

MAJOR: ENGLISH

FOCUS: STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH

LET Competencies:

- Demonstrate understanding of grammatical concepts by being able to describe and analyse, meaning, and use of various English language structures

BASIC SENTENCE PATTERNS

Below are basic patterns around which most English sentences are built.

1. N be Adj

where the adjective is a SUBJECT COMPLEMENT, in particular a PREDICATE ADJECTIVE. The adjective refers back to the subject. The copula verb *be* means “may be described as.”

Roses are sweet. (subject complement = predicate adjective)

2. N be UW (= uninflected word)

where the uninflected word is an ADVERBIAL such as *here, there, up, down, in, out, inside, upstairs, downstairs, on, off, now, then, yesterday, and tomorrow*. *Be* has the meaning of “be located” or “occur.”

The meeting was yesterday. (adverbial)

3. N¹ be N¹

where the superscript means that the two nouns have the same referent. The second noun following the *be* verb is also a SUBJECT COMPLEMENT, in particular a PREDICATE NOUN OR PREDICATE NOMINATIVE.

Her neighbor is my cousin. (subject complement = predicate nominative)

4. N InV (= intransitive verb)

where the INTRANSITIVE VERB does not require an object. The verb being self-sufficient can stand alone with its subject.

Glasses break.

5. N¹ TrV (= transitive V) N²

where N² does not have the same referent as N¹. N² is called the DIRECT OBJECT of the verb, “the receiver of the action.”

The girl buys yellow roses.

6. N¹ TrV N² N³

where the superscripts 1, 2, and 3 indicate that each noun has a different referent.

Mother gave a gift to the orphan.
(usually reads as *Mother gave the orphan a gift.*)

Two noun objects occur after the verb. Still N² is the direct object and N³ is the INDIRECT OBJECT. If we omit the last noun, the pattern is identical to that in item 5. Note that the indirect object is preceded by the preposition *to* (sometimes *for* or *of*). If the two objects are inverted, the preposition disappears.

He made a toy house for her.
He made her a toy house.

The teacher asked a question of her.
The teacher asked her a question.

7. }N²
 }Adj
 }Pronoun
 N¹ TrV N² }Adv (of place), uninflected
 }Verb, present participle
 }Verb, past participle

There are choices of different forms in sentence final position. These are illustrated as follows:

(object complement)	<i>The class voted Henry <u>secretary</u>.</i>
(adjective)	<i>The principal found the gardener <u>efficient</u>.</i>
(pronoun)	<i>We considered the writer <u>you</u>.</i>
(adverb of place)	<i>The teacher directed them <u>outside</u>.</i>
(present participle)	<i>She saw them <u>praying</u>.</i>
(past participle)	<i>I imagine my father <u>overworked</u>.</i>

The most common illustration of this sentence pattern is one with the occurrence of a final N².

NOUNS

Nouns can be recognized by means of the following characteristics:

1. They are names of entities -- a person, place, thing, of idea.
2. They have two INFLECTIONS, the PLURAL{-es} and the POSSESSIVE (sometimes called the GENITIVE) {-‘s}. Both inflections have various ALLOMORPHS
 /əz/ appears after morphs ending in sibilants or affricates / s, z, š, ž, č ĵ /
 /s/ appears after morphs ending in voiceless consonants / p, t, k, f, θ /,
 except the sibilants and affricate / s, š, č /
 /z/ appears after morphs ending in vowels and voiced consonants / b, d, g, v, ð,
 m, n, ŋ, l, r, y, w /, except the sibilants and the affricate / z, ž, ĵ /
3. They may be marked by noun-forming DERIVATIONAL SUFFIXES added to bases or stems, usually belonging to other parts of speech, e.g.
 - added to verbs
 {-age} *breakage*
 {-ee} *employee*
 - added to adjectives
 {-ity} *facility*
 {-ness} *happiness*
 - added to other nouns
 {-cy} *advocacy*
 {-ian} *librarian*
 {-ship} *friendship*
4. They fill certain characteristic positions in relation to other parts of speech in phrases and sentences.
 - just before a verb

Red rosesbloom in my garden.

- after determiners such as articles, demonstratives, and possessive adjectives, e.g., *the examination, these reviewees, my handouts*
5. Unlike other languages, gender is not an important feature of English grammar. Gender is only marked in certain pairs of nouns, e.g., *waiter/waitress, host/hostess*
 6. Certain SUPERFIXES/STRESS PATTERNS occasionally identify nouns from other

parts of speech as in: *récòrd* and *rècòrd*. These two words are morphemically alike; however, we identify the stress pattern / ' ` / as a noun.

7. Nouns can serve as HEADS in a noun phrase. As heads they may be preceded by one or more single-word modifiers and followed by a phrasal or clausal modifier or both

the small study table in my room which my father bought

Functions of Nouns

- subject of verbs *Several items have ambiguous stems.*
- direct objects of verbs *They administered the test.*
- indirect objects of verbs *The lecturer provided the participants handouts.*
- subject noun predicates/
• predicate nouns *We are LET reviewers.*
- object noun predicates/
• object complements *The reviewees chose him their representative.*
- objects of prepositions *in our review class*
- appositives *The LET, a professional examination, is conducted every year.*
- vocatives/nouns of address *Anne, how did you find the exam?*

Noun Types

1. COMMON NOUNS refer to a kind of person, thing, or idea
 - COUNT NOUNS which take the plural inflection
 - MASS/NONCOUNT NOUNS which don't take the plural inflection
2. PROPER NOUNS are names for unique individuals or places
3. COLLECTIVE NOUNS are able to take either singular or plural verbs forms, depending on the interpretation given to the noun, i.e., whether it is seen as a unit or as a collection of individuals

The team has won all its games.
The team have won awards in their respective events.

ARTICLES

ARTICLES are a subclass of DETERMINERS, which are noun-marking words. They usually come before the nouns they modify.

	a/an (indefinite articles)	the (definite article)	no/zero article
	Only before singular (sg) countable nouns (CNs)	Before uncountable/mass nouns (UNs) and countable plural (pl) nouns	Identifies certain indefinite meanings of nouns
1	Before an unidentified sg CN, one example of its class <i>a chair</i> (furniture)	Backward reference to a N already mentioned <i>A dog . . . and here is <u>the</u> dog now.</i>	Refers to all members of a class <i>∅Dogs are domestic animals.</i>
2	Before an unidentified sg CN that is representative of its class <i>a dog</i> (a domestic animal)	Forward reference to an identification soon to be made, often by modifiers following a noun <i><u>The</u> history of his town</i>	Distinguishes one class from another <i>∅Men, not women, are protectors.</i>
3	Before a predicate N after a be verb if no determiner is used	Before superlatives and before ordinal numbers, except ordinal numbers used alone (<i><u>first</u> in her</i>)	Refers to an indefinite number but not necessarily to all members of a class.

	. . . is <u>a</u> good neighbor	batch) <u>The</u> best cake I have ever seen <u>The</u> first person to fly in space	øSeedlings are beginning to sprout. (many)
4	With UNs to mean <u>a</u> kind of, or with <u>kind</u> of, or <u>certain</u> <u>a</u> smile <u>an</u> insight	Content know to both writer and reader <u>The</u> chapel in the village (only one chapel)	With plural nouns after be. <i>His brothers are</i> øengineers.
5	Before <i>few</i> and <i>little</i> to mean <u>some</u> but not <u>many</u> <u>a</u> few friends <u>a</u> little salt	Identification of a class, especially in a generalization, followed by a noun, or an adjective <u>The</u> youth is the hope of the future. <u>the</u> physically challenged	With institutions and practices felt to be unique øOffices open at 7 o'clock. øDinner is usually late.
6	When using a proper noun to indicate the characteristics of the person named <i>She is a</i> Sister Teresa. (a saintly person)	Beginning of a phrase containing an appositive <i>Interpret this item, <u>the</u> one with an illustration</i>	With set phrases, usually pairs øHeaven and hell
7	To name "a certain person whose name is." <i>A</i> Mr. Alba came to see you.		With prepositional phrases <i>At</i> ørest, <i>in</i> ødanger, <i>on</i> øtime
8			With nouns used in headlines in newspapers, captions in books, signs, labels and the like øMURDERER ESCAPES BEWARE OF øDOG
9		For a family name in the plural <u>The</u> Basas have arrived.	With common nouns used as terms of address and therefore capitalized. <i>We are ready to go, øMother.</i>
10		Distinguishes people who have the same name <u>The</u> Jessica Reyes who joined the beauty pageant is not <u>the</u> Jessica Reyes who is my cousin.	
11		When the article is part of a geographical name <u>The</u> Philippines <u>The</u> United States <u>The</u> Red Sea	
12		When the article is accepted as part of any kind of proper name <u>The</u> Philippine Star <u>The</u> Princess of Negros <u>The</u> Hilton <u>The</u> University of St. Tomas <u>The</u> United Nations	

PRONOUNS

Most pronouns stand for, refer to, or replaces a noun or a noun phrase within a text; hence, they occupy the same position as a noun or noun phrase does. The word or words that a pronoun stands for are its ANTECEDENT or REFERENCE.

My brother holds dual citizenship. He is not only a Filipino but also a Canadian

citizen.

I and *me* stand for the speaker or writer.

I am a Filipino, but *I* am living in Australia now.

Pronouns can also be a direct reference to an outside situation (e.g., “*What is that?*” in response to a sound or noise).

Kinds of Pronouns

There are many different kinds of pronouns: SUBJECT, OBJECT, POSSESSIVE, REFLEXIVE, DEMONSTRATIVE and others. The forms within each category are distinguished by number (singular/plural), person (first/second/third) gender (masculine/feminine/neuter), and in the case of demonstratives, by number and proximity.

Personal and Related Pronouns

Person/ Number	Personal		Possessive		Reflexive/ Intensive
	Subject Form	Object Form	Noun replacement	Determiner/ Adjective	
Singular					
+ I	I	me	mine	my	myself
+ II	you	you	yours	your	yourself
+ III					
Masculine	he	him	his	his	himself
Feminine	she	her	hers	her	herself
Neuter	it	it	-	its	itself
Plural					
+ I	we	us	ours	our	ourselves
+ II	you	you	yours	your	yourselves
+ III	they	them	theirs	their	themselves

Things to Remember:

1. Animals closely related to people can be referred to by *he*, *him*, and *his* or *she*, *her*, and *hers*.

The dog loves his/her/its master.

2. Use *it* and *its* to refer to inanimate objects except ships, which are always referred as *she*.
3. Countries and schools are sometimes referred to by *she* or *her*.
4. Traditionally, the pronouns *he*, *him*, and *his* have been used for mixed groups or groups in which the sex is unknown. Many people now object to this use, so they use both the masculine and feminine forms or the plural forms to avoid the problem.

Everybody submitted his or her assignment. (awkward)
All the students submitted their assignments. (acceptable)

5. If *I*, *me*, *my* or *mine* or their plural counterparts are part of a pair or a series, put them last.

The teacher confiscated his toy and mine, too.
Father helped Tony with his project, and he will help my sister and me with ours tomorrow.

Reflexive Pronouns

1. Use the reflexive pronoun as the object of the verb form or preposition to refer to the subject of the sentence.

The baby is able to feed itself.
Luis cut himself with a razor blade.

2. The phrase *by + self* or its emphatic form *all by + self* means *alone* or *without*

any help.

I crossed the river (all) by myself.

Intensive Pronouns

The intensive form occurs directly after the word it modifies or at the end of the clause.

The mayor herself distributed the relief goods.

The mayor distributed the relief goods herself.

Reciprocal Pronouns

1. The reciprocal pronoun forms are *each other* and *one another*. They mean that each part of the subject did the action and also received the action.
2. They must be objects of verb forms or objects of prepositions.
3. Some prefer to use *each other* for two people or things and *one another* for more than two.

The two finalists congratulated each other for making it to the top.

The class members prepared surprise gifts for one another during the Christmas party.

Demonstrative Pronouns

1. Demonstrative pronouns occur alone. They do not precede nouns.

This is my favorite movie.

2. Demonstrative pronouns can show distance or contrast not connected with distance.

(distance) *This is mine; that is yours over there.*

(contrast) *Which ones do you prefer, these or those?*

Indefinite Pronouns

Personal	anyone anybody	everyone everybody	none no one nobody	someone somebody	another other ones others
Non-Personal	anything	everything every one	nothing none	something	another other ones others

Use singular verbs with compound pronouns and use singular pronouns to refer to them in formal writing.

Formal: *Nobody brought his book today.*

Informal: *Nobody brought their books today.*

Interrogative Pronouns

Who, whom, whose, which, and what can begin questions.

1. Use *who, whom, whose* and *which* to refer to persons..
2. Use *what* and *which* to refer to things and events.
3. In formal writing, use *who* for the subject of a clause and *whom* for the object of the verb or preposition.

Relative Pronouns

1. RELATIVE PRONOUNS (sometimes called CLAUSE MARKERS) introduce dependent clauses (also called RELATIVE CLAUSES).
2. Relative pronouns used in adjective clauses are *who, whom, whose, which* and *that*.

3. *Who, whom, and whose* are used for persons while *which* is used for non-persons.
The guestwho came to dinner is the governor.
The bookwhich I bought is a best seller.
4. *That* is a neutral form. It can be marked +humanor–human. In other words, it can be a substitute for both *who* (+human) or *which* (-human).
The guestwho/that came to dinner is the governor.
The bookwhich/that I bought is a best seller.
5. In informal writing, *whom* is optional; in formal writing, *whom* must be used
(informal)*Nora is the girl you saw in the party last night.*
(formal)*Nora is the girl whom you saw in the party last night.*
6. *That, which* and *whom* are the only relative pronouns that can be left out.
The instrumental music (that) I like to hear often is that of Zamfir.
The house pests (which) I hate to see are the rodents and the cockroach.
7. *Who, whom, and whose* can be used in both essential/RESTRICTIVE and nonessential/NON-RESTRICTIVE clauses.
The man, who came to dinner, is the mayor. (nonessential/non-restrictive, bounded by commas)
The man who came to dinner is the mayor. (essential/restrictive, without commas)
8. *That* instead of *which* is used only in essential or restrictive clauses, so do NOT put commas around clauses beginning with *that*.
The poster that won first prize pleased both the judges and the viewers.
**The poster, that won first prize, pleased both the judges and the viewers.*
(*means ungrammatical)
9. Use *which* in nonessential or nonrestrictive clauses. Separate nonessential clauses from the rest of the sentence by commas.
Our car, which has been running for three days, should be brought to the machine shop for check-up.
10. Relative pronouns used in noun clauses are *that, what, whatever, whoever, whomever, and whichever*.
(noun clause as subject) *Whatever you offer will be appreciated.*
(noun clause as direct object) *He will befriend whoever he gets acquainted with.*
11. Look at the antecedent of *who, that* or *which* when used as subject to decide whether the verb following should be singular or plural.
The paintingwhich is exhibited is the painter's masterpiece.
The farmerswho own orchards earn much from their harvest.

VERBS

A verb can be recognized by means of the following characteristics:

- Denotes an action (e.g., *read*) or a state of being (e.g. *know*). ACTION VERBS are dynamic. STATE OF BEING VERBS (or STATIVE VERBS) include the copula or linking verbs, e.g. the *be*-verbs, *remain*, *appear*, and *become*.
- Has four inflections
 - {-s} of third person singular present tense verbs
 - {-ed} of simple past tense verbs
 - {-en} of the past participle
 - {-ing} of the present participle

The third person singular –s has the same allomorphs as the noun plural and the noun possessive.

The –ed past tense inflection has three allomorphs:

- /əd/ after morphs which end in / t / or / d / as in *planted, raided*
- /t/ after morphs that end in voiceless sounds except / t / as in

brushed, jumped, walked
 /d/ after morphs which end in voiced sounds except / d / as in
 cleaned, grabbed, agreed

- Follows a subject noun and may be followed in turn by adjectives

The reviewees } _____ eager [to enhance their knowledge].
 } _____ seriously.
 } _____ their handouts.

- May fall under one more or more of these types
 - INTRANSITIVE VERBS which does not take an object (direct)
Flowers bloom.
 - TRANSITIVE VERBS which require an object (direct)
Flowers need water and sunlight.
 - DITRANSITIVE VERBS which take two objects (direct and indirect)
Alex gave his girlfriend three red roses.
 - LINKING/COPULA VERBS where what follows the verb relates back to the subject (subject complement -- a predicate noun or a predicate adjective)
Roses are lovely Valentine's Day gifts.
Roses are sweet.
 - COMPLEX TRANSITIVE VERBS where what follows the object (direct) relates to the object
They chose Niña, muse of the team.
 - PREPOSITIONAL VERBS which requires a prepositional phrase to be complete
We looked at the pictures taken during our graduation
- Have tense and aspect qualities. Tense and aspect have to do with form. TENSE is "the grammatical marking on verbs that usually indicates time reference relative to either the time of speaking or the time at which some other situation was in force" (Jacobs 1995). Time reference has to do with meaning. Events and situations are located in time, perhaps to our speaking about them, perhaps while we are speaking about them, or perhaps at some later time. English has three tenses – present, past, and future. The present and the past tenses have inflectional markings, while the future is marked by the inclusion of the modals *will* or *shall*. Simply put, tense is a set of verb forms that indicate a particular point in time or period of time in the past, present, or future.

ASPECT is a general name given to verb forms used to signify certain ways in which an event is viewed or experienced. Aspect can view an event as completed whole (simple), or whether or not it has occurred earlier (perfect aspect) or is still in progress (progress).

Noel has attended the review classes. (perfect)
Now he is studying for the LET exam. (progressive)

The tenses in combination with aspects make up the following 12 tense-aspect categories. These make up the traditional 12 tenses.

Tense-Aspect Combinations

	Simple	Perfect	Progressive	Perfect Progressive
	∅	have + -en	be + -ing	have + -en be + -ing
Present	dream/dreams	has/have dreamed	am/is/are dreaming	has/have been dreaming
	eat/eats	has/have eaten	am/is/are eating	has/have been eating
Past	dreamed	had dreamed	was/were dreaming	had been dreaming
	ate	had eaten	was/were eating	had been eating
Future	will/shall dream	will/shall have dream	will/shall be dreaming	will/shall have been dreaming
	will/shall eat	will/shall have eaten	will/shall be eating	will/shall have been eating

Sometimes, if we want to draw attention to the time of the action, we use an

ADJUNCT OF TIME, which can be an adverb, a noun group, or a prepositional phrase, e.g.:

- (adverb) *She's coming tomorrow.*
(noun group) *Results of the examination were released last week.*
(prepositional phrase) *He will feel relieved after the exam.*

VERB TENSES: Their Meanings and Common Uses

SIMPLE ASPECT: complete wholes; unchanging

1. SIMPLE PRESENT: the present in general

- To talk about our thoughts and feelings at the present moment or about our immediate reactions to something
I'm terribly busy.
He looks excited.
- To talk about a settled state of affairs which includes the present moment
He lives in Sagada now.
Our teacher is very competent and considerate. We like her very much.
- To say something is always or generally true
There are 24 hours in a day.
The earth revolves around its axis.
- To talk about something that a particular person or thing does regularly or habitually.
I get up early to take a bath.
Every Sunday, I attend church services.
- To discuss what happens in a book, play or film
In the movie, he plays the character of Juan Tamad.
In those early chapters, he keeps himself isolated to other people in the village.
- To describe an event such as a sports match or a ceremony at the time it is happening as radio and TV commentators do
Doods takes the ball, then passes it quickly to Alfie. Alfie turns, shoots, and scores two points.

2. SIMPLE PAST: Stating a definite time in the past

An adjunct of time or other time expression is necessary to specify the particular time in the past we are referring to.

- To say that an event occurred or that something was the case at a particular time in the past.
The university officials flew into Jakarta last week to sign a memorandum of agreement with a sister school.
- To say that a situation existed over a period of time in the past.
He lived in his ancestral home in the countryside during his last years.
- To talk about an activity that took place regularly or repeatedly in the past, but which no longer occurs
We swam in the river a great deal in my childhood.

3. SIMPLE FUTURE: An expression of what we think might happen or what we intend to happen

- To say that something is planned to happen, or that we think it is likely to happen in the future
What do you think Ella will do to fix it?
- To talk about general truths and to say what can be expected to happen if a particular situation arises
An attack of dengue fever can keep a man off work for a few days. He

will earn nothing and he have trouble paying his hospital bills.

PERFECT ASPECT: prior

1. PRESENT PERFECT: the past in relation to the present
We cannot use adjuncts or expressions which place the action at a definite time in the past. But we can use adjuncts of duration, e.g. *forever, always*.
**I have watched it the other day.*
I ate raw vegetables, which I always avoided, and there was no other choice.
To mention something that happened in the past but we do not want to state a specific time.
I have read the book several times.
2. PAST PERFECT: Events before a particular time in the past
To talk about a past event or situation that occurred before a particular time in the past
By noon, students had gathered at the quadrangle with their placards.
3. FUTURE PERFECT
To refer to something that has not happened yet, but will happen before a particular time in the future.
By the time he graduates, his parents will already have left for New Zealand

PROGRESSIVE ASPECT: incomplete action; changing

1. PRESENT PROGRESSIVE: Accent on the present
 - To talk about something that is happening at the moment we are speaking
I'm already feeling bored and hungry.
 - To emphasize the present moment or to indicate that a situation is temporary
She's spending the summer in her hometown.
 - To indicate changes, trends, developments, and progress
He's performance in class is improving.
 - To talk about a habitual action that takes place regularly, especially one which is new or temporary
She's spending a lot on clothes these days.
2. PAST PROGRESSIVE: accent on the past
 - To talk about continued states or repeated actions which occurred in the past
His body was trembling; his fever was rising.
 - To contrast a situation with an event which happened just after that situation existed. We use the past continuous to describe the first event and the simple past to describe the event which occurred after it.
We were standing at the main gate waiting to welcome the guest speaker. He arrived 20 minutes later.
3. FUTURE PROGRESSIVE
 - To say something will surely happen because arrangements have been made
They will be sending their students regularly to the University for English proficiency enhancement.
 - To emphasize the duration of a recent event
She's been crying bitterly.

PERFECT-PROGRESSIVE ASPECT

1. PRESENT PERFECT PROGRESSIVE
 - To talk about an activity or situation that started at some time in the past, continued, and is still happening now.
The economy has been declining in many parts of the world.

2. PAST PERFECT PROGRESSIVE

- To emphasize the recentness and duration of a continuous activity which took place before a particular time in the past.

The old woman had been living alone in that dilapidated house.

- To say that something was expected, wished for, or intended before a particular time in the past.

I had been expecting a phenomenal rise in his political career.

3. FUTURE PERFECT PROGRESSIVE

- To emphasize the duration to an event at a specific time in the future

By January 2011, she will have been serving this university for 38 years.

AUXILIARY/HELPING VERBS

1. VERB PHRASE/VERB COMPLEX: consists of an auxiliary + a main verb, e.g., *must work, have been reading, will be informed*. The underlined word or words are the *auxiliary or helping verbs*.

2. AUXILIARY/HELPING VERBS

A. MODAL AUXILIARIES and their related phrasal forms

True Modals	Phrasal Modals
can, could	<u>be</u> able to
will, shall	<u>be</u> going to, <u>be</u> about to
must	<u>have</u> * to, <u>have</u> got to
should, ought to	<u>be</u> to, <u>be</u> supposed
would (= past habit)	used to
may, might	<u>be</u> allowed to, <u>be</u> permitted to

*The verb be takes several forms such as *is, are, was, were, and will be*. Have takes the forms *has, have, and had*

- NON-MODAL AUXILIARIES : be, do, and have verbs
Of all the auxiliaries, only the non-modals can change form.

Distinguishing Characteristics Between True Modals and Phrasal Modals

	True Modals	Phrasal Modals
1	Do not inflect, i.e., the forms remain unchanged <i>can pass</i>	Inflect like other ordinary verbs <i>am/is/are/was/were/will be able to pass</i>
2	Lack tense and a resultant lack of subject-verb agreement <i>We can pass the LET.</i> <i>He can pass the LET.</i>	Subject-agreement rule applies except the form <i>used to</i> <i>We are able to pass the LET.</i> <i>He is able to pass the LET.</i>
3	Do not require an infinitive marker <u>to</u> precede the main verb <i>must study hard</i>	Requires an infinitive marker <u>to</u> precede the main verb <i>has/have/had to study hard</i>

3. OPERATORS/OPERATOR VERBS

- The OPERATOR is a verb that has three main functions: 1) It precedes the negative and combines with it when the negative is contracted to *n't*; 2) It is the verb that moves around the subject to the sentence initial position in *yes-no* questions; and 3) It is also the verb that appears in the tag phrases of interrogative sentences or tag questions.

My father will not approve your marriage proposal.

My father won't approve your marriage proposal.

Will your father approve my marriage proposal?

Will your father not approve my marriage proposal?

Won't your father approve my marriage proposal?

Your father will approve my marriage proposal, won't he?

- When a clause contains no verb eligible to be an operator, *do* is introduced.
 - *He attends the graduation ball tonight.*
 - *He does attend the graduation ball tonight.*
 - *He does not attend the graduation ball tonight.*
 - *Does he attend the graduation ball tonight?*
 - *He attends the graduation ball tonight, doesn't he?*
- If there are two or more auxiliary verbs present in the VERB PHRASE, the first auxiliary serves as the operator.
 - *He has been reading the Obama autobiography.*
 - *He has not been reading the Obama autobiography.*
 - **He has been not reading the Obama autobiography.*
 - *Has he been reading the Obama autobiography.*
 - *He has been reading the Obama autobiography, hasn't he?*

SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT/CONCORD RULES WHICH OFTEN CAUSE ERRORS

1. Collective nouns may take either a singular or plural verb inflection depending on the meaning.

- Conceived of as one entity – takes a singular verb
 - *Our school team has won its games.*
- Conceived of as more than one entity or refers to individual membership – takes plural verb
 - *Our school team have won all their games.*

2. Some common and proper nouns ending in –s, including –ics nouns and certain diseases are always conceived as single entity – take a plural verb.

The recent news is exciting.
Mathematics is repelling to many students.
Measles is a contagious disease.
The United States is still a powerful country.

3. Titles of works even when plural in form are conceived of as single entities.

The Ten Commandments is a beautiful movie.
The Syntax Files is good reading for those in linguistics.
The song Greenfields brings nostalgia to people of my generation.

4. Nouns occurring in sets of two take the singular when the noun *pair* is present but take the plural when *pair* is absent.

That pair of Lee jeans is expensive.
My glasses are missing.

5. Fractions and percentages takes a singular verb inflection when modifying a noncount noun and a plural verb when they modify a plural noun. Either a singular or plural verb inflection may be used when they modify a collective noun, depending on the speaker's meaning.

More than half of the cake is eaten.
Twenty percent of the students are not joining the field trip.
One-fourth of the audience is/are teachers.

6. A *number* normally takes the plural. *The number* takes the singular.

A number of parents are coming for the meeting.
The number of signatories is substantial to merit approval of the motion.

7. When we use a number and a plural noun to talk about two or more things, we usually use a plural verb. We use a singular verb with 'one'.

Seven days make up a week.
One solid evidence is enough to prove his dishonesty.

8. When we are talking about an amount of money or time, or a distance, speed, or weight, we usually use a number, a plural noun, and a singular verb.

Five hundred dollars is a lot of money.
Three years is a long time to wait for a family member from abroad to come home.
Eighty kilometers per hour of travel is quite risky on slippery roads.

Seventy-five pounds is all she weighs now.

9. Arithmetic operations take the singular because they are perceived as reflecting a single numerical entity on both sides of the equation or equal sign.

Two plus two is equal to four.

10. The quantifiers *a lot (of)*, *lots of*, and *plenty of* take a singular verb if the subject noun is noncount by plural verb if the subject head noun is plural.

A lot of sound views were advanced during the discussion.

A lot of nonsense is evident from uninterested participants.

11. Traditional grammar states that when used as a subject, *none* (meaning not one) is always singular regardless of what follows in a prepositional phrase.

None of the boys join the mountaineering group.

None of the rice is eaten at all.

12. Traditional grammar maintains that the antecedent of the relative pronoun is the noun before.

Alice is one of the graduate students who have finished her master's degree in a short period of time.

13. For correlatives *either . . . or* and *neither . . . nor*, traditional grammar argues for a proximity rule, i.e., subject-verb agreement should occur with the subject noun nearest to the verb.

Either my friend or my classmates are expected to help me with my project.

Neither my classmates nor my friend volunteers to lend support.

14. A singular noun or pronoun should take a singular verb inflection regardless of what else occurs between the subject and the verb.

Jimmy, along with his co-teachers, conducts a cleanliness campaign in the barangay.

15. In questions, subjects don't always come before verbs. Identify accurately the subject before deciding on the proper verb to use.

Does your father usually go jogging?

What are the pages our teacher wants us to read?

VOICE

VOICE pertains to who or what serves as the subject in a clause. In the ACTIVE VOICE, the subject of a clause is most often the agent, or doer, of some action. In the PASSIVE VOICE, the subject of a clause is the receiver or undergoer of the action. The passive "defocuses" the agent. (Shibitani 1985 in Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman 2001)

The lifeguard saved the child. (active)

The child was saved [by the lifeguard]. (passive)

The passive voice is more limited than the active in that it requires only the transitive verbs – verbs that take direct objects.

The passive morphology is *be . . . -en*, i.e., a form of the be verb + the past participle. Usually in passive sentences the agent is not mentioned at all, referred to as the AGENTLESS PASSIVE. If the agent is mentioned (= AGENTED PASSIVE), it appears in a prepositional phrase marked by the preposition *by*.

Some passive sentences have no active counterparts.

Justin was born in Canada.

Advantages of the Active Voice

1. An active clause can give more information in fewer words.
2. An active verb makes writing livelier and more vivid.

Uses of the Passive Voice

1. A passive construction emphasizes the result in an impersonal style. This use is sometimes desirable in scientific and technical writing.

A new strain of malaria was discovered.

2. A passive verb emphasizes a victim or the result of a disaster.
Active: *The child broke the antique vase.*
Passive: *The antique vase was broken.*
3. Use the passive when the agent or the actor is so unimportant or is obvious that you do not need to mention it.
Rica was born in Seychelles.
4. Use a passive verb if you want to hide the name of the person who is responsible for an unpleasant decision or result.
An increase in tuition fees was proposed.

Forms of the English Passive

We usually form simple passives like these:

Paper is produced from trees. (simple present)
Paper was produced from trees. (simple past)

Here are other possible forms:

1. With modals
Paper can be produced from trees.
2. With present perfect
Paper has been produced from trees.
3. With present progressive
Paper is being produced from trees.
4. With past progressive
Paper were being produced from trees.
5. With *be going to* for future
Paper is going to be produced from trees.

PHRASAL VERBS

These are verbs which consist of two or three words. They consist of:

1. a verb followed by an adverb;
go up, spill over, and push through
2. a verb followed by a preposition;
come upon, reckon with, and bank on
3. a verb followed by an adverb and a preposition
break out of, look forward to, and go along with

Just like ordinary verbs, phrasal verbs may be used:

1. intransitively
Why don't you speak up?
2. transitively
Let's cut down pollution to conserve our environment./
Let's cut pollution down to conserve our environment.

Note that some phrasal verb may be separable. This is further explained below.

3. both intransitively and transitively
A plane took off.
She took off her coat because it was warm./
She took her coat off because it was warm.

Meaning of Some Phrasal Verbs

A two-word verb often has a one-word synonym, which is generally more formal. Here are some examples:

Phrasal Verb	Synonym	Phrasal Verb	Synonym
call up	telephone	give in/up	surrender
keep on	continue	leave out	omit
pick out	choose	put off	postpone

Separable and Inseparable Verbs

- Parts of inseparable phrasal verbs cannot be separated. If there is a direct object, it follows the phrasal verb.

Look after your baby brother.
**Look your baby brother after.*
Look after him

- On the other hand, the object of separable phrasal verbs is movable. A pronoun object comes between the first and second part. A short noun object can come between the two parts or can follow the second part.

Donna turned it on.
 Donna turned the light on.
 Donna turned on the light.

- Some phrasal verbs can be either separable or inseparable according to their meanings in a certain context.

She passed out. (fainted)
She passed the brochures out. (distributed)

The car broke down. (stopped running)
The polite broke the door down. (opened by force)

Separable Phrasal Verbs with Their Objects

	Object	
back	it/the car	up
blow	it/the candle	out
	it/the balloon	up
break	them/the statistics down	down
	them/the negotiations	off
bring	it/the change	about
	it/the subject	up
burn	it/the building	down
	them/the papers	up
clear	them/the dishes	away
	it/the misunderstanding	up
close	it/the business	down
draw	it/the agreement	up
fill	it/a form	in/out
	it/the cup	up
find	it/the answer	out
give	it/this old bag	way
	it/eating candy	up
	it/the news	out
hand	it/the work	in/out
keep	them/expenses	down
	it/the radio	on
leave	it/the question	out
let	them/our friends	in/out
lock	them/the prisoners	up

look	them/our relatives in Manila	up
make	it/the handwriting	out
	it/a story	up
mix	it/food being prepared	up
	them/people	up
pass	it/the responsibility	on
pay	it/the money	back
	them/my enemies	back
pick	it/a new shirt	out
point	it/the problem	out

ADJECTIVES

An adjective –

1. Is a word which describes or denotes the qualities of something
2. Commonly occurs between a determiner and a noun, or after *be* or other linking verbs or immediately following the intensifier *very*
the _____ baby seems (very) _____
the hungry baby seems (very) hungry
3. Is associated with certain derivational morphemes

{-y}	<i>healthy, leafy</i>
{-al}	<i>racial, normal</i>
{-able}	<i>understandable, visible</i>
{-ed}	<i>aged, learned</i>
{-ful/-less}	<i>hopeful, hopeless</i>
{-ish}	<i>childish, boyish</i>
{-ive}	<i>active, native</i>
{-ous}	<i>famous, marvellous</i>
4. Has inflectional morphemes for comparative and superlative forms
pretty prettier prettiest
5. Modifies or complements nouns
the honest man (modifier)
The man is honest. (complement)
6. Has various types in terms of characteristic positions: ATTRIBUTIVE which precede nouns, and PREDICATIVE which follow linking verbs
The diligent students pass the tough exam. (attributive)
They are happy with their high scores. (predicative)

Other Related Concepts

1. Restrictive/Nonrestrictive adjectives
RESTRICTIVE adjectives are necessary for defining which noun is being referred to while NON-RESTRICTIVE adjectives merely add information without being essential for identification.
A concrete house. (restrictive)
My uncle owns a house, built of concrete materials. (non-restrictive)
2. Polarity
POLARITY refers to positive and negative contrasts in a language.

<u>Positive polarity</u>	<u>Negative polarity</u>
big	small, little
old	young
long	short
good	bad
fast	slow

Adjectives with positive polarity are UNMARKED FORMS because they are used more frequently in a given language, learned earlier by children, and used in neutral contexts. Adjectives of negative polarity are MARKED. They are less frequently used.

5. Adverbs of time (here, in the city)
answer the question when?
(today, on April 15)
7. adverbs that emphasize only and even

Where we put *only* makes a big change in the meaning of a clause. To illustrate:

- | | |
|------------------------------------|--|
| (no one else) | 1. <u>Only</u> he invited Alex to join the team this year. |
| (not ordered) | 2. He <u>only</u> invited Alex to join the team this year this year. |
| (no one but Alex) | 3. He invited <u>only Alex</u> to join the team this year. |
| (to join, not to do anything else) | 4. He invited Alex <u>only</u> to join the team this year. |
| (recently as or at no other time) | 5. He invited Alex to join the team <u>only</u> this year. |

Positions of Adverbials

While some adverbials are fixed in their positions in the sentence, others are movable. They can occur sentence initially, medially, or finally.

- Sentence-initial: *Doubtlessly, we must conclude that the findings are correct.*
 Sentence-medial: *We, doubtlessly, must conclude that the findings are correct.*
 Sentence-final: *We must conclude that the findings are correct, doubtlessly.*

Order of Adverbials

When two or more adverbials co-occur in final position in the same sentence, ordering should be observed.

- {direction} + position ↔ manner + time ↔ frequency + {purpose}
 {goal } {reason}

He walks homeleisurely at 5:30 PM every day because he wants to feel relaxed.

He walks homeleisurely every day at 5:30 PM because he wants to feel relaxed.

CONJUNCTIONS

Coordination

COORDINATION is the process of combining ideas. Two constituents of the same type can be put together to produce another larger constituent of the same type. Traditional grammar calls this process COMPOUNDING.

- Compound sentence: *The boys sang and the girls danced last night.*
 Compound subject: *The teacher and her students will join the parade.*
 Compound verb: *The children play and eat during recess.*
 Compound object: *We boiled corn and cassava.*

Conjoining like constituents as shown above is referred to as SIMPLE COORDINATION. Here are other ways of coordinating ideas:

1. ELLIPSIS: Omission or elision of the first verb phrase in the second and adding the word *too* or *either* (for UNINVERTED FORMS), and *so* or *neither* (for INVERTED FORMS).

Affirmative forms

- My friends like to read storybooks and I, too.* (uninverted)
A horse runs fast, and so does an ostrich. (inverted)

Negative forms

- Donna can't climb a tree, and his little brother can't, either.* (uninverted)
Ducks can't fly high, and neither can chickens. (inverted)

2. Use of PRO-FORM, i.e., the substitution of pronoun for a repeated noun.
Luis plays the guitar and he plays the harp, too.

3. COMPLEX or CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTIONS like *both . . . and*.
My father is both kind and sincere.

Forms of Coordinating Conjunctions

Other than *and*, simple coordinating conjunctions include: *for*, *nor*, *but*, *or*, *yet*, and *so*. Note the following examples:

milk or chocolate
small but/yet terrible
He came late, so he missed the fun. (clausal)
They accepted the verdict, for they failed to counter the charges against them. (clausal)

Other forms of correlative conjunctions are *either . . . or*, *not only . . . but also*, and *neither . . . nor*. These pairs are used together

Either Tony or Nico will top the test.
Anna is neither friendly nor generous.
Our teacher is not only competent but also very understanding.

Use of Coordinating Conjunctions

Below is a straightforward account of the simple conjunctions:

Conjunction	Meaning	Conjunction	Meaning
<i>for</i>	because	<i>or</i>	one or the other of two alternatives is true
<i>and</i>	plus	<i>yet</i>	but at the same time
<i>nor</i>	conjoins two negative sentences, both of which are true	<i>so</i>	therefore
<i>but</i>	shows contrast		

A deeper and thorough study of each conjunction, however, reveals certain properties beyond the given straightforward account. To illustrate, here are the other meaning and uses of *and*.

1. AS LOGICAL OPERATOR (the truth-conditional meaning)
 The entire conjoined statement is true so long as each conjunct that makes it up is true. If one conjunct is false, then the statement is false.
2. AS MARKER of many meanings
 Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (2001) citing Posner (1980) provides these illustrations:
 - (and there . . .)
Annie is in the kitchen, and she is making doughnuts.
 - (and during this time . . .)
Annie fell into a deep sleep, and her facial color returned.
 - (and coming from it . . .)
The window was open, and there was a draft.
 - (and after that . . .)
Peter married Annie, and she had a baby.
 - (and thereby . . .)
Paul pounded on the stone, and he shattered it.
 - (If you give me your picture, I'll give you mine.)
Give me your picture, and I'll give you mine.

3. AS INFERENTIAL CONNECTIVE

A reader/listener can draw an inferential connection from sentences like *Susan jumped and hurt her ankle*. The use of *and* invites the listener/reader to seek some other implicit relevant connection between stated conjuncts.

4. AS MARKER OF SPEAKER CONTINUATION

In conversational discourse, sometimes a speaker uses *and* to signal that the utterance to follow is in some way connected with what has come before. This particular use of *and* goes beyond the usual content conjunctive use; rather it

Pumunta kami sapalengke. (We went *to* the market.)
Lumangoy kami sailog. (We swam *in* the river.)
Sakalyeanggulo. (The commotion occurred *on* the street.)
Antayinmoakosakanto. (Meet me *at* the street corner.)

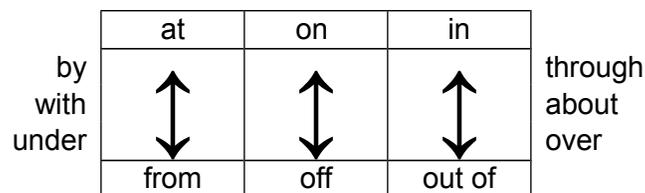
- The English preposition is not necessarily realized by a single word. There are complex forms like *because of* and *in spite of* or coalesced forms like *into* and *onto*.
- Certain prepositions co-occur with verbs, adjectives, and nouns to form clusters.
to substitute for *to be afraid of*
infavorof *awareness of*
- English prepositions are polysemous. They bear varied meanings.
(space) *Throw the at the wall.*
(time) *It rains at night.*
(degree) *Water freezes at 0° C.*
(idiomatic) *She's good at dancing.*

Meanings of Prepositions

- Many prepositions prototypically deal with locating objects in space involving two or more entities. One entity is for foregrounding, while the other serves as background. The former is the figure and the latter is the landmark. In

Throw the ball at the wall.
figure landmark

- Note the following figure



Adapted - Dirven 1993

- At*, *on*, and *in* are the basic and most general place prepositions. *At* denotes place as a point of reference, *on* denotes physical contact between the figure and landmark, and *in* denotes the enclosure of the trajector in the landmark.

They met at the main gate.
Put the box on the table.
The ball is in the box.

- From*, *off*, and *out of* are source prepositions involving the notion of separation from place. *From* denotes separation from a point of orientation, *off* denotes separation from contact with line or surface, and *out of*, separation from inside a landmark.

We walked from the gate to the waiting shed.
The box fell off the table.
Take the ball out of the box.

- By* and *with* are proximity prepositions, which locate the figure in relation to a point of orientation marked by the preposition *at*. *By* denotes the idea of "connection" while *with* denotes both a point of orientation and the idea of connection. In its spatial sense, *with* can occur only with animate nouns as landmark.

He stood by me in all throughout the campaign.
He rides with me to our place of work.

- Through* and *about* require the landmark to be seen as a surface or a volume and are positioned in the diagram above next to *in*. *Through* structures space as a tunnel or channel. *About* denotes spatial movement in any direction.

Move the other side of the mountain through the tunnel.
 He walked briskly about the yard for his morning exercise.

- *Under* and *over* are vertical space preposition. *Under* denotes a figure at a lower point than the landmark. *Over* denotes a figure that is at a higher point than the landmark.

Don't keep your shoes under the table.
 We watched the game over the fence.

Selected Meanings and Uses of Common Prepositions

1. at	(exact)	<i>We left <u>at</u> 2:00 pm.</i>
2. about	(approximate)	<i>We left <u>about</u> 2:00 pm.</i>
3. against	(contact)	<i>to lean <u>against</u> the wall</i>
4. around	(approximate)	<i><u>around</u> 2:00</i>
5. by	(nearness)	<i>bed <u>by</u> the window</i>
	(no later than)	<i><u>by</u> 2:00</i>
6. from	(source)	<i>paper is made <u>from</u> wood</i>
7. of	(before)	<i>a quarter <u>of</u> ten</i>
8. on	(contact)	<i><u>on</u> the wall</i>
	(day, date)	<i><u>on</u> Sunday, <u>on</u> November 8th</i>
	(communication)	<i><u>on</u> radio, TV</i>
	(concerning)	<i>a round-table discussion <u>on</u> language policy</i>
9. over	(spanning time)	<i><u>over</u> the weekend</i>
	(communication)	<i><u>over</u> the radio, TV</i>
10. through	(penetrate)	<i><u>through</u> the forest</i>
	(endurance)	<i><u>through</u> thick and thin</i>
11. to	(until)	<i>work from 8 <u>to</u> 5</i>
	(before)	<i>a quarter <u>to</u> 11:00</i>
	(degree)	<i>He is honest <u>to</u> such extent.</i>
12. under	(less than)	<i>in <u>under</u> an hour</i>
	(condition)	<i><u>under</u> stress</i>
13. with	(together)	<i>He grew smarter <u>with</u> the years.</i>
	(equal standing or ability)	<i>rank <u>with</u> the best</i>
	(manner)	<i>delivered his speech <u>with</u> ease</i>

Variations in Use of Prepositions

1. spatial proximity	<i>a house <u>near/by</u> the lake</i>
2. time/degree approximation	<i>cost <u>about/around</u> Php1,500.00</i>
3. telling time	<i>a quarter <u>of/to</u> ten</i>
	<i>a quarter <u>after/past</u> ten</i>
4. location along something linear	<i>the houses <u>on/along</u> the river</i>
5. in a time period	<i>It occurred <u>in/during</u> 1901.</i>
6. temporal termination	<i>studied from 8 <u>until/till/to</u> 5</i>
7. location lower than something	<i><u>below/beneath/under/underneath</u> the bed</i>
8. location higher than something	<i><u>above/over</u> the piano</i>
9. location in/at the rear of something	<i><u>behind/in back of</u> the cabinet</i>
10. location adjacent	<i><u>next to/beside</u> the cave</i>

NEGATION

In English, negation affects words, phrases, and sentences.

Forms to Express Negation

The following forms mark negation in English (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 2001.):

Affix-Negation	No-Negation	Not-Negation
a- (<i>atypical</i>)	no (<i>no plans</i>)	not, n't
dis- (<i>dishonest</i>)	nothing	(<i>I cannot/can't</i>) play the piano.)
in/im/ir/il-	nobody	

<i>(inadequate/impossible/ irrelevant/illegal)</i> non- (<i>non-formal</i>) un- (<i>uncomfortable</i>) -less (<i>useless</i>) -free (<i>fat-free</i>)	no one nowhere	never (not + ever) <i>(My aunt has <u>never</u> left our town.)</i> neither (not + either) nor (and + not) <i><u>Neither</u> his brother <u>nor</u> his sister helps support him in his studies.</i>
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Negation at the lexical or word level can simply use the negative affix. For example:

<i>untidy</i>	<i>untidily</i>
<i>impossible</i>	<i>impossibly</i>
<i>inadequate</i>	<i>inadequately</i>
<i>illegally</i>	<i>illegally</i>
<i>dishonest</i>	<i>dishonestly</i>
<i>atypical</i>	<i>atypically</i>

Determining which affix to use is not always predictable. However, the choice of *im-*, *in-*, *il-* or *ir-* is PHONOLOGICALLY CONDITIONED by the consonant which follows it, i.e., *im-* is used if the following consonant is bilabial (b, p, m), *il-* goes with a stem beginning with *l*, and *ir-* with a stem beginning with *r*. The prefix *in-* is the most common.

Nothing, *nobody*, and *no one* are indefinite pronouns while *nowhere* is an adverb.

Other negative items include *never* (negative adverb of frequency), *nor* (negative coordinating conjunction), and *neither . . . nor* (negative correlative conjunction).

The basketball players never admitted their mistake.
The pre-schoolers can neither read nor write, nor can they comprehend ~~de~~ mathematical computations yet.

At the phrase level, no can function as a negative determiner in a noun phrase.

No agreement has been reached yet.

No may also be followed by a gerund as in *no reading*, *no parking*, or *no littering*.

Not is used before infinitive verbs to make the phrase negative.

She reminded her friends not to forget their bathing suits.

At the sentence level, *not* or its contraction *n't* is the main NEGATOR. This applies to different sentence types.

(statement)	<i>Mgrs. Palma <u>is not/isn't</u> our teacher.</i>
(question)	<i><u>Are you not/Aren't</u> we meeting today?</i>
(command)	<i><u>Do not/Don't</u> laugh.</i>
(exclamation)	<i><u>Was it not/Wasn't</u> it exciting!</i>

No and *not* are negative substitutes. *No* can be a negative substitute for a whole sentence while *not* for a subordinate clause.

A: *Is she coming with us?*
 B: *No. She'll do library work for an hour.*

A: *Is Pepito interested in the post?*
 B: *I'm afraid not. He'd rather be a plain member.*

Are you joining us on Friday? If not, please let me know by tomorrow.

Placement of *not*

1. *Not* usually follows the be-verb, whether functions as a main verb (copula) or an auxiliary/helping verb.

(main)	<i>Surprisingly today, the birds <u>are not</u> noisy.</i>
(auxiliary verb)	<i>I'm wondering why they <u>are not</u> <u>chirping</u>.</i>

2. Other than be, *not* follows the auxiliary verb if one is present or the first auxiliary (modal, phrasal modal, or have) if there are two or more.

I cannot swim well.

The principal mustnot have been joking when he said that.

We havenotbeen analyzing the data since we received them.

3. With other main verbs, a do-verb is introduced before negation can take place.

The child swims in the pool. → The child doesswim in the pool.

The child doesnot swim in the pool.

YES/NO QUESTIONS

Inverted and Uninverted Yes/No Questions

YES/NO QUESTIONS are often defined as questions for which either “yes” or “no” is the expected answer. They are produced with a rising intonation.

Yes/no questions are formed by inverting the subject and the operator.

Lucy is your cousin. → Is Lucy your cousin?

She can speak fluently. → Can she speak fluently?

She has been a consistent debater. → Has she been a consistent debater?

She loves (= does love) to read opinion columns. → Does she love to read opinion columns?

Yes/no questions may have a statement word order, i.e., the word order is uninverted. This sentence, however, is likewise said with a rising intonation.

²Lucy is your ³cousin³↑

²She can speak ³fluently³↑

Answers to Yes/No Questions

Yes/no questions usually take short answers using the operator. The operator is underlined below.

1. Is your sister fond of sweets? Yes, she is.
No, she isn't.
*Yes, she's.

2. Can you speak Chinese? Yes, I can.
{No, I can't.

3. Are we supposed to attend? Yes, we are.
No, we aren't

4. Have they eaten? Yes, they have.
No, they haven't

5. Does the baby walk? Yes, it does.
No, it doesn't.

If the sentence contains more than one auxiliary verb, the short answer may also contain an auxiliary verb in addition to the operator.

*Will they have joined? Yes, they will have.
No, they won't have.*

If the second or third auxiliary is a be form, it is usually omitted.

*Will she be able to pass? Yes, she will.
No, she won't.*

Object NP:	(Liza) <u>What did Liza buy?</u> (a beautiful house)
Object of the preposition:	<u>For whom did Liza buy a beautiful house?</u> (her parents) <u>Who(m) did Liza buy a beautiful house for?</u> (her parents)
Verb phrase:	<u>What did Liza do when she came home?</u> (She <u>bought a beautiful house</u>).
Determiner:	<u>Whose parents did Liza buy a beautiful house for when she came home?</u> (her parents)
Adjective:	<u>What kind of house did Liza buy?</u> (a beautiful house)
Adverbial:	<u>When did Liza buy a beautiful house?</u> (before she went to Canada)
Adverbial:	<u>Where did Liza go?</u> (to Canada)

Wh-questions elicit specific kinds of information.

What?	The answer is <u>non-human</u> .
Who?	The answer will be <u>human</u> .
Which?	The answer is <u>one of a limited group</u> .
When?	The answer will be <u>a time</u> or <u>an occasion</u> .
Where?	The answer will be <u>a place</u> or <u>situation</u> .
Why?	The answer will be <u>reason</u> .
How?	The answer will show <u>manner</u> , <u>means</u> , or <u>degree</u> .
How much?	The answer will be connected with an <u>uncountable noun</u> .
How many?	The answer will be connected with a <u>countable noun</u> .
How often?	The answer will indicate <u>frequency</u> .

Forming *Wh*-Questions

If *who*, *what*, or *which* is the subject of the sentence, it is followed by the normal word order of a statement.

Statement: Grammar study is exciting.
Question: What is exciting?

Statement: Those big dogs chased the cat.
Question: Which dogs chased the cat.

Statement: Their teacher gave a test.
Question: Who gave a test?

Whom/who, *what* and *which* as objects form questions by putting the *wh*-words first, and *do*, *does*, or *did* next.

Statement: He planted fruit trees.
Question: What did he plant?

Statement: Mother bathes my baby sister.
Question: Who(Whom) does my mother bathe?

Statement: The children catch yellow butterflies.
Question: Which butterflies do the children catch?

A modal (e.g., *can*) cannot be replaced by *do*, *does*, or *did*. The *do*-verb replaces the main verb.

Statement: My three-year-old sister can read.
Question: What can my sister do?

Social Uses of *Wh*-Questions

Certain fixed formulaic *wh*-questions serve social functions (Celce-Murcia and Larsen Freeman 2001). Among them are:

Introductions:	<i>How do you do?</i>
Greetings:	<i>How are you?/ How have you been?/ What's up?/ What's new?</i>
Eliciting personal reactions:	<i>How was the test?</i>
Making suggestions:	<i>Why don't you <u>seek advice</u>? How about <u>a trip</u>?</i>
Responding positively to a suggestion:	<i>Why not?</i>
Expressing exasperation:	<i>What now?</i>
Seeking another's opinion:	<i>How about you?/ What do you think?</i>
Challenging another's opinion:	<i>What for?/ How come?/ Since when?</i>
Expressing perplexity:	<i>What to do?</i>
Asking for clarification/expansion:	<i>What about it?</i>