

COORDINATION

Coordination is a relationship between two constructions (conjoins) that are identical in reference where the two conjoins are independent from each other. The two conjoins are linked by a coordinator like *and*, *but*, *or*, *either..or*, etc.

Ex. Ali went to work and Zaid stayed at home.

Ex. Layla and her sister bought new dresses.

Coordination can be classified into three dichotomies:

1.syndetic & asyndetic

In syndetic coordination, a coordinator is used while in asyndetic coordination, no coordinator is used.

Ex. Tom is active and Bob is lazy. (syndetic)

Ex. Tom is active ; Bob is lazy. (asyndetic)

Ex. Slowly and stealthily, he crept towards his victim. (syndetic)

Ex. Slowly, stealthily, he crept towards his victim. (asyndetic)

2.combinatory & segregatory

In combinatory coordination, we can not the sentence into two coordinated clauses.

Ex. Mary and Suzan are sisters. (We can not paraphrase the sentence into Mary is sister and Suzan is sister.)

Ex. John and Mary make a pleasant couple. (We can not say John makes a good couple and Mary makes a good couple.)

In segregatory coordination, on the other hand, we can paraphrase the sentence into two coordinated clauses.

Ex. Ali and Ahmed will travel to London next week. (We can say Ali will travel....and Ahmed will travel....)

3. phrasal & clausal

In phrasal coordination , two phrases are joined together. The two clauses should be of the same type.

-noun phrases (Ex. My friend and his wife came to the party.)

-verb phrases (EX. Tom washed and dried the dishes.)

-adverbial phrases (Ex. They worked actively and silently.)

-adjectival phrases (Ex. He is clever and handsome.)

-prepositional phrases (Ex. They attacked in June and in July.)

In clausal coordination , two clauses are joined by means of a coordinator like *and , or , but , etc.*

Ex. He both washes cars and sells books.

Ex. She tried hard but she failed.

Ex. Tom is candid and Bob is secretive.

Ex. She could neither buy the car nor save her money.

Coordinators

Coordinators are of two types : simple coordinators like *and , or , but , yet , while , etc.* and correlative coordinators like *either...or , neither...nor , both...and.* Different sentence elements (S , V , O , C , A) can be joined together by using different coordinators and this is called the scope of coordination.

Examples:

Ali and Ahmed passed the exam.

Ali bought both a shirt and a coat.

Either Ali or Ahmed will bring the food.

I will watch a movie or a show.

They may arrive tomorrow or next week.

ELLIPSIS

Ellipsis means the grammatical omission of some sentence elements to avoid repetition. It takes place in phrasal and clausal coordination. Most elements in coordinate conjoins can undergo ellipsis and this can be summarized as follows:

1. Ellipsis of S (subject)

Ali came home and (Ali) went directly to his room.

2. Ellipsis of V (verb)

Ali got an orange and Ahmed (got) an apple.

3. Ellipsis of O (object)

John likes (Mary) and Peter hates Mary.

4. Ellipsis of C (complement)

John was (angry) and Peter certainly looked angry.

5. Ellipsis of A (adverbial)

Unfortunately, Tom is not at home and (unfortunately) Peter is busy.

John spoke (rudely) and Mary answered rudely.

APPOSITION

Apposition means two constructions (appositives) used in a sentence referring to the same referent. It is different from coordination since in coordination the two conjoins are not identical in reference while in apposition the two appositives are coreferents or the reference of one is included in the reference of the other.

A. My friend Ali Hadi visited me yesterday.

B. My friend and Ali Hadi visited me yesterday

In A, both *my friend* and *Ali Hadi* refer to the same person ; therefore , we have apposition. In B , *my friend* and *Ali Hadi* do not refer to the same person ; therefore , we have coordination.

We can use a number of apposition indicators that are mostly optional like *namely* , *that is* , *that is to say* , *viz* , *in other words* , *for example* , *as follows* , *for instance* , *e.g* , *including* , *included* , *such as* , *mainly* , etc.

Ex. The old president , namely George Bush , will attend the meeting.

Ex.The music teacher , that is Tom Hard , retired last week.

Ex. Many people , including Ali , will not come to the picnic.

Apposition can be classified into two main types: restrictive and nonrestrictive. In restrictive apposition , the meaning involved in the second appositive is restricted to the first. This means that the second appositive defines the first.

Ex. The novel *Hard Times* was written by Dickens in 1854.

In this example , *Hard Times* is not but a novel ; therefore ; apposition here is restrictive.

Ex. The US president Barack Obama has a special plane.

In nonrestrictive apposition , on the other hand , the relation between the first and second appositives can be of three types: equivalence , attribution or inclusion.

Ex. He told them the good news , namely , texts are to be reduced.

EX. The captain , an old man , assembled his men.

Ex. Famous men, like De Gaulle , Churchill ,Stalin , visited the place.

Linkers in English

1. Sequence

Linkers used to express sequence include: *before* , *after* , *as* , *while* , *as soon as* , *when* , *until* , *till*. It is very important first to decide which event is the first and which is the second. Also it is important to be acquainted with the arrangement of events with the conjunction used because some conjunctions are preceded by the first event and followed by the second like *before* , *when* , *until* , *till*. Other conjunctions , *however* , are preceded with the second event and followed with the first like *after* , *while* , *as* , *as soon as*. Besides , the tense of the two sentences is very important in choosing the suitable rule since most conjunctions have more than one joining rule depending on the tense of the two sentences involved. All sequence conjunctions except *until* and *till* can be used either at the beginning or in the middle of the two clauses.

Note: Expressions denoting sequence like ***first* , *later* , *then* , *after that*** ,etc. should be omitted.

i. before , after , when

-If the two sentences are in present simple or future simple , the following rule is used:

future simple+ *before* , *after* , *when*+ present simple

e.g., First , I will meet Ali. Then , I will give him the book. (*after* , *before*)

I will give Ali the book after I meet him.

I will meet Ali before I give him the book.

After I meet Ali , I will give him the book.

Ahmed washes his hands. Then , he has his lunch.

Ahmed will wash his hands before he has his lunch.

Ahmed will have his lunch after he washes his hands.

-If the two sentences are in past simple , the following rule is used:

past perfect + *before/when* + past simple

past simple + *after* + past perfect

e.g., Nada wrote the report. She went to school later.

Nada had written the report before she went to school.

Nada went to school after she had written the report.

After Nada had written the report , she went to school.

ii. *while , as*

The conjunctions *while* and *as* are used to join two sentences both of them are in past simple. The following rule is used:

past simple + *while/as* + past continuous

e.g., They played football. It began to rain later,(while)

It began to rain while they were playing football.

While they were playing football , it began to rain.

iii. *until , till , as soon as*

-If the two sentences are in present simple or future simple , the following rule is used:

future simple + *until , till , as soon as* + present simple

e.g., We will stay at school. The bell will ring later. (until)

We will stay at school until the bell rings.

e.g., Bilal will finish his work first. Then , he will go home.

Bilal will go home as soon as he finishes his work.

As soon as Bilal finishes his work , he will go home.

If the two sentences are in past simple , the following rule is used:

past simple +until , till , as soon as +past simple

Hasan had his breakfast. He went to school.

Hasan went to school as soon as he had his breakfast.

2. Cause an Effect

There are several conjunctions used to join the sentence implying cause with that implying result or effect. Here also we should consider both the tenses of the two sentences and the arrangement of events.

i. because , since , as

-If both sentences are in present simple , future simple or past simple , no tense changes take place. However , the second event should precede the conjunction and the first should follow.

e.g., I go to school on foot. I do not have money.

I go to school on foot because I do not have money.

e.g., I went home. I felt sick.

I went home because I felt sick.

ii. so...that / such....that

The conjunctions so...that / such....that are used if the cause sentence contains very , too or quite which will be replaced by so or such.

e.g., Firas was very clever. He could solve the problem.

Firas was so clever that he could solve the problem.

e.g., Firas was a very clever boy. He could solve the problem.

Firas was such a clever boy that he could solve the problem.

iii. **therefore / as a result**

When the conjunctions *therefore* or *as a result* are used no changes take place in the tense. Only , we should place the cause sentences (1st event) before the conjunction and the result (2nd event) after.

e.g., Hasan worked hard. He passed the exam. (therefore)

Hasan worked hard ; therefore , he passed the exam.

3. **condition**

If

-If both sentences are in present simple or future simple , the following rule is used:

future simple (2nd event) + *if* + present simple (1st event)

e.g., They will work hard first. Then , they will pass the exam.

They will pass the exam if they work hard.

If they work hard , they will pass the exam.

-If both sentences are in past simple , the following rule is used:

Sub.+ *would* +base + *if* +past simple

or Sub. + *would have* + past participle + past simple

e.g., They worked hard . They passed the exam.

They would pass the exam if they worked hard.

If they worked hard , they would pass the exam.

ii. *unless*

The conjunction *unless* is used only if the result (2nd event) is negative. If both sentences are in present simple or future simple , the following rule is used:

future simple + *unless* + present simple

e.g., They work hard . They pass the exam. (unless)

They will not pass the exam unless they work hard

Unless they work hard , they will not pass the exam.

3. Contrast

There are several conjunctions used to join contrastive sentences such as *but*, *yet*, *however*, *despite the fact that*. No tense changes take place at using such conjunctions. However, we should consider the order of events. The conjunctions *but*, *yet*, *however* are used only in the middle and they should be preceded by the first event and followed by the second while the conjunction *despite the fact that* can be used at both positions and it should be preceded by the second event and followed by the first.

1st event +but +2nd event

e.g., Sami worked hard. He failed.

Sami worked hard but he failed.

2nd event+ despite the fact that +1st event

Sami failed despite the fact that he worked hard.

4.Purpose

Among the conjunctions used to indicate purpose are the following : *so as to*, *in order to*, *so that*, *in order that*, *lest*. When we join the two sentences involved, we should omit purpose verbs (want to, like to, wish to, hope to, aim to, plan to, intend to) from the purpose sentence. The other sentence, however, remains as it is.

i. so as to / in order to

When these conjunctions are used, the subject of the purpose sentence is omitted.

e.g., Mazin left early. He wanted to catch the first bus.

Mazin left early so as to catch the first bus.

ii. so that / in order that

When these conjunctions are used the subject of the purpose sentence should be maintained and *could* should be added after it.

e.g., Mazin left early. He wished to catch the first bus.

Mazin left early so that he could catch the first bus.

iii. Lest

The conjunction *lest* is used when the purpose sentence is negative. IN this case , the negation auxiliary (do not , does not , did not) should be omitted with the purpose verb .The subject should be maintained and *should* is added after it.

e.g., Nada worked hard. She did not like to fail.

Nada worked hard lest she should fail.

RELATIVE CLAUSES

There are two types of relative clauses:

1. Defining relative clauses
2. Non-defining relative clauses

Defining relative clauses describe the preceding noun in such a way to distinguish it from other nouns of the same class. A clause of this kind is essential to clear understanding of the noun.

The boy who was playing is my brother.

	SUBJECT	OBJECT	POSSESSIVE
For people	Who That	Whom/Who That	Whose
For things	Which That	Which That	Whose Of which

Defining Relative Clauses: people

A. Subject: who or that

Who is normally used:

The man who has been arrested.

The girls who serve in the shop are the owner's daughters.

But that is a possible alternative after all, everyone, everybody, no one, nobody and those: Everyone who/that knew him liked him.

Nobody who/that watched the match will ever forget it.

B. Object of a verb: whom, who or that

The object form is whom, but it is considered very formal. In spoken English we normally use who or that (that being more usual than who), and it is still more common to omit the object pronoun altogether:

The man whom I saw told me to come back today.

The man who I saw told me to come back today.

The man that I saw told me to come back today.

The man I saw told me to come back today.

C. With a preposition: whom or that

In formal English the preposition is placed before the relative pronoun, which must then be put into the form whom:

The man to whom I spoke was very polite.

In informal speech, however, it is more usual to move the preposition to the end of the clause. Whom then is often replaced by that, but it is still more common to omit the relative altogether:

The man *who/whom* I spoke
to... The man *that* I spoke to...
The man I spoke to...

D. Possessive

Whose is the only possible form:

People whose rents have been raised can appeal.

The film is about a spy whose wife betrays him.

Defining Relative Clauses: things

A. Subject

Either which or that. Which is more formal.

This is the picture which/that caused such a sensation.

The stairs which/that lead to the cellar are rather slippery.

B. Object of a verb

Which or that or no relative at all.

The car which/that I hired broke down.

The car I hired broke down.

Which is hardly ever used after all, everything, little, much, none, no and compounds of no, or after superlatives. Instead we use that, or omit the relative altogether, if it is the object of a verb:

All the apples that fall are eaten by the pigs.

This is the best hotel (that) I know.

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C. Object of a preposition

The formal construction is preposition + which, but it is more usual to move the preposition to the end of the clause, using which or that or omitting the relative altogether:

The ladder on which I was standing began to slip.

The ladder which/that I was standing on began to slip.

The ladder I was standing on began to slip.

D. Possessive

Whose + a clause is possible but with + a phrase is more usual:

The house whose walls were made of glass was sold last week.

E. Relative adverbs: when, where, why

Note that when can replace in/on which (used of time):

The year when (= in which) he was born was a rainy year.

the day when (= in which) they arrived was very cold

Where can replace in/at which (used of place):

The hotel where (= in/at which) they were staying was very expensive.

Why can replace for which:

the reason why he refused is a strange one.

When, where and why used in this way are called relative adverbs.

NON-DEFINING RELATIVE CLAUSES

Non-defining relative clauses are placed after nouns which are definite already. They do not therefore define the noun. But merely add something to it by giving some more information about it. They are not essential in the sentence and can be omitted without causing confusion. They are separated from their noun by commas. The pronoun can never be omitted in a non-defining relative clause.

The boy who was playing is my brother.

Non-Defining Relative Pronouns

	SUBJECT	OBJECT	POSSESSIVE
For people	Who	Whom/Who	Whose
For things	Which	Which	Whose Of which

Non-Defining Relative Clauses: people

A. Subject: who

No other pronoun is possible. Note the commas:

My neighbor, who is very pessimistic, says there will be no apples this year.

Peter, who had been driving all day, suggested stopping at the next town.

B. Object: whom, who

The pronoun cannot be omitted. Whom is the correct form, though who is sometimes used in conversation:

Peter, whom everyone suspected, turned out to be innocent..

C. Object of a preposition: whom

The pronoun cannot be omitted. The preposition is normally placed before whom:

Mr Jones, for whom I was working, was very generous about overtime payments.

It is however possible to move the preposition to the end of the clause. This is commonly done in conversation, and who then usually takes the place of whom:

Mr Jones, who I was working for, was very generous about overtime payments.

If the clause contains an expression of time or place, this will remain at the end:

Peter, with whom I played tennis on Sundays, was fitter than me. could become:

Peter, who/whom I played tennis with on Sundays, was fitter than me.

D. Possessive: whose

Ann, whose children are at school all day, is trying to get a job.

This is George, whose class you will be taking.

Non-Defining Relative Clauses: things

A. Subject: which

That is not used here:

That block, which cost £5 million to build, has been empty for years.

The 8.15 train, which is usually very punctual, was late today.

B. Object: which

That is not used here, and the which can never be omitted.

She gave me this jumper, which she had knitted herself.

These books, which you can get at any bookshop, will give you all the information you need.

C. Object of a preposition

The preposition comes before which, or (more informally) at the end of the clause:

Ashdown Forest, through which we'll be driving, isn't a forest any longer.

Ashdown Forest, which we'll be driving through, isn't a forest any longer.

His house, for which he paid £10,000, is now worth £50,000.

His house, which he paid £10,000 for, is now worth £50,000.

D. Possessive: whose or of which

The car, whose driver was drunk, was confiscated.

Modal Auxiliaries

Modal auxiliaries include can , could , may , might , will , would , shall , should , must , need , ought to , dare to . They are called modal because they have meanings.

Negatives with Modal Auxiliaries

Negation of affirmative sentences containing modal auxiliaries is simply formed by placing the negative particle 'not' immediately after the modal auxiliaries. Modal auxiliaries (except 'may') can form contraction with 'not'. The common ones being used are: can't/ 'couldn't'/ 'won't'/ 'wouldn't', 'shan't'/ shouldn't, oughtn't, 'mightn't', mustn't, as in

- She can't/ couldn't read without glasses.
- She won't/ wouldn't do what you ask her.
- You shan't/ shouldn't listen to him.
- We mustn't break the law.
- She mightn't be absent tomorrow.

Questions with Modal Auxiliaries

Questions with modal auxiliaries are formed by placing the modal auxiliaries before the subjects of the sentences. Main types of questions are tackled in this study: wh-questions and yes/no questions.

Wh- Questions with Modal Auxiliaries

Wh-questions, sometimes called information questions, are formed by placing the modal auxiliaries immediately after the question words and before the subjects, as in:

- Who will leave tomorrow?

An answer requires full information as in:

John (he) will leave tomorrow.

Yes/ No Questions with Modal Auxiliaries

Yes/no questions are formed by shifting the modal auxiliaries to the beginning of the sentences and before the subjects, as in:

- Can John swim?

Meaning of Modal Auxiliaries

Several meanings can be obtained by using modal auxiliaries and these can be summarized as follows:

1- Permission

Permission is mainly expressed by the modal auxiliaries 'may', 'might', 'can' and 'could'. To ask for present or future permission to do something, we use 'can', 'could' or 'may', as in

- Could/Can/May I smoke in here?

However, to give present or future permission to do something, we use 'can' or 'may', as in:

- You can use my phone.

'May' is preferred to 'can' or 'could', the latter being less formal and less polite.

Sometimes, we use 'might' or 'could' for past permission. 'Could' is used to refer to past permission but with suggestion of changed condition. 'Could' is widely used, though 'might' is still preferred by some people, as in

- When she was a student, anyone could borrow books from her.

2- Obligation

Obligation indicates the necessity in which the action in question is performed. When a person feels that he is obliged to do something, he must be perceived to have the ability to carry out the required action.

Two degrees of obligation may be distinguished:

1- Strong obligation indicates that the speaker is not only entitled to lay obligation, but also he has the authority to ensure compliance. Such an obligation is usually expressed by the modal 'must' or 'shall', as in

- She must come tomorrow.

- You shall leave the house immediately.

'Shall' is considered to be stronger than 'must' in that the speaker does not use it unless he is sure that the action will take place.

2- Weak obligation indicates that the speaker implies that things are not suggested, that the event does not or will not take place. Such an obligation is usually expressed by the modal 'should' or 'ought to' as in

- You should do as he says.
- You ought to drive the car more carefully.

Unfulfilled obligation, present and past, is expressed by the expressions 'should/ ought to + be + v (ing)', and 'should/ ought to + have + v (ed)' respectively, as in

- I should/ ought to be reading my assignment.
- I should/ ought to have read my assignment.

3- Ability

Present, past ability to do something is expressed with the modals 'can' and 'could'.

Thus, 'can' and 'could' are used to indicate that a person has/ had the general ability to do something, as in

- He can swim.
- My father could speak five languages.

Sometimes, we use 'could' as the past of 'can', especially with verbs of perception: 'see', 'smell', 'taste', 'feel', 'remember', 'understand', as in

-When we went into the house, we could smell burning.

With verbs of perception, 'could' can be used to describe specific action as well as general ability, as in:

- I could hear the car up the road.

In other occasions, we use 'could' to refer to past ability with suggestion of changed condition, as in:

George couldn't understand English when he first went to England.

4- Possibility/ Impossibility

Possibility indicates the occurrence of possible actions or happenings. Possibility can be expressed with the modal auxiliaries 'can', 'could', 'may' or 'might'.

'can' or 'could' are used to express theoretical or factual present possibility as in:

- We can/could have nightmares.
- The road can/ could be blocked.

We use 'could' (not can) to indicate that something is possible now or in the future as in:

- The phone is ringing. It could be Jane. (not it can be Jane)

It is claimed that "'could' is less sure than 'can'. Therefore, we use 'could' (not can) when we don't really mean what we say as in:

- I'm so angry with you. I could kill you. (not I can kill you)

We also use 'could' to talk about possible actions now or in the future (especially to make a suggestion) as in:

a- What shall we do this evening?

b- We could go to the cinema.

Finally, 'could' is used to express contingent possibility in unreal conditions as in:

- If we had more money, we could buy a new house.

The expression 'could + have + v.(ed)' is used to refer to things which were possible, but did not happen as in:

- Why did you leave yesterday?

You could have stayed with me.

Present or future impossibility is expressed with the expressions 'could + be +v.(ing)' and 'could + v.(infinitive)' respectively , as in:

- She could be reading her assignment now if she didn't have drops in her eyes.

- She could read her assignment tomorrow if she didn't have a class.

On the other hand, past impossibility is expressed with the expression ' couldn't have + v.(ed)' as in:

- Bill couldn't have gone home this week-end.

'May' and 'might' are also used to indicate that something is a possibility. Usually it does not matter whether we use 'may' or 'might' to express possible actions or happening in the present or future as in:

- It may / might be true. (Perhaps it's true)

- I may / might go home. (I will go home)

For the past, we use the expression 'may have + v.(ed)' or ' might have + v.(ed)' , as in:

- She may / might have been asleep.

Sometimes 'could' has a similar meaning to 'may' or 'might' as in:

- Somebody is knocking at the door. It could be Tom. (= it may/might be Tom)

However, only 'might' (not may) is used when the situation is not real as in:

- If I knew them better, I might invite them to dinner.

(= I don't know them, so I'm not going to invite them)

Yet, 'may' or 'might' is not employed at all in questions; 'can' or 'could' takes place instead. 'may' or 'might' can only be employed in answers, as in:

a- Can/could they have missed the bus?

b. Yes, they may / might have.

Finally, the expression 'may/might be + ing' can be used to express possible plans as in:

- I may/ might be going to England in July.

5- Willingness

Willingness is usually expressed with the modal auxiliaries 'will/ would', 'can/ could' and 'shall' as in:

- He'll help you if you ask.

The above- mentioned modal auxiliaries are used in polite requests. Such requests are considered to be polite because it is up to the hearer to take action or not as in

- Can you pass the sugar?

- Will you visit me tomorrow?

Requests with 'would' and 'could' are considered to be more polite, as in

- Could you carry the bag, please?

- Would you excuse me?

'Shall' is also used to express willingness on the part of the speaker in second and third persons, as in

- He shall get his reward.

- You shall do exactly as you wish.

The speaker's willingness is marked when the subject of the sentence is in the objective case. In a sentence such as

- You shall have a copy of this book.

'You' is the person, upon whom the act of having falls, thus marking the speaker's willingness.

Some other sentences may include a supporting words or phrases that make it clear which particular function is meant. In a sentence such as

- You shall stay with us as long as you like.

the expression 'as long as you like' indicates that saying 'with us' is up to the hearer's will. In fact using these two expressions indicates that the hearer's 'willingness' is mixed with that of the speaker.

6- Advisability

Advisability is expressed with the modal auxiliaries 'shall', 'should' and 'ought'. 'Shall' or 'should' is used in affirmative questions of advisability. Both auxiliaries are used with the first pronouns (I, we) to refer to immediate or distant future as in:

- Shall/should I/ we go to Europe next summer?

For present or past negative questions of advisability only 'shouldn't' is used, as in

- Shouldn't we be finishing our work? (we aren't)

- Shouldn't she have done all the problems? (she didn't)

All- time and future affirmative statements of advisability are expressed with the expressions 'should/ ought to + be + adj' and 'should/ ought to + v (infinitive)' respectively as in

-We should/ought to be careful crossing streets.(all time)

- She should/ ought to see a doctor next week. (future)

Sometimes, we may express all- time and future negative statements of advisability, simply by adding the negative particle 'not' to the above-mentioned expressions, as in

- You shouldn't/ oughtn't to be careless (all time)

- You shouldn't/ oughtn't to apologize for things you haven't done.

In other occasions, advisability can be expressed with 'I should/ shouldn't', as in

A: Shall I leave now?

B: I should/ shouldn't wait a bit longer.

The answer of (B) implies the meaning 'I would/ wouldn't wait if I were you, or "I advice you to/ not to wait"'.

7- Expectation

Expectation is expressed with the modal auxiliaries 'should' or 'ought', as in

- It is eight o'clock. The guests should be arriving soon.
- They ought to be here by now.

8- Probability

Probability is related to prediction, deduction and conjecture.

Prediction refers to the speaker's view of the future. It is expressed with the modal auxiliaries 'will', 'must' and 'should'. They are used to indicate specific, timeless or habitual prediction.

For specific prediction, 'will', 'must' or 'should' is used as in:

- The game will/should/must be finished by now.

On the other hand, the expressions 'will + v (infinitive)', 'will + have + v (ed)', and 'will + be + v (ing)' to express timeless and habitual prediction respectively, as in

- Oil will float / floats on water (timeless prediction)
- He'll talk four hours if you give him the chance.
- The guests will have arrived by now. habitual
- John will still be reading his paper. prediction

Deduction expresses an opinion based on some evidence. We use the expressions:

1- 'must + v (infinitive)' or 'must + be + v (ing)' to express deduction about a present situation or action, as in

- She gets terrible headaches.

She must need glasses.

- She is frowning. Her head must be aching.

2- 'Must + be + going to' to express deduction about a future event, as in

- It is getting dark. It must be going to rain.

3- 'Must + have + been' to express deduction about the past, as in

- He kept me waiting for half an hour. He must have been very busy.

Conjecture expresses an opinion (not based on evidence). We use the expressions:

1- 'May/ might + v (infinitive)' to express conjecture about a present situation as in:

- She may/ might need glasses.

2- 'May/ might + be + ing' to express conjecture about a present activity, as in

- George may/ might be writing to his father.

3- 'May/ might + be + adjective' to express conjecture about the future, as in

- She may/ might be absent tomorrow.

4- 'May/ might + have + v (ed)' to express conjecture about the past, as in

- He may/ might have lost his watch at the park.

9- Insistence

Insistence is expressed by the modal auxiliaries 'shall', 'will' and 'would'. For its restricted use, insistence is expressed by 'shall', as in

- You shall do as I say.

Marginal Modal Auxiliaries

Marginal modal auxiliaries include *need*, *used to*, *dare to*. They are called so because they have features from primary auxiliaries and features from modal auxiliaries. As primary auxiliaries, they can be used as main verbs and as modal auxiliaries they have meanings and can be used as operators in negation and interrogation.

NEED /DARE TO

As main verbs *need* and *dare* should be followed by *to* and they should be inflected with *s* if the subject is a singular third person. Besides in negative and interrogative sentences, they require **DO** as an operator.

Examples:

Ali needs to buy new clothes.

Ali dares to climb the tree.

Ali does not need to buy new clothes.

Ali does not dare to climb the tree.

Does Ali need to buy new clothes?

Does Ali dare to climb the tree?

What does Ali need to buy?

What does Ali dare to do?

As an auxiliary, *need* does not take *to* and is not inflected with *s* if the subject is a singular third person. Besides, it can be used as an operator in negative and interrogative sentences.

Examples:

Ali need buy new clothes.

Ali dare climb the tree.

Ali need not buy new clothes.

Need Ali buy new clothes?

What need Ali buy?

Ali dare not climb the tree.

Dare Ali climb the tree?

What dare Ali climb?