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ملخصات دروس على الخط في مقياس الإنجليزية  
Summaries of online lessons in English scale

موجهة لطلبة السنة الثالثة علوم اقتصادية  
Addressed to third-year students of economic sciences

الجزء الثالث  
Part 3

إعداد الدكتور / بريني دحمان

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# **Contents**

- Determiners, adverbs and pronouns
- Sentence tags
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- Conditional clauses
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## A Determiner

A determiner is (a) word (s) which determine (s) a N.

*i)* An Arti.

*ii)* A Dem. Adj.

*iii)* A Poss. Adj.

E.g.: My book is here.

Poss. N

Adj.

*iv)* Numerals (Num.) (numbers)

- *One, two, .....*

E.g.: A thousand girls went to see the film.

Num. N

- *First, second, .....*

E.g.: The first girl is my sister.

Num.

**Note1:** When “one” is used without a N, it is a Pron. .

E.g.: This book is a better one.

Pron.

**Note2:** When “first, second, .....” are used without a N, they are adverbs.

E.g.: First, sit down.

Adv.

*v)* Det. of quantity

- *Any:* He did not give me any money.

- *Some:* Give me some money.

- *A few:* He has borrowed a few books.

- *Few:* Few people could come to the wedding.

- *A little:* A little quantity of this medicine is enough.

- *Many:* He has written many books.

- *Much:* I do not have much time.

- *Several:* We have slept for several hours.

- *A lot of*: We spent a lot of time on our work.

- *All*: They have invited all the class.

- *More... (than)*:

E.g.1: This is more important to me.

Det.      Adj.

of

quantity

E.g.2: He has more money than me.

Det.      N

of

quantity

- *Less... (than)*:

E.g.1: She is less clever than her.

Det.      Adj.

of

quantity

E.g.2: She has spent less money than me.

Det.      N

of

quantity

- *Most + N*: Most people would disagree with you.

N

- *The most + Adj.*: The most important lesson is this one.

Adj.

- *The least + Adj.*: This is the least interesting book.

Adj.

**Note:** *Anyone, anybody, anything, someone, somebody and something* are impersonal pronouns.

# Adverbs

## Word Formation

An Adv. is usually made of an Adj. + ly.

E.g.: Equally

Adv.

## Categories of Adverbs

Adverbs are words which modify the meaning of verbs, adjectives, or

other adverbs as exemplified respectively:

She speaks fluently.

They know him quite well.

Our team played extremely badly.

There are seven kinds of adverbs that indicate:

- (a) *Place*: here, there, up, down, near
- (b) *Time*: now, yet, already, soon, then, still
- (c) *Manner*: slowly, consciously, supremely, invincibly
- (d) *Frequency*: always, usually, often, rarely
- (e) *Degree*: so, very, quite, too
- (f) *Interrogative*: when, where, why, how
- (g) *Relative*: when, where, why

## Examples:

### Place

E.g.: They went outside.

Adv. of Place

### Time

E.g.: She will come tomorrow.

Adv of Time

## Manner

E.g.: She works fast.

Adv of Manner

**Degree:** *too, very, extremely, quite, really*

E.g.: The sea is very deep.

Adv. Predi.

N Adj. of Degree

E.g.: She works quite fast.

Adv. Adv.

V of of

Degree Manner

**Note:** Adverbs of Degree modify adjectives or adverbs (not verbs).

## Adjectives or Adverbs?

Some words can be adjectives or adverbs depending on the context.

**Fast:** The fast runner came first.

Adj. N

You must walk fast.

V Adv.

**Late:** The late comers have to sit in the back. They arrived late.

Adj. N

V Adv.

**Early:** She came in the early morning.

Adj.

She came early.

N V Adv.

**Far:** I can see him in the far distance.

Adj. N

He can go far.

V Adv.

**Straight:** Draw a straight line.

Adj. N

Go straight to your room.

V Adv.

**Well:** She is well.

Pron. Adj;

She sings well.

V Adv.

**Hard:** This is a hard chair.

Adj. N

He works hard.

V Adv.

# Pronouns

## Form

Pronouns are closed category words and formally related to determiners. In many cases the same word, e.g., *that*, can function as both parts of speech:

Look at that! (Pronoun)

Look at that dog! (Determiner)

## Position

Pronouns occupy the same positions in sentences as noun phrases or single nouns.

## Function

Despite the name 'pronoun', pronouns do not always stand for a noun phrase within the text. They may have direct reference to the outside situation, particularly, *I*, *you* or refer to a whole clause, e.g., *that*. (Chalker, 1990)

Robat and van Ek (1984: 146) state that although it is true that pronouns may be listed exhaustively and that therefore as a word-class they form a closed system, they may be dealt with more conveniently as a group of separate subsystems rather than one single system. One of these subsystems runs as follows: (I, you, he, she, it, we, they), another one would be (this, that, these, those). It will be obvious that the items within each subsystem have more in common with one another than with those of the other subsystems and that therefore separate treatments will be required.

## Categories of Pronouns

1. Personal Pronouns Subject: *I, you, she, he, it, we, you, they*.
2. Personal Pronouns Object: *me, you, her, him, it, us, you, them*.
3. Relative Pronouns (also called subordinating conjunctions):  
*Who, which, whom, whose, that*.
4. Possessive Pronouns: *mine, yours, hers, his, its, ours, yours, theirs*.
5. Reflexive Pronouns: *myself, yourself, herself, himself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves*.
6. Impersonal (Indefinite) Pronouns: *anyone, anybody, anything, someone, somebody, something, everybody, all, each, none, both either, neither, one etc*.
7. Demonstrative Pronouns: *this, that, these, those*
8. Interrogative Pronouns: *who, whose, whom, which, what, who ever etc*.

### **Pronoun-like determiners**

Several pronouns are closely related to, and many of them are even formally identical with, determiners:

1. I don't like *this*. (pronoun)
2. I don't like *this* book. (determiner)
3. This book must be *his*. (pronoun)
4. This must be *his* book. (determiner)
5. *All* is well. (pronoun)
6. *All* offers are welcome. (determiner)
7. I'd like to see *everyone*. (pronoun)
8. *Every* soldier obeyed. (determiner)
9. That book is *mine*. (pronoun)
10. That is *my* book. (determiner)

### **Personal pronouns**

Like nouns, personal pronouns may exhibit number contrast and case contrast (i.e., different forms for different relations within the sentence). In addition, they denote 'person' and some of them overtly express 'gender' –a feature they have in common with possessive pronouns and reflexive pronouns.

The most distinctive of the above features –number, case, person, gender –is person, because this is invariably expressed overtly by these pronouns.

### **Person**

We use the term 'person' for the use of different forms to denote whether the speaker/writer, is referred to or not, and whether the person or the persons addressed are referred to or not. We thus distinguish three persons:

First person: reference to the speaker / writer or a group of people including the speaker or writer;

Second person: reference to the person(s) addressed;

Third person: reference to another person or other persons than the speaker / writer, the group the speaker/writer belongs to or the person(s) addressed, or reference to one or more non-personal entities.

Personal, possessive and reflexive pronouns invariably express 'person', i.e., they have separate forms for each of the three 'persons'.



The forms of the personal pronouns are:

First person: I/me , we/us

Second person: you

Third person: he/him, she/her, it, they/them

### **Number**

Number is expressed by the first person pronouns and by the third person pronouns:

Singular: I/me, he/him, she/her, it

Plural: we/us, they/them

The second person pronoun is neutral as regards number, it may refer to one single entity or to more than one.

### **Case**

Case is expressed by the first person pronouns and by the third person pronouns except: 'it':

Subjective case: I, we, he, she, they

Objective case: me, us, him, her, them

### **Study these examples:**

Who is coming with me? I am. (Informal English: me)

Do you mind me/my staying here?

In the function of subject attribute the objective case is the normal form (Who's there? It's me), but the subjective case is occasionally found in highly formal English (It's I).

The choice of a case form may pose a problem after 'than' and 'as':

He is taller than I am.

He is as tall as I am.

## Gender

Gender is expressed by the third person singular pronouns:

Masculine: he/him

Feminine: she/her

Neuter: it

## The pronouns: *we, you, they*

The plural personal pronouns –‘we’ and ‘they’ may be used in a vague general sense. As might be expected, ‘we’ includes the speaker/writer, and ‘they’ excludes this person:

1. Of course, it’s perfectly correct English, but we would never say it like that, you know.
2. In the police force, we all retire at 55.
3. In the US, they say ‘elevator’ for ‘lift’.
4. At the Army and Navy Stores, they are offering bargains in household goods.

## The pronoun: *it*

‘It’ is used in a variety of ways:

### 1. Anaphoric *it*

You shouldn’t miss Bath. It’s one of the most beautiful towns in Britain.

### 2. Anticipatory *it*

It’s funny that you should say that.

It took me years to build up the business.

It would seem that he won’t join us.

It appeared that the rumours were quite unfounded.

### 4. *It* as formal subject (empty *it*). It occurs particularly:

- In reference to time:

It’s the sixth of June.

It’s 12.30.

- In reference to weather:

It poured the whole day.

- In certain idiomatic phrases:

It’s your turn now.

How is it going?

- In cleft sentences (Sentences in which one element is made prominent by placing it in a separate clause after *it is, it was, is it, was it*)

It was yesterday that I met him.

Cf. I met him yesterday.

Is it your colleague who will chair the meeting?

cf. Will your colleague chair the meeting?

### **Absence of object-pronoun**

Certain transitive verbs may be used in short sentences without an overtly expressed (pronominal) direct object:

He doesn't like you. –I know.

We saw that film in Vienna. –Yes, I remember.

### **Note**

The verbs used in this way are particularly verbs denoting mental state –*forget, know, see, mind, remember, understand* and the 'communication verbs *ask* and *tell*. Sometimes we find *it* or *that* with these verbs for more specific reference, particularly to the actual words of a preceding sentence:

I love you, and don't you forget it?

He is very clever. –I know that.

## **Relative Pronouns**

Relative pronouns introduce (subordinate) relative clauses.

### **The defining relative**

**Who** –Subject (for persons, singular and plural)

**Whom** –Object of verb or preposition (person, singular and plural)

**Which** –Subject and object (for things, singular and plural)

**That** –Subject and object (for persons and things, singular and plural)

**Whose** –Possessive relative (persons, singular and plural)

### **Examples:**

1. Girls who work in restaurants are called waitresses.
2. The towel which you gave me wasn't very clean.
3. A man that flies an aeroplane is a pilot.
4. Papers that contain important information must be locked up.

The relative clauses each describe and define the nouns immediately before them (the antecedents). The sentences refer to a certain category of girls, a particular towel, a specific sort of man, special papers.

We do not use commas to separate a defining relative clause from the rest of the sentence, since it is an essential complement of its antecedent and is necessary to the sense of the sentence.

*That* is the most common of all relative pronouns because we use it in place of any of the other defining relatives (except *whose*) without any loss or change of meaning. In the examples above, *that* may replace *who* and *which* without any difference to the sense of the sentence as a result.

*That* cannot be used as the object of a preceding preposition. In the case, such forms as *by whom, of which, for which* ...etc. must be used:

*The man of whom she spoke is her uncle.*

*She gave me a pen with which to sign my name.*

### **Relative pronouns**

**Whom:** Object of verbs and prepositions (persons, singular and plural).

**Which:** Object of verbs and prepositions (thing, singular and plural).

**That:** Object of verbs only (persons and things, singular and plural).

### **Note**

The relative must follow its antecedent immediately.

1. The lady (whom) I expected hasn't come in yet.
2. The meal (which) you cooked for us was excellent.
3. The book (which) I read was about South America.\$

In the sentences above the defining relative pronoun is not the subject of the verb in the relative clause. It is the object and is very often omitted from the sentence altogether, especially in spoken English: “The lady I expected hasn’t come yet.”

*That* is regularly preferred to *whom* and *which* in object clauses, if the defining relative pronoun is retained in the sentence: *The boy (that) I saw yesterday. ... The table (that) we use for our model railway ...*

*That* cannot be the object of a preposition, so *who* and *which* must be used:

- (a) *The people with whom I work are all very friendly.*
- (b) *This is the record {that/which} John spoke about.*

Compare:

- (a) *The people {that/whom} I work with ... and*
- (b) *This is the record {that/which} John spoke about.*

*That* is strongly preferred after superlatives:

- (a) *We always buy the best materials (that) we can find.*
- (b) *Mary is the prettiest girl (that) I have ever seen.*

It is also preferred after certain words and constructions: *all, any, few, little, no, none, much, only*, and their compounds. Examples of this usage are:

- (a) *I can’t lend you the only pen (that) I have.*
- (b) *We didn’t see anything (that) we wanted in the shop.*
- (c) *A few of the eggs (that) you brought were stale.*

*That* is used only in defining relative clauses.

### **Defining Relative**

The defining relative preceded by a preposition is very formal and therefore much more common in careful writing than in free conversation. In easy speech we prefer the idiomatic constructions shown below.

1. *The method by which we make this is a secret. = The method (that) we make this by is a secret.*
2. *The girl to whom I spoke comes from Spain. = The girl (that) I spoke to comes from Spain.*

Notice that the defining relative generally becomes *that* and, as it is not the subject of its own clause, may disappear from the sentence. The preposition is placed (a) at the end of the relative clause after the intransitive verb, (b) after the object of the transitive verb.

### **Non-defining Relatives**

**Who** –Subject of a verb (for persons, singular and plural)

**Whom** –Object of verb or preposition (person, singular and plural)

**Whose** –Possessive relative (persons, singular and plural)

**Which** –Subject and object of verb or preposition (for things, singular and plural)

The non-defining relative introduces a clause which is not necessary to the grammatical sense of the sentence. It provides some additional information about its antecedent, but does not define it.

This supplementary information is contained between commas to separate it from the main sentence:

(a) My wife's mother, who lives with us, is a very charming lady.

(b) Sir Isaac Newton, of whom you have read, was a great scientist.

The non-defining relative clause put between commas give additional information.

N.B. The relative must always follow its antecedent as closely as possible.

The non-defining relative pronoun cannot be dropped out of the sentence. It is a necessary part of the non-defining relative clause. *That* is almost never used as a non-defining relative.

### **Interrogative pronouns and adjectives**

#### **Form:**

For persons: Subject: who (pro.)

Object: whom, who (pro.)

Possessive: whose (pro. and adj.)

For things Subject: what (pro. and adj.)

Object: what (pro. and adj.)

For persons or things when choice is restricted:

Subject: which (pro. and adj.)

Object: which (pro. and adj.)

**What** (adj.) can also be used for persons also.

Note that *who*, *whose* + noun, *what*, *which* when used as subjects are normally followed by an affirmative, not an interrogative verb:

- a. Who pays the bills? Bill does / Bill pays them.
- b. Whose horse won? The queen's horse won / The queen's horse did.
- c. Which of your brothers is getting married? Tom is.

**What?** Can be used similarly:

- a. What happened?
- b. What went wrong?
- c. What delayed you?

### **Who, whom and whose in questions:**

#### **Who as subject**

- a. Who wants to know?
- b. Who are those people?
- c. Who plays this game?

#### **Who/whom as object**

- a. Who/Whom did you meet? I met the guests.
- b. Who/Whom are you looking for? I'm looking for Peter.
- c. Who/Whom did they speak to? They spoke to Bill.

### **What**

#### **As subject:**

- a. What delayed you? (pro.)
- b. What are these? (pro.)
- c. What happened?

#### **As object:**

- a. What books do you mean? (adj.)
- b. What journals did you read? (adj.)

- c. What did you say? (pro.)
- d. What did they find? (pro.)

### **Which**

#### **As subject**

- a. Which of them came first?
- b. Which of them is the youngest?
- c. Which dog is yours?

#### **As object**

- a. Which novel did you read? (adj.) I read *Animal Farm*.
- b. Which do you like best? (pro.) I like George best.
- c. Which country did he visit? (adj.) He visited Poland.

### **Who and whom as objects of verbs and prepositions**

#### **A. As direct objects**

*Whom* is the technically correct form and is used in formal English. *Who* is used in informal English.

- a. Whom did you meet?
- b. Whom did you help?
- c. Whom do they mean?

#### **B. After prepositions**

In formal English, the preposition is immediately followed by *whom*:

- a. With whom did you go?
- b. To whom were you speaking?
- c. For whom are you looking?

### **What (adj. and Pro.)**

#### **A. What** is a general interrogative used for things:

- a. What time is it?
- b. What village is this?
- c. What does she prefer?
- d. What did they do?



### **What ... for? = why**

- a. What did you do that for?
- b. = Why did you do it?

### **What + be ... like has many meanings**

- a. What is your father? = What is his profession? He's a teacher.
- b. What is he like? He's kind, a bit old fashioned.
- c. What does he look like? He's tall and rather good-looking.
- d. What was the weather like? It was very nice.

### **What (adj.) used for asking about measurements**

(age, size, weight, length, breadth, width, height, depth)

- a. What age is she?
- b. What is the depth of this river?
- c. What height is this skyscraper?

### **Which (pro. and adj.) compared with who and what used for things**

It is used instead of *who* and *what* when the choice is restricted.

- a. What will you have to drink?  
We have gin, whisky and sherry: Which will you have?
- b. What does it cost to get to Scotland?  
It depends on how you go. There are several ways of getting there.  
Which (way) is the cheapest? Or Which is the cheapest (way)?
- c. I've seen the play and the film.  
Which (of them) did you like best?

### **Examples of which and who used for people**

- a. Who do you want to speak to?  
I want to speak to Mr Smith. We have two Smiths here: John and Joe.  
Which (of them) do you want?
- b. Which poet do you like best?
- c. Which of you knows the formula?

## Sentence Tags

Sentence tags or tag questions are questions added on to statements, and in form they consist of operator only(not the whole verb phrase) + the subject, which must be a pronoun. Thus, as with ordinary questions and negatives, 'do' may be needed. The normal patterns are:

### 1. Positive statement + negative tag

Examples:

She usually listens, doesn't she?

You are listening, aren't you?

### 2. Negative statement + positive tag

Examples:

She isn't listening, is she?

He can't do it, can he?

In spoken English, the tags are commonly spoken on a falling tone (like a statement rather than an open question). This indicates that the speaker assumes his listener agrees with the main statement and he is just seeking confirmation.

That's true, isn't it?

A tag on a rising tone is more like an open question; the speaker is doubtful and seeks information

That's true, isn't it?

Notice the irregular *am / aren't* and *let's / shall*:

I am silly, aren't I?

Let's go, shall we?

Positive statements plus positive tags or possible, but they often express disbelief, sarcasm, irony, disdain, surprise etc. Negative plus negative tag is rare.

Tags can also appear with what are structurally commands:

Come early, won't you? (invitation)

Hold this for me, can't you? (command)

The tags here show that *you* is the unexpressed subject of a command.

NB 'It' is the pronoun for *all / everything* etc in question-tags:

Nothing is the same now, is it?

### **Had better – and would rather / would sooner**

I had better go tomorrow, hadn't I?  
I had better not go, had I?  
She would rather go, wouldn't she?  
He would sooner come again, wouldn't he?

### **Dare**

I wouldn't dare (to) tell him either, would you?

### **Used to**

She used to be slim, didn't she?  
You used to know her, didn't you?

### **Ought to**

*Ought to* is usually interchangeable with *should* for meanings of obligation and assumption.

People oughtn't to ill –treat animals, should they?  
Jane ought to be in London by now, shouldn't she?

## **SENTENCES AND CLAUSES**

1. **A sentence:** A sentence is a complete independent unit standing alone.

Examples:

1. He is clever.
2. She is not ready yet.
3. John bought a new camera.

### **Sentence Types**

Sentences may also be classified according to the number and type of clauses they contain. Depending on how it is constructed, a sentence may be simple, compound, complex and compound-complex. All these are illustrated in what follows:

## 1. The simple sentence

The simple sentence is made up of one main clause, however short or long. It contains one subject and one predicate.

1. Necessity is the mother of invention.
2. Birds build nests in spring.
3. Money talks.
4. Rip's appearance, with his long, grey beard, his rusty gun, his old clothes, and an army of children following him, soon attracted the attention of the politicians. (From *The Story of Rip Van Winkle* by Washington Irving).

Note: The last sentence contains twenty-seven words, but because it has one subject *Rip's appearance* and one finite verb *attracted*, it is considered as a simple sentence.

## 2. The compound sentence

The compound sentence consists of two or more main clauses joined by a co-ordinating conjunction. Each clause must have a subject and a predicate and express a complete thought.

1. John teaches English, and his brother teaches French.
2. The snow was fourteen feet deep, and the dwellers of the village could not find anything to eat.
3. The class was terribly boring, so the teacher was very frustrated.

## 3. The complex sentence

The complex sentence consists of one main clause and one or more subordinate clauses introduced by a subordinating conjunction ( when, till, though, as ... etc.

1. When she arrived at the station, the train had already left.
2. We took a taxi because we were late.
3. I have put on the fire so that the flat will be warm when we come back.

## 4. The compound-complex sentence

The compound-complex sentence consists of a compound sentence (two or more clauses) and at least one subordinate clause.

1. When the refugee returned home, he found the village unchanged, but he did not recognise all the inhabitants.

2. After the adventurer had reached the top of the mountain, he could see a cattle of deer in the woods, and he was able to get a panoramic view of a remote island in the sea.

**Exercise:**

Write two effective sentences for each type of sentences provided above.

**2. A clause:** A clause is a part of a sentence which contains at least a verb and its subject. Clauses fall into two types:

(a) A main clause or an independent clause which can stand alone as a sentence, or may form a part of complex and compound sentences.

Examples:

1. It's high time. [One main clause]

2. I saw my friend yesterday, but he did not greet me. [Two main clauses]

(b) A subordinate or dependent clause is a clause which makes up a grammatical sentence if only subordinate to another clause. It is usually introduced by a subordinating conjunction (such as when, where, after, while, though, before, if, since) or by a relative pronoun (such as who, which, that).

Examples:

1. Because it is too late

2. After I had finished

3. In order to finish his work

**3. A finite clause:** It is a clause which contains a finite verb (a conjugated verb in a particular tense). It contains a subject as well as a predicate (part of a sentence with a verb which says something about the subject).

Example:

The student / wrote a coherent essay.

Subject / Predicate

**4. A non-finite clause:** It is a clause which contains a non-finite verb, i.e., a clause which can function without a subject.

Examples:

1. Left alone in the forest, the child began to cry.

2. On arriving home, he took off his shoes.

3. He disturbed his family, by coming home late.

4. Running down the road, he stumbled and fell.

## The Elliptical Clause

An important aid to economy in writing English is the elliptical clause. In many cases, it is possible to leave out a relative pronoun that normally would join a dependent clause to an independent one.

- e.g. – The movie I wanted to see was not playing. (*which* or *that* unexpressed)  
- We couldn't understand the point he was making. (*which* is unexpressed)

Sometimes a dependent clause contains neither subject nor verb:

- e.g. – When in Barcelona, try to find a quiet hotel room. (for *when in Barcelona*)  
- While working in the store, I met many interesting people. (for *while I was working*)

Whenever such words are left out of a dependent clause, it is known as an elliptical clause.

Another kind of elliptical construction occurs most commonly after the words *than* and *as*. To avoid repetition in both speaking and writing, we usually drop the final verb in sentences such as these

- The chairman spoke longer than he. (*spoke* is not repeated)
- Are you as old as he? (*'is'* is omitted)
- We danced longer than they. (*danced* is not repeated)

After *than* and *as* introducing an incomplete construction, use the form of the pronoun you would use if the construction were completed. The pronoun chosen in such a construction depends upon the intent of the writer:

- e.g. – I like George better than he. (better than he likes George)  
- I like George better than him. (Better than I like him)

Although the nominative case pronouns (I, he, she, they, we) are preferred usage in *than* and *as* constructions for formal writing and speaking, the objective case (me, him, her, them, us) is generally accepted colloquial usage:

**Formal:** They worked harder than we

Are you as hungry as I?

Ann is older than she.

**Colloquial:** They worked harder than us.

Are you as hungry as me?

Ann is older than her.

### Exercise I

Reduce the number of words by making the introductory dependent clause elliptical.

1. Although he was expecting a telephone call, he had to leave the office.
2. While she was driving in town, my mother lost her temper.
3. If you are curious about your final grade, ask your professor.
4. After you finish cutting the grass, please water it.
5. When he is hammering a nail, he almost always hits his thumb.

### Exercise II

Choose the correct pronoun to complete the following sentences and explain.

1. You worked harder than.....
2. Did you stay as long as ..... ?
3. You don't seem as tired as .....
4. Carl is stronger than.....
5. I can do the job better than .....

## Co-ordination and Subordination

### Co-ordination

Co-ordination is a linking together of two or more clauses of equivalent status and function with one of the seven co-ordinating conjunctions (and, but, for, nor, or, so, yet). Both parts of the sentence offer new information, and there is always a comma which precedes the conjunction.

Examples:

1. Some students listen carefully, but do not always understand the lectures.
2. The parents walk to work, and the children go to school.
3. The flat is not only large, but it is also nice and well equipped.
4. She does not speak Italian, nor does she intend to learn it.

## Subordination

Subordination is a non-symmetrical relation holding between two clauses in such a way that one clause is a constituent of the other. A subordinate clause downgrades its information and helps to emphasise the main clause.

Examples:

1. I'll tell you the truth when you come back.
2. She didn't come because it was raining.
3. If you hurry, you will catch the bus.

## Co-ordinating and subordinating conjunctions

Conjunctions are words which join two or more words, phrases, or clauses. They are also called linkers or connectors. They are classified into two main classes:

(a) *Co-ordinating conjunctions* (and, but, or, nor, for, so, yet) link words, phrases and independent clauses. That is, they join elements that are grammatically equal such as:

1. Girls and boys study together.
2. Do you want tea or coffee?
3. The film was boring, so I left.

(b) *Subordinating conjunctions* (when, where, after, if, as, since, because, till, while...etc) link subordinate clauses with main clauses.

Examples:

1. I shall speak to the headmaster when I come back.
2. The telephone rang while the girl was playing the piano.
3. Although she is young, she is intellectually mature.

## 1. Coordination

Co-ordination can be considered as an aspect of parallelism. Elements of equal importance should be put in co-ordinate sentences. The latter are joined by co-ordinate conjunctions which are used to connect items of equal rank. They may connect words, phrases or clauses. When they connect independent clauses of four or more words in a compound sentence, they are preceded by commas. The most common are: *and, yet, but, for, or, nor, yet*. Parallel to this, conjunctive or transitional adverbs are adverbs that are used as conjunctions, i.e., they join two independent clauses. In addition, they modify the clauses that they introduce. The list of transitional adverbs includes: *also, accordingly, anyway, besides, for example, hence, however, instead, moreover, furthermore, nevertheless, nonetheless, still, thus, therefore, in fact ... etc.*



## 2. Subordination

Conversely, we should not link as equals elements that are not of equal importance. A less important element should be made subordinate to a more important one. In writing essays or paragraphs, subordination is regarded as a sign of maturity, and it is the surest means of achieving unity and securing economy. Inexperienced students are likely to use short simple sentences and a series of compound sentences. We use subordination to combine a related series of short, ineffective sentences into longer units. Consider the following examples:

**Coordination:** The afternoon paper was scattered over the yard.

The paper had been thrown carelessly by the news carrier.

The paper had been caught by the wind.

The paper had become unfolded.

**Subordination:** Thrown carelessly by the news carrier, the afternoon paper had become unfolded, been caught by the wind, and been scattered over the yard.

**Coordination:** Seniors should consult the guidance department.

This applies to those seniors who are applying to college.

They should consult the department regularly.

They will get suggestions.

The suggestions will relate to their choice of college, to scholarship, and to their college expenses.

**Subordination:** College seniors should consult the guidance department regularly to get suggestions related to their choice of college, to scholarship and to their college expenses.

**Coordination:** Paul sat down.

A pretty waitress came up to him.

He asked for a kiss.

He received for his pains a slapped face.

He also received a glass of beer over his head.

**Subordination:** Paul had no sooner sat down than a pretty waitress came up to him. Asking for a kiss, he received for his pains a slapped face and a glass of beer over his head.

**Coordination:** Franklin was listening to the radio.  
He heard the news.  
His mother was killed in a car accident.  
The accident had occurred at ten o'clock.

**Subordination:** Listening to the radio, Franklin heard that his mother had  
been killed in a car accident at ten o'clock.

### **Exercise:**

Write four coordinated and four subordinated sentences.

## **Adverbial Clauses**

Subordinate conjunctions join deep clauses to main clauses. When the dependent clause comes first in a sentence, it is usually followed by a comma. Here is a list of the most common types of subordinate clauses:

- 1. Conjunctions of time:** when, whenever, while, as, since, after, before, until, once, as soon as, now (that), directly (that), immediately (that), the instant, the moment ...etc.
- 2. Conjunctions of place:** where, wherever
- 3. Conjunctions of manner:** as, as if, as though
- 4. Conjunctions of comparison:** as, than, the x comparative
- 5. Conjunctions of reason/cause:** because, as, since, as long as, now that
- 6. Conjunctions of purpose:** so that, in order that, for fear that, lest, (to, in order to, so as to: non-finite clauses)
- 7. Conjunctions of result:** so ... that, so x adjective x that, such...that
- 8. Conjunctions of condition:** if, unless, whether, provided that, supposing, on condition that, as long as, so long as
- 9. Conjunctions of contrast:** although, though, even though, even if, while, whatever, whenever, no matter, in spite of the fact that.

## 10. Conjunctions of proportion: the ... the

Now let's study subordinating conjunctions in various sentences:

### 1. Time

I shall speak to you *when* I come back.

*Soon after* he jumps, his parachute will open.

*As soon as* he saw the dog, he shouted.

Paul got up *before* the sun had risen.

*Once* she started she worked steadily.

*By the time that* he woke up, all the work was done.

### 2. Place

NB. Adverbial clauses of place may be finite clauses, non-finite clauses, or verbless

Clauses. Study these sentences:

She wants to live *where* he can find a job.

The police want to catch the sniper *wherever* he goes.

*Where* found, the criminal.

*Wherever* possible, the courtyard should be swept.

### 3. Manner

She has the right to behave *how* she pleases.

You may come just *as* you are.

Robert solved the problem *as* one might have expected.

### 4. Comparison

Laura spoke loud *as if* she were deaf.

The river was much deeper *than* they had expected.

She writes as incoherently as he speaks.

The student wrote short stories *as though* he were inspired.

### 5 Reason/Cause

*Now that* you have the tool, you can tune the piano.

*As long as* you are tired, you cannot work.

The thief stole money *because* he didn't work.

His impressions cannot be valuable *as much as* he doesn't speak fluently.

## 6. Purpose

They simply came here *to help you*.

He tried to do things quickly *so that* he would finish on time.

Bill joined the party *in order* to his own career.

He gave up his position *so that* he might devote himself to the cause of peace.

She spoke slowly *in order not/ so as not to* wake the children up.

I don't let him climb trees *in case* he tears his trousers.

He did not dare to leave the house *lest* someone should recognise him.

Note: Lest = for fear that, and is always followed by *should*.

## 7. Result

It's *so* hot I can't work any more.

The president spoke *so* well *that* he convinced all the people.

The child was *so* exhausted *that* he fell asleep in the train.

She ate *so* much *that* he could hardly move.

## 8. Condition

*Unless* they are looked after, they will deteriorate.

She could buy a nice flat *provided* she had enough money.

I will lend you my books *on condition/as long as* you return them back quickly.

*Suppose* they all agreed, what would you do?

*Whether* you do your work today or tomorrow, it will not be late.

*If* she hurries, she will catch the bus.

*If* I were you, I would behave differently.

*If* you had invited me, I would have come.

## 9. Contrast/Concession

*Although* she is very old, she is still active.

*Though* the architect approved the plan, he expressed some reservations.

*While* highly respected by his family, he was disturbed by his peers.

*In spite of the fact that* he worked hard, he did not succeed.

*Even though* he was ill, he did not feel anxious.

*However* many pictures he painted, he went on painting more.

*Hard as* he tries, his pictures are not good.

This writer is very rich *whereas* other artists die in poverty.

## 10. Proportion

*The darker it got, the more desperate they became.*

*The sooner, the better.*

*The older she got, the wiser she became.*

*The more tickets they sell, the more money they will get.*

### Exercise:

Write two effective sentences including each type of the ten adverbial clauses presented in this lesson.

## Conditional Sentences

### Type 0

#### A. Form:

1. If you heat ice, it melts.
2. If I make a promise, I keep it.
3. Bill gets angry if you do not agree with him.
4. If you are happy, you make others happy.

-The tenses of the verbs in conditional sentences type 0 are as follows:

If clause: Present simple, Main clause: Present simple

#### B. Use:

Conditional sentences type 0 express general conditions, universal truths, or deductions.

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### Type I

#### A. Form:

1. If it rains, I'll stay at home.
2. You will miss the bus if you don't hurry.
3. If we catch the train, we shall (can, may, must ... etc) get there by lunch time.
4. If you wake up before me, give me a call.

-The tenses of the verbs in conditional sentences type I are as follows:

If clause: Present simple, Main clause: Future

If clause: Present simple      Main clause: Future

If clause: Present simple      Main clause: Future / Modal + Bare Infinitive

If clause: Present simple      Main clause: imperative

### **B. Use:**

Conditional sentences type 1 express probable, real, or open conditions that may be likely to happen or not

## **Type II**

### **A. Form:**

1. If you dropped the bomb, it would explode.
2. If I were you, I wouldn't do that.
3. If she had a son, she would be happier.
4. If we took a taxi now, we would (could, might ... etc.) arrive on time.

-The tenses of the verbs in conditional sentences type are as follows:

If clause: Past simple, Main clause: Present conditional

### **B. Use:**

Conditional sentences type 2 express improbable, unreal, imaginary or contrary-to-real-fact conditions.

## **Type III:**

### **A. Form:**

1. If you had worked hard, you would have succeeded. (but you didn't work hard, so you didn't succeed.)
2. If you had posted the letter, your parents would (could, might . . .) have received it yesterday. (but you didn't post it, so they didn't receive it.)
3. If you had invited me to the party, I would have come. (but you didn't invite me, so I didn't come.)
4. We would have arrived on time, if we had caught the earlier train. (but we didn't catch the earlier train, so we didn't arrive on time.)

-The tenses of the verbs in conditional sentences type III are as follows:

If clause: Past perfect, Main clause: Perfect conditional

### **B Use:**

Conditional sentences type 3 express impossible or unfulfilled conditions.

## Pluralizing Compound Nouns

### Nouns

In general, nouns are words used as the name of a person, place, thing, condition or quality. Nouns in English are classified into four kinds:

*Common nouns:* chair, cat, boy, desk

*Proper nouns:* Samir, Peter, Algeria, France, Constantine, London

*Abstract nouns:* happiness, democracy, intelligence, madness, anger,  
harm

*Collective nouns:* group, staff, public, flock, team, swarm, people, cattle,  
herd, crowd, tribe, committee

### Pluralizing Compound Nouns

Compounds may be inflected for plural and genitive, but in practice genitive usage is rare.

Two tendencies are at work in the inflection of the compound:

- (a) Put the inflection at the end of the compounds ;
- (b) Put the inflection after a noun.

### A Regular

1. Where the second element is a noun (even if the first is too) no conflict usually arises. Add –s at the end of the compound:

#### **Noun + noun:**

armchairs, lawsuits, crime reporters, hand signals, storm clouds

#### **Verb + noun:**

breakwaters, pickpockets

2. For compounds with man / woman

Airman / airmen

Snowwoman / snowwomen

Where *man* or *woman* is prefixed, both parts are made plural:

men students

women students

### 3. **Verb + adverb:**

Breakdowns, fly-overs, grown-ups, lay-bys

### 4. **Adverb + verb**

Also-rans

### 5. **Noun + ful:**

handful / handfuls,

spoonful / spoonfuls

armful / armfuls

## **B. Irregular**

Difficulties arise in the plural mainly in three types of compound:

### 1. **Noun + adverb, when derived from verb + adverb:**

A passer-by / some passers-by

A runner-up / two runners-up

### 2. **Noun + adjective**

A court martial / courts martial

The poet-laureate / the poets laureate

Informal: poet laureates

### 3. **Noun + prepositional phrase**

My brother-in-law / my two brothers-in-law

A justice of the Peace / Justices of the Peace

Sister-in-law / Sisters-in-law

Looker-on / Lookers-on

## **C. Group phrases**

Rule (a) above (inflect at the end) also works for the genitive of longer noun phrases:

Queens of England (pl); but: the Queen of England's clothes

The boys next door (pl)      the boy next door's bicycle (informal)

## **D. Initials can be made plural:**

MPs (Members of Parliament)

VIPs (Very Important Persons)

OAPs (Old Age Pensioners)

UFOs (Unidentified Flying Objects)



## EXCLAMATIONS

A sentence may be a statement (declarative), a question (interrogative), a command (imperative), or an exclamation.

Exclamations, in general, have the following forms:

**What (+ adjective) + noun + Subject + verb**

**How + adjective / adverb + Subject + verb**

What a (strange) story he told us!

How strange it all is!

How oddly he behaved!

### Other examples

What a stupid man (he is)!

What lovely flowers (you sent)!

What wonderful news (they brought)!

What a lovely house!

What on earth happened!

What a terrible day!

### Exercise:

Write two effective sentences for each type of sentence forms presented in this lesson.