

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

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 after *There* 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 Noun Singular 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: *Numeral + 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 construction.
↓ ↓
Numerical Plural noun Plural verb

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 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:

I, <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 :

- Indefinite articles.....A/An
- Definite article.....The

(i) A or An is called the *Indefinite Article* because it leaves *indefinite* 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	Halatage	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 the Lara of India.

Kalidas is the Shakespeare of India.

11. *The* is used before ordinals.

For example,

The former The latter

The first The second

The last

But,

The Ist division —*wrong*

The IInd division —*wrong*

The IIIrd division —*wrong*

12. *The* is used 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 Sudras
The Aryanas	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 Chief Minister
The President	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	Elect	Select
Become	Appoint	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. Xaxivers.
—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	Love	Money
Death	Pride	God
Society	Parliament	Providen
Mankind		

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	Temple
Mosque	Gurudwara
Religious purpose	School
College	University
Library	Study purpose
Court	Prison
Jail As accused	
Hospital Treatment	Bed To sleep

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	Bingo		

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	Dynamos	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	Handkerchieves
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	Griefs	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, aborigines, 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, haltage, 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	Momorandum	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

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

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 : <i>habit</i>	Customs : 1. <i>habits</i> 2. <i>duties levied on imports.</i>
Effect : <i>result</i>	Effects : 1. <i>results</i> 2. <i>property</i>
Manner : <i>method</i>	Manners : 1. <i>methods</i> 2. <i>correct behaviour</i>
Moral : <i>a moral lesson</i>	Morals : 1. <i>moral lessons</i> 2. <i>conduct</i>
Number : <i>a quantity</i>	Numbers : 1. <i>quantities</i> 2. <i>verses</i>
Pain : <i>suffering</i>	Pains : 1. <i>sufferings</i> 2. <i>care, exertion</i>
Premise : <i>proposition</i>	Premises : 1. <i>propositions</i> 2. <i>buildings.</i>
Quarter : <i>fourth part</i>	Quarters : 1. <i>fourth part.</i> 2. <i>lodgings</i>
Spectacle : <i>a sight</i>	Spectacles : 1. <i>sights.</i> 2. <i>eye-glasses</i>
Letter : 1. <i>letter of the alphabet</i> 2. <i>epistle</i>	Letters : 1. <i>letters of the alphabet</i> 2. <i>epistles</i> 3. <i>literature</i>
Ground : 1. <i>earth</i> 2. <i>reason</i>	Grounds : 1. <i>enclosed land attached to house</i> 2. <i>reasons</i> 3. <i>dregs</i>

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

Singular	Plural
Air : <i>atmosphere</i>	Airs : <i>affected manners</i>
Alphabet : <i>letter</i>	Alphabets : <i>languages</i>
Advice : <i>counsel</i>	Advices : <i>information</i>
Abuse : <i>bad language</i>	Abuses : <i>languages</i>
Compass : <i>extent, range</i>	Compasses : <i>an instrument for drawing circles</i>
Force : <i>strength</i>	Forces : <i>military forces</i>
Good : <i>benefit, well-being</i>	Goods : <i>merchandise</i>
Physic : <i>medicine</i>	Physics : <i>natural science</i>
Practice : <i>habit</i>	Practices : <i>traditions</i>
Iron : <i>a kind of metal</i>	Irons : <i>fetters</i>
Light : <i>radiant</i>	Lights : <i>lamps</i>
Respect : <i>regard</i>	Respects : <i>compliments</i>
Work : <i>duty</i>	Words : <i>creations</i>

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. Columbu's.

[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, viture, 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 *masculine*.

(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	Betle		
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	Bridegroom	Bride
Lad	Lass		

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

For example,

Masuline	Feminine	Masuline	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	Vicereine	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	Duchess
Emperor	Empress	Actor	Actress
Hunter	Huntress	Master	Mistress
Marquis	Marchioness	Prince	Princess
Tiger	Tigress	Votary	Votress
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 Femines.

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
Possessive	my, mine	our, ours
Accusative	me	us

Second Person

	Singular	Plural
Nominative	thou	you
Possessive	thy, thine	your, yours
Accusative	thee	you

Third Person

	<i>Singular</i>		<i>Plural</i>	
	<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Femine</i>	<i>Neuter</i>	<i>All Genders</i>
Nominative	he	she	it	they
Possessive	his	her, hers	its	their, theirs
Accusative	him	her	it	them

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. — Correct

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*:

(a) Adjectives of Number which show *how many* are called *Cardinals* and,

(b) 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 *-est* 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 *-est*.

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 *-est*

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 rockless as gamblers.
- Few college* in India have scientific libraries.
- Few* men are free from faults.
- Fewmen* 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 'verbum' 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
	I <i>am</i> going.	I <i>am</i> glad.
Be	Tom <i>is</i> writing.	Tom <i>is</i> ready.
	You <i>are</i> loved.	You <i>are</i> right.
	I <i>was</i> reading	Bob <i>was</i> late.
	They <i>were</i> coming.	They <i>were</i> said.
	I <i>have</i> seen him.	I <i>have</i> a hat.
Have	Doll <i>has</i> left.	She <i>has</i> to go.
	I <i>had</i> seen it before.	I <i>had</i> breakfast there.
	We <i>do</i> not see air.	<i>Do</i> your duty.

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

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 doer 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.

How do you *feel*.

- (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 (herself)
 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 *forget* 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 Continuous	To have been loving	

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 :

(in the Verb to be)

	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 guard 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 participants *was* given a prize.
Neither of the men *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 loyalists *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 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, *laden* with fruit.

Driven by hunger, 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 beleive*.

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 Persent 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 suffix *-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 Tense	Present Tense	Past 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 Tense	Present Tense	Past 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 Tense	Present Tense	Past 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
dwelt	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 (<i>puft</i>)	rebuff - rebuffed (<i>uft</i>)
	cough - coughed (<i>cuft</i>)	laugh - laughed (<i>luft</i>)
	bluff - bluffed (<i>bluft</i>)	stuff - stuffed (<i>stuft</i>)
h :	march - marched (<i>t</i>)	search - searched (<i>t</i>)
	reach - reached (<i>t</i>)	touch - touched (<i>t</i>)
	attach - attached (<i>t</i>)	enrich - enriched (<i>t</i>)
	patch - patched (<i>t</i>)	perch - perched (<i>t</i>)
	preach - preached (<i>t</i>)	watch - watched (<i>t</i>)
k :	talk - talked (<i>t</i>)	pack - packed (<i>t</i>)
	kick - kicked (<i>t</i>)	lurk - lurked (<i>t</i>)
	shock - shocked (<i>t</i>)	burk - burked (<i>t</i>)
	peck - pecked (<i>t</i>)	wink - winked (<i>t</i>)
	risk - risked (<i>t</i>)	walk - walked (<i>t</i>)
	blink - blinked (<i>t</i>)	wreck - wrecked (<i>t</i>)
	bask - basked (<i>t</i>)	suck - sucked (<i>t</i>)
	cork - coked (<i>t</i>)	work - worked (<i>t</i>)
	shriek - shrieked (<i>t</i>)	
p :	harp - harped (<i>t</i>)	heap - heaped (<i>t</i>)
	jump - jumped (<i>t</i>)	help - helped (<i>t</i>)
	reap - reaped (<i>t</i>)	gasp - gasped (<i>t</i>)
	trap - trapped (<i>t</i>)	trip - triped (<i>t</i>)
	carp - carped (<i>t</i>)	leap - leaped (<i>t</i>)
	camp - camped (<i>t</i>)	pump - pumped (<i>t</i>)
	clasp - clasped (<i>t</i>)	grasp - grasped (<i>t</i>)
s :	pass - passed (<i>t</i>)	mass - massed (<i>t</i>)
	miss - missed (<i>t</i>)	address - addressed (<i>t</i>)
	dismiss - dismissed (<i>t</i>)	cross - crossed (<i>t</i>)
	discuss - discussed (<i>t</i>)	express - expressed (<i>t</i>)
	canvass - canvassed (<i>t</i>)	confess - confessed (<i>t</i>)
		impress - impressed (<i>t</i>)
	toss - tossed (<i>t</i>)	
Sh :	dash - dashed (<i>t</i>)	wish - wished (<i>t</i>)
	banish - banished (<i>t</i>)	brush - brushed (<i>t</i>)
	push - pushed (<i>t</i>)	rush - rushed (<i>t</i>)
	wash - washed (<i>t</i>)	blush - blushed (<i>t</i>)
	flash - flashed (<i>t</i>)	abolish - abolished (<i>t</i>)
	relish - relished (<i>t</i>)	crash - crashed (<i>t</i>)
	demolish - demolished (<i>t</i>)	

- x : tax - taxed (*t*) fix - fixed (*t*)
vex - vexed (*t*) mix - mixed (*t*)
box - boxed (*t*) coax - coaxed (*t*)

2. The suffix -ed pronounced *d* :

- (i) open - opened (*d*) cover - covered (*d*)
listen - listened (*d*) howl - howled (*d*)
long - longed (*d*) enter - entered (*d*)
inform - informed (*d*) turn - turned (*d*)
order - ordered (*d*) pardon - pardoned (*d*)
cordon - cordoned (*d*) reform - reformed (*d*)
return - returned (*d*) govern - governed (*d*)

- (ii) A weak Verb ending in a semi-vowel (*w* or *y*) preceded by a vowel, adds -ed (pronounced *d*) in its Past Tense and Past Participle.

For example,

- | | |
|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| bow - bowed (<i>d</i>) | pray - prayed (<i>d</i>) |
| survey - surveyed (<i>d</i>) | row - rowed (<i>d</i>) |
| stay - stayed (<i>d</i>) | enjoy - enjoyed (<i>d</i>) |
| cow - cowed (<i>d</i>) | bray - brayed (<i>d</i>) |
| bay - bayed (<i>d</i>) | employ - employed (<i>d</i>) |
| parley - parleyed (<i>d</i>) | convey - conveyed (<i>d</i>) |
| destroy - destroyed (<i>d</i>) | allay - allayed (<i>d</i>) |
| betray - betrayed (<i>d</i>) | journey - journeyed (<i>d</i>) |

Exception :

- lay - laid (pronunciation *leid*)
pay - paid (pronunciation *peid*)
say - said (pronunciation *sed*)

3. -ed pronounced *id* : Weak verbs ending in -d on -t add -ed in their Past Tense and Past Participle.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| depend - depended (<i>id</i>) | add - added (<i>id</i>) |
| end - ended (<i>id</i>) | accept - accepted (<i>id</i>) |
| paint - painted (<i>id</i>) | fold - folded (<i>id</i>) |
| head - headed (<i>id</i>) | need - needed (<i>id</i>) |
| exist - existed (<i>id</i>) | trust - trusted (<i>id</i>) |
| mend - mended (<i>id</i>) | intend - intended (<i>id</i>) |
| remind - reminded (<i>id</i>) | guard - guarded (<i>id</i>) |
| assist - assisted (<i>id</i>) | insist - insisted (<i>id</i>) |
| resist - resisted (<i>id</i>) | report - reported (<i>id</i>) |
| import - imported (<i>id</i>) | consult - consulted (<i>id</i>) |
| insult - insulted (<i>id</i>) | doubt - doubted (<i>id</i>) |
| point - pointed (<i>id</i>) | reject - rejected (<i>id</i>) |
| scold - scolded (<i>id</i>) | raid - raided (<i>id</i>) |

4. Suffix -ied (pronounced (*id*)) for final *y*.

- (i) A weak Verb ending in *y* preceded by a consonant adds -ed in Past Tense and Past Participle after *y* is changed into *i*.

For example,

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| accompany - accompanied (<i>id</i>) | |
| bury - buried (<i>id</i>) | carry - carried (<i>id</i>) |
| hurry - hurried (<i>id</i>) | marry - married (<i>id</i>) |
| envy - pitied (<i>id</i>) | envy - envied (<i>id</i>) |
| tarry - tarried (<i>id</i>) | worry - worried (<i>id</i>) |
| study - studied (<i>id</i>) | ferry - ferried (<i>id</i>) |
| fancy - fancied (<i>id</i>) | sully - sullied (<i>id</i>) |

- (iii) *y* replaced by -ied pronounced -aid.

For example,

- | | |
|--------------------------------|------------------------------|
| cry - cried (<i>aid</i>) | try - tried (<i>aid</i>) |
| apply - applied (<i>aid</i>) | defy - defied (<i>aid</i>) |
| fry - fried (<i>aid</i>) | ply - plied (<i>aid</i>) |

- | | |
|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| supply - supplied (<i>aid</i>) | reply - replied (<i>aid</i>) |
| satisfy - satisfied (<i>aid</i>) | fortify - fortified (<i>aid</i>) |
| dignify - dignified (<i>aid</i>) | |

5. The suffix -d pronounced *d*, *t* or *id*

- | | |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| (i) care - cared (<i>d</i>) | dare - dared (<i>d</i>) |
| live - lived (<i>d</i>) | blame - blamed (<i>d</i>) |
| dine - dined (<i>d</i>) | agree - agreed (<i>d</i>) |
| argue - argued (<i>d</i>) | amuse - amused (<i>d</i>) |
| please - pleased (<i>d</i>) | graze - grazed (<i>d</i>) |
| arrive - arrived (<i>d</i>) | cure - cured (<i>d</i>) |
| move - moved (<i>d</i>) | issue - issued (<i>d</i>) |
| receive - received (<i>d</i>) | praise - praised (<i>d</i>) |
| love - loved (<i>d</i>) | chang - changed (<i>d</i>) |
| advise - advised (<i>d</i>) | |

- (ii) The suffix -d pronounced *t*

For example,

- | | |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------|
| choke - choked (<i>t</i>) | joke - joked (<i>t</i>) |
| hope - hoped (<i>t</i>) | type - typed (<i>t</i>) |
| like - liked (<i>t</i>) | wake - waked (<i>t</i>) |
| pipe - piped (<i>t</i>) | cope - coped (<i>t</i>) |
| wife - wifed (<i>t</i>) | poke - poked (<i>t</i>) |
| rebuke - rebuked (<i>t</i>) | |

- (iii) The suffix -d pronounced -ie

For example,

- | | |
|----------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| hate - hated (<i>id</i>) | excite - excited (<i>id</i>) |
| state - stated (<i>id</i>) | quote - quoted (<i>id</i>) |
| promote - promoted (<i>id</i>) | hesitate - hesitated (<i>id</i>) |
| recite - recited (<i>id</i>) | taste - tasted (<i>id</i>) |

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 *d*, *t* or *id*).

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| (i) beg - begged (<i>d</i>) | clap - clapped (<i>d</i>) |
| rub - rubbed (<i>d</i>) | stop - stopped (<i>d</i>) |
| tan - tanned (<i>d</i>) | trip - tripped (<i>d</i>) |
| fit - fitted (<i>d</i>) | lag - lagged (<i>d</i>) |
| rob - robbed (<i>d</i>) | sob - sobbed (<i>d</i>) |
| drop - dropped (<i>d</i>) | jam - jammed (<i>d</i>) |
| tarry - tarried (<i>d</i>) | ram - rammed (<i>d</i>) |
| flap - flapped (<i>d</i>) | sin - sinned (<i>d</i>) |
| grin - grinned (<i>d</i>) | plan - planned (<i>d</i>) |
| bar - barred (<i>d</i>) | ban - banned (<i>d</i>) |
| gut - gutted (<i>d</i>) | |

- (ii) In such a Verb consists of more than one syllable with the accent on the last syllable, the same rule holds good.

For example,

- | | |
|---------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| compel - compelled (<i>d</i>) | control - controlled (<i>d</i>) |
| excel - excelled (<i>d</i>) | admit - admitted (<i>d</i>) |
| allot - allotted (<i>d</i>) | omit - omitted (<i>d</i>) |

Exception :

- | | |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| cancel - cancelled (<i>d</i>) | travel - travelled (<i>d</i>) |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|

- (iii) The foregoing rule of doubling the consonant does not hold good if there are two vowels before it .

For example,

- | | |
|------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| boil - boiled (<i>d</i>) | coin - coined (<i>d</i>) |
| beam - beamed (<i>d</i>) | claim - claimed (<i>d</i>) |
| avail - availed (<i>d</i>) | contain - contained (<i>d</i>) |

soil - soil <i>ed</i> (d)	prevail - prevailed (d)	Shake : The lion <i>shook</i> his mane.	It <i>has shaken</i> my faith.
retain - retained (d)	loot - looted (d)	Shoe : Who <i>shot</i> my horse?	I <i>have shod</i> it.
clean - cleaned (d)	join - joined (d)	Shoot : He <i>shot</i> at the tiger.	The tiger <i>was shot</i> dead.
scream - screamed (d)		Shrink : He <i>shrank</i> from the scene.	The linen <i>has shrunk</i> .
(iv) -ed pronounced d, t, id : Weak Verbs ending in more than one consonant add -ed in the Past Tense and Past Participle.		Sing : She <i>sang</i> so sweetly.	Often <i>have I sung</i> your praise.
For example,		Sink : The boat <i>sank</i> .	He <i>has sunk</i> a tube-well in his compound.
call - called (d)	climb - climbed (d)	Sit : I <i>sat</i> down to read.	He <i>has set</i> for the test.
arm - armed (d)	push - pushed (d)	Slay : He <i>slew</i> his rival.	The soldier <i>was slain</i> in battle.
touch - touched (d)	lift - lifted (d)	Sleep : I <i>slept</i> soundly.	He <i>has slept</i> long.
Past Tense and Past Participle		Sow : he <i>sowed</i> many seeds.	He must reap what he <i>has sown</i> .
Past Tense	Past Participle	Spend : He <i>spent</i> his time in vain.	I <i>have spent</i> my all.
Bear : He <i>bore</i> the song in his memory.	She <i>has borne</i> twins.	Spin : He <i>span</i> out a nice story.	The top <i>was spun</i> by me.
Beat : He <i>beat</i> his opponents.	They <i>have beaten</i> him.	Spread : The news <i>spread</i> quickly.	We <i>have spread</i> this news.
Begin : He <i>began</i> to weep.	We <i>have begun</i> to write.	Spring : He <i>sprang</i> from a high family.	You <i>have sprung</i> a surprise.
Bid : He <i>bade</i> me go away.	I <i>was bidden</i> to go.	Stand : He <i>stood</i> the test well.	I <i>have stood</i> up for truth.
Bind : We <i>bound</i> his hands.	I <i>was bound</i> to do it.	Steal : He <i>stole</i> my watch.	He <i>has stolen</i> trash.
Bite : A mad dog <i>bit</i> him.	A snake <i>has bitten</i> him.	Stick : He <i>stuck</i> at nothing.	A bone <i>has stuck</i> in my gullet.
Burst : He <i>burst</i> into tears.	The bubble <i>has burst</i> .	Sting : The remark <i>stung</i> me.	He <i>was stung</i> by a bee.
Choose : We <i>choose</i> this book.	They <i>have chosen</i>	Strike : He <i>struck</i> a blow on my face.	It <i>has never struck</i> me.
Cost : It <i>cost</i> him his life.	It <i>has cost</i> me nothing.	Strive : He <i>strove</i> hard to win.	I <i>have striven</i> to beat him.
Deal : He <i>dealt</i> his rice.	John <i>has dealt</i> him a blow.	Swear : he <i>swore</i> to help me.	He <i>was sworn</i> to stop.
Draw : He <i>drew</i> his sword.	He <i>has drawn</i> a picture.	Swing : I <i>swam</i> across the river.	Who <i>has swum</i> the channel?
Drink : We <i>drank</i> a cup of milk.	We <i>were drunk</i> with joy.	Take : I <i>took</i> rest here.	He <i>has taken</i> my pen.
Drive : I <i>drove</i> a car.	He <i>has driven</i> out his guest.	Tear : He <i>tore</i> the letter.	I <i>was torn</i> to pieces.
Eat : I <i>ate</i> a loaf.	He <i>has eaten</i> rice.	Throw : He <i>threw</i> stones at me.	He <i>was thrown</i> overboard.
Fall : Sam <i>fell</i> ill.	He <i>has fallen</i> foul of me.	Use : I <i>used</i> your pen.	He is not <i>used</i> to hard work.
Feel : We <i>felt</i> a shock.	he <i>has felt</i> for me	Wear : His patience <i>wore</i> out at last.	He <i>has worn</i> a new coat.
Find : We <i>found</i> him in.	He <i>was found</i> a job.	Weave : He <i>wave</i> a sheet of cloth.	The story <i>was skilfully woren</i> .
Forget : I <i>forgot</i> his name.	I <i>have not forgotten</i> you.	Weep : She <i>wept</i> bitter tears.	I <i>have long wept</i> to see.
Freeze : The river <i>frozen</i> in winter.	Water <i>is frozen</i> by cold.	Past Participle forms like - bounden, clove, drunken, gotten, graven, hewn, hidden, motten, shorn, shrunk, stricken and sunken etc. are used as Adjectives only.	
Get : I <i>got</i> a prize.	I <i>have got</i> a headache.	For example,	
Go : I <i>went</i> home.	he <i>has gone</i> to law.	Verbs	Verbs used as Adjectives
Grow : He <i>grew</i> angry.	I <i>have grown</i> wiser.	Tom was <i>bound</i> to work.	It is your <i>bounden</i> duty.
Hide : He <i>hid</i> his face from me.	It <i>was hidden</i> in a box.	The rock was <i>cleft</i> in two.	The cow has <i>cloven</i> feet.
Hurt : This <i>hurt</i> me much.	I <i>have hurt</i> by let.	We were <i>drunk</i> with a new spirit.	Harold was found in a <i>drunken</i> state.
Know : I <i>knew</i> him.	He <i>was known</i> to me.	I have <i>got</i> a prize.	I have <i>ill-gotten</i> wealth.
Lead : Who <i>let</i> the boys?	He <i>has led</i> his party to victory.	He <i>hid</i> himself in a bush.	John found a <i>hidden</i> treasure.
Lose : I <i>lost</i> my keys.	He <i>has lost</i> his job.		
Mean : He <i>meant</i> no harm.	I <i>was meant</i> for this.		
Ring : I <i>rang</i> him up on the phone.	Who <i>has rung</i> the bell?		
Rise : They <i>rose</i> in arms.	The sun <i>has risen</i> .		
Run : He <i>ran</i> a race.	I <i>have run</i> into debt.		
Seek : He never <i>sought</i> honour.	Fortune <i>has sought</i> him		
Send : I <i>sent</i> him to jail.	I <i>have sent</i> for him.		
Set : I <i>set</i> my dog on him.	He <i>has set</i> out on a tour.		

The woolen coat has <i>shrunk</i> .	The river was in a <i>shrunk</i> state.
We have <i>sunk</i> a tube-well.	The ship foundered on a <i>sunken</i> rock.
The snow has <i>melted</i> .	Streams of <i>molten</i> lava came out.

ADVERB

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

For example,

Sunita runs slowly .
↓
Verb
Shela is very beautiful .
↓ ↓
Adverb Adjective
Sita reads quite clearly .
↓ ↓
Adverb Adverb

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, 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 *affect*.

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
thereto
therewith

hereafter
hereby
herein
hereupon
herewith

whereof
wherefore
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 have 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	

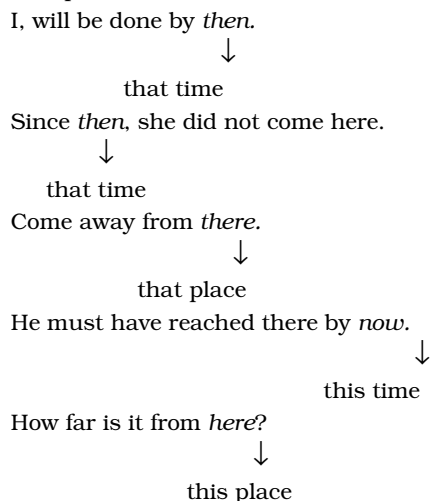
Several words are used sometimes as Adverbs and sometimes as Prepositions. A word is a *preposition*, when it governs a noun or pronoun and it is an *Adverb*, when it does not.

For example,

<i>Adverb</i> :	Go and run <i>about</i> .
<i>Preposition</i> :	Don't loiter <i>about</i> the street.
<i>Adverb</i> :	He could not do <i>before</i> .
<i>Preposition</i> :	I came the day <i>before</i> yesterday.
<i>Adverb</i> :	Has he come <i>in</i> ?
<i>Preposition</i> :	Is he <i>in</i> his room?
<i>Adverb</i> :	The wheel came <i>off</i> .
<i>Preposition</i> :	The driver jumped <i>off</i> the cabin.
<i>Adverb</i> :	Let us move <i>on</i> .
<i>Preposition</i> :	The pen lies <i>on</i> the table.
<i>Adverb</i> :	His brother arrived soon <i>after</i> .
<i>Preposition</i> :	<i>After</i> a month he returned.
<i>Adverb</i> :	Take his parcel <i>over</i> to the post-office.
<i>Preposition</i> :	The king rules <i>over</i> a vast empire.
<i>Adverb</i> :	I have not seen him <i>since</i> .
<i>Preposition</i> :	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,



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,

<i>After</i> his death.	<i>At</i> an early age.
Arrived <i>before</i> me.	<i>Behind</i> time.
<i>By</i> three o' clock.	<i>During</i> the whole day.
<i>For</i> many years.	<i>From</i> January 1, 2000.
<i>In</i> the morning.	
Sat watching far on <i>into</i> the night.	
Lived <i>under</i> the Britishers.	
<i>On</i> Wednesday.	<i>Pending</i> his return.
<i>Since</i> yesterday.	Lasted <i>through</i> the night.
<i>Throughout</i> the year.	Wait <i>till</i> tomorrow.
Fifteen minutes <i>to</i> one p.m.	
<i>Towards</i> evening.	<i>Until</i> his arrival.
Rise <i>with</i> the sun.	<i>Within</i> a month.

(2) Place

For example,

Went <i>about</i> the world.	Ran <i>across</i> the road.
Leaned <i>against</i> the wall.	Fell <i>among</i> thieves.
Quarrelled <i>among</i> themselves.	
<i>At</i> death's door.	<i>Athwart</i> 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.	
<i>In</i> 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.	<i>Within</i> 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
Appraised 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	Beware 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

Fondness for	Guarantee for
Leisure for	Liking for
Match for	Motive for
Need for	Opportunity for
Partiality for	Passion for
Pity for	Predilection for
Pretext for	Relish for
Remorse for	Reputation for

Adjectives Followed by Preposition 'for'

Anxious for	Celebrated for
Conspicuous for	Customary for
Designed for	Destined for
Eager for	Eligible for
Eminent for	Fit for
Good for	Grateful for
Notorious for	Penitent for
Prepared for	Proper for
Qualified for	Ready for
Sorry for	Sufficient for
Useful for	Zealous for

Verbs Followed by Preposition 'for'

Atone for	Canvass for
Care for	Clamour for
Feel for	Hope for
Mourn for	Pine for
Start for	Stipulate for
Sue for	Wish for
Yearn for	

Verbs Followed by Preposition 'on'

Comment on	Decide on
Deliberate on	Depend on
Determine on	Dwell on
Embark on	Encroach on
Enlarge on	Impose on
Insist on	Intrude on
Resolve on	Subsist on
Trample on	

Nouns Followed by Preposition 'to'

Access to	Accession to
Allegiance to	Alternative to
Antidote to	Antipathy to
Approach to	Assent to
Attachment to	Attention to
Concession to	Disgrace to
Dislike to	Encouragement to
Enmity to	Exception to
Incentive to	Indifference to
Invitation to	Key to
Linieny to	Likeness to
Limit to	Menace to
Obedience to	Objection to
Obstruction to	Opposition to
Postscript to	Preface to
Reference to	Repugnance to

Resemblance to	Sequel to
Submission to	Supplement to
Temptation to	Traitor to

Adjectives Followed by Preposition 'to'

Abhorrent to	Acceptable to
Accessible to	Impertinent to
Incidental to	Inclined to
Indebted to	Indifferent to
Indispensable to	Indulgent to
Inimical to	Insensible to
Injured to	Irrelevant to
Favourable to	Hurtful to
Immaterial to	Impervious to
Indigenous to	Liable to
Limited to	Lost to
Loyal to	Material to
Natural to	Necessary to
Obedient to	Obliged to
Offensive to	Opposite to
Painful to	Partial to
Peculiar to	Pertinent to
Pledged to	Preferable to
Prejudicial to	Profitable to
Prior to	Prone to
Reduced to	Related to
Relevant to	Repugnant to
Responsible to	Restricted to
Sacred to	Sensitive to
Serviceable to	Subject to
Suitable to	Suited to
Supplementary to	Tantamount to
True to	

Verbs Followed by Preposition 'to'

Accede to	Adapt to
Adhere to	Allot to
Allude to	Appologize to
Appoint to	Ascribe to
Aspire to	Assent to
Attain to	Attend to
Attribute to	Belong to
Conduce to	Conform to
Consent to	Contribute to
Lead to	Listen to
Object to	Occur to
Prefer to	Pretend to
Refer to	Revert to
Stoop to	Succumb to
Surrender to	Testify to
Yield to	

Adjectives Followed by Preposition 'in'

Absorbed in	Abstemious in
Accomplished in	Accurate in
Assiduous in	Backward in
Bigoted in	Correct in

Defective in	Deficient in
Experienced in	Deligent in
Enveloped in	Fertile in
Foiled in	Honest in
Implicated in	Interested in
Involved in	Lax in
Proficient 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
Sympathize with	Vie with
Trifle with	

Verbs Followed By Preposition 'from'

Abstain 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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|---|--|
| 32. Candidate for a post. | 86. Excuse for a mistake. |
| 33. Care for somebody's safety. | 87. Failure of electricity. |
| 34. Care for his health. | 88. Failure of somebody in something. |
| 35. Charge of murder. | 89. Faith in somebody or something. |
| 36. Charge with theft. | 90. Familiarity with a person or thing. |
| 37. Claim on or against somebody. | 91. Freedom from care. |
| 38. Claim to property. | 92. Freedom of action. |
| 39. Compact with a person. | 93. Glance at a person or thing. |
| 40. Comment on something. | 94. Glance over a wide surface. |
| 41. Comparison of somebody with somebody. | 95. Gratitude for a thing. |
| 42. By/in comparison with. | 96. Gratitude to a person. |
| 43. Compassion for somebody. | 97. Grief at an event. |
| 44. Competition with somebody. | 98. Grief for a person. |
| 45. Competition for something. | 99. Guess at the truth / something. |
| 46. Complicity in a crime. | 100. Harmony with anything. |
| 47. Compliance with a request. | 101. Hatred of or for somebody. |
| 48. Condemnation to death. | 102. Hatred of a thing. |
| 49. Confidence in somebody. | 103. Heir to some property. |
| 50. Conformity with anyone's views. | 104. Heir of somebody. |
| 51. Conformity to rule. | 105. Hindrance to something. |
| 52. Compensation for a loss. | 106. Hint at some reward. |
| 53. Connection with a person or thing. | 107. Hope for better a luck. |
| 54. Connivance at anyone's fault. | 108. Hostility to a person or cause. |
| 55. Consciousness of guilt. | 109. Identity with somebody/something. |
| 56. Consideration for somebody. | 110. Immersion into water. |
| 57. Contact with somebody/something. | 111. Implication in this crime. |
| 58. Contempt for a person or thing. | 112. Implication on someone. |
| 59. A contrast with a person. | 113. Imputation against somebody. |
| 60. A contrast to a person or thing. | 114. Incentive to a worker. |
| 61. Controversy on or about something. | 115. Inclination for sport/something. |
| 62. Contribution to a fund. | 116. Indifference to help others. |
| 63. Contribution towards some project. | 117. Indulgence to a beautiful woman. |
| 64. Conversation with somebody. | 118. Influence over or with somebody. |
| 65. Decision on some case. | 119. Influence on decision of wife. |
| 66. Decision of some dispute. | 120. Inquiry into circumstances/a case. |
| 67. Decline of an empire. | 121. Insight into something somebody's character. |
| 68. Decline in moral/price. | 122. Intercession with a superior. |
| 69. Degradation from rank. | 123. Intercession for a friend. |
| 70. Delight in music / in something. | 124. Jurisdiction in a lawsuit. |
| 71. Descent from ancestors. | 125. Justification of or for crime. |
| 72. Desire for wealth. | 126. Key to understanding of the problem. |
| 73. Desirous (Adj.) of something. | 127. Liability to an illness. |
| 74. Disgust at meanness. | 128. Libel against his character. |
| 75. Dislike to a person or thing. | 129. Liking for non-vegetarian / something. |
| 76. Distaste for mathematics/something. | 130. Longing for luxury / something. |
| 77. Doubt of or about a thing. | 131. Lust for life / something. |
| 78. Duty to a person. | 132. Malice against an enemy. |
| 79. Encroachment on / upon one's rights. | 133. Neglect of duty. |
| 80. Engagement with somebody. | 134. Neglect of doing a thing. |
| 81. Entrance into a place. | 135. Nomination of a member. |
| 82. Enmity with somebody. | 136. Nomination to a position. |
| 83. Esteem for somebody. | 137. Opportunity for going abroad / doing something. |
| 84. Exception to a rule. | 138. Partnership in a thing. |
| 85. (Make) an exception of somebody or something. | 139. Power over a person. |

140. Precaution against infection.
141. Preface to a book.
142. Preference for something.
143. Preparation for examination/something.
144. Proof against somebody.
145. Proof of guilt.
146. Qualification for a post.
147. Quarrel with somebody/something.
148. Readiness in responding.
149. Readiness for journey.
150. Reference to a person or thing.
151. In regard to that matter.
152. Regard for a person.
153. Relation between two things.
154. Relation with somebody.
155. Remonstrance against somebody's conduct.
156. Remonstrance with somebody.
157. Reply to a query / a person.
158. Request for a thing.
159. Resemblance to a person or thing.
160. In respect of some quality.
161. Rivalry with a person.
162. Rival in something.
163. Search for a after wealth.
164. In search of wealth /a job etc.
165. Share in the property /something.
166. Share with somebody.
167. Sin against God./ mankind/humanity.
168. Sympathy with or for somebody.
169. Temptation to evil.
170. Temptation in diet.
171. Trespass against the law.
172. Warrant for somebody's arrest.
173. With a view to.
174. Witness of or to a case.
175. Wonder at his behaviour/something.

SOME VERBS & APPROPRIATE PREPOSITIONS
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|---|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Abound in or with something. 2. Accrue to somebody. 3. Accure from something. 4. Accuse somebody of theft. 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. | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 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. 43. Bring a thing under notice. 44. Burst upon (suddenly 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, where For 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 then 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 :

<i>Present Tense</i>	<i>Past Tense</i>	<i>Future Tense</i>
(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

	<i>Simple</i>		<i>Continuous</i>	<i>Perfect Continuous</i>	<i>Perfect</i>
<i>Present</i>	Active	I give.	I am giving.	I have given.	I have been giving.
	Passive	I am given.	I am being given.	I have been given.	
<i>Past</i>	Active	I gave.	I was giving.	I had given.	I had been giving.
	Passive	I was given.	I was being given.	I had been given.	
<i>Future</i>	Active	I shall give.	I shall be giving.	I shall have given.	I shall have been giving.
	Passive	I shall be given.		I shall have been 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 Oddysey'.

[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 pot)

(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

	Singular	Plural
1st Person	I am	We are
2nd Person	You are	You are
3rd Person	He/She/It is	They are

PRESENT CONTINUOUS TENSE

	Singular	Plural
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

	Singular	Plural
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

	Singular	Plural
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 being	You had been being
3rd Person	He/She/It had been being	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 being	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 being	You will have been being
3rd Person	He/She/It will have been being	They will have been being

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 reappraisal.

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

	To express	1st	2nd	3rd
Auxiliary	1. Simple	shall	will	will

Future in

Assertive

sentences

(Aux. Verbs)

Examples : I *shall* go home.

You *will* reach late.

He *will* go last.

Auxiliary	2.Simple	shall	will	will
-----------	----------	-------	------	------

Future in

Interrogative

sentences

(Aux. Verbs)

Examples : *Shall* I go now ?

Will you go now ?

Will he see me ?

Principal	3. (a) Promise, determination	Will	Shall	Shall
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(Principal Verbs)

Examples : I *Will* help you.

You *shall* have my help.

He *shall* have his dues.

Principal	(b) Threat	Will	Shall	Shall
-----------	------------	------	-------	-------

(Princ. Verbs)

Examples : I *will* dismiss him.

If you go, you *shall* be punished.

He *shall* not be excused.

Principal	(c) Command	Shall	Shall
-----------	-------------	-------	-------

(Principal Verbs)

Examples : You *shall* not go.

Monday *shall* be a holiday.

Shall he wait ?

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The Use of *Shall* and *Will*

	To express	1st	2nd	3rd
Auxiliary	1. Simple Future in Assertive sentences (Aux. Verbs)	shall	will	will
Examples :	I <i>shall</i> go home. You <i>will</i> reach late. He <i>will</i> go last.			
Auxiliary	2.Simple Future in Interrogative sentences (Aux. Verbs)	shall	will	will
Examples :	<i>Shall</i> I go now ? <i>Will</i> you go now ? <i>Will</i> he see me ?			
Principal	3. (a) Promise, determination (Principal Verbs)	Will	Shall	Shall
Examples :	I <i>Will</i> help you. You <i>shall</i> have my help. He <i>shall</i> have his dues.			
Principal	(b) Threat (Princ. Verbs)	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
(Principal Verbs)

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.
 ↓ ↓ ↓
 Di-Transitive Verb Indirect Object Direct Object
 The manager offered me an opportunity.
 ↓ ↓ ↓
 Di-Transitive Verb Indirect Object Direct Object

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.

	↓		↓	
	Verb ¹	Object		
Passive: Let	the	horn	be	blown.
	↓	↓	↓	↓
	Let	Subject ¹	be	Verb ³

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.

	↓		↓	
	Verb ¹	Object		
Passive: The poor people	should	be	helped.	
	↓	↓	↓	↓
	Subject ¹	should	be	Verb ³

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 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 Verb ¹

Passive: There is a lot of work to be done.

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓

There To be Noun To be Verb ³

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 + Verb ¹'

Look at the construction.

Active: Subject + have / has / had + to + Verb ¹ + Object

Passive: Subject ¹ + have / has / had + to + be + Verb ³ + (by + Agent)

Example:

Active: He has to lend some money.

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓

Subject has to Verb ¹ Object

Passive: Some money has to be lent by him.

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓

Subject ¹ has to be Verb ³ by Agent

Likewise,

Active: You have to choose a design.

Passive: A design has to be chosen by you.

PASSIVE OF STATIVE 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.

Subject ¹ + to be + Verb + Preposition + (by Agent)

Example:

Active: The CBI enquired into the case.

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓

Subject Verb Preposition Object

Passive: The case was enquired into

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓

Subject ¹ To be Verb ³ 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 after + Object
look down upon + Object	laugh at + Object
smile at + Object	ride at + Object
mock at + Object	fire at + Object
travel by + Object	driven by + Object
came on + Object	sing to + Object
take for + Object	ignorant of + Object
written in + 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 is 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".

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?”

(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 + Verb” 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 are 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 ious 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.

<i>Exclamatory</i> : How beautiful is night!	<i>Active</i> : They proposed to hold a meeting.
<i>Assertive</i> : Night is very beautiful.	<i>Passive</i> : It was proposed by them that a meeting should be held
<i>Exclamatory</i> : How sweet the moonlight sleeps upon this bank!	<i>Active</i> : They were conducting him to the chair.
<i>Assertive</i> : The moonlight very sweetly sleeps upon this bank.	<i>Passive</i> : He was being conducted by them to the chair.
<i>Exclamatory</i> : O that I were young again!	<i>Active</i> : The audience highly applauded his speech.
<i>Assertive</i> : I wish that I were young again.	<i>Passive</i> : His speech was highly applauded.
<i>Exclamatory</i> : Alas! that youth should pass away!	<i>Active</i> : Brutus stabbed Caesar.
<i>Assertive</i> : It is sad to think that youth should pass away.	<i>Passive</i> : Caesar was stabbed by Brutus.
Affirmative and Negative Sentences Affirmative into Negative	
<i>Affirmative</i> : He failed to notice me when he came in.	<i>Active</i> : The people will make him king
<i>Negative</i> : He did not notice me when he came in	<i>Passive</i> : He will be made king by the people
<i>Affirmative</i> : As soon as he came he made objections.	<i>Active</i> : Who taught you grammar?
<i>Negative</i> : No sooner did he come than he made objections.	<i>Passive</i> : By whom was grammar taught you?
<i>Affirmative</i> : Only the evening star has as yet appeared.	or By, whom were you taught grammar?
<i>Negative</i> : None but the evening star has yet appeared.	<i>Active</i> : The king gave him a reward.
<i>Affirmative</i> : He was a man of some intelligence.	<i>Passive</i> : He was given a reward by the king.
<i>Negative</i> : He was a man of no great intelligence	or, A reward was given him by King
<i>Affirmative</i> : Kolkata is the biggest city in India.	<i>Active</i> : The Romans expected to conquer Carthage
<i>Negative</i> : There is no other city in India as big as Kolkata. or	<i>Passive</i> : It was expected by the Romans that they would conquer Carthage
There is no bigger city in India than Kolkata.	<i>Passive</i> : It is time to shut up the shop
Negative into Affirmative	
<i>Negative</i> : I am not a little tired.	<i>Active</i> : It is time for the shop to be shut up.
<i>Affirmative</i> : I am very tired.	<i>Passive</i> : The audience loudly cheered the Mayors speech.
<i>Negative</i> : There is no rose without a thorn.	<i>Active</i> : The Mayor's speech was loudly cheered.
<i>Affirmative</i> : Every rose has a thorn.	<i>Passive into Active</i>
<i>Negative</i> : We did not find the road very bad.	<i>Passive</i> : The house had been deserted by those who lived in it.
<i>Affirmative</i> : We found the road fairly good.	<i>Active</i> : Those who lived in the house had deserted it.
<i>Negative</i> : There could be no smoke without fire.	<i>Passive</i> : I have been shocked at his conduct.
<i>Affirmative</i> : Wherever there is smoke there in fire.	<i>Active</i> : His conduct has shocked me.
<i>Negative</i> : None but a Hercules could do this.	<i>Passive</i> : John prayed to the judge that he might be pardoned.
<i>Affirmative</i> : Only a Hercules could do this.	<i>Active</i> : John prayed that the judge might pardon him.
<i>Negative</i> : A good boy never neglects his lessons.	<i>Passive</i> : Everybody was satisfied with him
<i>Affirmative</i> : A good boy always minds his lessons.	<i>Active</i> : He satisfied everybody.
<i>Negative</i> : No one can deny that he was a great man.	<i>Passive</i> : Our purpose has been served.
<i>Affirmative</i> : Everybody must admit that he was a great man.	<i>Active</i> : It has served our purpose.
Active into Passive	
<i>Active</i> : They proposed to build a dam for irrigation purposes.	<i>Passive</i> : Caves must be dug for them.
<i>Passive</i> : It was proposed by them that a dam should be built for irrigation purposes.	<i>Active</i> : Others must dig caves from them.
<i>Active</i> : The Curator of the Museum showed us some ancient coins.	<i>Passive</i> : I was compelled to go.
<i>Passive</i> : We were shown some ancient coins by the Curator of the Museum.	<i>Active</i> : Circumstances compelled me to go.
<i>Active</i> : They laughed at him.	<i>Passive</i> : Police has arrested the thief.
<i>Passive</i> : He was laughed at by them	<i>Active</i> : The thief has been arrested.
Simple into Double or Multiple (Compound)	
Simple sentences may be converted into Compound ones by enlarging Words or Phrases into Co-ordinate clauses.	
<i>Simple</i> : Besides doing his own work, he helped me.	
<i>Compound</i> : He not only did his own work, but also he helped me.	
<i>Simple</i> : Shifting himself along the arm, he rose to his feet.	
<i>Compound</i> : 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 *passed* 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 negroes 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 *remembrance* 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.

- Simple* : His failure is almost certain.
Complex : That he will fail is almost certain.
Simple : They would no doubt, send out all the soldiers in search of the party.
Complex : There is no doubt that they would send out all the soldiers in search of the party.
Simple : Only first class men need apply.
Complex : Only those who are first class men need apply.
Simple : The news is too good to be true.
Complex : The news is so good that it cannot be true.
Simple : Our teacher is a man of spotless character.
Complex : Our teacher is a man who bears a spotless character.
Simple : Truly speaking, he never came here
Complex : The truth is that he never came here
Simple : A man's modesty is in inverse proportion to his ignorance.
Complex : The more ignorant a man is, the less modest he is

Complex into Simple

- Complex* : A child who has lost its parents is to be pitied.
Simple : An orphan is to be pitied.
Complex : If you fail, you must make another attempt.
Simple : Failing this attempt, you must make another.
Complex : The report that the king was dead is false.
Simple : The report of the king's death is false
Complex : Wherever you go, I shall follow you.
Simple : I shall follow you everywhere.
Complex : A boy who neglects his studies, cannot progress.
Simple : A boy neglecting his studies cannot progress.
Complex : Where there is a will, there is a way.
Simple : A will has a way.
Complex : Father desired that I should go.
Simple : Father desired me to go.
Complex : That he should resign was beyond doubt.
Simple : His resignation was beyond doubt

NOUN CLAUSE

- Complex* : He said that he was innocent.
Simple : He declared his innocence.
Complex : That you are drunk aggravates your offence.
Simple : Your drunkenness aggravates your offence.
Complex : Tell me where you live.
Simple : Tell me your address.
Complex : It is pity that we should have to undergo this disgrace.
Simple : Our having to undergo this disgrace is a pity.
Complex : It is proclaimed that all men found with arms will be shot.
Simple : According to the proclamation all men found with arms will be shot.
Complex : He remarked how imprudent the boy was
Simple : He remarked on the boy's imprudence
Complex : How long I shall stay is doubtful

- Simple* : The duration of my stay is doubtful.
Complex : Except that he hurt his hand, he was lucky
Simple : Except for the hurt to his hand, he was lucky.

ADJECTIVE CLAUSE

- Complex* : I have no advice that I can offer you.
Simple : I have no advice to offer you.
Complex : The place where Buddha was cremated has recently been discovered.
Simple : The place of Buddha's cremation has recently been discovered.
Complex : The son who was his chief pride in his old age is dead.
Simple : His son, the pride of his old age, is dead
Complex : The exact time when this occurred has not been ascertained
Simple : The exact time of the occurrence has not been ascertained.
Complex : Youth is the time when the seeds of character are sown.
Simple : Youth is the time for the formation of character.

ADVERB CLAUSE

- Complex* : The Rajah was annoyed that he had not carried out his orders.
Simple : The Rajah was annoyed at his not having carried out his orders
Complex : Everything comes if a man will only work and wait.
Simple : Everything comes to a diligent and patient man.
Complex : I am pushing my business wherever I can find an opening.
Simple : I am pushing my business in every possible direction.
Complex : He will not pay unless he is compelled.
Simple : He will pay only under compulsion.
Complex : You have succeeded better than you hoped.
Simple : You have succeeded beyond your hopes.
Complex : When the cat is away the mice will play.
Simple : In the absence of the cat the mice will play.
Complex : He does not always speak as he thinks.
Simple : He does not always speak his thoughts.
Double and Multiple (Compound) into Complex
Compound : Listen and I will tell you all.
Complex : If you listen, I will tell you all.
Compound : She must weep or she will die.
Complex : Unless she weeps, she will die.
Compound : He was very tired and therefore he fell asleep.
Complex : He fell asleep because he was very tired.
Compound : Beware of pick-pockets and there will be no trouble.
Complex : If you are beware of pick-pockets, there will be no trouble.
Compound : Leave this room or I will compel you to do so.
Complex : Unless you leave this room. I will compel you to do so.

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.

Compound 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 could not 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 years old.
 I am in my twelfth year.
8. *Twice : double :*
 My bag is twice as big 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 jumping 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 perform. 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 a rupee.

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 inocent.
- 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 was 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 *discovered* 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 triangle 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 came to know that six wickets had fallen before lunch.

The team that wins the toss usually chooses to bat.

When the ninth-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 carved 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 *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 Double 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 not necessarily make a sentence 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 clause to the Main or Principal clause, the sentence becomes a Compound (Double or Multiple) sentence.

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.

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 police.
 ↓
 (=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.

ADJECTIVE

An Adjective is a word used to qualify a Noun or Pronoun:

For example : a red cover, along 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 difficult most difficult
Beautiful more beautiful most 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 will 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 car 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 telephone 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 Continuous) 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 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 written 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 :

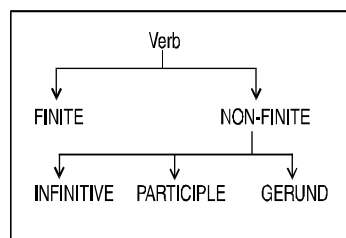
(i) to indicate the completion of an action by a certain future time;

(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. When Subject becomes Plural (they), the Verb becomes are (Plural). So we find that the form of the Verb (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 snapping.

↓

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 reading 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, 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. VERB.

SING. SING.

(ii) They are playing in the field.

↓

SUB. VERB

PLU. 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.

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 front of, in opposition to; in spite 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

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 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 then 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 delet, 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 mar 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 a 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.

- What effect did partition have on Gandhiji's time and energy? His time and energy—
 - remained unaffected
 - were wasted a lot
 - had claimed utility
 - were not distracted
- Gandhiji did not accept invitations to visit foreign countries because—
 - he was not keeping good health
 - he had no time from his busy schedule in India
 - he did not like anything which was originated in foreign countries
 - he was busy with other important tasks
- Which of the following was a shortcoming in the practice of Gandhiji's method?
 - It led to partition
 - It distracted his attention
 - It was not understood by the foreigners
 - None of these
- Which of the following statement (s) is/are TRUE regarding Gandhij's teaching?
 - His teaching was not meant for his country
 - His teaching has a time-bound applicability.
 - His teaching did not inspire the masses.
 - Only A
 - Only B
 - Only C
 - None of these
- Gandhiji emphasized the moral purity of —
 - means only
 - ends only
 - both means and ends
 - truth alone
- Gandhiji advocated that full self-realization could be achieved through—
 - unrestricted growth which is possible only through freedom
 - unhampered growth attainable through exploitation
 - submission to unhampered exploitation
 - giving inspiring lectures to people in foreign countries
- Which of the following statements is TRUE in the context of the passage?
 - Gandhiji wanted to abolish exploitation and encourage submission
 - Gandhiji wanted every individual to achieve self-realization
 - 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 Dhuru 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 Dhuru 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 Dhuru and run away. But Dhuru was strong and bold enough to hold the witch fast. The witch finally surrendered. Dhuru forced her to tell him who she really was. The witch removed her mask and narrated her and 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. Dhuru took pity on her and gave her the bag of mangoes.

1. What made Dhuru 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 Dhuru 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 Dhuru caught her?
 - (1) She threw away his bag of mangoes
 - (2) She tried to frighten Dhuru and run away
 - (3) She removed her mask and showed him her face
 - (4) She narrated her sad story to Dhuru
4. Which of the following qualities of Dhuru 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, Dhuru 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 poverty
 - (3) Her lack of cleanliness
 - (4) Her mask
8. According to the author, people play different tricks in order to ...
 - (1) frighten others who are feeble-minded
 - (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) Dhuru succeeded in solving the mystery about the witch
 - (3) Dhuru was stronger than the witch
 - (4) The witch had no relatives to take care of her
10. The widow had nobody to support her. This made Dhuru....
 - (1) eager to solve the mystery about the witch
 - (2) bold enough to hold her fast
 - (3) feel sympathy for her
 - (4) curious to know 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 given 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 foot 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 came 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 assence 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) |

- (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 Dhuru curious".
This shows that the distinction between the witch and other witches made him curious.
- (1) Dhuru was keen to solve the mystery. Subsequent actions of Dhuru were guided by this curiosity. So, we can say that Dhuru entered the forest to find out the truth about the witch.
- (2) "It was the witch who tried to frighten Dhuru and run away." This shows that, soon after she was caught, the witch tried to frighten Dhuru and run away.
- (4) "But Dhuru was strong and bold enough to hold the witch fast." This very sentence clearly indicates that it were Dhuru's courage and strength which helped him to overpower the witch.
- (3) The important different as per the passage was : other witches used to eat flesh; this witch didn't.
- (1) "However, after some time, he really fell asleep." The witch came after he had fallen asleep. So, the correct answer is (1).
- (4) "Therefore, she used to live in the forest, wearing a fearful mask." So, we can conclude that the mask made the widow look frightening.
- (3) The author says, "People resort to different tricks to make both ends meet". From this statement we can decide in favour of option (3).
- (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.
- (3) feel sympathy for her.

11. (3) "Take somebody/something 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

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|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| 1. (4) | 2. (4) | 3. (3) | 4. (2) | 5. (4) |
|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|

- (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.
- (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) "One day this lady'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.
- (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).
- (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).

qqq