

## Unit 1. Functional Grammar

Common errors, Transformation of Sentences, Phrases, Idioms & Proverbs.

### **Phrasal Verb Patterns**

A phrasal verb is a combination of either prepositions or adverbs, or both. It may also combine with one or more pronouns or nouns. Particle verbs Phrasal verbs with adverbs resembling a preposition are sometimes called particle verbs. These are related to separable verbs. Basically, there are two main patterns in this: transitive and intransitive.

- An intransitive particle verb does not have any object. For example:

When he entered the room I looked up.

- A transitive particle verb has a nominal object in addition to the adverb. Here one thing should be taken care of—that if the object is an ordinary noun, it can usually come on either side of the adverb, though very long noun phrases tend to come after the adverb, as in the third example given here: Switch off the light.

Switch the light off.

Switch off the lights in the corridor outside the room.

However, with some transitive particle verbs, the noun object must come after the adverb. In these cases 'inseparable' phrasal verbs are involved. For example: The hot balloon gave off the fumes. (not The hot balloon gave fumes off.) Still there are transitive particle verbs that require the object to precede the adverb. For example: They let the lady through. (not They let through the lady.) In all the transitive particle verbs, if the object is a pronoun, it must precede the adverb. for example: Switch it off. (not Switch off it.) They let her through. (not They let through her.)

### **Prepositional verbs**

Phrasal verbs with a preposition are called as prepositional verbs. These verbs are always followed by their nominal object and are different from transitive particle verbs because the object still follows the preposition if it is a pronoun. For example: We look after our children. We look after them. (not look them after) When a verb has its own object, it usually precedes the preposition. For example:

He helped Namita to an extra portion of apples.

He helped her to some. (with pronouns) Prepositional verbs with two prepositions are possible.

For example: Sahil talked to his mother about his new bike.

### **Phrasal prepositional verbs**

A phrasal verb can be combination of both an adverb and a preposition at the same time. the verb itself can have a direct object. For example: The novice driver got off to a flying start. (no direct object) Onlookers put the accident down to the driver's loss of concentration. (direct object)

## **NOUNS**

Noun is defined as a word used for a name of a person, place, thing, or idea. In English, it is one of the eight parts of speech. It is further classified as common, countable/uncountable, concrete/abstract, collective, proper, gerund, and compound.

1. The common noun names general things such as city, country, chair, car, dog, etc. Common nouns are general names and are not capitalized unless they begin the sentence or are part of a title.

2. The nouns that refer to things which can be counted are countable nouns. They are easy to recognize. For example, we can count pens, chairs, people, dogs, cats, etc. They can be singular or plural. When they are singular, we must use a/an/the/my/this. For example, I want an apple. or Where is my pen? When countable nouns are plural, we can use them alone. For example, I want apples. or Pens are lying on the table.

3. Uncountable nouns refer to items, concepts, etc. that cannot be divided into separate elements. These are further classified as concrete and abstract nouns. Examples of concrete nouns are iron, rice, and furniture. You can experience this group of nouns with your five senses:

you see them, hear them, smell them, taste them, and feel them. For example, Ramya licked the ice cream.

Here ice cream is a concrete noun. We can see the pink colour. We can taste the vanilla flavour. We can feel our tongue growing numb from the cold. Any noun that one can experience with at least one of the five senses is a concrete noun. Whereas, we cannot experience abstract nouns in the same way as concrete nouns. For example, concentration, homework, and freedom. We cannot see the colour of concentration, we can neither taste it, nor hear it.

4. Nouns that refer to group of people or things are collective nouns. Collective nouns are different names given to collections or groups, be they birds, animals, or things. For example, committee, crowd, army, navy, conglomeration, and family.

5. Nouns that refer to specific people, organizations, or places are proper nouns. A proper noun has two distinctive features: (a) it will name a specific item, usually a one-of-a-kind and (b) it will begin with a capital letter no matter where it occurs in a sentence. For example, France, America, Kolkata, Ashok, and Indian Space Research Organization.

6. Nouns that are formed from a verb by adding 'ing' are called gerund nouns. It can follow a preposition, adjective, or most often a verb. For example, I love dancing. I love participating in drawing competitions.

7. Nouns that are made up of two or more words are called compound nouns. These nouns are explained in detail in the following section.

**Compound Nouns** Compound nouns are formed by nouns modified by other adjectives or nouns. For example, toothpaste is a compound noun formed by two nouns. Black bird has black as an adjective and bird as noun. In both these examples, the first word modifies or describes the second word, telling us what kind of object or person it is, or what its purpose is. And the second part identifies the object or person in question. Other examples are as follows:

Weekly magazine	adjective + noun
Swimming pool	verb + noun
Underground	preposition + noun
Haircut	noun + verb
Hanger-on	noun + preposition
Dry washing	adjective + verb
Input	preposition + verb

A compound noun can be formed by just putting the word side by side, e.g., bedroom, or putting a hyphen, such as check-in, and also by separating them with a single space, such as full moon.

### **Noun Phrases**

There are five types of phrases, which are named after the part of speech that is the head of the phrase. They are noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, adverbial phrase, and prepositional phrase. The noun phrase is the nucleus of every sentence. A noun phrase can have infinite length as well as any number of other phrases, e.g., adverb, adjective, and noun within its syntactical structure.

A noun phrase has as its head a noun, pronoun, nominal adjective, or a numeral. For example, 'flowers', 'they', and 'the flowers' are noun phrases, but 'flower' is just a noun.

Some noun phrases consist of only one word like the noun flowers (in the first question) and the pronouns it, them, and they. But most noun phrases have more than one word. A noun phrase comprises a noun (obviously) and any associated modifier. For example, • The tortuous and meandering road

- A black car
- Any related report Different types of modifiers of a noun are given below:

Determiners: The scientist assembled the machine.

Possessives: She brought the machine's parts.

Adjectives: The cumbersome machines are kept underground. Prepositions: The pedestrians over the bridge ...

Clauses: The conference we went to ...

The noun phrase formed by modifiers can be in different forms and combinations. For example, the brilliant and assiduous scientist (adjectival), the boundary following the edge of the college premises (participial), the first woman to walk in space (infinitive), the interview that he had given the day before (modifying clause), and the motel next to the supermarket over the bridge (prepositional). The possible functions of a noun phrase are given below: The subject: The magnificent aircraft soared upwards. The object: I saw that movie about buccaneers. The complement: She dreams of being an engineer. Possessive: My husband's grandfather was a professor. The object of a preposition: He jumped over the wall.

phrase is placed at the end of the sentence (usually, modifying phrases—participial or prepositional) so that it receives more attention. See the sentence given below:

Recently, innumerable rallies have been **reported involving the hoi polloi to have turned into imbroglios.**

## GERUNDS

Any verb with the -ing form used as a subject of a verb and acting like a verb-noun is called a gerund. Read this sentence: Meditating is her favourite kind of relaxation. Meditating is formed by adding -ing to the verb meditate. Some more examples of gerund are given below: Poaching is a prohibited activity in India. In the above sentences, the gerund, like a noun, is the subject of a verb and, like a verb, also takes an object; hence, it indicates that the gerund also has the force of a verb. I love singing classical songs. In this sentence, the gerund, like a noun, is the object of a verb and, like a verb, also takes an object, thus indicating that it also has the force of a verb.

Finally, the gerund, like a noun, can be governed by a preposition and, like a verb, also takes an object as in the following sentence: He has a penchant for listening to melodious songs. Compound gerund forms are formed by keeping a past participle after the gerunds of have and be. Some sentences of compound gerund forms are given below: Having worked for ten hours, he felt sleepy. She was angry about not having been invited. He loves being appreciated. The gerund of a transitive verb has the following forms:

Active Present: steering

Passive Present: being steered

Perfect: having steered

Perfect: having been steered

As both the gerund and the present participle end in the -ing form, be careful to discriminate between them. A verbal noun is the gerund that has the force of a noun and a verb, whereas, the verbal adjective has the present participle that has the force of an adjective and a verb.

Examples of gerund:

Smoking is bad for health.

The child was tired of swimming.

We were stopped from watching the match.

Examples of participle:

He is smoking too much these days.

He was swimming when I saw him.

She was watching the match when her phone rang.

In the compound nouns dancing-shoes, frying-pan, and writing-table, dancing, frying, and writing are gerunds. They mean 'shoes for dancing', 'a pan for frying', and 'a table for writing', respectively. Remember to use the possessive case of nouns and pronouns before gerunds, as in the following sentences:

They celebrated at his being promoted. (not him)

I heard of their having shifted to another town. (not them)

We have no trust in his keeping his promise.

Why do you insist on her being present?

All plans depend on Sona's passing the entrance examination.

The mishap was due to the pilot's ignoring the signals.

### Uses of Gerunds

A gerund being a verb-noun may be used as the following:

- |                                                                                                                               |                                                                                                                                                    |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| • Subject of a verb:<br><i>Smoking</i> is bad for health.<br><i>Reading</i> is his favourite pastime.                         | • Object of a preposition:<br>I am tired of <i>writing</i> .<br>He is fond of <i>singing</i> .<br>He was put behind bars for <i>telling</i> a lie. |
| • Object of a transitive verb:<br>Stop <i>talking</i> .<br>Girls love making dolls.<br>I love <i>reading</i> serious stories. | • Complement of a verb:<br>Doing is <i>learning</i> .<br>What is most detested is <i>drinking</i> .                                                |

An infinitive is a kind of noun with some features of the verb, especially that of taking an object (when the verb is transitive) and adverbial qualifiers. In short, the infinitive is a verb-noun. Read the following sentences:

She never finds fault with me. (finite verb)

She never tries to find fault with me. (verb infinitive)

In the first sentence, the word finds has she for its subject; hence, the verb find is restricted by person and number. You call it a finite verb (all verbs in the indicative, subjunctive, and imperative moods are finite, as they are restricted by the person and number of their subject). In the second sentence, to find merely names the action denoted by the verb find and is used without mentioning any subject. It is thus not limited by person and number as a verb that has a subject and is, therefore, called the verb infinitive or simply the infinitive.

Read the following sentences:

To err is human. (Here the infinitive, like a noun, is the subject of the verb is.) Girls love to dance. (The infinitive here, like a noun, is the object of the verb love.)

To respect our elders is our moral responsibility. (Though the infinitive, like a noun, is the subject of the verb is, it, like a verb, also takes an object.) She refused to obey the rules. (In this sentence, the infinitive, like a noun, is the object of the verb refused and, like a verb, also takes an object.)

Many people desire to make wealth quickly. (The infinitive, like a noun, is the object of the verb desire, but, like a verb, also takes an object and is modified by an adverb.) Though the word to is frequently used with the infinitive, it is not an essential part or sign of it. Thus, after certain verbs (bid, let, make, need, dare, see, hear, etc.), we use the infinitive without to as shown in the following sentences:

Bid him *goodbye*.

Let them *play*.

I will not let you *sleep*.

Make him *do* his homework.

I need not *go* there.

You need not *wait* for him.

You dare not *watch* it.

He saw me *do* it.

I heard her *shout*.

The infinitive without to is also used after the modal auxiliary verbs shall, will, should, would, may, might, must, can, and could.

You shall come. (You will be compelled to come.)

I will study. (I am determined to study.)

He may leave. (He is at liberty to leave; He is permitted to leave.)

You must attend the class. (You are ordered to attend the class.)

I can dance. (I am able to dance.)

The infinitive without to can also be used after had better, had rather, would rather, sooner than, and rather than. See the following sentences:

She had better come seek permission.

He had rather write than read.

I would rather live than die.

In the first sentence, the word finds has she for its subject; hence, the verb find is restricted by person and number. You call it a finite verb (all verbs in the indicative, subjunctive, and imperative moods are finite, as they are restricted by the person and number of their subject). In the second sentence, to find merely names the action denoted by the verb find and is used without mentioning any subject. It is thus not limited by person and number as a verb that has a subject and is, therefore, called the verb infinitive or simply the infinitive.

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Though the word to is frequently used with the infinitive, it is not an essential part or sign of it. Thus, after certain verbs (bid, let, make, need, dare, see, hear, etc.), we use the infinitive without to as shown in the following sentences:

Bid him <i>goodbye</i> .	You need not <i>wait</i> for him.
Let them <i>play</i> .	You dare not <i>watch</i> it.
I will not let you <i>sleep</i> .	He saw me <i>do</i> it.
Make him <i>do</i> his homework.	I heard her <i>shout</i> .
I need not <i>go</i> there.	

The infinitive without *to* is also used after the modal auxiliary verbs *shall, will, should, would, may, might, must, can, and could*.

You *shall* come. (You will be compelled to come.)  
 I *will* study. (I am determined to study.)  
 He *may* leave. (He is at liberty to leave; He is permitted to leave.)  
 You must attend the class. (You are ordered to attend the class.)  
 I *can* dance. (I am able to dance.)

The infinitive without *to* can also be used after *had better, had rather, would rather, sooner than, and rather than*. See the following sentences:

She *had better* come seek permission.  
 He *had rather* write than read.  
 I *would rather* live than die.

## SUBJECT–VERB AGREEMENT

The 'subject' should agree with the 'verb' in number and person. A sentence that has a singular subject is accompanied by a singular verb. On the other hand, a sentence that has a plural subject should have a plural verb. The complex subject of the sentence is followed by a verb that agrees with the main noun in the subject. He plays in the playground. (singular subject) They play in the playground. (plural subject) There are some nouns that can be treated as both singular and plural forms. The government has (have) announced its (their) new employment scheme. Other words that can have either singular or plural verbs are school, class, department, team, university, press, public, crowd, firm, committee, community, family, generation, electorate, group, jury, orchestra, and the names of specific organizations such as the Reserve Bank of India, Infosys, Maruti, and BBC. You use a singular verb if you see an institution or organization as a whole unit and plural verb if you see it as a collection of individuals. There is not much difference in meaning, although in formal writing, use of singular verb is more common. But in some contexts, a plural form of the verb is needed. See the following sentence: The jury disagree about the guilt of the accused. However, in the following sentence, a singular form is preferred and you would say The orchestra is about to play. This cannot be 'The orchestra are ...' as you are referring to the orchestra as a unit, and not as the individuals comprising it. There are some nouns that are plural and take a plural verb, such as premises, particulars, belongings, clothes, goods, earnings, surroundings, stairs, riches, savings, congratulations, and thanks. Congratulations are due to you on your grand success. His belongings are kept in the locker for safety. Plural verbs are used with the nouns such as police, people, and staff. Some nouns always end in -s and look as if they are plural, but when we use them as the subject of a sentence, they have a singular verb as shown in the following sentence: The news about the kidney racket is very disturbing. Other words that end in -s and take a singular verb are means (method or money); academic disciplines, e.g., mathematics, physics, statistics, linguistics, economics, phonetics, and politics; sports such as athletics and gymnastics; and diseases such as diabetes, measles, and rabies. However, let us compare the following:



In academic disciplines: Politics is the favourite of many students in this university. Statistics was always the most feared subject for students. Economics has only recently been added to the course list. But in general use:

What are your politics? (political beliefs) The statistics are not indicative of this fact. (information shown in numbers) The economics of the project are not very encouraging. (the finances) When a subject is made up of two or more items joined by either ... or or neither ... nor, we use a singular verb if the last item is singular (although a plural verb is sometimes used in informal English) and a plural verb if the last item is plural. Either the classroom or the auditorium is a good place to hold the lecture. Neither the secretary nor his representatives are to join the club. If the last item is singular and the previous item plural, you can use either a singular or a plural verb. Either the teachers or the principal is/are to blame for the problem in the school. Let us now run through some important rules.

Use the singular verb in the following cases:

(a) With words such as any of, none of, the majority of, a lot of, plenty of, all (of ) some (of ) and an unaccountable noun

b) With every and each (normally used with a singular noun):

Every room in this guest house has an attached kitchen. Each of the boys plays well.

(c) With everyone, everybody, and everything, (every one is two words when the meaning is each one). Every one in the audience is considered for inclusion in the workshop.

Use the plural verb in the following cases:

With a/the majority of, a number of, a lot of, plenty of, all (of ), and some (of ) and plural noun, we use a plural verb.

But

if we say the number of, we use a singular verb.

The number of tigers in the country is decreasing.

but

A number of reports have been questioned. A lot of lectures are planned. Plenty of showrooms now accept credit cards.

**Use either the singular or the plural verb in the following cases:**

With any of, each of, either of, neither of, and none of, usually a singular verb is used. The plural verb is used in informal style.

I doubt if any of them knows where the illegal arms are hidden.

Neither of the popular Indian games has (have) got international recognition so far.

Some phrases with a plural form are thought of as singular and, therefore, take a singular verb. These include phrases referring to measurements, amounts, and quantities as shown in the following examples: Three quarters of a ton is too much. The three hundred rupees I earned was kept in the locker. When a subject has two or more items joined by and, a plural verb is used. However, phrases connected by and can also be followed by singular verbs if you think of them as making up a single item, as in the following sentences: Choco pie and ice cream is Amrit's favourite at the moment. Research and development involves myriad of activities. After per cent (also percent or %), we use singular verb.

An inflation of 10 per cent per annum makes a big difference in any economy.

A 75 per cent likelihood of winning is worth the effort.

## TENSES

There are three main tenses—present, past, and future. The tense of a verb reflects the time of an action or event. Read these three sentences: (a) I sing a song to entertain you. (b) I sang a song in the competition. (c) I shall sing a song tomorrow for Gandhi Jayanti. In sentence (a), the verb sing refers to the present time. In sentence (b), the verb sang refers to the past time, and in sentence (c), the verb shall sing refers to the future time. A verb that refers to the present time is said to be in the present tense, e.g., I eat, I swim, and I dance. A verb that refers to the past time is said to be in the past tense, e.g., I ate, I swam, and I danced. A verb that refers to the future time is said to be in the future tense, e.g., I shall eat, I shall swim, and I shall dance. Sometimes, a past tense may refer to the present time and a present tense may express future time, as in the following sentence: I wish I knew swimming. These sentences are in the past tense but refer to the present time. The following sentence is in the present tense but refers to the future tense: Let us wait till he comes. Present Tense Simple present tense The simple present tense is used in the following cases.

1. To express a habitual action:

She exercises everyday.

I sleep at ten o'clock everyday.

My dog keeps the house safe

2. To express general truths: The earth revolves around the sun. Medicines are bitter. Self-confidence boosts morale. There are no real secrets to success.
3. In exclamatory sentences, beginning with here and there to express what is actually taking place in the present: There goes the rocket! Here she comes!
4. In vivid narrative, as substitute for the simple past, and in broadcasting and commentaries on sporting events, instead of the present continuous tense, to talk about the actions and events: Sachin now advances forward and plays the fast ball. Anuj rushes home immediately.
5. To express a future event that is part of a fixed timetable or fixed programme: The next train is at 6 tomorrow evening. The circus show begins at 10 o'clock. The flight leaves at 5. When does the shop open?
6. To introduce quotations: Mark Twain says, 'The right word may

be effective, but no word was ever as effective as a rightly timed pause.’ Present continuous tense. The present continuous tense is used in the following cases.

1. To describe an ongoing action while speaking: He is reading. (now) The girls are riding their cycles.

2. To describe a temporary action that may not be actually happening at the time of speaking: I am reading *Gone with the Wind*. (But I am not reading it at this moment.)

3. To mention an action that has already been planned/arranged to take place in the near future: I am going to Kolkata tonight.

My cousin is leaving tomorrow. It has been pointed out before that the simple present is used for a habitual action.

However, when the reference is to a particularly obstinate habit, something which persists in spite of advice or warning, we use the present continuous with an adverb such as always, continually, and constantly. My pet is naughty; she is always crying out for food. The following verbs, on account of their meaning, are not normally used in the continuous form.

1. Verbs of perception, e.g., see, hear, smell, taste, feel, notice, and recognize.
2. Verbs of appearance, e.g., appear, look, and seem.
3. Verbs of emotion, e.g., want, wish, desire, like, love, hate, hope, refuse, and prefer.
4. Verbs of thinking, e.g., think, suppose, believe, agree, consider, trust, remember, forget, know, understand, imagine, mean, and mind.
5. Verbs indicating possession, e.g., own, possess, belong, contain, consist, be (except when used in the passive). Some examples having such verbs are given below:

Wrong	Right
This honey is tasting sweet.	This honey tastes sweet.
I am thinking you are right.	I think you are right.
Were you hearing that?	Did you hear that?
He is having a luxurious car.	He has a luxurious car.

However, the verbs listed above can be used in the continuous tense with a change of meaning as in the following sentences: I am feeling great this morning. (feel = feel physically) She’s seeing her friend this evening. (see = visit) I am looking at the strange figure. (look = stare at) Present perfect tense The present perfect tense is used in the following cases.

1. To indicate completed activities in the immediate past (with just): She has just entered. It has just turned blue.

2. To express past actions whose time is not given and not definite: Have you read *The Children of a Lesser God*? I have never seen him in a pensive mood. Mr Singh has been to Mumbai.

3. To describe past events when you think more of their effect in the present than of the action itself:

Anuj has eaten all the bananas. (There aren’t any left for you.) She has hurt my sentiments. (I am upset.) I have completed my work. (Now I am free.)

4. To denote an action begun sometime in the past and continuing up to the present moment (often with since and for phrases):

She has known him for many years. My teacher has been ill since last week. He has warned her every day for the past week—but to no effect. I have not seen Sameer for several weeks.

5. To express habitual or continued actions: We have lived here for twenty years. He has worn contact lenses all his life.

The following adverbs or adverbial phrases can also be used with the present perfect (apart from those mentioned above): never, ever (in questions only), so far, till now, yet (in negatives and questions), already, today, this week, this month, etc.

The present perfect tense is never used with adverbs of past time. You should not say, for example, 'He has gone to Kolkata yesterday.' In such cases, the simple past should be used: 'He went to Kolkata yesterday.'

### **Present perfect continuous tense**

The present perfect continuous is used for an action that began at some time in the past and is still going on. It is used with since and for to denote point and period of time, respectively:

She has been studying for five hours. (She is still studying.) They have been building the house for several months. They have been dancing since 4 o'clock. This tense is also sometimes used for an action already finished. In such cases, the continuity of the activity is emphasized as an explanation of something. 'Why are your shoes so torn?' 'I have been working in the garden.'

### **Past Tense**

#### **Simple past tense**

The simple past is used to indicate an action completed in the past. It often occurs with adverbs or adverbial phrases of the past time.

I danced enthusiastically yesterday. She received compliments after the speech. He left for the USA last month. Sometimes, this tense is used without an adverb of time. In such cases, the time may be either implied or indicated by the context. I read Akbar and Birbal's tales during the holidays. I did not concentrate on my studies. The girls defeated the boys in the cricket match. The simple past is also used for past habits: I chanted hymns for many hours everyday. She always carried her sunglasses.

#### **Past continuous tense**

The past continuous is used to denote an action going on at some time in the past. The time of the action may or may not be indicated. She was watching television all night. It was getting late. The rock fell on him while he was sitting. When I saw him, he was playing badminton. As in the last two examples above, the past continuous and simple past are used together when a new action happened in the middle of a longer action. The simple past is used for the new action. This tense is also used with always, continually, etc. for persistent habits in the past.

She was always upset.

#### **Past perfect tense**

The past perfect describes an action completed before a certain moment in the past and before the happening of another event in the past. When I arrived at the party, she had already gone home. The actions of the past should indicate the chronology. The simple past is used to indicate the later event and the past perfect is used to indicate the earlier event, for example, in the following sentence, the earlier event of the bus having started, is expressed using the past perfect tense. When I reached the bus stop, the bus had started. (So, I could not get into the bus.) If I had received your letter, I would have replied. I had finished the work before he arrived.

### **Past perfect continuous tense**

The past perfect continuous is used for an action that began before a certain point in the past and continued up to that time, having linked to the period or point of time in the past. At that time, he had been writing a book for two months. When the visitors came to the school in the year 2000, Mr Singh had already been teaching there for two years.

### **Future Tense**

In English language, the future tense is referred to in two ways—the simple future (the 'going to' form) and the simple present.

#### **Simple future tense**

The simple future tense is used to refer to the things that you cannot control. It expresses the future as a fact. I shall be forty on 13th July. It will be Valentine's Day next week. You will know your exam results in July. We also use this tense to talk about what we think or believe will happen in the future: I am sure India will win the cricket match. I think I will stand first in the obstacle race. I believe Mayank will be the president. As in these sentences, this tense is often used with the verb of thinking such as I think, I am sure, I expect, I believe, and probably. We can also use this tense when we decide to do something at the time of speaking: It is very foggy, I will take my car. 'She is in a meeting right now.' 'Alright, I will wait.' We will discuss below the use of 'going to', 'about to', and 'be to' forms in simple future tense.

**Going to** Remember that if an action is already decided upon and preparations have been made, you should use the 'going to' form, not the simple future tense. The simple future tense is used for an instant decision. The 'going to' form (be going to + base of the verb) is used in the following cases.

- When it is decided to do something before taking any action about it: 'Have you finalized the dates for the conference?' 'Yes, I am going to the vice-chancellor.' 'Why do you want to leave the job?' 'I am going to join another organization.'
- To talk about what seems likely or certain, when there is something in the present that tells us about the future; to make predictions: It is going to be a bright day. Look at the sun. The house is in a dilapidated condition. It is going to fall. She is going to have a tough time.
- To express an action that is on the point of happening: Let us get into the class. It is going to start soon. Look! The balloon is going to burst.

**About to** The 'be about to + base' form is used to indicate the immediate future: Let us get into the class. It is about to start. Do not go to sleep. We are about to have dinner.

**Be to** We use 'be to + base' form to talk about official plans and arrangements: I am to visit your institute next week. The panel discussion is to talk on 'brain drain' tomorrow. 'Be to' is used in a formal style, often in news reports. 'Be' is usually left out in headlines, e.g., 'President to visit the Tsunami-hit areas'.

### **Use of present tense in simple future**

#### **Simple present**

The simple present tense is used for official programmes and timetables: The institute reopens on 1st August. The class starts at 10 and finishes at 12 noon. When does the next flight for Delhi leave? The simple present is often used for future time in clauses with if, unless, when, while, before, after, until, by the time, and as soon as. The simple future tense is not used in the following cases: I will not get into the pool if the water is cold. Can I see the film before I leave? Let us relax till he completes his writing. Please call me up as soon as you get the information.

#### **Present continuous**

The present continuous tense is also used for simple future when we refer to something that we have planned to do in the future:

I am going for the conference day after tomorrow. We are partying out today evening. Mr Salim Khan is leaving this afternoon. The present continuous (not the simple present) should be used for personal arrangements.

#### **Future continuous tense**

The future continuous tense is used to discuss the actions that will be in progress at a time in the future. I suppose she will be singing when we enter the auditorium. This time tomorrow, I will be delivering my lecture in your institute.

This tense is also used to mention the actions in the future that are already planned or are expected to happen in the normal course of things as shown in the following sentences: She will be staying in the room till the evening. The president will be talking to us tomorrow. The milkman will be coming soon.

#### **Future perfect tense**

The future perfect tense is used to talk about the actions that will be completed by or before a certain future time. I shall have finished my writing by then. You will have left before he comes to see me. By the end of the day, I will have worked in this place for six hours.

#### **Future perfect continuous tense**

The future perfect continuous tense is used for the actions that will be in progress over a period/ point of time and will end in the future. This tense is not very common in use. By next year, we shall have been living here for one year. I'll have been training in this institute for fifteen months by next September.

Active	Simple	Continuous	Perfect	Perfect continuous
Present	I read.	I am reading.	I have read.	I have been reading.
Past	I read.	I was reading.	I had read.	I had been reading.
Future	I will read.	I will be reading.	I will have read.	I will have been reading.

## ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE

In technical and scientific writing, it is advisable for the writers to opt for passive without agents to achieve objectivity. Therefore, the personal pronouns I and we are avoided so that impersonal style can be achieved, as in 'This solution was, therefore, found to be far more suitable' and 'The observations were recorded to be put forward at appropriate time'. The impersonal passive is preferred for two reasons—it deletes the subject of an intransitive verb and a dummy is used in the construction of the sentence. This dummy has neither thematic nor referential content. For example, there is a dummy word in the sentence: 'There are two paintings'. The simple rule of converting active voice into passive is by changing the subject into a direct object and the direct object into a subject. In most of the cases, the indirect object is a person, which you call personal passive, such as 'the children' in the following sentence:

Active voice:

Passive voice: The children were explained the exercise by the father.

When you replace the pronoun for 'the children', you observe that this pronoun is in its subject form. This is the reason it is called personal passive.

Active voice: The father explained them the exercise.

Passive voice: They were explained the exercise.

Many a time, the agent is removed in passive sentences as 'by the father' in the above sentence. Contrarily, impersonal passives can be defined as passives of reporting verbs. Verbs that refer to saying, thinking, knowing, and believing are mostly followed by the to-infinitive form of passive.

Active: We all believe that she is in India.

Impersonal passive: She is believed to be in India.

There are four infinitive forms that can be used depending on the tense in the active sentence:

- Simple: to do
- Continuous: to be doing
- Perfect: to have done
- Perfect continuous: to have been doing

The phrase It is said ... is an impersonal passive construction. Passive constructions are popularly used in news. Some more examples of impersonal passive voice are given below:

<b>Active:</b>	They say he works arduously.
<b>Impersonal passive:</b>	He is said to work arduously.
<b>Active:</b>	They say she sang well.
<b>Impersonal passive:</b>	She is said to have sung well.
<b>Active:</b>	They said she had scored well.
<b>Impersonal passive:</b>	She was said to have scored well.
<b>Active:</b>	They think he has been having a complex.
<b>Impersonal passive:</b>	He is thought to have been having a complex.
<b>Active:</b>	People say that children are afraid of the dark.
<b>Impersonal passive:</b>	It is said that children are afraid of the dark.
<b>Active:</b>	We can generate heat for welding in many ways.
<b>Impersonal passive:</b>	Heat can be generated for welding in many ways.
<b>Active:</b>	We pass an electric current across the electrodes.
<b>Impersonal passive:</b>	An electric current is passed across the electrodes.

The following examples show two variations in impersonal passive.

- People believe that Chinese is the most widely spoken language. – It is believed that Chinese is the most widely spoken language. – Chinese is believed to be the most widely spoken language.
- Police have reported that it was the mischievous man who caused the accident. – It has been reported by the police that it was the mischievous man who caused the accident. – The mischievous man has been reported by the police to have caused the accident.
- A journalist reports that they are leaving Chennai tomorrow night. – It is reported by a journalist that they are leaving Chennai tomorrow night. – They are reported to be leaving Chennai tomorrow night.
- Their parents thought that the teenagers were dancing at the disco. – It was thought that the teenagers were dancing at the disco. – The teenagers were thought to be dancing at the disco.

In scientific writing, active verbs are preferred over passive verbs. Active verbs render the writing more reader friendly and clear, whereas passive verbs only tend to make it more complex and unmanageable.

## ADJECTIVES AND DEGREES OF COMPARISON

An adjective is a word that qualifies or describes a noun. It can also give the number by quantifying. It gives extra meaning to the noun by adding something to it.

Adjectives are used attributively and predicatively. When an adjective is used with the noun as an epithet or attribute, it is said to be used attributively. On the other hand, when an adjective is used along with the verb and forms part of the predicate, it is said to have been used predicatively. The beautiful girl was declared Miss India. (attributive)



The girl is beautiful. (predicative)

In the first sentence, the adjective beautiful is used along with the noun girl as an epithet or attribute, whereas in the second sentence, it is used along with the verb is and forms part of the predicate. Some adjectives can be used only predicatively:

She is scared of lizards.

He is quite fine.

A few boys were absent in the class.

### **Definite numerical adjective**

A definite numerical adjective includes the cardinal numbers such as one, two, three, and five. It also includes ordinals such as first, second, and third. I did not take the first bus.

### **Distributive numerical adjectives**

These adjectives refer to each one of a number. Each girl has done well in the exam. We expect every student to appear for the interview. Each word of yours is an assumption. Either side of the footpath is laden with rows of flowers. Neither report on his assassination reflects the true picture.

### **Adjective of demonstration**

An adjective of demonstration gives the answer to the question 'which'. This and that are used with singular nouns and these and those with plural nouns. This is the book I was looking for. Those boys helped in organizing the convention. Interrogative adjective 'Wh' words such as what, which, whose, and when fall under the category of interrogative adjectives. What is used in a general sense while which is used in a selective sense. What car has she opted for? Which way is the Birla museum? Whose book is this?

### **Comparison of Adjectives**

There are three degrees of comparisons.

- Positive degree: She is smart.
- Comparative degree: But her sister is smarter.
- Superlative degree: Their brother, however, is the smartest.

The first kind of adjective is in simple form and shows positive degree. It denotes the mere existence of some quality. It is used in isolation when no comparison is needed. But when there is comparison between two things, the comparative degree of an adjective denotes a higher degree of quality than the positive. She is more intelligent than her friend. Which of those two stories is better for publication? Today is hotter than yesterday. The superlative

degree of an adjective is used to reflect the best in the group. She is the most beautiful girl in the class.

### Formation of comparative and superlative degrees

Most adjectives of one syllable, and some of more than one, form the comparative by adding -er and the superlative by adding -est to the positive.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
smart	smarter	smartest
big	bigger	biggest
faint	fainter	faintest
high	higher	highest
near	nearer	nearest
kind	kinder	kindest
quiet	quieter	quietest
great	greater	greatest

When the positive ends in 'y', preceded by a consonant, the 'y' is changed into 'i' before adding -er and -est.

crazy	crazier	craziest
ugly	uglier	ugliest
lazy	lazier	laziest
heavy	heavier	heaviest
merry	merrier	merriest
healthy	healthier	healthiest

When the positive is a word of one syllable and ends in a single consonant, preceded by a vowel, this consonant is doubled before adding -er and -est.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
big	bigger	biggest
fat	fatter	fattest
red	redder	reddest
sad	sadder	saddest
hot	hotter	hottest
thin	thinner	thinnest

Adjectives of more than two syllables, and many of those with two, form the comparative by using the adverb more with the positive and the superlative by using the adverb most with the positive.

amazing	more amazing	most amazing
beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
arduous	more arduous	most arduous
timorous	more timorous	most timorous
courageous	more courageous	most courageous
erudite	more erudite	most erudite
proper	more proper	most proper

Remember not to use -er when qualities of the same person are compared. If you have to say that Seema is more courageous than Reema, you say 'Seema is braver than Reema', but if you have to say that Seema's courage is greater than her compassion, then say 'Seema is more brave than compassionate'.

When two objects are compared with each other, the latter term of comparison must exclude the former:

The dictionary is more useful than any other book. Irregular comparison Some adjectives are compared irregularly, that is, their comparative and superlative degrees are not made from their positive degrees.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative	Positive	Comparative	Superlative
bad, evil, ill	worse	worst	far	farther	farthest
much	more	most	fore	former	foremost, first
many	more	most	(fore)	further	furthest
late	later, latter	latest, last	(out)	outer	outermost
good, well	better	best	(in)	inner	innermost
old	older, elder	oldest, eldest	(up)	upper	uppermost
high	higher	highest			

(Note: The words in parentheses are not adjectives but adverbs.)

## ADVERBS

An adverb is a word that adds more information about a place, time, manner, cause, or degree to a verb, an adjective, a phrase, or another adverb. A typical adverb may be recognized by the -ly suffix that has been attached to an adjective such as beautifully, quickly, slowly, nicely, humbly, and mortally. We can better understand it with the help of the adjacent table. Indeed all words ending with -ly are not adverbs. Sometimes, the adverbs and adjectives are the same word. It may be useful to contrast the adjectives and adverbs in the following pairs of sentences. The adjective is in the first sentence of each pair.

### Adverbs and Adjectives with the Same Form

I caught an early train. He walked a straight line.

I arrived home early. He went straight to his friend.

He aimed at the higher target. It's a hard job we have to do.

He aimed higher next time. We tried hard to convince them.

The suffix -ly is not an inflectional suffix, as for example, the -s plural ending on nouns and the -ed past tense ending on verbs; instead, it is a derivational suffix. We should also note that the words which end in -ly are adjectives not adverbs, the -ly in this case deriving adjectives from nouns such as friendly, kingly, cowardly, manly, fatherly, worldly. Consequently, we have adjectives not adverbs in: She is a friendly person, What a cowardly act!, and Here is some fatherly advice.

### Adverbs with Two Forms

Many English adverb forms without -ly look like adjectives; they clearly distribute like adverbs. Many English adverbs lack the -ly ending for historical reason (they are flat adverbs) but that ending is sometimes extended to them. Consequently, some adverbs can exist in two forms, one with the -ly ending and one without, as in cheap and cheaply and

slow and slowly, which are merely alternate adverb forms. However, some users of English may resist using words like cheap and slow as adverbs when alternates such as cheaply and slowly exist. The following adverbs have two forms:

She bought them *cheap*.  
She bought them *cheaply*.

Hold it *close* to you.  
Hold it *closely* to you.

Do it up *tight*!  
Do it up *tightly*!

### Adverb Forms

Just like some adjectives, a few adverbs also have comparative and superlative forms such as badly, worse, worst, well, better, best, etc. The comparative and superlatives in most adverbs require use of more and most as in more commonly and most successfully. See the following examples:

Score faster if you wish to win.

If you read faster, I will award you an 'A' grade.

### Kinds of Adverb

There are many different kinds of adverbs explained in the following. Adverbs of manner An adverb of manner explains how an action has taken place. They are usually placed after the main verb or after the object. He works well. (after the main verb) Ram runs quickly. Sangeeta speaks softly. Gita laughed loudly to attract her attention. He plays the flute beautifully. (after the object) He ate the chocolate cake greedily.

### Adverbs of time

An adverb of time explains when an action has taken place. She regularly visits France. (frequency)

Mohan *never* drinks milk. (before the main verb)

Students must *always* work hard. (after the auxiliary 'must')

My father went to the principal's house *yesterday*.

*Later* Mohan prepared tea. (before the subject)

### Adverbs of place

Adverbs of place tell us where an action has taken place. These adverbs are mostly used after the main verb or after the object. There comes the train. (before the main verb) Books

were spread everywhere. (after the main verb) Sita looked up towards the sky. Mohan went outside. They buried the dead body nearby. (after the object)

Suresh threw the book outside.

### **Adverbs of degree**

Adverbs of degree explain the intensity of an action, an adjective, or another adverb.

The juice was extremely cold. (before the adjective)

Sita is too tired to go out tonight.

Seema is just leaving the house. (before the main verb)

She has almost finished.

He rarely perceived any change in her behaviour.

### **Relative adverbs**

Relative adverbs can be used to join sentences or clauses such as where, when, why. This is the place where we lost the money. I remember the month when I joined this institute. People were shouting when we entered the hall. Mohan disclosed why he has stolen the money. Adverbs of frequency An adverb of frequency expresses how often an action is or was done. He is always in time for meal. She exercises in the morning everyday. He often smiles while speaking. They sometimes stay up all night.

## **CONJUNCTIONS**

A conjunction is a word that joins together two words, phrases, or clauses. Cup and saucer make a complete set. My love for skiing and the mountains brought me to the Alps. They are poor but they are honest. Conjunctions make sentences more compact by joining them as in the following sentence:

Usha and Geeta are very beautiful.

This is better than saying 'Usha is very beautiful.

Geeta is very beautiful.'

Here are some more examples:

Up and down he goes.

I will come on Monday or Tuesday.

Jerry is small but strong.

You must be careful to distinguish relative pronouns and relative adverbs from conjunctions because they also bring together parts of a sentence. Some conjunctions are used in pairs and are called correlative conjunctions or correlatives. A few correlatives are given below:

Either ... or	<i>Either</i> attend the classes <i>or</i> go home.
Neither ... nor	He is <i>neither</i> intelligent <i>nor</i> arduous.
Both ... and	She is <i>both</i> pretty and intelligent.
Whether ... or	I am in a dilemma about <i>whether</i> to stay <i>or</i> to go.
Not only ... but also	She is <i>not only</i> a dancer <i>but also</i> a singer.

Some compound expressions are used as conjunctions and are called compound conjunctions, for example, as if, in order that, even if, on condition that, so that, as soon as, as though, provided that, and in as much as.

### Conjunction Classes

The two main classes of conjunctions are co-ordinating and subordinating conjunctions.

#### Coordinating conjunctions

When a sentence contains two independent statements or two statements of equal rank or importance, coordinating conjunction is used. This class includes and, but, for, or, nor, also, either... or, neither... nor, and so on. They are of the following four types.

##### Cumulative

It adds one statement to another: We worked hard and we achieved the goal.

##### Adversative

It expresses the contrast between two statements: He is weak but enthusiastic. She would participate only if she is invited. I am irked, yet I am quiet.

##### Disjunctive

It expresses the choice between two alternatives: She must take the medicines or she will die. Either he is crazy or he is a fanatic. Run fast, else you will not win.

##### Illative

It expresses an inference: Somebody surely came in, for I heard footsteps. All preemptive measures must have been neglected, for the malaria spread rapidly.

#### Subordinating conjunctions

A conjunction introducing a dependent or subordinate clause is called a subordinating conjunction. A subordinating conjunction joins a clause to another on which it depends for its full meaning. These are while, where, when, as, unless, before, till, although, though, that,

if, because, and after. Such conjunctions are further classified into seven types according to their meanings.

### **Time**

My grandfather died before I was born.

No institute can flourish till it is under the tutelage of an efficient leader.

Many events have been organized since you came.

I returned to the office after he came.

### **Cause or reason**

My energy is like the energy of a five-year-old because my mind is active.

Since you want, it shall be done.

As she was not there, I talked to her mother. He may join, as he is eager.

### **Purpose**

We eat apples, so we remain happy.

He helped me, lest I should fail.

Result I was so enervated that I could scarcely smile.

Condition The problem cannot be solved unless you identify it.

I will come to the party if you come.

Concession I didn't get the job though I had all the necessary qualifications. A picture is a picture, even if there is nothing aesthetic in it. Comparison He is taller than his brother.

The following are some examples of the use of conjunctions:

Is this right or wrong? It is better late than never.

You can do it if you try.

You will only do it when you try.

### **Conjunctions Used in Adverbial Phrases and Clauses**

Conjunctions used in adverbial clauses are considered as subordinating clauses. And these clauses when used with adverbial clauses, in a sentence, acts like an adverb in that sentence. For example, Wherever he goes, he leaves the mark of his churlish behaviour. (The adverbial clause wherever he goes modifies the verb leaves.) A subordinate conjunction may work as an, adverb, adjective, or noun in complex sentences. An adverbial



clause beginning with a subordinating conjunction makes the clause subordinate or dependent. Common subordinate conjunctions as follows:

although	in order (that)	until
after	insofar as	unless
as	in that	when
as far as	lest	wherever
as though	no matter how	while
as if	now that	whenever
as soon as	once	why
because	provided (that)	where
even if	since	whether
before	so that	
even though	supposing (that)	
how	though	
if	till	
in as much as	than	
in case (that)	that	

Like a single word adverb, an adverbial clause describes a verb and answers the questions such as where, why, how, when, or to what degree. For example, When it rains, the flowers bloom. Here when is the subordinating clause, it rains is the adverbial clause, and the flowers bloom is the main clause. The old lady is hungry because she has no money. Here the old lady is hungry is the main clause, because is the subordinating clause, and she has no money is the adverbial clause. Where there is smoke, there is fire. Here where is the subordinating conjunction and there is smoke is the adverbial clause. She danced very well, as if she is a good dancer. Here she danced well is the main clause, as if is the subordinating conjunction, and she is a good dancer is the adverbial clause. She is more beautiful than her sister. Here she is more beautiful is the main clause, than is the subordinating clause, and her sister is the adverbial clause.

## PREPOSITIONS

A preposition shows the relationship of a noun to the remaining part of the sentence. The word preposition means 'place before'. There are two kinds of prepositions—simple and complex. Simple prepositions comprise a single word, e.g., in, at, as, of, and from. Complex prepositions are the combination of two or more words, e.g., ahead of and due to. Observe the use of the following prepositions.

**At, in** *At* is used with small towns and villages:

He lives at Pilani.

*In* is used with cities and countries:

My sister works in Delhi.

### **By, with**

By is used before the doer of an action: The dog was killed by a lion. With is used before the name of a tool: The judge gave the decision with the pounding of his gavel.

### **Between, among**

Between is used with two persons or things: The father divided the property between the two children. Among is used with more than two persons or things: The father divided the property among all the children.

### **Beside, Besides**

Beside means 'by the side of': I sat beside the vice chancellor. Besides means 'in addition to': Besides teaching, she also does English coaching.

### **In, within**

In means at the end of a certain period: I will finish my work in two days. (i.e., at the end of two days)

Within means before the end of a certain period: I will finish the assignment within two days. (i.e., before the end of two days)

## **ARTICLES**

Articles in English are used to clarify if a noun is specific or not specific. Basically, articles are adjectives. Like adjectives, articles also modify nouns and are used before nouns or adjectives. There are two types of articles:

### **Definite articles (the):**

These are used for specific nouns. Indefinite articles (a, an): These are used for non-specific nouns. The is used to refer to specific or particular nouns; a/an is used to modify non-specific or nonparticular nouns. That is why, the is a definite article and a/an is a non-definite article. For example, I am reading the book.

Here, but the book I am reading is specific. So the is used. Whereas, in Let's read a book. The book that I am going to read is not specific. It may be any book. Indefinite articles 'a' and 'an' when used signifies that the noun modified is indefinite, referring to any member of a

group. For example, My son wants a dog on his birthday. This refers to any dog. One cannot find out which dog as it is not found yet. When I was in Mumbai, I bought an aquarium. Here the non-specific thing is an aquarium. There are various types of aquarium but there is one that was bought.

1. Use of a or an depends on the sound that begins the next word:
  - a + singular noun beginning with a consonant: a girl, a cycle, a ball, a chair, etc.
  - an + singular noun beginning with a vowel: an aeroplane, an egg, an apple, an idiot, an orphan, etc.
  - a + singular noun beginning with a vowel but having consonant sound: a user, a university, a unicycle, etc.
  - an + singular noun beginning with consonant but having vowel sound: an honest man, an honour, etc.
2. If the noun is modified by an adjective, the use of a and an depends on the initial sound of the adjective that immediately follows the article. For example, a broken egg, an honored man, a university event.
3. Indefinite articles are also used to indicate membership in a group. For example, he is a teacher, Melissa is an American.
4. Indefinite articles are used for countable nouns. For example, I need a glass of water, he gave me a pen. Definite article The following are some uses of 'the'.
  1. The definite article is used before singular and plural nouns when the noun is specific or particular. The signals that the noun is definite; that it refers to a particular member of a group. For example: The boy who stole my purse was caught by the police. Here, the boy is a specific boy who stole the purse.
  2. 'The' can be used with uncountable nouns. For example: 'I love to sail over the water' (some specific body of water) or 'I love to sail over water' (any water). 'He spilled the milk all over the floor' (some specific milk, perhaps the milk you bought earlier that day) or 'He spilled milk all over the floor' (any milk).
  3. 'The' is used before
    - names of rivers, oceans, and seas: the Nile, the Pacific
    - points on the globe: the Equator, the North Pole
    - geographical areas: the Middle East, the West
    - deserts, forests, gulfs, and peninsulas: the Sahara, the Persian Gulf, the Black Forest, the Iberian Peninsula
  4. 'The' is not used before
    - names of most countries/territories: Italy, Mexico, Bolivia; however, the Netherlands, the Dominican Republic, the Philippines, the United States
    - names of cities, towns, or states: Seoul, Manitoba, Miami
    - names of streets: Washington Blvd., Main St
    - names of lakes and bays: Lake Titicaca, Lake Erie, except with a group of lakes such as the Great Lakes
    - names of mountains: Mount Everest, Mount Fuji, except with ranges of mountains like the Andes or the Rockies or unusual names like the Matterhorn

- names of continents: Asia, Europe
- names of islands: Easter Island, Maui, Key West, except with island chains like the Aleutians, the Hebrides, or the Canary Islands

#### Omission of Articles

Articles are not used before few nouns like the following.

- names of languages and nationalities: Chinese, English, Spanish, Russian
- names of sports: volleyball, hockey, baseball
- names of academic subjects: mathematics, biology, history, computer science

#### **Transformation of sentences**

In English, there are mainly three types of sentences.

Simple sentence

Compound sentence

Complex sentence

A simple sentence has just one clause. A complex sentence has one main clause and one or more subordinate clauses. A compound sentence has more than one main clause.

We can change a simple sentence into a compound sentence or a complex sentence. This is usually done by expanding a word or phrase into a clause. In the same way, we can change a complex or compound sentence into a simple sentence. This is done by reducing a clause into a word or phrase.

Study the examples given below.

It is too late to start a new lesson.

As you can see this sentence has just one clause and therefore it is a simple sentence. The number of clauses in a sentence is equal to the number of finite verbs in it. Note that to-infinitives and –ing forms are not finite verbs.

The structure too...to can be replaced by the structure so...that.

It is so late that we cannot start a new lesson.

As you can see this sentence has two clauses: one main clause (It is so late) and one subordinate clause (That we cannot start a new lesson.) We have already learned that a sentence containing one main clause and one or more subordinate clauses is called a complex sentence.

Another example is given below.

He worked hard that he might pass the examination.

The above sentence is an example of a complex sentence. It has one main clause (He worked hard) and one subordinate clause of purpose (That he might pass the examination). Subordinate clauses of purpose can be reduced to to-infinitives.

He worked hard to pass the examination. (Simple sentence)

One more example is given below.

He ordered that the traitor be jailed. (Complex sentence)

This sentence, too, can be converted into a simple sentence with the help of a to-infinitive.

## **Direct and Indirect Speech**

What is Direct & Indirect Speech?

Direct speech – reporting the message of the speaker in the exact words as spoken by him.

Direct speech example: Maya said 'I am busy now'.

Indirect speech: reporting the message of the speaker in our own words

Indirect speech example: Maya said that she was busy then.

Let us understand the direct and indirect rules with examples and for all tenses so that you can apply them correctly, without making any mistakes in the exams.

### **Direct And Indirect Speech Rules**

#### **Rules for converting Direct into Indirect speech**

To change a sentence of direct speech into indirect speech there are various factors that are considered, such as reporting verbs, modals, time, place, pronouns, tenses, etc. We will discuss each of these factors one by one.

#### **Rule 1 – Direct To Indirect Speech Conversion – Reporting Verb**

When the reporting verb of direct speech is in past tense then all the present tenses are changed to the corresponding past tense in indirect speech.

Direct to indirect speech example:

Direct: She said, 'I am happy'.

Indirect: She said (that) she was happy.

In indirect speech, tenses do not change if the words used within the quotes (") talk of a habitual action or universal truth.

#### **Direct to indirect speech example:**

Direct: He said, 'We cannot live without air'.

Indirect: He said that we cannot live without air.

The tenses of direct speech do not change if the reporting verb is in the future tense or present tense.

Direct to indirect speech example:

Direct: She says/will say, 'I am going'

Indirect: She says/will say she is going.

#### **Rule 2 – Direct Speech to Indirect Speech conversion – Present Tense**

Present Perfect Changes to Past Perfect.

#### **Direct to indirect speech example:**

Direct: "I have been to Boston", she told me.

Indirect: She told me that she had been to Boston.

Present Continuous Changes to Past Continuous

#### **Direct to indirect speech example:**

Direct: "I am playing the guitar", she explained.

Indirect: She explained that she was playing the guitar.

Present Perfect Changes to Past Perfect

#### **Direct to indirect speech example:**

Direct: He said, "She has finished her homework".

Indirect: He said that she had finished her homework.

Simple Present Changes to Simple Past

**Direct to indirect speech example:**

Direct: "I am unwell", she said.

Indirect: She said that she was unwell.

Rule 3 – Direct Speech to Indirect Speech conversion – Past Tense & Future Tense

Simple Past Changes to Past Perfect

**Direct to indirect speech example:**

Direct: She said, "Irvin arrived on Sunday."

Indirect: She said that Irvin had arrived on Sunday.

Past Continuous Changes to Past Perfect Continuous

**Direct to indirect speech example**

Direct: "We were playing basketball", they told me.

Indirect: They told me that they had been playing basketball.

Future Changes to Present Conditional

**Direct to indirect speech example**

Direct: She said, "I will be in Scotland tomorrow."

Indirect: She said that she would be in Scotland the next day.

Future Continuous Changes to Conditional Continuous

**Direct to indirect speech example**

Direct: He said, "I'll be disposing of the old computer next Tuesday."

Indirect: He said that he would be disposing of the old computer the following Tuesday.

Rule 4 – Direct Speech to Indirect Speech Conversion – Interrogative Sentences

No conjunction is used, if a sentence in direct speech begins with a question (what/where/when) as the "question-word" itself acts as a joining clause.

**Direct to indirect speech example**

Direct: "Where do you live?" asked the boy.

Indirect: The boy enquired where I lived.

If a direct speech sentence begins with an auxiliary verb/helping verb, the joining clause should be if or whether.

**Direct to indirect speech example**

Direct: She said, 'Will you come for the party'?

Indirect: She asked whether we would come for the party.

Reporting verbs such as 'said/ said to' changes to enquired, asked, or demanded.

**Direct to indirect speech example**

Direct: He said to me, 'What are you wearing'?

Indirect: He asked me what I was wearing.

Rule 5 – Direct Speech to Indirect Speech Conversion – Changes in Modals

While changing direct speech to indirect speech, the modals used in the sentences change like:

Can becomes could

May becomes might

Must becomes had to /would have to

Check the examples:

Direct : She said, 'She can dance'.

Indirect: She said that she could dance.

Direct: She said, 'I may buy a dress'.

Indirect: She said that she might buy a dress.

Direct: Rama said, 'I must complete the assignment'.

Indirect: Rama said that he had to complete the assignment.

There are modals that do not change – Could, Would, Should, Might, Ought to

Direct: She said, 'I should clean the house'

Indirect: She said that she should clean the house.

**Rule 6 – Direct Speech to Indirect Speech Conversion – Pronoun**

The first person in direct speech changes as per the subject of the speech.

**Direct speech to indirect speech examples-**

Direct: He said, "I am in class Twelfth."

Indirect: He says that he was in class Twelfth.

The second person of direct speech changes as per the object of reporting speech.

**Direct speech to indirect speech examples –**

Direct: She says to them, "You have done your work."

Indirect: She tells them that they have done their work.

The third person of direct speech doesn't change.

**Direct speech to indirect speech examples –**

Direct: He says, "She dances well."

Indirect: He says that she dances well.

**Rule 7 – Direct Speech to Indirect Speech Conversion – Request, Command, Wish, Exclamation**

Indirect Speech is supported by some verbs like requested, ordered, suggested and advised. Forbid-forbade is used for negative sentences. Therefore, the imperative mood in the direct speech changes into the Infinitive in indirect speech.

Direct: She said to her 'Please complete it'.

Indirect: She requested her to complete it.

Direct: Hamid said to Ramid, 'Sit down'.

Indirect: Hamid ordered Ramid to sit down.

In Exclamatory sentences that express grief, sorrow, happiness, applaud, Interjections are removed and the sentence is changed to an assertive sentence.

Direct: She said, 'Alas! I am undone'.

Indirect: She exclaimed sadly that she was broke.

**Rule 8 – Direct Speech to Indirect Speech Conversion – Punctuations**

In direct speech, the words actually spoken should be in (") quotes and always begin with a capital letter.

**Example:** She said, "I am the best."

Full stop, comma, exclamation or question mark, are placed inside the closing inverted commas.

**Example:** They asked, "Can we sing with you?"

If direct speech comes after the information about who is speaking, a comma is used to introduce the speech, placed before the first inverted comma.

**Direct speech example:** He shouted, "Shut up!"

Direct speech example: "Thinking back," he said, "she didn't expect to win." (Comma is used to separate the two direct speeches and no capital letter to begin the second sentence).

Rule 9 – Direct Speech to Indirect Speech Conversion – Change of Time

In direct speeches, the words that express nearness in time or place are changed to words that express distance in indirect speech. Such as :

Now becomes then

Here becomes there

Ago becomes before

Thus becomes so

Today becomes that day

Tomorrow becomes the next day

This becomes that

Yesterday becomes the day before

These become those

Hither becomes thither

Come becomes go

Hence becomes thence

Next week or month becomes following week/month

**Examples:**

Direct: He said, 'His girlfriend came yesterday.'

Indirect: He said that his girlfriend had come the day before.

The time expression does not change if the reporting verb is in the present tense or future tense.

**Examples:**

Direct: He says/will say, 'My girlfriend came yesterday.'

Indirect: He says/will say that his girlfriend had come the day before.

Rules of converting Indirect Speech into Direct Speech

The following rules should be followed while converting an indirect speech to direct speech:

Use the reporting verb such as (say, said to) in its correct tense.

Put a comma before the statement and the first letter of the statement should be in capital letter.

Insert question mark, quotation marks, exclamation mark and full stop, based on the mood of the sentence.

Remove the conjunctions like (that, to, if or whether) wherever necessary.



Where the reporting verb is in past tense in indirect, change it to present tense in the direct speech.

Change the past perfect tense either into present perfect tense or past tense, as necessary.

**Check the examples:**

Indirect: She asked whether she was coming to the prom night.

Direct: She said to her, "Are you coming to the prom night?"

Indirect: The girl said that she was happy with her result.

Direct: The girl said. "I am happy with my result."

Q.1. Find out the correct indirect speech for the given sentence.

She said, 'I have baked a cake'

She said that she baked a cake

She said that she had baked a cake.

She said that I baked a cake.

She said that she had bake a cake.

Answer (2) She said that she had baked a cake.

Q.2. Choose the correct sentence.

Aviral said, 'What a beautiful rainbow it is'.

Aviral exclaimed wonderfully that the scenery was very beautiful.

Aviral said with wonder that the scenery was very beautiful.

Aviral exclaimed with wonder that the scenery is very beautiful.

Aviral exclaimed with wonder that the scenery was very beautiful.

Answer (4) Aviral exclaimed with wonder that the scenery was very beautiful.

Q.3. The correct indirect speech for 'This world', she said, 'is full of sorrow. Wish that I were dead'. is?

1. She observed that the world is full of sorrow. She wished to be dead.
2. She said that the world was full of sorrow. She wished to be dead.
3. She observed that the world was full of sorrow. She wished to be dead.

She observed that the world was full of sorrow. She wished to die.

Answer (1) She observed that the world is full of sorrow. She wished to be dead

What is the Degree of Comparison? To describe, quantify, modify or identify nouns/pronouns, adjectives are used re used. Adjectives have their own degrees called degrees of adjectives or degrees of comparison that compare one thing/person to another. Adjectives have three degrees of comparison –

• Positive degree of adjectives, • Comparative degree of adjectives • Superlative degree of adjectives

Degrees of Comparison examples: Positive degree - The cat runs fast. Comparative degree - The cat runs faster than dogs Superlative degree - The cat runs fastest of all animals.

**Degree of Comparison Rules**

Rule 1. When two items/person are compared, a comparative degree is used by putting 'er' to the adjective word in association with word 'than' or in some cases 'more' is used. Comparative degree example:

- She is smarter than her sister.
- She is more smart than her sister Similarly, when more than two things/persons are compared, superlative degree is used by putting 'est' to the adjective word or in some cases 'most' is used.

Superlative degree example:

- He is the strongest wrestler.
- He is the most handsome actor

Rule 2. 'More' is used when you qualities of a single thing/person are compared. Even if the first adjective is a single syllable word.

Degree of comparison example:

Incorrect - She is smarter than clever Correct - She is more smart than clever Rule

3. Do not use double comparative adjectives or superlative adjectives.

Example: Incorrect - These mangoes are more delicious than those Correct - These mangoes are delicious than those

Rule 4. Never use 'more or most' with adjectives that give absolute sense. Degree of comparison example: Incorrect - This track is more parallel to that one Correct - This track is parallel and the other is not.

Rule 5. There are a few adjectives that are accompanied by 'to', like, senior, Junior, superior, inferior, preferable, prefer, elder. Do not use 'than' with these adjectives.

Degree of adjectives example:

Incorrect: I am elder than her

Correct : I am elder to her Incorrect - This car brand is superior than that.

Correct - This card brand is superior to that.

Rule 6. When comparing two things, similarity should be there i.e. similar things should be compared.

Example:

Incorrect - This wall colour is more beautiful than the old one. (wall colour is compared with the wall)

Correct - This wall colour is more beautiful than that of the old one. (compare wall colour with wall colour)

Rule 7. When comparative degree is used in the superlative degree sense,

1. Use 'any other' when thing/person of the same group is compared.

Degree of comparison example:

Incorrect: Reena is smarter than any student of her class.

Correct: Reena is smarter than any other student of her class.

2. Use 'any' if comparison of things/person is outside the group.

Incorrect: Delhi is cleaner than any other city in Bangladesh.

Correct: Delhi is cleaner than any city in Bangladesh.

Rule 8. When in the same sentence two adjectives in different degrees of comparison are used, both should be complete in itself.

Incorrect- She is as good if not worse than her sister

Correct - She is as good as if not worse than her sister

Rule 9. To show whether the difference between the compared thing/person is small or big, we use quantifiers for comparative degree of adjective such as ( A bit, a little, a lot, far, much, a great deal, significantly, etc).

Example:

- My hostel is only marginally bigger than yours
- She is a little more popular than her sister in their school
- Australia is slightly smaller than Africa.

We don't use quantifiers with superlative degrees of adjectives but there are certain phrases commonly used with the superlative degrees of comparison.

Example:

- In metropolitan cities, metros are by far the cheapest mode of transportation.
- Sanskrit is one of the oldest languages in the world.
- Siddhivinayak is the second richest temple in India.

Rule. 10. While changing the degree of comparison for the irregular adjectives, the word completely changes instead of adding 'er' or 'est'. Examples:

- She has little milk in the jar
- She has less milk than he has
- She has the least amount of milk

### Question tags

Look at these examples to see how question tags are used. You haven't seen this film, have you?

Your sister lives in Spain, doesn't she?

He can't drive, can he?

She's a doctor, isn't she?

Yesterday was so much fun, wasn't it?

If the statement is negative, we use a positive question tag.

He isn't here, is he?

The trains are never on time, are they?

Nobody has called for me, have they?

If we are sure or almost sure that the listener will confirm that our statement is correct, we say the question tag with a falling intonation. If we are a bit less sure, we say the question tag with a rising intonation.

### Formation

If there is an auxiliary verb in the statement, we use it to form the question tag.

*I don't need to finish this today, **do I?***

*James **is** working on that, **isn't** he?*

*Your parents **have** retired, **haven't** they?*

*The phone **didn't** ring, **did** it?*

*It **was** raining that day, **wasn't** it?*

*Your mum **hadn't** met him before, **had** she?*

Sometimes there is no auxiliary verb already in the statement. For example, when:

... the verb in the statement is present simple or past simple and is positive. Here we use *don't*, *doesn't* or *didn't*:

*Jenni **eats** cheese, **doesn't** she?*

*I **said** that already, **didn't** I?*

... the verb in the statement is *to be* in the present simple or past simple. In this case we use *to be* to make the question tag:

*The bus stop's over there, **isn't** it?*

***None** of those customers **were** happy, **were** they?*

... the verb in the statement is a modal verb. Here we use the modal verb to make the question tag:

*They **could** hear me, **couldn't** they?*

*You **won't** tell anyone, **will** you?*

If the main verb or auxiliary verb in the statement is *am*, the positive question tag is *am I?* But the negative question tag is usually *aren't I?*

*I'm **never** on time, **am** I?*

*I'm **going to get** an email with the details, **aren't** I?*

### **TRANSFORMATION OF SENTENCES**

Transformation of sentences means changing (or converting) the words or form of a sentence without changing its meaning (or sense).

Types of Transformation

[I] Use 'No sooner .... than'

[II] Use 'Not only .... but also'

[III] Remove 'If / Unless'

[IV] Remove 'too'

[VI] Interrogative to Assertive and vice versa

[VII] Exclamatory to Assertive and vice versa

[VIII] Affirmative to Negative and vice versa

[IX] Imperative to Assertive

#### 1. USE 'NO SOONER .... THAN'

A sentence which shows two actions which immediately follow one another, can be written with the use of 'no sooner....than'

eg. As soon as he sensed danger, he fled.

Ans. No sooner did he sense danger than he fled.

The structure of the sentence is as follows : No sooner + auxiliary verb + subject + main verb + other words (if any) + than + the rest of the sentence.

Note :

If an auxiliary is present in the sentence, use the same. eg. When he was presented with the trophy, he started crying.

Ans. No sooner was he presented with a trophy than he started crying.

eg. As soon as they had eaten , they went out for a stroll.

Ans. No sooner had they eaten than they went out for a stroll.

- ❖ If an auxiliary is not present in the sentence, use do / does/ did ('do / does' for the present tense and 'did' for past tense)

eg. As soon as the sun rose , they left for the journey.

Ans. No sooner did the sun rise than they left for the journey.

eg. As soon as the bell rings , the children rush into their classrooms.

Ans. No sooner does the bell ring than the children rush into their classrooms.

EXERCISE :

1. She said her prayers and visualized the accomplishment of her goals.
2. I looked into the crowd and saw a man with a straight back and a rugged face.
3. She read Anne's diary and was moved to write to Otto.
4. When the cousins appeared, we excitedly told them about Old Tom.
5. After we were frisked for guns or tranquilizer darts , we were led into the Sanjay Gandhi National Park.

## II. USE 'NOT ONLY .... BUT ALSO'

When we are mentioning two things (either joined by 'and' or 'as well as' we can transform the sentence using 'not only....but also'.

e.g. She rinsed the popcorn bowls and took meat out of the freezer.

Ans. She not only rinsed the popcorn bowls but also took meat out of the freezer.

Note :

'not only' is used before the first of the two things mentioned and 'but also' in place of 'and /as well as'.

1. When there are two nouns in the subject position.

eg. Radha and Seeta are intelligent.

Ans. Not only Radha but also Seeta is intelligent.

2. When there are two nouns in the object position.

eg. He ate an apple and drank a glass of milk.

Ans. He not only ate an apple but also drank a glass of milk.

3. When there are two actions.

eg. He grew silent and seemed to be pondering on the situation.

Ans. He not only grew silent but also seemed to be pondering on the situation.

4. When there are two adjectives.

eg. She had become very noisy and mischievous.

Ans. She had become not only very noisy but also mischievous.

EXERCISE :

1. Eagles and other large fish eating birds have been treated with respect.
2. The snake suddenly coiled up, raised its neck and viciously struck Dad's arm.
3. The banana helps in regulating blood pressure and lowers the risk of a stroke.
4. You can misuse your lungs as well as use them well.
5. He seated me in a comfortable chair and asked me what he could do for me.

## III. REMOVE 'IF / UNLESS' 1. If + not = unless

If you water the plants they will not die.

Ans. Unless you water the plants, they will die.

If = unless + not If you read, you will learn.

2. Ans. Unless you read you will not learn.
3. Only if = never + unless Monkeys fight only if they are a hundred to one.

Ans. Monkeys never fight unless they are a hundred to one.

#### SOLVED EXAMPLES :

1. If you keep fingering it, you'll make your whole chin into one big spot.  
Ans. Unless you keep it, you'll not make your whole chin into one big spot.
2. If fingering you are cold, do the same thing.  
Ans. Unless you are cold, don't do the same thing.
3. If the temperature is too high, plants and animals will die.  
Ans. Unless the temperature is too high, plants and animals will not die.
4. If you know the answer, you will win.  
Ans. Unless you know the answer you will not win.
5. They will never work unless they are told.  
Ans. They will work only if they are told.

#### EXERCISE :

1. If traffic is controlled, accidents will not take place.
2. If you do not take your medicine you will not live.
3. Unless a woman is educated, her family does not benefit.
4. Unless there is quality control, the product will not sell.
5. If the rain fails, the crop will fail.
6. If you study you will pass.
7. Unless he fails, he will not die of shame.
8. If you do your homework, I will not punish you.

#### IV. REMOVE 'TOO'

1. too = also/not only ..... but also/as well as/both ..... and .....  
e.g.: He has a car and a motorcycle too.  
He has a car as well as a motorcycle.
2. too = very/extremely  
e.g.: It is too hot.  
It is extremely hot.

#### [VI] ASSERTIVE TO INTERROGATIVE

Rule 1: If the sentence is in the affirmative you have to change it into negative interrogative. If it is in negative then you have to change it into bare interrogative.

Ex: Aff: He was very gentle.

Int: was n't he very gentle?

Aff: He is not a good person.

Int: Is he a good person?

Rule 2: No auxiliary verb in sentence →→ Change it by using →→ Do/does/did Or Don't/doesn't/didn't.

Ex: Ass:He plays Football.

Int: Does he play football?

Ass: They did not play football yesterday.

Int: Did they play football yesterday?

Rule3: Never → Replaced by → Ever.

Ass: I never drink tea.

Int: Do I ever drink tea?

Rule 4: Every body/everyone/ All → Replaced by → Who + Don't/ Doesn't/ Didn't

Ex: Everybody wishes to be happy.

Int : Who doesn't wish to be happy?

Rule 5: Every + noun → Replaced by → Is there any + noun+ Who don't/doesn't/didn't.

Ex: Ass: Every man wishes to be happy.

Int: Is there any man who doesn't wish to be happy?

Rule 6: No body/ no one / None → Replaced by → Who.

Ex: Nobody could count my love for you.

Int: Who could ever count my love for you?

Rule 7 : There is no → Replaced by → Is there any/ Who(person)/ What( thing).

Ex: Ass: There is no use of this law.

Int: What is the use of this law.

Ass: There is no man happier than Jamil.

Int: Who is Happier than jamil.

Rule 8: It Is no → Replaced by → Is there any/Why.

Ex: Ass: It is no use of taking unfair means in the exam.

Int: Why take unfair means in the exam? Or,

Is there any use of this law?

Rule 9: It Doesn't matter → Replaced by → what though/ Does it matter.

Ex: Ass: It does not matter if you fail in te exam.

Int: What though if you fail in the exam?

## **[VII] Exclamatory to Assertive and vice versa**

Rule1: Subject and Verb of exclamatory sentence are to be used as the subject and verb of assertive sentence at the outset of the sentence.

How/what → Replace by → Very(before adjective)/ Great(before noun)

Ex: How fortunate you are!

Ass: You are very fortunate.

Exc: What a fool you are!

Ass: You are a great fool.

Rule 2: Sometimes the subject and verb may be eclipsed.

Ex: What a beautiful scenery!

Ass: It is a very beautiful scenery.

Ex: What a pity!

Ass: It is a great pity.

Rule 3: Hurrah/ Bravo → Replace by → I/we rejoice that/ It is a matter of joy that.

Ex: Hurrah! We have won the game.

Ass: It is a matter of joy that we have won the game.

Rule 4: Alas → Replace by → I/we Mourn that/ It is a matter of sorrow or grief that.

Ex: Alas! He has failed.

Ass: We mourn that he has failed.

Rule 5: Had/were/If /Would that(at the out set) → Replaced by → I wish + subject again + were/ had+ rest part.

Ex: Had I the wings of a bird!

Ass: I wish I had the wings of a bird.

Ex: Were I a bird!

Ass: I wish I were a bird.

Ex: If I were young again!

Ass: I wish I were young again.

Ex: would that I could be a child!

Ass: I wish I could be a child.

**Assertive to exclamatory is to be done doing Vice versa.**

#### **[VIII] Affirmative to Negative and vice versa**

Rule 1: Only/ alone/ merely → Replaced by → None but(person)/ nothing but(things)/ not more than or not less than(number)

Ex: Aff: Only Allah can help us. Neg: None but Allah can help us.

Aff: He has only a ball. Neg: He has nothing but a ball.

Aff: He has only ten taka. Neg: He has not more than ten taka.

Rule 2: Must → Replaced by → Cannot but/ Cannot help+ (v+ing).

Ex: Aff: We must obey our parents. Neg: we cannot but obey our parents/ we cannot help obeying our parents.

Rule 3: Both----and → Replaced by → not only ---- but also.

Ex: Aff: Both Dolon and Dola were excited.



Neg: Not only Dolon but also Dola were present.

Rule 4: and ( if join two words) → Replaced by → Not only ----- but also.

Ex: aff: He was obedient and gentle. Neg: He was not only obedient but also gentle.

Rule 5: Everyone/ everybody/every person/ (every + common noun)/all → Replaced by → There is no + attached word + but.

Ex: Aff: Every mother loves her child.

Neg: There is no mother but loves her child.

Rule 6: As soon as → Replaced by → No sooner had ----- Than.

Ex: Aff: As soon as the thief saw the police, he ran away. Neg: No sooner had the thief saw the police he ran away.

Rule 7: Absolute Superlative degree → Replaced by → No other+ attached word+so+ positive form+ as+subject.

Ex: aff: Dhaka is the biggest city in Bangladesh.

Neg: No other city is as big as Dhaka in Bangladesh.

Rule 8: Sometimes affirmative sentences are changed into negative by using opposite words. Before the word, of course 'not' is used.

Ex: Aff: I shall remember you. Neg: I shall not forget you.

Rule 9: Always → Replaced by → Never.

Ex: aff: Raven always attends the class. Neg: Raven never misses the class.

Rule 10: Too ---- to → Replaced by → so ---that+ can not/could not(in past).

Ex: Aff: He is too weak to walk. Neg: He is so weak that he cannot walk.

Rule 11: As – as → Replaced by → Not less – than.

Ex: Aff: Simi was as wise as Rimi. Neg: Simi was not less wise than Rimi.

Rule 12: Universal truth are change by making them negative interrogative.

Ex: Aff: The Sun sets in the west. Neg: Doesn't the Sun set in the west.

Rule 13: Sometimes → Replaced by → Not + always.

Ex: Aff: Raven sometimes visits me. Neg: Raven doesn't always visit me.

Rule 14: Many → Replaced by → Not a few.

Ex: Aff: I have many friends. Neg: I don't have few friends.

Rule 15: A few → Replaced by → not many.

Ex: Aff: Bangladesh has a few scholars. Neg: Bangladesh doesn't have many scholars.

Rule 16: Much → Replaced by → A little.

Ex: Aff: He belongs much money. Neg: He doesn't belong a little money.

Rule 17: A little → Replaced by → not much.

Ex: Aff: Dolon has a little riches. Neg: Dolon doesn't have much riches.

## [IX] Imperative to Assertive

Rule 1: Add subject + should in doing assertive.

Ex: Do the work.

Ass: you should do the work.

Rule 2: Please/kindly → Replaced by → you are requested to.

Ex: Please, help me.

Ass: You are requested to help me.

Rule 3: Do not → Replaced by → You should not.

Ex: Do not run in the sun.

Ass: you should not run in the sun.

Rule 4: Never → Replaced by → you should never.

Ex: Never tell a lie.

Ass: You should never tell a lie.

Rule 5: Let us → Replaced by → We should.

Ex: Let us go out for a walk.

Ass: We should go out for a walk.

Rule 6: Let + noun/pronoun → Replaced by → Subject + might.

Ex: Let him play football.

Ass: He might play football.

## Phrases

**Phrase definition:** A phrase is a grammatical term referring to a group of words that does not include a subject and verb.

What are phrases? A phrase is a group (or pairing) of words in English. A phrase can be short or long, but it does not include the subject-verb pairing necessary to make a clause.

Some examples of phrases include:

- after the meal (prepositional phrase)
- the nice neighbor (noun phrase)
- were waiting for the movie (verb phrase)
- In the air (prepositional phrase)
- Beside the bed (prepositional phrase)
- Along the road (prepositional phrase)
- To live and breathe (infinitive phrase)
- Looking stunning (participle phrase)
- Gerund Phrase; Eating ice cream on a hot day can be a good way to cool off.
- None of these examples contains a subject doing an action (subject-verb). Therefore, each example is merely a group of words called a phrase.

A phrase will always be more than one word.

**An idiom is defined as a phrase that contains its own meaning but cannot be understood in layman's language. A proverb is defined as a well-known sentence that is used to give advice to the other person.**

**An idiom has a non-literal meaning used in reading, writing, and speaking.**

1. "Hit the hay."

"Sorry, guys, I have to hit the hay now!"

At first, it seems like the person saying this really wants to punch some hay. But it really just means that they're really tired and want to go to sleep.

## 2. "Up in the air"

"Hey, did you ever figure out those plans?"

"No, they're still up in the air for now. We'll figure everything out later."

Can plans actually be floating high in the sky? Theoretically, they could--if you wrote them down and threw them up! But this idiom really means that the situation being planned is still undecided, and that everything is still uncertain /unsure.

## 3. "Stabbed in the back"

"I don't want to be Hayley's friend anymore; she stabbed me in the back!"

Literally stabbing someone in the back could bring someone to jail! That's definitely not what this idiom means.

## 4. "Takes two to tango"

"David isn't the only guilty one here! After all, it takes two to tango."

It literally does take two to tango--you can't dance the tango unless you have a partner. But this idiom means that if there's a suspicious situation, then there's more than one culprit. They couldn't have done it by themselves.

## 5. "Kill two birds with one stone."

"Why not go to the post office on your way to the mall and kill two birds with one stone?"

Don't worry, we're not actually killing any birds here! When you kill two birds with one stone, a single action knocks out two tasks or responsibilities--accomplish two different things at the same time. (In this case, posting a letter and doing some shopping in one trip.)

## Examples of Proverb

- An apple a day keeps the doctor away.

Meaning: If you eat healthily, you will be healthy!

How to use it: Proverbs in English for students are best used in situations where they seem natural. Use this one if your classmate or colleague comments on how healthy your lunch is.

- It's better to be safe than sorry.

Meaning: You should always take any necessary precautions.

How to use it: When you're studying in the UK and your classmate asks you why you're carrying an umbrella on a sunny day, say this phrase. It could rain at any time here!

- Better late than never.

Meaning: Of course it's better to do things on time, but doing something late is better than not doing it at all. It can also mean you are never too old to do something you want to do.

How to use it: This is one of the most relevant proverbs in English for students who don't do things on time. When you have done your homework, but a day after the teacher asked for it, you could try saying this to him/her (but only if you know them well enough that they won't get angry!) This is also one of the best proverbs in English for students who are a little older and need some encouragement. If your parents tell you they are too old to learn English, say this phrase to them.

- Actions speak louder than words.

Meaning: What you do shows how you actually feel more than what you say.

How to use it: If your classmate who is constantly late to class tells you how much they want to improve their English, say this to them. They say they want to improve their English, but their actions don't prove this to be true.

- You catch more flies with honey than with vinegar.

Meaning: If you have a sweet disposition you will get more from people than if you are rude to them.

How to use it: If your classmate is frustrated because they want to change class but when they speak to the teacher about this matter they act in an impolite way, tell them this expression.

- Don't judge a book by its cover.

Meaning: Don't judge people (or for that matter, places or things) solely on their appearance.

How to use it: When you meet someone new and those around you make a comment on their personality based on how they look (like "He must be lazy and disorganised, look at his untidy clothes!" or "She's probably really shallow, she cares too much about her make up".) use this proverb to make them think twice about their preconceived ideas.

- Cleanliness is next to Godliness.

Meaning: It's very important to be clean.

How to use it: Good proverbs for students are often the most simple ones. Use this one whenever it's time to clean up, wash your hands etc.

- The early bird catches the worm.

Meaning: People who act promptly will have more opportunities available to them, and will ultimately be more successful.

How to use it: When your classmates ask you why you are so concerned about arriving on time for class or getting your homework done early, use this proverb to remind them of why you get good grades.

- Where there's a will, there's a way.

Meaning: If you are determined, you will find a way to achieve what you want.

How to use it: Whenever you feel like you're facing an impossible task, remind yourself of this saying. It's one of the best proverbs in English for students who feel like giving up from time to time.

- If it ain't broke, don't fix it.

Meaning: If something works well, there's no point trying to change it.

How to use it: When someone tries to convince you to improve something that you've perfected (whether it be a study method, a recipe, or your Friday night plans), use this proverb to let them know they won't change your mind.