

**Q.1 What are different speech styles? Also highlight the use of linguistic communication.**

**Speech style** means the form of language that the speaker uses which is characterized by the degree of formality. He identified the styles, which he called ‘clocks,’ in five classes such as frozen style, formal style, consultative style, casual style, and intimate style. These five clocks are levels of formality in language use, which are determined by the situational context and degree of familiarity or intimacy between the interlocutors. Each level determines what kind of language is appropriate to use in a specific context.

It is the most formal communicative style that is usually used during respectful events and ceremonies. It is also used when one shows hesitation, disinterest, or prejudice. Frozen speech is used generally in a very formal setting and does not require any feedback from the audience. It is the most formal communicative style for respectful situations.

The frozen style of speech is generally used in print media, rules, or declamation. The speech is carefully planned and verbalized as it mainly relies on the use of words. This style discourages feedback or questions for clarifications from the listeners which is why it is important that words are precise and carefully chosen.

**Intimate**

This speech style is for very close relationships like couples, family, and best friends. It is also used for self-addressed questions or self-talk, etc. Intimate speech is used in conversation between people who are very close and know each other quite well because they have the maximum of shared background information.

This speech style makes use of words at a minimum. The communicators understand each other even with just a single nonverbal gesture or behavior such as a rising tone of voice, a grunt, or a raised eyebrow. A child who often forgets to close the door may be told by his or her sibling to do so just by saying, “Door.”

**EXAMPLES:** Couple talking about their future plans, family sharing ideas, very close friends sharing secrets, etc.

**Formal**

Formal speeches are straightforward speeches. In this speech style, the speaker avoids using slang terminologies; what the speaker says is something that has been prepared beforehand. Its complex sentence and noun phrases are well structured, logically sequenced and strongly coherent.

Communication using the formal speech type is one-way, in which the speaker simply transmits information to the listener. The formal type of speech style often does not encourage listeners’ participation or interaction among communicators. Public speaking commonly makes use of formal, informative speech. In situations where there is uncertainty in terms of receiving a favorable response, the speaker also uses this type of speech.

For instance, if you are borrowing money from someone you are not close with, instead of saying, “Can I borrow some money,” you may say, “Money is tight these days. Could you perhaps lend me some money?” Instead of saying, “I don’t understand the lesson,” one may say, “It is difficult to understand the lesson.” Since the speaker is somehow detached from the message, it attempts to avoid awkward or embarrassing situations.

**EXAMPLES:** Announcements, SONA, welcome addresses, etc.

### **Casual**

This is an informal communication between groups and peers. Casual style is used in conversation between friends and insiders who have something to share and have shared background information but don't have close relations.

Casual speech is characterized by slang meanings or expressions that are easily understood by the communicators without being given too much information.

For instance, among friends, when one says "Hey, I saw your best friend a while ago" in a teasing manner and the listener replies sarcastically, it is most likely that the speaker is referring to the other person's enemy.

**EXAMPLES:** phone calls, everyday conversation with friends, chats, inside jokes of friends, etc.

### **Consultative**

This is used in semi-formal communication, sentences tend to be shorter and spontaneous, the speaker does not usually plan what he/she wants to say, most operational among others.

Unlike the formal and frozen styles of speech, the level of communication making use of the consultative style involves cooperation but does not necessarily require involvement. This means that the listeners are involved in meaning-making by being allowed to give feedback.

For instance, if the information presented by the speaker is insufficient or unclear, the listener may ask for elaborations or clarifications. On the other hand, if there is too much information, the listener may say, "I know" or "I understand" to imply that the speaker need not elaborate. The consultative style is the standard or most commonly used style in everyday conversations.

According to Joos, communication using the consultative style is automatic, since the speaker does not prepare what he is going to say more than three seconds beforehand and that the listener can interrupt the speaker at any time. Conversations between strangers, teachers and students, doctors and patients make use of the consultative style.

**EXAMPLES:** regular classroom discussions, doctor-patient, etc.

These styles are important in speech-making because it will help you choose the appropriate approach for specific events. Picking the correct speech prevents misunderstanding and conflicts.

## **Q.2 What is sentences? Discuss its different clauses in detail.**

**Clause:** A clause is a combination of a predicate (full verb or nonverbal predicate) and its arguments, plus modifiers.

**Sentence:** A sentence is a maximal clause, i.e. a clause that is not part of another clause.

**Complex clause (= "complex sentence"):** A complex clause is a clause that contains at least one other clause.

**Subordinate/embedded clause:** A subordinate/embedded clause is a clause that is an argument ("complement clause"), and adnominal modifier ("relative clause"), or an adverbial modifier ("adverbial clause")

**Matrix clause (of subordinate clause S):** The matrix clause of subordinate clause S is the minimal clause that contains it.

**Matrix-clause fragment:** A matrix-clause fragment is the part of a matrix clause that is not the subordinate clause.

**Main clause:** A main clause is a clause that is not a subordinate clause.

“**Clause**” and “**sentence**” are two terms that linguists use all the time, but they have a hard time explaining what they mean. I recently posted a question about this on Facebook, and my feeling was confirmed that there is a lot of uncertainty about these two terms. They are almost never discussed, but I think that it’s worth attempting to **use precise terminology in linguistics**, so here are some thoughts and proposals (also about the term main clause, which also causes confusion).

First of all, here is my proposal for the definition of the term sentence:

**(1) A sentence is a maximal clause, i.e. a clause that is not part of another clause.**

This definition relies on the notion of clause, and it is less straightforward to give a definition of clause that makes most people happy, i.e. that conforms to our intuitions. Here are two possibilities:

- (i) A clause is a combination of a predicate (full verb or nonverbal predicate) and its arguments, plus modifiers.
- (ii) A clause is a syntactic unit that can be independently negated

But alternatively, and certainly for the purposes of this blogpost, we can take ‘clause’ as a primitive notion. As Anna Wierzbicka has reminded us any attempt at consistent definition must ultimately work with undefinable (primitive) words. Getting back to the sentence, it may be surprising, but linguists rarely define it in a way that corresponds to actual usage. Many linguists think that the **technical vocabulary** that is taught in many syntax courses provides a solution – after all, why have this technical vocabulary if it does not add precision? I cannot answer this latter question, but it certainly does not help to say, for example, that **a clause is a “CP”**, while a sentence is an “S”. In that textbook, Larson uses the term “sentence” in the first half, but switches to CP in the second half. At some point, he replaces “S” by “TP”, but then later he keeps using “sentence” for what in his analysis is really a CP.

Larson’s book would have been less confusing if he had used only “clause” or only “sentence”, but this wouldn’t have conformed to general terminological usage (so he preferred general usage to precision). By contrast, it seems to me that the definition in (1) above corresponds quite well to standard usage (and it does not need the “CP/TP” terminology involving the controversial functional head notion).

A grammatical unit of one or more words that expresses an independent statement, question, request, command, exclamation, etc., and that typically has a subject as well as a predicate, as in **John is here. Or Is John here?** In print or writing, a sentence typically begins with a capital letter and ends with appropriate punctuation; in speech it displays recognizable, communicative intonation patterns and is often marked by preceding and following pauses.

This is similar to the definition that I proposed above because **illocutionary force** (the difference between the speech act types: statements, questions, and directives) is not usually taken as a property of a unit that can be part of a sentence. A unit that expresses a directive cannot be a part of another sentence: In the example She told me to go home, the expression to go home is part of another sentence, but it is not thought to be a speech act by itself. And embedded questions (as in He asked me where I lived) may be said to be questions, but not in the sense of speech acts. Similarly, it is not usually possible to conjoin units with different illocutionary forces, e.g. questions and statements (The sun is shining and are we going out?).

The main reason why I think that the definition in (1) is better is that it specifies that **a sentence is a kind of clause**. By contrast, a definition in terms of a discourse unit and illocutionary force would include expressions such as “hello”, or “ouch”, or “me too!” when used as complete utterances, and these are not normally treated as clauses. Likewise, they are not normally treated as sentences, so I feel that a definition of **a sentence as a maximal clause** corresponds best to ordinary usage.

A sentence consists of a clause plus a pre-clausal position for left-dislocated elements, and a post-clausal position for right-dislocated elements (e.g. I have not seen them in two weeks, the Smiths). Again, this definition is quite similar to my proposed definition, because left dislocation and right dislocation are not normally thought to be possible in embedded clauses. But as a universally applicable definition, it faces the problem that the notions of “left dislocation” and “right dislocation” are not easily applicable to different languages. English allows a left-dislocated element before the position of the question word (Yesterday, what did Robin show to Pat in the library?), but in German, the counterpart of this would be completely impossible. So does German have “left dislocation” in the same sense as English?

The idea of a sentence as a possibly complex clause is very widespread, and the term “complex sentence” has been used very widely, both in comparative studies of the world’s languages and in psycholinguistic studies of English. It seems that in all these cases, a “complex” clause/sentence really means “clause that includes at least one other clause”. Indeed, some authors use the more accurate term complex clause.

### **“Sentence” has no counterpart in nominal syntax**

It has often been suggested that the internal structure of clauses and the internal structure of nominal phrases show similarities, but there is no counterpart to the term “sentence” in nominal syntax: We have no special term for **a maximal nominal, i.e. a nominal that is not part of another nominal**. Just like clauses (which may contain other clauses), nominals may be recursive and contain other nominals. Everyone knows this, but nobody seems to miss a term for a maximal nominal.

Thus, I suspect that **we wouldn’t miss the term sentence if it didn’t exist**, because every sentence is a clause, and we rarely need to talk about maximal clauses in contrast to non-maximal clauses. (In fact, German does not make the distinction between “clause” and “sentence” and uses Satz for both notions. When I speak about grammar in German, I don’t miss the distinction.)

### **Q.3 Write a detailed note on use of punctuation.**

Punctuation is the system of signs or symbols given to a reader to show how a sentence is constructed and how it should be read.

Sentences are the building blocks used to construct written accounts. They are complete statements. Punctuation shows how the sentence should be read and makes the meaning clear.

Every sentence should include at least a capital letter at the start, and a full stop, exclamation mark or question mark at the end. This basic system indicates that the sentence is complete.

The Comma (,)

**The comma is useful in a sentence when the writer wishes to:**

- pause before proceeding
- add a phrase that does not contain any new subject
- separate items on a list
- use more than one adjective (a describing word, like beautiful)

**For example,** in the following sentence the phrase or clause between the commas gives us more information behind the actions of the boy, the subject of the sentence:

The boy, who knew that his mother was about to arrive, ran quickly towards the opening door.

Note that if the phrase or clause were to be removed, the sentence would still make sense although there would be a loss of information. Alternatively, two sentences could be used:

The boy ran quickly towards the opening door. He knew that his mother was about to arrive.

Commas are also used to separate items in a list.

**For example:**

The shopping trolley was loaded high with bottles of beer, fruit, vegetables, toilet rolls, cereals and cartons of milk.

Note that in a list, the final two items are linked by the word 'and' rather than by a comma.

Commas are used to separate adjectives.

**For example:**

The boy was happy, eager and full of anticipation at the start of his summer holiday.

As commas represent a pause, it is good practice to read your writing out loud and listen to where you make natural pauses as you read it. More often than not, you will indicate where a comma should be placed by a natural pause. Although, the 'rules' of where a comma needs to be placed should also be followed.

For example:

However, it has been suggested that some bees prefer tree pollen.

Full Stop (.)

**A full stop should always be used to end a sentence. The full stop indicates that a point has been made and that you are about to move on to further explanations or a related point.**

Less frequently, a series of three full stops (an ellipsis) can be used to indicate where a section of a quotation has been omitted when it is not relevant to the text, for example:

“The boy was happy... at the start of his summer holiday.”

A single full stop may also be used to indicate the abbreviation of commonly used words as in the following examples:

- Telephone Number = Tel. No.
- September = Sept.
- Pages = pp.

Exclamation Mark (!)

**An exclamation mark indicates strong feeling within a sentence, such as fear, anger or love. It is also used to accentuate feeling within the written spoken word.**

For example:

“Help! I love you!”

In this way, it can also be used to indicate a sharp instruction

“Stop! Police!”

or to indicate humour

“Ha! Ha! Ha!”

The exclamation mark at the end of a sentence means that you do not need a full stop.

Exclamation marks are a poor way of emphasising what you think are important points in your written assignments; the importance of the point will emphasise itself without a sequence of !!! in the text. An exclamation mark should only be used when absolutely essential, or when taken from a direct quote.

The exclamation mark should be used sparingly in formal and semi-formal writing.

Question Mark (?)

**The question mark simply indicates that a sentence is asking a question. It always comes at the end of a sentence:**

For example:

Are we at the end?

Note that the question mark also serves as a full stop.

Semi-colon (;)

**The semi-colon is perhaps the most difficult sign of punctuation to use accurately. If in doubt, avoid using it and convert the added material into a new sentence.**

As a general rule, the semi-colon is used in the following ways:

**When joining two connected sentences.**

For example:

We set out at dawn; the weather looked promising.

or

Assertive behaviour concerns being able to express feelings, wants and desires appropriately; passive behaviour means complying with the wishes of others.

**The semi-colon can also be used to assemble detailed lists.**

For example:

The conference was attended by delegates from Paris, France; Paris, Texas; London, UK; Stockholm, Sweden; Colombo, Sri Lanka; and Mumbai, India.

Colon (:)

**The colon within a sentence makes a very pointed pause between two phrases. There are two main uses of the colon:**

**It is most commonly used when listing.**

For example:

She placed the following items into the trolley: beer, fruit, vegetables, toilet rolls, cereals and cartons of milk.

**Or it can be used within a heading, or descriptive title.**

For example:

Human Resource Management: Guidelines for Telephone Advisers

Apostrophe (')

**The apostrophe, sometimes called an inverted comma has two main uses.**

**The apostrophe indicates possession or ownership.**

For example:

The girl's hat was green, (girl is in the singular).

This shows the reader that the hat belongs to the girl.

The girls' hats were green, (girls in this instance are plural, i.e. more than one girl, more than one hat).

This indicates that the hats belong to the girls.

**Another use of the apostrophe is to indicate where a letter is omitted:**

For example:

We're going to do this course. (We are going to do this course.)

Isn't this a fine example of punctuation? (Is not this a fine example of punctuation?)

The time is now 7 o' clock. (The time is now 7 of the clock)

Note that a common mistake is to confuse **its** with **it's**.

**It's** indicates to the reader that a letter has been omitted.

For example:

**It's** a lovely day is an abbreviated way of saying: **It is** a lovely day.

**Q.4 Discuss different mechanics of the grammar.**

Grammar is the structure of written or spoken language. It refers to the parts of speech and how they combine together to form sentences. Mechanics refers to the rules of the written language, such as capitalization, punctuation and spelling. An understanding of both grammar and mechanics is required to clearly communicate your ideas in a paper. Here are some strategies to help you improve your grammar and mechanics:

- Keep a list of your most common errors. For example, if you often get feedback from your instructors that you are using commas incorrectly and writing many run-on sentences, make note of these errors.
- When you are proofreading your work, refer to your list of frequent errors and carefully read for correctness in these areas.
- Read your paper out loud (or listen to someone else read your writing). If you have access to reading software such as Read and Write, make use of its audio function.
- As you listen to your paper, you will likely be able to pick out sections that "sound right" and sections that don't. Then, go back to the rules of grammar and mechanics to fix any problem areas.
- Use the spelling and grammar checking tool in your word processor. However, be careful! These tools simply make suggestions but may not always provide the correct solution. You need to decide if these suggestions are going to make your writing better or worse.
- Read more about your problem areas, view examples and practice your skills.

Apostrophes are most commonly used in 4 ways.

**I. The first way an apostrophe is used is to signal possession.**

The apostrophe follows the name of the owner.

- The committee's decision
- The child's book
- Somebody's chess set
- The children's diapers
- Thomas's toys

These are all examples of times when ownership is signaled by using an apostrophe followed by a -s.

**II. The next way also signals ownership, yet it shows possession for plural nouns already ending in -s.**

- The students' suggestions (More than one student)
- My friends' ambition (More than one friend)

Note: When a word ends in -s with a z pronunciation, an apostrophe alone is sometime used: Charles' mother

**III. The third way to use an apostrophe is with contractions. In a contraction, the apostrophe appears where letters are omitted. To test whether you put the apostrophe in the correct place, mentally replace the missing letters.**

- Can't (cannot)
- Didn't (did not)



- He's (he is)
- They're (they are)

**IV. Use -'s for a plural form in only two instances. Use -'s for plural forms of letters of the alphabet. Italicize only the letter of the alphabet, not the plural ending.**

- Joe loved to eat the J's out of his alphabet soup.
- He had a strange problem of spelling hat with two t's.

And use -'s to refer to the plural word itself. Again, italicize the word, but not the

- You have used to many but's in that sentence.

Note: Yours, ours, its, theirs, his, hers, and whose are seven possessive pronouns; thus they need no apostrophe.

#### Comma Guide

Commas and periods are the most frequently used punctuation marks. Commas customarily indicate a brief pause; they're not as final as periods. Commas are used in sentences on paper the same way that pauses are used in speech-to clarify and convey meaning. Commas often fall in a sentence where there is a natural pause. Reading a sentence aloud can be an effective way to determine these pauses.

There are many more specific rules to follow as well. Here is a list of common rules:

#### **1. Put commas after introductory elements coming before the main sentence.**

a. Put commas after introductory adverb clauses. These clauses begin with words like while, when, but, although, and like, among others.

-When I ride my bike, I never fall down.

-Although the vote was a close one, Kennedy beat Nixon.

b. Put commas after introductory -ing phrases.

-Foaming and splashing, the water crashed against the rocks.

-Running too fast, I slipped on the ice.

c. Put commas after introductory prepositional phrases.

-Without further ado, here is the Heisman Award winner.

-In today's society, money is the ultimate goal for many.

d. Put commas after introductory infinitive phrases. An infinitive is the word "to" plus a verb.

-To vote in America, a person must be eighteen years old.

-To be successful, you must have determination.

e. Put commas after other introductory phrases or words that could be misread or misunderstood.

-However, people do have successes without education.

-Beyond, the stars flashed in the dark space.

-Yes, he has made his choice.

f. Put commas after introductory conjunctive adverbs such as therefore, consequently, or moreover.

-Moreover, Sam's dog is most sleepy in the afternoon.

-Therefore, a hot tub in the writing center is necessary.

**2. Put commas before these seven conjunctions when they connect two full sentences: AND, BUT, OR, NOR, FOR, SO, YET.**

-I tried to run, but I kept falling down.

-The president is the leader, so he makes the final decisions.

\*The only exception to this rule is when the two sentences are very short.

-I can run and I can walk.

**3. Put commas around words or phrases that interrupt sentences.**

-The man, however, was not fooled by the trick.

-The water, dashing against the rocks, foamed and splashed.

**4. Put commas between words in a series of three or more.**

-Some basic parts of speech are nouns, verbs, adverbs, and prepositions.

**5. Put commas between adjectives if they could be reversed or separated by "AND." Adjectives with these characteristics are considered "independent" and therefore need to be separated by commas.**

-The dashing, foaming, splashing waves hit the beach.

**6. Commas are used in certain conventional places.**

a. With numbers: St. Cloud has a population of 60,000.

b. With dates: Iraq invaded Kuwait on August 2, 1990.

c. With addresses: John lives at 434 Court Ave., Delbert, ND, 55555.

d. With titles and degrees: My teacher is Jim James, Ph.D.

e. With direct quotations:

Mary said, "How are you?"

"Strangely enough," he said, "I am fine."

\*No comma is used if the quote is very short: Billy said "No."

**Hyphens & Dashes**

Dashes have a variety of uses, all of which are to place emphasis in some way or another. Often the dash functions like a poor man's colon-it is less formal and creates less of a break in a sentence. The two main ways of using dashes are using a single dash and a using a pair of dashes.

**1. A pair of dashes can be used around a non-essential clause in two ways:**

a. to emphasize an interruption within a complete sentence. I must-I absolutely must-do my homework before I go to Loso's Main Street Pub.

b. to set off an appositive series that contains commas. There are many young female pop singers-Mandy Moore, Christina Aguilera, Jessica Simpson-but Britney Spears reigns supreme over them all.

**2. A single dash can be used to emphasize a word or group of words at the end of a sentence, usually in one of these three ways:**

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a. to summarize.

And then I regained consciousness-it had all been a flashback!

b. to lead into a final series.

The movie *The Big Lebowski* is a cinematic masterpiece-hilariously written, creatively filmed, and brilliantly acted.

c. to lead into an elaboration.

I'm glad I chose Saint John's University-the faculty is excellent, the classes are small, and the campus is beautiful.

\*Note that the clauses appearing after a dash or in between a set of dashes do not change the meaning of a sentence-they only give additional information.

### Quotation Marks

There are three different ways to introduce (or punctuate) quotations: with the comma, the colon, or nothing at all. Longer quotations (exceeding four complete typed lines) are set off from the text without quotation marks and are usually introduced by a colon or comma, while shorter quotations (four or fewer complete typed lines) are incorporated into the text and can be introduced by any one of the three methods of punctuation.

It is important to introduce every quotation--don't just drop a quotation in from nowhere so that it floats between your own text. In general, the lead-in for a direct quotation should identify both the person who is about to speak in the quotation and how the following quotation pertains to what you are writing or what you are about to write.

### The Comma:

- Use a comma when it fits into the natural flow of the sentence, even if you are not quoting someone. It is used commonly after such words as asks, remarks, asserts, states, and concludes.

According to Forster, "the greatest writer ever was Dickens."

Forster states, "the greatest writer ever was Dickens."

As Stone asserts in *The American Short Story*, "it has been regarded as essentially trivial, a diversion."

### The Colon:

- When a long quotation is formally introduced, it is usually preceded by a colon. Remember that in this situation the colon is like a period: it must have a complete sentence, or an independent clause, on both sides of it. In his biography on Dickens' life and works, G. K. Chesterton has the following to say about Dickens' character: For the essence of Dickens' character was that it was at once tremulous and yet hard and sharp, just as the bright blade of a sword is tremulous and yet hard and sharp. He vibrated at every touch and yet he was indestructible; you could bend him, but you could not break him (132).

- Quotations of verse are also usually preceded by a colon.

Coleridge's *Rime of the Ancient Mariner* concludes thus: "A sadder but wiser man, / He rose the morrow morn."

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Nothing:

• If a quotation is woven into your sentence and the syntax of your sentence matches that of the quotation, then neither a comma nor a colon is needed. Note that your voice makes little or no pause before reading these quotations.

During its early years, St. John's gave its approbation to such student clubs as The Sodality of the Blessed Virgin because they promoted "practical piety" among the students.

Wilson countered the charge by saying that "there is never any reason for supposing that anybody but the governess sees the ghosts."

Sentences

**1. A sentence pattern includes a subject and a predicate. One common way of enlarging sentence patterns is by joining two sentence patterns with conjunctions: and, but, for, nor, or, yet, so. This makes a compound sentence.**

Mary is laughing, but John is crying.

Mary cried, for she was hurt.

Away flew the paper, and up jumped the dog.

I couldn't tell Jesse how I felt about her, nor could I ignore my feelings any longer.

**2. Another way to enlarge sentence patterns is to combine sentences by using conjunctive adverbs: then, therefore, however, thus, moreover, nevertheless, in fact, consequently, likewise, still, also, otherwise, for example, furthermore, instead, and others that act like them. The whole sentence is a compound sentence.**

[Sentence pattern]; conjunctive adverb, [sentence pattern].

Mary is laughing; however, John is crying.

John was hurt; therefore, Mary cried.

Mary gave Jack the answer; thus, he passed the test.

Note: Unlike coordinating conjunctions, conjunctive adverbs can be moved around in the second sentence patterns:

"Mary is laughing; John, however, is crying." OR

"Mary is laughing; John is crying, however."

(While conjunctive adverbs may come at the end of the sentence, they are usually found at the beginning or imbedded in the sentence).

**3. Another way to enlarge sentence patterns is to use a subordinating word before one sentence pattern. Although several subordinates can be used with several different sentence patterns, a conventionally written sentence always has at least one sentence pattern without a subordinate word. The subordinate words are if, because, when, where, while, since, after, before, until, and other words that act like them. They usually make complex sentences.**

[Subordinate word + sentence pattern], [sentence pattern]

Since Jack was hurt, Mary was crying. (note comma)

While Jack bunted the ball, the third baseman came up to make the play.

Although Mary gave Jack he answers, he failed the test.

[Sentence pattern] [subordinate word + sentence pattern]

Mary was crying since Jack was hurt. (notice there is no comma)

The third baseman came up to make the play while Jack bunted the ball.

Jack failed the test although Mary gave him the answers.

**4. Another small group of subordinating words (who, whose, whom, which, that), called relative pronouns, introduce subordinate clauses functioning as adjectives.**

Noun: [Subordinate word + sentence pattern]: verb:

Mary, who is my cousin, laughed.

The girl who is laughing is my cousin.

Sentence pattern: Subordinate word: Sentence pattern:

I knew whom you meant.

Jerry heard that she was his cousin.

I met the girl who is his cousin.

Semicolons

The Semicolon (;) is primarily used to express a close, two-way connection between two sentences; however, it also has a variety of other uses. Generally, semicolons can be used in six ways:

1. Semicolons link two closely related independent clauses. These clauses should be roughly equivalent in form, length, and importance. Several Writing Center tutors are leaving after this year; others will be returning next fall.

2. The semicolon is used when a conjunctive adverb (e.g. however, therefore, moreover) links the two clause. Several Writing Center tutors are graduating this year; however, others will be returning next fall.

3. A semicolon can be used in place of the comma before a coordinating conjunction (e.g. and, but, or, nor, for, yet, so) to avoid confusion when the sentence contains many commas. Rush Limbaugh, Newt Gingrich, Bob Dole, and Phil Gramm are a bunch of bourgeois, conservative, capitalist pigs; and they should all be forced to live on a minimum wage salary for a year, buy groceries with food stamps, ride the bus to work, and try to provide day-care for two children.

4. Items in a simple series are separated by semicolons if the items contained internal commas. The Writing Center loses several experienced tutors this year, including Karen Ernst, Writing Center still-life artist; Tony Silva, booking agent extraordinaire; Andrea Williams, classical literature specialist; and Glen Tautges, ellipses engineer.

5. The semicolon is used between items in a scholarly series. Critics and scholars concur that Jane Austen's literary achievements rest on three uniquely wrought capacities: (1) her profoundly moral analysis of human

foibles; (2) her keenly perceptive analysis of the social caste system of nineteenth-century England; and (3) her delicately pervasive wit and irony.

6. Semicolons are also used in elliptical constructions. This university's campus is beautiful; its teaching staff excellent; and its food generally non-lethal.

Below are some examples and explanations of common misuses of the semi-colon. The correct punctuation is in parentheses.

1. Between a subordinate clause and the rest of the sentence. Unless you brush your teeth within ten or fifteen minutes after eating;(,) brushing does almost no good.

2. Between an appositive and the word it refers to. Another delicious dish is the chef's special;(,) a roasted duck rubbed with spices and stuffed with wild rice.

3. To introduce a list. Some of my favorite film stars have home pages on the Web;(:) John Travolta, Susan Sarandon, Brad Pitt, and Emma Thompson.

4. Between independent clauses joined by AND, BUT, OR, NOR, FOR, SO, or YET. Five of the applicants had worked with spreadsheets; (,) but only one was familiar with database management.

Exceptions: If at least one of the independent clauses contains internal punctuation, you may use a semicolon even though the clauses are joined with a coordinating conjunction, as discussed earlier.

#### **Q.5 Elaborate modal verbs and conditionals.**

The modal verb “can” is used to indicate ability or possibility, let’s look at some examples: If you arrive early, you can catch a ride to the game with me. Mike can help you with your homework, if you ask him nicely. Can you look after the baby if we go to the cinema? You can also use the conditional sentences in the negative: If she doesn’t study for the exam, then she can’t go out tonight. You can’t make the football team if you don’t play well. The modal verb “must” is used for strong obligations in English, as we see in the following examples: If you visit Brazil, you must come stay with me. If Mary phones you, you must tell me. She must be on time, if she wants to come with us. Now in the negative: You mustn’t go to the party if you don’t want to. She mustn’t try fix it if it’s not broken. The modal verb “may” is used to express possibility or permission. If I finish my work may I go home? I may come to your house after work, if I have enough time. Claire may help you study if you promise to work hard. May I take you out to dinner if I promise to have you home by 11pm? Finally, we use the modal verb “might” to indicate remote possibility, for example: I might make it to work on time, if I leave now. You might catch a cold if you don’t put on a jacket. If we win this game we might have a chance of winning the league. The negative would be: Kevin might not make it to the party if he doesn’t finish work on time. If we don’t leave now, we might not make the bus. Well everyone, we hope that this post has been useful for you and that you have learnt more information about conditional sentences with modal verbs. If you would like any more information about them and other grammar posts.

Modal verbs or modal auxiliary verbs are a type of verbs that indicates modality, i.e., likelihood, permission, ability and obligation. Some of the common modal verbs are can, could, may, might and must. Let us

understand them briefly. Remember as a kid you asked your parents before going out to play, “Can I go out to play?” Now, at your work place when you want to leave early, you have to ask for permission, “Could I go home early today?”

### Types Of Modals

#### 1. Will/ Would

Will is used to show a wish, prediction, request, demand, order, assumption, promise, etc.

**Examples:**

Will you please keep quiet?

Aruna says, it will rain today.

Kumar said he will not drink alcohol henceforth.

Whereas, would is used to show a wish or to request in a polite way and sometimes to express habits.

**Examples:**

Would you please give me 100 bucks?

She would remain very calm during her examination days.

#### 2. Can

Can is used to show permission, possibility, and ability.

**Examples:**

You can join us for the dinner if you want.

Can I leave early today?

Sanvika can speak English fluently.

#### 3. Could

Could is used to represent a suggestion, request, permission, future possibility and ability in the past.

**Examples:**

Could I go for a movie?

I think we could do it.

Neha gave up her dreams so that she could marry him.

#### 4. May

May is used to ask permission and to show future possibility.

**Examples:**

May I have a cup of tea?

India may become a developed country by 2020.

#### 5. Might

Might is used to show present and future possibility.

**Examples:**

I have a coupon of Pantaloons, that might offer a discount of 10% after showing them.

Mrs. Smith might be sleeping now, let's not disturb her.

### **6. Must**

Must shows the necessity, obligation and prohibition.

#### **Examples:**

You must not do it.

We must leave now.

### **7. Should**

Should is used to show advice and obligation.

#### **Examples:**

You should walk carefully as the roads are slippery.

Shriya, you should close the tap and avoid wastage of water.

These modal verbs help you every day in your conversation. It is important to learn their correct usage.

To improve your English communication skills, you can join a course and learn grammar in-depth. A spoken English course will not only help you develop your English communication skills but also will make you fluent in the language.