational, and most importantly, that they make sense!

Examples of Sentence Structures
In the examples, independent clauses are green, dependent clauses are purple, and conjunctions are orange. Here are examples of each type of sentence:

1. The dog ran. **Simple Sentence**
2. The dog ran and he ate popcorn. **Compound sentence**
3. After the dog ran, he ate popcorn. **Complex sentence**
4. After the dog ran, he ate popcorn and he drank a big soda. **Compound-complex sentence**

3. Parts of Sentence Structures

All forms of sentence structures have clauses (independent, dependent, or both), and some also have conjunctions to help join two or more clauses or whole sentences.

a. Independent Clause

Independent clauses are key parts of every sentence structure. An independent clause has a subject and a predicateand makes sense on its own as a complete sentence. Here are a few:

- *The dog ate brownies.*
- *The dog jumped high.*
- *She ate waffles.*
- *He went to the library.*

b. Dependent (Subordinate) Clause

A **dependent clause** is a major part of three of the four sentence structures (compound, complex, and compound-complex). It has a subject and a predicate; BUT, it can't be a sentence. It provides extra details about the independent clause, and it doesn't make sense on its own, like these:

- *After he went to the party*
- *Though he ate hotdogs*
- *While he was at the dance*
- *If the dog eats chocolate*

Each of the bullets above leaves an unanswered question. By itself, a dependent clause is just a fragment sentence (an incomplete sentence). So, it needs to be combined with an independent clause to be a sentence.

c. Conjunction

A **conjunction** is a word in a sentence that connects other words, phrases and clauses. Conjunctions are a big part of compound, complex, and compound-complex sentences. The most common conjunction that you know is **"and."** Others are *for*, *but, or, yet,* and *so.* Conjunctions are important because they let us combine information, but still keep ideas separate so that they are easy to understand.

Here are two sentences, with and without conjunctions:

Incorrect: ***The girl ran to the ice cream truck then she ate ice cream.***
Correct: ***The girl ran to the ice cream truck, and then she ate ice cream.***

When it comes to making sure your sentence is clear and complete, having the right sentence structure is very important. A couple of common mistakes can happen when you forget how to use clauses or conjunctions in the right way, like run-on sentences and fragment sentences.

a. Run-on sentences

In simple terms, a **run-on sentence** is a sentence that is too long. For instance, if a writer forgets to use conjunctions, a sentence seems like it "runs on" for too long. For example:
The fox really liked pancakes, he ate them every day for breakfast, he couldn't eat them without syrup and butter.
But, with the right conjunctions, this can be a normal compound sentence:
The fox really liked pancakes, so, he ate them every day for breakfast; but, he couldn't eat them without syrup and butter.
As you can see, the new sentence is much easier to read and makes more sense.

b. Fragment (incomplete) sentences

A "fragment" is a small piece of something. So, a **fragment sentence** is just a piece of a sentence: it is missing a subject, a predicate, or an independent clause. It's simply an incomplete sentence. Fragment sentences can happen when you forget an independent clause. For instance, by itself, a dependent clause is just a fragment. Let's use a couple of the dependent clauses from above:

- ***While he was at the dance*** **What happened?**
- ***If he eats chocolate*** **Then what?**

As you can see, each leaves an unanswered question. So, let's complete them:

- ***While he was at the dance, the dog drank fruit punch.***
- ***The dog will get a stomachache if he eats chocolate.***