Sentences

Writing skills are usually the most difficult skills to acquire in a language. This is particularly true in a foreign language. The goal of this lecture is to reduce that dif-ficulty as it guides you through the various types of structures in the English language and illustrates how those structures combine to make sentences.

1- words

.
……………………………………….. (the parts of speech……….)

2- Phrases

phrases are groups of two or more words that work together to perform a single grammatical function in a sentence

Examples And How They Appear In A Sentence

Phrases from the parts of speech

Most of the **parts of speech** can be made into phrases by adding information that is directly associated with them. Below, we'll look at a breakdown of each type of phrase that is formed from a part of speech, including some examples of the various types of phrases and how

Noun Phrases

A **noun phrase** consists of a noun plus any determiners or modifiers directly related to it. Noun phrases always have the grammatical function of nouns in a sentence

• **a book** — determiner *a* + noun *book* i found a book iwould like to read

the red car — determiner *the* + adjective *red* + noun *car* **The red car** belongs to me

Verb Phrases

A **verb phrase** can either be made up of an auxiliary verb and its main verb, *or* a verb plus any modifiers, objects, or complements

I **am running** late • **am running** — auxiliary verb *am* + present participle *running*

They **have completed** work on the building

•**have completed** — auxiliary verb *have* + past participle *completed*

She **quickly ran to the bus**. • **quickly ran to the bus** — adverb *quickly* + verb *ran* + prepositional

Adjective Phrases

An **adjective phrase** is made up of an adjective along with any determiners, modifiers, or **adjective complements** that modify or complete the adjective's meaning. The entire phrase functions as an adjective in a sentence, modifying a noun.

I brought **my favorite** jacket to school. • **my favorite** — determiner *my* + adjective *favorite*

She felt **alone in the world**.

•**alone in the world** — adjective *alone* + adjective complement *in the world*

Adverbial Phrases

An **adverbial phrase** may consist of an adverb plus any determiners and supplemental information, or an adverb plus an **adverb of degree**, or an adverbial prepositional phrase.

He swims **once a week**. • **once a week** — adverb *once* + noun phrase *a week*

Don't run **too quickly**!

• **too quickly** — intensifier *too* + adverb *quickly*

Prepositional Phrases

Prepositional phrases consist of a preposition and its **object**. They most commonly function as adverbs, but they can also be adjectival.

We hung the painting **on the wall**. (Adverbial prepositional phrase)

• **on the wall** — preposition *on* + object *the wall*

The car **in the driveway** is my dad's. (adjectival prepositional phrase)

• **in the driveway** — preposition *in* + object *the driveway*

Gerund Phrases

A **gerund phrase** is formed when a gerund (the "-ing" form of a verb used as a noun) is accompanied by any modifiers and/or objects. The entire phrase functions as a noun, meaning it can be the subject of a clause or an object of a verb or preposition.

Swimming every day is good for your health.

• **swimming every day**- gerund swimming+adverbial phrase *every day*

I wouldn't recommend **reading books in the dark**.

• **reading books in the dark**-gerund *reading* + object *books* + adverbial prepositional phrase *in the dark*

Infinitive Phrases

Infinitive phrases are composed of the infinitive of a verb (the base form + the particle *to*) along with any objects or modifiers associated with it. Infinitives and infinitive phrases can function as nouns, adjectives, or adverbs in a sentence.

We must all try **to help one another**. (Functions as a noun, the direct object of *try*)

• **to help one another** — infinitive *to help* + object *one another*

This is a good place **to stop for today**. (Functions as an adjective, modifying the noun *place*)

• **to stop for today** — infinitive *to stop* + adverbial prepositional phrase *for today*

I'm going to the post office **to send my brother a letter**.

(Functions as an adverb, modifying the verb *going*)

• **to send my brother a letter** — infinitive *to send* + indirect object *my brother* + direct object *a letter*

Participle Phrases

Like gerunds and infinitives, **participles** are formed from verbs, so **participle phrases** are created when participles are accompanied by any modifiers or objects. Past and present participles (without modifiers or objects) can be used to create different verb tenses, but they can also function as adjectives.

Participle phrases, however, can only function as adjectives in a sentence.

My car, **destroyed in the accident**, was taken away by the tow truck.

• **destroyed in the accident** — past participle *destroyed* + adverbial prepositional phrase *in the accident*

Participants **breaking the rules** will be removed from the competition.

• **breaking the rules** — present participle *breaking* + object *the rules*

3- Clauses

Clauses are groups of words that contain both a **subject** and a **predicate**.There are two main types of clauses: **independent clauses**, which can function independently as sentences, and **dependent clauses**, which depend on an independent clause to form a sentence.We'll briefly cover the various types of clauses below.

Independent Clauses

An **independent clause** (also known as a **main clause**) is a clause that forms a complete, independent thought. It does not require anything else to be considered complete, and so it can stand alone as a sentence.A single independent clause is known as a **simple sentence**.

It contains a subject and a predicate, each of which can have **modifiers**.

For example:

• "I refuse." • "They like to stay in fancy hotels."

• "The girl in the red jacket ran quickly towards the bus." ."

In each of the above cases, the independent clause remains able to stand alone as a simple sentence. Sometimes we form a sentence with two (and occasionally more) independent clauses, which is known as a **compound sentence**. We join the independent clauses together with a comma and a **conjunction** or a semicolon without a conjunction

For example:

• "She wanted to play tennis**, but** he wanted to play basketball."

• "My brother lives in spain**;** I wish I lived there."

Dependent Clauses

A **dependent clause** (also called a **subordinate clause**) is a clause that relies on the information from an independent clause to form a complete, logical thought. As such, it cannot stand on its own to form a sentence.Dependent clauses are usually marked by *dependent words*, such as **subordinating conjunctions**, **relative pronouns**, or **relative adverbs**, which link them to independent clauses in a sentence.

For example:

• "***Whenever* I travel**, *I like to stay in fancy hotels*."

• "*We struck up a great conversation with a person **whom** we met on the plane*."

• "*She found it strange **that** they like to eat sushi*."

In each of the examples above, the groups of words in **bold** are clauses, because they each have a subject (*I, we*, and *they*) and a predicate (*travel, met on the plane*, and *like to eat sushi*). However, we can also see that they are **dependent clauses** because of their dependent words—*whenever, whom* and *that*. Because of this, they cannot stand alone as a sentence; they depend on the information from the independent clauses (in *italics*) to be logically complete.

Categories of Dependent Clauses

Because dependent clauses must be a part of or attached to an independent clause, they serve a variety of grammatical functions depending on what type of dependent clause we are using. There are three primary categories of dependent clauses: **noun clauses, relative clauses**, and **adverbial clauses**. We'll look at a few examples of each.

Noun Clauses

Noun clauses are dependent clauses that function as nouns. Because of this, noun clauses can perform all the roles that a normal noun could play in a sentence, such as **the subject** or the **object** of a verb. For example:

• "***Wherever** we decide to go* is fine with me." (subject of the sentence)
• "I want to see *what* **is available** before I make a purchase." (direct object of the verb *see*)

Relative Clauses

Relative clauses, also called **adjective clauses**, provide descriptive information about a noun. These clauses can either be essential to the sentence (restrictive clauses) or non-essential (non-restrictive clauses). They are introduced by either a **relative pronoun** or a **relative adverb**. Examples:

• "The man, *whom* **I'd heard so much about**, gave an electrifying speech to the crowd."
• "The book *that* **I wrote** is being published in January."
• "Any student *whose* **desk is not clean** will have detention after class."
• "I love casual Fridays, *when* **we get to wear jeans to work**."

Adverbial Clauses

An **adverbial** or **adverb clause** is used, like a regular adverb, to modify adjectives, verbs, adverbs, and sometimes entire clauses. Adverbial clauses use **subordinating conjunctions** to connect to an **independent clause**.

For example: • "I went to the park *before* **my parents woke up**." (modifies the verb *went*)
• "Animals are cute *while* **they're young**." (modifies the adjective *cute*)
• "I work better *when* **I have total privacy**." (modifies the adverb *better*)
• "I have loved you *since* **the day I met you**." (modifies the entire clause *I have loved you*)

4- The Sentences

In this chapter, we will look at what comprises a sentence. We will explore the elements used to construct sentences, and what **parts of speech** are used to expand and elaborate on them.

We will focus for now on forming **simple sentences** (sentences that contain only a single independent clause). In the subsections of this chapter, we will explore the different kinds of sentences according to **structure**, **purpose**, and **length**.

What is a sentence?

☐ **A sentence is the basic unit of written English communication.**

☐ A centence is a collection of words assembled in such an order that they present a complete thought or idea.

☐ A sentence is composed of one or more clauses. A clause contains a subject and verb

In English, a **sentence** consists of two parts—a **subject** and a **predicate**. (This rule is only broken when making **imperative sentences** and **non-finite clauses**.) In traditional English grammar, a predicate is made up of a verb or **verb phrase** (a verb and any objects or modifiers relating to it), while the subject consists of a **noun**, **pronoun**, or a **phrase** containing either

A sentence, whether short or long, must express a complete idea; and a complete sentence must consist of at least one **independent clause**—that is, a subject and predicate that make a complete thought. Independent clauses are so called because they make sense when they stand on their own. They are also sometimes referred to as "**main clauses**."

For example:

• "I refuse."• "The wind blows."• "Bees sting."• "Cats meow."In this examples, the **subject** begins the sentences and the **predicate** ends them. The predicate (in each these cases made up of just a verb) contains all the necessary information about the subject to be considered logical, so each is considered an independent clause.

A **dependent clause**, on the other hand, relies on the information from an independent clause to form a complete, logical thought. Dependent clauses (also known as **subordinate clauses**) are usually marked by *dependent words*, such as a **subordinating conjunctions** or **relative pronouns**.

Here are some examples of dependent clauses:

• "*whenever* (subordinating conjunction) I travel"

• "*Whom* (relative pronoun) we met on the plane"

We can see that the clauses above do not express a complete idea—they require independent clauses to be logically complete:

• "*Whenever I travel*, I like to stay in fancy hotels."

• "We struck up a great conversation with a person *whom we met on the plane*.

Additional Information

Verb phrases add additional information to a sentence.This additional information is used to answer the questions *Why?, What?, What kind?, When?, Where?, How?, How much?,* and *Who/Whom*?

For instance, let's look again at the very first example from above:

• "I refuse."Now let's add more information to create a verb phrase:

• "I refuse to eat."

Adding the **infinitive phrase** ("to" + the simple form of a verb) explains *What?*   It is considered the **object** of the verb; together they form a verb phrase, which constitutes the predicate.We can continue to expand the predicate to include more information:

• "I refuse to eat that awful food."

The modifiers "that" and "awful," together with the noun "food," are the **direct object** of the verb "eat," again answering the question *What?* All together, they form the object of "refuse," providing us with more detailed information about exactly *what* "I" is refusing.

Examples where additional information answers various questions about otherwise basic sentences:

• "The wind blows *in the north*." (Identifying *where* the wind blows.)

• "The train leaves *at night*." (Identifying *when* the train leaves.)

• "Electricity costs *a lot*." (Here we state *how much* it costs.)

• "Bees sting people." (Here we state "who" they sting.)

• "Cats meow because they want attention." (Here we state *why* they meow.)

We can make sentences even longer by adding more information:

• "Electricity costs a lot during the day in most countries."

Here we have added the answer to three questions:

• *How much?* – "a lot"• *When?* – "during the day"• *Where?* – "in most countries"

like the predicate, the subject can be modified and expanded to provide more information in a sentence.

For example:

• "*Good friends* are *loyal people*."In this sentence we have used adjectives to describe the nouns.

They answer the questions:

What kind of friends? "Good friends."

What kind of people? "Loyal people."

• "*Solar-powered* electricity *rarely* costs much *during the day*."

Here we use the adjective "solar-powered" to describe the subject noun "electricity." It answers the question, "What kind of electricity?"

We used "rarely," which is an adverb of frequency, to describe the verb "cost;" likewise, the prepositional phrase "during the day" is used **adverbially** to describe the verb "costs" and answer the question *When?* Let's look at another example:

• "*Cold* wind *from the Atlantic Ocean* blows *in at night*."

The adjective "cold" and the prepositional phrase "from the Atlantic Ocean" both modify the subject "wind."

Compound subjects

A sentence can also have multiple subjects that relate to the same verb; these are known as compound subjects.**For example**:

• "*Ahmed* and *amine* collaborated on the project together." " *Ahmed* " and " *amine*," joined by the conjunction "and," are *both* related to the verb "collaborate." Each subject in a **compound subject** can be modified and expanded in the same ways that we've seen already:

• "*My brother amine* and *his* colleagues *from algeria* collaborated on the project together."

" *Amine* " is now modified by "my brother," while the second subject "colleagues" is modified by "his" and "from algeria."

Compound predicates

Likewise, a single subject can take multiple predicates that are joined by a conjunction, such as "and" or "or." These are called **compound predicates**. For example:

• " *Amine runs, swims,* and *cycles*."

As with compound subjects, we can expand each of the compound predicate verbs individually:

• " *Amine* runs *in the morning*, swims *in the evening*, and cycles *to and from work*."

Types of sentences

as we have added a lot of information into the sentences above, each one has remained an independent clause because each one has a subject (or compound subject) and a predicate.

However, there are many different types of sentences, depending on how we order the text, if we use multiple clauses, if we're asking a question, etc. In this sections below, we'll begin looking at the various kinds of sentences we can make and how they are formed.

Classifications of Sentences

By Structure

Sentences classified by structure include:

• **simple sentences** • **Compound sentences** • **Complex sentences** • **Compound-complex sentences**

By Purpose

The purpose of a sentence also determines its classification. The sentences classified by purpose are:

• **Declarative sentences** • **Interrogative sentences** • **Exclamatory sentences** • **Imperative sentences**

Structure of sentences

Sentences may be classified according to their structures into four types, they are :

• simple sentences

A simple sentence contains a subject and a verb. It expresses a single complete thought that can stand on its own.

A **Simple Sentence** - has **one independent** clause consisting of **one** subject and **one** predicate, or multiple subjects and predicates,or coumpounds.

☐ A sentence is a complete set of words that conveys meaning.

A sentence can communicate

o a statement (I am studying.)   o a command (Go away.)

o an exclamation (I'm so excited!)   o a question (What time is it?)

Subject	predicate
Maria	speaks English.
Ahmed	repairs the car.
The boys	ran into the forest

• Compound Sentences

Compound sentences are one of the four main sentence structures. They are made up of **at least two independent clauses** expressing closely related ideas of <u>equal or similar importance</u> that are joined using a comma and a conjunction or just a semicolon.

By using compound sentences, we can add variety to our writing and speech and avoid the repetitive sound of multiple simple sentences.

Determining when to form a compound sentence

As mentioned, compound sentences are formed by joining two **independent clauses** that are closely related and of equal or similar value.

To determine a compound sentence, we can ask ourselves three simple questions:

Q1. Does each clause contain a subject and a verb?

Q2. Can each clause stand alone to express a complete thought?

Q3. Are the two clauses closely related and of equal or similar importance?

If the answer to each of the three questions above is "yes," then we can form a compound sentence.

Let's apply the three questions to an example:

• "**I like** running. **My sister is going to study** in Sweden."

Q1. Does each clause contain a subject and a verb? **Yes, marked in bold.**

Q2. Can each clause stand alone to express a complete thought? **Yes.**

Q3. Are the two clauses closely related and of equal or similar importance? **No, they have nothing to do with one another.** Because the answer to question three is "no," the two clauses above **cannot** be joined as a compound sentence.

Let's try another example:

• "**She wanted** to play tennis. **He wanted** to play basketball."

Q1. Does each clause contain a subject and a verb? **Yes, marked in bold.**

Q2. Can each clause stand alone to express a complete thought? **Yes.**

Q3. Are the two clauses closely related and of equal or similar importance? **Yes.** Since the answer to each of the three questions is "yes," we can form a compound sentence. This can be done in several ways. For example:

• "She wanted to play tennis**, but** he wanted to play basketball." OR

• "She wanted to play tennis**;** he wanted to play basketball." OR

• "She wanted to play tennis**; however,** he wanted to play basketball."

<mark>How to form a compound sentence</mark>

We have several options—we can use a **coordinating conjunction**, a **correlative conjunction**, a **conjunctive adverb**, or a **semicolon**.

Forming a compound sentence using a coordinating conjunction

There are seven coordinating conjunctions in English, which can be remembered using the acronym FANBOYS: **F**or **A**nd **N**or **B**ut **O**r **Y**et **S**o

When we join two clauses in a compound sentence with a coordinating conjunction, we must choose the one that best fits the relationship that exists between the two clauses.

For example:

• "The family moved into the new house**, and** the neighbors welcomed them warmly." (additional information)

• "She wanted to play tennis**, but** he wanted to play basketball." (contrasting information)

• "We can go to the university today**, or** we can just hang out at home." (alternative choice or option)

Punctuation note: it is preceded by a comma, as in the examples above.

Forming a compound sentence using a correlative conjunction

Correlative conjunctions, or **paired conjunctions**, are sets of conjunctions that are always used together. Since they come in pairs, with each conjunction preceding an independent clause, they can join a maximum of two independent clauses together. Some of the most common correlative conjunctions are:

• **either … or**   • **just as … so**   • **neither … nor**   • **not … but**

• **not only … but also**   • **whether … or**

Again, the conjunction that we choose has to do with the relationship between the two clauses. For example:

• "**Neither** does he need to go**, nor** does he want to go." (negates both clauses)

• "**Just as** baseball is loved in America**, so** cricket is loved in England." (indicates that the clauses are similar)

• "**Either** I will pick you up**, or** you'll get a ride home with your father." (indicates two possible choices or outcomes)

Punctuation note: When we use correlative conjunctions, a comma precedes the conjunction that introduces the **second** independent clause, as in the examples.

Forming a compound sentence with a conjunctive adverb

Another common way to form a compound sentence is to use a conjunctive adverb. Some common conjunctive adverbs are:

• **accordingly** • **as a result** • **comparatively** • **in fact** • **moreover** • **nevertheless** • **nonetheless** • **on the other hand** • **otherwise**

While coordinating conjunctions can be used to join words, phrases, or independent clauses, *conjunctive adverbs* can <u>only</u> be used to join independent clauses. Conjunctive adverbs are used to indicate a <u>specific relationship</u> between the two independent clauses.

For example:

• "she hadn't enjoyed the play**; as a result,** she didn't recommend it." (consequence)

• "I absolutely love swiming**; on the other hand,** my sister hates it." (contrast)

• "Being a doctor is an exhausting job**; moreover,** you don't earn good money until you've been practicing for many years." (adding stronger information) (**Punctuation note:** When we use a conjunctive adverb to form a compound sentence, it is <u>preceded by a semicolon</u> and <u>followed by a comma</u>, as in the examples above.)

Forming a compound sentence with a semicolon

If the two independent clauses are <u>very closely related</u> and the reader has enough information to understand the relationship between them from the context alone, we can join the clauses using a semicolon without a conjunction. For example:

• "She wanted to play tennis**;** he wanted to play basketball."

• "I made the cake**;** my sister decorated it."

• "We don't eat meat**;** we're vegetarians."

• Complex Sentences

Complex sentences are one of the four main sentence structures. They are made up of one **independent clause** (or **main clause**) and one or more **dependent clauses** (or **subordinate clauses**).

The dependent clause is introduced and linked to the independent clause by a **subordinating conjunction**.

We use complex sentences to indicate a <u>specific relationship between two ideas</u>, and to clarify which of the two is more important.   Consider the following example:

• "I went to the supermarket. We were wanted a milk."

Although the reader can probably guess that the relationship between the two ideas above is one of cause and effect, that relationship could be specified by combining the two ideas into a complex sentence instead, as in: • "<u>I went to the supermarket</u> ***because*** We were wanted a milk."

By adding the subordinating conjunction "*because,*" we have transformed the previously independent clause " We were wanted a milk." into a dependent clause. It can no longer stand alone, but is *dependent* on the clause that it is now linked to. The relationship between the two ideas is now perfectly clear, and the importance of the independent clause "*I went to the supermarket*" is highlighted.

Using complex sentences Subordinating Conjunctions

As mentioned, complex sentences are useful because they can indicate a very <u>specific relationship</u> between two ideas. Depending on what relationship we would like to indicate, we choose a specific subordinating conjunction. For example:

• "He's going to pass his test **even if** he doesn't study." (a specific outcome despite a hypothetical action)

• "I watched a movie **while** my friend was shopping." (concurrent events)

• "I will go **as long as** you go with me." (an outcome will occur under a certain condition)

Some of the most common subordinating conjunctions are:

After- although- as- as soon as- because- even if-   in case- in order- that- providing- since though- when- where

Structure and punctuation :The order of the independent and dependent clause in a complex sentence is flexible. We can structure complex sentences with the independent clause first, as in:

• "He's going to pass his test *even if* he doesn't study."
• "I watched a movie *while* my friend was shopping."
• "I will go *as long as* you go with me."

The same sentences can be structured with the dependent clause first as well. This results in no change of meaning. For example:

• "***Even if*** *he doesn't study*, he's going to pass his test."
• "***While*** *my friend was shopping*, I watched a movie."
• "***As long as*** *you go with me*, I will go."

• **Compound-Complex Sentences**

Compound-complex sentences are one of the four main sentence structures. They are made up of two **independent clauses** (also known as **main clauses**) and one or more **dependent clauses** (or **subordinate clauses**).

Forming a compound-complex sentence : In a compound-complex sentence, we join the complex independent clause to the other independent clause in the same way as for normal compound sentences: with **coordinating conjunctions**, **correlative conjunctions**, **conjunctive adverbs**, or **semicolons**. Take, for example, these two separate sentences:

• "*Because I love to read*, I like to visit the library. I enjoy going to book stores, too."

The first sentence is a complex sentence; the second one is a standard independent clause.

Now let's make them into a complex-compound sentence:

• "*Because I love to read*, I like to visit the library**, and** I enjoy going to book stores, too." (coordinating conjunction)

• "*Because I love to read*, **not only** do I like to visit the library**, but** I **also** enjoy going to book stores, too." (Correlative conjunction)

• "*Because I love to read*, I like to visit the library**; additionally,** I enjoy going to book stores." (conjunctive adverb)

• "*Because I love to read*, I like to visit the library**;** I enjoy going to book stores, too." (semicolon)

Multiple dependent clauses : Complex-compound sentences can also have more than one dependent clause. For example:

• "*Although I promised I'd study with ahmed*, I'd rather go to to play football with amine**; nevertheless,** I made a promise, *even if it isn't as much fun*."

• "I got into gymnastics *because of my brother***, but** I got into archery *because of my sister*."

More examples : Let's look at a few more examples of complex-compound sentences.

• "I wanted to go to a baseball game**, but** my father, *who is a huge ballet fan*, wanted to see *The Nutcracker* instead."

• "We went to get some dinner *after class was over***; however,** the food court was already closed."

• "I will go to the party *as long as ahmed is there***;** I won't stay long, though."

• "*Even though he never studied*, he always passed his tests in high school**, but** I don't think he'll be able to pull that off in college *when he has a much harder workload*."

• "The bank will lend us the money *providing we have something for collateral***, so** I asked my parents to help, *although I'm not sure they will agree to*."

• "I never graduated from college**; nevertheless**, I found a great job *because my uncle has a connection in the auto industry*."

Purpose of sentences

Sentences may be classified according to the purpose of the speaker or writer.

The four principal purposes of a sentence are described below.

•Declarative Sentences

A **declarative sentence** makes a statement or argument about what is, was, or will be the case.Declarative sentences usually end in a **period** (also known as a **full stop**) and are the most type of sentence in English. All four of types of sentence structures—simple, **compound**, **complex**, and **compound-complex sentences**—can be made into declarative sentences. For example:

Simple Sentences

"I'm walking to the library."

"She went to the park yesterday."

Compound Sentences

"She wanted to play basketball, but he wanted to play tennis."

"Either I will pick you up tonight, or you can get a ride home with your father."

Complex Sentences

"I'd be willing to lend you the money providing you can offer collateral."

"I waited in line for three hours because I'm such a big fan of his."

Compound-Complex Sentences

"We went to Venice, even though they knew I wanted to go to Madrid; nevertheless, we had a great time."

"I've been saving up for a few years, so we should be able to get a mortgage soon, providing my job remains secure."

•Interrogative Sentences

An **interrogative sentence** is simply a sentence that asks a question—that is, we use it when we *interrogate* someone for information. Interrogative sentences always end with question marks.

Forming interrogative sentences

When we make sentences into questions, we almost always use **auxiliary verbs** that are inverted with the subject. This is known as **subject-verb inversion**. For example:

• "**Are** *you* sleepy**?"** • **"Will** *she* **be coming** to the party later?"

• "**Have** *they* finished their project yet?" • "**Do** *you* like country or classical music better?"

We can also use **question words** (*who, what, where, when, why*, and *how*) to ask more nuanced questions, but we still use auxiliary verbs and subject-verb inversion. For instance:

• "What **does** *the boss* think about the proposal?" • "When **will** *we* arrive?"

• "Who **is** coming to the play?"

Yes/No questions are simply questions that can be answered with either "yes" or "no." For example:

• "Are you registered to vote?" • "Maria I borrow your pen?" • "Do you speak French?"

• "If you miss the deadline for entry, will you still be able to compete?"

• "Is there enough food for everyone?"

Alternative questions, also known as **choice questions**, are questions that provide a choice among two or more answers. For example:

• "Do you prefer apple juice or orange juice?"

• "Do you live in the city, or the suburbs?"

• "Do you want cake, pie, or ice cream?"

"Wh-" questions (or **question word questions**) are questions that seek information by posing a question with a "wh-" question word (*who, what, where, when, why*, and *how*). These questions seek an open-ended answer that can be short or long, simple or complex. Examples:

• "**Who** is your favorite author?"• "**What** is the capital of England?"

• "**When** will you be finished with this project?"

• "**Where** are you going for your summer vacation?"

• "**Why** haven't you responded to Karen's invitation yet?"• "**How** did you get here?"

Tag questions are formed by adding a question as a "tag" onto the end of a **declarative sentence**. For example:

• "You're not going to the party**, are you?**" • "This isn't your hat**, is it?**"

• "That was the most delicious meal**, wasn't it?**"• "You can't talk during the movie**, OK?"**

• "We're going to the game**, right?**"

•Imperative Sentences

We use **imperative sentences** to give orders, commands, and general instructions. Such sentences are said to be in the **Imperative Mood**.

Verbs without subjects

When we make an imperative sentence, we use the infinitive form of the verb (without "to"), and we omit the subject of the verb. We can also intensify the sentence by adding an exclamation mark at the end. For example: • "Stand up."• "Sit down!"• "Turn off the light before you leave." • "Go to bed!"

It would be incorrect to say, "Open *you* the window"—it should simply be, "Open the window." It would also generally be incorrect to say "You open the window," unless it is done for emphasis For example: • A: "amine, could you please open the window?"• B: "*You* open the window!"

Nouns of Address

a **noun of address** (also known as a **vocative**), which is a noun or noun phrase used to address someone directly in a sentence. Nouns of address act as parenthetical elements within a sentence, grammatically unrelated to the rest of the content. They are set apart with one or two commas, depending on their position in a sentence. For example:

• " Amine**,** please turn out that light." • "Stand up**,** amine."

• "Be quiet**, sir**!"   • "**You there,** pay attention!"

Amine*, sir*, and *you there* are not the subjects of their sentences' verbs; they are nouns of address.

Negative Imperatives

We can also make imperative statements negative by putting "do not" or "don't" before the infinitive verb:

• "Don't run in the hallways!" • "Do not leave your dirty dishes in the class."

• "Do not smoke in the airport." • "Do not leave your luggage unattended." • "Oh, *do* shut up!"

• "*Do* take care of yourself, Mary!" • "Please *do* enjoy your stay." • "Don't talk to me like that."

  • An **exclamatory sentence**

An **exclamatory sentence** is used to express strong feeling. It is followed by an exclamation point. For example:

Don't burn yourself out!   Keep out!   He screamed, "Help!"