

Chapter No.: 1

Chapter title: PARTS OF SPEECH

Objectives:

The students, at the end of the lesson will be able to

- Use Parts of speech correctly in sentences.

What are the Parts of Speech?

- Words are divided into classes or Parts of Speech according to the work they do in a sentence.

In English, words are generally divided into eight classes according to their nature and function in the sentence. These are:

1. Noun
2. Pronoun
3. Adjective
4. Verb
5. Adverb
6. Preposition
7. Conjunction
8. Interjection

1. Noun is the name of a person, place or thing.

Example:

- a. *Akbar* was a great *emperor*.
 - b. *India* is our *country*.
 - c. The moon shines at night.
 - d. *Milk* is white.
2. Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun.

Example:

- a. Santa is ill, she *will* not sing today.
 - b. The dog bit *the* boy with its sharp teeth.
 - c. Haren said that *he* would come.
3. An Adjective is a word which qualifies a noun and adds something to its meaning.

Example:

- a. Nilu is an *honest* boy.
 - b. Shilpa is *intelligent*.
 - c. *Many* boys attended the meeting.
 - d. A good boy *always* minds his lessons.
4. A Verb is a word used for saying something about a person, place or thing.

Example:

- a. The earth moves round the sun.
- b. Virtue *is* its own reward.

- c. She *sings* a song.
- d. Calcutta *is* a big city.

5. An Adverb is a word which modifies a verb, an adjective or another adverb.

Example:

- a. Hema walks *slowly*.
- b. This picture is very beautiful.
- c. He walks *so* slowly.

6. A Preposition is a word used with a Noun or Pronoun to show its relation to some other word in the sentence.

Example:

- a. He put the book *on* the table.
- b. The boy hid *behind* a wall.
- c. The cat is fond *of* milk.
- d. She climbed *up* a tree.

7. A Conjunction is a word used to join together words, phrases, clauses or sentences.

Example:

- a. Rita *and* Nita are friends.
- b. Strike while the iron is hot.
- c. She must weep *or* she will die.
- d. Salil has sense of duty *but* no strength of will.

8. An Interjection is a word of exclamation expressing a sudden emotion or feeling.

Example:

- a. *Hurrah!* Our school team has won the match.
- b. *Alas!* The old man is dead.
- c. *Hark!* The cuckoos sing.
- d. *Oh!* I have lost my pen.

The above classification of words is based on the function of words in a sentence. But the same word may have a different function in different sentence. Hence it changes its parts of speech.

Example:

- a. Might is *right*. (Noun)
- b. He is *right*. (Adjective)
- c. He tried to *right* the wrong. (Verb)

Subject and Object Complement of the verb:

- When the complement comes after an Intransitive Verb, it is called a Subject Complement because it refers to the subject or describes the subject:

Example:

- a. Bandana is a good *painter*.
- b. The rose looks *lovely*.
- c. Sheela seems *clever*.

- d. He grew *pale*.
- When the Complement comes after a Transitive Verb, it is called an Objective Complement because it refers to the object.

Example:

- a. They made Mr. Barua *Chairman*.
- b. The Jury found the man *guilty*.
- c. They kept me *waiting*.
- d. The Indian army forced the intruders to *surrender*.

Verbal's-Infinitives, Gerunds and Participle:

- **Infinitives:**

An Infinitive is a kind of non-finite verb. It does not have any change in its form to indicate the tense. It depends on the Finite or Main Verb for time reference.

Example:

- a. To *err* is human, to *forgive*, divine.
- b. To *see* is to *believe*.

It is of two kinds:

- Simple or Noun Infinitives
- Gerundial or Qualifying Infinitives

- Simple Infinitives are used as Nouns. They can be used as:

1. The subject of a verb:
 - a. To *read* is a good habit.
 - b. To *blush* is a sign of modesty.
2. The object of a verb:
 - a. He likes to *argue*
3. The Subjective Complement of a verb:
 - a. To see is to *believe*.
4. The object to a preposition:
 - a. He is about to *start*.

- Gerundial Infinitives expresses a purpose, cause or result and may be used as:

1. An Adjective: This is a pencil to *sketch*.
2. An Adverb to a Verb: He came to *see* me.
3. An Adverb to an Adjective: I am glad to see you.
4. Parenthetically: To speak the truth, I am annoyed with you.

- **Gerund:**

A Gerund is a Verbal Noun.

Example:

- a. *Reading* is a good habit.
- b. *Walking* is a good exercise.

It may use as:

1. Subject of a Verb: *Smoking* is injurious to health.
2. Object of a Transitive Verb: I like *reading* story books.
3. Complement of a verb: Seeing is *believing*.
4. Object to a Preposition: He is fond of *reading*.
5. Absolutely or in an Independent Clause: *Playing* cards being his favorite, we decide to play bridge.

• **Participle:**

Participle is partly a Verb and partly an Adjective.

Example:

- a. *Seeing* the tiger, the man ran away.
- b. *Hearing* the voice, the boy went out of the room.

Kinds of Participles:

1. The present participle: It is always active and denotes an incomplete action or state and has the Verb +ing form.

Example:

- a. I can hear her *singing* a song.
2. The past participle: It denotes an action or state that completes and is no longer in process.

It usually ends in -en, -n or -ed etc.

Example:

- Time wasted is time lost.

Uses of participle:

1. A Participle, present or past, can be used as an Attributive Adjective.: A *rolling* stone gathers no moss.
2. It can be used to predicatively complete the sentence: He came *laughing*.
3. It can be used absolutely with a noun or pronoun going before It: The *sun having* set, we returned home.

Exercises

Chapter No: 2

Chapter Title: PREPOSITIONS OF TIME AND PLACE

Objectives:

By the end of the lesson, the students will be able to

- Define Prepositions.
- They will be able to use them correctly in a sentence.

What is Prepositions?

- Prepositions are words that show the relationship between a Noun or a Pronoun and some other word or element in the rest of the sentence. For example the sentences are-
- a. God is *in* heaven.
 - b. The book is *on* the table.
 - c. Sit *by* me.
 - d. We see *with* our eyes.
 - e. He is *at* home.

The words in italics in the above examples (in, on, by, with, at) are prepositions. These words are used before a Noun (or Pronoun) and indicate the relation of that Noun or Pronoun with the rest of the sentence.

Prepositions of Time

A preposition of time is a preposition that allows one to discuss a specific time period such as a date on the calendar, one of the days of the week, or the actual time something takes place.

Prepositions of time are the same words as prepositions of place; however they are used in a different way. You can easily distinguish these prepositions, as they always discuss times rather than places. They allow telling readers when things are taking place. They are vital parts of speech to use in stories, as well as when writing simple communications, reports and other items.

Examples of prepositions of time-

In the following examples, the prepositions of the time have been italicized for ease of identification:

- a. The town is always decorated *at* Christmas time.
- b. Meet me *at* 7:30
- c. We are going bowling *on* Friday night.
- d. My vacation ends *on* Monday.
- e. My birthday falls *in* January.
- f. My parents grew up *in* the 1960s.

Table 1

Prepositions of time	Explanations	Example
On	Days, weekend Months/seasons/year	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• What did you do on the weekend?
In	Morning/evening/afternoon Period of time	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• I visited Italy in July.
At	Night, weekend Used to show an exact or a particular time:	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• It gets cold at night.
Since	From a particular time in the past until a later time, or until now	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• England have not won the World Cup in football since 1996.
For	Used to show an amount of	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• I'm just going to bed

	time	for an hour or so
Ago	Back in the past; back in time from the present:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The dinosaurs died out 65 million years ago.
Before	At or during a time earlier than	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She's always up before dawn
To	Used when saying the time, to mean before the stated hour	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It's twenty to six.
Past	Telling the time	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Five past ten
To	Until a particular time ,marking end of a period of time	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It's only two weeks to Christmas.
From	Used to show the time when something starts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The museum is open from 9:30 to 6 Tuesday to Sunday.

Till/until	Up to (the time that)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • We waited till/ until half past six for you.
By	Not later than; at or before	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She had promised to be back by five O'clock.

Prepositions of Place

A preposition of place is a preposition which is used to refer to a place where something or someone is located. Prepositions of place allow one to be very specific when talking about where action takes place in stories or when discussing important details for communication purposes.

Examples of prepositions of place-

Prepositions of place give one the ability to tell the others where something is located. In the following examples, the prepositions of place have been italicized for ease of identification.

- Jessie waited for Jim *at* the corner.
- The mall is located *at* the intersection of Main Street and Third Avenue.
- We spent a quiet evening *at* home.
- I 'm growing tomatoes *in* my garden.

- e. Mary was born *in* Paris, France.
- f. I was so tired that I took a nap *in* the car.
- g. Please place the bouquet *on* the table.
- h. I really wish you would stop throwing your dirty clothes *on* the floor.
- i. What's *on* the menu this evening?

Table 2

Preposition of place	Explanation	Example

In	Inside	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I watch TV in the living-room. I live in New York.
At	Used to show an exact position or particular place table events place where you are to do something typical(watch a film, study, work)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I met her at the entrance. She sat at the table.
On	<p>Attached next to or along the side of the(river)</p> <p>Used to show something is in a position above something else and touching it</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Look at the picture on the wall. A smile on his face.
By, next to, beside , near	Not far away in distance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The girl who is by/next to/beside the house. The town lies halfway

Between	In or into the space which separates two places, people or objects	between Rome and Florence.
Behind	At the back (of)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I hung my coat behind the door.
In front of	Further forward than someone or somebody else.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> She started talking to the man in front of her.
Under	Lower than (or covered by) something else	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The cat is under the chair.
Below	Lower than something else.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The plane is just below the cloud.
Over	<p>Above or higher than something else, sometimes so that one thing covers the other.</p> <p>More than.</p> <p>Across from one side to the other.</p> <p>Overcoming an obstacle</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I walked over the bridge.

Above	Higher than something else, but not directly over it	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A path above the lake.
Across	From one side to the other of something with clear limits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She sailed across the Atlantic.
Through	From one end or side of something to the other	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • They walked slowly through the woods.
To	In the direction of	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • We went to Prague last year.
Into	Towards the middle or inside of something	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shall we go into the garden?
Towards	In the direction of or closer to someone or something	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She stood up and walked towards him.
Onto	Used to show movement into or on a particular place.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I slipped as I stepped onto the platform.

		<ul style="list-style-type: none">• What time does the flight from Amsterdam arrive?
From	Used to show the place where someone or something starts	

Exercises

Chapter No: 3

Chapter Title: CLAUSES, PHRASES AND RELATIVE CLAUSES

Objectives:

By the end of the lesson, the students will be able to

- Define Clause, Phrases and Relative Clause and differentiate between them.
- They will be able to use them correctly in a sentence.

What is a Clause?

- A Clause is a group of words having a subject and a predicate of its own, forming part of a sentence. For example the sentences-
 - a. This is the boy *who stood* first.
 - b. I shall not go *if it* rains
 - c. We live in Assam *which is* a beautiful land.

The group of words written in italics in the examples contains subjects (who, if, which respectively) and predicates (stood, it, is respectively) of their own but forms parts of sentence.

Such parts are called Clause.

Clauses are of three kinds-

1. Principal Clause
2. Subordinate Clause
3. Co- ordinate Clause

1. Principal Clause: The clause on which the subordinate clause depends upon is called the Principal Clause.

Example: The words in italics are principal clause.

- a. *I know*where he is.
- b. I don't know *where he lives*.
- c. He told me *that he had finished his work*.

Subordinate Clause: A Clause that is dependent on another clause is called a Subordinate Clause.

Example:

- a. After the dog ran (this clause answers the question “when”)
- b. Because he ate popcorn (this clause answers the question “why”)

There are three kinds of Subordinate Clause-

1. Noun Clause: It does the function of a noun.
2. Adjective Clause: It does the function of an adjective. It qualifies a Noun or Pronoun.

3. Adverb Clause: It does the work of an adverb in a sentence. It denotes when, where and how an action is done.

Co- ordinate Clause: A clause that is independent is a Co- ordinate Clause.

Example: The words in italics are co-ordinate clause.

- a. God made the country but *man made the town*.
- b. The night is dark and *i am far from home*.

What is Phrases?

- A small group of words standing together as a conceptual unit, typically forming a component of a clause is called phrase. A phrase is a part of sentence. It is regarded as single parts of speech.

Example: Words in italics are phrases

- a. Try to do it *again and again*.
- b. I met him *on the road*.
- c. Hercules was a man *of great strength*.

There are six kinds of phrases.

1. Noun phrases (example: Bed of roses, Lock and key)
2. Adjective phrases (example: A man of word, Unable to help)
3. Adverb phrases (example: Once upon a time, All day long)
4. Preposition phrases (example: On account of, In respect of)
5. Conjunction phrases (example: As well as , As soon as)
6. Interjection phrases (example: Good God! , Oh me!)

What is a Relative Clause?

- Relative clauses are clauses starting with the relative pronouns who, that, which, whose, where, whom.

They are most often used to define or identify the noun that precedes them.

Example:

I met your mother, who told me of your illness.

In the above example ‘who told me of your illness’ is the Relative Clause and ‘who’ is the Relative Pronoun.

Defining Relative Clause:

It does the function of an adjective i.e. it qualifies a Noun or Pronoun.

Non defining Relative Clause:

It does not restrict the meaning of the Antecedent and the Relative Pronoun may be replaced by ‘and He’ or ‘and it’ and similar other expressions.

Agreement of the Relative Pronoun and its Antecedent.

The Relative Pronoun agrees in number and person with its antecedent.

Example:

- a. It is I who am to blame.
- b. It is you who are to blame.
- c. It is he who is to blame.

Omission of the Relative Pronoun:

- a. This is the book *that* I lost.
- b. I am the monarch of all *which* I survey.

In the above sentences the words in italics are often understood.

Differences between the uses of ‘that’ and ‘which’.

- ‘Which’ is used for Non-defining clauses while ‘that’ is used for defining clauses
- ‘That’ cannot be used in the possessive case but ‘which’ can be used so.
- ‘That’ is used after the superlative degree.
- ‘That’ is used after Indefinite Pronouns; ‘only’ and ‘any’.
- After the Interrogative ‘who’ and ‘what’.
- ‘That’ is used after the expression ‘It is....’

Exercises

Chapter No: 4

Chapter title: SUBJECT VERB AGREEMENT

Objectives:

At the end of the lesson, the students will be able to

- Be familiar with subject verb agreement rules.

What is Subject Verb Agreement?

- Subjects and Verbs must agree with one another. Thus if a subject is singular, its verb must also be singular; if a subject is plural, its verb must also be plural.

Nouns and Verbs form plurals in opposite ways in the present tense. Nouns add 's' to the singular form and Verbs remove 's' from the singular form.

Example:

Singular: The *dog chases* the cat.

Plural: The *dogs chase* the cat.

These agreement rules do not apply to verbs used in the simple past tense without any helping verbs but apply to the following helping verbs when they are used with a main verb: is-are, was-

were, has-have, does-do. The agreement rules do not apply to ‘has-have’ when used as the second helping verb in a pair. They also do not apply to any other helping verbs, such as ‘can, could, shall, should, may, might, will, would, must.’

Subject- Verb rule 1:

A subject will come before a phrase beginning with ‘of.’ This is a key rule for understanding subjects. The word ‘of’ is the culprit in many, perhaps most, subject-verb mistakes.

Example:

- a. Incorrect: Bouquets of yellow roses lend color and fragrance to the room.
- b. Correct: A bouquet of yellow roses lends color and fragrance to the room.

Subject-Verb rule2:

Two singular subjects connected by ‘or, either/or, or neither/nor’ require a singular verb.

Example:

- a. My aunt or my uncle *is arriving* by train today.
- b. Neither Juan nor Carmel *is* available

Subject-Verb rule 3:

The verb in an ‘or, either/or, or neither/nor’ sentence agrees with the noun or pronoun closest to it.

Example:

- a. Neither the plates nor the serving bowl *goes* on that shelf.
- b. Neither the serving bowl nor the plates *go* on that shelf.

If 'I' is one of two or more subjects, it could lead to this odd sentence.

- *Neither she, my friends, nor I am going to the festival.*

Subject-Verb rule 4:

As a general rule, use a plural verb with two or more subjects when they are connected by 'and.'

Example:

- a. A car and a bike *are* my means of transportation.

Subject-Verb rule 5a:

Sometimes the subject is separated from the verb by such words as along 'with, as well as, besides, not, etc.' these words and phrases are not part of the subject.

Example:

- a. The politician, along with the newsmen *is expected* shortly.
- b. Excitement, as well as nervousness, *is* the cause of her shaking.

Subject-Verb rule 5b:

Parentheses are not part of the subject.

Example:

- a. Joe (and his trusty mutt) 'was' always welcome.

Subject-Verb rule 6:

In sentences beginning with ‘here or there,’ the true subject follows the verb.

Example:

- a. There are four hurdles to jump.
- b. Here are the keys.
- c. There is a high hurdle to jump.

Exercises

Chapter No: 5

Chapter title: SENTENCE TYPES AND TRANSFORMATIONS OF SENTENCES

Objectives:

By the end of this lesson, the students will be able to

- c. Define sentence
- d. They will know the types of sentences and its transformations.

What is Sentence?

- A sentence is a group of word which makes complete sense. It has a subject and a finite verb of its own.

Types of sentences:

According to their meaning and purpose:

- 1. Assertive or declarative sentence
- 2. Exclamatory sentence
- 3. Interrogative sentence
- 4. Negative sentence

According to their grammatical structure or construction:

5. Compound sentence
6. Complex sentence
7. Simple sentence

1. Assertive sentence: A sentence that states a fact is called Assertive sentence.

Example:

- a. Jane is a student. She lives in a big city.

2. Exclamatory sentence: A sentence that expresses sudden and strong feelings, such as surprise, wonder, pity, sympathy, happiness, or gratitude is called an exclamatory sentence.

Example:

- a. What a shame!
- b. Boy, am I tired!

3. Interrogative sentence: A sentence that asks a question is called an Interrogative sentence.

Example:

- a. What is your name?
- b. Where do you leave?

4. Negative sentence: A negative sentence is a sentence that states that something is false. In English, we create negative sentences by adding the word ‘not’ after the auxiliary verb, or helping, verb. An example of auxiliary verb is the helping verb ‘be.’ A different form that takes ‘be’ includes ‘am, is, are, was, and were.’

Example:

- a. David is not a happy person.
- b. The clouds were not blocking the sun’s rays.

5. Compound sentence: A sentence which is made of two or more Principal or Main clauses connected by conjunctions or connectives is called a compound sentence.

Example:

- a. *God made the country and man made the town*’
- b. *She must weep or she will die.*
- c. *The night is dark and I am far from home.*
- d. *You should work hard, otherwise you will fail.*

6. Complex sentence: A complex sentence is one that consists of a Principal Clause and one or more Subordinate Clause.

Example:

- a. Father says *that God is good.*
- b. This is *what I said.*
- c. God helps those *who help themselves.*

- d. *As he is ill*, he cannot come.

7. Simple sentence: A Simple Sentence is one which has only one subject and only one finite verb.

Example:

- a. God is everywhere.
- b. Grass is green.
- c. Health is wealth.
- d. Long live our Republic.

Degrees of Comparison:

It is used when we compare one person or one thing with another.

There are three Degrees of Comparison in English:

1. Positive Degree: When we speak of only one person or thing, we use the Positive degree.

Example:

- a. The house is big.
- b. He is a tall student.
- c. This flower is beautiful.
- d. He is an intelligent boy.

2. Comparative Degree: When we compare two persons or two things with each other, we use both the Positive Degree and Comparative Degree.

Example:

- a. This house is bigger than that one.
 - b. This flower is more beautiful than that.
 - c. He is more intelligent than this boy.
3. Superlative Degree: When we compare more than two persons or things with one another, we use all the three Positive, Comparative, and Superlative degrees.

Example:

- a. This is the biggest house in this street.
- b. This flower is the most beautiful one in this garden.
- c. He is the most intelligent boy in this class.

Exercises

Chapter no. 6

Chapter title: VOICE

Objectives:

The students, at the end of the lesson will be able to

- Define Voice
- Change from active to passive voice and vice versa.

What is Voice?

- The two forms of the verb of a sentence to denote the same meaning are called Voice.

Example:

- a. I write a letter.
- b. A letter is written by me.

Kinds of Voice:

1. Active Voice
2. Passive Voice

1. Active Voice: When the subject of the verb himself does something, the verb is said to be in the Active Voice.

Example:

- a. I see the moon.
 - b. Boys play football.
 - c. Ram reads a book.
 - d. He did the sum.
 - e. The hunter killed the tiger.
2. Passive Voice: When the subject of the verb does not act itself, but is acted upon, the verb is said to be in the Passive Voice.

Example:

- a. The moon is seen by me.
- b. Football is played by boys.
- c. A book is read by Ram.
- d. The sum was done by him.
- e. The tiger was killed by the hunter.

When to use Passive Voice?

- The Passive Voice is used in place of Active Voice when the speaker is mainly interested in the Predicate. When the Active Voice subject is unknown or vague or insignificant, the Passive Voice is the normal and accepted form.

“The actual purpose of the Passive Voice is to bring the much more interesting Predicate of the sentences to the front, because this is the most important part of the sentence in English.” Allen
Only transitive verbs are used in the Passive Voice. Intransitive verbs do not have their Passive

Voice.

Rules for the Change of Voice:

1. The subject in the Active Voice becomes the object in the Passive Voice preceded by prepositions like ‘by’, ‘with’, ‘at’, or ‘to’.
2. The object in the Active Voice becomes the subject in the Passive Voice.
3. The Finite Verb in the Active Voice is changed into the Past Participle form, and is always used with some form of the auxiliary verb ‘to be’.
4. The verb ‘to be’ takes the tense of the Finite Verb in the Active Voice and agrees to the Number and Person of the Subject in the Passive Voice. In case of the modal Auxiliaries, the verb ‘be’ is used after the modal.

Example:

Active: Ram eats rice.

Passive: Rice is eaten by Ram.

5. In the Continuous tense, (usually Past, or Present, Future Continuous is very rarely used), the word, ‘being’ is used in between the appropriate form of the verb ‘to be’ and the Past Participle form of the Finite Verb.

Example:

Active: I am reading a book.

Passive: A book is being read by me.

6. In the Perfect Tense (present of past) the word ‘been’ is used before the Past Participle of

the Finite Verb.

Example:

Active: I have read the book.

Passive: The book has been read by me.

7. The Passive Voice of Transitive verbs with two objects in the Active Voice is performed by changing either of the two objects into the subject, and retaining the other as object. The object, thus retained is known as Retained Object.

Example:

Active: Mr. Barua teaches us English.

Passive: 1. English is taught to us by Mr. Barua.

2. We are taught English by Mr. Barua.

8. In changing the voice of a complex sentence, the voice of both the Principal and Subordinate clause should be changed.

Example:

Passive: It is said that a tree is known by its fruit.

Active: People say that we know a tree by its fruits.

9. An imperative sentence is changed into the Passive Voice with the help of 'let', 'have', 'get', etc. 'Let' is placed in the beginning of the sentence and the verb 'be' itself is used before the Past Participle form of the Verb.

Example:

Active: Do this.

Passive: Let this be done.

10. An intransitive verb may be changed into Passive Voice:

(a) When it is followed by a Cognate object in the Passive Voice.

Example:

Active: He ran a race.

Passive: A race was run by him.

(b) When it becomes transitive with the addition of a preposition i.e. when it is a Group

Verb

Example:

Active: I spoke to Lila.

Passive: Lila was spoken to by me.

11. To turn an Interrogative Sentence into the Passive Voice, it is customary to turn it first into a Statement or Assertive Sentence, change the voice and then again turn it into an interrogative sentence.

Example:

Active: 1. Do you see the moon. (Interrogative)

2. You see the moon. (Assertive)

3. The moon is seen by you. (Passive)

Passive: Is the moon seen by you?

12. Objects that cannot be used as Subject in Passive Voice:

(a) Reflective Object

Example:

Active: He hurt himself.

Passive: He was hurt by himself.

(b) The Factitive Object

Example:

Active: They made him king.

Passive: He was made king by them.

13. Double Passives should be avoided for clarity of meaning.

Example:

The judge ordered the spy to be shot dead. (Correct)

The spy was ordered by the judge to be shot dead. (Incorrect)

14. Quasi-Passive Verbs:

There are some verbs in English which are Active in form but passive in sense.

Example:

Honey tastes sweet. (=is sweet when it is tasted)

15. Omission of the Agent in the Passive Voice:

An important use of the Passive Voice is in sentences where we do not know the subject or where the subject is unimportant.

Example:

1. Someone threw the ball
2. They are building a road

In the Passive, these subjects disappear and the sentences become:

1. The ball was thrown.
2. A road is being built.

16. The impersonal ‘it’ is used in the Passive Voice with verbs like ‘expect’, ‘know’, ‘hope’, ‘fear’ ‘think’, ‘find’, ‘say’, etc.

Examples:

1. It is hoped that he will pass.
2. It is said that necessity knows no law.
3. It is expected that he will secure a good position.

Exercises

Chapter no. 7

Chapter title: NARRATION

Objectives:

The students, at the end of the lesson will be able to

- Change direct speech to indirect speech correctly.

What is Narration?

- In writing or speech, narration is the process of recounting a sequence of events, real or imagined.

Example:

- a. Amal says. "I am happy."
- b. Amal says that he is happy.

There are two kinds of narration:

1. Direct speech
2. Indirect speech

1. Direct speech:

Saying exactly what someone has said is called direct speech.

Example:

- a. Ramen says, "I am ready."
- b. Satish will say, "I am wrong."
- c. Haren says, "Children like sweets."
- d. Father said, "Mintu is a good boy."
- e. He said, "I am reading a book."

2. Indirect speech:

Giving substance of what the speaker said without quoting his exact words is called indirect speech. When reporting speech, the tense usually change. This is because when we use reported speech, we are usually talking about a time in the past.

Example:

- a. Ramen says that he is ready.
- b. Satish will say that he is wrong.
- c. Haren said that children like sweets.
- d. Father said that Mintu was a good boy.
- e. He said that he was reading a book.

Points to remember:

- In the direct speech, we use inverted commas ("....") to mark off the exact words of the speaker.
- What the speaker says is called Reported Speech and the verb in the Reported Speech is called the Reported Verb.

- The verb that introduces a Reported Speech is called the Reporting Verb. The tense of the Reported Verb will be determined by the tense of the Reporting Verb.

To change a Direct Speech into Indirect Speech, the following things should be followed carefully---

Kinds of sentences:

- Assertive or statement sentence: The Reporting Verb ‘say’ is changed in the Indirect Narration into ‘tell’, if it is followed by an object. The verb ‘tell’ needs a personal object.
- Interrogative sentence: Rules for changing Interrogative Sentence direct to indirect speech--
 - The Reporting verb is changed into ‘ask’, ‘enquire’, ‘demand’, ‘want to know’ etc.
 - Omit the inverted comma and add the conjunctive adverb ‘if’ or ‘whether’ if the Reported Speech is a yes/no type or inverted questions. Do not add ‘if’ or ‘whether; in place of the inverted comma if the question is a w/h type or specific questions. The question itself will act as the connective.
 - The Interrogative Sentence is changed into a statement or Assertive Sentence.

Example:

Yes/No type question:

Direct: Jadu says, “Am I guilty?”

Indirect: Jadu asks if he was guilty.

Direct: I said to him, "Will you stop here?"

Indirect: I asked him if he would stop here.

W/H type question:

Direct: He said to me, "Who are you?"

Indirect: He asked me who I was.

Direct: He said to me, "How are you?"

Indirect: He asked me how I was.

c. Imperative sentence: Rules for changing Imperative Sentence from direct to indirect--

1. The Reporting Verb is changed into 'tell', 'ask', 'order', 'command', 'request', 'beg', 'advise' according to the meaning or sense of the Imperative sentence.
2. The inverted comma is replaced by 'to'. The Reported verb is thus changed into an infinitive. It does not, therefore, undergo any change in the tense sequence.

Example:

Direct: I said to the boy, "Wait until I finish."

Indirect: I said the boy to wait until I finished.

d. Optative sentence: Rules for changing Optative Sentence from direct to indirect--

1. The Reporting Verb is changed into 'wish' or 'pray' according to the sense of the sentence.
2. The inverted comma is replaced by the conjunction "that".
3. The Optative sentence is changed into a Statement or Assertive Sentence.

Example:

Direct: Mother said to me, " May god bless you."

Indirect: Mother prayed that God might bless me.

Changes in the tense of verbs:

1. If the Reporting Verb is the Present or in the Future Tense, the tense of the Reported Verb does not change.

Example:

Ramen says, "I am ready."

Ramen says that he is ready.

2. If the Reporting Verb is in the Past Tense, the Reporting Verb is changed into the corresponding past tense.

Example:

He said, "I am reading a book."

He said that he was reading a book.

3. But if the Reported speech spreads universal truth or a habitual action, the tense of the Reported verb is not changed even if the reporting verb is in the past tense.

Example:

The teacher said, "Man is mortal."

The teacher said that man is mortal.

Change in the person of pronouns.

1. First pronouns (I, we, me, us, etc) in the direct speech are put into the same person as the speaker.

Example:

He says, "I love my younger brother."

He said that he loves his younger brother.

2. Second person pronouns (you, your, etc) in the direct speech are put into the same person as the object of the Reporting Verb.

Example:

Ram said to me, "You are guilty."

Ram told me that I was guilty.

3. Third person pronouns in the direct speech (he, him, his etc) are usually kept unchanged in the indirect speech.

Example:

I said to you, "He may take his book."

I told you that he might take his book.

4. In all other cases, pronouns in the 1st and 2nd person are put into the third person.

Example:

He said, "I live here."

He said that he lived here.

5. To avoid confusion as to whom the pronoun in the direct speech refers, the name of the person referred to, if known, or a Noun is put in bracket just after the pronoun.

Example:

Ram told Hari, "You are guilty."

Ram told Hari that he (Hari) was guilty.

Change in the use of some words:

Some words, generally adjectives and adverbs, indicating nearness in time or place in the Direct Speech are changed into the corresponding word indicating distance or remoteness of time.

Example:

He said, "I shall read now."

He said that he would read then.

Exercises

Chapter no. 8

Chapter title: PUNCTUATION

Objectives:

At the end of the lesson, the students will be able to

- Define punctuation
- Use it correctly in a sentence

What is Punctuation?

- Punctuation is the art of dividing sentences by points or stops in order to make their meaning clear. It means the right use of putting in stops or points in writing. The word ‘Punctuation’ has come from the Latin word ‘Punctum’ meaning a ‘point’.

The following are the principal Punctuation Marks in English:

- a. Comma (,)
- b. Semicolon (;)
- c. Colon (:)
- d. Apostrophe (‘)
- e. Exclamation mark (!)
- f. Question mark (?)
- g. Quotation mark (“”)

- h. Dash (_)
- i. Hyphen (-)
- j. Brackets () []
- k. Full stop (.)

a. The uses of the Comma:

The Comma is the shortest pause. It is also the most frequently used of all the marks of Punctuation. It is used—

1. To separate three or more words of the same Parts of Speech:

- He bought a chair, a table, an almirah and a suitcase.
- Jack, Jill and Teddy went up the hill.

2. To mark off each of the words of the same rank:

- The rich and the poor, the wise and the foolish, the high and the low, have to submit to the will of God.
- All men, young and old, poor and rich, high and low, mourned the tragic death of Srimati Indira Gandhi.

3. Between repeated words:

- I will never, never see his face.
- You shall never, never do it.

4. Before and after the nominative of address i.e. is to mark off a vocative case:

- Come into the garden, Maud.
- Friends, lend me your ears.

5. To mark off a nominative absolute:

- The sun has risen, we set out for the journey.
- Dinner over, the guest went back.

6. To mark off a quotation:

- He said, “I shall do it”.
- Galileo said, “The earth moves round the sun”.

7. To mark off a noun in Apposition:

- Shivaji, the founder of the Maratha Empire, was a great warrior.
- Akbar, the emperor of India, was a contemporary of Elizabeth I.

8. To avoid the repetition of a verb i.e. to indicate the omission of a verb:

- Virtue leads to happiness; vice, to misery.
- Industry brings success; idleness, failure.

9. After an Adverb Phrase or Adverb Clause in the beginning of a sentence:

- In short, he refused to co-operate with us.
- In fact, he is not guilty.

10. Before and after Adverbs like ‘again’ , ‘hence’ , ‘however’ , ‘therefore’ , ‘beside’ , ‘then’ , etc. let into the body of a sentence:

- This, then, is my explanation.
- I shall, however, go with you.

11. To mark off two co-ordinate Clauses:

- He is poor, but he is honest.
- He is out, and his father is also not home.

12. To mark off a Relative Clause used in a continuative sense:

- I met the Vice Chancellor, who promised to help me in this matter.

13. Before and after a Parenthetical Clause:

- The sun is, as it were, a huge ball of fire.
- He is, to tell the truth, a cheat.

14. After ‘Yes’ or ‘No’:

- Is he happy?

Yes, he is.

No, he isn’t.

15. To separate short Co-ordinate Clauses of a Double or Multiple Sentence:

- I came, I saw, I conquered.
- The old traveler gasped, panted and fell down on the street.

b. The use of Semi-colon:

The Semi-colon marks a longer pause than the comma. It is used:

1. Between two Co-ordinate clauses when they are not joined by a Conjunction:

- To err is human; to forgive, divine.
- Reading makes a full man; conference, a ready man.

2. To separate Co-ordinate Clauses of a Compound sentence when they contain a comma:

- He was a brave, kind-hearted man; and everyone loved him.
- I helped him; but he did not help me.

c. The use of Colon:

The Colon marks a longer and more complete pause than a Semi-colon. It is used:

1. To separate two sentences, when they are not closely connected with each other:

- Man proposes: God disposes.
- Speech is silver: silence is golden.

2. To introduce a quotation:

- Keats says: “A thing of beauty is a joy forever”.
- Shakespeare said: “Neither a borrower nor a lender be”.

3. To introduce a list:

- The poets I like best: Keats, Shelly, Browning and Tennyson.

- You must take the following things with you: a packet of cotton, a bottle of dettol, a soap and some tablets.

4. To show off any reason or proof of any matter referred to in the previous sentence:

- They were without food: they starved.
- The boy was tired: he had been working since afternoon.

d. The use of Apostrophe:

It is used:

1. With ‘s’ in the Genitive case:

- Ram’s book
- Sita’s sorrow

2. To mark off a letter omitted from a word:

- Don’t= do not
- It’s= it is

3. To form the plural forms of any letters and figure:

- Cut your t’s.
- Write two 5’s

e. The use of the note of Exclamation mark:

1. It is used to express a sudden joy, sorrow or wonder:

- How strange!
- What a pity!

Sometimes it is also used after a short order:

- “Run for your life!”
- The officer shouted, “Get out!”

f. The use of Note of Interrogation or Question Mark:

It is used after a direct question:

- What is your name?
- How are you?

g. The use of Inverted Comma or Quotation mark:

It is used to indicate a Direct Speech i.e. to enclose the actual words of the speaker or a quotation:

- He said, “I am happy.”

The words of each fresh speaker should be given in a new paragraph:

- “Did you hear a sound?” he asked.

A single inverted comma is used to quote a single word or the name of a book or a quotation within a quotation:

- Never say ‘No’ to my word.
- I have read Shaw’s ‘Candida’.

h. Use of Dash:

1. To mark off an abrupt turn or break in a sentence:

- If my father were alive but why lament the unhappy past?
2. To mark off words in apposition or explanation:
 - He has lost his all _ health, wealth and reputation.
 - i. The use of hyphen:

When two or more words combine to form a compound word, they are joined by a hyphen:

- Father-in-law
- Market-place

- j. The use of brackets:
 1. To show separately a Parenthetical Clause:
 - He learnt (such is the power of genius) the alphabet in two days.
 2. To refer to certain things:
 - He has lost everything (money, clothes and documents).

- k. The use of full stop:

The full stop or Period is the longest pause. It indicates the completion of a sentence. It is used:

1. After an Assertive, Imperative or Optative Sentence:
 - The sun is shining.
2. After abbreviations and initials:
 - M.A.
 - U.S.A.

Exercises

Chapter no. 9

Chapter title: WORD FORMATION

Objectives:

At the end of the lesson, the students will be able to

- Define Word Formation
- They will be able to change one part of the speech to the other: from nouns to verbs, verbs to nouns, adjectives to nouns, nouns to adjectives, verbs to adverbs and adverbs to verbs.

What is Word Formation?

- In linguistics, word formation is the creation of a new word. Word formation is sometimes contrasted with semantic change, which is a change in a single word's meaning. The boundary between a word formation and semantic change can be difficult to define: a new use of an old word can be seen as a new word derived from an old one and identical to it in form.

Word formation can also be contrasted with the formation of idiomatic expressions, although words can be formed from multi-word phrases.

Types of word formation:

1. Blending: A blend is a word formed by joining parts of two words after clipping.

Example:

- a. Smog= smoke+ fog

One sub category of blending is the reduction of a word to one of its parts e.g. flu (influenza)

2 Calque: It is a word or phrase borrowed from other language by literal, word-for-word translation.

3 Neologism: It is a process of forming a new word by coining such a quark.

Subcategories of neologisms include: eponym, loanword, onomatopoeic, phono-semantic matching.

Conversion:

It is the word formation process in which a word of one grammatical form becomes a word of another grammatical form without any changes to spelling or pronunciation.

1. Noun to verb conversion:

The most productive form of conversion in English is noun to verb conversion. The following list provides examples of verbs converted from nouns:

Noun- Verb

- Access- to access
- Bottle- to bottle
- Can- to can
- Email- to email
- Eye- to eye

For example:

- a. She microwaved (verb) her lunch.
- b. She heated her lunch in the microwave (noun).
- c. Respect (verb) your parents and teachers.
- d. Show respect (noun) to your parents and teachers.

2. Verb to Noun conversion:

Any productive form of conversion in English is verb to noun conversion. It is also referred to as nominalization. The following list provides examples of nouns converted to verbs:

Verb- Noun

- To alert- alert
- To attack- attack
- To call- call
- To increase- increase
- To cry- cry

For example:

- a. Sometimes one needs a good cry (noun).

- b. The baby cried (verb) all night.
- c. The guard alerted (verb) the general to attack (noun)
- d. The enemy attacked (verb) before an alert (noun) could be sounded.

3. Nouns to Adjectives conversion:

The simplest way to turn a noun into an adjective is to add suffixes to the end of the root word.

The most common suffixes used are: -ly, -able, -al, ous, etc.

Example: danger (noun)- dangerous (adjective)

Sometimes modifications is required to the root noun if it ends in -e, -y, or -t.

Example: offense (noun)- offensive (adjective)

- a. Her attempt met with the success (noun).
- b. Her attempt was successful (adjective).

4. Adjectives to nouns conversion:

Example:

- a. Be respectful (adjective) to your parents and teachers.
- b. Show respect (noun) to your parents and teachers.
- c. Her attempt was successful (adjective).
- d. Her attempt met with the success (noun).

5. Adverbs to verbs conversion:

Combined prefixation and conversion is the forming of a verb system by simultaneously adding a prefix to an adverb and changing it to a verb stem.

Example:

- a. She was seemingly (adverb) convinced.
- b. She seemed (verb) to be convinced.
- c. The farmer was apparently (adverb) a fool.
- d. The farmer appeared (verb) to be a fool.

6. Verb to adverb conversion:

Example:

- a. This appears (verb) to be a good proposal.
- b. This is apparently (adverb) a good proposal.
- c. She seemed (verb) to be convinced.
- d. She was seemingly (adverb) convinced.

Exercises

Chapter no. 10

Chapter title: AFFIXATION

Objectives:

At the end of the lesson, the students will be able to

- Define Affixation
- Differentiate between prefixes and suffix and use correctly.

What is Affixation?

- Affixation is a morphological process whereby a bound morpheme, an affix, is attached to a morphological base. Diachronically, the word affix was first used as a verb and has its origin in Latin: affixus , past particle of the verb affigere, ad-'to'+ figere 'to fix'. It falls in the scope of morphology where bound morphemes are either roots or affixes. Prefixes and suffixes are the most common types of affixes cross- linguistically. It is the most common strategy that human languages employ for derivation of new words and word forms. However languages vary from in the ways they express the same semantics, and in English the noun biolog-ist is derived from the biology through the addition of the suffix -ist.

Types of affix:

- Prefix
- Suffix
- Prefix is a syllable or syllables placed at the beginning of a word to qualify its meaning and form a new word. Most of the Prefixes in the English language have come from Latin and Greek. Some have come from old English. Words are formed with the help of prefixes.

Example:

- Bene (=well): benefit, benevolent, benefactor.
 - Demi (=half): demi-official, demi-god
 - En (=in): endanger, engulf, enlist, engulf
 - Intra (=within): intravenous, intramuscular
 - Philo (=love): philosophy, philanthropy
 - Suffix is a syllable or syllables placed at the end of a word to qualify its meaning and form a new word. Some words may be formed with the help of suffix. One part of a speech can be turned into another with the help of suffix. Nouns can be formed out of verbs etc.
- a. Noun suffixes:
 1. The following suffixes are added to words to form abstract noun. They denote quality, condition, system of thought etc.
 - -age: bondage, mileage, breakage.
 - -cy: democracy, aristocracy.

2. The following suffixes are added to words to form concrete nouns. They represent persons, agents etc

- -y: jury, attorney.
- -ar: beggar liar.

3. The following suffixes are added to words to form Diminutives:

- -let: booklet, leaflet, pamphlet.
- -en: warden, citizen.

4. Other noun suffixes:

- -ade: blockade, barricade, crusade.
- -al: arrival, denial, capital.

b. Adjective suffixes: Adjectives are formed by adding the following suffixes to the words:

- -al: loyal, royal, national, mortal.
- -ar: circular, lunar, regular.

c. Verb suffixes: Verbs are formed by adding the following suffixes to the words:

- -ite: invite, excite, expedite.
- -ish: publish, banish, finish.

d. Adverb suffixes: Adverbs are formed by adding the following suffixes to the words:

- -ly: lovingly, ably, and beautifully.
- -ce: once, twice, thrice.

New word formation:

The word formation processes of compounding, clipping and blending are important concepts when creating new words.

- Compounding: It is the word formation process in which two or more lexemes combine into a single new word. Compound words may be written as one word or as two words joined with a hyphen.

Example:

- a. Noun-noun compound: note+book= notebook
- b. Verb-noun compound: work+room= workroom

- Clipping: It is the word formation process in which a word is reduced or shortened without changing the meaning of the word. It differs from back-formation in that the new word retains the meaning of the original word.

Example:

- a. Advertisement- ad
- b. Alligator- gator

It is of four types: fore- clipping, middle clipping, and complex clipping.

- Blending: It is the word formation process in which parts of two or more words combines to create a new word who's, meaning is often a combination of the original words.

Example:

- a. Biographical+ picture= biopic
- b. Breakfast+ lunch= brunch

Exercises

Chapter no.11

Chapter title: NOMINAL COMPOUNDS

Objectives:

The students, at the end of the lesson will be able to

- Define Nominal Compounds.
- Use it in a correct way.

What are Nominal Compounds?

- Nominal Compounds is a grammatical structure in which nouns are linked together to indicate a new concept. Adjectives are used to describe the characteristics of nouns.

Example:

Long table, broken table.

Noun in noun compounds can also serve this function though they usually describe categories rather than characteristics.

Example:

Picnic table-card table

The difficulty of understanding noun compounds can be alleviated in most cases by teaching the parallels between the categories of English Definitions and the categories of nominal compounds.

Example:

Drinking water

Washing machine

The first member of the nominal compound can be either a common noun or proper noun. We can define a nominal compound as a string of two or more nouns having the same distribution as noun.

Some linguists say that nominal compounds have turned out to be an important stumbling block for systems that attempt to deal with real life text, especially in technical domains.

Exercises