

B. Ed (4 Years/2.5 Years)

ENGLISH-I (CONTENT MAJOR)

Code: 6468



**EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION & ELEMENTARY
TEACHER EDUCATION DEPARTMENT
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY, ISLAMABAD**

ENGLISH-I (CONTENT MAJOR)

B. Ed (4 Years/2.5 Years)

Course Code: 6468

Units: 1–9



**EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION & ELEMENTARY
TEACHER EDUCATION DEPARTMENT
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY
ISLAMABAD**

(All Rights Reserved with the Publisher)

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in retrieval system or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying Recording, scanning or otherwise, except as permitted under AIOU copyright ACT.

First Printing 2017

Quantity 10,000

Typed by Zahid Javed Bajwa

Composed by Muhammad Hameed

Printer..... AIOU-Printing Press, H-8, Islamabad

Publisher Islamabad Allama Iqbal Open University, Islamabad.

COURSE TEAM

Chairman: Prof. Dr. Nasir Mahmood

Course Development Coordinator: Dr. Rehmat Ullah Bhatti

- Writers:**
1. Khuram Dad
Assistant Professor, Department of English
Govt. Postgraduate College for Boys,
Satellite Town, Rawalpindi
 2. Dr. Muhammad Ismail Abbasi
Assistant Professor, Department of English
Govt. Postgraduate College for Boys,
Satellite Town, Rawalpindi
 3. Mr. Adnan Ashraf
Lecturer, Department of English
Govt. Gordon College, Rawalpindi
 4. Mr. Zafarullah Shaheen
Lecturer, Department of English
Govt. Gordon College, Rawalpindi
 5. Dr. Zafar Iqbal
Senior Research Officer, Planning Division
Ministry of Capital Administration and
Development Division, Islamabad.

- Reviewer:**
1. Dr. Zafar Iqbal
Senior Research Officer, Planning Division
Ministry of Capital Administration and
Development Division, Islamabad.

Layout Design: Mr. Muhammad Hameed
W.P.O. AIOU-Printing Press, Islamabad.

Editor: Ms. Humera Ejaz

Course Coordinator: Dr. Rahmat Ullah Bhatti

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The significance of English as a language is undeniable in this age. English enjoys a pivotal position and standard among the languages of the world. The teaching of English to the non-native speakers is a challenging tasks. In teaching a language there are certain skills that linguists have observed to be applicable in smooth teaching of a language. The Department of Early Childhood Education and Elementary Teacher Education stresses upon the need of teaching such essential skills to the prospective teachers of English language. In this regard the book titled English-II contains such updated information and techniques regarding skills that can be utilized by the teachers in teachings the students. This book reflects the efforts of many people. The Department of Early Childhood Education and Elementary Teacher Education is thankful to all the members of the course team for writing units and giving comments and feedback to improve the materials.

It is significant in stating that course coordinator, Dr. Rahmat Ullah Bhatti, has very competently facilitated the whole process of course development. He engaged and updated the course team according to the demands and objective of the course. All the communication is done effectively and timely. He personally assisted the team in many concerning areas. Mr. Zahid Javed Bajwa and Mr. Muhammad Hameed have very professionally completed the task of typing/composing the contents of this book in short time.

Special gratitude to our Vice-Chancellor Prof. Dr. Shahid Siddiqui for his visionary insight, professional support, mentorship and inspirational work environment for all of us to achieve academic excellence at university.

Prof. Dr. Nasir Mahmood
Chairman/Dean Faculty of Education

INTRODUCTION

In this contemporary age world has assumed the shape of the global village where communication among people of distinct languages and culture is possible via use of English language. English as a mode of communication has superseded the other languages therefore people of various backgrounds use this language as an easy mode of expression. This book also contributes in the development of English as a language to teachers of non-native origin. This book provides different techniques to be efficient in language skills like reading and writing. It explains the nature of reading skill and developing reading habit. The students will acquire different strategies that is going to improve their reading skills. The book also describes various barriers in reading and techniques to overcome them. The process of writing has been discussed in detail so that the students would be able to communicate effectively through different writing forms like letters, memorandums, application, reports and essays.

For Pakistani students, English language has assumed the status of greater significance in their academic as well as professional life. As it is not only official language but also is the academic language. Educational institutes use this as a compulsory subject at various levels including: primary, elementary, secondary, higher secondary, gradation and post graduate levels. It is the language of communication in official matters. In business and commerce English language also plays a significant role in terms of communication.

OBJECTIVES

After completion of the course, you will be able to:

1. Understand the history and importance of English Language.
2. Recombine the basic categories of words i.e. parts of speech.
3. Analyze the sentence and identify its constituents i.e. phrase and clause.
4. Identify and generate different kinds of sentences.
5. Use the time of action i.e. Tense, its kinds and usage.
6. Convert voice and narration of the sentences.
7. Use punctuation to communicate effectively.
8. Write paragraphs of various kinds.

CONTENTS

	<i>Page No.</i>
Acknowledgement	iv
Introduction.....	v
Objectives	vi
Unit–1: The History and Importance of English Language	1
Unit–2: Parts of Speech-I.....	29
Unit–3: Parts of Speech-II.....	59
Unit–4: Sentence Structure	79
Unit–5: Punctuation	99
Unit–6: Tenses-I.....	121
Unit–7: Tenses-II	137
Unit–8: Voice and Narration.....	159
Unit–9: Paragraph Writing.....	183

Unit-1

THE HISTORY & IMPORTANCE OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Written by: Khuram Dad
Reviewed by: Dr. Zafar Iqbal

CONTENTS

	<i>Page No.</i>
Introduction	4
Objectives	4
1.1 What is Language.....	5
1.1.1 Double Articulation	5
1.2 Syntax.....	6
1.3 Features of Human Language	7
1.3.1 Language is Arbitrary	7
1.3.2 Language is Social.....	7
1.3.3 Language is Symbolic.....	8
1.3.4 Language is Systematic	8
1.3.5 Language is Vocal	8
1.3.6 Language is Non-Instinctive, Conventional	8
1.3.7 Language is Productive and Creative	8
1.4 The Origin of Human Language	9
1.4.1 Language is Divine Creation	9
1.4.2 Natural Evolution Hypothesis.....	9
1.4.3 The Social Interaction Source	10
1.4.6 The Physical Adaptation Source	10
1.4.4 Teeth, Lips, Mouth, Larynx and Pharynx	11
1.4.5 The Tool-Making Source	12
1.5 Beginning of English Language: The Old English Period.....	13
1.6 The Middle English Period	16
1.6.1 Form and Function	16

1.7	Modern English.....	18
1.7.1	The Early Modern English	18
1.7.2	The Late Modern English.....	18
1.8	Significance of English in Pakistan	19
1.8.1	Colonial Background.....	19
1.8.2	English as a language Communication	20
1.8.3	Official Language	20
1.8.4	Academic Language	20
1.8.5	Language of Information Technology.....	21
1.9	How are Language and Communication Related?.....	21
1.9.1	How to Communicate?	22
1.10	Why is Grammar Important?	22
1.10.1	Words.....	23
1.10.2	Phrases	23
1.10.3	Clauses	24
1.10.4	Sentence	24
1.10.5	Subject and Predicate	25
1.10.6	Four Kinds of Sentence.....	26
1.11	Self-Assessment Questions/Activities	26
1.12	Bibliography.....	28

INTRODUCTION

This is the first book in the series of five books on English that you have to study as part of your B.Ed syllabus. This introductory Unit establishes the concept of language. It also traces the history of English language and the stages through which it has reached its present status. This chapter also establishes the role of language in communication and the significance of communication in our life. It also tells the students that why it is important for us to learn English language. The unit ends on establishing the significance of grammar in learning language and introducing basic concepts of grammar.

OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

1. Define language and explain features of human language.
2. Explain the origin of human language.
3. Trace the development of English language at its present stage.
4. Describe the significance of English language in our country.
5. Understand the importance of grammar in learning language.

1.1 What is Language?

Human beings can communicate with each other. You are able to exchange knowledge, beliefs, opinions, wishes, threats, commands, thanks, promises, declarations, feelings – only our imagination sets limits. You can laugh to express amusement, happiness, or disrespect, you can smile to express amusement, pleasure, approval, or bitter feelings, you can shriek to express anger, excitement, or fear, you can clench your fists to express determination, anger or a threat, you can raise your eyebrows to express surprise or disapproval, and so on, but our system of communication before anything else is language. If we want to define term ‘language’ we can say that it is a system of communication based upon words and the combination of words into sentences. Language is a fundamental human faculty used for the expression of our thoughts and creative ideas, face-to-face communication, scientific inquiry, and many other purposes. Communication by means of language may be referred to as linguistic communication, the other ways mentioned above – laughing, smiling, shrieking, and so on – are types of non-linguistic communication. Verbal language includes words that attain expression through sounds uttered by our vocal cords. On the other hand nonverbal language includes signals and body gesture.

Most or all non-human species can exchange information, but none of them are known to have a system of communication with a complexity that in any way is comparable to language possessed by human beings. Primarily, they communicate with non-linguistic means resembling our smiling, laughing, yelling, clenching of fists, and raising of eyebrows. Chimpanzees, gorillas, and orangutans can exchange different kinds of information by emitting different kinds of shrieks, composing their face s in numerous ways, and moving their hands or arms in different gestures, but they do not have words and sentences like that of human beings. By moving in certain patterns, bees are apparently able to tell their fellow workers where to find honey, but apparently not very much else. Birds sing different songs, whose main functions are to defend their territory or to attract a mate.

Language, as defined above, is an exclusively human property. Among the characteristics that make a relatively clear distinction between linguistic and nonlinguistic communication meaningful, two are particularly important: double articulation and syntax.

1.1.1 Double Articulation

Languages consist of tens of thousands of signs, which are combinations of form and meaning. Form in spoken languages is a sequence of sounds, in written languages for example a sequence of letters (depending upon what kind of writing

system we are talking about) and in the sign languages of the deaf a certain combination of gestures. Here, we shall concentrate on spoken languages, and one example of a sign is the English word Chair. Speakers of English associate a certain meaning with this form: ‘a separate seat for one person, typically with a back and four legs’. The form and the meaning together constitute a sign. Languages incorporate numerous signs, and the term double articulation refers to the fact that the formal sides of these sign are built from a relatively small stock that are usually between 10 and 100 of meaningless sounds.

In English, the number of sounds is around 44, with 20 vowels and 24 consonants. There is no connection between the meaning and any of the sounds. In order to achieve the goal of communication you would need infinite number of sounds. So what you do is, you combine these 44 sounds in different patterns and you can generate infinite number of words that enable you to communicate.

In a “language” without double articulation, all signs would be constituted by individual sounds, and the number of different sounds would be equal to the number of signs. One example would be a system of communication where each sign is a specific cry. A human being would probably be able to distinguish several hundreds of cries, but such a system would not only be poor, but also uneconomical, and extremely vulnerable to noise.

1.2 Syntax

The principle of double articulation has enabled human beings to create languages with an impressively large number of signs, but the inventory of signs in a language is by necessity finite. Since the number of sounds in a language usually, is between 10 and 100, we could not have hundreds of thousands of different signs unless we allowed them to be extremely long, and there is anyway an upper limit to the number of signs that a human being is able to remember. It would not be very practical for a language to have separate signs for meanings like ‘man killed lion’ and ‘lion killed man’. The total number of isolated signs in a human language is generally limited to roughly 10000–20000, and with this number of signs we cannot talk about an infinite number of meanings – unless we combine them.

The ingenious invention that enabled human beings to talk about everything they can imagine is syntax. Syntax is used to put together signs expressing relatively simple meanings into sign combinations expressing more complex meanings. To express a meaning like ‘man killed lion’, you combine signs meaning ‘man’, ‘kill’, ‘past’, and ‘lion’, and you combine the same signs in a different way to

express the meaning 'lion killed man'. The English sign sequences man killed lion and lion killed man are sentences, and the number of sentences in a language is infinite. Take any sentence in a language, and it is always possible to make it longer:

Man killed lion \Rightarrow the man killed the lion \Rightarrow the woman said that the man killed the lion \Rightarrow the old woman said that the young man killed the lion \Rightarrow the old woman said that the young man killed the lion that ate the antelope \Rightarrow the girl believed that the old woman said that the young man killed the lion that ate the antelope – and so on infinitely.

Syntax is a mechanism that enables human beings to utter or understand an infinite number of sentences constructed from a finite number of building blocks. Without syntax, you would not be able to express other meanings than those associated with isolated signs, and the number of different meanings you would be able to express, would be equal to the number of signs in the "language".

1.3 Features of Human Language

Language is human so it differs from animal communication in several ways. Language can have scores of characteristics but the following are the most important ones: language is arbitrary, productive, creative, systematic, vocalic, social, non-instinctive and conventional. These characteristics of language set human language apart from animal communication. Some of these features may be part of animal communication; yet they do not form part of it in total.

1.3.1 Language is Arbitrary

Language is arbitrary in the sense that there is no inherent relation between the words of a language and their meanings or the ideas conveyed by them. There is no reason why a female adult human being be called a woman in English, aurat in Urdu, Zen in Persian and Feminine in French. The choice of a word selected to mean a particular thing or idea is purely arbitrary but once a word is selected for a particular referent, it comes to stay as such. It may be noted that had language not been arbitrary, there would have been only one language in the world.

1.3.2 Language is Social

Language is a set of conventional communicative signals used by humans for communication in a community. Language in this sense is a possession of a social group, comprising an indispensable set of rules which permits its members to relate to each other, to interact with each other, to co-operate with each other; it is

a social institution. Language exists in society; it is a means of nourishing and developing culture and establishing human relations.

1.3.3 Language is Symbolic

Language consists of various sound symbols and their graphological counterparts that are employed to denote some objects, occurrences or meaning. These symbols are arbitrarily chosen and conventionally accepted and employed. Words in a language are not mere signs or figures, but symbols of meaning. The intelligibility of a language depends on a correct interpretation of these symbols.

1.3.4 Language is Systematic

Although language is symbolic, yet its symbols are arranged in a particular system. All languages have their system of arrangements. Every language is a system of systems. All languages have phonological and grammatical systems, and within a system there are several sub-systems. For example, within the grammatical system we have morphological and syntactic systems, and within these two sub-systems we have systems such as those of plural, of mood, of aspect, of tense, etc.

1.3.5 Language is Vocal

Language is primarily made up of vocal sounds only produced by a physiological articulatory mechanism in the human body. In the beginning, it appeared as vocal sounds only. Writing came much later, as an intelligent attempt to represent vocal sounds. Writing is only the graphic representation of the sounds of the language. So the linguists say that speech is primary.

1.3.6 Language is Non-Instinctive, Conventional

No language was created in a day out of a mutually agreed upon formula by a group of humans. Language is the outcome of evolution and convention. Each generation transmits this convention on to the next. Like all human institutions languages also change and die, grow and expand. Every language then is a convention in a community. It is non-instinctive because it is acquired by human beings. Nobody gets a language in heritage; he acquires it because he has an innate ability.

1.3.7 Language is Productive and Creative

Language has creativity and productivity. The structural elements of human language can be combined to produce new utterances, which neither the speaker nor his hearers may ever have made or heard before any, listener, yet which both sides understand without difficulty. Language changes according to the needs of society.

Finally, language has other characteristics such as *Duality* referring to the two systems of sound and meaning, *Displacement* which means the ability to talk across time and space, *Humanness* which means that animals cannot acquire it, *Universality* which refers to the equilibrium across humanity on linguistic grounds, *Competence* and *Performance* which means that language is innate and produced in society and furthermore, language is culturally transmitted. It is learnt by an individual from his elders, and is transmitted from one generation to another. Thus using J. Firth's term, language is a '*polysystematic*'. It is also open to be studied from multifaceted angles

1.4 The Origin of Human Language

Biologists refer to the modern human as *homo sapiens*, Latin for 'wise man', but the possession of language is such an important part of the definition of the modern human that *homo loquens* 'talking man' would be an equally appropriate name. Concerning the origin of the first language, there are two main hypotheses, or beliefs. Neither can be proven or disproved given present knowledge.

1.4.1 Language is Divine Creation

The first hypothesis acknowledges the role of divine influence upon human beings in creation of language. Many societies throughout history believed that language is the gift of the gods to humans. The most familiar is found in Genesis 2:20, which tells us that Adam gave names to all living creatures. Holy Quran also states that "And He taught Adam all the names" Al-Baqra. This belief predicates that humans were created from the start with an innate capacity to use language.

It cannot be proven that language is as old as humans, but it is definitely true that language and human society are inseparable. Wherever humans exist language exists as it is the creation of human communication, interaction and correspondence regarding day to day matters among individuals and different communities. Every Stone Age tribe ever encountered has a language equal to English, Latin, or Greek in terms of its expressive potential and grammatical complexity. Technologies may be complex or simple, but language is always complex.

1.4.2 Natural Evolution Hypothesis

The second hypothesis basis itself on the process of human evolution. At some point in their evolutionary development humans acquired a more sophisticated brain which made language invention and learning possible. In other words, at some point in time humans evolved a device that Chomsky called **language acquisition device**, whatever this may be in real physical terms. The simple vocalizations and gestures inherited from our primate ancestors then quickly gave

way to a creative system of language--perhaps within a single generation or two. According to the natural evolution hypothesis, as soon as humans developed the biological, or neurological, capacity for creative language, the cultural development of some specific system of forms with meanings would have been an inevitable next step.

So far we have discussed about language and origin of language in general. Let us now move to English language that is our primary concern in this course. First we will look at the beginning of English language.

1.4.3 The Social Interaction Source

Another proposal involving natural sounds has been called the “yo-he-ho” theory. The idea is that the sounds of a person involved in physical effort could be the source of our language, especially when that physical effort involved several people and the inter-action had to be coordinated. So, a group of early humans might develop a set of hums, grunts, groans and curses that were used when they were lifting and carrying large bits of trees or lifeless hairy mammoths.

The appeal of this proposal is that it places the development of human language in a social context. Early people must have lived in groups, if only because larger groups offered better protection from attack. Groups are necessarily social organizations and, to maintain those organizations, some form of communication is required, even if it is just grunts and curses. So, human sounds, however they were produced, must have had some principled use within the life and social interaction of early human groups.

This is an important idea that may relate to the uses of humanly produced sounds. It does not, however, answer our question regarding the origins of the sounds produced. Apes and other primates live in social groups and use grunts and social calls, but they do not seem to have developed the capacity for speech.

1.4.4 The Physical Adaptation Source

Instead of looking at types of sounds as the source of human speech, we can look at the types of physical features humans possess, especially those that are distinct from other creatures, which may have been able to support speech production. We can start with the observation that, at some early stage, our ancestors made a very significant transition to an upright posture, with bipedal (on two feet) locomotion, and a revised role for the front limbs.

Some effects of this type of change can be seen in physical differences between the skull of a gorilla and that of a Neanderthal man from around 60,000 years ago.

The reconstructed vocal tract of a Neanderthal suggests that some consonant-like sound distinctions would have been possible. We have to wait until about 35,000 years ago for features in reconstructions of fossilized skeletal structures that begin to resemble those of modern humans. In the study of evolutionary development, there are certain physical features, best thought of as partial adaptations, which appear to be relevant for speech. They are streamlined versions of features found in other primates. By themselves, such features would not necessarily lead to speech production, but they are good clues that a creature possessing such features probably has the capacity for speech.

1.4.5 Teeth, Lips, Mouth, Larynx and Pharynx

Human teeth are upright, not slanting outwards like those of apes, and they are roughly even in height. Such characteristics are not very useful for ripping or tearing food and seem better adapted for grinding and chewing. They are also very helpful in making sounds such as f or v. Human lips have much more intricate muscle interlacing than is found in other primates and their resulting flexibility certainly helps in making sounds like p or b. The human mouth is relatively small compared to other primates, can be opened and closed rapidly, and contains a smaller, thicker and more muscular tongue which can be used to shape a wide variety of sounds inside the oral cavity. In addition, unlike other primates, humans can close off the airway through the nose to create more air pressure in the mouth. The overall effect of these small differences taken together is a face with more intricate muscle interlacing in the lips and mouth, capable of a wider range of shapes and a more rapid and powerful delivery of sounds produced through these different shapes.

The human larynx or “voice box” (containing the vocal folds or vocal cords) differs significantly in position from the larynx of other primates such as monkeys. In the course of human physical development, the assumption of an upright posture moved the head more directly above the spinal column and the larynx dropped to a lower position. This created a longer cavity called the pharynx, above the vocal folds, which acts as a resonator for increased range and clarity of the sounds produced via the larynx and the vocal tract. One unfortunate consequence of this development is that the lower position of the human larynx makes it much more possible for the human to choke on pieces of food. Monkeys may not be able to use their larynx to produce speech sounds, but they do not suffer from the problem of getting food stuck in their windpipe. In evolutionary terms, there must have been a big advantage in getting this extra vocal power (i.e. a larger range of sound distinctions) to outweigh the potential disadvantage from an increased risk of choking to death.

1.4.6 The Tool-Making Source

In the physical adaptation view, one function (producing speech sounds) must have been superimposed on existing anatomical features (teeth, lips) previously used for other purposes (chewing, sucking). A similar development is believed to have taken place with human hands and some believe that manual gestures may have been a precursor of language. By about two million years ago, there is evidence that humans had developed preferential right-handedness and had become capable of making stone tools. Wood tools and composite tools eventually followed. Tool-making, or the outcome of manipulating objects and changing them using both hands, is evidence of a brain at work. The human brain is not only large relative to human body size, it is also lateralized, that is, it has specialized functions in each of the two hemispheres.

Those functions that control the motor movements involved in complex vocalization (speaking) and object manipulation (making or using tools) are very close to each other in the left hemisphere of the brain. It may be that there was an evolutionary connection between the language-using and tool-using abilities of humans and that both were involved in the development of the speaking brain. Most of the other speculative proposals concerning the origins of speech seem to be based on a picture of humans producing single noises to indicate objects in their environment. This activity may indeed have been a crucial stage in the development of language, but what it lacks is any structural organization. All languages, including sign language, require the organizing and combining of sounds or signs in specific arrangements. We seem to have developed a part of our brain that specializes in making these arrangements.

If we think in terms of the most basic process involved in primitive tool-making, it is not enough to be able to grasp one rock (make one sound); the human must also be able to bring another rock (other sounds) into proper contact with the first in order to develop a tool. In terms of language structure, the human may have first developed a naming ability by producing a specific and consistent noise (e.g. bEEr) for a specific object. The crucial additional step was to bring another specific noise (e.g. gOOd) into combination with the first to build a complex message (bEEr gOOd). Several thousand years of development later, humans have honed this message-building capacity to a point where, on Saturdays, watching a football game, they can drink a sustaining beverage and proclaim. This beer is good. As far as we know, other primates are not doing this.

1.5 Beginning of English Language: The Old English Period

English Language emerged out of a mixture of Germanic languages and dialects in the period roughly around the sixth and seventh centuries. The earliest recorded documents in the British Isles are from the late seventh and early eighth centuries, but they give us insight into the kind of language spoken and written up to a century earlier. This form of English, which is known as Old English (OE), was spoken and written by settlers from the Continent: the Angles, the Saxons, and the Jutes. The Angles, the Saxons, and the Jutes were German tribes that settled in England. Their culture came to be known as Anglo-Saxon. The history of creation of English language and English Nation goes side by side. As England was created in 449 AD with her old name as Englalund, founded by three tribes.

The Ecclesiastical History of the English Nation, the seventh-century monk Bede (often given the honorific Venerable) cites *circa* 449 AD as the date of the first significant landings of the language's Germanic progenitors on what would become English soil. This date is therefore often cited in relation to the initial emergence of the English language.

Old English literature records the creation date of England in the era of Old English (OE).

We may define the language known as Old English in four ways:

- A. Geographically—as a language spoken by the Germanic settlers in the British Isles.
- B. Historically—from the time of the settlement in the fifth century (449 AD) until the Norman Conquest in 1066.
- C. Genetically—as a Lowlands branch of the West Germanic group of languages.
- D. Typologically—as a language with a particular sound system (phonology), grammatical endings (morphology), word order patterns (syntax), and vocabulary (lexis)

Old English is bounded by geography. The earliest inhabitants of the British Isles, whose language we can reconstruct, were Celtic speakers who migrated from Europe sometime in the second half of the first millennium B.C. The Romans colonized England under Julius Caesar and kept it as a colony until the middle of the fifth century A.D. Latin became the prestige language of administration, education, and social life. During the last decades of Roman colonial rule in England, groups of Germanic-speaking tribes and raiders began to settle portions of the British Isles. By the middle of the fifth century, raids and settlements

became more frequent, and by end of the century, settlements began to spread from the south and southeastern coasts into the southwest (in the area known now as Wessex). By the year 547, a kingdom was established in the north of England, north of the Humber River, by groups descended from the Angles, a Germanic tribe (they became known as Anglians). By the middle of the seventh century, small kingdoms were being established throughout England. Some of them were small outposts, really little more than extended farmsteads and small villages; others were larger, with rulers of great power and wealth. As these settlements developed, Old English emerged as a distinctive language, but it also developed four major dialects. Each dialect here, as well as subsequent dialects in England, had both natural and manmade borders.

North of the Humber River was Northumbrian. This was the dialect that became the standard of a great religious and literary culture in the eighth and ninth centuries. The historian Bede, who completed his *Ecclesiastical History of the English Church and Peoples* in 731, was a Northumbrian (though he wrote in Latin). So, too, was Caedmon, perhaps the first known poet in the English language. The great gospel books and bibles of the A-S church were produced here, and their Latin texts were glossed in the Northumbrian dialect. The earliest written records in OE are in Northumbrian.

In the middle of the country, between the Humber River to the north and the Thames to the south, was Mercia, a loose collection of settlements and kingdoms. Kentish was the dialect spoken in the southeastern corner of the country. Here, too, little survives in this dialect.

The most important dialect of OE was West Saxon (W-S), the form of the language spoken and written in the southwestern part of the country. This was the dialect of King Alfred (d. 899), of the seat of government of the A-S people that emerged in the late ninth and early tenth century, located in Winchester, and of the church. Most manuscripts of OE literature are in the W-S dialect, either because they were commissioned and read by individuals in this area, or because they took earlier documents from other dialects and, in effect, translated them into the W-S dialect. For all intents and purposes, when we read “Old English” in modern editions, we are reading texts in the W-S dialect.

Old English descends from a group of Lowland Germanic languages; its closest relatives are Dutch and Frisian. These languages shared certain sound patterns, different from the Highland Germanic languages (from which modern German descends), that made their pronunciation distinctive. But OE also shares many

grammatical features with the older Germanic languages. Here are the most important features:

Verbs: OE, like all the Germanic languages, had two kinds of verbs— strong and weak.

1. Strong verbs are verbs that signal change in tense through the change in the root vowel of the word. Examples of strong verbs are drink, drank, drunk; run, ran; and think, thought.
2. Weak verbs are those that signal the past tense with a suffix ending in -d or -ed. Their vowel does not change. Thus: walk, walked; love, loved; care, cared.
3. Many strong verbs have been changed, over time, into weak verbs. For example, the word meaning to grow, wax, was once a strong verb; now it's just wax, waxed. Some verbs still remain strong (shine, shone), but weak forms have developed along with them (shine, shined). Such verbs, (e.g., hang, hung, hanged) have developed over time to signal different kinds of verbal relationships (e.g., transitivity: I shined my shoes, but the sun shone). Whenever we want to coin a new word in English, we make it weak: televise, televised.

Nouns: Like all the Germanic languages, OE had noun declensions. Nouns were in different groups, or classes. If you wanted to signal relationships in a sentence—subject, direct object, indirect object, instrument of action—endings were placed on the ends of the words. These are known as case endings. Moreover, like many other European languages, OE had full grammatical gender: nouns were masculine, feminine, or neuter. Concept nouns (ending in “ness”) were feminine. OE often signaled the plural of nouns with a final -s, as we still do today. But there were groups of nouns whose root vowel changed between singular and plural. Thus, man, men; foot, feet; mouse, mice, goose, geese. What is more distinctive about OE is the way it made and used words. OE made words by combining other words. By combining nouns, by adding prefixes, and by bringing together nouns and adjectives, OE created a rich vocabulary that, in effect, translated Latin religious and philosophical language into vernacular form, but that also gives voice to a distinctive literary world view for the Anglo-Saxon peoples themselves.

Some of the Latin borrowings are “continental” (before breakaway of OE from Germanic), while others are “insular” (OE period in British Isles). Continental borrowing includes words borrowed before OE split off from the parent Germanic languages during the first centuries A.D. They were words from the old Roman Latin vocabulary, e.g., architectural and civic phenomena. For example, the word street is a loan-word from Latin strata. While Insular are words borrowed into OE during the period of Anglo-Saxon settlement in the British Isles. They are words

from newer Latin religious concepts (the Church), older Celtic terms from the indigenous Celtic peoples living in the British Isles, and words from the Scandinavian languages of Viking and Danish raiders in England.

1.6 The Middle English Period

Middle English (ME) is collectively the varieties of the English language spoken after the Norman Conquest (1066) until the late 15th century; scholarly opinion varies but the Oxford English Dictionary specifies the period of 1150 to 1500. During this period, the following changes were happening to Old English language:

- A. Noun case endings were simplified or lost.
- B. Adjective endings were lost.
- C. Verb endings were maintained, but simplified; Old English, like other Indo-European languages, had a dual pronoun—a pronoun that signaled just two people; this dual was lost.
- D. Grammatical gender was lost. Nouns were no longer masculine, feminine, or neuter.

Why did this happen? Some theories have been proposed, and they center on three problems: stress, form, and function. **Stress:** it has been argued that the insistent stress in the root syllable of OE words had a tendency to level out the sounds of unstressed syllables. This means that any sound or syllable that did not take full word stress—such as a grammatical ending—would not have been pronounced clearly.

1.6.1 Form and Function

As final endings became harder to distinguish, new ways of establishing meaning were necessary. OE had a fully developed set of prepositions. In Middle English they gradually came to be used in new ways, taking over the function of old case endings. Patterns of word order became regularized, as syntax became the way of expressing grammatical relationships in a sentence.

Word order patterns were regularized. The order of Subject-Verb-Object becomes the standard for the simple declarative sentence. Other word order patterns came to be used for special kinds of expression; for example, in asking a question or stressing a point, you would invert the order as Verb-Subject-Object. Over time, the sound of the language also changed.

The Norman conquest also had an influence on the vocabulary of Middle English and lot of French terms were introduced into English as Language of Normans was French. So why do new words enter a language? Words are borrowed mainly

for two reasons. Firstly if the donor language is of greater prestige in the field of borrowed words. French terms for government, political organization, high culture (especially cookery), and educated discourse came to be preferred as French was language of rulers of land. Secondly if there is a vacant slot for the word in the receiving language; in other words, if there is no native word for a concept or thing, and the new language community brings that thing or concept in, then it comes with the new word. French loans in English are easy to spot: For example words ending in -ion or -ioun, -ment, -encen or -aunce, -or or -our.

Middle English had five major regional dialects that roughly corresponded to the older OE dialect differences. The dialect boundaries were both natural and man-made. The major rivers of England made up boundaries of speech communities; so did the old Roman roads, which effectively divided the country and which, well into the Middle Ages, were still the central lines of transportation through the Island.

Northern: The northern dialect was the language spoken north of the Humber River in England. Its most distinctive features were a rich Scandinavian vocabulary and a set of sounds also keyed to certain Scandinavian habits of pronunciation. The sound of the language seems to us old-fashioned and not participating in the major sound shifts that make the transition to Modern English pronunciation.

East Midland: This dialect was spoken in the eastern central part of the country, broadly to the east of the Old Roman north-south road. It was an important dialect, as many Londoners came from that area, and it formed the basis of the major literary language of England at the close of the Middle Ages.

West Midland: This dialect was spoken to the west of the old Roman road, and to the east of the border with the Celtic-speaking area of Wales. Its major distinctive feature is that it uses the older OE form for “she” as *ha* or *heo*, rather than the newer emerging form of *she*; and it also differed in pronunciation details from East Midland.

Southern: This dialect was spoken in the Southwestern part of England. Southern dialects sound more advanced from our perspective; that is, they undergo certain sound changes that pass into modern standard English pronunciation. Its distinctive feature was the pronunciation of initial *s-* and *f-* as *z-* and *v-*, respectively. Thus, for example, it preserves some distinctions that do pass into Modern English: e.g., the words for the male and female fox were *vox* and *vixen*; the latter is kept in Modern English.

Kentish: The language of the area of southeastern England, this was a distinctive form of speech well into the early Renaissance, preserving many OE forms, sounds, and distinctive words. Documents in Kentish also preserve the older OE case endings more than any other ME dialect.

During this period the official language of court and commerce gradually came to be French, while Latin remained the language of the church and of school and university learning.

1.7 Modern English

Now we shall look at the how do we come by this modern English, the language that we speak and write today the way we do.

1.7.1 The Early Modern English

The first “official” use of English after the Norman Conquest was in the proclamation of Henry III from 18 October 1258. This document was issued in French and Latin as well; what is interesting is not just that Henry felt the need to prepare a text in English, but that the English text is obviously a translation of the French one. Parliament was not addressed in English until 1362. Yet the records of the speeches remain in French. During the fifteenth century, however, English came to predominate as the official language. By 1423, Parliament’s records were kept virtually all in English. Henry V (1413-22) established English as an official language. The wills of kings Henry IV, Henry V, and Henry VI are all in English.

Towards the end of Middle English, a sudden and distinct change in pronunciation (the Great Vowel Shift) started, with vowels being pronounced shorter and shorter. It was a change in a system of pronunciation, not a change in individual sound.

From the 16th century the British had contact with many people from around the world. This, and the Renaissance of Classical learning, meant that many new words and phrases entered the language. The invention of printing also meant that there was now a common language in print. Books became cheaper and more people learned to read. Printing also brought standardization to English. Spelling and grammar became fixed, and the dialect of London, where most publishing houses were, became the standard. In 1604 the first English dictionary was published.

1.7.2 The Late Modern English

The main difference between Early Modern English and Late Modern English is vocabulary. Late Modern English has many more words, arising from two

principal factors: firstly, the Industrial Revolution and technology created a need for new words; secondly, the British Empire at its height covered one quarter of the earth's surface, and the English language adopted foreign words from many countries.

England began the Industrial Revolution (18th century) and this had also an effect on the development of the language as new words had to be invented or existing ones modified to cope with the rapid changes in technology. New technical words were added to the vocabulary as inventors designed various products and machinery. These words were named after the inventor or given the name of their choice, For Example: *trains, engine, pulleys, combustion, electricity, telephone, telegram, camera* etc.

Britain was an Empire for 200 years between the 18th and 20th centuries and English language continued to change as the British Empire moved across the world - to the USA, Australia, New Zealand, India, Asia and Africa. They sent people to settle and live in their conquered places and as settlers interacted with natives, new words were added to the English vocabulary. For example, '*kangaroo*' and '*boomerang*' are native Australian Aborigine words; '*juggernaut*' and '*turban*' came from India.

English continues to change and develop, with hundreds of new words arriving every year. But even with all the borrowings from many other languages the heart of the English language remains the Anglo-Saxon of Old English. The grammar of English is also distinctly Germanic - three genders (he, she and it) and a simple set of verb tenses.

1.8 Significance of English in Pakistan

English is an important language in Pakistani context. It has great significance in all fields of life in Pakistan. English in our country enjoys the high valued status in official correspondence, medium of instruction in academia, communication in business and commerce industry.

1.8.1 Colonial Background

British rulers ruled the Indo-Pak Sub-continent for almost 2 centuries. English administrators replaced Persian as a language of official matters from Persian language used by the natives. In doing so English language attained the higher status as compared to the other languages. The elites and the educated people accepted English as a standard language and began using it in all affairs. Pakistan

attained most of the legacy from the British people at the time of her creation, therefore, English was accepted and used as language of important matters.

1.8.2 English as a language Communication

English has accomplished the status of the language of understanding among the people of the world. People use this language for International communication. It is the only spoken language understood world widely. It enjoys a special place among the languages of the globe. More than 1800 million people of the world use this language for communication whereas in Pakistan about 16 million people use English. International trade and commerce are conducted viz a viz English. It also serves the language of diplomacy among diplomats of various nations. It is among language used in the UNO and also other languages are translated in English for people to understand at the forum of UNO. People including the travellers, tourists, travel guides and advertising agencies use English for communication. It is also the language of International air traffic control for correspondence among of pilots with the airport authorities. A large body of world literature is produced in English. The literature created in native languages in translated into English language in order to reach the larger readership.

1.8.3 Official Language

In today's Pakistan English language serves as an official language. Be it official letters or office memorandum, it is the English that is preferred for correspondence. Communication via Emails within organization is done through English preferably. Similarly the call for meeting or letters to individuals is performed in English letters. Most of the job applications are filled in English. English as an official language is used both in public and private sector.

1.8.4 Academic Language

Urdu is Pakistan's national language. It is spoken and understood all over the country .Despite Urdu as a first language English is also taught in our educational institutes including schools and colleges from class one to graduate level as a compulsory subject. Now the questions arise why should we study English? The answer can be found that in Pakistan up to intermediate level, the medium of instruction is Urdu, whereas in the higher education the students face, the changed medium to English. Such examples can be seen in medical colleges, engineering college, banking training institutes where the English is the only medium of instruction. If students have no or weak command then it becomes very difficult for the students to cope up with the challenges of English. Because of the requirements at the higher levels, most of the institutes prefer to teach English at the primary level so that the students may attain the required results later in life. The importance of English in educational sector can be witnessed from the fact

that Examinations of higher levels in Pakistan are conducted through the medium of English. Such examinations where English as a medium is utilized include CSS, PCS, Federal and Provincial Public Service Commission tests, Banking Diploma, Army, Air force and Navy enrolment test.

1.8.5 Language of Information Technology

Modern age is the age of information technology and computer. Scientists and technicians prefer to install English language for the usage of these gadgets with intentions to attract maximum number of users. About 80% of all the information stored in computers is in English. Even if you run an Urdu programme, you will have to give command in English. The technology is designed on English friendly patterns. The facility of internet and online sources of knowledge are available in English language mostly. Local languages so far have very minimum amount of utility of online resources and data basis. Similarly the application of emails and social networking websites like Facebook, Twitter and Whats App etc. use English preferably as a medium of utility. In such conditions English as a language remains at usage to a large extent when compared to other regional languages.

1.9 How are Language and Communication Related

Each and every day of our lives we transmit verbal or written messages to other persons, and every day we receive verbal or written messages from other folks. These two actions consume a lot of our time at home, in our social life outside the family, and at work. Simply because we are human beings who live and work with other human beings, conversation or communication, sending and receiving information, plays an all-important part in our lives.

It is likely to communicate without using words. We can shake our head instead of saying, 'No' or we can nod instead of saying 'yes'. We can smile instead of saying, 'I am pleased'. We can frown instead of saying, 'I don't like that'. Yet, though we all make use of non-verbal signs, the fact remains that messages that lack words are rigorously limited in their scope, totally insufficient to serve any but the simplest purposes. We could not get through a day's living with any satisfaction or success if we were able to communicate only by means of nods, smiles, frowns, gestures and grunts.

If we could not send and receive spoken and written messages we should be cut off from our fellow human beings. Communication above the most primitive level depends upon the use of language.

1.9.1 How to Communicate

Every single day we need to interchange messages of many different types with many different people. To do that effectively, we have to know a lot of words and we have to be able to select the correct words to suit each distinct message. Well-organized communication needs a large vocabulary.

However, using language is not just a matter of having knowledge of words and knowing which words to use. Our capability to make ourselves understood in any language, whether it is our mother language or a second language, depends on two things:

- First, we must have proper vocabulary that should enable us to express that we wish to express.
- Second, we have to know how words perform in the specific language we are trying to use.

Knowing the words is vital, of course; but knowing the words is not much use on its own. For example, we may know the French words for a message that we are trying to send in French, but no French person will be able to understand us if the words of our message do not behave in the ways that the French language requires, in other words the message should be in accordance with the grammar of French language.

That is true of every language. If we are speaking or writing German, we must make our words behave in the ways of the German language. Russian words must behave in Russian ways, English words in English ways, and so on. Every language has its own special ways of making words behave. If the words of any message, spoken or written, do not behave in the ways required by that language, the communication might not take place at all.

1.10 Why is Grammar Important

As you have just seen, every language has its own specific ways of combining words in an order. The certain kinds of word behavior and order that a specific language demands are what we call the **grammar** of that language.

So, when we say that English grammar is unlike French grammar, that is simply another way of saying that the behavior of words in the English language is different from the behavior of words in the French language. An alternative term for behavior can be structure.

English speakers learning French must learn to identify and imitate the word behavior of the French language. That is to say, they must learn, and learn how to use, French grammar. French speakers learning English must learn to recognize and copy the word behavior of the English language. That is to say, they must learn, and learn how to use, English grammar.

Because the grammars of the two languages are different, it is no use trying to make English behave like French, or French behave like English. Neither language can work with any grammar but its own. We cannot make ourselves understood in either language if we use the wrong grammar.

Whether we are speaking or writing in a foreign language or in our own language, our use of words must obey the grammatical rules of that language. Correct grammar is an essential ingredient of efficient communication. When we fail to follow the grammar of a language, the communication breaks down. Basic unit of grammar is words.

1.10.1 Words

Very young children use single syllabic words when they speak, but they soon outgrow that inefficient way of communicating. They learn how to make themselves understood by using multisyllabic words and words in groups. The response that they get from other people teaches them which of the word groups they are using make sense and which do not. In this way they progress, learning language skills by trial and error until they can frame word groups that make complete sense.

- Words are the building blocks of language. Until we can build words up into meaningful groups and make meaningful connections between one group of words and another, we cannot use language efficiently.
- The study of grammar is essentially the study of how words behave in groups. Grammar explains the relationships between one word and another and the relationships between one group of words and another.
- Words are categorized into groups that we call parts of speech.

1.10.2 Phrases

Not all word groups make *complete* sense. Here are some examples of word groups that do not:

- during her holiday
- after my twenty-first birthday
- considering his injury
- in that street
- beneath the foundations

Each of those word groups makes some sense. No English-speaking person would dismiss any of them as nonsense, but in every case the meaning is incomplete. None of them can stand alone. The group of words without subject-verb is known as a phrase. Word groups such as those are

Although a phrase cannot make complete sense on its own, it can be used as part of a word group that does make complete sense. Like this:

- Our neighbor wrote several postcards *during her holiday*.
- I was given a pay rise *after my twenty-first birthday*.
- *Considering his injury*, he played a remarkable game.
- We saw two empty houses *in that street*.
- The ground shifted *beneath the foundations*.

Phrases play a very important part in our use of language, and we shall study their grammatical function in detail later. For the moment, it is sufficient to be able to recognize a phrase and to understand how it differs from a sentence.

1.10.3 Clauses

A **clause** is a group of words having a subject-verb unit; for example the group of words that contains the subject-verb unit *the bus goes*, has both the subject and verb unit therefore it is a clause.

You now know what a clause is, but there are two kinds of clauses you need to know about: **dependent and independent**. To see the difference between the two kinds, read the examples below:

1. Ahmad took my mobile phone. (Independent clause)
2. *because* Ahmad likes my mobile phone (dependent clause)

1.10.4 Sentence

We saw that a phrase can be added to another word group with the result that the *incomplete* sense of the phrase becomes part of the *complete* sense of the larger word group. Like this:

- Our neighbor wrote several postcards *during her holiday*.
- I was given a pay rise *after my twenty-first birthday*.
- *Considering his injury*, he played a remarkable game.
- We saw two empty houses *in that street*.
- The ground shifted *beneath the foundations*.

Notice this very important fact. The word groups to which the phrases (in italics) have been added do not need the phrases in the way that the phrases need them. The phrases *add* something to the meaning of the word groups to which they are joined, but they do not *complete* their meaning.

The word groups in capitals can stand alone. They make complete sense without the help of the phrases.

- Our neighbour wrote several postcards.
- I was given a pay rise.
- He played a remarkable game.
- We saw two empty houses.
- The ground shifted.

Word groups such as these are *sentences*. A sentence is a group of words that makes complete sense. It can stand on its own without needing any additional words to complete its meaning. It is an independent, self-contained, completely understandable utterance.

1.10.5 Subject and Predicate

A sentence has two parts. The doer or performer or subject and related information about the actor. The subject may be some person, place and thing. The second portion consists of further detail about the person, place and thing. Thus a sentence has two parts, subject and predicate. Let's consider this example:

- **Mr Aslam** *was invited to inaugurate the school.*
In this example we can see that the first part of the sentence, *Mr. Aslam*, names a person, hence it is subject of the sentence. While the second part of the sentence as we can see, *was invited to inaugurate the school*, provides some information about the action that subject has performed hence it is predicate of sentence. Normally the subject comes first and it follows the predicate. For example
- Ali plays football in the ground.
Here "Ali" is the noun and subject while "plays football in the ground" is the predicate in this sentence.

Sometimes the predicate come at the start of the sentence while subject appears at the end. For instance consider the following sentences.

- Here appears **the legend**.
- Naughty are **the children of my friends**.

In Imperative sentences the Subject is left out; as,

- Start the breakfast. [In this sentence the Subject You is understood].
- Apologize him. [in this example to the Subject You is understood].

1.10.6 Four Kinds of Sentence

All sentences make complete sense on their own, but not all sentences do the same kind of work. Consider these four sentences:

- (1) We have enough coal for this winter.
- (2) Are you sure?
- (3) Look in the cellar.
- (4) What a lot you have bought!

Sentence 1 makes a statement.

Sentence 2 asks a question.

Sentence 3 gives a command.

Sentence 4 utters an exclamation.

Sentences can perform four different functions: make statements, ask questions; give commands; utter exclamations. So keeping in view function of sentence we can divide sentences into four different kinds. And they are mentioned above. As far as structural types of sentences are concerned we will come to it in coming chapters.

1.11 Self-Assessment Questions/Activities

- 1. Suppose you have just taught this chapter to your students, develop a matching column quiz of ten rows for your students.**
- 2. True/False**
 - i. England was founded in 469.
 - ii. Three tribes that formed England are Angels, Sexon and Jutes.
 - iii. He threw me a ball. Here threw is indirect object.
 - iv. ‘What a lot you have bought’ Is the example of exclamatory sentence.
 - v. ‘Ahmad took my mobile phone’ is an example of dependent clause.
- 3. Which of the following word groups are sentences and which are phrases?**
 - i. The old man sat down.
 - ii. In his comfortable armchair.
 - iii. He was tired.

- iv. After his walk.
- v. He switched on his radio.
- vi. Then he lit his pipe.
- vii. With a match.
- viii. The music on the radio soothed him.
- ix. He forgot his pipe.
- x. It went out.
- xi. He slept.
- xii. For nearly an hour.
- xiii. At last.
- xiv. A nice red shirt.

4. Answer the Following Questions

- i. What are the different period in the development of history of English language?
- ii. How did English language change syntactically and lexically?
- iii. What do you know about various dialects and tribes of England at the time of her creation?
- iv. What are features of human language that make it distinct?
- v. Write a detailed note on the importance of English language for a Pakistani in today's world.
- vi. Why do you think English has attained the status of a standard language?
- vii. What is the difference between a phrase, clause and sentence?

1.12 Bibliography

Algeo, J. (2010). *The Origins and Development of English Language*. Boston: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.

Crystal, D., & Potter, S. (2017, Oct. 17). *English language*. Retrieved from Britannica: <https://www.britannica.com/topic/English-language>

Lerer, S. (1998). *The History of the English Language*. Virginia: The Teaching Company.

Unit–2

PARTS OF SPEECH-I

Written by: Khuram Dad
Reviewed by: Dr. Zafar Iqbal

CONTENTS

	<i>Page No.</i>
Introduction	32
Objectives	32
2.1 Parts of Speech-I.....	33
2.2 Noun.....	34
2.2.1 Common Noun and Proper Noun	34
2.2.2 Abstract and Concrete/Material Noun	35
2.2.3 Countable and uncountable Noun	36
2.2.4 Collective Noun	36
2.2.5 Irregular Forms	36
2.2.6 Noun Gender.....	37
2.2.7 Number of Noun	38
2.2.8 Functions of Noun in Sentence	38
2.3 Pronoun.....	38
2.3.1 Personal Pronoun	39
2.3.2 Possessive Pronouns	40
2.3.3 Reflexive and Intensive/Emphatic Pronouns	41
2.3.4 Gender-Neutral Pronouns	42
2.3.5 Demonstrative Pronouns	43
2.3.6 Relative Pronouns	43
2.3.7 Interrogative Pronoun	44
2.3.8 Distributive Pronoun.....	44
2.3.9 Indefinite Pronoun	45
2.3.10 Pronoun It.....	45
2.3.11 Pronoun One	46

2.4	The Adjective.....	48
2.4.1	Adjective of Quality.....	49
2.4.2	Adjective of Quantity.....	49
2.4.3	Adjective of Number.....	49
2.4.4	Demonstrative Adjective	49
2.4.5	Interrogative Adjective	50
2.4.6	Distributive Adjective.....	50
2.5	Article	54
2.5.1	Rules for Using Indefinite Article / (A/AN).....	55
2.5.2	Rules for Using Definite Article (The)	55
2.6	Self-Assessment Questions/Activities	57
2.7	Bibliography.....	58

INTRODUCTION

This unit introduces to you the parts of speech and elaborates in depth three parts of speech, noun pronoun and adjectives. This will be helpful for you in creating sentences and using these parts of speech in your writing. I hope it will enable you to express your ideas clearly. The three parts of speech mentioned above have been discussed in details with good number of examples.

OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

1. Define and identify noun, pronoun and adjective and their various types.
2. Explain importance of these parts of speech in sentence construction.
3. Create simple and correct sentences.
4. Analyse the sentence by breaking it into its constituents.

2.1 Parts of Speech-I

Language is combination of infinite words, so when we wish to talk about words we divide them in certain categories. On the whole words are divided into eight different kinds or classes, called Parts of Speech, according to their use; that is, according to the their function in a sentence. Different clauses or kinds of words are called parts of speech. Words are divided into following eight categories.

(i) Noun

A word which expresses the name of a person, thing or place is known as Noun.

Examples: Faizan, King, Star and sky. Bravery, honesty and boldness are senses and are included in nouns.

(ii) Pronoun

A word which is used instead of a noun is called pronoun.

Example: Us, We, He, Them, She, Her etc.

(iii) Adjective

A word which is used to add quality or quantity of the noun is called adjective.

Example: intelligent, nice, ten, half, bad

(iv) Verb

The word, which is used to express the state of action of a subject, is called a verb.

Example: is, are, played, looking.

(v) Adverb

The words which adds something to the meaning of an action or verb, another adverb or adjective is known as adverb.

Example: steady, speedy, very, too

(vi) Preposition

A word, which is used in relation to a noun or a pronoun, is called preposition.

Examples: in, on, about, into, under, above

(vii) Conjunction

The words used to join sentences, phrases, clauses or words are called conjunctions.

Examples: And, but, or, because etc.

(viii) Interjection

The words, which express sudden emotions or feelings, at the occasion of happiness or sadness, are called interjection.

Examples: Oh!, Alas!, Aha! etc.

In this Unit we will explore the concept of Noun, Pronoun and Adjective.

2.2 Noun

A Noun is a word used as the name of a person, place, or thing. The word thing includes all objects that we can see, hear, taste, touch, or smell; and something that we can think of, but cannot perceive by the senses.

- Quaid-e-Azam was a great leader.
- The rose smells sweet.
- The sun shines bright.
- His courage won him honour.

There are several types of noun and they are as follows.

- i. Common noun and proper noun
- ii. Abstract noun and concrete or Material noun
- iii. Countable and uncountable noun
- iv. Collective noun
- v. Irregular forms

2.2.1 Common Noun and Proper Noun

A common noun is a common name that can be applied to vast number of objects, it refers to things in general while proper noun specifies a specific person place or thing. Let's have a look at these two words (city/Islamabad). City is a general term that can be applied to any urban area while Islamabad refers to specific city that is capital of Pakistan.

Here are few examples that can further clarify the concept of common and proper noun.

- Sidra is a Proper Noun, while girl is a Common Noun.
- Hamid is a Proper Noun, while boy is a Common Noun.

Lahore is a Proper Noun, while city is a Common Noun.

Pakistan is a Proper Noun, while country is a Common Noun.

The word girl is a Common Noun, because it is a name common to all girls, while Sidra is a Proper Noun because it is the name of a particular girl. Similar is the case of other examples mentioned above.

Activity

Fill the table with common and proper noun.

Common noun	Proper Noun
City	Islamabad

2.2.2 Abstract and Concrete/Material Noun

Another demarcation of noun is that of abstract and Concrete/Material noun. An abstract noun is a noun which refers to ideas, qualities, and conditions - things that cannot be seen or touched and things which have no physical reality, e.g. *truth, danger, happiness, time, friendship, humour*. On the other hand a concrete/material noun is a noun which refers to people and to things that exist physically and can be seen, touched, smelled, heard, or tasted. Examples include dog, building, coffee, tree, rain, beach, and tune.

Abstract Nouns are formed:

- (1) From Adjectives; as,
- (2) Kindness from kind; honesty from honest.
- (3) Most of the countable nouns are formed from adjectives.
- (4) From Verbs; as,
- (5) Obedience from obey; growth from grow.
- (6) From Common Nouns; as,
- (7) Childhood from child; slavery from slave.

Activity: Make abstract nouns of following words.

Young	
Laugh	
Poor	
Brave	
Hate	
Die	
Boy	
Friend	

2.2.3 Countable and uncountable Noun

What is the grammatical difference between *banana* and *milk*? You can say *a banana/three bananas* but you can't say **a milk/three Milks*. We use the terms countable and uncountable for these two major classes of noun. As a broad definition, countable nouns can be counted as they form singular or plural. For example boy/boys, girl/girls, book/books. On contrary uncountable nouns cannot be counted and take only singular verbs. e.g. milk, oil, sugar, gold, honesty.

2.2.4 Collective Noun

Collective nouns refer to groups and so are also called group nouns. They can take a singular or plural verb, accordingly as the members of the group are seen as united or separate. e.g.

- The Jury is intact.
- The Jury are of different minds on the issue.

American formal English, however, prefers the singular verb.

Other collective nouns include *army, audience, family, flock, group, jury, staff, team, company*. Please note that animal groups such as *herd, pride, gaggle*, etc. do not automatically fall under this category in ELT, though the term 'collective noun/name' is sometimes used for them.

2.2.5 Irregular Forms

Nouns which usually cause problems are

- 1) Nouns always plural, e.g. *clothes, police, cattle, goods, arms*
- 2) Pair nouns, e.g. *trousers, scissors, glasses (spectacles), scales (weighing)*. Some speakers treat some of these as singular, e.g. *The scissors is_ over there; Have you got a pliers?* However, the standard usage is *are* and *a pair of* with these (*a pair of scales* is rare, though, and the AmE *a scale* may displace the plural).
- 3) Nouns ending in 's' which are singular or plural (with some the meaning may be different for singular and plural), e.g. *means, series, barracks, headquarters*.
- 4) Other nouns which are singular or plural, e.g. *sheep, deer, aircraft*.
- 5) Uncountable or plural, e.g. *travel(s)* (plural usually refers to a person's time/experience travelling, usually for pleasure), *politics* (plural usually refers to political beliefs, operations).
- 6) -/to -ves, e.g. *knife-knives, shelf-shelves*, but *roof-roofs, and hoof-hoofs/hooves*, etc.

Activity: Point out the Nouns in the following sentences, and say whether they are Common, Proper, Collective or Abstract

- i. The mob was very big.
- ii. Always speak the truth.
- iii. Bravery is a desired quality.
- iv. Our class consists of fifteen pupils.
- v. The lion has great strength.
- vi. Quaid-e-Azam was famous for his leadership.
- vii. Cleanliness is next to godliness.
- viii. We saw a fleet of ships in the harbour.
- ix. The class is studying grammar.
- x. The jury were divided in their opinion.
- xi. Quaid-e-Azam was the first Governor General of Pakistan.
- xii. The soldiers were rewarded for their bravery.
- xiii. Without health there is no happiness.
- xiv. He gave me a bunch of grapes.
- xv. I recognized your voice at once.

2.2.6 Noun Gender

You know that living beings are of either the male or the female sex. A noun that denotes a male animal is said to be of the Masculine Gender. A noun that denotes a female animal is said to be of the Feminine Gender. However there are certain nouns that are gender neutral, these words do not carry sense of gender with them therefore they are called gender neutral.

Masculine	Feminine	Gender neutral
Man	Woman	person
Father	Mother	parent
Boy	Girl	child
Uncle	Aunt	
Husband	Wife	spouse
Actor	Actress	
Prince	Princess	
Waiter	Waitress	server
Rooster	Hen	chicken
Stallion	Mare	horse

2.2.7 Number of Noun

A noun can denote two numbers, either singular or plural. A Noun that denotes one person or thing is said to be in the Singular Number; as, Boy, girl, cow, bird, tree, book, and pen.

A noun that denotes more than one person or thing is said to be in the Plural Number; as, Boys, girls, cows, birds, trees, books, and pens.

2.2.8 Functions of Noun in Sentence

A noun can function as a subject, object and direct object of verb in sentence. It can also serve as object of preposition. Look at these examples for further understanding of subject, object and indirect object.

Examples:

- **Ali** likes to play **football**.
- **Aslam** ate some **cake**.

In these two sentences you can see that there are four nouns. ‘Ali and Aslam’ are subject of sentences as they are the doers of an action. They are performing an action. While ‘Football and cake’ are the nouns that receive the action of verb directly thus they act as direct object of verb.

The indirect object like the direct object also incorporates the thinking ‘the thing being acted upon’. The indirect object involves the concept of a giving way or acted upon in. for example:

- **Rehan** threw a **cricket ball**.
In this sentence the subject is Rehan and the direct object is cricket ball. Look at another the similar construction:
- **Rehan** threw **me** a **cricket ball**.
Here in this sentence the direct recipient of the cricket ball is pronoun me, which serves the part of the indirect object. Now look at another example in order to understand the concept.
- **Hina** gave a **painting** to **Ali**.
In this sentence the subject is Hina, the direct object is painting and Ali stands out as indirect object.

2.3 Pronoun

A pronoun is a word that is used to replace a noun. It looks irritating if a name is being repeated again and again in the text so in order to smoothen and ease we use

pronouns. A pronoun can stand for a noun or noun phrase. Sometimes it can stand for a clause or sentence as well. A word to which pronoun refers back in the sentence is called antecedent. e.g.

- Ali is my friend. He is also my class fellow.
- Climbing the hill is not an easy Activity. It needs a lot of energy.

There are several types of pronoun. The major subclasses of pronouns are:

Personal pronouns: *I/me, he/him, etc.*

Possessive pronouns: *my/mine, your/yours, etc.*

Reflexive pronouns: *myself, yourself, etc*

2.3.1 Personal Pronoun

I, we, you, he, (she, it), they are called Personal Pronouns because they stand for the three persons. First one is the person speaking, second one is the person spoken to and last one is the person spoken of.

The Pronouns I and we, which denote the person or persons speaking, are said to be Personal Pronouns of the First Person. The Pronoun you, which denotes the person or persons spoken to, is said to be a Personal Pronoun of the Second Person. The pronouns he (she) and they, which denote the person or persons spoken of, are said to be Personal Pronouns of the Third Person. It, although it denotes the thing spoken of, is also called a Personal Pronoun of the Third Person.

	SUBJECT		OBJECT	
	singular	plural	singular	plural
1st person	<i>I</i>	<i>we</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>us</i>
2nd person	<i>you</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>you</i>
3rd person	<i>he/she/it</i>	<i>they</i>	<i>him/her/it</i>	<i>them</i>

Quiz: A student asks which is correct: *between you and I* or *between you and me*. What do you say?

Activity

Write the correct form of pronoun in the following:

1. We scored as many goals as _____. (They, them)
2. Rahim and _____ were present. (I, me)
3. Can you sing as well as _____? (They, them)
4. Let you and _____ try what we can do. (I, me)
5. Wait for Haris and _____. (I, me)

6. You know that as well as _____. (I, me)
7. It was _____ that gave you the alarm. (I, me)
8. Between you and _____, I do not believe him. (I, me)
9. We are not so poor as _____. (They, them)
10. Raheel is as old as _____. (I, me)

2.3.2 Possessive Pronouns

The possessive pronouns exhibit contrasts for person (first person, second person, or third person) and for number (singular or plural). Like the personal pronouns, possessive pronouns have gender-based contrasts (masculine, feminine or Neutral) in the third-person singular. Each possessive pronoun has two distinct forms, the dependent form and the independent form.

Dependent	Independent
My	Mine
Your	Yours
His	His
Her	Hers
Its	-
Our	Ours
Your	Yours
Their	Theirs

Dependent possessives are used before a noun as:

- This is *my* car.
- I've borrowed *your* computer.
- She took *his/her* photograph.

Independent possessives are used without a following noun. They most commonly occur after *of*, in independent genitives as:

- a friend of *mine*
- this partner of *yours*
- a colleague of *his/hers*
- an uncle of *ours*

Independent possessives also occur in other positions, especially when the context makes clear what the pronoun refers to:

John's car is fast, but *mine* is cheaper to run.

Mine = My car

You are in my address book, but am I in *yours*?

Yours = Your address book

2.3.3 Reflexive and Intensive/Emphatic Pronouns

The reflexive and Intensive/Emphatic pronouns end in *-self* (singular) or *-selves* (plural). They exhibit distinctions of person (first person, second person or third person), and number (singular or plural). The third-person singular reflexives (*himself/herself/itself*) show distinctions of gender (masculine, feminine or non-personal).

The reflexive pronouns are used to refer back to the subject of the same sentence: e.g.

- Majid was very badly injured and is now unable to feed *himself*.
- That car is in a class all by *itself*.

Here, *himself* refers back to *Majid*, and *Itself* refers back to The Car, the subjects of the sentences.

Less commonly, reflexive pronouns are used for emphasis, in such case it will be called Emphatic or Intensive pronoun. e.g.

- The Chancellor mentioned tax cuts, but he *himself* knows that the time is not right for reform.
- The Queen *herself* attended the party.

In such cases as mentioned above the reflexives *himself* and *herself* co-occur with the corresponding personal pronoun (subjective case) *he* and *the queen*, and in case it is removed from the sentence the sentence will stand intact. In such cases it is called emphatic/Intensive pronoun. Similarly:

- I myself
- we ourselves
- you yourself
- they themselves
- she herself

Activity

Tell which Pronouns in the following sentences are Reflexive and which Emphatic:

1. I will go myself.
2. Rahim has hurt himself.
3. We often cheer ourselves.
4. I myself heard the comment.
5. You express yourself very clearly.
6. I wash myself when I get up.
7. The boys hid themselves.
8. They have got themselves into a problem.
9. Beatrice poisoned herself.
10. They loved themselves so much that they thought of no one else.

2.3.4 Gender-Neutral Pronouns

English lacks a gender-neutral pronoun in the singular. *He* is masculine, and *she* is feminine, but no pronoun exists to refer to people of unknown or unidentified sex (*it* can only be used to refer to objects and animals, not to people). Therefore a problem arises in sentences such as:

- Somebody has left *his* coat behind.

Clearly, the sex of ‘somebody’ is not known, so there is no way of knowing whether to use *his coat* or *her coat*. Traditionally, the masculine *his* has been used in these circumstances, as in the example above.

However, the arbitrary choice of *his* over *her* is now felt by many people to be unacceptably sexist. A common solution is to use *his or her* (or *his/her*): Somebody has left *his or her* coat behind. Likewise, the subjective pronouns *he or she*, *he/she* (and even *s/he*) are sometimes used as gender-neutral pronouns:

- Encourage your child to read when *he or she* reaches the age of 3.

However, this can be stylistically irritating, especially when it is repeated:

- *He or she* has to satisfy the jury that *he or she* is right.

A candidate who wishes to enter the school before *his or her* eighteenth birthday may be asked to write to state *his or her* reasons.

Recently, the plural pronouns *their* (possessive) and *they* (subjective) are increasingly being used:

- Somebody has left *their* coat behind.
- Encourage your child to read when *they* reach the age of three.

2.3.5 Demonstrative Pronouns

The demonstrative pronouns are *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*. These pronouns are used to point out the objects to which they refer. *This* and *that* are singular, and are used with singular nouns:

- *This* was my sister's bag.
- *That* looks like the car I used to drive.

These and *those* are plural, and are used with plural nouns:

- *These* are nice shoes, but they look uncomfortable.
- *Those* look like riper than the apples on my tree.

Demonstrative pronouns always identify nouns, whether those nouns are named specifically or not. For example: "I can't believe *this*." We have no idea what "this" is, but it's definitely something the writer cannot believe. It exists, even though we don't know what it is.

Demonstrative pronouns are usually used to describe animals, places, or things, however they can be used to describe people when the person is identified, i.e., This sounds like Ali Zafar singing.

Note: Do not confuse demonstrative pronouns with demonstrative adjectives. The words are identical, but demonstrative adjectives qualify nouns, whereas demonstrative pronouns stand alone.

Demonstrative pronouns can be used in place of a noun, so long as the noun being replaced can be understood from the pronoun's context.

2.3.6 Relative Pronouns

The relative pronouns are: *who*, *whom*, *whose*, *which*, and *that*. These pronouns perform double function; they work as a pronoun and a conjunction. Relative pronouns introduce a relative clause.

- That's the man *who* lives beside us.
- That's the man *whom* we met yesterday.
- The problem *which* we're facing is very serious.
- The thing *that* worries me most is the overdraft.

Who and *whom* differ in case. *Who* is subjective?

- the man *who* lives beside us

Whom is objective:

- the man *whom* we met (cf. we met *the man*)

In formal contexts, and especially in writing, *whom* is used after a preposition.

- the man on *whom* we rely
- the people with *whom* he used to work
- the person to *whom* it is addressed

In less formal contexts, including everyday speech, *whom* is often omitted altogether, and the preposition is moved to the end:

- the man we rely on
- the people he used to work with
- the person it is addressed to

2.3.7 Interrogative Pronoun

An interrogative pronoun often stands for something that we are not aware of yet, because we are asking about it. We use these pronouns specifically to ask questions. These pronouns are special because they all start with “Wh”, which makes them easy to remember.

Do not confuse them with what most school teachers call the “5 W’s – who, what, where, why, and when,” because in reality, these are not all interrogative pronouns.

The interrogative pronouns that most English speakers are aware of are: whom, whose, who, what, and which.

These are the pronouns that help English speakers find out information. The words “whatsoever” and “whichever” are also used sometimes, and they are considered interrogative pronouns as well.

- What is your favorite color?
- Whose shirt is this?
- Whatsoever do you mean by that?
- Whom were you speaking with last night?
- Which of these two do you prefer?

2.3.8 Distributive Pronoun

Each, either, neither are called Distributive Pronouns because they refer to persons or things one at a time. For this reason they are always singular and as such followed by the verb in the singular.

- Each of the boys gets a prize.
- Each took it in turn.
- Either of these roads leads to the railway station.
- Either of you can go.
- Neither of the accusations is true.

2.3.9 Indefinite Pronoun

An indefinite pronoun does not refer to any specific person, thing or amount. It is vague and "not definite". Some typical indefinite pronouns are:

all, another, any, anybody/anyone, anything, each, everybody/everyone, everything, few, many, nobody, none, one, several, some, somebody/someone

Most indefinite pronouns are either singular or plural. However, some of them can be singular in one context and plural in another. The most common indefinite pronouns are listed below, with examples, as singular, plural or singular/plural.

Notice that a singular pronoun takes a singular *verb* and that any personal pronoun should also *agree* (in number and gender). Look at these examples:

- Each of the players *has* a doctor.
- One must not praise one's self.

Similarly, plural pronouns need plural *agreement*:

- Many *have* expressed *their* views.

2.3.10 Pronoun It

The pronoun *it* has two major uses: First, as a personal pronoun it can replace a third-person singular noun with non-human reference:

- The car skidded on ice. It skidded on ice.
- Paul left his coat at school. Paul left it at school.

Secondly, *It* is used in expressions relating to the weather and to time:

- It is very cold.
- It rained last night.
- It is four o'clock.
- It is getting late.

This is sometimes called 'empty it' or 'dummy it', because it does not refer to anything in particular. Empty *it* is also used, with even vaguer reference, in many other expressions, including:

- Hold it! (= 'Stop')
- Take it easy!
- Can you make it to my party tonight?

2.3.11 Pronoun One

The pronoun *one* has two distinct uses:

Firstly, Substitute *one* is used as a substitute for a noun that has been mentioned earlier:

- The black coat is nice but the green *one* is awful.

Here, the pronoun *one* substitutes for the noun *coat* (cf. *the green coat is awful*).

Further examples of substitute *one* includes:

- The problem is a complex *one*. (*one* = ‘problem’)
- The house was not a modern *one*, but it was comfortable. (*one* = ‘house’)
- I need a scanner so I’ll just have to buy *one*. (*one* = ‘a scanner’)

Substitute *one* has a plural form, *ones*:

The black coats are nice but the green *ones* are awful.

Secondly, Generic *one* carries a generic meaning corresponding to ‘people in general’:

- *One* can’t expect miracles.
- *One* loses interest in everything when *one* has children.

Generic *one* has a genitive form *one’s*:

- When *one* is cold, *one’s* capillaries close to minimise heat loss.

The corresponding reflexive pronoun is *oneself*:

- *One* could easily find *oneself* out of a job.

Generic *one* is largely confined to written English. It can often be replaced by the less formal *you*:

- *You* could easily find *yourself* out of a job.

Activity

Choose the appropriate options to complete the sentences.

1. ours / it
2. his / we
3. their / our
4. we / his
5. our / us

When the man asked me how I had got _____ address, I told him that I was given it by a relative of _____.

1. my / me
2. his / his
3. mine / his
4. his / him
5. him / him

Although _____ in the room seemed to follow _____ said by the speaker, he never intended to simplify his language.

1. A) no one / anything
2. anybody / anything
3. nobody / nothing
4. anyone / nothing
5. someone / something

I hope you will enjoy _____ at the re-union party this weekend because I won't be able to be there

1. you / myself
2. yourself / mine
3. yours / oneself
4. yourself / myself
5. you / me

We decided to do all the cooking _____ instead of hiring a catering company for the party.

1. of our own
2. oneself
3. by ourselves
4. ours
5. each other

Thousands of children nowadays prefer doing _____ homework with a background of soft music to doing _____ in a quiet room.

1. theirs / them
2. his / its
3. them / it's
4. they / them
5. their / it

You and _____ brother need to take time to prepare _____ for the long journey which will start next month.

1. his / yourself
2. yours / ourselves
3. their / you
4. your / yourselves
5. her / by themselves

The kids watched each gesture of _____ as if their mother were a stranger.

1. them
2. hers
3. him
4. her
5. himself

Trademarks enable a company to distinguish _____ products from _____ of another company their / it

1. it / that
2. our / this
3. its / those
4. my / these

Cannot see through translucent materials, but light can pass through .

1. We / it
2. Anything / their
3. One / them
4. No one / its
5. Everyone / their

2.4 The Adjective

An adjective is word that is used to describe the quality of a noun. So it is actually a word that adds something to the meaning of a noun, it tells us something about. Here are few examples of adjectives used in sentence.

1. Saleem is a tall boy.
2. Huma is an intelligent girl
3. Hamid is a fat boy.
4. The lion is a powerful animal
5. The Indus is a long river.
6. The Giraffe is a gentle animal.
7. The crow is an ugly bird.

In the above examples words like tall, intelligent, fat, powerful, long, gentle, ugly and are used as Adjectives. There are different kinds of adjectives:

1. Adjective of Quality
2. Adjective of Quantity
3. Adjective of Number
4. Demonstrative Adjective
5. Distributive Adjective
6. Interrogative Adjective

2.4.1 Adjective of Quality

Adjective of quality tells us about the quality of a noun or it describes a noun that is why it is also called descriptive adjective. Adjectives of Quality answer the question: Of what kind?

- Karachi is a large city.
- Ali is an honest worker.
- This book is written on a true story.

I am learning French language

2.4.2 Adjective of Quantity

Adjectives of Quantity tell us how much of things. It tells us approximate amount not the exact number of a noun such as much, a little, some, any, no, most, half, all, whole, sufficient, enough, few, great etc. Adjectives of quantity are followed by singular uncountable nouns.

- Ayesha ate the whole cake.
- Children finished most of the ice cream.
- How much money do you need?

We had so much fun in Nathia Gali last year.

2.4.3 Adjective of Number

Adjectives of number tell us how many of things are. It tells us the exact number of a noun such as one, two, three, four, first, second, third etc.

- Ahmad has three cars.
- The first boy in the row is wearing red hat.
- Five labourers are absent today.
- Give me one chocolate, please.

2.4.4 Demonstrative Adjective

Demonstrative adjectives point out a particular noun or pronoun such as this, that, these, those, such, certain, Yonder, Former, Latter. These are the same words that you have seen under the heading of demonstrative pronoun. The difference is in the sentence structure. The demonstrative pronoun takes the place of the noun phrase while the demonstrative adjective is always followed by a noun. Demonstrative adjective indicate exactly which noun the speaker means and where it is (or they are) relative to the position of the speaker. If the noun in question is nearby, he uses this (singular) or these (plural). If the noun is out of the speaker's reach, he uses that (singular) or those (plural).

- These flowers are very beautiful.
- Give me those flowers.
- The latter option is not so good.
- I hate such people.

2.4.5 Interrogative Adjective

Interrogative Adjectives are used to ask questions about noun or in relation to noun such as what, which, whose, how, why etc.

- Whose sister is she?
- Whose note book is this?
- Which bag is yours?
- Which leaves do you want to buy?

2.4.6 Distributive Adjective

Distributive adjectives are normally used with singular nouns. They include “each”, “every”, “either”, and “neither” and are used to refer to members of a group as individuals. These are the same words that you have seen under the heading of distributive pronoun. The difference is in the sentence structure. The distributive pronoun takes the place of the noun phrase and it acts as subject or object of sentence while the distributive adjective is always followed by a noun. Distributive adjective usually acts as pre-modifier of a noun and is hence followed by a noun.

- Each book in the series had a foreword by a noted scholar.
- Each participant was asked to complete a survey.
- Neither pen will do, as I need to sign in pencil.

As you have learnt that adjectives are used to describe a noun or it is used to add to the meanings of a noun. Adjectives and adverbs are also called modifiers as they modify or add to the meanings of a word. Sometimes these adjectives are also used to compare between two or more things. There are three ways in which an adjective is used with slight inflection. These inflections are called degrees of adjective. There are three degrees of adjective: Positive, Comparative and superlative.

1. **The Positive Degree** The positive degree of an adjective makes no comparison.
 - A tall building.
 - She runs fast.
 - This is a beautiful car.
2. **The Comparative Degree** The comparative degree compares two people, things, activities or qualities.

A taller building than this one. She runs faster than I do.

 - This car is more beautiful than yours.
3. **The Superlative Degree** The superlative degree compares a person, thing, activity or quality with the group.
 - The tallest building in the town.
 - She is the fastest runner among the students.
 - This is the most beautiful car I have ever seen.

Rules for making comparatives and superlatives

One syllable adjectives1

1. Form the comparative and superlative forms of a one-syllable adjective by adding **–er** for the comparative form and **–est** for the superlative.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Tall	Taller	Tallest
Old	Older	Oldest
Short	Shorter	Shortest

One Syllable Adjectives

2. If the one-syllable adjective ends with an **–e**, just add **–r** for the comparative form and **–st** for the superlative form.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Large	Larger	Largest
Wise	Wiser	Wisest
Wide	Wider	Widest

One Syllable Adjectives With an –e

3. If the one-syllable adjective ends with a single consonant with a vowel before it, double the consonant and add **–er** for the comparative form and double the consonant and add **–est** for the superlative form.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Thin	Thinner	Thinnest
Big	Bigger	Biggest
Sad	Sadder	Saddest

One Syllable Adjectives with Single Consonant and a Vowel Before it

Two-syllable adjectives1. With most two-syllable adjectives, you form the comparative with **more** and the superlative with **most**.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Peaceful	more peaceful	most peaceful
Careless	more careless	most careless
Famous	more famous	most famous

Two Syllable Adjectives

2. If the two-syllable adjectives ends with **-y**, change the y to “**i**” and add **-er** for the comparative form, and for the superlative form change the “**y**” to “**i**” and add **-est**.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Pretty	Prettier	Prettiest
Happy	Happier	Happiest
Angry	Angrier	Angriest

Two Syllable Adjectives Ends with -y

3. Two-syllable adjectives ending in **-er, -le, or -ow** take **-er** for comparative form and **-est** to for the superlative form.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Clever	Cleverer	cleverest
Narrow	Narrower	narrowest
Gentle	Gentler	gentlest

Two Syllable Adjectives Ending in -er, le or ow

Adjectives with three or more syllables. For adjectives with three syllables or more, you form the comparative with more and the superlative with most.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
convenient	more convenient	most convenient
comfortable	more comfortable	most comfortable

Three Syllable Adjectives

Exceptions:

Some adjectives have irregular comparative and superlative forms.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Good	Better	best
Bad	Worse	worst
Many	More	most
Much	More	most
Well	Better	best
Far	Farther	farthest/furthest
Little	Less	least

Irregular Comparative and Superlative Forms

Note: Two-syllable adjectives that follow two rules. These adjectives can be used with **-er** and **-est** and with more and most.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Simple	simpler/more simple	simplest/most simple
Clever	cleverer/more clever	cleverest/most clever
Gentle	gentler/more gentle	gentlest/most gentle
Quiet	quieter/more quiet	quietest/most quiet

Two Syllable Adjectives Follow Two Rules

Common Mistakes with Comparisons

1. Avoid making a double comparison.
After dinner, the orchestra began playing a series of more livelier melodies.
(Incorrect)
 - After dinner, the orchestra began playing a series of more lively melodies.
(Correct)
 - After dinner, the orchestra began playing a series of livelier melodies.
(Correct)
2. Some adjectives are “absolute” and cannot be compared.
“Absolute” Adjectives: first, last, equal and unique are adjective which cannot be compared.
 - This is a unique bike. (Correct)
 - This is a unique than your. (Incorrect)
3. Make sure that the items being compared are truly comparable. If not, reword as necessary.
 - The tropical fish found in the Caribbean are less colourful and varied than the South Pacific. (Incorrect)
 - The tropical fish found in the Caribbean are less colourful and varied than the fish found in the South Pacific.(Correct)

2.5 Article

The demonstrative adjectives ‘a, an’ and ‘the’ are called articles. ‘A’ and ‘An’ are called indefinite articles because they generalize a noun and show it as one out of many. ‘A’ is used with words that begin with consonant sound while ‘An’ is used with nouns that begin with vowel sounds.

Types of Articles

There are two articles in English language.

1. Indefinite article: a/an
2. Definite article:

The Definite Article: (the) The definite article "the" is used for a definite, specific or particular noun.

Example: He bought the shirt.

The article “the” before the noun “shirt” in above sentence means that the shirt, he bought, is a specific or particular shirt and not any shirt.

Indefinite Article: (a/an) The indefinite article “a/an” is used for indefinite, non-specific or non-particular (common) noun. Example. He bought a shirt. The article “a” before shirt in above sentence means that the shirt he bought is any shirt and not a specific shirt.

2.5.1 Rules for Using Indefinite Article / (A/AN)

The article form “a” is used before a word (singular) beginning with a consonant, or a vowel with a consonant sound. e.g. a book, a cat, a camera, a university, a European. The article form “an” is used before a word (singular) beginning with a vowel sound or consonant with vowel sound (or beginning with mute *h*). E.g. an apple, an elephant, an umbrella, an hour.

1. Before a singular noun which is countable e.g.
He bought a book She is eating an apple.
2. Before a singular noun which refers to a class of things. e.g.
An orange is rich in vitamins.
3. Before a name of a profession e.g.
She wants to be a doctor.
He is an engineer.
4. For certain expressions of quantity e.g.
a lot of, a few, a couple, a dozen
5. For certain numbers. e.g.
a hundred, a thousand, a million
6. Before a singular, countable noun in exclamation. e.g.
What a beautiful flower! What a nice shirt!
7. Article a/an is not used before uncountable nouns e.g.
water, milk, sand etc.

2.5.2 Rules for Using Definite Article (The)

The article “the” can be used both before a singular and plural noun according to the following grammatical rules. e.g. *the book, the books*

1. Before the place, object or group of object which is unique or considered to be unique and geographical region and points on globe. e.g. **the** earth, **the** moon, **the** sky, **the** stars, **the** north pole, **the** equator

2. For a noun which becomes definite or particular because it is already mentioned and is being mentioned a second time. e.g. The teacher helped **a student** and **the student** became happy.
3. For a noun made specific or definite in a clause or a phrase. e.g. **The** old lady, **The** girl with blue eyes, **The** boy that I saw, **The** nice red shirt
4. Before *superlatives*, and *first*, *second*, *etc.*, and *only* e.g. **The** best day, **The** only method, **the** second month,
5. Before a phrase composed of a proper and common noun e.g. **The** New York city, **The** river Nile, **The** library of Congress
6. Before the names of organizations e.g. The Association of Chartered Accountants, The World Health Organization
7. Before names of scientific principles, theories, laws etc. e.g. the Pythagorean theorem, the laws of Newton, The Fahrenheit Scale. But no article will be used for these names if written in forms like, Newton's Law, Dalton's Law of Partial Pressures, Hook's Law of Elasticity
8. Article "the" is not used for names of universities if written in forms like *Oxford University*, *Yale University*, *Columbia University*. **But** article "the" is used if names of university are written in forms like *The University of Oxford*, **The University of Yale**, **The University of Toronto**.
9. Article "the" is not used for names of countries of places. e.g. New York, America, Mexico, Japan, London. **But** article "the" is used for a name, if it expresses a group of place, states, or land. e.g. The United States, The Philippines, The Netherlands.

2.6 Self-Assessment Questions/Activities

Insert 'the' if necessary. If no 'the' is necessary, write.

1. She lives on . . . top floor of an old house. When . . . wind blows, all . . . windows rattle.
2. . . . Youngest boy has just started going to . . . school; . . . eldest boy is at . . . college.
3. He was sent to . . . prison for . . . six months for . . . shop-lifting.
4. I went to . . . school to talk to . . . headmistress.
5. I am on... night duty. When you go to . . . bed, I go to . . . work.
6. . . . Family hotels are . . . hotels which welcome . . . parents and . . . children.
7. On . . . Sundays my father stays in . . . bed till ten o'clock, reading . . . Sunday papers.
8. Then he gets up, puts on . . . old clothes, has . . . breakfast and starts . . . work in . . . garden.
9. . . . Dead no longer need . . . help. We must concern ourselves with . . . living.
10. . . . Most of . . . stories that . . . people tell about . . . Irish aren't true.

Insert 'a, an or the' if necessary. If no 'a, an or the' is necessary, write.

1. There was . . . knock on . . . door. I opened it and found . . . small dark man in . . . blue overcoat and . . . woollen cap.
2. He said he was . . . employee of . . . gas company and had come to read . . . meter.
3. But I had . . . suspicion that he wasn't speaking . . . truth because . . . meter readers usually wear . . . P caps.
4. However, I took him to . . . meter, which is in . . . dark corner under . . . stairs.
5. I asked if he had . . . torch; he said he disliked torches and always read . . . meters by . . . light of . . . match.

6. I remarked that if there was . . . leak in . . . gas pipe there might be . . . explosion while he was reading . . . meter.
7. Professor Javeed, . . . man who discovered . . . new drug that everyone is talking about, refused to give . . . press conference.
8. Ammara, . . . student in . . . professor's college, asked him why he refused to talk to . . . press.

2.7 Bibliography

- Hweings, M. (2005). *Advance Grammar in Use*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Thomson, A., & Martinet, A. (1997). *A Practical English Grammar*. Ocford University Press.
- Wren, & Martin. (2013). *High School English Grammar & Composition*. Islamabad: Paramount Publishing Enterprise.

Unit–3

PARTS OF SPEECH-II

Written by: Khuram Dad
Reviewed by: Dr. Zafar Iqbal

CONTENTS

	<i>Page No.</i>
Introduction	62
Objectives	62
3.1 Parts of Speech-II.....	63
3.2 Verb.....	63
3.2.1 Transitive Verbs.....	63
3.2.2 Intransitive Verb	64
3.2.3 Auxiliary and Modal Verbs	64
i) Auxiliary Verbs.....	65
3.2.4 Modal Verbs.....	66
3.3 Adverb.....	68
3.3.1 Adverb of Time.....	69
3.3.2 Adverb of Place.....	69
3.3.3 Adverb of Manner.....	69
3.3.4 Adverb of Degree.....	70
3.3.5 Adverb of Frequency	70
3.3.6 Adverb of Affirmation and Negation.....	70
3.3.7 Adverb of Reason	70
3.4 Conjunction.....	71
3.4.1 Coordinating Conjunction.....	71
3.4.2 How to Punctuate Coordinating Conjunction	71
3.4.3 Subordinating Conjunction	72
3.4.4 Correlative Conjunction.....	72

3.5	Interjections.....	73
3.5.1	Interjections for Greeting	73
3.5.2	Interjections for Joy	73
3.5.3	Interjections for Approval.....	73
3.5.4	Interjections Surprise	74
3.5.5	Interjections for Grief/Pain	74
3.6	Preposition	74
3.6.1	Sample Preposition	75
3.6.2	Compound Preposition.....	75
3.6.3	Phrase Preposition.....	75
3.6.4	Preposition of Time.....	76
3.6.5	Prepositions of Place.....	76
3.6.6	Prepositions of Movement/Direction	76
3.6.7	Prepositions of Manner	76
3.6.8	Prepositions of Agent or Instrument	76
3.6.9	Prepositions of Measure.....	77
3.6.10	Prepositions of Source	77
3.6.11	Prepositions of Possession	77
3.7	Self-Assessment Questions/Activities	77
3.8	Bibliography.....	78

INTRODUCTION

This unit explains to you the remaining parts of speech that are verb, adverb, conjunction, interjection and preposition. The significance of parts of speech is undeniable as they are the basic constituents of English language. Without understanding these basic constituents we cannot understand the structure of English language. Learning about parts of speech will be helpful for you in creating sentences. I hope it will enable you to express your ideas clearly. The parts of speech mentioned above have been discussed in details with good number of examples.

OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit you will be able to:

1. Define and identify verb, adverb, conjunction, interjection and preposition and their various types.
2. Explain importance of these parts of speech in sentence construction.
3. Create simple and correct sentences. Analyse the sentence by breaking it into its constituents.

3.1 Parts of Speech-II

In this chapter the focus will be on remaining parts of speech i.e. verb, adverb, conjunction, interjection and preposition. We will begin with verb.

3.2 Verb

A general definition of verb is that it is a word that shows an action. It is the most significant category among words. Verb is the word that makes a sentence complete, which implies that in absence of verb there can be no sentence. Here are few examples:

- Ali **is drinking** water.
- The boy **plays** football.
- Zafar is the **tallest** boy in the class.

Verbs can be divided into some sub categories.

1. Transitive verbs
2. Intransitive verbs
3. Helping or Auxiliary verbs
4. Linking verbs

Modal verbs

3.2.1 Transitive Verbs

Read the following sentence

A. *The batsman hit the ball.*

In sentence A, the action denoted by the verb Hit passes over from the doer or subject Batsman to Object ball. **Transitive verbs** are action verbs that have an Object to receive that action. The verb Hit is, therefore, called a Transitive Verb. (Transitive means passing over). So a proper definition of transitive verb would be a Transitive Verb is a Verb that denotes an action which passes over from the doer or Subject to an object. It implies that a transitive verb requires an object for completion of its action. E.g.

- The *politicians* have damaged the *country*.
- Lubna **raises** her hand.

In the above two stated examples, you can see that action is being passed on from subject to the object of the verb. In first example the verb is ‘damaged’ while its subject is ‘politicians’ and we can observe that action is being passed on from subject ‘politicians’ to object ‘country’. In the second example the verb ‘raises’ ‘Her hand’ is the object receiving the verb’s action. Therefore, ‘damages and ‘raises’ are transitive verbs.

3.2.2 Intransitive Verb

Read the following sentence.

B. The boy laughs loudly.

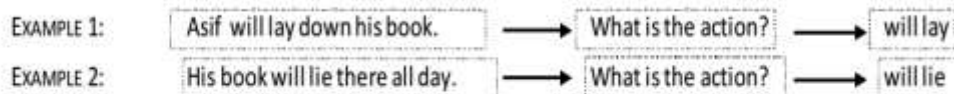
In sentence B, the action denoted by the verb ‘laughs’ stops with the doer or Subject boy and does not pass over to an Object, The verb laughs is, therefore, called an **Intransitive Verb** (Intransitive means not passing over). An intransitive verb never has a direct or indirect object. Although an intransitive verb may be followed by an adverb or adverbial phrase, there is no object to receive its action. Let us discuss few examples to further understand the concept of intransitive verb.

- Lubna **rises** slowly from her seat.
- We play here. In the first example the verb is ‘*rises*’.
- The phrase, *slowly from her seat*, modifies the verb, but there is no object to receive the action. Similarly in second sentence the verb is ‘play’ which is modified by adverb ‘here’ but again there is no receiver of action therefore, both of the above mentioned verbs are said to be intransitive verbs.

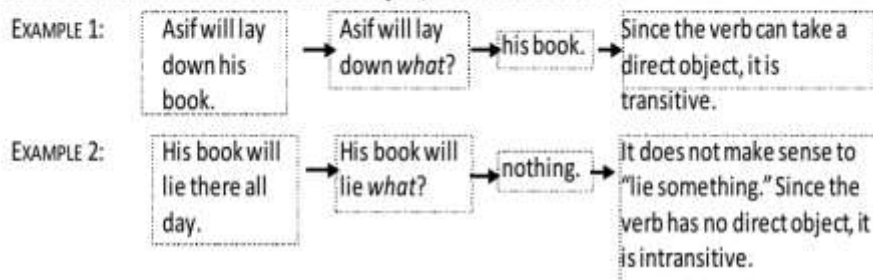
Transitive or Intransitive?

To determine whether a verb is transitive or intransitive, follow these two steps:

1. Find the verb in the sentence.



2. Ask yourself, “What is receiving the action of the verb?” If there is a noun receiving the action of the verb, then the verb is transitive. If there is no direct object to receive the action, and if the verb does not make sense with a direct object, then it is intransitive.



3.2.3 Auxiliary and Modal Verbs

The verbs be (am, is, was, etc.), have and do, when used with ordinary verbs to make tenses, passive forms, questions and negatives, are called auxiliary verbs or auxiliaries. The verbs can, could, may, might, will, would, shall, should, must and ought are called modal verbs or modals. They are used before ordinary verbs and express meanings such as permission, possibility, certainty and necessity. Need and dare can sometimes be used like modal verbs. Modal verbs are often included in the group of auxiliaries. In some grammars they are called “modal auxiliaries”.

i) Auxiliary Verbs

Auxiliary verbs, also known as helping verbs, add functional or grammatical meaning to the clauses in which they appear. They perform their functions in several different ways:

- i. By expressing tense (providing a time reference, i.e. past, present, or future)
- ii. Grammatical aspect (expresses how verb relates to the flow of time)
- iii. Modality (quantifies verbs)
- iv. Voice (describes the relationship between the action expressed by the verb and the participants identified by the verb's subject, object, etc.)
- v. Adds emphasis to a sentence
- vi. Auxiliary verbs almost always appear together with a main verb, and though there are only a few of them, they are among the most frequently occurring verbs in the English language.

There are just three common auxiliary verbs:

- i. Have
- ii. Do
- iii. Be

In this section, we'll take a closer look at how these common verbs work, plus you'll see some examples.

Have

“Have” is a very important verb that can stand alone in all its tenses, including has, have, having, had, and hadn't or had not. It is usually used to denote ownership, and it can also be used to discuss ability or describe appearance. “Have” is also a very popular substitute for the verbs “eat” and “drink.” For example: “Let's have dinner.”

When used as an auxiliary verb, have always teamed up with another verb to create a complete verb phrase, making it easy to differentiate between uses. You can see the difference in the sentences below:

Jamal has a large coffee stain on his shirt. → Has = action verb

Ahmad has bought a new shirt to replace the one that was ruined earlier. → Has = auxiliary verb; bought is a past participle that completes the verb phrase.

Ahmad should have been more careful! → Have = auxiliary verb; phrase “should have been” expresses time and evaluates Ahmad's actions.

Do

“Do” can be used as an action verb that stands alone in all its tenses, including to do, do, does, done, did and didn't, doesn't or did not .

When used as an auxiliary verb, *do* is always paired up with another verb to create a complete verb phrase. In some cases, it is used to add emphasis: “I did put the garbage out!” *Do* is often used to form questions and negated clauses. It is also used in elliptical sentences, where the main verb is understood and is omitted as a result.

For example:

“He plays piano well, doesn’t he?” or “They all had dinner, but I didn’t.”

Because he spills things so often, Atif does more laundry than most people.

Does = action verb

Adnan didn’t put his coffee in a cup with a lid. Didn’t = auxiliary verb

Zafar doesn’t always spill things, but it happens a lot. Doesn’t = auxiliary verb

Be

“Be” or “to be” is an important verb that has a multitude of uses in English. It can be used as an action verb that stands alone in all its tenses including *be*, *to be*, *been*, *am*, *are*, *is*, *was*, *were*, *wasn’t*, *was not*, *aren’t*, *are not*, *weren’t* and *were not*.

When used as an auxiliary verb, **be** is always paired with another verb to create a complete verb phrase. It can be singular or plural, present or past. Negative sentences are formed by adding the word “not”.

Washal is messy. *Is* = action verb

Although he is always complaining about his accidents, Zulifiqar fails to pay attention. *is* = auxiliary verb

Babar is going to be doing extra laundry for the rest of his life. *to be* = auxiliary verb

3.2.4 Modal Verbs

A modal verb is a verb that is used before another verb to express meanings such as ability, permission, possibility, necessity or advice. The modal verbs are *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *must*, *ought*, *shall*, *should*, *will* and *would*. *Need* and *used to* can follow some of the grammar patterns of modal verbs, but are also used like ordinary verbs. For more information about any modal verb, look in the dictionary at the entry for the word.

(Note: All modal verbs are auxiliary verbs but all auxiliary verbs are not modal verbs. A modal verb can also be used as auxiliary, but auxiliary can’t be used as modal. A modal can’t stand alone as a main verb, it is used with a main verb)

The modals have corresponding negative forms:

Can	can’t/cannot
Could	couldn’t
May	mayn’t (British English – rare)
Might	mightn’t

Must	mustn't
Shall	shan't (British English – rare)
Should	shouldn't
Will	won't
Would	wouldn't
Ought	oughtn't

- They are not followed by to.
INCORRECT: Maria can to speak English.
(Ought is an exception)
- The main verb does not have a final -s.
INCORRECT: Maria can speaks English.
- The main verb is not in a past form.
INCORRECT: Maria can spoke English.
- The main verb is not in its -ing form.
INCORRECT: Maria can speaking English.
- Question, negative and tags are made without **do**.
INCORRECT: Do you can swim?

The meanings of modal auxiliaries

The modal auxiliary verbs express a very wide range of meanings. The principal meanings are:

Permission:

You may go in now.

You can have a piece of chocolate.

Obligation:

You must complete both sides of the form.

Ability:

David can play the guitar.

My grandfather could dance the Charleston.

Prediction:

I will be home at seven.

We shall write as soon as possible.

Probability:

This maybe your last chance.

Possibility:

You may be very tired.

Activity

State whether the verbs in the following sentences are used transitively or intransitively.

- i. Heat expands metals.
- ii. Metals expand on heating.
- iii. The driver stopped the car.
- iv. The car stopped abruptly.
- v. You must speak the truth.
- vi. You must speak loudly.
- vii. The boy is flying the kite.
- viii. The birds are flying in the sky.
- ix. The rider fell off the horse and broke his arm.
- x. The woodcutter felled a huge tree.
- xi. The explosion sank the ship.
- xii. The ship sank suddenly.

Fill in the blanks using appropriate modal verbs. (Must, Can, Might, Would, should).

1. You _____ look at me when I am talking to you.
2. I was using my pencil a minute ago. It _____ be here somewhere!
3. I _____ be able to help you, but I'm not sure yet.
4. Which sign are you more likely to see at an airport: *Bags* _____ *not be left unattended?*
5. I really _____ try to get fit.
6. His excuse _____ be true, but I don't believe.
7. I _____ help you, but not right now.
8. She _____ be very pleased with herself. She got the best grades.
9. You _____ clean your room more often.
10. If it rains on Saturday, we _____ go to the beach

3.3 Adverb

An adverb is defined as a word that modifies or adds something to the meanings of a verb, adjective or another adverb. It is one of the parts of speech which tells us how, where, when, in what manner, and to what extent an action is performed in the sentence. Some of the adverbs end with 'ly' (which are used to express how an action is performed) such as carefully, gracefully, cheerfully, quickly, steadily, speedily, happily, foolishly, angrily, etc. However, some are without 'ly' such as well, very, fast, never, now, most, far, least, more, less, there etc.

We can easily identify the availability of adverb in the sentence by seeing its function. If any word in the sentence is describing any of the parts of speech

(verb, adjective or other adverb), it is an adverb. We can also recognize the availability of adverb in the sentence by looking the end of word (ending with 'ly'). Some frequency words like very, more, much, many, etc. are also adverbs.

- I placed the flower pot **carefully** on the table. ('carefully' word is an adverb in this sentence and shows the example of how action is performed)
- My friend walks **gracefully**. ('gracefully' word is an adverb in this sentence and shows how to modify the meaning of verb)
- I run **fast**. ('fast' word is an adverb and provide more information about verb)
- I **always** eat healthy food. ('always' word is an adverb and modifies the verb to eat)
- I saw a **very** pretty girl in the car. ('very' word is an adverb)
- I will eat **there**. ('there' word is an adverb)

An adverb has different kinds. Let us look at these kinds one by one with examples.

3.3.1 Adverb of Time

Adverb of time is an adverb which tells us about time of happenings or time of something is done in the sentence. Adverbs of time are used in the beginning (as a form of emphasis) or end of the sentence. Adverbs of time are like already, afterwards, immediately, always, last month, soon, then, now, and yesterday.

For example:

- He got admitted to hospital and died **yesterday**.
- My factory caught fire and burned down in the **last month**.
- I have completed my homework **already**.

3.3.2 Adverb of Place

Adverb of place is an adverb which tells us about the place where something is done or happens in the sentence. It is used generally after the verb, object or end of the sentence. Adverbs of place are like below, here, above, inside, outside, there, over there, under, upstairs, etc.

For example:

- We need to stop **here** for dinner.
- He was sitting **there**.

A bird flies **above** in the sky.

3.3.3 Adverb of Manner

Adverb of manner is an adverb which tells us about manner of how something is done or happens in the sentence. Such type of adverbs generally end with 'ly' such as cheerfully, badly, quickly, happily, angrily, sadly, slowly. However, some are simple like fast, well, hard, etc.

For example:

- I went to school **cheerfully**.
- He runs **fast**.
- We **happily** celebrated teacher's day.

3.3.4 Adverb of Degree

Adverb of degree or quantity is an adverb which tells us about the level or extent to which something is done or happens in the sentence. It is used before the adjective or adverb. Adverbs of degree or quantity are like almost, nearly, quite, much, really, too, very, so, etc.

For example:

- It was **too** dark for us to find our way out of the cave. (adverb is used before adjective)
 - Her daughter is **quite** fat for her age
- I am feeling **really** sad for my friend's father death.

3.3.5 Adverb of Frequency

Adverb of frequency is an adverb which tells us how often something is done or happens in the sentence. Adverbs of frequency are like almost, again, frequently, generally, ever, hardly ever, nearly, nearly always, always, occasionally, often, rarely, seldom, twice, usually, sometimes, and weekly.

For example:

- He **hardly** studies during holidays.
- She thinks she is **always** right however it is not so.
- I talk to my neighbours very **occasionally**.

3.3.6 Adverb of Affirmation and Negation

Adverb of affirmation and negation is an adverb which confirms or denies the action of verb in the sentence. It is also used to reinforce the action of verb. Adverbs of affirmation are like definitely, surely, absolutely, etc. however adverbs of denial or negation are like not, can't, don't, etc.

For example:

- I will **certainly** go to the school. (adverb of affirmation)
- I will **never** leave you alone. (adverb of negation)

3.3.7 Adverb of Reason

Adverb of reason is used to express the reason for, answer the question or purpose of an action in the sentence. Adverbs of reason are like therefore, hence, thus, consequently, so, since, etc.

For example:

- Ali could not make friends, he **therefore** left school.
- **Consequently** he denied to come to the party.

Activity

Fill in the blanks using appropriate adverb from the list of words provided.

(Very, Perhaps, clearly, there, certainly, sometimes, ever, seldom, almost)

- I have _____ finished.
- He is _____ clever.
- There is _____ something wrong.
- I _____ think I should take a long break.

- e. _____ her train is late.
- f. He is _____ late for work.
- g. She is _____ the right person for the job.
- h. Have you _____ wanted to run away?
- i. You can see lots of flowers _____.
- j. They are _____ beautiful.

3.4 Conjunction

Conjunctions are words that link other words, phrases or clauses. There are three types of conjunctions: coordinating, subordinating and correlative conjunctions.

3.4.1 Coordinating Conjunction

Among the three types of conjunctions, this is probably the most common one. The main function of coordinating conjunctions is to join words, phrases, and clauses together, which are usually grammatically equal. Aside from that, this type of conjunctions is placed in between the words or groups of words that it links together, and not at the beginning or at the end.

Examples:

- Pizza and burgers are my favourite snacks.
In the sample sentence above, the underlined word serves as a coordinating conjunction that links two words together (pizza + burgers).
- The treasure was hidden in the cave or in the underground lagoon.
The example above shows how coordinating conjunctions can join together two (or more) phrases. The coordinating conjunction “or” in the sentence above links “in the cave” and “in the underground lagoon.”
- What those girls say and what they actually do are completely different.
In this sentence, you’ll see how the same coordinating conjunction “and” from the first sample sentence can be used to link clauses together (“what those girls say” and “what they actually do”), instead of just single words.

3.4.2 How to Punctuate Coordinating Conjunction

In joining two words, phrases, or dependent clauses together, a comma is not required before the coordinating conjunction.

Examples:

- *aliens and predators*
- *by the beach or on the hill*
- *what you see and what you get*

If, on the other hand, you are linking more than two words, phrases, and dependent clauses together, a series of commas must be placed in between the distinct elements.

Examples:

- *spiders, snakes, and scorpions*
- *in the bedroom, in the garage, or at the garden*

Lastly, for joining together two independent clauses, a comma must be used before placing the coordinating conjunction.

Examples:

- *Cassandra fell asleep, so Joaquin just went home.*
- *I don't really like spaghetti, but I can eat lasagna any day.*

3.4.3 Subordinating Conjunction

This type of conjunctions is used in linking two clauses together. Aside from the fact that they introduce a dependent clause, subordinating conjunctions also describe the relationship between the dependent clause and the independent clause in the sentence.

List of Common Subordinating Conjunctions:

While	as soon as	although
Before	even if	because
no matter how	whether	wherever
when	until	after
as if	how	if
provided	in that	once
supposing	while	unless
in case	as far as	now that
as	so that	though
since		

Examples:

- *It is so cold outside, so I brought you a jacket.*
- *Because it is so cold outside, I brought you a jacket.*

By looking at the sentences above, you will easily notice that a subordinating conjunction can be found either at the beginning of the sentence or between the clauses that it links together. Aside from that, a comma should also be placed in between the two clauses (independent clause and dependent clause) of the sentence.

3.4.4 Correlative Conjunction

The correlative conjunctions are simply pairs of conjunctions which are used to join equal sentence elements together.

List of Common Correlative Conjunctions:

either... or	neither... nor	not only... but also
both... and	whether... or	so... as

Examples:

- *Both my brother and my father are lawyers.*
- *I can't decide whether I'll take Chemical Engineering or take Medical Technology in college.*

Activity

- i. This is the place _____ we stayed last time we visited.
 - ii. _____ you win first place, you will receive a prize.
 - iii. You won't pass the test _____ you study.
 - iv. I like sugar in my tea, _____ I don't like milk in it.
 - v. Listen to the story _____ answer the questions in complete sentences.
 - vi. Is it Thursday _____ Friday today?
 - vii. He was late _____ the bus didn't come.
 - viii. We were very tired _____ happy after our flight to Sydney.
 - ix. They climbed the mountain _____ it was very windy.
- Neither my brother _____ my sister own a car.

3.5 Interjections

Interjections can be defined as “The words which are used to express a strong or sudden feeling or emotion are called as interjections.”

These words have fixed meanings, so whenever they are used; the listener automatically understands the emotion of the speaker. They usually come at the beginning of a sentence and do not have a direct grammatical relation with the rest of the sentence.

Examples:

Hurrah! We won the match.

Hush! Stop making noises.

In the above sentences, ***Hurrah*** and ***Hush*** are interjections.

3.5.1 Interjections for Greeting

These interjections are used to indicate emotion of warmth towards the other person when they meet. These include: *Hello!* , *Hey!* , *Hi!* Etc.

Examples:

Hey! Good to see you today.

Hello! I am Jane.

3.5.2 Interjections for Joy

These interjections are used to indicate immediate emotion of happiness on a sudden happy event that occurred. These include *Hurrah!*, *Hurray!*, *Wow!* Etc.

Examples

Hurray! My team won the game.

Wow! I passed the exam.

3.5.3 Interjections for Approval

These interjections are used by the speaker when he expresses a strong sense of approval and agreement on something that happened. These include: *Bravo!*, *Brilliant!*, *Well done!*

Examples:

Well done! You got the job.

Bravo! He made the goal.

3.5.4 Interjections for Surprise

These interjections are used by the speaker when he expresses a strong sense of surprise on something that happened. These include:

Ha! , Hey! , What! , Oh! , Ah! , Eh! Etc

Examples:

What! His mother died!

Ah! I got promoted.

3.5.5 Interjections for Grief/Pain

These interjections are used by the speaker when he expresses a strong emotion of grief on something unfortunate that happened. These include:

Alas! , Ah! , Oh! , Ouch! Etc.

Examples:

Alas! He is dead.

Ouch! I hurt my foot

3.6 Preposition

Preposition is one of the important parts of speech of English grammar. It is very essential while making a sentence as it provides an additional and necessary details. Prepositions in English are words giving information to the readers such as where something takes place, when something takes place, why something takes place, general descriptive information, etc. Prepositions work in groups of words (also called prepositional phrases) and do not stand alone. Prepositions are those words which are used to **connect nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives or such phrases** in any sentence. Usually preposition indicates the **relationship between nouns** that how they are connected to each other. It shows that whether words are connected through time, space and place.

A preposition always has an object. The Noun or Pronoun which is used with a Preposition is called its Object. It is in the Accusative case and is said to be governed by the Preposition.

Examples:

- I found the pen on the table.
Here the preposition is “**on**” because it shows a relationship between pen and the table. ‘Table’ is the object of preposition.
- Mehnaz went to sleep late.
Here the preposition is “**to**” because it shows a state in which Mehnaz is going into.
- I am watching cricket match in the bedroom.
Here the preposition is “**in**” because it shows my place where I am sitting.

Keeping in view structure of preposition, it can be divided into three classes:

- i. Simple preposition
 - ii. Compound preposition
- Phrase preposition

3.6.1 Simple Preposition

Simple Prepositions are "short" or "little" words that express relationships including those of space, time, and degree. Simple prepositions are words like in, on, at, over, off, of, for, to, for etc.

Examples:

- She sat **on** the sofa
 - He is going **to** the market
 - He fell **off** the ladder
- There is some water **in** the bottle.

3.6.2 Compound Preposition

As the name indicates, a compound preposition is not a single word, it may appear as a single word but it is actually made by blending two words. These prepositions are usually formed by adding prefix usually 'a' which means 'no' and 'be' means 'by' to a noun, adjective or an adverb. Some of the compound prepositions are about, across, among, around, beside, before, above, along, inside, between, behind, below, beneath, etc.

Examples:

- My city is located **between** two mountains.
- I will finish the lunch **before** his arrival.
- I want to know **about** Islam.
- Nobody is **above** law.

Aliya was hiding **behind** the blinds.

3.6.3 Phrase Preposition

Phrase preposition is a group of words that acts as a preposition. Phrase prepositions are phrases like because of, by means of, with regard to, on behalf of, instead of, on account of, in opposition to, for the sake of etc.

Examples:

- I am standing here **on behalf of** my friends and colleagues.
- The match was cancelled **because of** the rain.
- He succeeded **by means of** perseverance.
- **In consequence of** his bad health, he could not finish assignment in time.

Now keeping in view the nature of relation that can be expressed by a preposition, we can divide it into eight different types.

- i. Prepositions of Time
- ii. Prepositions of Place

- iii. Prepositions of Movement
 - iv. Prepositions of Manner
 - v. Prepositions of Agent or Instrument
 - vi. Prepositions of Measure
 - vii. Prepositions of Source
- Prepositions of Possession

3.6.4 Preposition of Time

These prepositions are used when there is a need to indicate when a particular event happened. These include: In, On, At, Since, For, During etc.

Examples:

- I was studying *in* the morning.
- She was born *on* 5th of July.
- I will reach there *at* 6 o'clock

3.6.5 Prepositions of Place

These prepositions are used to illustrate the location of nouns or pronouns in a sentence. These include: In, On, Between, Behind, Under, Over, Near etc.

Examples:

- The cat is *on* the tree.
- John lives *near* his workplace.
- He is *in* his room.

3.6.6 Prepositions of Movement/Direction

These prepositions are used to describe the movement of one noun or pronoun towards another noun or pronoun. These include: to, into, towards, through etc.

Examples:

- I went *to* the book store.
- The swimmer jumped *into* the pool.
- The dog was coming *towards* him.

3.6.7 Prepositions of Manner

These prepositions are applied to describe the way or means by which something happened or happens, when used in a sentence. These include: On, In, With, By, Like etc.

Examples:

- He goes to work *by* train
- I came there *in* a taxi.
- The boy speaks *like* an old man.

3.6.8 Prepositions of Agent or Instrument

These prepositions are applied to indicate that an action conducted on a noun is caused by another noun, when used in a sentence. These include: by, with.

Examples:

- This poem was written *by* Milton.
- I opened my closet *with* a key.
- She is writing *with* her blue pen.

3.6.9 Prepositions of Measure

These prepositions are applied to connect the quantity of the noun with the noun itself, when used in a sentence. These include: of, by etc.

Examples:

- I bought a pound *of* cheese today.
- One-third *of* the students were present in the class.
- This shop sells cloth *by* the yard.

3.6.10 Prepositions of Source

These prepositions are applied when it is needed to convey that one noun or pronoun has originated from another noun or pronoun in the sentence. These include: from, by.

Examples:

- The Earth receives light *from* the Sun.
- This poem is written *by* me.

He did the help *from* gratitude

3.6.11 Prepositions of Possession

These prepositions are applied when it is needed to indicate that one noun or pronoun owns another noun or pronoun in the sentence. These include: in, with, of.

Examples:

- I met the boy *with* red hair today.
- The old man had no money *on* him.
- My friend's father is a man *of* wealth.

3.7 Self-Assessment Questions/Activity**Draw circle around the correct preposition.**

- i. Do you live (at, on) Harley Street (in, on) Rawalpindi?
- ii. I hung the picture (above, on) the fireplace.
- iii. She walked (in, into) the kitchen and put her packages (on, over) the table.
- iv. Is Qurat-ul-Ain (at, in) home? No, she is (on, at) the library.
- v. Uzma is sitting (in, on) the sofa (at, in) the living room.
- vi. While waiting for my train, I took a walk (around, across) the station.
- vii. A formation of twelve airplanes flew (over, on top of) our house.

- viii. The artist spends many hours (in, on) his studio (on, at) 50 Iqbal Street.
- ix. Jawad found a note pinned (in, on) his door which said: "Meet me (at, in) the corner of Pine and Fifth Streets."
- x. Don't forget to put your return address (in, on) the envelope.
- xi. He sat (near, against) the camp fire.
- xii. Mr. Flanagan, who is (from, of) Ireland, is staying (at, to) his sister's home in Boston.
- xiii. Someone has spilled ink (in, on) this rug and has burned a hole (in, on) that one.
- xiv. The door was locked; so I shoved the letter (under, around) the door.
- xv. He piled the books (above, on top of) the table.
- xvi. He arrived (in, at) Switzerland last week.
- xvii. You are ahead of me. Your name is (above, at the top of) the list.
- xviii. Your score in the examination is well (above, over) average.

3.8 Bibliography

- Hweings, M. (2005). *Advance Grammar in Use*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Thomson, A., & Martinet, A. (1997). *A Practical English Grammar*. Ocford University Press.
- Wren, & Martin. (2013). *High School English Grammar & Composition*. Islamabad: Paramount Publishing Enterprise.

Unit-4

SENTENCE STRUCTURE

Written by: Khuram Dad
Reviewed by: Dr. Zafar Iqbal

CONTENTS

	<i>Page No.</i>
Introduction	82
Objectives	82
4.1 Sentence Structure	83
4.2 The Two Parts of the Sentence	83
4.2.1 The Role of Two Parts	83
4.2.2 Subject and Predicate	84
4.3 Phrases	85
4.3.1 Noun Phrase	86
4.3.2 Gerund Phrase	87
4.3.3 Verb Phrase	87
4.3.4 Adjective Phrase	88
4.3.5 Adverb Phrase	88
4.3.6 Prepositional Phrase	89
4.3.7 Infinitive Phrase	89
4.4 Clauses	90
4.4.1 Types of Clauses	90
4.4.2 Dependent Clauses	91
i) Subordination Conjunctions	91
ii) Verb Form	91
4.4.3 Types of Dependent Clauses	91
i) Noun Clauses	91
ii) The Adjective Clause	92
iii) The Adverb Clause	92
4.4.4 Independent Clause	94

4.5	Structural Types of Sentences.....	95
4.5.1	Simple Sentences	96
4.5.2	Compound Sentences.....	96
4.5.3	Complex Sentences.....	96
4.5.4	Compound – Complex Sentences	97
4.6	Self-Assessment Questions/Activities	97
4.7	Bibliography.....	98

INTRODUCTION

This Unit includes discussion on the structure of sentence, how sentences are built and how do we construct larger sentence structures. The unit begins by introducing the concept of phrase and also explains different types of phrases and their role in construction of a sentence. After that the clause is introduced and explained with its different types. Unit also tells about the role that different types of clauses can play in a sentence. The last topic of this chapter is structural types of sentences.

OBJECTIVES

After this unit, you will be able to:

1. Explain the idea of phrase.
2. Differentiate between different types of phrases and use them in sentences.
3. Understand and explain what a clause is?
4. Recognize different types of clauses in complex sentences.
5. Use clauses to construct complex sentences.
6. Differentiate between a simple, compound, complex and compound-complex sentence.

4.1 Sentence Structure

As we know already that words are building blocks, they combine together to make phrases, and sentences. So far we have discussed words in details. Let us now look at the structure of English language. In coming section we will see how sentences are formed.

A sentence is a group of words that expresses a complete thought. Unlike a phrase, it can stand alone and make full sense without the help of any additional words.

4.2 The Two Parts of the Sentence

Every sentence consists of two parts. Here are five examples in which the two parts of each sentence are highlighted in such a way as to mark each part off from the other.

- i. OUR NEIGHBOUR plays football.
- ii. I was given a pay rise after my twenty-first birthday.
- iii. HE sold his property
- iv. WE saw two bikes racing.
- v. THE GROUND shifted. As you can see, both parts are necessary. Take away either and the part that is left does not express a complete thought. In other words, if either part is missing, the part that is left is not a sentence.

Examples:

1. OUR NEIGHBOUR does not express a complete thought. Therefore, it is not a sentence.
2. Plays football does not express a complete thought. Therefore it is not a sentence.
3. HE does not express a complete thought. Therefore, it is not a sentence.
4. Sold his property does not express a complete thought. Therefore, it is not a sentence.

4.2.1 The Role of Two Parts

Now look at this sentence

[Our neighbour]	[plays football]
Part-1	Part-2

Part-1 (Our neighbor) names the person about whom something is being said. It is called subject.

Part-2 (Plays football) says something about the person named in Part 1 therefore, it is called predicate.

4.2.2 Subject and Predicate

That part of a sentence which names the person, idea or thing about which something is being said is called the subject of the sentence. That part of a sentence which says something about the person, idea or thing named by the subject is called the predicate of the sentence. Every sentence contains both a subject and a predicate.

Look at the examples below.

Subject	Predicate
The prime minister	Was a wise man
The family	Lived in mud house
I	Like to see smiling face
The cook	Belongs to Afghanistan.

You will find it easy to remember the functions of the subject and the predicate if you think about the meanings of the two terms. The subject names the person, thing or idea about which something is being said. A sensible term, for the subject announces the subject of the sentence: who or what it is about.

The predicate says something about the person, thing or idea named by the subject. Another sensible term, if you remember that it comes from a Latin word meaning to declare. So the predicate declares/states something about the subject named by the subject. Predicate must have a verb in it.

So from this discussion we can come to the point that in order to make a sentence we must have two things:

A subject: the one we wish to talk about

A predicate: what we want to say about the subject.

Activity

Identify the subject and predicate in each of these sentences.

- i. They live in a beautiful house.
- ii. Lisa is wearing a sleeveless shirt today.
- iii. This house is newly built.
- iv. The wise man must guide us in this hour of need.
- v. Honesty is the best policy.

As we have learned earlier that:

- (i) Every sentence consists of a subject and a predicate.
- (ii) Every predicate must contain a verb.

It can be deduced from this that every sentence must contain a verb and the subject of that verb. A simple sentence contains one verb (and only one verb) plus the subject of that verb.

Not all sentences are simple, of course. Many have more than one verb and more than one subject. We will come to such sentences later in this chapter. Nevertheless, the grammar of the simple sentence lays down the basic pattern on which all other sentences are built. When applied to a sentence, the term 'simple' has nothing to do with its length (long or short) or its content (intellectually easy or difficult). 'Simple' has a precise grammatical meaning. It denotes a sentence that contains one verb and the subject of that verb. As we have seen in chapter 1 that words combine to make phrases and phrases combine to make a sentence. Let us discuss and understand the concept of phrase.

4.3 Phrases

A **phrase** is a group of words acting as a single part of speech and not containing both a subject and a verb. It is a part of a sentence, and does not express a complete thought. Phrases combine together and make sentences. Consider the following example:

- Daud loves cricket. He supports Islamabad United.
Here, the personal pronoun **he** replaces the noun Daud. But consider this sentence:
- The young boy loves cricket. He supports Islamabad United.
In this case, **he** replaces the entire sequence the young. This is not a noun – it is a **noun phrase**. We call it a noun phrase for two reasons. Firstly because it's central word – boy – is a noun. Secondly, a more solid reason is that a pronoun can be used to replace a noun phrase and that these words collectively function as a noun and form the subject of sentence.

Phrase Types	Examples
Noun phrase	the young boy Main word: noun boy
Gerund Phrase	Weeping of a baby Main word: weeping
Verb Phrase	has been stolen Main word: verb stolen
Adjective Phrase	very greedy Main word: adjective greedy
Adverb phrase	too quickly Main word: adverb quickly
Prepositional phrase	after the storm Main word: preposition after
Infinitive Phrase	To earn money Main word: To earn

You are already familiar with the idea of noun, verb, adjective, adverb and preposition. A noun phrase is a group of words doing the function of a noun. Similarly a verb phrase is group of words doing the function of a verb and so on. A 'phrase' can consist of just one word, the main word alone. For instance, we say that both greedy and very greedy are adjective phrases. This is because the same rules apply to adjectives and adjective phrases. Instead of saying each time 'adjective or adjective phrase', it is simpler to say 'adjective phrase', and thereby include adjectives as well. So when we talk about phrases, keep in mind that they may consist of just one word.

4.3.1 Noun Phrase

A noun phrase consists of a noun and other related words (usually modifiers and determiners) which modify the noun. It functions like a noun in a sentence.

A noun phrase consists of a noun as the head word and other words (usually modifiers and determiners) which come after or before the noun. The whole phrase works as a noun in a sentence. The words that come before noun in a noun phrase are determiners and Pre-modifiers, while the words that come after the noun are called post-modifiers.

A **determiner** is most commonly found in the beginning of noun phrase when it acts as the subject of the sentence.

Examples:

- **The** book
- **A** newspaper
- **Your** ideas
- **That** car

Pre-modifiers in a noun phrase occur before the noun, and after any determiners which may be present. Pre-modifiers are usually adjectives.

Example

- The **old** book
- Your **foolish** ideas
- A **young** child

Post-modifiers in a noun phrase occur after the noun, and are most commonly prepositional phrases.

Examples

- a piece **of cheese**
- the house **on the hill**
- the coat **with the brown collar**

Noun Phrase =Determiner+ noun + modifiers (the modifiers can be pre or post)

Examples:

- He is wearing **a nice red shirt**. (As noun/object)
- She brought a **glass full of water**. (As noun/object)
- **The boy with brown hair** is laughing. (As noun/subject)
- **A man on the roof** was shouting. (As noun/subject)

A sentence can also contain more noun phrases.

For example:

The girl with blue eyes bought **a beautiful chair**.

A noun phrase performs all the functions that a noun can perform. It can act as subject of sentence, as object of verb, and as indirect object of verb.

Activity

Pick out the Noun Phrases in the following sentences:-

- His father wished to speak to the Headmaster.
 - The wicked vizier loves getting people into trouble.
 - The poor debtor intended to pay back every penny of the money.
 - He dislikes having to punish his servants.
- Horses prefer living in dark stables

4.3.2 Gerund Phrase

A gerund phrase consists of a gerund (verb + **ing**) and modifiers or other words associated with the gerund. A gerund phrase acts as a noun in a sentence.

Examples:

- I like **writing good essays**. (As noun/object)
- She started **thinking about the problem**. (As noun/object)
- **Sleeping late in night** is not a good habit. (As noun/subject)
- **Weeping of a baby** woke him up. (As noun/subject)

4.3.3 Verb Phrase

A verb phrase is a combination of main verb and one or more auxiliary (helping verbs) in a sentence.

Examples:

- He **is eating** an apple.
 - She **has finished** her work.
 - You **should study** for the exam.
- She **has been sleeping** for two hours

4.3.4 Adjective Phrase

An adjective phrase is a group of words that functions like an adjective in a sentence. It consists of adjectives and its modifiers. An adjective phrase functions like an adjective to modify (or tell about) a noun or a pronoun in a sentence. Just like noun phrase, an adjective in adjective phrase can have pre-modifiers and post-modifiers. **Examples.**

- He is wearing **a nice red shirt**. (modifies shirt)
- The girl **with brown hair** is singing a song. (modifies girl)
- He gave me a glass **full of water**. (modifies glass)
- A boy **from America** won the race. (modifies boy)

Prepositional phrases and participle phrases also function as adjectives so we can also call them adjective phrases when they function as adjective. In the above sentence “The girl with brown hair is singing a song”, the phrase “with brown hair” is a prepositional phrase but it functions as an adjective.

Activity

Pick out the Adjective Phrases, in the following sentences:

1. A man in great difficulties came to me for help.
2. He is a person of very considerable renown.
3. Wild beasts in small cages are a sorry sight.
4. A man without an enemy is a man with few friends.
5. He tells a tale with the ring of truth in it.

4.3.5 Adverb Phrase

An adverb phrase is a group of words that functions as an adverb in a sentence. It consists of adverbs or other words (preposition, noun, verb, modifiers) that make a group with works like an adverb in a sentence. An adverb phrase functions like an adverb to modify a verb, an adjective or another adverb.

Examples

- He always behaves **in a good manner**. (modifies verb behave)
- They were shouting **in a loud voice**. (modifies verb shout)
- She always drives **with care**. (modifies verb drive)
- He sat **in a corner of the room**. (modifies verb sit)
- He returned **in a short while**. (modifies verb return)

A prepositional phrase can also act as an adverb phrase. For example in above sentence “He always behaves in a good manner”, the phrase “in a good manner” is a prepositional phrase but it acts as adverb phrase here.

Activity

Pick out the Adverb Phrases in the following sentences:-

1. She lived in the middle of a great wood.
2. Nothing can live on the moon.
3. Come into the garden, Maud.
4. Three fishers went sailing over the sea.
5. Down in a green and shady bed, a modest violet grew

4.3.6 Prepositional Phrase

A prepositional phrase consists of a preposition, object of preposition (noun or pronoun) and may also consist of other modifiers. E.g. on a table, near a wall, in the room, at the door, under a tree.

A prepositional phrase starts with a preposition and mostly ends with a noun or pronoun. Whatever prepositional phrase ends with is called object of preposition. A prepositional phrase functions either as an adjective or adverb in a sentence.

Examples:

- A boy **on the roof** is singing a song. (As adjective)
- The man **in the room** is our teacher. (As adjective)
- She is shouting **in a loud voice**. (As adverb)
- He always behaves **in a good manner**. (As adverb)

Activity

Pick out the prepositional Phrases in the following sentences and tell whether they act as adverb or adjective.

1. I do not expect such treatment at your hands.
2. It grieved me to hear of your illness.
3. They live on an island.
4. A house on an island was washed away.
5. Is this the train to Peshawar?

4.3.7 Infinitive Phrase

An infinitive phrase consist of an infinitive (to + simple form of verb) and modifiers or other words associated to the infinitive. An infinitive phrase always functions as an adjective, adverb or a noun in a sentence.

Examples:

- He likes **to read books**. (As noun/object)
- **To earn money** is a desire of everyone. (As noun/subject)
- He shouted **to inform people about fire**. (As adverb, modifies verb shout)
- He made a plan **to buy a car**. (As adjective, modifies noun plan)

4.4 Clauses

So far, we have been studying the grammar of the simple sentence: that is, a sentence containing one (and only one) finite verb. In other words, a sentence containing one subject and one predicate. Many sentences, however, contain more than one finite verb. Such sentences consist of two or more groups of words, each of which has a subject and predicate of its own.

Examples:

- i. The weather was fine.
- ii. We walked every day.
- iii. The weather was fine and we walked every day.

The two simple sentences, I and II, are linked by the conjunction 'and' to form sentence III, which contains two finite verbs ('was' and 'walked'). Therefore, sentence III contains two subjects and two predicates. Its structure is:

- Subject 1 and Predicate 1 + Link + Subject II and Predicate II
- the weather was fine + and + we walked every day

Each simple sentence has become part of another sentence. In so doing, it ceased to be a sentence and became a clause. The clauses that are of equal rank and are joined by a coordinating conjunction are called independent clauses. One identification of an independent clause is that if it is taken out of the sentence, it can stand alone as a sentence and give proper meanings.

However not all clauses are same, and can stand alone as sentence. There are certain clauses that cannot stand alone as a sentence and give their proper meanings only when they are read with the sentence they are part of.

Example:

- If you need more money, just call me.

If we look at this sentence we can see two verbs 'need' and 'call' each verb has its own subject. So basically this sentence has two clauses:

- i. If you need more money
- ii. just call me

However, if we remove the second clause of sentence, the first clause cannot stand alone as a sentence. Though it has a subject and a predicate yet it can only give its meaning when read with other part of it. This type of clause is called dependent clause.

4.4.1 Types of Clauses

Generally clauses are divided into two groups, as we have discussed already.

- i. Dependent or subordinate clauses
- ii. Independent clauses

4.4.2 Dependent Clauses

Dependent clauses contain both a subject and a verb, but cannot stand alone as a sentence. Dependent clauses are introduced by subordinating conjunctions such as because, what, if etc.

Example:

Although there is no sure way to prevent disaster.

We can identify dependent clauses in a sentence by two markers, Subordinate conjunctions and Verb forms.

i) Subordination Conjunctions

Clauses which are introduced by one of the subordinating conjunctions are subordinate clauses. Here are some examples:

Examples:

- James left the room because he was angry.
- If you need more money, just phone me.
- I read a magazine while I was waiting.

ii) Verb Form

If the verb phrase is non-finite, then the clause in which it occurs is a subordinate clause. We can recall that the non-finite verb forms are (1) the base form (often with to), (2) the -ed form and (3) the -ing form.

Examples:

- The road was widened to improve the traffic flow.
- The warriors faced each other, dressed in black armour.
- The teacher stood in the doorway, saying nothing

4.4.3 Types of Dependent Clauses

Dependent clauses have three main types depending upon the function that they are performing in the sentence.

i) Noun Clauses

Noun-clauses are noun equivalents. They do the same work in a sentence as nouns or pronouns or noun-phrases. Therefore, a noun-clause can function in the following ways: as the subject of a verb; as the object of a verb; as the complement of a verb; as the object of a preposition and as the object of a non-finite verb.

Example:

- We understood **what the lecturer explained**. [The entire clause what the lecturer explained is the direct object of the verb understood.]

In the following sentences see how a noun clause may be the subject of the verb, a predicate nominative, a direct object, an indirect object, or the object of a preposition.

- **That he was interested** was evident. [That he was interested is a noun clause used as the subject of the verb was.]
- This is **what he wrote**. [What he wrote is a noun clause used as a predicate nominative]
- They think **that you wrote well**. [That you wrote well is a noun clause used as direct object.]
- The committee will give, **whoever performs the best**, the job. [Whoever performs the best is a noun clause used as an indirect object.]
- The efficiency of **what he had done** helped him a lot. [What he had done is a noun clause used as the object of the preposition of.]

ii) The Adjective Clause

An adjective clause is a subordinate clause that, like an adjective, modifies a noun or a pronoun.

Examples:

- The paper **that you are writing** is an interesting work of research. [The subordinate clause that you are writing modifies the noun Paper]
- The room **where the equipment is kept** is air-conditioned. [The subordinate clause where the equipment is kept modifies the noun Room]
- The first student **who won the Science and Technology Award** was Jahngir. [The subordinate clause who won the Science and technology Award modifies the noun Jahngir.]

iii) The Adverb Clause

The adverb clause is a subordinate clause that, like an adverb, modifies a verb, an adjective, or an adverb. In the following examples, the adverb clauses modify the verb by telling how, when, where, why, to what extent, or under what conditions.

Examples:

- John felt **as though he already had the job**. [how he felt]
- **Before he left**, he said good-bye. [when he left]
- They sat down **wherever they could find seats**. [where they sat down]
- **Since the office was closed**, we left. [why we left]
- He understands mathematics **better than I do**. [how much or to what extent he understands mathematics]
- Will you apply for the scholarship **if you have to go to England**? [under what conditions you will apply]

Below given is a table that may help you understand the different types of dependent clauses.

Dependent Clauses

Types of clauses		Subordinators	Examples
1. Noun clauses		what, where, why, how, where, when, who, whom, which, whose, whether, that, if	He knows that his business will be successful. No one knows who he is.
2. Adjective clauses		who, whom, which, whose, that, where, when	Men who are not married are called bachelors. The house that I live in belongs to my father.
3. Adverb clauses	a. time	when, before, after, until, since, as soon as	When he won the money, he decided to buy a car.
	b. place	where, wherever	She drove wherever she wanted.
	c. cause	because, as, since	I do it because I like to.
	d. purpose	so that, in order that	He drove fast so that he could get to work on time.
	e. result	so ... that, such ... that	He drove so fast that he got to work before time.
	f. condition	if, unless	If she hadn't won the lottery, she would have been very unhappy.

Activity

Underline the dependent clauses in the following sentences and say whether they are noun, adverb or adjective.

- i. You may sit wherever you like.
- ii. Maria had a little dog whose collar had bells.
- iii. Akram brought money which was badly needed.
- iv. I often wonder how you are getting on.
- v. He fled where he could avoid persecution.
- vi. I am hopeful that I shall get through.
- vii. He finished first though he began late.
- viii. The flat that I live in belongs to my mother.
- ix. Do you deny that you stole the wallet?
- x. I thought that it would be a sunny day.
- xi. As he was not at home, I spoke to his father.
- xii. He saw that the clock had stopped.
- xiii. He tells a tale that sounds untrue.
- xiv. They went where living was cheaper.
- xv. They never fail who burn midnight oil.

4.4.4 Independent Clause

A clause that makes sense without the help of another clause is a main clause. Here are few examples to consider:

Examples:

- They searched the boy's room but they did not find anything unusual.
- The electrician pressed the switch and the motor started.
- He is rich yet he is not happy.

In all three sentences, either of the two clauses makes sense on its own and all three sentences are constructed on the same pattern. In the sentences just examined, each of the conjunctions 'but', 'and' and 'yet' links two main clauses. Conjunctions doing that work are called coordinating conjunctions because they link co-ordinate clauses. 'Coordinate' clauses are clauses that are of equal 'standing' or 'rank'. They are equal in rank because they do similar jobs in the sentence of which they form a part.

The clauses of equal rank may be joined by coordinating conjunction to perform variety of functions. Below in the table is given a list of functions that may be performed by joining two clauses of equal rank.

Independent Clauses

Meaning	Coordinators	Conjunctive Adverbs	Example
To add an idea	and	in addition, furthermore, moreover, also	Women follow more healthful diets, and they go to doctors more often.
To show time or sequence		first, second, then, next, later, meanwhile, finally	First, robots can perform repetitive tasks without becoming tired or bored. Second, they can fulfil tasks requiring pinpoint accuracy.
To contrast	but yet	however, nevertheless, in contrast, on the other hand	Increasing the size of airports is one solution to traffic congestion; however, this is a long-term solution whose benefits may not be seen for many years into the future.

To show result	So	therefore, thus, consequently, as a result	Native and non-native English speakers have different needs; therefore, most schools provide separate classes for each group.
To introduce an alternative	or	otherwise	Students must take final exams; otherwise, they receive a grade of incomplete.
To emphasize		in fact, of course, indeed, certainly	The little girl hated spiders; in fact, she was terrified by them.
To provide an example		for example, for instance	In the operating room, robotic equipment can assist the surgeon. For instance, a robot can kill a brain tumor.
To generalize or summarize		in general, overall, in short	Hermes is not only the messenger of Zeus, but the patron of thieves. In general, he is the god of authorized and unauthorized transfers.

Since now you have learned and understood the concept of dependent and independent clauses, now it is time to introduce you to structural classification of sentences. In chapter 1, we have discussed functional types of sentence but it was mentioned that we will come to structural types of sentences later. It was because of the reason that structural types cannot be understood with concept of clause.

4.5 Structural Types of Sentences

Keeping in view structural pattern of a sentence we can divide it into four different types:

- i. Simple sentence
- ii. Compound sentence
- iii. Complex sentence
- iv. Compound-complex sentence

4.5.1 Simple Sentences

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

Examples:

- The baby cried for food. [There is a subject and a verb that expresses a complete thought.]
- Professor Adnan's intelligent students completed their homework. [A simple sentence does not necessarily have to be short. It can have adjectives as in this case.]
- Maryam and Rimsha ate too much. [The sentence contains two subjects and a verb and expresses a complete thought therefore it is a simple sentence]

4.5.2 Compound Sentences

A compound sentence has two independent clauses. An independent clause, as we have discussed already, is a part of a sentence that can stand alone because it contains a subject and a verb and expresses a complete thought. Basically, a compound contains two simple sentences or independent clauses. These independent clauses are joined by coordinating conjunction (for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so) to form a compound sentence.

Examples:

- The shoplifter had stolen clothes, **so** he ran once he saw the police.[Both sides of the conjunction "so" are complete sentences. "The shoplifter had stolen clothes" can stand alone and so can "he ran once he saw the police." Therefore, this is a compound sentence.]
- They spoke to him in Urdu, **but** he responded in English.[This is also a compound sentence that uses a conjunction to separate two individual clauses.]

4.5.3 Complex Sentences

A complex sentence is an independent clause joined by one or more dependent clauses. A dependent clause, as discussed earlier, does not express a complete thought. A complex sentence always has a subordinating conjunction such as (as, because, since, after, although, when) or relative pronouns (who, that, which).

Examples:

- **After** eating lunch at Marriot, Tahir went to the gym to exercise. [The independent clause is 'Tahir went to the gym to exercise.' The subordinating clause before it is dependent on the main, independent clause. If one were to say "after eating lunch at Marriot," it would be an incomplete thought.]

- While he waited at the train station, Asif realized that the train was late. [Similarly in this sentence ‘Asif realized that the train was late’ is the main clause while ‘While he waited at the train station’ is the subordinate clause.
- The woman who taught History was awarded for showing good results. [The dependent clause in this sentence is “who taught History” because if removed, the rest of the sentence would stand as an independent clause. “Who taught History” is an adjective clause that provides necessary details about the subject, woman.]

4.5.4 Compound – Complex Sentences

A compound-complex sentence has two independent clauses and at least one dependent clause.

Examples:

- **After** the two soccer players lost their game, they joined their other teammates for lunch, and they went to the movies. [If we remove the dependent clause “after the two soccer players lost their game,” we have a compound sentence. The dependent clause makes this sentence compound-complex.]
- The man believed in the system, and he knew that justice would prevail **after** the murderer was sent to jail.

4.6 Self-Assessment Questions/Activity

Identify whether the sentences are simple, complex, compound or compound-complex. Underline dependent clauses where it applies.

- Aab-e-Hayat is my favorite book, but I also love Aag Ka Darya.
- The student wiped the white board that was filthy with last week’s notes.
- The trendy fashion designer released her new collection on Wednesday.
- Tahira and Iram went to a bar in Hollywood to celebrate their anniversary.
- Wicked witch cast a spell on the entire city, so the citizens decided to rebel.
- While waiting for the paint to dry, Sidra went to grocery store, and Latif organized the kitchen appliances.
- After listening to the Nusrat Fateh Ali Khan’s CD, I have greater respect for his music.
- After the teacher chose groups, Shoaib and Sara were selected as partners for a project, yet Sarah did most of the work.

4.7 Bibliography

Hweings, M. (2005). Advance Grammar in Use. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Thomson, A., & Martinet, A. (1997). A Practical English Grammar. Ocford University Press.

Valencia, L. L. (2002). Teaching Technical English Writing. Palmira: CENIDET.

Wren, & Martin. (2013). High School English Grammar & Composition. Islamabad: Paramount Publishing Enterprise.

Unit–5

PUNCTUATION

Written by: Khuram Dad

Reviewed by: Dr. Zafar Iqbal

CONTENTS

	<i>Page No.</i>
Introduction	102
Objectives	102
5.1 What is Punctuation?	103
5.2 Period or Full Stop	103
5.2.1 Periods in Quotations	104
5.2.2 Period with Parentheses	104
5.2.3 Others Uses of Periods	104
5.2.4 Period Faults	104
5.3 Apostrophe (')	105
5.3.1 To Show Possession	105
5.3.2 Contraction	106
5.3.3 Plurals	106
5.4 Commas	106
5.4.1 Commas after an Introductory Word or Phrase	106
5.4.2 Commas in a List of Item	107
5.4.3 Commas and Coordinating Adjectives	107
5.4.4 Commas before Conjunctions in Compound Sentences	108
5.4.5 Commas before and After Interrupting Words	108
5.4.6 Commas in Dates, Addresses, Greetings and Closing of Letters	108
5.5 Colons	110
5.6 Semicolons	112
5.6.1 Semicolons with Strong Connectives	112
5.6.2 Semicolons to Join Two Independent Clauses	112

5.7	Exclamation Marks (!)	113
5.8	Dash (—).....	114
5.9	Hyphens	114
5.9.1	Hyphens used with Modifiers	114
5.9.2	Hyphens used with Prefixes and Suffixes.....	114
5.9.3	Other uses of Hyphen.....	115
5.10	Parentheses.....	115
5.11	Question Marks (?)	116
5.12	Quotation Marks (“ ”)	117
5.12.1	Direct Quotations	117
5.12.2	Punctuating Direct Quotations.....	117
5.12.3	Quotations with in Quotations	117
5.13	Titles	118
5.14	Self-Assessment Questions/Activities	118
5.15	Bibliography.....	120

INTRODUCTION

This unit focuses on the use of punctuation in our writing. We use stress, tone, pitch and pauses when we speak to deliver our message clearly and effectively. Similarly in writing, Punctuation marks perform that function and help us in communicating our messages clearly and effectively. It is system of symbols that helps us deliver our message without any ambiguity. This unit will help you in developing complete understanding about the use of punctuation marks to serve your purpose. The use of punctuation marks helps you communicate your message clearly to your audience. It also facilitates you in reading.

OBJECTIVES

After this unit, you will be able to:

1. Understand uses of various punctuation marks.
2. Use punctuation marks to communicate effectively.
3. Create sentences that clearly and effectively communicate the intended message of writer.

5.1 What is Punctuation?

Punctuation is systems of symbols that help readers understand the structural relationships within a sentence. Marks of punctuation link, separate, enclose, indicate omissions, terminate, and classify the sentence. Most punctuation marks can perform more than one function.

Understanding punctuation is essential for writers because it enables them to communicate with clarity and precision. The use of punctuation is determined by grammatical conventions and the writer's intention. Punctuation marks may serve as substitute for the writer's facial expressions and vocal inflexions.

The use of punctuation can completely change the meaning of a sentence. Here is an example that reflects that how punctuation changes the meanings of a sentence:

- The rivers not the dams are dry.
- The rivers not, the dams, are dry.

You can see that in the above example the use of comma can totally alter the meaning of sentence. So, learning the use of punctuation is very important.

The following 11 marks of punctuation are often seen being used in writing.

i. Period or Full stop	.
ii. Apostrophe	'
iii. Colon	:
iv. Semi Colon	;
v. Comma	,
vi. Exclamation mark	!
vii. Dash	—
viii. Hyphen	-
ix. Parenthesis	()
x. Question Mark	?
xi. Quotation mark	“ ”

5.2 Period or Full Stop

A period usually indicates the end of a declarative or imperative sentence. It is the greatest pause and separation. Periods also link when used as leaders (for example, in a table of contents) and indicate omissions when used as ellipses. Periods may also end questions that are really polite requests and questions to which an affirmative response is assumed.

- Please open your books at unit 9.
- Will you please send me the financial statement?

5.2.1 Periods in Quotations

Use a comma, not a period, after a declarative sentence that is quoted in the context of another sentence.

- “There is very chance of success,” she stated.

A period is conventionally placed inside quotation marks.

- Hamlet said, “Frailty, thy name is women.”
- He stated clearly, “My vote is yes.”

5.2.2 Periods with Parentheses

If a sentence ends with a parentheses, the period should follow the parenthesis.

- The institute was established by Quad-e-Azam (1900-1930).

If a whole sentence (beginning with an initial capital letter) is enclosed in parentheses, the period (or other end mark) should be placed inside the final parenthesis.

- The project director listed the problems his staff faced. (This was the third time he had complained to the board.)

5.2.3 Others Uses of Periods

Use periods after initials in names.

- John T. , J.P. Morgan

Use periods as decimal points with numbers.

- 109.2 degrees; \$540.26 ; 6.9 percent

Use periods to indicate abbreviations.

- Ms. Dr. Inc.

When a sentence ends with an abbreviation that ends with a period, do not add another period.

- Please meet me at 3:30 p.m.

5.2.4 Period Faults

The incorrect use of a period is sometimes referred to as a period fault. When a period is inserted prematurely, the result is a sentence fragment.

FRAGMENT: After a long day at the center during which we finished the quarterly report. We left hurriedly for home. (In this sentence period has been inserted prematurely after report. It has resulted in fragment and not a complete sentence.)

SENTENCE: After a long day at the center, during which we finished the quarterly report, we left hurriedly for home.

When two independent clauses are joined without any punctuation, the result is a run-on sentence. Adding a period between the clauses is one way to correct a run-on sentence.

5.3 Apostrophe (')

An apostrophe (') is used to show possession, to indicate the omission of letters, and sometimes to form the plural. Do not confuse the apostrophe used to show the plural with the apostrophe used to show possession.

5.3.1 To Show Possession

Use an apostrophe + S ('s) to show that one person/thing owns or is a member of something

- The power plant's output reduced this year.
- This is my brother's house.

Singular nouns of more than one syllable that end in s may form the possessive either with an apostrophe alone or with an 's'. Whichever way you do it be consistent.

- The hostess' warm welcome
- The hostess's warm welcome

With coordinate nouns, the last noun takes the possessive form to show joint possession.

- The man and woman's car was badly damaged.

To show individual possession with coordinate nouns, each noun should take the possessive form.

- The difference between Tahir's and Maria's test results is insignificant.

Use only an apostrophe with plural nouns ending in s.

- The managers' meeting was canceled.

If a plural noun doesn't end in "s," add an "'s" to create the possessive form.

- The children's room is at the top floor.

Do not use the apostrophe with possessive pronouns.

- Yours, its, his, ours, whose, theirs

5.3.2 Contraction

When you combine two words to make a contraction, you will always take out some letters. In their place, use an apostrophe.

- *they + have = they've; are + not = aren't; they + will = they'll*

5.3.3 Plurals

Apostrophe is also used to form plurals of numbers and letters when they are indicated in the sentence.

- All the L's in you writing look like an I.
- Add two 8's and a 4.

5.4 Commas

Like all punctuation, the comma (,) helps readers understand the writer's meaning and prevents ambiguity. It is most widely used mark of punctuation and is used to indicate shortest pause in the sentence. Notice how the comma helps make the meaning clear in the following example:

AMBIGUOUS: To be successful managers with MBAs must continue to learn.
[At first glance, this sentence seems to be about "successful managers with MBAs."]

CLEAR: To be successful, managers with MBAs must continue to learn.
[The comma makes clear where the main part of the sentence begins.]

Look at some of the following sentences to see how you might use a comma when writing a sentence.

- **Introductory word:** Personally, I think the practice is helpful.
- **Lists:** The barn, the tool shed, and the back porch were destroyed by the wind.
- **Coordinating adjectives:** He was tired, hungry and late.
- **Conjunctions in compound sentences:** The bedroom door was closed, so the children knew their mother was asleep.
- **Interrupting words:** I knew where it was hidden, of course, but I wanted them to find it themselves.
- **Dates, addresses, greetings and letters:** The letter was postmarked December 8, 1945.

5.4.1 Commas After An Introductory Word or Phrase

You may notice a comma that appears near the beginning of the sentence, usually after a word or phrase. This comma lets the reader know where the introductory word or phrase ends and the main sentence begins.

- Without spoiling the surprise, we need to tell her about her result.

In this sentence, *without spoiling the surprise* is an introductory phrase, while *we need to tell her to save the date* is the main sentence. Notice how they are separated by a comma. When only an introductory word appears in the sentence, a comma also follows the introductory word.

- Ironically, she already had plans for that day.

Activity

Look for the introductory word or phrase and add a comma to correct the sentence.

- i. Suddenly the dog ran into the house.
- ii. In the blink of an eye the kids were ready to go to the movies.
- iii. Confused he tried opening the box from the other end.
- iv. Every year we go camping in the woods.
- v. Without a doubt green is my favourite colour.

5.4.2 Commas in a List of Item

When you want to list several nouns in a sentence, you separate each word with a comma. This allows the reader to pause after each item and identify which words are included in the grouping. When you list items in a sentence, put a comma after each noun, then add the word *and* before the last item. However, you do not need to include a comma after the last item.

- We'll need to get flour, tomatoes and cheese at the store.
- The pizza will be topped with olives, peppers and pineapple chunks.

5.4.3 Commas and Coordinating Adjectives

You can use commas to list both adjectives and nouns. A string of adjectives that describe a noun are called coordinating adjectives. These adjectives come before the noun they modify and are separated by commas. One important thing to note, however, is that unlike listing nouns, the word *and* does not always need to be before the last adjective.

- It was a bright, windy, clear day.
- Our kite glowed red, yellow, and blue in the morning sunlight.

Activity

Add commas to the following sentences where you think is necessary.

- i. Monday Tuesday and Wednesday are all booked with meetings.
- ii. It was a quiet uneventful unproductive day.
- iii. We'll need to prepare statements for the Fahad Tabraiz and Shan before their portfolio reviews next week.
- iv. Majid Najma and Dilawar finished their report last Tuesday.
- v. With cold wet aching fingers he was able to secure the sails before the storm.

5.4.4 Commas Before Conjunctions in Compound Sentences

Commas are sometimes used to separate two independent clauses. The comma comes after the first independent clause and is followed by a conjunction, such as *for*, *and*, or *but*.

- He missed class today, and he thinks he will be out tomorrow, too.
- He says his fever is gone, but he is still very tired.

5.4.5 Commas Before and After Interrupting Words

In conversations, you might interrupt your train of thought by giving more details about what you are talking about. In a sentence, you might interrupt your train of thought with a word or phrase called interrupting words. Interrupting words can come at the beginning or middle of a sentence. When the interrupting words appear at the beginning of the sentence, a comma appears after the word or phrase.

- If you can believe it, people once thought the sun and planets orbited around Earth.
- Luckily, some people questioned that theory.

When interrupting words come in the middle of a sentence, they are separated from the rest of the sentence by commas. You can determine where the commas should go by looking for the part of the sentence that is not essential for the sentence to make sense.

- An Italian astronomer, Galileo, proved that Earth orbited the sun.
- We have known, for hundreds of years now that the Earth and other planets exist in a solar system.

Activity

Insert commas to separate the interrupting words from the rest of the sentence.

- i. I asked my neighbours the retired couple from Faislabad to bring in my mail.
- ii. Without a doubt his work has improved over the last few weeks.
- iii. Our professor Mr. Allama Nazir drilled the lessons into our heads.
- iv. The meeting is at noon unfortunately which means I will be late for lunch.
- v. We came in time for the last part of dinner but most importantly we came in time for dessert.

5.4.6 Commas in Dates, Addresses, Greetings and Closing of Letters

You also use commas when you write the date, such as in cover letters and emails. Commas are used when you write the date, when you include an address, and when you greet someone.

If you are writing out the full date, add a comma after the day and before the year. You do not need to add a comma when you write the month and day or when you write the month and the year. If you need to continue the sentence after you add a date that includes the day and year, add a comma after the end of the date.

- The letter is postmarked May 4, 2001.
- Her birthday is May 5.
- He visited the country in July 2009.
- I registered for the conference on March 7, 2010, so we should get our tickets soon.

You also use commas when you include addresses and locations. When you include an address in a sentence, be sure to place a comma after the street and after the city. Do not place a comma between the state and the zip code. Like a date, if you need to continue the sentence after adding the address, simply add a comma after the address.

- We moved to House 684, Lane 3, Gulistan-e-Iqbal, Rawalpindi.
- After moving to F-10, Islamabad, Ahmad used public transportation to get to work.

Greetings are also separated by commas. When you write an e-mail or a letter, you add a comma after the greeting word or the person's name. You also need to include a comma after the closing, which is the word or phrase you put before your signature.

Hello,

Dear Mrs. Ahmad,

I would like more information about your job posting.

Thank you,

Anita.

Activity

Use what you have learned about comma usage to edit the following paragraphs.

- i. My brother Naeem is a collector of many rare unusual things. He has collected lunch boxes limited edition books and hatpins at various points of his life. His current collection of unusual bottles has over fifty pieces. Usually he sells one collection before starting another.

- ii. Our meeting is scheduled for Thursday March 20. In that time we need to gather all our documents together. Iqra is in charge of the timetables and schedules. Tariq is in charge of updating the guidelines. I am in charge of the presentation. To prepare for this meeting please print out any e-mails, faxes or documents you have referred to when writing your sample.
- iii. It was a cool crisp autumn day when the group set out. They needed to cover several miles before they made camp so they walked at a brisk pace. The leader of the group Raheel kept checking his watch and their GPS location. Ifra Rauf and Madhia took turns carrying the equipment while Kamran took notes about the wildlife they saw. As a result no one noticed the darkening sky until the first drops of rain splattered on their faces.
- iv. Please have your report complete and filed by April 15 2010. In your submission letter please include your contact information the position you are applying for and two people we can contact as references. We will not be available for consultation after April 10 but you may contact the office if you have any questions. Thank you HR Department.

5.5 Colons

The colon (:) is a mark of anticipation and introduction that alerts readers to the close connection between the first statement and what follows. A colon is used to connect a list or series to a word, clause, or phrase with which it is in opposition.

- Three topics will be discussed: the history of language, the origin of English, and the importance of grammar.

Do not, however, place a colon between a verb and its objects.

- Three fluids that clean pipes are: water, acid, and acetone.
(Incorrect use)

One common exception is made when a verb is followed by a stacked list.

- Corporations that manufacture computers include:

Apple	Compaq	Micron
IBM	Dell	Gateway

Do not use a colon between a preposition and its object.

- I would like to be transferred to: Rawalpindi, Islamabad or Lahore.
(Incorrect use)

A colon is used to link one statement to another statement that develops, explains, amplifies or illustrates the first.

- Any organization is confronted with two separate, though related, information problems: It must maintain an effective internal communication system, and it must see that an effective external communication system is maintained.

A colon is used to link an appositive phrase to its related statement if more emphasis is needed and if the phrase comes at the end of the sentence.

- There is only one thing that will satisfy Mr. Samar: our finished report.

Colons are used to link numbers that signify different nouns.

- 10: 50 a.m. [10 hours, 50 minutes]

In proportions, colons indicate the ratio of amounts to each other.

- The cement is mixed with the water and sand at 7:5:14.

Colons are often used in mathematical ratios.

- $7:3 = 14:x$

The initial capital letter of a quotation is retained following a colon if the quoted material began with a capital letter.

- The headmaster issued the following statement: “We are not concerned about the present. We are worried about the future.”

A colon always goes outside quotation marks.

- This was the real meaning of his “suggestion”: the division must show a profit by the end of the year.

Activity

Insert colon where you think it is required. If no colon is required than write ok.

- i. The potion contained fruit, biscuits and glue.
- ii. You have only one choice leave now while you can.
- iii. I can see only one thing the old lighthouse.
- iv. Many jobs interest me teaching, writing, editing, and social work.
- v. He was a world class athlete a rowing champion

5.6 Semicolons

The Semicolon (;) links independent clauses or other sentence elements of equal weight and grammatical rank, especially phrases in a series that have commas in them. The semicolon indicates a greater pause between clauses than a comma, but not as great as a period.

When the independent clauses of a compound sentence are not joined by a comma and a conjunction, they are linked by a semicolon.

- No one applied for the position; the job was too difficult.

Make sure however, that such clauses balance or contrast with each other. The relationship between two statements should be so clear that further explanation is not necessary.

- The new Web page was very successful; every division reported increased online sales.

Do not use a semicolon between a dependent clause and its main clause. Remember that elements joined by semicolons must be of equal grammatical rank or weight.

5.6.1 Semicolons with Strong Connectives

In complicated sentences, a semicolon may be used before transitional words or phrases (that is, for example, namely) that introduce examples or further explanation.

- The study group was aware of his position on the issue; that is, federal funds should not be used for the research project.

A semicolon should also be used before conjunctive adverbs (such as therefore, moreover, consequently, furthermore, indeed, in fact, however) that connect independent clauses.

- I won't finish today; moreover, I doubt that I will finish this week.

The semicolon in the example shows that moreover belongs to the second clause.

5.6.2 Semicolons to Join Two Independent Clauses

Use a semicolon to combine two closely related independent clauses. Relying on a period to separate the related clauses into two shorter sentences could lead to choppy writing. Using a comma would create an awkward run-on sentence.

- **Correct:** Be sure to wear clean, well-pressed clothes to the interview; appearances are important.
- **Choppy:** Be sure to wear clean, well-pressed clothes to the interview. Appearances are important.
- **Incorrect:** Be sure to wear clean, well-pressed clothes to the interview, appearances are important.

In this case, writing the independent clauses as two sentences separated by a period is correct. However, using a semicolon to combine the clauses can make your writing more interesting by creating a variety of sentence lengths and structures while preserving the flow of ideas.

Activity

Correct the following sentences by adding semicolons. If the sentence is correct as it is, write *OK*.

- i. I did not notice that you were in the office I was behind the front desk all day.
- ii. Please close the blinds there is a glare on the screen.
- iii. Let's go for a walk the air is so refreshing.
- iv. Hopefully, the weather will change soon otherwise, the whole summer will go by without the sun shining.
- v. It is raining outside I will bring my umbrella with me.

5.7 Exclamation Marks (!)

The exclamation mark indicates strong feeling. The most common use of an exclamation mark is after a word, phrase, clause, or sentence to indicate urgency, elation, or surprise.

- Hurry!
- Great!
- Wow!

In technical writing, the exclamation mark is often used in cautions and warnings.

- Notice!
- Stop!
- Danger!

An exclamation mark can be used after a whole sentence or an element of a sentence.

- The subject of this meeting please note well! is our budget deficit.

Keep in mind that an exclamation mark cannot make an argument more convincing, lend force to a weak statement, or call attention to an intended irony. An exclamation mark can be used after a title that is an exclamatory word, phrase, or sentence.

- “Our International Perspective Must Change!” is an article by Richard Moody.

When used with quotation marks, the exclamation mark goes outside, unless what is quoted is an exclamation.

- The manager yelled, “Get in here!” Then Bashir, according to Rashid, “jumped like a kangaroo”!

5.8 Dash (—)

A dash (—) is a punctuation mark used to set off information in a sentence for emphasis. You can enclose text between two dashes, or use just one dash. To create a dash in Microsoft Word, type two hyphens together. Do not put a space between dashes and text.

- Arrive to the interview early—but not too early.
- Any of the suits—except for the purple one—should be fine to wear

5.9 Hyphens

The hyphen (-) serves both to link and to separate words. The hyphen's most common linking function is to join compound words.

- Able-bodied
- Self-contained
- Self-esteem

A hyphen is used to form compound numbers from twenty-one through ninety-nine and fractions when they are written out.

- Forty-two
- Three-quarters

5.9.1 Hyphens Used with Modifiers

Two- and three-word modifiers that express a single thought are hyphenated when they precede a noun.

- It was a well-written report.
- We need a clear-cut decision.

A hyphen is always used as part of a letter or number modifier.

- 5-cent
- 9-inch
- A-frame
- H-shaped

In a series of unit modifiers that all have the same term following the hyphen, the term following the hyphen need not be repeated throughout the series; for greater smoothness and brevity, use the term only at the end of the series

- The third-, fourth-, and fifth-floor rooms were recently painted.

5.9.2 Hyphens Used with Prefixes and Suffixes

A hyphen is used with a prefix when the root word is a proper noun.

- pre-Columbian
- anti-American
- post-Newtonian

A hyphen may be used when the prefix ends and the root word begins with the same vowel.

- re-elect
- re-enter
- anti-inflammatory

A hyphen is used when ex- means “former.”

- Ex-president
- Ex-spouse

A hyphen may be used to emphasize a prefix.

- She was anti-everything.

The suffix -elect is hyphenated.

- president-elect
- commissioner-elect

5.9.3 Other Uses of Hyphen

A hyphen can stand for to or through between letters and numbers.

- pp. 44-46
- the Lahore-Peshawar Motorway
- A-L and M-Z

Hyphens also are used to divide words at the end of a line.

5.10 Parentheses

Parentheses () are most often used to identify material that acts as an aside or that is secondary to the main information (such as this brief comment) or to add incidental information.

Other punctuation marks used alongside parentheses need to take into account their context. If the parentheses enclose a full sentence beginning with a capital letter, then the end punctuation for the sentence falls *inside* the parentheses. For example:

- Typically, suppliers specify air to cloth ratios of 6:1 or higher. (However, ratios of 4:1 should be used for applications involving silica or feldspathic minerals.)

If the parentheses indicate a citation at the end of a sentence, then the sentence’s end punctuation comes after the parentheses are closed:

- In a study comparing three different building types, respirable dust concentrations were significantly lower in the open-structure building (Hugh et al., 2005).

Finally, if the parentheses appear in the midst of a sentence (as in this example), then any necessary punctuation (such as the comma that appeared just a few words ago) is delayed until the parentheses are closed.

Remember, parentheses always appear in pairs. If you open a parenthesis, you need another to close it.

Activity

Clarify the following sentences by adding parentheses. If the sentence is clear as it is, write ok.

- i. I was able to solve the puzzle after taking a few moments to think about it.
- ii. Please complete the questionnaire at the end of this letter.
- iii. If the green light does not come on See instruction booklet try the steps again.
- iv. Has anyone besides me read the assignment?
- v. Please be sure to circle not underline the correct answers.

5.11 Question Marks (?)

The question mark has several uses. Use a question mark to end a sentence that is a direct question.

- Where did you put the specifications?

Never use a mark to end a sentence that is an indirect question.

- He asked me whether I had finished my report this week?

Use a question mark to end a statement that has an interrogative meaning (a statement that is declarative in form but asks a question).

- The laboratory report is finished?

When a directive is phrased as a question, a question mark is usually not used. However, a request (to a customer or a superior, for instance) almost always requires a question mark.

- Will you make sure that the machinery is operational by August 15.
[directive]
- Will you email me if your entire shipment does not arrive by June 10?
[request]

Question marks may follow a series of separate items within an interrogative sentence.

- Do you remember the date of the contract? Its terms? Whether you signed it?

When used with quotations, the placement of the question mark is important. When the writer is asking a question, the question mark belongs outside the quotation marks.

- Did she say, “I don’t think the project should continue”?

If the quotation itself is a question, the quotation mark goes inside the quotation marks.

- She asked, “When will we go?”

Activity

Are the following sentences declarative or indirect sentences? Which need a question mark at the end?

- i. Jasmine wondered where her keys were
- ii. Can you pass the butter
- iii. Is anyone here
- iv. She asked how you were doing
- v. Why won’t you admit I’m right

5.12 Quotation Marks (“ ”)

Quotation marks (“ ”) set off a group of words from the rest of the text. Use quotation marks to indicate direct quotations of another person’s words or to indicate a title. Quotation marks always appear in pairs.

5.12.1 Direct Quotations

A direct quotation is an exact account of what someone said or wrote. To include a direct quotation in your writing, enclose the words in quotation marks. An indirect quotation is a restatement of what someone said or wrote. An indirect quotation does not use the person’s exact words. You do not need to use quotation marks for indirect quotations.

Direct quotation: Kamran said, “I’m not ever going back there again.”

Indirect quotation: Kamran said that she would never go back there.

5.12.2 Punctuating Direct Quotations

Quotation marks show readers another person’s exact words. Often, you will want to identify who is speaking. You can do this at the beginning, middle, or end of the quote. Notice the use of commas and capitalized words.

- Beginning: Madhia said, “Let’s stop at the farmers market to buy some fresh vegetables for dinner.”
- Middle: “Let’s stop at the farmers market,” Madhia said, “to buy some fresh vegetables for dinner.”
- End: “Let’s stop at the farmers market to buy some fresh vegetables for dinner,” Madhia said.
- Speaker not identified: “Let’s stop at the farmers market to buy some fresh vegetables for dinner.”

Always capitalize the first letter of a quote even if it is not the beginning of the sentence. When using identifying words in the middle of the quote, the beginning of the second part of the quote does not need to be capitalized.

Use commas between identifying words and quotes. Quotation marks must be placed *after* commas and periods. Place quotation marks after question marks and exclamation points only if the question or exclamation is part of the quoted text.

- **Question is part of quoted text:** The new employee asked, “When is lunch?”
- **Question is not part of quoted text:** Did you hear her say you were “the next Picasso”?
- **Exclamation is part of quoted text:** My supervisor beamed, “Thanks for all of your hard work!”
- **Exclamation is not part of quoted text:** He said I “single-handedly saved the company thousands of dollars”!

5.12.3 Quotations With in Quotations

Use single quotation marks (‘ ’) to show a quotation within in a quotation.

- Theresa said, “I wanted to take my dog to the festival, but the man at the gate said, ‘No dogs allowed.’”
- “When you say, ‘I can’t help it, what exactly does that mean?’”
- “The instructions say, ‘Tighten the screws one at a time.’”

5.13 Titles

Use quotation marks around titles of short works of writing, such as essays, songs, poems, short stories, and chapters in books. Usually, titles of longer works, such as books, magazines, albums, newspapers, and novels, are italicized.

- “Annabelle Lee” is one of my favorite romantic poems.
- The New York Times has been in publication since 1851.

5.14 Self-Assessment Questions/Activity

Correct the following sentences by adding quotation marks where necessary.

If it is not required write ok.

- i. Yasmin said, I don’t feel like cooking. Let’s go out to eat.
- ii. Where should we go to eat? asked Rashid.
- iii. Yasmeen said it didn’t matter.
- iv. I know, said Rashid, let’s go to the ABC restaurant.
- v. He said “I’ll never forget you.” It was the best moment of my life.

Activity

Each sentence contains a punctuation error. Correct each sentence by adding the correct punctuation. The headings will let you know which type of punctuation mistakes to look for. If the sentence does not need corrections, write *OK*.

Commas

- a. The wedding will be July 13 2012.
- b. The date by the way is the anniversary of the day that they met.
- c. The groom the bride and their parents are all planning the event.
- d. Actually all of their friends and relatives are involved in the planning.
- e. The bride is a baker so she will be making the wedding cake herself.
- f. The photography the catering and the music will all be friends.

Semicolons

- a. Some people spend a lot of money hiring people for wedding services they are lucky to have such talented friends.
- b. The flowers will be either roses, daisies, and snapdragons orchids, tulips, and irises or peonies and lilies.

Colons

- a. There will be three colors for the wedding: white, black, and gold.
- b. They've finally narrowed down the dinner choices salmon, steak, and a vegan stew.
- c. Their wedding invitations contained the following quote from the Roman poet Ovid If you want to be loved, be lovable.

Quotes

- a. The invitations said that the wedding would be "outdoor casual."
- b. "What exactly does 'outdoor casual' mean?" I asked the bride.
- c. She told me to dress comfortably and wear shoes that do not sink into the ground.

Apostrophes

- a. On the day of the wedding, were going to rent a limo.
- b. My brother's wife will make the arrangements.
- c. Shes a great party organizer.

Parentheses

- a. On the day of the wedding, the bride looked more beautiful than ever and I've known her for fifteen years.
- b. All the details were perfect in my opinion.

Dashes

- a. Everyone danced at the wedding except my mother.
- b. It was to be expected she just had hip surgery.

Hyphens

- a. The groom danced with his new mother in law.
- b. It was a spectacular, fun filled day for everyone.

Activity

Each sentence contains a punctuation error. Correct each sentence by adding commas, semicolons, colons, apostrophes, parentheses, hyphens, and dashes as needed.

- a. My mother's garden is full of beautiful flowers.
- b. She has carefully planted several species of roses peonies and irises.
- c. She is especially proud of her thirty year old Japanese maple tree.
- d. I am especially proud of the sunflowers I planted them!
- e. You should see the birds that are attracted to the garden hummingbirds, finches, robins, and sparrows.
- f. I like to watch the hummingbirds they are my favorite.
- g. We spend a lot of time in the garden planting weeding and just enjoying the view.
- h. Each flower has its own personality some seem shy and others seem bold.
- i. Arent gardens wonderful?
- j. You should come visit sometime Do you like to garden?

5.15 Bibliography

Hweings, M. (2005). *Advance Grammar in Use*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Thomson, A., & Martinet, A. (1997). *A Practical English Grammar*. Ocford University Press.

Valencia, L. L. (2002). *Teaching Technical English Writing*. Palmira: CENIDET.

Wren, & Martin. (2013). *High School English Grammar & Composition*. Islamabad: Paramount Publishing Enterprise

Unit–6

TENSES-I

**Written by: Dr. Muhammad Ismail Abbassi
and Khuram Dad
Reviewed by: Dr. Zafar Iqbal**

CONTENTS

	<i>Page No.</i>
Introduction	124
Objectives	124
6.1 Tense Overviews.....	125
6.2 To Be.....	125
6.2.1 with a Noun.....	125
6.2.2 with an Adjective	125
6.2.3 With the –ing form to make the Continuous Aspect.....	125
6.2.4 With the –ed form to Make the Passive Voice	125
6.2.5 with a Prepositional Phrase.....	126
6.3 Use of Is / Am /Was / Were	126
6.4 Uses of Verb to Be.....	126
6.4.1 ‘To Be’ As Main Verb	126
6.4.2 Forms	127
6.4.3 To Be As Main Verb with Locations.....	127
6.4.4 Use of To Be As Main Verb with Comparative or Superlative Form Adjective.....	127
6.4.5 Helping Verbs. B, Do and Have	127
6.5 The Present Indefinite	127
6.5.1 Daily Routine Habits and Regular Actions.....	128
6.5.2 For Repeated Event and Actions.....	128
6.5.3 For General Truths	128
6.5.4 For Direction and Instruction.....	128
6.5.5 For Arrangements Fixed Earlier	129
6.5.6 How to Construct a Sentence of Present indefinite Tense	129

6.6	Helping Verb ‘Do’	129
6.7	Use of ‘s, es’ With First Form of Verb	129
6.8	Examples in Kinds of Sentences.....	130
6.9	Past Indefinite	131
6.10	The Use of the Simple Past.....	131
6.10.1	Finished Events of the Simple Past.....	131
6.10.2	Past Habitual Action	131
6.10.3	Events That Were True for Sometime in the Past.....	131
6.10.4	Examples of Simple Past Tense in different Contexts.....	131
6.10.5	Table	132
6.10.6	Change in Spelling in Changing First Form into Second Form of Verb ..	133
i)	Double The Last Letter	133
6.11	Irregular Verbs	134
6.12	Future Simple.....	134
6.12.1	Examples.....	135
6.13	How Do I Make Simple Future?	135
6.13.1	Statements	135
6.13.2	Negative Statements.....	135
6.13.3	Questions.....	135
6.14	Self-Assessment Questions/Activities	136
6.15	Bibliography.....	136

INTRODUCTION

One of the most important elements of English grammar is its tenses. The topic of tenses has been dealt under 2 chapter, this is the first one of the series. In this chapter we have tried to explain simple present also known as present indefinite, simple past and simple future tense. The chapter elaborates and explains these three tenses employing various examples and it also teaches you how to construct sentences of each of the mentioned tenses.

OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit you will be able to:

1. Explain present indefinite, simple past, and simple future tense
2. Construct statements, negative statements and questions in these tenses
3. Use these tenses effectively in your writing.

6.1 Tense Overviews

For Pakistani users of English language learning English is synonymous to learning tenses. Though there are many other significant aspects of learning a language, nonetheless tenses occupy a central position at the school and college level learning of English language.

In a sentence, the verb is most important word because the construction of sentence depends upon it. Mastering the use of verb means mastering the language itself. Verbs have number of properties and functions that are not found in other parts of speech. One of these qualities is tense forms. Tenses are used to show the time of action. It is the tense that tells you whether the action has taken place in present or past or future. Look at three different sentences:

- He **writes** short stories. (present indefinite)
- He **wrote** short stories. (Past indefinite)
- He **will write** short stories. (Future indefinite)

In above sentences three distinct form of verb have been used to indicate the difference of time. The verb 'write' changes to indicate the change in time.

6.2 To Be

Before going into details about the different kinds of tenses let us first the details about verb 'To Be'.

The patterns of usage of verb **be** is following:

6.2.1 With a Noun

My brother **is** a computer expert. Muhammad Ali Jinnah **was** the first governor General of Pakistan.

6.2.2 With an Adjective

This food **is** very tasty. The people of the town **were** good.

6.2.3 With the ing form to make

We **were singing** in the hall.

Everything was hungry. The host **had been preparing the meal**.

6.2.4 With the -ed form to make the Passive Voice

This college **was established** in 1893.

The town **is called** Shams Abad.

This motorcycle **was made** in Pakistan.

6.2.5 With a Prepositional Phrase

Ahmad and his family **are from Rawalpindi**.

The books **are on the table**.

6.3 Use of Is / Am / Was / Were

The verb **be** has the following forms:

Present simple Static Sentences	Affirmative Sentences	I am You are He/She/It is Single noun + is Plural noun + are	We are You are They are
	Question form	Am I? Are you? Is he/she it?	Are we? Are you? Are they?
	Negative form	I am not/ I'm not You are not/ aren't He/She/It is not/ isn't	We are not/aren't You are not/aren't They are not/aren't
Past simple Static Sentences	Affirmative Sentences	I was He/She/It was Single noun + was Plural noun + were	We were You were They were
Question form	Was I? Were you? Was he/she it?	Were we? Were you? Were they?	
Negative form	I was not/ I's not You were not/ weren't He/She/It was not/ wasn't	We were not/aren't You were not/aren't They were not/ weren't	

6.4 Uses of Verb to Be

The verb *to be* is utilized in various different ways in English. Here are the main uses of the verb *to be*.

6.4.1 'To Be' As Main Verb

To be is used as a main verb to indicate the role or position that one has at work, family, or other organization.

- Saima **is** my sister.
- Immad **is** a doctor.
- Ahmad **was** a guest at our house last week.

6.4.2 Forms

To Be as Main Verb with Adjectives

To be is also used as a main verb together with adjectives to show qualities about someone. In some situations *to be* is used only with adjectives, or adjectives which modify other nouns.

- She **is** a beautiful child.
- Rehan **was** a handsome person.
- He **is** confused in such situations.
- They **are** angry.

6.4.3 To Be as Main Verb with Locations

As a main verb sometimes *to be* is used to indicate location.

- They **are** at party.
- My house **is** in the village.
- Ali **is** in the dining room.

6.4.4 Use of To Be As Main Verb with Comparative or Superlative Form Adjective

In some situations *To be* is also utilized with the comparative or superlative form to make comparison between people, places, objects, and ideas.

- The motorcycle **is** faster than the bicycle.
- Islamabad **is** the most beautiful capital in the world.
- My friend Uzair **is** a much better player than my Ali.

6.4.5 Helping Verbs. Be, Do and Have

Base Form	1 st Form	2 nd Form	3 rd Form	4 th Form
Simple Present	Present	Past	Past Participle	Present Participle
Be	Is/am/are	Was/were	Been	Being
Do	Do/does	did	Done	Doing
Have	Has/have	had	Had	Having

6.5 The Present Indefinite

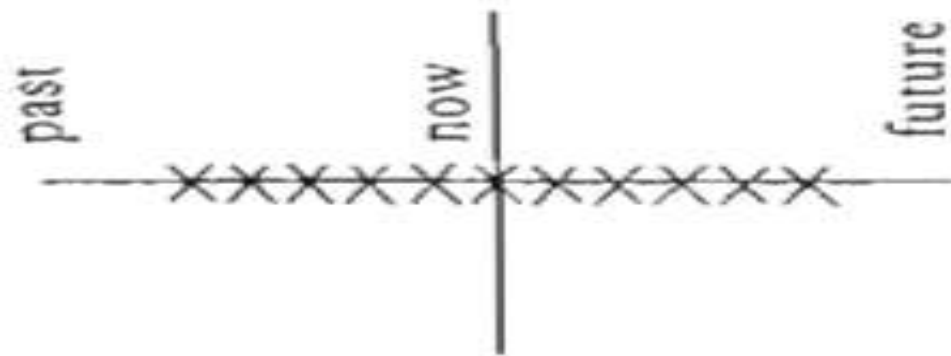
The simple present is a verb tense with following uses.

- The simple present expresses daily habits or usual activities.
- The simple present expresses general statements of fact.

- The present progressive expresses an activity that is in progress.
- The event is in progress at the time the speaker is saying the sentence.
- The event began in the past, is in progress now, and will probably continue into future.

Depending on the person, the simple present tense is formed by using the root form or by adding -s or -es to the end.

THE SIMPLE PRESENT



6.5.1 Daily Routine Habits and Regular Actions

- I drink tea in the morning.
- You take bath daily.
- We watch new bulletin regularly.

6.5.2 For Repeated Event And Actions

- He goes to his office early morning.
- You recite the Holy Quran after fajar prayer.
- They visit Murree hills during Eid holidays.

6.5.3 For General Truths

- The earth revolves round the sun.
- The moon shines at the night time.
- The sun rises in the east.

6.5.4 For Direction and instruction

- Mount the stairs and turn left.
- You take metro while going to your office.
- This road leads to the library.

6.5.5 For Arrangements fixed earlier

- The Eid holidays start on Sunday.
- The train arrives at 8 o'clock.
- You brother reaches home at noon.
- With future constructions
- Before she goes, she will meet you.
- When he appears we shall hand the package to him.
- The moment you land, they will accompany you.

6.5.6 How to construct a sentence of Present indefinite Tense

- First (base) form of verb is used with First Person Pronoun (I, We)
- E.g. I/ We come
- First form of verb with Second Person Pronoun (You)
- E.g. You drive a car. You operate the machine.
- First form of verb with Third Person Pronoun Plural (They)
- E.g. They sing songs. They walk slowly.
- First form of verb with Third Person Pronoun Singular + s, es (H, She, It)
- E.g. go + es = goes, write + s = writes, run + s,
- He goes. She writes. It runs fast.

6.6 Helping Verb 'Do'

Base Form	1 st Form	2 nd Form	3 rd Form	4 th Form
Simple Present	Present	Past	Past Participle	Present Participle
Do	Do/does	Did	Done	doing

For present indefinite tense first form/present form is used for construction of sentences.

6.7 Use of 's, es' With First Form of Verb

The difference of 's or es' addition to verbs could be understood with the rule that verbs ending in following letters "ss, sh, ch, x and o" include 'es', instead of s alone, to form the third person singular: Examples

- ss. kiss + es = kisses
- miss + es = misses
- sh. rush + es = rushes
- ch. catch + es = catches
- match + es = matches
- x, box + es = boxes
- o. go + es = goes,
- do + es = does

6.8 Examples in Kinds of Sentences

Kinds of Sentence	Present Indefinite First, Second and Third person Pronoun	Present Indefinite Third person singular Pronoun
Statement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I go to bed at 11:00. • You go to bed at 11:00. • We go to bed at 11:00. • They go to bed at 11:00. • I usually walk to the store. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Riaz (he) goes to bed at 11:00. • Aliya (she) goes to bed at 11:00. • Kamran pet elephant (it) goes to bed at 11:00. • Asad usually walks to the store
Negative	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I don't go to bed at 11:00. • They do not/ don't read. • I usually don't buy lunch on Thursdays. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She /he does not/ doesn't play. • Jahnzeb does not play tennis. • Raheel often doesn't drive to work.
Question	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do I/we/you/they read? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Does he/she play?
Wh. Question Why, when, where, how	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Why do I/we/you/they play? • Do you buy your groceries at Metro? • What do Nadeem and Tayab usually do on weekends? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Where does he /she live? • Does your pet gorilla bite? • Where does Ali buy his groceries?

Activity

- Complete the sentences by using the words in parentheses. Use the simple present or the present progressive.
 - She (not work).
 - He (teach) his boy to ride.
 - He usually (drink) coffee.
 - Why Amna (not wear) her new dress?
 - Hardly anyone (wear) a hat nowadays.
 - The airplane (fly) at 2,000 metres.
 - What Tayab (do) now?
 - Why you (type) so fast?
 - You (no see) Ansar now.
 - What she (do) in the evenings?
 - I (not have) an umbrella.
 - He usually (speak) so quickly.
 - The kettle (boil) now. Shall I make the tea?
 - You always (write) with your left hand?
 - The milk (smell) sour.
- Write a story using third person pronoun and present indefinite tense showing the some habitual actions and fixed arrangements.

6.9 Past Indefinite

“The crow thought hard for a while. Then, looking around it, he saw some pebbles. He suddenly had a good idea. He started picking up the pebbles one by one, dropping each into the jug. As more and more pebbles filled the jug, the water level kept rising. Soon it was high enough for the crew to drink. His plan had worked!” (moralstories.org)

The following excerpt is taken from the children’s moral story “A Thirsty Crow”. In this paragraph, you can see that the story is narrated in past tense and second form of the verb is used to show the action of the past time. The verbs “thought, saw, had, started, filled and kept” express the action in the past and show past indefinite action.

The simple past tense usually means that this action ended in the past. Simple past can be used for most past actions; we can use it for:

- actions that happened quickly
- actions that happened over time, or
- actions that were habits in the past

6.10 The Use of the Simple Past

The **simple past** is used principally to describe events in the past, but it also has some other uses. Here are the main uses of the simple past.

6.10.1 Finished Events of The Simple Past

- William Shakespeare wrote Hamlet.
- Christoph Columbus discovered America in 1492.

6.10.2 Past Habitual Action

- I visited them every day for a year.
- I drove to work every day when I worked with that company.

6.10.3 Events That Were True For Some time In The Past

- He lived in Paris for 20 years.
- They talked on the phone for ten minutes.

6.10.4 Examples of Simple Past Tense In different Contexts

- I arrived home at five. (This happened in the past.)
- Yesterday I worked on my math homework for three hours. (This happened over time in the past.)

- When he was five, my son watched the drama serial Ainak Wala Jin every day. (This was habit in the past.)
- I didn't drink coffee in college, but I drank it a lot in University days. (These were habits in the past.)
- Did you call me last night? (I want to know if this happened in the past.)
- Where did Rameez sleep last night? (I want to know where this happened in the past.)
- When you were traveling the country, did you call your parents every week? (I want to know if this was a habit in the past.)
- When I was in high school, I didn't study very much. (This wasn't a habit in the past.)

6.10.5 Table

Past Indefinite	Affirmative Sentences	I went You walked. He/She/It drove the car.	We went. They walked.
	Question form	Did I say? Did you appeal? Did he/she it move?	Did we/you/they write a letter?
	Negative form	I did not/ I didn't eat. You did not/ didn't walk. He/She/It did not/ didn't talk.	We did not/didn't sing. You did not/didn't go. They did not/didn't come.

Formation of Past Indefinite Tense

Past Indefinite Tense is formed by usage of 2nd form of the verb. 'ed' is added to regular form of verb.

E.g. walk+ed= walked, talk+ ed= talked, look+ ed= looked etc.

Whereas among irregular verbs 2nd form of is made by the change of verb, e.g. drive= drove, go=went, copy=copied.

Negative sentences are made by changing 2nd form of verb into first form along with the addition of did not/didn't.

E.g She did not/didn't finish the book?

While making the interrogative the helping verb did is put at the start of sentence.

E.g. Did you perform your duty?

Formation of Past Tense.

Generally the simple past tense in regular verbs is formed by adding *ed* to the verb. Verbs ending in *e* add *d* only, e.g hate=hated.

The same form is used for all the three persons pronoun:

- First person. I/we – talked.
- Second person. You – talked
- Third person. He/she/they – talked.

The negative of regular and irregular verbs is formed with addition of *did not* (second form of do not or don't).

- I did not/didn't talk.
- you did not/didn't talk etc.

The interrogative of regular and irregular verbs is formed by putting did at the start of the sentence+ subject + infinitive:

- did I finish? did he/she finish? etc.

Negative interrogative: *did you not/didn't you finish the task?* etc.

6.10.6 Change In Spelling in Changing First Form into Second Form of Verb

i) Double The Last Letter

When the final letter is consonant and before it a vowel appears then the last letter is doubles:

- Stop—stopped
- Travel— travelled
- Admit—admitted

Abide	Abode	Abode
Arise	Arose	Arisen
Awake	Awoke	Awoken
Be	Was/were	Been
Bear	Bore	Born
Beat	Beat	Beaten
Beget	Begot	Begotten
Begin	Began	Begun
Bend	Bent	Bent
Bereave	Bereft	Bereft
Beseech	Besought	Besought
Bespeak	Bespoke	Bespoken
Bestride	Bestrode	Bestrided
Bet	Bet	Bet
Bid	Bade/bid	Bidden/bid
Bind	Bound	Bound

Bite	Bit	Bitten
Bleed	Bled	Bled
Blow	Blew	Blown
Break	Broke	Broken
Breed	Bred	Bred
Bring	Brought	Brought
Broadcast	Broadcast	Broadcast
Build	Built	Built
Burn	Burnt	Burnt
Burst	Burst	Burst
Buy	Bought	Bought
Can	Could	
Cast	Cast	Cast
Catch	Caught	Caught
Choose	Chose	Chosen
Cling	Clung	Clung
Come	Came	Come
Cost	Cost	Cost
Creep	Crept	Crept
Cut	Cut	Cut
Deal	Dealt	Dealt
Dig	Dug	Dug
Do	Did	Done

6.11 Irregular Verbs

These verbs have completely changed second and third forms of verb. A list of common irregular verbs is given below.

6.12 Future Simple

Future is pretty straightforward; it means that the action will happen in the future, in other words, sometime after this moment. Simple future has two different forms in English: "will" and "be going to." Both "will" and "be going to" refer to a specific time in the future. The simple future tense is used for an action that will occur in the future. Like simple past, it can be used for actions that will:

- happen quickly,
- happen over time, or
- happen repeatedly.

6.12.1 Examples

- Jibraan will be here in a second or two. (This action will happen in the future.)
- Tomorrow, Mujahid will apply for a job at Gordon College. (This action will happen in the future.)
- Nabeel is probably going to study his math homework for a few hours at the library. (This action will happen in the future.)
- Tonight Asad and Aziz will watch TV for a few hours after they get home. (This action will happen over time in the future.)
- When is Uzma going to wash the dishes? (I want to know when this action will happen in the future.)
- Ifra won't eat dinner with Uzma and Komal. (This action will not happen in future.)
- When I'm 75 years old, I'll play with my grandchildren every day. (This will be a habit in the future.)

6.13 How Do I Make Simple Future?

The simple future can be made in two ways:

- a) With will
- b) With be going to.

6.13.1 Statements

Statements are constructed using will + simple form.

Examples:

- Jibran will do his homework after he eats dinner.
- I'll call you tomorrow.
- The beatings will continue until morale improves.

Statements can also be constructed using am/is/are going to + simple form

Examples:

- Jibran is going to do his homework after he eats dinner.
- I'm going to call you tomorrow.
- The beatings are going to continue until morale improves.

6.13.2 Negative Statements

Negative statements can be constructed using will + not + simple form.

Examples:

- Waheed won't go to the party because he needs to finish the homework for his English class.
- I will not marry you.
- Fareed and Babar won't attend the meeting tomorrow.

Negative statements can also be constructed using am/is/are + not going to + simple form

Examples:

- Waheed isn't going to go to the party because he needs to finish the homework for his English class.
- I am not going to marry you.
- Fareed and Babar aren't going to attend the lodge meeting tomorrow.

6.13.3 Questions

Questions using will + subject + simple form

Examples:

- Will you be in class tomorrow?
- "When will I get the job of my dreams?" sighed Sidra.
- Who will bell the cat?

Questions using am/is/are + subject + going to + simple form.

Examples:

- Are you going to be in class tomorrow?
- "When am I going to find the job of my dreams?" sighed Sidra.
- Who is going to bell the cat?

6.14 Self-Assessment Questions/Activity

1. Use correct form of verb by using future indefinite Tense.
 - i. I _____ go to school.
 - ii. She _____ cook food in the evening.
 - iii. You _____ drive a car after 6 o'clock.
 - iv. They _____ not complete this task.
 - v. It _____ work automatically.
2. Write down your planned activities for the coming weekend using future simple tense.

6.15 Bibliography

Hweings, M. (2005). *Advance Grammar in Use*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Thomson, A., & Martinet, A. (1997). *A Practical English Grammar*. Ocford University Press.

Valencia, L. L. (2002). *Teaching Technical English Writing*. Palmira: CENIDET.

Wren, & Martin. (2013). *High School English Grammar & Composition*. Islamabad: Paramount Publishing Enterprise.

Unit-7

TENSES-II

**Written by: Dr. Muhammad Ismail Abbassi
and Khuram Dad**

Reviewed by: Dr. Zafar Iqbal

CONTENTS

	<i>Page No.</i>
Introduction	140
Objectives	140
7.1 Present Progressive Tense.....	141
7.1.1 Kinds of Sentences in Present Progressive	141
7.1.2 Uses of Present Progressive	141
7.2 The Simple Past and Past continuous	142
7.1 Simple Past.....	142
7.2 Kinds of Sentences in Present Progressive	143
7.3 Uses of Present Progressive	143
7.3 Simple Future and Future Continuous	144
7.3.1 Form	144
7.3.2 The Future Continuous	144
7.3.3 Kinds of Sentences in Future Progressive	144
7.3.4 Form	145
7.3.5 Uses of Future Progressive Tense	145
7.4 The Present Perfect	147
7.4.1 Kinds of Sentence in Present Perfect	147
7.4.2 Uses of Present Perfect Tense	148
7.5 The Past Perfect Tense.....	149
7.5.1 Form	149
7.5.2 Kinds of Sentences in Past Perfect	151
7.5.3 Uses of Past Perfect Tense.....	151

7.6	The Future Perfect.....	152
7.6.1	Form	152
7.6.2	Kinds of Sentence in Past Perfect.....	152
7.6.3	Uses of Future Perfect Tense.....	153
7.7	The Present Perfect Continuous.....	153
7.7.1	The Use of For.....	154
7.7.2	The Use of Since	154
7.8	Past Perfect Continuous	155
7.8.1	Form	155
7.9	The Future Perfect Progressive.....	156
7.9.1	Form Future Perfect Continuous With ‘Will’	156
7.9.2	Form Future Perfect Continuous With “Be Going To”.....	156
7.10	Bibliography.....	158

INTRODUCTION

In previous Unit you have learned about simple present also known as present indefinite, simple past and simple future tense. In this chapter you are going to learn about construction and usage of remaining tenses. You will see how knowledge of tenses helps you communicate flawlessly.

OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit you will be able to:

1. Explain present continuous, present perfect, present perfect continuous, past continuous, past perfect, past perfect continuous, future continuous, future perfect and future perfect continuous tenses.
2. Construct statements, negative statements and questions in these tenses.
3. Use these tenses effectively in your writing.

7.1 Present Progressive Tense

Shows the action in progress or continuous condition

Use of Present Progressive

- The present progressive expresses an activity that is in progress.
- The event is in progress at the time the speaker is saying the sentence.
- The event began in the past, is in progress now, and will probably continue into future.

	Simple present	Present progressive
Statement	She plays.	She is playing
Negative	She does not play.	She is not playing
Question	Does she play?	Is she playing?

7.1.1 Kinds of Sentences in Present Progressive

Kinds of Sentence	Present Progressive First and Second person Pronoun Subject+ am/are+verb+ing	Present Indefinite Third person singular Pronoun Subject+ is+verb+ing
Statement	I am writing a story. We/You/They are singing songs.	He /She is playing cricket.
Negative	I am not writing a story. We/You/They are not singing songs.	She /he is not playing cricket.
Question	Am I writing a story? Are we/you/they singing songs?	Is she/he playing cricket?
Wh. Question Why, when, where, how	Why am I writing a story? Why are /we/you/they singing songs?	Where is he/she playing cricket?

7.1.2 Uses of Present Progressive

1. Present continuous is used for actions taking place in present time

- He is playing cricket.
- It is raining heavily.
- Uzair is doing his work.

2. Time of present showing actions about the same duration in a general sense.

- Ali is reading a book now a days.
- Adnan is teaching literature in Gordon College.
- Ahmad is learning English in a university.

3. **For an arrangement about future times.**
 - We are going to watch a movie tonight.
 - Saima is travelling to Lahore tomorrow.
 - Today Pakistan is playing T20 against Australia in the evening.
4. **For actions starting at a fixed point and continuing in future.**
 - At evening I am reading books.
 - He is walking at 6 AM in the morning.
 - They are playing hockey from 5 o'clock in the evening.
5. **Present Progressive is used with “always” in affirmative sentences.**
 - She is always cooking at night time.
 - Ali is always coming late to college.
 - It is always raining in this season.

Activity

Directions: Complete the sentences by using the words in parentheses. Use the simple present or the present progressive.

- A. She (not work), she (swim) in the river.
- B. He (teach) his boy to ride.
- C. He usually (drink) coffee but today he (drink) tea.
- D. Why Amna (not wear) her new dress?
- E. Hardly anyone (wear) a hat nowadays.
- F. The airplane (fly) at 2,000 metres.
- G. What Tayab (do) now? He (clean) his shoes.
- H. Why you (type) so fast? You (make) a lot of mistakes.
- I. You can't see Ansar now: he (have) a bath.
- J. What she (do) in the evenings?
- K. I won't go out now as it (rain) and I -(not have) an umbrella.
- L. He usually (speak) so quickly that I (not understand) him.
- M. The kettle (boil) now. Shall I make the tea?
- N. You always (write) with your left hand?
- O. The milk (smell) sour. You (keep) milk a long time?

7.2 The Simple Past and Past Continuous

7.2.1 Simple Past

Simple Past expresses the idea that an **action started and finished** at a specific time in the past. (e.g., yesterday, last night, two days ago, in 1999).

The **PAST CONTINUOUS** expresses an activity that was in progress (was occurring, was happening), at a point of time in the past (e.g., at 6:10) or at the time of another action (e.g., when Tom came).

FORM: was/were + -ing form (present participle)

Let's have a look at few examples.

- a. I sat down at the dinner table at 6:00 P.M. yesterday.
Tom came to my house at 6:10 P.M.
I was eating dinner when Tom came.
- b. I went to bed at 10:00. The phone rang at 11:00.
I was sleeping when the phone rang.

7.2.2 Kinds of Sentences in Present Progressive

Kinds of Sentence	Present Progressive First and Second person Pronoun Subject+ was/were+verb+ing	Present Indefinite Third person singular Pronoun Subject+ was+verb+ing
Statement	I was reading a book. We/You/They were talking.	He /She is cooking the meal.
Negative	I was not writing a story. We/You/They are not playing hockey.	She /He is not walking on the road.
Question	Was I singing a song? Were we/you/they singing songs?	Was she/he driving the car?
Wh. Question Why, when, where, how	Why was I operating the computer? Why were /we/you/they listening the news?	Where was he/she sitting in the ground?

7.2.3 Uses of Present Progressive

1. **Past continuous is used for actions taking place in past time:**
 - He was playing hockey.
 - It was getting dark.
 - Ahmad was performing his duty.
2. **Past tense is utilized without a time expression, it shows gradual progress:**
 - Saira was walking at evening time and it was getting darker.
 - It was raining heavily.
 - The sun was rising.

3. **Past progressive tense is used with a moment in time where an action starts before that exact time and continues in future as well.**
 - At 7 o'clock we were playing football.
 - We were watching a movie at 9 PM.
 - Pakistan was playing T20 against Sri Lanka at six in the evening.
4. **This tense is used to show descriptions of events.**
 - The house was burning on fire and the dog was sleeping near it.
 - The singer was playing piano and the audience was enjoying themselves.
 - The birds were chirping in the evening time and the children were playing in the ground.
1. **For actions starting at a fixed point and continuing in future. Similar to present progressive, Past Progressive is also used to show future arrangement in the past.**
 - Ahmar was busy in packing as he was leaving for Lahore that night.
 - At evening I was reading a novel for I planned to teach it the next morning.
 - He was exercising at 6 AM in the morning as he was planning to remain healthy.
2. **Present Progressive also shows temporary habits and repeated actions.**
 - She was eating one meal a day in those days.
 - At that time Ali was coming late to college.
 - In that season it was raining heavily.

Activity

Put the verbs in brackets into the simple present or the present continuous tense.

- i. I lit the fire at 6.00 and it (burn) brightly when Tariq came in at 7.00.
- ii. I (make) a cake when the light went out. I had to finish it in the dark.
- iii. He (watch) TV when the phone rang. Very unwillingly he (turn) down the sound and (go) to answer it.
- iv. He was very polite. Whenever his wife entered the room he (stand) up.
- v. He always (wear) a raincoat and (carry) an umbrella when he walked to the office.
- vi. He suddenly (realize) that he (travel) in the wrong direction.
- vii. When I (look) for my passport I (find) this old photograph.
- viii. He (not allow) us to go out in the boat yesterday as a strong wind (blow).
- ix. As I (cross) the road I (step) on a banana skin and (fall) heavily.
- x. Why you (interrupt) me just now? I (have) a very interesting conversation with Mr Ramzan.

7.3 Simple Future and Future Continuous

Simple future has two different forms in English: "will" and "be going to." Both "will" and "be going to" refer to a specific time in the future. The simple future tense is used for an action that will occur in the future. E.g.

- i. I will go.
- ii. We will celebrate our anniversary by flying to New York.
- iii. I am going to leave at nine tomorrow morning.
- iv. I shall leave at nine tomorrow morning.

Be going to is followed by the simple form of the verb as in (c). The use of shall (with I or we) to express future time is less frequent now a days.

7.3.1 Form

[will + verb]

[am/is/are + going to + verb]

7.3.2 The Future Continuous

The future continuous tense is used for an on-going action that will occur in the future. Future Continuous has two different forms: "will be doing" and "be going to be doing." E.g.

- a. You **will be waiting** for her when her plane arrives tonight.
- b. You **are going to be waiting** for her when her plane arrives tonight.
- c. I will be going.
- d. The Lucky Irani Circus will be performing in Lahore for the next 3 weeks.

7.3.3 Kinds of Sentences in Future Progressive

Kinds of Sentence	Future Progressive Subject+ will be was/were+verb+ing	Future Progressive Pronoun Subject+ Will be +verb+ing
Statement	I will be reading a book. We/You/They will be talking.	He /She will be cooking the meal.
Negative	I will not be writing a story. We/You/They will not be playing table tennis.	She /He will not be walking on the foot path.
Question	Will I be singing a song? Will we/you/they be singing songs?	Will she/he be driving the car?
Wh. Question Why, when, where, how	Why will I be working on the computer? Why will /we/you/they be listening the news?	Where will he/she be sitting on the campus?

7.3.4 Form

[will be + present participle]

[am/is/are + going to be + present participle]

7.3.5 Uses of Future Progressive Tense

1. **Future progressive is used for activities that will be remain in progress at a specific time in future.**
 - Tomorrow at this time I will be going to Karachi.
 - They will be sitting in the zoo at this time after a week.
 - You will be playing cricket next Sunday.
2. **For routine events of future time.**
 - You will be playing hockey tonight.
 - I will be meeting my supervisor tomorrow.
 - She will be going to Lahore day after tomorrow.
3. **For statements and information:**
 - Dear Ali, you will be working here.
 - In the evening we will be sharing our dinner.
 - They will be walking in the garden tonight.

Activity

Using the words in parentheses, complete the text below with the appropriate Future tenses.

1. Sidra: Where is Tim going to meet us?
Mateen: He (wait)_____ for us when our train arrives. I am sure he (stand) _____ on the platform when we pull into the station.
Sidra: And then what?
Mateen: We (pick)_____ Mujahid up at work and go out to dinner.
2. **Ayesha:** Oh, look at that mountain of dirty dishes! Who (wash) _____ all of those? **Shoaib:** I promise I (do) _____ them when I get home from work. **Ayesha:** Thanks. **Shoaib:** When you get home this evening, that mountain will be gone and nice stacks of sparkling clean dishes (sit)_____ in the cabinets.
3. **Zafar:** If you need to contact me next week, I (stay) _____ at the Marriot Hotel. **Nargis:** I (call) _____ you if there are any problems. **Zafar:** This is the first time I have ever been away from the kids. **Nargis:** Don't worry, they (be) _____ fine.

7.4 The Present Perfect

The **PRESENT PERFECT** expresses an activity or situation that occurred (or did not occur) before now, at some unspecified time in the past. An activity may be repeated two, several, or more times before now, at unspecified times in the past.

Present perfect is used when we are thinking about past and present together. Present perfect is not used for present only. Analyse the examples given below.

- a. Komal has learnt French. (she can use it now)
- b. We have studied enough to pass the exam.
- c. I have visited this restaurant several times.

In example (a) komal has learnt French and she is probably using it, in (b) exams are yet to be conducted, and in (c) the restaurant has been visited in past and they are in it right now. So all sentences are connected to past and present as well.

It is formed as:

Has/have+ past participle.

Komal has learnt (past participle) French.

When the present perfect is used with since or for, it expresses situations that began in the past and continue to the Present.

- d. We've been in class since 10 o'clock in the morning.
Class started at ten. We are still in class now, at the moment of speaking.

7.4.1 Kinds of Sentence in Present Perfect

Kinds of Sentence	Present Perfect Subject+ has-have + Past Participle	Present Perfect Subject+ has-have + Past Participle
Statement	I have written a story. We/You/They have talked on social issue.	He /She has cooked the food.
Negative	I have not written a novel. We/You/They have not finished the book.	She /He has not walked on the road.
Question	Have I played piano? Have we/you/they played well in the game?	Has she/he driven the car?
Wh. Question Why, when, where, how	Why have I worked as a clerk? Why have /we/you/they watched the TV?	Where has he/she gone in the city?

7.4.2 Uses of Present Perfect Tense

1. **This tense shows an action that is completed in the past time but the exact time of action is unknown.**
 - I have read Bano Qudia's Raja Gidh.
 - I have gone through this book.
 - We have completed our task.
2. **Present Perfect expresses an action that finished in the past and might occur again.**
 - Mohsin Hamid has written a number of novels.
 - Kamila Shamsie has composed many tales.
 - Misbah Ul Haq has won a lot of matches.
3. **This tense can be used for routine and habitual actions.**
 - He has always answered my phone calls.
 - I have never been late for my work in last five years.
 - We have listened a lot of stories from our grandmother.
4. **Present Perfect indicates the action that continues throughout the incomplete period.**
 - He has been in the Air Force in the last two years.
 - She has studied in this university for last three semesters.
 - They have taught this course for five years in this institute.
5. **For the actions that are completed at the time of speaking.**
 - Ali said to Hassan, "I have not seen you for ages".
 - This class room has not been cleaned in a long time.
 - We have just read this book.

Activity

Put the verbs in brackets into the present perfect.

- i. He (overwork). That is why he looks so tired.
- ii. Her phone (ring) several times.
- iii. He (not smoke) in the last week. He is trying to give it up.
- iv. I can't go out because I (not finish) my work.
- v. Right now we're in class. We (do) an exercise. We (do) this exercise for a couple of minutes.

7.5 The Past Perfect Tense

The Past Perfect expresses the idea that something occurred before another action in the past. The Past Perfect expresses an activity that was completed before a particular time in the past. e.g.

- a. I was not hungry at 1:00 P.M. I had already eaten.
- b. I had eaten when Bob came.

7.5.1 Form

[had + past participle]

[will be + present participle]

[am/is/are + going to be + present participle]

Uses of Future Progressive Tense

1. Future progressive is used for activities that will be remain in progress at a specific time in future.

- Tomorrow at this time I will be going to Karachi.
- They will be sitting in the zoo at this time after a week.
- You will be playing cricket next Sunday.

2. For routine events of future time.

- You will be playing hockey tonight.
- I will be meeting my supervisor tomorrow.
- She will be going to Lahore day after tomorrow.

3. For statements and information:

- Dear Ali, you will be working here.
- In the evening we will be sharing our dinner.
- They will be walking in the garden tonight.

Activity

Using the words in parentheses, complete the text below with the appropriate Future tenses.

1. Sidra: Where is Tim going to meet us? Mateen: He (wait) _____ for us when our train arrives. I am sure he (stand) _____ on the platform when we pull into the station. Sidra: And then what? Mateen: We (pick) _____ Mujahid up at work and go out to dinner.
2. **Ayesha:** Oh, look at that mountain of dirty dishes! Who (wash) _____ all of those?

3. **Shoaib:** I promise I (do) _____ them when I get home from work.
Ayesha: Thanks.
4. **Shoaib:** When you get home this evening, that mountain will be gone and nice stacks of sparkling clean dishes (sit)_____ in the cabinets.
5. **Zafar:** If you need to contact me next week, I (stay) _____ at the Marriot Hotel.
6. **Nargis:** I (call) _____ you if there are any problems.
7. **Zafar:** This is the first time I have ever been away from the kids.
8. **Nargis:** Don't worry, they (be) _____ fine.

The Present Perfect

The **PRESENT PERFECT** expresses an activity or situation that occurred (or did not occur) before now, at some unspecified time in the past. An activity may be repeated two, several, or more times before now, at unspecified times in the past.

Present perfect is used when we are thinking about past and present together. Present perfect is not used for present only. Analyse the examples given below.

- A. Komal has learnt French. (she can use it now)
- B. We have studied enough to pass the exam.
- C. I have visited this restaurant several times.

In example

- (a) komal has learnt French and she is probably using it, in
- (b) exams are yet to be conducted, and in
- (c) the restaurant has been visited in past and they are in it right now. So all sentences are connected to past and present as well.

It is formed as:

Has/have+ past participle.

Komal has learnt (past participle) French.

When the present perfect is used with since or for, it expresses situations that began in the past and continue to the Present.

- e. We' been in class since 10 o'clock in the morning.

Class started at ten. We are still in class now, at the moment of speaking.

7.6.2 Kinds of Sentences in Past Perfect

Kinds of Sentence	Present Perfect Subject+ has-have + Past Participle	Present Perfect Subject+ has-have + Past Participle
Statement	I have written a story. We/You/They have talked on social issue.	He /She has cooked the food.
Negative	I have not written a novel. We/You/They have not finished the book.	She /He has not walked on the road.
Question	Have I played piano? Have we/you/they played well in the game?	Has she/he driven the car?
Wh. Question Why, when, where, how	Why have I worked as a clerk? Why have /we/you/they watched the TV?	Where has he/she gone in the city?

7.6.3 Uses of Past Perfect Tense

- This tense shows an action that is completed in the past time but the exact time of action is unknown.**
 - I have read Bano Qudia's Raja Gidh.
 - I have gone through this book.
 - We have completed our task.
- Present Perfect expresses an action that finished in the past and might occur again.**
 - Mohsin Hamid has written a number of novels.
 - Kamila Shamsie has composed many tales.
 - Misbah ul Haq has won a lot of matches.
- This tense can be used for routine and habitual actions.**
 - He has always answered my phone calls.
 - I have never been late for my work in last five years.
 - We have listened a lot of stories from our grandmother.
- Present Perfect indicates the action that continues throughout the incomplete period.**
 - He has been in the Air Force in the last two years.
 - She has studied in this university for last three semesters.
 - They have taught this course for five years in this institute.

5. For the actions that are completed at the time of speaking.

- Ali said to Hassan, "I have not seen you for ages".
- This class room has not been cleaned in a long time.
- We have just read this book.

Activity

Put the verbs in brackets into the present perfect.

1. He (overwork). That is why he looks so tired.
2. Her phone (ring) several times
3. He (not smoke) in the last week. He is trying to give it up.
4. I can't go out because I (not finish) my work
5. Right now we're in class. We (do) an exercise. We (do) this exercise for a couple of minutes.

7.6 The Future Perfect

The Past Perfect expresses the idea that something occurred before another action in the past. The Past Perfect expresses an activity that was completed before a particular time in the past. e.g.

- a. I was not hungry at 1:00 P.M. I had already eaten.
- b. I had eaten when Bob came.

7.6.1 Form

[had + past participle]

7.6.2 Kinds of Sentence in Past Perfect

Kinds of Sentence	Present Perfect Subject+ had + Past Participle	Present Perfect Subject+ had + Past Participle
Statement	I had written a novel. We/You/They had talked on social issue.	He /She had cooked the food.
Negative	I had not written a novel. We/You/They had not finished the book.	She /He had not walked on the road.
Question	Had I played piano? Had we/you/they played well in the game?	Had she/he driven the car?
Wh. Question Why, when, where, how	Why had I worked as a clerk? Why had /we/you/they watched the TV?	Where had he/she gone in the city?

7.6.3 Uses of Past Perfect Tense

1. **Past Perfect expresses an action that finished before another activity or time.**
 - By the time I got home, our guests had already arrived.
 - Before she reached the hall, the exam had already begun.
 - As they reached the ground, the match had started.
2. **This tense expresses the action that started before the time and finished at the time of speaking.**
 - The 100 year old building suddenly fell down.
 - The twenty years friendship between Ali and Ahmad had broken with a fight.
 - The old house had crushed owing to the earthquake.
3. **The writer uses this tense to narrate the incidents of the past.**
 - They met in Rawalpindi in 1990. He had last seen her five years ago.

Activity

Complete the sentences given below using the Past Perfect Tense.

When I arrived at the theatre, Khalid (pick, already) _____ up the tickets and she was waiting for us near the entrance. She was really angry because she (wait) _____ for more than half an hour. She said she (give, almost) _____ up and (go) _____ into the theatre without us.

7.7 The Present Perfect Continuous

The present perfect continuous expresses the duration (length of time) of an activity that began in the past and is in progress right now. E.g

- a. Munazza has been sitting in class since nine o'clock.
- b. Munzza has been sitting in class for thirty minutes.

It is formed as:

Have been/has been + verb+ing

Activity

Put the verbs in brackets into the present perfect and present perfect continuous tense.

- Her phone (ring) for ten minutes.
- He (live) in London for two years.
- I (not see) him for three years. I wonder where he is.
- He (not smoke) for two weeks. He is trying to give it up.

7.7.1 The Use of For

For is used when the duration is measured and when the length of an action is taken into consideration.

For + a period of time. To measure a period of time up to the present. The present perfect tense is used and not the present tense.

- I **have worked here** for a long time. (Correct) I **work** here for a long time. (Incorrect)
- He **has lived** in this apartment for ten years. (Correct) He **lives** in this apartment for ten years. (Incorrect)

The present tense with **For** refers to a period of time that extends into the future.

- How long are you here for? (Until when)
- How long have you been here for? (Since when)

7.7.2 The Use of Since

Since gives the starting point of actions, events or states. It refers to when things began.

Since + a point in time (in the past), until now.

- I've been waiting **since** 7 o'clock.
- I have known him **since** January.

With **since** we use the present perfect tense or the past perfect tense.

- I *have been* here **since** 5 o'clock and I am getting tired.
- I *had been working* **since** 5 o'clock and I was getting tired.

Since can also be used in the structure **It has been + period of time + since.**

- It has been two months since I last saw her.
- It has been three years since the last earthquake.

Activity

Answer the questions using present continuous tense.

Example:

TEACHER: Where are you living?

RESPONSE: I'm living in an apartment on Fourth Avenue.

TEACHER: HOW long have you been living there?

RESPONSE: I've been living there since last September.

- i. Right now you are sitting in class. How long have you been sitting here?

- ii. When did you first begin to study English? How long have you been studying English?
- iii. I began to teach English in 2009. How long have I been teaching English?
- iv. I began to work at this school in 2012. How long have I been working here?
- v. What are we doing right now? How long have we been doing it?
- vi. Who drives? When did you first drive a car? How long have you been driving?
- vii. Who can use computer? How long have you been using computer?
- viii. Who uses electronic dictionary? How long have you been using electronic dictionary?

7.8 Past Perfect Continuous

We use the **Past Perfect Continuous** to show that something started in the past and continued up until another time in the past. "For five minutes" and "for two weeks" are both durations which can be used with the Past Perfect Continuous. Notice that this is related to the Present Perfect Continuous; however, the duration does not continue until now, it stops before something else in the past.

7.8.1 Form

[Had been + present participle]

Let's look at few examples.

- a. You **had been waiting** there for more than two hours when she finally arrived.
- b. They **had been talking** for over an hour before Tahir arrived.
- c. Javeed **had been teaching** at the university for more than a year before he left for Asia.

Activity

Using the words in parentheses, Complete the text below with the appropriate tenses.

I'm sorry I left without you last night, but I told you to meet me early because the show started at 8:00. I (try) _____ to get tickets for that play for months, and I didn't want to miss it. By the time I finally left the coffee shop where we were supposed to meet, I (have) _____ five cups of coffee and I (wait) _____ over an hour. I had to leave because I (arrange) _____ to meet Khalid in front of the theatre.

7.9 The Future Perfect Progressive

This tense is used for an on-going action that will be completed at some specified time in the future. There will be a time reference, such as “since 1980, for three hours” from which the action will start in future and will continue. A sense of time reference is found which gives an idea that action will start at some time in future and will continue for some time. Future Perfect Continuous has two different forms: "will have been doing " and "be going to have been doing."

7.9.1 Form Future Perfect Continuous With ‘Will’

[will have been + present participle]

Example

- You **will have been waiting** for more than two hours when her plane finally arrives.
- Will you **have been waiting** for more than two hours when her plane finally arrives?

7.9.2 Form Future Perfect Continuous With “Be Going To”

[am/is/are + going to have been + present participle]

Example

- You **are going to have been waiting** for more than two hours when her plane finally arrives.
- **Are you going to have been waiting** for more than two hours when her plane finally arrives?

Activity

Using the words in parentheses, complete the text below with the appropriate tenses.

- i. By the time you finish studying the verb tense tutorial, you (master) _____ all twelve tenses including their passive forms.
- ii. Come over to my house around 9 o'clock. By then, I (complete) _____ my history essay and we can go see a movie.
- iii. **Adnan:** When are going to get your bachelor's degree, Fatima?
- iv. **Fatima:** I am going to finish my degree next June. By the time I graduate, I (go) _____ to four different colleges and universities, and I (study) _____ for more than seven years.

Adnan: Wow, that's a long time!

Fatima: And I plan to continue on to get a Ph.D.

Fatima: Really? How long is that going to take?

Anne: By the time I finally finish studying, I (be) _____ a student for over 13 years.

- i. In June, my grandmother and grandfather (be) _____ married for fifty years.
- ii. Come over to my house around 9 o'clock. By then, I (complete) _____ my history essay and we can go see a movie.

7.10 Bibliography

- Hweings, M. (2005). *Advance Grammar in Use*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Thomson, A., & Martinet, A. (1997). *A Practical English Grammar*. Ocford University Press.
- Valencia, L. L. (2002). *Teaching Technical English Writing*. Palmira: CENIDET.
- Wren, & Martin. (2013). *High School English Grammar & Composition*. Islamabad: Paramount Publishing Enterprise.

Unit–8

VOICE AND NARRATION

Written by: Khuram Dad

Reviewed by: Dr. Zafar Iqbal

CONTENTS

	<i>Page No.</i>
Introduction	162
Objectives	162
8.1 What is Voice?	163
8.1.1 Active Voice	163
8.1.2 Passive Voice	163
8.2 Formation of Passive Voice from Active Voice	163
8.3 Changes in the Tenses.....	165
8.3.1 Present Indefinite	165
8.3.2 Present Continuous	165
8.3.3 Present Perfect	165
8.3.4 Present Perfect Continuous	166
8.3.5 Past Indefinite	166
8.3.6 Past Continuous	166
8.3.7 Past Perfect.....	167
8.3.8 Past Perfect Continuous	167
8.3.9 Future Indefinite	167
8.3.10 Future Continuous.....	167
8.3.11 Future Perfect.....	168
8.3.12 Future Perfect Continuous	168
8.4 Imperative Sentences	168
8.4.1 Negative Sentences (Imperative)	169
8.5 Direct and Indirect Speech.....	169
8.5.1 Direct Speech	169

8.5.2	Indirect Speech.....	169
8.5.3	Rules regarding the Change of Personal Pronouns.....	170
8.5.4	Rules Regarding the Changes in Tenses.....	171
8.6	Changes in Modal Verbs.....	173
8.7.	Rules for the Changes of Adverbs in Indirect Speech	175
8.8	Types of Sentences	175
8.8.1	Declarative Sentences	175
8.8.2	Interrogative Sentences	176
8.8.3	Imperative Sentences	178
8.8.4	Portative Sentences	179
8.8.5	Exclamatory Sentences	180
8.9	Bibliography	182

INTRODUCTION

This unit covers two important topics, change of voice and narration. The first portion has been dedicated to change of voice from active to passive and passive to active. The unit provides ample examples to you to be able to understand the two voices of verb and convert them. The second portion contains basic rules for the change of narration. There are examples and activities for you so that by the end of unit you may be able to convert one form of narration into another. Both of these elements of grammar are crucial for good command over use of English language.

OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit you will be able to:

1. Understand the difference between active and passive voice.
2. Change sentences from active voice into passive voice.
3. Remove errors in both forms of voice.
4. Understand difference between direct and indirect form of speech.
5. Change one form of narration into another.

8.1 What is Voice

In the verb section it has been discussed that there are transitive verbs and intransitive verbs. The transitive verbs have two voices. Voice is the form of a verb which shows whether the subject does something or has something done to it. In English language, verb has two voices:

1. Active Voice
2. Passive Voice

8.2.1 Active Voice

A verb is in the active voice when its subject does something, or in simple words the active voice indicates that the subject is performing the action and is moving the sentence along. e.g.

- He writes a letter.
- We eat oranges.
- They play hockey.
- I buy furniture.

In these sentences the subjects (he, we, they, I) do something, so, the verbs used are said to be in the Active Voice.

8.2.2 Passive Voice

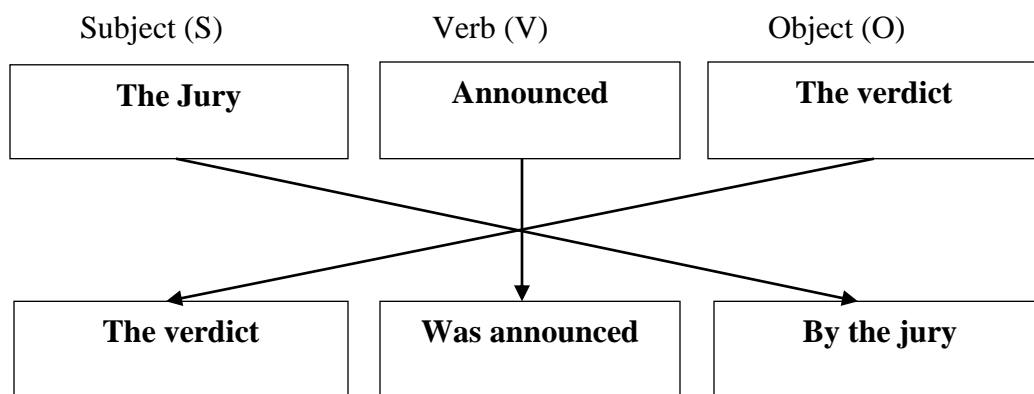
A verb is in the passive voice when something is done to its subject, or in simple words the passive voice indicates that the action of the verb is being performed upon the subject. The subject is not doer rather is acted upon by some other agent.

- A letter is written by him.
- Oranges are eaten by them.
- Hockey is played by them.
- Furniture is bought by me.

In these sentences, the subjects (letter, oranges, hockey, furniture) are acted upon, they remain inactive or passive and their verbs are, therefore, said to be in the passive voice.

8.2 Formation of Passive Voice from Active Voice

1. Only transitive verbs (verbs that take direct object) can be used in the passive voice. When an active verb is changed into the passive, the direct object of the active verb becomes the subject of the passive verb. The structure changes like this that S+V+O becomes O+V+by+S. For example:



Here is another example:

Active Voice: Hamza delivered a wonderful speech.

Passive Voice: A wonderful speech was delivered by Hamza.

- When a verb has two objects, only one of them can be used as the subject in the passive voice, and the second one will remain as it is. (will remain the same). If such situation (two objects in a sentence) does exist then we, normally, convert the inanimate object into the subject and use “to” before the animated object.

Active Voice:

He gave me a new pen.

Passive Voice:

A new pen was given to me by him.

However, we can convert the animated object into subject, then, don’t use “to”.

Passive Voice:

I was given a new pen by him.

While going through this process (from active into passive) change the subject into the object and the object into the subject.

- Third form of verb is used in the passive voice.
- Use “by” after the third form of verb and before the object.

5. The subjective form of Pronouns is changed into objective form.

Active Voice

Passive Voice

Me

We

You

He

She

They

Who

Us

You

Him

Her

Them

By whom

8.3 Changes in the Tenses

According to the Tense of the sentence different verbs are used in formation of passive voice. Below are the changes of verbs in all tenses.

8.3.1 Present Indefinite

In active voice of Present Indefinite Tense first form of verb with addition of 's or es' is used with third person singular. While in passive voice we use is / are with 3rd form of verb. The structure of passive voice of Present Indefinite Tense would be like this:

S+ is/am/are+ V3(3rd form of verb) + by+ O

Active: He writes a letter.

Passive: A Letter is written by him

Active: We play cricket.

Passive: Cricket is played by us.

8.3.2 Present Continuous

In formation of passive voice of Present Continuous Tense we use '**is being**' with singular and '**are being**' with plural. The structure of passive voice of Present Continuous Tense would be like this:

S + is/am/are + Being + V3 + by + o

Active: He is writing a letter.

Passive: A letter is being written by him.

Active: We are watching T.V.

Passive: T.V. is being watched by us.

8.3.3 Present Perfect

When the active sentence is in Present Perfect Tense we use '**has been**' with third form of verb when the object is singular and '**have been**' when the object is plural. The structure of passive voice of Present Perfect Tense would be like this:

S + has/have + been + V3 + by + O

Active: He has written a letter.
Passive: A letter has been written by him.
Active: We have won the match.
Passive: The match has been won by us.

8.3.4 Present Perfect Continuous

When the active sentence is in Present Perfect Continuous Tense we use '**has been being**' with third form of verb, when the object is singular we use '**have been being**' with the object is plural. The structure of passive voice of Present Perfect Continuous Tense would be like this:

S + have/has + been + being + V3 + by + O

Active: He has been writing a letter.
Passive: A letter has been being written by him.
Active: Jalil has not/hasn't been teaching the basic classes for more than six years.
Passive: The basic classes haven't been being taught by Jalil for more than six years.

8.3.5 Past Indefinite

In Past Indefinite Tense we use second form of verb in active voice sentences. While converting such sentences into passive voice we use third form of verb with helping verbs 'was and were' keeping in view the number of subject. The structure of passive voice of Past Indefinite Tense would be like this:

S + was/were + V3 + by + O

Active: He wrote a letter.
Passive: A letter was written by him.
Active: She wrote many letters.
Passive: Many letters were written by her.

8.3.6 Past Continuous

In Past Continuous Tense we use present participle (-ing form of verb) and was/were as helping verbs in active voice sentences. While converting such sentences into passive voice we use third form of verb with helping verbs '**was/were being**' keeping in view the number of subject. The structure of passive voice of Past Continuous Tense would be like this:

S + was/were + being + V3 + by + O

Active: He was writing a letter.
Passive: A letter was being written by him.
Active: They were solving maths problems.
Passive: Maths problems were being solved by them.

8.3.7 Past Perfect

In Past Perfect Tense we use 'had' with third form of verb in active voice sentences. While converting such sentences into passive voice we use '**had been**' and third form of verb. The structure of passive voice of Past perfect Tense would be like this:

S + had been + V3 + by + O

Active: He had written a letter.

Passive: A letter had been written by him.

Active: We had finished our work.

Passive: Our work had been finished by us.

8.3.8 Past Perfect Continuous

In Past Perfect Continuous tense we use 'had been' with Present participle (-ing form of verb) in active voice sentences. While converting such sentences into passive voice we use '**had been being**' and third form of verb. The structure of passive voice of Past Perfect Continuous Tense would be like this:

S + had been being + V3 + by + O

Active: He had been writing a letter.

Passive: A letter had been being written by him.

Active: Chef Kamal had been preparing dishes in this restaurant for two years.

Passive: Dishes had been being prepared by chef Kamal in this restaurant for two years.

8.3.9 Future Indefinite

In Future Indefinite Tense we use 'will or shall' with first form of verb in active voice sentences. In passive voice form of these sentences we use 'will/shall be' with third form of verb. The structure of passive voice of Future Indefinite Tense would be like this:

S + Will/shall be + V3 + by + O

Active: He will write a letter.

Passive: A letter will be written by him.

Active: I shall not watch TV.

Passive: TV will not be watched by me.

8.3.10 Future Continuous

In Future Continuous Tense we use 'will or shall be' with Present participle (-ing form of verb) in active voice sentences. In passive voice form of these sentences we use '**will/shall be being**' with third form of verb. The structure of passive voice of Future Continuous Tense would be like this:

S + Will/shall be being + V3 + by + O

Active: He will be writing a letter.

Passive: A letter will be being written by him.

Active: He is going to be reciting the Holy Quran after praying tomorrow morning.

Passive: The Holy Quran will be being recited by him after praying tomorrow morning

8.3.11 Future Perfect

In Future Perfect Tense we use ‘will/shall have’ with third form of verb in active voice sentences. In passive voice form of these sentences we use ‘**will/shall have been**’ with third form of verb. The structure of passive voice of Future Perfect Tense would be like this:

S + Will/shall have been + V3 + by + O

Active: He will have written a letter.

Passive: A letter will have been written by him.

Active: I shall have learnt the lesson.

Passive: The lesson will have been learnt by me.

8.3.12 Future Perfect Continuous

The passive voice of this tense is rarely made or used in practical. However if we have to make passive of Future Perfect Continuous Tense we use ‘**will have been being**’ with third form of verb. The structure of passive voice of Future Perfect Continuous Tense would be like this:

S + Will/shall have been being + V3 + by + O

Active: He will have been writing a letter.

Passive: A letter will have been being written by him.

Active: We will have been teaching English for two years at Learn ESL.

Passive: English will have been being taught by us for two years at Learn ESL.

8.4 Imperative Sentences

When a sentence expresses a command, request or advice, it is called imperative sentence. Such sentences usually begin with a verb. Imperative sentences don’t have a known subject because it is addressed directly to a listener. So in passive voice also the subject is unknown. There are three rules for converting imperative sentences into passive voice:

- i. Begin the passive voice sentence with ‘let’
- ii. The word ‘be’ is used as an auxiliary verb in passive voice of imperative sentences.
- iii. Verb changes into third form of verb in passive sentences.

Active: Open the door.
 Passive: Let the door be opened.
 Active: Help the needy.
 Passive: Let the needy be helped.
 Active: Learn the poem.
 Passive: Let the poem be learned or you are asked to learn the poem.
 Active: Carry it home.
 Passive: Let it be carried home.
 Active: Do it at once.
 Passive: Let it be done at once.

8.4.1 Negative Sentences (Imperative)

Start the sentence with “let not”

Active: Do not open the door.
 Passive: Let not the door be opened. Or Let the door not be opened.
 Active: Do not beat the dog.
 Passive: Let the dog not be beaten.

8.5 Direct and Indirect Speech

Words spoken by a person can be reported to another person in two ways. Either we quote the same words of that individual or we convey his message in our own words. These two ways of narration are called direct speech and indirect speech.

8.5.1 Direct Speech

When we use direct speech we quote the actual words said by the speaker.

Examples are:

She said, ‘I am going to the market.’

Javeed said, ‘I will be late today.’

Aliya said, ‘Would you like to come with me?’

You may notice that sentences in above examples have two parts, there are words outside inverted commas and there are words inside inverted commas. The words outside inverted commas are called **reporting speech** and words inside inverted commas are called **reported speech**.

8.5.2 Indirect Speech

When we use indirect speech, we do not quote the exact words said by the speaker. Instead, we express the idea in our own words.

In order to report the words of the original speaker in our own language, we have to make several changes. The important rules are given below:

8.5.3 Rules Regarding The Change of Personal Pronouns

Pronouns and Adjectives must change while transforming into a reported speech. First and second person pronouns and possessive adjectives normally change to the third person except when the speaker is reporting his own words.

I	He/she
Me	Him, her
My	His, her
Mine	His, hers
We	They

Normally we make the following changes in the pronoun of the reported speech.

- i. The first person pronoun (I, my, me, we, us) of reported speech is changed according to the pronoun of reporting speech in case if it is third person (he, she, it, they, their, his, her).

Examples:

Direct: She says, “**I** have done **my** duty.”
Indirect: She says that **she** has done **her** duty.
Direct: He said, “I work in factory.”
Indirect: He said that he works in a factory.

- ii. The first person pronoun (I, my, me, we, us) of reported speech is **NOT** changed if the reporting person is first person.

Examples:

Direct: I said, “**I** had applied for the visa.”
Indirect: I said that **I** had applied for the visa.
Direct: We said, “**we** sing a song.”
Indirect: We said that **we** sang a song.

- iii. The second person pronoun (you, your) of the reported speech is changed according to the Object of the reporting speech.

Direct: She said to **me**, “**you** are a brilliant architect.”
Indirect: She said to **me** that **I** was a brilliant architect.
Direct: She said to **me**, “**your** poems are mesmerizing.”
Indirect: She said to **me** that **my** poems were mesmerizing.

8.5.4 Rules Regarding the Changes in Tenses

When the reporting verb is in the present or future tense...

If the reporting verb is in the present or future tense, the tense of the verb in the direct speech does not undergo any changes in the indirect speech.

Examples:

- Direct: She **says**, 'I **have done** my duty.'
Indirect: She **says** that she **has done** her duty.
Direct: He **says** to her, 'I **will wait** for you at the railway station.'
Indirect: He **tells** her that he **will wait** for her at the railway station.
Direct: He **says**, 'I **am** not coming.'
Indirect: He **says** that he **is not coming**.
Direct: She **will say**, 'I **don't want** to come.'
Indirect: She **will say** that she **does not want** to come.
Direct: He **will say**, 'I **cannot wait** any longer.'
Indirect: He **will say** that he **cannot wait** any longer.

When the reporting verb is in the past tense...

- i. When the reporting verb is in the past tense, all present tenses inside the quotation marks will change to their corresponding past tenses.
- ii. The **simple present tense** will change into the **simple past tense**.
- iii. The present continuous tense will change into the past continuous tense.
- iv. The present perfect tense will change into the past perfect tense.
- v. The present perfect continuous tense will change into the past perfect continuous tense.

Examples:

- Direct: She **said**, 'I **don't want** to come with you.'
Indirect: She **said** that she **didn't want** to come with me.
Direct: He **said**, 'I **am writing** a letter.'
Indirect: He **said** that he **was writing** a letter.
Direct: She **said**, 'I **have finished** the work.'
Indirect: She **said** that she **had finished** the work.
Direct: He **said**, 'I **want** some razors.'
Indirect: He **said** that he **wanted** some razors.
Direct: John **said**, 'I **have been living** in this city for ten years.'
Indirect: John **said** that he **had been living** in that city for ten years.
Direct: He **said**, 'I **have been waiting** here for several hours.'
Indirect: He **said** that he **had been waiting** there for several hours.

Here the reporting verb (said) is in the past tense. To change these sentences into indirect speech, we have changed the present tenses inside the quotation marks into their corresponding past tenses.

- i. When the reporting verb is in the past tense, following changes will be made to reported speech if it is in past tense.
- ii. The simple past will change into the past perfect.
- iii. The past continuous will change into the past perfect continuous.
- iv. The past perfect and past perfect continuous tenses will remain unchanged.

Examples:

Direct: He **said**, 'Burglars **broke** into my house last night.'

Indirect: He **said** that burglars **had broken** into his house the previous night.

Direct: She **said** to me, 'I **was waiting** for my sister.'

Indirect: She **told** me that she **had been waiting** for her sister.

Direct: She **said**, 'I **had never met** such people before.'

Indirect: She **said** that she **had never met** such people before.

Direct: John **said**, 'I **had been gardening** for two hours.'

Indirect: John **said** that he **had been gardening** for two hours.

(Note that sometimes we do not change a simple past tense into past perfect tense in the indirect speech.)

Direct: He said, 'I lived many years in the US.'

Indirect: He said that he lived many years in the US. OR He said that he had lived many years in the US.

(Note that the **past perfect tense** is used to lay stress on the completion of one past action before another past action.)

1 st form of the Verb →	Changes into 2 nd form of the Verb →	Changes into had + 3 rd form of the Verb
Do/Does →	Did →	Had + 3 rd form
Is/am/are + 1 st form+ing →	Change into Was/were + 1 st form+ing →	Change into had been + 1 st form+ing
Has/have + 3 rd form →	Change into Had+3 rd form →	'Had' doesn't change (No change)
Has/have been + 1 st form+ing →	Change into Had been + 1 st form+ing →	'Had been' doesn't change (No change)
Shall/Will + 1 st form →	Would + 1 st form	

8.6 Changes in Modal Verbs

1. When the reporting verb is in the past tense, **shall** will change into **should** in indirect speech. Similarly, **Can**, **will**, and **may** will change into **could**, **would**, and **might**.
3. Direct: She said, 'I will work hard.' Indirect: She said that she would work hard. Direct: The steward said, "you can sit here."
4. Indirect: The steward said that we could sit there.
5. Direct: Ali said, "I may go to Murree again"
6. Indirect: Ali said that he might go to Murree again.
7. **Could**, **might**, **ought to**, **should**, and **would** stay the same. But 'must' can be changed into 'have to.'

8.6 Rules for the Changes of Adverbs in Indirect Speech

Besides the changes in the tenses and the pronouns, words expressing nearness in direct speech are changed into words expressing distance in indirect speech. The rules are as follows:

This will change into **that**.

These will change into **those**.

Here will change into **there**.

Now/ just will change into **then**.

Today will change into **that day**.

Yesterday will change into **the previous day** or **the day before**.

Last night will change into **the previous night** or **the night before**.

Tomorrow will change into **the next day**.

Ago will change into **before**.

The next day/week/year will change into **the following day/week/year**.

Hence will change into **thence**.

Thus will change into **so** or **in that way**.

Examples:

- Direct: He said, 'I am too weak to work **now**.'
- Indirect: He said that he was too weak to work **then**.
- Direct: She said, 'I will leave for New York **tomorrow**.'
- Indirect: She said that she would leave for New York **the next day**.
- Direct: He said, 'I visited them **yesterday**.'
- Indirect: He said that he had visited them **the previous day**.
- Direct: She said, 'I liked **this** bag.'
- Indirect: She said that she liked **that** bag.
- Direct: I said, 'I am leaving **tomorrow**.'
- Indirect: She said that she was leaving **the next day**.
- Direct: She said, '**These** mangoes are rotten.'
- Indirect: She said that **those** mangoes were rotten.
- Direct: He said, '**These** are our dogs.'
- Indirect: He said that **those** were their dogs.

Notes: Adverbs of time or place do not normally change if the reporting verb is in the present or future tense.

Examples:

- Direct: She **says**, 'My husband will come **now**.'
- Indirect: She **says** that her husband will come **now**.
- Direct: She **will say**, 'I have to leave **now**.'
- Indirect: She **will say** that she has to leave **now**.

If the adverbs **now**, **this**, **here** etc., refer to objects present at the time of reporting the speech, or to the place in which the reporter is at the time of the speech, they are not changed **into then, that, there etc.**

- Direct: Javeed said to me, 'I have no time to talk to you now.'
- Indirect: Javeed told me that he had no time to talk to me now. (Here the report is made immediately.)
- Direct: Aliya said, 'This is my basket.'
- Direct: Aliya said that this was her basket. (Here the basket is right before us.)
- Direct: He said, 'I will speak here.'
- Direct: He said that he would speak here. (Here the report is made on the same spot.)

8.8 Types of Sentences

8.8.1 Declarative Sentences

1. Javeed said, 'I am very busy now.'
2. He said, 'The horse has been fed.'
3. 'I know her name and address,' said John.
4. 'German is easy to learn,' she said.
5. He said, 'I am writing letters.'
6. 'It is too late to go out,' Alice said.
7. He said to me, 'I don't believe you.'
8. He says, 'I am glad to be here this evening.'
9. He said to me, 'What are you doing?'
10. 'Where is the post office?' asked the stranger.
11. He said, 'Will you listen to me?'
12. John said to Peter, 'Go away.'
13. She said to me, 'Please wait here till I return.'
14. 'Call the witness,' said the judge.
15. The speaker said, 'Be quiet and listen to my words.'

Answers

1. John said that he was very busy then.
2. He said that the horse had been fed.
3. John said that he knew/knows her name and address. (Note that the tenses may not change if the statement is still relevant or if it is a universal truth.)
4. She said that German is/was easy to learn.
5. He said that he was writing letters.
6. Alice said that it was too late to go out.
7. He told me that he didn't believe me. OR He said he didn't believe me.
8. He says that he is glad to be here this evening. (When the reporting verb is in the present tense, adverbs of time and place do not normally change in indirect speech.)
9. He asked me what I was doing.
10. The stranger asked where the post office is/was.
11. He asked me if I would listen to him.

12. John ordered Peter to go away.
13. She asked me to wait there till she returned.
14. The judge commanded them to call the first witness.
15. He urged them to be quiet and listen to them.

8.8.2 Interrogative Sentences

There are two main kinds of interrogative sentences. Those which start with an auxiliary verb and those which start with a question word such as what, why, when, where, how etc.

The following changes occur when an interrogative sentence in the direct speech is changed to the indirect speech.

Interrogative sentences beginning with an auxiliary verb are changed into the indirect speech by using the connectives '**if** or **whether**'.

The reporting verb **said** (or any other word used as the reporting verb) changes to **asked, queried, questioned, demanded of** or **enquired of** in the indirect speech. Note that **of** is used after **enquired** and **demanded** only when the reporting verb has an object.

The most common reporting verbs used to report a question are '**asked and enquired of**'. The reporting verb **queried** is somewhat investigative. **Demanded of** is the strongest of all reporting verbs mentioned above. It is used when an explanation is desired.

(Note that the indirect narration is always in the assertive form. In other words, the interrogative sentences in the direct speech will change into assertive sentences in the indirect speech.)

Study the following examples carefully to understand the rules mentioned above.

Examples:

Direct: She said to me, "Are you coming with us?"

Indirect: She **asked** me **if I was going** with them.

OR

She asked them if I was coming with them.

Direct: She said to me, "Are you unwell?"

Indirect: She **asked** me **if I was** unwell.

Direct: She **said** to him, "**Am I to wait** for you till eternity?"

Indirect: She **enquired of him if she was** to wait for him till eternity.

- Direct: I **said** to him, "Were you present at the meeting yesterday?"
- Indirect: I **asked** him **whether he had been** present at the meeting the day before (or the previous day).
- Direct: The woman asked the stranger, "Should I help you?"
- Indirect: The woman **asked** the stranger **whether she should help** him.

(Note that the auxiliary verbs **should, could, would, ought to and might** do not change in the indirect speech.)

Examples:

- Direct: I said to him, "Who are you?"
- Indirect: I **asked** him who he **was**.
- Direct: The mother said to the daughter, "Do you know where John is?"
- Indirect: The mother **asked** the daughter **whether she knew** where John was.
- Direct: "Have you anything to say on behalf of the accused?," said the judge to the lawyer.
- Indirect: The judge **enquired of** the lawyer if he had anything to say on behalf of the accused.
- Direct: The Father said, "Son, did I not ask you to study hard?"
- Indirect: The father **enquired of** his son **if he had not asked** him to study hard.
- Direct: My father said to me, "Where were you last night?"
- Indirect: My father **demande of me where I had been** the previous night.
- Direct: She said, "Friend, will you wait for a moment?"
- Indirect: She **asked her friend if she would wait** for a moment.

Interrogative sentences beginning with a question word

When a question begins with a question word such as **what, who, whom, when, where, why, how** etc., the same word is used to introduce the question in the indirect speech. In other words, the question word becomes the joining word instead of **that, if or whether**.

Examples:

- Direct: Viola said to Rosalind, "Where are you going?"
- Indirect: Viola **asked** Rosalind where **she was going**.
- Direct: The teacher asked the new comer, "What is your name?"
- Indirect: The teacher **asked** the new comer **what his name was**.
- Direct: The wolf said to the lambs, "Why are you all so sad?"
- Indirect: The wolf **asked** the lambs **why they were** all so sad.
- Direct: The mother said to her daughter, "Dear, how have you fared in the examination?"

Indirect: The mother **asked** her daughter lovingly **how she had fared** in the examination.

Direct: The shopkeeper said to me, "Which bag do you want?"

Indirect: The shopkeeper **asked me which bag I wanted.**

Direct: She said to him, "Why are you disturbing me?"

Indirect: She **asked him why he was** disturbing her.

Direct: I said to the boys, "Who teaches you English?"

Indirect: **I asked the boys who taught** them English.

Direct: John said to Mary, "What are you doing?"

Indirect: John **asked Mary what she was** doing.

Direct: The old man said to himself, "Why did I come here?"

Indirect: The old man **asked himself why he had come** there.

8.8.3 Imperative Sentences

Imperative sentences do not normally have an expressed subject. This is because the subject '**you**' is usually understood. As a result of this, imperative sentences begin with a verb in the simple present tense.

An imperative sentence expresses ideas such as *advice, order, request, suggestion, instruction, permission, allowance* etc.

In order to change an imperative sentence into the indirect speech, we use '**to**' as **infinitive**. A '**–that clause**' is also possible in some cases. Note that instead of '**said**' we use one of the following reporting verbs:

Advise, command, request, suggest, threaten, order, forbid, decree, propose, entreat, prompt, counsel, pardon, beg, persuade, instruct etc.

Notes:

After **suggest**, we use a **–that clause** and not an infinitive.

The verb **propose** is not followed by an object.

The verb **forbid** itself conveys a negative sense. Therefore, we do not use **not** in the following clause.

Study the following examples carefully:

Direct: The old woman said to the boy, "Please help me."

Indirect: The old woman **requested the boy to help** her.

Direct: I said to him, "Love and obey your parents."

Indirect: **I advised him to love and obey** his parents.

OR

I **advised that he should** love and obey his parents.

Direct: The teacher said to the students, "Work hard."

Indirect: The teacher **advised the boys to work** hard.

OR

The teacher **suggested that the boys should work hard.**

Direct: The doctor said to the patient, 'Quit smoking.'

Indirect: The doctor **advised the patient to quit** smoking.

OR

The doctor **suggested that the patient should quit smoking.**

Direct: The officer said to the clerk, 'Do it immediately.'

Indirect: The officer **ordered the clerk to do** it immediately.

Direct: The teacher said to the boy, 'Come in, please.'

Indirect: The teacher **allowed (or asked) the boy to come in.**

Direct: He said to me, 'Post this letter at once.'

Indirect: He **ordered me to post** that letter at once.

Direct: I said to the children, 'Do not make a noise.'

Indirect: I **forbade the children to make** a noise. (not I forbade the children not to make a noise.)

Direct: I said to her, 'Don't mention his name.'

Indirect: I **forbade her to mention** his name.

Direct: I said to the child, 'Do not look down into the well.'

Indirect: I **warned the child not to look** down into the well.

Direct: He said to me, 'Wait here till I return.'

Indirect: He **asked me to wait** there till he returned.

Indirect: He **said** that he **was** unwell

8.8.4 Portative Sentences

These sentences indicate a wish, pray or desire.

If the reported speech begins with the word "may", we change the reporting verb into prayed.

Examples:

Direct: She said, "May my son stand first in the class!"

Indirect: She **prayed** that her son might stand first in the class.

Direct: He said to them, "May you catch the train today!"

Indirect: He **prayed** for them that they might catch the train that day.

Direct: They said. "May the police arrest the thieves!"

Indirect: They **prayed** that police might arrest the thieves.

If the reported speech begins with the word “would”, we change the reporting verb into wished.

Examples:

- Direct: Mother said to me, “Would that your father were here today!”
Indirect: Mother wished that my father had been there that day
Direct: The teacher said to the students, “Would that I were on leave today!”
Indirect: The teacher wished that he had been on leave that day.
Direct: He said, “Would that I were rich!”
Indirect: He wished that he had been rich.

8.8.5 Exclamatory Sentences

In reporting exclamations the indirect speech is introduced by some verbs expressing exclamation. Study the following examples carefully.

Examples:

- Direct: He said, “Alas! My brother has met an accident.”
Indirect: He exclaimed with great sorrow that his brother had met with an accident.
Direct: He said, “Alas! I am undone.”
Indirect: He exclaimed sadly that he was undone.
Direct: He said, “Bravo! You have done well.”
Indirect: He applauded him, saying that he had done well.
Direct: They said to us, “Hurrah! We have defeated your team.”
Indirect: They exclaimed with great joy that they had defeated our team.
Direct: We said, “How old this woman is!”
Indirect: We said in great surprise that that woman was very old.
Direct: Ali said, “How clever I am!”
Indirect: Ali exclaimed that he was very clever.

Exercise

1. Change the voice of following sentences.

- A. He teaches English.
- B. The child is eating bananas.
- C. The master punished the servant.
- D. Who wrote this letter?
- E. Somebody cooks meal every day.
- F. He wore a blue shirt.
- G. May God bless you with happiness!
- H. They are building a house.
- I. I have finished the job.
- J. I sent the report yesterday.
- K. She bought a diamond necklace.

- L. Somebody had stolen my purse
- M. I did not beat her.
- N. I will never forget this experience.
- O. Mother made a cake yesterday.
- P. Did she do her duty?
- Q. The tiger was chasing the deer.
- R. She has written a novel.
- S. She has learned her lessons.
- T. Have you finished the report?

2. Change the following sentences into indirect speech.

- A. Boys said, "It has been raining since morning. We cannot play today."
- B. She said to him, "I am leaving now and shall return after two hours."
- C. The girl said to me, "My father went to the market and brought toys for me."
- D. Her husband said to her, "I shall not go to the office today as I am not feeling well."
- E. His brother said to me, "I am not going to attend the meeting today."
- F. His wife said to him, "Do you know that my servant maid stole our money?"
- G. Her friend said to her, "Can you spare your book for me for a week?"
- H. His mother said to him, "Will you come home in the evening in time?"
- I. His friend said to him, "Did I not warn you against this beforehand?"
- J. The doctor said to his patient, "Are you taking medicine prescribed to you regularly?"
- K. The woman said, "What a beautiful child this is!"
- L. Hamlet said, "How unlucky I am that I cannot find out any solution!"
- M. The leader said, "Alas! We have lost the game."
- N. Boys said, "Hurrah! We have won the match!"
- O. The cobbler said, "How stupid I am!"
- P. The land lord said to his servant, "Go away and leave the room at once."
- Q. The officer said to the peon, "Let the visitor come in."
- R. The girl said to her friend, "Please show me your purse."
- S. The father said to his son, "Let us go out for a walk."
- T. The doctor said to the patient, "Do not smoke."

8.9 Bibliography

Thomson, A., & Martinet, A. (1997). *A Practical English Grammar*. Oxford University Press.

Valencia, L. L. (2002). *Teaching Technical English Writing*. Palmira: CENIDET.

Wren, & Martin. (2013). *High School English Grammar & Composition*. Islamabad: Paramount Publishing Enterprise.

Unit–9

PARAGRAPH WRITING

**Written by: Adnan Ashraf
and Khuram Dad**

Reviewed by: Dr. Zafar Iqbal

CONTENTS

	<i>Page No.</i>
Introduction	185
Objectives	185
9.1 What is Paragraph?	186
9.2 Topic Sentence.....	186
9.3 Supporting Sentences.....	188
9.4 Planning a Paragraph	189
9.5 Organizing Paragraphs.....	189
9.6 Unity	191
9.7 Coherence	192
9.7.1 Transitions and their Uses.....	193
9.8 Using Parallelism and Concluding Sentences.....	193
9.9 Types of Writing.....	194
9.10 Mechanics of Paragraph Writing	196
9.10.1 Prewriting (Exploring Topics).....	196
a) Generating Ideas and Choosing a Topic	196
b) Developing a Main Idea.....	196
c) Writing a Topic Sentence.....	197
d) Prewriting: Brainstorming for Support	197
e) Prewriting: Organizing your Support.....	198
9.10.2 Writing: Creating a First Draft.....	199
9.10.3 Revising: Polishing the First Draft	199
a) Revising Topic Sentences	200
b) Revising Support.....	201
c) Revising for Unity.....	201
d) Revising for Coherence.....	202
e) Revising for Style	203
9.11 Bibliography	206

INTRODUCTION

This unit aims at acquainting the readers with the various technical aspects regarding teaching the students how to write paragraphs. In Pakistani schools and colleges, the standard of paragraph writing is not satisfactory. Focusing more on the MCQ type questions has resulted into an overall decline in the composition skills of the students. This unit will make it easy to help the potential teachers in their classrooms while making their students learn how to write good paragraphs. The skill of a writer to present his thoughts in a paragraph is the indicator of his/her logical thinking. Hence, a good paragraph provides the readers an opportunity to comprehend the writer's views about a particular topic.

OBJECTIVES

This unit aims at achieving the following objectives:

1. A firm understanding of topic sentence.
2. Ability to differentiate between the different ways of inserting a topic sentence.
3. Ability to write standard paragraphs on different topics.

9.1 What is Paragraph?

We can think of a paragraph as a miniature essay since it is a group of sentences that support and develop a single idea. It is a collection of related sentences dealing with a single topic. Careful paragraphing reflects the writer's logical thinking and organization. Clear and orderly paragraphs help the reader follow the writer's thoughts more easily. The paragraph performs three functions:

1. It develops the unit of thought stated in what we call topic sentence.
2. It provides a logical break in the material.
3. It creates a visual break on the page, which signals a new topic.

Paragraphs are the basic building blocks of writing. Each must be restricted to a single topic which is usually introduced in a topic sentence which is often the first sentence in the paragraph and ends at a concluding sentence.

9.2 Topic Sentence

1. A topic sentence presents the gist of the main idea or topic about which a particular paragraph has been written. It can be at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of a paragraph. There can be paragraphs without topic sentences. In such passages, topic is just "understood" (this is only done when a writer believes that the reader will know the main idea in the paragraph without being told and doing so renders his/her paragraph artificial and stiff). A topic sentence usually can be divided into two parts: the topic itself and the writer's attitude towards the topic. An attitude of writer in the topic sentence helps us anticipate what will be told about the topic in the sentence.

Here are few examples of topic and attitudes.

2. Although I love **Social media**, but *it has certain drawbacks as well*.

The bold portion in the above topic sentence tells us what the paragraph is about. We know that the topic is Social Media. The italic portion of this sentence is the attitude that has been adopted by the writer. We can anticipate that writer is going to highlight certain drawbacks of social media.

3. **Social media** has become popular among the youth and *there are certain reasons for it*.

Just like sentence no. 1 again the topic is Social Media which is written in bold letters while the attitude of writer is written in italic letters. Here the attitude of writer is different. We can assume the paragraph will contain certain reasons for the popularity of social media among the youth.

A topic sentence at the beginning of a paragraph makes the reader anticipate the information to be provided in the following paragraphs. For instance, the first sentence in the following paragraph expresses an idea which is developed by rest of the sentences:

Topic Sentence	<i>When the Civil War ended on April 1, 1939 Francisco Franco took control of a country devastated by three years of military conflict.</i> The human losses were staggering: over half a million dead and another half a million in exile. Many thousands more were to die in the postwar repression. The destruction of the economy was no less thorough. Agricultural production was a third below prewar levels and the number of livestock reduced by 30 to 40 per cent. Transportation had been devastated: a tenth of shipping and about 40 per cent of railway equipment had been destroyed. Industry, which had been retooled for military needs and had had to suffer a shortage of raw materials, especially in the Republican zone, was disrupted. Real per capita income would not regain its prewar levels until 1952. (Shubert, 1990)
Supporting Information	

In this paragraph, the topic is 'Civil War' and writer's attitude about the topic is '*a country devastated by three years of military conflict,*' so whole paragraph is dedicated to the description of devastation caused by civil war in Spain.

A topic sentence in the middle of a paragraph is preceded by some introductory sentences which make it easy to make the reader understand the topic sentence.

Following paragraph has its topic sentence after first four sentences.

Introductory Sentences	Along island beaches, the water changes color as it becomes deeper. In the shallows, it is a milky green. In deeper waters over the coral heads and reefs, the color is clear greenish-blue. The color line changes from green-blue to deep blue where the drop-off into deep water begins. <i>The drop-off marked by this color change is the best place for a good swimmer to see Hawaii's underwater scenery.</i> Here are deep lava rimmed valleys paved with white sand. Here are lava rock arches and tunnels and caves where big fish, lobsters, and big eels live. Looking through a face mask into water sixty feet deep, a diver can see that the coral and sand bottom appears a pale, bleached blue. In the deep water, big fish hover in schools like herds of cattle browsing by. A great sea turtle paddles along. A manta ray swims below with the same graceful swoops as a bird in flight. Its big side flaps move like wings. Its pop eyes watch the diver watching it.
Topic Sentence	
Supporting Information	

A topic sentence at the end of a paragraph summarizes the previous details in a paragraph. Its purpose is either to create suspense or to present a controversial topic after preparing the reader for it. Following paragraph is an example of the use of topic sentence at the end:

Supporting Information	People do it every day. They log on to their favorite website and browse for hours, checking out bargains. They dump every possible wish into their shopping carts, knowing they can cast each one aside before they finalize their purchases. On the way, they may enter a sweepstakes in the hopes of winning a trip to Cabo San Lucas, or maybe even a new SUV. And then, when they have decided on their purchases, they enter private information without giving it a thought. With a keystroke, they release their personal data into what may or may not be a secure zone. <i>Despite what much of the public believes, internet shopping is not safe.</i>
Topic Sentence	

A good paragraph depends very much on the topic sentence. A good topic sentence for a paragraph must focus on one leading idea rather than multiple ideas. It should not be a broad topic so that one may compile an essay on it, rather its range should be limited to a single leading idea that can be covered in the length of a paragraph.

9.3 Supporting Sentences

A topic sentence tells the reader about the attitude of writer, in addition it also provides guideline to the writer about what should be included in a paragraph. A paragraph is supported by supporting details or sentences that elaborate and support the attitude of writer. The role of the supporting sentences in a paragraph is to provide sufficient information about the main idea or topic. A paragraph lacking sufficient supporting details is considered a poor one. Information to be provided in the supporting sentences may be in the form of anecdotes, examples, facts, statistics, reasons or concrete and sensory details.

Following is an example of a paragraph with sufficient supporting data:

Topic Sentence	<i>In the 1880's and '90's the bicycle became the adventurer's magic carpet.</i> Young people went in for racing- "scorching," it was called. Handlebars were turned down and the serious scorcher rode almost flat on the bike, like a jockey leaning forward along the neck of a race horse. Sober elders disapproved of scorchers, but often
Supporting Information:	

Examples with details and facts	went in for touring themselves. Bicycle parties would set out to explore unknown country fifty miles from home for a week at a time, and anyone who had ridden one hundred miles in eighteen hours could join the Century Road Club of America and sport a gold bar for every hundred miles. Americans had “gone somewhere” before- west across the country as pioneers. Now “going somewhere” was becoming fun. (Janeway, 1956)
---------------------------------	--

9.4 Planning a Paragraph

Now the important question arises how do we get these supporting sentences and can we do it in one go. The supporting details can be collected by creating an outline. Outlining means planning about what should be included in the paragraph as supporting details and what should be excluded. Planning gives paragraph a coherent structure and, most importantly, helps to ensure that all sentences are related to the topic sentence. Although all paragraphs need planning, they are written in two different situations: as coursework, and in exams. Clearly, under the time pressure of an exam, planning is more hurried, but also more critical.

In the case of paragraph written in exams, it is best to begin planning by analysing the title and then writing down any ideas that seem relevant. This process is called brainstorming and at first ideas are collected in any order.

Activity

Read the title below and add more ideas to the list to complete the paragraph.

Changes in spending Leisure Time

- i. No physical activities
- ii. Social Media
- iii. Television
- iv. _____
- v. _____

9.5 Organizing Paragraphs

Paragraphs are the basic building blocks of texts. Well-organised paragraphs not only help readers understand the argument, but also help writers to structure their ideas effectively.

Read the following paragraph.

The way we use banks is currently changing. This is partly because of the introduction of new technology in the last ten years. The personal computer and the internet, for instance, allow customers to view their accounts at home and perform operations such as moving money between accounts. At the same time banks are being reorganised in ways that affect both customers and staff. In the past five years over 3,000 bank branches have closed in Britain. The banks have discovered that staffing call centres is cheaper than running a branch network.

The structure of the paragraph is:

Topic sentence	The way we use banks ...
Reason	This is partly because ...
Example	The personal computer ...
Details	At the same time banks ...
Further details	In the past five ...
Reason	The banks have discovered ...

A paragraph is a collection of sentences that deal with one subject. All paragraphs contain a topic sentence, which is often, but not always, the first. Other components vary according to the nature of the topic. Introductory paragraphs often contain definitions, and descriptive paragraphs include a lot of detail. Other sentences give examples and offer reasons and restatements.

Activity

Read and analyse the following paragraph.

In recent years all British universities have adopted the semester system. A semester is a period of time which lasts for half the academic year. Semester 1, for example, starts in September and finishes in January. Previously, the academic year had been divided into three terms: autumn, winter and spring. Most courses consist of modules that last for one semester, and exams are held at the end of each. Britain began using semesters to make it easier for international students to move from one country to another

Topic sentence	
Reason	
Example	
Details	
Further details	
Reason	

Activity

The sentences below make up a paragraph, but have been mixed up. Use the table to re-write the sentences in the correct order.

- i. For many centuries it has been the centre of the country's economic, cultural and social life.
- ii. 500 years ago it had become a major river port for ships trading with Europe.
- iii. III. Its dominance is due to its strategic site near the lowest crossing point of the River Thames.
- iv. IV. London has been the English capital for over 1000 years.

Topic sentence	
Restatement	
Reason	
Detail	

9.6 Unity

It is imperative for a paragraph to have unity which implies that all the sentences are related to the main idea as well as each other. Giving irrelevant details or deviating from the main topic destroys the unity of a paragraph. The supporting details should explain the main idea. It is also good to add a concluding sentence at the end of paragraph if it can be added to reaffirm the point started in topic sentence. Thus, a unified paragraph presents a thought, supports it with adequate details and completes it with a conclusion.

Paragraph without unity	Robert Bee wrote, "The Zeeland massacre illustrates the need for greater control and vigilance." This is related to the thesis. Some 20,000 people disappeared from the villages. Financial mishandling can lead to great misfortune. Corruption in the government was exposed repeatedly to no avail. A police force, under orders to eliminate suspected terrorists, grabbed political dissidents and their families.
Paragraph with unity	The pogrom of May 3, 1987 exemplifies how foreign aid funds were appropriated for repressive rather than social development purposes. On that day, some 20,000 people were abducted from villages in the countryside, charged as traitors and summarily executed. Then governor-for-life Zeely Zeelafsun had recently used \$5 billion in aid to

	create a standing paramilitary police force. Without some restrictive control over the aid, human rights organizations were unable to prevent the buildup and unleashing of this disaster. Robert Bee, the director of the Development as Freedom Foundation wrote, “The Zeeland massacre illustrates the need for greater control and vigilance.”
--	--

These two examples illustrate the impact of following or not following unity in a paragraph. Paragraph with unity is successful in conveying a specific information or message to the readers.

9.7 Coherence

In a coherent paragraph, the topic sentence and all supporting ideas must follow a logical order while transitions and other devices clarify the connections between ideas. A coherent paragraph has sentences that logically follow each other; they are not isolated thoughts. Coherence can be achieved in several ways. First, using transition devices helps connect ideas from one sentence to the next. These devices will be discussed later in the unit. Second, ordering thoughts in numerical sequence helps to direct the reader from one point to the next. Third, structuring each paragraph according to one of the following patterns helps to organize sentences: general to particular; particular to general; whole to parts; question to answer; or effect to cause.

Paragraph with coherence	Many students believe they cannot write a good essay because they are not writers. However, as they practice writing and work on developing their writing skills, most students are able to gain the needed confidence to start thinking of themselves writers.
--------------------------	---

The supporting information in a paragraph should be arranged logically to help the reader. Besides logical orders, transitions are also employed to make the flow of ideas smooth. Transitions connect ideas and point out the direction of ideas in the paragraph. Moreover, repeated main words, synonyms, and consistent pronouns can also help make a paragraph coherent.

A number of orders or plans can be used to organize paragraphs. Support can follow chronological order, spatial order, order of importance, comparison-and-contrast order, or developmental order.

Chronological order presents major pieces of supporting information in a time sequence. Spatial order arranges support by position: from near to far, outside to

inside, ceiling to floor, and so on. Order of importance arranges major pieces of supporting information from least important (or interesting, expensive, and so on) to most important (or interesting, expensive, and so on). Comparison-and-contrast order groups similarities and differences by presenting one item completely and then comparing and contrasting a second with the first or by comparing and contrasting two or more items point by point. Developmental order simply arranges information in the most logical way for the particular topic sentence and support. Certain transitions are more appropriate for one kind of order than another, as the following chart shows:

9.7.1 Transitions and their Uses

Links between paragraphs are called transitions or transitional devices. They help the reader to follow a main line of thought. Without the use of transitional devices, the following paragraph appears disjointed and disorganized:

The Writing Center is a valuable resource for students who have trouble writing papers. It is also a good resource for students who are skilled at writing papers. These students might simply want to improve their writing further. The tutors welcome students of both varieties. They are at the Writing Center to help. Tutors are not simply there to check grammar.

When transitions are made from sentence to sentence, the same paragraph looks more organised with use of transitional devices.

The Writing Center is a valuable resource for students who have trouble writing papers. **Additionally**, it is also a good resource for students who are skilled at writing papers **but** want to improve their writing further. **Here**, the tutors welcome students of both varieties, **because** they are at the Writing Center to help. **However**, tutors are not simply there to check grammar.

Here are some examples of transitional devices:

To add

and, first (second, etc.), in addition to, further, furthermore, also, too, moreover, besides

To repeat or intensify

and then again, what's more, equally important, too, indeed, to repeat, beyond that

To compare

in the same way, compared to, similarly, in the same way

To contrast, contradict

but, yet, on the other hand, however, nevertheless, whereas, in contrast, unlike, rather than, although, besides

To prove, show cause or result

because, for, since, for the same reason, as a result, for this reason, therefore, consequently, so, that is

To give an example

for example, for instance, in this case, take the case of, to demonstrate, to illustrate.

To show sequence

following this, next, at this time, after this point, afterward, subsequently, finally, consequently, hence, next, and then, soon, first, second, third, and so forth, lastly.

To summarize or conclude

all in all, in any event, in conclusion, in other words, on the whole, to sum up, therefore, accordingly, thus, as a result, consequently, to conclude.

Here are some transitions that are used for specific orders of writing:

Orders	Transitions
Chronological	After, finally, meanwhile, afterward, first, moments later, at last, formerly, next, before, last, soon, final, later, then
Spatial	Behind, inside, overhead, beneath, in the distance, to the left (or beyond, near, right), in front, outside, under
Order of importance	Also, first, most, even greater, for one reason, next, final, greatest, second, finally, moreover, third
Comparison and contrast	Also, in addition, on the other hand, besides, in contrast, both, just as. . . so, similarly, but, like, too, however, on the contrary, whereas
Developmental	Accordingly, consequently, indeed, along with, finally, in fact, also, for example, next, and, for instance, therefore, as a result, furthermore, thus

9.8 Using Parallelism and Concluding Sentences

Parallelism and concluding sentence tie ideas together in a paragraph. Parallelism uses similarities and repetition to show that ideas belong together and are equally important. In the following paragraph, parallel sentences pile up examples of the

main idea. Almost all of the sentences in the middle of the paragraph follow a subject/active verb/prepositional phrase or complement pattern. Notice that the writer indicates the end of this detailing of tourists with the transition *even* and a longer sentence. Since the paragraph employs parallelism, so it resembles a well-developed catalog which conveys to the reader the great number and variety of tourists who visited ancient Pompeii. The pattern can be very effective when it is used appropriately.

Topic Sentence	Pompeii's ancient tourists were of every class and social condition. The rich owners of luxurious villas, which dotted the surrounding countryside like so many domed and pillared villages, visited friends and shopped for luxuries produced in the city's busy workshops. Merchants arrived with their wares. Itinerant artisans executed commissions in mosaic, sculpture, stucco, or paint for wealthy clients. Lovers followed their hearts. Traveling troupes of actors played local engagements. Soldiers, temporarily detached from their units, passed through. The pious offered sacrifices at urban temples. Citizens of neighboring communities attended games in the amphitheater. <i>Even</i> slaves from the countryside came to Pompeii to run errands for their masters, who were either prosperous farmers or the owners of aristocratic villas.
Paragraph connected with parallelism	James Packer

Like parallelism, concluding sentences do not belong in every paragraph. Sometimes, however, a concluding sentence can summarize the information in a paragraph, remind the reader of the topic sentence, or simply mark the completion of the thought of the paragraph. When a concluding sentence has a strong impact, it is called a *clincher*.

Look again at a paragraph you read earlier. A concluding sentence could improve this paragraph by referring to the main idea and by adding a statement that wraps up the supporting details.

Topic sentence	The trumpet and the cornet are often confused with one another. Both are small brass horns with three valves, a metal mouthpiece, and a flared opening through which the sound produced by the horn player escapes. Both produce a rather high-pitched metallic tone associated particularly with parades other martial events. Yet the cornet has a slightly shorter body and is more conical than the trumpet, and the cornet is considered the more versatile of the two. The trumpet's tone, on the other hand, is more brilliant, and the trumpet is more difficult to play properly. The final
Supporting information	

Concluding sentence	distinction between the two horns is one of function: Unlike the trumpet, the more recently developed cornet is rarely heard in the concert hall because its tone is subtler. <i>While at first or second glance, a beginner may see only the surface similarities between the two instruments, the trained musician knows their difference as well as he or she might “know” two different people with two different personalities.</i>
---------------------	--

9.9 Types of Writing

There are four basic kinds of writing: expository, which explains; persuasive, which seeks to change the reader’s mind; descriptive, which paints a picture for the reader; and narrative, which narrates a series of events. In accordance with these types of writing, a paragraph can be expository, persuasive, descriptive, or narrative.

9.10 Mechanics of Paragraph Writing

This section is about the mechanics of paragraph writing. All the steps involved in the process have been discussed in it.

9.10.1 Prewriting (Exploring Topics)

To compose a well-written paragraph, one should begin by thinking about possible topics.

a) Generating Ideas and Choosing a Topic

You can find ideas for topics by examining your interests and experiences. You might want to try methods such as interviewing yourself, free writing, journal writing, reading and saving, clustering, cueing, and brainstorming to find ideas for topics. After generating ideas for topics, divide general topics into smaller topics, and choose on suitable topic for a paragraph.

When you have listed general topics, breakdown the one you are particularly interested in into smaller topics, as in the following chart:

<u>Exploring Ideas for a Paragraph Topic</u>		
<u>A historical figure</u>		
a. Napoleon Bonaparte	b. Winston Churchill	c. Otto von Bismarck
d. Nelson Mandela		
After selecting option a:		
1.	Napoleon’s military defeats	
2.	Napoleon’s plans for an empire	
3.	Napoleon’s codification of French laws	
4.	Napoleon’s days in exile	

Once you have listed these topics, you might decide that Napoleon's military defeats would be your best choice.

b) Developing a Main Idea

Your next goal will be to limit your paragraph topic further by sharpening it into a main idea about your topic. To do this, you should decide what aspects of your topic are most interesting and important to you. Determining your audience and what they might want to know can also help you figure out what you want to say. At this point, you may also want to consider your purpose. If you decide beforehand what you will explain, persuade, describe, or entertain in your paragraph, this decision can influence your choice of main idea. In other cases, your purpose may develop out of your main idea. Therefore, shape your paragraph topic into a main idea by considering your main idea and purpose.

One workable method for figuring out a main idea is to ask yourself questions to stimulate your thinking about your paragraph topic. You may ask yourself general questions such as, "Why is this topic intriguing?" and "What interests me most about it?" You can also ask yourself a number of questions about what your audience might want to know about your paragraph topic.

You should write down your questions and answers on a piece of paper as in the following chart:

QUESTIONS LEADING TO POSSIBLE MAIN IDEAS	
Paragraph Topic: Napoleon's military defeats	
Questions	Possible Main Ideas
Why am I interested in this topic?	Napoleon was a great general and conqueror whose military defeats were a sad end to a brilliant career.
What caused Napoleon's military defeats?	His defeats were caused by many long years of war, growing strength of the powers against him, and unfavorable weather.
What effect did Napoleon's military defeats have?	Napoleon's military defeats led to his downfall.

From your list of possible main ideas, you should choose the one that appeals to you most and the one for which you have the most information. When you select your main idea, check it against your intended audience and purpose.

c) Writing a Topic Sentence

When you have a main idea, write several sentences that present it clearly. Experiment with different wordings to find which one captures your idea precisely.

Using the third main idea in the chart, you might write versions of your topic sentence such as those below.

POSSIBLE TOPIC SENTENCES

Main Idea: Napoleon's military defeats led to his downfall.

1. A series of military defeats caused Napoleon's downfall.
2. Losing several major campaigns led to Napoleon's downfall.
3. A series of major military defeats led to Napoleon's final abdication and exile.
4. Three major military defeats between 1812 and 1815 led to Napoleon's downfall.

Any of these topic sentences could be used for a paragraph. They differ only slightly in wording and in the amount of information given. You might choose the fourth version for your topic sentence.

d) Prewriting: Brainstorming For Support

The next step in planning a paragraph involves discovering supporting information that illustrates and explains the main idea in your topic sentence. Your goal should be to list an abundance of support for your main idea. Brainstorm for examples, details, facts, reasons and incidents that develop your main idea.

You may want simply to write your topic sentence on a piece of paper and then free-associate from your main idea, jotting down every example, detail, fact, reason, or incident that comes to your mind.

Another method you might try involves asking yourself questions that a reader might ask about your topic sentence. Again, you would write your topic sentence on a piece of paper. After reading your topic sentence and thinking about your audience, you would list questions about your main idea on your paper and answer the questions with specific support.

If you use either the free-associating or questioning method, you will probably gather more information than you can use in one paragraph. However, not all the information you list may be relevant to your main idea. Having more ideas than you need will enable you to select the best information.

At this point in the planning process, you should examine your support, looking for and removing any items that are irrelevant, unimportant or unnecessary. You might also, at this point, think about and add any examples that you may have overlooked.

e) Prewriting: Organizing Your Support

Organizing your paragraph can make the writing go more quickly. It can also help you to focus on finding a way to present your information clearly and sensibly to fulfil your audience's expectations.

Once you have a topic sentence and a solid list of supporting information, you should examine these raw materials of your paragraph to see what order emerges. Organize your supporting information in the most logical order. To organize your paragraph, you should look for an underlying logical order in your supporting information. Your main idea and supporting information may suggest, if not already follow, a specific order, such as chronological order, spatial order, order of importance, or comparison-and-contrast order.

9.10.2 Writing: Creating a First Draft

If you have done a thorough job of thinking and organizing, the actual writing of your paragraph should go smoothly and quickly. As you will not have to focus entirely on *what* you are saying, so you can think about *how* you are expressing your ideas. You should concentrate on writing clearly and on connecting your ideas logically. Create a first draft by following your outline and connecting ideas with transitions, repetitions of main words, synonyms, pronouns, and possible parallelism and a concluding sentence.

When you draft your paragraph, follow the organization that you have chosen but keep an open mind toward making any necessary adjustments. You might see the value of rearranging some ideas, adding to them, or even eliminating something that no longer seems appropriate.

As you write, also think about the flow of your sentences and the connections between your ideas. Add transitions, repeat main words, use synonyms for main words, and make sure any pronouns that you use to replace main words are consistent. Concentrate on guiding the reader and helping the reader follow your ideas.

In the paragraph about Napoleon's military defeats, for instance, transitions should help the reader follow the events in chronological order. In the following completed paragraph, notice the transitions *first*, *after*, *a year later*, *second*, *shortly thereafter*, *after* and *final*. You then might also repeat the main words *major*, *defeat*, *Napoleon*, and *troops* as well as use synonyms such as *loss*, *overcame*, *overwhelmed*, *army*, and *forces* to avoid monotony and to add smoothness to your paragraph.

Topic sentence	Three major military defeats between 1812 and 1815 led to Napoleon's downfall. The <i>first</i> defeat came in 1812 when Napoleon's troops pursued the Russians to Moscow only to find the countryside and Moscow itself evacuated burning. Refused a truce by Russia, Napoleon's army returned across the wintry land, struggling against cold, hunger, illness, and assaults by the Russians. The loss of 500,000 men out of 600,000 weakened Napoleon's power and image and gave energy and confidence to his enemies. <i>After</i> such a loss, Napoleon raised another army with difficulty. <i>A year later</i> in October 1813, the armies of Prussia, Russia and France's former ally, Austria, overcame Napoleon's forces in the Battle of Nations at Leipzig. This <i>second</i> major defeat and the restoration of a Bourbon king to the French throne sent Napoleon into exile in 1814. Although he escaped and gathered another army, he could not regain his former power. <i>Shortly thereafter</i> in 1815, the British troops under the Duke of Wellington and the Prussian forces under Major Gebhard von Blucher overwhelmed Napoleon at the Battle of Waterloo. <i>After</i> this <i>final</i> defeat, Napoleon was exiled to the island of St. Helen, where he died in 1821.
----------------	--

9.10.3 Revising: Polishing The First Draft

Revision is an important part of the writing process. It is a chance to make improvements in your writing. There are several revising steps that you should follow:

Using a Checklist. Carefully evaluate the first draft of your paragraph before you begin to revise it. The following checklist should help you focus on specifics.

1. Does the topic sentence clearly express a main idea?
2. Does the support include enough examples, facts, reasons, and so on to explain and develop the topic sentence?
3. Does the support contain any inappropriate material (any repetition, unsubstantiated opinions, or vague material)?
4. Does the support include any extraneous material?
5. Is the support presented in the most logical order?
6. Have you used enough transitions?
7. Have you repeated main words and used synonyms, pronouns, and parallel constructions to help tie the ideas together?
8. Do you need a concluding sentence?
9. Can the writing style be made smoother or more interesting? Are the sentences varied in structure? Do any points need to be given more emphasis?
10. Are there any errors in grammar, mechanics and spelling?

Following are various ways to carry out the points in this checklist. They will show you the importance of critically examining, rethinking and revising your writing.

a) Revising Topic Sentences

Since the topic sentence identifies the main idea for the reader, so it must be accurate. It must cover exactly the range of ideas in the paragraph i.e. no more, no less than what is required. So learn to recognize a topic sentence that is too general or too narrow for the paragraph.

If your topic sentence seems to cover more ideas than your supporting information, it is too general for the paragraph. For instance, in a paragraph about Edgar Allen Poe's horror stories, the topic sentence would be too broad if it stated, "Readers should find a wealth of ghastly details in Edgar Allen Poe's horror stories and poems." If the paragraph does not discuss the poems, they should not be mentioned in the topic sentence. The extra idea can be eliminated and the topic sentence written this way: "Readers should find a wealth of ghastly details in Edgar Allen Poe's short stories."

If your topic sentence fails to cover all of the information presented in the paragraph, it is too narrow for the paragraph. If the support develops several important ideas, the topic sentence must cover all of them. If you write a paragraph about a hotel, and you give examples of both poor service and shabby décor, your topic sentence would be too narrow if it states, "Vacationers have found service at the Gulmit Continental to be sadly lacking." This topic sentence omits the idea of décor, which is covered in the support. To correct this topic sentence, you might write this: "Vacationers have found both the service and décor at the Gulmit Continental to be sadly lacking."

b) Revising Support

You should also examine your supporting information to determine if it is adequate and appropriate. Hence, learn to recognize and correct supporting information that is inadequate or inappropriate.

Supporting information is inadequate when it does not provide enough specific material to develop the main idea. If a topic sentence indicates that several examples are going to be given, the supporting information must include specific material to back up this expectation.

Sometimes the problem may not be the amount of supporting information in a paragraph, but the quality of that information. Vague statements, generalizations,

unfounded opinions and ideas that simply restate the topic sentence without developing it, should be replaced with solid support.

c) Revising for Unity

A second look at your writing may reveal that some of your support is unrelated to your main idea. Therefore, improve unity in the paragraph by eliminating information that does not relate to the main idea.

As you test for unity in a paragraph, use your topic sentence as your first guide. Look carefully at any piece of supporting information that cannot be related directly to the main idea. Then check that piece of information with the rest of the supporting material in the paragraph. If the item you are examining, does not build upon or help explain other supporting information in the paragraph, you should eliminate the point.

d) Revising For Coherence

As you revise your paragraph for coherence, make sure that all of the ideas and pieces of information are clearly, smoothly, and logically connected. So, rectify problems with coherence by reinforcing logical order, adding transitions, and using other devices that improve coherence.

Look closely at the order followed by your supporting ideas to see if it is clearly established and if all ideas are logically connected. If you have used no special order in organizing your paragraph, you might find that you could arrange your ideas into a definite and understandable pattern such as chronological order, spatial order or order of importance. Even if you have followed a particular order, you might still want to shift certain ideas around so that the order is more apparent to your reader.

To improve coherence, you might also consider adding transitional words and phrases to your paragraph. However, a transitional word or phrase may not always be enough to connect ideas clearly and logically for your reader. You may need to introduce a new idea to establish the link you want. A *bridge idea* is an explanation, fact, or concept that connects one piece of information with another. It can take the form of a phrase, a clause, a whole sentence, or even, occasionally, several sentences. As you revise, consider adding bridge ideas wherever you feel that your reader needs help to move from one point to another.

There are a number of other techniques at your disposal for increasing coherence of your paragraphs. The repetition of main words helps to connect sentences in which they appear. Similarly, the use of synonyms establishes links between

ideas, and the substitution of pronouns for nouns helps the flow of ideas from one sentence to another. It is important to use these devices correctly and carefully. The obvious and excessive repetition of words and the labored use of synonyms and pronouns can make a paragraph sound awkward and lumbering.

Another effective way of establishing connections between ideas in a paragraph is by using parallel constructions. Ideas that are expressed in parallel sentences, clauses, or phrases will naturally appear to be associated with one another, even if you have not made any obvious connections through transitional words or phrases.

e) Revising For Style

When you revise, you should also examine the style of your paragraph to increase the impact, sharpen the focus, or otherwise improve the flow of writing. Revising should involve evaluating the structure of the individual sentences you have written to add liveliness and to emphasize ideas. You can experiment with varying your sentence structures as well as with setting up and breaking patterns to highlight your ideas.

You might also consider writing a concluding sentence to “clinch” your main idea and make it memorable for the reader. The concluding sentence may also be an especially good spot in which to place a dramatic change in sentence structure.

Exercise

Identify the topic and attitude in following topic sentences and develop a paragraph on it.

- i. All around the world living in big cities creates serious problems for people.
- ii. When people divorce, children often have problems.
- iii. Walking is good for your heart.
- iv. Watching TV is a good way to learn spoken English.
- v. Technology spoils the traditional way of life.
- vi. Nuclear power is our greatest hope for solving the energy crisis.
- vii. Nuclear power is the greatest threat to life on the planet.

These are mixed sentences of a paragraph. Put each sentence below in the correct place in the chart to form the paragraph. VIII is the topic sentence.

- i. Thirdly, because of financial problems, some students fail university classes.
- ii. For example, students who have to take jobs don't have as much time to study, so they may fail classes.
- iii. The first reason is that they fail because their academic background is weak.

- iv. Finally, there are students who fail because their energies are not directed toward their classes.
- v. For example, one student might not have had enough mathematics course at high school, so he fails his university math class.
- vi. The second reason is that most of the students don't understand the importance of regular attendance.
- vii. Others may worry because they have too little money, and they may not be able to concentrate on their studies.
- viii. There are some reasons why a lot of students fail in college.
- ix. Because some students don't attend classes regularly, they may not be able to pass the test in class because they don't know the answers.
- x. In conclusion, due to all these problems, numerous students fail in college every year.
- xi. For example, some of these students are not interested in college and they spend their day doing other things.

These are mixed sentences of two separate paragraphs. Put each sentence below in the correct place in the chart to form the paragraphs. The topic sentences are *II* and *X*.

- i. In addition, boat trips are often cheaper than other forms of travel.
- ii. The boat is a rather old fashioned way of travelling, but it has certain advantages.
- iii. In conclusion, travelling by boat isn't a very enjoyable experience.
- iv. Finally, boats are a safe alternative to cars and planes.
- v. Secondly, boat trips can be very unpleasant when the weather is bad or the sea is rough.
- vi. Firstly, it takes much longer than other forms of travel.
- vii. For example, there are fewer accidents at sea than in the air or on the roads.
- viii. First of all, boats are usually more comfortable than planes or cars.
- ix. Instead of sitting in your seat for the whole journey, you can go for a walk on the deck, even go for shopping.
- x. Travelling by boat has its disadvantages.
- xi. For example, a boat ticket usually costs less than a plane ticket.
- xii. Thirdly, boat trips may be very tiring especially for old people.

Read the texts below and circle the correct linking word.

In recent years, the Internet has become a great part of our lives. More and more people have access to it and have discovered many benefits from using it. To begin with, the Internet offers us unlimited information and knowledge on just about every topic and access to the Net is easy and fast. **In spite of this / Therefore**, schoolchildren regularly use the web to research school projects or to

browse just for fun. **What is more / For this reason**, people can communicate with people all over the world with a system called e-mail. Finally, they can view products from different countries and use their credit card to do their shopping from the comfort of your own home. **Even though / However**, surfing the Internet is not the best way of spending all your free time. Too many hours in front of the screen can damage your eyes. Studies have **on the other hand / also** shown that people who prefer to spend their evenings in front of their PCs tend to become antisocial. **Besides / As a result**, there are some concerns about security on the Internet **because / so** hackers can easily steal valuable personal information such as bank account numbers, etc. In conclusion, I believe that **despite / although** their disadvantages, the Internet has certainly made life easier and, if used properly, it may make our lives better, too.

Locate the topic sentence in each of the following paragraphs.

1. People of the Western world, particularly Americans, tend to think of time as something fixed in nature, something around us and from which we cannot escape; an ever-present part of the environment, just like the air we breathe. That it might be experienced in any other way seem unnatural and strange, a feeling which is rarely modified even when we begin to discover how really differently it is handled by some other people. Within the West itself, certain cultures rank time much lower in overall importance than we do. In Latin America, for example, where time is treated rather cavalierly, one commonly hears the expression, "Our time or your time?" "Hora Americana, hora mejicana?"
2. The conquest of England by the Norman invaders brought about an influx of French words which went on increasing in volume for more than three centuries. At first it was little more than a trickle. For a long time the Norman conquerors did not mix much with their Saxon subjects. There are plenty of indications of this; for the languages, too, moved side by side in parallel channels. The custom of having one name for a live beast grazing in the field and another for the same beast, when it is killed and cooked, is often supposed to be due to our English squeamishness and hypocrisy. Whether or not the survival of this custom through ten centuries is due to the national characteristics in question it would be hard to say, but they have certainly nothing to do with its origin. That is a much more blame-less affair. For the Saxon neatherd who had spent a hard day tending his oxen, sheep, calves and swine, probably saw little enough of the beef, mutton, veal, pork and bacon, which were gobbled at night by his Norman masters. There is something a little pathetic, too, in the thought that the homely old word, stool, could be used to express any kind of seat, however magnificent,

until it was, so to speak, hustled into the kitchen by the smart French chair. Even the polite, however, continued to use the old word in the idiom ‘to fall between two stools’.

Underline the sentences in the following paragraph that are unrelated to the main idea.

Haiku is a simple yet beautiful form of poetry that has gained popularity in recent years. Developed in sixteenth-century Japan, haiku has three lines, the first and third lines having five syllables each, and the second line containing seven syllables. Other traditional types of poetry have different requirements: Sonnets, for instance, always contain fourteen lines. Like all types of poetry, haiku’s purpose is to evoke emotion. Connoisseurs of any kind of art appreciate works that evoke feeling. Haiku traditionally achieves this by means of images drawn from nature and frequently from descriptions of common people involved in everyday activities. Children at play are common themes as well. The greatest works of some famous painters are simple descriptions of common people at work, play, or rest. Anything, really, can be the subject of haiku, and because the form is so simple, almost anyone can write one.

9.11 Bibliography

Langan, J. (2011). *College Writing SKills*. The McGraw Hill Companies.

Valencia, L. L. (2002). *Teaching Technical English Writing*. Palmira: CENIDET