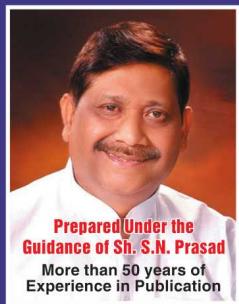




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1997 - April 2017



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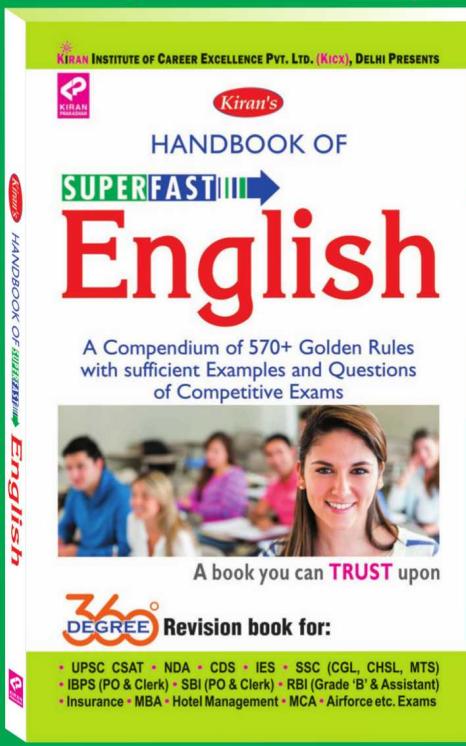
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COMMON ERRORS IN ENGLISH

A MUST FOR ALL ASPIRANTS

It is generally said that subtleness is the foundation of success. In today's world of competition, seeking opportunity by faring in competitive examinations has really become indisputably a tough affair. In this context, the importance of English, as a subject, is undeniable. Not only for the sake of examinations, but just to master English, one should have the knowledge of good and apt English, correct standard of written English, proper art of conversation and application of correct dialogue, as well as personal development, which all pose as a stairway of qualities towards sound English proficiency.

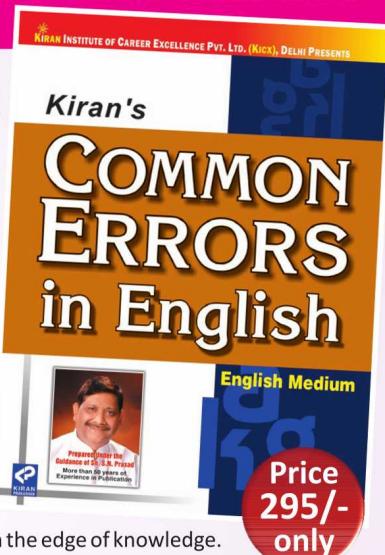
AN OUTSTANDING BOOK THAT HELPS ASPIRANTS In their SUCCESSFUL PREPARATION FOR COMPETITIVE EXAMS

In order to test the knowledge of English Language in various competitive examinations, questions are set in several patterns to ascertain one's understanding of the language. Among the various patterns, one is related to the topic of Common Errors. Having essential knowledge in Grammar, we learn to read and write, as well as talk correct English. Due to the presence of various topics in Grammar and the host of rules that are related to those topics, we somehow miss to explore the correct usage of English.

In this book, all these topics have been widely discussed with explanations and examples for better grasp of the minute differences that appear in examinations and which restrain us from dealing with those questions related to Common Errors. The explanations which have been given at the end of each chapter, are in all way helpful to understand each and every problem with clarity and thus sharpen the edge of knowledge.

Salient Features

- This book has been divided into two parts. The first part contains several topics of English Grammar, which are classified into 14 different chapters. Each chapter discusses a topic at length. The second part consists of Model Question Papers.
- In each of the 14 chapters, concepts about the Fundamental and Basic Principles/Rules have been provided. Simultaneously, while discussing the various aspects of the chapter, several related examples have been provided. The variety of the questions tell the tale of the nature of questions asked in different competitive exams.
- Each chapter is essentially supplemented with 'a ready reckoner', which helps in understanding and recapitulating the basic rules at a glance.
- Each chapter is supplemented with a number of questions based on the topic discussed. The questions may have Error in one part and you are required to find out that error.
- The questions have been explained adequately, which help you understand the root cause of the error.
- Model Question Papers help in understanding the overall genre of a topic and thereby assist in developing a solid and sound knowledge of the topic of discussion.



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SOLVED PAPERS

1997–till date

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SSC 10+2 Level Exams— Data Entry Operator & LDC, Stenographer Grade 'C' & 'D' etc.

SSC Combined Matric level Exams — Combined Matric Level Pre-Exam, Multitasking (Non-Technical) Staff, CISF Constable (GD), Constable (GD) & Riflemen (GD) and Other Competitive Exams.

11300+
**Objective
Questions**

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NEW EDITION

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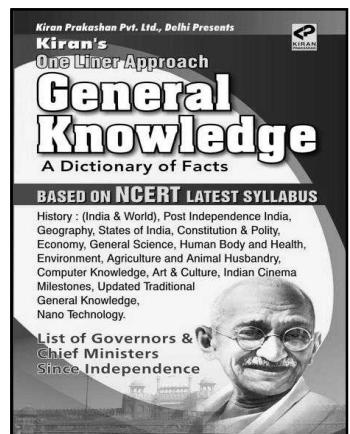
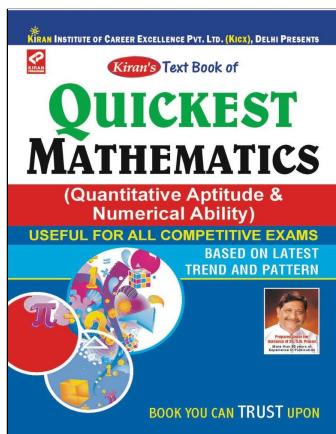
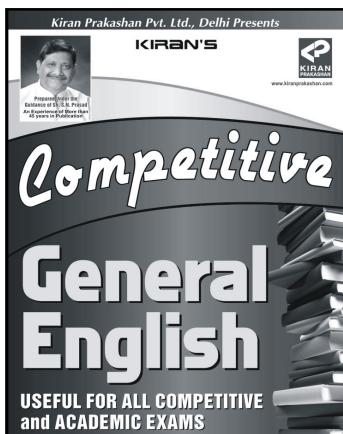
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USEFUL FOR ALL COMPETITIVE EXAMS



About the Book.....?

The significance of past never diminishes, either in effect or substance. To forget this vital point, sometimes becomes suicidal. A minute observation of the past and accumulated experiences helps us in shaping our present. The positive and compendious conclusions drawn from the past becomes our pioneer in charting new ways and teach us to rectify our remedies. Our present is, thus, beautified. Where there is beauty, attraction cannot be negated. It is in this way that the foundation of a concrete future is further solidified. Aspirations turn into realities. This is a realistic reflection. If the past is forgotten by marginalizing this realism, the truth of past surface as a path strewn with pebbles. If we preserve and cherish these pebbles of the past and make correct use of them, they become the linchpin of an edifice called success. Thus, the intricacies of our path become effortless and our destination gets more and more intelligible.

Kiran Prakashan Pvt. Ltd., which has been at your service since decades and helping you with the multitude of relevant offerings, has made a meaningful effort to put together these invaluable and very useful pebbles in form a book, titled Kiran's SSC English Language Chapterwise Solved Papers.

It is an undeniable truth that the continuous motion of the past gives birth to change. Change gets inevitability. These changes bring coherence to the changed circumstances and fulfill the exact needs of the present. We reach our destinations only by striking coordination with these changes, lest we will find ourselves at the last row in this age of competition. The destination will be left as something impertinent. Our esteemed readers must be well aware of the changes introduced by the Staff Selection Commission (SSC) in the selection process for different posts. Kiran Prakashan has been keeping you updated with all the relevant information related to these very changes. According to Students, Teachers and Coaching Directors demand this book has been changed and arranged by Topicwise. The latest edition Kiran's SSC English Language Chapterwise Solved Papers which is revised, enlarged and updated is another example of the commitment we feel towards our readers, imparting completeness in their search for a better and secure future.

The book before you, Kiran's SSC English Language Chapterwise Solved Papers (Latest, Revised & Enlarged Edition) has been based on the questions of English Language and Comprehension that have been asked in the various competitive examinations at the CGL (Tier-I & II), CHSL (10+2) and Matric levels. This book has been conceived as a holistic treatment and single solution to all the difficulties that a candidate encounters while appearing for the SSC exams. The Think-Tank of Kiran Prakashan has taken into account the needs and difficulties of candidates and made an attempt to simplify the subject matter by de-constructing every thread and each pattern. Not only have the questions asked in the different examinations conducted by the SSC (year 2017) been compiled at one place, but also they have been compartmentalized topicwise and made easy to grasp and digest with the help of comprehensive explanations. This is a rare collection of more than 11300 questions and their respective explanations. It wouldn't be bragging if we say, do master these questions and their explanations, you will automatically find yourself at ease with most of what surfaces in form of examination questions. In other words, master this book sincerely; success will itself become the mistress.

KNOW ABOUT ENGLISH GRAMMAR & LANGUAGE

A tremendous importance is attached to English Language in competitive exams of today. The cut-throat competition prevailing around the aspirants tell a significant tale. Hence, it becomes indispensable to prepare yourself in the best possible way, otherwise the goal remains a distant dream. A language is nothing but a meticulous arrangement of words. As an expert sculptor carves the stones in a skilled manner to give a magnificent appearance to his/her creation, in the similar way, an expert linguist arranges words suitably. This art of arrangement comes from true knowledge of grammar and collection of words. The expertise is had by continuous perspiration. If one perspires in a true way, the inspiration comes in a natural way. Then there is no deviation From the destination. If you sweat on a wrong path, it comes to

no fruition. Keeping in view the orientation and dedication of our readers and weightage assigned to English Language, we provide the A to Z of English Grammar. A well arranged collection of subject matter suffice your need and satiate your quest for a true guide. Hopefully. You get benefitted to a great extent in your pursuit of realising the long cherished goal.

This edition of Kiran's SSC English Language Chapterwise Solved Papers has been parcelled out into 13 Chapters, each dealing with topicwise and comprising bulk of questions and explanations. The chapters are :

- u Common Errors u Improvement of Sentences u Transformation of Sentences (Active/Passive Voice) u Direct/Indirect Speech. u Fill in the Blanks u Synonyms u Antonyms
- u One word substitution u Idioms/ Phrases u Selection of mis spelt word/correctly spelt word u Arrangement of Sentences u Cloze Test u Comprehension Test

Explanations to the questions serve in some way as highly directed study material. We have ensured not to bombard with you bulky study materials which sometimes prove futile if a candidate is facing severe crunch of time. Johann Wolfgang von Goethe, considered the supreme genius of modern German literature, said once: "What is not started today is never finished tomorrow."

Relating to what Goethe had to say, we are proud to have made the beginning of a start. And, that start is Kiran's SSC English Language Chapterwise Solved Papers, where facts have been consolidated and refined and presented in the easy-to-digest objective question format which have actually been already asked at the different levels and in the different formats of competitive examinations. Scientifically it has been proved that you tend to remember anything for long if that has been asked from you and you found yourself in a testing situation. So, this book has been scientifically weaved on the principle of 'Test to prepare and Success.'

While working on this unique offering, we took pains to ensure that the explanations to the questions are not only pertinent, easily digestible, but effective, too. To elucidate the relevance of explanations and develop certain ease in this respect, we would like you to get acquainted with them.

As we have inferred that SSC to great extent follows the pattern of questions asked in Graduate level, FCI, CPO, Delhi Police, (10+2) level, Matric Level and others competitive exams. held earlier. But the scope is enlarged. In short, this unique compilation of more than 11300 questions will serve you in more than one way.

Last, but not the least, there is no shortcut to success. Only hard work and perseverance pays rich dividends in the long term. So, we suggest you to make the best out of this unique offering before you. Let us remind you that the questions you find in this book will not only help you prepare for the SSC examinations, they will equip you with the much required knowledge and insight in 'cracking' other examinations as well.

Hugh Nibley, the famous American author and Mormon apologist said: "Only if you reach the boundary will the boundary recede before you. And if you don't, if you confine your efforts, the boundary will shrink to accommodate itself to your efforts. And you can only expand your capacities by working to the very limit."

Our researchers have taken painstaking efforts in the direction of accommodating and expanding to the limit. The guiding principle has been to have an eye on whatever is significant, and when you do have such a microscopic eye, there is little that can be expected to have been ignored. So, here is our new, novel and unique offering to you, Kiran's SSC English Language Chapterwise Solved Papers. (Latest Revised & Enlarged Edition) You will find a CD and scratch card for online test. This will help you prepare for the SSC online exam pattern. Read this book, incorporate and digest it to reach the limits of life. See to know what it is all about.

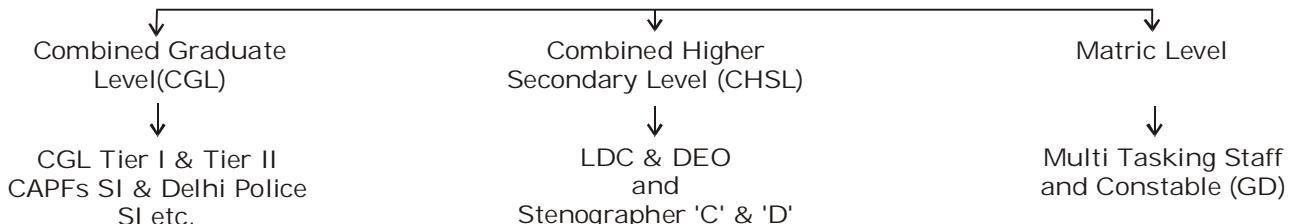
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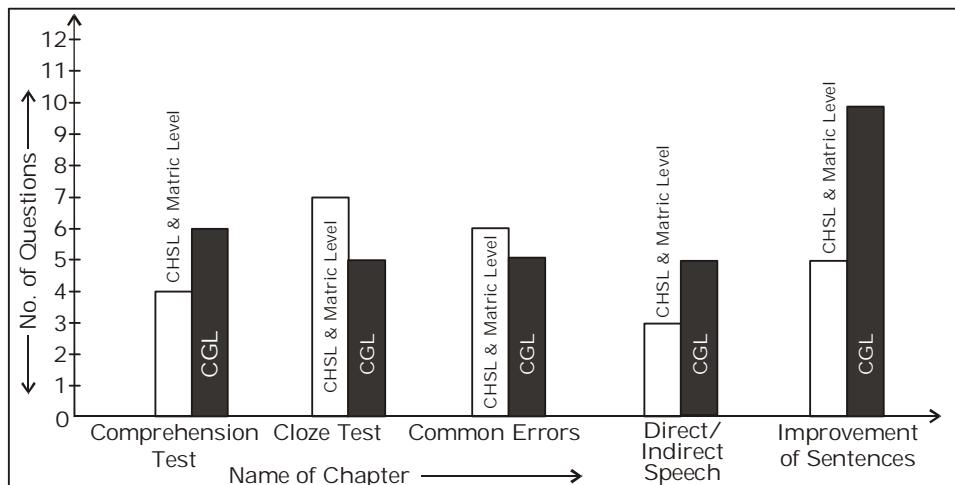
SOME NOTABLE FACTS

SSC (Staff Selection Commission)

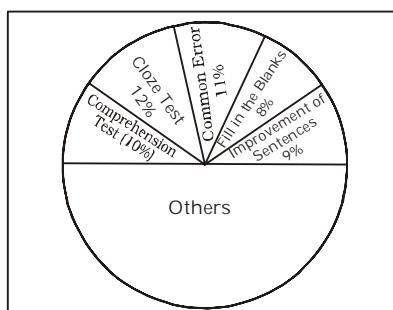


- Æ Staff Selection Commission Conducts examination for Graduate Level, Higher Secondary Level and Matric Level on all India basis.
- Æ Till now SSC conducted Combined Graduation level Examination used to be held in two parts i.e. Tier-I and Tier-II. But from now onwards this examination will be held in four parts i.e. Tier-I, Tier-II, Tier-III and Tier-IV.
- Æ Earlier in SSC conducted Tier-I Exam used to have 50 questions on English Language & Comprehension out of 200 questions, while in Tier-II a candidate had to answer 100 questions. But from 2016 onwards in Tier-I out of 100 questions, 25 questions will be on Mathematics, while a candidate has to answer 100 questions in Tier-II.
- Æ SSC Conducts Tier-I examination for CHSL of 100 questions out of which English Language & Comprehension carries a weightage of 25 questions.
- Æ Matric Level exams are conducted for Multi Tasking Staff in which out of 150, 50 questions are from English Language & Comprehension and in Constable GD exam weightage of English Language & Comprehension is 25 questions out of 100.
- Æ The Changing nature of English Language & Comprehension questions in recent exams conducted by SSC make this subject very important and deciding factor in success or failure.

TOP 5 IMPORTANT CHAPTERS



- Æ Combination of Comprehension Test, Cloze Test, Common Errors, Fill in the Blanks, Improvement of Sentences in recent Exams (2011-2017)



**TOPICWISE DISTRIBUTION OF QUESTIONS ASKED IN THE SSC
GRADUATE LEVEL (TIER-I, TIER-II, SAS, CPO, DP SI)
EXAMS HELD DURING 2010-2017**

ENGLISH LANGUAGE & COMPREHENSION

S. No.	TOPICS	* Average number of Questions	EXAMINATIONS																					
			SSC Tier-I 16.05.2010 (1st Sitting)	SSC CISF 29.08.2010	SSC (South Zone) Investigator 12.09.2010	SSC CPO SI 12.12.2010	SSC Tier-I 26.06.2011 (1st Sitting)	SSC Tier-II Paper-II 04.08.2011	SSC Delhi Police Sub-Inspector 19.08.2012	SSC CPO SI & ASI 28.08.2011	SSC Tier-II, Paper-II 16.09.2012	SSC Tier-I 19.05.2013	SSC Tier-I, Paper-II 29.09.2013	SSC Tier-II 21.09.2014	SSC Tier-I 26.10.2014	SSC Tier-I 12.04.2015	SSC (CGL) Tier-I 09.08.2015 (1st Sitting)	SSC CAPFS SI, CISF ASI & DPSI 30.08.2015	SSC (CGL) Tier-II 25.10.2015	SSC (CGL) Tier-I 27.10.2016 (1Ind Sitting)	SSC (CGL) Tier-II (CBE) 12.01.2017			
1.	Common Errors	5	5	5	5	5	5	10	5	5	20	5	20	5	20	5	20	5	20	5	20			
2.	Improvement of Sentences	5	5	5	5	5	5	20	5	5	22	10	22	22	10	22	10	22	10	10	22			
3.	Transformation of Sentences (Active/Passive)	3	5	—	5	—	—	20	—	—	20	—	20	20	—	20	—	—	20	20	—	20		
4.	Direct/Indirect Speech	5	5	—	5	—	—	25	—	—	27	—	27	27	—	27	—	—	27	27	—	27		
5.	Fill in the Blanks	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	3	5	
6.	Synonyms	2	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	1	3
7.	Antonyms	2	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	1	3
8.	One Word Substitution	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	12	7	12	12	7	12	7	7	12	12	3	12	
9.	Idioms/Phrases	3	—	5	—	5	5	5	5	5	10	5	10	10	5	10	5	10	5	10	10	3	10	
10.	Selection of mis spelt word/correctly spelt word	2	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	3	2	3	3	2	3	2	2	3	3	1	3	
11.	Arrangement of Sentences	3	5	—	5	—	—	20	—	—	20	—	20	20	—	20	—	—	20	20	—	20		
12.	Cloze Test	5	—	10	—	10	10	25	—	10	25	—	25	25	—	25	—	—	25	25	—	25		
13.	Comprehension Test	6	5	—	5	—	—	50	10	—	30	10	30	30	10	30	10	10	30	30	5	30		
Total Number of Questions		50	50	50	50	50	50	200	50	50	200	50	200	200	50	200	50	50	200	200	25	200		

* Average number of questions is based on the data available in the chart mentioned above (Considering 50 questions set)

**TOPICWISE DISTRIBUTION OF QUESTIONS ASKED IN THE SSC CHSL
(10+2) (DATA ENTRY OPERATOR, STENOGRAPHER GRADE 'C' & 'D') AND
MATRIC LEVEL EXAMS HELD ON DURING 2010-2017**

S. No.	TOPICS	* Average number of Questions	EXAMINATIONS														
			SSC DEO & LDC 27.11.2010	SSC DEO & LDC 20.02.2011	SSC DEO & LDC 11.12.2011	SSC Constable (GD) & Riflemen (GD) 22.04.2012	SSC (10+2) Level Data Entry Operator & LDC 21.10.2012 1st Sitting	SSC Multi-Tasking Staff 10.03.2013	SSC Constable (GD) 12.05.2013 (1st Sitting)	SSC (10+2) Level Data Entry Operator & LDC 10.11.2013	SSC Multi-Tasking Staff 16.02.2014	SSC (10+2) Level Data Entry Operator & LDC 16.11.2014	SSC CHSL (10+2) LDC, DEO & PA/SA 06.12.2015 (1st Sitting)	SSC CHSL (10+2) LDC, DEO & PA/SA 20.12.2015 (1st Sitting)	SSC (10+2) Stenographer Grade 'C' & 'D' 31.01.2016	SSC CHSL (10+2) Tier-I (CBE) 08.09.2016 (1st Sitting)	SSC CHSL (10+2) Tier-I (CBE) 16.01.2017 (Ind Sitting)
1.	Common Errors	6	5	5	5	3	6	10	3	5	10	5	4	4	10	2	2
2.	Improvement of Sentences	4	2	2	2	3	7	5	3	2	5	5	4	4	10	2	2
3.	Transformation of Sentences (Active/Passive)	3	5	5	5	—	—	—	—	5	—	—	2	2	10	1	1
4.	Direct/Indirect Speech	3	5	5	5	—	—	—	—	5	—	—	2	2	10	1	1
5.	Fill in the Blanks	5	5	5	5	4	5	10	3	5	10	5	4	4	5	2	2
6.	Synonyms	3	2	2	2	3	3	3	4	2	3	5	4	4	5	2	2
7.	Antonyms	3	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	2	3	5	4	4	5	2	2
8.	One Word Substitution	3	3	3	3	3	4	5	3	3	5	5	4	4	—	2	2
9.	Idioms/Phrases	3	3	3	3	3	5	3	3	3	3	5	4	4	5	2	2
10.	Selection of mis spelt word/correctly spelt word	3	2	2	2	3	2	6	3	2	6	5	4	4	—	2	2
11.	Arrangement of Sentences	3	6	6	6	—	—	—	—	6	—	—	4	4	5	2	2
12.	Cloze Test	7	5	5	5	—	15	—	—	5	—	10	10	10	20	5	5
13.	Comprehension Test	4	5	5	5	—	7	5	—	5	5	—	—	—	15	—	—
Total Number of Questions		50	50	50	50	25	50	50	25	50	50	50	50	50	100	25	25

* Average number of questions is based on the data available in the chart mentioned above (Considering 50 questions set)

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AN INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH GRAMMAR & LANGUAGE

A tremendous importance is attached to English Language in competitive exams of today. The cut-throat competition prevailing around the aspirants tell a significant tale. Hence, it becomes indispensable to prepare yourself in the best possible way, otherwise the goal remains a distant dream. A language is nothing but a meticulous arrangement of words. As an expert sculptor carves the stones in a skilled manner to give a magnificent appearance to his/her creation, in the similar way, an expert linguist arranges words suitably. This art of arrangement comes from true knowledge of grammar and collection of words. The expertise is had by continuous perspiration. If one perspires in a true way, the inspiration comes in a natural way. Then there is no deviation from the destination. If you sweat on a wrong path, it comes to no fruition. Keeping in view the orientation and dedication of our readers and weightage assigned to English Language, we provide the A to Z of English Grammar. A well arranged collection of subject matter suffice your need and satiate your quest for a true guide. Hopefully. You get benefitted to a great extent in your pursuit of realising the long cherished goal.

SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT

Subject-Verb agreement is based on two basic rules.

RULE 1

SUBJECT is SINGULAR — VERB is SINGULAR

Example:

He writes poem.
↓ ↓
Sing. Sub. Sing. Verb

Vinay goes to office.
↓ ↓
Sing. Sub. Sing. Verb

Exception:

(i) With *I*, excluding *am* and *was*, there is always a Plural subject.

(ii) You always takes a Plural subject.

RULE 2

SUBJECT is PLURAL — VERB is PLURAL

Example:

They are riding a bicycle.
↓ ↓
Plural Sub. Plural Verb

We are planning to visit Canada.
↓ ↓
Plural Sub. Plural Verb

In general, the *number* and *person* of any Finite Verb are corresponding to the *number* and *person* of the *subject*.

Example:

They play.
↓ ↓
Plural Sub. Finite Verb

She plays.
↓ ↓

Plural Sub. Finite Verb

Here in (i), play is a Finite Verb, where 'They' is a plural subject in the plural form.

But in (ii), plays is a Finite Verb, where it is with the singular subject 'She' and in singular form.

Subjects and Verbs must agree with one another in number (singular or plural). Thus, if a subject is singular, its Verb must also be singular, if a subject is plural, its Verb must also be plural.

Important Rules

1. If the subject of a sentence is singular noun, then it takes a singular verb.

Examples:

Kate is always punctual.
↓ ↓

Sing. Noun Sing. Verb
A visitor has come to see us.
↓ ↓

Sing. Noun Sing. Verb

2. If two singular nouns are joined with *and*, then the verb is plural.

Examples :

Rahul and Anita have gone home.
↓ ↓ ↓
Sing. Noun Sing. Noun Plural Verb

A computer and a printer have been installed.
↓ ↓ ↓
Sing. Noun Sing. Noun Plural Noun

3. If two singular nouns are joined with *and*, but before them there is *each / every*, etc., then it takes a singular verb.

Examples:

Each officer and each manager is invited.
↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
each Sing. Noun each Sing. Noun Sing. Verb

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The duty of every boy and every girl
 ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
 every Sing. Noun every Sing. Noun
 is to respect their parents.
 ↓
 Sing. Verb

4. If two singular nouns are joined with *and* to express something about a person, thing or expression, then singular verb is used.

Examples:

Bread and Butter is my favourite
 ↓ ↓
 Sing. Noun Sing. Noun Sing. Verb
 breakfast.

A few other such pair of nouns are – *Bread and butter / Rice and curry / Horse and carriage / Hammer and Sickle / Crown and glory*, etc.

But, the exception is: If two such nouns are used to denote two different things, then it takes a plural verb.

Example:

Crown and glory exist together.
 ↓ ↓ ↓
 Noun Noun Plural verb

5. If two nouns or pronouns are joined with – *as well as / in addition to / besides / like/ unlike / with / along with / together with / accompanied by / led by / headed by / guided by / controlled by / governed by*, etc., then the verb is according to the noun or pronoun given in the first case in the sentence.

Examples:

You as well as your brother were absent yesterday.
 ↓ ↓ ↓
 Noun Noun Plural verb

She together with her friends is visiting her uncle.
 ↓ ↓ ↓
 Noun Noun Plural Verb

6. If two subjects are joined by –

Not only...but also

Neither....nor

Either...or

then, the verb always follows its nearest subject.
 Examples:

Neither you nor I am going to see him.
 ↓ ↓ ↓
 Subject Subject Verb

Neither you nor she is listening to music.
 ↓ ↓ ↓
 Subject Subject Verb

7. If subjects are joined with *not...but* or *not*, then the verb follows that subject, which is not with the subject *not*.

Examples:

Not she but her friends are responsible.
 ↓ ↓
 Subject Verb

She not her friends is responsible.
 ↓ ↓

Subject Verb

8. If the subject of a sentence is – *Each / Either / Neither*, then it takes a singular verb.

Examples:

I invited two guests but neither has come.
 ↓ ↓
 Subject Singular Verb

He proposed both the girls but either
 ↓

Subject
 ↓
 has responded.

Singular Verb

9. After – *Each of / Either of / Neither of / Everyone of/ One of*, etc., the noun or pronoun is always plural but, the verb remains singular.

Examples:

Each of the snakes is poisonous.
 ↓
 Plural noun singular verb

One of them has topped in exam.
 ↓
 Plural Noun Singular Verb

Look at this example:

The professor asked the student / if everyone of them/

(A) (B)

were ready to go / for a picnic on the coming Sunday./

(C) (D)

No error

(E)

In this sentence (in Part C), 'was' will be used instead of 'were'; because, after 'everyone of', the Noun or Pronoun is always plural but the verb is singular.

10. If the subject of a sentence is *Everybody / Somebody / Nobody / Anybody / Someone/ No one / Everyone / Anyone / Everything / Something / Nothing / Anything*, etc., then the verb always singular.

Examples:

Everybody knows that the sun is a star.
 ↓ ↓
 Subject Sing. Verb

Someone among his friends likes partying.
 ↓ ↓
 Subject Sing. Verb

11. If the subject of a sentence is *Many / Both / Few / A few, etc.*, then the verb is always plural.

Example:

Both are beautiful and charming.
 ↓ ↓
 Subject Plural Verb

Many were invited but a few have
 ↓ ↓
 Subject Plural Verb
 attended the ceremony.

12. After – *Both of / A few of / Few of / Many of*, etc., the noun or pronoun is plural, which is followed by a plural verb.

Examples:

Many of the visitors are European.
 ↓ ↓
 Noun Plural Verb

13. After – *Many / A great many / A good many*, etc., the noun is always plural, which is followed by a plural verb.

Example:

A great many girls are swimming in the pool.
 ↓ ↓
 Noun Plural verb

But there is an exception.

t After ‘Many a’, both the noun and verb in a sentence are always singular.

Example:

Many a song is soothing.
 ↓ ↓
 Sing. Noun Sing. Verb

14. After – *A number of / A large number*, etc. the noun is plural, which is followed by a plural verb.

Examples:

A number of students have taken the test.
 ↓ ↓
 Plural Noun Plural Verb

But, there is an exception.

After – *The number of*, however, the noun is plural, the verb is always singular.

Examples:

The number of low-floor buses is increasing in Delhi.
 ↓ ↓
 Plural Singular
 Noun Verb

15. After – *Some / Some of / All / All of / Enough / Most / Most of / A great deal of / Lots of / A lot of / Plenty of*, etc., if there is a countable noun, it is always a plural one and also the verb is plural.

Examples:

All men are mortal.
 ↓ ↓

Plural Noun Plural Verb

Lots of actors were present in the show.
 ↓ ↓

Plural Noun Plural Verb

16. After – *Half of / One third of / Two thirds of / Three fourths of*, etc. if the noun is countable, it is always a plural and also the verb is plural.

Example:

Half of the workers are on strike today.
 ↓ ↓
 Plural Noun Plural Verb

t But, the exception is – If the noun is uncountable, it is always singular and the verb is also singular.

Example:

Three fourths of the majority has been elected.
 ↓ ↓
 Singular Noun Singular verb

17. After – *More than one*, there is always a singular noun followed by singular verb.

Example:

More than one hall is booked.
 ↓ ↓
 Sing. Noun Sing. Verb

But, there is an exception.

t Look at the construction: After – *More + Plural Noun + than one*, the verb is always plural.

Example:

More workers than one are late.
 ↓ ↓
 Plural Noun Plural Verb

18. If *There / It* is used as introductory subjects in a sentence, then the verb with *There* is decided considering the usage of *number* and *person* of the noun that comes after *There*.

Example:

There was a tiger in the village.
 ↓ ↓
 Singular verb Singular noun

There were two tigers in the village.
 ↓ ↓
 Plural Verb Plural Noun

19. If with the construction: *Numerical + Plural Noun*, there is any definite *unit / distance / weight / height*, etc., then the verb is always singular.

Example:

Ten thousand rupees is a good amount.
 ↓ ↓

Numerical Plural noun Singular verb
Five tons of rice is enough for my family.
 ↓ ↓

Numerical Plural noun Singular verb

But there is an exception.

t If it refers to different units in the construction of *Numerical Adjective + Plural Noun*, then it takes a plural verb.

Example:

Fifty thousand rupees have been spent for the
 ↓ ↓

Numerical Plural noun Plural verb
 construction.

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20. If *who / which / that* is used in the form of a relative pronoun, then the verb to follow depends on the number and person of its antecedent.

Examples:

I, <u>who</u>	<u>am</u> a doctor, practice here.
↓	↓
Relative Pronoun	Sing. Verb
The men <u>who</u>	<u>are</u> present here did not vote.
↓	↓
Relative pronoun	Plural verb

Look at the example below.

One of the problems / which was discussed / in the
(A) (B)

conference / was raised by him. / No error

- (C) (D) (E)

In this sentence (in Part B), 'was' should be replaced by 'were'; because, 'which' is a relative pronoun and its antecedent 'the problems' is plural. So accordingly, the verb will also be a plural one.

21. If certain expressions like *unfulfilled wish / condition / desire* in the present state is to be brought into expression – with the use of *if / as if / as though / I wish / it is time / it is high time*, etc. along with which '*to be*' is used, then only its 'were' form is used provided whatever be the *number and person* of the subject.

Example:

<u>I</u> <u>wish</u> I	<u>were</u> an angel.
↓	↓

Unfulfilled wish	Plural verb
------------------	-------------

Look at the example below.

If I was you / I would have requested / the workers /
(A) (B) (C)

to complete / the work today itself. / No error.
(D) (E)

In this sentence (in Part A), 'were' should be used in place of 'was'; because, in the present state to denote *unfulfilled wish / condition / desire*, etc. – with *if / as if / as though / I wish / it is time / it is high time*, etc. '*to be*' is used, then its 'were' form is only used.

22. If two pronouns are joined with *and*, then it takes a plural verb.

Examples:

<u>I</u> <u>and</u>	<u>he</u>	<u>are</u> liable.
↓	↓	↓
Pronoun	Pronoun	Plural verb
<u>You</u> <u>and</u>	<u>she</u>	<u>have</u> climbed the tree.
↓	↓	↓
Pronoun	Pronoun	Plural verb

ARTICLES

"An article is a word or a letter which is used before noun and tells about the certainty of that noun".

There are two kinds of articles :

- (i) Indefinite articles.....A/An
(ii) Definite article.....The

(i) A or An is called the *Indefinite Article* because it leaves *indifferent* the person or thing spoken of.

For example,

A boy means any boy.

A teacher means any teacher.

USE OF 'A'

1. If consonant is the first letter of a countable singular common noun, we use 'A' before it.

For example,

Sakshi has book

—wrong

Sakshi has a book

—correct

I met girl there

—wrong

I met a girl there

—correct

2. 'A' is used before some indefinite numbers.

For example,

a lot of

a number of

a great deal of

a half of

a large number of

a quarter of

3. 'A' can be used before some indefinite collective numbers.

For example,

a team of

a gang of

a flock of

a herd of

a swarm of

a panel of

a bunch of

4. If an adjective is followed by a singular noun, we use 'A' before that adjective.

For example,

Madhuri is beautiful girl

—wrong

Madhuri is a beautiful girl

—correct

Adjective Noun

But,

Reema has a good health

—wrong

Reema has good health

—correct

Adjective Adjective

For example,
whenever a noun is not used after Adjective we do not use article before it.

For example,

A proper respect

↓

Adjective Adjective

A proper respect

↓

Adjective Adjective

In a fit

↓

Adjective

In a temper

↓

Adjective

The above examples are all correct.

5. 'A' is used at the place of 'per'.

Petrol is sold at Rs. twenty-five a litre.

↓

per

Apples are sold at sixty rupees a kg.

↓
per

6. To show the whole class of common noun we can use 'A' before a common noun.

For example,

A bird has two wings.

A monkey have a tail.

i.e. All birds have two wings.

All monkeys have a tail.

But, common noun like *Man* and *Woman* do not follow the above rule.

For example,

A man is moral.

—wrong

Man is moral.

—correct

7. Sometimes at the place of 'an' we can use article 'A'

For example,

Sita was seen a bed.

↓

on

Kumar went a hunting.

↓

on

8. If we put article 'A' before plural number the forthcoming noun becomes singular.

For example,

A five day match.

A ten mile walk.

A fifteen man committee.

But,

Five days match.

Ten miles walk.

Fifteen men committee.

9. 'A' is used before these words because they have the sound of consonant in their first letters.

For example,

A university. A union.

A unique film. A European.

A one-rupee note. A one-eyed person.

A one-act play. A one-sided decision.

10. If noun is placed after such, quite, rather, how etc., we use 'A' before that noun.

For example,

I have never seen such girl in my life.

—wrong

I have never seen such a girl in my life.

—correct

Roma is quite dull girl.

—wrong

Roma is quite a dull girl.

—correct

11. If these words are used in singular, we use 'A' before them.

Noise, Lie, Hole, Headache etc.

For example,

The pupil makes noise in the class. —wrong

The pupil makes a noise in the class.

—correct

Joydeb always tells lie.

—wrong

Joydeb always tells a lie.

—correct

USE OF 'AN'

1. Vowel starting nouns or words take An before them.

For example,

Siddharth is intelligent boy.

—wrong

Siddharth is an intelligent boy.

—correct

The President made appeal for the poor.

—wrong

The President made an appeal for the poor.

—correct

2. An is used before some H starting words in which H is not pronounced.

For example,

An honest man

An hour

An heir

An honourable person

An homage to the dead

3. If H, L, M, N, F, R, S, X, are the first letters of abbreviations, we use An before them.

For example,

An M.A.

An L.L.B. Student

An F.R.C.S. girl

An N.C.C. team

An H.S. school

An x-ray clinic

THE OMISSION OF INDEFINITE ARTICLES

1. Indefinite articles can not be practiced two times for the same noun in the same sentence.

For example,

Vivekanand was a saint and a hero.

—wrong

Vivekanand was a saint and hero.

—correct

But,

Vivekanand was both a saint and a hero.—correct

Sameer is neither a poet nor a writer. —correct

Anand is either a poet or a singer. —correct

Rupali is not only a philosopher but also a critic.

—correct

2. Indefinite article should not be used before the name of meals.

For example,

Robin was present at a dinner.

—wrong

Robin was present at dinner.

—correct

But,

It was tasteful dinner.

—wrong

It was a tasteful dinner.

—correct

That was very nice break fast.

—wrong

That was a very nice break fast.

—correct

So, in the case of adjective indefinite article must be used.

3. A or An should not be used before material noun.

For example,

It is a glass so it can be broken easily. —wrong

↓

lead

It is glass so it can be broken easily.

—correct

It is a paper you should write on it.

—wrong

It is paper you should write on it.

—correct

But,

Bring glass of water.

—wrong

Bring a glass of water.

—correct

I read newspaper.

—wrong

I read a news paper.

—correct

4. No use of article is there after *what kind of* and *what sort of*.

For example,

What kind of a boy he is.	—wrong
What kind of boy he is.	—correct
What sort of a novel it is.	—wrong
What sort of novel it is.	—correct

5. These are some uncountable nouns, so we should not use indefinite article before them.

Furniture	Stationery	Poetry	Scenery
Perfumery	Damage	Luggage	Baggage
Postage	Haltage	Traffic	Offspring
Information	Advice	Abuse	Telephone

USE OF 'THE'

2. *The* is called the *Definite Article*, because it points out some *particular* person or thing.

For example,

He visited the minister.

Means some particular minister.

She called the doctor.

Means some particular doctor

The following rules are applied to in using *The* before definite noun.

1. Definite article *The* is used before a noun if it is used before relative pronoun stressly.

For example,

She is a girl who sings ghazal. —wrong

She is the girl who sings ghazal. —correct

This is a bird which can fly. —wrong

This is the bird which can fly. —correct

2. *The* is placed after one of, each of, neither of, either of, none of, everyone of etc.

For example,

One of boys is absent. —wrong

One of the boys is absent. —correct

Neither of girls is intelligent. —wrong

Neither of the girls is intelligent. —correct

Either of men was present. —wrong

Either of the men was present. —correct

3. *The* is used before the name of commission.

For example,

Verma commission is still functioning —wrong

The Verma commission is still functioning. —correct

4. If Adjective is followed by proper Noun use *The* before that adjective.

For example,

We love immortal Gandhi. —wrong

We love the immortal Gandhi. —correct

↓ ↓

Adjective Proper Noun

5. Whenever common Noun is used as adjective it is preceded by definite article *The*.

For example,

When Ritesh found a boy the father came in him.

↓

the love of father

When Meeta saw a girl the mother came in her.
↓
the love of mother

6. *The* is used before the names of :

Rivers	Seas
Gulfs	Deserts
Canals	

For example,

The Amazon	The Indian Ocean
The Arabian Gulf	The Sahara Desert
The Panama Canal	

7. We place definite article *The* before the names of :

Group of Islands	Series of Mountain
Religious books/Holy Scriptures / Community	

For example,

The West Indies	The Rocky
The Mahabharata	The Gita
The Hindu	

8. Definite article is used before the names of :

Planes	Ships
Stars	Newspapers
Musical instruments	

For example,

The Pawan Hans	The Titanic
The Sun	The Times of India
The Guitar	The Prince of Wales

9. We use *The* before Comparative Degree if it is used for two, or, it is used in parallel.

For example,

Which is *the more* beautiful the Himalayas or the Alps.

The more you labour *the more* you gain.

Ramu is *the better* of the two.

The higher you go, *the lower* is the wind.

10. If two proper nouns are compared, we use definite article before the last proper noun.

For example,

Sachin is <i>the Lara</i> of India.
Kalidas is <i>the Shakespeare</i> of India.

11. *The* is used before ordinals.

For example,

The former	The latter
The first	The second
The last	

But,

The 1st division	—wrong
The 1Ind division	—wrong
The 1Ird division	—wrong

12. The issued before the names of some countries and organisations.

For example,

The United States	The United Kingdom
The Yemen	

The United Nations Organisation

13. The is used before the name of grand buildings and movements.

For example,

The Taj Mahal	The Qutub Minar
The Charminar	The Jama Masjid
The Lotus Temple	

14. Definite article The is used before the name of historical caste.

For example,

The Brahmin

The Aryanas

The Sudras

The Alpine

15. The must be used before Superlative degree.

For example,

Rohit is the tallest boy of his school.

But,

Rohit is the tallest and the best boy of his school.

—wrong

Rohit is the tallest and best boy of his school.

—correct

Again,

Our the best desire is to go there.

—wrong

Our best desire is to go there.

—correct

16. The must be used before the name of titles and posts.

For example,

The Iron Man

The President

The Chief Minister

The Principal

The Father of the Nation

The Rai Bahadur

But,

The Queen Victoria

—wrong

The queen Elizabeth

—wrong

The King Birendra

—wrong

The Sister Nirmala

—wrong

The General Dyer

—wrong

THE OMISSION OF DEFINITE ARTICLE

1. Definite article cannot be used before the name of day, month and parts of day.

For example,

The Sunday is the last day.

—wrong

Sunday is the last day.

—correct

The January is the first month.

—wrong

January is the first month.

—correct

The sunrise

—correct

The sunset

—correct

But,

In the morning

—correct

In the evening

—correct

In the night

—correct

2. The cannot be used before the name of language and sports.

For example,

The Hindi is our national language.

—wrong

Hindi is our national language.

—correct

The cricket has become a popular game.

—wrong

Cricket has become a popular game.

—correct

3. Definite article The cannot be used with these phrase:

At hand

Give battle

Under ground

By day

For example,

Our examination is at the hand.

—wrong

Our examination is at hand.

—correct

Troops were forced to give the battle.

—wrong

Troops were forced to give battle.

—correct

4. The should not be used before the objects of these words:

Make

Become

Elect

Appoint

Select

Crown

For example,

She was elected as the chairman.

—wrong

She was elected as Chairman.

—correct

Mr. Simon became the Principal.

—wrong

Mr. Simon became Principal.

—correct

But,

Mr. Simon became *the* Principal of St. Xaviers.

—correct

5. The cannot be placed before the name of meals.

For example,

The break fast was ready for me.

—wrong

Break fast was ready for me.

—correct

But,

The Prime Minister was invited to *the* lunch.

—correct

6. The should be avoided before the name of subjects.

For example,

We should study the physics.

—wrong

We should study physics.

—correct

But,

The Physics of Tina are good.

—correct

↓
particularised

7. Definite article The cannot be used before these words:

Life

Death

Society

Mankind

Love

Pride

Parliament

Money

God

Providen

For example,

We live in the society.

—wrong

We live in society.

—correct

But,

The society of India is good.

—correct

8. Definite article must not be used before these places if we go there for the Primary purposes.

Church

Mosque

Religious purpose

College

Library

Court

Jail As accused

Hospital Treatment

Bed To sleep

Temple

Gurudwara

School

University

Study purpose

Prison

For example,

We went to the temple to worship.

—wrong

We went to temple to worship God.

—correct

Again,

We went to *the* church to attend a marriage.

↓ —correct

purpose changed

Sivam went to the bed to sleep.

—wrong

Sivam went to bed to sleep.

—correct

But,

Sonali went to *the* bed to see her son.

—correct

↓

Purpose changed

NOUN

A Noun is a word used as the name of a person, place or thing.

For example : Ram, Mohan, Sita, Gita, Delhi, America, Shakespeare, pen, paper, cigarette, soldier etc.

Classification of Noun

Noun is classified into four groups. They are :

1. Common Noun
2. Proper Noun
3. Collective Noun
4. Abstract Noun

Look at the sentences :

Vikramaditya was a great King.

The Noun Vikramaditya refers to a *particular* king, but the Noun *king* might be used with any other King. We call Vikramaditya a Proper Noun and king a Common Noun.

Similarly,

Gauri is a girl.

Here, *Gauri* is a Proper Noun, while *girl* is a Common Noun.

Ramesh is a boy.

Here, *Ramesh* is a Proper Noun, while *boy* is a Common Noun.

Delhi is a city.

Here, *Delhi* is a Proper Noun, while *city* is a Common Noun.

Canada is a country.

Here, *Canada* is a Proper Noun, while *country* is a Common Noun.

The words – girl, boy, city, country – in the above examples are all Common Nouns, because they are the names *common* to all girls, boys, cities and countries; while Gauri, Ramesh, Delhi and Canada are all Proper Nouns because, they are the names of particular girl, boy, city and country.

Thus,

1. A Common Noun is a name *given in common* to every person or thing *of the same class or kind*.

2. A Proper Noun is the name of some *particular* person or place.

[Proper means *one's own*. Hence, a Proper Noun is a person's *own name*.]

Note 1 : Proper Nouns are always written with a capital letter at the beginning.

Note 2 : Proper Nouns are sometimes used as Common Nouns;

For example,

Sachin is the Bradman of India.

Kalidas is often called the *Shakespeare* (the greatest dramatist) of India.

3. A Collective Noun is the name of a number (or *collection*) of persons or things taken together and spoken of as *one whole*. For example,

Crowd, mob, team, flock, herd, army, fleet, family, nation, jury, committee, parliament, troop, navy, library.

A fleet = a collection of ships or vessels.

An army = a collection of soldiers.

A crowd = a collection of people.

A herd = a collection of cattle.

A library = a collection of books.

Thus, when a name denotes a group of similar individuals, considered as one undivided whole, it is called a Collective Noun.

4. An Abstract Noun is usually the name of a *quality*, *action* or *state* considered apart from the object to which it belongs. For example,

Quality	Action	State
Goodness	Laughter	Childhood
Kindness	Theft	Boyhood
Whiteness	Movement	Youth
Darkness	Judgement	Slavery
Hardness	Hatred	Sleep
Brightness	Heroism	Sickness
Honesty		Death
Wisdom		Poverty
Bravery		

The names of the Arts and Science (e.g., grammar, music, chemistry, physics etc.) are also Abstract Nouns.

[We can speak of a *brave* soldier, a *strong* man, a *beautiful* flower. But we can also think of these *qualities* apart from any particular person or thing, and speak of *bravery*, *strength*, *beauty* by themselves. So, we can also speak of what persons do or feel apart from the persons themselves, and give it a name. The word *abstract* means *drawn off*.]

Formation Of Abstract Nouns

Abstract Nouns are generally formed from Common Nouns, Verbs and Adjectives by adding such suffixes as : *hood*, *cy*, *ism*, *ship*, *ment*, *ice*, *ness*, *ter*, *ty*, *th*, etc.

(a) From Common Nouns :

boy	boyhood	girl	girlhood
infant	infancy	agent	agency
thief	theft	hero	heroism
slave	slavery	bond	bondage
friend	friendship	leader	leadership
judge	judgement	coward	cowardice

(b) From Verbs :

live	life	govern	government
know	knowledge	serve	service
see	sight	obey	obedience
advise	advice	practise	practice
laugh	laughter	think	thought
please	pleasure	prepare	preparation
grow	growth		

(c) From Adjectives :

brave	bravery	good	goodness
great	greatness	honest	honesty
poor	poverty	just	justice
young	youth	true	truth
wise	wisdom	broad	breadth
long	length	wide	width
deep	depth	sole	solitude
grand	grandeur	kind	kindness

NUMBER

There are two kinds of Number :

(a) Singular, (b) Plural

A noun that denotes one person or thing is said to be in the Singular Number.

For example,

Boy, girl, man, bird, tree, book, pen, baby, sweater etc.

A noun that denotes more than one person or thing is said to be in the Plural Number.

For example,

Boys, girls, men, birds, trees, books, pens, babies, sweaters etc.

How Plural is formed

Generally, the Plurals of nouns are formed by adding 's' to the singular form.

For example,

Boy—boys	Girl—girls
Bird—birds	Cow—cows
Ship—ships	Desk—desks
Pencil—pencils	Book—books
Cassette—cassettes	Film—films

But, there are some rules of changing singular nouns into plural ones.

Rule 1 : If —s, —ss, —sh, —ch, —x and —z are the last letters of noun, put —es to the end to make them plural.

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Class	Classes	Mass	Masses
Kiss	Kisses	Toss	Tosses
Miss	Misses	Bus	Buses
Brush	Brushes	Dish	Dishes
Bush	Bushes	Watch	Watches
Bench	Benches	Match	Matches
Branch	Branches	Tax	Taxes
Box	Boxes	Topaz	Topazes

But, in case of Stomach (*Pronounced as Stomak*), Monarch (*Pronounced as Monark*) only —s is needed at their end to make them plural.

Stomach Stomachs

Monarch Monarchs

Rule 2 : If there is —O in the end of a noun, put —es to the end for plural.

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Hero	Heroes	Zero	Zeroes
Volcano	Volcanoes	Mango	Mangoes
Mosquito	Mosquitoes	Echo	Echoes
Potato	Potatoes	Buffalo	Buffaloes
Negro	Negroes	Cargo	Cargoes
Bingo	Bingos		

There are some exceptions where only —s is needed for a plural one in —o ending nouns.

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Photo	Photos	Piano	Pianos
Dynamo	Dynamics	Canto	Cantos
Quarto	Quartos	Momento	Momentos
Solo	Solos	Stereo	Stereos

Rule 3 : If there are double vowels to the end of a noun, put only —s to the end of that noun for plural.

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Radio	Radios	Ratio	Ratios
Studio	Studios	Portfolio	Portfolios
Cuckoo	Cuckoos	Bamboo	Bamboos

Rule 4 : If —y is the last letter of a noun and that —y is preceded by a consonant, then change —y into —ies for the plural forms.

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Spy	Spies	Baby	Babies
History	Histories	Lady	Ladies
Fly	Flies	Sky	Skies
Story	Stories	City	Cities
Army	Armies	Pony	Ponies

Rule 5 : If there are double vowels to the end of a noun, put only —s to the end of that noun for plural.

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Lay	Lays	Bay	Bays
Ray	Rays	Prey	Preys
Key	Keys	Storey	Storeys
Tray	Trays	Day	Days
Clay	Clays	Play	Plays

Rule 5 : If —f or —fe are the last letters of a noun, then change —f or —fe into —ves.

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Knife	Knives	Life	Lives
Wife	Wives	Thief	Thieves
Leaf	Leaves	Loaf	Loaves
Calf	Calves	Handkerchief	Handkerchiefs
Wolf	Wolves	Shelf	Shelves
Self	Selves		

Yet, there are some exceptions to this rule, such as :

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Proof	Proofs	Roof	Roofs
Chief	Chiefs	Reef	Reefs
Gulf	Gulfs	Belief	Beliefs
Grief	Grieves	Brief	Briefs
Serf	Serfs	Dwarf	Dwarfs
Hoof	Hoofs	Strife	Strifes

Rule 6 : It is found that a few nouns form their plural by changing the inside vowel of the singular form.

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Man	Men	Woman	Women
Tooth	Teeth	Goose	Geese
Mouse	Mice	Louse	Lice
Foot	Feet		

Rule 7 : There are a few nouns that form their plural by adding —en to the singular.

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Ox	Oxen	Child	Children

Rule 8 : There are some nouns which have their singular and plural forms alike.

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Swine	Swine	Sheep	Sheep
Deer	Deer	Trout	Trout
Salmon	Salmon	Pair	Pair
Dozen	Dozen	Score	Score
Gross	Gross	Stone (unit)	Stone

Hundredweight

Hundredweight

Hundred Hundred

Thousand Thousand

For example :

Twenty hundredweight₁, make one ton.

The boy gave me five hundred₂ rupees. (When used after numerals)

The car cost me eighty thousand₃ rupees. (When used after numerals)

Rule 9 : There are some nouns which are only used in the plural.

(a) Names of instruments which have two parts forming a kind of pair.

For example,

Ballows, spectacles, scissors, tongs, pincers etc.

(b) Names of certain articles of dress.

For example,

Trousers, breeches, drawers etc.

(c) Names of diseases

For example,

Measles, mumps etc.

(d) Names of games.

For example,

Draughts, billiards etc.

(e) Certain other nouns.

For example,

Annals, thanks, proceeds (of a sale), tidings, environs, nuptials, obsequies, assets, chattels, odds, amends, seals, shambles, vegetables, troops, particulars, aborigins, alms, ashes, arrears, dregs, eaves, earnings, sweepings, etc.

Rule 10 : There are some plural forms of nouns which are actually singular.

For example,

Innings, mathematics, news, civics, politics, physics, ethics, economics, mechanics, summons etc.

For example,

Mathematics is an easy subject.

(Mathematics is singular number)

If plural looking subjects are particularised or possessed, they become as plural nouns.

My Mathematics are strong.

↓

Possessed

↓

Plural number

The politics of our state are dirty.

↓

particularised

↓

plural number

The summons was issued by the magistrate.

↓

singular number

Rule 11 : The following nouns are always used in singular number.

For example,

Scenery, machinery, poetry, stationery, sultry, jewellery, crockery, luggage, baggage, breakage, halterage, percentage, knowledge, postage, wastage, furniture, information, traffic, coffee, dust etc.

Rule 12 : Certain Collective Nouns, though singular in form, are always used as plurals.

For example,

Poultry, cattle, vermin, people, gentry etc.

Rule 13 : In Compound Nouns, we make their plural forms only by adding —s to the main word.

Singular	Plural
Father-in-law	Fathers-in-law
Daughter-in-law	Daughters-in-law
Mother-in-law	Mothers-in-law
Commander-in-chief	Commanders-in-chief
Step-daughter	step-daughters
Maid-servant	Maid-servants
Looker-on	Lookers-on
Passer-by	Passers-by
Man-of-war	Men-of-war
Coat-of-mill	Coats-of-mill

Now, look at these examples :

Singular	Plural
Man killer	Man killers
Chief Minister	Chief Ministers
Woman hater	Woman haters
Cupful	Cupfuls
Handful	Handfuls
Drawback	Draw backs

Rule 14 : Nouns borrowed from other languages in English have their special rules to change them into plural.

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Datum	Data	Ditum	Dita
Erratum	Errata	Bacterium	Bacteria
Referendum	Referenda	Memorandum	Memoranda
Agendum	Agenda	Medium	Media
Sanatorium	Sanatoria	Criterion	Criteria
Phenomenon	Phenomena	Oasis	Oases
Thesis	Theses	Hypothesis	Hypotheses
Analysis	Analyses	Crisis	Crises
Index	Indice/Indices		
Apparatus	Apparatus	Series	Series
Innings	Innings	Species	Species

AN INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH GRAMMAR & LANGUAGE

Rule 15 : Some —um ending Latin nouns take only —s in plural form.

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Harmonium	Harmoniums	Quorum	Quorums
Forum	Forums	Premium	Premiums
Pendulum	Pendulums		
Stadium	Stadiums		

Rule 16 : Noun + Proposition + the same noun remain always singular in use.

For example,

Village after village	—correct
Match after match	—correct
Row upon row	—correct
Word for word.	—correct

But,

Villages after villages	—wrong
Matches after matches	—wrong
Rows upon rows	—wrong
Word for words	—wrong

Rule 17 : The digits, verbs, pronouns and abbreviations take their plural form in the following ways :

Singular	Plural
70	70's
21	21's
shall	shall's
will	will's
if	if's
what	what's
who	who's
M.A.	M.A.s [not M.A.'s]
B.A.	B.A.s [not B.A.'s]
M.L.A.	M.L.A.s [not M.L.A.'s]

Rule 18 : Some nouns have two meanings in the singular but only one in plural.

	Singular	Plural
Light	1. <i>radiance</i> 2. <i>a lamp</i>	Lights : Lamps
Practice	1. <i>habit</i> 2. <i>exercise of a profession</i>	Practices : habits
Powder	1. <i>dust</i> 2. <i>a dose of medicine in fine grains like dust</i>	Powders : doses of medicine
People	1. <i>nation</i> 2. <i>men and women</i>	Peoples : nations

Rule 19 : Some nouns have two forms for the plural, each with a somewhat different meaning.

	Singular	Plural
Brother	Brothers : <i>sons of the same parent</i>	
	Brethren : <i>members of a society of a community.</i>	
Cloth	Cloths : <i>kinds or pieces of cloth.</i>	
	Clothes : <i>garments.</i>	
Die	Dies : <i>stamps for coining.</i>	
	Dice : <i>small cubes used in games.</i>	
Fish	Fishes : <i>taken separately.</i>	
	Fish : <i>collectively</i>	
Genius	Geniuses : <i>persons of great talent</i>	
	Genii : <i>spirits</i>	

Index

Indexes : *tables of contents to books*
Indices : *signs used in algebra*

Penny

Pennies : *number of coins.*
Pence : *amount in value*

Rule 20 : Some nouns have one meaning in the singular and more than one in the plural.

Singular	Plural
Colour : <i>hue</i>	Colours : 1. <i>hues</i> 2. <i>the flag of a regiment.</i>

Custom : *habit*

Customs : 1. *habits*
2. *duties levied on imports.*

Effect : *result*

Effects : 1. *results*
2. *property*

Manner : *method*

Manners : 1. *methods*
2. *correct behaviour*

Moral : *a moral lesson*

Morals : 1. *moral lessons*
2. *conduct*

Number : *a quantity*

Numbers: 1. *quantities*
2. *verses*

Pain : *suffering*

Pains : 1. *sufferings*
2. *care, exertion*

Premise : *proposition*

Premises : 1. *propositions*
2. *buildings.*

Quarter : *fourth part*

Quarters : 1. *fourth part.*
2. *lodgings*

Spectacle : *a sight*

Spectacles: 1. *sights.*
2. *eye-glasses*

Letter : 1. *letter of the alphabet*

Letters : 1. *letters of the alphabet*
2. *epistle*
3. *literature*

Ground : 1. *earth*

Grounds : 1. *enclosed land attached to house*
2. *reasons*
3. *dregs*

Rule 21 : Some nouns change their meaning when we make them plural.

Singular

Plural

Air : *atmosphere*

Airs : *affected manners*

Alphabet : *letter*

Alphabets : *languages*

Advice : *counsel*

Advices : *information*

Abuse : *bad language*

Abuses : *languages*

Compass : *extent, range*

Compasses : *an instrument for drawing circles*

Force : *strength*

Forces : *military forces*

Good : *benefit, well-being*

Goods : *merchandise*

Physic : *medicine*

Physics : *natural science*

Practice : *habit*

Practices : *traditions*

Iron : *a kind of metal*

Irons : *fetters*

Light : *radiant*

Lights : *lamps*

Respect : *regard*

Respects : *compliments*

Work : *duty*

Words : *creations*

Rule 22 : (a) Abstract Nouns have no plural.

For example,

Hope, charity, love, kindness, happiness, hatred etc.

When such words do appear in the plural, they are used as common nouns.

For example,

Kindnesses = acts of kindness.

Provocations = instances or cases of provocation.

(b) There are also some names of substances or materials which are never used in plurals. They are called Material Nouns.

For example,

Copper, iron, tin, wood etc.

But, when these words are used in the plural, they become Common nouns and also, their meanings are changed.

For example,

Coppers — copper coins.

Irons — fetters.

Tins — cans made of tin.

Woods — forests.

CASE

There are four kinds of CASE :

- | | |
|---------------|---------------|
| 1. Nominative | 2. Accusative |
| 3. Possessive | 4. Dative |

If Noun or Pronoun is used as the subject, it is called Nominative case.

For example,

She is reading.



Nominative

Mohan is walking



Nominative

If noun or pronoun is used as the object, it is called Accusative case.

For example,

I like her.



Accusative

That is Anjali.



Accusative

If the possession or the relation of noun is expressed, it is called Possessive Case.

For example,

Rahul's book.



possession

Sharukh's brother.



relation

If Noun or pronoun is called or addressed, it is called Dative case.

For example,

John, read mindly.



Dative

Come here, Seema.



Dative

But, before reading Noun and Case, we should study the case of Pronoun.

Nominative	Accusative	Possessive
We	us	our/ours
I	me	my/mine
He	him	his
She	her	her/hers
You	you	your/yours
They	them	their/theirs
Who	whom	whose

1. After *let* pronouns are used in Accusative Case.

For example,

Let we read thoroughly.

—wrong

Let us read thoroughly.

—correct

Let them, her and we go there.

—wrong

Let them, her and us go there.

—correct

2. After preposition pronoun is used in Accusative Case.

For example,

There is a nice relation between she and I. —wrong

There is a nice relation between her and me.

—correct

3. After than pronoun should be used in Nominative case.

For example,

Ram is better than her.

—wrong

Ram is better than she.

—correct

But, Ram runs faster than she/her

—correct

[As helping verb is not used in comparative degree]

4. After if, pronoun is used in Nominative Case.

For example,

If I were him I would have gone.

—wrong

If I were he I would have gone.

—correct

Use of the Possessive Case

1. To the end of a singular Noun we put —'s (apostrophe) for Possessive Case :

For example,

Rajiv's book, Meena's mother, President's bodyguard.

2. —s ending plural nouns take only ()

For example,

Boys' hostel., Girls' school.

But,

Women's college, Men's competition, Children's park

3. In compound nouns, we use possessive with the last term.

For example,

Commander-in-chief's order

Mother-in-law's house

Father-in-law's problem

Engineer-in-chiefs' office

Brother-in-law's wife.

4. If possessive is used before than, it should be used after than.

For example,

Ravi's sister is more beautiful than Karan. —wrong

Ravi's sister is more beautiful than Karan's.

—correct.

- Kareena's husband is more handsome than Karishma. — wrong
- Kareena's husband is more handsome than Karishma's. — correct
- Rohan's brother is more intelligent than Mohan. — wrong
- Rohan's brother is more intelligent than Mohan's. — correct
5. If possessive is used before as it should also be used after as.
- For example,
- Dolly's sister is as beautiful as Sony. — wrong
- Dolly's sister is as beautiful as Sony's. — correct
6. If two Nouns are closely related, we are to use possessive with the last Noun.
- For example,
- Kapoor and son's shop.
- Choudhury and grand son's shop.
- But,
- Keats' and Shelley's poems.
- Smith's and Adam's definitions.
- [These two nouns are not closely related.]
7. If there is too much sound of hiss, ses, sus etc., of the last syllable of a noun, we use only (').
- For example,
- Moses' death, Jesus' love, Consciences' sake,
For justices' sake, For goodness' sake.
8. Possessive is also used with some personified phrases.
- For example,
- At death's door, Fortune's favour, The soul's
prayer, God's mercy, India's heroes, Nature's laws,
At duty's call.
9. The Possessive can also be used to show — time, distance, weight, edge etc.
- For example,
- A week's leave. A mule's distance.
- A kilo's weight. A bat's edge.
- A day's match. A stone's throw.
- In a year's time.
- A foot's length. A month's holiday.
10. Possessive can too be used to indicate — school, shop, clinic, church, house, college, hospital, theatre etc.
- For example,
- Sonia reads in St.Columbus'. [in St.Columbus school]
- Kamia went to barber's. [the shop of barber]
- Kavita went to doctor's. [the clinic of doctor]
- To-night I dine at my uncle's. [house of uncle]
- Anand was educated at Xavier's. [Xavier school]
11. The following phrases are also commonly used.
- For example,
- A boat's crew. At his wit's end.
- At his finger's end. For mercy's sake.
- To his heart's content.

GENDER

What is gender?

In grammar, there is a classification of a Noun or Pronoun as Masculine or Feminine. Therefore, gender is the sexual classification in grammar. Gender comes from Latin genus, meaning kind or sort.

We know that living beings are either the *male* or the *female* sex.

A	B	A	B
Boy	Girl	Tiger	Tigress
Actor	Actress	Man	Woman
Hero	Heroine	Cock	Hen
Lion	Lioness	Brother	Sister

The words in the first column under A are the names of all *male* animals.

And, the words in the second column under B are the names of all *female* animals.

A noun that denotes a *male* animal is said to be of the *Masculine Gender*.

A noun that denotes a *female* animal is said to be of the *Feminine Gender*.

Besides, *Masculine Gender* and *Feminine Gender*, there is a gender which is said to be the *Common Gender*. In this gender, a noun that denotes *either a male or a female* is included.

For example,

parent, child, pupil, servant, friend, thief, relation, enemy, cousin, orphan, student, person, baby, guardian, monarch, infant, neighbour, tutor etc.

A noun that denotes a thing that is *neither male nor female* is said to be of *Neuter Gender*.

[*Neuter means neither, i.e. neither male nor female.*]

For example,

Book, pen, table, chair, room, wall, tree, paper, ball, sword, radio, telephone, bag, cloth, cigarette, music, key, bus, auto, motor, song etc.

Masculine Gender is often applied to objects remarkable for strength, violence, sublimity and superiority.

For example,

Death, time, winter, summer, the sun, fear, love etc.

Feminine Gender is often applied to objects remarkable for beauty, gentleness, gracefulness, fertility, softness, sweetness and weakness etc.

For example,

The moon, the earth, spring, liberty, autumn, nature, charity, church, hope, justice, mercy, peace, religion, spring, truth, virtue, names of countries, locomotive engines, cars, ships and of arts and sciences.

FORMATION OF FEMININE NOUNS FROM THE MASCULINE

There are three ways of forming the *feminine* from the *mascilne*.

(1) *By using a different word.*

For example,

Masculine	Feminine	Masculine	Feminine
Father	Mother	Brother	Sister
Husband	Wife	Boy	Girl
Uncle	Aunt	Pappa	Mamma
Nephew	Niece	Man	Woman

King	Queen	Gentleman	Lady
Sir	Madam	Son	Daughter
Clock	Hen	Boar	Sow
Stag	Hind	Swan	Nymph
Widower	Widow	Fox	Vixen
Beau	Bettle		
Bachelor	Maid, Spinster		
Horse (or Stallion)	Mare		
Hart	Roe	Ram	Ewe
Wizard	Witch	Gander	Goose
Earl	Countess	Drone	Bee
Drake	Duck	Bullock	Heifer
Colt	Filly	Buck	Doe
Dog (or Hound)	Bitch	Bull (or Ox)	Cow
Monk (or Friar)	Nun	Bride groom	Bride
Lad	Lass		

(2) By adding a syllable (*-ess*, *-ine*, *-trix*, *-a*, etc.)

For example,

Masculine	Feminine	Masculine	Feminine
Lion	Lioness	Heir	Heiress
Host	Hostess	Poet	Poetess
Priest	Priestess	Mayor	Mayoress
Patron	Patroness	Peer	Peeress
Benefactor	Benefactress	Conductor	Conductress
Negro	Negress	Enchanter	Enchantress
Instructor	Instructress	Founder	Foundress
Waiter	Waitress	Traitor	Traitress
Seamster	Seamstress	Templer	Temptress
Songster	Songstress	Preceptor	Preceptress
Murderer	Murderess	Sorcerer	Sorceress

(3) By substituting a feminine word for a masculine in compound words.

For example,

Masculine	Feminine	Masculine	Feminine
Peacock	Peahen	Grandfather	Grandmother
Billy-goat	Nanny-goat	Cock-sparrow	Hen-sparrow
Foster-father	Foster-mother		
Jack-ass	Jenny-ass	Czar	Czarina
Viceroy	Vicerene	Testator	Testatrix
Executor	Executrix	Prophet	Prophetess
Shepherd	Shepherdess	Steward	Stewardess
Viscount	Viscountess	Manager	Manageress
Jew	Jewess	Baron	Baroness
Author	Authoress	Signor	Signora
Count	Countess	Giant	Giantess
Don	Donna	Hero	Heroine
Signor	Signora	Sultan	Sultana
Administrator	Administratrix		

Again, *-ess* is added after dropping the vowel of the masculine ending.

For example,

Masculine	Feminine	Masculine	Feminine
Abbot	Abbess	Duke	Cuchess
Emperor	Empress	Actor	Actress
Hunter	Huntress	Master	Mistress
Marquis	Marchioness	Prince	Princess
Tiger	Tigress	Votary	Votaress
He-ass	She-ass	Land-lord	Land-lady
Man-servant	Maid-servant	Milk-man	Milk-maid

School-master	School-mistress
Washer-man	Washer-woman
Step-son	Step-daughter
Buck-rabbit	Doe-rabbit
Man-kind	Woman-kind
Bull-calf	Cow-calf
He-bear	She-bear
Great-uncle	Great-aunt

Note : 1. Some Masculine Nouns are used in the Common Gender.

For example,

Actor, Advocate, Author, Chairman, Doctor, Hound, Lawyer, Man, Painter, Poet, Teacher, Tutor, Hunter

2. Some Feminine Nouns are used in the Common Gender.

For example,

Cow, Duck, Bee

3. Some Feminine Nouns have no corresponding Masculine forms.

For example,

House-wife (mistress of the house)

Virgin (an unmarried woman)

Flirt (woman pretending to make love)

Virago (a turbulent woman)

Dowager (widow with late husband's property)

Siren (an enticing woman)

Brunette (a dark-complexioned woman)

Prude (a woman of affected modesty)

4. Some Masculines have no corresponding Feminines.

For example,

Captain, Judge, Knight, Squire, Parson

PRONOUN

Pronoun is the word that is used for a Noun. Pronoun makes our language stylistic and saves us from repeating the same Noun. [Pronoun actually means *For-a-Noun*].

For example,

Ashi is absent, because Ashi is ill.

But, we can say :

Ashi is absent because she is ill.

↓

Pronoun

KINDS OF PRONOUN

Pronouns are of nine kinds :

1. Personal Pronoun.
2. Reflexive Pronoun.
3. Demonstrative Pronoun.
4. Relative Pronoun.
5. Interrogative Pronoun.
6. Possessive Pronoun.
7. Reciprocal Pronoun.
8. Universal Pronoun.
9. Pronouns denoting number or amount.

1. PERSONAL PRONOUN

Personal Pronoun includes — We, I, She, He, It, They, You, Thou, Thee etc. They all stand for three Persons, i.e.,

- (i) the person speaking
- (ii) the person spoken to
- (iii) the person spoken of

We and *I* are used for First Person. *He, she* and *it* are used for Third Person while *you, thou* and *thee* are used for Second Person. *Thou* and *thee* are out of use now. They can be used for mankind, animal, bird, non-living in Plural.

They are boys.	mankind
They are tables.	non-livings
They are dogs.	animals

Use of Pronoun *It*

- (1) *It* is used for time and weather.

For example,

It is fine.	It is winter.
It is ten o'clock.	It is morning.
It is July.	It was Monday.
It is ten p.m.	

- (2) *It* is used for things without life.

For example,

Here is your book take it away.

- (3) *It* is used for a young child, unless we clearly wish to refer to the sex.

For example,

It is a baby.

It is an infant.

When I saw the child it was crying.

The baby has torn its clothes.

Again,

Who is it at the gate?

[When referred to mankind if its sex is unknown]

- (4) *It* is used for animal, bird and non-living.

For example,

It is an ox.

It is a crow.

It is a chair.

- (5) *It* is used to refer to some statement going before.

For example,

He is telling what is not true; as he knows it.

He deserved his punishment; as he knew it.

- (6) *It* is used for natural incidents.

For example,

It is raining.

It is thundering.

It was an earthquake.

It snows.

- (7) *It* is used as a provisional and temporary subject before the verb *to be* when the real subject follows.

For example,

It is easy to find fault.

It is doubtful whether he will come.

It is certain that you are wrong.

(8) *It* is used to give emphasis to the Noun or pronoun following.

For example,

It is a silly fish that is caught twice with the same bait.

It was you who began the quarrel.

It is an ill wind that blows for nobody good.

It was at Versailles that the treaty was made.

It was I who first protested.

FORMS OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS

The three difference forms of Personal Pronouns are:

	First Person	Singular	Plural
Nominative	I	we	We
Possessive	my, mine	our, ours	
Accusative	me	us	
	Second Person	Singular	Plural
Nominative	thou	you	you
Possessive	thy, thine	your, yours	
Accusative	thee	you	
	Third Person	Singular	Plural
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	he	she	it
Possessive	his	her, hers	its
Accusative	him	her	it
			All Genders

2. REFLEXIVE PRONOUN

Reflexive Pronouns are formed by adding - self to Personal Pronouns of the Singular Number and - selves to Personal Pronouns of the Plural Number.

For example,

Myself — I hurt myself.

Yourself — You will hurt yourself.

Himself — He hurt himself.

Herself — She hurt herself.

Itself — The horse hurt itself.

Ourselves — We hurt ourselves.

Yourselves — You will hurt yourselves.

Themselves — They hurt themselves.

Use of Reflexive Pronouns

- (1) Reflexive Pronoun is used when the doer accents on his action or skill.

For example,

I shall myself do this work.

We will ourselves solve this problem.

- (2) We use reflexive pronoun if the doer has to face both action and result.

For example,

She cut her finger herself.

I cook myself at present.

- (3) After these words, we generally use reflexive pronoun :

Avoid, avail, pride, enjoy, absent etc.

For example,

Ram avoids of the chance — Wrong.
Ram avoids himself of the chance.
— Correct.
Yukta prides on her beauty. — Wrong
Yukta prides herself on beauty — Correct

3. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUN

A Pronoun that points out (demonstrates) some Nouns instead of which it is used, is called a *Demonstrative Pronoun*.

- (1) *This* and *that* are used for Singular Nouns while *these* and *those* are used for Plural Nouns.

For example,

The people of India are poorer than that of England. — Wrong.
The people of India are poorer than those ↓ ↓
Plural Noun those.
of England. — Correct
The flower of India is sweeter than those of Italy. — wrong.
The flower of India is sweeter than that of ↓ ↓
Singular Noun that
Italy. — Correct.

- (2) *These* and *those* should not be used before *kind of* and *sort of*.

For example,

These kind of people are poor. — Wrong.
This kind of people are poor. — Correct
Those sort of people are rich. — Wrong
That sort of people are rich. — Correct

But,

These kinds of pens are costly.— Crorect
Those sorts of books are useful.— Correct

- (3) When two nouns have been mentioned in a clause or sentence going before, *this* is a substitute for the latter and *that* for the former.

For example,

Both health and wealth are necessary i.e., *this* (wealth) gives us opportunities; and *that* (health) gives us energy for work.

- (4) *This* or *that* is also used as a substitute for a clause or a sentence going before.

For example,

You neglect your studies and *this* is bad of you.
Johny never cared for his health and *that* rained him.

- (5) *One* and its plural form *ones* are Demonstrative Pronouns when they are used as substitutes for nouns.

For example,

I lost my pen, but I have got *one* (=a pen) from my father.

The books that you sent me are not good *ones* (=books).

- (6) *Such* is a Demonstrative Pronoun when it is used as a substitute for a Noun.

For example,

I am a party to this case and as *such* (=a party) I cannot help you.

4. RELATIVE PRONOUN

A *Relative Pronoun* is one which relates to (refers to) some other Noun or Pronoun, called its antecedent, and which has the force of Conjunction.

[The Noun or Pronoun for which the Relative Pronoun stands, is called its antecedent]

For example,

I met a man. He gave me a letter.
I met the man who gave me a letter.
John read the book. It was lent to him.
John read the book which was lent to him.
The pen is lost. You gave me the pen.
The pen that you gave me is lost.

Each of these three little words, *who*, *which* and *that* is really two parts of speech in one. Each stands for a Noun and at the same time, joins two sentences together like a conjunction. In other words, it does at once the work of a Pronoun and that of a Conjunction.

Uses of Relative Pronoun

- (1) *Who* and *whom* are used for mankind in Nominative and in Accusative Cases positively.

For example,

These are the boys *who* help me.
She is the girl *who* teaches me.
Meena is the girl *whom* I love.
They are the students *whom* I teach.

- (2) *Whose* is used for all in Possessive Case.

For example,

He is the boy *whose* name is Raju.
This is the table *whose* colour is blue.
This is the animal *whose* tail is long.

- (3) *Which* is used for all except mankind.

For example,

This is the bird *which* can fly.
This is the animal *which* gives us milk.
This is the music system *which* is costly.

- (4) *That* is used after all, none, some etc.

For example,

All *that* glitters is not gold.
None *that* has come is honest.

Some *that* are fancy items are sold.

- (5) *Everything* and *anything* are followed by *that*.

For example,

I replied *everything* *that* was asked.
He can do *anything* *that* is required.

- (6) We use only *that* if Noun is not used after Superlative Adjective.

For example,

This is the best what I can do. — Wrong.
This is the best *that* I can do. — Correct

But,

She is the best girl who has attracted me.
— Correct.

He is the best boy that has passed.
↓ ↓
Superlative Noun — Correct

(7) If Noun is used after *such* or for example, they are followed by *as* not *that*.

For example,

Such boys will be rewarded as are laborious.
↓ ↓ ↓
Such Noun as
As many girls have been selected as
↓ ↓ ↓
Such Noun as
are intelligent.

But,

Such was the condition that / as was the treatment.
— Correct.

The Special Rules of Relative Pronoun

(1) No use of *and* and *but* before Relative Pronoun.

For example,

Ram is the boy and who has helped me. — Wrong
Ram is the boy who has helped me. — Correct
She is the girl but who has deceived me. — Wrong
She is the girl who has deceived me. — Correct

(2) No use of Possessive Case with the antecedent of Relative Pronoun.

For example,

It is Reena's pen who is my friend. — Wrong
It is the pen of Reena who is my friend. — Correct

But,

It is Leela's book which is new. — Correct
↓ ↓ ↓
Noun Noun P.Pronoun

(3) No use of Personal Pronoun after Relative Pronoun if it is defined before relative pronoun.

For example,

Sanjay who is here he is my friend. — Wrong
Sanjay who is here is my friend. — Correct
Salman who is intelligent he is laborious. — Wrong
Salman who is intelligent is laborious. — Correct

5. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUN

Who is there? (person)

Which of them did it, Mary or Maratha? (person)

Which of the books do you like most? (thing)

What has happened to you? (thing)

The pronoun who, which and what are used in asking questions and are therefore called *Interrogative Pronouns*.

Who is used for the persons of whom the speaker is ignorant.

For example,

Who went there?

[We expect the answer to be the name of a person]

Who goes there?

Who spoke?

Who is knocking at the door?

Who made the highest score?

Who says so?

Whose is this umbrella?

Whom do you see?

Which is used for both persons and things, but refers to one or more out of a known number.

For example,

Which of the boys met you? (person)
Which is your friend? (person)
Which are your books? (things)
Which of the boys saw him? (person)
Which will you choose? (thing)
Which of you has done this? (person)
Which of these pens is yours? (things)
Which of the pictures do you like best? (thing)
Which will you take? (thing)

What applies to thing and persons of which the speaker is ignorant.

For example,

What do you want? (thing)
What have you found? (thing)
What did you say? (thing)
What was it all about? (thing)
What are the marks on your cheek? (thing)
What is sweeter than honey? (thing)
What is he? (person)
What are you? (person)

But,

Who is he? [What is his name and family?]

Thus,

Who inquires about the name or parentage of the person spoken about.

Which inquires about a particular person from among a group of persons.

What inquires about the profession or social position of the person spoken about.

Uses of Interrogative Pronoun

(1) *Do, did* and *does* should not be used after *who* in general sense.

For example,

Who does help you at present? — Wrong
Who helps you at present? — Correct
Who did take your pen? — Wrong
Who took your pen? — Correct

(2) *Where, why* and *when* are also used as interrogative pronouns.

For example,

Where do you live at? — [place]

Why are you angry? — [reason]

When did he arrive here? — [time]

(3) *Whenever, whatever, whosoever* are called semi-interrogative pronouns.

For example,

Whenever I go out she meets me. — [time]

Whatever is the matter I shall help him. — [reason]

Whosoever is guilty will be punished.

— [person]

6. POSSESSIVE PRONOUN

Our, your, her, their etc. are called possessive adjectives.
And,
Mine, thine, hers, ours, yours and theirs etc. are called possessive pronouns.

Note : *Noun is not used after possessive pronoun.*

For example,

Your watch is new but mine watch is old.
— wrong

Your watch is new but mine is old. — correct
Her pen is unique but mine pen is ordinary.
— wrong

Her pen is unique but mine is ordinary. — correct

Use of Possessive Pronouns

(1) When a verb comes in between a Noun and a pronoun.

For example,

Yours is the gain, mine the loss.

(2) When the Noun is understood.

For example,

I have got my pen, where is *yours*?
[*Yours* = your pen]

(3) When the pronoun is preceded by *of*.

For example,

This book of *mine* was stolen.

7. RECIPROCAL PRONOUN

Reciprocal Pronoun includes :

Each other

and one another

Each other is used for two, while

One another is used for more than two.

For example,

The two boys love each other.

↓ ↓

two each other

The five girls hate one another.

↓ ↓

five one another

But, now-a-days, both *each other* and *one another* are used for two or more than two.

For example,

The six boys love each other. — correct

The two girls hate one another. — correct

8. UNIVERSAL PRONOUN

(1) *Universal Pronoun* includes *anybody, somebody, nobody, everybody, someone, everyone* etc. which indicate singular nouns.

For example,

Anybody has helped him.

Somebody opposes him.

Everybody loves song.

Nobody knows God.

(2) *Universal Pronoun* also includes *all, both, some, many* etc. which indicate plural nouns.

For example,

All are lazy here.

Both have done their job.

Some have required.

Many were there.

9. NOUNS DENOTING NUMBER OR AMOUNT

(a) *Indefinite Pronoun*

The Indefinite Pronoun are those that have no actual relationship with a Noun in their own or a neighbouring sentence, but which stand generally for a Noun.

Ex. : one, none, some, all, any, many, both etc.

For example,

One should be careful of *one's* health (= any man and every man)

One cannot be too careful of *one's* purse.

(not *his*)

None was allowed to get in.

None of his answers are correct.

Any and *all* are used in both numbers.

For example,

Do (or does) *any* of your know him?

Any of these is (or are) long enough.

All that glitters is not gold.

All of us are ready.

Both, some, many and *few* are plural.

For example,

Both of them were absent.

Some of my friends are here.

Few were chosen and *many* were dismissed.

(b) *Distributive Pronoun*

Each, everyone, either and neither are *Distributive Pronouns*, as they separate are person or thing from a group of persons or things : they always take singular verbs while other pronouns referring to them must also be singular.

For example,

Each of them was a scholar.

Everyone of them was busy.

Either of the two boys was required but *neither* of them was ready.

For example,

Let *each* of us go there in our turn. — wrong

Let *each* of us go there in his turn. — correct

Everyone of them have separate room to sleep.

— wrong

Everyone of them has a separate room to sleep in. — correct

ADJECTIVE

An Adjective is a describing word that adds something to the meaning of a Noun.

For example,

Harish is a *clever* boy.

↓

Adjective

Here, *clever* shows what kind of boy Harish is; or, we may say, *clever* describes the boy—Harish.

I do not like *that* girl.

↓

Adjective

Here, *that* points out which girl is meant.

He gave me *ten* oranges.



Adjective

Here, *ten* shows how many oranges he gave me.

KINDS OF ADJECTIVES

Adjectives are of the following kinds:

- (1) Adjective of quality
- (2) Adjective of quantity
- (3) Adjective of number.
- (4) Demonstrative Adjective
- (5) Distributive Adjective
- (6) Emphasizing Adjective
- (7) Interrogative Adjective
- (8) Possessive Adjective
- (9) Proper Adjective
- (10) Relative Adjective
- (11) Exclamatory Adjective

(1) ADJECTIVE OF QUALITY

These Adjectives show the kind or quality of a person or a thing.

For example,

The Ganges is a *holy* river.

Calcutta is a *large* city.

He is an *honest* man.

- (i) In using Adjectives of Quality, we first use ordinal then cardinal.

For example,

She has read the three first Chapters.—wrong

She has read the first three Chapters.—correct

I have read the four last stanzas. —wrong

I have read the last four stanzas. —correct.

- (ii) One or two Adjectives can be used before or after Nouns.

A black and white film



Adj Adj Noun

A film black and white



Noun Adj Adj

But,

- (iii) The following Adjectives are used only predicatively. sleep, awake, afraid, ashamed, alike, alone etc.

For example,

Ram is an alone boy. —wrong

Ram is alone. —correct

Ravi is an ashamed boy. —wrong

Ravi is ashamed. —correct

(2) ADJECTIVE OF QUANTITY

Adjectives of quantity show how much of a thing is meant.

For example,

All, any, enough, half, little, much, no, whole, some etc.

For example,

He drank much milk.

I want *some* paper.

I drank a *little* milk.

- (i) *Some* is used in affirmative sentence while *any* is used in negative sentence.

For example,

He has not *some* problems. —wrong

He has not *any* problems. —correct

She has *any* money with her. —wrong

She has *some* money with her. —correct

- (ii) *Many* is used before countable noun while *much* is used before uncountable noun.

For example,

The accident caused *many* damages. —wrong

The accident caused *much* damages. —correct

She met *much* people there. —wrong

She met *many* people there. —correct

- (iii) *Many a much* should not be used objectively. Use a large number of, a large amount of, a great deal of, plenty of etc. instead of *much* or *many*.

For example,

She asked me *many* questions. —wrong

She asked me a *large* number of questions. —correct

Mohan drank *much* water —wrong

Mohan drank *plenty* of water —correct

- (iv) *Few* and *little* cannot be used for the sense of *a few* and *a little*.

For example,

Few persons were there to help me —wrong

A few persons were there to help me —correct

After a long journey she got *little* tired —wrong

After a long journey she got a *little* tired —correct

Note : The meaning of *few* and *little* is *nothing*. Always, use *hardly / any* in such cases.

For example,

Bill has *hardly* any money to give me.

He has *hardly* any books to give me.

- (v) *A few* or *a little* cannot be used at the place of *the few* and *the little*.

For example,

I gave him books *a few* I had —wrong

I gave him books *the few* I had —correct

She gave me money *a little* she had —wrong

She gave me money *the little* she had —correct

(3) ADJECTIVE OF NUMBER

Adjectives of number (or Numeral Adjectives) are those that show how many are meant or in what order :

For example,

five, fifth, one, first, all, few, many, some etc.

There are two kinds of *Adjectives of number* those which show exactly how many persons or things there are, or in what order in a series any of them stands, are called *Definite Numerals* : four, fourth, nine, ninth etc.

- (i) Those Adjectives of Number which do not show what the exact number is, are called *Indefinite Numerals*: all, few, many more, sever all, some etc.

For example,

All men must die.

Few cats like cold water.

Many boys were present.

Some rose are white.

- (ii) The *Definite Numerals* are again divided into two classes:
- Adjectives of Number which show *how many* are called Cardinals and,
 - Those which show *in what order* a person or thing stands, are called Ordinals.

One, two, three, four, five etc. —(Cardinals)

First, second, third, fourth, fifth etc. — (Ordinals)

For example,

I have two hands.

Wednesday is the fourth day of the week.

- (iii) The same adjective may be an *Adjective of Number* or an *Adjective of Quantity* according to sense.

For example,

Number	Quantity
--------	----------

I lost *some* books. I drank *some* milk.

More boys are wanted I want *more* milk.
for the job

- (iv) *Many* followed immediately by *a/an* takes a singular noun and a singular verb, but if preceded by *a* with *great* or *good* following, it takes a plural verb,

For example,

Many a man was present there.

A great *many* boys were present there.

(4) DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVE

Demonstrative Adjectives point out which person or thing is meant.

For example,

This book is mine *that* book is yours.

These trees are tall, *those* trees are short.

This boy is stronger than *Jay*.

That boy is laborious.

These mangoes are sweet.

Note : A demonstrative adjective and the noun qualified by it, must be of the same number.

For example,

This kind of book is rare (Not *these* kind)

(5) DISTRIBUTIVE ADJECTIVE

The Indefinite Numeral Adjectives- *each*, *every*, *either* and *neither* when used with Nouns to show that persons or things are taken separately, either one at a time or several at a time in separate lots, are called *Distributive adjectives*.

(i) *Each* and *Every*

Each may be used both as pronoun and adjective but, *every* is used only as an adjective.

Each is used with two or more than two things but, *every* is used with more than two things.

For example,

Each pen costs a shilling.

or, *Each* of the pens costs a shilling.

Every pen cost a penny.

Everyone of the ten boys is industrious.

(ii) *Either* and *Neither*

Either means:

(a) one of two

or, (b) each of two (i.e. *both*)

For example,

You can choose *either* party (one party or the other)

Either side scored a goal (each of the two sides)

Neither is the negative form of *either* and means *neither the one nor the other*.

For example,

Neither party won the game.

Neither of the two girls is lazy.

But,

Neither of the three boys is intelligent.—wrong

None of the three boys is intelligent. —correct

(For example, *Neither* is used with two).

(6) EMPHASIZING ADJECTIVE

Adjectives used with Nouns for the sake of emphasis, are called *Emphasizing Adjectives*.

For example,

I saw this very book.

↓

Emphasizing
Adj.

(7) INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVE

The Interrogative Pronouns *what*, *which* and *whose*, if used with Nouns in asking questions are called *Interrogative Adjectives*.

For example,

What kind of manner is this?

What manner of man is he ?

(8) POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVE

Adjectives formed from Pronouns in the Genitive (Possessive) case are called *Possessive Adjectives*.

For example, *My*, *your*, *his*, *her*, *its* and *their*.

For example,

My mother is coming.

Your time is up.

(9) PROPER ADJECTIVE

Proper adjectives are formed from Proper Nouns

For example,

Proper noun

Proper adjective

India

Indian

China

Chinese

Japan

Japanese

(10) RELATIVE ADJECTIVE

The Relative Pronouns *which* and *what* when used as Adjectives, are called *Relative Adjectives*.

For example,

I gathered *what* information I could.

I was ill, *which* fact caused my absence.

(11) EXCLAMATORY ADJECTIVE

What nonsense !

What a pity !

What an idea !

What in the sentences above is used as an exclamatory adjective.

(*What* and *what a/what aware* used in exclamations.)

FORMATION OF ADJECTIVES

(i) Many adjectives are formed from Nouns.

Noun	Adjective	Noun	Adjective
Gold	Golden	Silk	Silken
Gift	Gifted	King	Kingly
Boy	Boyish	Dirt	Dirty
Fool	Foolish	Storm	Stormy
Care	Careful	Pardon	Pardonable
Play	Playful	Laugh	Laughable
Hope	Hopeful	Venture	Venturesome
Trouble	Troublesome	Outrage	Outrageous
Courage	Courageous	Glory	Glorious
Shame	Shameless/shameful		
Envy	Envious	Man	Manly

(ii) Some adjectives are formed from Verbs.

Verb	Adjective	Verb	Adjective
Cease	Ceaseless	Talk	Talkative
Tire	Tireless	Move	Moveable

(iii) Some adjectives are formed from other Adjectives.

Adjective	Adjective	Adjective	Adjective
White	Whitish	Black	Blackish
Sick	Sickly	Tragic	Tragical
Whole	Wholesome	Three	Threefold

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES (DEGREE)

Let us take a few sentences:

1. Sunil's orange is sweet.
2. Kavita's orange is sweeter than Sunil's.
3. Sanjay's orange is the sweetest of all.

In the first sentence, the Adjective sweet merely tells us that Sunil's orange has the quality of sweetness, without saying how much of this quality it has.

In the second sentence, the Adjective sweeter tells us that Kavita's orange, compared with Sunil's, has more of the quality of sweetness.

And, in the third sentence, the Adjective sweetest tells us that of all these oranges, Sanjay's mango has the greatest amount or highest degree of the quality of sweetness.

Thus, we see that Adjectives change form (sweet, sweeter, sweetest) to show comparison. They are called the three Degrees of Comparison.

In order to know Adjectives at length, it is essential to know the degrees of comparison.

There are three kinds of degree.

1. Positive Degree.
2. Comparative Degree.
3. Superlative Degree.

In the above sentences, sweet is in the Positive degree sweeter in Comparative degree and Sweetest is in the Superlative degree.

Structures Used for Making Positive, Comparative and Superlative Degrees

1. Positive : No other as + P.F + as + N.
- Comparative : N + Aux. Verb + C.F. + than any other...

Superlative : N + Aux. Verb + the + S.F.....

For example,

No other boy in our class is as bad as Mohan.

—Positive

Mohan is worse than any other boy in our class.

Comparative

Mohan is the worst boy in our class.

—Superlative

Note : After the + superlative, no other and than any other, we use Singular Noun.

For example,

The best boys —wrong

The best boy —correct

No other boys —wrong

No other boy —correct

Than any other boys —wrong

Than any other boy —correct

2. Positive : very few..... as + P.F. + as + N
- Comparative : N + Aux. Verb + C. F + than most other....

Superlative : N + Aux. Verb + one of +the +S.F.....

For example,

Kolkata is one of the busiest cities of India.

—Superlative

Very few cities of India are as busy as Kolkata.

—Positive

Kolkata is busier than most other cities of India.

—Comparative

Note : There is no use of singular Noun after — one of, very few and than most other.

For example,

One of the best girl —wrong

Very few girl —wrong

Than most other girl —wrong

One of the best girls —correct

Very few girls —correct

Than most other girls —correct

THE RULES OF DEGREES

1. After the following Latin adjectives we use 'to', instead of than in comparative degree:

superior, junior, senior, prior, interior, interior, minor etc.

For example,

Ram is junior to me. —correct

Nayna is senior to Meena. —correct

2. There is no use of more or most before the following Adjectives:

Unique, universal, absolute, supreme, right, round, square, perfect, changeable etc.

For example,

He is the unique person of my village. —correct

3. There is no use of superlative degree for two.

For example,

Soma is the more beautiful of the two.

He is better of the two.

4. 'Much' cannot be used before positive adjective.

For example,

Munna is a very intelligent boy.

5. No use of 'very' before Comparative Adjective.

For example,

Rani is much better than Reena.

6. Both very and much can be used before Superlative Adjective.

For example,

Anil is the very best boy of his class. —correct
Sekhar is much the best boy of our school.

7. The same form of degree will be used before and after and

For example,

Ram is the best and tallest.	—Superlative
Shyam is better and taller.	—Comparative
Indu is good and tall.	—Positive

8. Fewer/Less

Fewer is used before countable noun while less is used before uncountable noun.

For example,

No fewer than five persons died.
No less than half of the work has been done.

9. Former/Latter/Later

Former is used for the first out of two Latter is used for the second out of two. And later is used for time.

For example,

Of Ajay and Nikhil, the former is the more intelligent.
Of iron and gold, the latter is the more precious.

The death of Rajib was later than the death of Indira

10. Latest/Last

Latest refer to time and, last refer to position.

For example,

I have not heard the latest news.

Can you say me the latest proceedings of the meeting?

The last chapter is carelessly written.

Ours is the last house in the street.

11. Elder/Older; Eldest/Oldest

Elder and eldest are used only of persons, confined to members of the same family.

While, older and oldest are both used of persons and things for the members of different families.

For example,

John is my elder brother.

Alter is my eldest son.

My sister is elder to me.

Gandhi was older to Nehru.

He is older than his sister.

Harry is the oldest boy in the eleven.

This is the oldest temple in Calcutta.

Again, old is used in all three degrees while elder is used in Comparative and eldest in Superlative degree.

For example,

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
old	older	oldest
—	elder	eldest

12. Farther/Further

Farther means more distant one advanced, while further means additional.

For example,

Delhi is farther from the equator than Colombo.

After this he made no further remarks.

I must have a reply without further delay.

13. Nearest / Next

Nearest denotes distance ; and next denotes position.

For example,

Mumbai is the seaport nearest to Europe.

Time's shop is next to Police Station.

My uncle lives in the next quarter.

**FORMATION OF
COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE DEGREE**

* Most Adjectives of *one syllable*, and some of more than one, form their Comparative degree by adding -er and the Superlative Degree by adding -e st to the Positive.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Small	Smaller	Smallest
Sweet	Sweeter	Sweetest
Tall	Taller	Tallest
Bold	Bolder	Boldest
Clever	Cleverer	Cleverest
Kind	Kinder	Kindest
Young	Younger	Youngest
Great	Greater	Greatest
Old	Older	Oldest

* When the last letter in the Positive Degree ends in -e, only -r and -st are added to their Comparative and Superlative degrees respectively.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Wise	Wiser	Wisest
Noble	Nobler	Noblest
Able	Abler	Ablest
Large	Larger	Largest
Brave	Braver	Bravest
White	Whiter	Whitest
Fine	Finer	Finest

* When the Positive Form ends in -y, preceded by a consonant, the -y is changed into -i before adding -er and -east.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Happy	Happier	Happiest
Easy	Easier	Easiest
Heavy	Heavier	Heaviest
Merry	Merrier	Merriest
Wealthy	Wealthier	Wealthiest

* When the Positive Form is a word of one syllable and ends in a single consonant, preceded by a short vowel, this consonant is doubled before adding -er and -east.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Fat	Fatter	Fattest
Sad	Sadder	Saddest
Thin	Thinner	Thinnest
Hot	Hotter	Hottest
Big	Bigger	Biggest
Red	redder	Reddest

* Adjectives of more than two syllables, and many of those with two, form the Comparative by using the adverb *more* with the Positive Form and the Superlative by using the adverb *most* with the positive form.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Beautiful	More beautiful	Most beautiful
Splendid	More splendid	Most splendid
Difficult	More difficult	Most difficult
Proper	More Proper	Most Proper
Learned	More learned	Most learned
Industrious	More industries	Most industries
Courageous	More courageous	Most courageous

* The Adjectives whose Comparative and Superlative degrees are not formed from the Positive Degree.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Good	Better	Best
Bad	Worse	Worst
Little	Less	Least
Much	More	Most
Many	More	Most
Late	Later	Latest
Old	Older	Oldest
Far	Farther	Farthest
Nigh	Nigher	Next
Fore	Former	Formost
In	Inner	Innermost
Up	Upper	Upmost
Out	Outer	Utmost

CORRECT USE OF SOME ADJECTIVES

1. Some, any

Some is used to express quantity or degree in affirmative sentences while, *any* is used to express the same in negative or interrogative sentences.

For example,

I shall buy *some books*.

I shall not buy *any books*.

Have you bought *any books*?

But, *some* is also used in questions which actually express – commands or requests.

For example,

Will you please lend me *some money*?

Bring me *some sweet* to eat.

2. Each, every

Each and *every* are similar in meaning, but *every* is a stronger word than *each*.

Each is used in speaking of two or more things. *Each* is used only when the number in the group is limited and definite.

Every is used in speaking of more than two things. *Every* is also used when the number is indefinite.

For example,

Every seat was taken.

Five girls were seated on each bench.

Every one of these chairs is broken.

Leap year falls in every fourth year.

He can to see us every five days.

It rained every day during my vacation.

3. Little, a Little and the little

Little means not much (i.e. hardly any).

Thus, Little has a negative meaning.

For example, There is *little hope* of his recovery.

He showed little concern for his cousin.

He has little influence with his old followers.

He showed little mercy to the culprit.

He has little appreciation of good poetry.

A little means some though not much. It has a positive meaning.

For example,

There is a little hope of his arrival.

A little thought would have saved the situation.

A little knowledge is a dangerous thing.

The little means not much, but all what is.

For example,

The little information he had might lead him to conclusion.

The little knowledge of astrology that he had possessed stood him in great stead.

4. Few, a few and the few

Few means not many, hardly any.

Few has a negative meaning.

For example,

Few persons can keep a secret.

Few people are so reckless as gamblers.

Few college in India have scientific libraries.

Few men are free from faults.

Few men reach the age of a hundred years.

A few means some. It has a Positive meaning and is apposed to 'none'.

For example,

A Few of the members were present in the meeting.

A few words of love will cheer her up.

A few Europeans have their offices in Delhi.

A few days rest is all that is needed.

A few words spoken in earnest will convince line.

When I met him after a few years, he looked old and haggard.

It is a question of spending a few rupees.

The few means not many, but all there are.

For example,

The few friends that he has are all very poor.

The few poems he has written are all of great excellence.

The few remarks that he made were very suggestive.

The few days that are left to him he spends in solitude.

The few clothes they had were all tattered and torn.

VERB

A Verb is a word that tells or asserts something about a person or thing. *Verb comes from the Latin 'verbnum' meaning a word.'*

A Verb may tell :

- (i) What a person or thing *does*.

For example,

The man *laughs*. The car *moves*.
Neena *sings*.

- (ii) What is *done* to a person or thing.

For example,

The door is *shut*. The glass is *broken*.
Ram is *scolded*.

- (iii) What a person or thing *is*.

For example,

I *feel sorry*. Man *is mortal*.
Robin *is dead*.

A Verb often consists of more than one word.

For example,

Boys *were running*.
He *has worked his sum*.
The purse *has been found*.
I *have done my duty*.

Principal And Auxiliary Verbs

Ray *worked hard*. Children *like games*.

I *want a pen*.

Boys *help themselves*.

In these sentences, each of the verbs expresses its full meaning without the help of any other Verb.

They are called *Principal Verbs*.

Look at the following sentences :

See that I *may go there*.
I *shall go there*.
He *will go there*.
You *did not go there*.

In each of the above sentences, we have two verbs - *may go*, *shall go*, *will go* and *did go*. The Principal Verb is *go*. Each of the other verbs - *may*, *shall*, *will* and *do* gives a new meaning to the Principal Verb *go*. All of them help the Verb *go* by giving it different meaning in each sentence. They are *Helping verbs* or *Auxiliary verbs*.

Thus, a Verb that helps another Verb in forming its tenses is called a *Helping* or *Auxiliary Verb*.

The verbs : *be (am, is, are, was, were)*, *have, has, had, do, does, did, shall, will* and *may* are used both as Auxiliary Verbs and Principal Verbs.

For example,

Verb	Auxiliary	Principal
Be	I am going.	I am glad.
	Tom is writing.	Tom is ready.
	You are loved.	You are right.
	I was reading	Bob was late.
	They were coming.	They were said.
	I have seen him.	I have a hat.
Have	Doll has left.	She has to go.
	I had seen it before.	I had breakfast there.
	We do not see air.	Do your duty.

Do	What does he want?	Who <i>did it</i> ?
	I do believe you.	He <i>did his part well</i> .
Shall	I shall go.	He <i>shall get his dues tomorrow</i> .
		You shall do your work.
Will		He <i>will go</i> .
		I <i>will help you</i> .
		God <i>willed</i> other.
		May God save us.
May	You may go.	He <i>may pass the test</i> .
		Work hard that you <i>may succeed</i> .

Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

Look at the sentences

I love, Tom saw, You lost

The meaning is not clear and the sentences are also not complete. We do want to know what I love, what saw and what you lost. The Verb *love*, *saw* and *lost* require some other word put after each of them to make the meaning clear and to complete the sentences.

So, if we put in these words :

I *love my parents*.

Tom *saw a tiger*.

You *lost a pen*.

the meaning gets clear and also, the sentences are complete.

Thus, verbs like *love*, *see* and *lose* which take another word to make their sense complete are called *Transitive Verbs*.

Trans means *across* or *over*; *itive* means *passing* or *going*. Therefore, *Transitive* means *passing over*.

In the sentence above, *I love my parents*, the action of loving passes across from myself to *parents*. This is why we call *love* a transitive Verb. Similarly, the verbs *see* and *lose* are also *transitive verbs*.

Thus, A Transitive Verb is a verb that denotes an action which passes over from the door or subject to an object.

Intransitive Verbs

Look at the sentences

The boy *runs*.

The bird *sings*.

The dog *barks*.

The verbs *runs*, *sings* and *barks* tell us what the subject does. No other word is required to make sense here.

Thus, An Intransitive Verb is a Verb that denotes an action which does not pass over to an object, or which expresses a state or being.

Intransitive means *not transitive*.

For example,

He ran a long race. [Action].

The baby sleeps. [State].

There is a flaw in this diamond. [Being]

USAGE OF VERBS

- Most verbs can be used both as transitive and as intransitive verbs.
Used Transitively Used Intransitively
(a) I feel a severe pain in my teeth.
(b) The ox kicked the man. The ox never kicks.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|----------------------------|
| (c) He spoke the truth. | He spoke haughtily. |
| (d) The ant fought the wasps. | Some ants are very fierce. |
| (e) The shot sank the ship. | The ship sank rapidly. |
| (f) The driver stopped the bus. | The bus stopped suddenly. |
| (g) Ring the bell. | The bell rang loudly. |
2. Most transitive verbs take a single object. But such transitive verbs as *give, offer, ask, promise, tell etc.* Take two objects after them — an Indirect object. Which denotes the person to whom something is given or for whom something is done, and a Direct object which is usually the name of some thing.
For example,
His mother gave him (Indirect) a chocolate (Direct). She told me (Indirect) a story (Direct).
3. But sentences where the subject and the object both refer to the same person, the Verb is said to be used *reflexively*.
For example,
The man killed himself.
The boy did himself. They love themselves.
4. Sometimes, though the Verb is used *reflexively*, the object is not expressed.
For example,
The bubble burst (itself).
The guests made (themselves) enjoy.
Please keep (yourselves) quiet.
With these words she turned (himself)
The Indians feed (themselves) chiefly on rice.
5. There are certain verbs which can be used reflexively are also as ordinary transitive verbs.
For example,
Do not forget her name.
I forgot her name.
Acquit yourself as man.
The magistrate acquitted him of the charge against him.
I enjoy myself sitting along.
He enjoys good health.
His talk does not interest me.
He interested himself in his friend's welfare.

Finite And Infinite Verbs

Look at the sentences :

- (i) They always find fault with me.
- (ii) They always try to find fault with me.

In the first sentence, the Verb *find* has *they* for the subject. The Verb *find* is limited by person and number. We, therefore, call it a Finite Verb.

In the second sentence, *to find* names the action denoted by the Verb *find* and is used without mentioning the subject. It is therefore not limited by person and number as a Verb that has a subject and is therefore, called Non-finite Verb or only infinitive.

INFINITIVES

There are different forms of infinitive according as it is used in the active or passive voice in relation to present or past time :

From	Active Voice	Passive
Present Indefinite	To love	To be loved
Present Continuous	To be loving	
Past Perfect	To have loved	To have been loved
Present Perfect	To have been loving	
Continuous		

Let us take a few examples :

- (a) To err is human.
- (b) Birds love to sing.
- (c) To respect our parents is our duty.
- (d) He refused to obey the orders.
- (e) Many men desire to make money quickly.

In the first sentence, the infinitive, like a Noun, is the subject of the Verb *is*.

In the second sentence, the infinitive like a Noun, is the object of the Verb *love*.

In the third sentence, the infinitive like a Noun, is the subject of the Verb *is*.

In the fourth sentence, the infinitive like a Noun, is the object of the Verb *refused*.

In the fifth sentence, the infinitive like a Noun, is the object of the Verb *desire*.

Again, the word *to* is frequently used with the infinitive, but is not an essential part or sign of it.

Thus, after certain verbs like : *bid, let, make, need, dare, see, hear, etc.* we use the infinitive without *to*.

For example,

Bid him go there.	I bade him go.
Let him sit there.	I will not let you go.
Make him stand.	I made him run.
We need not go today.	You need not do it.
You dare not do it.	I saw him do it.
I heard him cry.	

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

For example,

You shall do it [You shall be compelled to do it].

I will play. [I am determined to play].

He may go. [He is at liberty to go].

He is permitted to go.]

You must go. [You are commanded to go.]

I can swim. [I am able to swim.]

The infinitive without *to* is also used after *had better, had rather, would rather, sooner than, rather than etc.*

For example,

You had better ask permission.

I had rather play than work.

I would rather die than suffer so.

Uses of the Infinitive

1. Infinitive may be used like a Noun as a subject of a Verb.

- For example,
 To err is human. To find fault is easy.
2. Infinitive may be used like a Noun as the object of a transitive Verb.
 For example,
 I do not mean *to read*.
 He likes *to play* cards.
3. Infinitive may be used like a Noun as the complement of a Verb.
 For example,
 His greatest pleasure is *to read*.
 Her duty is *to practise* daily.
4. Infinitive may be used like a Noun as the object of a preposition.
 For example,
 He had no choice but *to obey*.
 The party is about *to begin*.
5. Infinitive may be used like a Noun as an objective complement.
 For example,
 I saw him *go*. I made him *sing*.
6. Infinitive is also used to qualify a Verb, usually to express purpose.
 For example,
 We eat *to live*.
 He called *to see* my brother.
7. Infinitive is used to qualify an Adjective.
 For example,
 The pupils are anxious *to learn*.
 He is too ill *to do* any work.
8. Infinitive is used to qualify a Noun.
 For example,
 The house is *to let*.
 This is not the time *to play*.
9. Infinitive is also used to qualify a sentence.
 For example,
 To tell the truth, I quite forgot my promise.
 I did this all for you, to make you happy.
10. Infinitive is again used as an Adverb of Purpose.
 For example,
 You are slow *to move*.
 I come to buy Caesar.

PERSON AND NUMBER

There are three persons in Verb.

(i) The First Person (ii) The Second Person
 (iii) The Third Person

For example,
 (a) I read. (b) You read. (c) He reads.

In the first sentence, *I read*, the subject is of the First Person, therefore the Verb is also of the First Person.

In the second sentence, *You read*, the subject is of the second Person, Therefore the Verb is also of the Second Person.

In the third sentence, *He reads*, the subject is of the Third Person, therefore the Verb is also of the Third Person.

Thus. we see that the Verb takes the same Person and its subject or, that the Verb agrees with its subject and Person.

The Verb has two Numbers.
 (i) The Singular, (ii) The Plural
 For example,
 (a) He listens. (b) They listen.
 This is because of the difference in Number of the subjects.

Therefore,
 In the first sentence *He listens*, we find the Subject is singular and so, the Verb is singular.
 In the next sentence *They listen*, we find the subject is plural and so, the Verb is also plural.

Thus, we see that the Verb takes the same Number as its subject or, that the Verb agrees with its subject in Number.

Rules to Which Verb Agrees :

1. The Verb must agree with its subject in Number and Person, i.e. the Verb must be of the same Number and Person as its subject.

For example,
 I am here. I was there.
 I play badminton. I have a racket.

2. If the subject is of the Singular Number, Third Person, the Verb must be of the Singular Number, First person.

For example,
 He is here. He was there.
 He plays badminton.
 He has a racket.

3. If the subject is of the Plural Number, Third Person, the Verb must be of the Plural Number, Third Person.

For example,
 They are here.
 They were there.
 They plays badminton.
 They have rackets.

Thus, the setting of Persons in both the Numbers (Singular and Plural) is in the following way :

	Singular	Plural
First Person :	I am	We are
Second Person :	You are	You are
Third Person :	He/She/it is	They are

Subject - Verb Agreement

The Verb agrees with the subject in Number and Person. The followings are the norms which follow the agreement :

1. When two or more singular subjects are connected by *and*, they take a Verb in the Plural.

For example,
 He and his friend have arrived.
 Fire and water do not agree.
 Plato and Aristotle were Greek Philosophers.

2. If two singular nouns refer to the same person or thing, the Verb must be singular.

For example,

- The philosopher and critic *is* dead.
The captain and adjutant *was* present.
3. If two subjects together express one idea, the Verb remains in singular.
For example,
The horse and carriage *is* at the door.
Slow and steady *wins* the race.
4. If the singular subjects are preceded by *each* or *every*, the Verb usually is used in the singular form.
For example,
Every man, woman and children *was* lost.
Every father and mother *was* present at the meeting.
5. Two or more singular subjects connected by *or*, *nor*, *either---or*, *neither---nor* take a Verb in the singular.
For example,
No nook or corner *was* left undiscovered.
Neither he nor I *was* there.
Neither blame nor praise *seems* to affect him.
6. When the subjects joined by *or*, *nor* are of different numbers, the Verb must be plural, and the plural subject must be placed next to the Verb.
For example,
Neither the Principal nor the teachers *were* present.
Either the girl or his parents *have* erred.
Neither Sushil nor his attendants *were* hurt.
7. When the subjects joined by *or*, *nor* are of different Persons, the Verb agrees in Persons with the one nearest to it.
For example,
Either he *is* mistaken or I *am*.
He *is* not to blame, nor are you.
8. When subjects differing in Number or Person, or both are connected by *and*, the Verb must always be in the plural.
For example,
My mother and I *have* lived here for five years.
You and she *are* birds of the same feather.
You and I *have* done our duties.
9. A collective Noun takes a Singular Verb when the collection is thought of as a whole; a Plural Verb when the individuals of which it is composed are thought of.
For example,
The army *was* large.
The army *were* given gurard of honour.
Parliament *has* elected its speaker.
The majority *is* against any compromise.
10. Some nouns which are plural in form but singular in meaning, take a singular Verb.
For example,
The news *is* true.
The wages of sin *is* death.
Mathematics *is* a branch of study in every school.
11. Some nouns which are singular in form but plural in meaning, take a Plural Verb.
For example,
Ten dozen *cost* one hundred rupees.
Twelve pair of socks *cost* ninety rupees.
12. When a plural Noun comes between a singular subject and its Verb, the Verb is often wrongly made to agree with the nearest plural Noun instead of with the real subject.
For example,
Each of the brothers *is* clever.
Each of the participantgs *was* given a prize.
Neither of the man *was* very tall.
A variety of pleasing objects *charms* the eye.
The quality of the oranges *was* not good.
13. The words joined to a singular subject by *with*, *together with*, *in addition to* or *as well as* etc. are parenthetical and therefore do not affect the number of the Verb.
For example,
The minister, with his loyals *has* arrived.
Sheena as well as Rose, *deserves* praise.
Justice, as well as mercy, *allows* it.
14. The Verb *to be* takes the same case after it as before it.
For example,
He said to them, it *is* *I* and *be* not afraid.
15. When the subject of the Verb is a Relative Pronoun care should be taken to see that the Verb agrees in numbers and person with the antecedent of the Relative Pronoun.
For example,
She is one of the best mothers that *have* ever lived.
He, who *is* my friend, should stand by me.
You, who *are* my brother, should not worry me.
I, who *am* your your friend, will save you in danger.

PARTICIPLE

A *participle* is that form of the Verb which partakes of the nature both of a Verb and of an Adjective.

For example,

Hearing the song, the girl woke up. Here, *hearing* qualifies the Noun *girl* as an Adjective does.

Therefore, *learning* partakes of the nature of both a Verb and an Adjective and is called *participle*.

There are the two kinds of participle :

1. Present Participle
2. Past Participle

1. Present Participles are those which end in-ing and represent an action as going on or incomplete or imperfect.

For example,

We met a girl *carrying* a bunch of flowers.

The blind man, *thinking* all was safe, attempted to cross the road.

Loudly *knocking* at the door, he demanded admission.

2. Past Participles are those forms of Verbs which represents a completed action or state of the thing spoken of.

For example,

Deceived by his girl, he lost all hope.

Time *misspent* is time lost.

We saw a few trees, *ladden* with fruit.

Driven by hunder, he stole a piece of cake.

Note : The Past Participle usually ends in *-ed*, *-d*, *-t*, *-en*, *-n* etc.

The participles are used as simple qualifying adjectives in front of a Noun and are thus called *Participial Adjectives*.

For example,

A *rolling* stong gathers no moss.

He played a *losing* game.

A *burnt* child dreads the fire.

He wears a *worried* look.

Education is the most *pressing* need of our country.

A *lying* witness ought to be punished.

Thus, we recall that :

- (1) A Participle is a Verbal Adjective.
- (2) A Participle may govern a Noun or Pronoun, like a Verb.
- (3) A Participle may be modified by an Adverb, like a Verb.
- (4) A Participle may qualify a Noun or Pronoun, like an Adjective.
- (5) A participle may be compared, like an Adjective.

Forms Of Different Participles In Active and Passive Forms

Active	Passive
Present : caring	Present : being cared
Perfect : having cared	Perfect : having been cared
	Past : cared

Uses of Participles

- (1) The Continuous Tenses (Active Voice) are formed from the Present Participle with tenses of the Verb *be*.

For example,

I am caring.

I was caring.

I shall be caring

- (2) The Perfect Tenses (Active Voice) are formed from the Past Participle with tenses of the Verb *have*.

For example,

I have cared.

I had cared.

I shall have cared.

- (3) The Passive Voice is formed from the Past Participle with tenses of the Verb *be*.

For example,

I am cared.

I was cared.

I shall be cared.

- (4) Participles that qualify Nouns or Pronouns may be used also as attributively, predicatively and absolutely with a Noun or Pronoun going before.

For example,

A *rolling* stone gather no moss.

A *lost* opportunity never returns.

The man seems *worried*. (Modifying the subject).

He kept me *waiting*. (Modifying the object).

The sea *being smooth*, we went for sail.

Jack *having arrived*, we were freed from anxiety.

GERUND

A *Gerund* is that form of the Verb which ends in *-ing* and has the force of a Noun and a Verb.

For example,

Hunting deer is a favourite sport in India.

I like writing poetry.

In these sentences, the Gerund, like a Noun, is the subject of a Verb, but like a Verb, it also takes an object, thus, showing it has also the force of a Verb.

Again,

He is fond of collecting stamps. In this sentence, the Gerund like a Noun as governed by a Preposition, but like a Verb, it also takes an object.

Both the Gerund and the infinitive have the force of a Noun and a Verb and also their usages are same. Thus, in many sentences, either of them may be used without any special difference in meaning.

For example,

To see is to believe.

Seeing is believing.

To give is better than to receive.

Giving is better than receiving.

Uses of Gerund

The Gerund has the force of a Noun and a Verb. It is thus a Verbal-Noun and may be used as :

- (1) Subject of a Verb

For example,

Seeing in believing

Hunting deer is a favourite sport in India.

- (2) Object of a Transitive Verb

For example,

Stop talking.

Children love making noise.

I like writing poetry.

- (3) Object of a Preposition.

For example,

I am tired of waiting.

He is fond of fishing.

He was punished for telling a lie.

- (4) Complement of a Verb.

For example,

Writing is learning.

What I most dislike is smoking.

- (5) Absolutely.

For example,

Playing cards being his aversion, we did not

play bridge.

Moreover, the Present Participle has the force of an Adjective and a Verb. It is called a Verbal Adjective.

For example,

Walking along the road, he noticed a big elephant.

Seeing, he believed.

Strong And Weak Verbs

Verbs are divided into two kinds :

1. Weak Verbs
2. Strong Verbs

Let us take a few verbs and see their past tense and past participle.

For example,

Verbs	Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle
play	play	played	played
like	like	liked	liked
learn	learn	learnt	learnt

The conjugation of these verbs shows that their Past Tense and Past Participle are formed by adding the suffixes -ed, -d or -t to their Present Tense form. They are called weak verbs, because they cannot form their Past Tense and Past Participle without the help of the suffixes -ed, -d or -t.

On the other hand, when a Verb in the Present Tense forms its Past Tense and Past Participle by changing or shortening its inside vowel, it is called a strong Verb.

For example,

Verbs	Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle
come	come	came	come
sing	sing	sang	sung
see	see	saw	seen
take	take	took	taken
speak	speak	spoke	spoken
write	write	wrote	written

Note : Weak Verbs are also called Regular verbs; while, strong verbs are Irregular Verbs.

We can detect a weak Verb from a strong Verb by :

- (i) finding the absence of -d or -t in the Present Tense of the Verb.

For example,

Present Tense	Past	Present Tense	Past
Tense	Tense	Tense	Tense
believe	believed	think	thought
sell	sold	bring	brought
work	worked	owe	ought
tell	told	burn	burnt
teach	taught	catch	caught
flee	fled	buy	bought
seek	sought		

- (ii) Finding the Verbs ending in -d which this -d to -t in the Past Tense.

Present Tense	Past Tense
bend	bent
send	sent
spend	spent
lend	lent
build	built
rend	rent

- (iii) Finding the Verbs ending in -d or -t which simply shorten the vowel sound in the Past Tense.

Present Tense	Past	Present Tense	Past
Tense	Tense	Tense	Tense
speed	sped	lead	led
feed	fed	flee	fled
free	freed	shoot	shot
meet	met	read	read

- (iv) finding the Verbs ending in -d or -t which have the same form for the Present and Past Tense.

Present Tense	Past	Present Tense	Past
Tense	Tense	Tense	Tense
spread	spread	split	split
shut	shut	cut	cut
hit	hit	let	let
put	put	thrust	thrust
bet	bet	burst	burst
cast	cast	cost	cost
hurt	hurt	rid	rid
set	set	shed	shed

Some weak verbs their Past Tense and Past Participle in -t after shortening their long inside vowel.

Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle
deal	dealt	dealt
dream	deamt	dreamt
dwell	dwelt	dwelt
feel	felt	felt
keep	kept	kept
kneel	knelt	knelt
mean	meant	meant
creep	crept	crept
sleep	slept	slept
smell	smelt	smelt
spell	spelt	spelt
sweep	swept	swept

Weak Verb Suffixes : their addition and Pronunciation

Most weak verbs add -ed (pronounced d, id or t) in their Past Tense and Past Participle.

1.	-ed pronounced -t : weak Verbs ending in df, h, k, p, s, ss and sh sounds add the suffix -ed in the Past Tense and Past Participle.
f :	puff - puffed (puff) cough - coughed (cuff) bluff - bluffed (bluff)
h :	march - marched (t) reach - reached (t) attach - attached (t) patch - patched (t) preach - preached (t)
k :	talk - talked (t) kick - kicked (t) shock - shocked (t) peck - pecked (t) risk - risked (t) blink - blinked (t) bask - basked (t) cork - corked (t) shriek - shrieked (t)
p :	harp - harped (t) jump - jumped (t) reap - reaped (t) trap - traped (t) carp - carpéd (t) camp - camped (t) clasp - clasped (t)
s :	pass - passed (t) miss - missed (t) dismiss - dismissed (t) discuss - discussed (t) canvass - canvassed (t)
Sh :	toss - tossed (t) dash - dashed (t) banish - banished (t) push - pushed (t) wash - washed (t) flash - flashed (t) relish - relished (t) demolish - demolished (t)
	wish - wished (t) brush - brushed (t) rush - rushed (t) blush - blushed (t) abolish - abolished (t) crash - crashed (t)

<p>x : tax - taxed (<i>t</i>) fix - fixed (<i>t</i>)</p> <p>vex - vexed (<i>t</i>) mix - mixed (<i>t</i>)</p> <p>box - boxed (<i>t</i>) coax - coaxed (<i>t</i>)</p> <p>2. The suffix - ed pronounced <i>d</i> :</p> <p>(i) open - opened (<i>d</i>) cover - covered (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>listen - listened (<i>d</i>) howl - howled (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>long - longed (<i>d</i>) enter - entered (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>inform - informed (<i>d</i>) turn - turned (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>order - ordered (<i>d</i>) pardon - pardoned (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>cordon - cordoned (<i>d</i>) reform - reformed (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>return - returned (<i>d</i>) govern - governed (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>(ii) A weak Verb ending in a semi-vowel (<i>w</i> or <i>y</i>) preceded by a vowel, adds -ed (pronounced <i>d</i>) in its Past Tense and Past Participle.</p> <p>For example,</p> <p>bow - bowed (<i>d</i>) pray - prayed (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>survey - surveyed (<i>d</i>) row - rowed (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>stay - stayed (<i>d</i>) enjoy - enjoyed (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>cow - cowed (<i>d</i>) bray - brayed (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>bay - bayed (<i>d</i>) employ - emplowed (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>parley - parleyed (<i>d</i>) convey - conveyed (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>destroy - destroyed (<i>d</i>) allay - allayed (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>betray - betrayed (<i>d</i>) journey - journeedy (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>Exception :</p> <p>lay - laid (pronunciation <i>leɪd</i>)</p> <p>pay - paid (pronunciation <i>peɪd</i>)</p> <p>say - said (pronunciation <i>sed</i>)</p> <p>3. -ed pronounced <i>id</i> : Weak verbs ending in -d on -t add -ed in their Past Tense and Past Participle.</p> <p>depend - depended (<i>id</i>) add - added (<i>id</i>)</p> <p>end - ended (<i>id</i>) accept - accepted (<i>id</i>)</p> <p>paint - painted (<i>id</i>) fold - folded (<i>id</i>)</p> <p>head - headed (<i>id</i>) need - needed (<i>id</i>)</p> <p>exist - existed (<i>id</i>) trust - trusted (<i>id</i>)</p> <p>mend - mended (<i>id</i>) intend - intended (<i>id</i>)</p> <p>remind - reminded (<i>id</i>) guard - guarded (<i>id</i>)</p> <p>assist - assisted (<i>id</i>) insist - insisted (<i>id</i>)</p> <p>resist - resisted (<i>id</i>) report - reported (<i>id</i>)</p> <p>import - imported (<i>id</i>) consult - consulted (<i>id</i>)</p> <p>insult - insulted (<i>id</i>) doubt - doubted (<i>id</i>)</p> <p>point - pointed (<i>id</i>) reject - rejected (<i>id</i>)</p> <p>scold - scolded (<i>id</i>) raid - raided (<i>id</i>)</p> <p>4. Suffix - ied (pronounced <i>ɪd</i>) for final <i>y</i>.</p> <p>(i) A weak Verb ending in <i>y</i> preceded by a consonant adds -ed in Past Tense and Past Participle after <i>y</i> is changed into <i>i</i>.</p> <p>For example,</p> <p>accompany - accompanied (<i>id</i>)</p> <p>bury - buried (<i>id</i>) carry - carried (<i>id</i>)</p> <p>hurry - hurried (<i>id</i>) marry - married (<i>id</i>)</p> <p>pity - pitied (<i>id</i>) envy - envied (<i>id</i>)</p> <p>tarry - tarried (<i>id</i>) worry - worried (<i>id</i>)</p> <p>study - studied (<i>id</i>) ferry - ferried (<i>id</i>)</p> <p>fancy - fancied (<i>id</i>) sully - sullied (<i>id</i>)</p> <p>(iii) <i>y</i> replaced by -ied pronounced -aid.</p> <p>For example,</p> <p>cry - cried (<i>aid</i>) try - tried (<i>aid</i>)</p> <p>apply - applied (<i>aid</i>) defy - defied (<i>aid</i>)</p> <p>fry - fried (<i>aid</i>) ply - plied (<i>aid</i>)</p>	<p>supply - supplied (<i>aid</i>) reply - replied (<i>aid</i>)</p> <p>satisfy - satisfied (<i>aid</i>) fortify - fortified (<i>aid</i>)</p> <p>dignify - dignified (<i>aid</i>)</p> <p>5. The suffix - d pronounced <i>d</i>, <i>t</i> or <i>id</i></p> <p>(i) care - cared (<i>d</i>) dare - dared (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>live - lived (<i>d</i>) blame - blamed (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>dine - dined (<i>d</i>) agree - agreed (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>argue - argued (<i>d</i>) amuse - amused (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>please - pleased (<i>d</i>) graze - grazed (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>arrive - arrived (<i>d</i>) cure - cured (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>move - moved (<i>d</i>) issue - issued (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>receive - received (<i>d</i>) praise - praised (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>love - loved (<i>d</i>) chang - changed (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>advise - adviseded (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>(ii) The suffix - d pronounced <i>t</i></p> <p>For example,</p> <p>choke - choked (<i>t</i>) joke - joked (<i>t</i>)</p> <p>hope - hoped (<i>t</i>) type - typed (<i>t</i>)</p> <p>like - liked (<i>t</i>) wake - waked (<i>t</i>)</p> <p>pipe - piped (<i>t</i>) cope - coped (<i>t</i>)</p> <p>wife - wifed (<i>t</i>) poke - poked (<i>t</i>)</p> <p>rebuke - rebuked (<i>t</i>)</p> <p>(iii) The suffix - d pronounced -ie</p> <p>For example,</p> <p>hate - hated (<i>id</i>) excite - excited (<i>id</i>)</p> <p>state - stated (<i>id</i>) quote - quoted (<i>id</i>)</p> <p>promote - promoted (<i>id</i>) hesitate - hesitated (<i>id</i>)</p> <p>recite - recited (<i>id</i>) taste - tasted (<i>id</i>)</p> <p>6. A weak Verb ending in a single consonant with only one vowel before it doubles the final consonant when the suffix -ed is added in making its past tense and past participles (-ed is pronounced <i>d</i>, <i>t</i> or <i>id</i>).</p> <p>(i) beg - begged (<i>d</i>) clap - clapped (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>rub - rubbed (<i>d</i>) stop - stopped (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>tan - tanned (<i>d</i>) trip - tripped (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>fit - fitted (<i>d</i>) lag - lagged (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>rob - robbed (<i>d</i>) sob - sobbed (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>drop - dropped (<i>d</i>) jam - jammed (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>tarry - tarried (<i>d</i>) ram - rammed (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>flap - flapped (<i>d</i>) sin - sinned (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>grin - grinned (<i>d</i>) plan - planned (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>bar - barred (<i>d</i>) ban - banned (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>gut - gutted (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>(ii) In such a Verb consists of more than one syllable with the accent on the last syllable, the same rule holds good.</p> <p>For example,</p> <p>compel - compelled (<i>d</i>) control - controlled (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>excel - excelled (<i>d</i>) admit - admitted (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>allot - allotted (<i>d</i>) omit - omitted (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>Exception :</p> <p>ca'ncel - cancelled (<i>d</i>) tra'vel - travelled (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>(iii) The foregoing rule of doubling the consonant does not hold good if there are two vowels before it.</p> <p>For example,</p> <p>boil - boileded (<i>d</i>) coin - coineded (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>beam - beamed (<i>d</i>) claim - claimed (<i>d</i>)</p> <p>avail - availled (<i>d</i>) contain - contained (<i>d</i>)</p>
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AN INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH GRAMMAR & LANGUAGE

soil - soil ed (d)	prevail - prevailed (d)
ratain - retained (d)	loot - looted (d)
clean - cleaned (d)	join - joined (d)
scream - screamed (d)	
(iv) -ed pronounced d, t, id : Weak Verbs ending in more than one consonant add -ed in the Past Tense and Past Participle.	Weak Verbs ending in more than one consonant add -ed in the Past Tense and Past Participle.
For example,	
call - called (d)	climb - climbed (d)
arm - armed (d)	push - pushed (d)
touch - touched (d)	lift - lifted (d)
Past Tense and Past Participle	Past Tense
Past Tense	Past Participle
Bear : He bore the song in his memory.	She has borne twins.
Beat : He beat his opponents.	They have beaten him.
Begin : He began to weep.	We have begun to write.
Bid : He bade me go away.	I was bidden to go.
Bind : We bound his hands.	I was bound to do it.
Bite : A mad dog bit him.	A snake has bitten him.
Burst : He burst into tears.	The bubble has burst.
Choose: We choose this book.	They have chosen
Cost : It cost him his life.	It has cost me nothing.
Deal : He dealt his rice.	John has dealt him a blow.
Draw : He drew his sword.	He has drawn a picture.
Drink : We drank a cup of milk.	We were drunk with joy.
Drive : I drove a car.	He has driven out his guest.
Eat : I ate a loaf.	He has eaten rice.
Fall : Sam fell ill.	He has fallen foul of me.
Feel : We felt a shock.	he has felt for me
Find : We found him in.	He was found a job.
Forget : I forgot his name.	I have not forgotten you.
Freeze : The river frozen in winter.	Water is frozen by cold.
Get : I got a prize.	I have got a headache.
Go : I went home.	he has gone to law.
Grow : He grew angry.	I have grown wiser.
Hide : He hid his face from me.	It was hidden in a box.
Hurt : This hurt me much.	I have hurt by let.
Know : I knew him.	He was known to me.
Lead : Who let the boys?	He has led his party to victory.
Lose : I lost my keys.	He has lost his job.
Mean : He meant no harm.	I was meant for this.
Ring : I rang him up on the phone.	Who has rung the bell?
Rise : They rose in arms.	The sun has risen.
Run : He ran a race.	I have run into debt.
Seek : He never sought honour.	Fortune has sought him
Send : I sent him to jail.	I have sent for him.
Set : I set my dog on him.	He has set out on a tour.

Shake : The lion shook his mane.	It has shaken my faith.
Shoe : Who shot my horse?	I have shod it.
Shoot : He shot at the tiger.	The tiger was shot dead.
Shrink : He shrank from the scene.	The linen has shrunk.
Sing : She sang so sweetly.	Often have I sung your praise.
Sink : The boat sank.	He has sunk a tube-well in his compound.
Sit : I sat down to read.	He has set for the test.
Slay : He slew his rival.	The soldier was slain in battle.
Sleep : I slept soundly.	He has slept long.
Sow : he sowed many seeds.	He must reap what he has sown.
Spend : He spent his time in vain.	I have spent my all.
Spin : He spun out a nice story.	The top was spun by me.
Spread : The news spread quickly.	We have spread this news.
Spring : He sprang from a high family.	You have sprung a surprise.
Stand : He stood the test well.	I have stood up for truth.
Steal : He stole my watch.	He has stolen trash.
Stick : He stuck at nothing.	A bone has stuck in my gutlet.
Sting : The remark stung me.	He was stung by a bee.
Strike : He struck a blow on my face.	It has never struck me.
Strive : He strove hard to win.	I have striven to beat him.
Swear : he swore to help me.	He was sworn to stop.
Swing : I swam across the river.	Who has swum the channel?
Take : I took rest here.	He has taken my pen.
Tear : He tore the letter.	I was torn to pieces.
Throw : He threw stones at me.	He was thrown overboard.
Use : I used your pen.	He is not used to hard work.
Wear : His patience wore out at last.	He has worn a new coat.
Weave : He wave a sheet of cloth.	The story was skilfully woven.
Weep : She wept bitter tears.	I have long wept to see.
Past Participle forms like - bounden, clove, drunken, gotten, graven, hewn, hidden, motten, shorn, shrunken, stricken and sunken etc. are used as Adjectives only.	
For example,	
Verbs	Verbs used as Adjectives
Tom was bound to work.	It is your bounden duty.
The rock was clef in two.	The cow has cloven feet.
We were drunk with a new spirit.	Harold was found in a drunken state.
I have got a prize.	I have ill-gotten wealth.
He hid himself in a bush.	John found a hidden treasure.

The woolen coat has
shrunken.

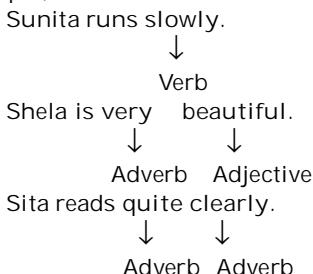
We have sunk a tube-well. The ship foundered on
a sunken rock.

The snow has melted. Streams of molten lava came
out.

ADVERB

An Adverb is a word which modifies the meaning of a Verb, an Adjective or another Adverb.

For example,



KINDS OF ADVERB

Adverbs may be divided into the following classes :

(1) ADVERB OF TIME

Adverbs of Time includes today, yesterday, late, ago, now, then, soon, before, daily, already, formerly, lately, never, since etc.

For example,

He will write a letter today.
 I went there yesterday.
 I have not seen him since 1988.

(2) ADVERB OF FREQUENCY

Adverbs of Frequency includes again, never, ever, often, seldom, once, twice, frequently, always etc.

For example,

The postman called again.
 I have never seen the Taj.
 He often makes mistake.

(3) ADVERB OF PLACE

Adverb of Place includes here, there, everywhere, in, out, up, backward, away, within etc.

For example,

Come here Go there.
 The pet dog followed his master everywhere.
 The doctor is out.

(4) ADVERB OF MANNER

Adverb of Manner includes clearly, slowly, soundly, bravely, thus, so, well, hard, agreeably etc.

For example,

Seema writes clearly.
 Slowly the old man was laid down.
 The man slept soundly.

(5) ADVERB OF DEGREE OR QUANTITY

Adverbs of Degree or Quantity includes any, quite, rather, pretty, partly, too, enough, altogether, no better, so, fully, almost, very etc.

For example,

Is there is any news of hijackers?

You are quite wrong in this matter.

I am rather busy.

She sings pretty well.

His answer is partly right.

(6) ADVERB OF AFFIRMATION AND NEGATION

Adverbs of Affirmation and Negation includes surely, certainly, not etc.

For example,

Surely you have committed a mistake.

He will certainly come here.

I do not know him.

(7) ADVERB OF REASON

Adverb of Reason includes therefore, hence etc.

For example,

The boy therefore went to his home.

Therefore the answer is 2000.

(8) RELATIVE ADVERB

Relative Adverbs includes when, how, where and why etc.

For example,

When did he arrive?

That was the time when I was at home.

(9) INTERROGATIVE ADVERB

The Adverbs when, how and where are used in asking questions and are therefore called *Interrogative Adverbs*.

For example,

When did you go to bed yesterday?

How did you come inside the gate?

Where did you get the money?

(10) EXCLAMATORY ADVERB

The adverbs why and how are used in exclamations and so, are called *Exclamatory Adverbs*.

For example,

How wonderful the scenery is!

Why, where is the miller?

In a nutshell,

Adverbs of Time is one which show when.

Adverbs of Frequency is one which show how often.

Adverbs of Place is one which show where.

Adverbs of Manner is one which show how or in what manner.

Adverbs of Degree or Quantity show how much or in what degree or to what extent.

Adverbs of Affirmation and Negation affirms and negates the expression.

Adverbs of Reason show us the cause or effect.

Relative Adverbs show the point of time, place and manner.

Interrogative Adverbs are used in asking questions which also point out time, place and manner in their answers.

Exclamatory Adverbs are used to express exclamations.

FORMATION OF ADVERBS

Adverbs are formed in various ways by adding our changing the adjectives by the use of suffix or prefix.

1. Adverbs of Manner are formed from Adjectives by adding - ly.

For example,

clever	—	cleverly
wise	—	wisely
kind	—	kindly
foolish	—	foolishly
quick	—	quickly
beautiful	—	beautifully

2. When the Adjective ends in *-y* preceded by a consonant, we change *-v* into *-i* and add *-ly*.

For example,

heavy	—	heavily
happy	—	happily
ready	—	readily

3. When the Adjective ends in *-le*, we simply change *-e* into *-y* in making adverbs.

For example,

single	—	singly
double	—	doubly

4. Some Adverbs are made up of a Noun and a qualifying Adjective.

For example,

beautiful	meanwhile
meantime	sometime
otherwise	midway
yesterday	

5. Some Adverbs are compounds of *on* and a Noun.

For example,

ahead	—	on head
asleep	—	on sleep
abroad	—	on broad
away	—	on way
afoot	—	on foot
abed	—	on bed

6. Some Adverbs are also compounds of some Preposition and a Noun.

For example,

to-day	to-morrow	overboard
besides	betimes	

7. Some Adverbs are compounds of a Preposition and an Adjective.

For example,

abroad	along	aloud
anew	beyond	below
behind		

8. Some Adverbs are compounds of a Preposition and an Adverb.

beneath	before
within	without

9. Again, a few Adverbs are also derived from the Pronouns : the/that, he, who.

ADVERBS					
Pro-nouns	Place	Motion to	Motion from	Time	Manner
The	there	thither	thence	then	thus
He	here	hither	hence	—	—
Who	where	whither	whence	when	how

10. The Adverbs : *the, there, here, where, hither, thence, and hence* are compounded with Preposition.

For example,

thereby

therefrom

therein

thereon

thereof

there

thereto

therewith

hereafter

hereby

herein

here

hereupon

herewith

whereof

wherefore

where

wherein

whereon

hitherto

hither

thenceforth

thenceforward

thence

henceforth

henceforward

hence

11. We also find sometimes two Adverbs that go together after joined by Conjunction — and

For example,

(a) Out and out

He is *out and out* an honest person.

↓

beyond all comparison

(b) Over and over

She reads Keats *over and over*.

↓

repeatedly

Off and on

He works *off and on* on his project.

↓

irregularly

(c) Once and again

I warned him *once and again* of his impending danger.

↓

repeatedly

(d) Out and away

Her role in the film is *out and away*, the best.

↓

beyond all comparison

(e) Over and above

Over and above being hard-working, he is honest.

↓

besides

(f) Again and again

I asked him *again and again* if he has

↓

more than once

POSITION OF ADVERBS

1. Adverbs of manner like : well, fat, quickly, carefully, calmly etc. are generally placed after the verb or after the object if there is one.

For example,

It is raining *heavily*. The bus is moving *slowly*.
He speaks Spanish *well*. She does her work *carefully*.
2. Adverbs or Adverbial Phrases of place and of time like : here, there, everywhere, on the wall etc. and now, then, yet, to day, next Wednesday respectively are usually placed after his verb or after the object if there is one.

For example,

He will come *here*. I searched *everywhere*.
Put the scenery *there*. I met her *yesterday*.
They are to be married *next week*.

3. When there are two or more Adverbs after a Verb, the normal order is — Adverb of Manner, Adverb of Place, Adverb of Time.

For example,

She sang *well* *in the concert*.
We would go *there* *tomorrow evening*.
He spoke *earnestly* *at the meeting last night*.

4. Adverbs of Frequency like : always, never, often, rarely, usually, generally, and also some other adverbs like : almost, already, hardly, nearly, just, quite etc. are normally put between the subject and the verb if the verb consists of only one word; if there is more than one word in the verb, they are put after the first word.

For example,

His wife *never* cooks.
He has *never* seen a lion.
I have *often* told her to write neatly.
We *usually* have dinner at nine.
My cousin has *just* gone out.
I *quite* agree with you.

5. If the Verb is am/are/is/wFor example, these Adverbs are placed after the Verb.

For example,

I am *never* late for school.
He is *always* at home on holidays.
We are *just* off from work.

6. The Adverbs : *always*, *already*, *usually*, *sometimes* etc. are usually put before an auxiliary or the single verb be, when it is stressed.

For example,

"Veenu has come late again."
"Yes, she *always* does come late."
"When will you write the letter?"
"But I *already* have written it."
"Will you be free on Sundays?"
"I *usually* am free on Sundays."
"Do you eat meat?"
"Yes, I *sometimes* do."

7. The auxiliaries have to and used to prefer the adverb in front of them.

For example,

I *often* have to go to school on foot.
He *always* used to agree with me.

8. When an adverb modifies an adjectives or another adverb, the adverb usually comes before it.

For example,

Sham is a *rather* lazy boy.
The cat was *quite* dead.
The picture is *very* interesting.
Do not speak *so* fast.

9. The Adverb *enough* is always placed after the word which it modifies.

For example,

Is the box *heavy enough*?
He was *rash enough* to interrupt.
He spoke *loud enough* to be heard.

10. *Only* should be placed immediately before the word it modifies.

For example,

I worked *only* two sums.
He has slept *only* three hours yesterday night.

SOME IMPORTANT ADVERBS

1. INTRODUCTORY 'THERE'

There is an Adverb of Place (Demonstrative Adverb) but when the subject of the verb is indefinite, the sentence is introduced with a *there* which has no meaning except as a mere introductory word.

For example,

There is no doubt about it.
There were guards at the gate.
There has been no rain in this month.
There is no denying the fact.
There lived a hermit in the wood.
There goes our friend Tom.
There shines the moon in all her glory.

2. QUITE AND VERY

The adverb *quite* means *completely*, *perfectly* and is not used in the sense of very except with past participles.

For example,

I am *quite* (*very*) tired.
This road is *very* (*not quite*) dangerous.

3. TOO AND VERY

Too means *beyond proper limit* and it should not be used unless any *limit* is intended though the limit may be understood.

For example,

This glass is *too* small (for my purpose).
I missed the train as I started
too late (to catch the train).
The *limit* is often expressed by an explanatory phrase with *to* or *for*.

For example,

James was *too* busy *to* come here.
Stephen was *too* strong *for* his opponent.

Too is often confused with *very* by many who forget the necessary element of *limit* in the former.

For example,

It is *very* hot today (not *too* hot).
It is *too* hot to walk out (not *very* hot).

4. VERY AND MUCH

(i) *Very* qualifies present participles as well as Adjectives in the Positive Degree.

For example,

This book is *very* interesting.
You are *very* fat.

(ii) *Much* qualifies past participles as well as Adjectives and Adverbs in the Comparative Degree.

For example,

I am *much* indebted to you.
My lot is *much* harder than yours.

You left *much* earlier than usual.

I am *much* surprised at his conduct.

(iii) Both *much* and very are used with the Superlative Degree of Adjectives but the article is placed before very and after *much*.

For example,

Kiran is the very best boy of his class.

Jahar is *much* the best boy of his class.

5. VERY MUCH : TOO MUCH : MUCH TOO

(i) Very much means *enough* and is used before Adjectives and Participles.

For example,

I am *very much* sorry for you.

I am *very much* obliged to you.

(ii) Too much qualifies Nouns while much too qualifies Adjectives.

For example,

Mr. Dutta gave you *too much* indulgence.

The weather is *too much* cloudy.

6. ONLY

The following sentences show that the meaning of a sentence varies according to the placing of the Adverb.

I have *only* taken tea (and done nothing more).

I have taken tea *only* (no other thing).

I *only* have taken tea (and none else).

I have *only* a son (and no other child).

I have a son *only* (and no daughter).

Tom *only* agreed to accept this offer.

(and did nothing).

Tom agreed *only* to accept this offer.

(and not to do anything else).

Tom agreed to accept this offer *only*.

(and no other offer)

Tom agreed to accept *only* this offer.

(and nothing else).

Only too means very.

For example,

I am *only too* glad to meet you (very glad).

7. ENOUGH

Enough means just the opposite of too. While too means beyond proper limit, enough means that the proper limit has been reached and not exceeded.

For example,

Any pen is good *enough* for me.

[i.e., is as good as I wish it to be]

We walked far *enough* today.

[i.e., as far as it was proper for us]

* Enough is sometimes used in the sense of very.

For example,

I was bad *enough* to wait so long.

8. SINCE

Since as an Adverb is used in the following senses :

(a) *From then up to now* :

For example,

I saw the Taj five years ago and have remembered it ever *since*.

They said that they had been careful ever *since*.

(b) *Between then and now* :

For example,

He left last year and has never written to me *since*.

He resigned his post and has remained unemployed *since*.

(c) *From now* :

For example,

I saw him long *since*.

* Since, as a conjunction, means *from which time* and is used after a noun or a phrase denoting *a period of time* and not a *a point of time*.

For example,

It is now five years *since* I visited the Taj.

A year has gone by *since* he left us.

* Again, Since as a preposition, means from and is used after a verb in the Present or Past Perfect Tense and before a noun or a phrase denoting *a point of time*.

For example,

I has been absent *since* Friday last.

I had been suffering *since* the 09th of December last.

9. BEFORE

(a) As an adverb, Before means on a former occasion.

For example,

I remember to have seen you *before*.

(b) As a preposition, before is used with a noun or a phrase denoting a point of time and never a period of time.

For example,

You must come back by 5 P.M.

I shall join you *before* your departure.

(c) As a conjunction, Before introduces an adverbial clause of time if the verb in the Principal clause is in the Future Tense.

For example,

I shall reach home *before* it is too late.

10. LITTLE AND A LITTLE

Little, as an adverb, is used in a negative sense to mean almost not.

For example,

He cared *little* for his future.

[i.e., He did not care for his future].

A little is used in an affirmative sense to mean slightly or somewhat.

For example,

We felt a *little* disturbed.



Slightly

or

Somewhat

PREPOSITION

A Preposition is a word placed before a Noun or a Pronoun to show in what relation the person or thing denoted by it in regard to something else.

For example,

There is someone *in* the room.



Preposition

She is fond *of* honey



Preposition

The horse jumped *off* the wall.



Preposition

KINDS OF PREPOSITION

Preposition are of different kinds.

(1) Simple Prepositions

Simple Prepositions include *at, by, for, from, in, on, of, off, to, through, up, with, out, till*, etc.

Of these, *at, by, with, in* and *on* are used after verbs indicating rest in a place.

For example,

Moni is *at* Darjeeling.

I sat *by* John.

I was *in* the garden.

The keys were *with* me.

The book was *on* the table.

To, from, of, through and *up* are used after verbs indicating motion.

For example,

I went *to* London.

Tom came *from* his house.

You came *of* a high family.

We went *through* the field.

Jack and Jill went *up* the hill.

Let us start *for* school.

(2) Compound Prepositions

Compound Prepositions include *above, across, along, amidst, around, about, among, amongst, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, between, beyond, into, inside, outside, underneath, within, without, etc.*

Compound Prepositions are generally formed by prefixing preposition to a Noun, Adjective or an Adverb.

For example,

above = *on + by + up*

across = *on + cross*

into = *in + to*

(3) Participial Prepositions

Participial Prepositions include *barring, concerning, considering, during, expecting, judging, notwithstanding, regarding, respecting* etc. are the present participles of verbs. These participles have acquired the character of prepositions, no longer needing the prop of a noun to cling to.

For example,

Barring accident, the mail will arrive in time.



expecting,

apart from,

Concerning yesterday's murder, many persons were



arrested.

about

Considering the quality, the price is too high.



taking into account

Notwithstanding the resistance offered by him, he



was arrested.

in spite of

Touching this matter, I have not as yet made up my



mind.

with regard to

(4) Double Prepositions

Double Prepositions include *from behind, from beyond, from within* etc. where, often two prepositions are used with the same object.

For example,

The mischief was done *from behind* the screen.

The news came *from beyond* the Atlantic.

Somebody shouted *from within* the room.

(5) Disguised Prepositions

Disguised Prepositions include *ahunting, ashore* (a = on), *o'clock* (o' = of), once a week, two rupees a day (a = on)

For example,

We jumped overboard at 3 o'clock and swam ashore.

(6) Detached Prepositions

Detached Prepositions are those which are far removed from their objects.

For example,

Whom did you speak to?

(7) Phrasal Prepositions

Phrasal Preposition or Phrase Prepositions are the groups of words which are used with the force of a single preposition.

For example,

Jack succeeded *by means of* hard labour.



by

James failed *on account of* his negligence.



for

The object to a Preposition may also be a Descriptive adverb, an Adverbial phrase or a Noun clause.

(a) Adverbs as objects to a Preposition

John is *by* for the best boy of his class.

He will have reached home *by then*.

Much might happen *between now and then*.

He left *at once* to come back *before now*.

From *here to there* is a long distance.

(b) Adverbial phrases as objects to a Preposition

The ship suddenly came to view *from beyond the horizon*.

He did not reach till *long after midnight*.

(c) Noun clauses as objects to a Preposition

He informed me of *what had happened there*.

It depends on *whether you can go or not*.

A list of Phrasal Prepositions

according to	agreeably to
--------------	--------------

along with	away from
------------	-----------

because of	by dint of
------------	------------

by means of	by reason of
-------------	--------------

by virtue of	by way of
--------------	-----------

conformably to	for the sake of
----------------	-----------------

in accordance with	in addition to
--------------------	----------------

in (on) behalf of	in case of
-------------------	------------

in comparison to	incompliance with
in consequence with	in consequence of
in course of	in favour of
in front of	in lieu of
in order to	in place of
in reference to	in regard to
in spite of	instead of
in the event of	on account of
owing to	with a view to
with an eye to	with regard to
with reference to	

Several words are used sometimes as Adverbs and sometimes as Prepositions. A word is a *preposition*, when it governs a noun or pronoun and it is an Adverb, when it does not.

For example,

Adverb :	Go and run <i>about</i> .
Preposition :	Don't loiter <i>about</i> the street.
Adverb :	He could not do <i>before</i> .
Preposition :	I came the day <i>before</i> yesterday.
Adverb :	Has he come <i>in</i> ?
Preposition :	Is he <i>in</i> his room?
Adverb :	The wheel came <i>off</i> .
Preposition :	The driver jumped <i>off</i> the cabin.
Adverb :	Let us move <i>on</i> .
Preposition :	The pen lies <i>on</i> the table.
Adverb :	His brother arrived soon <i>after</i> .
Preposition :	After a mouth he returned.
Adverb :	Take his parcel <i>over</i> to the post-office.
Preposition :	The king rules <i>over</i> a vast empire.
Adverb :	I have not seen him <i>since</i> .
Preposition :	I have not slept <i>since</i> day before yesterday.

The object to a Preposition is a Noun or a Pronoun. Sometimes the object to a Preposition is an Adverb of Time or Place.

For example,

I, will be done by *then*.



that time

Since *then*, she did not come here.



that time

Come away from *there*.



that place

He must have reached there by *now*.



this time

How far is it from *here*?



this place

Sometimes the object to a Preposition is an Adverbial phrase.

For example,

Each article was sold at *over a shilling*.

The noise comes from *across the river*.

I sold my car *under its half cost*.

He swore from dawn till *far into the night*.

He did not see her till *a few days ago*.

A clause can also be the object to a Preposition.

For example,

Pay careful attention to *what I am going to say*.

There is no meaning in *what you say*.

The object to a Preposition, when it is a relative pronoun is sometimes omitted.

For example,

He is the man I was looking for.

(Whom is understood here)

These are the good rules to live by.

(Which is understood here)

RELATIONS EXPRESSED BY PREPOSITIONS

(1) Time

For example,

After his death.	At an early age.
------------------	------------------

Arrived <i>before</i> me.	Behind time.
---------------------------	--------------

By three o' clock.	During the whole day.
--------------------	-----------------------

For many years.	From January 1, 2000.
-----------------	-----------------------

In the morning.	
-----------------	--

Sat watching far on <i>into</i> the night.	
--	--

Lived <i>under</i> the Britishers.	
------------------------------------	--

On Wednesday.	Pending his return.
---------------	---------------------

Since yesterday.	Lasted <i>through</i> the night.
------------------	----------------------------------

Throughout the year.	Wait <i>till</i> tomorrow.
----------------------	----------------------------

Fifteen minutes <i>to</i> one p.m.	
------------------------------------	--

Towards evening.	Until his arrival.
------------------	--------------------

Rise <i>with</i> the sun.	Within a month.
---------------------------	-----------------

(2) Place

For example,

Went <i>about</i> the world.	Ran across the road.
------------------------------	----------------------

Leaned <i>against</i> the wall.	Fell <i>among</i> thieves.
---------------------------------	----------------------------

Quarrelled <i>among</i> themselves.	
-------------------------------------	--

At death's door.	Athwart the deck.
------------------	-------------------

Stood <i>before</i> the door.	Stood <i>behind</i> the curtain.
-------------------------------	----------------------------------

Lies <i>below</i> the surface.	Sat <i>beside</i> me.
--------------------------------	-----------------------

Plies <i>between</i> Delhi and Jaipur.	
--	--

Stand <i>by</i> me.	
---------------------	--

Rains comes <i>from</i> the clouds.	
-------------------------------------	--

In the sky.	Fell <i>into</i> a ditch.
-------------	---------------------------

Lies <i>near</i> the heart.	Calcutta is <i>on</i> the Hooghly.
-----------------------------	------------------------------------

The cliff hangs <i>over</i> the sea.	
--------------------------------------	--

Tour <i>round</i> the world.	Marched <i>through</i> the town.
------------------------------	----------------------------------

Came <i>to</i> the end of the road.	
-------------------------------------	--

Put pen <i>to</i> paper.	Travelled <i>towards</i> Goa.
--------------------------	-------------------------------

Lay <i>under</i> the table.	Climbed <i>up</i> the ladder.
-----------------------------	-------------------------------

Lies <i>upon</i> the table.	Within the house.
-----------------------------	-------------------

Stood <i>without</i> the gate.	
--------------------------------	--

(3) Agency, instrumentality

For example,

Sell goods at auction. Sent the parcel by post.
Was stunned by a blow. Was destroyed by fire.
Heard is through a friend. Cut it with a knife.

(4) Manner

For example,

Dying by inches. Fought with courage.
Worked with enthusiasm. Won with ease.

(5) Cause, Reason, Purpose

For example,

Laboured for the good of humanity.
Died of fever. The very place for a picnic.
Did it for our good. Suffers from pain.
Died from fatigue. Does it from perversity.
Reached through fear of an ambush.
Concealed it through shame.
Lost his purse through negligence.
Shivers with fever. Took medicine for cold.

(6) Possession

For example,

There was no money by him.
The church of Bethlehem.
A man of means.
The boy with grey hair.

(7) Measure, Standard, Rate, Value

For example,

He charges interest at nine p.c.
Stories like these must be taken at what they are worth.
Cloth is sold by the meter.
I am taller than you by five inches.
It was one by the tower-clock.

(8) Contrast, Concession

For example,

After every effort, he failed.
For one enemy he has a hundred friends.
For all his wealth he is not content.
With all his faults, I adore him.

(9) Inference, Motive, Source or Origin

For example,

From what I know of him, I hesitate to trust him.
The knights were brave from gallantry of spirit.
He did it from gratitude.
Light emanates from the sun.
From labour health, from contentment springs.
This is quotation from Shakespeare.
His skill comes from practice.

SOME IMPORTANT PREPOSITIONS

Since and For

Since is used before a point of time, while for is used before a period of time.

For example,

Monica has been here since Monday last.
I did not see you for a long time.

Since and From

Both Since and from are used before a point of time but since is preceded by a verb in the perfect tense, while from can be used with any tense.

For example,

John has started rowing from
(or since) Monday Last.
John started rowing from yesterday
(Not since).
John starts rowing from today (not since).
John will start rowing from tomorrow.
(Not since)

Before, By and Within

Before, and by are used with a point of time, while within is used with a period of time.

For example,

You must reach here before (or by) 8 o' clock.
(not within)
Henry came back within an hour (not before).

Note : There is a distinction in use between before and by.

By means not after the specified limit or time while before means any time within specified limit of time.

For example,

You must come back by 5 p.m. (not after 5 p.m.)
You must come back before 5 p.m. (any time before the clock strikes five)

In and Within

In means at the end of, while within means before the end of.

For example,

The game will end within in an hour (before the hour is passed).

The game will end in an hour (at the end of, and not exceeding an hour).

In and Into

In refers to a position already inside anything and into refers to a movement towards the inside of anything.

For example,

John was in the garden.
Mary went into in garden.

In and At

In refers to a much wider space or time than at.

For example, Come at 8 o' clock in the morning.

The Taj is at Agra in India.

In and After

In is used about the future time, while after is used about the past.

For example,

Fred will come in a few minutes (not after).
Arthur left after an hour (not in).

On and At

On is used before a particular date or day and at before a particular hour.

For example,

I shall come *on* Friday at 5 o' clock.

Between and Among

Between is used about *two persons or things*, while *among* is used for referring to *more than two persons or things*.

For example,

Divide the mango *between* Ram and Sham.

Distribute all the chocolates *among* the pupils.

The money was divided not *between* his two sons only *but among* all his defendants.

Beside and Besides

Beside means *by the site of* while, *besides* means *in addition to*.

For example,

Besides my son, my cousin also sat *beside* me.

By and With

By is used with the *doer* or agent, while *with* is used before the *instrument with which a person does a thing*.

For example,

The tiger was not shot *by* me.

The tiger was shot *with* a rifle.

Except and Excepting

The use of the participle *excepting* formed from the verb of except (= to exclude) is often confused with that of the preposition *except* (= without).

For example,

All the boys *except* John went there

(Preposition = without).

All the boys *not excepting* John went there (Participial preposition = not excluding).

All the boys went there, John *not being excepted* (verb).

There are also a few special prepositions like :

(a) *Than*

Than is usually a conjunction, but is sometimes used as a preposition.

For example,

I cannot accept less *than* fifty rupees for this article.

I speak of Keats, *than* whom there is none greater as a poet.

(b) *But*

As a rule *but* is a conjunction. When used as a preposition, *but* means *except, with the exception of*.

For example,

What can he do *but die*?

All our ambitions death defeats, *but one*.

None *but* the brave deserves the award.

She returned all her gifts *but one*.

All is lost *but honour*.

(c) *A* is sometimes used as weakened form of the preposition *on*.

For example,

The house is a building.

I meet her once a week.

Rice is twenty rupees a kg.

His wages are thirty rupees a day.

PREPOSITION

Nouns Followed by Preposition 'of'

Abhorrence of	Assurance of
Charge of	Distrust of
Doubt of	Experience of
Failure of	Observance of
Proof of	Result of
Want of	

Adjectives Followed by Preposition 'of'

Accused of	Acquitted of
Afraid of	Apprehensive of
Apprised of	Assured of
Aware of	Bereft of
Bought of	Cautious of
Certain of	Characteristic of
Composed of	Confident of
Conscious of	Convinced of
Covetous of	Defrauded of
Deprived of	Desirous of
Devoid of	Diffident of
Distrustful of	Dull of
Easy of	Envious of
Fearful of	Fond of
Greedy of	Guilty of
Heedless of	Ignorant of
Informed of	Innocent of
Irrespective of	Lame of
Lavish of	Negligent of
Productive of	Proud of
Regardless of	Sanguine of
Sensible of	Sick of
Slow of	Subversive of
Sure of	Suspicious of
Tolerant of	Vain of
Void of	Weary of
Worthy of	Wearie of

Verbs Followed by Preposition 'of'

Acquit of	Beware of
Boats of	Complain of
Despair of	Die of
Disapprove of	Dispose of
Divest of	Dream of
Heal of	Judge of
Repent of	Taste of

Nouns Followed by Preposition 'for'

Affection for	Ambition for
Anxiety for	Apology for
Appetite for	Aptitude for
Blame for	Candidate for
Capacity for	Compassion for
Compensation for	Contempt for
Craving for	Desire for
Esteem for	Fitness for

AN INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH GRAMMAR & LANGUAGE

Fondness for	Guarantee for	Resemblance to	Sequel to
Leisure for	Liking for	Submission to	Supplement to
Match for	Motive for	Temptation to	Traitor to
Need for	Opportunity for	<i>Adjectives Followed by Preposition 'to'</i>	
Partiality for	Passion for	Abhorrent to	Acceptable to
Pity for	Predilection for	Accessible to	Impertinent to
Pretext for	Relish for	Incidental to	Inclined to
Remorse for	Reputation for	Indebted to	Indifferent to
<i>Adjectives Followed by Preposition 'for'</i>		Indispensable to	Indulgent to
Anxious for	Celebrated for	Inimical to	Insensible to
Conspicuous for	Customary for	Injured to	Irrelevant to
Designed for	Destined for	Favourable to	Hurtful to
Eager for	Eligible for	Immaterial to	Impervious to
Eminent for	Fit for	Indigenous to	Liable to
Good for	Grateful for	Limited to	Lost to
Notorious for	Penitent for	Loyal to	Material to
Prepared for	Proper for	Natural to	Necessary to
Qualified for	Ready for	Obedient to	Obliged to
Sorry for	Sufficient for	Offensive to	Opposite to
Useful for	Zealous for	Painful to	Partial to
<i>Verbs Followed by Preposition 'for'</i>		Peculiar to	Pertinent to
Atone for	Canvass for	Pledged to	Preferable to
Care for	Clamour for	Prejudical to	Profitable to
Feel for	Hope for	Prior to	Prone to
Mourn for	Pine for	Reduced to	Related to
Start for	Stipulate for	Relevant to	Repugnant to
Sue for	Wish for	Responsible to	Restricted to
Yearn for		Sacred to	Sensitive to
<i>Verbs Followed by Preposition 'on'</i>		Serviceable to	Subject to
Comment on	Decide on	Suitable to	Suited to
Deliberate on	Depend on	Supplementary to	Tantamount to
Determine on	Dwell on	True to	
Embark on	Encroach on	<i>Verbs Followed by Preposition 'to'</i>	
Enlarge on	Impose on	Accede to	Adapt to
Insist on	Intrude on	Adhere to	Allot to
Resolve on	Subsist on	Allude to	Appologize to
Trample on		Appoint to	Ascribe to
<i>Nouns Followed by Preposition 'to'</i>		Aspire to	Assent to
Access to	Accession to	Attain to	Attend to
Allegiance to	Alternative to	Attribute to	Belong to
Antidote to	Antipathy to	Conduce to	Conform to
Approach to	Assent to	Consent to	Contribute to
Attachment to	Attention to	Lead to	Listen to
Concession to	Disgrace to	Object to	Occur to
Dislike to	Encouragement to	Prefer to	Pretend to
Enmity to	Exception to	Refer to	Revert to
Incentive to	Indifference to	Stoop to	Succumb to
Invitation to	Key to	Surrender to	Testify to
Linclency to	Likeness to	Yield to	
Limit to	Menace to	<i>Adjectives Followed by Preposition 'in'</i>	
Obedience to	Objection to	Absorbed in	Abstemious in
Obstruction to	Opposition to	Accomplished in	Accurate in
Postscript to	Preface to	Assidous in	Backward in
Reference to	Repugnance to	Bigoted in	Correct in

Defective in	Deficient in
Experienced in	Deligent in
Envolved in	Fertile in
Foiled in	Honest in
Implicated in	Interested in
Involved in	Lax in
Proficnet in	Remiss in
Temperate in	Versed in

Verbs Followed by Preposition 'in'

Involve in	Persist in
Acquiesce in	Dabble in
Delight in	Employ in
Enlist in	Excel in
Fall in	Glory in
Increase in	Indulge in
Persevere in	

Nouns Followed by Preposition 'with'

Acquaintance with	Alliance with
Bargain with	Compromise with
Conformity with	Enmity with
Intercourse with	Intimacy with
Relations with	

Adjectives Followed by Preposition 'with'

Acquainted with	Afflicted with
Beset with	Busy with
Compatible with	Compliant with
Consistent with	Contemporary with
Contended with	Contrasted with
Conversant with	Convulsed with
Delighted with	Deluged with
Disgusted with	Drenched with
Endowed with	Fatigued with
Fired with	Gifted with
Infatuated with	Infected with
Infested with	Inspired with
Invested with	Overcome with
Popular with	Replete with
Satiated with	Satisfied with
Touched with	

Verbs Followed By Preposition 'with'

Associate with	Bear with
Clash with	Coincide with
Comply with	Condone with
Condole with	Cope with
Correspond with	Credit with
Deluge with	Disagree with
Dispense with	Fill with
Grapple with	Expostulate with
Intrigue with	Meddle with
Part with	Quarrel with
Remonstrate with	Side with
Sympathisize with	Vie with
Trifle with	

Verbs Followed By Preposition 'from'

Abstrain from	Alight from
Cease from	Debar from
Derogate from	Desist from
Detract from	Deviate from
Differ from	Digress from
Dissent from	Elicit from
Emerge from	Escape from
Exclude from	Preserve from
Prevent from	Prohibit from
Protect from	Recoil from
Recover from	Refrain from

Nouns Followed By Preposition 'from'

Respite from	Inference from
Abstinence from	Cessation from
Deliverance from	Descent from
Digression from	Escape from
Exemption from	

We now present a list of some Nouns and Appropriate Prepositions.

A LIST OF NOUNS & APPROPRIATE PREPOSITIONS

1. Abstinence from wine.
2. Ability for or in some work.
3. Abundance of wealth.
4. Accession to the throne.
5. Access to a person or place.
6. Accomplice with a person in a crime.
7. Accusation of forgery.
8. In accordance with some rule.
9. Affinity with something.
10. Adherence to a rule.
11. Affection for somebody.
12. Affinity between two things.
13. Alliance with a person or state.
14. Allusion to something.
15. Alternative to a method/something.
16. Analogy of one thing with another.
17. Analogy between things.
18. Animosity against somebody.
19. Antidote against infection.
20. Antidote to some poison.
21. Apprehension of danger.
22. Approach to (step towards) anything.
23. Arrival in a country.
24. Arrival at a place.
25. Assault on a person or thing.
26. Attack (vt+) somebody.
27. Attack (n/c) on a country.
28. Attraction to or towards a thing.
29. Authority over a person.
30. Authority on a subject
31. Aversion to a person or thing.

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| <p>32. Candidate for a post.</p> <p>33. Care for somebody's safety.</p> <p>34. Care for his health.</p> <p>35. Charge of murder.</p> <p>36. Charge with theft.</p> <p>37. Claim on or against somebody.</p> <p>38. Claim to property.</p> <p>39. Compact with a person.</p> <p>40. Comment on something.</p> <p>41. Comparison of somebody with somebody.</p> <p>42. By/in comparison with.</p> <p>43. Compassion for somebody.</p> <p>44. Competition with somebody.</p> <p>45. Competition for something.</p> <p>46. Complicity in a crime.</p> <p>47. Compliance with a request.</p> <p>48. Condemnation to death.</p> <p>49. Confidence in somebody.</p> <p>50. Conformity with anyone's views.</p> <p>51. Conformity to rule.</p> <p>52. Compensation for a loss.</p> <p>53. Connection with a person or thing.</p> <p>54. Connivance at anyone's fault.</p> <p>55. Consciousness of guilt.</p> <p>56. Consideration for somebody.</p> <p>57. Contact with somebody/something.</p> <p>58. Contempt for a person or thing.</p> <p>59. A contrast with a person.</p> <p>60. A contrast to a person or thing.</p> <p>61. Controversy on or about something.</p> <p>62. Contribution to a fund.</p> <p>63. Contribution towards some project.</p> <p>64. Conversation with somebody.</p> <p>65. Decision on some case.</p> <p>66. Decision of some dispute.</p> <p>67. Decline of an empire.</p> <p>68. Decline in moral/price.</p> <p>69. Degradation from rank.</p> <p>70. Delight in music / in something.</p> <p>71. Descent from ancestors.</p> <p>72. Desire for wealth.</p> <p>73. Desirous (Adj.) of something.</p> <p>74. Disgust at meanness.</p> <p>75. Dislike to a person or thing.</p> <p>76. Distaste for mathematics/something.</p> <p>77. Doubt of or about a thing.</p> <p>78. Duty to a person.</p> <p>79. Encroachment on /upon one's rights.</p> <p>80. Engagement with somebody.</p> <p>81. Entrance into a place.</p> <p>82. Enmity with somebody.</p> <p>83. Esteem for somebody.</p> <p>84. Exception to a rule.</p> <p>85. (Make) an exception of somebody or something.</p> | <p>86. Excuse for a mistake.</p> <p>87. Failure of electricity.</p> <p>88. Failure of somebody in something.</p> <p>89. Faith in somebody or something.</p> <p>90. Familiarity with a person or thing.</p> <p>91. Freedom from care.</p> <p>92. Freedom of action.</p> <p>93. Glance at a person or thing.</p> <p>94. Glance over a wide surface.</p> <p>95. Gratitude for a thing.</p> <p>96. Gratitude to a person.</p> <p>97. Grief at an event.</p> <p>98. Grief for a person.</p> <p>99. Guess at the truth /something.</p> <p>100. Harmony with anything.</p> <p>101. Hatred of or for somebody.</p> <p>102. Hatred of a thing.</p> <p>103. Heir to some property.</p> <p>104. Heir of somebody.</p> <p>105. Hindrance to something.</p> <p>106. Hint at some reward.</p> <p>107. Hope for better a luck.</p> <p>108. Hostility to a person or cause.</p> <p>109. Identity with somebody/something.</p> <p>110. Immersion into water.</p> <p>111. Implication in this crime.</p> <p>112. Implication on someone.</p> <p>113. Imputation against somebody.</p> <p>114. Incentive to a worker.</p> <p>115. Inclination for sport/something.</p> <p>116. Indifference to help others.</p> <p>117. Indulgence to a beautiful woman.</p> <p>118. Influence over or with somebody.</p> <p>119. Influence on decision of wife.</p> <p>120. Inquiry into circumstances/a case.</p> <p>121. Insight into something somebody's character.</p> <p>122. Intercession with a superior.</p> <p>123. Intercession for a friend.</p> <p>124. Jurisdiction in a lawsuit.</p> <p>125. Justification of or for crime.</p> <p>126. Key to understanding of the problem.</p> <p>127. Liability to an illness.</p> <p>128. Libel against his character.</p> <p>129. Liking for non-vegetarian /something.</p> <p>130. Longing for luxury / something.</p> <p>131. Lust for life / something.</p> <p>132. Malice against an enemy.</p> <p>133. Neglect of duty.</p> <p>134. Neglect of doing a thing.</p> <p>135. Nomination of a member.</p> <p>136. Nomination to a position.</p> <p>137. Opportunity for going abroad / doing something.</p> <p>138. Partnership in a thing.</p> <p>139. Power over a person.</p> |
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| <p>140. Precaution against infection.</p> <p>141. Preface to a book.</p> <p>142. Preference for something.</p> <p>143. Preparation for examination/something.</p> <p>144. Proof against somebody.</p> <p>145. Proof of guilt.</p> <p>146. Qualification for a post.</p> <p>147. Quarrel with somebody/something.</p> <p>148. Readiness in responding.</p> <p>149. Readiness for journey.</p> <p>150. Reference to a person or thing.</p> <p>151. In regard to that matter.</p> <p>152. Regard for a person.</p> <p>153. Relation between two things.</p> <p>154. Relation with somebody.</p> <p>155. Remonstrance against somebody's conduct.</p> <p>156. Remonstrance with somebody.</p> <p>157. Reply to a query / a person.</p> <p>158. Request for a thing.</p> <p>159. Resemblance to a person or thing.</p> <p>160. In respect of some quality.</p> <p>161. Rivalry with a person.</p> <p>162. Rival in something.</p> <p>163. Search for a after wealth.</p> <p>164. In search of wealth /a job etc.</p> <p>165. Share in the property /something.</p> <p>166. Share with somebody.</p> <p>167. Sin against God./ mankind/humanity.</p> <p>168. Sympathy with or for somebody.</p> <p>169. Temptation to evil.</p> <p>170. Temptation in diet.</p> <p>171. Trespass against the law.</p> <p>172. Warrant for somebody's arrest.</p> <p>173. With a view to.</p> <p>174. Witness of or to a case.</p> <p>175. Wonder at his behaviour/something.</p> | <p>17. Answer for misconduct/something.</p> <p>18. Apologise to somebody.</p> <p>19. Apologise for something.</p> <p>20. Appeal to the judge/something.</p> <p>21. Appeal against a sentence.</p> <p>22. Appeal for mercy/something.</p> <p>23. Apply to a person.</p> <p>24. Apply for some post/something.</p> <p>25. Appoint to a post.</p> <p>26. Argue with a person for or against a point.</p> <p>27. Arrive at a conclusion.</p> <p>28. Arrive at a station/a place.</p> <p>29. Arrive in a country.</p> <p>30. Ask for assistance.</p> <p>31. Ask of or from somebody.</p> <p>32. Associate with a group.</p> <p>33. Blame a person for something.</p> <p>34. Blush at one's own mistake.</p> <p>35. Blush for somebody who is at fault.</p> <p>36. Border on a place.</p> <p>37. Borrow of or from a friend/somebody.</p> <p>38. Break the news of somebody's death.</p> <p>39. Break through restraint.</p> <p>40. Break ill news to a friend/to somebody.</p> <p>41. Break (dissolve partnership) with somebody.</p> <p>42. Bring a thing to light.</p> <p>43. Bring a thing under notice.</p> <p>44. Burst upon (suddenl invade) a country.</p> <p>45. Burst into laughter.</p> <p>46. Burst into tears.</p> <p>47. Call on a person.</p> <p>48. Call for (demand, require) something.</p> <p>49. Call something in (order or request the return of).</p> <p>50. Canvass for (support) votes.</p> <p>51. Care for (attach value to) to a person or thing.</p> <p>52. Care about (feel interest, anxiety or sorrow) something.</p> <p>53. Challenge a man to combat /fight.</p> <p>54. Charge a man with a crime.</p> <p>55. Charge payment to a person.</p> <p>56. Coincide with one's opinion.</p> <p>57. Come about (happen).</p> <p>58. Come across (to meet suddenly).</p> <p>59. Come after somebody (follow).</p> <p>60. Come into fashion.</p> <p>61. Come by something (obtain by effort).</p> <p>62. Come of a rich family.</p> <p>63. Commence with a thing.</p> <p>64. Communicate a thing to somebody.</p> <p>65. Communicate with somebody.</p> <p>66. Compare somebody with somebody.</p> <p>67. Compare something with something (similar).</p> <p>68. Compare to (dissimilar things).</p> <p>69. Compensate for loss.</p> <p>70. Compete with somebody for a prize/something.</p> <p>71. Complain to somebody.</p> <p>72. Complain against somebody.</p> |
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SOME VERBS & APPROPRIATE PREPOSITIONS

1. Abound in or with something.
 2. Accrue to somebody.
 3. Accure from something.
 4. Accuse somebody of cheft.
 5. Acquit a person of all charges/all complicity.
 6. Acquit a person in a crime.
 7. Adapt to new surroundings.
 8. Adhere to a plan / a rule / a principle.
 9. Agree to a proposal.
 10. Agree with a person.
 11. Agree on some matter.
 12. Aim at a target.
 13. Aim at doing something.
 14. Alight from a bus/a train etc.
 15. Allude to a fact.
 16. Answer to a description.
17. Answer for misconduct/something.
 18. Apologise to somebody.
 19. Apologise for something.
 20. Appeal to the judge/something.
 21. Appeal against a sentence.
 22. Appeal for mercy/something.
 23. Apply to a person.
 24. Apply for some post/something.
 25. Appoint to a post.
 26. Argue with a person for or against a point.
 27. Arrive at a conclusion.
 28. Arrive at a station/a place.
 29. Arrive in a country.
 30. Ask for assistance.
 31. Ask of or from somebody.
 32. Associate with a group.
 33. Blame a person for something.
 34. Blush at one's own mistake.
 35. Blush for somebody who is at fault.
 36. Border on a place.
 37. Borrow of or from a friend/somebody.
 38. Break the news of somebody's death.
 39. Break through restraint.
 40. Break ill news to a friend/to somebody.
 41. Break (dissolve partnership) with somebody.
 42. Bring a thing to light.
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 44. Burst upon (suddenl invade) a country.
 45. Burst into laughter.
 46. Burst into tears.
 47. Call on a person.
 48. Call for (demand, require) something.
 49. Call something in (order or request the return of).
 50. Canvass for (support) votes.
 51. Care for (attach value to) to a person or thing.
 52. Care about (feel interest, anxiety or sorrow) something.
 53. Challenge a man to combat /fight.
 54. Charge a man with a crime.
 55. Charge payment to a person.
 56. Coincide with one's opinion.
 57. Come about (happen).
 58. Come across (to meet suddenly).
 59. Come after somebody (follow).
 60. Come into fashion.
 61. Come by something (obtain by effort).
 62. Come of a rich family.
 63. Commence with a thing.
 64. Communicate a thing to somebody.
 65. Communicate with somebody.
 66. Compare somebody with somebody.
 67. Compare something with something (similar).
 68. Compare to (dissimilar things).
 69. Compensate for loss.
 70. Compete with somebody for a prize/something.
 71. Complain to somebody.
 72. Complain against somebody.

73. Complain of/about something.
74. Conceal facts from somebody.
75. Concede to some demand.
76. Concur with a person.
77. Concur in an opinion.
78. Condemn a person to death.
79. Conform to a norm.
80. Conform with one's opinion.
81. Congratulate somebody on his success.
82. Consult with (discuss with) one's friends.
83. Consult a person/a lawyer/a map/a dictionary (take advice, get information etc.)
84. Contribute to a fund.
85. Converse with a person about a thing.
86. Cope with situation.
87. Correspond with a person (write).
88. Correspond to something (agree).
89. Cure a man of a disease.
90. Cure (n/u) for a disease.

CONJUNCTION

A Conjunction is a word which joins together sentences and sometimes words.

For example,

Meenu *and* Rishi are good friends.



Conjunction

She must weep *or* she will die.



Conjunction

God made man *and* man made inventions.



Conjunction

Our boat is small *but* the sea is great.



Conjunction

Conjunctions are of two kinds. :

- (i) Co-ordinating
- (ii) Sub-ordinating

For example,

Shelly *and* Keats were great poets.

John *and* Henry are brothers.

In these sentences, the conjunction *and* joins two words.

Again,

John came here *and* sat down.

Smith is poor *but* honest.

Here, the conjunction *and* joins two Independent or co-ordinate clauses or sentences (John came here + John sat down), while the conjunction *but* joins two similar clauses or sentences (smith is poor + Smith is honest). *And* and *but* are both co-ordinating conjunctions. All clauses joined by *and*, *but*, *or* and *nor* are co-ordinate clauses.

Therefore,

A conjunction that joins two words or two co-ordinate clauses or sentences is called a *Co-ordinating Conjunction*.

Let us take an example,

Smith is honest *though* poor.

(Smith is honest *though he is poor*).

Here *he is poor* is a subordinate clause dependent for its full meaning on the main clause *Smith is honest* to which it is joined by the conjunction *though*.

Though is a Subordinating conjunction. All clauses introduced by Subordinating conjunctions are Subordinate clauses.

Hence,

A conjunction that joins a Dependent or Subordinate clause to the main or co-ordinate clause of a complex sentence, is called a *Subordinating Conjunction*.

List of Subordinating Conjunctions :

After	Although
As	Before
If	Least
Though	Till
Unless	Where
Until	Whether
While	Whither
Why, etc.	

Co-ordinate conjunctions are of four different kinds :

(i) *Copulative or Cumulative Conjunctions* only add something to what has been already stated : also, and, as well, For example, further, too, well, now, no less than, not only but also.

For example,

We carried not a line *and* we raised not a stone.

(ii) *Adversative conjunctions* contrast one idea to another : but, however, nevertheless, whereFor example, while, only, still and yet are all adversative conjunctions.

For example,

Our hoards are little *but* our hearts are great.

(iii) *Alternative Conjunctions* offer a choice between two thoughts : or, nor, either ... or, neither ... nor, otherwise etc.

For example,

Do or die.

Neither a borrower nor a lender be.

Speak out the truth, else (otherwise) you will suffer.

(iv) *Illative conjunctions* expresses a relation of cause and effect between the clauses joined by them : for, therefore, them, so, etc.

For example,

We must go now; *for* it is already late.

Subordinating Conjunctions are of the following kinds :

- (i) Those denoting *apposition* : that

For example,

John gave me his word *that* he would help me.

- (ii) Those denoting *cause* : since, For example, because, etc.

- For example,
I trust him *since* he is honest.
- (iii) Those denoting effect : that
For example,
You lie so often *that* nobody trusts you.
- (iv) Those denoting purpose : that
For example,
Work hard *that* you may succeed.
- (v) Those denoting condition : as if, if, if not, in case, provided that, unless, whether, etc.
For example,
If you come, I will go.
- (vi) Those denoting concession : although, though
For example,
Charles was intelligent *though* not industrious.
- (vii) Those denoting manner : as
For example,
I spoke *as* I liked.
- (viii) Those denoting comparison : For example, then +
For example,
It is not as bad *as* you think.
Mary is taller *than* her sister.
- (ix) Those denoting time : after, before, are, since, while, till and until.
For example,
I came to Calcutta *before* you were born. *After* I had departed, no one did any work.

Use of Conjunctions

1. *Not only but also* is used before those words which it stresses.
For example,
He is not famous in his state *but also* in his country. — Wrong
He is famous not only in his state *but also* in his country. — Correct
2. *Neither* is followed by *nor* while *either* is followed by *or*
For example,
She is neither intelligent or laborious. — Wrong
She is neither intelligent nor labourious. — Correct
But,
He is neither good at Physics nor at Chemistry. — Wrong
He is good neither at Physics nor at Chemistry. — Correct
3. *Both* is followed by *and*
For example,
Both Mohan or Ram goes there. — Wrong
Both Mohan and Ram go there. — Correct
Again,
Both Sohan as well as Prem is good. — Wrong
Both Sohan and Prem are good. — Correct
4. *Though* and *although* are followed by *yet*
For example,

- Though he is poor but he is honest. — Wrong
Though he is poor yet he is honest. — Correct
Although she is beautiful but she is gentle. — Wrong
Although she is beautiful yet she is gentle. — Correct
5. *Even if* is followed by *but*
For example,
Even if he is hungry yet he cannot beg. — Wrong
Even if he is hungry but he cannot beg. — Correct
 6. *That* cannot be used to express interrogative or imperative expression.
For example,
She asked me that what my name was. — Wrong
She asked me what my name was. — Correct
She said that to bring a chair. — Wrong
She said to bring a chair. — Correct
 7. *Whether* is followed by *or no* or *not*.
For example,
Can you say whether he is ill or not. — Correct
Again,
I cannot say that she is going to Bombay. — Wrong
I cannot say whether she is going to Bombay. — Correct
 8. *When* is used when two actions take place one by one, if two actions are simultaneous, use *while*.
For example,
When I was on the road I saw a girl. — Wrong
While I was on the road I saw a girl. — Correct
While I reached there she had gone out. — Wrong
When I reached there she had gone out. — Correct
 9. *Lest* is followed by *should*, it is negative do not use another negative with it.
For example,
Work hard *lest* you may fail. — Wrong
Work hard *lest* you should fail. — Correct
Run fast *lest* you should not miss the train. — Wrong
Run fast *lest* you should miss the train. — Correct
 10. *No sooner* is followed by *than*, just after no sooner we use helping verb.
For example,
No sooner did he go out *than* she came. — Wrong
No sooner did he go out *than* she came. — Correct
No sooner I did reach there *than* he started. — Wrong
No sooner did I reach there *than* he started. — Correct
 11. *Other* is followed by *than*.
For example,
He has other work *that* to do. — Wrong
He has other work *than* to do. — Correct
 12. *Until* is used for time while *unless* is used for condition. They are negatives. So do not use any other negative with them.

- For example,
Until you labour you cannot pass. — Wrong
Unless you labour you cannot pass. — Correct
Until he does not come I shall wait for him.
— Wrong
Until he comes I shall wait for him. — Correct
13. *Scarcely, hardly, and barely* are followed by *when*.
After scarcely, hardly etc. we use helping first then subject.
For example,
Hardly had he gone out than he reached. — Wrong
Hadly had he gone when he reached. — Correct
Scarcely I had reached there when she went out.
— Wrong
Scarcely had I reached there when she went out.
— Correct
14. *So and so that* are used for cause and purpose. *So that* cannot be used in negative.
For example,
He is ill so he wants to take rest.
Or, He is ill so that he wants to take rest.
But,
He is ill so that he cannot go there. — Wrong
He is ill so he cannot go there. — Correct
15. *Nothing* is followed by *but*.
For example,
Nothing can be said that is required. — Wrong
Nothing can be said but is required. — Correct
16. After these verbs : *treat, regard, describe, present, portray, define, depict*, etc. we use *as* before noun.
For example,
Do not treat a servant a servant. — Wrong
Do not treat a servant as a servant. — Correct
She regards me her brother. — Wrong
She regards me as her brother. — Correct
17. *Such* is followed by *as*
For example,
Such boys are good that believe in me. — Wrong
Such boys are good as believe in me. — Correct

TENSE

Tense is that form of a Verb which shows the *time* and *state* of an action and an event. [Tense comes from Latin *tempus*, meaning time.]

Let us take three sentences.

1. I *sing* this song to please you.
2. I *sang* the song in her very presence.
3. I *shall sing* another song for her tomorrow.

In the *first* sentence, the Verb *sing* refers to present time.
In the *second* sentence, the Verb *sang* refers to past time.
In the *third* sentence, the Verb *shall sing* refers to future time.

Thus, a Verb may refer to :

- | | |
|-------------------|----------------|
| (i) Present time | (ii) Past time |
| (iii) Future time | |

(i) A Verb that refers to *present time* is said to be in the *present tense*.

For example

I go. I run. I sleep. I write.

I walk.

(ii) A Verb that refers to *past time* is said to be in the *past tense*.

For example

I went I ran I slept I wrote I walked

(iii) a Verb that refers to *future time* is said to be in the *future tense*.

For example

I shall go.	I shall run.
I shall sleep.	I shall write.
I shall walk.	

There are *three* main tenses :

- (1) The Present Tense
- (2) The Past Tense
- (3) The Future Tense

Each of these *three* tenses has been sub-divided into four forms under the following heading :

Present Tense		Past Tense		Future Tense	
(1) Simple Present/ Present Indefinite Tense		(1) Simple Past/ Past Indefinite Tense		(1) Simple Future/ Future Indefinite Tense	
(2) Present Continuous Tense		(2) Past Continuous Tense		(2) Future Continuous Tense	
(3) Present Perfect Tense		(3) Past Perfect Tense		(3) Future Perfect Tense	
(4) Present Perfect Continuous Tense		(4) Past Perfect Continuous Tense		(4) Future Perfect Continuous Tense	

TABLE OF TENSES OF VERB TO GIVE

	Simple		Continuous	Perfect Continuous	Perfect
Present	Active Passive	I give. I am given.	I am giving. I am being given.	I have given. I have been given.	I have been giving.
Past	Active Passive	I gave. I was given.	I was giving. I was being given.	I had given. I had been given.	I had been giving.
Future	Active Passive	I shall give. I shall be given.	I shall be giving.	I shall have given. I shall have been given.	I shall be given.

**Uses of Tenses
THE PRESENT TENSE**

(1) Present Indefinite Tense

The Present Indefinite or Simple Present Tense is used :

- (i) To express a habitual action.

For example,

The cock *crows* every morning.
I *get up* everyday at 6.0' clock.
He *goes* to school everyday.

- (ii) To express general truths

For example,

The earth *is* round.
Slow and steady *wins* the race.
The sun *sets* in the west.

- (iii) In exclamatory sentences beginning with *here* and *there* to express what is actually taking place in the present.

For example,

Here *comes* the tram!
There *goes* the ball!
There he *goes!*

- (iv) In vivid narrative, as substitute for the Simple Past.

For example,

The officer now *comes* forward and *tells* the staff to complete all the work by 6 pm.
Immediately the minister *hurries* to the capital.
Sachin now *makes* quick *runs* to save the follow on.

- (v) To indicate a future event that is part of a plan or arrangement.

For example,

We *leave* for Delhi next Wednesday.
We *go* to Bangkok next week.
When *does* the school *reopen?*

Simple Past is also used to introduce quotations.

For example,

Rousseau says, "Every man is born free, but everywhere he is in chains today."

Simple Past is used instead of the Simple Future Tense, in clauses of time and of condition.

For example,

I shall sing till you *sleep*.
If it *rings*, I shall pick up the receiver.

(2) Present Continuous Tense

The Present Continuous Tense is used :

- (i) For an action going on at the time of speaking.

For example,

He *is reading*.
The boys *are playing* cricket.

- (ii) For a temporary action which may not be actually happening at the time of speaking.

For example,

I am reading 'Romeo Juliet'.
He is reading 'Illyus and the Oddyssey'.

[in both the cases, none is reading at this moment].

- (iii) For an action that is planned or arranged to take place in the near future.

For example,

I *am going* to the party tonight.

My father *is arriving* day after tomorrow.

Exception : The following Verbs are not generally used in the continuous form.

For example,

(a) Verbs of Perception, like : see, hear, smell, notice, recognize.

(b) Verbs of Appearance, like : appear, look, seem.

(c) Verbs of Emotion, like : want, wish, desire, feel, like, love, hate, hope, refuse, prefer.

(d) Verbs of Thinking, like : think, suppose, believe, agree, consider, trust, remember, forget, know, understand, imagine, mean, mind.

(e) have, own, possess, belong to, contain, consist of, be etc.

(3) Present Perfect Tense

The Present Perfect Tense is used :

- (i) To indicate complete activities in the immediate past.

For example,

He *has just finished* the work.

The train *has just started*.

- (ii) To express past actions whose time is not given and not definite.

For example,

I *have never known* him to be pessimistic.

Mr. John *has been* to Europe.

- (iii) To describe past events when we think more of their effect in the present than of the action itself.

For example,

I *have finished* my homework. (and now I am free).

Mohan *has drunk* all the milk. (there is no milk in the port)

- (iv) To denote an action beginning at some time in the past and continuing upto the present moment.

For example,

I *have known* him for a long time.

He *has been ill* since last week.

We *have lived* here for five years.

(4) Present Perfect Continuous Tense

The Present Perfect Continuous Tense is used for an action which began at some time in the past and is still continuing.

For example,

I *have been watering* the plants since 5 o' clock.

He *has been fishing* for two hours.

They *have been playing* for several hours.

THE PAST TENSE**(1) Past Indefinite Tense**

The Past Indefinite or Simple Past Tense is used :

- (i) To indicate an action completed in the past.

For example,

The boy *left* school an hour ago.

I *did* this work a week ago.

The ship *sailed* last week.

- (ii) To denote past habits.

For example,

He *practised* many hours every day.

She always *sang* a romantic song.

(2) Past Continuous Tense

The Past Continuous Tense is used :

- (i) To denote an action going on at some time in the past.

For example,

The light went out while I *was reading*.

We *were watching* the television all evening.

- (ii) With *always*, *continually* etc. for persistent habits in the past.

For example,

He *was always refusing*.

She *was continually neglecting* her duty.

(3) Past Perfect Tense

The Past Perfect Tense is used :

- (i) To describe an action completed before a certain moment in the past.

For example,

I met him in 1995. I *had seen* him last five years before.

I called him at 5 a.m. I *had found* him got up at 7 a.m.

- (ii) When two actions happened in the past and it may be necessary to show which action happened earlier than the other. We use Past Perfect in the event that happened earlier.

For example,

When I reached the station, the train *had started*.

I *had completed* my work before the officer came.

I *had done* my work when Seema came to see me.

(4) Past Perfect Continuous Tense

The Past Perfect Continuous Tense is used for an action that began before a certain point in the past and continued upto that time.

For example,

He *had been serving* the institution for the last one year.

At that time he *had been writing* a short story for three months.

THE FUTURE TENSE**(1) Future Indefinite Tense**

The Future Indefinite or Simple Future Tense is used for an action that is still to take place.

For example,

I *shall meet* him tomorrow.

Day after tomorrow *will be* Friday.

(2) Future Continuous Tense

The Future Continuous Tense represents an action as going on at some time in future time.

For example,

I *shall be writing* the letter then.

When I go into the class, the teacher *will be teaching*.

* The Future Continuous Tense is also used for representing future events that are planned.

For example,

I *shall be waiting* for you till 4 pm.

She *will be meeting* me next week.

(3) Future Perfect Tense

The Future Perfect Tense is used to indicate the completion of an action by a certain future time.

For example,

I *shall have done* my homework by that time.

Before you go to meet him, he *will have left* the office.

(4) Future Perfect Continuous Tense

The Future Perfect Continuous Tense indicates an action represented as being in progress over a period of time that will end in the future.

For example,

By next January, we *shall have been living* in Delhi for three years.

When he completes his school, he *will have been studying* at NIIT.

Conjugation of Verb 'To be'**PRESENT INDEFINITE TENSE**

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
-----------------	---------------

1st Person	I am	We are
2nd Person	You are	You are
3rd Person	He/She/It is	They are

PRESENT CONTINUOUS TENSE

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
-----------------	---------------

1st Person	I am being	We are being
2nd Person	You are being	You are being
3rd Person	He/She/It is being	They are being

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
-----------------	---------------

1st Person	I have been	We have been
2nd Person	You have been	You have been
3rd Person	He/She/It has been	They have been

PRESENT PERFECT CONTINUOUS TENSE

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
-----------------	---------------

1st Person	I have been being	We have been being
2nd Person	You have been being	You have been being
3rd Person	He/She/It has been being	They have been being

PAST/INDEFINITE TENSE

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
--	-----------------	---------------

1st Person	I was	We were
2nd Person	You were	You were
3rd Person	He/She/It was	They were

PAST CONTINUOUS TENSE

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
--	-----------------	---------------

1st Person	I was being	We were being
2nd Person	You were being	You were being
3rd Person	He/She/It was being	They were being

PAST PERFECT TENSE

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
--	-----------------	---------------

1st Person	I had been	We had been
2nd Person	You had been	You had been
3rd Person	He/She/It had been	They had been

PAST PERFECT CONTINUOUS TENSE

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
--	-----------------	---------------

1st Person	I had been being	We had been being
2nd Person	You had been	You had been being
3rd Person	He/She/It had been	They had been being

FUTURE INDEFINITE TENSE

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
--	-----------------	---------------

1st Person	I shall be	We shall be
2nd Person	You will be	You will be
3rd Person	He/She/It will be	They will be

FUTURE CONTINUOUS TENSE

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
--	-----------------	---------------

1st Person	I shall be being	We shall be being
2nd Person	You will be being	You will be being
3rd Person	He/She/It will be	They will be being

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
--	-----------------	---------------

1st Person	I shall have been	We shall have been
2nd Person	You will have been	You will have been
3rd Person	He/She/It will have been	They will have been

FUTURE PERFECT CONTINUOUS TENSE

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
--	-----------------	---------------

1st Person	I shall have been being	We shall have been being
2nd Person	You will have been	You will have been
3rd Person	He/She/It will have been	They will have been

MODAL

Modals are the auxiliaries which express attitudes like permission, possibility, necessity etc. such as :

Can Could May Might Shall Should
Will Would Must Ought Need Dare

They are also called Modal Auxiliaries.

Uses of Modals

Can, Could

Can is a Principal Verb followed by an Infinitive without 'to'. Its Past tense is *could* but it, has no Past Participle. It means *ability* or *capacity*.

For example,

I can help you.

I can swim across the river.

Could is used to denote polite request.

For example,

Could you pass me the salt?

Could is often used without reference to past time.

For example,

I think, I could help you (can).

Could have denotes a past possibility not fulfilled.

For example,

You could have done the sum with a little more attention.

May, Might

May is used in expressing doubt or in asking or giving permission.

For example,

He may catch the train (doubt).

May I go out? (asking permission).

You may sleep now (permission).

May is used to express possibility in affirmative sentences.

For example,

It may rain tomorrow.

He may be at home.

May is also used to express a wish.

For example,

May you live long!

May success attend you!

Might is the past tense of *may* and is used to express a degree of dissatisfaction or reapproach.

For example,

He cried aloud so that his friends might hear him.

You might see me tomorrow.

You might pay a little more attention to your appearance.

Might is also used in polite request.

For example,

Might I have your umbrella for a day?

Note : (i) Could and Might are used as the past equivalent of can and may.

For example,

I could draw scenery when I was young (ability).

He said I might/could sit (permission).

He thought he might be at home (possibility).

He wondered if it could be correct. (possibility).

(ii) Could and might are also used as less positive versions of can and may.

For example,

I could attend the party.

Might/Could I borrow your pen?

It might be sunny tomorrow.

(iii) May not denotes denial of permission or improbability.

For example,

Outsiders may not use the similar gate.

Shall, Should

Shall is used in the first person to express pure future.

For example

I *shall* do this work.

When *shall* we visit the zoo?

Shall I do it for you?

Tomorrow we *shall* meet our uncle.

Shall is used to express command, desire, promise or threat etc. in second and third person.

For example

Shall you go tomorrow? (desire).

He *shall* not enter my house (command).

You *shall* have a surprise tomorrow (promise).

You *shall* be punished for unfair means in examination (threat).

Shall he post the letter?

(is it your desire that he will post the letter?)

Shall is also used in the second and third person to ask after the will of the person addressed.

For example

Shall I open the door? (Do you feel like me to open the door).

Which pen *shall* I buy? (What is your suggestion).

Shall the gardener water the plants now?

Should is used as the past equivalents of *shall*.

For example

I expected that I *should* get distinction.

I said that I *should* meet him once.

Should is used in all persons to express duty or obligation.

For example

We *should* obey the laws.

You *should* keep your vows.

Boys *should* obey their teachers.

You *should* get up early.

Should is used to express a supposition that may not be true.

For example

If it *should* rain, they will not visit.

If he *should* see me there, he will be pleased.

Should is to be used in the first person with a Verb like : to like, to care, to be glad, to be pleased etc.

For example

I *should* like to read this poem.

I *should* feel to be pleased with his passing in the examination.

Should is also used in forming the Subjunctive Mood and to form a Subjunctive equivalent.

For example

He ran lest he *should* be caught in rain.

Will, Would

Will is used in the second and third persons to express pure future.

For example

Tomorrow *will* be Sunday.

You *will* see that I am correct.

Will is used to express volition.

For example

I *will* (= am willing) to carry your luggage.

I *will* (= promise to) try to do better the next time.

Will is used to express characteristic habit.

For example

He *will* talk about nothing but politics.

She *will* sit for hours watching the television.

Will is used to express assumption or probability.

For example

This *will* be the magazine you want, I think.

That *will* be the milk-man, I think.

Would is used to express the future in the past i.e., action which was at one time in the past regarded as being still in the future.

For example

He said that he *would* help us.

Would is used as Principal Verbs to express determination.

For example

He *would* cry without any reason.

I *would* buy it thought it was costly.

Note : (i) *Should* and *Would* are used instead of *shall* and *will* in making a polite request.

For example

I *should* thank you if you would let me go.

Would you kindly lend me your hat?

(ii) *Should* and *Would* are used as the past equivalents of *shall* and *will*.

For example

I expected that I *should* get a prize.

He said he *would* be twenty next year.

(iii) *Should* and *Would* are both used as auxiliary Verbs to express the future in the past i.e., action which was at one time in the past regarded as being still in the future.

For example

I said that I *should* meet him once.

He said that he *would* manage them.

Must, Ought

Must is used to express :

(i) Necessity or Obligation.

For example

We *must* obey our parents.

One *must* do his duty.

(ii) Fixed determination.

For example

I *must* have my way in this matter.

He *must* be fifty now.

Ought is followed by an infinite and it expresses :

(i) Moral obligation, duty or desirability -

For example

You *ought* to have come in time.

We *ought* to love our parents.

We *ought* to love him.

You *ought* to know more about this matter.

(ii) Strong probability.

For example

Rakhee *ought* to win the game.

The film *ought* to win a prize.

Note : *Ought* was originally used in the Past tense, but it is now used only in the Present tense.

Need not, Dare not

Need is commonly used in negatives, which denote necessity or obligation.

For example

He *need not* go there. (It was not necessary for him to go.)

I *need not have bought* it. (It was not necessary for me to buy it, but I bought it.)

Dare is generally used in negative sentences, meaning be brave enough to.

For example

He *dare not* take such a step?

He *dared not* do it.

Note : (i) If a Verb is used immediately after a Modal Auxiliary, that Verb must be always in the first form.

(ii) If infinitive is used after a Modal Auxiliary, that infinitive must be a bare infinitive.

Besides the modal auxiliaries, there are also some *special Verbs* or *anomalous* like :

Be Have Do Used

Be used in the formation of the continuous tenses and of the passive voice.

For example

He *is talking*.

I *was writing*.

The door *was opened*.

Have is used in the formation of the perfect tenses.

For example

She *has done*.

She *has been doing*.

Do is used :

(1) To form the negative and interrogative of the present simple and past simple tenses of non-anomalous Verbs.

For example

He *doesn't talk*.

He *didn't do*.

Does she *talk*?

Did she *do*?

(2) To avoid repetition of a previous ordinary Verb.

For example

Do you know her? Yes I *do*.

She sings well. Yes, she *does*.

You called him, *didn't you*?

He eats apples and so *do you*.

(3) *Do* is also used to emphasize the affirmative nature of a statement.

For example

You *do go* there.

I told me not to do, but he *did do*.

(4) *Used* is followed by the infinitive *to*. *Used* to is used to express a discontinued habit.

For example

I *used to live* there during 1980s.

There *used to be* a house there. *Used* to is an anomalous Verb.

The Use of Shall and Will

Auxiliary	To express Future in Assertive sentences (Aux. Verbs)	1st shall	2nd will	3rd will
-----------	---	-----------	----------	----------

Examples : I *shall go* home.

You *will reach* late.

He *will go* last.

Auxiliary	2.Simple Future in Interrogative sentences (Aux. Verbs)	shall	will	will
-----------	---	-------	------	------

Examples : Shall I *go* now ?

Will you *go* now ?

Will he *see* me ?

Principal	3. (a) Promise, determination (Principal Verbs)	Will	Shall	Shall
-----------	---	------	-------	-------

Examples : I *Will help* you.

You *shall have* my help.

He *shall have* his dues.

Principal	(b) Threat	Will	Shall	Shall
-----------	------------	------	-------	-------

Examples : I *will dismiss* him.

If you *go*, you *shall be punished*.

He *shall not be excused*.

Principal	(c) Command	Shall	Shall	Shall
-----------	-------------	-------	-------	-------

Examples : You *shall not go*.

Monday *shall be* a holiday.

Shall he *wait* ?

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The Use of Shall and Will

Auxiliary	To express	1st	2nd	3rd
	1. Simple Future in Assertive sentences (Aux. Verbs)	shall	will	will

Examples : I *shall go home*.

You *will reach late*.

He *will go last*.

Auxiliary	2.Simple Future in Interrogative sentences (Aux. Verbs)	shall	will	will

Examples : *Shall I go now ?*

Will you go now ?

Will he see me ?

Principal	3. (a) Promise, determination (Principal Verbs)	Will	Shall	Shall

Examples : I *Will help you*.

You *shall have my help*.

He *shall have his dues*.

Principal	(b) Threat	Will	Shall	Shall

Examples : I *will dismiss him*.

If you go, you *shall be punished*.

He *shall not be excused*.

Principal	(c) Command (Principal Verbs)	Shall	Shall

Examples : You *shall not go*.

Monday *shall be a holiday*.

Shall he wait ?

VOICE

Definition :

Voice is the form of the Verb which shows whether the Subject acts or is acted upon.

Example:

Sheila writes an e-mail.

(From this example, we understand that the Subject in the sentence is 'Sheila' who is doing some work.)

An e-mail is written by Sheila.

(Again, from this sentence, we understand that some work is going on with the Subject 'An e-mail'.)

Kinds of Voice

There are *two kinds of voice* :

1. **Active Voice** – When the Subject of the sentence is the doer or actor, the Verb is Active and said to be in Active Voice.

Examples:

He runs. I did it.

He said this. She helped me.

They did all the work.

2. **Passive Voice** – When the Subject of the sentence is acted upon, the Verb is Passive and is said to be in Passive Voice.

Examples:

It was done by me.

This was said by him.

The letter was posted.

The thief was arrested.

The sun was covered by cloud.

There is also another kind of Voice called Mid-Voice or Quasi-Passive. The peculiarity of this Voice is that, although it is Active in form, it is Passive in meaning.

Examples:

Candy tastes sweet.

(It means, candy is sweet when tasted.)

Iron feels hard.

(It means, iron is hard when it is felt.)

Oil feels greasy.

(It means, oil is greasy when felt or touched.)

There are certain rules associated with changing the Active Voice into Passive Voice.

RULES FOR CHANGING ACTIVE VOICE INTO PASSIVE VOICE

1. The *Object of the Active* is changed into *Subject of the Passive*.

2. The *Subject of the Active* is changed into *Object of the Passive*.

3. According to the Subject made in the Passive, there is the usage of the helping Verb. If it is not the helping Verb 'to be', then according to the helping Verb present there, a form of 'to be' is taken into usage.

4. After 'to be' there is the usage of Verb³.

5. Preposition 'by' is used before the Object made in the Passive. This (by + Object) is also known as (by + Agent), which is completely optional.

Let us look at that usage of these rules through these examples.

Active: Sekhar called Chandra.

Passive: Chandra was called by Sekhar.

Active: Raja invited Kaushik on his birthday.

Passive: Kaushik was invited by Raja on his birthday.

TENSE AND VOICE

There are eight forms of Tenses used in Passive Voice.

(a) Present Indefinite

The construction of Active Voice here is –

Subject + Verb¹ / Verb⁵ + Object

The construction of Passive Voice here is –

Subject¹ + am / is / are + Verb³ + (by + agent)

Here, S¹ is the Subject of the Passive and (by + Agent) is optional.

Examples:

Active: She loves you.

↓ ↓ ↓
Subject Verb⁵ Object

Passive: You are loved by her.

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
Subject¹ are Verb³ by Agent

Likewise,

Active : Hira calls Simpy.

↓ ↓ ↓
Subject Verb⁵ Object

Passive: Simpy is called by Hira.

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
Subject¹ is Verb³ by Agent

(b) Present Imperfect

The construction of Active Voice here is –

Subject + am / is / are + Verb (+ing) + Object

The construction of Passive Voice here is –

Subject¹ + am / is / are + being + Verb³ + (by + agent)

Example:

Active: Sonu is singing a song.

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
Subject is Verb (+ing) Object

Passive: A song is being sung by Sonu.

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
Subject¹ is being sung by Agent

Likewise,

Active: They are playing chess.

Passive: Chess is being played by them.

(c) Present Perfect

The construction of Active Voice here is –

Subject + has / have + Verb³ Object

The construction of Passive Voice here is –

Subject¹ + has / have + been + Verb³ + (by + agent)

Example:

Active: Seema has bought a nail polish.

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
Subject has Verb³ Object

Passive: A nail polish has been bought by Seema.

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
Subject¹ has been Verb³ by Agent

Likewise,

Active: Narayan has cheated Pallavi.

Passive: Pallavi has been cheated by Narayan.

Note that, no Passive formation is allowed in Present Perfect Continuous Tense.

(d) Past Indefinite

The construction of Active Voice here is –

Subject + Verb² + Object

The construction of Passive Voice here is –

Subject¹ + was / were + Verb³ + (by + agent)

Example:

Active: The Deccan Chargers won the IPL trophy.

↓ ↓ ↓
Subject Verb³ Object

Passive: The IPL trophy was won by the Deccan

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
Subject¹ was Verb³ by Agent

Chargers.

Likewise,

Active: She sold a jewellery.

Passive: A jewellery was sold by her.

(e) Past Imperfect

The construction of Active Voice here is –

Subject + was / were + Verb (+ing) + Object

The construction of Passive Voice here is –

Subject¹ + was / were + being + Verb³ + (by + agent)

Example:

Active: Karuna was practising tennis.

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
Subject was Verb (+ing) Object

Passive: Tennis was being practised by Karuna.

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
Subject¹ was being + Verb³ by Agent

Likewise,

Active: Pinki was making a doll.

Passive: A doll was being made by Pinki.

(f) Past Perfect

The construction of Active Voice here is –

Subject + had + Verb² + Object

The construction of Passive Voice here is –

Subject¹ + had been + Verb³ + (by + agent)

Example:

Active: He had called her.

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
Subject had Verb³ Object

Passive: She had been called by him.

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
Subject¹ had been Verb³ by Agent

Likewise,

Active: The builder had built a mall.

Passive: A mall had been built by the builder.

Note that, no Passive formation is allowed in Past Perfect Continuous Tense.

(g) Future Indefinite

The construction of Active Voice here is –

Subject + shall / will + Verb¹ + Object

The construction of Passive Voice here is –

Subject¹ + shall / will + be + Verb³ + (by + agent)

Example:

Active: She will complete it.



Subject

will

Verb¹

Object

↓

Passive: It will be completed by her.

↓

Subject¹

will

be

Verb³

by

Agent

Likewise,

Active: The minister will address the gathering.

Passive: The gathering will be addressed by the minister.

Note that, no Passive formation is allowed in Future Imperfect Tense.

(h) Future Perfect

The construction of Active Voice here is –

Subject + shall / will + have + Verb³ + Object

The construction of Passive Voice here is –

Subject¹ + will / shall + have + been + Verb³ + (by + agent)

Example:

Active: She will have bought a laptop.

↓

Subject

shall / will

+ have

+ Verb³

Object

↓

Passive: A laptop will have been bought by her.

↓

Subject¹

will

have been

Verb³

by

Agent

Likewise,

Active: Jack will have completed the project in time.

Passive: The project will have been completed by Jack in time.

ACTIVE AND PASSIVE OF MODAL VERBS

The constructions in Active and Passive are as follows.

Active: Subject + modal + Verb¹ + Object

Passive: Subject¹ + modal + be + Verb³ + (by + agent)

Example:

Active: You can sing this song.

↓

Subject

modal

Verb¹

Object

↓

Passive: This song can be sung by you.

↓

Subject¹

can

be

Verb³

by

Agent

Likewise,

Active: You must finish it.

Passive: It must be finished by you.

t Note that, can, could, may, might, shall, should, will, would, must, ought to, used to, need not, dare not, etc. are Modal Auxiliary Verbs.

Passive of Verbs with two Objects

There are a few Verbs which can take two Objects.

Example:

(i) She gave me some sweets.

(ii) You appointed him manager.

(iii) We elected him Chairman.

(iv) They gave her offer letter.

In these sentences above, you will find there are two Objects.

They are:

In sentence (i), 'me' and 'some sweets' are two Objects.

In sentence (ii), 'him' and 'manager' are two Objects.

In sentence (iii), 'him' and 'chairman' are two Objects.

In sentence (iv), 'her' and 'offer letter' are two Objects.

On careful observation of these sentences, you will note that in sentence (i), 'me' is the Indirect Object, while 'some sweets' is the Direct Object. Similarly, in sentences (ii), (iii) and (iv), 'him', 'him' and 'her' are Indirect Objects, while 'manager', 'chairman' and 'offer letter' are Direct Objects, respectively.

Remember a few important facts.

(a) Verbs which take only one Object are called *Mono-Transitive Verbs*.

Examples:

They refused you.

↓

Mono-transitive Verb

↓

Object

Kavita likes you.

↓

Mono-transitive Verb

↓

Object

(b) Verbs that take two Objects are called *Di-Transitive Verbs*.

Examples:

He gifted me a bracelet.

↓

Indirect Object

↓

Direct Object

Di-Transitive Verb

↓

Indirect Object

The manager offered me an opportunity.

↓

Direct Object

Remember that, when a Verb is used in the form of Di-Transitive, it takes two Objects as you could see in the examples above. In these Objects, the one which refers to 'thing' or which gives the answer when a question is asked using 'what' is the Direct Object, while the other Object which refers to 'person' or which gives the answer when a question is asked using 'to whom' is called the Indirect Object.

Example:

She gave me a book.

Here, if we ask question as –

What did she give?

We get the answer as –

A book

Hence, the answer 'A book' is the Direct Object.

Again, if we ask question like –

To whom did she give the book?

We get the answer – Me

Here, 'Me' is the Indirect Object.

(c) There are a few Verbs which act as *Mono* and *Di-Transitive*.

Examples:

She told a fable.
 ↓ ↓
 Mono-Transitive Object

She told me a fable.
 ↓ ↓

Indirect Object Direct Object

(d) A few Verbs like – *tell, give, appoint, make, promise, elect, make, fetch, offer, present, lend, get, pay, sell, bring, take, teach, promise*, etc. can act both in the form of Mono and Di-Transitive.

Now, look at the sentence which has two Objects and is Passive. You can do so –

(i) By converting *Indirect Object* into *Subject*.

Example:

Active: He lent me some money.

Passive: I was lent some money by him.

(ii) By converting *Direct Object* into *Subject*.

Example:

Active: He lent me some money.

Passive: Some money was lent (to) by him.

Remember that, in order to convert a sentence into Passive having two Objects, generally the Indirect Object is changed into Subject, which is thought of as the best option. But, it is wrong to take for granted that it is incorrect to change Direct Object into Subject. Again, in such cases, the order of selecting the Subject in Passive depends on whom we are giving importance to.

PASSIVE OF INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES

1. The questions are of *two kinds* – One that gives 'Yes' answer and the other 'No'.

The question that begins with a helping Verb like – *does, do, did, has, have, is, are, am, can, could, may, might*, etc. and the answer of which is generally either Yes or No.

Example:

Question: Are you ready?

Answer: Yes, I am Or, No, I am not

2. Questions with 'Wh' beginning with any of the Interrogative words like – *why, who, what, how, when, where*, etc. The answer to these question cannot be given in either 'Yes' or 'No', rather they can be answered by using a complete sentence.

Example:

Question: Where do you live?

Answer: I live in East of Kailash.

Look at the rules for Passive of Yes / No questions

(a) To change questions from Active to Passive beginning with *Do / Does*.

Active: Do / Does + Subject + Verb¹ + Object?

Passive: Am/Is/Are + Subject¹ + Verb³ + by + Agent?

Example:

Active: Does he need some curry?
 ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
 Does Subject Verb¹ Object

Passive: Is some curry needed by him?
 ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
 Is Subject¹ Verb³ by Agent

(b) To change questions from Active to Passive beginning with *Did*.

Active: Did + Subject + Verb¹ + Object?

Passive: Was / Were + Subject¹ + Verb³ + by + Agent?

Example:

Active: Did he entertain you?
 ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
 Did Subject¹ Verb¹ Object

Passive: Were you entertained by him?
 ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
 Were Subject¹ Verb³ by Agent

(c) To change questions from Active to Passive beginning with *Have / Has*.

Active: Have / Has / Had + Subject + Verb³ + Object?

Passive: Have / Has / Had + Subject¹ + been + Verb³ + by + Agent?

Example:

Active: Has Anuradha sang a song
 ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
 Has Subject Verb¹ Object

Passive: Has a song been written by Anuradha?
 ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
 Has Subject¹ been Verb³ by Agent

(d) To change questions from Active to Passive beginning with *Modal Auxiliary Verbs*.

Active: Modal + Subject + Verb¹ + Object?

Passive: Modal + Subject¹ + be + Verb³ + by + Agent

Example:

Active: Can you control this situation?
 ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
 Modal Subject Verb¹ Object

Passive: Can this situation be controlled by you?
 ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
 Modal Subject¹ be Verb³ by him

(e) Passive of *Wh*-Questions

Here, by making the Passive of questions which answer in Yes / No and before which, Interrogative words are added and made into Wh-Questions.

Example:

Active: Have you broken the glass?

Passive: Has the glass been broken by you?

Now, let us add Interrogative words before these Yes / No questions.

Active: Why have you broken the glass?

Passive: Why has the glass been broken by you?
 ↓ ↓
 Interrogative word Yes / No question

That is, Interrogative words + Yes / No questions =
Interrogative questions

This rule is applicable with Interrogative words like – *why, how, when, where, what*, etc.

But, look at the Passive of the question that begins with 'who' or 'whom'.

Active: Who wrote the Sri Sai Satcharitra?

Passive: By whom was the Sri Sai Satcharitra written?
Or,

Passive: Who was the Sri Sai Satcharitra written by?

Note that, it is wrong to say – 'Whom was the Sri Sai Satcharitra written by?'

Also remember,

"..if the proposition comes at the end of the sentence or clause, then use who."

Example:

Who is that letter from? (not 'whom')

Who did you give it to? (not 'whom')

– A Remedial English Grammar for Foreign
Students by F.T. Wood

Again, look at these sentences.

Active: *Whom* have you invited to dinner?

Passive: *Who* has been invited by you to dinner?

PASSIVE OF IMPERATIVE SENTENCES

Imperative sentence is used to express – *order, request, suggestion, etc.* The sentence in an Imperative sentence begins with its Principal Verb.

Example:

Do it at once.

Save my child, please.

Or,

Please, save my child.

Look at the forms of this type.

(a) Passive of a sentence stating 'order'.

Active: Verb¹ + Object

Passive: Let + Subject¹ + be + Verb³

Example:

Active: Blow the horn.

↓ ↓
Verb¹ Object

Passive: Let the horn be blown.

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
Let Subject¹ be Verb³

Likewise,

Active: Bring a garland of rose.

Passive: Let a garland of rose be brought.

(b) Passive of a sentence that states 'suggestion' or 'advice'.

Active: Verb¹ + Object

Passive: Subject¹ + should + be + Verb³

Example:

Active: Help the poor people.

↓ ↓
Verb¹ Object

Passive: The poor people should be helped.

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
Subject¹ should be Verb³

Likewise,

Active: Love the unprivileged.

Passive: The unprivileged should be loved.

Likewise,

Active: Refrain from the seven deadly sins.

Passive: The seven deadly sins should be refrained from.

(c) Passive of the sentence that expresses 'request'.

In the sentence that expresses 'request' in the Active Voice, Verb¹ + Object is used. But, there is the usage of 'please', 'kindly', etc. which are used in the beginning or at the end of the sentence.

Example:

(i) Please, help that blind man cross the road.

(ii) Kindly, vacate the room as soon as possible.

(iii) Do it for me, kindly.

(iv) Send a mail at the earliest, please.

Let us see how the Passive of these sentences are made.

As a rule, 'You are requested to' is added to convert them into Passive.

The construction will be – You are requested to + Verb¹ + Object

Examples:

(i) You are requested to help that blind man cross the road.

(ii) You are requested to vacate the room as soon as possible.

(iii) You are requested to do it for me.

(iv) You are requested to send the mail at the earliest.

Note that, it is wrong to use – 'You are kindly requested to'. Problems are often created by using 'kindly' before 'requested'.

PASSIVE OF INFINITIVE (To + VERB¹)

Look at the sentences.

A. (i) I am to do it.

(ii) You are to serve her.

(iii) They are to buy a home.

(iv) She was to tell the story.

In these sentences, there is the usage of Infinitive (to + Verb¹).

Remember that when there is –

Subject + To be + Infinitive

i.e., Subject + am / is / are / was / were + to + Verb¹

its Passive forms along with it. Like –

Subject¹ + am/is/are/was / were + to + be + Verb³

Now, following this rule, we can convert the sentences given above as :

(i) It is to be done by me.

(ii) She is to be served by you.

(iii) A home is to be bought by them.

(iv) The story was to be told by her.

B. But, if there is a Noun after the Subject and an Infinitive after that Noun, and also the Subject agrees to the Verb, the Passive of this Infinitive cannot be made.

Example:

I have go a work to do.

↓ ↓ ↓
Subject Noun Infinitive

In this sentence, 'I' is the Subject; 'work' a Noun and 'to do' is the Infinitive used after the Noun. The Subject 'I' is himself the doer of the 'work'. Therefore, the Passive of this Infinitive cannot be made.

Note that, in some of the books, it has been stated that the Passive of 'to be + Infinitive' can be made. Like - 'to read' can be made into 'to be read', which is wrong.

"If the subject of the sentence is the person who has to do the action, the active infinitive is used."

Example:

I have work to do.

It is wrong to say - I have work to be done.

- Practical English Usage by Michael Swan

Likewise, look at the examples below.

I have two shirts to press.

It is wrong to say - 'to be pressed'

I have a poem to write.

It is wrong to say - 'to be written'

C. Infinitive Passive is not allowed if there is a Noun + Infinitive after the Subject and also the action is being done by another person.

Example:

Kalidasa was a scholar to be admired.

It is wrong to say - Kalidasa was a scholar to admire.

Note that, problems are often created in context to this rule.

D. If the Subject of a sentence is a Noun or a Pronoun which does not do any action and rather any action can be performed on them then after those Noun or Pronoun there is the usage of Passive Infinitive and not Active Infinitive.

Examples:

These colours are to be painted.

It is wrong to say - 'are to paint'

The scout is to be guided.

It is wrong to say - 'is to guide'

E. Passive can be done of the construction -

There + To be + Noun + Infinitive

Example:

Active: There is a lot of work to do.
 ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
 There To be Noun Infinitive to Verb¹

Passive: There is a lot of work to be done.
 ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
 There To be Noun To be Verb³

Likewise, look at the other example.

Active: There are five rhymes to recite.

Passive: There are five rhymes to be recited.

Therefore, after There + To be, there is the usage of Infinitive in both Active and Passive voice.

Passive of 'Have / Has / Had + To + Verb¹'

Look at the construction.

Active: Subject + have / has / had + to + Verb¹ + Object

Passive: Subject¹ + have / has / had + to + be + Verb³ + (by + Agent)

Example:

Active: He has to lend some money.
 ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
 Subject has to Verb¹ Object

Passive: Some money has to be lent by him.
 ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
 Subject¹ has to be Verb³ by Agent

Likewise,

Active: You have to choose a design.

Passive: A design has to be chosen by you.

PASSIVE OF STATIC VERBS

There are a few Verbs which instead of stating the action signifies the state of mind or feeling and which also does not make use of 'by' after them and rather takes an Appropriate Preposition.

Example:

Active: I know her.

Passive: She is known to me.

Active: The trick of the magician amused me.

Passive: I was amused by the trick of the magician.

Look at a few Verbs along with the Prepositions used after them.

surprised at	amazed at
known to	startled at
vexed at	annoyed with (somebody)
annoyed at (something)	contained in
included in	embodied in
crammed with	filled with
decorated with	ornamented with
thronged with	moved by

Example:

Active: She annoyed me.

Passive: I was annoyed with her. (It is wrong to say 'by her')

Active: Your behaviour annoyed me.

Passive: I was annoyed at your behaviour. (It is wrong to say 'by your behaviour')

Note that, problems are often created in questions related to the usage of these Prepositions. So try to remember the usage of these Prepositions.

Passive of Verb + Preposition + Object

There are a few Verbs which takes a Preposition after them before taking the Object.

The construction is as under.

Subject + Verb + Preposition + Object

In order to create Passive of this construction, the Preposition is kept intact with that Verb.

Now look at the construction below.

Subject¹ + to be + Verb³ + Preposition + (by Agent)

Example:

Active: The CBI enquired into the case.
 ↓ ↓ ↓
 Subject Verb Preposition Object

Passive: The case was enquired into
 ↓ ↓ ↓
 Subject¹ To be Verb³ Preposition

by the CBI.
 ↓
 by Agent

But, problems are generally created by removing the Preposition after the Verb from such sentences in the Passive Voice.

Example:

The boy was laughed by most of his friends.

In this sentence, Preposition 'at' should be used after 'laughed'; because 'at' is the Preposition that is followed after 'laughed'.

The correct form of the sentence will be –

The boy was laughed at by most of his friends.

Likewise,

Active: He laughed at the beggar.

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
Subject Verb Preposition Object

Passive: The beggar was laughed at

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
Subject To be Verb³ Preposition

by him.

↓ ↓

by Agent

Let us look at a few Verbs that first take a Preposition and then the Object.

look *at* + Object

look *down upon* + Object

smile *at* + Object

mock *at* + Object

travel *by* + Object

came *on* + Object

take *for* + Object

written *in* + Object

look *after* + Object

laugh *at* + Object

ride *at* + Object

fire *at* + Object

driven *by* + Object

sing *to* + Object

ignorant *of* + Object

NARRATION

Narration means something that is narrated, an account of, detailing an event, etc. The word 'narration' is taken from the word 'narrate', which means 'to give an account or tell something'.

The other synonyms of 'narration' are – *Statement, Assertion, Declaration, etc.*

Direct Narration states the statement of person, exactly the same, spoken by him or her. This statement is put within inverted commas (" ") .

Example:

Sita said, "I have seen Hanuman."

The sentence contains the statement as said by Sita – "I have seen Hanuman", which in Direct Narration.

Indirect Narration states the statement of a person, which we analyse or interpret in our own words or just narrate or summarise the principal motive of the speaker.

Example:

Sonia said that she was late for the meeting.

The sentence focuses the statement of Sonia, which we expressed in our own words. This sentence is said to be in Indirect Narration.

Kinds of Narration

When a speech is quoted in the actual words used by the speaker, it is called the Direct Speech or Narration. But when the speech is reported in the form of a narrative, giving the substance or meaning or the words used by the speaker, without quoting his actual words, it is called the Indirect Speech or Narration.

Example:

Rahul says, "I want to visit Mumbai." – *Direct Speech*

Rahul says that he wants to visit Mumbai. – *Indirect Speech*

Some Important Facts on Narration

1. Look at the following sentence.

Raju said, "I am happy."

The first part of the sentence – 'Raju said' is called Reporting speech / Reporting clause / Reporting verb, etc.

The second part of the sentence – 'I am happy' is called Reported speech / Reported clause / Reported statement, etc.

2. Reported speech can be used at the beginning / end / middle of the sentence.

Examples:

The principal said, "The school shall remain closed for a month."

"Let's go for long drive", he said to his friends.

"Shakespeare", said the teacher, "was a world-famous dramatist".

GENERAL RULES OF NARRATION

A. Direct Narration into Indirect Narration

In order to convert Direct Narration into Indirect Narration, there are certain rules which are applicable for all kinds of sentences. These rules are called *General rules*.

1. The inverted commas (" ") used in Direct Narration are removed while changing the sentence into Indirect Narration.

Example:

Direct Narration: She says, "I am late".

Indirect Narration: She says that she is late.

(Here, inverted commas (" ") has been removed.)

2. When the Reporting Verb is in the Present Tense of Future Tense, there is no change in the Verb of the Reported Speech.

Examples:

Direct Narration: He says, "Ruchi goes early".

Indirect Narration: He says that Ruchi goes early.

Direct Narration: Kumar will say, "Prakash is always angry".

Indirect Narration: Kumar will say that Prakash is always angry.

3. When the Reporting Verb is in the Past Tense, a few changes take place in the Tense of the Verb of the Reported Speech.

(a) *Present Indefinite* changes into *Past Indefinite Tense*.

Example:

Direct Narration: You said, "I never go there".

Indirect Narration: You said that you never went there.

(b) *Present Imperfect* changes into *Past Imperfect Tense*.

Example:

Direct Narration: Saroj said, "I am willing

↓ ↓

Past Tense Present Imperfect
to go there".

Indirect Narration: Saroj said that she



Past Tense

was willing to there.



Past Imperfect

(c) Present Perfect changes into Past Perfect Tense.

Example:

Direct Narration: Manoj said, "I have bought



Past Tense



Present Perfect

a white shirt".

Indirect Narration: Manoj said that he had bought



Past Tense



Past Tense

a white shirt.

(d) *Present Perfect Continuous* changes into *Past Perfect Continuous Tense*.

Example:

Direct Narration: Prayag said to me, "I



Present Tense

have been teaching in this school for six months.



Present Perfect Continuous Tense

Indirect Narration: Prayag said to me that he



Present Tense

had been teaching in this school for six months.



Past Perfect Continuous Tense

(e) *Past Indefinite* changes into *Past Perfect Tense*.

Example:

Direct Narration: You said, "She sent me a mail".



Past Tense



Past Indefinite Tense

Indirect Narration: You said that she had sent



Past Tense



Past Perfect Tense

me a mail.

Note that, various problems related to these rules are asked in the examinations. Let us look at a few problems.

She told her servant that his work is not up to the mark.

In this Indirect Narration, instead of 'is', 'was' will be used in the sentence. This is because, the Reporting Verb 'told' is in the Past Tense.

Pressed by his students, the principal suddenly said that I am in no way responsible for the quarrel.

In this Indirect Narration, instead of 'I am', it will be 'he was', because the Reporting Verb 'told' is in the Past Tense.

(f) *Past Imperfect* changes into *Past Perfect Continuous Tense*.

Example:

Direct Narration: Megha said, "They were laughing



Past Tense



Past Imperfect

in the class.

Indirect Narration: Megha said that they



Past Tense

had been laughing in the class.



Past Perfect Continuous

(g) Like the various changes, 'can' changes into 'could', 'shall' into 'should', 'will' into 'would', 'may' into 'might'.

Remember that:

(i) The expression in the sentence in Past Perfect and Past Perfect Continuous Tense does not change at all.

(ii) If there is any Universal Truth or Habitual Truth in the Reported Speech, there is no change in the Reported Speech.

Examples:

Direct Narration: The teacher said, "The sun



Past Tense

is a star".



Present Tense

Indirect Narration: The teacher said that the



Past Tense

sun is a star.



Present Tense

Direct Narration: Mother said, "Cow gives milk".



Past Tense Present Tense

Indirect Narration: Mother said that cow gives milk.



Past Tense Present Tense

4. Changes also occur in the Pronouns of the Reported Speech. These changes are according to a formula.

S	O	N
1	2	3

(a) (This means, according to the First Person Subject, according to the Second Person Object and in Third Person No change.)

Examples:

Direct Narration: She said to me, "I am intelligent but you are fool".

Indirect Narration: She said to me that she was intelligent but I was fool.

Note that (I is First Person which according to the Subject she has changed into she; while, you is Second Person which, according to the Object me, has changed into I).

Direct Narration: You said to me, "She is honest".

Indirect Narration: You said to me that she was honest.

Note that (He is Third Person, therefore, no change has been in the sentence.)

(b) If 'we' is used for the sake of Universal Truth, then this 'we' is not changed in the Indirect narration.

Examples:

Direct Narration: *They said, "We breathe in oxygen".*

Indirect Narration: *They said that we breathe in oxygen.*

In this sentence, 'we' is not changed because, the usage of 'we' is made to refer to Universal Truth.

(c) If any *magazine, newspaper, periodical*, etc. uses *we / our / us*, etc. to represent them, then in Indirect Narration they are changed to 'it' or 'its'.

Example:

Direct Narration: *The Times of India says, "We are the leader in print media".*

Indirect Narration: *The Times of India says that it is leader in print media.*

In this sentence, 'we' and 'our' are gradually changed into 'it' and 'its'.

(d) If there is no use of Object in the Reporting Verb, but there is the usage of 'you' in the Reported Speech, then this 'you' is changed to Third Person or First Person as per requirement.

Examples:

Direct Narration: *He said, "You are culprit."*

Indirect Narration: *He said that he was guilty.*

Direct Narration: *She said, "You all are culprit."*

Indirect Narration: *She said that they all were culprit.*

Direct Narration: *He said, "You are culprit".*

Indirect Narration: *He said that I was culprit.*

Direct Narration: *She said, "You all are culprit".*

Indirect Narration: *She said that we all are culprit.*

5. When Present Tense is changed into Past Tense in the Reported Speech in Indirect Narration, there are changes in a few words, the list of which is given below.

Now changes into *then*

Come changes into *go* (but not always)

This changes into *that*

Today changes into *that day* (but not always)

These changes into *those*

Tonight changes into *that night* (but not always)

Here changes into *there*

Tomorrow changes into the next day

Hence changes into *thence*

Next day changes into the *following day*

Thus changes into *so*.

Last night changes into the *previous night*

Ago changes into *before*

Note that, if *this / here / now / today / come*, etc. are used with those *things / places / destination*, etc. which were there with the Speaker when he was talking to, no changes take place.

INDIRECT NARRATION OF ASSERTIVE SENTENCES

Let us look at a few problems based on this topic.

The lady said that she should be away from home tomorrow as Mita's friend would come to visit Mumbai.

In this sentence, instead of 'tomorrow' it should be either 'the next day' or 'on the morrow.'

Again look at these two examples.

Manisha said, "I am responsible for it".

Anurag said to Juhi, "You are punctual".

Rules

(i) *said* remains *said* or can change into *explained / remarked*, etc.

said to remains *said to*

said to can also change into *told*

Remember that -

(A) 'Told' is never used without an Object because 'tell' is a Transitive Verb. Problems are generally created by using 'told' without an Object.

Example:

She told that she was depressed.

The usage of 'told' in the sentence is wrong, because there is no Object after it. Instead of 'told', 'said' should be used to make the sentence correct.

(B) After 'said', the usage of Object without 'to' is strictly restricted. In context to this, problems are created by straightway using Object after 'said'.

Example:

She said me that she liked that designer suit.

In this sentence, 'to' should be used after 'said'. That is, instead of 'said me' you should say 'said to me' or just you can use 'told' instead of 'said'.

(ii) Inverted Commas (" ") are removed and 'that' is used after the Reported Speech.

Example:

Direct Narration: *Shoma said, "I am going to Kolkata".*

Indirect Narration: *Shoma said that she was going*

↓

that

to Kolkata.

(iii) The Tense of the Verb of the Reported Speech is changed as per requirement in the sentence.

Example:

Direct Narration: *Anurag said to Reha, "Juhi is punctual".*

Indirect Narration: *Anurag said to Reha that Juhi was punctual.*

Or,

Indirect Narration: *Anurag told Reha that Juhi was punctual.*

(iv) Full Stop (.) is used at the end of the sentence.

Example:

Direct Narration: *Narayan said to Priya, "I will go and take Roma back".*

↓

Full Stop

Indirect Narration: *Narayan said to Priya that he will go and take Roma back.*

↓

Full Stop

DIRECT NARRATION OF INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES

Look at the following sentences.

She said to me, "Are you coming with me?"

He said to me, "Do you go to school?"

You said to me, "What are you planning to do?"

Ranu said to Bhanu, "Why were you late?"

Priyanka said to Rahul, "Why did you travel by train?"
Now, let us look at the rules.

Rules

(i) 'Say' is changed into – *enquire (of), want to know (of), etc.*

Example:

Direct Narration: Kaushik said to me, "Who teaches you Maths?"

Indirect Narration: Kaushik wanted to know



'Said' is changed to 'wanted to know' who teaches me Maths.

(ii) Inverted Commas (" ") are removed from the sentence.

Example:

Direct Narration: Siddharth said to Ajay,
"How did you learn to drive a car?"

Indirect Narration: Siddharth enquired Ajay of how did he learn to drive a car.

(Inverted Commas (" ") have been removed)

(iii) If there is the question in the Reported Speech whose answer can come as "Yes" or "No", we should use 'if' or "whether" before the Reported Speech.

Direct Narration: Piyali said to Raju, "Do you know the arrival time of Mumbai Rajdhani?"

Indirect Narration: Piyali asked Raju if / whether he knows the arrival time of Mumbai Rajdhani.

(iv) But if there are 'Wh' – Question (beginning with – *who / what / how / where / when / why, etc.*) then before the Reported Speech i.e., Interrogative word, there will be no usage of any Conjunction.

Example:

Direct Narration: You said to your sister, "What are you writing?"

Indirect Narration: You asked your sister what she was writing.

Note that, problems are generally created in context to this rule, where 'that', 'as to', etc. are put before Interrogative words.

Example:

She asked me that how I got time to practice all these sums.

In this sentence, instead of 'that how I got', you should use 'how I got'; i.e., before the Interrogative word 'how' the usage of 'that' should not occur, which is wrong.

The correct form of the sentence will be –

She asked me how I got time to practice all these sums.

(v) The Reported Speech is changed into Assertive sentence (i.e., the order of Verb + Subject is changed into Subject + Verb).

Example:

Direct Narration: Lali said to me, "What

will you do today?"



Verb Subject

Indirect Narration: Lali asked me what

I would do this day.

↓ ↓
Subject Verb

Note that, several silly problems are created on this rule to vex students.

Example:

The guard of the company asked me who do I want to meet in the office.

In this sentence, instead of 'who do I want', you should use 'whom I wanted'.

The correct sentence will be –

The guard of the company asked me whom I wanted to meet in the office.

Remember these rules related to the example given above.

(i) In Indirect Narration, the sentence is always in Assertive, therefore, the Assertive of 'do I want' will be 'I want'.

(ii) As the Reporting Verb 'asked' is in the Past Tense, therefore, there will also be the usage of Past Tense in the Indirect Narration. Because of this reason, instead of 'I want' it will be 'I wanted'.

(iii) Instead of 'who' it will be 'whom'; because, 'who' does the work of a Subject and 'whom' Object.

(iv) The sign of Interrogation (?) is replaced with a Full Stop (.) in the sentence.

Example:

Direct Narration: Raja said to me, "Who have you visited in the morning?"

Indirect Narration: Raja asked you whom you had visited in the morning.

Remember that, at the end of the sentence in Direct Narration, there is always the sign of Interrogation (?), while at the end of sentence in Indirect Narration there is always a Full Stop (.).

Now, let us follow these rules to implement their usage and try the first five sentences given at the beginning of this topic.

(i) She asked me if / whether I was coming with her.
Or,

She wanted to know if I was coming with her.

(ii) He asked me if / whether I go to school.

(iii) You asked me / wanted to know what I was planning to do.

(iv) Ranu asked Bhanu why he had been late.

(v) Priyanka wanted to know from Rahul why had he travelled by train.

Remember that, when the Reporting Verb is in the Past Tense and there is the presence of was / were in Reported Speech, this was / were changes into 'had been'.

INDIRECT NARRATION OF IMPERATIVE SENTENCES

Look at the instincts of Imperative sentence.

(i) Imperative sentence is used for stating *Order, Request, Negative Command, etc.*

(ii) Imperative sentence begins with the Principal Verb in the sentence, like – *Go, Bring, Make, etc.*

(iii) Imperative sentence also begins with a Negative Command like – *Do not* or *Don't*.

Here are few rules associated with these inferences on Imperative sentence.

Rules regarding Order / Request

(i) According to the meaning of *say / said*, the Verbs also change their forms; like – *ask / asked, beg / begged, tell / told, order/ordered, request/requested, go/went*, etc.

(ii) Inverted commas (" ") are removed and 'to' is used before the Principal Verb.

(iii) The Pronouns of the Reported Speech are changed as per requirement.

(iv) The usage of *kindly, please, etc.* are strictly restricted in Indirect Narration.

Here are the examples on the above laws.

(i) Rakhi said to her assistant, "Bring a glass of water".

(ii) Raveena said to her brother, "Please, bring me an ice cream."

(iii) My father-in-law said to me, "Join my company and become the CEO."

(iv) The teacher said to the children, "Do not walk in the sun."

Rules regarding Negative Command

(a) As per requirement, *say / said* is changed to *ask/asked, tell / told, remind / reminded, etc.* in the sentence.

(b) Inverted commas (" ") are removed and instead "not + to + Verb¹" is used. For example, 'do not go' changes into 'not to go', 'do not make' into 'not to make', 'do not sing' into 'not to sing', etc.

Example:

My friend advised me to do not go to Bangalore for joining Yahoo.

In this sentence, the usage of 'to do not go' is wrong. It should be 'not to go'. The correct form of the sentence will be:

My friend advised me not to go to Bangalore for joining Yahoo.

(c) The construction: (*forbid / forbade*) + Object + to + Verb¹ is used.

Example:

Direct Narration: She said to me, "Don't watch this movie".

Indirect Narration:

She forbade me to watch this movie.
 ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
 forbade Object to Verb¹

Again, the construction like – prohibit / prohibited, prevent / prevented + Object + from + Verb (+ ing) is used.

Example:

Direct Narration: You said to your brother, "Stop eating too much".

Indirect Narration: You prohibited / prevented your brother from eating too much. (prohibited / prevented + Object + from + Verb⁴)

Now that we have learnt all these rules, let us take a note of those examples given in Indirect Narration under the topic 'Rules Regarding Order / Request.'

(i) Rakhi said to her assistant, "Bring a glass of water".

Rakhi ordered her assistant to bring her a glass of water.

(ii) Raveena said to her brother, "Please, bring me an ice cream."

Raveena requested her brother to bring her an ice-cream.

(iii) My father-in-law said to me, "Join my company and become the CEO."

My father-in-law requested me to join his company and become the CEO.

(iv) The teacher said to the children, "Do not walk in the sun."

The teacher asked the children not to walk in the sun.
 Or,

The teacher forbade the children to walk in the sun.

Usage of 'Let' in Indirect Narration

Inferences on 'Let'.

(i) The usage of 'Let' is only 'to suggest' and sometimes 'to propose'.

(ii) 'Let' is used to mean 'to allow'.

Here are a few rules on the context when 'let' is used to refer 'to advice' or to 'state a proposal' in Indirect Narration.

Rules

(a) 'say' and 'said' are changed into *propose / proposed, suggest / suggested, etc.*

(b) If there is an Object in the Reporting Verb, 'to' is used after *proposed / suggested* to make use of the Object.

Examples:

He suggested	to	me.
↓	↓	↓
suggested	to	Object

They proposed	to	you.
↓	↓	↓
proposed	to	Object

(c) After removing the Inverted commas (" "), 'that' is used before the Reported Speech.

(d) Verb¹ is used by joining 'should' after the Subject in the Reported Speech.

Examples:

Direct Narration: He said to his cousin, "Let's go to see the Taj."

Indirect Narration: He proposed to his cousin that he should go to see the Taj.

Direct Narration: We said to the people, "Let's punish the thief."

Indirect Narration: We suggested to the people that we should punish the thief.

Note that, if there is no Object after 'propose' or 'suggest', then directly there is the usage of Verb⁴ (Verb + ing).

Example:

Direct Narration: She said, "Let's go to the café."

Indirect Narration: She suggested going to the café.

That is, the constructions will be:

(i) Subject + propose / suggest + to + object + that + should + Verb1 +

Example:

You proposed / suggested to your friends that you should have exercise in the morning.

(ii) Subject + propose / suggest + Verb (+ ing) + ...

Example:

You proposed / suggested having exercise in the morning.

Remember that, the construction: propose / suggest + to + Verb¹ is never used.

Therefore, if we say – She proposed to me to have dinner outside – is wrong.

We should say – She proposed to me that we should have dinner outside.

Here are a few rules on the context when 'let' is used to refer 'to allow' in Indirect Narration.

Rules

(a) 'say to' and 'said to' are changed into order / ordered, request / requested, etc. according to the meaning.

(b) The Reported Speech is started by using 'to allow'.

(c) 'To' is used before the Principal Verb.

Examples:

Direct Narration: Radha said to her boss, "Let me go home as I am unwell."

Indirect Narration: Radha requested her boss to allow her to go home as she is unwell.

Direct Narration: The officer said to the guard, "Let the beggar come in."

Indirect Narration: The officer ordered the guard to allow the beggar to come in.

Note that, sometimes, 'let' is used as 'to let' in Indirect Speech.

Example:

Direct Narration: Prakash said to his wife, "Let the children watch television."

Indirect Narration: Prakash ordered his wife to let the children watch television. Or,

Prakash told his wife that the children might be allowed to watch television.

INDIRECT NARRATION OF OPTATIVE SENTENCES

Look at these sentences.

(i) Father said, "May God bless you."

(ii) Granny said, "May you succeed in the examination."

(iii) They said, "Long live the king."

(iv) We said, "Lord save the earth from evil."

Optative sentences is used to express wishes, desires, curses, etc.

Rules

(a) 'said' is changed into prayed / wished, etc.

(b) Inverted commas (" ") are removed and before the Reported Speech 'that' is used.

(c) Reported Speech (where there is Verb + Subject) is changed into Subject + Verb, i.e. made into Assertive sentence.

(d) As per requirement, 'should' and 'might' are used and alongwith them the usage of Verb¹.

Now following these rules, let us treat those sentences given at the beginning of this topic.

(i) Father prayed that God might bless me.

(ii) Granny wished / prayed that I might succeed in the examination.

(iii) They wished / prayed that the king should live long.

(iv) We wished / prayed that the earth should be saved by God from evil.

INDIRECT NARRATION OF EXCLAMATORY SENTENCES

Look at these sentences.

(i) Piyush said, "What a splendid beauty it is!"

(ii) The coach said, "Well done! my players."

(iii) Pankaj said, "Alas! I am undone."

(iv) The businessman said, "Ah! I am ruined."

A few inferences on Exclamatory sentences:

(a) Exclamatory sentence is used to express something wonderful or surprising. For expressing in Exclamatory sentences – *What / How / Alas / Ah / Oh / Hurrah*, etc. are used at the beginning of the sentence.

(b) The sentence in Exclamatory sentence always remains Assertive (i.e. Subject + Verb).

(c) The sign of exclamation (!) is used in Exclamatory sentences.

There are certain rules used in Exclamatory sentence.

Rules

(a) According to the meaning and intention, 'said' in the Reporting Speech of the sentence is changed into – *exclaimed with joy / exclaimed with sorrow / exclaimed with grief / exclaimed with regret / shouted with applause / cried out / eagerly wished*, etc.

(b) Replacing Inverted commas (" "), 'that' is used before the Reported Speech.

(c) As per requirement, sometimes the Verb is changed into Tense.

(d) At the end of the sentence, full stop (.) is used replacing the sign of exclamation (!).

Now following these rules, let us treat those sentences given at the beginning of this topic.

(i) Piyush exclaimed that it was a splendid beauty.

(ii) The coach shouted with applause that you players have done well.

(iii) Pankaj exclaimed with sorrow that he is undone.

(iv) The businessman exclaimed with regret that he is ruined.

MUST AND INDIRECT NARRATION

Look at these sentences.

(i) The teacher said, "We must love our country."

(ii) His grandpa said, "One must do one's duty."

When, by the usage of 'must' it refers to 'morality', 'universality', etc., no change does take place in the usage of 'must'. Therefore, abiding by the rules of Indirect Narration, the Indirect Narration of the above given two sentences would be –

(i) The teacher said that we must love our country.

(ii) His grandpa said that one must do one's duty.

Note that, when 'must' is used in the sense of Present or Future, then according to the meaning of the sentence, 'must' changes into *has to / had to / will have to / would have to*, etc.

Example:

Direct Narration: Jolly said, "I must go to office at once."

Indirect Narration: Jolly said that she had to go to office at once.

Direct Narration: Naren said, "I must discuss the project with my senior tomorrow."

Indirect Narration: Naren said that he would have to discuss the project with his senior the next day.

TRANSFORMATION OF SENTENCES

The English language is so vivid that the same meaning may often be expressed in many ways. This gives rise to the various forms a sentence may take in expressing the same idea.

For example,

- (i) Nature say, 'God is good'
- (ii) Nature exclaims, 'How good is God!'
- (iii) Nature proclaims the goodness of God.
- (iv) The goodness of God is proclaimed by nature.
- (v) Nature never ceases to proclaim the goodness of God.
- (vi) That God is good is proclaimed by nature
- (vii) We find the goodness of God in nature
- (viii) The goodness of God is quite large on the face of nature
- (ix) Nature teaches us that God is good
- (x) Nature teaches us the goodness of God

Thus, to *transform* or *convert* a sentence is to rewrite it to change its form without any change of meaning.

Sentences may be of various forms.

- (a) Statement or Assertive (affirmative or negative); Question or Interrogative; Desires or Imperative and Optative and Exclamatory sentences
- (b) Active and Passive
- (c) Simple, Complex, Double and Multiple (Compound)
- (d) Direct and Indirect (Narration)

Statement: Questions: Exclamations

Interchange of form is not possible in all cases. An Assertive sentence or Statement (e.g. Sin leads to ruin) cannot be turned into an *Imperative* or *optative* one.

A *Statement* or *Assertive* sentence can be changed into a *Question* or an *Interrogative sentence*.

Assertive : Everybody knows that the earth is round.

Interrogative : Who does not know that the earth is round?

But an *Interrogative* sentence which merely asks for information cannot be changed into an *Assertive* one : *why did you go there?*

There may, however be sentences which are *Interrogative* only in form but are *Exclamatory* in Character. Such sentences can be converted into *Assertive* ones.

For example,

Interrogative : Did I not help you?

Assertive : I did help you.

Interrogative into Assertive

- Interrogative* : Can a leopard change his spots?
- Assertive* : A leopard cannot change his spots.
- Interrogative* : Who will not help a man in distress?
- Assertive* : Everybody will help a man in distress,
- Interrogative* : Can any man, by taking thought, add a cubit to his stature?
- Assertive* : No man can, by taking thought, add a cubit to his stature.
- Interrogative* : Is that the way a gentleman should behave?
- Assertive* : That is not the way a gentleman should behave.
- Interrogative* : Shall I ever forget those happy days?
- Assertive* : I shall never forget those happy days.
- Interrogative* : Who would have trusted Socrates or Coleridge to post a letter?
- Assertive* : Everybody would have trusted Socrates or Coleridge to post a letter.

Assertive into Interrogative

- Assertive* : Now here in the world will you find a mountain peak higher than Everest.
- Interrogative* : Where in the world will you find a mountain peak higher than Everest?
- Assertive* : Nobody else could have done it.
- Interrogative* : Who else could have done it?
- Assertive* : He saw someone in the house?
- Interrogative* : Did he see anyone in the house?
- Assertive* : Surely you will join us.
- Interrogative* : Am I not sure that you will join us?
- Assertive* : There is nothing wrong with me.
- Interrogative* : Is there anything wrong with me?
- Assertive* : There is nothing better than a pious life.
- Interrogative* : Is there anything better than a pious life?
- Assertive* : I am not the man to submit.
- Interrogative* : Am I the man to submit?

Exclamations and Statements

An *Exclamatory Sentence* can be converted into an *Assertive sentence*, but all *Assertive* sentences cannot be turned into *Exclamatory* sentences.

- Exclamatory* : Was any man ever immortal!
- Assertive* : No man was ever immortal.
- Exclamatory* : What a piece of work is man!
- Assertive* : Man is a wonderful piece of work.
- Exclamatory* : What an unhappy life he leads!
- Assertive* : He leads a most unhappy life.
- Exclamatory* : Oh! how desirous I am to meet you once more!
- Assertive* : I am very desirous to meet you once more.

AN INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH GRAMMAR & LANGUAGE

Exclamatory	: How beautiful is night!	Active	: They proposed to hold a meeting.
Assertive	: Night is very beautiful.	Passive	: It was proposed by them that a meeting should be held
Exclamatory	: How sweet the moonlight sleeps upon this bank!	Active	: They were conducting him to the chair.
Assertive	: The moonlight very sweetly sleeps upon this bank.	Passive	: He was being conducted by them to the chair.
Exclamatory	: O that I were young again!	Active	: The audience highly applauded his speech.
Assertive	: I wish that I were young again.	Passive	: His speech was highly applauded.
Exclamatory	: Alas! that youth should pass away!	Active	: Brutus stabbed Caesar.
Assertive	: It is sad to think that youth should pass away.	Passive	: Caesar was stabbed by Brutus.
Affirmative and Negative Sentences		Active	: The people will make him king
Affirmative into Negative		Passive	: He will be made king by the people
Affirmative	: He failed to notice me when he came in.	Active	: Who taught you grammar?
Negative	: He did not notice me when he came in.	Passive	: By whom was grammar taught you? or By, whom were you taught grammar?
Affirmative	: As soon as he came he made objections.	Active	: The king gave him a reward.
Negative	: No sooner did he come than he made objections.	Passive	: He was given a reward by the king. or, A reward was given him by King
Affirmative	: Only the evening star has as yet appeared.	Active	: The Romans expected to conquer Carthage
Negative	: None but the evening star has yet appeared.	Passive	: It was expected by the Romans that they would conquer Carthage
Affirmative	: He was a man of some intelligence.	Passive	: It is time to shut up the shop
Negative	: He was a man of no great intelligence	Active	: It is time for the shop to be shut up.
Affirmative	: Kolkata is the biggest city in India.	Passive	: The audience loudly cheered the Mayor's speech.
Negative	: There is no other city in India as big as Kolkata. or <i>There is no bigger city in India than Kolkata.</i>	Active	: The Mayor's speech was loudly cheered.
Negative into Affirmative		Passive into Active	
Negative	: I am not a little tired.	Passive	: The house had been deserted by those who lived in it.
Affirmative	: I am very tired.	Active	: Those who lived in the house had deserted it.
Negative	: There is no rose without a thorn.	Passive	: I have been shocked at his conduct.
Affirmative	: Every rose has a thorn.	Active	: His conduct has shocked me.
Negative	: We did not find the road very bad.	Passive	: John prayed to the judge that he might be pardoned.
Affirmative	: We found the road fairly good.	Active	: John prayed that the judge might pardon him.
Negative	: There could be no smoke without fire.	Passive	: Everybody was satisfied with him
Affirmative	: Wherever there is smoke there is fire.	Active	: He satisfied everybody.
Negative	: None but a Hercules could do this.	Passive	: Our purpose has been served.
Affirmative	: Only a Hercules could do this.	Active	: It has served our purpose.
Negative	: A good boy never neglects his lessons.	Passive	: Caves must be dug for them.
Affirmative	: A good boy always minds his lessons.	Active	: Others must dig caves from them.
Negative	: No one can deny that he was a great man.	Passive	: I was compelled to go.
Affirmative	: Everybody must admit that he was a great man.	Active	: Circumstances compelled me to go.
Active into Passive		Passive	: Police has arrested the thief.
Active	: They proposed to build a dam for irrigation purposes.	Active	: The thief has been arrested.
Passive	: It was proposed by them that a dam should be built for irrigation purposes.	Simple into Double or Multiple (Compound)	
Active	: The Curator of the Museum showed us some ancient coins.	Simple sentences may be converted into Compound ones by enlarging Words or Phrases into Co-ordinate clauses.	
Passive	: We were shown some ancient coins by the Curator of the Museum.	Simple	: Besides doing his own work, he helped me.
Active	: They laughed at him.	Compound	: He not only did his own work, but also he helped me.
Passive	: He was laughed at by them	Simple	: Shifting himself along the arm, he rose to his feet.
		Compound	: He shifted himself along the arm and rose to his feet.

Simple : You must work hard to pass the examination.

Compound : You must work hard or you will not pass the examination.

Simple : You may take either of the pens.

Compound : You may take this pen or you may take that.

Simple : Due to poverty he could not shine in life.

Compound : He was poor and so he could not shine in life.

Simple : For all his troubles, he is cheerful.

Compound : He is in great troubles, still he is cheerful.

Simple : He must work very hard to make up for the lost time.

Compound : He must work very hard and make up for the lost time.

Simple : To his eternal disgrace, he betrayed his country.

Compound : He betrayed his country, and this was to his eternal disgrace.

Simple : Besides robbing the poor child, he also murdered her.

Compound : He not only robbed the poor child but also murdered her.

Simple : He must work very hard to win the first prize.

Compound : He must work very hard, or he will not win the first prize.

Simple : He must not attempt to escape, on pain of death.

Compound : He must not attempt to escape, or he will be put to death.

Simple : Notwithstanding his hard work, he did not succeed.

Compound : He worked hard, yet did not succeed.

Simple : Owing to ill-luck, he met a bad accident on the eve of his examination.

Compound : He was unlucky and therefore met with bad accident on the eve of his examination.

Simple : The teacher punished the boy for disobedience.

Compound : The boy was disobedient, and so the teacher punished him.

Double or Multiple (Compound) into Simple

Double and Multiple (Compound) Sentences can be changed into Simple sentences by contracting Clauses into words or phrases

Compound : I gave him not only money but also good advice.

Simple : Besides giving him money, I gave him good advice.

Compound : Love the neighbours and be a friend to them.

Simple : Be a loving friend to the neighbours.

Compound : John did his best but could not succeed.

Simple : In spite of doing his best, John could not succeed.

Compound : Tagore was not only a poet but also a great statesman.

Simple : Besides being a poet, Tagore was a great statesman.

Compound : He not only robbed the poor child but also raped her.

Simple : Besides robbing the poor child, he raped her.

Compound : He finished his exercise and put away his books.

Simple : Having finished his exercise, he put away his books.

Compound : Not only did his father give him money, but his mother too.

Interchange of one Part of Speech for another

He *presumptuously* ignored my advice.

He *presumed* to ignore my advice.

Few historians have written in a more *interesting* manner than Gibbon.

Few historians have written more *interestingly* than Gibbon.

We passed an anxious hour.

We *passeed* an hour anxiously.

He examined the document carefully.

He examined the document with care.

I see him everyday.

I see him daily

The Act made the negro slaves free.

The Act gave freedom to the negeros slaves.

There is a slight *difference* between the two shades.

The two shades are slightly different.

He showed generosity even to his enemies.

He was generous even to his enemies.

He fought bravely.

He put up a brave fight.

That kind of joke does not *amuse* me.

That kind of joke does not give me any *amusement*.

It *costs* twelve paise.

The *cost* is twelve paise.

He has *disgraced* his family.

He is a disgrace to his family.

The treaty of Salbai should be *remembered* as one of the landmarks in the history of India.

The treaty of Salbai is worthy *rememberance* as one of the landmarks in the history of India.

Simple to Complex

Simple sentences may be changed into Complex sentences by enlarging words or phrases into Subordinate clauses.

Simple : He confessed his crime.

Complex : He confessed the crime he had committed.

Simple : Fortunately he had a strong sense of humour.

Complex : It was fortunate that he had a strong sense of humour.

Simple : Let him enjoy his hard-earned money.

Complex : Let him enjoy the money which he earned by hard work.

Simple : I wish your success.

Complex : I wish that you may succeed.

<i>Simple</i>	: His failure is almost certain.	<i>Simple</i>	: The duration of my stay is doubtful.
<i>Complex</i>	: That he will fail is almost certain.	<i>Complex</i>	: Except that he hurt his hand, he was lucky.
<i>Simple</i>	: They would no doubt, send out all the soldiers in search of the party.	<i>Simple</i>	: Except for the hurt to his hand, he was lucky.
<i>Complex</i>	: There is no doubt that they would send out all the soldiers in search of the party.	ADJECTIVE CLAUSE	
<i>Simple</i>	: Only first class men need apply.	<i>Complex</i>	: I have no advice that I can offer you.
<i>Complex</i>	: Only those who are first class men need apply.	<i>Simple</i>	: I have no advice to offer you.
<i>Simple</i>	: The news is too good to be true.	<i>Complex</i>	: The place where Buddha was cremated has recently been discovered.
<i>Complex</i>	: The news is so good that it cannot be true.	<i>Simple</i>	: The place of Buddha's cremation has recently been discovered.
<i>Simple</i>	: Our teacher is a man of spotless character.	<i>Complex</i>	: The son who was his chief pride in his old age is dead.
<i>Complex</i>	: Our teacher is a man who bears a spotless character.	<i>Simple</i>	: His son, the pride of his old age, is dead
<i>Simple</i>	: Truly speaking, he never came here	<i>Complex</i>	: The exact time when this occurred has not been ascertained
<i>Complex</i>	: The truth is that he never came here	<i>Simple</i>	: The exact time of the occurrence has not been ascertained.
<i>Simple</i>	: A man's modesty is in inverse proportion to his ignorance.	<i>Complex</i>	: Youth is the time when the seeds of character are sown.
<i>Complex</i>	: The more ignorant a man is, the less modest he is	<i>Simple</i>	: Youth is the time for the formation of character.
Complex into Simple		ADVERB CLAUSE	
<i>Complex</i>	: A child who has lost its parents is to be pitied.	<i>Complex</i>	: The Rajah was annoyed that he had not carried out his orders.
<i>Simple</i>	: An orphan is to be pitied.	<i>Simple</i>	: The Rajah was annoyed at his not having carried out his orders
<i>Complex</i>	: If you fail, you must make another attempt.	<i>Complex</i>	: Everything comes if a man will only work and wait.
<i>Simple</i>	: Failing this attempt, you must make another.	<i>Simple</i>	: Everything comes to a diligent and patient man.
<i>Complex</i>	: The report that the king was dead is false.	<i>Complex</i>	: I am pushing my business wherever I can find an opening.
<i>Simple</i>	: The report of the king's death is false	<i>Simple</i>	: I am pushing my business in every possible direction.
<i>Complex</i>	: Wherever you go, I shall follow you.	<i>Complex</i>	: He will not pay unless he is compelled.
<i>Simple</i>	: I shall follow you everywhere.	<i>Simple</i>	: He will pay only under compulsion.
<i>Complex</i>	: A boy who neglects his studies, cannot progress.	<i>Complex</i>	: You have succeeded better than you hoped.
<i>Simple</i>	: A boy neglecting his studies cannot progress.	<i>Simple</i>	: You have succeeded beyond your hopes.
<i>Complex</i>	: Where there is a will, there is a way.	<i>Complex</i>	: When the cat is away the mice will play.
<i>Simple</i>	: A will has a way.	<i>Simple</i>	: In the absence of the cat the mice will play.
<i>Complex</i>	: Father desired that I should go.	<i>Complex</i>	: He does not always speak as he thinks.
<i>Simple</i>	: Father desired me to go.	<i>Simple</i>	: He does not always speak his thoughts.
<i>Complex</i>	: That he should resign was beyond doubt.	Double and Multiple (Compound) into Complex	
<i>Simple</i>	: His resignation was beyond doubt	<i>Compound</i>	: Listen and I will tell you all.
NOUN CLAUSE		<i>Complex</i>	: If you listen, I will tell you all.
<i>Complex</i>	: He said that he was innocent.	<i>Compound</i>	: She must weep or she will die.
<i>Simple</i>	: He declared his innocence.	<i>Complex</i>	: Unless she weeps, she will die.
<i>Complex</i>	: That you are drunk aggravates your offence.	<i>Compound</i>	: He was very tired and therefore he fell asleep.
<i>Simple</i>	: Your drunkenness aggravates your offence.	<i>Complex</i>	: He fell asleep because he was very tired.
<i>Complex</i>	: Tell me where you live.	<i>Compound</i>	: Beware of pick-pockets and there will be no trouble.
<i>Simple</i>	: Tell me your address.	<i>Complex</i>	: If you are beware of pick-pockets, there will be no trouble.
<i>Complex</i>	: It is pity that we should have to undergo this disgrace.	<i>Compound</i>	: Leave this room or I will compel you to do so.
<i>Simple</i>	: Our having to undergo this disgrace is a pity.	<i>Complex</i>	: Unless you leave this room, I will compel you to do so.
<i>Complex</i>	: It is proclaimed that all men found with arms will be shot.		
<i>Simple</i>	: According to the proclamation all men found with arms will be shot.		
<i>Complex</i>	: He remarked how imprudent the boy was		
<i>Simple</i>	: He remarked on the boy's imprudence		
<i>Complex</i>	: How long I shall stay is doubtful		

Compound : Jones is a rich man but he is not honest.
Complex : Jones is not honest although he is a rich man.
Compound : Search his pockets and you will find the watch.
Complex : If you search his pockets, you will find the watch.
Compound : Do as I tell you, or you will regret it.
Complex : Unless you do as I tell you you will regret it.
Compound : The lion was wounded but not killed.
Complex : The lion was not killed although he was wounded.

Complex into Double or Multiple (Compound)

Complex : If you speak, you shall die.
Compound : Speak and you will die.
Complex : If you do not speak, you shall die.
Compound : Speak or die.
Complex : He failed although he did his best.
Compound : He did his best, still he failed.
Complex : I have lost the pen which my father gave me.
Compound : My father gave me a pen and I have lost it.
Complex : I am certain you have made a mistake.
Compound : You have made a mistake, and of this I am certain.
Complex : I am glad that he has recovered from illness.
Compound : He has recovered from illness, and I am glad of it.
Complex : We can prove that the earth is round.
Compound : The earth is round, and we can prove it.
Complex : I have found the book that I had lost.
Compound : I had lost a book, but I have found it.
Complex : As soon as he got the telegram, he left in a taxi.
Compound : He got the telegram, and immediately he left in a taxi.
Complex : He worked hard so that he might win the prize.
Compound : He aimed at winning the prize and worked hard.

Other ways of Transformation of Sentences

(a) Sentences with the Adverb *too* can be transformed as follows :

Simple : He speaks too fast to be understood.
Complex : He speaks so fast that he cannot be understood.
Simple : This tree is too high for me to climb.
Complex : This tree is so high that I cannot climb it.
Simple : He was too small to reach up to the branches of the tree.
Complex : He was so small that he could not reach up to the branches of the tree.
Simple : She is too clever not to see through your tricks.
Complex : She is so clever that she will be through your tricks.
Simple : These mangoes are too cheap to be good.
Complex : These mangoes are so cheap that they cannot be good.

Simple : The news is too good to be true.
Complex : The news is so good that it cannot be true.
Simple : It is never too late to mend.
Complex : It is so late that it cannot be mended.
Simple : He is too late to hear the first speech.
Complex : He is so late that he can not hear the first speech.
Simple : The boy is too old for a whipping.
Complex : The boy is so old that he cannot whip.

(b) *Sentences expressing a Condition.*

Double : Work hard and you will succeed.
Complex : If you work hard, you will succeed.
Complex : Should you work hard, you will succeed.
Compound : Unless you work hard you will not succeed.
Simple : It is never too late to mend.
Complex : It is never so late for anything that it cannot be mended.

(c) *Sentences expressing Concession or Contrast.*

He is honest though poor.
 Poor as he is, he is honest.
 Although he is poor, he is honest.
 In spite of his poverty, he is honest.
 For all his poverty, he is honest.
 Admitting that he is poor, he is honest.
 He is poor; all the same he is honest.

(d) *Interchange of Degrees of Comparison.*

Positive : This book is not as good as that.
Comparative : That book is better than this.
Positive : Birds do not fly as fast as the aeroplane.
Comparative : The aeroplane flies faster than birds.
Positive : I am as strong as he.
Comparative : He is not stronger than I.
Positive : This razor is not as sharp as that one.
Comparative : The razor is sharper than this one.
Positive : Few historians write as interestingly as Joshi.
Comparative : Joshi writes more interestingly than most historians.
Comparative : Ram is better than any other boy in the class.
Positive : No other boy in the class is as good as Ram.
Positive : No other metal is as useful as iron.
Comparative : Iron is more useful than any other metal.
Superlative : Iron is the most useful of all metals.
Comparative : Shakespeare is greater than any other English poet.
Superlative : Shakespeare is the greatest of the English poets.
Comparative : This newspaper has a bigger circulation than any other morning paper.
Superlative : This newspaper has the biggest circulation among morning papers.
Superlative : This building is the tallest in the city.
Comparative : No other building in the city is taller than this.

Superlative	: The pacific is the deepest ocean.
Comparative	: The Pacific is deeper than any other ocean.
Superlative	: Abraham Lincoln was the greatest American ever lived.
Comparative	: Abraham Lincoln was greater than any other American ever lived.
(e) Interchange of one part of speech for another.	
Preposition	: I have not seen him since Monday last.
Adverb	: I saw him on Monday last but I have not seen him since then.
Adverb	: He gets up early in the morning.
Adjective	: He gets up in early morning.
(f) Replacement of one word by another.	
1. But : help : who not : which not : unless :	
	I could not but feel sorry for you.
	I could not help feeling sorry for you.
	There is no mother but loves her child.
	There is no mother who does not love her child.
	But for your help, I could not have finished the work.
	Unless you helped me, I couldnot have finished the work.
2. Preferable : better : superior : prefer :	
	Better to reign in hell than serve in heaven.
	To reign in hell is preferable to serving in heaven.
	I prefer riding to in heaven swimming.
	I like riding better than swimming.
	He is better than his friend in merits.
	His merits are superior to his friend's.
3. Or : unless :	
	Leave this room or I will compel you to do so.
	Unless you leave this room, I will compel you to do so.
4. Therefore : because :	
	He was very tired and therefore feel asleep.
	He fell asleep because he was very tired.
5. Steal : rob :	
	He stole my money.
	He robbed me of my money.
6. Passed : failed :	
	He passed in all subject except mathematics.
	He failed only in mathematics.
7. Twelve : twelfth :	
	I am twelve yyears old.
	I am in my twelfth year.
8. Twice : double :	
	My bag is twice as bit as yours.
	My bag is double the size of yours.
9. Arrive : arrival :	
	Wait till I arrive.
	Wait till my arrival.
Combination of two or more Simple sentences into a single Simple Sentence :	
(i) By using a Participle	
	For example,
	He jumped up. He ran away.

- Jumping up he ran away.
 - He was tired of play. He sat down to rest.
 - Tired on being tired of play he sat down to rest.
- (ii) By using a Noun or a Phrase in Apposition
- For example,
- This is my friend. His name is Tom.
 - This is my friend Tom.
 - William I defeated Harold and Senlac in 1066.
 - Harold was the successor of Edward the Confessor.
 - William I Defeated Harold, the successor of Edward the Confessor, at Senlac in 1066.
 - This town was once a prosperous sea-port. It is now a heap of ruins.
 - This town once a prosperous sea-port, is now a heap of ruins.
- (iii) By using a Preposition with a Noun or Gerund :
- For example,
- The moon rose. Their journey was not ended.
 - The moon rose before the end of their journey.
 - He had failed many times. He still hopes to succeed.
 - In spite of many failures he hopes to succeed.
 - Her husband died. She heard the news. She fainted.
 - On hearing the news of her husband's death she fainted.
- (iv) By using the Nominative Absolute Construction
- For example,
- The soldiers arrived. The mob dispersed.
 - The soldiers having arrived, the mob dispersed.
 - The town was enclosed by a strong wall. The enemy was unable to capture it.
 - The town having been enclosed by a strong wall, the enemy was unable to capture it.
- (v) By using an Infinitive
- For example,
- I have some duties. I must perform them.
 - I have some duties to preform. We must finish this exercise. There are still three sentences.
 - We have still three sentences of this exercise to finish.
 - He wanted to educate his son. He sent him to Canada.
 - He sent his son to Canada to be educated.
 - He is very fat. He cannot run.
 - He is too fat to run.
- (vi) By using an Adverb or an Adverbial Phrase
- For example,
- He deserved to succeed. He failed.
 - He failed undeservedly.
 - The sun set. The boys had not finished the game.
 - The boys had not finished the game by sunset.
- Combination of two or more Simple Sentences into a single Compound sentence
- Simple sentences may be combined to form compound sentences by the use of co-ordinative conjunctions. These are of four kinds :

- (i) Cumulative;
- (ii) Adversative ;
- (iii) Alternative; and
- (iv) Illative

Let us take a few sentences :

- Night came on. The room grew dark.
- Night came on and the room grew dark.
- He is a fool. He is a knave.
- He is a fool and a knave.
- He is both a fool and a knave.
- He is not only a fool but also a knave.
- He is a fool as well as a knave.
- The wind blew. the rain fell. The lightening flashed.
- The wind blew, the rain fell and the lightening flashed.

It is found that the conjunction and simply adds one statement to another.

The conjunctions both ... and, not only.... but also, as well as are emphatic forms of and do the same work.

(i) Conjunctions which merely add one statement to another are called *Cumulative*.

For example,

- He is slow. He is sure.
- He is slow *but* he is sure.
- I was arroyed. I kept quiet.
- I was annoyed, *still* (or) *yet* I kept quiet.
- He failed. He persevered.
- He failed, *nevertheless* he perserved.
- I shall not oppose your design. I cannot approve of it.
- I shall not oppose your design; I cannot *however* approve of it.
- He was all right. He was fatigued.
- He was all right; *only* he was fatigued.

(ii) Conjunctions which express opposition or contrast between two statements are called *Adversative*.

For example,

- Make haste. You will be late.
- Make haste *or* you will be late.
- Came in. Go out.
- Come in *or* go out.
- *Either* come in *or* go out.
- Do not be a borrower. Do not be a lender.
- Do not be a borrower *or* a lender.
- Be *neither* a borrower *nor* a lender.

(iii) Conjunctions which express a choice between two alternatives are called *Alternative*.

For example,

- He was obstinate. He was punished.
- He was obstinate, *therefore* he was punished.
- I cannot see. It is very dark.
- I cannot see, *for* it is very dark.
- It is raining heavily. I will take an umbrella with me.
- It is raining heavily, so I will take an umbrella with me.

(iv) Conjunctions which express an inference are called *Illative*.

For example,

- Abdul is ill. He cannot study. He still attends school.
- Abdul is ill and cannot study, yet he still attends school.
- He saw the boy in the street. He stopped to speak to him. He gave him a rupee.
- Seeing the boy in the street he stopped to speak to him and gave him aruppe.

Combination of two or more Simple sentences into a single Complex sentence

Subordinate Clause a Noun Clause

For example,

- You are drunk. That aggravates your offence.
- That you are drunk aggravates your offence.
- He will be late. That is certain.
- It is certain that he will be late.
- You are repentant. I will not forget it.
- I will not forget that you are repentant.
- He may be innocent. I do not know.
- I do not know whether he is innocent.
- He is short-sighted. Otherwise he is fit for the post.
- Except that he is short-sighted he is fit for the post.
- The clouds would disperse. that was our hope. Our hope was cheering.
- Our hope, that the clouds would disperse, was cheering.
- The game was lost. It was the consequence of his carelessness.
- The consequence of his carelessness was that the game was lost.

Subordinate Clause An Adjective Clause

For example,

- A fox once met a lion. Th fox had never seen a lion before.
- A fox who had never seen a lion before met him.
- She keeps her ornaments in a safe. This is the safe.
- This is the safe where she keeps her ornaments.
- A cottager and his wife had a her. The hen laid an egg everyday. The egg was golden.
- A cottager and his wife had a hen which laid a golden egg everyday.

Subordinate Clause an Adverb Clause

For example,

- Queen Victoria died in 1901. The Prince of Wales thereafter became king.
- When Queen Victoria died in 1901, the prince of Wales became king.
- I waited for my friend. I waited till his arrival.
- I waited for my friend until he came.
- He fled somewhere. His pursuers could not follow him.

- He fled where his pursuers could not follow him.
Let them sow anything. They will reap its fruit.
- As men sow, so shall they reap.
You are strong. I am equally strong.
- I am as strong as you are.
He was not there. I spoke to his brother for that reason.
- As he ws not there, I spoke to his brother.
We wish to live. We eat for that purpose.
- We eat that we may live.
He was quite tired. He could scarcely stand.
- He was so tired that he could scarcely stand.
Don't eat too much. You will be ill.
- If you eat too much you will be ill.
He began late. He finished first.
- He finished first though he began late.
I shall come. My being alone is a condition.
- I shall come if I am alone.
I must know all the facts. I cannot help you otherwise.
- Before I can help you, I must know all the facts.
He is superstitious. He is equally wicked.
- He is as superstitious as he is wicked.

THE SEQUENCE OF TENSES

The *Sequence of Tenses* is the principle in accordance with which the Tense of the verb in a subordinate clause follows the Tense of the verb in the principal clause.

The *sequence of Tenses* applies chiefly to Adverb Clauses of purpose and Noun Clauses.

A Past Tense in the principal clause is followed by a Past Tense in the subordinate clause.

- For example,
- He *hinted* that he *wanted* money.
- She *replied* that she *felt* better.
- I *found out* that he *was guilty*.
- He *saw* that the clock *had stopped*.
- He *replied* that he *would come*.
- I never *thought* that I *should see* him again.
- I *took care* that he *should not hear* me.
- The *climbed* higher that they *might get* a better view.
- I *worked hard*. That I *might succeed*.

Exceptions : (i) A Past Tense in the principal clause may be followed by a Present Tense in the subordinate clause when the subordinate clause expresses a universal truth.

- For example,
- Newton *discoverd* that the force of gravitation makes apples fall.
- Galileo *Maintained* that the earth *moves* round the sun.
- Educlid *proved* that the three angles of a trinagle are equal to two right angles.
- He *said* that honesty is the best policy.
- (ii) When the subordinate clause is introduced by *than*,

even if there is a Past Tense in the principal clause, it may be followed by any tense required by the sense in subordinate clause.

For example,
He *liked* you better than he *likes* me.
He *helped* him more than he *helps* his own children.
I then saw him oftener than I see him now.
He *valued* his friendship more than he *values* mine.
A Present or Future Tense in the principal clause may be followed by any Tense required by the sense.

For example,
He *thinks* that she *is* there.
He *thinks* that she *was* there.
He *thinks* that she *will be* there.
He *will think* that she *is* there.
He *will think* that she *was* there.
He *will think* that she *will be* there.
But in sentences where the subordinate clause denotes *purpose*, if the verb in the principal clause is Present or Future the verb in the subordinate clause must be Present.

For example,
I *eat* that I *may live*.
I *shall* nurse him so that he *can live*.

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES

Simple Sentences

Two wickets fell at twenty.
Rome was not built in a day.

In these two sentences, there is only one finite verb. *Finite* means *full* i.e., a verb with a subject. Hence, a sentence that contains only one finite verb as called a *Simple Sentence*. So a simple sentence contains only one subject and one predicate.

Complex Sentences

I cam to know that six wickets had fallen before lunch.
The team that wins the toss usually chooses to bat.
When the minth-wicket partnership was broken, I felt that we might hope to win the match.

In each of these three sentences above has one Main or Principal clause and one subordinate clause or more depending on it.

All these sentences are called *Complex sentences*. Hence, a sentence that contains only one Main or Principal clause and one or more than one subordinate clause is called a *Complex Sentence*.

Double and Multiple Sentences

Actually, there are only two kinds of sentences : *Simple* and *Complex sentences*. But, others are a mixture or compound of these two kinds.

For example,

We carv's not a line *and* we raised not a stone.
Our hoards are little *but* our hearts are great.
Do *or* die. Neither a borrower *nor* a lender be.
I went in *but* missed you *and* so I left.

In these sentences, two or more co-ordinate clauses are joined by the conjunction *and*, *but*, *or* and *nor*. These are called *Double* or *Multiple sentences*.

A *Double sentence* is one which consists of two co-ordinate clauses.

A *Multiple Sentence* is one which is composed of more than two co-ordinate clauses.

Double and *Multiple* sentences are also called Compound sentences.

There are four different kinds of Dobule and Multiple sentences composed of —

(i) two or more Simple sentences.

For example,

We make our fortunes *and* we call them fate.

(ii) two or more Complex Sentences.

For example,

A custom officer discovered a passenger who had hidden a watch in his inside pocket *and* the latter made matters worse by trying to bribe the officer who happened to be very honest.

(iii) a Simple Sentence and a Complex Sentence.

For example,

He is poor *but* I know that he is honest.

(iv) a Complex Sentence and a Simple Sentence.

For example,

I told them why I stole it *but* they laughed at me.

The nature of Double and Multiple Sentences is not, however determined by the number of Subordinate Clauses in them but by the number of Co-ordinate Clauses a sentence contains.

A Double or Multiple predicate with their Single Subject makes the sentences Double or Multiple and not Simple.

For example,

The boy heard, judged and decided cases (Multiple sentence).

Note : (i) A Double or Multiple subject does nto necessarily make a sentnce Double or Multiple.

For example,

Jack and Jill went up the hill (simple sentence)

(ii) *Who*, *which* and *where* when used in a continuative sense (*who* = and he, *which* = and it, *where* = and there) are treated as Co-ordinating conjunctions and so when they join a cause to the Main or Principal clause, the sentence becomes a Compound (Double or Multiple) sentnce.

For example,

I was waiting for a friend *who* came soon.

I paid him two shillings *which* was all I had with me.

I went to the station *where* I bought a ticket.

QUICK REVIEW OF GRAMMAR

Here, we present some useful rules of grammar. You must get by rote all these rules. These will help enormously in the forthcoming exams.

n ARTICLES

The Adjectives *a* or *an* and the are usually called Articles. They are really Demonstrative Adjectives.

There are two types of articles –

1. Indefinite and 2. Definite

A/an is called the 'Indefinite Article'.

The is called the 'Definite Article'.

Use of 'A' or 'An' : Difference between 'A' and 'An'

(i) The form *a* is used before a word beginning with a consonant, or a vowel with a consonant sound :

a man, a hat, a cat etc.

a university, a European, a one way street.

(Vowel with a consonant sound)

('u' is a vowel but the pronunciation of the 'University' is / starts with a consonant sound)

(ii) The form *an* is used before words beginning with a vowel (a, e, i, o, u) or words beginning with a mute h :

an elephant, an orange.

an apple, an island

an hour

[h' is a consonant, but it is mute. The word 'hour' begins with a vowel sound. The pronunciation of 'hour' is / our]

(iii) 'An' is used before individual letters spoken with a vowel sound :

an S.D.O., an M.P., an L.L.B., an M.A.

But we use, a B.D.O., a B.A.

(Consonant letter & Consonant Sound)

Use of *A/An* :

A/An is used :

(a) Before a singular countable (i.e. of which there is more than one) when it is mentioned for the first time and represents no particular person or thing).

a cat, a dog, a visa, a flat, an ice-cream.

(b) We can also use *a/an* to talk about any one member of a class.

A doctor, a car, a spider etc.

(c) With a noun complement. This includes names of professions :

(d) In certain expressions of quantity : a lot of, a couple of, a great many, a dozen (but one dozen is also possible) a great deal of.

(e) In the vague sense of a certain; A **Salman Khan** is suspected by the

↓
(=a certain person named Salman Khan)

(f) To make a common noun of a proper noun; as,

A Daniel came to Judgement! (A Daniel = a very wise man)

(g) With certain numbers :

a hundred, a thousand

Before half when half follows a whole number.

1 $\frac{1}{2}$ kilos = one and a half kilos or a kilo and a halfg.

(h) In expressions of price, speed, ratio : 5 Rs. a kilo, sixty kilometres an hour. Four times a day.

- (i) In exclamations before singular, countable nouns :
What a foolish boy!, What a pretty girl!
Such a long queue!
What a beautiful building!
- (j) As a rule a/an is not used before uncountable nouns but there are some exceptions :
On an average, to take an interest in, to give a warning, a short time ago, to be in a temper; a wrong use of, to make a good guess at,
Have [a headache / a pain / a cold / a cough / a bath / a drink / a talk / a rest / a walk / a meal / a bear / a shame / a shave / a conservation / a good education / a knowledge / a good knowledge / a pity / a sleep / a good sleep / a dream / a chat / a quarrel / a fight / a swim / a ride / a good day / a bad day / a disagreement / a try / a go/ make /a wrong use of / a noise / a mistake] in a hurry; in a diagram, as a rule etc.
- (k) One is the Pronoun equivalent of a/an;
Did you get a ticket ?
↓
(here a means one)
— Yes, I managed to get one.

Omission of A/An

- A/an is omitted :
- (a) Before plural nouns. For example, Books, dogs, girls, cats
- (b) Before Proper Noun : Ram, Atal, India, Delhi
A/an is used before common Noun Singular Number
- (c) Before Uncountable Nouns :
Milk, oil, gold, tea etc.
- (d) But to show single item of Countable Noun, we use... a...of + Uncountable Noun'. As,
A cup of tea A bottle of milk
- (e) Before names of meals, except when there are preceded by an adjective.
- (f) Articles are often dropped in double expressions, particularly with preposition.

With Wife and fork

With hat and coat

From top to bottom

On land and sea

Arm in arm

Inch by inch

Day after day

Use of the Definite Article

The Definite Article the is used —

- (a) When we speak of a particular person or thing, or one already referred to. For example,
I like the book. (That book is known to us).
- (b) When a singular is meant to represent a whole class; as
The cow is a useful animal.
(or we may say 'Cows are useful animals')
- (c) The definite article is used when the object or group of objects is unique or considered to be unique or with certain proper names :
the Persian Gulf, the himalayas, The Ganges, the earth, the sea, the equator, the stars, the moon, The red sea, the Alps, The Indian ocean, The Bay of Bengal, The top, The bottom, The East Indies, The Andmans, The Punjab, The Sudan, The Congo, The U.S.A.

- (d) Before the names of certain books:
The Vedas, The Ramayan, The Mahabharat, The Bible, The Iliad.
- (e) Before the names of certain material nouns; Only in specified cases :
The water of the ganges.
- (f) With superlatives :
The best, the darkest etc.
- (g) 'The' is used before other proper names consisting of Adjective + Noun or Noun + of + Noun :
- (h) Before rank or title :
The Captain, The Chairman, The Principal
- (i) Before Musical Instruments :
The harmonium, The piano, The violin, etc.
- (j) The with names of people has a very limited use the + plural surname can be used to mean 'the family' :
- (k) With ordinals; as,
the first, the second, the tenth etc.
- (l) With newspaper/organisa-tion/community.
The Times of India
The Hindustan Times
The U.N.O., The W.T.O.,
The Hindu (Community)
- (m) When proper noun is used as common.
Kalidas is the Shakespeare of India.
(Shakespeare is a Proper Noun but here Shakespeare means a great dramatist)
- (n) As an Adverb with compara-tives.
- (o) Before Comparative Degree, if 'of the two' has been used with it.
- (p) The is used with a host of general expressions that refer to our physical environment — the world around us and its climate — or to other common features of our life. For example, the town, the country, the sea, the mountains, the weather (General expression)
- (q) We often use the to refer to well-known, well-defined groups of people (e.g. nationalities), even when we are talking about these in general.
The Indians, The English (The people of England not English language)
- (r) Before the names of political parties :
The Bharatiya Janata Party
The Labour Party
The Communist Party
- (s) Before 'Armed Froces' and law enforcing agencies.
the Army the Air Force
the Navy the Police
- (t) With physical positions :
the inside, the top, the back, the outside, the bottom, the front etc.
- (u) With names of branches of the Government :
the Judiciary, the legislative,
- (v) With Appositions,
Sumanji, the poet
Shakespeare, the dramatist.
Advani, the politician

ADJECTIVE

An Adjective is a word used to qualify a Noun or Pronoun:

For example : a red cover, a long time, a beautiful girl.

CLASSIFICATION

Adjectives may be classified as follows :

1. Qualitative — Wonderful, noble, intelligent, red, good, bad, beautiful, short, tall, big, small, sharp, blunt, long, lovely, handsome.
2. Quantitative — Little, some, much, any, no, none, whole, enough, half, a lot of, lots of, a great deal of, plenty of, some, enough.
3. Proper — Indian, American, English, German.
4. Numerical : (a) Definite

Cardinal — One, two, three etc..

Ordinal — First, second, third etc.

Multiplicative — Single, double, triple etc.

(b) Indefinite—Many, a great many, a good many, many a, several, various, numerous, a lot of, lots of, a great deal of, all, any, no, few, some

5. Possessive—My, our, his, her, their, its.

6. Distributive—Each, every, either, neither.

7. Demonstrative —

(a) Definite—this, that, these, those, such, the same, the other.

(b) Indefinite—a, an, a certain, certain, another, other, some, any etc.

8. Interrogative — what, which, whose, etc.

9. Exclamatory — What

What a genius!

What a blessing!

(10) Emphasizing — own, very

I saw it with my own eyes.

That is the very thing we want.

Comparison of Adjectives — there are three Degrees of Comparison :

Positive Comparative Superlative

(1)	(2)	(3)
Tall	taller	tallest
Great	greater	greatest
Noble	nobler	noblest
Happy	happier	happiest
Wealthy	wealthier	wealthiest
Hot	hotter	hottest
Fat	fatter	fattest

Difficult more difficultmost difficult

Beautiful more beautifulmost beautiful

CONJUNCTION

He sings as well as cooks

(= he not only cooks, but also sings).

He sings as well as he cooks.

(= His singing is as good as his cooking).

1. As if and as though mean the same. We use them to say what the situation seems like. As, you look as if / though you're going to kill me.

⇒ As if / as though is used to indicate imaginary case (Particularly to show that a comparison is unreal).

He walks as if he's drinking.

(Judging from his walk that he is drunk this comparison doesn't belong to the category of unreal, essentially). But,

He walks as if he were drunk. (implying he is drunk, but he is not).

⇒ An infinitive is used after such as / such --- as.

My behaviour was not such as to cause a problem.

I am not such a fool as to believe that.

⇒ We use such a statement (Not, a such statement)

Such a decision (Not, a such decision)

⇒ Such is not generally used demonstratively, to refer the things in the present situation. To express the idea, 'of the kind that I am showing you' or 'of the kind that we can see / hear now.' We prefer like this / that or this / that kind / sort of,

2. Before : Whenever before is used as a conjunction with reference to some future event, it is never followed by a Verb in the Future Tense, even if the Verb in the principal clause is future :

3. If

If is used to mean :

(i) Admitting that -

If I am dull, I am at least honest.

(ii) Whenever -

If you feel any doubt, you inquire.

(iii) On supposition,

If he is there, I shall see him.

(Here the use of 'shall' is valid, see 'Problems')

(iv) Whether,

I wonder if she comes.

4. 'And' is used after 'Both' (Not, as well as, or, else) :

Both Sita or Shyam may come today. — incorrect

Both Sita and Shyam may come today. — correct

5. 'Except' and 'Without'.

'Except' or 'without' are sometimes wrongly used for unless.

She will not come except you need her. — incorrect

She will not come unless you need her. — correct

Similarly, without is also a Preposition.

⇒ 'Whether' and 'or'

'Or' is used after whether (Not that)

I do not know that he wil come or not. — incorrect

(Whether should be used in place of that)

I don't know whether he will come or not. — correct

Tell me that whether you will return soon. —

incorrect

'That' Conjunction should never be used before a sentence is Direct Narration, nor before Interrogative Adverbs or Pronouns in Indirect Narration

⇒ 'Or' is used to introduce an alternative, you must work or starve.

⇒ 'Or' means 'otherwise'

We must hasten or night will overtake us.

⇒ 'Or' is also used between two numbers to indicate that you are giving an approximate amount :

You are supposed to polish your can three or four times a year.

⇒ 'Or' is also used to introduce a comment which corrects or modifies what you have just said : My organisation is paying rent or at least contributing to it.

⇒ 'Or' is used when you are telling someone what will happen if they don't follow your instruction or advice:

Don't put anything plastic in the oven or it will probably start meeting.

7. That

That is a Conjunction. It connects two sentences:

I know. He is wicked. (Two separate sentences)

I know that he is wicked.

That is used after some verbs, nouns, and adjectives to introduce a clause :

She suggested that I telephones you ----

That can be the complement :

The main thing is that you're satisfied.

See, the above sentence without 'that' :

The main thing is you're satisfied.

(The above sentence seems unusual).

Hence the use of 'that' as the complement is prevalent.

To express a consequence, Result, or Effect; as,

I am so weak that I cannot walk.

'That' Conjunction should never be used before a sentence in Direct Narration, nor before Interrogative Adverb or Pronoun in Indirect narration. The above sentence is in Indirect narration. 'How' is an interrogative adverb. Remember the rule of narration. 'that' or any conjunction is not used before wh-questions (where, which, what, how etc.) Hence, 'that' should be omitted.

8. But

⇒ Use of but as a conjunction :

It never rains but it pours

⇒ As an adversative conjunction of the co-ordinating class :

He is intelligent but cruel.

⇒ Note : 'Although / though but' is not used.

9. Not only - but also

Not only --- but also can go immediately before the words or expression they modify.

Not only + Verb but also + Verb (Neither not only + Noun but also + Verb nor Not only + Verb but also + Noun is possible)

Not only + Noun but also + Noun. etc.

We go there not only in winter, but also in summer.

10. When or before is used after Hardly / Scarcely:

"He had scarcely (or hardly) heard the news before (Not than) he wept aloud".

These three expressions (hardly, scarcely and no sooner) can be used (often with a past perfect tense) to suggest that one thing happened very soon after another. Note the sentence structure :

hardly when / before

scarcely when / before

no sooner than

I had hardly / scarcely closed my eyes when the phone rang.

She was hardly / scarcely inside the house before the kids started screaming.

I had no sooner closed the door than some body knocked"

⇒ Therefore, from examination point of view, one should use when / before with hardly / scarcely and than with

no sooner. This rule is widely accepted in formal usage.

11. Lest

'Should' is used after lest (not may/ will).

TIME AND TENSE

Tense shows :

- (i) the time of an action,
- (ii) its degree of completeness.

A verb has three main Tenses :

- (i) the Present

- (ii) the Past and

- (iii) the Future

I write a letter to please you.

You wrote a letter to my brother.

I shall write a letter to you.

'Write' refers to present time.

'Wrote' refers to past time.

'Shall write' refers to future time.

To each tense there are four different forms

- (i) Simple, (ii) Continuous,

- (iii) Perfect,

- (iv) Perfect Continuous

PRESENT TENSE

Simple Present (Present Indefinite)

Structure :

Sub + V₁ / V₅ +

Sub + is / are / am + Complement

The simple present tense is used :

- (i) To express general truths; as,

The earth revolves round the sun.

- (ii) To express a habitual action; as,

I go to school daily.

I get up before sunrise.

- (iii) In vivid narrative, as substitute for the simple past; as,

Immediately the minister hurries to New Delhi.

- (iv) To introduce quotations; as,

Vivekananda says, 'To me every particle of my motherland is holy'.

- (v) It is used, instead of the Simple Future Tense, in clause of time and of Condition : When, as soon as, after in case, as long as, if, unless, until, till etc. as,

If he comes we shall go to Delhi.

Present Progressive / Imperfect / Continuous

Structure : Subject + is / am / are / + V₄ (V+ing) +.....

As — I am reading a book.

↓ ↓ ↓

Sub. am V₄ (V+ing)

The Present Continuous is used:

- (i) For an action going on at the time of speaking; as,

I am working.

- (ii) For an action that is planned or arranged to take place in the near future; as.

IGNOU is going to launch a new postgraduate programme in English.

- (iii) For a temporary action which may not be actually happening at the time of speaking; as

I am reading 'Hamlet' (but I am not reading at this moment)

- (iv) We also use the present progressive to talk about developing and changing situations, even if these are very long lasting.

The climate is getting warmer. (Not gets warmer)

Verbs not normally used in Continuous Tenses :

hear, see, smell, notice, observe, admire (respect), adore, appreciate (value), care for (=like), desire, detest, dislike, fear, hate, like, loathe, love, mind (care), respect, value, want, wish, agree, appreciate (=understand), assume, believe, expect (think), see (think), sure, certain, forget, know, mean, perceive, realize, recall, recognize, recollect, remember, see through, suppose, think (= have an opinion), trust (=believe, have confidence in), belong, owe, own, possess, appear, concern, consist, contain, hold (=contain), keep (=continue), matter, seem, signify, sound (=seem / appear), please, refuse, forgive, hope, imagine, mean, cost, resemble, require, suffice.

I am loving you. - incorrect

I love you . - correct

I am hating her. - incorrect

I hate her. - correct

It is sounding queer. - incorrect

It sounds queer. - correct

Exception to the rule :

Feel, look, smell, taste, see, hear, think, assume and expect are used in the continuous forms under following circumstances :-

Present Perfect

Structure : Sub + have / has + V₃ + Use of has / have

The present perfect is used :

- (i) To indicate completed activities in the immediate past; as,

I have just finished the book.

Note : Forms of verb

V ₁	V ₂	V ₃	V+ing	V+ies/s
go	went	gone,	going	goes
Read	read	read	reading	reads.
write	wrote	written	writing	writes
Reach	reached	reached	reaching	reaches

- (ii) The present perfect tense is used for recent actions when the time is not mentioned :

Have you read 'Macbeth'? I have read the booklet but I do not understand it.

- (iii) To express past events when we think more of their effect in the present than of the action itself; as,

The lift has broken down. (We'll have to use the stairs)

- (iv) To denote an action beginning in the past and continuing upto the present moment; as,

He has lived here for five years.

We have not seen sonali for several days.

- (v) Use present perfect with the following adverbs :

Just, often, never, ever (in questions only)

So far, till now, yet (in negatives and questions only) already, since - phrases.

With, today, this week, this month etc.

He has just gone out?

Present Perfect Continuous

Structure :

Subject + have / has + been + V₄ (V+ing) + (for / since + time)

- (i) The present perfect tense is used to indicate an action which began at some time in the past and is still continuing; as

I have been living in Delhi since 1986.

He has been playing for hours.

- (ii) To Indicate the event which has been finished now means its effect is continuing :

They have been drinking a lot.

Simple Past Tense (or Past Indefinite)

Structure :

(i) Subject + V₂ +

(ii) Subject + was / were + complement

Affirmative : I worked.

Negative : I did not work.

Interrogative : Did I work?

Affirmative : You worked.

Negative : You did not work.

Interrogative : Did you work?

He / she / it worked. He / she / it did not work. Did he / she / it work?

The simple past is used :

- (i) To indicate an action completed in the past. It is often used with adverbs or adverb phrases of past time. For example

I saw him yesterday.

Do not use was / were + V₂

I was saw him yesterday.

- incorrect

I saw him yesterday. - correct

'Was / Were' is used only with complements.

(ii) Sometimes it is used without an adverb of time.

I learnt English in London.

(iii) It is used for past habits :

He always carried a notebook.

Always, daily, every day, every month, used to, every year, once a week / month / year etc. are used to indicate the habits of the past.

Past Imperfect (Past Conti-nuous) or Past Progressive

Structure : SUBJECT + was / were + V₄ (V + ing).....

The past continuous tense is used :

- (i) To denote an action going on at sometime in the past. The time of action may or may not be indicated.

It was getting darker.

At eight he was having breakfast.

- (ii) With always, continually etc. for persistent habits in the past.

He was always working.

Affirmative : He was working.

Negative : He was not working.

Interrogative : Was he working?

Affirmative : You were working.

Negative : You were not working.

Interrogative : Were you working?

Structure :

Negative : Sub + was / were + not + V₄ (V + ing)

Interrogative : Was / were + Sub + V₄ (V + ing) ... ?
('was' is used) ('were' is used)

Past Perfect Tense

Structure : (Sub + had + V₃ +)

Use :

(i) The past perfect is the past equivalent of the present perfect or the past perfect describes an action completed before a certain moment in the past; as,

I had seen her last three years before.

(Indicator : an action completed before a certain moment in the past)

(ii) Past perfect is used with 'I wish', 'as if', 'as though' to indicate the unfulfilled desire, condition, wish of the past. As,

I wish I had passed in civil services Exam.

(iii) Present perfect tenses in direct speech become past perfect tenses in the indirect speech provided the introductory verb is in the past tense :

He, said, 'I have been in Darbhanga for ten years' = He said that he had been in Darbhanga for ten years.

Simple past tense in direct speech usually change similarly :

She said, 'I knew O.P. very well'.

She said that she had known O.P. Very well.

Affirmative : I had written him a letter.

Negative : I had not writer him a letter.

Interrogative : Had he written a letter to me.

Structure :

Negative : Sub + had not + V₃ +

Interrogative : Had + Sub + V₃ +?

Past Perfect Continuous

Structure :

Subject + had + been + V₄ (V+ing) + For /

Since + Time

The past perfect continuous tense is used for :

An action that began before a certain point in the past and continued up to that time; as,

It was now five and she was tired because she had been working since dawn.

FUTURE TENSE

Future Indefinite

Structure : Subject + shall / will + V₁ +

Negative : Subject + shall / will + not + V₁ +

Interrogative : Will + Subject + V₁ +?

Use of shall / will

'Shall' is used only with 'I' and 'we' and 'will' is used with all other numbers and persons :

But in Interrogative sentences 'will' is used with all the three persons (I, we, you, he, they).

* Simple Future Tense is used for :

(i) an action that has still to take place.

I shall go to Chennai tomorrow.

They will play cricket tomorrow.

(ii) When the future is coloured with intention, the going to + infinitive construction is preferred.

In case of compulsion.

(iii) Structure : Subject + has / have + to + V₁

(iv) Will must not be confused with want / wish / would.

Will expresses an intention + a decision to fulfill it :

Note : To express determination or intention we use will instead of 'shall'.

Want / wish / would like merely express desire. They do not give any information about intended actions :

(v) Structure : Subject + is / are / am / about to / to + V₁

Future Continuous

The Future Continuous is used :

(i) For an action going on at sometime in future.

(ii) It is also used for future events that are planned.

Future Perfect Tense

Structure : Subject + Shall / will + have + V₃ +

Use :

The Future perfect is used :

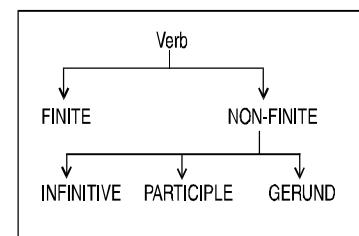
(i) to indicate the completion of an action by a certain future time;

(ii) indicate the prior information of a person about a thing.

Note : Future Perfect Continuous Tense is not much in use.

INFINITIVE, PARTICIPLE & GERUND

A Verb may be Finite (limited) or Infinite (unlimited). It is Finite when it is limited by the Number and Person of its Subject. On the other hand, a Verb which has not Subject and is therefore not limited by Number and Person, is called a Verb Infinite.



For example,

(i) He is going to school.

(ii) They are going to school.

In both these sentences going remains going. But is turns into are. This transformation of is into are is not due to the change of the Tense, but due to the change in the Number. When Subject was Singular, the Verb was is. When Subject becomes Plural (they), the Verb becomes are (Plural). So we find that the form of the Verb is (to be) is changed with the change in the Subject. It may also be proved that the Verb is (to be) is also changed with the change in the Person of the Subject. But the Verb going remains constant and it can be changed only when tense is changed. So, Verb is (to be) is Finite and going is Non-Finite. Verb is has a Subject and is limited by the Number and Person of the Subject. But going is not related to any Subject in this way.

As you know, there are three types of Non-Finite Verbs. (To some grammarians there are four types). The three types are : Infinitive, Participle and Gerund.

INFINITIVE

Infinitive can take two forms in Active Voice :

- (i) V_1
- (ii) TO + V_1

Infinitive can be used as —

(i) Subject

For example,

To swim is a good exercise.

↓

SUB.

(ii) Object

For example,

No one likes to die.

↓

OBJ.

(iii) Complement to the Verb.

For example,

He is to go.

↓

COMP.

There are two types of Infinitive - To - Infinitives and Bare Infinitives (Infinitive without to). There are some specific cases where To-Infinitives are used. Similarly, Bare Infinitives are also used under Certain Conditions. In Common Errors/Phrase Replacement, questions are asked on the uses of To-Infinitives and Bare Infinitives. Now, we shall discuss this.

1. Bare Infinitive is used with let, bid, watch, behold, see, feel, make, etc.

For example,

Correct- Let him sit there.

↓

V_1

Incorrect- Let him to sit there

↓

TO + V_1

2. After Modal Auxiliaries (can could, may, might, shall, should, will, would, must, dare not, need not) we use Bare Infinitive.

For example,

I shall go to the station.

↓

↓

SHALL V_1

But with dare, need, ought etc. we use To-Infinitive.

For example,

(i) I dare to go there

(ii) You ought to go there

3. Bare Infinitive is also used after had better, had rather, and as soon as, had sooner etc.

For example,

He had better go now.

↓

V_1

4. Bare Infinitive is used after conjunction, than.

For example,

He had better read than write.

↓

↓

THAN V_1

5. If but is used as a Preposition and is preceded by the Verb "to do", then but is followed by a Bare Infinitive.

For example,

He did nothing but wander.

↓ ↓

BUT V_1

SPLIT INFINITIVE

An adverb or adverbial phrase placed between to and V_1 is called Split Infinitive which should be avoided.

Incorrect-

Sam agreed to thoroughly go into the matter.

↓ ↓

TO ADV. V_1

Correct- Sam agreed to go thoroughly into the matter.

↓

TO V_1

This shows that if there is a TO- Infinitive in a sentence we can't use to and V_1 apart, they should be used together.

PARTICIPLE

The word that participates in the function of a Verb as well as in that of an Adjective in a sentence, is called a Participle

(i) It is a large building.

↓

NOUN

(ii) Building a house I lived in it

↓

PARTICIPLE

Broadly speaking there are two types of Participles : Present Participles and Past Participles.

1. Present Participle- A participle which is formed by adding-ing to the Verb and which states an action as going on or incomplete is called a Present Participle.

For example,

(i) Who set the ball rolling?

↓

PAR (Pre.)

(ii) The enemy caught is napping.

↓

PAR (Pre.)

The Present (or Active) Participle ending in - ing is used in forming Continuous Tense.

For example,

(i) I am going.

(ii) She was going.

2. Past Participle- A participle which is formed by adding -ed, -t, -n, -en or -ne and which denotes a completed action, is called a Past Participle.

For example,

(i) He is a retired man.

(ii) A burnt child dreads the fire.

(iii) He is a known man.

(iv) It was a rotten fish.

(v) I dislike half -done work.

In these sentences, participles are formed by adding -d, - ed, -t, -n, -en or -ne to the Verb and they state an action as completed. They are called Past Participles. The Past (Passive) Participle is used with an Auxiliary Verb to form a Perfect tense, active or passive (active, with tense of

the Verb have and Passive, with tenses of the Verb be).

For example,

- (i) I have loved (Active)
- (ii) I was loved (Passive)

PROBLEMS RELATING TO THE USES OF PARTICIPLES

1. Participle is sometimes used to connect two sentences, that is as conjunction.

2. Since the Participle is a Verb Adjective, it must be attached to some Noun or Pronoun; in other words, it must always have a proper 'Subject of Reference'.

I GERUND

A gerund is that form of the Verb which end in — ing, and has the force of a Noun and a Verb.

For example,

Reading is his favourite pas

↓

time.

VERB + NOUN

The word reading is formed from the Verb read by adding — ing. Here heading is used as the Subject. It is therefore, a Verb - Noun, and is called a Gerund. As both the Gerund and the Infinitive have the force of a Noun and a Verb, they have the same uses. Thus in many sentences either of them may be used without any special difference in meaning.

For example,

- (i) Teach me how to swim.

↓

INFINITIVE

- (ii) Teach me swimming

↓

GERUND

These two sentences convey the same meaning.

Both the Gerund and the Present Participle end in — ing. So they must be carefully distinguished. The differences are —

1. Gerund = Verb + Noun

Participle = Verb + Adjective

2. Gerund can be substituted with an Infinitive. But Participle cannot be substituted with an Infinitive.

Note : If a Noun or Noun equivalent is used before a Gerund, it should be in Possessive Case.

For example,

Incorrect- I hope you will excuse

me leaving early.

↓

OBJ. GERUND

CASE

Correct- I hope you will excuse

my leaving early.

↓

POSS. GERUND.

CASE.

Similarly,

- (i) We rejoiced at his being promoted.

- (ii) I insist on your being present.

SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT

The Number and Person of any Finite Verb is determined by the Number and Person of the Subject.

For example,

- (i) They go.
- (ii) He goes.

Here the Verb, go is in Plural form with they, a Plural Subject. And with Singular Subject he, it is in Singular form. Remember that the rules relating to Subject Verb Agreement (Number) are based on two basic concepts.

Subject Singular → Verb Singular

Subject Plural → Verb Plural

For example,

- (i) He is playing in the field.

↓

SUB.

SING.

↓

VERB

SING.

- (ii) They are playing in the field.

↓

SUB.

PLU.

↓

VERB

PLU.

RULES GOVERNING SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT

1. Two or more singular Subjects connected by and usually take a verb in the Plural.

For example,

Oil and water do not mix.

2. If two Singular Nouns refer to the same person or thing, the Verb must be Singular.

For example,

My friend and benefactor has come.

Here, though my friend and benefactor are connected by and still the Verb is Singular. This is because both these subjects refer to one person.

3. If two Subjects together express one idea, the Verb may be in the Singular.

For example,

Bread and butter is his favourite food.

4. If the Singular Subjects are preceded by each or every, the Verb is usually Singular.

Every boy and girl was ready.

5. Two or more Singular Subjects connected by "or", "nor", "either or", "neither nor" take a Verb in the Singular.

For example,

(i) Neither he nor I was there.

(ii) Either Abdul or Amir has stolen the watch.

6. When the Subject joined by or, nor are of different numbers, the Verb must be Plural, and the Plural Subject must be placed next to the Verb.

For example,

Correct- Rama or his brothers have done this

Incorrect- Rama's brothers or Rama have done this.

7. When the Subjects joined by or, nor are of different Persons, the Verb agrees in Person with the one nearest to it.

For example,

(i) Correct- Either he or I am mistaken.

(ii) Correct- Neither you nor he is to blame.

(iii) Incorrect- Either he or I is mistaken.

(iv) Incorrect - Neither you nor he are to blame.

8. When Subject differing in number, or person, or both, are connected by and, the Verb must always be in the Plural; and of the First Person, if one of the subjects is of that person; of the second person, if one of the Subjects is of the that person and none of the first.

For example,

(i) He and I are well.

(ii) My father and I have lived here five years.

(iii) You and he are birds of the same feather.

(iv) You and I have done our duty.

9. A Collective Noun takes a Singular Verb when the collection is thought of as a whole; a Plural Verb when the individuals of which it is composed are thought of.

For example,

(i) The committee was agreed on the main question.

(ii) India have scored 250 for three wickets.

10. Some Nouns which are Plural in form, but Singular in meaning take a Singular Verb.

For example,

The news is true.

11. Some Nouns which are Singular in form but Plural in meaning, take a Plural Verb.

For example,

According to the present market rate twelve dozen cost one hundred rupees. ↓

PLU.

12. When a Plural Noun comes between a Singular Subject and its Verb, the Verb is often wrongly made to agree with the nearest Plural Noun instead of with the real Subject. We should guard against this error and say. For example,

(i) Each of the sisters is clever.

(ii) Neither of the men was very tall.

(iii) A variety of pleasing objects charms the eye.

(iv) The quality of the mangoes was not good.

13. Words joined to a singular Subject by with, together with, in addition to or as well as, etc., are parenthetical and therefore do not affect the number of the Verb.

For example,

(i) The chief, with all his men, was massacred.

↓ ↓

SING VERB SING

(ii) Rama, and not you, has won the prize.

↓ ↓

SUB SING. VERB SING.

14. The Verb "to be" takes the same case after it as before it.

For example,

(i) He said to them; it is I; be not afraid.

(ii) It was you who did it for me.

15. When the Subject of the Verb is a Relative Pronoun care should be taken to see that the Verb agrees in Number and Person with the antecedent of the Relative Pronoun.

For example,

I, who am your friend, will guard your interest.

16. The Verb in a sentence remains in Singular, if the Subject is everyone, someone, some-body, nobody, anybody, no one, everyone, anyone, everything, something,

nothing or anything.

For example,

(i) Something is better than nothing

↓ ↓
SUB. VERB
SING.

(ii) Everybody among your friends likes playing.

17. The Verb takes the Plural form if the Subject is many, both, few or a few.

(i) Both are happy.

↓ ↓
SUB. VERB
PLU.

(ii) Many were invited but a few have come. ↓

↓ ↓
SUB VERB SUB VERB
PLU. PLU.

18. Both of, a few of or many of is followed by a Plural Noun or Noun Equivalent and a Plural Verb as well.

For example,

Many of the trees are green.

↓ ↓
NOUN VERB
PLU. PLU.

19. Many, a great many or a good many is generally followed by a Plural Noun and a Plural Verb.

For example,

A great many boys are sitting here.

↓ ↓
NOUN VERB
PLU. PLU.

But, what is to be noted is "Many a" is followed by a Singular Noun and a Singular Verb.

For example,

Many a pen is red.

↓ ↓
NOUN VERB
SING. SING.

20. Both Noun and Verb used after a number of or a large number of are in Plural Number.

For example,

A number of girls have passed.

↓ ↓
NOUN VERB
PLU. PLU.

But, note that, the number of is followed by a Plural Noun and a Singular Verb.

For example,

The Number of the buses is increasing.

↓ ↓
NOUN VERB
PLU. SING.

21. If a Countable Noun is used after some, some of, all, all of, enough, most, most of, great deal of, lots of, a lot of or plenty of, then this Noun should be in Plural and also followed by a Plural Verb.

For example,

(i) All Men are mortal.

↓ ↓
NOUN VERB
COUNT. PLU.

PLU.

But in case, the Noun is an Uncountable Noun, Both Noun and Verb should be in Singular.

(i) Some money is needed

↓

NOUN VERB
(UNCOUNT. SING.
SING.)

(ii) Lots of milk is available.

↓

NOUN VERB
(UNCOUNT. SING.
SING.)

22. If a Countable Noun is used after half of, one third of, two thirds of or three fourths of, then this Noun takes the Plural form and is followed by a Plural Verb.

For example,

Half of the hotels are closed.

↓

NOUN VERB
(COUNT. PLURAL
PLURAL)

23. More than one is always followed by Singular Noun and Singular Verb.

More than one room is vacant.

↓

↓

NOUN VERB

Note- But, after the formation —

MORE + PLURAL NOUN + THAN ONE

the verb is always in Plural Number.

For example,

More teachers than one are late.

↓

↓

↓

MORE NOUN THAN VERB

24. If there or it is used as Introductory Subject, then the Verb used after it is related to the Noun used after the Verb.

For example,

(i) There was a king.

(ii) There were two kings.

25. If a "NUMERAL + PLURAL NOUN" denotes a definite amount, distance, deposit, weight or height, etc, then the Verb used must be in Singular.

For example,

Two thousand rupees

↓

↓

↓

NUMERAL NOUN
PLU.

is a handsome amount.

↓

VERB

SING.

(ii) Ten tonnes of coal is enough for me.

PREPOSITION

Preposition : Word governing (and usually preceding) a Noun or Pronoun and expressing a relation to another word, as in : 'the man on the platform', 'came after dinner', 'went by train', etc.

Prepositions may be divided into following categories as per their formation :

1. Simple preposition : of, on, up, off, to, by, at, for, per, with, in, from, etc.

2. Compound Prepositions :

(i) Prepositions formed by fixing a Preposition (Usually a=no, or be=by) to a Noun, an Adjective, or an Adverb : Above, across, along, amidst, around, before, below, beneath, between, into (in+to), besides, outside, within, without,

(ii) Two or more words habitually thrown together and ending with a simple preposition may be called compound prepositions.

They are -

By means of; because of; in fornt of, in opposition to; inspite of; on account of; with reference to; with regard to, for the sake of, on behalf of, instead of, in lieu of, in the place of, with a view to, in the event of; etc.

3. Participle Prepositions : concerning, considering, excepting, judging, regarding, respecting etc. belong to this class.

To have a clear comprehension of this topic one must have a regular practice of words associated with prepositions.

NARRATION

He said, "I am very busy now".

When the Verb in one sentence reports what is said by some speaker in another sentence, the Verb in the first sentence (He 'said') is called the Reporting Verb (R.V.), and what is said in the second sentence is called the Reported Speech.

"(I am very busy now)".

We may report the words of a speaker in two ways :

- (i) We may quote his actual words. This is called direct speech.
- (ii) We may report what he said without quoting his exact words. This is called indirect speech.

'Speech' = Narration.

He said, "I am very busy now".

— Direct

He said that he was very busy then. — Indirect

Note :

- (i) The Tense of the Reporting Verb (R.V.) is never changed.
- (ii) If the R.V. is in Present or Future Tense, the tense of the verb in the R.S. is not changed at all.
- (iii) If the R.V. is in Past Tense, the tense of the Verb in the R.S. must be changed to one or other of the four forms of the Past Tense.

Rules for Changing Direct Speech into Indirect

When the R.V. is in the Past Tense, the tense of R.S. changes according to this rule :

Simple **Present** is changed Simple **Past**

Present Progressive into **Past** Progressive

Present Perfect into **Past** Perfect

Present Perfect into **Past** Perfect

Continuous Continuous

Simple Past into Past Perfect

Past progressive into Past Perfect

Continuous Continuous

In the R.S., when the present tense is changed into the past, an Adjective, Verb, or Adverb expressing nearness is similarly changed into the expressing distance.

Thus as a general rule we change:

(A)	(B)
Now	→ then
This	→ that
These	→ those
Ago	→ before
Thus	→ so
Here	→ there
Hence	→ thence
To-day	→ That day
Tomorrow	→ the next day
Yesterday	→ the previous day/ the day before
Last night	→ the previous night/ the night before
Next week	the following week

If the tense of the R.S. changes, the following words also change

(A)	(B)
Shall	should
Will	would
Can	could
May	might
Am/is	was
Are	were
Makes	made

Would help would have helped

Note : Universal or habitual facts can be expressed only in the Simple Present (Present Indefinite)

For example

He said, "The earth moved round the sun." — Incorrect

He said, "The earth moves round the sun." — Correct

He said, "Honesty is the best policy." — Direct

He said that honesty is the best policy. — Indirect

In direct speech the R.S. begins with capital letter, but in Indirect the R.S. begins with small letters, barring a few exception (as, 'I')

Indirect Narration of Assertive Sentences

He said, "Man is mortal".— Direct

The R.S. of the sentence bears universal fact :
"Man is mortal".

He said (1st Part of the sentence) is in past tense. According to rules, the tense of the R.S. Changes, if the R.V. is in the Past Tense. But, if the R.S. is a universal fact (i.e. in simple present tense), the tense of R.S. does not change. Thus, both the parts of the given sentence remain unchanged while changing it from direct to indirect. The only change can take place is the use of that between the R.V. and the R.S. and inverted commas (" ") will be deleted.

He said that Man is mortal.
— Indirect

General rules for changing the Direct speech of Interrogative Sentences into the Indirect Speech.

* R.V. 'Say' is changed into ask, enquire (of), want to know (of).

* Inverted commas (" " or ' ') deleted.

* If the R.S. is Yes/No question, if / whether is used before the R.S. in the Indirect Speech. As,

* He said to me, "Is Gopal Your brother?" - Direct.
He asked me if Gopal was my brother. - Indirect
If the R.S. is Wh-question (the R.S. beginning with who / what / how / where / when / why), no conjunction is used before the R.S. As,

He said, "where is the book?"

- Direct

He asked me where the book was. - Indirect

* The R.S. becomes Assertive.

Interrogative R.S. changes into Assertive R.S.

Verb + Subject → Subject + Verb

As, Nitu said to me, "When will he sleep?"

Nitu asked me when he would sleep.

* Will changes into would

Shall changes into should

* In the end ?' (Mark of Interrogative) is deleted and full stop (.) is used instead of '?'

* Note : Do not use 'asked to'. Use object after 'ask' - ask me, asked him etc.

General rules for changing the Direct Speech of Imperative sentences into the Indirect speech :

* Imperative sentence has 'Order', 'Request', 'Negative command'.

* This type of sentence begins with - Go, Bring (with verb)

* Negative command begins with 'do not' or 'don't.'

As,

He said, "Don't be foolish".

His friend said to him, "Join his party". etc.

Rules regarding order / request :

* Say / said is changed into order / ordered, request / requested; ask/ asked, beg / begged, tell / told etc.

* Inverted commas deleted

* 'to' is used in front of the R.S.

* Kindly / please is not used in the Indirect speech, because we do not use kindly / please with request.

Rules regarding Negative Command

* Say / said is changed into ask / asked, tell / told, remind / reminded, as per need.

* 'do' is avoided in the Indirect speech.

* Negative word 'Not' is used before 'to'.

* Please / Kindly is not used in the Indirect speech.

As,

Mohan said to me, "Do not forget to tell her". - Direct

Mohan told / asked / reminded me not to forget to tell her. - Direct I advised him

not to go abroad for further studies. - Correct

* Remember,

Forbid / Forbade + Object + to + V₂

Prohibit / prohibited, prevent / prevented + Object + From + V(ing)

Sita said to him, "Don't go out".- Direct

Sita forbade him to go out.- Indirect

* Rules for changing the sentences beginning with let from the Direct to the Indirect :

- (a) Regarding 'to suggest', 'to propose' (i.e. when 'let' is meant for 'to suggest' or 'to propose')
- * Say / said is changed into propose / proposed; suggest / suggested.
- * If there is an object in the R.V., the object is used after adding 'to'—to proposed / suggested. As,
Suggested to her.
Proposed to me.
- * 'that' is used in front of the R.S. instead of inverted commas (" ")
- * (Should + V₁) is used after the subject of the R.S.
- * If there is no object after the R.V., we use (V+ing) after suggest / propose.

Remember :

For the structure having an 'Object' after the R.V.

Sub + Propose / suggest + to + Object + that + Sub
(sub of the R.S.) + Should + V₁

But, for the structure having no object after the R.V.:

Subject + Propose / suggest + (V+ing)

Jyoti said, "Let us go home".

- Direct

First of all, we notice, there is no object after the R.V. (i.e. said). Hence we change 'said' into 'suggested'.

Jyoti suggested.....

If there is no object after 'suggested', there will be (V+ing) after 'suggested' (i.e. go+ing)

Jyoti suggested going home.

- Indirect

Now, another example,
her friends, "Let us go home". - Direct

Jyoti said to

Jyoti proposed / suggested to her friends that they should go home. - Indirect

Oh! How did this change take place? Exercise! (Of brain).

Remember the structure of the sentence beginning with 'let' and its changed from in the Indirect speech :

Sub + Propose / suggested + to + Object + that + Sub
(Sub of the R.S.) + Should + V₁

Note : Do not use 'to' after propose / suggest.

Use of 'let' in the context of 'to allow'.

Rules :

- * Say to / said to is changed into order / ordered, request / requested, as per need.
- * We begin the R.S. with 'to allow'.
- * 'To' is used in front of the main verb of the R.S.
- * Sometimes 'let' is changed into 'to let' and is used in the sentence.

They said to the teacher, "Let us go home". - Direct

They requested the teacher to allow them to go home

Optative Sentences

Rules for changing the Direct Speech into the Indirect Speech

- * Optative sentences have wishes / desires / curses etc. As, People said, "God save the king".
- * Said is changed to prayed / wished.
- * 'That' is used in front of the R.S.
- * Inverted commas deleted

* The R.S. in the Direct (Having verb + sub) is changed into the R.S. in the Indirect (Sub + verb) and it becomes Assertive.

Optative = Verb + Sub

Assertive = Sub + Verb

* Should / might is used in the Indirect.

Remember : Should + V₁

= Should go

Should come etc.

* Use pray / prayed with 'God', 'Almighty'.

Exclamatory Sentences

* Generally exclamatory sentences begin with Alas / Ah / How / Hurrah / Oh / What.

* Sentences are in Assertive (i.e. Subject + Verb)

* Sign of Exclamation (!) is used As, You said, "Well done! my friends".

Rules for changing from Direct into Indirect :

* 'Said' is changed into exclaimed / exclaimed with joy / exclaimed with sorrow / exclaimed with grief / exclaimed with regret/ shouted with applause / cried out / eagerly wished, according to 'feeling'.

* Inverted commas (' ' or " ") deleted

* 'That' is used to connect the R.V. and the R.S.

* Sign of Exclamation (!) is changed into Full Stop (.).

* Great / very can also be used as per need.

For Example :

He said, "What a pity!" - Direct

He exclaimed that it was a great pity. - Indirect

If the R.V. is in the past tense, the R.S. will also be in the past tense.

Sentences with question tags

* Example of question tags -

He said to me, "you are going to the cinema, aren't you?"

* In Indirect speech we leave out question tags (i.e. question tags should not be used in Indirect speech)

* Otherwise, we apply the process, used for changing Interrogative sentences.

As,

He asked me whether I was going to the cinema.

-Indirect

Sentences with 'must', 'mustn't' or 'needn't'.

* If 'must' reflects the feeling of natural law or universal truth, 'must' is not changed in the Indirect speech.

If 'must' indicates present / future meaning, must is changed into had to / would have to / has to / will have to etc.

* Mustn't and needn't are generally not changed in the Indirect Speech.

* 'Said' is not changed. (But 'told' can also be used).

* 'that' is used to connect the R.V. and the R.S.

* We use 'respectfully' and delete, sir/madam etc. in the Indirect speech.

Rupa said, "Sir, May I go home?"

- Direct

Rupa respectfully asked whether he could go home.

COMPREHENSION

Preparation for competitive exams is no easy task. The approach and strategy should be well in place so that you can achieve maximum gain in limited time. Comprehension is an important segment that tests the ability of an individual to understand the language, his knowledge of words and how nicely can an examinee understand the given passage. Bigger things are difficult to handle as we do not proceed in a directed fashion. In fact, you end up messing up with things so it applies same when it comes to cracking lengthy and difficult comprehension passages at competitive exams. This part is in fact very easy but many fail to fix it since they fail to follow the rules defined to approach it. Many of us simply leave this section or just do guess work blindly. This happens as we stay in the convention that it takes lot of time to solve.

Here are few tips that help you to find the right answer choices with greater accuracy and with in relatively less amount of time.

1. Understand the context of the passage and the situation of the passage. Capture the whom, why, when aspects in the passage.

2. Domain of the passage – Find out to which subject or discipline is the passage related to e.g., is it related to Science or Technology or Literature and so on.

3. Type of the passage – Know what the content of the passage is whether it is an extract of an article, research paper or an event or news.

These things help you to set your mind and think it in those terms with in no time. Now that you have identified what it is related to exactly, remember these standard rules that are common and apply to levels and kinds of passages.

- (i) Read the questions first and remember the things the examiner is asking so that you read only those paragraphs related to those. Now proceed to the reading of the passage.
- (ii) Find and understand the main outline and idea of the passage. This can be done by reading the first two sentences of each paragraph which tell you about what this paragraph consists of. Read the starting and ending of every part.
- (iii) Now read a bit more in detail say a sentence more or search for key words of only those asked in questions.
- (iv) Do not try to analyze, make your conclusions and answers questions. Go with the ideology and boundary of the passage. Do not make assumptions.
- (v) When the question asks you to guess like about your opinion or suitable title to this passage then answer that question based on choices which are either too general or direct to the point.
- (vi) The words that convey emotions in the passage tell you about the opinion of the author of the passage if it is an article based passage. You can judge about the author's mood and tone to answer the questions.
- (vii) Keywords are the best ways to find answers if you can scan through the lines of the passage fast. Such words are like nouns or included as phrases. At least find closely related words that mean the same as asked in question.

(viii) If the question asks you for the meaning of a word or a phrase in the passage which might you new or familiar then make use of the context. Read the whole sentence which has that word and understand its meaning then answer.

Besides these, it is essential for you to improve your word power in order to understand the passage thoroughly. Your entire answers depends on how well have you understood the passage. Having a grasp over difficult words will assist you to comprehend the passage in less time. This will not only help you save time but also help you to answer appropriately. Reading of newspapers, books and magazines helps a candidate to increase his knowledge domain and also aid in improving vocabulary. While reading the passage you can underline or mark the important words so that you can quickly summarize the comprehension. This will be beneficial to save time and get the hang of the passage. Also, when you are answering the questions, you can quickly go through these important words to write correct answers. It is necessary for you to important parts of the passage that provides answers to a lot of questions. When you are giving a section reading, you can just simply focus on these important parts which will provide a clear picture. You must answer the questions correctly therefore, it is very important for you to know the important parts in a passage which gives answers to the questions.

A Few Specifics About How To Attempt Comprehensions: Comprehensions may contain the topic about science, social, politics, general, financial, etc. It contains about 5-10 questions to answer and some antonyms and synonyms based on the passage having some bold words. So, to give answer of those questions does not need you to be expertise in the either field, just you have to read out the passage with meaningfully and mark the important sentences, phrases, etc.

Note down the points specified below to find out the ways of how to tackle a comprehension at ease.

1. Read the passage and quickly jump to the short answered questions, like antonyms, synonyms, to give title of passage, etc. It is better to leave the questions to answer at last, because antonyms and synonyms take a second to solve and questions take a minute.

2. If you are familiar to any passage related to your knowledge and your academics, then quickly read out that one and solve the following questions of that passage. It will take less time and you will be accurate.

3. By the time you are reading the passage, figure out the tone/idea/inference/situation of the passage, it will help to find the answers quickly. Use a pencil to underline the specific sentences and phrases/words.

4. There is always a question about the main idea of the passage. Then look at the starting and end of the passage and try to summarize the paragraph to get the main idea of the passage. It will ask about the main idea of that passage.

5. When it is asked that to give a suitable title of the passage then watch out for choices that are too specific or broad. Sometimes, the title is already given in the first paragraph of the passage. Use the narrow approach to find out the title. Do not think beyond the passage.

6. Some passage contains the questions about attitude, mood, tone, etc. of the passage. Then look for words that convey emotion, values and expressions. I think its not hard question to give the answer, because any passage cannot be concluded by emotions, moods, values, etc.

7. There can be a question about to give specific detail of the passage – then spot some keywords in the question and look out for those in the passage and may be those words are in the form of synonym or antonym.

8. Put yourself in place of author and think, you can apply your ideas according to the passage in the new situation. You have to find out three things from the passage, first reason, second perceive feelings and third sense a larger structure.

9. In order to count on unfamiliar words, you have to be very keen about the passage saying. Your vocabulary will be tested here. There are many unfamiliar words you will find in a passage, for that you have to look out for the meaning by searching the nearby clues.

10. Familiarize yourself with the technical terms used in describing the passage. Some passages are from science background, so be logical in thinking and organize and understand what author is saying. May be it will be a difficult question.

Well friends, now that you have learnt all the fundamental aspects of how to deal with a comprehension passage, we are sure that you can do your best in attempting the questions which will be provided along with the comprehension. Just remember the points stated above and keep cool to answer the questions correctly. Comprehension is generally presented as the first question in most of the one day competitive examinations; however the sequence might vary from Board to Board.

You can also get an input about "Comprehension", discussed in "Topic-Wise Discussion" in the beginning of the book.

EXERCISE-1

Read the following passage carefully and answer the questions given below it. Certain words/phrases are printed in bold to help you to locate them while answering some of the questions.

The essence of Gandhiji's teaching was meant not for his country or his people alone but for all mankind and is valid not only for today but for all the time. He wanted all men to be free so that they could grow unhampered into full self-realisation. He wanted to abolish the exploitation of man by man in any shape or form because both exploitation and submission to it are sin not only against society but against the moral law, the law of our being. The means to be compatible with this end therefore, he said have to be purely moral, namely unadulterated truth and non-violence. He had been invited by many foreigners to visit their countries and deliver his message to them directly but he declined to accept such invitations as, he said, he must make good what he claimed for ; Truth and Ahimsa in his own country before he could launch on the gigantic task of winning or rather converting the world. With the attainment of freedom by India, by following his method, though in a limited way and in spite of all the imperfections in its practice, the condition pre-

cedent for taking his message to other countries was to a certain extent fulfilled. And although the partition has caused wounds and raised problems which claimed all his time and energy, he might have been able to turn his attention to this larger question even in the midst of his distractions. But Providence had ordained otherwise. May some individual or nation arise and carry forward the effort launched by him till the experiment is completed, the work finished and the objective achieved.

1. What effect did partition have on Gandhiji's time and energy? His time and energy—
 - (1) remained unaffected
 - (2) were wasted a lot
 - (3) had claimed utility
 - (4) were not distracted
2. Gandhiji did not accept invitations to visit foreign countries because—
 - (1) he was not keeping good health
 - (2) he had no time from his busy schedule in India
 - (3) he did not like anything which was originated in foreign countries
 - (4) he was busy with other important tasks
3. Which of the following was a shortcoming in the practice of Gandhiji's method?
 - (1) It led to partition
 - (2) It distracted his attention
 - (3) It was not understood by the foreigners
 - (4) None of these
4. Which of the following statement (s) is/are TRUE regarding Gandhiji's teaching?
 - (A) His teaching was not meant for his country
 - (B) His teaching has a time-bound applicability.
 - (C) His teaching did not inspire the masses.
 - (1) Only A (2) Only B
 - (3) Only C (4) None of these
5. Gandhiji emphasized the moral purity of —
 - (1) means only (2) ends only
 - (3) both means and ends (4) truth alone
6. Gandhiji advocated that full self-realization could be achieved through—
 - (1) unrestricted growth which is possible only through freedom
 - (2) unhampered growth attainable through exploitation
 - (3) submission to unhampered exploitation
 - (4) giving inspiring lectures to people in foreign countries
7. Which of the following statements is TRUE in the context of the passage?
 - (1) Gandhiji wanted to abolish exploitation and encourage submission
 - (2) Gandhiji wanted every individual to achieve self-realization
 - (3) To Gandhiji, moral purity of means was more important than moral purity of ends

- (4) Gandhiji was praised even by the people who were adversely affected by the partition
8. Which of the following statement is NOT TRUE in the context of the passage?
- (1) India's freedom from the British Raj cannot be entirely attributed to Gandhiji's methods
 - (2) Converting the entire mankind to truth and non-violence was a macroscopic task
 - (3) Gandhiji's energy was consumed by the problems caused by the partition
 - (4) Gandhiji's teaching was relevant only to his time.
9. Gandhiji wanted to —
- (1) remove poverty from India
 - (2) educated masses to achieve freedom for India
 - (3) establish a just social order
 - (4) oppose the partition of India

Choose the word which is most nearly the SAME in meaning as the word given in bold as used in the passage.

10. ORDAINED

- | | |
|---------------|----------------|
| (1) requested | (2) wished |
| (3) told | (4) questioned |

11. DELIVER

- | | |
|-----------------|-------------|
| (1) transfer | (2) confer |
| (3) communicate | (4) furnish |

12. BEING

- | | |
|---------------|--------------|
| (1) existence | (2) through |
| (3) morality | (4) survival |

Choose the word which is most nearly OPPOSITE in meaning to the word given in bold as used in the passage.

13. RAISED

- | | |
|-----------------|-----------------|
| (1) developed | (2) suppressed |
| (3) accelerated | (4) disappeared |

14. GIGANTIC

- | | |
|------------------|-------------|
| (1) immeasurable | (2) massive |
| (3) negligible | (4) trivial |

15. VALID

- | | |
|----------------|-----------------|
| (1) unreliable | (2) undesirable |
| (3) timeless | (4) irrelevant |

EXERCISE-2

Read the following passage carefully and answer the questions given below it. Certain words/phrases are printed in bold to help you to locate them while answering some of the questions.

Survival is the most essential factor for every living organism. People resort to different tricks to make both ends meet. One such live instances is mentioned here. Villagers of Makhrada village believed that a witch lived in the dense forest near Makhrada. The passers by were much harassed by the witch who used to frighten them and also took their belongings. In the village there lived a young man named Dhiru who was fond of adventures. When he heard about the witch, he did not believe that it was one of the witches who ate flesh. But there was something else about the witch, which made Dhiru curious. She did not eat flesh but took away the belongings of the people. Therefore, he was keen to solve this mystery.

He set out with a bag of mangoes. He walked through the forest till it was midway. He took shelter under a shady tree and pretended to be fast asleep. However, after some time, he really fell asleep. After a while, he felt that someone was trying to snatch his bag of mangoes. Suddenly, he woke up and caught hold of the person. It was the witch who tried to frighten Dhiru and run away. But Dhiru was strong and bold enough to hold the witch fast. The witch finally surrendered. Dhiru forced her to tell him who she really was. The witch removed her mask and narrated her story. She told that she was a poor old widow and she had nobody to look after her. Therefore, she used to live in the forest, wearing a fearful-looking mask. People passing through the forest got frightened due to her appearance and took her for a witch. She then robbed the people of their belongings to make both ends meet. Dhiru took pity on her and gave her the bag of mangoes.

1. What made Dhiru curious?
 - (1) The fearful appearance of the witch
 - (2) The fact that the witch lived in the forest
 - (3) The fearful attitude of the people towards the witch.
 - (4) The distinct difference between the witch and other witches
2. Why did Dhiru enter the forest?
 - (1) NO find out the truth about the witch
 - (2) To give the bag of mangoes to the witch
 - (3) To invite the witch to the village
 - (4) To sleep under a shady tree
3. What did the witch do soon after Dhiru caught her?
 - (1) She threw away his bag of mangoes
 - (2) She tried to frighten Dhiru and run away
 - (3) She removed her mask and showed him her face
 - (4) She narrated her sad story to Dhiru
4. Which of the following qualities of Dhiru helped him to over-power the witch?
 - (1) Courage and anxiety
 - (2) Eagerness and wisdom
 - (3) Intelligence and wisdom
 - (4) Courage and strength
5. How was the 'witch' described in this passage different from other witches?
 - (1) While other witches used to frighten the people, this witch didn't
 - (2) Other witches used to take people's belongings; this witch didn't
 - (3) Other witches used to eat flesh; this witch didn't
 - (4) Other witches were not as fearful as this witch was
6. When the witch came to snatch away the bag, Dhiru was
 - (1) fast asleep under the tree
 - (2) pretending to be awake
 - (3) looking fast asleep but he was awake
 - (4) trying to remove the witch's mask

7. Which of the following made the widow look frightening?
 - (1) Her ugly face
 - (2) Her proverty
 - (3) Her lack of clearnliness
 - (4) Her mask
8. According to the author, people play different tricks in order to ...
 - (1) frighten others who are feebleminded
 - (2) expose people who lead a different life
 - (3) earn their bread
 - (4) connect both the ends of the forest
9. Which of the following is NOT TRUE in the context of the passage?
 - (1) The witch was really a fearful monster
 - (2) Dhiru succeeded in solving the mystery about the witch
 - (3) Dhiru was stronger than the witch
 - (4) The witch had no relatives to take care of her
10. The wido had nobody to support her. This made Dhiru....
 - (1) eager to solve the mystery about the witch
 - (2) bold enough to hold her fast
 - (3) feel sympathy for her
 - (4) curious to known her story

Choose the word which is most nearly the SAME in meaning as the word given in bold as used in the passage.

11. TOOK.....FOR

(1) sought	(2) remembered
(3) considered	(4) offered

12. HARASSED

(1) deceived	(2) troubled
(3) stolen	(4) frightened

13. KEEN

(1) careful	(2) perfect
(3) efficient	(4) eager

Choose the word which is most OPPOSITE in meaning of the word givne in bold as used in the passage.

14. FINALLY

(1) usually	(2) partially
(3) lately	(4) initially

15. FAST

(1) slowly	(2) lightly
(3) idly	(4) loosely

EXERCISE-3

Read the following passage carefully and answer the questions given below it. Certain words are printed in bold to help you locate them while answering some of the questions.

The balance wheel whirled and the rusty food pedal clattered up and down. The needle hopped over the smooth stitching pleats, folds and moving smoothly around the neckline. The reel of cotton thread jumped and shook on its needle stand. "Stop, you are making me dizzy", said the reel. "stop, grumbling, you foolish thing".

said the pedal. "If anyone should grumble, it is me", said the small reel inside the bobbin. When the needle moved, it took the thread from the bobbin and made stitches under the cloth "I do all the important work and here I am stuck up day and night in this stuffy box. You all have a fine time sitting there staring at the world", he continued.

"Now children", said the kindly old balance wheel, "You all know what important work the lady is doing today. She is stitching a school dress for her daughter who will be admitted in school tomorrow. We must all work hard and stitch it beautifully". "I have had enough food today. It is too hot here and I am tired of the needle poking his nose in all the time", said the small reel. "Listen my children", continued the old wheel. "I have been with this machine for about hundred years. At first we belonged to a dress maker. He made us work hard. One day this lady's grandfather come to the shop. He liked the machine and bought it. The old gentleman wanted his daughters to learn sewing but they did not use us much. Still, we were fed regularly with oil and cleaned by the servants for years. We have stood in this corner and seen many things. We saw the old gentleman die. His children then started quarrelling. Slowly they became poor. The servants were dismissed. Then one by one, the children went away and the house was closed. After many years this lady came with her husband. She had a daughter after a few years. The lady started using us after pouring oil into these old joints. She did not listen to her husband's suggestion to sell us off to a scrapdealer."

As the wheel finished everyone was quiet for some time. Then the reel said, "We are very sorry and we would rather break into pieces than let down the lady." They all continued to work till the scissors snipped the thread and the beautiful dress was ready.

1. Why was the reel of thread feeling dizzy?
 - (1) It was moving on the needle stand.
 - (2) It was being shaken by the needle.
 - (3) It was being wound with thread.
 - (4) It was made to rotate at a very fast rate.
 - (5) None of these
2. What was the lady doing on the sewing machine?
 - (1) She was stitching a dress for herself.
 - (2) She was winding cotton thread on the reel.
 - (3) She was stitching a dress to sell.
 - (4) She was stitching a school dress for her daughter.
 - (5) None of these
3. Who brought the sewing machine to the house?
 - (1) The child's grandfather
 - (2) The lady's father
 - (3) The grandfather of the child's mother
 - (4) The lady's husband's father
 - (5) None of these
4. Which of the following did not happen after the old gentleman's death?
 - (1) The infighting among his children.

- (2) The cleaning of the machine by the servants.
 (3) The gradual abandoning of the house by the children.
 (4) The old man's children becoming economically weak.
5. Who is the narrator of the story of the lady's ancestors?
 (1) The sewing machine.
 (2) The big reel of cotton thread.
 (3) The pedal.
 (4) None of these

ANSWERS AND EXPLANATIONS

EXERCISE-1

- | | | | | |
|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| 1. (2) | 2. (2) | 3. (4) | 4. (4) | 5. (3) |
| 6. (1) | 7. (2) | 8. (4) | 9. (3) | 10. (2) |
| 11. (3) | 12. (1) | 13. (2) | 14. (4) | 15. (4) |

1. (2) The effect of partition on Gandhiji finds mention in the following sentence of the passage :

"And although the partition had caused wounds and raised problems which claimed all his (Gandhiji's) time and energy"

It is clear in this very sentence that a lot of his time and energy were wasted due to partition.

2. (2) He has been invited by many foreigners to visit their countries and deliver his message to them directly but he declined to accept such invitations as, he said, he must make good what he claimed for : Truth and Ahimsa in his own country before he could launch on the gigantic task of winning or rather converting the world.

This shows that he wanted to accomplish the task of converting his countrymen first. So he declined such proposals.

This shows that he was busy in India (his own country) and could not spare time to visit abroad.

3. (4) The author did not consider Gandhiji's method from critical point of view. So, he did not mention any shortcoming of Gandhiji's method. obviously, the answer is (5).

4. (4) "The essence of Gandhiji's teaching was meant not for his country or his people alone but for all mankind and is valid not only for today but for all the time."

From this statement we can conclude :

- (i) His teaching was meant for his country.
- (ii) His teaching has not time-bound applicability.
- (iii) As it is meant for all mankind so it inspired the masses also.

Hence, we can conclude that none of these statements is correct.

5. (3) "The means to be compatible with this end therefore, he said have to be purely moral, namely unadulterated truth and non-violence".

From this premise, we can approach the truth that

Gandhiji emphasized the moral purity of both means and ends.

6. (1) The answer is contained in the following statement :

"He wanted all men to be free so that they could grow unhampered into full self-realisation".

From this statement we can say, Gandhiji advocated that full self-realisation could be achieved through unrestricted growth which is possible only through freedom.

7. (2) Gandhiji did not want to encourage submission. So the statement (1) is false.

To Gandhiji both moral purity of means and moral purity of ends are equally important. So the 3rd statement is also wrong.

Statement (4) and (5) are inconsistent with what is said or implied in the passage.

Only 2nd statement is true in the context of the passage. The second sentence of the passage produces enough evidences in its support.

8. (4) Nothing is said clearly in the passage in support or against the statement 1 and 2. Statements 3 and 5 are true as per what is/are said in the passage. Only what is said in the statement (4) is quite contrary to what is said in the passage in this respect.

9. (3) The old balance wheel.

10. (2) If some authority or power ordains something, they decide that it should happen or be in existence.

Ordain (Verb) means order or command; decide in advance. For example,

Fate had ordained that he should die in poverty.

It is very clear that, we can substitute word, ordained with wished, in the passage.

(Page 1164, Collins Combuild English Dictionary)

11. (3) Deliver (Verb) means give (a lecture, sermon, speech, etc.)

For example,

She delivered a talk on philosophy to the society.

Though the word deliver bears many other meaning, but in context to the passage, it bears the meaning stated above.

So, we can choose communicate without any hesitation.

(Page 317, Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary)

12. (1) Being (Noun) means (i) existence.

For example,

What is the purpose of our being?

(ii) One's essence or nature, self.

For example,

I detest violence with my whole being

(iii) living creature : human being.

In the passage we can substitute the word being with existence without distorting the meaning of the sentence.

(Page 97, Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary)

13. (2) Raise (Verb) means (i) to lift or move something to a higher level.

(ii) to increase the amount or level of something.

Considering the meaning the word raised conveys in the passage, we can choose suppressed.

(Page 960, Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary)

14. (4) Gigantic (Adjective) means of very great in size or extent; huge : gigantic mountain ranges.

Trivial means very little in size, mundane.

15. (4) Valid (Adjective) means well based or logical; legally effective because made or done with the correct procedure; that can be legally used or accepted.

For example,

A cheque card is not a valid proof of identity.

— Page 1319, Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary.

EXERCISE-2

1. (4) 2. (1) 3. (2) 4. (4) 5. (3)

6. (1) 7. (4) 8. (3) 9. (1) 10. (3)

11. (3) 12. (2) 13. (4) 14. (4) 15. (1)

1. (4) "When he heard about the witch, he did not believe that it was one of the witches who ate flesh. But there was something else about the witch, which made Dhiru curious".

This shows that the distinction between the witch and other witches made him curious.

2. (1) Dhiru was keen to solve the mystery. Subsequent actions of Dhiru were quided by this curiosity. So, we can say that Dhiru entered the forest to find out the truth about the witch.

3. (2) "It was the witch who tried to frighten Dhiru and run away." This shows that, soon after she was caught, the witch tried to frighten Dhiru and run away.

4. (4) "But Dhiru was strong and bold enough to hold the witch fast." This very sentence clearly indicates that it were Dhiru's courage and strength which helped him to overpower the witch.

5. (3) The important different as per the passage was : other witches used to eat flesh; this witch didn't.

6. (1) "However, after some time, he really fell asleep." The witch came after he had fallen asleep. So, the correct answer is (1).

7. (4) "Therefore, she used to live in th forest, wearing a fearful mask." So, we can conclude that the mask made the widow look frightening.

8. (3) The author syas, "People resort to different tricks to make both ends meet". From this statement we can decide in favour of option (3).

9. (1) The witch was not really a fearful monster. It was an old widow who took the role of a witch to earn her livelihood. So, the statement (1) is not true.

10. (3) feel sympathy for her.

11. (3) "Take somebody/somet-hing for" means suppose, assume or consider somebody/something to be somebody/something.

So, took for means considered. Hence the answer is (3).

12. (2) Harass (Verb) means trouble and annoy (somebody) continuously.

For example,

Political dissidents complained of being harassed by the police.

In the passage harassed bears the same meaning as troubled.

— Page 567, Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary

13. (4) Keen when used as an Adjective means eager enthusiastic etc. In the passage also keen bears the same meaning. So the answer is (5).

14. (4) Finally (Adverb) means (i) lastly; in conclusion; (ii) conclusively; decisively; (iii) at last; eventually.

If we consider the given options and the sense of the term finally in the passage we should choose initially as the antonym.

15. (1) Fast is used in the passage as an Adverb which means speedily. So, slowly is the correct antonym for fast.

EXERCISE-3

1. (4) 2. (4) 3. (3) 4. (2) 5. (4)

1. (4) Dizzy means feeling as if everything is spinning around; unable to balance, confused.

For example,

After another glass of whisky I began to feel dizzy.

In the passage, the reel of thread feels dizzy as it is rotating at a very fast rate. We know that if someone rotates speedily, he feels dizziness.

2. (4) In the passage, the balance wheel says, "She is stitching a school dress for her daughter who will be admitted in school tomorrow." From this statement it becomes clear that the lady is stitching a school dress for her daughter.

3. (3) "One day this lay's grandfather came to the shop. He liked the machine and bought it". The lady is the child's mother. So we can say that the machine was bought by the child's grandfather.

4. (2) "We saw the old gentleman die. His children then started quarrelling. Slowly they become poor. The servants were dismissed. Then one by one, the children went and the house was closed.

From this part of the passage we find that all the things mentioned in the given options were happened except (2).

5. (4) "Listen my children", continued the old wheel....."

Subsequently the old wheel narrates the story of the lady's ancestors. As none of the options contains old wheel, the answer is (5).

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