

Unit - 1

Nouns

Structure

- 1.0 Objectives
- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Definition of Nouns
- 1.3 Noun and Noun Phrase
- 1.4 Kinds of Nouns
 - 1.4.1 Proper nouns
 - 1.4.2 Common nouns
 - 1.4.3 Collective nouns
 - 1.4.4 Material nouns
 - 1.4.5 Abstract nouns
- 1.5 Nouns: Countability
 - 1.5.1 Countable nouns
 - 1.5.2 Uncountable nouns
- 1.6 Nouns: Gender
 - 1.6.1 Masculine and Feminine forms
 - 1.6.2 Common/dual gender
- 1.7 Conclusion
- 1.8 Unit End Questions

1.0 Objectives

This unit will give you a fairly good idea about the most common of the parts of speech – Nouns. In Hindi you call them संज्ञा

1.1 Introduction

Nouns are naming words. Every language has its own set of nouns and the list is open ended i.e. newer nouns one added to the older ones with the changing times.

1.2 Definition of Nouns

A Nouns is the name of a person place or thing. A thing includes a quality (fear) a material (gold), a collection (herd, army), a state (adherence) and an action (cheat, mock, movement)

1.3 Noun and Noun Phrase

A noun is often called a ' noun phrase. A noun phrase can be a single-word noun:

Teachers love their pupils. (noun phrase: teacher)

But a noun phrase is usually longer than a single word because it consists of an adjective or a determiner plus a noun.

A good teacher loves his pupils. (noun phrase: a good teacher)

1.4 Kinds of Nouns

Nouns can be classified into five kinds:

1. Proper nouns
2. Common nouns
3. Collective nouns
4. Material nouns
5. Abstract nouns

1.4.1 Proper nouns

A proper noun is the name of a particular person or thing, i.e. a name used for an individual person or place, river, or mountain etc.:

Mary, Rahul, Godavari, India, Everest

1.4.2 Common nouns

A common noun refers to any and every person or thing of the same kind or class, not to a particular person or thing:

cow, dog, girl, boy, man, woman

Common nouns	Proper nouns
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girl	Latha
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dog	Rover
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man	Aslam
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1.4.3 Collective nouns

A collective noun is the name of a collection, group of people, or things of the same kind: class, team, government jury, federation

1.4.4 Material nouns

A material noun is the name of a material, substance, or ingredient things are made of. They can be articles of food or drink as well:

iron, copper, steel, gold, coal, silver, rice, wheat, milk, water, tea, sugar

Note: A material noun is a type of common noun but a distinction is made between the two. A common noun is usually a countable noun but a material noun is an uncountable noun.

The cow gives us milk.

Cow is a common noun (countable), but milk is a material noun (uncountable).

1.4.5 Abstract nouns

An abstract noun is the name of a quality, state, or concept:

beauty, sweetness, childhood, love

Note: Concrete nouns are names of material things, i.e. things having a material form, shape or size. Abstract nouns are the names of qualities found in various kinds of objects. Since they have no material form, they cannot be seen or touched. We can know of them only through our mind:

Concrete nouns	Abstract nouns
sugar	sweetness
book	beauty
milk	hatred
Patna	fear

We can see sugar but cannot see sweetness, so sugar is a concrete noun and sweetness an abstract noun. In short, concrete nouns refer to physical properties and abstract nouns to mental properties.

1.5 Nouns: Countability

Nouns are of two kinds from the viewpoint of countability:

a) Countable nouns b) Uncountable nouns

1.5.1 Countable nouns

Nouns that can be counted are called countable nouns:

a book	one book	two books
an egg	one egg	two eggs

Generally a noun used in answer to the question how many? is a countable noun:

How many films did you watch?

I watched six films.

How many flights are there from here to Delhi?

There are only two flights.

Note: Common nouns and collective nouns are by and large countable.

1.5.2 Uncountable nouns

Nouns that cannot be counted are called uncountable nouns:

milk, water, ink, sugar, butter

(not, a milk, one water, two sugar)

A noun used in answer to the question how much? is an uncountable noun.

When we want to refer to the quantity of these items we use values of measurement which are countable:

How much milk do you need?

We need a litre of milk.

Note: a) Material nouns and abstract nouns are uncountable. So are proper nouns, though they can be used as countable nouns in special situations:

There are two Indias, the rural and the urban.

b) Certain nouns can be used both as countable and uncountable depending on the context.

Uncountable

Countable

I prefer chicken to fish.

These chickens are lovely.

Petrol catches fire easily.

Shall we make a fire out here?

1.6 Nouns: Gender

Gender is of four kinds:

Masculine (denotes male)

Feminine (denotes female)

Common (denotes both male and female)

Neuter (denotes neither male nor female)

Masculine	Feminine	Common	Neuter
boy	girl	student	gold
man	woman	teacher	rice
brother	sister	doctor	flower
uncle	aunt	child	river

bull cow diplomat table

Note: The words masculine and feminine can be used as adjectives to describe the looks or qualities of human beings. In this sense masculine means: having the characteristics of a man, so it can be used of a woman or girl as well.

The lady standing in the centre has masculine looks.

Similarly with feminine. Notice that in this sense masculine/feminine indicates characteristics or attributes, not sex.

1.6.1 Masculine and feminine forms

The feminine of nouns is formed in two ways:

- i) by adding ess to the masculine form
- ii) by adding she/girl/woman to the masculine form

i) By adding ess to the masculine form

actor	Actress	lion	lioness
baron	Baroness	master	mistress
count/earl	Countess	murderer	murderess
duke	Duchess	priest	priestess
god	Goddess	prince	princess
heir	heiress	shepherd	shepherdess
host	hostess	tiger	tigress
hunter	huntress	waiter	waitress

Note: a) English has only a small number of feminine forms (noun + ess).

Professional activities are often referred to in the common gender.

The feminine forms authoress, poetess, directress, inspectress are no longer in use.

She is the director of this institute. (not, directress)

She is an inspector of police. (not, inspectress)

b) The feminine form of hero is heroine.

ii) By adding she/girl/woman

he-goat	she-goat
boy-friend	girl-friend
student	woman student
businessman	businesswoman
policeman	policewoman
sportsman	sportswoman
salesman	saleswoman
statesman	stateswoman

But in many cases, the feminine form is not derived from the masculine form. In the examples listed below, the feminine form is a totally new word, not related to the masculine form phonetically.

bachelor	-	maid/spinster	gander	-	goose
boar	-	sow	gentleman	-	lady
boy	-	girl	hart	-	roe
brother	-	sister	horse	-	mare
buck	-	doe	husband	-	wife
bull/ox	-	cow	lord	-	lady
bullock	-	heifer	man	-	woman
cock	-	hen	nephew	-	neice
colt	-	filly	sir	-	madam
dog	-	bitch	stag	-	hind
drake	-	duck	uncle	-	aunt
drone	-	bee	wizard	-	witch
father	-	mother	fox	-	vixen
friar/monk	-	nun	mon/dual	-	gender

1.6.2 Common/dual gender

1) Nouns denoting profession

Most of the nouns denoting profession/occupation are in the common gender:

ambassador	doctor	minister	pupil
artisan	editor	monarch	reader
artist	enemy	monitor	relation
artiste	engineer	musician	scientist
author	fool	neighbour	secretary
baby	foreigner	novelist	servant
captain	friend	orphan	singer
child	infant	person	speaker
clerk	judge	player	student
collector	lawyer	poet	teacher
cook	lecturer	politician	typist
cousin	librarian	president	worker
criminal	magician	principal	writer
dancer	trlagistrate	professor	

1.9 Conclusion

Now you have a basic idea about the kinds of nouns and gender.

1.10 Unit end Questions

1. Name any ten nouns around you and classify them accordingly.
2. How are feminine forms formed in English. Give examples.

Unit – 2

Pronouns

Structure

- 2.0 Objectives
- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Definition
- 2.3 Kinds of Pronouns
 - 2.3.1 Personal pronouns
 - 2.3.2 Possessive pronouns
 - 2.3.3 Reciprocal pronouns
 - 2.3.4 Demonstrative pronouns
 - 2.3.5 Reflexive pronouns
 - 2.3.7. Relative pronouns
 - 2.3.8 Interrogative pronouns
 - 2.3.10 Indefinite pronouns
- 2.4 Pronouns: Number
- 2.5 Pronouns: Gender
- 2.6 Pronouns :Persons
- 2.7 Summary
- 2.8 Exercises

2.0 Objectives

In this unit we shall discuss Pronouns as used in English

2.1 Introduction

Pronouns are what you understand as सर्वनाम in Hindi. They are not open ended. The list of pronouns in every language is limited.

2.2 Definition

Pro means 'for' or 'acting as.' A pronoun is used as a substitute for a noun or a noun phrase. In other words, it has all the characteristics of a noun: it can function as a subject/object/complement in a sentence.

A pronoun is used to avoid the repetition of nouns or noun phrases:

1. Suresh went to the market because Suresh wanted to buy a pen.
i.e. Suresh went to the market because he wanted to buy a pen.
2. Walking is a form of exercise. Walking is easier than swimming.
i.e. Walking is a form of exercise. It is easier than swimming.

But a pronoun is different from a noun in that it cannot take a premodifying adjective nor can it take a determiner or a prefix/suffix. The form of a pronoun is fixed.

2.3 Kinds of Pronouns

There are nine kinds of pronouns:

- i) Personal Pronouns
- ii) Possessive Pronouns
- iv) Demonstrative Pronouns
- v) Reflective Pronouns
- vii) Relative Pronouns
- viii) Interrogative Pronouns
- ix) Indefinite Pronouns

2.3.1 Personal pronouns

I, we, you, he, she, it, they

These seven pronouns are called personal pronouns. On the basis of their role in a speech act, these can be divided into three:

First Person, Second Person, Third Person

2.3.2 Possessive pronouns

my, our, your, his, her, their, its (determiners)

mine, ours, yours, his, hers, theirs, its (predicative use)

They are used to express ownership/possession/relationship.

Determiners are followed by a noun.

This is my room.

The possessive pronoun in its predicative use cannot be followed by a noun.

We don't say:

This is mine room.

We say:

The room is mine.

Note: Its is always used as a determiner, never as a predicative.

This is a lock and that is its key. (not, ... that key is its.)

2.3.3 Reciprocal pronouns

each other, one another

These are used to express mutual/reciprocal relationship:

They love each other/one another.

Like any other pronoun, each other and one another have no intrinsic reference; therefore they have to have an antecedent. But unlike other pronouns, these cannot normally appear as the subject of a main clause because the antecedent should be in the sentence itself. Typically these occur as object of a verb or a preposition in a sentence that has a plural subject.

1. No two artists approve of each other's works.

But we cannot say:

2. If there are two children of the same age it is always good to put them in the same class. Each other can help in doing the homework.

But we can say:

The children can help each other in doing the homework.

Even though there are enough contextual clues in (2) as to the antecedent of each other the sentence is not possible.

Note: Traditional grammar makes a distinction between each other and one another. It requires that each other be used of only two people/things and one another of more than two. In current English both are used interchangeably, with a slight preference for each other.

2.3.4 Demonstrative pronouns

this, that, these, those

They are used to point to (demonstrate) people or things they stand for:

1. This is our new house.
2. That is the bridge built by the British.

Demonstrative pronouns have number contrast:

this these

that those

The basic function of demonstratives is to indicate the nearness or distance of the person or object referred to, from the speaker.

Some of the uses of demonstrative pronouns are shown below:

- a) When pointing:

This is my brother, Ravi.

That is his new car.

- b) When a specific category is implied:

Those who apply late will not be considered.

- c) When there is a reference to a previous statement or a statement that follows:

This is what I told them.

That is my opinion on the matter.

Note: Difference between it and this

It is a personal pronoun, whereas this is a demonstrative pronoun. As a demonstrative pronoun this indicates nearness and also identifies a person or thing. The use of it does not convey these shades of meaning, so this is preferred to it for making a formal announcement or introduction:

This is All India Radio giving you the news. (not, it)

Mum, this is Iaya, my friend. (not, it)

In an answer, however, it is preferred to this when a contracted form is used.

What's this?

It's a new electronic device. (not, this)

But when a contracted form is not used, this is okay.

What is this? This is a new electronic device.

2.3.5 Reflexive pronouns

Form:

A reflexive pronoun is formed by attaching self/selves to the objective form of the pronoun:

myself, ourselves, yourself/selves, himself, herself, themselves, itself

a) A reflexive pronoun is used as a substitute for a noun in the objective case i.e., as a direct object:

Govind saw Govind in the mirror.

Govind saw himself in the mirror.

This is used to avoid an awkward construction 'Govind ... Govind' .

Gayatri laughed at Gayatri.

Gayatri laughed at herself.

Note: Reflexive means 'bent back', i.e. 'bending the subject back to the subject.' A reflexive pronoun is used when the subject and the object refer to the same person or thing. This can be seen from the agreement between the subject and the reflexive object:

I saw myself in the mirror.

We dressed ourselves in the kitchen.

You sent yourself a birthday card.

They wrote themselves a 'Thank you' note.

He hurt himself while playing.

She taught herself the piano.

One should avail oneself of this chance.

b) It can be used as an indirect object as well:

Sujatha made herself a new dress.

Raghu gives himself airs.

2.3.7. Relative pronouns

who, whom, which, what, that

A relative pronoun relates or refers back to a noun or pronoun called its antecedent.

It also joins clauses. So it is a pronoun as well as a conjunction. Relative pronouns introduce relative clauses and noun clauses:

Those who live in glass houses shouldn't throw stones.

I don't know who is standing at the gate.

Which is used also as a sentence relative pronoun to introduce the relative clause in a sentence:

They eat snakes, which is unusual.

2.3.8 Interrogative pronouns

Who, whom, whose, which, what

The forms of relative pronouns and interrogative pronouns are identical, but their functions are different: the former join clauses, the latter ask questions.

- a) Who can come as the subject or as the object in a clause. Here who refers only to persons, not to things:

Who discovered America? (as subject)

Who did you invite for lunch? (as object)

Who are you talking about? (as object of the preposition)

In current English, whom is rarely used as the object; who is the preferred form.

- b) Whose is the possessive form of who; it can stand for both animate and inanimate nouns in interrogative expressions.

Do you know whose book won the award this year? (refers to author)

I borrowed a book from the library whose pages are all torn. (refers to book)

- c) Which is used for both people and things when there is an implied choice or selection:

Which card game do you like to play?

Which teacher do you like best?

- d) What as subject or object is used to refer to things only:

What is in your pocket?

What's wrong with you?

Note: a) Who is used for asking questions about a person's name, what for seeking information about a person's profession.

Who is that gentleman talking to your father? He is Mr Reddy.

What is he? He is an artist.

b) Which presupposes a set and the person is being asked about his choice. What, on the other hand, does not presuppose any set and there is no choice implied.

Which do you want? The red one.

What do you want? Some coffee.

2.3.10 Indefinite pronouns

Indefinite pronouns constitute a heterogeneous set. One can go about classifying them differently using different criteria.

A) Universal pronouns:

each, every, all

Each refers to two or more people or things, whereas every refers to three or more. Further, each presupposes a set (supplied by the context), every does not.

Rajeev walked into the room and gave a sweet to everyone (not, each)

Both each and every take of-constructions following them. So does all.

All can occur immediately before a noun. Therefore it is more like a determiner.

At times a definite article can intervene between all and the noun.

All the girls want to imitate Karen.

Each of you should attend the function.

Everyone of them came to see me in hospital.

B) Assertive pronouns:

There are five sub-classes in this:

- a) much, many
more Milk More hats
most Mosy

- b) little, less, least, few, fewer, fewest

Less goes with uncountable nouns and fewer with countable nouns.

Occasionally, less can be found with count nouns, too. Expressions denoting periods of time, sums, of money etc. take less.

There is less orange juice in my glass.

There are fewer public holidays this year.

c) several, enough

Several occurs with plural countable nouns only. Enough can occur with both countable and uncountable nouns. Enough, unlike several, can precede or follow the head noun.

Hanif and I met and spoke to several craftspersons at the fair.

Have you packed enough food for a day?

Have you packed food enough for a day?

d) one

The use of one as a pronoun is typical of British English. In American English his is used in place of one's.

One should love one's neighbour.

One should not think too much of oneself.

In question tags we/you is preferred to repeating one.

One cannot live all alone, can we/you? (not, one)

One/ones can substitute for a countable noun.

This mirror has cracked. I need to buy a new one.

These grapes are sour. I like sweet ones.

One can be premodified by the, that, this and which.

I have read a number of stories, but this is the one I like best.

I don't fancy this model, can I have that one?

Which one? The one in the corner?

One/ones is usually left out after these/those/either/neither/first/last/next.

These cars are smaller than those. (not, those ones)

The last to arrive was the blind man. (not, last one)

Here are two shirts. You can take either. (not, either one)

e) someone, somebody, something

Some usually goes with positive statements/questions.

Something must be done before it is too late.

Can someone help me with accounts?

I hope somebody picks up the phone.

C) Non-assertive pronouns:

a) anyone, anybody, anything

Any, unlike some, has some special occurrence properties. It does not occur with positive statements unless there is a modal element like can/will. A negative also can licence any.

The citizens will not believe anything. (not, The citizens believe anything).

I can challenge anybody.

b) either

Either as a pronoun refers to one out of a set of two. Note that either is always singular.

Eitheryou make up your mind quickly, or we leave you and go.

Either of the two proposals is acceptable to me.

D) Negative pronouns:

a) no, no one, nobody, none, nothing

No can precede a 'noun, therefore it is like a determiner.

Madhuri showed no interest in the new film.

The rest of the n- series have only nominal function. These generally take an affirmative verb; they do not allow a not in the sentence.

The police did nothing to control the mob.

(not, The police could not do nothing.)

There are certain varieties of non-standard English where a double negative is common.

b) neither

Neither is the negative counterpart of either. It is always used in the singular. It can come before a noun.

Neither of the allegations is true.

Neither allegation is true.

2.4 Pronouns: Number

Like nouns, pronouns too, have number. But the number system of pronouns is different from that of nouns because an s is not added to pronouns to turn them into plural. The singular and plural forms of pronouns are fixed.

singular

I, me, my, mine, myself

you, your, yours, yourself

he, his, him, himself
themselves

it, its, itself, one, oneself
many, some

each, either, neither, few, each other, one
another

none, no one, someone, anyone, everyone

somebody, nobody, anybody, everybody

something, nothing, anything, everything

Note: you, all, any, some, none, who, which and that can be used in both numbers.

You are a clever fellow.

You are brave men. .

(Thou, the singular second person pronoun is archaic.)

plural

we, us, our, ours, ourselves

you, your, yours, yourselves

she, her, hers, herself they, them, their, theirs,

this, that, much, little these, those, ones, both,

All is not lost.

All are well here.

2.5 Pronouns: Gender

Gender is of four kinds:

i) Masculine

- ii) Feminine
- iii) Common
- iv) Neuter

The gender system of pronouns is different from that of nouns because a suffix like *ess* is not used to mark gender distinctions. The gender of pronouns is fixed.

i) Masculine pronouns
he, him, his, himself

ii) Feminine pronouns
she, her, hers, herself

iii) Common gender pronouns

I, we, you, they

Personal Pronouns

mine, ours, yours, theirs

Possessive Pronouns

myself, yourself, ourselves, themselves

Reflexive Pronouns

each other, one another

Distributive Pronouns

each, either, neither

everybody, nobody, anybody

Indefinite Pronouns

somebody, everyone, noone

anyone, someone, one none

ho, which, what, that,

Relative Pronouns

who? which? what?

Interrogative Pronouns

iv) Neuter gender pronouns

it, its, itself

anything, nothing, something, everything

2.6 Pronouns :Persons

Person is a grammatical category which has three divisions:

The first person refers to the person speaking or writing (I, we), the second person to the person addressed (you) and the third person to the person spoken or written about (he, she, they). In a speech situation the first and second person are necessarily present, the third person may or may not be present.

i) First person

I, me, my, mine, myself,

we, us, our, ours, ourselves

ii) Second person

you, your, yours, yourself, yourselves

iii) Third Person

he, his, him, himself,

she, her, herself,

it, its, itself,

they, them, their, theirs, themselves

2.7 Summary

You have been given a detailed understanding of the pronouns in English in this unit.

2.8 Unit End Question

Fill in the blanks with the right alternative:

- i) She doesn't obey parents. (his, her)
- ii) It is who has broken this chair. (he, him)
- iii) He is not such a man can help us. (who, as)
- iv) I don't know the man is standing there. (who, which)
- v) One shouldn't betray friends. (one's, his)
- vi) _____ of the two sisters is married. (none, neither)
- vii) _____ of the two boys will get a prize. (anyone, either)

viii) _____ of the two girls has short hair. (each, everyone)

ix) Everyone of the guests has taken seat. (his, their)

x) He and I believe in doing work sincerely. (my, our)

xi) My watch broke yesterday is now useless. (that, which)

Choose the right alternative and fill in the blanks:

i) Who you food and money? (gives/does give)

ii) What the accident? (did caused/caused)

iii) What is she? She is . (Mary/a nurse)

iv) He acquitted as a statesman. (well/himself well)

v) _____ is the tallest girl in the class? (Which/What)

vi) _____ is he speaking to? (Who/Whom)

vii) _____ he gone yet? (has/hasn't)

viii) Do you know who ? (she is/is she)

ix) They are looking at . (he/him)

x) Who is he? He is . (a teacher/Rakesh)

III. Correct these sentences:

1. My father, that lives in France has sent me a watch.
2. It are they who create problems everywhere.
3. I haven't yet read the book who is lying on the shelf.
4. She is 0 e of those who does what she says.
5. One can't live all alone, can one?
6. They each wants to get a medal.
7. This is a fan and that is it's switch.
8. Do you know as to when will Jennifer get back?
9. Everyone of these two boys was rewarded.
10. I am the man who have won a prize.

11. I think foolish to tease a snake.
12. This is mine own car.
13. He always prides on his wealth.
14. He addressed to the chair.
15. Which colour is gold?

IV. Put a tick (✓) against the correct sentence.(s):

1. a) It was Anil who helped me.
 b) It was Anil that helped me.
2. a) It is Shweta whom I want to see.
 b) It is Shweta that I want to see.
3. a) This apple is green. I want red one.
 b) This apple is green'. I want a red one.
4. a) Look at the boy who is in shorts.
 b) Look at the boy that is in shorts.
5. a) He is the greatest thinker that was ever born.
 b) He is the greatest thinker who was ever born.
6. a) They eat snakes, which is nauseating.
 b) They eat snakes, which are nauseating.
- 7, a) A girl who has short hair she looks like a boy.
 b) A girl who has short hair looks like a boy.
 c) A girl that has short hair looks like a boy.
8. a) They enjoyed last night.
 b) They enjoyed themselves last night.
 c) They enjoyed themselves a party last night.
9. a) It is BBC giving you the news.
 b) This is BBC giving you the news.

Unit – 3

Adjectives and Determiners

Structure

- 3.0 Objectives
- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Definition
- 3.3 Kinds of Adjectives
 - 3.3.1 Adjectives of quality
- 3.4 Degrees of Comparison
 - 3.4.1 Comparative degree
 - 3.4.2 Superlative degree
- 3.5 Comparatives and Superlatives
 - 3.5.2 Comparison: structure
- 3.6 Determiners
 - 3.6.1 Categories of Determiners
- 3.7 Differences between Adjectives and Determiners
- 3.8 Determiners: Usage
- 3.9 Summary
- 3.10 Exercises

3.0 Objectives

In this Unit we shall give details about Adjectives. We shall also describe modern English grammar entity of Determiners and how they differ from Adjectives.

3.1 Introduction

Adjectives in English are equivalent of विशेषण in Hindi. However, Hindi has so far, no exclusive entity of Determiners.

3.2 Definition

Adjective says something more about a noun. An adjective can take an adverb of degree (intensifier) like too/very. It has comparative and superlative forms as well.

Adjectives in English are not affected by number or gender or case because they do not have to agree with the noun they modify.

3.3 Kinds of Adjectives

Adjectives are of five kinds:

3.3.1 Adjectives of quality

black, white, long, short

good, bad, hot, cold

They describe the shape, or size, or colour etc. of a person or thing.

Milk is white.

Today is a cold day.

Fire is hot.

Proper adjectives

Indian, American

Roman, Elizabethan

These are formed from proper nouns, particularly from names of geographical places (continents, countries, states). Adjectives like these describe origin or source:

Indian goods, Japanese toys

3.4 Degrees of Comparison

A significant formal feature of attributive adjectives is that they can be graded.

This is known as degrees of comparison. This is a property adjectives share with adverbs.

There are three degrees of comparison:

i) positive	ii) comparative	iii) Superlative
bold	bolder	boldest
sweet	sweeter	sweetest
long	longer	longest

3.4.1 Comparative degree

- i) An adjective in comparative degree is normally followed by than.
1. Tom is taller than John.
 2. She is older than him.
 3. This picture is more beautiful than that one.
- ii) Comparative form + of comparative form + of is used in the construction the + comparative form + of + the two:
1. He is the wiser of the two.
 2. This is the better of the two.
- iii) Comparative form + to
to is used with Latin comparatives
1. He is junior to me.
 2. She is senior to him.
- iv) Preferable + to
to is used with preferable as well:
1. Fish is preferable to red meat.
 2. Honey is preferable to sugar.
- Note: a) preferable is not used with more.
not Fish is more preferable to red meat.
- b) than + noun/pronoun (object form)

In this construction than is a preposition used before a noun/pronoun to express comparison between two people or things. Since than is a preposition here it takes a pronoun in the object form:

1. He is taller than me.
2. He is older than her.
3. She is richer than him.

In this construction purists used to insist that the pronoun following than must be in the subject form.

e.g. 'He is taller than I'

This is now considered archaic. In current English, the objective form is preferred in both formal and informal usage.

c) than + noun/pronoun (subject form)

In this construction than is a conjunction used after a comparative adjective/adverb to introduce an adverb clause of comparison, so than takes a pronoun in the subject form:

She loves her more than I do (love her).

She is much better today than she was yesterday.

He earns much more than she (does).

She works harder than he (does) .

3.4.2 Superlative degree

Superlative degree is used in the structure the + superlative + of/in/on.

This construction is used to compare more than two people or things:

1. This is the best offer of all.
2. This is the oldest church in India.
3. Everest is the highest peak on earth.

Note: a) In this construction we can't use, all other, any other, anyone else, anybody else, anything else

not She is the tallest of any other girls.

b) of is used with people or things and in and on with place:

She is the best of the candidates.

He is the richest man in the village.

c) the is obligatory before the superlative form of the adjective.

1. January is the coldest month.

2. This is the safest way.

3. Philosophy is the most difficult subject to learn.

d) However, most is used in the following without a definite article. Here

it is not a superlative; the meaning is that of the intensifier very.

Rashid is most unhappy. (meaning, very unhappy)

This is a most interesting story. (meaning, very interesting)

ii) one of the + superlative + plural noun

This construction, too, is used to compare more than two people or things:

1. Kalidasa is one of the greatest poets.

2. jaisalmer is one of the hottest places in summer.

Note: a) A plural noun is always used after the superlative:

One of the brightest objects.

One of the cheapest bags.

3.5 Comparatives and Superlatives

Formation

i) Adjective+er/est

Adjective of one syllable adder in the comparative form and est in superlative form:

Positive	comparative	superlative
Tall	taller	tallest

Long	longer	longest
Short	shorter	shortest
Sweet	sweeter	sweetest

ii) Adjective+r/st

One syllable adjectives ending in e add r in the comparative form and st in the superlative form:

Positive	comparative	superlative
Fine	finer	finest
Brave	braver	bravest
wise	wiser	wisest

iii) Double Consonant +er\est

Positive	comparative	superlative
Big	bigger	biggest
Fat	fatter	fattest
Hot	hotter	hottest
Sad	sadder	saddest
Glad	gladder	gladdest
Slim	slimmer	slimmest
thin	thinner	thinnest

iv) i + er/est

If a one-syllable adjective ends in consonant + y, y is changed into i when er/est is added:

positive	comparative
easy	easier
dry	drier

holy	holier
funny	funnier
happy	happier

But vowel + y is not changed into i:

gay	gayer	gayest
-----	-------	--------

v) Irregular forms

positive	comparative	superlative
bad	worse	worst
good	better	best
well	better	best
little	less	least
much	more	most
many	many	most
far	more	farthest
far	farther	furthest
old	further	eldest
	elder	(of people only)
old	older	oldest
		(of people and things)

vi) Adjectives of more than two syllables form their comparative/superlative by adding more to the comparative form and most in the superlative:

positive	comparative	superlative
beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
intelligent	more intelligent	most intelligent
important	more important	most important

3.5.2 Comparison: structure

Positive degree

i) With the positive degree as +adjective +as is used in the affirmative:

1. He is as gentle as a lamb.
2. Virtue is as important as money.
3. She is as tall as him.

This construction indicates equality between two people or things.

Note: Some of the idiomatic comparisons are:

as black as coal/ pitch	as black as coal/pitch	as happy as a lark
as brave as a lion	as brave as a lion	as hot as fire
as bright as silver	as bright as silver	as light as a feather
as busy as a bee	as busy as a bee	as proud as a peacock
as clear as crystal/day	as clear as crystal/day	as quiet as a mouse
as cunning as a fox	as cunning as a fox	as red as blood
as cold as ice	as cold as ice	as sharp as a needle/razor
as dry as dust/ bone	as dryas dust/bone	as smooth as velvet
as easy as ABC	as easy as ABC	as stupid as an ass
as firm as a rock	as firm as a rock	as sure as death
as fresh as a daisy	as fresh as a daisy	as tough as leather
as gentle as a lamb	as gentle as a lamb	as white as snow
as green as grass	as green as grass	as weak as a kitten

ii) as ... as construction can be replaced by like in certain contexts:

1. She is as gentle as a lamb. i.e. She is gentle like a lamb.
2. He is as tall as me. i.e. He is tall like me.

Note: a) as + noun/pronoun (object form)

In as ... as the first as is an adverb used before adjectives or adverbs and the second as a preposition. In this construction as ... as means 'to the same extent' and expresses comparison between two people. Since the second as is a preposition it takes a pronoun in the object form:

1. She is as old as him.
2. He is not as generous as me.

b) as + noun/pronoun (subject form)

When as ... as means 'to the same extent', the first as is an adverb and the second as a conjunction because it functions as a clause introducer.

Since the second as is a conjunction, it takes a pronoun in the subject form:

1. She works as hard as he (does).
2. I ran as fast as I could.
3. He is not as innocent as he looks.
4. He loves her as much I (do).

3.6 Determiners

A determiner signals the coming of a noun in a sentence.

3.6.1 Determiners fall into the following categories:

A. articles

a, an, the

B. possessives

my, our, your, his, her, their, its

C. demonstratives

this, that, these, those

These are used to point out people or things.

This car is red. That girl is tall.

D. distributives

each, every, either, neither

They refer to each member of a class separately:

I have met seven girls. Each girl is smart/Every girl is smart.

E. number expressions

another, many, several, some, any, no, few, enough,

a number of, a lot of, lots of, plenty of, some of, many of,

one, two, three ... (cardinal numbers)

F. quantifiers

much" some, no, any, little, enough,

a lot of, lots of, plenty of, much of, some of

G. interrogatives

what, which

They combine with nouns to form interrogative expressions used in questions:

What colour is the sky?

Which girl is the tallest?

3.7 Differences between Adjectives and Determiners

i) The form of adjectives can change,

tall taller tallest

Determiners, on the other hand, have an invariant form.

a boy, the girl

ii) An adjective can be used before a noun, or as a complement to 'to be'. But determiner comes only before a noun.

adjective determiner

A good book. This book is good. almy/every book

iii) More than one adjective can be used to modify a noun, but more than onedeterminer is not allowed in a noun phrase.

She is a tall, beautiful girl. (but not, an every book.)

iv) A determiner always comes before an adjective, not after it.

a red pen

her new hat

3.8 Determiners: Usage

Determiners of number/quantity

A. Some and any

i) some is used with affirmative verbs:

1. I have got some milk. (not, any milk)
2. He has got some good friends. (not, any friends)

ii) any is used with negative verbs:

3. I haven't got any gold. (not some gold)
4. She hasn't got any dogs. (not some dogs)

Note: any is used with negative adverbs as well:

hardly, scarcely, barely,

never, neither, nor, seldom, too

1. He has hardly any money.
2. She has never written any poems.
3. He is too poor to buy any gold rings.
4. They seldom go for any function.

But enough takes some, because it is positive in meaning:

She is rich enough to buy some gold rings.

iii) any is used after if or whether and expressions of doubt:

1. Ring me up if you need any help. (not some)
2. I don't think you will have any difficulty here. (not some)
3. I asked her if/whether she had any money with her. (not some)

iv) Either some or any can be used in ordinary questions:

1. Have you got some ink?
2. Have you got any ink?

A question like this is indifferent to the response, so the reply can be either positive (yes) or negative (no):

1. Will you buy some fish? Yes, I will. No, I won't.
2. Have you got any milk? Yes, I have. No, I haven't.

v) A question expressing request takes some:

Could you give me some milk, please? (not any milk)

vi) A question expecting a positive response takes some:

Have you got some eggs? Yes, I have.

vii) In an affirmative sentence any means 'no matter who/which/what', i.e., 'no one in particular':

1. Any option is feasible.
2. You may call on me any day you like.

viii) some can be used with a singular countable noun that is vague or unknown:

Some gentleman is waiting to see you.

ix) some can be used before definite numbers to mean 'approximately' or 'about':

There are some twenty people at the gate.

x) some can be used before a noun to mean considerable number or amount or extent:

1. That is some help/relief/satisfaction.
2. He is really some poet/singer.

Note: Any is not possible in place of some in any of the cases from viii-x.

a) not any/no any

no any is never used instead of not any.

She hasn't got any rings. (not no any rings).

b) no/not any

No or not any can be used after have, but have got usually takes not any, not no:

He hasn't got any friends. (not He has got no friends.)

c) some/any/no +nouti

They can be used as adjectives of number and as adjectives of quantity. So they can be used with a countable or an uncountable noun. With countable nouns, the form is plural:

1. She has some friends.
2. He doesn't need any money.
3. They did not sell any calendars.
4. She has no toys.

But the noun is in the singular form when not any/no means 'not even one/not a single':

1. He has no telephone (not even one car)
2. She has no umbrella. (not even one umbrella)
3. He hasn't got any house. (not even one house.)

So the choice of a singular or plural noun depends on the meaning of no/any i.e., 'not some/not one'.

8. No and none

i) no behaves like a determiner but none doesn't, so we can use no + noun but not none + noun:

1. He has no gold. (not none gold)
2. This chair has no arms. (not none arms)

ii) no «noun can be used to express contrast/the opposite:

1. He is no scholar. (He is not a scholar)
2. She is no beauty. (She is not beautiful)

Notice that in this construction the noun does not take an article:

He is not a leader.

iii) no + good

In this construction good is treated as a noun because by origin it is a noun meaning advantage; so no is used as determiner.

It's no good repenting now.

C. All and both

i) These are predeterminers and are therefore followed by a determiner.

1. All the boys are playing.

2. Both these cars are white.

3. All his friends deserted him.

D. Another/other

i) another is always used with a singular noun:

1. Tell me another story.

2. He is now engaged to another girl.

ii) Other meaning 'the second of the two' takes a singular noun:

The other bank of this river is very dirty.

ii) other or the other can take a singular or plural noun:

1. I will talk to you some other time.

2. John is intelligent but the other boys are dull.

Note: another is not used with an or the because it is a determiner:

1. I would like another cup of tea. (not, an another)

2. This pen is broken. Give me another please. (not an another/the another one)

E. Much and many

i) much is used before singular uncountable nouns to denote quantity:

1. He hasn't got much courage. (not, many)

2. I haven't got much time. (not, many)

ii) many is used before plural countable nouns to denote number:

1. I haven't got many passes. (not, much)
2. She hasn't got many 'options. (not, much)

iii) much and many are used with how to ask questions:

1. How many dogs have you got?
2. How much coffee do you want?

iv) much and many are usually used in negative and interrogative sentences:

1. There isn't much squash in this bottle.
2. There aren't many girls in my class.
3. Was much money wasted over the project?
4. Were many men hurt in the firing?

v) many modifying an object in affirmative sentences is preferably replaced by these determiners.

a number of, a lot of, lots of, plenty of

1. She bought a number of combs.
2. He has got a lot of shoes.
3. She has bought plenty of vegetables.

vi) much modifying an object in an affirmative sentence is usually replaced by these determiners.

a lot of, plenty of, a large quantity of,

a good deal of, a great deal of

We have had a lot of rain this year.

He has plenty of leisure.

vii) much and many are used in affirmative sentences when they are modified by so as/too/how.

so many boys so much noise

as many questions as much gold
too many problems too much pain
how many teachers how-much butter

Talking about the past causes him too much pain.

viii) many an/a takes a singular countable noun:

Many a tree has been cut down.

Many an egg is rotten.

In common speech, however, many a/an is rarely used. A lot of/plenty of is used instead.

Plenty of trees have been cut down.

F. Few and little

i) few denotes number. Plural countable nouns are used with few, a few, and the few:

I have few hopes in life

The children played for a few minutes.

They sold the few dogs that they had.

ii) little denotes quantity, so singular uncountable nouns are used with little, a little, and the little:

She has little confidence in herself.

All I ask for is a little help from you.

I have spent the little money I had.

iii) few and little are used in a negative sense because they mean 'not any'

He has few friends. (i.e., no friends)

He has little money. (i.e., no money)

a few and a little are positive, they mean some:

He has a few friends. (i.e., some friends)

He has a little money. (i.e., some money)

- v) the few means 'not many, but all that are there', the little means 'not much, but all that is there'.

I have already read the few books that I have. (not a few)

He has spent the little money he had. (not a little)

the few/the little + noun is usually followed by :l relative clause.

The few statues (that) he bought are damaged.

She has sold the few horses (that) she used to keep.

G. Distributives each and every

i) each is used for two or more people/things.

ii) every is used for more than two people/things. Every is not used of only two.

I saw two movies last week. Each of them had a murder plot. (not every movie)

There are six electronics shops in this street. Each shop is selling radios at a discount. (not every shop)

Note: emphatic each

each is made emphatic by using each and every:

Each and every vote is valuable.

But neither every nor each and every can be used when the reference is to only two people or things.

- iii) Both each and every take a singular countable noun, not an uncountable noun:

Each city in India is famous for its variety. (not, cities)

Every ritual has a meaning. (not, rituals)

- iv) Every can be used with plural expressions indicating 'intervals in time and space':

every three hours, every few kilometers

He has to take medicine every four hours.

She was stopped every two kilometers by her fans.

(each is not possible here).

- v) each + of can function as a predeterminer, every + of cannot Each of the boys/them has a bag.

not, Every of the boys/them has a hat.

H. Either and neither

i) either means one of the two:

You can take either half of this apple.

ii) neither means 'not one nor the other of the two':

There are two reports about the accident. Neither report is true.

Thus both either and neither are used for only two people or things.

- iii) When the number is greater than two, either/neither is replaced by any:

I have six copies of the novel. You can take any copy you like.

I can't spare any copies of the novel.

- iv) either and neither take a singular countable noun:

either side, neither report.

Note: a) either and both

Either means 'both/each of the two' when the existence of the one implies the existence of the other, i.e. when two things are complementary to each other: '

either side of a road (both sides)

either bank of a river (both banks)

I. Demonstratives

In English an adjective has the same form for both singular and plural nouns but demonstratives show agreement of number between a demonstrative adjective and its noun:

i) this/that takes a singular noun, these/those takes a plural noun.

This car is brown. These cars are blue.

That girl is tall. Those girls are tall.

Note: these or those kind of or sort of is permissible only in colloquial style:

I don't like these kind of movies.

J. Possessives

Possessives are like adjectives in that they can come in a prenominal (i.e. before a noun) position and also in the complement position of be. But unlike adjectives, possessives have distinct forms in these two positions. We may refer to these two uses of possessives as

a) the determiner use

This is my book.

and

b) the predicative use.

This book is mine.

not, This is mine house.

ii) A (determiner) possessive is made emphatic by using own/very own after it:

This is my own car.

That is her very own house.

iii) A possessive + noun denoting the part of one's body or dress/clothing is preferably replaced by the + noun:

1. I hit him on his head. (I hit him on the head.)

2. He caught her by her hair. (He caught her by the hair.)

3. I caught him by his collar. (I caught him by the collar.)

K. Interrogatives

i) What is used to ask general questions about colour/shape/size etc.:

1. What colour is the sky?

2. What size (of shoes) do you want?

Note: a) what + age/length/height etc. is normally expressed by how + adjective:

1. What age is she? = How old is she?

2. What height are you? = How tall are you?

b) But what + colour/shape/size can't be replaced by how:

1. What colour is gold?

2. What shape is this table?

3.9 Summary

Now you have a clear-cut concept of the terms Adjectives and Determiners.

3.10 Unit End Question

I. Choose the right alternative:

1. This girl is the wisest all. (of/than)

2. He is the of the two. (stronger/strongest)

3. He is junior me but senior her. (to/than- to/than)

4. This is the temple in India. (oldest/eldest)

5. He is richer than . (anyone else/any)

6. This route is of all. (the most shortest/shortest)

7. This pen is than that. (more cheaper/cheaper)

8. Chicken is preferable red meat. (to/than)

9. He is duller than . (all other boys/all boys)

10. The climate of Delhi is better than . (London/that of London)

11. I am feeling very . (hungry/hungrily)

12. It is getting . (colder and colder/cold and cold)

II. Choose the correct one from the pairs given and put a 'v', as shown in example (1):

1. a) It is nonsense sheer.
b) It is sheer nonsense. V
2. a) Could you give me some sugar, please?
b) Could you give me any sugar, please?
3. a) He is going to buy an another car.
b) He is going to buy another car.
4. a) She is too poor to give me some money.
b) She is too poor to give me any money.
5. a) My hair is shorter than Mary.
b) My hair is shorter than Mary's.
6. a) I would rather resign than flatter my boss.
b) I would rather resign than to flatter my boss.
7. a) All these women are fond of gossip.
b) These all women are fond of gossip.
8. a) My elder brother always gives me toffee.
b) My older brother always gives me toffee.
9. a) This book is unique.
b) This book is the most unique.
10. a) It is not so easy to cook as to eat.
b) It is not so easy to cook as eat.
11. a) She is elder than her brother.
b) She is older than her brother.
12. a) I am fairly better today.
b) I am rather better today.

III. Fill in the blanks choosing the right word:

1. Tom is than John. (elder, older)

2. This cloth is to that. (better, superior)
3. There are girls than boys here. (less, fewer)
4. This is the tree in the forest. (oldest, eldest)
5. Which is the of the three sons? (wiser, wisest)
6. Which is , March or May? (hotter, hottest)
7. This is best book in the market. (very the, the very)
8. I saw her ago. (few days, a few days)
9. He is rich as her. (so, as)
10. He is older than . (me, I)
11. She is as tall as . (he, him)
12. This flower smells . (sweet, sweetly)

IV. Put a V against the correct phrase:

"". a) neither girl

2. a) a few money

b) neither girls

b) a little money

3. a) not some pens b) not any pens

a) much easier b) more easier

:>. a) richer than all men b) richer than all other men

6. a) quite impossible b) more impossible

a) preferable to b) preferable than

8. a) so old as him b) as old as him

9. a) more important and b) more and more important

more important

Correct the sentences, if necessary:

1. I have read a few books I had.

2. Tell me if you have some doubt.
3. He hit her on her head.
4. She is wiser than anybody here.
5. He has hardly some money.
6. His all sheep are white.
- 7 Milk is more preferable to fish.
8. He is taller than the two.
9. She is comparatively better today.
10. either courses of action are safe.
 1. Lakshmi is wiser than braver.
 2. Preetha has got no any sister.
 3. There are less tables than chairs here.
 - 4 He is the dullest of all other boys.
 - 5 This book is the much best of all.
 6. I would prefer to die than to live in disgrace.
 - 7 My car is much more cheaper than you.
 8. She has spent little money she had.

Unit- 4

Articles

Structure

- 4.0 Objectives
- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Definition
- 4.3 Kinds of Articles
- 4.4 Articles and Number System
- 4.5 Articles and Gender System
- 4.6 Indefinite Articles
 - 4.6.1 Position of the indefinite article
 - 4.6.2 Usage on the basis of sound
- 4.7. Definite Article: Usage
- 4.8 Omission of Articles
 - 4.8.1 Proper nouns
 - 4.8.2 Uncountable nouns
 - 4.8.2 Plural indefinite nouns
- 4.9 Conclusion
- 4.10 Unit end Questions
- 14.11 References

4.0 Objective

In this unit we shall discuss a very important grammatical concept of Articles in English.

4.1 Introduction

Hindi has no equivalents of Articles so their usage poses a great problem to the Indian speakers.

4.2 Definition

An article (a/an/the) is a determiner. As a determiner it signals the coming of a noun after it.

Look at these sentences:

1. This is a book (not, This is book.)
2. This is milk (not, This is a milk.)
3. That is an egg (not, That is a egg.)

Articles are used with nouns but not all nouns are used with articles, so it is necessary to know a) which noun requires an article and which doesn't and b) which article to use when one is required.

4.3 Kinds of Articles

There are two kinds of articles:

- i) Indefinite a/an
- ii) Definite the

Note: quantitative articles-some/any

Indefinite uncountable nouns and plural indefinite countable nouns usually do not take an article:

1. She bought milk. (not a/the milk)
2. He bought her toys.

But nouns like these usually take a determiner some/any to indicate a certain quantity or number:

1. She bought some milk. She didn't buy any milk.
2. He bought some toys. He didn't buy any toys.

Since some and any (determiners) are used as substitutes for articles they may be called quantitative articles.

4.4 Articles and Number System

The use of articles is linked to the number system of nouns. Nan is never used with a plural noun:

1. This is a pen. (not, a pens)
2. That is an apple. (not, an apples)

But the is not governed by the number system, so it can be used with singular nouns and plural nouns as well:

Look at the bird/s in the tree.

4.5 Articles and Gender System

In a few languages the forms of articles and adjectives are determined by the gender of the noun but in English this is not so. The same form is used for all genders:

He is an actor.

She is an actress.

Please lend me an umbrella.

4.6 Indefinite Articles

4.6.1 Position of the indefinite article

- i) a/an is an article and therefore belongs to the class of determiners. Being a determiner, its position is before the adjective.

a good book

an intelligent girl

- ii) a/an is placed after predeterminers like many/much/rather/quite/what

1. What a man he is! (not, a what man)

2. Many a man was injured. (not, a many man)

3. He gave such a talk that everybody fell asleep. (not, a such talk)

4. She is quite a beauty. (not, a quite beauty)

iii) a/an is placed after adjectives when they are premodified by as/so/too/how/
quite:

1. How fine a place it is !

2. It is too absurd an answer.

4.6.2 Usage on the basis of sound

The choice between a or an is determined by the initial sound of the word following it; if the word begins with a consonant sound, use a; if the word begins with a vowel sound, use an.

Note: that consonant and vowel refer to sound not to be the letter of the alphabet. A e I o u are letters of the alphabet, not sounds.

i) a + consonant sound

a is used before a word beginning with a consonant sound:

a book, a cat, a dog, a fan

a university, a European

Note: a) Words beginning with u/eu have an initial y sound, so they take a:

a unit, a utensil, a union, a utopia

a eunuch, a ewe, a eulogy, a euphemism

b) o pronounced like w is a consonant sound, so such words take a:

a one-eyed man, a one-dayer

a one-rupee note, a one-act play

ii) an + vowel sound

an is used before a word beginning with a vowel sound:

an apple, an egg, an inkpot

an hour, an honour, an heir

Note: a) an + a mute h (Silent h) /

Words beginning with a mute h take an, not a:

heir, honest, honour, hour

honorary, honorarium

1. He is an honest man.
2. We had an hour's rest.
3. It is an honour to me.
4. This is an honorary post.

b) hotel, historical, habitual, humble

1. That is a hotel.
2. This is a historical novel.
3. He is a habitual drunkard.
4. This is a humble beginning.

an is not acceptable here because in current English the h in these words is pronounced.

c) an + acronyms/abbreviations

an is used before acronyms/abbreviations beginning with f, h, l, m, n, r, s, x because each of these consonants has an initial vowel sound e/a:

f (ef) h (eich) l (el) m (em)

n (en) r (aar) s (es) x (eks)

1. He is an FBI agent.
2. This is an HMT watch.
3. He is an LLB.
4. He is an MP.
5. He is an NCC officer.
6. He has sent an 50S.

7. This is an X-ray telescope.

d) an + number

an is used before a number beginning with a vowel sound:

This is an 18- player team.

He is an 80- year old man.

but:

This is a 5-year old child.

e) MS is an abbreviation for manuscript. The abbreviated form is usually pronounced manuscript, not 'em- es', so it takes a. But MS pronounced like 'em- es' has to take an:

This is an M5 (em- es) of my new book.

This is a M5 (manuscript) of my new book. (not an)

f) Xmas is an abbreviation for Christmas but it is usually pronounced as 'Christmas', not 'Ex-mas', so it takes a. If pronounced 'ex-mas',

the article should be an:

a Xmas (Christmas) card. (not, an)

This is an Xmas (Ex-mas) card.

g) a/an + adverb/adjective + noun

The choice of alan does not always depend on the initial sound of the head noun. It depends on the initial sound of what follows it immediately. It can be an adjective or adverb placed before the noun:

an honest man, an extremely difficult problem

a great artist, a very amusing story

4.7. Definite Article: Usage

i) a/an is used before an indefinite noun, so a singular countable noun mentioned for the first time takes a/an:

This is a pen.

That is a pencil.

This is an apple. That is an orange.

The is used before a definite noun. When a noun is mentioned again, i.e. when it refers back to a noun mentioned already it takes the. This is called an anaphoric function of the:

This is an old palace. People believe that the palace was built 500 years ago.

- ii) The, like alan is used before a singular countable noun mentioned for the first time when it represents a class, i.e. when the means 'all/every'. This is called a generic or classifying function of the:

The camel is the ship of the desert.

The lion is a wild animal.

Note: Man/mankind meaning 'all men/women' does not take alan/the:

Man is mortal. (not althe man)

Mankind is searching for meaning.

- iii) the is used before adjectives or participles to represent a class of people:

the rich, the poor, the dead

the dying, the injured/wounded

The rich are not necessarily happy.

The blind deserve our sympathy.

- iv) the is used before an adjective to denote a quality:

the white/yellow of an egg

the evil, the good, the beautiful

- v) The is used before a noun considered unique or extraordinary, i.e., a noun treated as equivalent to a superlative adjective. In this construction the means 'the best, the only, or precisely', so it has a heightening effect on the noun it modifies:

She is the bride for him.

This is the place for our picnic.

He is the authority on the subject.

vi) The is used before a noun whose identity is common knowledge or can be easily inferred. In this construction the denotes a person's title, rank, or profession etc.:

the president the Prime Minister

the principal the king/queen

the prophet the bench/bar

the postman the press/media

vii) The is used before a singular common noun (place/person) that can be easily inferred from the situation:

the police station the post office

the station the radio

1. Would you close the gate, please?

2. She is listening to the radio.

3. He will be on the air tonight.

4. Turn on/off the tap, please.

Note: a) radio always takes the:

She is listening to the radio.

What's on the radio now?

b) The use of the before television is optional:

What's on the television now?

What's on television now?

But the is not used in the expression 'watch TV':

They are watching TV. (not, the TV)

viii) The is used before common nouns denoting musical instruments:

She is playing the violin/piano/sitar.

He is playing the drum/tabla.

He is accompanied on the violin by an Englishman.

(not, She is playing harmonium.)

- ix) The is used before a noun denoting a unit of measure to mean 'every':
We buy petrol by the gallon/litre.
They sell bananas by the dozen.
They are paid wages by the hour/week.
- x) the is used before both countable and uncountable nouns (singular or plural) that are made definite by:
- a) preposition/prepositional phrase
the boy with long hair
the woman in black
the milk in the bottle
the boys/girls/teachers of this school
- b) a relative clause
the book|pen/milk|sugar/she bought yesterday
the water|tea/coffee he drinks every day
the birds/animals that live in a forest
- xi) The is used before a noun placed by the side of a noun clause (that-clause):
1. The news that the PM has resigned, is not true.
 - 2 The fact that Columbus discovered America is known to all.
- xii) The is used before a singular countable noun to denote an attribute/a quality
The monkey in man still survives.
The dancer in her is dead.
- xiii) The is used before adjectives in the superlative degree:
the best book the most beautiful flower
one of the wisest men one of the most useful animals
- Note: a) the is not used in the construction like best/like most

Which do you like best/most? (not, the best/the most)

b) the is not used before most/least when it is used in the sense of 'very':

It is a most interesting story.

xiv) The is used before adjectives in the comparative degree (of the two):

She is the taller of the two girls.

He is the wiser of the two boys.

Note: a) the ... the

In this construction expressing parallel increase/decrease the is used twice:

The older you grow the wiser you become.

The more you have the more you want.

xv) The is used before ordinal numbers and 'only':

the first prize the only hope

the only son the second son

xvi) The is used before few/little + relative clause:

I have read the few books/I have.

She has spent the little money/she had .

. (In this construction a is not possible)

viz., He has broken a few toys he bought yesterday.

xvii) The is used before the names of ranges of mountains and hills:

the Himalayas the Alps

the Khasi hills the Vindhya

Note: the is not used before the following peaks or mountains:

Everest Kailas Kanchenjunga

Mont Blanc Olympus Snowdon

Mount Abu Parasnath

viii) The is used before names of groups of islands:

the Andamans the West Indies
the Hebrides the Maldives

Note: the is not used before individual islands:

Crete Malta Bermuda
Ireland Sicily Sri Lanka

The is used before names of gulfs, canals, seas, and oceans:

the Atlantic (ocean) the Pacific (ocean)
the Indian ocean the Mediterranean sea
the Persian gulf the gulf of Mexico
the Panama canal the Suez canal

xx) The is used before names of rivers/channels:

the Ganga the Thames
the Rhine the Avon
the Danube the Euphrates
the Indus the Amazon
the Brahmaputra the English Channel
the Tyne the Mississipi
the Nile the Sutlej/Beas

xxi) The is used before names of these countries/states:

the Netherlands the Sudan
the Transval the Congo
the UK the USA
the Punjab the GDR

.xxii) The is used before the names of holy/great books:

the Bible the Gita
the Koran the Ramayan

the Mahabharat the Iliad

Note: The is not used before the name of a book when it appears before the name of the author in the possessive case i.e., before name + 's:

I have read Tulsi Dasa's Ramayan. (not, the Tulsi Dasa's Ramayan)

xxiii) The is used before names of newspapers:

the Hindustan Times	the Times of India
the New York Times	the Pakistan Times
the Times	the Guardian
the Statesman	the Economist
the Washington Post	the Dawn

Note: a) The is not used after noun +'s:

I haven't yet read today's Statesman. (not, the today's Statesman)

b) There is an increasing tendency to drop the before the names of newspapers.

c) Names of magazines/periodicals are now usually used without the:

Punch	Outlook	Time
Sunday	Today	Vogue

xxv) The is used before specifying any of the cardinal directions:

the east/west	the north/south
---------------	-----------------

xxv) The is used before names of inventions:

the telephone	the microscope
the wheel	the steam engine

Who invented the telephone? (not, telephone)

xxvi) The is used before a common noun considered unique:

the sun/moon	the sky/earth
the world/universe	the sea/air

xxvii) The is used before these nouns:

cathedral, cinema, pictures, theatre, office, station, museum, zoo

I am going to the pictures.

She is going to the cinema/theatre.

They are going to the zoo.

He is in the office now.

(not, She is going to station/museum.)

viii) The is used before the parts of one's body and articles of clothing:

The stone hit him on the shoulder,

The trouser you bought fits you well.

I held him by the tielcollar.

4.8 Omission of Articles

4.8.1 Proper nouns

No article is used before proper nouns. So no article is used before:

i) names of people

ii) names of continents/countries

iii) names of states/cities/towns

iv) names of days/months/festivals

v) names of languages

vi) names of subjects of study

E.g.: 1. This is Seema/Nigel.

2. We live in Nagpur/India.

3. We are learning English.

4. He is a student of law/science.

Note: a) family relations

These are not normally treated like proper nouns, so no article is used before-father, daddy, dad, mother, mum, mummy, uncle, aunt.

Father/Daddy is at home. (not, the father/daddy)

Mother/Mummy is out. (not, the mother/mummy)

b) names of seasons

Though names of seasons can be used with or without the, it is more common to drop the article:

spring the spring

winter the winter

Spring is in the air.

c) names of countries

The is used before the name of a country which contains a word like kingdom, republic, union, or states:

the United Kingdom

the United States

the Indian Union

the German Democratic Republic

4.8.2 Uncountable nouns

No article is used before uncountable nouns (material and abstract nouns):

He sells milk.

She lacks confidence.

4.8.2 Plural indefinite nouns

No article is used before plural nouns that are indefinite;

Bees gather honey.

Dogs bark at night.

I love birds and animals.

Note: The is used before a plural noun only when it is made definite by a preposition or a relative clause:

The apples that are on the tree are ripe.

The soldiers of this battalion are well-trained.

But:

Apples are costly. (not, the apples)

4.9 Conclusion

The Unit has given you a fairly detailed idea of the term Articles

4.10 Unit end Questions

1. Name the kind of Articles with examples.
2. Give examples of situations when articles are generally omitted.

Unit – 5

Adverbs

Structure

- 5.0 Objective
- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Definition
- 5.3 Kinds of Adverbs
- 5.4 Formation of Adverbs
- 5.6 Degrees of Comparison:
 - 5.6.1 Formation of comparatives and superlatives
- 5.7 Adverbs: Usage
 - 5.7.1 Adverbs of time
 - 5.7.2 Adverbs of place
 - 5.7.3 Adverbs of degree
 - 5.7.4 Ever and Never
 - 5.7.5 Interrogative adverbs
 - 5.7.8 No any, none
- 5.8 Conclusion
- 5.9 Unit end Questions

5.0 Objective

In this unit we shall describe Adverbs in English.

5.1 Introduction

Adverbs are equivalents to क्रिया विशेषण in Hindi. However we should not be misled by the terms as it does not simply modify or verb.

5.2 Definition

- adverb adds something more to the meaning of the verb:
- Sheetal sang sweetly. (modifying a verb)
- They secretly decided to get married. (modifying a verb)
- It can also modify an adjective or another adverb.
- He is purposely late. (modifying an adjective)
- she works extremely slowly. (modifying an adverb)
- It can also modify a pronoun, preposition, conjunction and a sentence as well:
- Nearly everybody was late. (modifying a pronoun)
- The grapes are well within reach. (modifying a preposition)
- They don't help me just because I suffer in silence. (modifying a conjunction)
- Fortunately he did not hurt himself. (modifying a sentence)
- An adjective too is a modifier, but it does not modify words other than nouns nor is it used to express time, or place.

5.3 Kinds of Adverbs

Adverbs are often kinds:

i) Adverbs of time

ago, since, back, before, early, soon, already, yet, still, today, tomorrow, then, lately, recently, once, one of these days, some day, now, by now, right away, nowadays

They indicate the time of an action and answer to the question when.

When did you buy this car?

I bought it a week ago.

When will you do this work? I have done it already.

ii) Adverbs of place/position

here, there, near, by, up, down, in, out, everywhere, nowhere, somewhere, anywhere, nowhere else, hither and thither

They are used to indicate the place of an action and characteristically answer the question where.

Where is your watch? It's here.

Where is your mother? She has gone out.

Note: Hither/thither used in isolation is archaic but the phrase hither and thither is idiomatic.

iii) Adverbs of manner

boldly, bravely, quickly, slowly, easily, badly, hard, fast, well

They express the manner of an action and answer to the question how?

How is she typing? She is typing carefully.

How is he working? He is working slowly.

iv) Adverbs of frequency

always, ever, never, often, seldom, everyday, sometimes, occasionally, usually, normally, frequently, rarely, hardly, scarcely, once/twice a week etc.

They express the frequency of an action. They answer the question how often?

She has always helped me.

I had never told a lie.

We rarely talk to each other.

Note: In traditional grammar they are called Adverbs of Number, but in current English they are called Adverbs of Frequency.

v) Adverbs of degree (Intensifiers)

almost, very, very much, too, enough, so such, just,
of course, quite, rather, fairly, hardly, scarcely, much,
more, most, barely, absolutely, extremely, perfectly,
really, totally, utterly, a lot, a great deal, a bit

They express degree/intensity, so they answer the question how much/how far/to what extent?

He is too ill to go to work.

He is rich enough to maintain a car.

In current English they are called intensifiers because they have a heightening or lowering effect on the words they modify.

vi) Relative adverbs

when, where, why

whenever, wherever

Relative adverbs, like relative pronouns, relate or refer back to their antecedent and also join clauses. A relative adverb plays a double role because it functions as an adverb as well as a conjunction.

Relative adverbs are used to introduce relative clauses and noun clauses as well, not only adjective clauses:

I don't know the place where she works. (adjective clause)

I don't know where she works. (noun clause)

vii) Interrogative adverbs

when, since when, where, why, how,

how many, how much, how often,

how far/long, how tall/high etc.

whenever, wherever, whyever, however

They are used for asking questions about time/place etc.:

a) time

When do you have lunch, usually?

Since when has he been living in the hostel?

How long did you wait there?

b) place

Where are you going?

Where do you come from?

Note: whence meaning 'from where' is archaic. It is now replaced by where ... from.

c) manner/method/means

How did he do this sum?

How do you wash your clothes?

How did you go to France?

How do you get a phone?

d) degree/to what extent

How deep is this river?

How far is it to the station?

How often do you go to the cinema?

How fast can you type?

e) cause/reason

Why are you so angry?

Why is the baby crying?

Note: wherefore meaning 'why' is archaic. It is now replaced by why.

viii) Exclamatory adverbs

How!, What!

They are used in exclamations to express degree/extent:

How dirty this place is!

How melodiously she sings!

What a nasty guy!

What a nice friend he is!

What used after a statement is a question in form but an exclamation in sense, because it is used as an interjection to express surprise or disbelief:

You have won a lottery. What?

This curio is one in a million. What?

ix) Adverbs of affirmation and negation

yes, yeah, no

They are used to express one's reaction or response to questions. They indicate assertion and denial. Yes is used in affirmative sentences and no in negative sentences.

Do you like fish? Yes I do./No, I don't.

Is he very poor? Yes, he is./No, he isn't.

Can you do this sum? Yes, I can.

Is it too hot? No, it isn't.

Note that yes cannot be followed by a negation, even when you agree with a person. Similarly a no with a positive statement is not allowed.

I don't think that Rahim has come today.

No, he hasn't. (not, Yes, he hasn't)

Is it too hot today?

Yes, it is. (not, Yes, it isn't).

Note: No cannot be replaced by not as an adverb of negation viz., Not, I don't.

Yes is often replaced by yeah in informal style:

Do you play tennis? Yeah, I do.

Do you feel tired? Yeah, Just a little.

x) Sentence adverbs

fortunately, luckily, surely, certainly

An adverb that modifies a whole sentence, not only a constituent is called a sentence adverb.

a) Adverbs like these are usually formed from adjectives by adding an Iy:

fortunate + Iy (fortunately) luck + Iy (luckily)

obvious + Iy (obviously) happy + Iy (happily)

b) They are used to express an opinion or viewpoint:

Fortunately, the baby was saved.

Obviously, she is innocent.

c) Sentence adverbs are placed at the beginning of a sentence. They are marked off from the sentence by a comma because they are not essential ingredients in a sentence.

Luckily, I had a close shave.

5. 4 Formation of Adverbs

Adverbs may be formed by any of the following ways.

i) Most of the Adverbs of Manner are formed by adding Iy to the adjective:

active - actively easy - easily

quick - quickly happy - happily

careful - carefully true - truly

beautiful - beautifully due - duly

Note: The adverbial form of good is well, not goodly.

ii) Adding Iy to the noun:

month - monthly year - yearly

week - weekly day - daily

They are used as adjectives as well:

He comes here daily. (adverb)

This is my daily routine. (adjective)

Note: a) goodly, friendly, lovely, lonely and lowly are adjectives, not adverbs.

b) kindly and leisurely are used both as adjectives and adverbs.

She flashed him a kindly smile. (adjective)

Would you kindly wait a minute? (adverb)

They are walking at a leisurely pace. (adjective)

Seema is arranging flowers leisurely. (adverb)

iii) By adding these suffixes:

-wise	-ways	-ward	-wards
lengthwise	sideways	forward	downwards
clockwise	backward		

iv) By placing a before the noun:

aflame	ahead
aboard	afloat

v) By placing a or be before the adjective:

abroad	behind
along	below
aloud	beyond
anew	before

vi) By joining an adjective and a noun:

sometimes	meanwhile
meantime	midway

vii) Adverb phrases are formed by adding a preposition in front of a noun:

at length	of course
at random	in fact

viii) Some adverb phrases go together in pairs joined by and:

again and again	now and then
by and by	out and out
far and wide	over and over
far and near	to and fro

ix) Some adverbs have the same form as adjectives:

He is a fast runner. (adjective)	He runs fast. (adverb)
Iron is hard.	He works hard.
He is an early riser.	He always gets up early.
The cork is tight.	Hold the rope tight.
It is right.	It serves him right.
This is a direct train.	He came here direct.
The price of petrol is high.	The plane flew high.

The form of a word is not a sure guide to the class it belongs to. So a word is categorised by its function as well as by its form.

5.6 Degrees of Comparison

Like adjectives, adverbs too have three degrees of comparison: positive, comparative and superlative. The comparative is formed by adding -er (more in longer ones) and the superlative by -est (most).

5.6.1 Formation of comparatives and superlatives

i) adverb + er/est

Adverbs of one syllable take er in the comparative and est in the superlative:

positive	comparative	superlative
fast	faster	fastest
hard	harder	hardest
high	higher	highest

ii) Adverbs of two or more syllables form their comparative or superlative form by putting more or most before them:

positive	comparative	superlative
slowly	more slowly	most slowly
politely	more politely	most politely
sweetly	more sweetly	most sweetly
wisely	more wisely	most wisely

Note: The comparative form of 'early' is earl ier, (not, more early) and superlative form earliest (not, most early)

iii) Irregular comparatives and superlatives

positive	comparative	superlative
well	better	best
badly	worse	worst
much	more	most
little	less	least
far	farther	farthest
far	further	furthest

5.7 Adverbs: Usage

5.7.1 Adverbs of time

1. Ago/long ago

Ago/long ago always takes simple past tense, not present perfect tense:

He came here a week ago. (not, has come)

She left for home just a few minutes ago. (not, has left)

He wrote a novel long ago. (not, has written)

We don't say:

Columbus has discovered America long ago.

We say:

Columbus discovered America long ago.

2. Back/far back

Back far back, too indicates past time and means 'ago', so it takes simple past tense:

I saw her a few years back. (not, have seen)

3. Since/ever since

Since/ever since means between sometime in the past and the present time (now). It takes present perfect tense, not simple past:

He left this place five years ago. I haven't seen him since. (not, I didn't see).

Ever since my colleague left, I haven't had any news of him. (not, I didn't have).

4. Before

Before means 'at an earlier time', so it refers to past time:

Before I became a teacher, I worked as a clerk.

5. Seldom

Seldom has a negative meaning.

I seldom go out these days.

One seldom finds good writing these days.

6. Already/yet

i) Already means 'by this/that time'. It is used in positive statements:

He has finished the work already.

She has already typed all the letters.

We don't say:

He hasn't begun the work already.

ii) Yet has the same meaning as already; i.e., 'by this/that time' but it is chiefly used in negative statements and questions:

He hasn't finished the work yet.

They haven't yet repaired the road.

(not, He has begun the work yet.)

- iii) In positive statements yet means still, i.e., even to this time, so it refers to future time:

I am yet to decide on the future course of action.

We have yetto find out how to reach the place.

- iv) In negative interrogatives yet expresses surprise or annoyance:

Haven't you heard the news yet?

Hasn't the train got in yet?

- v) In interrogative sentences already expresses surprise:

Have you heard the news already?

Have you had lunch already?

- vi) In questions already expects a positive confirmatory reply i.e. Yes.

Have you finished already?

Yes, I have, I have finished already.

In questions yet is neutral, so the reply can be either positive or negative- yes or no:

Haven't you finished yet?

Yes, I have. I have finished already.

No, I haven't. I haven't finished yet.

- vii) Already is usually used with present perfect but it can be used with other forms as well:

Guests have started arriving already.

It is 9 0' clock already.

7. Still

Still means 'even to this/that time'.

- i) It is chiefly used in affirmative and interrogative sentences:
 The train is still at the station.
 She is still waiting for her son.
 Do you still believe in ghosts?
- ii) Still is placed immediately after verb be, though with other verbs there is an option:
 They are still busy. (not, are busy sti II)
 But,
 He still loves her.
 Or, He loves her still.
- iii) Still, like yet, can be used in negative sentences to express surprise or annoyance:
 He still doesn't agree.
 They still haven't finished!.

8. So far/uptill now

So far/uptill now takes present perfect, not simple past:

She hasn't written to me 50 far.

I haven't heard the news uptill now.

(But not, He didn't call me uptill now.)

9. Just

- i) just is used with present perfect tense to indicate an action done recently, i.e., in the immediate past:

The train has just got in. (i.e., The train got in a few minutes ago.)

We have just had lunch. (i.e., We had lunch a few minutes ago.)

- ii) just is usually used in affirmative and interrogative sentences. It is not used in negative sentences. We don't say:

He hasn't just left for home.

- iii) just is placed between has or have and the past participle:
He has just finished the work. (not, He just has finished the work.)
They have just got married. (not, They have got just married.)
- iv) In a question just is placed before the past participle:
Hasn't Sachin just broken the record held by Haynes? (not, Hasn't just ...)
- v) just meaning 'exactly/precisely' is used before a noun phrase/clause.
It is just 7 0' clock.
This is just what I wanted.
- vi) just meaning 'at this/that very moment' is placed after the verb be:
He is just about to speak. (not, He is about just to speak)
Her new novel is just out.
- vii) just meaning 'only/barely' is placed after the verb 'to be' or before an infinitive.
He just managed to catch the train.
She went home just to see her mother.

10. Present perfect and adverb of time

The present perfect form does not occur with an adverb or adverb phrase denoting time:

He passed the examination last year. (not, has passed)

They left this place a week ago. (not, have left)

11 . Adverb of time and preposition

No preposition is used before an adverbial phrase of time.

He came here this morning. (not, in this morning)

She will get back next day. (not, on next day)

He worked hard all day/night. (not, on all day/night)

I was busy all morning/evening. (not, in all morning/evening)

5.7.2 Adverbs of place

1 i) adverb of place + else

somewhere else, nowhere else, anywhere else

Here else is used to avoid an inconvenient construction-some other place/
any other place/no other place:

She has gone to some other place.

She has gone somewhere else.

Is there any other place we can go to?

Can we go anywhere else?

ii) *somewhere/anywhere*

a) somewhere, like some, is used in affirmative sentences:

He will get a job somewhere. (not, anywhere)

b) Anywhere, like any, is used in negative and interrogative sentences:

I didn't see her anywhere. (Not, somewhere)

Did you see her anywhere? (not, somewhere)

2. There

We distinguish between two uses of there viz., as an adverb, and as an introductory there. The latter is called 'introductory' because it is used just to introduce a sentence. It is also called 'empty there' because it does not contribute to meaning. It is used to denote existence, not place, so it is different from there as an adverb of place:

There is a problem. ('empty there')

I kept the book there. (adverb of place)

i) The empty subject there can be followed by either a singular or a plural form of the verb be, or verbs like seem, appear etc.

The choice depends on the 'number' of the complement of be.

There are at least three issues.

There has been an attempt to blow up the building.

There seems to be a problem.

- ii) A sentence cannot begin with there when the subject is definite or known already:

There is the temple on the hill.

But we can say:

There is a temple on the hill.

3 . Direct/Directly

- i) Direct means, without interrupting one's journey/going straight:

This train goes to Delhi direct.

We drove direct to the bride's home.

- ii) Directly means 'at once/without delay':

I will be at my uncle's directly.

4. First/Firstly

- i) First is an adjective and an adverb as well.

Firstly is an adverb only, not an adjective.

- ii) both are used in enumeration, i.e., in a list of reasons or arguments:

first, secondly, thirdly, lastly, finally etc.

In current English first is usually preferred to firstly.

Note: a) First/firstly is followed by secondly/thirdly etc.

b) In technical use first/firstly/secondlyetc. is often replaced by one, two three:

We need to consider this product because of three reasons. One, the price is cheap. Two, installation costs are low and three, there is provision for after sales service.

c) first/firstly/secondly/one/two etc. is always separated from the sentence by a comma:

John may kindly be excused this time on three counts:

First, he is a minor.

Secondly, he is an orphan.

Thirdly, it is his first offence.

iii) first (adverb) is used when it means 'before anyone or anything else':

She came first in the exam. (not, firstly)

He reached the station first. (not, firstly)

iv) first (adverb) is used when it means 'for the first time':

When was English first introduced in India? (not, firstly)

v) first (adverb) is used when it expresses preference in general or to something else:

We are human beings first. (not, firstly)

You ought to resign from this party first. (not, firstly)

5.7.3 Adverbs of degree

1. Much/very/very much

i) Very is used to modify adjectives or adverbs in the positive degree:

1. He works very hard. (adverb))

2. She is very tired. (adverb))

3. This is very interesting. (adjective)

4. He is very wise. (adjective)

In none of these, can very be replaced by much.

ii) Much or very much is used before a past participle when it is part of the passive verb:

1. He was much surprised at the news. (not, very surprised)

2. This poem has been very much admired. (not, very admired)

3. His new novel has been much criticised. (not, very criticised)

4. He is very much loved and respected in our village. (very loved)

Note: Much/very much is used before amused, impressed, distressed, liked, disliked, and shocked.

I was much amused to hear about his adventures. (not very amused)

The audience was much impressed with the performance. (not, very impressed)

iii) Very much is used to modify affirmative verbs:

He likes classical music very much.

She loves this poor boy very much.

Very much is not generally used to modify negative verbs, though one can occasionally say:

I don't like pop music very much.

iv) Much meaning 'a lot' is used to modify a negative verb:

He doesn't eat much.

She doesn't talk much.

In the affirmative much is very often replaced by a lot or good deal:

He eats much. (He eats a lot).

He talks much (He talks a lot).

v) The very and much the are used before superlative degree:

He is the very best boy in the class.

He is much the best boy in the class.

In this construction much comes before the, but very comes after the:

much the tallest, the very tallest

Note: the very (adjective)

The very can be used as an adjective meaning exactly or precisely:

This is the very book I wanted to get.

The is always used before very as an adjective.

vi) Much (but not very) is used with comparative adjectives and adverbs too:

This house is much smaller than that. (comparative adjective)

She runs much faster than John. (comparative adverb)

2. Too/very

- i) too + adjective/adverb denotes excess of a quality, i.e., in a higher degree than is proper or necessary, so it is used in a negative sense:

Your coat is too long. (longer than it should be)

He speaks too quickly. (more quickly than he should)

- ii) very + adjective/adverb

Very is an intensifier, it has no inherent positive or negative sense:

I'm very glad to see you. (not, too glad)

She types very carefully. (not, too carefully)

They are very poor. (not, too poor)

- iii) too + adjective/adverb + infinitive

In this construction, too + adjective/adverb expresses cause and the infinitive, a negative result:

1. She is too busy to worry about these matters.

(She is so busy that she can't worry about these matters.)

2. She runs too slowly to win the race.

(She runs so slowly that she can't win the race.)

This construction is not possible with an infinitive showing positive result:

We don't say:

She is too rich to buy a car.

He is too wise_ to solve this problem.

He runs too fast to win the race.

3. Too much

- i) Too much and much too express excess:

It gives me too much pain.

You eat too much.

It is much too painful.

ii) Very much denotes, beyond limit:

I love her very much.

Thank you very much.

4. Very/only too

They both denote willingness:

We will be only too glad to help you.

We will be very glad to help you.

5. Too/also/as well

i) They all mean 'in addition to':

He has got a scooter and a car too/also/as well.

ii) In informal style too or as well is preferred to also.

He gave me food and money also.

He gave me food and money, too.

In speech, as well is often preferred to too.

He gave me food and money as well.

Note: Too or as well is usually placed after the word it modifies; there is a comma before too.

6. Too and either/neither/nor

i) Too is used when both the sentences are affirmative:

Sonia plays tennis.

Neeraja plays tennis, too.

ii) Either/neither/nor is used when both the sentences are negative:

He doesn't play tennis and she doesn't either.

He doesn't play tennis and neither does she.

Too is not used in negative sentences and either, neither or nor in affirmative sentences.

We don't say:

He isn't rich and she isn't rich, too.

He is a leader and she is a leader either.

Note: Inversion of the subject and verb occurs when neither or nor is placed at the beginning of a clause:

He isn't a doctor.

Neither is she. (not, neither she is)

They don't gossip about others.

Nor do we. (not, nor we do)

7. Enough

- i) adjective/adverb + enough denotes a limit, i.e. to the right degree sufficiently.

So it is used in a positive sense:

He is rich enough. (as rich as he should be)

I consider her wise enough. (as wise as she should be)

- ii) adjective or adverb + enough + infinitive

In this construction adjective/adverb + enough expresses a 'cause' and the infinitive 'a positive result':

1. He is rich enough to buy a new house.

(i.e. He is so rich that he can buy a new house.)

2. She is strong enough to bend this rod.

(i.e. She is so strong that she can bend this rod.)

We don't say:

She is poor enough to own a car.

He is weak enough to run fast.

iii) Enough follows the adjective or adverb whereas too precedes it;

He was kind enough to help me.

He is too honest to tell a lie.

iv) Since too is negative in sense it takes any, but enough takes some because it is positive:

He is too proud to listen to any advice

The room is spacious enough for some more chairs.

8. Little/a little

i) Little is used in a negative sense because it means 'not at all':

It is a little known fact that depression is curable. (not many know)

Little did I suspect that he would betray me. (I didn't suspect)

ii) A little is used in a positive sense because it means somewhat or to some extent:

I have finished the work, so I feel a little relaxed now.

How about a little outing to cheer us up?

Note: The little is always used as an adjective, not as an adverb.

The little child played with the flower.

9. Fairly/Rather

Both mean to a moderate degree, moderately, or not very.

i) Fairly is usually used with favourable adjectives or adverbs, so it expresses one's liking or approval:

The sisters did fairly well in the exam.

i i) Rather is usually used with unfavourable adjectives or adverbs, so it expresses one's dislike or disapproval:

Geography is fairly easy but Mathematics is rather difficult.

Pramila is fairly intelligent but Sujatha is rather dull.

We don't say:

This problem is fairly perplexing.

The room is rather comfortable.

- iii) Rather can be used with favourable adjectives or adverbs as well when it means 'on the contrary', i.e., to make contrary additions to remarks:

1. I was told that his is a bad film.

NO, it is rather good. (On the contrary, it is good)

2. He can be very nasty.

On the contrary. He was rather gentle with me.

- iv) Rather is often used with favourable adjectives or adverbs when it expresses a toned down version of very:

1. This story is very amusing. This story is rather amusing.

2. She is playing very well. She is playing rather well.

Fairly is never used in the sense of very.

Rather can be used with too:

1. This room is rather too small for me.

Fairly can't be used with too and comparatives .

we don't say:

She is fairly too tall.

He is fairly better today.

10. So or so ... as

So is used before an adjective or adverb to express comparison:

As or so ... as is used in the negative

She is not so tall as her.

She is not as tall as her.

In the affirmative as ... as is used

My monkey is as intelligent as yours.

(So ... as is not used in the affirmative, viz. She is so clever as her friends.)

11. Quite

i) Quite means completely or perfectly when it modifies non-gradable adjectives

or very strong adjectives or participles like these:

right, wrong, full, empty, dead, ready, unique, perfect

amazing, shocking, horrifying

1. It is quite right.

2. The hall is quite empty.

3. We are quite ready now.

4. Your remark is quite amazing.

5. I was quite shocked to hear the news.

In sentences like these quite heightens the effect on the adjectives or participles it modifies.

Note: a) Non-gradable adjectives like right or wrong take quite, not very.

1. That's quite right (not, very)

2. He is quite dead. (not, very)

b) Quite right/all right/quite all right

Quite right, and all right have the same meaning. They are interchangeable.

Quite all right is substandard English. It is permissible only in very informal style:

Oh, that's quite all right.

c) alright

This is not a standard spelling. The correct form is all right.

d) OK

In colloquial style all right is often replaced by OK:

1. Would you give me a lift, please? OK I will.

2. She has done OK in the exam.

ii) Quite means not very, moderately, fairly, to a certain extent-when it modifies gradable adjectives (i.e. such adjective as can be put into the comparative or superlative form):

1. He is quite a good boy.
2. She is quite polite/gentle.
3. It is quite a long distance.
4. This is quite an amusing story.

In sentences like these quite has a reducing effect on the adjectives it modifies and thus the adjective is scaled down from the expected norm, so quite disturbing means 'less than very disturbing'.

Avoid using quite in the sense of very:

1. We admire Vikram Seth because he is a very good poet. (not, quite)
2. I am very sorry to hear the news of his death. (not, quite).

Note: a) quite/quite so

In spoken English yes is often replaced by quite or quite so to express agreement with a remark:

It is very cold.

Quite/Quite so.

b) Quite is not used with a negative verb:

viz., It is not quite hot.

12. Hard, Hardly, Scarcely, Barely

i) Hard means with all one's force or strenuously:

1. His performance is far below average. He has to work hard. (not hardly)
2. I'm trying hard to get a job. (not hardly)

ii) Hardly, scarcely, barely is negative in meaning because it means almost no/ not:

1. He hardly works.
2. He scarcely knows me.

3. She can barely read and write.

iii) Because of its negative connotation *hardly* or *scarcely* is used with *any* or *ever* not with *some* or *never*:

1. He has *hardly* any money. (not, some money)

2. He *hardly* ever helps anybody. (not, ever helps somebody)

5.7.4 Ever and Never

i) *Ever* means 'at any time' when it is used in questions:

1. Have you ever seen a giraffe?

2. Have they ever visited us?

3. Did you ever visit Nepal?

ii) *Ever*, like *never*, means 'at no time' when it is used with a negative verb:

1. I haven't ever been to Mandu.

2. He hasn't ever been in an aeroplane.

3. She hasn't ever tried rasgulas.

negative verb + *ever* is equivalent to affirmative verb + *never*.

I haven't ever been on an elephant.

Or, I have never been on an elephant.

Note: *never* + *ever*

Sometimes *never* + *ever* is used instead of *not* + *ever*.

I have never ever eaten a frog.

Or, I haven't ever eaten a frog.

iii) *Ever* is placed after a subject in question:

1. Has your rabbit ever eaten your carrots? (not, has ever your. ..)

2. Do you ever sleep in the class? (not, do ever you ...)

iv) *Ever* is placed after a verb in a negative statement:

1. I haven't ever seen the ocean. (not, ever haven't seen)

2. He doesn't ever come late for lunch. (not, ever doesn't come)

v) Ever like any is not used in a positive reply to a question:

Have you ever climbed a mountain?

- Yes, I have. (not, I have ever)

vi) Ever can be used in affirmative sentences expressing doubt or condition:

1. I don't think he ever helps his old parents. (not, never)

2. If she ever goes to England she will see the British museum. (not, never)

vii) Ever can be used with comparatives (after than) or superlatives.

1. She is happier now than ever.

2. He is the finest gentleman (that) I have ever met.

viii) Never is used with an affirmative verb:

1. He has never climbed Mount Everest. (not, hasn't ever)

2. They have never visited us. (not, haven't ever)

ix) Never is used in questions expressing surprise:

1. Have you never been to the new temple?

2. Have you never watched a football match in a stadium?

Note: a) ever/never

Of the two ever is the more useful in questions:

1. Have you ever had an accident?

2. Have you ever seen a rainbow?

b) The response to a question with ever can be either positive or negative because it is neutral:

Have you ever played in the sea?

- Yes, I have. - No, I never have.

However, a question with never expects a positive reply.

1. Have you never seen the inside of an aeroplane?

- Yes, I have.

2. Have you never caught a cold?

- Yes, I have.

Very rarely, one may be surprised by a negative reply:

Have you never consulted a dictionary?

No, I never have.

5.7.5 Interrogative adverbs

When a question begins with an interrogative adverb, inversion of the subject and verb takes place:

1. Why are you sad? (not, you are)

2. How is he today? (not, he is)

We don't say:

Where you are going?

When you will go home?

Notice that it is not the presence of an interrogative adverb but the subject verb inversion that makes a sentence interrogative.

5.7.8 No any, none

They are used as adverbs as well:

1. I can walk no farther than the bus stop.

2. I can't go any further now.

3. Are you any better now?

4. She is none the worse for the accident.

5. He is none the wiser for your advice.

In a sentence like these no or none means 'in no degree or not at all', and any means 'in any degree at all'.

Note: a) Some is not used as an adverb, instead we use somewhat

Is she somewhat better now? (not, Is she some better now?)

b) no+different

Since different implies a kind of comparison, no as an adverb is used to premodify it. In this construction no means 'in no degree, or not at all'.

So it has the same meaning as none.

This song is no different from that one.

5.8 Conclusion

This unit has given you a fairly detailed idea about the usage of adverbs in English.

5.9 Unit end Questions

- 1 Give the functions of Adverbs.
- 2 Name the kinds of Adverbs with examples.

Unit – 6

Prepositions

Structure

- 6.0 Objective
- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2 Definition
- 6.3 Kinds of Prepositions
 - 6.3.1 Simple prepositions
 - 6.3.2 Complex prepositions
- 6.4 Prepositions: Meanings/Relationships
- 6.5 Prepositions: Position
- 6.6 Prepositions: Meanings and Usage
 - 6.6.1 About
 - 6.6.2 Above
 - 6.6.3 Across
 - 6.6.4 After
 - 6.6.5 Against
 - 6.6.6 Among (see Between)
 - 6.6.7 As
 - 6.6.8 At
 - 6.6.9 Before
 - 6.6.10 Behind
 - 6.6.11 Beside
 - 6.6.12 Besides
 - 6.6.13 Between and among

6.6.14 But and but for
6.6.15 By
6.6.16 By and in or on
6.6.17 During
6.6.18 For
6.6.19 For and since
6.6.20 From
6.6.21 From and since
6.6.22 In
6.6.23 At, in, on
6.6.24 In and on
6.6.25 In and within
6.6.26 In and with
6.6.27 Into
6.6.28 In and into
6.6.29 Of
6.6.30 Of, from, or with
6.6.31 Off
6.6.32 On
6.6.33 Opposite and in front of
6.6.34 Over
6.6.35 On, over, and above
6.6.36 Owing to or due to
6.6.37- To
6.6.38 To, and till or until
6.6.39 Under

6.6.40 With

6.6.41 By and with

6.6.42 Without

6.6.43 Within

6.7 Conclusion

6.8 Unit end Questions

6.0 Objective

In this unit we shall give you a detailed analysis of the various preposition as used in English.

6.1 Introduction

Prepositions form an important component both in Hindi and in English while in Sanskrit most of prepositions get expressed in the appropriate विभक्ति of the शब्द रूप

6.2 Definition

A preposition is a word usually placed before a noun or pronoun to show place, time, cause, purpose, or means:

He lives in Delhi.

I will meet you at 6 p.m.

You need to leave early in order to arrive on time.

6.3 Kinds of Prepositions

i) simple

Simple prepositions consist of only one word:

in, at, on, for etc.

ii) complex or compound

Complex or compound prepositions consist of more than one word:

In front of, due to, owing to, instead of etc.

6.3.1 Simple prepositions

aboard	behind	like/unlike	save
about	below	minus	since
above	beneath	near	than
across	beside	notwithstanding	through
after	besides	of	throughout
against	between	off	till/until
along	beyond	on/upon	times
amid	but	opposite	to
amidst	by	out/outside	toward(s)
among	despite	over	under/underneath
amongst	down	past	up
around	during	per	versus
as	for	plus	via
at	from	with	within
atop	in	round	without
before	inside	sans	worth
bar/barring	concerning	considering	including/excluding
except/excepting	following	pending	

Note: a) times is used as a preposition in multiplication:

Ten times ten is hundred.

b) atop, sans, save. These prepositions are rarely used in current English.

c) Versus is a latin preposition which means against-somebody/something.

6.3.2 Complex prepositions

s to	as for	into
onto	out of	upto

according to	in front of	in addition to
along with	due to/owing to	in lieu of
away from	for the sake of	instead of
because of	in favour of	in accordance with
but for	in light of (American)	in course of
by means of	in spite of	in order to
by reason of	in search of	on behalf of
by way of	in quest of	together with
by virtue of	in the event of	with an eye to
in the light of	in view of	with a view to
with regard to	with reference to	with respect to

6.4 Prepositions: Meanings/Relationships

A number of prepositions express the same or similar meaning with a noun or pronoun as their object. The same preposition may also express different relationships. Some examples illustrating this are given below.

i) location

in, on, at, inside, within

There was a big commotion in the restaurant.

What were you doing inside the room?

Trust no one within these four walls.

Seetha is at home in your company.

ii) mode of transport

by, in on

He goes to school on foot.

She was sent back on horseback.

I prefer travelling by road.

He came here in a Maruti Gypsy.

iii) cause

because of, on account of, from, out of, for ... of, of

Raju had to stop formal education because of the need to support his family.

On account of heavy rains there have been widespread landslides this year.

Sheela hid her puppy for fear of her parents.

Out of curiosity the little girl opened the box.

People have been dying of a mysterious epidemic in the capital.

iv) subject matter

about, on, regarding

a book regarding corruption in high places.

a talk on linguistics

the discussion on drug abuse

6.5 Prepositions: Position

i) preposition + noun or pronoun

pre means before, so prepositions are usually placed before a noun or pronoun at home, about him, on the table

ii) noun or pronoun + preposition

A preposition can also occur at the end of the sentence as in the following constructions:

a) question-word questions .

A preposition placed before a question-word in an interrogative sentence changes its position. It is usually placed at the end of a question particularly in spoken English:

The structure of such questions is

question-word + verb + subject + preposition

What is this box for?

We don't say:

For what is this box?

Similarly:

In which room did you sleep?

Which room did you sleep in?

At whom are you looking?

Whom are you looking at?

From where does he come?

Where does he come from?

b) relative clause

A preposition placed before a relative pronoun changes its position. It is placed at the end of the relative clause (adjective clause):

The house in which I live is small.

The house I live in is small.

The people to whom I am talking are total strangers.

The people I am talking to are total strangers.

Note: In such relative clauses the relative pronoun (which, whom) is usually left out.

c) exclamations

In exclamations too a preposition is moved to the end of the sentence:

What a world we live in! (not, In what ...)

What a fellow to travel with! (not, With what ...)

d) passive voice

In the passive construction the preposition is placed at the end of the sentence:

The case is being looked into.

Such a situation can't even be thought of.

Who was this symphony composed by?

Note: A preposition is to be placed before a noun, because pre means before insists the prescriptive grammarian. But in current English a sentence ending in a preposition is considered quite idiomatic; Latin norms are a thing of the past.

6.6 Prepositions: Meanings and Usage

Prepositions have a remarkable capacity for expressing a variety of meanings. So it is necessary to know which preposition to use and in which sense in a particular construction .

6.6.1 About

i) in connection with

1. He told me all about the accident.
2. He is careless about his health.
3. What are you talking about?

ii) subject matter concerning

That is a book about wildlife.

Note: compare with on.

This is a book on grammar.

iii) approximate time

Mother got back at about 9 p.m.

iv) moving in several directions (here and there)

She has been travelling about Europe.

Note: about and around are interchangeable in this sense:

He has been travelling about/around India.

6.6.2 Above

i) a position higher than something

The water rose above her neck.

ii) higher in rank, position, superior to

A field marshal is above a general in rank.

iii) greater in number or value or weight or temperature

1. They gangsters were above ten in number.
2. This fish is above five kilos.
3. The temperature is above 39° Celsius today.

iv) beyond the reach of something

His honesty is above suspicion.

She is above such pettiness.

6.6.3 Across

i) on the other side of something

Our college is across the main road.

ii) moving from one side to the other side of something

This boat will carry you across the river.

iii) extending from one side to the other side

There is a rainbow across the mountains.

6.6.4 After

i) time (later than)

She came here after 8 a.m./breakfast.

I am going home the day after tomorrow.

ii) continuously, without stopping

Most people catch the same bus to work day after day.

I am monitoring the progress of the work week after week.

iii) in a definite sequence:

T comes after 5 in alphabetical order.

Your turn comes after mine.

iv) in search of something (in phrasal verbs be after and run after)

She always runs after money.

He is now after a new job.

v) about (about the news or well-being of someone)

John asked after you and your family yesterday.

vi) in the style of/on the model of

The constitution of India is after the British model.

vii) cause (because of)

After all that I have heard of him I can't wait to meet him.

viii) concession (in spite of)

After all we've been through, we still love each other.

6.6.5 Against

i) in opposition to

This policy is against the poor people.

She is swimming against the current.

ii) in contact with

He is putting a ladder against the wall.

iii) comparison or contrast

Workers' wages are low in India as against those elsewhere.

There were eighty murders this year against ninety last year.

iv) in prevention of something

This is an effective injection against cholera.

6.6.6 Among (see Between)

6.6.7 As

Comparison

She is as tall as him.

He is as old as me.

6.6.8 At

i) place (a definite point in space)

She is at home.

He is at the cinema.

ii) place of learning or work or worship

She is at Oxford.

They are at office.

They are at church.

Note: In American English in is usually used instead of at with a place of learning:

They are in school.

She is in Oxford.

In British English in means inside a building:

They are in school i.e. They are inside the school building.

iii) direction (towards)

He is gazing at the sky.

He rushed at the enemy.

iv) reaction

I am delighted at your success.

He was alarmed at the news.

We were amused at his funny stories.

v) standard or norm (used with a noun or adjective)

He is a genius at chess.

She is hopeless at tennis.

He is clever at cards.

vi) measurement (price or rate)

Bananas sell at ten rupees a dozen.

The train is running at 80 kilometers per hour.

vii) state/condition

They are at play now.

He is at work.

Note: at indicates a temporary activity.

in indicates a permanent occupation. (He is in the army.)

viii) age

At 90, Shridhar is hale and hearty. (at the age of ninety)

Noam Chomsky became famous at 27. (at the age of twenty seven)

ix) time (point in time)

at + clock time (without the)

at + dawn or night (without the)

at noon or midday or midnight (without the)

The plane lands at 7 0' clock.

He left for France at night. (not, at the night)

Note: in is used with morning or evening or afternoon preceded by 'the.'

In the evening we will visit the zoo. (not, in evening).

6.6.9 Before

i) time (earlier than; opposite of after)

I can't leave home before breakfast.

We buy a lot of toys a few days before Christmas.

ii) position (in front of; opposite of behind)

He knelt before the king.

iii) in the presence of someone

The accused stood before the judge.

The clown performed before the audience.

iv) order or arrangement (opposite of after)

The salutation comes after the address in a business letter.

Note: Byand Before

by means, not later than or upto the time indicated, before means earlier than the time indicated.

Finish the work by 90' clock. (not later than 90' clock)

Finish the work before 9 0' clock. (by 8.59)

6.6.10 Behind

i) position (at the back of)

The hills are beh/ndthe clouds.

There is a park behind my house.

ii) comparison (less than)

India is not far behind developed countries in science and technology.

ii) in favour of, or support of

The whole nation is behind its army.

6.6.11Beside

i) next to, or by the side of

He is sitting beside his wife.

The hut is beside the river.

ii) in comparison with

Beside your earlier performance, this is a vast improvement.

iii) not relevant to

Your argument is beside the point.

6.6.12 Besides

in addition to

There are nine students here, besides the teacher.

We cannot go-we have no torches. Besides it's raining.

6.6.13 Between and among

i) between + two people or things

Between is usually used with reference to two people or things:

Aligarh is between Lucknow and Delhi.

We have to choose between two evil Is.

ii) between + more than two people or things

a) between is used with reference to more than two people or things when modified by a definite numeral:

He divided his property equally between his four sons.

b) between is also used with reference to more than two when mutual or reciprocal relationship is indicated:

There is a treaty of friendship between the five great powers.

(among is not acceptable here).

iii) between + noun + and + noun

And is always used to join two nouns or pronouns, so and cannot be replaced by to:

Please see me between 4 p.m. and 5 p. m.

(not, Please see me between 4 p.m. to 5 p.m.)

iv) among + more than two people or things

among is usually used with reference to more than two people or things a definite number is not mentioned:

She is happy to be among her people again.

He likes to work among little children.

v) among + collective noun

among is also used for more than two people or things considered as a group:

He distributed sweets among the class.

She is standing among the crowd.

(between is not possible here).

6.6.14 But and but for

i) but meaning 'except' is a preposition. It is not a conjunction:

None but him can tackle this problem. (not, but he)

None but me passed the test. (not, but I)

Note: but indicating contrast is a conjunction:

John is tall but Rosie is short.

His writing is good but not his spelling.

ii) but for meaning 'without or except' for and expressing a negative condition is a preposition:

But for your cooperation I couldn't have arranged this function.

(If you had not cooperated I would not have been able to arrange this function)

6.6.15 By

i) means of travel or transport

I am going to Sri nagar by bus.

i i) a person as an agent or doer

'Adonis' is a poem by Shelley.

'Shakuntala' was written by Kalidasa.

iii) energy; power; natural phenomenon as an agent

In the 18th century the streets of London were lighted by oil lamps.

He was struck by lightning.

vi) part of one's body or clothes

I seized him by the collar.

She caught her by the hair.

v) means of doing something (by + gerund)

She earns a lot by singing folk songs.

He amuses himself by drawing cartoons.

vi) mode of payment

He gets his salary by cheque.

Note: We make payment in cash or kind. (not by)

vii) unit of measurement (price or rate)

we buy bananas by the dozen.

They are paid wages by the week.

Note: the is always used with a unit of measurement:

We buy butter by the pound. (not by a pound)

viii) result (because of)

The payment was made by mistake.

We can achieve great success by will power.

ix) extent

We won the match by 3 goals to nil.

They won the match by 7 runs.

x) profession

She lives by her pen.

xi) accompaniment

She was accompanied on the guitar by Eric.

xii) division or multiplication of numbers

4 divided by 2 equals 2.

5 multiplied by 3 equals 15.

xiii) dimensions or size

This room is 10ft by 20 ft. (i.e. 10ft x 20 ft)

xiv) route or passage (via or through)

He went to Sri nagar by the Iawahar tunnel.

He got a promotion by the back door.

xv) according to (by clock/watch)

It is just 9 by my watch.

xvi) at the side of (beside)

She came and sat by her husband.

xvii) with respect to (someone's birth, marital status, or profession.)

She is an Indian by birth.

She is an Italian by marriage.

She is a politician by profession.

xviii) time (before)

He can finish his work by 4 p.m.

He ought to get back by tomorrow.

6.6. 16 By and in or on

i) by + means of travel or transport

By is used when a mode of transport (conveyance) is not modified by an adjective or adjective clause:

We travel by car. (not in)

ii) In is used when a means of transport is modified by an article, adjective or adjective clause:

She came in her own car. (not by)

We set out in a small boat. (not by)

The bus she was travelling in fell into a river. (not by)

On is used instead of in with a bicycle or cycle:

He goes to school on cycle. (not in)

by + noun is always in singular form, in + noun can be in the singular or plural form:

They came by car/bus/boat. (not cars/buses/boats)

They came in a big bus. (not by)

They came in several big buses. (not by)

iii) on is used with foot or horseback or pony (without a or the):

He came here on foot/horseback. (not, on the horseback)

iv) on is used with a large public vehicle as a means of travel:

They are now on the plane to Japan. (not in)

They met on the Delhi- Mumbai Express. (not in)

6.6.17 During

i) whole period of time (from the beginning to the end)

I stayed in Solan during the winter.

ii) within a period of time mentioned

He had had a lot of opposition during his career as the director.

iii) at a particular time mentioned

Robbers broke into her house during the small hours of the night.

6.6.18 For

i) purpose/beneficiary

This is a surprise gift for you.

Note: for indicating purpose is also used before an indirect object:

He bought a engagement ring for her.

She made coffee for us.

ii) function

What's this gadget for?

It's a machine for washing clothes.

iii) destination

This is a train for Jhansi.

They are passengers for Pune.

iv) price

I bought this sari for Rs. 725/-

v) exchange

He exchanged his old cycle for a new one.

vi) choice, preference or liking

She has a taste for classical music.

He has a liking for tasty dishes.

vii) support (opposite of against)

The External Affairs Ministry is for a new foreign policy.

They are working for the consensus candidate.

viii) cause (because of)

They are dancing for joy.

Kerala is famous for its hospitality.

ix) concession (in spite of)

For all his wealth he is not happy.

For all her qualifications Rajani fared poorly at the interview.

(for all + noun is used in this construction)

x) representative of or abbreviation of something

He is speaking for his country; not for himself.

What does CRY stand for?

xi) distance

She walks (for) two kilometres every day.

Note: for denoting a specific distance is usually omitted; for is not omitted when a vague distance is indicated:

She walks two miles every day.

but

This river flows down for miles and miles. (not, flows down miles
xii) time (duration)

I will be with you for an hour or so.

Note: a) While denoting a definite period of time for is usually omitted:

The meeting lasted three hours. (not, for three hours)

Would you wait a minute, please? (not, for a minute)

b) for is not omitted when it indicates that an action began in the past terminated or extends into the present (till now):

She (has) lived here for twenty years.

(not, It has been raining a week.)

c) for is not omitted when the duration is vague. So it is not omitted in phrases like for hours; days; weeks; months; years; centuries; for ages; forever.

xii) time (whole period of time is mentioned)

He stayed at home for the summer. (i.e. from the beginning to the end)

6.6.19 For and since

i) for and since are used with present perfect, present perfect progressive, past perfect, and past perfect progressive forms.

Present Perfect is used for an action that began at a definite time in the past and extends into the present (till now):

He has lived in India for ten years.

India have not won the world cup in cricket since 1983.

I have been here for half an hour/since 9' clock.

Present perfect progressive is used for an action that began at a definite time in the past and is continuing and may extend into the future as well:

He has been living in India for ten years.

He has been living in Belgaum since 1980.

She has been waiting here for one hour/since 8' 0 clock. (not, she is waiting)

Note: a) for or since is not used with a simple present or progressive tense:

We don't say:

She is absent for a week.

It is raining since Tuesday. .

b) for (but not since) is used with simple past tense when it indicates that an action began in the past and terminated:

She worked here for twenty years. (She doesn't work here now.)

ii) for is used of a period or length of time, since is used of a point of time:

Lisy has been working here for 10 years since 1988.

It has been raining for weeks since the end of June.

People have been demanding a e.B.1. inquiry for a long time.

We have been waiting to see you since morning.

6.6.20 From

i) starting point (place)

From Delhi I will be flying to Hyderabad.

The procession is from the Boat Club to India Gate.

ii) starting point in time

She is on leave from 15 January.

He lived in Shillong from 1980 to 1990.

Note: from ... taltill expresses duration, so does from ... through used more in American English.

There is a small difference in meaning, however:

from ... to/till means, from a point upto, whereas from ... through means, from a point upto and including.

We work from Monday to Saturday. (Saturday not included)

We work from Monday through Friday. (Friday included)

iii) origin or source

This gentleman is from Vienna.

This is a letter from my friend.

This is a quotation from 'Hamlet'.

iv) separation or removal

We draw water from a nearby tank.

Leaves are falling from this tree.

They regularly borrow books from the public library.

v) distance (between two places)

It is more than two kilometres from here to the top of the hill.

The bus stop is just a kilometre from my house.

vi) lower limit (of number, price, weight)

She has to type from 20 to 25 letters a day.

Apples are available from Rs 30 to Rs 60 a dozen.

vii) cause

He is suffering from fever/cold.

The shoot-out victim died from his injuries.

vi i i) protection/prevention

He saved the child from kidnappers.

This new mask reduces risk from air pollution.

ix) point of view

From a financial point of view your project is not viable.

x) considering or judging

From his appearance he seems to be innocent.

From what they say it seems to be a nice place.

xi) material

Soap is made from coconut oil.

Most Ayurvedic medicines are made from herbs.

6.6.21 From and since

i) from and since indicate a point in time:

He has been ill since Monday.

He will be absent from Monday.

ii) since is always used with reference to past time, not present or future time:

She has been watching TV since 7 p.m. (not, from)

He has written ten letters since morning. (not, from)

from is used with reference to present/future time as well:

He will report for work from Monday. (not since)

iii) from is used to indicate the time at which an action starts:

The tournament will be on from Monday.

iv) from is also used in combination with to or till/:

She has to work from 9 a. m. to/till 5 p.m.

(since is not possible here).

6.6.22 In

i) place (within an area, i.e., within enclosures or boundaries)

They are working in the fields.

He lives in Agra.

In is always used with a large town; city; state; province; country; continent; world, or universe.

ii) place (indicating volume or capacity of a container)

In the cage, we saw a hungry lion.

There is milk in this bottle.

The pronunciation of words is given in a dictionary.

In a newspaper, one often gets to read views, not news.

iii) profession or occupation

He is in the army/airforce.

She is in business/politics.

iv) state or condition (static)

She is in the canteen.

He is in trouble in a spot.

Everything was in a mess when the new vice- chancellor took over,

He is in good/poor health.

v) clothes or colours

Today, she is in jeans/tights/shorts.

They are all in black/white/red.

vi) form, shape or order

They are standing in rows/circles.

This novel will be telecast in thirteen episodes.

The runs were being scored in ones and twos.

Arrange the names in order of merit.

vii) medium

He is writing the answers in ink.

He can speak in English.

viii) means of travel/transport

He came here in a red car.

We were taken to the venue in 3 buses.

ix) mode of payment

They are paid wages in cash/kind.

Payment will be made in dollar/rupee.

x) quality of a person mentioned

You will always find a friend in Mr Ray.

The poet in her is alive.

xi) part of something

There are 11 players in a team.

There are twelve months in a year.

xii) reference (about)

India is rich in manpower.

He is weak in mathematics.

xiii) time (during a period of time)

She got back in the morning/evening.

He will finish his new novel in a week/month.

xiv) time (within a period/length of time)

You can learn English in a few months.

She will leave for home in a few hours.

Note: a) within means 'before the time ends'.

He will come here within a few hours.

b) in and after

In meaning after or at the end of is used with a period of time, after not used in this sense:

He will leave for home in a few minutes/in an hour. (not, after)

After is used with a point of time.;

He will leave for home after lunch/after 2 p.m.

('In' is not possible in this sense)

6.6.23 At, in, on

i) at indicates a definite point within an area:

He is at home.

Call me at my office.

ii) in indicates an area within enclosures/boundaries:

He is in the building.

She lives in England/Europe.

iii) in indicates volume as well:

There are some eggs in this basket.

I saw a cellular phone in his pocket.

(iv) on indicates surface:

There are pictures on the wall. ~

There are cats on the roof.

Drinks are on the field now.

v) at + noun (temporary activity)

He is at play. temporary activity

They are at work.

vi) in + noun (permanent activity/occupation/profession)

She is in politics. permanent activity

They are in the army.

6.6.24 In and on

i) on + day or date

He will go home on Sunday.

I was born on September 5.

ii) on + time + date

The delegation lands on the morning of March 5.

The ceremony starts on the evening of April 7.

But note: The delegation lands in the morning. (without date)

iii) on + day + time

They are arriving on Sunday morning.

I begin the work on Monday evening.

But note: They are arriving in the evening.

iv) in time/on time

In time means, a little before the time scheduled or arranged, on time means, strictly according to a time-table arranged already:

He got back in time for lunch.

The train arrived on time.

v) on a chair (without arms) or in a chair (with arms)

He is sitting on a chair, listening to the news.

He is sitting in an armchair, looking quite relaxed.

6.6.25 In and within

i) in indicates at the end of a period of time:

He will get back home in a week. (at the end of the week)

ii) within indicates before the end of a period of time:

He will get back home within a week. (before the end of the week)

6.6.26 In and with

i) with + a pen or a pencil

With is used before pen and pencil to express means or instruments when these nouns are preceded by a:

She is writing with a pen/pencil. (not, in a pen/pencil)

ii) in + pen or pencil

'pen' and 'pencil' without 'a' take in to express medium:

We often write in pencil/ball point pen. (not, with)

6.6.27 Into

i) place (entrance or movement to a place inside from outside)

She came into my room without permission.

He is driving into the lake!

ii) change in shape or form

Translate this into English.

A caterpillar changes into a butterfly.

iii) change in state or condition

She got into trouble.

He flew into a rage.

6.6.28 In and into

i) in indicates a static position:

He is in his room. (not, into)

ii) into indicates motion or movement within an area from outside:

He came into my room. (not, in)

iii) in indicates a state or condition:

He is in a good mood. (not, into)

iv) into indicates a change in state condition:

He flew into a rage. (not, in)

6.6.29 Of

i) relationship or ownership

He is a cousin of mine.

She is a friend of Rani's.

ii) possession of a quality

He is a man of letters.

He is a man of his word.

This work is of the highest calibre.

iii) part of something

The key of this lock is missing.

The brake of this car is weak.

iv) part of whole (of an institution or organization) ./

Rajiv is a member of this club. ~

Mini is a teacher of this school. .

v) origin or source

The plays of Rabindranath Tagore are as great as his poems.

The people of this country are wise.

vi) cause

They died of cholera.

She is proud of her noble birth.

vii) concerning (about)

The results of the examination have not been announced yet.

John Smith is a teacher of English.

viii) measurement

She bought 5 kilos/pounds of fish.

Give me a sheet of paper.

ix) distance

There is a swimming pool within 2 kilometres of my house.

This town is to the south of Patna.

x) time

Their first child was born within a year of their marriage.

I made many resolutions on the first of January.

xi) age

He is a boy of eighteen (years).

xii) material

This is a house of stone.

This window is made of glass.

Note: with, not of is used to indicate an ingredient:

We make sweets with sugar.

xiii) collection of people or things

Here is a bunch of keys that will unlock any door.

This is a team of international players.

6.6.30 Of, from, or with

i) of + noun denotes a material used in the process of making something:

This door is made of glass.

These chairs are made of wood.

ii) from + noun, too denotes a material used in the process of making something

but the material changes its form as a result:

Butter is made from milk.

Wine is made from grapes.

iii) with + noun indicates an ingredient i.e., one of the materials used in making something:

We can make a house with brick.

Pudding is made with milk. (not,of or from)

6.6.31 Off

i) separation (away from something)

She fell off the horse/ladder.

Keep off the grass, please.

ii) at a distance from something

My house is off the main road.

iii) state or condition (not engaged in an activity)

He is off duty now.

It is off season now for coolers.

Off is the opposite of on

Turn off the light.

Switch off the fan, please.

6.6.32 On

i) static position (in contact with the surface; touching something)

There is a cap on his head.

There are cups on the table.

ii) close to a place

There is a market here on the main road.

There are trees on either side of this canal.

iii) means of travel (public vehicle in transit)

they are on the train to Puri.

He is on the plane to Amsterdam.

note: in/on

in indicates a static position, on indicates movement/in transit

She is sitting in the bus/plane.

She is on the plane to Bangalore.

iv) possession (having)

I have no money on me at the moment.

v) means (with the help of an instrument)

she is playing rap music on the guitar.

I spoke to her on the telephone.

vi) support oneself with the help of something

he has to live on a small pension.

students find it difficult to live on their meagre stipends.

vii) state of being; professional activity

He is on tour today.

They are on holiday.

viii) cause

He has acquitted on the verdict of the jury.

The driver stopped the bus on my request.

We congratulated her on her success.

ix) direction

You can see the zoo on the left.

He pulled a dagger on the traveller.

there is now a focus on eradicating corruption in public life.

x) membership of an institution or organization (part of something)

He is on the staff of our college.

She is on the finance committee.

xi) concerning (about)

Everything you wanted to know on dinosaurs is here in this book.

This is a film on how to take good care of cats.

xii) time (on + day, date or special occasion)

She goes home on Sundays.

He will get back on the morning of June 5.

On weekends we go to the gym.

6.6.33 Opposite and in front of

i) opposite means on the other side

There is a restaurant opposite my house.

The library is opposite the park.

ii) in front of indicates nearness (opposite of behind)

In front of the museum, there is a statue of a great man.

Right in front of the main building stands an old banyan tree.

6.6.34 Over

i) position (higher than; not in contact with the surface)

When it started drizzling, someone held an umbrella over our heads.

Many in our country have no roof over their heads.

over and above are interchangeable in this sense.

ii) position (in contact with, and covering someone or something)

There is a carpet over the floor.

She spread a blanket over her husband.

(above is not possible here).

iii) position (on the other side)

May I go over the lawns and collect my things?

Can we come over to your house this evening?

iv) position (from one side to the other)

There is a long bridge over this river.

v) in every part of something (allover + noun)

There is water allover the playing field.

The police conducted a search all over the premises.

vi) cause

The brothers often quarrel over their ancestral property.

vii) control or authority

In this office there is no one over Mr Rao.

The Chairman of the Board presided over the meeting.

viii) more than

This road is over 500 miles/kilometres long.

She is overforty now. (Over can be replaced by above in this sense)

ix) period of time (during)

We can sort out our problem over lunch/a cup of tea.

Think about what I told you, over the weekend.

6.6-35 On, over, and above

i) on indicates contact of one thing with another; in contact with, i.e., touching a thing: .

She placed her hand on his head.

The cups are on the table.

ii) over indicates absence of contact; not touching a thing i.e., higher than something:

There is a spider over his head. (not on)

A lamp is hanging over the door. (not on)

ii) over and above can often be interchanged in this sense:

A plane is hovering over/above the field.

iii) Above, like over can mean more than (in price, age, or weight):

She is above twenty.

This suitcase weighs above 70 kilos.

6.6.36 Owing to or due to

Both are compound prepositions, meaning because of. They can come in any position in the sentence:

1. The accident was due to the driver's carelessness.

1. Due to/owing to foggy weather, the flight was cancelled.

3. Her success due to/owing to her hard work is an inspiration for all.

6.6.37- To

i) destination (towards)

They are going to school/college.

She is going to the market/hospital.

Note: to/from

to is the opposite of from because from means away from a place:

They are going home from school/college.

ii) direction (in the direction mentioned)

There is a river to the north of this town.

There is an ocean to the south of this country.

Note: to/on

to indicates direction, on indicates nearness (close to a place)

There are houses on either side of this road.

iii) person

I gave a ring to Mary, on her birthday.

They offered a job to John.

iv) place (from one place to another)

They are travelling from Karwar to Hampi.

A bee moves from flower to flower.

v) state or condition (change of state)

We were moved to tears by her story.

Here is a classic case of rags to riches.

vi) comparison

He prefers football to cricket. He is senior to me.

She prefers swimming to running.

Our team won the match by 3 goals to 2.

vii) rate

My car does 40 kilometres to the litre.

viii) about (approximate range)

He must be 4 to 5 years old.

This work will take 2 to 3 hours.

ix) concerning

You have a right to appeal against this judgement.

Voters should have a right to recall their representatives.

x) time (before)

It is 15 minutes to 9.

It is a quarter to 9.

Note: a) past or after

past is used in British English: It is ten past nine.

In American English after is also used though past is the more frequent:

It is ten after nine.

b) to or of

to is used in British English: It is ten to nine.

of is used in American English. It is ten of nine.

xi) time (inclusion)

The exhibition will be open from 1 a in the morning to 6 in

The market is open from Monday to Saturday .

6.6. 38 To, and till or until

i) from to (time or place)

from to construction is used for both time and place:

I work from 10 a.m to 4 p.m.

I am available from Wednesday to Friday.

Travelling from Agra to Jaipur by bus takes 6 hours.

He keeps moving from place to place.

ii) from till or until (time)

from till or until is used only for time, not place:

He wanders from morning till evening.

(not, He wanders from street till street)

Note: Till and Until (time)

Both of them mean 'up to the time specified', so there is no difference in meaning.

a) Till or Until: preposition of time

Both are used with a point in time, but till is usually preferred:

You can book your tickets from 3 p.m. till 5 p.m.

I may have to stay here till next week.

The current trend is to avoid until in sentences like these, particularly in the from ... till construction:

She waited here from nine to/till ten. (not, until)

b) Till or Until: conjunction of time

Both are used to express duration, so they answer the question-how long?

Until + subordinate clause is the more usual when the subordinate clause is placed at the beginning of a sentence:

Until sufficient warning is given the police can't open fire. (not till)

The police can't open fire until sufficient warning is given.

Until you tell the truth I can't help you. (not till)

When a sentence begins with the main clause, both till and until are equally acceptable:

Please wait here till/until the bus comes.

I have got to stay at home till/until father gets back.

6.6.39 Under

i) below something (indicates place or position)

The man hid the files under his coat.

The guests are sitting under a tree.

ii) below (in rank or authority)

The council of ministers has to function under the Prime Minister.

In i) and ii), under is opposite of above/over

iii) below (a specified age)

This film is not meant for those under eighteen.

iv) state (of something or someone)

This road is under repair.

My house is still under construction.

v) according to

Under the rules, you can't get any concession.

Under the new legislation, age limit can be relaxed.

Your case is under consideration.

The situation is now under control.

6.6.40 With

i) in the company of

She has gone for a walk with her child.

He is living with his aunt.

Note: 'with a child' means 'in the company of one's/a child.

with child' means 'to be pregnant'.

ii) and or together with.

He likes bread with chicken curry.

She is suffering from fever with cough.

The swindler with all his associates, was arrested yesterday.

iii) possession (having a quality or characteristic)

He is a boy with blue eyes.

This is a house with a garden.

iv) means (an inanimate noun as an instrument)

Remove the lid with an opener.

We can cut cloth with scissors.

His blood pressure has been kept under control with drugs.

v) ingredient (one of the materials used in making something)

We make a house with brick/stone.

We can make a cake with eggs.

vi) support (for)

We are with you in your struggle.

The whole nation stood with the government in its hour of crisis.

vii) opposition {against}

She had a quarrel with her neighbour last night.

India plays test match with England next week.

viii) reaction

He is angry with Mary/her.

Note: In British English with is always used when the cause or stimulus is a person.

In American English at is the more usual preposition:

He is angry at Mary/her.

At is used in British English as well as in American English when the cause of a reaction is not a person:

He is angry at the delay.

I am delighted at your success.

(with is not possible here).

ix) separation

It is really painful to part with someone you love.

I can't afford to dispense with his services.

x) manner

The village headman listened to the farmers with patience.

She can speak English with ease.

Note: with + noun is equivalent to an adverb of manner:

Handle glass with care. (Handle glass carefully)

xi) cause

He is trembling with fear/cold.

xii) a member or employee of an organization

He is now with an insurance company.

iii) after

The meeting came to a close with a vote of thanks.

With these words I declare the function open.

xiv) concession (with all or only + noun)

With only a week to go you ought to work hard for your exam.

With all his financial liabilities he can't give me a loan.

xv) concerning (about)

He is pleased with his success.

She is angry with her children.

6.6.41 By and with

i) by + noun (to express the agent or doer in the passive)

By can be used with agent or doer, i.e. a person or a country, an institution, an organization, a mechanical device or a natural phenomenon.

1. Floods were caused by heavy rain.

2. He was struck by lightning.
3. This bill has been passed by Parliament.
4. The Test Match has been won by Australia.
5. This industry is controlled by the government.
6. The whole town was destroyed by fire.

(with is not acceptable in these sentences).

ii) with + noun (indicating an instrument)

The gardener cuts the grass with a lawn mower.

The sailor rowed the boat with a pair of oars.

He drove the nail into the wall with a hammer.

In these examples, with can be replaced by using, but not by by.

6.6.42 Without

i) not in the company of

She came here without her husband.

I can't live without my pets.

ii) absence of a quality

This old man is without any teeth/hair.

This is a sentence without sense.

iii) absence of means or instrument

We can't see without eyes.

A bird can't fly without wings.

iv) absence of material

We can't make an omelette without eggs.

(v) absence of means of travel or transport

We can't travel fast without a car/bus/train.

We can't fly to Ahmedabad without a plane.

Note: without is the opposite of by (means of travel)

vi) absence of necessities or comforts

We can't live without air/water/food.

Note: without (opposite of within) meaning 'outside' is archaic. Outside is used instead in current English.

There is a river outside the town. (not without)

6.6.43 Within

i) time (before a specified period of time)

She got back within a month.

He is going to buy a car within a week.

Note: in and within

in indicates at the end of (after)

She got back in a week. (after a week)

She got back within a week. (before a week)

ii) distance (not further than a specified place)

My college is within a mile/kilometre of the main road.

There is a tomb within 2 miles/kilometres of my house.

iii) limit (within limits)

This medicine is within the reach of even poor people.

These grapes are not within the reach of children.

6.7 Conclusion

We have made an indepth study of the preposition in English in this unit.

6.8 Unit end Questions

1. Name some of the prepositions of place and location with examples.
2. Differentiate between the usage of between- among, in – within, in-after, by –with going examples.

Unit – 7

Verbs

Structure

- 7.0 Objective
- 7.1 Introduction
- 7.2 Definition
- 7.3 Kinds of Verb
 - 7.2.1 Auxiliaries
 - 7.3.2 Main-verbs
- 7.4 Auxiliaries
 - 7.4. 1 Functions
 - 7.4.2 Formation of question tags
- 7.5 Principal Auxiliaries: Usage
 - 7.5.1 Be (am, is, are/ was, were)
 - 7.5.2 Have
- 7.6 Modal Auxiliaries: Usage
 - 7.6.1 Can/could
 - 7.6.2 May/might
 - 7.6.3Must
 - 7-.6.4 Shall/should
 - 7.6.5 Will/would
 - 7.6.6 Ought to
- 7.7 Semi-Modals
 - 7.7.1 Need
 - 7.7.2 Dare

7.7.3 Used to

7.8 Irregular Verbs

7.8.1 Forms

7.8.2 Verbs having different forms

7.8.3 Verbs having two forms

7.8 .4 Verbs having the same form

7.9 Conclusion

7.10 Unit end Questions

7.0 Objective

In this unit we shall give you an understanding of the kinds of verbs and model auxiliaries.

7.1 Introduction

No sentences is generally complete without the use of verb. So the study of verbs is very important

7.2 Definition

A verb is a word or phrase indicating an action, event or state:

She teaches us English. - action

The accident happened at night. - event

He is in poor health. - state

The verb is the most important part of a sentence. It is obligatory even in the shortest of sentences:

Stop!

They left.

The stock markets fell.

7.3 Kinds of Verb

Verbs can be broadly categorised into two, based on their function:

a) Main verbs (principal verbs)

read, write, eat, drink, etc.

b) Auxiliary verbs (helping verbs)

I do, have, can etc.

7.2.1 Auxiliaries

Auxiliaries are of three kinds:

a) Primary auxiliaries

be: am, is, are, was, were, be, been, being

have : has, have, had

do : do, does, did

b) Modal Auxiliaries (modal verbs)

A modal auxiliary is a verb used with another verb to express an idea such as possibility which is not expressed by the main verb of the sentence viz., He could come tomorrow. Modal auxiliaries are:

can - could, may - might, will- would

shall - should, must, ought (to)

c) Auxiliaries (Semi-modal/marginal auxiliaries)

need, dare, used (with to)

7.3.2 Main-verbs

All verbs other than auxiliaries are called main verbs: read, write, eat, drink, etc.

These can be divided into two on the basis of how they form the simple past and past participle:

a) Regular Verbs

The simple past and the past participle of regular verbs are formed by adding d/ed to the bare infinitive:

simple present	simple past/past participle	
live	lived	(live + d)
love	loved	(love.s- d)
call	called	(call 1- ed)
pray	prayed	(pray + ed)

The simple past and the past participle forms of regular verbs are the same.

b) Irregular Verbs

The simple past and the past participle of irregular verbs are formed in a variety of ways:

simple present	simple past	past participle
go	went	gone
give	gave	given
take	took	taken
sing	sang	sang

7.4 Auxiliaries

7.4.1 Functions

i) Auxiliaries are used primarily to show whether an action is complete, habitual or continuous.

ii) Auxiliaries are also used in negation, interrogatives and emphatic statements.

iii) They are used in short answers to avoid the tedious repetition of words.

e.g. Do you like fish? Yes, I do./No, I don't.

Can you do this sum? Yes, I can./No, I can't.

An auxiliary verb allows the rest of the clause to be deleted.

Can you help me lift this box?

Yes, I can. (not, Yes I can help you lift this box.)

7.4.2 Formation of question tags

A question tag or tag question is also called a tail question. The structure of a question tag is:

auxiliary + subject (pronoun)

e.g. Isn't she?

The statement expresses an assumption and the question tag expresses confirmation of the assumption. So such a statement has two parts:

1. Statement
2. Question tag

The structure of such a sentence is:

Statement	Question Tag
Jane is tall.	Isn't she?
You can't go for the show now.	Can you?
They are on holiday.	Aren't they?

A. Use of the auxiliary

i) A question tag always begins with an auxiliary verb, and not with a question-word like who/what.

ii) A question tag is formed by repeating the auxiliary verb used in the statement

1. It's hot today, isn't it?
2. She isn't tall, is she?

Note: A question tag is formed by using do/does/did when the statement is in the simple present/past tense:

1. You play tennis, don't you?
2. She likes fish, doesn't she?

iii) With I am the question tag takes aren't I?

1. I am innocent, aren't I? (not, amn't I?)
2. I am good, aren't I? (not, amn't I?)

iv) With used the question tag can take didn't.

1. He used to play football, didn't he?
2. She used to go for a swim, didn't she?

v) With had better/had rather the question tag takes hadn't

1. You had better stay in bed, hadn't you?
2. You had rather wait a minute, hadn't you?

vi) With would rather the question tag takes wouldn't

You would rather resign, wouldn't you?

vii) With an imperative expressing command or request the tag is will you?

1. Switch on the fan, will you?
2. Please give me some money, will you?

viii) The imperative expressing offer or invitation takes won't you?

1. Come in, won't you?
2. Have a cup of tea, won't you?

ix) With let's expressing proposal or suggestion we use shall we?

1. Let's go home now, shall we?
2. Let's eat something, shall we?

Note: But let expressing permission takes will you?

1. Let them play here, will you?
2. Let her come in, will you?

B. Use of the subject pronoun

i) The subject of a question tag is always a pronoun, not a noun:

1. Mary is intelligent, isn't she? (not, isn't Mary?)
2. Tom has got a scooter, hasn't he? (not, hasn't Tom?)

ii) A singular noun of a common gender usually takes he, not she/they:

1. A doctor serves the sick, doesn't he? (not, doesn't she?)

2. A teacher loves his pupils, doesn't he? (not, doesn't she?)

iii) A singular indefinite pronoun of common gender takes they:

Everyone praised her, didn't they?

One used as a subject in the statement takes he or you in the question tag:

1. One can't eat a dozen oranges, can he?

2. One can eat a dozen oranges, can't you?

Prescriptive grammar requires one here:

One can eat a dozen oranges, can't one?

v) The subject of a question tag is always a single pronoun. Any premodifiers like 'some of/ none of' in the subject phrase of the statement are left out.

1. Some of it is bad, isn't it?

2. Some of them are bad, aren't they?

3. Most of the girls are gentle, aren't they?

4. None of you can do this sum, can you?

vi) This/that used as a subject in the statement becomes it in the question tag, and these/those used as a subject in the statement becomes they in the question tag.

1. This is a book, isn't it? (not, isn't this?)

2. These are dolls, aren't they? (not, aren't these?)

(vii) there is used as the subject in the question tag when the statement begins with there:

1. There is some milk in the bottle, isn't there? (not, isn't it?)

2. There are some cats on the roof, aren't there? (not, aren't they?)

3. There was a beggar at the door, wasn't there? (not, wasn't he?)

This is so because there is the grammatical subject.

C. Other forms:

The combination of auxiliary and pronoun comes in handy in certain other contexts too.

a) e.g., Sara is quite charming. Of course, she is.

Henry doesn't play cricket. Yes, he does.

Why didn't you do your homework. But I did.

b) In short answers:

Can women fly planes?

Yes, they can.

No, they can't.

Yes, it is.

No, it isn't.

c) Use of positive/negative expressions

i) positive + negative

If the statement is positive the tag is negative:

1. John speaks English, doesn't he?

2. A horse is faithful, isn't it?

ii) negative + positive

If the statement is negative the tag is positive:

1. Ann can't solve this problem, can she?

2. He didn't resign his post, did he?

iii) A statement containing a negative word is also treated as negative, so the tag is positive:

1. No one cared for these orphans, did they?

2. Neither of them reached in time, did they?

3. No doctor can save him, can he?

4. She hardly ever helps anybody, does she?

Note: negative expressions are:

Note: negative pronouns:

no one, none, neither, nobody, nothing

negative adjectives

no, neither, few, little

negative adverbs

barely, hardly, scarcely, never, seldom, too

The structure of a sentence with a question tag is either (a) or (b):

a) positive statement + negative tag

b) negative statement + positive tag

Examples:

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-------------|
| 1. She is a teacher, | isn't she? |
| 2. He runs fast, | doesn't he? |
| 3. She isn't a doctor, | is she? |
| 4. He doesn't love her, | does he? |
| 5. Nothing can save him, | can it? |
| 6. He has scarcely any money, | has he? |

7.5 Principal Auxiliaries: Usage

7.5.1 Be (am, is, are/ was, were)

I. Be as an auxiliary

i) am/is/are/was/were + present participle (verb + ing) is used to form the present continuous tense:

1. He is learning English.
2. They were playing tennis.

ii) be + past participle is used to form a passive verb:

1. The letters are being typed.
2. The burglars have been caught.

iii) am/i are + present participle is used to express some plan/programme in near future:

1. I am leaving for home tomorrow.
2. He is seeing the Prime Minister tonight.

iv) am/is/are + infinitive expresses a plan/programme in future:

Our examination is to start next week.

v) am/is/are + about + infinitive indicates immediate future:

1. He is about to make a speech.
2. She is about to leave.

7.5.2 Have

(has, have, had)

i) Have as an auxiliary

has or have + past participle is used to form the perfect tense:

I have/had finished the work.

ii).have + direct object + past participle is used in a causative sense, so it can be replaced by get + direct object + past participle:

1. I had my hair cut. (I got my hair cut.)
2. He will have the house repaired. (He will get the house repaired.)

7.5.3 Do

I Do as an auxiliary verb

i) Do (do/does/did) is used to form the negative and interrogative of simple present or simple past of main verbs:

- | | |
|------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. They speak English. | They don't speak English. |
| | Do they speak English? |
| | He doesn't love her. |
| 2 He Loves her | Does he love her? |

She didn't write to him.

Did she write to him?

3. She wrote to him.

She didn't write him.

Did she write to him?

ii) Do is used to make an affirmative sentence (simple present/simple past) emphatic:

1. I know him.

I do know him.

2. You reached late.

You did reach late.

3. He has antique furniture.

He does have antique furniture.

iii) Do is used to make a sentence emphatic or persuasive:

1. See me tomorrow.

Do see me tomorrow.

2. Please have a cup of tea.

Please do have a cup of tea.

II Do as a main verb

i) Do is a transitive verb and is followed by a noun phrase:

1. Everyone has to do one's work sincerely.

2. Do your role to the best of your ability.

3. I will do that by the end of this week.

ii) Negative/interrogative of the main verb do is formed by using do again:

1. They do their work honestly.

They don't do their work honestly.

Do they do their work honestly?

2. He did his homework.

He didn't do his homework.

Did he do his homework?

We don't say

They don't their work honestly.

Did he his work yesterday?

7.6 Modal Auxiliaries: Usage

7.6.1 Can/could

i) Can is used to express power/ability/capacity to do something:

1. The District Collector can ban the sale of this drug.
2. Viswanathan Anand can play chess blindfolded.
3. This tanker can hold 30,000 gallons of oil.

i i) Can't is the negative form of can. It is used to express absence of power/ability etc.

1. His eyesight is poor. He can't read in this light.
2. He is lame. He can't run fast.

Note: can + verb of perception (hear, feel, smell, see, taste)

Can with a verb of perception does not express power or ability. It is used to indicate that something is happening 'now', i.e, instantaneous present:

I can hear her murmuring. (I hear that she is murmuring)

I can smell something burning there. (\ get the smell of something burning)

iii) Can and able to

Be + able to is an alternative form of can for the present tense. Of the two forms can is the more usual:

1. She can run fast. She is able to run fast.
2. They can't do the sum. They aren't able to do this sum.

iv) Has/have been able to is the present perfect form of be able to:

1. I have been able to finish the work in time.
2. She hasn't been able to see her mother in hospital.

v) Shall/will be able to is the simple form of be able to:

1. I hope he will be able to help us.
2. I'm afraid I won't be able to reach home on time.

vi) Simple past tense forms of can are:

a) could b) was/were able to

Could is used to express a past ability only, not fulfilment or performance of an action.

Was/were able to is used instead to express a past ability + fulfilment or performance of an action.

1. He was happy because he was able to pass the exam.

(was able to pass the exam i.e., passed the exam.)

2. She got a medal because she was able to win the race.

(was able to win the race i.e., won the race)

Thus was/were able to is equivalent to the affirmative simple past tense of an ordinary verb, but could is not:

1. Jane was able to pass the examination.

(i.e. Jane passed the examination.)

2. Jane could pass the examination easily, but she did not think it necessary.

(i.e. Jane had the ability/capacity to pass the examination but she did not take the examination).

Note: Was/were able to, too, can be used to express a past ability but could is the more usual because was/were able to is likely to confuse fulfilment with non-fulfillment of an action.

vii) The negative forms of could are:

a) couldn't b) was/were + not able to

Either couldn't or was/were not able to can be used to express non-performance of an action in the past:

1. She couldn't save any money when she was abroad.

i.e. She wasn't able to save any money.

2. He couldn't pass the examination at the first attempt.

i.e. He wasn't able to pass the examination.

Of the two forms couldn't is the more usual.

iii) Had been able to is the past perfect form of be able to:

He had been able to dispose of all the files.

ix) could + perfect infinitive is used to express non-fulfillment in the past, so it is equivalent to negative simple past tense:

Mary could have got a good job in those days.

(i.e., Mary didn't get a good job).

x) Can is often used to indicate (a) permission (b) possibility:

1. Can I go out now? - permission

2. Can it be murder? - possibility

xi) can + perfect infinitive

could + perfect infinitive

Both constructions are used to express a deduction or assumption about a past possibility:

1. He cannot have caught the first train in any case.

2. He could have caught the last bus.

xii) can't be/couldn't be

This construction is used to express a negative deduction or assumption about a present action:

The flying object can't be/couldn't be a bird.

It must be an aeroplane because it has lights.

7.6.2 May/might

i) May/might expresses a request for permission:

1. May I come in?

2. Might I use your phone?

Note: Might is more polite than may but it indicates a certain lack of confidence on the part of the speaker about a positive response.

ii) Can/could is often used instead of may/might to express a request for permission:

1. Can I use your pen, Preetha?

2. Could I borrow your bike, Rupa?

Note: a) Of all these forms may is the most formal and can the most informal, but could is both formal and informal. Could is also the politest form to express request.

b) Could/might (past form) indicates more politeness than the present form can/may, so could/might is used with reference to present! future time, not past time:

1. Could I see you tomorrow?

2. Might I see you tonight?

iii) The positive response to may/might/can/could (permission) is:

Yes, you may.

Yes, you can.

Of the two (may/can) may is the more formal.

The negative response is:

No, you can't.

No, you mayn't/may not.

No, you mustn't.

1. May I play in the park?

Yes, you may.

Yes, you can.

No, you can't.

No, you may not.

2. Can I park my car here?
- No, you mustn't.
 Yes, you may.
 Yes, you can.
 No, you can't.
 No, you may not.
 No, you mustn't.

Of these mustn't is the most emphatic, mayn't/may not the most formal and can't the most informal.

Note: a) The politest form of refusal is 'I'm afraid not'.

This expression is a substitute for 'I can't allow/permit you'.

b) A negative interrogative expects a positive reply yes:

1. Can't I use your pen? Yes, you can.
2. Couldn't I borrow your bike? Yes, you can.

iv) may/might expresses possibility as well, i.e., more of doubt/uncertainty than certainty:

1. It may rain tonight.
2. It might rain tonight.

Note: a) Can could, too, expresses possibility:

1. This is a mad dog. It can could bite you.
2. Your purse can be/could be in the car.

b) Might indicates a greater degree of doubt/uncertainty than may:

c) Going to is used to express likelihood or probability more of certainty than uncertainty:

The clouds are black and thick. It is going to rain tonight.

v) The interrogative form of may (possibility) is can because may/might is not used to ask questions about possibility. So may is always replaced by can in questions:

statements	questions
------------	-----------

1. 'It may rain tonight	Can it rain tonight? (not, May it rain tonight?)
2 . Can she get back today?	Can she get back today? (not, May she get back today)

Note: a) be likely or do you think can be used to ask questions about possibility:

1. Is rain likely tonight?
2. Do you think it will rain tonight?

b) May can be used in questions when an interrogative sentence begins with a question word:

1. What may be the people's reaction to the new tax?
2. When may I expect your reply?

vi) The negative forms of may (possibility) are:

may not, can't

affirmative

negative

1. It may rain tonight.

It may not rain tonight.

It can't rain tonight.

2. She may get back today.

The news may not be true.

The news can't be true.

May not is sometimes replaced by can't when a possibility is ruled out altogether.

vii) may|can|will|might|could + perfect infinitive

All the five forms are used to express a deduction/assumption about a past action.

But there are subtle differences:

a) may + perfect infinitive or can + perfect infinitive indicates that there was a possibility of something happening but the result is not known yet, so there is an element of doubt and uncertainty about it:

1. He may have caught the bus.
2. He can have caught the bus.

These sentences mean there was a possibility of his catching the bus but we don't know whether he caught the bus or not.

b) will + perfect infinitive, too, can be used to express a deduction/assumption about a past action. It has the same meaning as may/can + perfect infinitive:

He will have heard the news.

2. The news may be true.

(i.e., There was a possibility of his hearing the news but we don't know for sure.)

c) might + perfect infinitive or could + perfect infinitive indicates that there was a possibility of something happening in the past but since the action did not take place there is no uncertainty.

1. Thank goodness, he wasn't in the plane! He might have died in the accident.

(i.e. There was a possibility of his death in the accident but since he wasn't on the plane he didn't die.)

2. He could have competed.

(i.e., There was a possibility of his competing but he didn't.)

d) may + perfect infinitive can't be used to indicate certainty.

viii) May have to is used to express the possibility of an obligation/necessity in future:

1. The hall is full. We may have to stand.

2. He is travelling without ticket. He may have to pay a fine.

7.6.3 Must

i) Must is used for emphasis. It is a positive way of expressing duty/obligation/necessity/advice/suggestion in the present or future:

1. We must love our country.

2. We must pay income tax without fail.

3. He is very ill. He must see a doctor.

4. You must give up smoking.

ii) Mustn't is a negative way of expressing obligation/necessity/advice. It indicates prohibition:

1. You mustn't smoke in here. (You are not allowed to smoke in here.)
2. We mustn't disturb the patient.

iii) must have + noun, too, expresses obligation/necessity:

1. We must have respect for human rights.
2. A teacher must have patience.

In spoken English must have + noun is usually replaced by have to have + noun:

We must have respect for human rights.

(i.e., We have to have respect for human rights.)

2. A teacher must have patience.

(i.e., A teacher has to have patience.)

Note: a) needn't

Needn't is negative in form and sense as well. It indicates total absence of obligation or necessity:

1. It's Sunday. You needn't go to college today. (absence of obligation)
2. He is in good health. He needn't take any medicine. (absence of necessity)

Needn't is the negative form of both must and have to.

b) responses to must

Positive response to must is must:

Must I start at once? Yes, you must.

Negative response to must is needn't, not mustn't:

Must I start at once? No, you needn't. (not mustn't)

c) must and have to/have got to

A distinction is often made between the present tense forms of must and have to in affirmative sentences:

Must usually expresses a speaker's authority, i.e., obligation/compulsion/advice/order/wish imposed on someone by the speaker/ writer:

You must go to bed now.

Have to is usually used to express external authority, i.e., obligation/compulsion etc. imposed by someone other than the speaker (custom/law/rule/necessity/events/circumstances):

You have to go to bed now.

(i.e., You have to go to bed now because you need to rest after a busy day)

But this distinction ceases to exist in the past tense because had to is the only possible past form of both must and have to.

He had to go to bed.

In the future tense, too, this distinction disappears because shall!

will/have to is often preferred to must to indicate future time more precisely than with must.

They will have to leave in a few hours.

In the first person, must and have to are often interchangeable.

I must buy another trouser.

or, I have to buy another trouser.

But must is preferred when an obligation or necessity requires urgent attention:

My mother is seriously ill. I must leave for home at once.

iv) Shall/will have to is the future form of have to:

He will have to catch the first bus tomorrow.

v) The negative form of shall/will have to is shan't have to/won't have to:

I have bought a car. I won't have to depend on the erratic bus service any more.

Won't have to is the more usual.

vi) must + infinitive, or must be + noun/adjective is used to express a deduction or assumption about a present or future action. It indicates certainty or a strong likelihood:

1. He is preparing the food. He must be the cook.
2. They look ferocious. They must be robbers.
3. You haven't eaten anything since morning. You must be hungry.

Note: The negative of this construction is can't/can't be, not mustn't, because mustn't can't be used for a negative deduction/assumption:

assertive negative

1. She must be rich. She can't be rich.
2. He must be a fool. He can't be a fool.

vii) must have + perfect infinitive and must have been + noun/adjective are used to express deduction or assumption about a past action. They indicate certainty or a strong likelihood:

She started early. She must have caught the bus.

The old lady is charming. She must have been quite a beauty in her youth.

Note: The negative of these constructions are can't + perfect infinitive and can't have been + noun/adjective:

1. He must have caught the bus.

He can't have missed the bus.

2. She must have been a teacher.

She can't have been a journalist.

7-6.4 Shall/should

i) Should/Shouldn't expresses duty/obligation:

1. You should help your friends in need.
2. You shouldn't travel without a ticket.

Note: shouldn't

Shouldn't does not denote absence of duty/obligation. It is only a negative way of expressing duty/obligation:

You should always speak the truth.

i.e. You shouldn't ever tell a lie.

ii) Should/shouldn't can be used to give advice:

1. You should help the blind.
2. You shouldn't kill snakes.

Note: a) Should expressing obligation/advice is not as emphatic as must because must indicates the speaker's authority whereas should does not. Should only indicates the speaker's personal opinion, not his authority, so the desired action is not mandatory.

b) Ought to is more emphatic than should because ought to indicates adherence to some norm or law:

1. You should get up early. (non-emphatic advice)
- 2 You ought to get up early. (emphatic advice)

iii) Should is normally used when seeking advice:

What should I do now?

Ought to is hardly used when seeking advice because it sounds awkward:

(not, What ought I to do now?)

Note: Should is always used with a bare infinitive but ought takes a full infinitive with to:

iv) Should + perfect infinitive expresses an obligation not fulfilled or something advisable but not done in the past:

1. You should have saved the child.
2. She should have spoken the truth.

It has the same meaning as ought to + perfect infinitive:

You ought to have saved the child.

v) shouldn't + perfect infinitive is used to express the idea that something wrong was done in the past:

1. You shouldn't have wasted your time. (but you did)
2. He shouldn't have betrayed his friend. (but he did)

Note: shouldn't/oughtn't + perfect infinitive and needn't + perfect infinitive
Shouldn't/oughtn't + perfect infinitive indicates that something wrong was done in the past:

You shouldn't have/oughtn't to have pulled the dog's tail.

(i.e., It was wrong of you to pull a dog's tail but you did.)

Needn't + perfect infinitive indicates that something unnecessary was done in the past:

You needn't have pulled the dog's tail.

(i.e., It was not necessary for you to pull a dog's tail but you did.)

Shouldn't/oughtn't + perfect infinitive indicates annoyance/irritation be needn't + perfect infinitive indicates a mild form of disapproval.

vi) should + infinitive is used to express a deduction or assumption about a present or future action:

1. He has been working non-stop. He should finish the work by 4 p.m.

(present action)

2. Since the date of examination has been postponed he should have plenty of time to prepare himself well.

(future action)

Note: A deduction/assumption with should indicates one's expectation, not certainty:

She should get back soon. (I expect she will get back soon.)

vii) Should + perfect infinitive can be used to express a deduction or assumption about a past action:

1. Since he started early he should have caught the first train.

2. My letter should have reached her by now.

viii) should like/would like + perfect infinitive is used to express a wish that was not fulfilled in the past:

I should/would like to have seen the Taj Mahal.

(I wanted to see the Taj Mahal but couldn't.)

ix) Should means 'in case' in constructions like the following:

1. Take an umbrella with you should it rain in the afternoon.
2. Keep this money should there be any unexpected development.

7.6.5 Will/would

i) Will you + please is used to express a request or an invitation. It is a more polite form than please + imperative:

1. Will you please switch on the fan?
2. Will you have a cup of tea, please?

(not, Please have a cup of tea.)

ii) Will you without please is usually used to express command:

1. Will you close the gate?
2. Close the gate, will you?

Note: Will you is a politer form than the imperative:

1. Close the gate. (rude command)

Will you close the gate? (polite command)

2. Sit down; (harsh command)

Will you sit down? (polite command)

I Would you is used to make a polite request:

Would you have a cup of tea?

Combined with please makes it an extremely polite request:

Would you have a cup of tea, please?

Note: a) Would you is politer than will you.

b) Will/would indicates present time.

c) Will/would can't be replaced by going to to express command or request. We don't say:

Are you going to lend me some money, please?

iv) Won't you is used for invitations:

1. Won't you have a cold drink?
2. Won't you have a little more?

v) Would you mind is the politest form of making a request:

1. Would you mind if I smoked a cigarette?
2. Would you mind waiting a few minutes?

Will is never used with mind:

Will you mind waiting a minute?

Note: Would you mind is used with a noun or gerund.

vi) Would like is used to express request or invitation:

1. Would you like a cup of tea?
2. Would you like to stay with me?

Note: a) Would like can be used with a noun or infinitive:

1. Would you like a cigarette?
2. Would you like to go for a swim?

b) Should like/would like

Traditional grammar demands should but in current English both should like and would like are equally idiomatic expression. In American English should like is rare and would like is acceptable now even in British English because the distinction between shall and will is not strictly observed.

I would like to have a nap.

I should like to have a nap.

c) Like is not used with will. We don't say:

I will like to speak to Rekha, please.

We say:

1. I would like to speak to Rekha, please.
2. I would like to have a cup of tea.

vii) Would is used to express occasional occurrence of a past activity:

They would often meet at night.

viii) Would is used in the indirect speech to express future time:

He told me that he would go home soon. (not will go)

ix) Will be and would be are used to express a deduction or assumption about a present action:

1. That will be/would be the right time to make a request.

2. That will be/would be the ideal toy for your child.

x) Will be can be used to express a deduction or assumption about a future action as well:

1. He will be at the club on Tuesday evening.

2. They will have plenty of fun tomorrow.

xi) Would be is used to express a deduction or assumption about a past state or event:

1. They would be in their teens at the time of their marriage. (not will be)

2. She died five years ago. She would be eighty then. (not will be)

xii) Will + perfect infinitive can be used to express a deduction or assumption about a past event:

He will have heard the news.

xiii) Would + perfect infinitive is used in the main clause of a sentence expressing a condition which no longer holds true:

Had he won the election, he would have become a minister.

xiv) Would is usually used with I to make a request/advice/suggestion/opinion/answer very polite. It has a softening effect on a verb:

1. I would request you to grant me a week's leave. (not I request ...)

2. I would advise you to have patience. (not I advise ...)

3. I would suggest another way of tackling this problem. (not I suggest ...)

4. I wouldn't suggest her for the job. (not I don't suggest ...)
5. What's your opinion of John? I would say he is honest. (not I say ...)
6. What have you got to say in defence of Maria?
Well, I would say she is not the type who does such things. (not I say ...)

A verb like say/like etc. is categorical, not courteous.

Note: Would indicates present time in these sentences.

xv) Would is often used with rather/sooner.

1. I would rather have tea.
2. I would sooner die than live in disgrace.

(Will is not acceptable here.

I will rather die than live in disgrace.)

7.6.6 Ought to

i) ought to expresses duty or obligation:

1. You ought to obey your teachers.
2. You oughtn't to behave like this.

Note: oughtn't

Oughtn't is only a negative way of expressing an obligation. It doesn't denote an absence of obligation.

ii) Ought/oughtn't can be used just to give advice or suggestion:

1. You ought to take some exercise.
2. You oughtn't to eat too many sweets.

Ought/oughtn't always takes a full infinitive, that is, an infinitive with to:

1. You ought to speak the truth. (not, ought speak)
2. You oughtn't to tell a lie. (not, oughtn't tell)

iii) Ought to + perfect infinitive expresses an obligation not fulfilled in the past or something desirable not done in the past:

1. You ought to have obeyed your parents. (but you didn't)

2. You ought to have consulted a lawyer. (but you didn't)

iv) Oughtn't + perfect infinitive expresses the idea that something wrong or undesirable was done in the past:

You oughtn't to have touched a live wire. (but you did)

v) Ought to, like should, can be used to express a deduction or assumption about a present or future action:

He ought to be back by now.

7.7 Semi-Modals

7.7.1 Need

i) Need as a non-auxiliary verb means 'require/be in the need of'. In such sentences need + noun/pronoun or need + infinitive is used to express one's requirements:

I need some expert opinion on this.

She needs a week's time.

I need to know where your parents are.

In sentences like these need can be singular or plural:

1. He needs a house.

2. They need food.

ii) The negative and interrogative of need is formed with do:

1. I don't need your help.

2. Does he need my help?

iii) Need to as an auxiliary can be used to express obligation or necessity:

1. You need to pass a driving test.

2. I need to know the correct position.

Need is not much used in the affirmative. Must/have to is used instead.

iv) Need as an auxiliary is normally used in the negative form (needn't) to express absence of obligation or compulsion:

1. He/they needn't work hard.

2. You/she needn't worry now.

Needn't takes a bare infinitive (infinitive without to):

1. You needn't go to school today. (not, needn't to go)

2. She needn't see a doctor. (not, needn't to see)

Note: Needn't is always in the plural form. It is never used in the singular:

1. He needn't hurry. (not, needs not)

2. They needn't hurry.

iv) Needn't can be replaced by don't have to/haven't got to/don't need to:

He needn't take any medicine.

He hasn't got to take any medicine.

He doesn't have to take any medicine.

He doesn't need to take any medicine.

Of these the 'doesn't have to' form is the commonest.

v) The past tense forms of needn't are:

a) hadn't got to

She hadn't got to cook food herself.

b) didn't have to

She didn't have to cook food herself.

c) didn't need to.

She didn't need to cook food herself.

Didn't have to is the most usual form.

vi) The normal response to need is must

Need I go by bus?

Yes, you must.

vii) needn't + perfect infinitive expresses the idea that an action which was neither necessary nor obligatory was performed in the past:

1. She needn't have bought another car. (but she did)
2. He needn't have travelled by air. (but he did)

Note: a) didn't have to/didn't need to

Didn't have to/didn't needn't to indicates that there was no obligation and so the action was not performed:

He didn't have to travel by bus.

(i.e. He didn't travel by bus.)

b) needn't + perfect infinitive

Needn't + perfect infinitive indicates that although there was no obligation or necessity an action was performed in the past:

He needn't have travelled by bus.

(i.e. He did travel by bus.)

7.7.2 Dare

i) Dare as a non-auxiliary verb means 'to challenge'. In such sentences we use dare + object + infinitive (with to). In these sentences dare has a singular form with a singular subject and a plural form with a plural subject:

1. I dare them to dismiss me from service.
2. He dares me to break this window.

ii) Dare as an auxiliary means 'to have the courage'. The negative form daren't means 'to lack courage':

1. She daren't oppose her parents.
2. He daren't challenge me.

Note: a) Daren't always takes a bare infinitive:

They daren't raise their voice against him. (not, to raise)

b) Daren't is always in the plural form:

She/he/they daren't utter a word. (not, dares not)

The past form of daren't is dared not + bare infinitive (with to):

He dared not fight robbers. (not, dared not to fight)

7.7.3 Used to

i) Used to/used to be expresses a past habit or state which has ceased now, so this construction indicates a contrast between a past situation and a present situation:

1. I used to play football at school. (but I don't play now)
2. Her hair used to be black in her youth. (but it is not black now)
3. John used to be cheerful. (but he is not cheerful now)

This construction is used to express a habit or situation that continued in the past without any break, i.e., a habitual or continuous action in the past.

Note: a) Used to is replaced by would to express occasional occurrences of an activity in the past, i.e., an activity occurring only from time to time:

1. He would often invite me to lunch. (not usee/)
2. They would often meet in a park. (not used to)

b) Used to is replaced by simple past tense to indicate that an action occupied a period of time but is now terminated:

He lived in London for ten years.

(not, He used to live in London for ten years.)

ii) The negative form of used to is usedn't to or didn't use to:

He used to smoke. He usedn't to smoke.

He didn't use to smoke.

Didn't is the more usual in common speech, particularly in question tags:

He used to play hockey, didn't he? (not, usedn't he?)

iii) be + used to + noun/gerund means 'to be accustomed to':

1. I am now used to dust and noise.
2. We are now used to standing in a queue for long hours.
3. They are used to sleeping in the open.

Note: a) be + used to is an objective, not a modal verb.

b) The negative of this construction is formed by placing a not after the verb be:

1. He is not used to dust.

c) Users) to is not used for a present habit or continuous action so we

don't say:

She uses to play tennis in the afternoon.

They use to have breakfast at 8 a. m.

Simple present tense is used instead:

1. She plays tennis in the afternoon.

2. They have breakfast at 8 a. m.

7.8 Irregular Verbs

7.8.1 Forms

English verbs can be broadly classified into two:

a) Regular verbs-those which form their simple past tense and past participle forms by adding -ed to the bare form:

walk, call, lean, wish etc.

b) Irregular verbs-those that form their simple past tense and past participle forms by other means (like a vowel change):

fall, run, buy, take, set, stand, rise etc.

ii) Compounds of irregular verbs have the same forms in the simple past and the past participle as the original verbs:

Verb	Simple Past	Past participle
a) fall	fell	fallen
befall	befell	befallen (same way as fa//)
b) upset	upset	upset (same way as set)
c) mistake	mistook	mistaken (same way as take)
d) understand	understood	understood (same way as stand)

iii) A few irregular verbs have two forms in the simple past and past participle:

burn burnt/burned burnt/burned

learn learnt/learned learnt/learned

(But turn and earn are regular verbs taking -ed not -t)

There are a few irregular verbs with all the three forms identical:

cut cut cut

put put put

shut shut shut

7.8.2 Verbs having different forms

Most of the irregular verbs have different forms in simple past and past participle:

simple present	simple past	past participle
be (is, am, are)	was/were	been
abide	abided/abode	abided/abode
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke/awaked	awoken/awakened
bear	bore	borne/born
beat	beat	beaten
become	became	become
befall	befell	befallen
beget	begot	begotten
begin	began	begun
behold	beheld	beheld
bend	bent	bent
bereave	bereaved	bereaved
beseech	besought/beseeked	besought/beseeked

bet	betbetted	betbetted
bid	bade	bidden
bid	bid	bid
bind	bound	bound
bite	bit	bitten
bleed	bled	bled
blow	blew	blown/blowed
break	broke	broken
breed	bred	bred
bring	brought	brought
build	built	built
bust	bustbusted	bustbusted
buy	bought	bought
catch	caught	caught
chide	chided	chidden
choose	chose	chosen
cleave	cleaved	cleaved/cloven/cleft
cling	clung	clung
clothe	clothed	clothed
come	came	come
creep	crept	crept
crow	crowed	crowed
dare	dared	dared
deal	dealt	dealt
dig	dug	dug

dive	dived	dived
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
flee	fled	fled
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown
forbear	forbore	forborne
forbid	forbade	forbidden
forget	forgot	forgotten
forgive	forgave	forgiven
forgo	(forwent)	forgone
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got
gild	gilded	gilded
give	gave	given
go	went	gone

grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown
hang	hanged/hung	hanged/hung
have/has	had	had
hear	heard	heard
heave	heaved	heaved
hew	hewed	hewed/hewn
hide	hid	hidden
hold	held	held
keep	kept	kept
ken	kenned/kent	kenned
know	knew	known
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
lie	lay/lie	lain/lie
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
meet	met	met
melt	melted	melted
mow	mowed	mowed/mown
pay	paid	paid
prove	proved	proved/proven
read	read	read

rend	rent	rent
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
rot	rotted	rotted/rotten
run	ran	run
saw	sawed	sawed/sawn
say	said	said
see	saw	seen
seek	sought	sought
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
sew	sewed	sewed/sewn
shake	shook	shaken
shave	shaved	shaved
shear	sheared	sheared/shorn
shine	shone	shone
shoe	shoed/shod	shoed/shod
shoot	shot	shot
show	showed	shown
shrink	shrank	shrunk
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
sit	sat	sat
slay	slew	slain
sleep	slept	slept

slide	slid	slid
sling	slung	slung
slink	slunk	slunk
smite	smote	smitten
sow	sowed	sowed/sown
speak	spoke	spoken
speed	speeded/sped	speeded/sped
spend	spent	spent
spin	spun	spun
spit	spat	spat (British)
spit	spit	spit
spotlight	spotl it/spotl ighted	spotl it/spotl ighted
spring	sprang	sprung
stand	stood	stood
stink	stank/stunk	stunk
strew	strewed	strewed/strewn
stride	strode	strode/strided/stridden
strike	struck	struck
string	strung	strung
strive	strove	striven
swear	swore	sworn
swell	swelled	swelled/swollen
sweep	swept	swept
swim	swam	swum
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken

teach	taught	taught
tear	tore	torn
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
thrive	thrived/throve	thrived
light	lighted/lit	lighted/lit
throw	threw	thrown
tread	trod	trodden/trod
wake	waked/woke	waked/woken
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven
wed	wedded/wed	wedded/wed
weep	wept	wept
wet	wetted/wet	wetted/wet
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
wind	winded	winded
wring	wrung	wrung
write	wrote	written

Notes:

Awoke is the more usual of the two simple past forms awoke/awaked:

Awoken is the more usual of the past participle forms awoken/awaked.

Borne is the past participle form of bear meaning give birth to a child:

Mary has borne him two sons. (not, born)

Borne cannot be used in the passive voice:

not, Two sons have been borne by Mary.

Borne is also used as the past participle form of bear meaning to have a grudge or ill-will.

Most of the unpleasantness is due to the ill-will borne by the two parties for each other.

Born is used when bear means 'to originate from/to be founded':

1. He is born of rich parents. (not, borne)
2. This federation was born in 1970. (not, borne)

Born is never used in the active voice:

She has born him three daughters.

Born can be used as an attributive adjective:

Vikram Seth is a born poet.

Begat (simple past form) is now archaic.

Begotten, not begot is the past participle form.

Beholden is used only as an adjective (predicative use), never as a past participle:

I am much beholden to you for your help.

Bereaved is used both as a past participle and an adjective meaning 'having a close relative friend who has died'.

He has recently been bereaved of his brother.

The bereaved parents refused to give an interview.

Bereft (past participle) is now used only as an adjective (predicative use) not as a past participle. It means 'be deprived of something (ability/quality etc.):'

He is bereft of all hope. (not, bereaved)

Betted is now used in American English and British as well.

Bid/bidden is used when bid means 'order/command'. Bid has the same form in all the three parts when it means 'offer a price at an auction'

Bounden (past participle) is always used as an attributive adjective, not as a participle:

Blowed is used only when it means damn somebody/something.

The use of Busted is on the increase.

Chided/chidden is often preferred to child.

Cleaved is now the most usual form in simple past and past participle because it is regarded as a regular verb.

Cleft, not cleaved is used as an attributive adjective:

a cleft palate, a cleft stick, a cleft sentence.

Clothed is the more usual as a simple past/past participle form.

Clad is archaic as a simple past past participle form. It is now used only as an adjective and means 'dressed':

clad in leather, ill-clad (not, clothed)

Crew (simple past form) is archaic.

Durst (simple past/past participle form) is rare in current English.

Drunken (past participle form) is now used only as an attributive adjective, not as a past participle and drunk (as an adjective) is used only predicatively:

a drunken brawl/argument

This man is dead drunk. (not, He is a dead drunk man)

His drunken boss abused him. (not, drunk boss)

Forbad (simple past form) is acceptable only in American English.

Forgone is used as a past participle form of forgo:

The teachers have forgone their holidays in order to conduct the exams on time.

Foregone is also used as an attributive adjective:

a foregone conclusion/result

Forwent is rarely used in current English.

Gotten (past participle form) is used only in American English. Got is used instead in British English:

Gotten in British English is used as an attributive adjective, in phrases like ill-gotten wealth.

Gilt (simple past/past participle form) is archaic.

Hanged is used when hang means 'kill somebody/oneself by tightening a rope around the neck':

He was hanged for cold-blooded murder. (not, hung)

Hung is used when hang means 'support something from above/fasten something to a wall/bend downwards':

1. A number of pictures were hung/have been hung in the wall. (not, hanged)

2. He hung his head in shame. (not, hanged)

Have (simple past/past participle of heave) is found only in nautical use.

Hewn, not hewed can be used as an attributive adjective:

hewn timber (not, hewed)

Lied is the simple past/past participle form of lie meaning 'utter falsehood':

Lighted, not lit is used as an adjective (attributive use):

a lighted candle (not, a lit candle)

Molten (past participle) is now always used as an attributive adjective, not as a verb:

molten steel/rock (not melted)

Melted (past participle) can be used as an attributive adjective as well. It is used a thing that is soft, not hard/solid:

melted butter/snow (not molten)

Mowed/mown can be used as a past participle.

Mown, not mowed can be used as an attributive adjective:

a new-mown lawn/hay (not mowed)

Proven (past participle) is used only in American English, proved is used instead in British English. Proven is normally used as an adjective:

a proven case/method (not proved)

Rotten (past participle) is now always used as an adjective (attributive!predicative use):

1. This is a rotten egg/film. 2. This egg/film is rotten.

Sawed (past participle) is preferred in American English but sawn in British English.

Both forms are equally acceptable.

Sewn, not sewed is used as an adjective:

a hand-sewn suit. (not sewed)

Shaven (past participle) is used only in American English, shaved is used instead in British English.

Shaven is now used only as an adjective:

a shaven head, a clean- shaven face (not, shaved)

Shore (simple past form) is archaic. Sheared is the usual form in the simple past.

Sheared/shorn can be used as a past participle when shear means 'remove fur/hair by cutting'.

Her long hair has been sheared/shorn off.

Shorn (shorn o~ is always used when it means 'deprived of something'.

Shorn of power/beauty (not, sheared)

Shined, not shone is the simple past/past participle form of shine meaning-to polish:

He shined/has shined his shoes. (not, shone)

Shod, not shoed is used as an attributive adjective:

Shod in leather, shod for cold weather.

Showed (past participle) is rarely used in current English. Shown is used instead.

Shrunk is also used as a past form, though the British usage is shrank.

Shrunken (past participle) is now always used as an attributive adjective not as a verb:

a shrunken body. a shrunken mango

sunken (past participle) is always used as an attributive adjective, not as a verb:

a sunken ship

Speeded is used when speed means 'cause something to go or move quickly'.

The simple past/past participle form of speed up (to increase speed) is speeded up (not, sped up.)

Spit is used in all the three parts in American English.

Spotlighted is used when it means 'draw special attention to something', same as highlighted.

Strewn is the more usual in the expression 'strewn with/strewn all over a surface':

The floor is strewn with litter/papers. (not, strewed)

Stridden is rarely used in current English. Strode/strided is the more usual form.

Striken (past participle) is always used as an adjective:

striken with fever fear striken

Swelled (past participle) is used to indicate an increase in number/amount/volume:

1. The number of TV viewers has swelled. (not, swollen)
2. Her heart swelled with joy/pride at her success.

Swollen is used when swell means 'have a swelling on the body/grown larger in size':

1. Her face is/has swollen. (not, swelled)
2. The river is/has swollen.

Swelled/swollen can be used when it means 'be conceited':

He has a swelled/swollen ego i.e. He is conceited.

Thriven (past participle form) is archaic. The usual form is thrived. Thrived (simple past) is now preferred to throve.

Trodden (past participle) is the more usual form.

Trod (past participle) is not much used in current English.

Waked is rarely used in current English, woke/woken is the usual form.

Weaved (simple past/past participle) is used when it means 'move or turn to avoid obstructions/obstacles.'

She weaved her way through the mob. (not, move)

Wedded is the more usual form because it is now normally used as a regular verb.

Wetted, now wet is used when it means 'moisten something deliberately':

He wetted his pen/lips again and again. (not, wet)

Wound is used when wind means 'to turn a key or handle/to coil something round and round/to fold something round somebody or something/to end! to follow a curving path':

Haven't you wound your watch yet? (not, winded)

Winded (simple past/past participle) is used when wind means 'to detect somebody/ something by smelling' or 'to cause somebody to get out of breath':

1. Police dogs winded/have winded all the criminals. (not, wound)

2. They were winded by an exhausting climate. (not, wound)

Wrought (simple past/past participle from of work) is archaic. It is, however still used as an attributive adjective to mean 'made or shaped by hammering/ made by rolling' etc:

a wrought-iron gate, a well-wrought urn

7.8.3 Verbs having two forms

Some verbs have both regular and irregular forms in simple past and past participle:

Regular form verb + died burned (preferred in American English).

Irregular form verb + t burnt (preferred in British English).

t-form is normally used as an adjective in both American English and British English:

a spoilt child, burnt toast, spilt milk

But a learned man, not, a learnt man.

simple present	simple past	past participle
burn	burnt/burned	burnt/burned
dream	dreamt/dreamed	dreamt/dreamed
dwell	dwelt/dwelled	dwelt/dwelled
gird	girt/girded	girt/girded
kneel	knelt/kneeled	knelt/kneeled
lean	leant/leaned	leant/leaned
leap	leapt/leaped	leapt/leaped
learn	learnt/learned	learnt/learned
smell	smelt/smelled	smelt/smelled
spil	spilt/spoiled	spilt/spoiled

7.8 .4 Verbs having the same form

Some verbs have the same form in all the three parts:

simple present	simple past	past participle
burst	burst	burst
broadcast	broadcast	broadcast
cast	cast	cast
cost	cost	cost
cut	cut	cut
hit	hit	hit
hurt	hurt	hurt

input	in put/i nputted	input/inputted
inset	inset	inset
knit	knit	knit
let	let	let
output	output/outputted	output/outputted
put	put	put
quit	quit	quit
rid	rid	rid
set	set	set
shed	shed	shed
shut	shut	shut
slit	slit	slit
spread	spread	spread
telecast	telecast	telecast
thrust	thrust	thrust
wed	wed/wedded	wed/wedded

Notes:

Knit has the same form in all the three parts when it means 'join firmly together'.

Knitted (simple past/past participle form) is used when it means 'make garments from wool/silk etc.'

Quitted (simple past/past participle) is acceptable because quit is now treated as a regular verb.

Ridded is not an acceptable form.

Wedded is the more usual as a predicative adjective when it means 'devoted to something':

He is wedded to his principle. (not, wed)

7.9 Conclusion

This unit has given you a detailed analysis of the verbs, their kinds and forms and usage.

7.10 Unit End Questions

I. Correct these sentences:

1. May it rain tonight?
2. I can give you some money tomorrow.
3. Have you got a sister? Yes, I have got.
4. He needs not to go home every day.
5. I have got lunch at 2 p.m.
6. She loves him very much, does she?
7. John plays tennis, does John?
8. You are fond of fish, isn't it?
9. He doesn't has any friends.
- 10 He was happy because he could save a child.

II. Fill in the blanks with words given in brackets:

1. It's Sunday. You go to school today. (mustn't, needn't) [
2. you like a cup of coffee? (will, would)
3. he pass her examination this time? (can, may)
4. You don't know him well, you? (do, don't)
5. breakfast at 8 a.m. every day. (have, have got)
6. Would you mind the gate? (to close, closing)
7. He did to steal my watch. (try, tried)

III. Choose the right words from those given in brackets:

1. Have you got a car? Yes, . (I have/I have got)
2. She work very hard. (need not/needs not)

3. He loves her very much, ? (does he/doesn't he)
 _____ play football at school. (used to/would)
5. This dog is mad. You go near it. (needn't/mustn't)
6. He challenge me. (dares not/dare not)
 _____ home yesterday. (had to go/must go)
8. she get back tonight? (May/Can)
9. help you tomorrow. (can/shall be able to)
- O. Shut the door, ? (will you/can you)

4.

I . Match the groups of words under A and B to make meaningful sentences:

A

She needn't

He has got

You like fish

You ought

She has

It's very cold,

B

to get up early.

a lot of letters every day.

isn't it?

worry now.

to work hard.

don't you?

v. Rewrite the sentences as directed:

- You must go home today. (into negative)
- The rain may stop soon. (into interrogative)
- I had lunch on the train. (into negative)
- She has got to work hard. (into negative)
- He has a new car. (emphatic)
- He must be a thief. (into negative)

- He must have stolen my watch. (into negative)
- He must be a burglar. (use have to be)
- He had his hair cut. (negative/emphatic)

VI. Rewrite these sentences as directed:

1. It is necessary for him to get up early. (use have to)
2. It is not necessary for her to buy another car. (use needn't)
3. It is likely that he will get a first in English. (use can)
4. It is very likely that he is a thief. (use must be)
5. Please switch on the radio. (use would you mind?)
6. It was not advisable for you to tell a lie but you did. (use shouldn't + perfect infinitive)
7. It is our duty/obligation to love our country. (use must)
8. He lived in London but he doesn't live here now. (use used to)
9. She had the capacity to help the poor and she did. (use be able to)
10. It is likely that they were twenty when they got married. (use would be)

Unit – 8

Conjunctions

Structure

- 8.0 Objective
- 8.1 Introduction
- 8.2 Kinds of Conjunctions
 - 8.2.1 Coordinating conjunctions (coordinators)
 - 8.2.2 Correlative conjunctions (correlatives)
- 8.3 Sentence connectors
- 8.4 Subordinating conjunctions/subordinators
- 8.3 Conjunctions: Usage
 - 8.3.1 Both ... and
 - 8.3.2 And
 - 8.3.3 But'
 - 8.3.4 Or
 - 8.3.5 No/not/never .. or
 - 8.3.6 Either ... or
 - 8.3.7 Neither ... nor
 - 8.3.8 Nor/neither
 - 8.3.9 Not only ... but also
 - 8.3.10 No sooner ... than
 - 8.3.11 Hardly/scarcely ... when
 - 8.3.12 Whether ... or (not)
 - 8.3.13 If/whether
- 8.4.2 Sentence connectors: meanings

8.5 Conclusion

8.6 Unit End Questions

8.0 Objective

In this unit we shall study various Conjunctions in English and their usage.

8.1 Introduction

A conjunction is a word that joins words, phrases or clauses.

8.2 Kinds of Conjunctions

There are four kinds of conjunctions:

8.2.1 Coordinating conjunctions (coordinators)

and, but, or, nor, neither, for, yet, still, so

They are used to join grammatical units of the same class, rank or pattern:

Rhea and Sapna are coming to visit us.

The train has arrived but there is no sign of Umesh .

8.2.2 Correlative conjunctions (correlatives)

both ... and not only ... but also either ... or neither ... nor

no/not/never ... or

They are called correlatives because they go in pairs.

These shoes are not only expensive but also of poor quality.

Neither the government nor the army knows what's going on .

8.3 Sentence connectors

also/too, besides, hence, however, likewise, moreover, otherwise, so, still, then, though, thus, yet, only, equally, similarly, on the other hand, on the contrary.

They are used to relate the meanings/ideas of the sentences they connect.

Take the umbrella, otherwise you will get wet.

The offer was good, still he refused.

8.4 Subordinating conjunctions/subordinators

They are used to introduce subordinate clauses and join them to principal clauses/main clauses. There are three kinds of subordinating conjunctions:

A) Simple subordinating conjunctions:

after, although/though, as, because, before, if,
however, once, since, than, that, till/until, unless,
when, where, while, whether

He came after I had left.

B) Compound Subordinating conjunctions:

I. as far as, as long as, as soon as, so long as,
so far as, in as much as, just as

She garlanded him as soon as he arrived.

ii. in that, so that, in order that, such that,
now that, provided (that), considering (that),
granting (that), on condition that

You can go for the trek provided you are well.

iii. as if, as though, in case

Take extra money in case you need it.

C) Correlative subordinators

as ... as

soas

justas

sothe the

suchthat

sothat

no soonerthan

hardly when

scarcely.... when

whetheror

thoughyet

if ... then

If I don't return in an hour then call the police.

Note: a) Relative pronouns and Relative adverbs, too, can function as subordinating conjunctions:

Relative pronouns - who/whose/whom/which/what/that
 whoever/whichever/whatever

Relative adverbs - when/where/why/whenever/wherever

b) Had/Where/Should

These verbs too, can function as subordinating conjunctions in conditional clauses when if is not used.

8.3 Conjunctions: Usage

Coordinators/Correlatives

8.3.1 Both ... and

i) Both takes and, not as well as:

1. I want to buy both vegetables and milk. (not, as well as)

2. This pen is both good and cheap. (not, as well as)

We don't say:

She will buy both tea as well as coffee.

He is both intelligent as well as diligent.

ii) Both ... and is restricted to two only:

She will buy both milk and sugar.

(not, She will buy both milk, sugar and tea.)

8.3.2 And

And is used in these senses:

i) plus/addition

Ten and ten is twenty.

ii) also/in addition to

She is young and beautiful.

iii) sequence

He took out his gun and fired. (i.e., and then)

iv) result/consequence

1. Study this book and you will improve your English.
2. Give me blood and I will give you freedom.

In this construction the imperative is placed before and expresses condition (if and the clause is placed after and expresses result.

v) purpose

He came here and saw his mother. i.e. He came here to see his mother.

In this construction and is used as a substitute for an infinitive of purpose.

vi) continuing process

1. She can dance for hours and hours.
2. The baby cried and cried.

vii) gradual increase/decrease

1. It is getting colder and colder.
2. He is getting worse and worse.

viii) contrast

There are teachers and teachers.

i.e. There are good teachers and bad teachers as well.

In this construction nouns joined by and are repeated only once to indicate contrast between different kinds of the (supposedly) same person or thing.

8.3.3 But'

i) contrast/concession

1. She is very rich but she is unhappy.
2. He is poor but honest.

Notice that but introduces a word/phrase/clause contrasting it with what preceded.

ii) yet/however/in spite of

He worked hard but he failed in the examination.

i.e. He failed in the examination in spite of hard work.

i i i) disagreement/surprise

1. You like her very much.

But I don't. - disagreement

2. You don't like fish.

But I do. - disagreement

3. They are going to get married.

But that's unthinkable. - surprise

8.3.4 Or

Or is used in these senses:

i) alternative

She will buy a car or a scooter.

Note: Or is the more usual in questions because either ... or makes a question very awkward:

Is Mary a doctor or a nurse? (not, either a doctor or a nurse?)

Would you like coffee or tea? (not, either coffee or tea?)

ii) negative condition (if not/otherwise)

1. produce more food or you will perish. (otherwise)

i.e., If you do not produce more food you will perish.

2. Start early or you will miss the bus. (otherwise)

i.e., If you do not start early you will miss the bus.

8.3.5 No/not/never .. or

No/not/never takes or, not nor.

1. He has no car or scooter.

2. He has not got a pen or a pencil.
3. I have never made a film or directed one.

8.3.6 Either ... or

1. My brother will buy either a car or a house.
2. She will eat either rice or bread.

In such sentences the better alternative is put first:

I prefer chicken to fish, so depending on what is available I will buy either chicken or fish.

(not, either fish or chicken)

8.3.7 Neither ... nor

1. She likes neither fish nor milk.
2. He can neither read nor write English.
3. He will buy neither a TV nor a fridge.

Note: The use of either/neither indicates a choice of two alternatives when it is used as a pronoun/adjective/adverb:

1. I have bought two pens. You can have either.
2. Neither of the two answers is correct.
3. There are trees on either side of this road.
4. She didn't come and she didn't phone either.
5. He doesn't play tennis and neither do I.

But as a conjunction its use is not restricted to two alternatives only, so we can say:

1. I go to office either by cycle or by bus or on foot.
2. He will learn English or Hindi or Sanskrit.
3. The clerk is neither polite, nor helpful, nor refined .

8.3. 8 Nor/neither

Nor/neither can function as a coordinator as well because nor can be used without neither and neither can be used without nor.

1. She does not play football. Nor do I.

Or

She does not play football. Neither do I.

8.3.9 Not only ... but also

at only is followed by but also and it means 'both ... and.' In this construction the more important word (noun/adjective/verb) is placed after also to make it prominent:

1. He is not only a good worker but also a leader.

2. She is not only young but also beautiful.

Note: a) Beginning a sentence with not only makes it emphatic. In this construction inversion of the subject and verb is obligatory:

Not only is she tall but also beautiful. (not Not only she is tall)

b) Position of Correlatives

Correlatives are followed by the same class of words in a sentence:

1. He has not only a bicycle but also a scooter. (noun + noun)

2. He saw neither Geetha nor Urvashi. (noun + noun)

3. He neither phoned Seetha nor wrote to her. (verb+ verb)

4. She is not only young but also beautiful. (adjective + adjective)

We don't say:

He phoned neither Seetha nor wrote to her. (noun + verb)

8.3.10 No sooner ... than

No sooner is necessarily followed by than:

No sooner had the police reached than the burglars fled.

8.3.11 Hardly/scarcely ... when

Hardly/scarcely is followed by when, not than:

Hardly had I reached the station when the train steamed off. (not, than)

We don't say:

No sooner had he gone to bed when he fell asleep.

Scarcely had he fallen asleep than he had a dream.

Notice how inversion occurs when a sentence begins with no sooner/hardly /scarcely:

1. No sooner had he gone to bed (not, he had gone to bed)
2. Scarcely had she heard the news (not, she had heard the news)

8.3.12 Whether ... or (not)

i) Or is used when all the alternatives are expressed:

I don't know whether she is guilty or innocent.

When only the first alternative is expressed, or not is used:

I don't know whether she is guilty or not. (innocent left out)

8.3.13 If/whether

i) If and whether are used in indirect speech when it is a yes/no question or an alternative question:

1. He said, 'Do you like fish'?

He asked me if/whether I liked fish.

2. She said, 'Do you write poems'?

She asked me if/whether I wrote poems.

ii) Whether (not i~ is always used before infinitives and prepositions:

I don't know whether to accept or reject this offer.

It all depends on whether he accepts my terms and conditions.

We don't say:

He hasn't yet decided if to join business or politics.

My career depends on if I get a first in English.

iii) A noun clause used as the subject of a sentence begins with whether (not i~:

Whether she will come or not is uncertain.

We don't say:

If he will take his exam this year or not is still undecided.

Sentence Connectors

Words/phrases used to introduce an idea that is related to what has been said in the preceding sentence or sentences are called sentence connectors. They always refer back to an idea expressed already. Thus they establish a logical connection between one idea and the next so as to avoid incoherence/isolation. A sentence connector not linked with the preceding sentence becomes meaningless; for example, we can't say:

On the contrary, he opposed me.

Instead we say:

He didn't support me. On the contrary, he opposed me.

Sentence connectors are not a separate class of words. They are a mixed bag because they consist of three classes of words:

a) adverbs/adverbial phrases

b) preposition/prepositional phrases

c) coordinating conjunctions

1. He is tall and handsome. Also, he is very rich. (adverb)

2. I don't need a big car. Besides, it is too expensive for me. (adv./prep.)

3. She didn't help me. Nor/neither will she. (conjunction)

.1 Sentence connectors and conjunctions

i) The function of a conjunction is to join words, phrases and clauses but the function of a sentence connector is to establish a link between one idea and the next. It does not join clauses to make a sentence. On the contrary, it usually introduces a new sentence, so such sentences are marked off by a full stop/dash/comma:

1. He will buy a car or a scooter. (or as a conjunction)

2. He is tired. Or, at least he looks tired. (or as a sentence connector)

ii) A sentence connector differs from a conjunction from the view point of its position as well. A sentence connector usually takes an initial or final slot in a sentence but a conjunction has a mid-position.

He will either watch TV or listen to the radio. (conjunction)

He can't sing. He can't dance either. (sentence connector)

8.4.2 Sentence connectors: meanings

Sentence connectors are used in these senses:

i) addition

also, moreover, what is more

too, either, neither, nor

I don't need a car. Moreover, it is costly.

He can't write. He can't read either.

ii) enumeration

first, secondly, furthermore, next, then, last

first and foremost, more importantly, to start with, and to conclude

You have finished your homework. Now, what are you going to do next?

iii) contrast

instead, on the contrary, on the one hand ... on the other (hand)

On the one hand science is a blessing. On the other (hand) it is a curse.

He is not poor. On the contrary, he is very rich.

iv) concession

besides, else, however, still, yet, nevertheless

He doesn't behave well. Nevertheless, he hopes to get votes.

You have committed a grave offence. However, I excuse you this time.

v) transition

and, now, by the way, meantime,

meanwhile, in the meantime

The train has been delayed by 2 hours. Let's have lunch in the meantime.

vi) attitude/viewpoint

indeed, in fact, actually

The rains are late this year, in fact, they were late last year as well.

vii) result

hence, so, therefore, thus, as a result

I don't need this reference book now. So you can take it home for a week.

viii) inference

else, otherwise, in other words, then

Take a taxi. Else you'll be late for your appointment.

ix) apposition

for example, for instance, that is,

that is to say, namely, viz.

There are many places to visit round Delhi.

You could, for example, go to Agra.

excises

I. Correct these sentences:

Both he as well as she are singers.

He will either buy a car or a scooter.

3. She neither eats bread nor rice.

I have no pen nor pencil.

o. She hasn't got tea nor milk.

o sooner we saw a tiger when we fled away.

Hardly I had started than it began to rain.

either he can sit nor stand nor sleep.

at only he gave me food but also money.

He can't write nor speak English.

J. Choose the right alternative:

Both he she can do this work. (as well as/and)

He has no pen paper. (or/nor)

a sooner did she receive a telegram she left for home. (than/when)

Hardly had he stood up he fell unconscious. (when/than)

He will go neither to Delhi to Bombay. (nor/or)

3. . Fill in the blanks:

He has all the facilities he doesn't make use of them.

_____ the bus arrived we took our seats.

We have filled the tanks with water, what do we do ?

It's impossible to reach by Friday. I have a wedding to attend here on the same day.

_____ sports ----- film interest him.

8.5 Conclusion

You have had a detailed study in this unit about the various conjunctions in English. Their proper usage will help you in writing good and effective English.

8.6 Unit End Questions

- 1 Give one example each of co-ordinating conjunctions.
- 2 Differentiate between conjunctions and sentence connectors giving examples.

Unit- 9

Sentence

Structure

- 9.0 Objective
- 9.1 Introduction
 - 9.1.1 Subject
- 9.2 Kinds of Simple Sentences
- 9.3 Formation of Simple Sentences
 - 9.3.1 Relative statements
 - 9.3.3 Form . n of Interrogatives
 - 9.3.5 Imperative sentences
 - 9.3.7 Exclamatory sentences
- 9.4.2 Alternative question
- 9.4.3 Question-word questions
- 9.5 Conclusion
- 9.6 Unit End Questions

9.0 Objective

Now after a detailed study of the various important parts of speech we move on to the study of sentence formation in English.

9.1 Introduction

A sentence is the largest grammatical unit. It usually consists of a subject, a verb and an object or a complement. Essentially, a sentence consists of a subject and a verb. A simple sentence is made up of two parts, a subject and a predicate.

9.1.1 Subject

The subject of a sentence is a word or a group of words that says who or what does something. One may loosely characterise the subject as 'that which is being discussed', or the 'theme' of the sentence.

The subject may have:

- a) headword noun/noun-equivalent only, i.e. without an adjunct
- b) headword + adjunct (modifier like adjective/determiner)

The structure of such sentences is:

Subject (without an adjunct) Predicate

Horses run

She laughed

What he says is right

Subject (with an adjunct) Predicate

A few eggs are rotten.

The sun rises in the east.

The headword is an essential ingredient but a modifier is just an adjunct. So a sentence is not possible without a head word (noun). We can't say:

A good runs fast.

The predicate is that part of the sentence that says something about the action of the subject.

The predicate may have:

- a) headword (finite verb) only
- b) headword + adjunct (complement object adverb/prepositions)

The structure of such sentences is:

a) Subject Predicate (finite verb only, without adjunct)

He died.

Lions roar.

b) Subject Predicate (with adjunct)

He loves her very much.

She plays the violin in the evening.

The headword (finite verb) is an essential ingredient but complement/object etc. is only an adjunct. If mayor may not be present, depending on the nature of the verb .

9. 2 Kinds of Simple Sentences

Sentences are offour kinds:

i) Declarative (statements)

ii) Interrogative (questions)

iii) Imperative (commands)

iv) Exclamatory (exclamations)

9.3 Formation of Simple Sentences

9.3.1Relative statements

Declarative sentences

i) Declarative sentences are statements:

The structure of a statement is: subject + verb + other words

1. He plays football.

2. They are learning grammar.

Kinds of statements

There are three kinds of statements:

1. Affirmative 2. Negative 3. Emphatic

9.3.3 Form . n of Interrogatives

I A statement with an auxiliary verb is made interrogative by the inversion of the subject and verb, i.e., by changing of the position of the subject and verb:

Statements Questions

1. He is tall. Is he tall?

- | | |
|-------------------------|----------------------|
| 2. They are teachers. | Are they teachers? |
| 3. She can do this sum. | Can she do this sum? |
| 4. He should work hard. | Should he work hard? |
| 5. They will go home. | Will they go home? |

ii) A statement with a main verb in simple present/simple past tense is made interrogative by introducing a dummy 'do' and placing it at the beginning of a question:

Statements	Questions
1. They play cricket on Sundays.	Do they play cricket on Sundays?
2. He helps her always.	Does he help her always?
3. She lives in Ranchi.	Does she live in Ranchi?
4. They won the match.	Did they win the match?

9.3.5 Imperative sentences

An imperative sentence expresses a command/order/request/advice/suggestion etc.

In an imperative sentence, the subject is invariably the second person pronoun you, which is generally unexpressed.

Come in. (You come in.)

Sit down. (You sit down.)

Words like please, kindly are to be appended to an imperative indicating request:

Please open the door. Open the door, please.

If please is at the end, it has to be separated from the main part of the sentence by a comma.

Note: a) don't (contracted form) is always used when you is expressed:

Note a) 1. Don't you come in. (not, Do not you come in.)

2. Don't you worry. (not, Do not you worry.)

b) Do is used to make an imperative emphatic, as in the following:

See a doctor at once.

Do see a doctor at once.

9.3.7 Exclamatory sentences

Exclamatory sentences express a wide variety of emotions like sudden surprise, delight, pain, anger, disgust etc. Some of the exclamations are:

i) What + noun + other words

What a place it is!

What a dirty place it is!

ii) How + Adjective/Adverb + other word

How tall she is!

How sweetly she sings!

iii) O that + clause

O that I were a prince!

iv) Alas that + clause

Alas, she died so young!

v) Would that + clause

Would that I had known him!

vi) If only + clause

If only I could get a first in English!

vii) Word + and + word

My husband and a coward!

viii) Short cries/incomplete sentences

What a friend!

What an idea!

How nice of you!

How absurd!

Good! Excellent!

Marvellous!

Beautiful! Wonderful!

Fantastic!

Fire! Murder!

Oh/Alas!

9.4.2 Alternative question

In alternative questions there is more than one question joined by or:

1. Are they doctors or nurses?
2. Do you like Maths or Science?

Each of the questions requires a full answer:

Questions	Answers
1. Do you play cricket or tennis?	I play cricket. I don't play tennis.
2. Have you got a car or a scooter?	I have got a car. I don't have a scooter.
3. Will you watch TV or go to the cinema?	I will watch TV. I won't go to the cinema.

Note: An alternative question is different from the ordinary question in that it asks one to choose one of the alternatives, so one of the answers is positive and the other negative:

1. Do you like curds or milk?	I like curds. I don't like milk.
2. Will you go for a walk or a swim?	I won't go for a swim. I'll go for a walk.

9.4.3 Question-word questions

Question-word questions begin with wh-words or how:

who, whose, which, what, when, where, why, and how

Question-word questions require full answers, they seek fresh information, and therefore a short yes/no answer is inappropriate.

Questions	Answers
1. Who are you?	I am Megha.
2. What are you?	I am a teacher.
3. Where do you come from?	I come from Dhanbad.
4. When did you come?	I came only yesterday.
5. How are you feeling now?	I am feeling fine.

Note: The structure of a question-word question is:

Question-word + verb + subject

Notice that the inversion of subject and verb is obligatory as in yes/no questions:

1. Who are you?
2. What do you want?
3. Where are you going?

9.4.6 Question tags

Question tag is a short question tagged (added) to a sentence asking for agreement or confirmation. A sentence expresses an assumption and a question tag expects confirmation:

He can't help us. Can he?

9.5 Conclusion

In this Unit we have studied various kinds of sentences in English.

9.6 Unit end Questions

- 1 Name different types of sentences in English giving examples.
- 2 What do you understand by 'Head word'. Give an analysis of predicate.

Unit -10

Times and Tense

Structure

- 10.0 Objective
- 10.1 Introduction
- 10.1 Definition
 - 10. 1.1 Kinds of tenses
- 1.2 Compound tenses
 - 10.3.1 Future Tense
 - 10.1.4 Time
 - 10.1.5 Keeping time and tense apart
- 10.2 Present Tense
 - 10.2.1 Simple present
 - 10.2.2 Present progressive
 - 10.2.3 Present perfect
 - 10.2.4 Present perfect progressive
- 10.3 Past Tense
 - 10.3.1 Simple past
 - 10.3.2 Past progressive
 - 10.3.3 Past perfect
 - 10.3.4 Past perfect progressive
- 10.5 Future Time
 - 10.5.1 Simple future
 - 10.5.3 Future perfect
- 10.6 Conclusion

10.0 Objective

In this unit we shall study various tenses in English and methods of expressing future.

10.1 Introduction

Understanding of the concept of Time and Tense is quite essential while expressing yourself in any language.

10.1 Definition

Tense is a grammatical term. It serves as a marker/indicator of the form of a verb .

10. 1.1 Kinds of tenses

English verbs have two tenses:

-i) Present

ii) Past

10.2 Compound Tenses

Present tense has four forms:

i) Simple Present

ii) Present Progressive

iii) Present Perfect

iv) Present Perfect Progressive

Past tense too has four forms:

i) Simple Past

ii) Past Progressive

iii) Past Perfect

i) Past Perfect Progressive

All the progressive and perfective forms are compound tenses because they are formed by combining be and/or have with the main verb:

- a) be + present participle (progressive tense)

I am doing my homework.

- b) have + past participle (perfect tense)

I have finished my breakfast.

10.3.1 Future Tense

There are notings like a separate future tense corresponding to present tense and Past Tense because it does not have a unique marker that can be isolated. Shall and will are modal auxiliaries, not markers of future tense.

So instead of Future Tense we may talk about forms expressing future time-there are a number of such forms:

- i) Simple present
- ii) Present progressive
- iii) Be going to
- iv) Be about to
- v) Modal auxiliaries

Shall/will + bare infinitive

It is obvious that shall and will are not the only forms for expressing future time.

Although there is no separate Future Tense, the term is frequently used because the shall/will form is still the commonest way of expressing future time.

10.1.4 Time

Time, unlike tense, is not a grammatical term because it has nothing to do with the form of a verb. On a linear scale time can be divided into three:

- i) present time
- ii) past time
- iii) future time

10.1.5 Keeping time and tense apart

Tense normally indicates the time of an action/state-Present Tense usually refers to present time and Past Tense to past time. But very often there is no correspondence between tense and time, i.e. between the form of a verb and the time of an action:

i) Simple Present-indicating no particular time

The sun rises in the east.

The earth moves round the sun.

Honesty fetches no rewards.

ii) Simple Present - indicating future time

Vishnu leaves for Patna next week.

I will go out when mother gets back.

We can't have a match if it rains.

iii) Present Progressive - indicating future time

Vishnu is leaving for Patna tonight.

The cabinet is going to take a decision on this.

iv) Present Perfect-indicating future time

I will go home after I have finished my work.

v) Simple Present - indicating past time

He goes into hiding for five years and then robs the bank.

World War" ends in 1945, and the UN comes into existence.

vi) Simple Past - indicating present time

I wish I knew her. (I don't know her.)

If only he would listen to reason. (He doesn't.)

It's time we started. (It is time to start.)

Might I see you tonight?

Could I use your phone please?

vii) Simple Past - indicating future time

It might rain tomorrow.

If a lion appeared all would flee.

viii) Present Perfect - indicating past time (past possibility)

You may have heard the news.

He cannot have forgotten the appointment.

ix) Simple Future - indicating present time (present possibility)

These will be the toys for your baby. (probably are)

She will be about twenty. (probably is)

x) Future Simple-indicating present time

Will you have a cold drink?

Won't she have a little more?

xi) Simple Future - indicating no particular time (general truths/characteristics)

Wood will float in water.

Spring will come after winter.

xii) Future Perfect - indicating past time (past possibility)

You will have heard the news.

10.2 Present Tense

i) Simple Present

ii) Present Progressive (continuous)

iii) Present Perfect

iv) Present Perfect Progressive (continuous)

10.2.1 Simple present

Form

a) The Simple Present form of an ordinary verb is bare infinitive (with or without an s)

b) The Simple Present of have +noun is has/have +noun.

c) The Simple Present of 'be' is am/is/are + noun/adjectives.

Uses

Simple Present is used to express things like the following:

i) eternal/universal truths

The sun rises in the east.

The earth moves round the sun.

ii) theories and principles

Light travels faster than sound.

Water freezes at zero degree centigrade.

A triangle has three sides.

iii) proverbs/sayings

A bad carpenter quarrels with his tools.

One swallow does not make a summer.

iv) natural or inherent qualities/characteristics

A mother loves her children.

The sun gives us light and heat.

Sugar is sweet.

v) professional activities

A baker bakes bread.

A cobbler mends shoes.

vi) normal activities/routine duties

He goes for a walk in the morning.

They play football in the afternoon.

My train gets in at 10 a.m.

vii) habitual activities

Mr Jones always comes in time.

I usually wake up at 6 in the morning.

10.2.2 Present progressive

Form

a. The Present Progressive form of a verb is:

am/is/are + present participle (verb + ing)

b. The Present Progressive form of have is: am/is/are + having (have + ing)

c. The Present Progressive form of be + adjective is: being + adjective

You are being too formal. (This use is rare.)

Note: a) -ing form of a verb necessarily occurs with a form of be:

The children are going to school.

The soldier is singing a song.

b) Present Progressive form of have + noun is having + noun.

In this construction having + noun is used as a substitute for taking/receiving/experiencing.

She is having a bath. (She is taking a bath.)

We are having a lot of hardships. (We are experiencing a lot of hardships.)

But have + noun indicating ownership/relationship characteristics is not put into the progressive form:

He has a brother. (not, is having)

This elephant has a long trunk. (not, is having)

10.2.3 Present perfect

Form

The present perfect form of a main verb is has/have + past participle.

The present perfect form of have as a main verb is has/have + had of be is has been/have been

of can is has been/have been + able to

i) When have + noun means 'to experience/to receive/to take' its present perfect form is has/have + had + noun.

I have had a lot of calls today. (have received)

He has had a lot of opposition. (has experienced)

I have had rice and fish for lunch. (have taken)

ii) The Present Perfect form of verb be + noun/adjective is:

has/have + been + noun/adjective.

Raji has been a teacher for ten years.

They have always been kind to me.

Uses

i) Present Perfect expresses the completion of an action by the time of speaking or writing:

The holidays are over. Schools have reopened.

I have written a book on English grammar.

ii) Present Perfect is used to refer to an activity or experience which has occurred in the past:

Mr Banerji has been to England.

Have you ever seen a rainbow?

Have you been to this restaurant?

iii) The Present Perfect in English does not (generally) take an adverb of past time, viz. last week, yesterday, last month.

We don't say:

Ioyati has finished her work last week.

They have got back from Nepal yesterday.

Note: Simple Past is chosen when an adverb of past time is mentioned:

I saw Kulkarni yesterday. (not, have seen)

We found a treasure last week. (not, have found)

iv) However, Present Perfect is used with adverbs/prepositional phrases of time like these: so far, up till now~ for, since, just, yet already

I haven't received any reply so far. (not, I didn't receive)

10.2.4 Present perfect progressive

Form

The Present Perfect Progressive form of a verb is:

has been/have been + present participle

Uses

i) The Present Perfect Progressive indicates that an action began in the past and is still going on, i.e. continuing upto the time of speaking or writing:

The baby has been crying.

What have you been doing?

ii) It can be used with time phrases like these:

for, since, long, how long, all the time, all day, all week Lata has been talking all the time.

We have been playing chess all evening.

People have been waiting for a long time.

Note: In questions in Present Perfect Progressive since when is used instead of when:

Since when has the child been missing?

Since when have you noticed the symptoms of this disease?

We don't say:

When have you been writing this novel?

10.3 Past Tense

a) Simple Past

b) Past Progressive (continuous)

c) Past Perfect

d) Past Perfect Progressive (continuous)

10.3.1 Simple past

Form

The Simple Past form of regular verbs is verb + -ed:

love - loved, work - worked, pull - pulled.

The Simple Past of irregular verbs is formed in irregular ways.

go - went, draw - drew, give - gave

The Simple Past of have is had; of be is was/were; and of can is could or was/were + able to.

Note: Except for the forms was/were, all the Simple Past Tense forms remain invariant, no matter what the number or person of the subject is. Was is the past tense form of B when the subject is the first or third person singular. In all other cases the form is were.

Uses

i) Simple Past is used for a past action when the time of an action is mentioned.

In such a sentence an adverb of time is often used:

Mrs Rao left this place a month ago.

The screening of the film started at 7 p.m.

Note: Simple Past indicates completion of an action in the immediate or remote past:

Ramani returned yesterday.

Newton saw an apple fall.

Past Perfect is not used to indicate completion of a single action even

in the remote past. So, we don't say:

Columbus had discovered America.

Newton had seen an apple fall.

ii) Simple Past is also used when the time of a past action is implied, not expressed:

Ahmed got a job in Yemen.

He bought this car in Canada.

In sentences like these, past time is indicated by the context. The presence of a prepositional phrase in/at + place or time also helps infer the past time:

I bought this camera in Japan. (not, have bought)

Vijay got back at 9 p.m. (not, has got back)

10.3.2 Past progressive

Form

The Past Progressive form of a (non-auxiliary) verb is was/were + present participle

The Past Progressive form of have is was/were + having

Uses

i) Past Progressive is used to indicate that an action was in progress for some time in the past:

James was polishing furniture.

The girls were singing and laughing.

ii) Past Progressive can be used in combination with Simple Past. In such sentences

as/when/while is usually used in the subordinate clause:

While I was walking in the fields, I found a purse.

When we were having lunch, some guests arrived.

10.3.3 Past perfect

Form

The Past Perfect form of a verb is had + past participle

The Past Perfect form of had is had + had

The Past Perfect form of be is had been

When have + noun means 'to experience/to take/to receive' its past perfect form is:
had + had + noun:

I had had a lot of visitors last weeeek. (had received)

She had had bread and butter for breakfast. (had taken)

10.3.4 Past perfect progressive

Form

The Past Perfect Progressive form of a verb is had been + present participle

Uses

i) Past Perfect Progressive is used to report an action or event that happened before a point in the past and whose effects are still visible at that point (in the past):

Prakash had been playing tennis for an hour when the news of his selection came in.

The sky was clear when the league match started though it had been raining throughout the night.

ii) It is 0 used for a repeated action in the past:

The com y had been trying to sell out its shares and wind up when the court interven

10.5 Future Time

When modal auxiliaries (shall/will) are used to express future time, there are the following four forms:

i) Simple Future

ii) Future Progressive

iii) Future Perfect

iv) Future Perfect Progressive

10.5.1 Simple future

Form

The Simple Future form of a verb is shall/will + bare infinitive

The Simple Future form of be is shall/will + be

The Simple Future form of have is shall/will + have

Uses

i) first person (I/we) + shall expresses pure future, i.e., future without intention determination etc. In other words, it indicates that something will happen as a matter of course:

I shall be twenty on my next birthday.

We shall have a holiday on Independence Day.

In informal style, however, shall is often replaced by will:

I will be twenty on my next birthday.

Note: a) will is frequently used with first person to indicate pure future as well as intention, determination etc. The use of shall to express pure future is going out of style, particularly in American English.

b) won't/wouldn't is always preferred to shan't to indicate refusal/ negative intention:

I won't give you any money. (not, shan't)

10.5.3 Future perfect

Form

i) The Future Perfect form of a verb is:

shall/will + perfect infinitive

Of the two shall have/will have, will have is the more usual, so it is used with all persons.

ii) the Future Perfect form of shall/will + have is:

shall/will have + had

This construction is used when have means 'to experience/to receive/to take'.

He will have had his exam by the end of this month. (will have taken)

He will have had a lot of opposition. (will have experienced)

She will have had a lot of letters of congratulations. (will have received)

iii) the Future Perfect form of verb be is: will have been

She will have been a teacher for ten years by March next.

He will have been dead for twenty years by the year end.

Uses

i) Future Perfect expresses completion of an action by a given time in future:

He will have built a house by the end of this year.

She will have left this place by next January.

She will have been in hospital for 2 years in next July.

He will have had his exam by the end of this month.

ii) Future Perfect is often used to express a past possibility. In addition to the modal will, can and may also can be used:

He may/can/will have won the lottery.

All the three sentences mean 'there was a possibility of his winning the lottery, but we do not know whether he actually won it or not'

Thus these constructions express an assumption/deduction about a past action. not about a present or future action.

10.6 Conclusion

This unit has given you a fairly detailed idea of the concepts of the Time and Tense.

10.7 Unit End Questions

- 1 What is the difference between Time and Tense.
- 2 Show the difference between progressive and perfect progressive tenses in English.
- 3 What are the various methods of expressing future in English.

Unit - 11

Letters and Application

Structure

- 11.0 Objective
- 11.1 Introduction
- 11.2 Parts of Letters
 - 11.2.1 Formal Letter
 - 11.2.2 Informal Letter
- 11.3 Model Letters
 - 11.3.1 Formal Letters
 - 11.3.2 Informal Letters
- 11.4 Application
 - 11.4.1 Parts of Application
 - 11.4.2 Types of Model Applications
- 11.5 Conclusion

11.0 Objective

In this unit we shall give you a study of letter and application writing in English.

11.1 Introduction

A letter is a written message from one person to another containing information. Historically, letters were used from the time of ancient India upto the present day. In past various different materials like leaves, animal skin, wood, metals etc. were used for letter writing. You all know that letters were delivered by pigeons, men and horses during the time of kings and queens. Today we have Postal and Telegraph officers which deliver the letter etc.

As communication technology has diversified, letter writing too is left for formal communication only. Telegraph, telex and fax were also used in modern time for sending message. Today the internet by means of emails, plays a large part in written communication; however, these email communication are not generally referred to as letters but rather as e-mail (or email) messages, messages or simply emails or e-mail, with the terms “letter” usually being reserved by communication on paper.

Advantages of letters

Despite email, letters are still popular, particularly in business and for official communication letter have several advantages over email.

- A letter provides an immediate, and in principle permanent, physical record of a communication, without need for printing.
- Letters, especially those with a signature and an organizations own letterhead, are more difficult to falsify than e-mail and thus provide much better evidence of the contents of the communication.
- Most people can write faster than they can type.
- Letters in the sender’s over handwriting are less impersonal than e-mail.
- Letters, if required can enclose small physical objects in the envelope with the letter.
- Letters cannot transmit malware or virus.

11.2 Parts of Letters

Letters are generally written to send written information. There are a number of different types of letter i.e. Application letter, cover letter, business letter, letter of introduction, Query letter, recommendation letter, sales letter, letter to the editor, letter of resignation, letter to friends, letter to family, letter of thanks and so-on. But broadly we can classify all the above letters into three types:-

1. Formal letters: which include all the business correspondence and queries etc.

2. Informal letters: which include the letters written to family and friends.
3. Applications: which include the letters for jobs, request, permission etc.

16.2.1 Formal Letter

Common feature of letters

- a) Sender's Address and date: On the top you write the sender's address meaning your address and data on which you are writing.
- b) Addressee Address: After leaving a line, you should write the full name of the persons you are writing to with their position or designation.
- c) Salutation: Resp. sir or Resp. Madam or Dear Sir or Dear
- d) Subject: In formal letters you have to always write the subject which is indicates the content in brief.
- e) Content of the letter: The letter should have three parts in the content, firstly an introduction explaining. Secondly, why you need the information or sending the information along with, how it can be useful. Thirdly, conclusion, stating your request to send the information as early as possible.
- f) Signatory or Subscription: You generally use one for formal letters: Yours sincerely, yours truly or yours faithfully and your name in the end.

11.2.2 Informal Letter

Common features of Informal letters

- a) Addressee Address: You write the address of your friend or your family member and date of the letter.
- b) Salutation: You write Dear and name of your friend or person younger to you. Respected or Resp. to persons elders to do.
- c) Content: The letter should project your courtesy, delight and expressiveness. If you write to elders please be humble and polite in your communication and request. If you are writing to your friends or persons younger to you, you should still be polite but friendly while sending your information. This shows how gentle and respectful you are in your letters.

- d) Signatory or subscription: Generally, when you write to your family and friends you write yours affectionately but you can write. Yours obediently to your elders. In the end your name is to be written.

11.3 Model Letters

Now please find sample letters which will help to write letters on different topics:

16.3.1 Formal Letters

This letter is a sample of request letter.

- A) Write a letter to BSNL officer requesting to provide STD/ISD facility on your phone.

B/S Vikas colony

Jaipur

April 10, 2014

The Officer in Charge

BSNL

Vikas Colony Ext.

Jaipur

Sir

Subject: Provision of STD/ISD on telephone on. 29425298.

I am a resident of Vikas Colony. The above telephone number has been installed in my name at my residence B/5 Vikas colony, Jaipur.

Sir, I want STD and ISD facilities with a dynamic lock to be provided on this telephone. The requisite application form in duplicate, duly filled and attested by a gazetted officer is being enclosed. Two copies of my recent photographs and a photocopy of the aadhar card are also attached as proof of my identity.

I shall be grateful if the facility is provided to me at the earliest.

Your faithfully

Kana Ram

Encl.: 1 Two copies of application forms

2 Two photograph

3 Copy of aahar card.

(b) This sample is a letter to register a complaint

Shiv Apartments

Main Road

Jodhpur

20 April, 2014

Heavy Electronics

Karni Road

Jodhpur

Sir

Subject: Complaint against defective refrigerator

I had purchased a 250 liters, frost – free, double door whirlpool refrigerator from your showroom on 11 Feb. 2014 vide receipt no. A2346/9. But the refrigerator is not working properly.

It was in good working condition when it we installed, but now, after two months, the cooling is not effective. Food kept in the fridge turns stale within twelve hours or so. We are facing a lot of inconvenience due to this.

Since the fridge is still in the warranty period of one year, I request you to either repair or replace it at the earliest.

Copy of the receipt and a copy of the warranty card is enclosed.

Yours Sincerely

Kapil

Encl.: 1 Copy of the receipt

2 Copy of the warranty card

(C) This sample is a letter to the Editor of the newspaper.

113 Munirka Enclave

Dausa

18 May, 2014

The Editor

The Daily Times

Jaipur

Subject: Attention to unexpected in prices of essential items

Dear Sir

Through the columns of your esteemed Daily, I wish to focus the attention on the unexpected rise in the prices of essential items of daily use.

The Government's decision in raising the prices of liquefied petroleum Gas and petroleum products has shocked both the rich and the poor beyond imagination. Due to these rises the prices of all essential commodities have also soared up. It shall be very difficult for poor people to survive. Thefts and robberies shall increase. Government should take instant measures to subsidize these products and put a half on the like essential commodities.

I hope the authorities will do the needful before it is too late.

Yours faithfully

R.P. Singh

(D) Sample Letter of request

9 New Colony

Barmer

June 2, 2014

The Principal

Kabir College

Barmer

Resp. Sir

Subject: Request for scholarship

This letter is to request you to offer me financial assistance as scholarship to continue my studies.

I belong to a poor farmer family. My father's income is too meager to make both ends meet.

I obtained 90% marks at the senior secondary examination. I feel, I could have performed better then if would have got proper guidance.

I would, therefore, request you to grant me scholarship to continue my studies.

Yours faithfully

Rajan

16.3.2 In formal Letters

Below we are giving some specimens of personal or informal letter. They are offered as a guide to help you in writing your own personal letters.

(A) A letter to your friend congratulating him on his brilliant success in the examination.

7 Main Lines

Vasant Kunj

Udaipur

15 March, 2014

My dear Namit

I am so glad to hear of your brilliant success in the examination. You have topped the list and won a scholarship, too. My heartiest congratulations!

The news of your success has delighted us all beyond measures. Everybody here is dancing with joy and is proud of you.

I have no doubts you will rise from glory to glory. May your success open for you all the golden gates of opportunities.

Best Wishes

Yours affectionately

Gaurav

(B) A letter to father telling him what you want to become in future.

108, G.T. Enclave

Sikar

10 April, 2014

My dear Father

I am glad to inform you that today my annual examinations are over. I have done my papers well. I have full hope to get a good first division in the examination.

My result will be declared by the end of June. Nowadays there is ample scope of graduation. I want to do graduation in socialwork. This degree shall give me a chance to serve the people.

I hope you will agree with me and will allow me to take admission in this bachelor degree programme.

Anxiously awaiting your kind consent

You loving Son

Mohit

(C) To a friend condoling with him on the death of his mother.

D-2 Vijay nagar Colony

Jodhpur

May 2, 2014

My Dear Shayam

I am most grieved to hear from you of the death of your dear mother, and I can well imagine how greatly you must miss her every hour.

At such a time as this, little can be said to comfort you, and time alone will soften your sorrow for the loss of so kind a mother.

She was a pious and kind soul, may God bless her soul.

I shall be grateful, if I can help you in any manner.

Your affectionate friend

Ramesh.

11.4 Application

Applications are a form of official or business letters. There are different types of applications. Application for leave, Application for fee concession, Application to allow a charge in subjects offered by you, Application for –re- evaluation, Application for a job etc.

16.4.1 Parts of Application

An Application has following parts:

- (a) Senders Address : The address of the person who is sending the letter.
- (b) Date: The date on which it is written
- (c) Address's Address: The designation or the rank of the officer or authority with address.
- (d) Salutation: You address the person or officer with respect. So you shall write Resp. Sir or not Sir/Madam can also be written.
- (e) Subject: What you wish to say or want attention of the authorities.
- (f) Content: It should be in three paragraphs . In the first paragraph there should be an introduction while the in second the reason of writing and lastly, it should conclude with polite request.
- (g) Subscription: In the end of the application you should write yours faithfully or yours truly and your name.

Note: In job Application, a bio-data is essentially required to complete a job Application

11.4.2 Types of Model Applications

Model Application on Different topics:

- a) Application for leave

Dept. of Social Science

K V College, Baran

5 January, 2014

The Principal

K.V. College, Baran

Resp. Sir

Subject: Application for two days leave.

With due respect I wish to inform you that I have been suffering from fever since last night. So, I am unable to attend the college. I, therefore, request you to kindly grant me leave for two days from today ie. January 5 to January 6, 2014.

I shall attend the college on January as I feel I shall be able to recover by that date

Your obediently

Rohit

- b) An application to the Principal requesting him to allow a change in the subject offered by you.

4, Khatpura

Jaipur

June 7, 2014

The Principal

M.D. Inter College

Jaipur

Resp. Sir

Subject: Request to change in the optional subject.

Most humbly I wish to request you that I had offered economics as one of my optional subjects. But I non feel that I cannot pull on with it. It will be very difficult for me to pass the examination with this subject.

I, therefore request you to kindly allow me to offer public Administration in place of Economics.

I assure you that I shall cover up and secure good marks is Public Administration.

Trusting that my application will receive a favorable consideration.

Yours obediently

Amarshwar

B) Application to issue charcter certificate Dept. of History

Shahpura

September 12, 2014

The Principal

Government College

Shahpura

Sir

Subject: Application to issue a character Certificate

With due respect, I wish to inform you that I am nemichand of batch 2013 Pre-degree programme and request you to provide a character certificate, as I have to prudence one for post I am about to seek.

I need a testimonial about my conduct and character. I have always been a regular and studies student, my teachers can provide you, a forourable impression about me.

Kindly issue me Character Certificate as early as possible.

Yours Truly

11.5 Conclusion

In this unit we have given you the formats with examples of writing good and effective letter and applications.

Unit-12

Paragraph Writing

Structure

- 12.1 Definition
- 12.2 Construction of a paragraph
- 12.3 Exercises

12.1 Definition

A paragraph is a series of sentences that deal with only one idea or theme. The sentences are connected with each other like the links of a chain and they all develop the theme.

The first sentence of a paragraph is usually a topic sentence because it tells us what the paragraph is all about. The rest of the sentences just describe or explain the main theme, so a good paragraph deals with only one theme in order to achieve unity and coherence. Care should be taken not to bring a different theme into a paragraph.

A paragraph is usually a section of a printed or written text, and usually starts on a new line that is indented, i.e. a line further in from the margin than other lines. It may also start from the beginning of the left margin provided each new paragraph begins after leaving a line.

12.2 Construction of a paragraph

Notice the construction of this paragraph:

The Rainy Season

What I like best about the rainy season are the colours. The earth is all green. How green the fields and forest are! How black the clouds look and how white the ponds and rivers are! And how colourful the rainbow is! What a feast to the eyes!

Here the first sentence is a topic sentence because it describes the display of colours in the rainy season. The whole paragraph is on this topic.

(For the usage of paragraphs in composition see chapter on 'Essay Writing.'

12.3 Exercises

Write a paragraph on each of the following subjects:

Your Country	A Handkerchief
Your Family	A Fountain Pen
Your Hobby	A Picnic
Your Favourite Game	A Journey by Bus
A Holiday	On a Railway Platform
A Rainy Day	In an Examination Hall

Unit 13

Precis Writing

Structure

- 13.1 Definition
 - 13.2 Aspects
 - 13.3 Meaning
 - 13.4 Language
 - 13.5 Length
-

13.1 Definition

A precis is a shortened form of the main points of a speech or written text. It is also called summary writing or summarising.

Precis writing is the art of compressing an idea into a few words, so it is a very useful method of developing one's capacity of understanding the meaning of a passage and restating it in as few words as possible.

13.2 Aspects

Precis writing has three main aspects:

- i) meaning
 - ii) language
 - iii) length
-

13.3 Meaning

- i) Read the passage carefully and patiently even if you do not understand the meaning of a few words or expressions. Try to grasp the central theme of the passage as a whole, not in parts.
- ii) Give the passage a title. If you can do so it would mean that you have understood the meaning of the passage. But if you can't, go through it again to find a word or phrase that will serve as a suitable title.
- iii) Then pick out the main points and leave out details. A paragraph normally contains only one idea in the topic sentence. The central idea is one that is

related to the title. The rest in the form of an example or explanation is mere detail. So, that can be left out. This process is very much like sifting the grain from the chaff.

- iv) If you have to make a precis of more than one paragraph the main points contained in each paragraph should be picked up and arranged in proper order. If you make a catalogue of points it would not be a piece of composition. So the main points must be so arranged as to have a logical sequence and coherence. A few disjointed sentences do not make a precis.

13.4 Language

- i) A precis should be made in your own words. Picking out a few sentences from the passage itself is a poor reproduction, not a precis. A precis expresses only the central theme, so words and expressions used in the passage are usually avoided.
- ii) It is written in full sentences, so telegraphic language has to be avoided.
- iii) It is written in the indirect speech, so conversation or direct speech is always put into indirect speech.
- iv) It is written in the third person (he/she/it/they).
- v) Use the same tense as in the passage.
- vi) Avoid expressions like in my opinion!/I think! believe etc. In a precis you do not express your personal views, so expressions like these are irrelevant.
- vii) Avoid quotations from the passage.

13.5 Length

Precis writing aims at compression, not expansion, so it is made in about one- third of the length of the passage, i.e., in one-third of the number of words, and not in one-third of the number of sentences. A mere reproduction of one-third of the sentences must always be avoided.

How to reduce length:

- i) Avoid all illustrations examples.

- ii) Avoid all exclamations/expletives comment clauses/parentheses like these: well, you see, you know, to tell you frankly etc.
- iii) Avoid explanation or expansion. A précis is the exact opposite of expansion.
- iv) Avoid your comments on the view or opinion of the writer. Nothing is put into a précis that is not in the passage.
- v) Avoid quotations.
- vi) Avoid emphatic sentences.
- viii) Avoid repetitions like this:

He is an extremely old man of ninety years. (9 words)

He is ninety. (3 words)

- ix) Avoid figures of speech and use simple English instead:

1. He is as brave as a lion. (7 words)

He is brave. (3 words)

2. She is as gentle as a lamb. (7 words)

She is gentle. (3 words)

- Use the method of transformation/substitution:

She is in the possession of a house. (11 words)

He has a house. (9 words)

This is a chair that has not got any arms. (8 words)

This is a chair without arms . (4 words)

A house whose walls are made of glass looks lovely. (10 words)

A house with glass walls looks lovely. (6 words)

- j) Use a single word for a group of words:

He is a person who looks at the bright side of a thing. (13 words)

He is an optimist. (10 words)

2. We want a government of the people, for the people

and by the people.

(14 words)

We want democracy.

(3 words)

Unit -14

Introduction

Structure

14.1 Introduction

14.2 Story

14.3 Unit End Questions

14.1 Introduction

In this unit you shall read a story on Birbal and Birbal was an advisor in the court of Akbar and is very popular for his sharp intellect and sense of humour. The stories of Birbal are very popular among kids and adults alike and forms an indispensable part in Indian folk lore.

Birbal (1528-1583) is surely one of the most popular figures in Indian history equally regarded by adults and children. Birbal's duties in Akbar's court were mostly administrative and military but he was a very close friend of Akbar too, because Akbar loved his wisdom, wit, and subtle humor. He was a minister in the administration of Mogul Emperor Akbar and one of the members of inner council of nine advisors. He was a poet and an author too.

It is believed that he was a son of poor Braahman of Trivikrampur (now known as Tikavanpur) on the banks of River Yamuna. According to a popular legend he died on an expedition to Afghanistan at the head of a large military force due to treachery. It is also said that when Birbal died, Akbar mourned him for several months.

The exchanges between Akbar and Birbal have been recorded in many volumes. Many of these have become folk stories in Indian tradition. Birbal's collection of poetry published under the pen name "Brahm" are preserved in Bharatpur Museum, Rajasthan, India.

14.2 Story

Akbar loved hunting and used to escape to go for hunting even from his studies. Well, later he became a better rider and hunter than any one of his courtiers. One

day when Akbar went for hunting, he and his some of the courtiers went so fast that they left the others behind. As the evening fell, everybody got very hungry and thirsty, they found that they had lost their way and now did not know where to go.

At last they came to a junction of three roads. King was very happy to see the roads that now he could go reach his capital through one of these roads, but which road was to go to his capital - Agra. They were all thinking about it and could not decide it. In the mean time they saw a young boy coming along one road. The boy was summoned and Akbar asked him, "Hey young boy! Which road goes to Agra?" The boy smiled and spoke, "Huzoor! everybody knows that road cannot move so how these roads can go to Agra or anywhere else?" and laughed at his own joke.

Everybody was silent, didn't say a word. The boy said again, "People travel, not the roads. Do they?" Emperor laughed at this and said, "No, you are right." The Emperor asked again, "What is your name, young boy?" "Mahesh Das" The boy replied and asked the Emperor, "And who are you Huzoor? What is your name?" The Emperor took out his Ring and gave it to the boy. "You are talking to Emperor Akbar - the King of Hindustan (India). We need fearless people like you. You come to the court, with this Ring I will recognize you immediately. Now tell me the way to get to Agra. We have to reach there soon?"

Mahesh Das bowing lowly pointed towards the road going to Agra, and the King headed on that road.

That is how the Emperor Akbar met the future Birbal.

There was a boy named Mahesh Das. When he grew up as a fine young man, he took all his savings, along with the Ring of Seal of the Emperor Akbar, which he received from the Emperor himself some time ago, bade his mother farewell, and set out to the new capital of India - Fatehpur Sikri.

He was very much enchanted with the pomp and show of the new capital. He escaped the crowd and headed towards the red walls of the palace. The palace gate was very richly ornamented - a very beautiful gate as he had never seen before. Mahesh wanted to enter the gate, but the guard slashed the air with his spear and stopped him from entering the gate.

"Where do you think, you are going?" asked the guard. Said Maesh politely, "Sir, I have come to see the King." "Oh! yeah, the King must be waiting for you, as when you would come?" the guard said circastically. Mahesh smiled at this comment and spoke "Yes, Sir, and now I am here." Mahesh told further,"I am sure you must have fought wonderfully well on the Emperor's frontiers, but do not risk your life by stopping me from entering the palace."

The guard kept quiet for a moment, then said courageously, "Why do you think so? I will chop off your head, if you do not stop talking nonsense." Mahesh was not going to accept his defeat. He showed Akbar's Ring of Seal to the guard.

Now who was the person who did not recognize Akbar's Ring of Seal. Having seen the seal, the guard couldn't say a word. He had to admit him, although he was not willing to do it. So the guard thought and thought, then he said to Mahesh, "You can go in on one condition." "What?", Mahesh asked. The guard said, "Whatever you will get from the Emperor, you will share with me half of that." "Agreed," Mahesh smiled and the guard let him go inside.

He went on and on, finally he could see the golden throne on which a man of simple elegance was sitting. He quickly recognized him as the Emperor Akbar. Pushing everyone aside, Mahesh went further and prostrated himself before the Emperor Akbar, and said, "May your shadow always grow, O Full Moon."

Akbar smiled and asked him, "What do you want. O young man?" Mahesh rose to his feet and spoke, "Sir, I have come here at your command." And he handed over the Ring of Seal, which was given to him by the King so many years before.

"That's a good boy, now what do you want? What is your heart's desire? Tell me, I will try my best to fulfil it." Mahesh remembered his promise with the guard, so he asked the Emperor to punish him with one hundred slashes. The King was surprised to hear that, "But how can I do this to you, you have done nothing wrong." Mahesh said politely, "Sir, please do not go back from your promise of fulfilling my heart's desire."

So with great reluctance and perplexed mind, Akbar ordered one hundred lashes on Mahesh's back. To the surprise of all, Mahesh endured every stroke without uttering a word.

After the fiftieth whip, he suddenly shouted, "Stop now." Akbar asked, "Why? What happened?" Mahesh said, "Sir when I was coming here, your guard did not allow me to come inside the palace, unless I promised him to give half of my share of whatever I will get from you. I have taken half of my share, now it is your guard's turn to take his share of half." Everybody broke into the laughter.

The guard was hauled to receive his humiliating bribe. The King said, "You are as brave as you were when you were a child. You have grown into a cleverer young man. I was trying to weed out the corrupted people from my court, but your little trick has done what I wouldn't have done even after passing several laws. From now on, on the basis of your wisdom, you shall be called "Birbal" and you will stay by my side as my advisor."

That is how Birbal was born.

Once Akbar asked Birbal to bring four fools of the first order to him. He said - "It is not difficult because this world is full of fools. Birbal said - "OK" and asked some time to find them, which Akbar readily gave to him.

Now Birbal started looking for fools. He was going somewhere that he saw a man carrying a large plate on which were kept some clothes, betel leaves and sweets. He looked like a fool to Birbal, so he asked him - "Where are you going to? And to whom you are carrying this?" The man replied - "My wife has remarried. Now they have a child so I am taking this gift for them." Birbal got convinced that he was a fool, so he considered him a candidate to take to the king.

At another time he saw a man riding a buffalo carrying a bundle of grass on his head. Birbal thought he was also a fool, so he asked him - "Why are you carrying this bundle on your head?" The man replied - "In fact my buffalo is pregnant, so I thought that she should not carry too much load, that is why I have put this bundle on my own head instead of putting it on it." Birbal considered him also a candidate to take to the king.

So next morning he took those people to Akbar's court and presented them to him as the biggest fools. "But these are only two fools; where are the other two? I asked you to bring four fools." King asked. Birbal folded his hands and bending a little said - "Jehaanpanaah, The third fool is you who asked me to bring the fools; and the fourth fool is me who has brought these fools for you."

When the king heard about them, he laughed a lot on their foolishness.

Because Birbal was very wise and witty, the Emperor's courtiers and other people used to be jealous with him and used to find some way to degrade him.

One day the court barber, who was very jealous with Birbal, plotted a plan against him. So when the King called him again to trim his beard, he went and started trimming his beard. He said, "Sir, last night I dreamed about your father." The King got interested, so he asked, "What did he say to you?"

"Sir, he said to me, that everything is good in paradise, but he feels a great absence of a good humorous man who can amuse him." The King thought and thought, but nobody else he could think of except Birbal who could perform this kind of duty very well. And, naturally, the only way to go to heaven was through death. For a moment, Akbar was very sad to lose such a good man, but thinking of his father, he made up his mind.

He summoned Birbal and said, "I think Birbal you love me very much and you can sacrifice anything for me." Birbal tried to understand his point but couldn't guess. He said, "You know Majesty, I do." "Then Birbal, please go to heaven to give company to my dear father." Birbal understood that this was a wicked plan of somebody to kill him. He said to Emperor politely, "I will do so, but I need a few days to prepare myself to go to heaven." The King said, "Certainly. You are giving me such a great favour, I allow you one week to prepare yourself."

Now Birbal was worried. He thought, somebody has planned very well and he could not escape from this plan. He thought and thought. And then he found a way. He dug a ditch near his house which would serve as his grave, and dug a tunnel too which would open in a room of his house. After doing this, he returned to the Imperial Court. He said, "I am ready, His Majesty, but there two conditions." Akbar was so happy to hear this that he forgot that Birbal could put some odd conditions to him. He asked, "What are those conditions? Tell me soon. I will try to fulfil them so that you can go to heaven to be with my dear father."

Birbal said, "His majesty, I wish to be buried near my house. And I want to be buried alive so that I can reach heaven alive to amuse your dear father." The King found this logical and agreed up on them immediately.

So Birbal was buried alive near his house. Of course he made his way to his house where he lived in confinement for six months. After six months, he came out of hiding with grown beard and shabby hair and asked the permission to appear in the Royal Court.

Looking at him Akbar cried, "Where have you been Birbal?" Birbal said, "Your Majesty, I was in Heaven with your dear father. I had a very good time there with your father. He was so happy with my services that he gave me special permission to return to Earth." Akbar was very anxious to know about his father, he asked, "Did he send any message for me?" Birbal said, "Yes Your Majesty, he said that very few barber can make it to go to Heaven, you can make out this from my grown beard and shabby hair, so he has asked to send your own barber to him immediately.

Akbar understood everything. He gave Birbal a big prize, and his barber the life sentence.

14.3 Unit End Questions

Answer the following questions after reading the above story:-

- 1 What was the real name of Birbal ?
- 2 Who gave him the ring of seal?
- 3 Where did he head to after saving the money?
- 4 Who was the greatest fool?
- 5 Who were jealous of Birbal?
- 6 Why were they jealous of Birbal?
- 7 What do you learn from the stories of Birbal?
- 8 Who was the third fool?
- 9 What message was sent to Akbar from his father?
- 10 How can you say Birbal was witty?

Unit - 15

Unseen passage

Structure

15.1 Exercise -1

15.2 Exercise-2

15.3 Exercise 4

15.1 Exercise -1

Sindbad was a famous sailor. He sailed in ship from one country to another. One day he landed on an island which was covered with delicious fruits. But he could not see any man or woman there. So, he was very much surprised. He went to every corner of the island with his other sailors to find any living being. Meanwhile, some of the sailors gathered fruits and flowers while they were roaming on the island. As he was tired, he sat under a tree and began to eat his food he had brought with him. After some time he fell asleep, when he got up, he could not see his sailors as they all had gone, leaving him alone on the island.

Answer the questions briefly:-

- a) Who was Sindbad?
- b) Why was he surprised?
- c) What did he do when he was tired?
- d) What were the other sailors busy in gathering?
- e) What did he find when he got up?

Answers:-

- a) Sindbad was a famous sailor who sailed in ship from one country to another.
- b) He was surprised to see an island which was covered with delicious fruits and where no human being lived.
- c) When he was tired, he sat under a tree and began to eat his food he had brought with him.
- d) The other sailors gathered fruits and flowers.
- e) When he got up, he could not see his sailors as they all had gone, leaving him alone on the island.

15.2 Exercise-2

One day George Washington was riding along a road. On his way he saw some soldiers trying to lift a heavy wooden log. The Colonel was giving them orders. The log was too heavy to move without help. They needed just one man more. The Colonel, however, would not help them. He thought he was too big an officer to come down to the level of the soldiers.

Washington watched for minute and then asked the Colonel why did not help the soldiers. The Colonel at once turned round and said, “Don’t you know Sir, that I am an officer.” Washington replied, “I beg your pardon Mr. Colonel, I did not know that you were such a great man.” He then dismounted, took off his coat, rolled up his sleeves and helped the soldiers to pull up the log with all his might. The log was lifted and kept on a truck. Washington then mounted the horse again and said to the officer, Mr Colonel, if in future you need the help of another man, send for your General.” Washington, the first President of America was a great man, indeed.

Answer the questions briefly:-

- a) Who was the first President of America?
- b) Why did the Colonel not help the soldiers?
- c) Who helped them to lift the log?
- d) How many more men were required for help?
- e) What lesson do you learn from the story?

Answers:-

- a) The first President of America was George Washington.
- b) The Colonel thought that he was an officer and it was below his dignity to help the soldiers.
- c) George Washington, the first President of America helped the soldiers in lifting the heavy wooden log.
- d) Only one man’s help was required by the soldiers.
- e) We learn from the story that the great men are not proud of their high position.

15.3 Exercise 3

A poor widow lived alone in a little house in front of which she had grown a beautiful garden, where stood two little rose trees- one bore white rose, the other red rose. The widow had two children, who resembled the two rose trees. One was called Snow white and the other Red –red. They were two best children that ever lived. But Snow white was quieter and gentler than Rose red. Rose red liked best to jump about in the fields to look after flowers and catch butterflies, but Snow white sat at home with her mother in the house or read to her lovely stories when there was nothing to do.

Answer the following questions briefly:-

- a) What were growing in the garden?
- b) What were the names given to the children?
- c) What kind of children were they?
- d) What did Snow white like to do?
- e) What did Rose red like to do?

Answers:-

- a) In the garden there were two little rose trees- one bore white rose, the other red rose.
- b) One was called Snow white and the other Red –red.
- c) They were two best children that ever lived.
- d) Snow white sat at home with her mother in the house or read to her lovely stories when there was nothing to do.
- e) Rose red liked best to jump about in the fields to look after flowers and catch butterflies whenever she was free.

Unit16

Transformation of Sentences

Structure

- 16.1 Types of Sentences
- 16.2 Conversion
- 16.3 Simple to Compound
- 16.4 Simple to Complex
- 16.5 Practice Exercises

Sentences are divided into three classes from structural point of view i.e. depending on the number and type of clauses that are used in a sentence. These are:

1. Simple Sentence
2. Compound Sentence
3. Complex Sentence

16.1 Simple Sentences

A sentence which consists of only one subject and predicate is called a simple sentence.

The subject consists of the subject itself and the enlargement of the subject through modifiers. The object consists of verb, complement, object, modifiers of the object or adverbial extension.

It also has only one independent clause and states one idea. It may contain other parts of speech such as modifiers or preposition phrases. It may also contain a compound subject or a compound verb.

Ex.

Man is a social animal.

The sun rises in the East.

Honesty is the best policy.

She was standing at the bus stop.

She has settled down.

The storm has subsided.

The prices have gone up.

16.2 Compound Sentences

A sentence which consists of two or more co-ordinate clauses is called a Compound Sentence.

It has two or more independent clauses combined by a connecting or coordinating word. The compound sentence does not have any subordinate or dependent clause. The connecting words are called conjunctions. Some common connecting words used to join two sentences into one compound sentence are :

and	now	for	as well as	who
yet	so	either	or	where
but	also	neither nor		

Ex.

I went to the garden and found the children playing there.

The doctor examined the patient and prescribed him some medicines.

I looked at the poor widow and she started crying.

He tried hard but failed in his attempt.

She sang and her sister danced.

She is neither clever nor beautiful.

The orphan was both tired and hungry.

You should reads as well as write.

16.3 Complex Sentence

A sentence which consists of one main clause and one or more sub ordinate clause is called a Complex Sentences.

It this sentence one clause is independent and it is called the main clause. The other clause forming part of the complex sentence is dependent and it is called a subordinate clause. The main clause contains the main verb and is not dependent on the other clauses(s) for its meaning. The subordinate clause expresses an idea which is dependent on the main idea. A subordinate clause is less important than the main clause.

Sentences with clauses of unequal importance are called complex sentences. They also add variety to the writing. The conjunction used to combine the clauses of a complex sentences is called subordinate conjunction. It explains the relationship of one clause to the other. The common subordinate conjunctions with the relationship they define are :

HOW	WHEN	WHERE	WHY
as if	after	where	because
how	before	wherever	if
unless	when		since
though	whenever		so that
although	once		
even though	while		
	since		
	until		

Ex.

When I went there, I found the baby sleeping.

She went to the market after she had finished cooking the food.

If you know about it, please tell me.

I met Raghav before he went to Delhi.

There was a queen who was very kind and beautiful.

If you obey me I shall help you.

Converting Simple Sentences into Compound sentences

1. India wants peace. Pakistan does not want peace.
India wants peace but Pakistan does not want it.
2. Walk with care. You will stumble.
Walk with care or you will stumble.
3. He is a rogue. He is a mad man.
He is both a rogue and a mad man.
4. Take medicine regularly. You will not get better.
Take medicine regularly, else you will not get better.

5. Try to be honest. Try to be faithful.
Try not only to be honest but also be faithful.
6. He is a liar. He is a coward.
He is a liar or he is a coward.
7. The weather was hot. The weather was not unpleasant.
The weather was hot, yet it was not unpleasant.
8. He was obstinate. He was punished.
He was obstinate therefore he was punished.
9. You can go by car. You can go by bike.
You can go either by car or bike.
10. The river is deep. I cannot swim in it.
The river is deep so I cannot swim in it.
11. Being poor they often suffered great hardship.
There were poor and often suffered hardship.
12. In spite of his weakness he appeared at the examination.
He was weak, yet he appeared at the examination.
13. By her pleasant manners she gained many friends.
She had pleasant manners and therefore gained many friends.
14. He ran fast to catch the train.
He ran fast for he wanted to catch the train.

Converting Simple Sentences into Complex Sentences

1. She lives here. This is her house.
This is her house where she lives.
2. There was a queen. She was very beautiful and kind.
There was a queen who was very beautiful and kind.
3. I shall help you. Your condition is to obey me.
If you obey me I shall help you. Or
I shall help you if you obey me.
4. Reema had loved me. She told me that.
Reema had told me that she had loved me.

5. The woman was very kind. She helped the children.
The woman who was very kind, helped the children.
6. This is a large hotel. My uncle built it.
This is a large hotel that was built by my uncle.
7. I went there. Mother was cooking in the kitchen.
When I went there mother was cooking in the kitchen.
8. We help others. We want to receive help.
We help others that we may receive help.
9. My friend may have been married. I don't know that.
I don't know whether my friend has been married.
10. Kristina is friendly. Her sister is impolite.
Where as Kristina is friendly her sister is impolite.
11. He had taken a foolish decision. I was surprised at it.
I was surprised at what he had decided foolishly.
12. You finish your assignments. I will wait for you.
I shall wait for you until you finish your assignment.
13. I am delighted. You have achieved your goal.
I am delighted that you have achieved your goal.
14. How can I reach Mumbai tomorrow? That is the problem.
The problem is how can I reach Mumbai tomorrow.
15. Honesty is the best policy. He believes in it.
He believes that honesty is the best policy.

16.4 Practice Exercises

Exercise 1

1. I read the book. I returned it to the Library.
2. My sister was married. She resigned from the job.
3. He wants to help. He has no money.
4. The house is very expensive. He cannot buy it.
5. It is raining heavily. You must take your umbrella.

6. He likes chocolates. I don't like chocolates.
7. Puneet must get a job.
He will starve.
8. The principal ordered him to go.
He did not go.
9. Jane didn't inform his family members.
Jane did not inform his friends.
10. She ate bananas.
She didn't eat apples.

Exercise 2

1. He is not educated.
He has become a great novelist.
2. He is a wicked person.
It is known to all.
3. The student had not come to me.
I don't know the reason.
4. She had very little experience.
She got the award for the best employee.
5. You know his name.
Then, please tell me.
6. He was not selected.
He was the best.
7. The black coat is the most popular choice.
It is attractive.
8. The film did not get the award.
The nomination gave the director new identity.
9. The bard visited India.
It won the Grammy award.
10. I wrote the book.
I corrected the errors.