

Using Auxiliary Verbs in Constructing English Language Sentences

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Abstract:

This study was conducted at Elobeid secondary schools, during the year 2017-2018. The study aimed to investigate the use of auxiliary verbs in constructing English language sentences for secondary school students in Elobeid. The study followed the descriptive analytical approach and the data were collected through a questionnaire. A sample of 40 secondary schools English language teachers in Elobeid town was chosen randomly from the total number of 120. The data were analyzed statistically by using "SPSS" programme version 16. The study resulted in the idea that using auxiliary verbs help in constructing English language sentences and this was stated by 95.0% of the respondents. Furthermore, 93% of the teachers agreed to the idea that Auxiliary verbs are so important in constructing correct and meaningful grammatical sentences. The study recommended that auxiliary verbs are important and should be presented at the very beginning of teaching English language. Besides, syllabus designers should focus on auxiliary verbs in English language syllabuses for secondary schools.

Key words: auxiliary verbs constructing sentences grammatical syllabuses

استخدام الأفعال المساعدة في بناء جملة اللغة الإنجليزية

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المستخلص:

أُجريت هذه الدراسة في مدينة الأبيض بالمدارس الثانوية خلال العام 2022-2023. وهدفت الدراسة للتحقق من استخدام الأفعال المساعدة في بناء الجملة الإنجليزية لطلاب المدارس الثانوية في مدينة الأبيض. واتبعت هذه الدراسة الطريقة التحليلية الوصفية وتم جمع المعلومات عن طريق الاستبانة كمصدر أساسي. وتم استخدام العينة العشوائية وعددها 40 معلماً للغة الإنجليزية من جملة العدد الكلي لمعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية بالمدينة، والبالغ عددهم 120 معلماً، وتم تحليل البيانات باستخدام برنامج الحزم الإحصائية للعلوم الاجتماعية النسخة 16.0. ومن خلال التحليل توصل البحث إلى النتائج الآتية: أن الأفعال المساعدة تساعد في بناء الجملة الإنجليزية وذلك بنسبة 95% من العينة. كما أنه وافق 93% من العينة بأن الأفعال المساعدة أكثر أهمية في بناء جملة نحوية صحيحة ذات معنى كامل. وبناءً على ذلك تُوصى الدراسة بأن الأفعال المساعدة من الأهمية بمكان ويجب أن تدرس مع بداية تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية وأيضاً على واضعي منهج اللغة الإنجليزية التركيز على الأفعال

الكلمات المفتاحية: الأفعال المساعدة، بناء جملة نحوية، منهج

Background:

An auxiliary verb is always the first word in the verb phrase .It always has the same form and never has an ending such as s ,ing or ed .After auxiliary verb we put a bare infinitive such as: It will be Windy.

Auxiliary verb does not have to – infinitive after it except ought. The auxiliary verbs include : will , would ,shall , should , can ,could , may , might , must , need , ought to and dare . Auxiliary verbs are important in negatives, questions, tags and they come before the subject in questions such as: How should I organize my work?

1.1 Statement of the problem:

English language learners face difficulties in Constructing English Language Sentences using the auxiliary verbs. So the study is an attempt to find out solution to this phenomenon.

1.2 Objectives of the Study:

The present study attempts to achieve the following objectives:

1. To provide the students of English language with different types of auxiliary verbs and their use in constructions.
2. To support and show how auxiliary verbs are essential in English language structure.
3. To help the students of English language to use auxiliary verbs in constructing sentences correctly.

1.3 Questions of the Study:

This study will attempt to answer the following questions:

1. What are the different types of auxiliary verbs that can help students in constructing English sentences?
2. How auxiliary verbs contributing in constructing English language sentences?
3. To what extent students of English language can be able to use auxiliary verbs correctly.

Significance of the Study:

1. This study is supposed to be significant because it supports and provides students of English with uses of auxiliary verbs which are essential in forming simplest sentences.
2. To help students avoid mistakes constantly made when using auxiliary verbs.

Method of the Study:

The methods that use in the study is descriptive analytical methods and data was collected through structured questionnaire.

Definition of auxiliary verbs:

The modal verbs or (modal auxiliary verbs) are will ,would ,should ,can , could ,may ,might ,must ,need ,ought to and dare.

I must go now. We can park here.

There are some expressions with have and be which have similar meanings to modal verbs.

I have to go now. We are allowed to park here.

These expressions can have forms such as a past tense or to –infinitive.

I had to hurry to get here .We asked to be allowed to go.

Modal verbs express meanings such as necessity and possibility.

We can use modal verbs to tell or allow people to do things, or we can use, them to say modal verbs to tell or allow people to do things, or we can use them to say how certain or uncertain we are(Wood,J,1997:113).

Auxiliary verbs are joined with other verbs to form different tenses .The chief auxiliary verbs are:

1. Verb “ to be “ and it is different forms – is , am , are ,was ,were ,has ,have ,had , does , do ,did ,will ,would ,shall ,should ,may ,might ,can ,could ,ought ,must ,dare ,need ,used to .

2. Some of these verbs can also be used as principal verbs (i.e. verbs with a full meaning) thus:

1.He is doing his work. as auxiliary verb

Go is (exists) as “principal verb.

Go is honest; I am late as “verb of incomplete predication .

2. I have done my work as “auxiliary verb.

I have a book as “principal verb.

3. I do not know him as “auxiliary verb.

They do their work as “principal verb.

3. Shall ,will ,may ,can ,must ,ought ,dare ,need ,are also called anomalous finites because they cannot be used in all the tenses .They are also called modal auxiliaries ,because they express the mode or manner of the actions denoted in the main verb.

4. The peculiar nature of the modals is that:

(i) They are never used alone. They must have a princi-

pal verb with them.

I can play the violin.

(ii) They have the same form through whatever the person and number of subject :

I can run; they can run; you can run.

(iii) They do not have infinitives or participle form.

We cannot use “t” with them or past participle form or write “ can drive” etc. (Lal,1991:203)

Classes of verbs:

Classes of verbs (A): there are two classes of verbs in English:

1. The auxiliary verbs (auxiliaries): to be , to have , to do , can ,could ,may ,might ,must ,ought ,shall ,should ,will ,would ,to need , to dare and used.

2. All other verbs, which we call ordinary verbs.

To work to sing to pray

B be , have , do , need and dare have infinitives and participles like ordinary verbs , but can , could ,may ,might ,must , ought ,shall ,should ,will and would have neither infinitives nor participles and therefore have only a restricted number of forms.

Before studying auxiliaries it may be helpful to consider ordinary verbs, most of whose tenses are formed with auxiliaries.

Ordinary verbs:

Principal parts of the active verb:

Affirmative negative

Present infinitive to work not to work

Present continuous to be working not to be working
infinitive.

Perfect infinitive to have worked not to have worked

Perfect continuous to have been not to have been

Infinitive: working working.

Present participle working not working
and gerund

Perfect participle having worked not having
worked and gerund

Past participle worked

In regular verbs the simple past and past participle are both formed by adding d or ed to the infinitive.

Sometimes the final consonant of the infinitive has to be doubled, e.g. slip, slipped (A.J.Thomson and A.V. Martient ,1986:105).

The modal auxiliary verb of English

Shall should be to

Will wouldhave to

May might need (to)

Can could be able to

Must ought to

Their semantic function within the VP is related to such general concepts as: obligation, prohibition, permission, necessity, possibility and ability (dekeyser , X and devriendt , B and tops ,G and Geulens,S , 1979:87).

The formation of the future tense by using the auxiliary will/shall :

The future tense is formed by using the auxiliaries will and shall .The original meaning of will was to resolve , it denoted volition .The original meaning of shall was to be under a necessity or constraint .the verbs still retain some remains of these meanings.

One of the main causes of the difficulty with shall and will is that we use two verbs to express three things, viz, volition, obligation and futurity .Moreover, the distinction between these three conception cannot always be clear .cut , futurity may be tinged with volition , and volition is almost certain to take effect in the future rather than at the present moment.

Pure future :

To express merely futurity uncoloured by any one's inclinations or intentions , the normal usage is shall for the first person singular and plural and will for all other persons.

I shall we shall
 You will you will
 He, she, it will they will

In conversations will is generally shortened to “ U e.g. the “U. you U etc., and the negative will not to won't .The interrogative is made by inversion .e.g. shall I? Will they?

The comparison of can/could etc. for actions:

Compare can /could etc. for actions:

Can I can go out tonight (= there is nothing to stop me)
 I can't go out tonight.

Could I could go out tonight, but (I'm not very keen.
 I couldn't go out last night (= I wasn't able).

Can or may can

May I go out tonight? (= do you allow me)

Will I won't I think I'll go out tonight.

I promised I won't go out.

Would I would go out tonight, but I have too much to do.

I promised I wouldn't go out.

Shall Shall I go out tonight? (Do you think it is a good Idea?).

Should or ought to I should go out tonight.(= it would be a Ought to good thing to do)

Must I must go out tonight (= it is necessary)

I mustn't go out tonight (=it is necessary that I do not go out).

Needn't I needn't go out tonight (= it is not necessary).

Compare could have .../would have ...etc.

Could I could have gone out last night, but I decided to stay at home.

Would I would have gone out last night, but I had too much to do.

Should or I should have gone out last night. I am sorry I Ought to didn't.

Needn't I needn't have gone out last night (= I went out, but it was not necessary)" (Murphy, R, 2007:296) .

Necessity: must, have (got) to, needn't and mustn't

Must and have to:

a-This is a rule in a British Rail leaflet about a young person's Rail card.

You must buy your ticket before starting your journey, unless you join the train at a station where ticket purchase facilities are not available.

Now look at this conversation.

Abigail: There isn't much time to spare .you'd better buy your ticket on the train.

Phil: I can't do that. I want to use this rail card.

I have to buy the ticket before I get on.

When we talk about necessity in the present or the near future, we can use either must or have (got) to. But there is a difference in meaning.

We normally use must when the speaker feels the necessity and have to when the necessity is outside the speaker.

You must buy your ticket before starting your journey.

I have to buy the ticket before get on the train. The leaflet uses must because the rule is made by British Rail, and they are the authority .Phil uses have to because the rule is not his, and the necessity results from the situation.

You must ... is a way of ordering someone to do something. You have to ... is a way of telling them what is necessary in the situation.

You must fill in a form. (I'm telling you.)

You have to fill in a form.(that's the rule).

I must go on a diet. I'm getting over weight.

I have to go on a diet .the doctor has told me to.

Note: A: compare the meaning of must and have to in questions.

Must I write these letters now? (= Do you insist that I write them?).

Do I have to write these letters now? (= is it necessary for me to write them?)

You needn't take me to the station .I can walk.

You don't to take me to the station. Alan's giving me a lift.

6. Need as an ordinary verb.

Need to means the same as have to.

The colours have to I need to match.

The figure doesn't have to / doesn't need to be exact.

Uses of Shall and will, should and would.

(i) Shall is used in the first person and will in the second and third persons to express simple future time:

I shall start tomorrow. (first person)

- He will go home today (third person)

You will admit that he was in the wrong. (Second person)

(ii) Will in the first person expresses intention , promise , threat and determination:

1. I will go home today. (intention)

2. I will try to do better next time. (promise)

3. I will avenge his death. (threat)

4. I will do or die. (determination)

(iii) I shall in the second and third persons expresses command , promise , threat , determination:

1- You shall do it just now. (order)

He shall leave at once. (order)

2- You shall be punished for what you have done.

The man shall die for this offence (threat)

3- You shall have a holiday today.

He shall get his dues just now. (promise)

4- You shall carry out my orders.

He shall leave this place at once. (determination)

(Lal, B, 1991:204,205).

Interrogation sentences:

Shall in the first second persons and will in the third person expresses simple future tense:

Shall I go home?

Will you accompany me?

(iv) Shall in the first and third person and will second person shows the wish or intention of the speaker:

Shall I buy you a watch?

Shall he go with you?

Will you help me?

Will you lend me some money?

In a complex sentence, however, will and shall 'are always used in the principal clause and never in the subordinate clause:

I shall help him if he works for me.

Would and should are past tenses of " will " and shall; would is used to express:

(a) Determination: I would have you my way.

(b) Habitual: He would sit all day with the book in his hand.

(c) Willingness: I would do my best to satisfy you.

(d) Wish: would that I were healthy! Should is used to express:

(e) Duty: we should keep our word.

(f) Supposition: If I shall meet him now, he will not recognize me.

(g) After lest: walk carefully lest you should stumble.

5- Must, need ,ought , dare :

Must expresses compulsion:

You must carry out my orders.

Need is used to express necessity in Negative and interrogative sentences. It does not take “s” in the third person, singular, present tense and takes for its objects and infinitive without “to”:

He need not go.

Need I go there?

Ought is followed by present infinitive or perfect infinitive:

We ought to help our neighbours.

You ought to have gone by now.

Dare also does not take “s” in the third person, singular.

Present tense:

He dare not do it.

If dare is used in the affirmative sense, we also use it in the past.

He dared me to fight. (Challenged)” (Lal, B, 1991:204,205).

Will and would:

The Aux will is , as we have just explained , an s-o- modal “ it expresses volition of the grammatical subject of the sentence or clause .it can occur in various shades of emphasis or intensity , ranging from “ coloured” prediction to insistence. Accordingly weak /w/ or /w/ and stressed /wɪl/ can be used. /wɪl/ is also used when the modal precedes it is subject, as in (4):

(1) I’ll finish the work by tomorrow .(- Iwill...)

(2) I will (stressed) do as you’ve told me.

(3) He will (stressed) drive the car, but he is drunk.

(4) Why will you insist on punctuality during the summer Vac?

4.13 will is occasionally used for formal and impersonal instructions (broadly) discourse –oriented):

(5) You will stay here until the jailer has returned.

(6) You will leave the dog outside.(these are the instructions).

Would is the past for will. because (discourse-oriented) instructions in the past do not make sense.

(7) He would drive the car , though he was drunk.

(8) He would marry her to because king of France.

(9) She wouldn't sit for her BA exams.

(10) He said he modal past, would makes questions and invitations less direct:

(11) Would you care for it?

(12) Would you have some more wive?

(13) Would you come with us this week –end? Modal past would, or it is weak form'd , also features in collocations with rather or sooner expressing preference:

(14) I would rather cook the dinner in the evening (I prefer to)

(15) I'd rather *sooner) you did not leave me now. (Dekeyser X and etal 1979:88)

- The finite indicative forms of the verb be:

am, is, are, was, were;

- The finite indicative forms of the verb have: have, has, had, principally when used to make perfect verb forms;

- The finite indicative forms of the verb do: do, does, did, when used to provide do-support;

-The principal modal verbs

can, could, may, might, must, shall, should, will, would;

- Certain other verbs, sometimes but not always classed as modals: ought; dare and need in certain uses; had in had better; and sometimes used in used to (see the relevant sections of English modal verbs for details).

If membership of this syntactic class is considered to be the defining property for auxiliary verbs, it is therefore the above-listed verbs that will be considered as auxiliaries. Additionally, non-in-

dicative and non-finite forms of the same verbs (when performing the same functions) are usually described as auxiliaries too, even though all or most of the distinctive syntactical properties do not apply to them specifically. This concerns be (as infinitive, imperative and subjunctive), being and been; and when used in the expression of perfect aspect, have, having and had.

The chief difference between this syntactic definition of “auxiliary verb” and the functional definition given in the section above is that the syntactic definition includes the verb be even when used simply as a copular verb, in sentences like I am hungry and It was a cat, where it does not accompany any other verb.

For this and other differences in the sets of words identified as auxiliaries by various authors, see the following section.

Sometimes, non-auxiliary uses of have follow auxiliary syntax, as in Have you any ideas? and I haven't a clue. Other lexical verbs do not do this in modern English, although they did so formerly, and such uses as I know not... can be found in archaic English.

Differences in listings of auxiliary verbs:

Lists or sets of auxiliary verbs in English, as given by various authors, generally consist of most or all of the verbs mentioned in the above sections, though with minor discrepancies.

The main differences between the various proposed sets of auxiliary verbs are noted below.

-For the reasons mentioned above, forms of the verb be may or may not be regarded as auxiliaries when used as a copula not accompanying any other verb.

-The verb ought is sometimes excluded from the class of auxiliaries (specifically the modal auxiliaries) on the grounds that, unlike the principal modals, it requires the to-infinitive rather than the bare infinitive.

-The verbs dare and need are not always considered auxilia-

ries (or modals); their auxiliary-like syntactic behavior (and their modal-like invariance) applies only to some instances of these verbs – see dare and need.

-The verbs had and used in the expressions had better and used to are not always included among the auxiliaries or modals; in the case of used to questions and negations are in any case more frequently formed using do-support than with auxiliary syntax.

- Other verbs with modal-like or auxiliary-like function may sometimes be classed as auxiliaries even though they do not have auxiliary-like syntactic behavior; this may apply to have in the expression have to, meaning “must”.

As mentioned below, the contractions of negated forms of auxiliary verbs (isn't, shouldn't, etc.) behave in a certain sense as if they were auxiliaries in their own right, in that they can participate as a whole in subject–auxiliary inversion.

Contractions:

Contractions are a common feature of English, used frequently in ordinary speech. In written English, contractions are used in some semiformal writing and mostly in informal writing.. They usually involve the elision of a vowel – an apostrophe being inserted in its place in written English – possibly accompanied by other changes. Many of these contractions involve auxiliary verbs and their negations, although not all of these have common contractions, and there are also certain other contractions not involving these verbs.

Contractions were first used in speech during the early 17th century and in writing during the mid 17th century when not lost its stress and tone and formed the contraction n't. Around the same time, contracted auxiliaries were first used. When it was first used, it was limited in writing to only fiction and drama. In the 19th and 20th centuries, the use of contractions in writing spread outside of fiction such as personal letters, journalism, and descriptive texts.

Certain contractions tend to be restricted to speech and very informal writing, such as John'd or Mary'd for "John/Mary would" (compare the personal pronoun forms I'd and you'd, which are more likely to be encountered in relatively informal writing). This applies in particular to constructions involving consecutive contractions, such as wouldn't've for "would not have".

Contractions in English are generally not mandatory as in some other languages. It is almost always acceptable to use the uncontracted form, although in speech this may seem overly formal. This is often done for emphasis: I am ready! The uncontracted form of an auxiliary or copula must be used in elliptical sentences where its complement is omitted: Who's ready? I am! (not *I'm!).

Some contractions lead to homophony, which sometimes causes errors in writing. Confusion is particularly common between it's (for "it is/has") and the pronoun possessive its, and sometimes similarly between you're and your. For the confusion of have or 've with of (as in "would of" for would have), see Weak and strong forms in English.

Contractions of the type described here should not be confused with abbreviations, such as Ltd. for "Limited (company)". Contraction-like abbreviations, such as int'l for international, are considered abbreviations as their contracted forms cannot be pronounced in speech. Abbreviations also include acronyms and initialisms.

Contracted auxiliaries:

The following contractions of auxiliary verbs (including forms of be, whether as a strict auxiliary or as a copula) are used:

- 'm for am, in I'm (for I am)
- 's for is, as in it's (for it is), the man's (for the man is, although the same form is used for the possessive)
- 're for are, mostly in we're, you're and they're
- 've for auxiliary have, mostly in I've, you've, we've and

they've

-s for auxiliary has (the examples given above for is could also be intended as it has and the man has)

-d for auxiliary had, mostly in I'd, you'd etc. and who'd (including in the expression had better), and similarly for would

-ll for will (sometimes interpreted as shall)

-in very informal English, 's for does and 'd for did, as in What's (What does) he do there? Who'd (Who did) you see there?

The contraction 's (representing is, 'has or does) is pronounced in the same way as the regular plural ending -(e)s and possessive ending 's, namely as /ɪz/or /ə/ when following a sibilant sound, as /s/ when following any other voiceless consonant, and as /z/ otherwise.

Negative contractions:

Contractions of negated auxiliary verbs in Standard English are formed by reducing the negative grammatical particle not to n't, a clitic or suffix which is fused to the root verb form (which is modified in a few cases). The n't may form a separate syllable, as in isn't and wouldn't (which are two-syllable words), or may become part of the preceding syllable, as in the monosyllables don't, aren't and weren't.

The standard contractions for negation of auxiliaries are as follows:

-From forms of be: isn't, aren't, wasn't, weren't

-From forms of have: haven't, hasn't, hadn't

-From forms of do: don't, doesn't, didn't

-From modal verbs: can't (the full form is the single word cannot), couldn't, mayn't (rare), mightn't, mustn't, shan't (for shall not), shouldn't, won't (for will not), wouldn't, daren't, needn't, oughtn't, usedn't (rare).

The above contractions can appear when the verb follows auxiliary-type syntax as defined in the section Auxiliaries as verbs

with special grammatical behavior § Notes. This includes all uses of *be*, and for some speakers have when used to denote possession (as in *I haven't a clue*). For details of the usage of the modal contractions, see the relevant sections of English modal verbs. For the possibility of inverting a negative contraction with the clause subject, see § Contractions and inversion below.

The following four of the standard negative contractions involve changes to the form of the auxiliary.

-In *can't* (for *cannot*), the vowel may change – *can* has /æ/ in the strong form and /ə/ in the more common weak form, whereas *can't* has /ɑ:/ in RP and /æ/ in standard American pronunciation. It was formerly written “*ca'n't*”.

-In *don't* there is again a vowel change, from the /u:/ of *do* to the /ʊ/ (/əʊ/) of *don't*.

-In *shan't* (for *shall not*), the /l/ sound is dropped, and the vowel changes (in RP, from the /æ/ or weaker /ə/ of *shall* to the /ɑ:/ of *shan't*). This contraction's not common in American English. It evolved from “*shalln't*”, and was formerly written “*sha'n't*”.

-In *won't* (for *will not*), again the /l/ sound is dropped, and the vowel is /ʊ/ (/əʊ/) rather than the /ɪ/ of *will*.

There is no standard contraction for *am not* except in inversion. This is known as the “*amn't gap*”. Some non-standard contractions for this and certain other negations are described in the following sections.

Contractions representing *am not*:

Although there is no contraction for *am not* in standard English, there are certain colloquial or dialectal forms that may fill this role. These may be used in declarative sentences, whose standard form contains *I am not*, and in questions, with standard form *am I not?* In the declarative case the standard contraction *I'm not* is available, but this does not apply in questions, where speakers may feel the need for a negative contraction to form the analog of *isn't*

it, aren't they, etc. (see § Contractions and inversion below).

The following are sometimes used in place of am not in the cases described above:

-The contraction ain't may stand for am not, among its other uses. For details see the next section, and the separate article on ain't.

-The word amnae for "am not" exists in Scots, and has been borrowed into Scottish English by many speakers.

-The contraction amn't (formed in the regular manner of the other negative contractions, as described above) is a standard contraction of am not in some dialects of mainly Hiberno-English (Irish English) and Scottish English.[15][16] In Hiberno-English the question form (amn't I?) is used more frequently than the declarative I amn't. (The standard I'm not is available as an alternative to I amn't in both Scottish English and Hiberno-English.) An example appears in Oliver St. John Gogarty's impious poem The Ballad of Japing Jesus: "If anyone thinks that I amn't divine, / He gets no free drinks when I'm making the wine". These lines are quoted in James Joyce's Ulysses, which also contains other examples: "Amn't I with you? Amn't I your girl?" (spoken by Cissy Caffrey to Leopold Bloom).

-The contraction aren't, which in standard English represents are not, is a very common means of filling the "amn't gap" in questions: Aren't I lucky to have you around? Some twentieth-century writers described this usage as "illiterate" or awkward; today, however, it is reported to be "almost universal" among speakers of Standard English. Aren't as a contraction for am not developed from one pronunciation of "an't" (which itself developed in part from "amn't"; see the etymology of "ain't" in the following section). In non-rhotic dialects, "aren't" and this pronunciation of "an't" are homophones, and the spelling "aren't I" began to replace "an't I" in the early part of the 20th century,[20] although

examples of “aren’t I” for “am I not” appear in the first half of the 19th century, as in “St. Martin’s Day”, from Holland-tide by Gerald Griffin, published in *The Ant* in 1827: “aren’t I listening; and isn’t it only the breeze that’s blowing the sheets and halliards about?”

There is therefore no completely satisfactory first-person alternative to aren’t you? and isn’t it? in standard English. The grammatical am I not? sounds stilted or affected, while aren’t I? is grammatically dubious, and ain’t I? is considered substandard. Nonetheless, aren’t I? is the solution adopted in practice by most speakers.

Contractions not involving auxiliaries:

The following contractions used in English do not involve either auxiliaries (as defined in this article) or their negations:

-let’s for let us when used to make first-person plural imperatives

- In some nonstandard dialects, ‘s for as used for the relative pronoun that

- O’ in o’clock (originally a contraction of the words of (the))

-’t for it, archaic except in stock uses such as ‘Twas the night before Christmas

-’d for -ed (the simple past tense marker), archaic except in abbreviated or shortened verbs.

-’em for them (in fact from the old form hem – see English personal pronouns)

-’im, ‘er, ‘is, etc. for him, her, his, etc. – see Weak and strong forms in English

-y’all, for you all, used as a plural second-person pronoun, mainly in the Southern United States

-g’day, for good day, used as a greeting, mainly in Australia

-a for of, have – some forms of syncope may also be considered contractions, such as wanna for want to, gonna for going to,

and others common in colloquial speech. The suffix -a can be a contraction for the auxiliary have, such as woulda for would have.

Contractions and inversion:

In cases of subject–auxiliary inversion, particularly in the formation of questions, the negative contractions can remain together as a unit and invert with the subject, thus acting as if they were auxiliary verbs in their own right. For example:

He is going. → Is he going? (regular affirmative question formation)

He isn't going. → Isn't he going? (negative question formation; isn't inverts with he)

The alternative is not to use the contraction, in which case only the verb inverts with the subject, while the not remains in place after it:

He is not going. → Is he not going?

Note that the form with isn't he is no longer a simple contraction of the fuller form (which must be is he not, and not *is not he). Some more examples:

Why haven't you washed? / Why have you not washed?

Can't you sing? / Can you not sing? (the full form cannot be redivided in case of inversion)

Where wouldn't they look for us? / Where would they not look for us?

The contracted forms of the questions are more usual in informal English. They are commonly found in tag questions. For the possibility of using aren't I (or other dialectal alternatives) in place of the uncontracted am I not, see Contractions representing am not above.

The same phenomenon sometimes occurs in the case of negative inversion:

Not only doesn't he smoke, ... / Not only does he not smoke, ...

Modal verbs and their features:

The verbs customarily classed as modals in English have the following properties:

- They do not inflect (in the modern language) except insofar as some of them come in present–past (present–preterite) pairs. They do not add the ending -(e)s in the third-person singular (the present-tense modals therefore follow the preterite-present paradigm).

- They are defective: they are not used as infinitives or participles (except occasionally in non-standard English; see § Double modals below), nor as imperatives, nor (in the standard way) as subjunctives.

- They function as auxiliary verbs: they modify the meaning of another verb, which they govern. This verb generally appears as a bare infinitive, although in some definitions a modal verb can also govern the to-infinitive (as in the case of ought).

- They have the syntactic properties associated with auxiliary verbs in English, principally that they can undergo subject–auxiliary inversion (in questions, for example) and can be negated by the appending of not after the verb

1. Jump up However, they used to be declined by person and number, but with the preterite endings. Thus, they often have deviating second person singular forms, which still may be heard in quotes from the Bible (as in thou shalt not steal) or in poetry.

The following verbs have all of the above properties, and can be classed as the principal modal verbs of English. They are listed here in present–preterite pairs where applicable:

- can and could
- may and might
- shall and should
- will and would
- must (no preterite)

Etymology:

The modals can and could are from Old English *can(n)* and *cuþ*, which were respectively present and preterite forms of the verb *cunnan* (“to be able”). The silent *l* in the spelling of *could* results from analogy with *would* and *should*.

Similarly, *may* and *might* are from Old English *mæg* and *meahte*, respectively present and preterite forms of *magan* (“may, to be able”); *shall* and *shouldare* from *sceal* and *sceolde*, respectively present and preterite forms of *sculan* (“to owe, be obliged”); and *will* and *would* are from *wille* and *wolde*, respectively present and preterite forms of *willan* (“to wish, want”).

The aforementioned Old English verbs *cunnan*, *magan*, *sculan* and *willan* followed the paradigm (or in the case of *willan*, a similar but irregular paradigm), which explains the absence of the ending *-s* in the third person on the present forms *can*, *may*, *shall* and *will*. (The original Old English forms given above were first and third person singular forms; their descendant forms became generalized to all persons and numbers.)

The verb *must* comes from Old English *mošte*, part of the verb *motan* (“to be able to, be obliged to”). This was another preterite-present verb, of which *mošte* was in fact the preterite (the present form *mot* gave rise to *mote*, which was used as a modal verb in Early Modern English; but *must* has now lost its past connotations and has replaced *mote*). Similarly, *ought* was originally a past form – it derives from *ahte*, preterite of *agan* (“to own”), another Old English preterite-present verb, whose present tense form *ah* has given the modern (regular) verb *owe* (and *ought* was formerly used as a past tense of *owe*).

The verb *dare* also originates from a preterite-present verb, *durran* (“to dare”), specifically its present tense *dear(r)*, although in its non-modal uses in Modern English it is conjugated regularly. However, *need* comes from the regular Old English verb *neodian*

(meaning “to be necessary”) – the alternative third person form need (in place of needs), which has become the norm in modal uses, became common in the 16th century

Using auxiliary verb patterns helps in constructing English language sentences

| Valid | Frequency | Percent |
|----------|-----------|---------|
| Agree | 38 | 95.0 |
| disagree | 2 | 5.0 |
| Total | 40 | 100.0 |

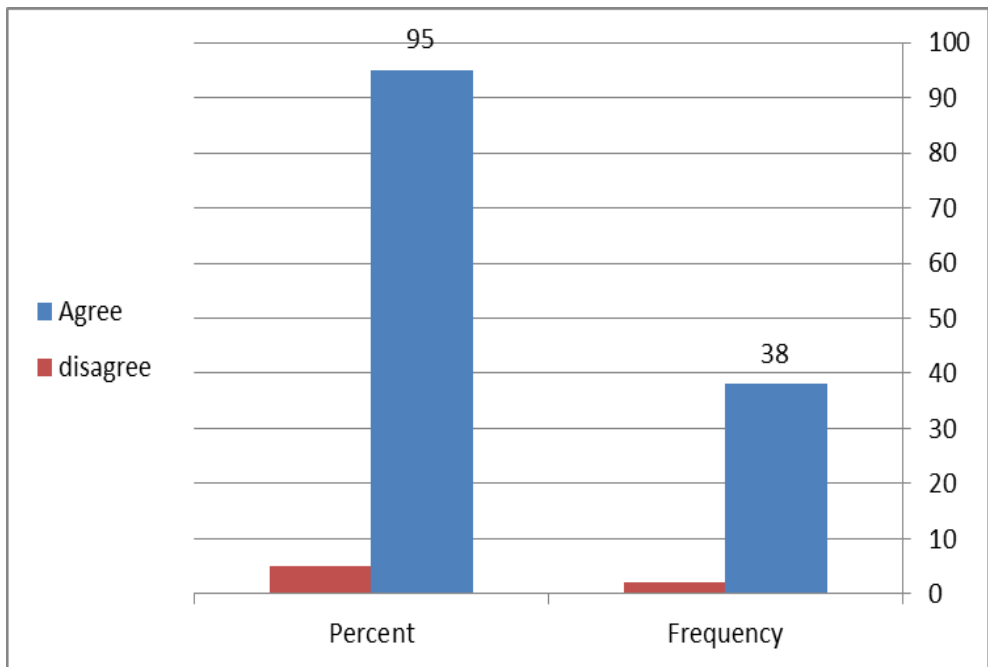


Table and figure show that the majority of the respondents (38) 95.0% agreed “ using auxiliary verb patterns helps in constructing English language sentences “ while the minority of the respondents (2) 5.0% disagreed .This means “ using auxiliary verb patterns helps in constructing English language sentences.”

knowledge of auxiliary verb patterns enables the students of

English language to develop their skills of speaking and writing.

| Valid | Frequency | Percent |
|----------|-----------|---------|
| Agree | 34 | 85.0 |
| Not sure | 3 | 7.5 |
| Disagree | 3 | 7.5 |
| Total | 40 | 100.0 |

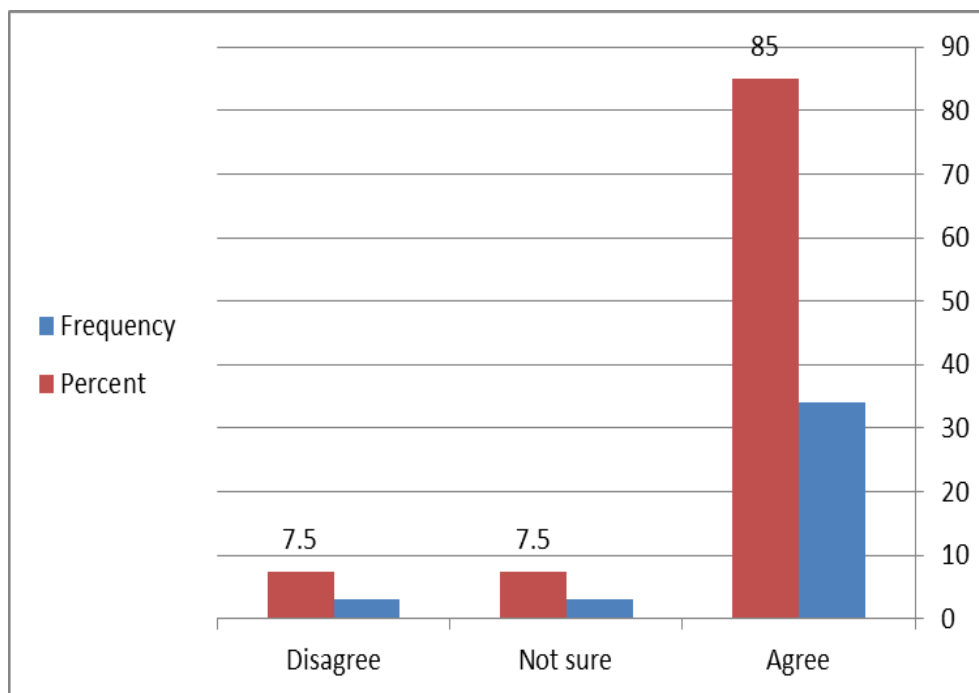


Table and figure (4.2) show that the majority (34) 85.0% of the respondents of the sample of the study agreed to “ knowledge of auxiliary verb patterns enables the students of English language to develop their skills of speaking and writing “ while the minority (3) 7.5 % were not sure and the least minority (3) 7.5% disagreed .This means “ knowledge of auxiliary verb patterns enables the students of English language to develop their skills of speaking and writing.”

teachers of English language don't pay more adore attention to the auxiliary verbs as they do with other types of grammar.

| Valid | Frequency | Percent |
|----------|-----------|---------|
| Agree | 13 | 32.5 |
| Not sure | 7 | 17.5 |
| Disagree | 20 | 50.0 |
| Total | 40 | 100.0 |

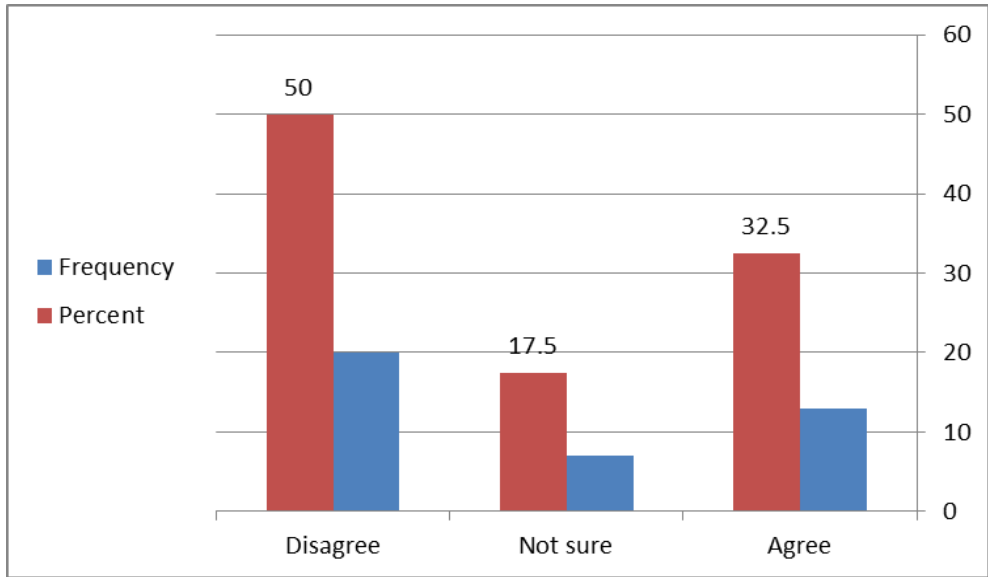
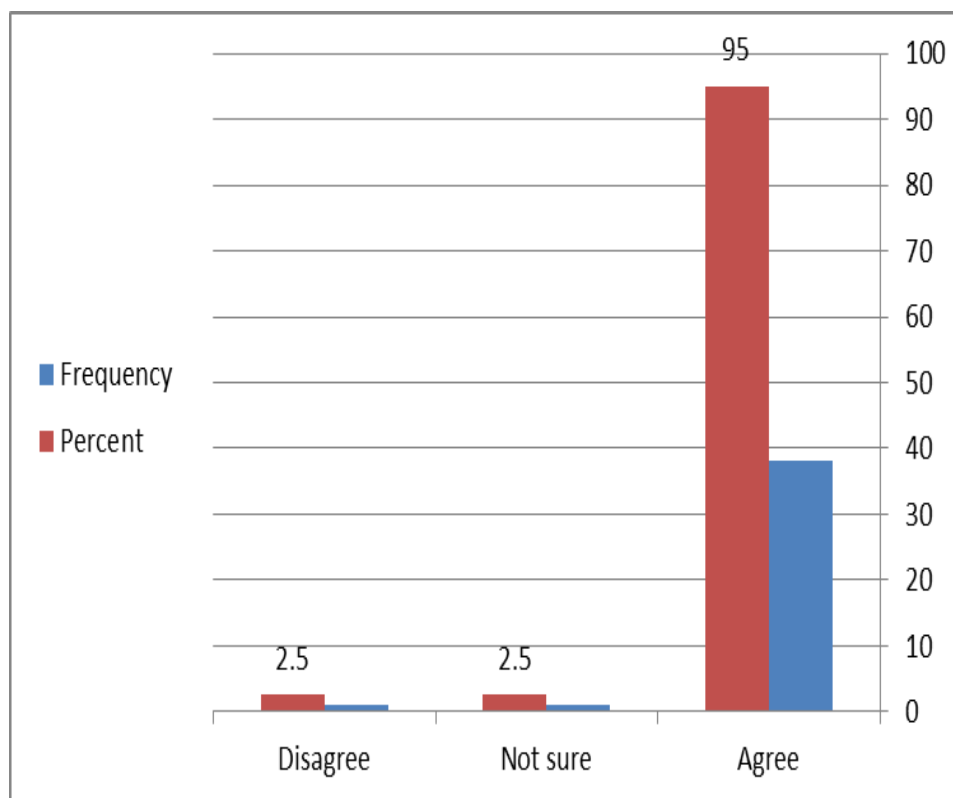


Table and figure show that the most of the respondents of the sample of the study (20) 50.0% disagreed to “teachers of English language don't pay more attention to the auxiliary verbs as they do with other types of grammar.” While the minority (13) 32.5% were agree and the least minority (7) 17.5% were not sure .This indicated that teachers of English language pay more attention to the auxiliary verbs as they do with other types of grammar .

auxiliary verbs are so important in constructing a grammatical sentence.

| Valid | Frequency | Percent |
|----------|-----------|---------|
| Agree | 38 | 95.0 |
| Not sure | 1 | 2.5 |
| Disagree | 1 | 2.5 |
| Total | 40 | 100.0 |



In table and figure show that the majority (38) 95.0% of the respondents of the sample of the study agreed to “auxiliary verbs are so important in constructing a grammatical sentence” while the minority (1) 2.5% were not sure and the least minority (1) 2.5% disagreed. This proved that “auxiliary verbs are so important in constructing grammatical sentences.”

each type of auxiliary verbs serves a specific function

| Valid | Frequency | Percent |
|----------|-----------|---------|
| Agree | 38 | 95.0 |
| Not sure | 1 | 2.5 |
| Disagree | 1 | 2.5 |
| Total | 40 | 100.0 |

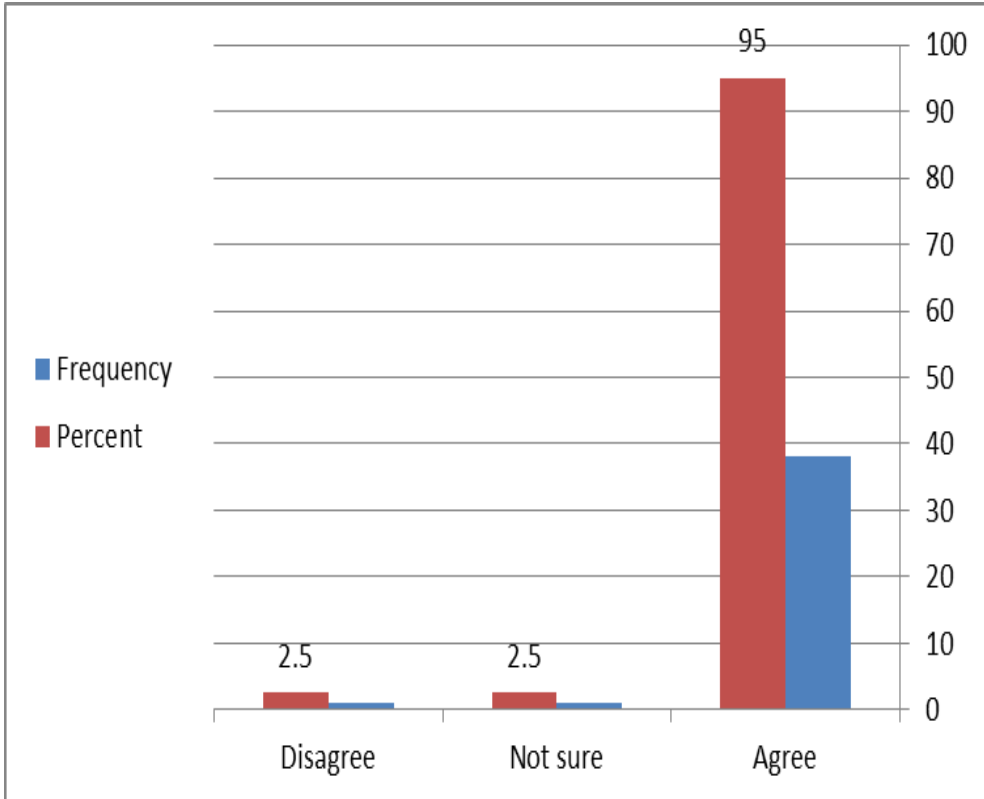


Table and show that the majority (38) 95.0 of the respondents of the sample of the study agreed to “each type of auxiliary verbs serves a specific function.” While the minority (1) 2.5% were not sure and the least minority (1) 2.5% disagreed .This showed that “each type of auxiliary verbs serves a specific function.”

teachers of English language have to explain auxiliary verbs students use in the specific activity.

| Valid | Frequency | Percent |
|----------|-----------|---------|
| Agree | 34 | 85.0 |
| Not sure | 2 | 5.0 |
| Disagree | 4 | 10.0 |
| Total | 40 | 100.0 |

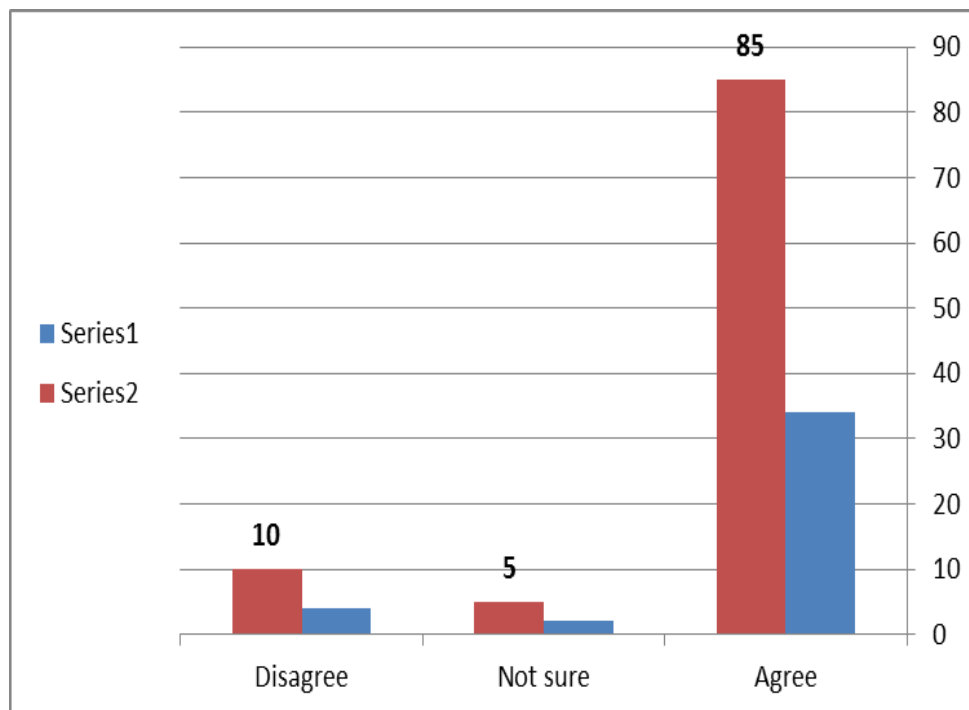


Table and figure show that the majority (34)85.0% of the respondents of the sample of the study agreed to “teachers of English language have to explain auxiliary verbs students use in the specific activity.” while the minority (4) 10.0% are disagree and the less minority (2) 5% were not sure and this means that teachers of English language have to explain auxiliary verbs students use in the specific activity.

Teaching auxiliary verb is considered as a window through which students see other types of grammar.

| Valid | Frequency | Percent |
|----------|-----------|---------|
| Agree | 33 | 82.5 |
| Not sure | 3 | 7.5 |
| Disagree | 4 | 10.0 |
| Total | 40 | 100.0 |

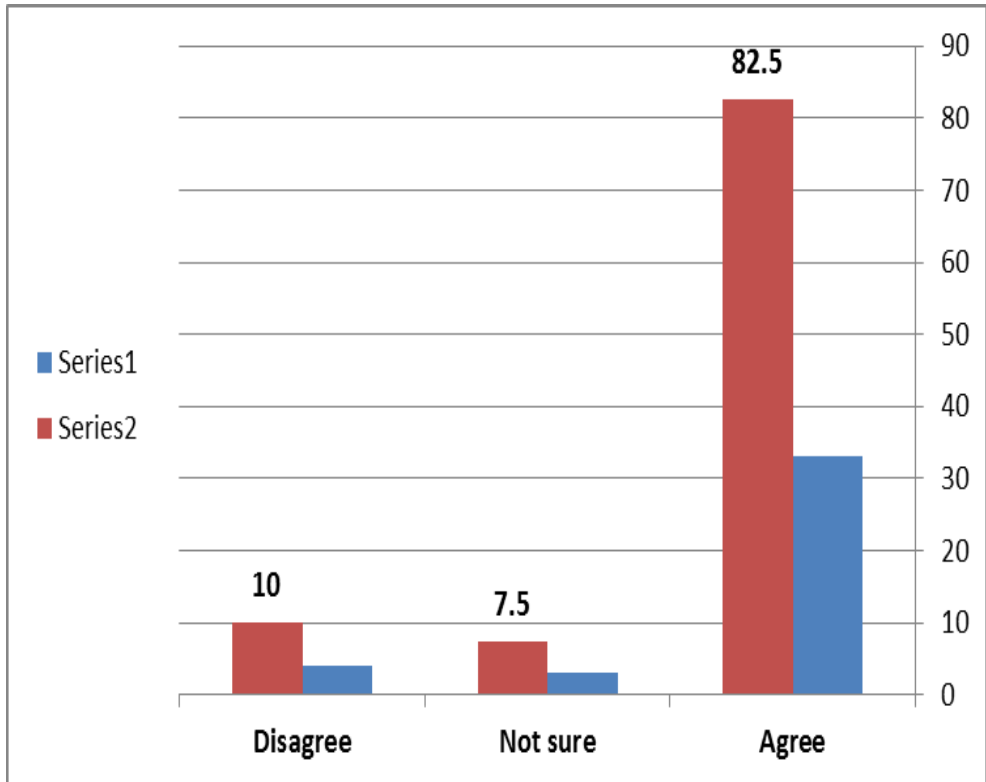


Table and figure show that above the majority (33) 82.5% of the respondents of the sample of the study agreed to “ teaching auxiliary verb is considered as a window through which students see other types of grammar “ while the minority (4) 10% disagreed and less minority (3) 7.5% were not sure and this means that teaching auxiliary verb is considered as a window through which students see other types of grammar.

Summary:

According to investigation of this study it appears that auxiliary verbs have different types and by the way each type has specific function and this study show how auxiliary verbs are essential in English language structure and informing simplest sentences. According to the study the candidate reached to the valuable results such as students should receive a feedback as soon as possible on their writing exercises of auxiliary verbs and the candidate he recommends that auxiliary verbs should be taught at an early stage of learning English language.

Results:

Throughout the study the researcher has reached to the following findings.

1. teachers of English language have to explain auxiliary verbs students use in the specific activity.
2. Teaching auxiliary verb is considered as a window through which students see other types of grammar.
3. each type of auxiliary verbs serves a specific function
4. auxiliary verbs are so important in constructing a grammatical sentence.
5. teachers of English language don't pay more adore attention to the auxiliary verbs as they do with other types of grammar.
6. knowledge of auxiliary verb patterns enables the students of English language to develop their skills of speaking and writing.
7. Using auxiliary verb patterns helps in constructing English language sentences

Recommendations:

According to the results that have been reached by the candidate he recommends the following points:

1. Teachers of English language should put teaching auxiliary verbs into consideration.
2. verbs.
3. Students should receive feedback as soon as possible on their writing exercise of auxiliary verbs.

Suggestions:

Suggestions titles of future thesis is different between English and Arabic auxiliary verb

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