



ARULMIGU PALANIANDAVAR ARTS COLLEGE FOR WOMEN,

PALANI

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

LEARNING RESOURCES

MODERN ENGLISH GRAMMAR AND USAGE



NOUNS

Of all the parts of speech, nouns are perhaps the most important. The English word noun has its roots in the Latin word ‘nomen’, which means “name.” Every language has words that are nouns. A noun is a part of speech that denotes a person, animal, place, thing, or idea.

- **Person** – A term for a person, whether proper name, gender, title, or class, is a noun.
- **Animal** – A term for an animal, whether proper name, species, gender, or class is a noun.
- **Place** – A term for a place, whether proper name, physical location, or general locale is a noun.
- **Thing** – A term for a thing, whether it exists now, will Exist, or Existed in the past is a noun.
- **Idea** – A term for an idea, be it a real, workable idea or a fantasy that might never come to fruition is a noun.

Kinds of Nouns:

There are two principal classes of nouns.

- Concrete Nouns and
- Abstract Nouns

CONCRETE NOUNS

Concrete nouns are words used for actual things you can touch, see, taste, feel, and hear – things you interact with every day. Notice that concrete nouns can also be countable, uncountable, common, proper, and collective nouns. *Concrete nouns* refer to physical entities that can be observed by at least one of the senses (for instance, *chair, apple, Janet* or *atom*).

Ex: Please remember to buy **oranges**.
Have a seat in that **chair**.

Proper Nouns:

A proper noun is the noun that names a particular person, place or thing to single it out from others of its class. The word ‘proper’ means ‘private, or one’s own’. It is always written with a capital letter at the beginning. They do not have plural forms. A *proper noun* or *proper name* is a noun representing unique entities.

Ex: Milton, Kanpur, The Himalayas

Proper nouns are sometimes used as common nouns.

Ex: Kalidas is called the Shakespeare.

A Proper Noun sometimes consists of several words. In that case, the first letter of every word must begin with a Capital letter.

Ex: Mother Teresa Girls’ High School.

It is the name of only one particular school though it consists of many words.

Common Nouns:

Common nouns are used to refer to general things rather than specific examples. Common nouns are not normally capitalized unless they are used as part of a proper name or are placed at the beginning of a sentence. Some common noun examples are included in the following sentences.

Ex: Be sure to pick a top **university**.
Stack those **boxes** carefully.
Would you like a **cookie** with your **coffee**?
People are strange.



My **dog** won't stop barking.

A Common Noun begins with a capital letter only when it is placed at the very beginning of a sentence or a line of poetry.

Ex: **Cows** give milk.

Water, water, everywhere

And not a drop to drink.

Material Nouns:

Material noun is the name given to the material, substance or things made up of alloy. It refers to the type of substance instead of individual particles of the substance. Material nouns are not countable means we cannot count them because they are in the forms of liquid, semi-liquid or solid. This noun is especially called as material noun because nouns in this class are almost materials. Sometimes we cannot make the plural forms of material noun.

Ex: **Cotton** dresses are very cheap and comfortable.

My mom purchased a **gold** ring for me.

I drink **milk** in the **silver**

My father has a shop for **diamonds**.

- **Material nouns from nature:** water, air, silver, gold, iron, copper, sand, coal, rock, sunlight, rain, earth, salt, etc.
- **Material nouns from animals:** egg, meat, honey, milk, silk, leather, wool, etc.
- **Material nouns from plants:** cotton, food, oil, wood, jute, coffee, medicine, tea, rubber, perfume, etc.
- **Man-made material nouns:** acid, alcohol, asphalt, brick, cement, butter, chalk, ghee, cheese, ebony, enamel, felt, gelatin, paraffin, cloth, etc.

Collective Nouns:

Collective nouns are nouns that refer to *groups* consisting of more than one individual or entity.

Ex: committee, government, and police.

In English these nouns may be followed by a singular or a plural verb and referred to by a singular or plural pronoun, the singular being generally preferred when referring to the body as a unit and the plural often being preferred, especially in British English, when emphasizing the individual members. Examples of acceptable and unacceptable use given by Gowers in 'Plain Words' include:

Ex: A committee *was* appointed to consider this subject. (singular)

The committee *were* unable to agree. (plural)

The committee *were* of one mind when I sat on them. (unacceptable use of plural)

If used as a 'Subject', it generally takes a Singular verb.

Ex: The Jury consists of twelve persons.

But when it denotes the individual members of the group, it takes a Plural verb.

Ex: The Jury were divided in their opinion.

ABSTRACT NOUNS

The names of qualities, state or actions are called Abstract Nouns. Such things can be thought of or felt only. They cannot be seen or touched. They do not occupy any place. Names of



subjects, games, sciences and arts are also called Abstract Nouns. They are generally formed from:

- Common Nouns: Friend – Friendship
- Adjectives: Bold – Boldness
- Verbs: Advise – Advice

Ex: **Success** seems to come easily to certain people.
His **hatred** of people smoking indoors is legendary.
She has an incredible **love** for nature.
This is of great **importance**.
He received an award for his **bravery**.

Another classification of nouns is whether they are ‘countable’ or ‘uncountable’.

Countable Nouns:

The Countable Nouns are the names of objects, people, etc., that we can count. They can be either in singular or plural forms.

Ex: Book, pen, apple, horse

Uncountable Nouns:

The Uncountable Nouns are also called as ‘Mass Nouns’. They are the names of things which we cannot count. Uncountable nouns do not have plural forms. Abstract nouns and names of substances are uncountable in most cases.

Ex: Gold, milk, honesty

There are some nouns which are uncountable in English but are countable in many other languages.

Ex: advice, news, information, furniture, luggage, weather, bread, money, homework, scenery.

There are no usages as ‘advices, furnitures, breads’ etc.

Functions of Nouns:

Nouns have several important functions.

- **Nouns are subjects:** Every sentence has a subject, which is a noun that tells us what the sentence is all about.
Ex: John swung the baseball bat.
- **Nouns are direct objects:** These nouns receive action from verbs.
Ex: John swung the baseball bat.
- **Nouns are indirect objects:** These nouns receive the direct object.
Ex: Brad threw the ball to John.
- **Nouns are objects of prepositions:** These nouns follow the prepositions in prepositional phrases.
Ex: John swung the baseball bat at Greg.
- **Nouns are predicate nominatives:** These nouns follow linking verbs and rename the subject.
Ex: John is a baseball player.
- **Nouns are object complements:** These nouns complete the direct object.
Ex: They named their dog Max.

~.~.~.~.~



GENDER

The word 'Gender' comes from Latin, 'Genus' meaning 'kind or sort'. The gender of a noun indicates the sex or the absence of sex. There are four genders in English.

- Masculine Gender
- Feminine Gender
- Common Gender
- Neuter Gender

Masculine Gender:

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

Ex: Boy, lion, hero, cock-sparrow

Feminine Gender:

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

Ex: Girl, lioness, heroine, hen-sparrow

Common Gender:

A noun that denotes either a male or a female is said to be of the Common Gender.

Ex: Parent, teacher, student, thief

Neuter Gender:

- A noun that denotes a thing that is neither male nor female is said to be of Neuter Gender. Such things do not have life.

Ex: Book, pen, room, tree

- Sometimes objects without life are personified. Then, we regard them as males or females. The Masculine Gender is applied to objects of strength and violence.

Ex: The sun sends his beams.
Death will touch us with his hands.

- The Feminine Gender is applied to objects of beauty and gentleness.

Ex: The moon has hidden her face.
Peace has her victory.

Formation of Genders:

There are three ways of forming the other Gender.

- By using an entirely different word

Masculine Gender	Feminine Gender
Boy	Girl
Brother	Sister
Bull (or Ox)	Cow
Bullock	Heifer
Horse	Mare
Husband	Wife
King	Queen
Lord	Lady
Man	Woman
Cock	Hen
Dog	Bitch
Father	Mother



Nephew	Niece
Sir	Madam
Son	Daughter
Uncle	Aunt

- By adding a syllable (-ess, -ine, -trix, -a) as,

Masculine Gender	Feminine Gender
Author	Authoress
Baron	Baroness
Count	Countess
Giant	Giantess
Heir	Heiress
Hero	Heroine
Testator	Testatrix
Czar	Czarina

- By placing a word before or after

Masculine Gender	Feminine Gender
Grandfather	Grandmother
Greatuncle	Greataunt
Manservant	Maidservant
Landlord	Landlady
Peacock	peahen

NUMBER

There are two numbers in English. They are,

- ✚ The Singular and
- ✚ The Plural

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

Ex: Man, cow, kite, book, chair

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

Ex: Men, cows, kites, books, chairs

Formation of Plural of Nouns:

- The Plural of Nouns is generally formed by adding ‘-s’ to the Singular.
Ex: Star – stars, stone – stones, blow – blows, house – houses
- Nouns ending in ‘ch, s, sh, x or z’ form the Plural by adding ‘-es’.
Ex: Bench – benches, gas – gases, brush – brushes, tax – taxes, topaz - topazes
- Nouns ending in ‘y’ preceded by a consonant form the Plural by changing ‘y’ into ‘-ies’.
Ex: Army – armies, story – stories, duty – duties, baby - babies
- Nouns ending in ‘y’ preceded by a vowel, form the Plural by adding ‘-s’.
Ex: Day – days, key – keys, toy – toys, storey - storeys
- Nouns ending in ‘o’ preceded by a consonant, form the plural by adding ‘-es’.



Ex: Buffalo – buffaloes, potato - potatoes

- Nouns ending in ‘oo, io, eo, yo’ preceded by a consonant form the plural by adding ‘-s’.

Ex: Bamboo – bamboos, curio – curios, embryo - embryos

- Nouns ending in ‘f’ or ‘fe’ form the plural by changing ‘f or ‘fe’ into ‘-ves’.

Ex: Calf – calves, knife – knives, wife – wives, loaf – loaves

- Nouns ending in ‘ff’, ‘eef’, ‘oof’, ‘ief’ and ‘rf’ form the plural by adding ‘-s’.

Ex: Cliff – cliffs, reef – reefs, proof – proofs, grief - grieves

- Some nouns form their plural by a change of the inside vowel.

Ex: Foot – feet, goose – geese, man – men, mouse – mice, tooth – teeth

- A few nouns form their plural by adding ‘-en’ or ‘-ne’.

Ex: Ox – oxen, child – children, brother – brethren

- Compound nouns form their plural by adding ‘-s’ to the principal word.

Ex: Son-in-law – Sons-in-law, Coat-of-mail – Coats-of-mail

Exceptions:

- Some nouns have the same form in Singular as well as Plural.

Ex: Deer, sheep, swine, grouse, trout, salmon

- Some nouns have only plural form

Ex: Pincers, tongs, scissors, trousers, spectacles, bellows

- Names of things used in plural form

Ex: Bowels, eatables, movables, valuables

- Names of games, diseases and miscellaneous subjects in Plural form

Ex: Billiards, measles, mumps, thanks, wages, premises, mathematics, news, innings

- Some nouns, originally Singular, but used as Plurals.

Ex: Alms, eaves, riches

- Some Collective Nouns, singular in form but used as Plurals.

Ex: Cattle, people, vermin, poultry, gentry

- Some nouns used only in the Singular form.

Ex: Alphabet, information, furniture, offspring, poetry, scenery

CASE

Case shows a noun's or a pronoun's relationship with the other words in a sentence. It is the grammatical function of a noun or pronoun. The case of a noun can be classified into five.

They are,

- Nominative Case
- Objective or Accusative Case
- Possessive or Genitive Case
- Vocative Case
- Dative Case

Nominative Case:

When a noun or a pronoun is used as the subject of a verb, it is said to be in Nominative Case. It refers to the person or the thing, carrying out the action.

Ex: John killed a snake.



Donne was a poet.

The Nominative Case is also used for a subject complement. A subject complement completes a linking verb (e.g., *to be, to seem, to smell*).

Ex: Almonds are a member of the peach family.

Objective or Accusative Case:

When a noun or pronoun is used as the object of a verb, it is said to be in Objective Case.

Ex: They saw the crowd.

We admired her beauty.

Possessive or Genitive Case:

When a noun or a pronoun is used to show ownership or possession, authority, origin or kind, it is said to be in the Possessive or Genitive Case. With nouns, it is shown with an apostrophe. Pronouns in the possessive case come in two forms:

Possessive Determiners:

Ex: An ostrich's eye is bigger than its brain.

Possessive Pronouns:

Ex: His whole attitude to life was mine.

Vocative Case:

When the noun is the name of the person spoken to or addressed, it is said to be in the Vocative Case. Words in the vocative case are offset with comma(s).

Ex: Ladies and gentleman, please take your seats.

Dative Case:

When a noun indicates the indirect object of the verb (generally 'give'), it is said to be in the Dative Case.

Ex: I gave him a chocolate.

~.~.~.

THE PRONOUNS

A Pronoun is a word, used instead of a Noun. Pronouns are of the following kinds.

- Personal Pronouns
- Reflexive Pronouns
- Emphatic Pronouns
- Relative Pronouns
- Demonstrative Pronouns
- Indefinite Pronouns
- Distributive Pronouns
- Interrogative Pronouns
- Exclamatory Pronouns and
- Reciprocal Pronouns

Personal Pronouns:

A personal pronoun is associated primarily with a particular person, in the grammatical sense.

When discussing "person" in terms of the grammatical, the following rules apply:

- The person speaking – First person – I, We
- The person spoken to – Second person – You
- The person spoken of – Third person – He, She, It, They



Personal pronouns may take on various forms depending on number (singular or plural for the most part). They may also take different forms depending on case, gender, or formality. It is important to note that personal pronouns may refer to objects, animals, or people.

The different forms of the Personal Pronouns are:

	Nominative	Possessive	Accusative
First Person	I, We	My, Mine, Our, Ours	Me, Us
Second Person	You	Your, Yours	You
Third Person	He, She, It, They	His, Her, Hers, Its, Their, Theirs	Him, Her, It, Them

The Possessive Pronouns are also called Possessive Adjectives, because they are used with nouns.

Ex: This is my book.

The Pronoun 'it' is used for things without life, animals, a young child or a statement. A personal pronoun is used instead of a Noun. So it must be of the same number, gender and person as the Noun.

Ex: Rama is a kind boy. He gave his book to me.

Personal pronouns provide us with the following information:

- The **person** – Who is speaking?
- The **number** – Is the pronoun plural or singular?
- The **gender** – Is the pronoun feminine, masculine, or neuter?

Reflexive Pronouns:

A reflexive pronoun is preceded by the adverb, adjective, pronoun, or noun to which it refers. Its antecedent is located within the same clause. A reflexive pronoun indicates that the person who is realizing the action of the verb is also the recipient of the action.

Ex: I was in a hurry, so I washed the car *myself*.

You're going to have to drive *yourself* to school today.

He wanted to impress her, so he baked a cake *himself*.

Emphatic Pronouns:

An Emphatic Pronoun is also called as an intensive pronoun. It is almost identical to a reflexive pronoun. It is defined as a pronoun that ends in *self* or *selves* and places emphasis on its antecedent. Intensive pronouns aren't essential to a sentence's basic meaning.

- Himself
- Herself
- Yourself
- Themselves
- Ourselves

Intensive pronouns might not be necessary, but they serve the important function of making writing more interesting as well as more meaningful, particularly in formal situations. Intensive pronouns are used to add emphasis to statements.

Ex: Jesse wondered whether he *himself* was the only one having seen that.

They *themselves* are responsible for playing their best.

We *ourselves* are the ones who make the greatest impact upon the world.

Relative Pronouns:



A relative pronoun is one which is used to refer to nouns mentioned previously, whether they are people, places, things, animals, or ideas. Relative pronouns can be used to join two sentences. There are only a few relative pronouns in the English language. The most common are

- which
- that
- whose
- whoever
- whomever
- who
- whom.

In some situations, the words *what*, *when*, and *where* can also function as relative pronouns. Relative clauses are typically introduced by relative pronouns. Relative pronoun can function as a possessive pronoun, an object, or a subject. When relative pronouns introduce restrictive relative clauses, no comma is used to separate the restrictive clause from the main clause. In American English, the relative pronoun *whom* is in rare use.

Ex: The cyclist *who* won the race trained hard.
The pants *that* I bought yesterday are already stained.

Conjunctive Pronouns: ‘Who, which and that’ are also called as Conjunctive Pronouns. The Accusative and Genitive forms of ‘who’ are ‘whom and whose’. Basically, ‘who’ refers to human beings; ‘which’ and ‘that’ refer to all other animate and inanimate things.

Ex: All that glitters is not gold.
This is my friend whom I met yesterday.

Antecedent: The Noun to which a Relative Pronoun refers or relates is called its Antecedent.

Ex: This is the boy who was late.
Here ‘boy’ is the Antecedent of ‘who’.

Demonstrative Pronouns:

A demonstrative pronoun is a pronoun that is used to point to something specific within a sentence. They can indicate items in space or in time, and they can be either singular or plural.

Demonstrative pronouns always identify nouns, whether the nouns are named specifically or not.

Ex: I can’t believe *this*.

We have no idea what “this” is, but it’s definitely something the writer cannot believe. It exists, even though we don’t know what *it* is.

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

Ex: *This* was my mother’s ring.
That looks like the car I used to drive.
These are nice shoes, but they look uncomfortable.

Indefinite Pronouns:



Indefinite pronouns are those referring to one or more unspecified objects, beings, or places. They are called “indefinite” simply because they do not indicate the exact object, being, or place to which they refer. They include partitives such as

- ✚ any
- ✚ anybody
- ✚ anyone
- ✚ either
- ✚ neither
- ✚ no
- ✚ none
- ✚ nobody
- ✚ some
- ✚ someone

They also include universals such as

- ✚ every
- ✚ all
- ✚ both
- ✚ each

They include quantifiers including

- ✚ any
- ✚ some
- ✚ several
- ✚ enough
- ✚ many
- ✚ much.

Many indefinite pronouns can also function as determiners. Indefinite pronouns are never plural. They are always singular. As indefinite pronouns are singular, the pronouns or verbs used to refer to them should also be singular.

- Ex: *Many* are called, but *few* are chosen.
Somebody ate my sandwich!
Everyone says she is beautiful inside and out.

Distributive Pronouns:

Distributive pronouns refer to persons or things one at a time. They are

- ✚ each
- ✚ either
- ✚ neither

A distributive pronoun is always singular and as such it should be followed by a singular noun and verb.

- Ex: Each new day is different.
Either girl can do that.
Neither answer is correct.

Certain distributive pronouns such as ‘Each of’, ‘neither of’ and ‘either of’ are followed by plural nouns and singular verbs.

- Ex: Each of the answers is correct.



Neither of the girls can do that.

When speaking of two persons or things, 'either' and 'neither' should be used. When speaking of more than two persons or things, 'any' or 'none' should be used.

Ex: None of the three answers is correct.

We invited several friends, but none came.

You can take any of the three shirts.

Interrogative Pronouns:

An interrogative pronoun is used to make questions easy. There are five interrogative pronouns. Each one is used to ask a very specific question. They are

- What
- Which
- Who
- Whom
- Whose

Interrogative pronouns can also be used as relative pronouns in questions.

Ex: Whom do you like most?

Sentences containing interrogative pronouns are always questions, so they always end with a question mark.

Ex: What do you want for your birthday?

Which shirt looks better on me?

Who will win the playoff game?

Exclamatory Pronouns:

When a pronoun is used to denote an expression of exclamation, it is called Exclamatory Pronoun. In such sentence, an exclamatory mark must be used.

Ex: What! Can't you meet him?



When an exclamatory 'What' precedes a singular countable noun, the word 'What' must be followed by 'a' or 'an'.

Ex: What an extraordinary performance!

Reciprocal Pronouns:

A reciprocal pronoun is used to indicate that two or more people are carrying out or have carried out an action of some type. Reciprocal pronouns are used when something is done or given in return. They prevent repetition within sentences.

There are only two reciprocal pronouns. They make sentences simpler. They are especially useful when expressing the same general idea more than once. They are -

-  Each other
-  One another

When referring to more than two people, the reciprocal pronoun 'one another' is used.

Ex: Maria and Juan gave *each other* gold rings on their wedding day.

Terry and Jack were talking to *each other* in the hallway.

~.~.~.~.

VERBS

A verb is a word that tells or asserts something about a person or thing. The verb comes from the Latin 'verbum', a word. The verb is an important constituent of any sentence. It expresses



an action done by the subject of the sentence, the state of the subject, what the subject possesses, or what is done to it.

Ex: I write.
He plays.
They drive.

A Verb may tell us –

✚ What a person or thing does;

Ex: Hari laughs.
○ The clock strikes.

✚ What is done to a person or thing;

Ex: He is scolded.
○ The window is broken.

✚ What a person or thing is;

Ex: The cat is dead.
○ Glass is brittle.
○ I feel sorry.

Linking Verbs:

Linking verbs are also called as ‘State-of-being verbs’ because they link the subject of the sentence with the information about it. These verbs do not show action. They simply say something about the subject. There are eight linking verbs. They are ‘is, am, are, was, were, be, being, been’.

Ex: The teacher is tall.
They were allowed inside the prayer hall.

Action Verbs:

Action verbs indicate the action of a person or a thing. The action can be visible or mental. Some action verbs show visible action. These actions can be seen.

Ex: Raman plays football.
The cat drank the milk.

Some verbs indicate mental actions. These actions cannot be seen or heard directly. They are thinking activities, but they are still actions.

Ex: The students understand the assignment.
Everyone believes you.

Visible Actions	Mental Actions
Entertain	Feel
Jump	Imagine
Announce	Love
Throw	dislike

A verb in a sentence is its central axis. According to its use in a sentence, it falls into two groups – Finite and Non-finite verbs.

FINITE VERBS

A finite verb has a subject that is expressed or implied. It can function as the root of an independent clause. In many languages, finite verbs are the focus of grammatical



information of gender, person, number, tense, aspect, mood, and voice. In elementary level, finite verb is the verb in a sentence which determines the tense.

The verb in a sentence changes, according to the number and person of the subject. They are limited by the number and person of the subject. Such verbs are called Finite verbs. In fact, all verbs in the Indicative, Imperative and Subjective Moods are Finite. All Finite verbs are complete. Verbs which have the past or the present form are called Finite verbs.

Ex: Hameed thinks of his future.

He is a great poet.

The term 'Anomalous Finite' is used for the Finites 'am, is, are, were, have, has, had, do, does, did, shall, should, will, would, can, could, may, might, must, ought, need, dare, used'.

NON-FINITE VERBS

- A nonfinite verb is any of several verb forms that are not finite verbs. They cannot serve as the root of an independent clause. There are some forms of verbs, which do not change according to the number and person of the subject. In fact, the subject of the sentence does not have any effect on them. Such verbs are called 'Non-Finite' verbs.
- Nonfinite verbs typically are not inflected by grammatical tense. They present little inflection for other grammatical categories as well. Generally, they also lack a subject dependent.
- Non-finite verbs are called 'verbals', though that term is traditionally applied only to participles and gerunds.

Nonfinite verbs are

- ✚ Infinitives
- ✚ Participles
- ✚ Gerunds or Verbal Nouns

The Infinitives:

'To+Verb' is an Infinitive. Infinitives have various functions in a sentence. They can serve as,

- The subject of a verb.
Ex: To err is human.
- The object of a verb.
Ex: I want to win a prize.
- The complement of a verb.
Ex: My aim is to win the gold medal.
- The object of a preposition.
Ex: He had no choice but to quit.
- An adverb.
Ex: The boy ran to meet his father.
- An adjective.
Ex: Here is a magazine to read.

Infinitives fall into two groups, according to their usages in sentences.

'Bare' Infinitives:

If Infinitives are used without 'to', they are called Bare Infinitives.



Uses:

- After the Auxiliaries
Ex: I may go to the meeting.
- After the verbs like, 'bid, watch, see, let, make, help, hear'
Ex: He made me wait.
- After 'rather, better, had better'
Ex: I would rather go away now.
- After Prepositions like 'except, but, save, than'
Ex: She can do everything but cook.

'To' Infinitives:

If Infinitives are used with 'to', they are called To-Infinitives.

Uses:

- As a Noun, to form the subject of a sentence, with 'it' as the provisional subject.
Ex: It is easy to find her out.
- As the object of a Transitive verb
Ex: Shyam likes to read Science fiction.
- As the complement of a subject
Ex: Your duty is to support her.
- As an adjective
Ex: That is something to remember.
- As an adverb
Ex: She is willing to work.

The Participles:

Participles are words derived from verbs. They can act wither as Verbs or as Adjectives. There are two kinds of Participles. They are,

- The Present Participle
- The Past Participle

The Present Participle:

The Present Participle is formed by adding '-ing' to the verb.

Uses:

- As an adjective
Ex: The barking dog never bites.
- To form the Continuous Tense
Ex: He is writing.
- After the verb of sensation like 'see, hear, feel, smell'
Ex: I saw him returning.
- After the verbs 'catch and find' as the object
Ex: We found him sleeping.
- In a simple sentence, when two actions happen at a time.
Ex: Looking out of the window, I saw a dog.

The Past Participle:

The Past Participle is formed by adding '-ed' or '-en' to the verb.

Uses:



- As an Adjective
Ex: We gave a written complaint.
- To form the Perfect Tenses
Ex: They have arrived.
- In simple sentences, in the passive form
Ex: Accompanied by his officials, the minister came.

The Gerund:

A gerund is formed by adding ‘-ing’ to a verb and is used as a Noun. So it is also called Verbal Noun.

Uses:

- As the Subject of a verb
Ex: Reading is a good habit.
- As the Object of a verb
Ex: I enjoy reading.
- As the Object of a Preposition
Ex: My friend is fond of driving.
- After Possessive Adjectives and Pronouns
Ex: I remember his coming here.
- After the verb ‘mind’
Ex: I don’t mind waiting.
- After the verb ‘remember’ and ‘regret’
Ex: They remember paying the fees.
- As the Perfect Gerund
Ex: He regretted having used bad words.

TRANSITIVE VERB

A Transitive Verb is a verb, which denotes an action which passes over from the doer or subject to an object. In other words, when a verb has an object that receives the action of the verb, we say that the verb is transitive.

Ex: The boy kicks the ball.

Most transitive verbs take a single object. But, certain transitive verbs like ‘give, ask, offer, promise, tell’ take two objects i.e. a Direct Object and an Indirect Object.

Ex: He told me a secret.

INTRANSITIVE VERB

An Intransitive Verb is a verb that denotes an action which does not pass over to an object. It expresses a state or being. An intransitive verb does not allow an object. This is distinct from a transitive verb, which takes one or more objects. The verb property is called transitivity.

Ex: He ran a long distance. (Action)

The baby sleeps. (State)

He is a teacher. (Being)

Some verbs like ‘come, go, fall, die, sleep, lie etc’ denote actions, which cannot be done to anything. They are always Intransitive verbs.

Some verbs allow for objects but do not always require one. In other words, a verb may be used as intransitive in one sentence, and as transitive in another:



Intransitive	Transitive
It is raining.	It is raining cats and dogs.
When he finished the race, he barfed.	When he finished the race, he barfed up his lunch.
Water evaporates when it's hot.	Heat evaporates water.
He has been singing all day.	He has been singing the song all day.
You have grown since I last saw you.	You have grown a beard since I last saw you!

In general, intransitive verbs often involve weather terms, involuntary processes, states, bodily functions, motion, action processes, cognition, sensation, and emotion.

Intransitive used as Transitive:

- In a causative sense, an Intransitive verb becomes Transitive.
 - Birds fly. (Intransitive)
 - The boys fly kites. (Transitive)
- Certain verbs are differentiated as Intransitive and Transitive by their spelling.
 - Sit there. (Intransitive)
 - Set the lamp. (Transitive)
 - (Set – cause to sit)
- By taking in a preposition, certain Intransitive verbs become Transitive.
 - All his friends laughed. (Intransitive)
 - All his friends laughed at him. (Transitive)
- Certain Transitive verbs are used also as Intransitive verbs.
 - He broke the glass. (Transitive)
 - The glass broke. (Intransitive)

THE AUXILIARIES

An auxiliary verb is a verb that adds functional or grammatical meaning to the clause in which it appears. It expresses

- tense
- aspect
- modality
- voice,
- emphasis etc.

Auxiliary verbs usually accompany the main verb. The main verb provides the main semantic content of the clause. Some sentences contain a chain of two or more auxiliary verbs.

Auxiliary verbs are also called

- Helping Verbs
- Helper verbs
- Verbal Auxiliaries

Auxiliary verbs are of two kinds.

- ❖ The Primary Auxiliaries
- ❖ The Modal Auxiliaries

The Primary Auxiliaries:

The Primary Auxiliaries and their other forms are,



✚ Be: be, am, is, are, was, were, being, been

✚ Have: have, has, had, having

✚ Do: do, does, did, doing, done

Primary Auxiliaries change their form according to the number and person of the subject. They are also used to form tenses, interrogatives, negatives and voices within the main verb. They can also become main verbs.

Uses of the Primary Auxiliaries:

Be (is / am / are / was / were):

- As a principal verb
Ex: Gold is a precious metal.
- To form the continuous tenses
Ex: Birds are flying.
- To form the passive voice
Ex: The gate was opened by Ravi.

Have:

- As a principal verb with an object to indicate the sense of possession
Ex: I have an idea.
- To form the perfect tense.
Ex: She has lost her memory.
- To give the meaning to 'experience'.
Ex: We had a good time in Shimla.
- To show compulsion or necessity when used with infinitive (to + verb in the first form)
Ex: He has to be in office by 9 am.
- In the form of clause auxiliary i.e. in the sense of getting something done by someone else.
Ex: We had his house white – washed last week.

Do:

- As a principal verb
Ex: She does her work honestly.
- As an interrogative verb
Ex: Do as he tells you.
- To form questions (Interrogatives)
Ex: Do you like this book?
- Does she work regularly?
Did you attend her marriage?
- To make verbs negative
Ex: I do not (don't) tell him.
- To make sentences emphatic
Ex: You did tell a lie.

The Modal Auxiliaries:

The Modal Auxiliaries are,

- Can - Could
- May - Might



- Shall - Should
- Will - Would
- Ought to
- used to
- need
- dare

Modal Auxiliaries are used before ordinary verbs. They express meanings such as

- ✚ permission
- ✚ possibility
- ✚ certainty
- ✚ necessity

Modal Auxiliaries are termed as 'Defective Verbs', because some parts are wanting in them. They do not change their form according to the number and person of their subjects. They indicate the mode or manner of the actions denoted by the main verb.

Uses of the Modal Auxiliaries:

Can, Could, May, Might:

- ❖ 'Can' expresses ability or capacity.
Ex: I can swim across the river.
- ❖ 'Can' and 'May' are used to express permission.
Ex: Can/May I borrow your pen?
- ❖ In affirmative sentences, to express possibility 'may' is used; to express negative and interrogative 'can' is used.
Ex: It may rain today.
This cannot be true.
- ❖ 'May' is used to express a wish.
Ex: May you be blessed!
- ❖ 'Could' and 'Might' are the past equivalents of 'Can' and 'May'.
Ex: I thought he might be at home.
- ❖ In negative statements, 'could' is used to mean inability.
Ex: He could not solve the quiz.
- ❖ 'Could' is used to express a polite request.
Ex: Could you please help me in this matter?
- ❖ 'Could' and 'might' are used to convey a degree of dissatisfaction and hesitance.
Ex: She could attend the class.
He might pay a little more attention.

Shall, Should, Will, Would:

- ❖ 'Shall' and 'Will' are used to express pure future.
Ex: When shall we meet again?
- ❖ 'Shall' is used in the first person only. It is used in the second and third persons to express a command, promise or threat.
Ex: He shall be excused for apologizing.
- ❖ Questions with 'shall' are raised to ask the will of another.
Ex: Shall we go to movie?
- ❖ 'Will' is used to express volition.



Ex: I will complete your work.

- ❖ 'Will' is used to express a habit.
Ex: She will talk only about cooking.
- ❖ 'Will' is used to express assumption or probability.
Ex: That will be the postman, I think.
- ❖ Questions starting with 'Will' indicate invitation or request.
Ex: Will you have coffee?
- ❖ 'Should' and 'Would' are the past equivalents of 'Shall' and 'Will'.
Ex: He said that he would get it.
- ❖ 'Should' is used to express duty.
Ex: We should obey the rules.
- ❖ In conditional clauses, 'Should' is used to express supposition.
Ex: If it should rain, they will not come.

Must, Ought to:

- ❖ 'Must' is used to express necessity.
Ex: You must do your duties.
- ❖ The past form of 'must' is 'had to'.
Ex: You must be on diet. (Present)
You had to be on diet. (Past)
- ❖ 'Must' is used to mean the obligation on the speaker's side.
Ex: She must finish the problem.
- ❖ 'Must' expresses logical certainty.
Ex: He must have left already.
- ❖ 'Ought to' expresses moral obligation.
Ex: We ought to love our parents.
- ❖ 'Ought to' expresses probability.
Ex: Prices ought to come down.

Used to, Need, Dare:

- ❖ 'Used to' expresses a discontinued habit.
Ex: I used to live there when I was a boy.
- ❖ 'Need' denotes necessity. While conjugating with 'do', it takes other forms like '-s' and '-ed'. Otherwise, it has no other forms.
Ex: He need to go.
Ex: Does she need it?
- ❖ 'Dare' denotes 'courage to do something'. Like 'need', while conjugating with 'do', it takes other forms.
Ex: He dare not take a step.

MOOD

Mood is the mode or manner, in which the action denoted by the verb is represented. The simplest use of a verb is to make a statement of fact or ask a question. But, it may also be used to express a command or a mere supposition. Accordingly, there are three moods in English.

- Indicative Mood
- Imperative Mood



- Subjunctive Mood

The Indicative Mood:

The Indicative Mood makes a direct assertion or puts a question or expresses a supposition. It is used,

- To make a statement of fact as,
Ex: She does to take tea.
The child is alive.
- To ask a question as,
Ex: Why are you late?
Are you well?
- To express a supposition, assuming it as a fact or possibility as,
Ex: If it rains, I shall stay at home.
If you really want it, I shall do it.

The Imperative Mood:

A verb which expresses a command, request, advice, exhortation, entreaty or prayer is in the Imperative Mood. It is used,

- To express a command as,
Ex: Come here.
Try to finish it.
- To express exhortation or advice as,
Ex: Be punctual.
Take care of your health.
- To express entreaty or prayer as,
Ex: Have mercy upon us.
May you live long!
- Sometimes, to express a supposition as,
Ex: Take care of the child, and she will take care of you in future.

The subject of the verb in the Imperative Mood (you) is always omitted. Sometimes, it occurs in First and Third person, with the auxiliary verb 'let' as,

- Ex: Let him go.
Let me write.

The Subjunctive Mood:

Verbs used in a special manner to express wishes, commands and requests are in the subjunctive mood. The forms of the subjunctive are,

Present Subjunctive		Past Subjunctive	
The verb 'be'	Other verbs	The verb 'be'	Other verbs
I be	I write	I were	I wrote
We be	We write	We were	We wrote
You be	You write	You were	You wrote
He be	He write	He were	He wrote
They be	They write	They were	They wrote



The subjunctive is used,

- To express a wish or hope as,
Ex: God bless you!
Long live the King.
- To express desire, intention or resolution as,
Ex: I hope that Mr. Gupta be appointed Chairman
- To indicate a situation which is unreal,
Ex: I wish I were a rich man.
- After 'if', to express improbability or unreality in the present,
Ex: If I were you, I should to do that.
- After 'as if', to indicate unreality,
Ex: He orders me as if I were his wife.
- After 'it is', to imply it is late,
Ex: It is time we started.
- After 'would rather', to indicate preference,
Ex: I would rather think you went by car.

The Subjunctive Mood does not exist in present day English.

ADJECTIVES

An adjective is a describing word. The main syntactic role of an adjective is to qualify a noun or noun phrase, giving more information about the object signified. Adjectives are one of the English parts of speech, although historically they were classed together with the nouns.

Adjectives are words that describe or modify other words. They can identify or quantify another person or thing in the sentence. Adjectives are usually positioned before the noun or the pronoun that they modify. Adjectives are used along with the noun as an Attribute or a Predicate.

Ex: The lazy boy was punished. (Attribute)
The boy was lazy. (Predicate)

Kinds of Adjectives

Adjectives are generally classified into nine parts:

- Adjectives of Quality or Descriptive Adjective
- Adjectives of Quantity
- Adjectives of Number or Numeral Adjectives
- Demonstrative Adjectives
- Interrogative Adjectives
- Distributive Adjectives
- Possessive Adjectives
- Emphasizing Adjectives
- Exclamatory Adjectives

Adjectives of Quality:



These adjectives are used to describe the nature of a noun. They give an idea about the characteristics of the noun by answering the question 'what kind'. (short, tall, ugly, beautiful etc)

Ex: New Delhi is a large city with many historical monuments.

Ex: Sheila is a beautiful woman.

Adjectives formed from Proper Nouns are called Proper Adjectives. They are classified with Adjectives of Quality.

Ex: French wine, Indian tea

Adjectives of Quantity:

These adjectives help to show the amount or the approximate amount of the noun or pronoun. These adjectives do not provide exact numbers; rather they tell us the amount of the noun in relative or whole terms. (All, Half, Many, Few, Little, No, Enough, Great etc.)

Ex: They have finished most of the rice.

Many people came to visit the fair.

Adjectives of Number:

These adjectives are used to show the number of nouns and their place in an order. There are three different sections within adjectives of number; they are -

➔ **Definite Numeral Adjective:** Those which clearly denote an exact number of nouns or the order of the noun.

- One, Two, Twenty, Thirty-Three etc. also known as Cardinals.
- First, Second, Third, Seventh etc. also known as Ordinals.

➔ **Indefinite Numeral Adjective:** Those adjectives that do not give an exact numerical amount but just give a general idea of the amount. (Some, Many, Few, Any, Several, All etc.)

Ex: There were many people present at the meeting.

➔ **Distributive Numeral Adjective:** Those adjectives that are used to refer to individual nouns within the whole amount. (Either, Neither, Each, Another, Other etc.)

Ex: Taxes have to be paid by every employed citizen.

Demonstrative Adjectives:

These adjectives are used to point out or indicate a particular noun or pronoun using the adjectives. (This, That, These and Those)

Ex: I really like those shoes.

These flowers are lovely.

Interrogative Adjectives:

These adjectives are used to ask questions about nouns or in relation to nouns. (Where, What, Which and Whose)

Ex: Where did he say he was going?

Whose pen is this?

Distributive Adjectives:

Distributive adjectives are normally used with singular nouns. They are used to refer to members of a group as individuals. (Each, every, either and neither)

Ex: Each book in the series had a foreword by a noted scholar.

Each participant was asked to complete a survey.



In most cases, “every” and “each” are interchangeable, as far as meaning goes, though they require slightly different constructions:

Ex: Every participant was asked to complete a survey.

Note that it would never be appropriate to use “every of the” – as in, “every of the participants”, which is wrong. “Every” is only used with singular nouns.

The primary difference between “every” and “each” is the degree to which they emphasize the individual, versus the group. “Either” implies one or the other of two options.

Ex: Either of these movies would be interesting to me.

Possessive Adjectives:

Possessive adjectives modify the noun following it in order to show possession. (**my, your, his, her, its, our, your, their**)

Ex: I'll get *my* bag.

Possessive adjectives are different from possessive pronouns.

Ex: This is your (possessive adjective) book and this is mine (possessive pronoun).

‘Its’ and ‘their’ are possessive adjectives.

Ex: **Its** colour is beautiful.

Emphasizing Adjectives:

The words like ‘own’ and ‘very’ are used to give more emphasis. Emphasizing adjectives are modifiers which do not describe a property of the head noun, but which convey the strong feelings of the speaker toward the entity referred to.

Ex: This is my own pen.

Exclamatory Adjectives:

The adjectives which are used to indicate a strong emotion regarding the preceding noun are called as the exclamatory adjectives. Usually the word ‘what’ is used for this purpose.

Ex: What a blessing!

Coordinate Adjectives:

The adjectives which can be re-arranged in the series easily are called Coordinate Adjectives. They are still grammatically sound.

Ex: She was a kind, generous, loving human being.

Non-coordinate Adjectives:

These are those adjectives which cannot be rearranged in the series. These do not use commas to separate the adjectives.

Ex: She has two energetic playful dogs.

CORRECT USAGE OF ADJECTIVES

Certain Adjectives seem to be same in form, but they differ in meaning and usage.

- **Some, Any:** Both the adjectives express quantity or degree. ‘Some’ is used in affirmative sentences and ‘any’ in negative or interrogative sentences.

Ex: I will buy some mangoes.

I will not buy any mangoes.

But ‘any’ is used after ‘if’ in affirmative sentences. ‘Some’ is used in request based questions.

Ex: If you need any money, I will help you.



Will you have some ice-cream?

- **Each, Every:** These adjectives are similar in meaning, but differ in their usage. 'Each' is used in speaking of two or more things. It directs attention to the individuals in the group. It is used when the numbers is definite. 'Every' is stronger than 'Each'. It is used only in speaking of more than two. It is used when the number is definite.
Ex: Every seat was taken.
Each one of these chairs is broken.
- **Little, A little, The little:** The adjective 'little' has a negative meaning. The adjective 'a little' has a positive meaning. It means 'some though not much'. The adjective 'the little' means 'not much, but all there is'.
Ex: There is little hope of his recovery.
A little knowledge is dangerous.
- **Few, A few, The few:** the adjective 'few' has a negative meaning. The adjective 'a few' has a positive meaning. The adjective 'the few' means 'not many, but all there is'.
Ex: Few places in India are clean.
A few people can speak correct English.

~.~.~.~.

ADVERBS

The English word *adverb* derives (through French) from Latin *adverbium*, from *ad-* ("to"), *verbum* ("word", "verb"), and the nominal suffix *-ium*. The term implies that the principal function of adverbs is to act as modifiers of verbs or verb phrases. An adverb is a word that modifies a verb, adjective, another adverb, determiner, noun phrase, clause, or sentence. Adverbs typically express manner, place, time, frequency, degree, level of certainty, etc., answering questions such as

- how?
- in what way?
- when?
- where?
- to what extent?etc.

This function is called the adverbial function, and may be realised by single words (adverbs) or by multi-word expressions (adverbial phrases and adverbial clauses).

✚ Adverbs are traditionally regarded as one of the parts of speech.

Ex: Anil speaks loudly. (how)
It is a very naughty dog. (how far)
The child slept quite soundly. (how far)

✚ Adverbs are chiefly formed by adding to adjectives, nouns or participles.

Ex: Bad – badly (Adj. – Adv.)
Month – monthly (Noun – Adv.)
Hurried – hurriedly (Participle – Adv.)

✚ Some adverbs are formed by adding prepositions to adverbs.

Ex: Hereafter, thereafter, herein

✚ Some adverbs are formed by combining a noun and an adjective.



Ex: Meantime, midnight, otherwise

An adverb may provide information about the manner, place, time, frequency, certainty, or other circumstances of the activity denoted by the verb or verb phrase.

Ex: She sang loudly (*loudly* modifies the verb *sang*, indicating the manner of singing)

We left it here (*here* modifies the verb phrase *left it*, indicating place)

I worked yesterday (*yesterday* modifies the verb *worked*, indicating time)

You often make mistakes (*often* modifies the verb phrase *make mistakes*, indicating frequency)

He undoubtedly did it (*undoubtedly* modifies the verb phrase *did it*, indicating certainty)

Adverbs can also be used as modifiers of adjectives, and of other adverbs, often to indicate degree.

Ex: You are quite right (the adverb *quite* modifies the adjective *right*)

She sang very loudly (the adverb *very* modifies another adverb – *loudly*)

Adverbs can also modify noun phrases, prepositional phrases, or whole clauses or sentences.

Ex: I bought only the fruit (*only* modifies the noun phrase *the fruit*)

She drove us almost to the station (*almost* modifies the prepositional phrase *to the station*)

Certainly we need to act (*certainly* modifies the sentence as a whole)

Adverbs perform a wide range of modifying functions. They may modify noun *phrases*, and so the two functions may sometimes be superficially similar:

Ex: Even camels need to drink.

Even numbers are divisible by two.

Certain adverbs modify a noun.

Ex: The people here are friendly

The show features dances galore

There is a shortage internationally of protein for animal feeds

Adverbs can sometimes be used as predicative expressions. This applies especially to adverbs of location.

Ex: Your seat is there.

Kinds of Adverbs

According to their use, Adverbs are divided into three classes.

- Simple Adverbs
- Interrogative Adverbs
- Relative Adverbs

Simple Adverbs:

Simple Adverbs modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective or an adverb. They are of the following kinds.

- **Adverbs of Time:** Adverbs like 'yesterday', 'already' and 'soon' answer the question 'when'.

Ex: Come here soon.



- **Adverbs of Place:** Adverbs like ‘forward’, ‘back’ and ‘near’ answer the question ‘where’.
Ex: March forward.
- **Adverbs of Manner:** Adverbs like ‘well’, ‘fast’ and ‘quickly’ answer the question ‘how’.
Ex: He took his meals quickly.
- **Adverbs of Degree or Quantity:** Adverbs like ‘almost’, ‘too’ and ‘as’ answer the question ‘how much’, or ‘in what degree’ or ‘to what extent’.
Ex: She is too weak to walk.
- **Adverbs of Number:** Adverbs like ‘again’, ‘once’ and ‘twice’ answer the question ‘how often’.
Ex: I have been there once.
- **Adverbs of Affirmation and Negation:** Adverbs like ‘yes’, ‘certainly’ and ‘surely’ are for Affirmation and ‘no’ and ‘not’ are for Negation.
Ex: He warned me not to be late.

Interrogative Adverbs:

Adverbs which are used in asking questions are called Interrogative Adverbs. They are ‘when, where, why, how and how many’. They denote the place, time, reason, manner, number and degree.

Ex: Why are you late?
How many sisters are you?

Relative Adverbs:

A relative adverb introduces a group of words, or a clause, that tells more about a noun. Relative adverbs can be used instead of a relative pronoun plus a preposition. There are three main relative adverbs: *where*, *when*, and *why*.

Ex: This is the store in which I bought my backpack. (relative pronoun plus preposition)
This is the store where I bought my backpack. (relative adverb)

The relative adverb ‘where’ means “in which” or “at which” and is used to refer to a place.

Ex: This is the place where we met.

The relative adverb ‘when’ means “in which” or “at which” and is used to refer to a time expression.

Ex: Noon is the time when we eat lunch.

The relative adverb ‘why’ means “for which” and is used to refer to a reason.

Ex: I don’t know the reason why Larry isn’t in class today.

Adverbs which modify a word and also join two clauses are called Relative Adverbs.

Ex: I don’t know why he left early.

If three adverbs occur in a sentence, they follow this order – adverb of manner, place and time.

Like Adjectives, some adverbs form their comparative and superlative degrees.

Ex: Bad – worse – worst

~.~.~.~.



ARTICLES

An article is a word, used with a noun to indicate the type of reference being made by the noun. Articles specify grammatical definiteness of the noun. The articles in the English language are *the* and *a/an*. 'An' and 'a' are modern forms of the Old English 'an'. Both 'a' and 'an' survived into Modern English as indefinite articles, used before the consonant and the vowel sound respectively.

Articles play many roles. They are –

- ✚ demonstrative adjective
- ✚ a special part of speech
- ✚ a determiner, combining an article and a demonstrative such as 'this' and 'that'.

Articles are usually characterized into two types.

- Definite Article
- Indefinite Article

The Indefinite Article:

An indefinite article indicates that its noun is not a particular one or ones identifiable to the listener. It is something that the speaker is mentioning for the first time. Its precise identity may be irrelevant. The speaker may be making a general statement about any such thing. English uses *a/an*, from the Old English forms of the number 'one', as its primary indefinite article.

The places where 'A' is used are:

- ⇒ Before a word beginning with a consonant sound.
 - A horse, a man, a yard
- ⇒ Before a word beginning with the sound 'yu'
 - A university, a union, a useful thing
- ⇒ Before a word beginning with the sound 'wu'
 - A one-rupee note, a one-eyed giant
- ⇒ Before a word beginning with a sounded 'h'
 - A hall, a hero, a holiday

The places where 'An' is used are:

- ⇒ Before a word beginning with a vowel sound.
 - An ass, an apple, an uncle, an orange
- ⇒ Before a word beginning with an unsounded 'h'.
 - An hour, an honest, an heir
- ⇒ Before individual letters, spoken with a vowel sound.
 - An M.A., an M.P., an S.P.

Uses of Indefinite Articles according to the context:

The Indefinite Article is used in the sense of:

- Numerical one
Ex: Give me a mango (one mango)
- A certain number
Ex: I saw a beggar.
- A class
Ex: A dog is a faithful animal (meaning the whole class)



- Of the same kind
Ex: Two of a trade seldom agrees.
- To mean 'any'
Ex: A child generally likes to play. (any child)
- When proper noun is used in the sense of a common noun.
Ex: A Daniel comes to judgement. (a very wise judge)
- To mean certain quantity
Ex: We have a couple of dogs at home.
- To mean certain numbers
Ex: A hundred, a million
- To mean price, speed ratio
Ex: 60 kilometers an hour
- Exclamation
Ex: What a pretty girl!

The Definite Article:

A definite article indicates that its noun is a particular one which is identifiable to the listener. It may be something that the speaker has already mentioned, or it may be something uniquely specified. The definite article in English, for both singular and plural nouns, is *the*.

Uses of the Definite Article:

The Definite Article 'The' is used:

- ✓ To refer a particular person or thing, or one already mentioned or one well-known to us,
Ex: Call the boy.
- ✓ When a singular noun or adjective of quality is meant to represent a whole class,
Ex: The lion is the king of animals.
- ✓ Before the names of oceans, seas, rivers, mountain ranges, islands, deserts, winds, seasons etc.
Ex: The Arabian Sea, The Sahara
- ✓ Before certain geographical names.
Ex: The Punjab, The United States
- ✓ Before the titles of books.
Ex: The Ramayana, The Bhagavat Gita
- ✓ Before the names of ships, aeroplanes, buildings, newspapers etc.
Ex: The Indian Express, The Taj Mahal
- ✓ Before superlatives,
Ex: He is the oldest man in our town.
- ✓ Before the names of the unique things,
Ex: The sun, the Prime Minister, the Press, the Army
- ✓ Before the names of important events,
Ex: The French Revolution, the mutiny
- ✓ Before an epithet attached to a proper noun,
Ex: Alexander the great, George the fifth
- ✓ Before a noun when special emphasis is needed,



Ex: This is the thing I wanted.

- ✓ Before the names of a class of people,

Ex: The English, the Hindus

- ✓ Before the names of directions,

Ex: Captain Cook went to the east.

- ✓ To make a proper noun common,

Ex: Kalidasa is the Shakespeare of India.

- ✓ Before the names of things typical of their class,

Ex: Don't play the fool.

The Negative Article:

A negative article specifies none of its noun. It can be regarded as neither definite nor indefinite. It is also considered as a simple determiner rather than an article. In English, this function is fulfilled by 'no', which can appear before a singular or plural noun:

Ex: No man has been on this island.

No dogs are allowed here.

No one is in the room.

The Zero Article:

The zero article is the absence of an article. In languages having a definite article, the lack of an article specifically indicates that the noun is indefinite. Zero articles are linked to nouns lacking a determiner. In English, the zero article rather than the indefinite is used with plurals and mass nouns.

Ex: Visitors end up walking in mud.

Omission of the Article:

The Article is omitted:

- Before Proper, Material and Abstract nouns.

Ex: London, honesty, gold

- Before a noun used in its widest sense.

Ex: Man is mortal.

- In phrases, where the preposition holds its object.

Ex: In jail, to school, by train

- In phrases, where the transitive verb holds its object.

Ex: Catch fire, send word

- Before nouns used as complements.

Ex: He became king.

- Before the names of single mountains and islands.

Ex: Mount Everest, Sri Lanka

- Before the names of continents, countries, cities, days, months, arts, languages, sciences, diseases etc.

Ex: January, English, Malaria

- Before plural nouns used to denote a class.

Ex: Boys go to school every day.

- Before meal time.

Ex: He was at dinner.



PREPOSITIONS

Prepositions are words that introduce information to the reader. They convey

- where something takes place (such as 'at' the store)
- when or why something takes place (such as 'before' dinner) or
- general descriptive information (such as the girl 'with' the doll).

Prepositions are essential because they provide additional and necessary details. There are approximately 80 to 100 prepositions in the English language.

Here are some examples of commonly-used prepositions:

about	Above	across	after	against
along	Behind	below	beneath	beside
besides	between	down	during	except
for	From	in	off	on
onto	opposite	out	outside	till
to	Toward	under	underneath	until
with	Within	without		

Prepositional Phrase:

Prepositions cannot stand alone. They work in groups of words that we call prepositional phrases. A prepositional phrase begins with a preposition and ends in a noun. That noun is called the object of the preposition. Here are some examples of prepositional phrases:

- 'under' the desk
- 'during' the lecture
- 'across' the yard
- 'after' lunch
- 'behind' the tree

Prepositions, in the form of prepositional phrases, provide specific information in a sentence for the reader.

Ex: My mom laughed 'at the joke'.

Kinds of Prepositions:

Prepositions are of different kinds. They are,

- **Compound Prepositions:**
 - Without, within, outside, inside, into, behind, beside, below, across, between, beneath.
- **Double Prepositions:**
 - Outside of, out of, from out, from behind, from beneath, from among, from under.
- **Participle Prepositions:**
 - Considering, during, regarding, accepting, not-withstanding, pending.
- **Phrase Prepositions:**



- By means of, because of, on account of, in opposition to, with regard to, for the sake of, on behalf of, with a view to, in the event of, along with, by way of, by virtue of.

Common use of Prepositions:

At, In:

- 'At' is used with the names of small towns and villages. 'In' is used with the names of big cities and countries.
Ex: He was born at Kabirpur in Sonapat.
- 'At' is used for a point of time. 'In' is used for a period of time.
Ex: I shall see you at 6 o' clock in the evening.

After, In:

- 'After' refers to the past time. 'In' refers to the present time.
Ex: He came back after an hour.
I shall return in a month.

After, Behind:

- 'After' refers to time, order or position. 'Behind' refers to place.
Ex: We ran after the thief.
He was standing behind the wall.

Between, Among:

- 'Between' is used for two persons or things. 'Among' is used for more than two.
Ex: The property was divided between the two brothers.
They divided the property among themselves.

In, Into:

- 'In' shows rest within. 'Into' shows motion inwards.
Ex: There are twenty books in the room.
The dog went into the house.

In, Within, Before:

- 'In' shows at the end of a period of time. 'Within' shows before the end of the period of time. 'Before' refers to a point of time.
Ex: I shall write to you in a week.
I shall let you know within a week.
I shall finish my work before next week.

On, Upon:

- 'On' refers to a thing at rest. 'Upon' refers to a thing in motion.
Ex: The books are on the table.
The lion jumped upon the cat.

Since, For, From:

- 'Since' refers to a point of time. 'For' refers to a period of time. They are used in some forms of perfect tense only. 'From' is used for a point of time in any tense.
Ex: I have been ill since last Monday.
He has been working in this office for five years.
I shall wait for you from Monday to Friday.

Beside, Besides:

- 'Beside' means 'by the side of' or 'in addition to'.



Ex: He was sitting beside his mother.
Besides being punished, he was fined.

By, With:

- 'By' refers to the doer or the agent. 'With' shows the instrument.

Ex: He was killed by his enemy.
He beat me with a stick.

Till, By:

- 'Till' means 'upto'. 'By' means 'not later than'.

Ex: I shall wait for you till 5pm.
I shall come back by 7 o' clock.

Over, Above, Under, Below:

- 'Over' is the opposite of 'Under'. It implies the relation of highest in position or space. 'Above' is the opposite of 'Below'. It shows the rest in a higher position.

Ex: The sky is over our heads.
He is waiting under a tree.
His head is above water.
It is below my prestige to invite her.

CONJUNCTIONS

A Conjunction is a word, which merely joins sentences together, and sometimes words. They combine sentences and make them more compact. Conjunctions are different from Relative Pronouns, Relative Adverbs and Prepositions, which are also connecting words. Conjunctions only join and they do no other work.

Conjunctions are of four kinds. They are,

- Co-ordinating Conjunctions
- Subordinating Conjunctions
- Correlative Conjunctions
- Compound Conjunctions

Co-ordinating Conjunctions:

A co-ordinating conjunction joins together clauses of equal rank. The chief co-ordinating conjunctions are,

Ex: And, but, for, or, nor, also, either...or, neither...nor'

Co-ordinating conjunctions are of four kinds.

- Cumulative or Copulative
- Adversative
- Disjunctive or Alternative
- Illative

Cumulative or Copulative:

They simply add one statement to another.

Ex: He was both fined and imprisoned.
He as well as his brother is intelligent.

Adversative:

They express opposition or contrast between two statements.



Ex: He is slow, but he is sure.
I was annoyed, still I waited.

Disjunctive or Alternative:

They express a choice between two alternatives.

Ex: She must weep, or she will die.
It is neither useful nor essential.

Illative:

They express an inference.

Ex: He will pass for he works hard.
He was found stealing therefore he was fined.

Subordinating Conjunctions:

A Subordinating conjunction joins a clause to another, on which it depends for its meaning. They can be classified into nine kinds, according to their meaning.

Time: When, whenever, till, until, before, after, since, while, as soon as, as long as

Ex: Wait till I return

Cause or Reason: Since, because, as, that etc.

Ex: Let us go to bed as it is twelve.

Result or Consequence: so...that, such...that etc.

Ex: She wept so much that she fell ill.

Purpose: That, so that, in order that etc.

Ex: We eat that we may live.

Condition: If, supporting, unless, provided etc.

Ex: I shall help her if she comes to me.

Contrast or Concession: Though, although, however etc.

Ex: Though he was ill, he went to college.

Comparison: as...as, so...as, than etc.

Ex: A wise enemy is better than a foolish friend.

Manner or content: As, as...so, as though, so far as etc.

Ex: As you sow, so shall you reap.

Place: Where, wherever, whither, whence etc.

Ex: Wherever I went, I found no rest.

Correlative Conjunctions:

Certain conjunctions are used in pairs. They are called correlative conjunctions. They are placed immediately before the words to be connected. They are,

- 'either...or,
- both...and,
- such...as,
- such...that,
- as...as,
- neither...nor,
- so...that,
- not only...but also,
- no sooner...than,
- hardly...when'.



Ex: He is not only a doctor but also a priest.
Both Ram and Ravi have the potential to compete.

Compound Conjunctions:

Many compound expressions are used as conjunctions. They are called Compound Conjunctions. They are,

- in order that
- on condition that
- even if
- so that
- as though
- as well as
- as soon as
- as if etc.

Ex: He looks as if he were tired.
I will forgive you on condition that you do not repeat the mistake.

INTERJECTIONS

An Interjection is a word that expresses some sudden feeling or emotion. Interjections are not grammatically related to the other words in a sentence. They are just exclamatory sounds. They may express,

- Joy – Hurrah! Huzza!
- Sorrow – Alas! Ah me!
- Surprise – Oh! Good Heavens!
- Approval – Bravo! Well done!
- Contempt – For shame! Fie! Fie!
- Calling – Hallo! Hallo!
- Attention – Lo! Listen! Hush!

There are certain phrases which are used like Interjections to express some strong emotion or feeling.

Ex: Oh dear me!
Alack-a-day!
Good-bye!
Good gracious!

DEGREES OF COMPARISON

Adjectives change in form to show comparison. They are called the three Degrees of Comparison.

Ex: Rama's mango is sweet.
Hari's mango is sweeter than Rama's.
Govind's mango is the sweetest of all.

- ✚ In sentence 1, the adjective 'sweet' merely tells us that Rama's mango has the quality of sweetness, without saying how much of this quality it has.



- ✚ In sentence 2, the adjective ‘sweeter’ tells us that Hari’s mango, compared with Rama’s, has more of the quality of sweetness.
- ✚ In sentence 3, the adjective ‘sweetest’ tells us that of all these mangoes Govind’s mango has the greatest amount or highest degree of the quality of sweetness.

- The adjective ‘sweet’ is said to be in the **Positive Degree**. The Positive Degree of an Adjective is the Adjective in its simple form. It is used to denote the mere existence of some quality of what we speak about. It is used when no comparison is made.
- The adjective ‘sweeter’ is said to be in the **Comparative Degree**. The Comparative Degree of an Adjective denotes a higher degree of the quality, and is used when more than two things are compared.
- The adjective ‘sweetest’ is said to be in the **Superlative Degree**. The Superlative Degree of an Adjective denotes the highest degree of the quality, and is used when more than two things are compared.

Formation of Comparative and Superlative:

- ✓ Most adjectives of one syllable, and some of more than one, form the Comparative by adding ‘er’ and the Superlative by adding ‘est’ to the Positive.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Sweet	Sweeter	Sweetest
Bold	Bolder	Boldest
Young	Younger	Youngest
Clever	Cleverer	Cleverest
Kind	Kinder	Kindest

- ✓ When the Positive ends in ‘e’, only ‘r’ and ‘st’ are added.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Brave	Braver	Bravest
White	Whiter	Whitest
Noble	Nobler	Noblest
Large	Larger	Largest
Wise	Wiser	Wisest

- ✓ When the Positive ends in ‘y’, preceded by a consonant, the ‘y’ is changed into ‘i’ before adding ‘er’ and ‘est’.

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

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

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
----------	-------------	-------------



Red	Redder	Reddest
Big	Bigger	Biggest
Hot	Hotter	Hottest
Thin	Thinner	Thinnest
Sad	Sadder	Saddest

- ✓ Adjectives of more than two syllables form the Comparative and Superlative by putting 'more' and 'most' before the Positive.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Beautiful	More beautiful	Most beautiful
Difficult	More difficult	Most difficult
Courageous	More courageous	Most courageous

- ✓ The following adjectives take with 'er' and 'est' or 'more' and 'most'.
Polite, simple, gentle, feeble, narrow, cruel, common, handsome, pleasant, stupid.
- ✓ The following adjectives are compared irregularly, that is, their Comparative and Superlative are not formed from the Positive.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Good, well	Better	Best
Bad, evil, ill	Worse	Worst
Little	Less, lesser	Least
Much	More	Most (quantity)
Many	More	Most (number)
Old	Older, elder	Oldest, eldest

Changing the Degrees in sentences:-

- This house is bigger than that one. (Comparative degree)
This house is not as big as that one. (Positive degree)
- This flower is more beautiful than that. (Comparative)
This flower is not as beautiful as that. (Positive)
- This is the biggest house in this street. (Superlative)
This house is bigger than any other house in this street. (Comparative)
No other house in this street is as big as this one. (Positive)
- This flower is the most beautiful one in this garden. (Superlative)
This flower is more beautiful than any other flower in this garden. (Comparative)
No other flower in this garden is as beautiful as this one. (Comparative)
- Calcutta is one of the largest cities in India.
Calcutta is larger than most other cities in India.
Very few cities in India are as large as Calcutta.
- Sachin Tendulkar is one of the best batsmen in the world.
Sachin Tendulkar is better than most other batsmen in the world.
Very few batsmen in the world are as good as Sachin Tendulkar.

Change the degrees in the given sentences:

1. Anand is taller than Ravi. (into Positive)



2. This doll is not so pretty as that. (into Comparative)
3. No other valley in India is so beautiful as Kashmir. (into Superlative)
4. Kabir is one of the tallest boys in our school. (into Comparative)
5. Mount Everest is higher than any other peak in the world. (into Positive)
6. No other metal is so useful as Iron. (into Comparative)
7. Open rebuke is better than secret love. (into Positive)
8. Jayant is as intelligent as Jakir. (into Comparative)
9. The lotus is prettier than any other flowers. (into Superlative)
10. Hari is the idlest boy in the class. (into Comparative)
11. The Ganges is one of the largest rivers in the world. (into Positive)
12. Tea is not so harmful as coffee. (into Comparative)
13. Dryden was the best satirist among all English poets. (into Comparative)
14. Ulysses was braver than any other hero of Greece. (into Positive)
15. Lead is heavier than any other metal. (into Superlative)
16. Milk is the best diet. (into Comparative)
17. Iron is more useful than all the metals. (into Positive)
18. Somu is older than any other boys in our class. (into Superlative)
19. Solomon was one of the wisest men. (into Comparative)
20. Kashmir is the coolest place in India. (into Positive)





SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

A sentence is a set or group of words which makes complete sense. A sentence is divided into two main parts – the Subject and the Predicate. The **subject** of a complete sentence is who or what the sentence is about, and the **predicate** tells about that subject.

Ex: Dogs / bark.

S P

The sun / gives light.

S P

How to do it:

Ex: The dog ran.

The dog is the subject of the sentence, because the sentence is telling something about that dog. And what is it telling? It says that the dog ran. So in this example the subject is “dog” and the predicate is “ran.”

Ex: The dog ran after the cat.

Here we have more detail, but the subject is still “dog.” How can we know that the subject is “dog” and not “cat” since the sentence seems to be about both animals? To determine the subject of a sentence, first find the verb and then ask “who?” or “what?” In this sentence, the verb is “ran.” If we ask, “who ran?” the answer is, “the dog ran.” This is how we know that “dog” is the subject of the sentence.

Ex: Yesterday after lunch the students were complaining about the recess.

The sentence is telling about several different things: yesterday, lunch, students, and recess. How can we know which of those is the subject of the sentence? We first find the verb: “were complaining.” Next we ask, “who were complaining?” And immediately we recognize that “the students” are the subject of the sentence. The predicate always includes the verb, and tells something about the subject; in this example, we see that the students “were complaining about the short recess.”

Ex: Go sit down in that chair.

In some sentences the subject is not so easy to find. In this sentence there is no subject. We see the verb is “go sit,” but who is doing that action? The only noun present is “chair” but certainly the chair is not about to “go sit!” In this sentence the speaker is giving a direct command to another person, and might have said, “You go sit down in that chair.” The rule to remember for a sentence that is a command is that if the subject is not named, we can assume that subject is “you.”

Ex: There were three different desserts arranged on the table.

Another example to watch for is a sentence that begins with “there” and has a form of the verb “to be.” Even though the word “there” is at the beginning of the sentence, next to the verb, it is not the subject. See if you can find the subject and predicate in this sentence: First find the verb: “were arranged.” Then ask, “who or what were arranged?” The answer is “three different desserts,” which is the correct subject.

Ex: The light blue shirt with the colorful pattern was her favourite top.

The subject of a sentence includes the noun or pronoun along with all the words that modify, or describe it. The simple subject is the noun or pronoun all by itself. In this sentence “shirt” is the simple subject, and all the descriptive words tell us more about that shirt. The subject is “shirt” and all its modifiers (the light blue shirt with the colorful pattern), but the simple



subject is simply “shirt.” The predicate of a sentence is based on the simple predicate, which is the verb. All the other words in the predicate tell more about the subject, and some of the words can modify the verb. In the example above, the word “was” is the verb, and therefore it is the simple predicate.

Ex: Bobby and his friends ran outside to play basketball.

Sometimes a sentence has a compound subject, when there are two or more nouns in the subject. The verb is “ran” and we ask, “who ran?” The answer is “Bobby and his friends” which comprise the subject.

Ex: The little girl picked up her doll and climbed into bed.

A compound predicate includes two or more verbs that relate to the subject. The verbs are “picked up” and “climbed.” We ask, “who picked up? who climbed?” The answer is the same for both verbs: “the little girl.”

Exercise:

Pick out the subject and the predicate in the given sentences:-

1. Little Jack sat in a corner eating his pie.
2. The prince slew his brother
3. I ordered him to halt
4. The plague broke out in the city
5. Krishna wishes me to play for his team
6. While we were at the movies, my friends and I were eating popcorn with lot of salt.
7. The man holding the boxes is next in line.
8. The rapidly approaching train swerved on the rickety tracks, shivering.

KINDS OF SENTENCES (SIMPLE, COMPOUND AND COMPLEX)

There are three kinds of sentences.

- Simple Sentence
- Compound Sentence and
- Complex Sentence.

Simple Sentence:

A Simple Sentence is one which has only one Subject and one Predicate. It has only one Finite Verb. It contains one independent clause, i.e. one subject and one verb.

Ex: His courage won.

Justin plays football

Compound Sentence:

A Compound Sentence is made up of two or more Principal or Main Clauses with or without subordinate clauses. It has two parts. The two parts are joined by a co-coordinating conjunction. It uses two or more independent clauses connected with a comma and connector. It is written as SV, [connector,] SV. Connectors with comma: for, nor, or, and, but, so, yet

Ex: David runs daily in the morning, and doctors see it as a good habit.

Connectors with semicolon and comma: moreover, however, therefore, nonetheless, nevertheless.

Ex: Working beyond the office hours seems more productive; however, it's harmful in a long time.



Complex Sentence:

A Complex Sentence consists of one Main Clause and one or more Subordinate Clauses. It comprises one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses. Here, the connectors must be used at the beginning of the dependent clause. It is written as;

- SV [connector] SV
- [Connector] SV, SV
- S, [connector] SV, V.

Connectors for this pattern: because, although, even though, however, wherever, how, where, whether, unless, that, which, who, whom, after, if, as, before, whereas, while, since, when, so that, whenever etc.

Ex: We should do exercise daily because it makes us fit and healthy.

Although packed food tastes delicious, I like fresh and organic food.

Smith, because of his expertise in project management, offered help in preparing a presentation for the new project.

You can drink it whenever you want

Although you are fit and healthy, you should avoid junk food for a healthy future.

Kinds of Subordinate Clauses:

- Noun Clause
- Adjective Clause and
- Adverb Clause.

Noun Clause:

A Noun Clause is a subordinate clause which does the work of a noun in a Complex Sentence. It can act in five different places;

- Subject of a verb.
- Object of a transitive verb.
- Object of a preposition.
- In Apposition to a Noun or Pronoun.
- The Complement of a verb of incomplete predication.

Ex: He says that he won't go.

No one knows who he is.

Adjective Clause:

An Adjective Clause is introduced by a Relative Pronoun or by a Relative Adverb. (that, who, which, where, when, why)

Ex: The time when the boat leaves is not fixed.

The house where the accident occurred is nearby.

Adverb Clause:

An Adverb Clause is one which does the work of an Adverb. It may modify some verb, adjective or adverb in the main clause.

Ex: Don't talk while she is singing.

You can put it wherever you like.

I shall help you because I like you.

Exercise:

Identify the kind of the given sentences. (Simple, compound or complex)



1. Seeing the rain coming on, we took shelter under a tree.
2. He finished his exercise and put away his books.
3. He confessed his guilt.
4. He said that he was innocent.
5. Either Shirin will come or she will send a letter.
6. If they are at home, I shall see them.

TRANSFORMING THE KIND OF A SENTENCE (SIMPLE, COMPOUND & COMPLEX)

Changing Simple Sentences into Compound Sentences:

A simple sentence has just one clause.

Ex: He went to the market.
She recognized them at once.
I have paid the fee.

A compound sentence has two or more coordinate clauses connected by a coordinating conjunction. Examples of such connecting expressions are: *and, but, or, for, so, yet, either...or, neither...nor, both...and*

We can convert a simple sentence into a compound sentence by expanding a word or phrase into a coordinate clause.

Ex: She came here to see me. (Simple)

She came here **and** saw me. (Compound sentence)

Ex: **In spite of** his hard work, the boy didn't succeed. (Simple sentence)

The boy worked hard, **but** he didn't succeed. (Compound sentence)

Ex: The teacher praised the boy for his diligence. (Simple sentence)

The boy was diligent, **so** the teacher praised him. (Compound sentence)

Ex: **Having finished** their work, the masons went home. (Simple sentence)

The masons finished their work **and** went home. (Compound sentence)

Ex: **In spite of his fame**, he cannot be considered as a writer. (Simple sentence)

He is famous **but** he cannot be considered as a writer. (Compound sentence)

Exercise:

Rewrite the following Simple Sentences into Compound Sentences:

1. In the tower sat the poet gazing on the sea.
2. To everyone's surprise, the project completely failed.
3. Seeing the rain coming on, we took shelter under a tree.
4. Besides educating the nephew, he also set him up in business.
5. Being occupied with important matters, he had no leisure time to see us.
6. In spite of his popularity he cannot be called a great writer.
7. With all his learning, he was far from being a pedant.
8. Little Jack sat in a corner eating his pie.
9. With a great effort, he lifted the box.
10. By his pleasant manners, he gained many friends.
11. On account of his negligence, the company suffered heavy losses.
12. His friend having helped him, he is prospering.
13. Against the wishes of his family he left school.



14. The man, being hungry, ate too much.
15. Hearing the father's footsteps, the boy ran away.
16. Being a cripple, he cannot ride a horse.
17. Finding himself in difficulty, he went to his teacher for help.
18. In the event of such a thing happening, I should take long leave.
19. Through no fault of his own he has become very poor.
20. His swords having broken, he was left aloof.

Rewrite the following Compound Sentences into Simple Sentences:

1. He finished his exercise and put away his books.
2. Not only did his father give him money, but his mother did too.
3. She was a mere girl but offered to fight the murderer.
4. They must not be late or they will be punished.
5. You must either pay the bill at once or return the goods.
6. We must eat or we cannot live.
7. They were poor and often suffered great hardship.
8. The prince slew his brother and became king in his place.
9. This coat cannot be mine for it is too big.
10. This General fought bravely therefore the king made him Commander-in-chief.
11. This must not occur again or you will be dismissed.
12. He granted the request for he was unwilling to disappoint his friend.
13. He is rich yet he is not contented.
14. Make haste or else you will be late.
15. The President came into the hall and everyone rose from his seat.
16. Be good and you will be happy.
17. I ordered him to halt but he took no notice.
18. The plague broke out in the city and the people moved out into the jungle.
19. He neither returned the books nor paid the amount.
20. We must hurry and we shall escape the rain.

Changing Simple Sentences into Compound Sentences:

A simple sentence can be converted into a complex sentence by expanding a word or phrase into a complex sentence. The complex sentence can be a noun clause, adjective clause or adverb clause.

Ex: He confessed his guilt. (Simple sentence)

He confessed **that he was guilty.** (or)

He confessed **that he had committed a crime.**

Ex: He bought his uncle's factory. (Simple sentence)

He bought the factory **that belonged to his uncle.**

Ex: He worked hard to pass the test. (Simple sentence)

He worked hard **that he might pass the test.** (Complex sentence)

Ex: Only Hindus can enter this temple. (Simple sentence)

If you are not a Hindu, you cannot enter this temple. (Complex sentence)

Ex: In his childhood, Lincoln did not go to school. (Simple sentence)

When he was a child, Lincoln did not go to school. (Complex sentence)



Ex: On seeing the lion, the hunter climbed up a tree. (Simple sentence)

When he saw the lion, the hunter climbed up a tree. (Complex sentence)

Ex: In spite of the inflation, the standard of living has gone up. (Simple sentence)

Although there is inflation, the standard of living has gone up. (Complex sentence)

Exercise:

Rewrite the following Simple Sentences into Complex Sentences:

1. He confessed his guilt.
2. On the arrival of the mails the ship will leave.
3. Only Indians are admitted.
4. The management is thoroughly bad.
5. A man's modesty is in inverse proportion to his ignorance.
6. Krishna wishes me to play for his team.
7. I expect to meet Prem tonight.
8. Our friends will hear of our success.
9. The man near me is my brother.
10. Our patron is a man of blameless life.
11. Your father is the man to help you in this matter.
12. The class room is not the place for the students to play in.
13. That is not the way to answer.
14. My friend, the magistrate of this place, is on leave.
15. Being ill-treated by his master, h ran away.
16. With your permission I will go away.
17. He is too lazy to succeed.
18. Till my arrival, wait here.
19. After his father's death he left Mumbai.
20. The exact date of birth of Sheela is not known.

Rewrite the following Complex Sentences into Simple Sentences:

1. He said that he was innocent.
2. It is a pity that we should have to undergo this disgrace.
3. Tell me where you live.
4. How long shall I stay is doubtful.
5. She asked why I came.
6. We hope that better times will come.
7. The news that the enemy landed spread like fire.
8. He died in the village where he was born.
9. The moment which is lost is lost forever.
10. They that are healthy have no need of physician.
11. As I was unable to help in any other way, I gave her some money.
12. We came to a hut where a peasant lived.
13. The exact time when this accident occurred is uncertain.
14. I have no advice that I can offer you.
15. This is the place where we stay.



16. The smell which comes from this drain is very bad.
17. I saw man who was full blind.
18. A city that is set on a hill cannot be hid.
19. Since I am unable to get much, I accept little.
20. Although he has failed twice he will try again.

Changing Compound Sentences into Complex Sentences:

A compound sentence consists of two or more independent clauses. A complex sentence consists of one main clause and one or more dependent clauses.

- Ex: Buy two shirts and get one free. (Compound sentence)
If you buy two shirts, you get one free. (Complex sentence)
- Ex: He tried his best, but he didn't succeed.
Though he tried his best, he didn't succeed.
- Ex: The clown entered the circus ring and the children started clapping.
When the clown entered the circus ring, the children started clapping.
- Ex: Take care of the pence and the pounds will take care of themselves.
If you take care of the pence, the pounds will take care of themselves.
- Ex: You have to hurry or you will miss the bus.
If you do not hurry you will miss the bus.
- Ex: The battle has been won but the war isn't over yet.
Though the battle has been won, the war isn't over yet.
- Ex: The country has made huge progress, but we still have a long way to go.
Although the country has made huge progress, we still have a long way to go.
- Ex; You have to be 18 years old or you can't vote.
If you are under 18, you can't vote.
- Ex: Leprosy is curable and everybody knows this.
Everybody knows that leprosy is curable.
- Ex: He is a magician from Turkey and he has performed all over the world.
He is a magician from Turkey who has performed all over the world.

Exercise:

Rewrite the following Compound Sentences into Complex Sentences:

1. Search his pockets and you will find the watch.
2. Do as I tell you or you will regret it.
3. The lion was wounded but not killed.
4. Waste not, want not.
5. He aimed at winning the prize and he worked hard.
6. She wishes to become learned therefore she is studying hard.
7. Keep quiet or you will be punished.
8. Either Shirin will come or she will send a letter.
9. Give me the book and I will read it.
10. He is deaf but he will always pretend to hear.
11. The boy was tired therefore he went to bed.
12. Be kind and help me.
13. You ordered the goods and so they have been sent.



14. The master is nearly blind and the boys are very sorry for him.
15. Send me the gun and I will mend it.
16. They were waiting for a long time and so they shouted.
17. I do not like his lectures ad so I don't attend them.
18. Sri Lanka went in first on a very wet wicket and so they lost the match.
19. We met Mr. Pandit and he introduced us to his family.
20. Time flies fast yet it sometimes appears to move slowly.

Rewrite the following Complex Sentences into Compound Sentences:

1. I am certain that you have made mistakes.
2. I am glad that he has recovered from illness.
3. We can prove that the earth is round.
4. I have found the book that I have lost.
5. As soon as he got the telegram, he left in a taxi.
6. She worked hard so that she might win the prize.
7. If they are at home, I shall see them.
8. Unless we do our work well, our master will be angry with us.
9. We selected this bicycle after we had tried many times.
10. As he was not there, we spoke with his brother.
11. Although there seems to be a danger, they are sure of reaching the place.
12. Though the sky falls, the reporters will not be frightened.
13. When you come on for leisure, have a sip of tea.
14. If you eat too much, you will be ill.
15. I struck him because he obstructed my path.
16. They went to war that they might extend their empire.
17. I know what you told him.
18. As he was ambitious, I disobeyed him.
19. However clever you may be, you cannot succeed without putting effort.
20. You may go when you have finished your work.

ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE

A Transitive Verb has two voices – the Active and the Passive.

Ex: The hunter shot the lion. (Active)

The lion was shot by the hunter. (Passive)

Both the sentences have the same meaning. But in the first sentence, the Subject (hunter) is the doer of the action (shot). In the second sentence, the Subject (the lion) is the sufferer or receiver of the action (was shot).

A Verb is said to be in the Active Voice when the person or thing denoted by the Subject acts or is active. A Verb is said to be in the Passive Voice when the person or thing denoted by the Subject does not act, but suffers the action done by something or by someone.

The following table shows how the verb is in Active Form and in Passive Form.

Tenses	Active	Passive
Simple Present	eats eat	is eaten are eaten



Simple Past	ate	Was eaten / were eaten
Present Perfect	Has eaten	Has been eaten
	Have eaten	Have been eaten
Past Perfect	Had eaten	Had been eaten
Present Continuous	am / is / are eating	is being eaten
		are being eaten
Past Continuous	Was /were eating	Was being eaten
		Were being eaten
Simple Future	Will / shall / can / eat	Will be / shall be / can be / eaten
Modal Perfect	Will have eaten	Will have been eaten

Change the following sentences into Passive voice:

1. Mohan reads novels.
2. Children are plucking flowers in the park.
3. They have done their home work.
4. Women are washing their clothes.
5. She has bought a cat.
6. They have stolen our books.
7. Who has written this letter?
8. Who discovered America?
9. A mad dog bit his sister.
10. The boys were flying kites.
11. The farmers were ploughing their fields.
12. They had done their duty.
13. She had not confessed her guilt.
14. I shall write a letter to her.
15. We shall play the match tomorrow.
16. The teacher will punish us for telling lies.
17. We shall serve out country.
18. You will have finished this work by tomorrow.
19. They kept us waiting.
20. The mason is building the house.
21. The king gave her a reward.
22. John gave him a book.
23. The teacher told us a story.
24. They painted the doors green.
25. I cannot agree your proposal.

Change the following sentences into Active voice:

1. A lion may be helped even by a little mouse.
2. The king was welcomed by the people.
3. My cares are left behind.
4. He was taken as a thief.
5. He was known to be a kind man.



6. Men have been ruined by gambling.
7. War was declared against Germany by England.
8. A present was brought for her by her lover.
9. He was made General.
10. By whom was this letter written?
11. We shall be cursed by everyone.
12. The robber has been caught by the police.
13. By whom were you taught Latin?
14. Why were you punished by the teacher?
15. I was struck by her horrid look.
16. Another chance was given him by his employer.
17. She was dismissed from service.
18. A poor blind beggar was knocked down by a bus.
19. The car was started with great difficulty.
20. The lion was caught in a trap.
21. Three doses are to be taken daily.
22. He was buried secretly.
23. He was greatly distressed by the news.
24. Our action was justified by the facts.
25. Not a word was spoken by the criminal in self-defence.

SENTENCE PATTERN

A sentence pattern is an arrangement of words. This arrangement needs to be in a grammatically correct structure. It means the placement of verbs and nouns should be correct to form a meaningful sentence.

Basic parts of the sentence patterns:

- In English, if you want to write a sentence, you have to use two important parts which are subjects and verbs. When put together, they will express your thoughts in an understandable sentence. Here, a subject is used either a noun or pronoun form and says what or who is doing an action. And the verb represents the action or a state what is happening, for example, “drink” is an action while “depend” can be said a state verb.
- A good example of a simple sentence containing a subject and a verb is “Smith walked.” In this example, Smith is a subject who is doing an action, i.e. “walked”.
- In actual use, we don’t speak or write such short sentences. Because we would want to explain the idea in a more clear manner or emphasis on a particular subject or an action. For example, when we see a sentence like “Smith walked.”, we would have questions like “to where?”, “how much?”, “with how much intensity?”, “with whom?” etc.
- To answer these questions, we generally use more words like modifiers, comparative words, phrases etc. For example, the new sentence with an adverb would be “Smith walked swiftly”.

Basic Patterns:

There are five components in a sentence.



Subject: Subject consists of nouns or pronouns. It occurs before a verb.

Verb: Verb consists of auxiliaries finite verbs.

- Primary Auxiliaries: am, is are, was, were, has, have, had, does, do, did
- Modal Auxiliaries: can, could; will, would; shall, should; may, might; must
- Semi-Modals / Quasi Modals: dare to; need to; used to; ought to
- Finite verbs: sing, play, write, make, dance, leave, create, etc.

Object: Object consists of nouns or noun phrases or noun clauses.

Direct Object: Direct Object answers the question ‘what’ after the Verb

Indirect Object: Indirect Object answers the question ‘whom’

Complement: Complement occurs from the word ‘complete’. It completes the meaning in the sentence. It complements the subject. It tells about the subject. Without it, the sentence is incomplete or the meaning changes. The verb usually is ‘be-verbs’, forms, grow, become, seem etc.

Adjunct: Adjunct answers the questions ‘where? when ? how ? why?’. The absence of Adjunct does not change the meaning of the sentence.

Pattern – I: S+V

	S	V
1.	Raja	talks
2.	They	are listening
3.	We	were arguing
4.	People	were celebrating
5.	Mahesh	has played
6.	We	cooked
7.	The thief	ran away
8.	She	will go
9.	I	shall get up
10.	He	is sleeping

Pattern – II: S+V+O

	S	V	O
1.	Hemanth	irons	his shirt.
2.	Saraswati	sings	a song.
3.	He	handles	the computer.
4.	They	manufacture	tyres.
5.	We	received	the letter.

Pattern – III: S+V+C

e.g.	S	V	C
	They	are	players;
	He	is	wise;
	I	am	an Indian;
	It	grew	dark;
	The class	became	noisy;
	It	seems	absurd;
	She	was	angry;

Pattern – IV: S+V+DO+IO



	S	V	DO (what)	IO (whom)
1.	I	gave	a pen	to him
2.	He	bought	a saree	for his wife.
3.	He	sold	his cycle	to me.
4.	They	granted	leave	to me.
5.	They	presented	a car	to him.

Pattern – V:

	S	V	IO	DO
1.	I	gave	him	a pen.
2.	He	bought	his wife	a saree.
3.	He	sold	me	his bicycle.
4.	They	granted	me	leave.
5.	She	gave	me	coffee.

Pattern – VI:

e.g.

S	V	O	C
They	called	Einstein	a genius;
Mother	keeps	her kitchen	clean;
We	named	the puppy	Rexy;
I	found	him	crying;
They	elected	Rahim	leader;

- same person / thing
- with C, incomplete sentence

but in

S	V	DO	IO
We	presented	a watch	to him
Mother	gave	a cake	to me
The President	delivered	a speech	to the audience

both are different.

Pattern – VII:

[With Adjunct (A)]

Examples of Adjunct:

How?	Where?	When?	Why?
by bus / cycle	here, there	now, later	due to fever
through efforts	everywhere	after 4 years	through floods
by mixing	in the sky	when young	under compulsion
by hard work	at home	in the morning	carefully
eagerly	at school	rarely, often	

Sentences with Adjunct:

S+V+A - She / comes / every day.

V+A - Sit / here.

S +V+O+A - He / drives / the car / slowly.

S +V+C+ A - Muthu / has been / an officer / for 10 years.



S+ V+DO+ IO+ A – We / present / gifts / to our friends / on birthdays.

A+ A S+ V+ O - This morning / at five / I / heard / a noise.

S+ A+ V+ A+ A - We / rarely / go / to the beach / during weekends.

A +A+ S+ V+ DO+ IO - Every year / on New Year’s eve / they / distribute / cake and sweets / to all the guests.

A+ A+ S+ V+ O+ A+ A - Every morning / at five / the Mullah / chants / prayers / at the mosque / without fail.

A+ S+ V+ O+ C+ A - In the end, the judge / declared / the accused / innocent / after the trial.

Exercise:

Identify the pattern of the given sentences:-

1. He was going to school.
2. I met my friend at the market.
3. Velu grew tired after the match.
4. Reading made him a complete man.
5. They named this child Ria.
6. Ram’s father is a lawyer.
7. He sang me a song melodiously.
8. This shoe is large.
9. His father gave him his school bag.
10. I shall meet you tomorrow.

TENSE FORMS

Tenses refer to the time of any action. The verb in the sentence undergoes the changes and these changes are called Conjugation. There are three main tenses such as Present, Past and Future.

Present Tense Forms:

Simple Present Tense: Subject + Verb in the Present + Others

Ex: He writes a letter.

We play cricket every day.

When the subject is singular, always add letter ‘s’ or ‘es’ to the first form of a verb root.

Ex: She eats. He drinks. It sleeps. I eat. You eat. We eat.
They eat.

The Simple Present Tense is used:

To express a habitual / repeated action.

Ex: He drinks tea every morning.

I get up every day at five o’ clock.

To express general truths as,

Ex: The sun rises in the east.

Honey is sweet.

To express what is actually taking place in the present.

Ex: Here comes the bus.

There she goes!

To express a future event that is part of a fixed time or fixed programme.

Ex: The next flight is at 7.00 tomorrow morning.



The match starts at 9 o' clock.

To begin Imperative sentences.

Ex: Always speak the truth.
Obey your elders.

Present Continuous Tense: Subject + 'be' verb + 'ing form of the main verb
(is/am/are + verb + ing)

Ex: I am watching TV now.
We are watching TV now.

Present Continuous Tense is used:

For an action going on at the time of speaking.

Ex: She is singing now.
The boys are playing hockey.

For a temporary action which may not be actually happening at the time of speaking.

Ex: I am reading *David Copperfield*.
India is exporting onions to the middle east.

To express an action definitely planned for the near future.

Ex: I am going to the cinemas tonight.
My uncle is arriving tomorrow.

Present Perfect Tense: Subject + has/have + past participle of the verb

Ex: He has won a prize.
I have taken a dose of medicine.

Present Perfect Tense is used:

To express an action that has been recently completed.

Ex: We have won the match.

To express past actions whose time is not given and not definite.

Ex: I have seen Sarla in the garden.
I have seen this movie.

To express an action that began in the past and still continuous.

Ex: He has worked in this school for five years.
I have not seen him since last Wednesday.

Present Perfect Continuous Tense: Subject + has/have+ been + verb + ing

Ex: I have been flying a kite since 2 o' clock.
It has been raining for two hours.

Present Perfect Continuous Tense is used:

To describe an action that began in the past is still continuing and may extend into the future.

Ex: It has been raining since Tuesday.
She has been waiting for you for three hours.

Past Tense Forms:

Simple Past Tense: Subject + Past tense of the main verb

Ex: I visited Agra last month.
He came here yesterday.

The Past Tense is used:

To express an action completed in the past with reference to the time of speaking.



Ex: You reached the school late on that day.
An accident took place in front of our house.

To express habitual or regular action in the past.

Ex: I went out for a walk daily in the morning.
He studied many hours every day.

To express an event which occurred at a particular point in the past.

Ex: My mother came back home yesterday.
She walked very slowly.

Past Continuous Tense: subject + was/were + verb + ing

The Past Continuous is used to denote an action going on at sometime in the past. The time of the action may or may not be indicated.

Ex: It was getting darker.
We were watching TV.

To describe an action going on at a point of time or over a period of time in the past.

Ex: I was resting the whole day.
The light went out while I was reading.

To describe an action which was in progress when another action took place.

Ex: They were sleeping when the thief entered the bedroom.

Past Perfect Tense: Subject + had + Past participle of the verb

The Past Perfect Tense expresses an action completed before another action took place.

Ex: When he came to me, I had posted the letter.
The match had begun before I reached the ground.

In a simple sentence we never use the past perfect tense unless it has in it some such words as; still, before, never, already etc.

Ex: The mother had already cooked the food.
She had never seen such a terrible sight before.

Past Perfect Continuous Tense: Subject + had + been + Present Participle of the verb

The Past Perfect Continuous Tense expresses an action that had been going on for some time in the past.

Ex: They had been building that bridge since 1980.
Children had been playing since morning.

Future Tense Forms:

Simple Future Tense: Subject + will/shall + verb

To express actions in the future

Ex: I shall meet you tomorrow.
They will arrive soon.

To express habitual action in the future.

Ex: The rainy season will come.

To express the speaker's opinions or assumptions about the future. Verbs such as think, believe, expect, hope, suppose etc., are used.

Ex: I expect he will do better next time.
I suppose they will bring enough food for all.

Future Continuous Tense: Subject + will/shall + be + verb + ing



To express an action which will occur in the usual course events.

Ex. She will be staying here till Sunday.

I will be meeting him tomorrow.

To express future without intention.

Ex. He will not be staying long.

Future Perfect Tense: Subject + will/shall + have + Past participle of the verb

The Future Perfect Tense is used to indicate the completion of an action by a certain future time.

Ex: I shall have finished the job by 10 am tomorrow.

Before you go to see him, he will have left the place.

Future Perfect Continuous Tense: Subject + will/shall + have + been + verb + ing

The Future Perfect Continuous Tense is used to express an action that will have been going on at the same time in the future.

Ex: The boys will not have been flying kites since noon.

We shall have been waiting for you for a long time.

Fill in the blanks with suitable tense forms

1. We ----- cricket every day. (play)
2. The next flight ----- at 7.00 tomorrow morning. (be)
3. I ----- him since last Wednesday. (see)
4. He ----- in this school for five years. (work)
5. It ----- for two hours. (be)
6. They ----- when the thief entered the bedroom. (sleep)
7. The match ----- before I reached the ground. (begin)
8. I ----- him tomorrow. (be)
9. I ----- the job by 10 am tomorrow. (finish)
10. She ----- here till Sunday. (stay)

DIRECT AND INDIRECT SPEECH

Study the following sentences:

1. Ashok said, "I am working hard for the examination".
2. Ashok said that he was working hard for the examination.

In the first sentence, the actual words of the speaker are quoted. This is called **Direct Speech**.

In the second sentence, the substance of what the speaker said without quoting the exact words is given. This is called **Indirect (Reported) Speech**.

Rules for changing Direct into Indirect Speech:

When changing the Direct Speech into Indirect, certain grammatical changes have to be made. If the Reporting Verb is a Past Tense, the tense of the Verb in the Reported Speech must be changed to the Past Tense. To work out his rule in detail, the following special rule must be observed.

The Present Tense (in the Reported Speech) must be changed to corresponding past form as –

Present Form	Past Form
Shall	should



come	came
will	would
may	might
can	could
is coming	was coming
has come	had come
has been coming	had been coming

The Past Continuous Tense (in the Reported Speech) must be changed to the Past Perfect Continuous as,

Ex: He said, "Sita was dancing".
He said that Sita had been dancing.

If the Reported Speech relates to some universal or habitual fact, the Simple Present Tense in the Reported Speech remains unchanged; as,

Ex: He said, "Man is mortal".
He said that man is mortal.

If the Reporting Verb is a Present or Future Tense, the tense of the Verb in the Reported Speech is not changed at all.

Ex: The servant says, "Tea is ready".
The servant says that tea is ready.

Pronouns and Possessive Adjectives of the First and Second Persons in Direct Speech, are changed into the Third Person in Indirect Speech.

First and Second Person	Third Person
I, You, My, Your (Singular)	he, she, his, her
We, You, Our, Your (Plural)	they, their

Ex: Rama said, "I am ill".
Rama said that he was ill.

Ex: She said, "My pen is lost".
She said that her pen was lost.

Ex: I said to the boys, "You should do your duty".
I said to the boys that they should do their duty.

If the person addresses reports the speech, the Second Person is changed to First.

Ex: He said to me, "You are stupid".
He told me that I was stupid.

In the Reported Speech, the words expressing nearness are changed into words expressing distance.

Direct Speech	Indirect Speech
Now	Then
This	That
These	Those
Hither	Thither
Here	There
Hence	Thence
Thus	So



Today	That day
Tomorrow	The next day
Yesterday	The previous day
Last night	The previous night
Ago	before

Ex: The teacher said, "I am busy now".
The teacher said that she was busy then.

Ex: She said to her friend, "It may rain tomorrow".
She told her friend that it might rain the next day.

Statements in the Indirect Speech are generally introduced by the Conjunction 'that'.

Ex: The man said, "I know the place well".
The man said that he knew the place well.

While changing a Question into an Indirect Speech,

- The introductory verb is changed to asked, inquired, demanded, etc.
- Whether or if is used after such introductory verbs.
- The interrogation mark should be removed.

Ex: He said to me, "Do you know the way?"
He inquired me whether I knew the way.

Ex: Bavi said to me, "When will you return?"
Bavi asked me when I would return.

In reporting a command or Request,

- The introductory verb is changed into request, beg, implore, entreat, order, command, advise, threaten, etc.
- The verb in the Reported Speech is put in the Infinitive.

Ex: I said to the teacher, "Please explain once again".
I requested the teacher to explain once again.

Ex: He said to the servant, "Leave my house at once".
He ordered the servant to leave his house at once.

When 'let' in the Direct Speech expresses a proposal or suggestion, 'should' is used in the Reported Speech and the Reporting Verb is changed into propose or suggest.

Ex: She said to us, "Let us have some music".
She proposed to us that we should have some music.

When 'let' does not express a proposal, it should be changed into might or might be allowed, or into some other Verb according to the sense.

Ex: He said, "Let me have some tea".
He wished that he might have some tea.

In reporting a Exclamation in the Indirect Speech,

- The introductory verb is changed into wish, bless, pray, cry, exclaim, declare, etc., with such phrases as with regret, with delight or joy, with sorrow, where necessary.
- The interjections and exclamations such as oh, well, hurrah, alas, bravo, curse it are omitted and their sense is expressed by means of phrases.



- Ex: "What a terrible storm it is!" he said.
He exclaimed that it was a terrible storm.
- Ex: She said, "Bravo! You have done well".
She applauded him saying that he had done well.

Rewrite the given sentences as directed (Direct – Indirect)

Change the following sentences into Indirect Speech:

1. He said to me, "I have told you not to play with fire".
2. "You have done very badly!" remarked the teacher.
3. Rama said, "I am very busy now".
4. He said, "I am unwell".
5. He said, "My master is writing letters".
6. She said, "I have passed the examination".
7. They said, "The horse died in the night".
8. "I know her address", said Gopi.
9. The teacher said, "The earth goes round the sun".
10. "German is easy to learn", she said.
11. She said to him, "I don't believe you".
12. They said, "We are glad to be here this evening".
13. He said to me, "What are you doing?"
14. "Where do you live?" asked the stranger.
15. Rama said to Arjun, "Go away".
16. Sai said to Siva, "Please wait here till I return".
17. "Call the first witness", said the Judge.
18. He shouted, "Let me go".
19. She said, "Be quiet and listen to my words".
20. Alice said, "How clever I am!"
21. Shiny said, "Bravo! You have done well".
22. He said, "My God! I am ruined".
23. "Don't you know the way home?" I asked Binu.
24. "Do you really come from China?", said the Prince.
25. Tilak said, "I would never steal again".

Change the following sentences into Indirect Speech:

1. He asked Rama to go with him.
2. Risha replied that he could not do so.
3. He asked his father when the next letter would come.
4. His father replied that there might not be another rain that day.
5. Ravi asked me what had become of Hari.
6. I told him that I had not seen him for months.
7. The master requested that they would attend carefully to what he was saying.
8. I wrote that I would visit him next day.
9. He observed that he had never liked painting.
10. I ordered them to be quiet.
11. He enquired me if I had anything to say.



12. She said that she wished to go to bed.
13. An old man asked who would bell the cat.
14. John said that he had seen that picture.
15. Abdul wished that he wanted to become a soldier.
16. The students said that the earth moves round the sun.
17. The policeman inquired Mary where she lived.
18. He told us that he waited for an hour.
19. I asked Mercy if she would lend me a pencil.
20. The Principal ordered to leave the room and not to return.
21. The mother instructed the boy not to play in rain.
22. Sita exclaimed that she has committed a great blunder.
23. The Minister promised to reward his soldiers.
24. She proposed to us that we should return home.
25. The thief begged the king to forgive him.

TYPES OF SENTENCES

A group of words that makes complete sense is called a Sentence.

Types of Sentences:

There are four types of sentences. They are;

- Assertive Sentence [Affirmative Sentence & Negative Sentence]
- Interrogative Sentence
- Imperative Sentence and
- Exclamatory Sentence.

Assertive Sentence:

A sentence that states or declares something is called an Assertive or Declarative Sentence. A full stop (.) is placed at the end of every Declarative and Imperative Sentence.

Ex: The earth moves round the sun.

He never tells a lie.

An Assertive Sentence can be converted into a **Negative sentence**, by using the words with negative sense, without spoiling the meaning of the sentence.

Changing Affirmative Sentence into Negative Sentence:

Ex: Affirmative: Shakespeare was greater than any other English playwright.

Negative: No other English playwright was as great as Shakespeare.

Ex: Affirmative: I was doubtful if I would pass.

Negative: I was not sure if I would pass.

Ex: Affirmative: She is richer than me.

Negative: I am not as rich as her.

Ex: Affirmative: King Alfred was the greatest king that ever ruled England.

Negative: No other king that ever ruled England was as great as King Alfred.

Ex: Affirmative: A giraffe is taller than an elephant.

An elephant is not as tall as a giraffe.

Ex: Affirmative: Akbar was the greatest of the Moghul emperors.

No other Moghul emperor was as great as Akbar.



- Ex: Affirmative: Shyam is the cleverest boy in the class.
No other boy in the class is as clever as Shyam.
- Ex: Affirmative: Everybody was present.
Nobody was absent.
- Ex: Affirmative: As soon as he came, he started creating trouble.
No sooner did he come than he started creating trouble.
- Ex: Affirmative: As soon as we heard the gunshots, we rushed indoors.
No sooner did we hear the gunshots than we rushed indoors.
- Ex: Affirmative: He failed to win the first prize.
He did not win the first prize.
- Ex: Affirmative: Only a millionaire can buy such an expensive car.
None but a millionaire can buy such an expensive car.
- Ex: Affirmative: Everyone makes mistakes.
There is no one who does not make mistakes.
- Ex: Affirmative: I will always remember this.
I will never forget this.
- Ex: Affirmative: All the students liked the program.
None of the students disliked the program.
- Ex: Affirmative: Chennai is hotter than Mumbai.
Mumbai is **not as hot as** Chennai.
- Ex: Affirmative: The scorpion is shyer than other wall inhabitants.
No other **wall inhabitant is as shy as** the scorpion.
- Ex: Affirmative: The farmer was too weak to walk.
The farmer **was so weak that** he could not walk.
- Ex: Affirmative: He is always on time.
He **is never late**.
- Ex: Affirmative: James runs faster than Peter.
Peter **does not run** as fast as James.
- Ex: Affirmative: The water is too cold for me to drink.
The water is **so cold that** I cannot drink it.
- Ex: Affirmative: James can write faster than me.
I **cannot write as fast as** James.
- Ex: Affirmative: Everyone found the play interesting.
No one found the play uninteresting.
- Ex: Affirmative: This medicine is cheap.
This medicine **is not expensive**.
- Ex: Affirmative: Iron is a heavy metal.
Iron is **not a light** metal.
- Ex: Affirmative: Rahul is **the tallest** boy in the class.
No other boy in the class is as tall as Rahul.

Interrogative Sentence:

A sentence that asks a question is called an Interrogative Sentence. A Question Mark (?) is placed at the end of every Interrogative Sentence.



Ex: What is the matter?
Who said the news?

Changing Interrogative Sentence into Assertive Sentence:

- Ex: Was she upset with him?
She was not upset with him.
- Ex: Were they not impressed with her performance?
They were impressed with her performance.
- Ex: Will they attend the party?
They will attend the party.
- Ex: Has he finished his work?
He has not finished his work.
- Ex: Has he not returned from work yet?
He has returned from work.
- Ex: Doesn't she work here?
She works here.
- Ex: Did she offend you?
She did not offend me.
- Ex: Did she accept the invitation?
She did not accept the invitation.
- Ex: Does he know the answer?
He does not know the answer.
- Ex: Was he kind to you?
He was not kind to me.
- Ex: Were they interested in the offer?
They were not interested in the offer.
- Ex: Can she speak English?
She cannot speak English.
- Ex: Can you not solve this problem?
I can solve this problem.
- Ex: Is he intelligent?
He isn't intelligent.
- Ex: Doesn't he live with his parents?
He lives with his parents.
- Ex: Did he complete the work?
He did not complete the work.

Imperative Sentence:

A sentence that expresses a command, a request, an entreaty or a desire is called an Imperative Sentence.

- Ex: Never surrender. (Command)
Lend me your book, please. (Request)
Help me, O God. (Entreaty)
God save the Queen. (Wish)



Assertive sentences= Subject + (should/must/ought to) + verb +ext.

Imperative sentences start with verb, let, please, kindly, always, never

Assertive		Imperative
		Verb + object + ext. (expressing order)
Subject (2nd person)	affirmative	Please/kindly+verb+object+ext. (expressing request)
	negative	Do not + verb + object + ext.
Subject (2nd person)	never	Never + verb + object + ext.
Subject (1st/3rd person)	affirmative	Let + object of subject + verb + object + ext.
	negative	Let + object of subject + not + verb + object + ext.
Subject (1st/3rd person)	never	Let + object of subject + never+ verb + object + ext.

Changing Imperative Sentence into Assertive Sentence:

Ex: Do the work.

Please do the work.

Kindly do the work.

Ans: You should/must/ought to do the work.

Ex: Do not do the work.

Ans: You should/must not do the work.

Ex: Never run fast.

Ans: You should never run fast.

Ex: Let me do the work.

Ans: I should do the work.

Ex: Let him do the work.

Ans: He should do the work.

Ex: Let us not hate the poor.

Ans: We should not hate the poor.

Ex: Let us never tell a lie.

Ans: We should never tell a lie.

Exclamatory Sentence:

A sentence that expresses some strong or sudden feeling is called an Exclamatory Sentence.

An Exclamation Mark (!) is placed at the end of every Exclamatory Sentence.

Ex: How hot it is!

What a clever girl you are!

Changing Exclamatory Sentence into Assertive Sentence:



Ex: What a nice bird it is!
It is a very nice bird.

Ex: What an exciting match this was!
This was the most exciting match.

Ex: How wonderful examples they were!
They were the most wonderful examples.

Ex: What a beautiful flower the rose is!
The rose is a very beautiful flower.

Ex: How beautiful the rose is!
The rose is a very beautiful.

Ex: How nicely he plays!
He plays very nicely.

Ex: How hot the day is!
The day is very hot.

Ex: How hotly the sun shines.
The sun shines very hotly.

Ex: What a lovely day it was!
It was a very lovely day.

Ex: How warmly we loved him!
We loved him very warmly.

Ex: What a cold day it was!
It was a very cold day.

Ex: How sweetly the cuckoo sings!
The cuckoo sings very sweetly.

Ex: What a black bird the crow is!
The crow is a very black bird.

Ex: What a peaceful country India is!
India is a very peaceful country.

Ex: How fast China grows!



China grows so fast.

Ex: How diligently he works!

He works very diligently.
