

*ENGLISH GRAMMAR AND
USAGE*

III SEMESTER

(2019 Admission)

B A ENGLISH

Core Course



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UNIVERSITY OF CALICUT
SCHOOL OF DISTANCE EDUCATION

Study Material

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B A ENGLISH

Core Course ENG3 B04

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR AND USAGE

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Introduction

This course aims at preparing undergraduate students to learn how to use language with a proper knowledge of the nuances of structure and usage of English language. It aims at a recapitulation of English grammar and usage that learners would have acquired at the lower levels. Part one of this SLM contains a study of grammatical units. This section also deals with concepts related to morphology, synonyms/antonyms and phrasal verbs. Part two modules 2 and 3 deal with sentences that too based on fundamental patterns. Further the discussion moves ahead with sentence transformations such as active/passive/ direct/indirect/ simple, complex and compound forms. Part four Module 4 is a revisit into the specific features of language use involving tenses, concord, degrees of comparison and others.

Part five Module 5 is a section on composition related to re- ordering of sentences, sentence correction, editing of paragraphs and translation. A few exercises are also added for practice.

OBJECTIVES OF THE COURSE:

- a. To familiarize the students with the key concepts of English grammar and to use them more sensitively in their day-to-day communication needs.
- b. To help students to equip with better language use through the understanding of the sentence patterns in English.
- c. To help the students develop a sense of English grammar, idioms, syntax, semantics and their usage.

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MODULE I

Basic Grammatical Units

In this Chapter you will be introduced

- The basic concepts of ‘Grammar’
- The terms labels, levels and function

Basic concept of grammar

Grammar includes the rules that govern the way sentences are formed and words are used to make meaning. Improving your grammar will make it easier for your reader to understand your writing. Learning about grammar will enable you to better understand the feedback that you are given on your assignments.

Grammar is the study of words, how they are used in sentences, and how they change in different situations. There are two different ways that language has been talked about in disciplines that focus on the use of language. We can talk about these different

approaches to language as descriptive grammar vs. prescriptive grammar.

Prescriptive grammar describes when people focus on talking about how a language should or ought to be used. This approach assumes that the experts know how the language works. They set out arbitrary rules and for how it should be used and for what should not be used (proscriptions), based on norms derived from a particular model of grammar. One way to remember this association is to think of going to a doctor's office. When a doctor gives you a prescription for medication, it often includes directions about how you should take your medication as well as what you should not do when taking your medication. In a similar way, a prescriptive grammar tells you how you should speak, and what type of language to avoid. This is commonly found in English classes as well as other language classes, where the aim is to teach people how to use language in a very particular (typically described as 'proper' or 'correct') way.

Descriptive grammar, on the other hand, focuses on describing the language as it is used, not saying how it should be used. Descriptive grammar does not deal with what is good or bad language use; forms and structures that might not be used by speakers of Standard English would be regarded as valid and included. It is a grammar based on the way a language actually is and not how some think it should be. It is a record of the conventions followed by the users. It explains with no sense of value judgement.

Let me make it clear, here is an example of a form that prescriptive grammarians believe to be wrong:

Manu is older than her.

Although the above form is used by actual speakers, prescriptive grammar considers it an example of bad language, in their view, the right form should be:

Manu is older than she.

Prescriptive grammarians believe that the word ‘than’ is used as a conjunction that should be followed by a

subject pronoun. The correct form according to this approach should be ‘he is older than she (is)’.

However, according to descriptive grammar, since the above form is used by actual language speakers and writers, it should be included in the data and studied. The word ‘than’ in this analysis is viewed as a preposition, and for that reason, it can be argued that the sentence ‘Manu is older than her’ is also correct and that ‘her’ in this case functions as the object of the preposition.

In order to understand grammatical analysis, It is necessary to learn certain amount of **terminology**.

TERMINOLOGY

The body of terms used with a particular technical application in a subject of study, profession, etc. In grammar, we have certain terms which are proposed to enhance clarity in understanding language. Primarily, let us divide them into three categories.

LEVEL

LABEL

FUNCTION

Regarding Levels the main categories are **Sounds** and **Words**

A few terminology in English language are;

Abstract noun (the opposite of a concrete noun) the name of something which we experience as an idea, not by seeing, touching, etc. Examples: doubt; height; geography.

An active verb form is one like breaks, told, will help (not like is broken, was told, will be helped, which are passive verb forms). The subject of an active verb is usually the person or thing that does the action, or that is responsible for what happens.

Adjective a word like green, hungry, impossible, which is used when we describe people, things, events, etc. Adjectives are used in connection with nouns and pronouns. Examples: a green apple; She's hungry. adjective clause another name for relative clause.

Adverb a word like tomorrow, once, badly, there, also, which is used to say, for example, when, where or how something happens.

The main categories of levels are:-

Sounds

Words

Clauses

Phrases

Sentences

Paragraphs

The following are the labels in English terminology :-

Noun

Pronoun

Adjective

Verbs

Adverbs

Conjunctions

Preposition

Interjection..

Section One

Form classes and function words

Class formation: -In English grammar, a word class is a set of words that display the same formal properties, especially their inflections and distribution. The term "word class" is similar to the more traditional term, part of speech. It is also variously called grammatical category, lexical category, and syntactic category (although these terms are not wholly or universally synonymous).

There is no single correct way of analyzing words into word classes.

The form classes also known as content words or open classes include:

Nouns

Verbs

Adjectives

Adverbs

The structure classes, also known as function words or closed classes, include:

Determiners

Pronouns

Auxiliaries

Conjunctions

Qualifiers

Interrogatives

Prepositions

Expletives

Particles

One Word, Multiple Classes

"Items may belong to more than one class. In most instances, we can only assign a word to a word class when we encounter it in context. Looks is a verb in 'It looks good,' but a noun in 'She has good looks'; that is a conjunction in 'I know that they are abroad,' but a pronoun in 'I know that' and a determiner in 'I know that man'; one is a generic pronoun in 'One must be careful not to offend them,' but a numeral in 'Give me one good reason.'"

‘Form’ refers to the category labels we use for the building blocks of grammar, i.e. word classes, phrases, and clauses. They have reasonably clear lexical meaning.

Consider the following sentence:

- My daughter bought a completely useless smartphone over the summer.

Scanning this sentence from left to right we can label each individual word as follows:

- my: determiner
- daughter: noun
- bought: verb
- a : determiner
- completely: adverb
- new: adjective
- smartphone: noun
- over: preposition
- the: determiner
- summer: noun

Function words

In linguistics, function word (also called functor) is a word that expresses a grammatical or structural relationship with other words in a sentence. They signal the structural relationships that words have to one another and are the glue that holds sentences together. Function words are also called grammatical words that have little lexical meaning or have ambiguous meaning, but instead serve to express grammatical relationships with other words within a sentence. Function words are closed-class words. Languages do not easily add new words to this set. They are always relatively few and resistant to change. They are lexically unproductive and are generally invariable in form. Thus they form important elements in the structures of sentences. In traditional grammatical technology, both these form words and function words are known as Parts of Speech.

Example for function words :-

Prepositions:

of, at, in, without, between

Pronouns:

he, they, anybody, it, one

Determiners:

the, a, that, my, more, much, either,
neither

Conjunctions:

and, that, when, while, although, or

Auxiliary:

verbs be (is, am, are), have, got, do

Particles:

no, not, nor, as

Parts of speech : There are eight parts of speech in the English language: noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction, and interjection. The part of speech indicates how the word functions in meaning as well as grammatically within the sentence. An individual word can function as more than one part of speech when used in different circumstances. Understanding parts of

speech is essential for determining the correct definition of a word when using the dictionary.

1. NOUN: A noun is the name of a person, place, thing, or idea.

E.g. man, Butte College, house, happiness. Nouns are often used with an article (the, a, an), but not always. Proper nouns always start with a capital letter; common nouns do not. Nouns can be singular or plural, concrete or abstract. Nouns show possession by adding 's'. Nouns can function in different roles within a sentence; for example, a noun can be a subject, direct object, indirect object, subject complement, or object of a preposition.

The young **girl** brought me a very long **letter** from the **teacher**, and then she quickly disappeared. Oh my!

2. PRONOUN: A pronoun is a word used in place of a noun.

E.g. **She, we, they, it.**

A pronoun is a word used in place of a noun. A pronoun is usually substituted for a specific noun, which is called its antecedent. In the sentence above, the antecedent for

the pronoun she is the girl. Pronouns are further defined by type: personal pronouns refer to specific persons or things; possessive pronouns indicate ownership; reflexive pronouns are used to emphasize another noun or pronoun; relative pronouns introduce a subordinate clause; and demonstrative pronouns identify, point to, or refer to nouns.

E. g. The young girl brought **me** a very long letter from the teacher, and then **she** quickly disappeared.

3. VERB: A verb expresses action or being.

E.g. jump... is... write... become

The verb in a sentence expresses action or being. There is a main verb and sometimes one or more helping verbs. ("She can sing." Sing is the main verb; can is the helping verb.) A verb must agree with its subject in number (both are singular or both are plural). Verbs also take different forms to express tense.

E.g. The young girl **brought** me a very long letter from the teacher, and then she quickly **disappeared**.

4. ADJECTIVE: An adjective modifies or describes a noun or pronoun.

E.g. pretty, old, blue, smart

An adjective is a word used to modify or describe a noun or a pronoun. It usually answers the question of which one, what kind, or how many. (Articles [a, an, the] are usually classified as adjectives.)

E.g. The **young** girl brought me a very **long** letter from the teacher, and then she

5. ADVERB

An adverb is a word that modifies (describes) a verb (he sings loudly), an adjective (very tall), another adverb (ended too quickly), or even a whole sentence (Fortunately, I had brought an umbrella). Adverbs often end in -ly, but some (such as fast) look exactly the same as their adjective counterparts.

E.g. Tom Longboat did not run **badly**.

Tom is **very** tall.

The race finished **too** quickly.

6: PREPOSITION: A preposition is a word placed before a noun or pronoun to form a phrase modifying another word in the sentence.

E.g. **by, with, about, until.** (by the tree, with our friends, about the book, until tomorrow)

A preposition is a word placed before a noun or pronoun to form a phrase modifying another word in the sentence. Therefore, a preposition is always part of a prepositional phrase. The prepositional phrase almost always functions as an adjective or as an adverb.

E. g. The young girl brought me a very long letter **from the teacher**, and then she quickly disappeared.

7: CONJUNCTION: A conjunction joins words, phrases, or clauses.

E.g. **and, but, or, while, because.**

A conjunction joins words, phrases, or clauses, and indicates the relationship between the elements joined.

Coordinating conjunctions connect grammatically equal elements: and, but, or, nor, for, so, yet.

Subordinating conjunctions connect clauses that are

not equal: because, although, while, since, etc.

Correlative Conjunctions are either...or, neither... nor, both...and, not only...but also, whether...or.

E.g. The young girl brought me a very long letter from the teacher, **and** then she quickly disappeared.

My uncle is **not only** a doctor **but also** a pharmacist.

8: INTERJECTION: An interjection is a word used to express emotion.

E.g. **Oh! Wow! Oops!**

An interjection is a word used to express emotion. It is often followed by an exclamation point.

The young girl brought me a very long letter from the teacher, and then she quickly disappeared. **Oh my!**

Practice Exercise

1. **Write short notes on** a) Form Class
b) Function words
c) How do we differentiate formal labels and functional labels?

2. II Write an **original sentence** or short text that illustrate each of the following concepts. Underline and label the following pertinent word(s) in your sentence

1. Noun 2. Pronoun 3. Verb 4. Adjective 5. Preposition 6. Adverb

7. Conjunction (This will help you to begin with the discussion in the next chapter.)

Section 2

Identifying grammatical labels and functional labels of words.

In this section you will be introduced to;

- The linguistic units relevant to the form and function level
- The categorization of nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions
- The basic features of phrases and clauses

- The use of verb in function: gerund, infinitives, participles
- A brief discussion on mood and modality
- Illustration of English morphology
- Discussion on synonyms and antonyms
- Explanation of phrasal verbs and idioms

This chapter will lead you to the core area of grammar study and help you to understand the elements of grammar that can be considered the foundation of the English language.

Label of words

‘Form’ and ‘function’ are two extremely important concepts that you need to know about to fully understand how grammar works.

Form :-form is concerned with the description of linguistic units in terms of what they are.

Function :-function is concerned with the description of what these linguistic units do.

Form' refers to the category labels we use for the building blocks of grammar, i.e. word classes, phrases, and clauses. Consider the following sentence:

My son bought an absolutely useless car over the winter

Scanning this sentence from left to right we can label each individual word as follows:

my: determiner

Son: noun

bought: verb

an: determiner

Absolutely: adverb

new: adjective

Car: noun

over: preposition

the: determiner

Winter: noun

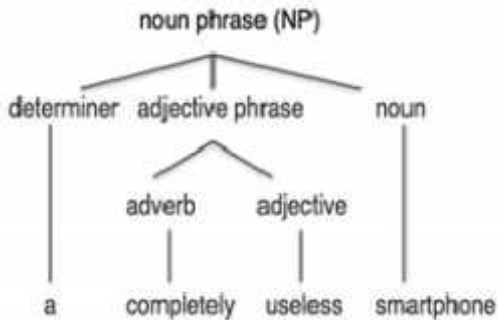
All the word class labels above are referred to as grammatical form labels. Still talking about form, we can also say that:

‘my son’ is a noun phrase

‘an absolutely useless car’ is also a noun phrase

‘over the winter’ is a preposition phrase.

In summary, when we are talking about form, we are talking about structure. We can visualize structure using what linguists call tree diagrams. For a completely useless smartphone the tree looks like



this:

What about ‘function’?

This label is actually ambiguous: it can have a general sense and a grammatical sense, which are often confusing. Let's look at the general sense first. They are always relatively few and resistant to change. They are lexically unproductive and are generally invariable in form. Considering the sentence below;

Luckily, the bus came very slowly.

The word 'luckily' in this sentence is an adverb that has a logical function; it signals that the speaker views what follows (namely the bus came very slowly) as good thing.

'Very' in the adverb phrase 'very slowly' is also an adverb which works to intensify the meaning of the adverb 'slowly'. So we can say that the word 'slowly' is an intensifier. This can be called a semantic function.

Now let us look at the grammatical sense of 'function' (grammatical function)

Look at the word 'luckily' again, this time we can see that its grammatical function is 'adverbial'. Here 'luckily' modifies an entire clause.

‘Very slowly’ also has the grammatical function of Adverbial, but in this case it modifies the verb ‘come’.

Apart from Adverbial, other familiar grammatical function labels are Subject, Object and Compliment (which includes Subject Complement and Object Complement)

The main classes of function words are determiner, pronoun, conjunction, preposition

Here are the linguistic units relevant to the form and function level:

FORM	FUNCTION
Word Classes Noun, adjective, verb, adverb, determiner, pronoun, conjunction, preposition	Subject Predicator Object Adverbial Compliment Modifier
Phrases Noun phrase, adjective phrase, adverb phrase, preposition phrase	
Clauses Main clause, subordinate clause, relative clause	

Main clause

A main clause is a group of words that contains a verb and a subject which makes complete sense on its own. They are used in English grammar. A main clause can form a complete sentence on its own. They have a subject and a predicate which are the 2 main parts of a sentence. A predicate adds information about the subject.

Example of a main clause:

In the following example, the main clause is underlined while the subordinate clause is not underlined

The girls fed the ducks before they walked around the lake"

Subject and predicate: Every complete sentence contains two parts: a subject and a predicate. The subject is what (or whom) the sentence is about, while the predicate tells us something about the subject.

A subject is the person or thing that is doing an action, or the person or thing that is the focus of the sentence. Most of the time the subject comes at the beginning of a

sentence; in that case it is very easy to identify it. Take the example below:

Mary likes to run at the public park.

The predicate of the sentence is the part that contains the action. It is the part of the sentence that is not the subject, and includes all the descriptions of the action and the objects that are affected by the action. Take this example:

Mary **likes to run at the public park.**

Count Nouns

Look around your bedroom and name some things you or your parents have had to purchase: your bed, dresser, socks, books, etc. All of these things are count nouns, or nouns that you can count. You can count the number of books on your bookshelf or shoes in your closet. You can count the walls around your bedroom and the blankets on your bed.

The simple rule to defining a count noun is this: If you can make a noun plural, which means that we have more than one of something, or if you can add a number in

front of the noun, you have a count noun. Let's look at some examples:

'Katya ate five doughnuts'.

In this sentence, we were able to add a number in front of the noun (doughnut) and made it plural by adding an 's.' Thus, 'doughnut' is a count noun.

There are fifty candles on her cake.

Because we are able to put a number in front of 'candles' and are able to make 'candle' plural, it is a count noun.

The opposite of a count noun is **Uncount noun** or group noun. Uncount nouns cannot be counted - you cannot add a number in front of them, and they cannot be made plural. 'Water,' 'excitement,' 'anger,' and 'weather' are all uncount nouns. You can't have 'two excitements' or 'three angers.' You also can't use the word 'weathers.'

'Book,' 'dog,' 'chair,' and 'banana' are all examples of count nouns. (You can count them and make each of them plural.)

'Information,' 'happiness,' 'music,' 'wool,' and 'air' are all non-count nouns. (You can't count them or make them plural.)

Concrete Nouns and Abstract Nouns

All nouns fall into one of two categories: concrete nouns and abstract nouns.

A concrete noun is a noun that can be identified through one of the five senses (taste, touch, sight, hearing, or smell). Consider the examples below:

Would someone please answer the phone?

In the sentence above, the noun phone is a concrete noun: you can touch it, see it, hear it, and maybe even smell it or taste it.

What is that noise?

Even though noise can't be touched—and the noise may even be coming from several places—you can hear the noise, so it's a concrete noun.

After his retirement, Mr. Bond pursued his dream of photographing rainbows.

Rainbows is a concrete noun: they can be seen. Mr. Bond is also a concrete noun, but dream and retirement are not. These nouns are considered abstract nouns. We'll discuss abstract nouns in more detail below.

An abstract noun is a noun that cannot be perceived using one of the five senses (i.e., taste, touch, sight, hearing, smelling). Look at the examples below:

We can't imagine the courage it took to do that.

Courage is an abstract noun because it cannot be seen, heard, tasted, touched, or smelled.

Below are two more examples of abstract nouns in context.

Early paleontologists assumed that the small brains of some dinosaurs indicated stupidity of the species.

Higher education is strongly recommended.

Common nouns are words used to name general items rather than specific ones. Go into your living room. What do you see? A lamp, chair, couch, TV, window, painting,

pillow, candle – all of these items are named using common nouns.

Common nouns are everywhere, and you use them all the time, even if you don't realize it. Wherever you go, you'll find at least one common noun. Street, closet, bathroom, school, mall, gas station, living room; all of these places are things, and thus they are common nouns

Your name is a **proper noun**. A proper noun is the special word that we use for a person, place or organization, like John, Marie, London, France or Sony. A name is a noun, but a very special noun - a proper noun. English proper nouns have special rules.

We always use a Capital Letter for the first letter of a name or proper noun. This includes names of people, places, companies, days of the week and months. For example:

They like Anu. (not They like anu.)

I live in England.

She works for Sony.

The last day in January is a Monday.

We saw Titanic in the Odeon Cinema

A collective noun is a noun that represents a collection of individuals, usually people, such as:

a team (for example: eleven football players)

a family (for example: mother, father and two children)

a crew (for example: 100 sailors)

Material noun can be defined as “Material Noun are names of materials or substances out of which things are made. Ex: gold, iron, silver etc.”

Characteristics of Nouns

- Many nouns can be recognized by their endings.

Typical noun endings include:

r/-or actor, painter, plumber, writer

-ism criticism, egotism, magnetism, vandalism

-ist artist, capitalist, journalist, scientist

-ment arrangement, development, establishment, government

-tion foundation, organization, recognition,
supposition

Singular	Plural
<i>car</i>	<i>cars</i>
<i>dog</i>	<i>dogs</i>
<i>house</i>	<i>houses</i>

- Most nouns have distinctive **SINGULAR** and **PLURAL** forms. The plural of regular nouns is formed by adding -s to the singular:

However, there are many irregular nouns which do not form the plural in this way: The distinction between

singular and plural is known as

NUMBER CONTRAST. We

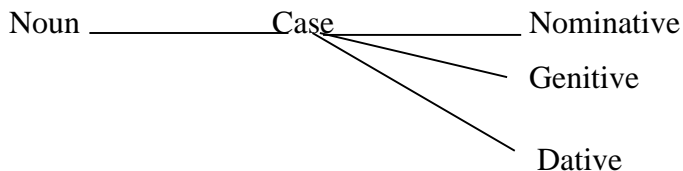
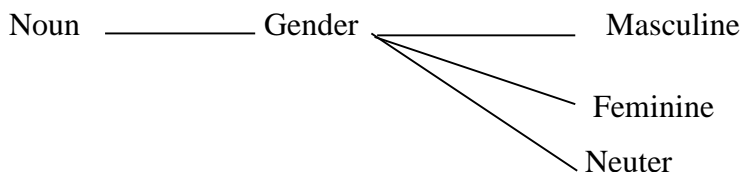
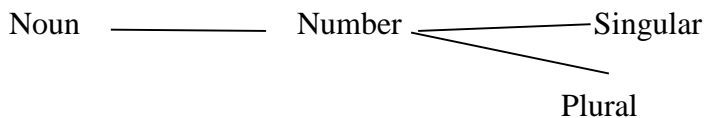
can recognise many nouns

because they often have ‘the’,

‘ a’, or ‘an’ in front of them.

Singular	Plural
<i>man</i>	<i>men</i>
<i>child</i>	<i>children</i>
<i>sheep</i>	<i>sheep</i>

Features of Nouns;



Gender

As it has been noted, there are three categories: viz masculine, feminine, neuter. Some English nouns show gender either through suffixation (with or without) or by having some other kind of gender differentiation:

Masculine

Feminine

Waiter

waitress

Hero

Heroine

Goose

gander

Bull

cow

Stag

hind

Bachelor

spinster

Name that can be applied to both male and female are of the Common Gender: Child, baby, pupil, neighbor, parent, servant driver etc. All inanimate things are said to be of the Neuter Gender: meadow, tree, table, pen, pencil, room, iron, chair, etc.

Noun-Cases

NOUN-CASES are another topic which comes under **NOUN**. The **CASE** of a noun tells us about the position of that noun in a sentence. In English there are **FIVE CASES**.

They are:

- Nominative case
- Objective case (or Accusative case)
- Dative case
- Possessive case (or Genitive case)
- Vocative case

All these five Cases have been explained in detail below.

1. Nominative case:

A noun is said to be in the Nominative case if it is the subject of a verb. (SUBJECT is the person or the thing who or which carries out the action of the verb in the sentence)

Examples:

- Mr. Ram is an intelligent boy.

Mr. Ram is a proper noun in Nominative case.

- The painter paints the portraits.

The painter is a common noun in Nominative case.

- I am buying vegetables for my family.

“I” is a pronoun in Nominative case.

These examples carry another term "pronoun" which is a word used to represent a noun.

For example:

I, We, You, He, She, it and they are the seven pronouns.

There are only seven pronouns. Only other variations of these seven pronouns are there. Those variations can be used in place of the nouns.

The next one in the Noun-cases is:

- 3. Objective case (or Accusative case):** Nouns or pronouns are said to be in Objective cases if they are the direct objects of verbs or if they are the objects of preposition. (Direct object is the person or the thing upon whom or upon which the action of the verb is carried out).

Examples:

- I met your sister.
- “Your sister” is in objective case.
- The vendors sell mangoes.

“Mangoes” is in objective case.

- The book is on the table.

“Table” is in objective case.

It is object of the preposition ‘on’.

- This is one of my policies.

“Policies” is in objective case.

It is object of the preposition ‘of’.

The next one in the Noun-cases is:

3. Dative case:

A noun is said to be in dative case if it is the Indirect object of the verb. (Indirect object of the verb is the noun for whom or for which the action of the verb is carried out). There should not be a preposition before the indirect object because in that case it will be the object of that preposition.

Examples:

- The teacher gave the students few exercises.

“Students” is in dative case. It is the indirect object of the verb ‘give’.

- The Postman brought me a letter.

“Me” is in dative case.

- Get him a pen.

“Him” is in dative case.

The next one in the Noun-cases is:

4. Possessive case (Genitive case):

A noun is said to be in possessive case, if it denotes possession or ownership. A noun or pronoun in the possessive case is governed by the noun that follows it.

Examples:

- This is your pencil.

“Your” is in possessive case.

- It is our idea.

“Our” is in possessive case.

- John’s sister has been hospitalized.

“John’s” is in possessive case.

The last one in the Noun-cases is:

5. Vocative case:

A noun or a pronoun is said to be in Vocative case if it is used to call (or to get the attention of) a person or persons.

Examples:

- Mr. Bill, students are waiting for you in the main hall.

“Mr. Bill” is in vocative case.

- You there, stand up.

“You” is in vocative case.

- Brother, a letter for you.

“Brother” is in vocative case.

- Chairman, all the letters are posted two days ago.

“Chairman” is in vocative case.

Attempt the following questions

A. Choose the correct form given in brackets

1. The police (is/are) combing the whole area to catch the rioters
2. My luggage (has/have) not been properly weighed.
3. The acoustics in this college auditorium (is/are) in good condition.
4. The commission (is/are) divided in this case.
5. All the sheep (was/were) brought back safely

B. Covert the sentences into the appropriate plural form:

1. His sister- in – law is a good home maker
2. A passer-by reported the presence of snake.
3. The story of the book follows the usual formula
4. The life science researcher is in crisis

C. Identify the cases in the sentence given:

1. We elected Sampson captain.
2. Usha is my cousin
3. The club's banquet is Friday of this week
4. The boy's bicycles are broken.

D. Change into masculine form:

1. The Bridegroom spoke to the priest before wedding
2. His brother works as a waiter in the new restaurant
3. The dog barked at the milkman near kennel
4. The manservant has worked many years for the duke with all servitude
5. He was a postman before he became a postmaster in the same district.

VERBS

Fundamental Categorization

Transitive and intransitive verbs

Verbs can be classified in several ways. First, some verbs require an object to complete their meaning.

‘She read...’ Read what? ‘She read a story.’

These verbs that require an object are called **transitive verbs**. Verbs that do not require an object are called **intransitive verbs**. Note that most verbs can be both transitive and intransitive.

‘The ship sank.’ (Intransitive)

‘The explosion sank the ship.’ (Transitive)

A Transitive verb can normally be used in the passive.

E.g. Excellent notes are provided by teacher.

Attempt the following questions; indicate whether it is transitive or intransitive

1. The little girl sat quietly in the chair
2. Magi walked slowly down the street

3. The family read the news with great care
4. We read until late at night
5. Majni likes neither coffee nor tea.
6. Many of the buildings in Madurai are very old and beautiful.

Finite and Non – finite Verbs

Verbs can also be classified as finite or non-finite. A finite verb can be the main verb of the sentence. Its form is determined by the number and person of the subject.

I work at a bank.

He works at a bank.

I have worked with children before.

She has worked with mentally challenged people.

Non-finite verbs cannot be main verbs. There are mainly three types of non-finite verbs: infinitives, gerunds and participles.

Strong verbs (Irregular Verbs) and Weak Verbs (Regular Verbs)

The distinction between a weak verb and a strong verb is based on how the past tense of the verb is formed. Weak verbs (more commonly called regular verbs) form the past tense by adding -ed, -d, or -t to the base form—or present tense—of the verb, such as call, called and walk, walked. Strong verbs (usually called irregular verbs) form the past tense or the past participle (or both) in various ways but most often by changing the vowel of the present tense form, such as to give, gave and stick, stuck.

Examples

Present

Come

Write

Speak

Know

Past

Came

Wrote

Spoke

Knew

Weak Verbs Examples;

Present

Past

Walk

Walked

Want

Wanted

Spend

Spent

Teach

Taught

Verb Ending	Method	-ed form
Consonant +y Try, cry, supply	Drop 'y' add '-ied'	Tried, cried, supplied
Vowel+y Sway, delay	Add '-ed'	Swayed, delayed
Consonant + e Behave, share, change	Add '-ed'	Behaved, shared, changed
One vowel+one consonant Drop, hop, rip	Double the consonant and added '-ed'	Dropped, hopped, ripped
Two vowels+ one consonant Clean, cook, rain	Added '-ed'	Cooked, cleaned, rained
Two consonants Burn, work, call	Added '-ed'	Burned, worked, called

Attempt the following questions

Use the past or participle form of the verb in the brackets

1. The old woman had -----(shrink) cheeks
2. The little child fell down like a ----- (strike) deer
3. The farmers -----(dig) a deep well
4. The writer -----(find) reasons to drink on all occasions
5. She had hardly -----(lay) down, when the telephone ring

All verbs other than auxiliaries are called **main verbs**. Read, drink, write, etc. These can be divided into two on the basis of how they form the simple past and past participle. An **auxiliary verb** (or a helping verb as it's also called) is used with a main verb to help express the main verb's tense, mood, or voice.

The main auxiliary verbs are to be, to have, and to do. They appear in the following forms:

To Be: am, is, are, was, were, being, been, will be

To Have: has, have, had, having, will have

To Do: does, do, did, will do

Auxiliary Verbs "Be," "Do," "Have"

An auxiliary verb helps the main (full) verb and is also called a "helping verb." With auxiliary verbs, you can write sentences in different tenses, moods, or voices.

Auxiliary verbs are: be, do, have, will, shall, would, should, can, could, may, might, must, ought, etc.

I think I should study harder to master English.

I am having a cup of coffee.

You have been practicing hard.

It was written by a petitioner.

You may choose what you like.

The verb forms of be, do, and have can be used either as a main (full) verb or an auxiliary verb. The following examples show these verbs used as auxiliary verbs.

1. "Be" as an auxiliary verb

a. Used in progressive sentences:

I am taking a bath.

She is preparing dinner for us.

They have been studying all night.

b. Used in passive sentences:

I was given a free meal.

He was seen by fans at the airport.

This song has been sung by all nations.

2. "Do" as an auxiliary verb

a. Used in negative sentences:

I do not know the truth.

She doesn't agree with me.

They didn't arrive here yet.

b. Used in questions:

Do you want to have another one?

Did he finish his homework?

Do we need to keep going straight?

3. "Have" as an auxiliary verb

a. Used in perfect sentences:

I have been following you for a mile.

We have done a lot so far.

She had been queen of the town.

Modal verbs are a kind of auxiliary verb. They facilitate the main verb for suggesting potential, expectation, permission, ability, possibility, and obligation.

When used with the main verb, modal verbs do not end with -s for the third-person singular. Modal auxiliary verbs never change form, but they have a different form for past tense.

The modal auxiliaries include:

Present Tense	Past Tense
Will	Would (used to)
Can	Could
Must (have to)	(Had to)
May	Might
Should (ought to) (had better)	Should (ought to)

Will – Would

Will indicates a ‘willingness’ to do something in the future. The negative form of **will** – **will not** (**won’t**) indicates an ‘unwillingness’ (refusal, reluctance) to do something.

Example:

- I will give you another opportunity.
- I will play tomorrow.
- They will arrive at 10 AM.
- She won’t come today.

Would indicates *general* or *repeated* willingness in the past. It also indicates preference in the present.

Example:

- If you did not leave, I would still be taking care of you.
- Whenever I had to go there, they would throw a party.
- We thought that people would buy this book.

- If I were you, I would not do it.
- I would like to make a toast.

Used to sometimes replaces **would** but sometimes it would be grammatically incorrect if we use *used to* in place of **would**.

Example:

- When I was in school, I used to make sketches.
- He often used to cry at night without reason.
- I used to take a break at this time of the year.

Can – Could – May – Might

These modals express possibility and ability.

Can indicates ability. **Could** indicates ability with an option.

Example:

- I can do it. (The subject 'I' is sure about his/her ability)
- I could do it. (The subject 'I' is not sure about his/her ability)

- They cannot do it. (present)
- They could not do it. (past)

Can & could also indicate possibility.

Example:

- The temperature can rise this month.
- They can't go too far by now.
- It could rain later.

May and **might** both indicate possibility but **might** can suggest that there is less possibility than **may**.

Example:

- It may rain later.
- It might rain later.
- They may come back.
- They might come back.

Must

Must indicates necessity.

Example:

- I must leave now.
- He must study hard.
- Alex must go home by 6.00 pm.

Have to has the similar meaning to ***must*** but implies less urgency.

Example:

- I have to leave now.
- He has to study hard.
- Alex has to go by 6.00 pm.
- I had to leave then. (past)
- He had to study hard to pass the exam. (past)

Should

Should indicates obligation and probability.

Example:

- You should come home early.
- You should not smoke at all.
- I should visit my parents more often.
- There should be an extra key for the lock in the drawer. (probability)

- He should have reached by now. (probability)
- I should have done that. (obligation in the past)

Ought to and ***had better*** sometimes replaces ***should***.

Example:

- You ought to come home early.
- We ought to have taken a taxi. (Past)
- We had better leave. (*Had better* is generally used in spoken English.)
- I think parents ought to give children more freedom. (*Had better* won't be appropriate here.)

Concord

When we use the word 'concord' in everyday speech, it means 'agreement or harmony between people or groups' (Oxford Dictionary).

When we use the word in the context of grammar, it has a similar meaning: grammatical agreement between two parts of a sentence.

An important language skill to master is subject-verb concord.

The Basics Of Concord

Subject-verb concord is when the subject of a sentence and the verb of a sentence agree.

Simply, if the subject of the sentence is singular, the verb must be singular. If the subject of a sentence is plural, the verb must be plural. 1. The pages (subject) is (verb) held together by a staple.

2. The pages (subject) are (verb) held together by a staple.

Number 2 is correct, because the subject, ‘pages’, and the verb, ‘are’, are both plural. They agree.

It’s easy, yes? Let’s gear up and try something more difficult.

A phrase in between the subject and the verb

Look at these examples:

a). The message between the lines is that we need to finish before Monday.

b) The message between the lines are that we need to finish before Monday.

The temptation here is to look at the word in front of the verb (the plural ‘lines’) and choose the verb that agrees with it (the plural ‘are’). This is wrong. The subject of the sentence is not ‘lines’. It’s ‘message’. So, because the subject, ‘message’, is singular, we use the singular verb ‘is’. The phrase ‘between the lines’ is a prepositional phrase (starting with a preposition), which is why it’s not the subject of the sentence.

Voice

It is the grammatical category which involves the choice between passive and active forms of the verb phrase. In the active construction, the agent is mapped on to Subject while the Affected is in final position. In the passive construction these correspondences are reversed. The Affected is now promoted to Subject and provides the point of departure, while the Agent is demoted from its privileged position as Subject and is usually omitted.

E.g. Bushara wrote a letter

S V O

A letter was written by Bushara

S V O

Determiner

In English, a determiner is a word that introduces a noun. It always comes before a noun, not after, and it also comes before any other adjectives used to describe the noun.

Determiners are required before a singular noun but are optional when it comes to introducing plural nouns. For example, consider the placement and usage of the common determiner the in the sentences below:

- The bunny went home.
- I ate the chocolate cookie for dessert.
- Metal cans are recyclable.
- The metal cans are recyclable.

In every example, the determiner is placed before the noun or noun phrase, regardless of whether the noun in

the subject or predicate. In the first example, it comes directly before the noun, but in the second example, it comes before the adjective ("chocolate") that describes the noun ("cookie").

There are **four different types of determiners in English:** articles, demonstratives, quantifiers, and possessives.

Articles are among the most common of the determiners. There are three singular articles: a, an, and the. Articles specify (or determine) which noun the speaker is referring to. 'A' and 'an' are indefinite articles and are used when you are talking about a general version of the noun. For example:

- A dog is a good pet.
- An ostrich would beat a chicken in a race.

In these examples, the sentence is talking about dogs or ostriches in general, meaning any dog. When your meaning is general, use an indefinite article. Note that 'a' is used before words that begin with consonants while 'an' is used before words beginning with vowels. On the

other hand, 'the' is a definite article, meaning the speaker is referring to a specific noun. For example:

- We went to the best restaurant in town.
- The dog is barking too loudly.

Here the speaker is referring to a particular dog and a particular restaurant. It's not a general category, but only one animal or place that's important. When your meaning is specific, use a definite article.

Demonstrative pronouns are also used as determiners in English. There are four of them: this, that, these and those. Demonstratives are used in a situation in which the speaker can point to the item they mean, making them even more specific than a definite article. For example:

- Do you want this piece of chicken?
- I don't want to go to that movie.
- These black raspberries are sour.
- He wanted those boys to go away.

Quantifiers are determiners that indicate how much or how little of the noun is being discussed. They include words such as all, few and many. For example:

- He took all the books.
- She liked all desserts equally.
- Few children like lima beans, so the cafeteria stopped serving them.
- Many kittens are taught to hunt by their mothers.

Note that all can be used with other determiners to specify which particular items are meant (i.e. all the books in this pile). In this case, the quantifier always comes before the article or demonstrative. It's also possible to use all alone to refer to items generally, as in the second example.

Possessive pronouns is used to show ownership. Possessive pronouns include my, your, his, her, its, our, and their. For example:

- Where is **your** car?
- The dog growled and showed **its** teeth.

- **My** best friend is a cat.
- Which one is **his** house?
- Honesty is **her** best quality.
- The tree shed **its** leaves.
- It's **our** secret recipe.

Pronouns: Pronouns replace nouns. A different pronoun is required depending on two elements: the noun being replaced and the function that noun has in the sentence. In English, pronouns only take the gender of the noun and replace in the third person singular form. The second person plural pronouns are identical to the second person singular pronouns except for the reflexive pronoun.

personal pronoun

A personal pronoun is a short word we use as a simple substitute for the proper name of a person. Each of the English personal pronouns shows us the grammatical person, gender, number, and case of the noun it replaces. I, you, he, she, it, we they, me, him, her, us, and them are all personal pronouns.

possessive pronoun

a pronoun indicating possession.

for example mine, yours, hers, theirs.

Demonstrative Pronouns

demonstrate (verb): to show; to indicate; to point to

A demonstrative pronoun represents a thing or things:

- near in distance or time (this, these)
- far in distance or time (that, those)

Here are some examples with demonstrative pronouns, followed by an illustration:

- **This** tastes good.
- Have you seen **this**?
- These are bad times.
- Do you like **these**?
- **That** is beautiful.
- Look at **that**!
- **Those** were the days!
- Can you see **those**?

Reflexive pronouns

Reflexive pronouns are words like myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves and themselves. They refer back to a person or thing.

For example :-

He wants to pass his driving test so that **he** can drive **himself** to work.

She broke her arm, so **she** couldn't wash **herself** very easily.

Relative Pronouns

A relative pronoun is a pronoun that introduces a relative clause. It is called a "relative" pronoun because it "relates" to the word that its relative clause modifies.

Here is an example:

- The person **who** phoned me last night is my teacher.

In the above example, "who":

- relates to "The person", which "who phoned me last night" modifies
- introduces the relative clause "who phoned me last night"

There are five basic relative pronouns: **who, whom, whose, which, that.**

Who (subject) and **whom** (object) are generally only for people. **Whose** is for possession. **Which** is for things. **That** can be used for things and people only in defining relative clauses (clauses that are essential to the sentence and do not simply add extra information).

Interrogative pronouns

An interrogative pronoun is a pronoun which is used to make asking questions easy. There are just five interrogative pronouns. Each one is used to ask a very specific question or indirect question. Some, such as “who” and “whom,” refer only to people. Others can be used to refer to objects or people.

For example :-

- **What** do you want for your birthday?
- **Which** shirt do you think looks better on me?
- **Who** do you think will win the playoff game?
- To **whom** are you speaking?
- **Whose** socks are those?

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.

Examples of Indefinite Pronouns

In the following examples, the indefinite pronouns are in bold and underlined.

- **Many** are called, but **few** are chosen.
- **Somebody** ate my sandwich!
- **Everyone** says she is beautiful inside and out.
- **No one** wants to hear about my health problems.
- **Either** choice has **its** advantages.

Reciprocal Pronouns

A reciprocal pronoun is a pronoun which is used to indicate that two or more people are carrying out or have carried out an action of some type, with both receiving the benefits or consequences of that action simultaneously. Any time something is done or given in return, reciprocal pronouns are used. The same is true any time mutual action is expressed.

There are only two reciprocal pronouns :-

- Each other
- One another

Examples of Reciprocal Pronouns:-

Reciprocal pronouns help prevent repetition within sentences. In the following examples, reciprocal pronouns have been underlined in bold for ease of identification.

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

- Maria and Juan kissed **each other** at the end of the ceremony.
- Terry and Jack were talking to **each other** in the hallway.
- We give **each other** gifts during the holidays.
- The students congratulated **one another** after giving practice speeches.
- The kids spent the afternoon kicking the ball to **one another**.
- The defendants blamed **one another** for the crime they were charged with.

Preposition

A preposition is a word used to link nouns, pronouns, or phrases to other words within a sentence. They act to connect the people, objects, time and locations of a sentence. Prepositions are usually short words, and they are normally placed directly in front of nouns.

Some examples of prepositions are words like "in," "at," "on," "of," and "to."

Simple prepositions are words like at, for, in, off, on, over, and under. These common prepositions can be used to describe a location, time or place.

A complex preposition is a word group (such as "along with" or "on account of") that functions like an ordinary one-word preposition

A few Examples of complex preposition :-

- according to
- because of
- along with
- apart from
- as for
- as well as
- aside from

Attempt the following questions:

Fill in with prepositions:

1.she's a little shy, she's a wonderful person once you get to know her.
2. After payment, you will receive the product.....10 business days.
3. Can I have a cupcoffee.
4. I bought this car.....Hari.
5. I don't know any These people.
6. I will see youMonday.
7. I'd rather be singlein a bad relationship.
8. She livesthe school.
9. She was waiting the corner.
10. They prevented me.....entering.

Conjunction

conjunction is the glue that holds words, phrases and clauses (both dependent and independent) together. There are three different kinds of conjunctions -- coordinating, subordinating, and

correlative -- each serving its own, distinct purpose, but all working to bring words together.

Types of Conjunctions

There are several different types of conjunctions that do various jobs within sentence structures.

These include:

Subordinating conjunctions

Also known as subordinators, these conjunctions join dependent clauses to independent clauses.

Coordinating conjunction – Also known as coordinators, these conjunctions coordinate or join two or more sentences, main clauses, words, or other parts of speech which are of the same syntactic importance.

Correlative conjunction

These conjunctions correlate, working in pairs to join phrases or words that carry equal importance within a sentence.

Conjunctive adverbs

While some instructors do not teach conjunctive adverbs alongside conjunctions, these important

parts of speech are worth a mention here. These adverbs always connect one clause to another, and are used to show sequence, contrast, cause and effect, and other relationships.

When people first learn to write, they usually begin with short, basic sentences like these: “My name is Ted. I am a boy. I like dogs.” One of the most important jobs conjunctions do is to connect these short sentences so they sound more like this: “I am a boy named Ted, and I like dogs.”

Examples of Conjunctions

In the following examples, the conjunctions are in bold for easy recognition:

- I tried to hit the nail **but** hit my thumb instead.
- I have two goldfish **and** a cat.
- I’d like a bike **for** commuting to work.
- You can have peach ice cream **or** a brownie sundae.
- Neither the black dress **nor** the gray one looks right on me.

- My dad always worked hard **so** we could afford the things we wanted.
- I try very hard in school **yet** I am not receiving good grades.

Attempt the following questions:

A. Use coordinating conjunctions to fill up the following:

Nobody expected Shibu to get the job.....did I.

We can go to a Punjabi restauranta Gujarati,
I don't really mind.

It was raining heavilywe decided to stay at home.

I got a seat in the front row.....I was really interested in the lecture topic.

B. Use Correlative conjunctions to fill up the following:

1. I foundmy homework.....my textbook on the kitchen counter.

2. Shobha found..... the shoes she had losther favourite jacket.
3. I havethe time.....the motivation to play handball right now.
4.did she do well on her physics test, shegot an A on her social studies grade card.
5. I can go to the movies on FridayI can go to the mall.

Clauses and Phrases

A clause is a group of words containing a subject and verb. An independent clause is a simple sentence. It can stand on its own.

Examples:

She is hungry.

I am feeling well today.

- A **dependent clause** cannot stand on its own. It needs an independent clause to complete a sentence. Dependent clauses

often begin with such words as although, since, if, when, and because.

Examples:

Although she is hungry ...

Whoever is hungry ...

Because I am feeling well ...

Dependent

Although she is hungry

Whatever they decide,

Independent

, she will give him some of her food.

I will agree to

A phrase is a group of words without a subject-verb component, used as a single part of speech.

Examples:

Best friend (this phrase acts as a noun)

Needing help (this phrase acts as an adjective; see Adjectives and Adverbs)

With the blue shirt (this prepositional phrase acts as an adjective; see Prepositions)

For twenty days (this prepositional phrase acts as an adverb)

Section 3, Verb in function :Gerunds, infinitives, participles - Their uses.

Gerund

A gerund is a type of verbal that ends in -ing and is used like a noun. Gerunds can also function as the subject of the sentence, the direct object, or as the subject complement. They can also act as an object of a preposition.

Functions

Gerunds do what nouns do in sentences. That is, they can be

Subjects - **Smoking** is unhealthy.

Direct Objects - I enjoy **swimming**.

Predicate nominatives - Her hobby is **arranging** flowers.

Objects of prepositions - They succeeded by **working**.

Because of semantic limitations, it's unusual to find gerunds as indirect objects or as object complements, two more possible noun functions. Notice that **arranging**, derived from a transitive verb, can have an object of its own. Unlike nouns, gerunds are not pluralized. **Wedding** seems to be the same sort of noun as **smoking**, but it's a count noun and can be pluralized. Prescriptive grammar says that a noun or pronoun before a gerund should be possessive, because a gerund is fulfilling a noun function. Prescriptively, if not always in real life, it ought to be "I don't like **your** lying," rather than "I don't like **you** lying.

Infinitive

An infinitive is formed from a verb but doesn't act as a verb. It acts as a noun, adjective, or adverb, and it is actually made up of two words: to + verb . These two words act together as a noun, adjective, or adverb.

Example : I love **to swim** . (noun)

The person **to call** is Jeff. (adjective)

I can't wait **to see** ! (adverb)

A **participle** is a verb that ends in -ing (present participle) or -ed, -d, -t, -en, -n (past participle). Participles may function as adjectives, describing or modifying nouns.

- The **dancing** parrots entertained the crowd.
- The **wrecked** sailboat washed up on shore.

But participles have another function. When used with helping verbs such as to be and to have, they are action verbs and form several verb tenses.

- She is **thinking** of the children.
- The conference room **had been cleaned** before they arrived.

Verb	Simple past	Past Participle
To be	was/were	been
To become	became	become
To come	came	come
To do	did	done
To give	gave	given
To go	went	gone

Attempts the questions below:

Choose the appropriate form from the options in each:

1. My friend really enjoy.....books (to read/ reading)
2. I Think thata third language is advantageous (learn/learning)
3. Karim usuallyT V after he gets home from school (watching/watches)
4. Jasna wants her friend in Iran next week. (to visit/visiting)
5. I love a cup of tea in the evening. (to drink/ drinking)

Section 4

Mood and modality

Mood

Mood is a grammatical notion, whereas modality is a semantic notion relating to such concepts as ‘possibility’, ‘necessity’, ‘permission’, ‘obligation’, etc..

Modality

The word 'modal' is, in origin, connected with the mode, manner, or fashion of doing something, rather than the substance. But from the 16th century onwards, it was used in logic and philosophy to refer to propositions involving the affirmation of possibility and impossibility, existence and non-existence, contingency and necessity, and this is the meaning that has been taken into grammar. In *English Glossary of Linguistic terms* by Eugene E Loos , comparing the mood and modality, the linguist states that modality is synonyms to illocutionary force. Illocutionary force is a type of speech act, which the speaker intends to make at the time of the statements' pronunciation: orders, questions, requests, statements, promise, etc.

Modality is said to be implemented grammatically through three moods namely indicative, imperative and subjunctive. These three moods are then implemented as verb inflections. A basic distinction in our use of language is that we sometimes state facts, like 'It's

raining’, ‘It hasn’t rained for weeks’, and we sometimes express personal perceptions, opinions and attitudes, such as ‘I think it’s going to rain’, ‘We could do with a bit of rain’, ‘It must have been raining’, ‘Let it rain – I don’t mind getting wet’. The term ‘modality’ includes various types of such personal perceptions and attitudes. A broad categorisation of the main types of modality would be:

1. Possibility, including ability and permission
2. Necessity, including obligation
3. Volition
4. Prediction

Three categories of modality are distinguished in linguistics: epistemic, deontic and circumstantial (or root) modality.

Epistemic modality is a sub-type of linguistic modality that encompasses knowledge, belief, or credence in a proposition. Epistemic modality is exemplified by the English modals **may, might, must**. It is possibility and

necessity relative to a speaker's knowledge. (Greek episteme, meaning 'knowledge') However, it occurs cross-linguistically, encoded in a wide variety of lexical items and grammatical structures.

Deontic Modality

When a modal verb is used to affect a situation, by giving permission, etc. is deontic modality (Greek: deon means 'duty'):

- You can go when you've finished.

Here, the speaker is giving permission, so there is deontic modality used to control the situation.

Circumstantial Modality : is relative to the relevant circumstances of a conversation and in general dependent on facts of the world rather than the agent's knowledge.(dynamic modality)

Two other categories that require special mention include, bouletic and teleological. These different modalities can be expressed by auxiliaries such as

‘must’ or ‘can’ and can be illustrated in the English. Examples below:

1. Susan must be the culprit (expressing epistemic modality)

The sentence in (1) might be spoken by someone who has decided that all of the relevant facts in a particular murder investigation point to the conclusion that Susan was the murderer, even though it may or may not actually be the case. The ‘must’ in this sentence thus express epistemic modality.

- (2) Susan must jump (expressing circumstantial modality)

The sentence(2) is relative to the relevant circumstances of the utterance. This has nothing to do with the speaker’s knowledge or it has something to do with law.

- (3) You have to go to bed in ten minutes.(stern father, bouletic)

- (4) To get home in time, you have to take a taxi. (teleological)

Attempt the following questions:

Identify whether the given sentence is deontic or epistemic

Sentence	Category
1. May be the examination will beheld next month	
2. You must submit your assignment next week by the latest.	
3. You may bring your calculator in the exam room	
4. There can be a ghost in the old building	
5. The train is on time and it is ten o'clock now so it ought to have reached here.	
6. In monsoon you should always carry an umbrella with you.	
7. Water will freeze if it is under zero degree centigrade.	
8. You ought to examine your car before you go far.	

Section 5

English Morphology

Morphology is the branch of linguistics (and one of the major components of grammar) that studies word structures, especially regarding morphemes, which are the smallest units of language. They can be base words or components that form words, such as affixes. The adjective form is morphological. For e.g. The word 'television' has two morphemes – 'tele' and 'vision'. A morpheme is a distinct linguistic form which is not divisible or analyzable into its constituents or smaller forms/units.

In linguistics, a **word** of a spoken language can be defined as the smallest sequence of phonemes that can be uttered in isolation with objective or practical meaning. In many languages, the notion of what constitutes a "word" may be mostly learned as part of learning the writing system.

Criteria for wordhood

- An **orthography** is a set of conventions for writing a language. It includes norms of spelling, hyphenation, capitalization, word breaks, emphasis, and punctuation.
- Verbal **semantic** coherence refers to the ability to use the broader context of a story or sentence, and the semantic relationships between words to aid understanding and interpretation of spoken and written language.
- **phonological**:-relating to the system of contrastive relationships among the speech sounds that constitute the fundamental components of a language.
- **Morphological**:-Study of the internal construction of words.
- In morphology, a null morpheme or **zero morpheme** is a morpheme that has no phonetic form. In simpler terms, a null morpheme is an "invisible" affix.

INFLECTIONAL MORPHOLOGY

Inflectional morphology conveys grammatical information, such as number, tense, agreement or case.

Morphological derivation, in linguistics, is the process of forming a new word from an existing word, often by adding a prefix or suffix, such as un- or -ness. For example, unhappy and happiness derive from the root word happy.

Morpheme, in linguistics, the smallest grammatical unit of speech; it may be a word, like “place” or “an,” or an element of a word, like re- and -ed in “reappeared.” So-called isolating languages, such as Vietnamese, have a one-to-one correspondence of morphemes to words; i.e., no words contain more than one morpheme.

Types of Morphemes

Free Morpheme:

Free morphemes are considered to be base words in linguistics. Base words that can stand alone (such as “book”) are known as free bases, while bound bases

(including Latin roots like “ject”) are not individual words in English. Most free morphemes can be modified by affixes to form complex words. Combining two free morphemes creates a compound word (like “mailbox”), while free morphemes modified by affixes are complex words (like “runner”).

Bound Morphemes

Bound morphemes have no linguistic meaning unless they are connected to a root or base word, or in some cases, another bound morpheme. Prefixes and suffixes are two types of bound morphemes. Depending on how they modify a root word, bound morphemes can be grouped into two categories: inflectional morphemes and derivational morphemes. The morphemes like ‘un’, ‘re’, ‘en’, ‘dis’, ‘ness’ etc. are bound morphemes. Most grammatical morphemes are bound morphemes.

A **root** can be any part of a word that carries meaning: the beginning, middle or end. Prefixes, bases, and suffixes are types of roots. The prefix appears at the beginning of a word, the base in the middle and the

suffix at the end. Most English root words came from the Greek and Latin languages.

A **stem** is a part of a word used with slightly different meanings and would depend on the morphology of the language in question. In Athabaskan linguistics, for example, a verb stem is a root that cannot appear on its own, and that carries the tone of the word.

The part of the word that cannot be broken down is called a **base word**, also known as a root word. The base word gives the word its basic meaning. Sometimes, base words have a prefix, which is a letter or letters added to the beginning, or a suffix, which is a letter or letters added to the end.

Different Concepts

1. Affixation

The affixation is the process of adding a morpheme—or affix—to a word to create either a different form of that word or a new word with a different meaning; affixation is the most common way of making new words in English. Affixes are of three types – Prefixes, Suffixes and Infixes.

prefix

A prefix is an affix which is placed before the stem of a word. Adding it to the beginning of one word changes it into another word. For example, when the prefix un- is added to the word happy, it creates the word unhappy. ... Prefixes, like all other affixes, are usually bound morphemes.

Examples :-

Prefix	Meaning	Example
Anti-	Against	Antithesis
De-	Opposite	Decode, Decompose
Dis-	Not, opposite of	Disconnect
Em-	Cause to	Emphasis
En-	Cause to	Encounter

SUFFIXES

A suffix is an affix which is placed after the stem of a word. Common examples are case endings, which indicate the grammatical case of nouns, adjectives, and verb endings, which form the conjugation of verbs. An inflectional suffix is sometimes called a desinence or a grammatical suffix or ending.

Examples :- **Noun Suffixes**

-eer

Meaning: engaged in something, associated with something

Examples: auctioneer, volunteer, engineer, profiteer

-er

Meaning: someone who performs an action

Examples: helper, teacher, preacher, dancer

-ion

Meaning: the action or process of

Examples: celebration, opinion, decision, revision

-ity

Meaning: the state or condition of

Examples: probability, equality, abnormality, civility

-ment

Meaning: the action or result of

Examples: movement, retirement, abandonment, establishment

Infixes

Infixes are almost rare in Modern English. Yule (1985) has cited a few examples such as Absog**odd**amlutely!, Sing**ablood**y pore! Which are generally considered as special coinages based on emotional reactions.

Inflectional suffix

An inflectional suffix is sometimes called a desinence or a grammatical suffix or ending. Inflection changes the grammatical properties of a word within its syntactic category. Derivational suffixes can` be divided into two categories: class-changing derivation and class-maintaining derivation.

Inflectional affix

An inflectional affix is an affix that expresses a grammatical contrast that is obligatory for its stem's word class in some given grammatical context. It does not change the word class of its stem. It is typically located farther from its root than a derivational affix. In English there are only eight total inflectional affixes.

For example: big-bigger-biggest (-er, -est are inflectional affixes) calls, called, calling (-s, -ed, -ing, are inflectional affixes) fox, foxes, fox's and foxes' are inflectional because they differentiate between singular/plural and possessives.

Derivational suffixes

Derivational suffixes are used to make (or derive) new words. In particular, they are used to change a word from one grammatical class to another.

For example, the noun "pore" can be changed into an adjective by adding the suffix -ous, resulting in the adjective "porous" 'having pores'.

Class – Changing Derivational Suffixes:

Under the suffixes that can change word from one grammatical class to another, we have basically four groups. The presence of the suffixes signal the grammatical class of the words in which they appear.

They are:

Noun Suffixes

-eer

Meaning: engaged in something, associated with something

Examples: auctioneer, volunteer, engineer, profiteer

-er

Meaning: someone who performs an action

Examples: helper, teacher, preacher, dancer

-ion

Meaning: the action or process of

Examples: celebration, opinion, decision, revision

-ity

Meaning: the state or condition of

Examples: probability, equality, abnormality, civility

-ment

Meaning: the action or result of

Examples: movement, retirement, abandonment, establishment

-ness

Meaning: a state or quality

Examples: fondness, awareness, kindness, darkness

-or

Meaning: a person who is something

Examples: distributor, investigator, translator, conductor

-sion

Meaning: state or being

Examples: depression, confusion, tension, compulsion

-ship

Meaning: position held

Examples: worship, ownership, courtship, internship

-th

Meaning: state or quality

Examples: strength, labyrinth, depth, warmth

Adjective Suffixes

-able, -ible

Meaning: capable of being

Examples: preventable, adaptable, predictable, credible

-al

Meaning: pertaining to

Examples: theatrical, natural, criminal, seasonal

-ant

Meaning: inclined to or tending to

Examples: vigilant, defiant, brilliant, reliant

-ary

Meaning: of or relating to

Examples: budgetary, planetary, military, honorary

-ful

Meaning: full of or notable of

Examples: grateful, beautiful, wonderful, fanciful

-ic

Meaning: relating to

Examples: iconic, organic, heroic, poetic

Verb Suffixes

-ed

Meaning: past-tense version of a verb

Examples: laughed, climbed, called, missed

-en

Meaning: become

Examples: soften, fasten, lengthen, strengthen

-er

Meaning: action or process, making an adjective comparative

Examples: faster, bigger, fuller, longer

-ing

Meaning: verb form/present participle of an action

Examples: laughing, swimming, driving, writing

-ize, -ise

Meaning: to cause or to become

Examples: memorialize, authorize, commercialize, advertise

Adverb Suffixes

-ly

Meaning: in what manner something is being done

Examples: bravely, simply, honestly, gladly

-ward

Meaning: in a certain direction

Examples: backward, wayward, awkward, afterward

-wise

Meaning: in relation to

Examples: clockwise, edgewise, lengthwise, otherwise

The Function of a Suffix

Like prefixes, there are many suffixes used in the English language to create a rich vocabulary. These suffixes change the meaning or grammatical function of a base word or root word. For example, by adding the suffixes -er and -est to the adjective fond, you create the comparative fonder and the superlative, fondest.

Take the suffix -ist, by adding this to a word you have changed the word to describe a person who performs or practices something. So, art becomes artist, a person skilled in a particular art.

Let's look at the verb read. This verb can be turned into a noun by adding the suffix -er, and so read becomes reader. Likewise, by adding the suffix -able the verb read now becomes the adjective readable.

2. Compounding

In linguistics, a compound is a lexeme (less precisely, a word or sign) that consists of more than one stem. Compounding, composition or nominal composition is the process of word formation that creates compound lexemes. With very few exceptions, English compound words are stressed on their first component stem.

The following are examples of English compounds:

- football (Noun + Noun)
- babysit (Noun + Verb)
- pickpocket (Verb + Noun)

- snow-white (Noun + Adjective)
- dark-blue (Adjective + Adjective)
- brother-in-law (Noun+ Preposition + Noun)

3. Derivation

In morphology, derivation is the process of creating a new word out of an old word, usually by adding a prefix or a suffix. The word comes from the Latin, "to draw off," and its adjectival form is derivational.

Example :-

- patient: outpatient
- group: subgroup
- trial: retrial
- adjective - dark: darkness
- verb - agree: agreement
- noun - friend: friendship"

Clipping

In morphology, clipping is the process of forming a new word by dropping one or more syllables from a polysyllabic word, such as cellphone from cellular phone. In other words, clipping refers to part of a word that serves for the whole, such as ad and phone from advertisement and telephone, respectively. The term is also known as a clipped form, clipped word, shortening, and truncation.

Examples of clipped forms in English include biz, caps, celebs, deli, exam, flu, gator, hippo, hood, info, intro, lab, limo, mayo, max, perm, photo, ref, reps, rhino, sax, stats, temp, thru, tux, ump, veep, and vet.

Acronym

An acronym is a word formed from the initial letters of a name (for example, NATO, from North Atlantic Treaty Organization) or by combining initial letters of a series of words (radar, from radio detection and ranging). Adjective: acronymic. Also called a protogram..

Back-formation

Back-formation is the process of forming a new word (a neologism) by removing actual or supposed affixes from another word. Put simply, a back-formation is a shortened word (such as edit) created from a longer word (editor). Verb: back-form (which is itself a back-formation). Also called back-derivation.

Eponym

An eponym refers to a person or thing after which something else is named.

For example:

- Napoleon is the eponym of the Napoleonic Code.

A person or thing's name can come to be associated with the name of another character, person, product, object, activity, or even a discovery.

Blending

Blending is a type of word formation in which two or more words are merged into one so that the blended constituents are either clipped, or partially overlap. An example of a typical blend is brunch, in which the beginning of the word breakfast is joined with the ending of the word lunch.

Exercises

A) Add the suffix to the base word

1. Bicycle + ist:
2. Dream + ily :
3. Locate + tion:
4. Rely +able :.....
5. Space + ious:

B) Add Negative Prefix

1. Connect
2. Important

3. Literate
4. Considerate
5. Reversible
6. Practical
7. Violent

Section 6

Synonyms and Antonyms

A synonym is a word, morpheme, or phrase that means exactly or nearly the same as another word, morpheme, or phrase in the same language. The standard test for synonymy is substitution: one form can be replaced by another in a sentence without changing its meaning.

Examples:

Admit – Acknowledge

About - approximately

Abstract - summary

to accomplish - to achieve

backbone spine

banned – prohibit

Cease – discontinue

Connect – join

Demise – death

Eschew – avoid

Frigid - cold

Negation – denial

Prolific - creative

Symptom – indication

Vaunt – boast

Vociferate – condescend

Waned - declined

Antonyms are words that have contrasting, or opposite, meanings. Like so much of the English language, “antonym” is rooted in the Greek language. The Greek word anti means opposite, while onym means name. Opposite name – that makes sense!

Types of Antonyms

You may be interested to know that there are three different kinds of antonyms. Let's take a look at each one:

Complementary: Complementary antonyms have no middle ground. Examples include: boy — girl, off — on, night — day, entrance — exit, exterior — interior, true — false, dead — alive, push — pull, pass — fail

Relational: These are similar to complementary antonyms, except that both must exist for them to be antonyms of each other. Check out these examples:

above — below, doctor — patient, husband — wife, servant — master, borrow — lend, give — receive, predator — prey, buy — sell, instructor — pupil

Graded: These antonyms deal with levels of comparison and they can be two words on a scale. Many are relative terms, which can be interpreted differently by different people. Examples include: young — elderly, hard — easy, happy — wistful, wise — foolish, fat — slim, warm — cool, early — late, fast — slow, dark — pale. Some examples of antonyms created by adding the prefix *dis-* are:

- Agree disagree
- Appear disappear
- Belief disbelief
- Honest dishonest

Adding the prefix in- can make the following opposites:

- Tolerant intolerant
- Decent indecent
- Discreet indiscreet
- Excusable inexcusable

Using the prefix mis- create antonyms like:

- Behave misbehave
- Interpret misinterpret

Examples of antonyms made by adding the prefix un- are:

- Likely unlikely
- Able unable
- Fortunate unfortunate
- Forgiving unforgiving

By adding the prefix non- you can make these antonyms:

- Entity nonentity
- Conformist nonconformist
- Payment non-payment

Antonyms forms by changing the suffix

- Bountiful - bountiless
- Careful - careless
- Cheerful – cheerless
- Fruitful – fruitless
- Harmful – harmless

Attempt the following questions

A. Circle the **Synonyms** in each sentence:

1. Several people were playing a soccer game on a distant field that was difficult to see because it was far away.

2. In history class, we learn that the British used the strategy of divide and rule which is relevant in contemporary times.
 3. Two boys in the class started to fight, and they will get suspended for having a brawl.
 4. She was chatting with her girlfriend in the back of the class and received detention for talking.
 5. They had the perfect idea for a class project, and it was ideal for the science fair too.
 6. Her friend who was her constant companion helped her with her homework.
- B. Write the **antonym** for each italicised word in the sentence.
1. Anurag wrote *false* for every question on the test.
 2. Dhanya always *disobeyed* her mother.
 3. Karun was very *careless* with his toys.
 4. Byron was acting *childish* in school.
 5. Manu's room was *filthy*.

6. Shabna bought some very *expensive* shoes.
7. Kafeela just *began* her chores.

Section 7

Phrasal Verbs and Idioms

A phrasal verb is the combination of a standard verb such as make or put with one or two particles. In some cases the particle is an adverb such as ‘up’, ‘together’; in others it is a preposition such as ‘through’, ‘in’. Phrasal verbs are very common in everyday spoken and informal written language. A phrasal verb often has a meaning which is different from the original verb. Alternative terms for phrasal verb are ‘compound verb’, ‘verb – adverb combination’, ‘verb – particle construction’. There are two main patterns: Transitive and Intransitive

TRANSITIVE VERBS

Transitive verbs require an object to complete their meaning.

Imagine that I say:

- I need.

This sentence is **incomplete**. There is information that is missing. You are probably wondering what I need. Why is this sentence incomplete? Because **NEED** is a **transitive verb** and a transitive verb needs an object after it to complete the sentence. The object after a transitive verb can be a **noun or a pronoun**.

I **need** a dictionary.

Now the sentence is complete and we can understand it. We added the object “a dictionary” after the verb. Subject + **transitive verb** + object. We can see that transitive verbs need an object after them.

Transitive Phrasal Verbs

The same rule applies to transitive phrasal verbs.

If someone says: “I’m looking for” You would automatically think “Looking for what? Looking for whom?”

‘I am **looking** for my keys’.

My keys is the object (that you are looking for). Now the sentence is clear. We need to add an object to make the sentence complete.

More examples of transitive phrasal verbs in sentences:

- He's **looking** for his passport.
- You should **put on** a jacket because it's cold outside.
- Can you **turn off** the light when you leave the room please?

Now look at this sentence.

- Please **take off** your shoes before entering the house.

The object appears after the transitive verb as we have seen so far. However, sometimes the object goes in the MIDDLE of the transitive phrasal verb. For example

- Please **take** your shoes **off** before entering the house.
- Both sentences are correct.

With some phrasal verbs you can put the object in the middle but that is not always the case.

INTRANSITIVE VERBS

Intransitive verbs **cannot** have a direct object after them. The subject is doing the action of the verb and nothing receives the action. An intransitive verb does not pass the action to an object.

- We **smiled**.

Here we cannot have an object after the intransitive verb **smile**.

You cannot “**smile** something” (incorrect).

An intransitive verb expresses an action that is complete in itself and it doesn't need an object to receive the action.

Intransitive Phrasal Verbs

The same rule applies to intransitive phrasal verbs. You cannot have an object after an intransitive phrasal verb.

- My car **broke down** on the way to work.

Broke down in the past tense of **break down**. Break down means to stop working.

You cannot “**break down** something”. **Break down** is an intransitive phrasal verb.

- Can you **sit down** please?

You cannot “**sit down** something”.

Some more example sentences with intransitive phrasal verbs:

- I **grew up** in New Zealand.
- You are driving too fast. Can you **slow down**?
- We should **dress up** for the party.
- Nobody **found out** that I didn't have an invitation.
- I **get up** at 7 every morning.
- What time do you think he is going to **show up**?

Verb	Meaning	Example
blow up	explode	The terrorists tried to blow up the railroad station.
bring up	mention a topic	My mother brought up that little matter of my prison record again.
bring up	raise children	It isn't easy to bring up children nowadays.
call off	cancel	They called off this afternoon's meeting
do over	repeat a job	Do this homework over.
fill out	complete a form	Fill out this application form and mail it in.
fill up	fill to capacity	She filled up the grocery cart with free food.
find out	discover	My sister found out that her husband had been planning a

		surprise party for her.
give away	give something to someone else for free	The filling station was giving away free gas.
give back	return an object	My brother borrowed my car. I have a feeling he's not about to give it back.
hand in	submit something (assignment)	The students handed in their papers and left the room.
hang up	put something on hook or receiver	She hung up the phone before she hung up her clothes.
hold up	delay	I hate to hold up the meeting, but I have to go to the bathroom.

hold up (2)	Rob	Three masked gunmen held up the Security Bank this afternoon.
leave out	omit	You left out the part about the police chase down Asylum Avenue.
look over	examine, check	The lawyers looked over the papers carefully before questioning the witness. (They looked them over carefully.)
look up	search in a list	You've misspelled this word again. You'd better look it up.
make up	invent a story or lie	She knew she was in trouble, so she made up a story about going to the movies with her friends.
make out	hear, understand	He was so far away, we really couldn't make out what he was

		saying.
pick out	choose	There were three men in the line-up. She picked out the guy she thought had stolen her purse.
pick up	lift something off something else	The crane picked up the entire house. (Watch them pick it up.)

Idiom

An idiom is a phrase or expression that typically presents a figurative, non-literal meaning attached to the phrase; but some phrases become figurative idioms while retaining the literal meaning of the phrase. Categorized as formulaic language, an idiom's figurative meaning is different from the literal meaning.

Some common idioms in English

1. 'The best of both worlds' – means you can enjoy two different opportunities at the same time.

“By working part-time and looking after her kids two days a week she managed to get the best of both worlds.”

2. ‘Speak of the devil’ – this means that the person you’re just talking about actually appears at that moment.

“Hi Tom, speak of the devil, I was just telling Sara about your new car.”

3. ‘See eye to eye’ – this means agreeing with someone.

“They finally saw eye to eye on the business deal.”

4. ‘Once in a blue moon’ – an event that happens infrequently.

“I only go to the cinema once in a blue moon.”

5. ‘When pigs fly’ – something that will never happen.

“When pigs fly she’ll tidy up her room.”

6. ‘To cost an arm and a leg’ – something is very expensive.

“Fuel these days costs an arm and a leg.”

7. ‘A piece of cake’ – something is very easy.

“The English test was a piece of cake.”

8. ‘Let the cat out of the bag’ – to accidentally reveal a secret.

“I let the cat out of the bag about their wedding plans.”

9. ‘To feel under the weather’ – to not feel well.

“I’m really feeling under the weather today; I have a terrible cold.”

10. ‘To kill two birds with one stone’ – to solve two problems at once.

“By taking my dad on holiday, I killed two birds with one stone. I got to go away but also spend time with him.” 11. ‘To cut corners’ – to do something badly or cheaply.

“They really cut corners when they built this bathroom; the shower is leaking.”

12. ‘To add insult to injury’ – to make a situation worse.

“To add insult to injury the car drove off without stopping after knocking me off my bike.”

13. ‘You can’t judge a book by its cover’ – to not judge someone or something based solely on appearance.

“I thought this no-brand bread would be horrible; turns out you can’t judge a book by its cover.”

14. ‘Break a leg’ – means ‘good luck’ (often said to actors before they go on stage).

“Break a leg Sam, I’m sure your performance will be great.”

15. ‘To hit the nail on the head’ – to describe exactly what is causing a situation or problem.

“He hit the nail on the head when he said this company needs more HR support.”

16. ‘A blessing in disguise’ – An misfortune that eventually results in something good happening later on.

17. ‘Call it a day’ – Stop working on something

18. ‘Let someone off the hook’ – To allow someone, who have been caught, to not be punished.

19. ‘No pain no gain’ – You have to work hard for something you want.

20. 'Bite the bullet' – Decide to do something unpleasant that you have avoided doing.

21. 'Getting a taste of your own medicine' – Being treated the same unpleasant way you

Attempt the following questions

A. Use the items given in the brackets to fill the blanks

(go on, carry out, set up, pick up, go back, come back, go out, point out, find out)

1. When did Mary Pierceto France?
2. What time will you?
3. Theythe boss's plan.
4. The lightsaround ten.
5. It is expensive toa new business.

B. Match the following

Expression	Meaning
Once in a blue moon	in close agreement
Hold water	let out secret
Keep at bay	to face difficulties
Make a clean breast of	suspect that something is wrong
To face the music	in a helpless position
Smell a rat	be sound and logical
Hang in a glove	to attract
Up one's sleeves	Keep away
Spill the beans	to face difficulties
Take one's fancy	hidden
Ward off	seldom

MODULE 2

Section 1

Word Order and Sentence Pattern

Word Order

Word order refers to the way words are arranged in a sentence. The word order in sentences is: **Subject + Verb (Predicate) + Object.**

Subject	Verb	Object
I	play	football.
Max	reads	books.
We	can speak	English.
Sue	is singing	a nice song.

Subject: Typically a noun or pronoun denoting person, place or things.

Verb: The action or state of being

Object: The word or group of words influenced by the verb. To identify a direct object, ask “what” or “whom?” the verb is doing. In English language most of the sentences conform to the SVO word order. Note that,

this is for the sentences that only have a subject, verb and object.

Examples:

a) He brought a computer

(s) (v) (o)

b) She doesn't like dogs

(s) (v) (o)

Word Order: Indirect Object

The Indirect object usually comes right before the direct object, except when used with preposition 'to'. To identify an indirect object ask "to whom/what?" or "for whom /what" the direct object is intended.

When an indirect object (I) is added to the sentence, the word order depends

a) On whether the direct and indirect objects are nouns or pronouns and

b) On whether the indirect object is preceded by the word to.

Here are some basic rules:

SVOI :- The indirect object comes after the direct object when it is formed with the preposition to. When it is placed here, it is called the object of the preposition.

Examples:-

1. He gave the car to his friends
(S) (V) (O) (IO)
2. He gave it to him
(S) (V) (O) (IO)

SVIO:- The indirect object comes before the direct object when it is not used.

Examples:-

1. He gave his friends the car
(S) (V) (IO) (O)
2. He gave them it
(S) (V) (IO) (O)

Exercises:

Identify the word order in the following sentences: -

1. He likes computer games ans) SVO

2. His father gave him a smart phone (ans) SVIO
3. Sheela gave a bag to her mother
4. Mohan showed his marks to them
5. They play cricket
6. He wrote his parents a letter
7. Radha visited his parents
8. Venu's parents gifted him a laptop

Inverted (verb subject) word order:

Let us look at the word order of a sentence begins with gerund or Verb+ing form.

a) Finishing the work the workers went home.

(V) (O) (S) (V) (O)

Sentence beginning with “there”:

There + verb + subject

e.g. There are seven members in the family

Sentences beginning with “it”: It+ verb+ subject

e.g. It was an easy job

Sentences beginning with – place expression + an intransitive verb:

e.g. Next to the theatre is my home.

Sentences beginning with negative words like ‘never’, ‘no sooner...than’, scarcely, barely, hardly, rarely, seldom, etc. will follow the word order:

negative word + verb + subject

e.g. Not only did he win the race, but also got the record.

Never have I experienced such a threat.

Conditional clauses: conditional sentences can follow two patterns

If + statement: If I were rich, I would have bought a ship.

Auxiliary verb + subject + rest of the clause

e.g. Were I rich, I would have bought a ship.

Word Order in Questions

There are three types of question words in English.

Interrogative pronouns – who, whom, what, which

Interrogative determiners – which, what or whose
(followed by a noun)

Interrogative adverbs – where, why, how, etc.

1. Questions with question words follow the pattern:

Question word + verb+ subject + rest of the sentence

1. What are you doing?
2. Verbal questions (begins with auxiliary verb and invite yes/no answer) follow the pattern:

Auxiliary verb+ subject + rest of the sentence

Have you played well?

Do you know French?

Does she likes coffee?

Word Order : Adjectives

Adjectives are words that refer to the qualities of people, things, or ideas, or which group them into classes. Most adjectives can be used with a noun and usually come immediately before it in the sentence.

1. When the adjective is used attributively it comes before the noun that they describe.

Examples: The beautiful girl sang a melodious song

The studious children listened to the dedicated teacher.

2. When the adjective is used predictively it comes after the noun. When they are used after a verb such as be, become, grow, look or seem they are called predicative:

Examples:

The cat was black.

The future looks gloomy.'

Cumulative adjectives

When we use more than one adjective to describe a noun, the adjectives are either cumulative or coordinative.

Cumulative adjectives are adjectives that must appear in a special order to express the meaning that we want to express. For example, if I told a native English speaker I was buying a folding new bike, they might not understand me.

You'll note that I also used three adjectives to describe the Metro: loud, hot and crowded. But those adjectives are coordinative. They do not follow a special order. And they have different punctuation rules.

The order of cumulative adjectives is as follows: quantity, opinion, size, age, color, shape, origin, material and purpose.

Quantity

Let's talk about the first one – quantity.

These adjectives answer the question “How much?” or “How many?” They can refer to specific numbers, like two or 31, or to more general amounts, like “whole” “half” “a lot” or “several.”

Let's take an example:

‘I'm about to order two large pizzas. Which toppings do you like?’

The adjective “two” comes before the adjective “large” and they both describe the noun “pizza.”

If the person had said, “I'm about to order large two pizzas,” the listeners would have probably been confused. That's strong evidence that these are cumulative adjectives.

Opinion

Next in word order comes opinion adjectives, which express how we feel about something. Descriptive words

like “tasty” “strong” “ugly” “costly” “stubborn” and “happy” are examples of our opinions.

For instance:

‘I ordered two tasty large pizzas for the game’.

The three adjectives -- two, large and tasty -- all work as a group to build meaning onto one another rather than act as individual descriptions of the noun “pizza.” Size

OK, now onto **size**. This includes any number of descriptive size words, such as “large” “big” and “little.”

In our pizza example, the size (large) follows the established order.

Here it is again. Listen for the word “large” after the other adjectives.

I ordered two tasty large pizzas for the game.

Age

OK, next is age. This can refer to specific age adjectives, such as 16-year-old, or such words as “young” “old” “middle-aged” and so on.

One thing to note is that, in English, it is possible but not common for more than three adjectives to describe one

noun in speech or writing. In addition, not all native speakers or English experts put age after opinion.

With that in mind, consider this example:

‘The big old ugly pick-up truck pattered along the road’.

Notice that I put the word “old” before the opinion “ugly.”

But, based on the traditional order, it would go like this:

‘The ugly big old pick-up truck pattered along the road’.

Shape

Next up, we have shape. This includes words like “long” “short” and “round” or words for specific shapes, like square.

Here’s how you might use it:

‘The ugly big old wide pick-up truck pattered along the road’.

That’s a lot of adjectives for one noun -- a rarity but not impossible.

Color

And now we come to color. We normally use color adjectives to describe objects and animals:

‘The ugly big old wide red pick-up truck pattered along the road’.

Does this sound like too many descriptive words? That’s because it probably is.

Origin

Alright, let’s talk about the next group: origin, ethnicity and religion. Words like Persian or Christian fall in this group. But, instead of putting several adjectives before one noun, let’s hear what a real person might say:

We found a beautiful 200-year-old blue Persian rug.

Material

OK, then there’s material. Material adjectives are usually nouns that act as adjectives when used to describe other nouns -- like metal, paper and silk.

‘We found a beautiful 200-year-old blue Persian silk rug’.

Purpose.

For purpose adjectives, we usually also use a noun as an adjective.

‘My pretty new electric folding bike is so much fun! I’m very happy with it’.

Exercises:

1. We brought(grey/a/ metal) ward robe
2. She owns(red/a/new) dress
3. After his retirement he used to sit on(comfortable/his/wooden/old) chair.
4. He bought(linen/a/ Indian/fabulous) shirt.
5. They have(costly/rare) handicrafts at home.
6. Grandmother made.....(some/Italian/delicious/really) pasta
7.(young/a/pretty) woman presented the show

An adverb is a word that describes or gives more information a verb, an adjective, another adverb or even an entire sentence.

Examples: quickly, really, heavily, fast, sometimes, hard, suddenly, today, too, never, very

Adverbs and adverb phrases can be placed in three places in a sentence:

1. At the front of the sentence, before the subject

- Yesterday, the teacher taught the students.
- 2. At the end of the sentence, after the object
 - The students will take the test tomorrow.
- 3. In the middle of a sentence (before or after the verb) or in the middle of a group of verbs

Before the verb:

She **often studies** before class.

After the verb:

The student **works quietly** at her desk.

In the middle of a group of verbs:

The teacher **will quickly teach** the students.

Adverbs are usually placed near the **verb** that they modify. Most adverbs can be placed in any of the positions in a sentence without changing the meaning of the sentence. (But different placement emphasize different things. Placing the adverb at the end gives more emphasis to the adverb.

Example:

Suddenly, I **ran** to the door.

1. I **suddenly ran** to the door.
2. I **ran** to the door **suddenly**.

The placement of **suddenly** does not change the meaning of the sentence.

However, the placement of some adverbs can *greatly change* the meaning of a sentence.

Example:

Only I love you. (I love you. Nobody else loves you.)

- I only love you. (I love you. I do not love anything else.)
- I love only you. (You are the only person I love. I do not love anybody else.)
- I love you only. (You are the only person I love. I do not love anybody else.)

The fourth sentence has the same meaning as the third sentence, but the third sentence has a stronger emphasis.

There are many types of **adverbs** in English. Each type of adverb has its own rules for placement in a sentence. Now, let us look at the rules of word order with each specific type of **adverb**.

Adverbs of manner

Adverbs of manner tell us how an action is done or happens. Adverbs of manner are usually

Placed after the main verb or after the object in a sentence.

After the main verb

- She **sings well**.
- She **sings loudly**.
- She **sings beautifully**.

After the object

- She sings **the song well**.
- She sings **the song loudly**.
- She sings **the song beautifully**.

An **adverb of manner** cannot be placed between a **verb** and its direct object. The **adverb** must be placed before the **verb** or at the end of the clause.

Incorrect:

She **cleans quickly the house**.

Correct:

She cleans the house quickly.

She quickly cleans the house.

When there is a preposition before the verb's object, place the **adverb of manner** either before the **preposition** before the verb, or after the **object**.

Before the preposition

- She **listened secretly to their conversation**.
- Tom **climbed weakly out of bed**.

Before the verb

- She **secretly listened to their conversation**.
- Tom **weakly climbed out of bed**.

After the object

- She **listened to their conversation secretly**.
- Tom **climbed out of bed weakly**.

Adverbs of place

Adverbs of place show us the location of the action or state

Adverbs of place are usually placed after the main verb or at the end of the clause they modify.

After the main verb

- He **ran home**.
- He **ran outside** to his car.
- He **ran everywhere** with his mom.

At the end of the clause

- He **ran all the way home**.
- He **ran to his car outside** by the garage.
- He **ran with his mom everywhere**.

Here and **there** are special **adverb of place**. They have special rules.

- The winner is **here**.
- Put the book over **there**.
- She walks **there** every morning.

Here and **there** can also be placed at the beginning of a sentence to add emphasis.

If the **subject** of the sentence is a noun, **here** and **there** are followed by a **verb**.

- **Here is the winner!**
- **Here is my sister!**
- **There goes our car!**
- **If the subject of the sentence is a pronoun, here and there are followed by the pronoun.**
- **Here she is!**
- **Here it is!**
- **There it is!**
- **There they are!**

Adverbs of frequency

Adverbs of frequency show us the rate of the action or state.

- **Adverbs of frequency** are usually placed before the main **verb** but after auxiliary (helping) **verbs**.

Exception: When the main verb is to be, the **adverb** is placed after the main verb.

Before the main verb

- I **always brush** my teeth after eating food.
- Nick **usually washes** the dishes.
- We **often meet** to chat.

Before the main verb, but after the auxiliary verb

She **has sometimes asked** for my advice.

We **have rarely talked** on the phone.

Nick **will never make** a million dollars.

Adverbs of frequency with the verb ‘to be’.

Some adverbs of frequency can also be placed at the beginning or end of a sentence to add emphasis to the meaning of the adverb.

- **Occasionally** they are late.
- They are late **occasionally**.

- **Sometimes** I like children.
- I like children **sometimes**.
- I **am always** happy.
- He **is usually** here on time.
- They **are occasionally** late.

Adverbs of time

Adverbs of time show us the time of the action or state.

Adverbs of time can be used to create emphasis in a sentence. **Adverbs of time** are most commonly put at the end of a sentence, but they can sometimes be placed at the beginning of the sentence to emphasize the time.

Examples:

- I will study **now**.
- **Now** I will study. (The time is more important.)

Adverb clause of purpose / reason

An **adverb clause of purpose (or reason)** is a clause that tells us the reason the action is happening.

An adverb clause cannot be by itself as a sentence. It

must be part of a sentence. **An adverb clause of reason** usually begins with subordinating conjunctions like **because, as, since,** and **that**.

- I exercise **because I enjoy it**.
- My sister says **that you are kind**.
- He works two jobs **since he is in debt**.

Exercise:

Rewrite the following sentences after adding the given adverb in an appropriate place.

1. The politician realized his value .(at once)
2. My girlfriend forgot my birthday (completely)
3. Your car need some repair (just)
4. She got dressed (quickly)
5. We have finished the work (almost)
6. Could you switch the light? (off)
7. We are invited to attend meetings (often)
8. We play in the park (usually)

Section 2

Coordination and Subordination

Coordination means combining two sentences or ideas that are of equal value. **Subordination** means combining two sentences or ideas in a way that makes one more important than the other. Using these strategies will help add variety to your sentences.

Coordination

Use coordination to join to ideas together that are equal in value. You can use a coordinator (a joining word) to coordinate two sentences. A coordinate sentence also known as a compound sentence, consists of two or more Independent clauses joined either. The most common coordinating conjunctions are **for, and, nor, yet and so**. (Note that a comma precedes the coordinating conjunction when joining two clauses except with ‘and’.)

Independent Clause	Coordinating Conjunction	Independent Clause	Compound Sentence
I will go to the mall	and(join two ideas)	I will spend time With my friends	I will go to the mall and I will spend time with my friends
I went to meet him	but (Indicates a contrast)	He was not there there	I went there to meet him but he was not there
He won't do that now	nor (indicates a negative)	He won't do it later	He won't do that now nor he do it Later.

Conjunctive Adverbs

A conjunctive adverb is a linking word that demonstrates a relationship between two clauses. Conjunctive adverbs, however, are used to modify two independent clauses and join them together, behaving more like coordinating conjunctions. Conjunctive adverbs can follow a semicolon or a period and typically have a comma after them.

Function	Conjunctive Adverb	Examples
Addition	also, furthermore, moreover, besides.	That car was too slow form; Besides, it was too expensive
Emphasis	namely, certainly, indeed	Stay away from the water; Certainly, you don't want to fall in.
Contrast	instead, however, conversely	We had planned on going out to dinner Instead, we cooked dinner at home
Time	finally, next, then, subsequently	We have to get you new shoes; next, I have to get groceries.
Cause and Effect	Accordingly,	He didn't study

	consequently, hence, thus.	for the test, hence, he failed.
Comparison	Similarly, likewise	Anu loves to repair cars; likewise, his brother Sinu enjoys it.

Exercises

1. You need to put more effort into your work;
_____, you won't get a passing grade.
2. We wanted to spend the day at the beach;
_____, it rained so we stayed home.
3. He felt he couldn't tell the truth about what
happened; _____, he lied.
4. He is illiterate,.....he is very polite
5. Work hard,.....you will fail.
6. I couldn't attend the marriage,I was
busy with my work.
7.does she likecoffee.

Subordination

Subordination in English grammar is the process of linking two clauses in a sentence so that one clause is dependent on (or subordinate to) another. Clauses joined by coordination are called **main clauses or independent clauses**. This is in contrast to subordination, in which a **subordinate clause** (for example, an adverb clause or an adjective clause) is attached to the main clause.

Tip

To punctuate sentences correctly, look at the position of the main clause and the subordinate clause. If a subordinate clause precedes the main clause, use a comma. If the subordinate clause follows the main clause, no punctuation is required.

Subordinating Conjunctions

A subordinating conjunction is a word that joins a subordinate (dependent) clause to a main (independent) clause. Review the following chart of some common subordinating conjunctions and examples of how they are used:

Function	Subordinating Conjunction	Example
Concession-	although, while, though, whereas, even though-	Sarah completed her report even though she had to stay late to get it done.
Condition	if, unless, until	Until we know what is causing the problem, we will not be able to fix it
Manner	as if, as, though	Everyone in the conference room stopped talking at once, as though they had been stunned into silence.
Place	where, wherever	Rita is in Brazil where she has several important client Meetings.

Reason	because, since, so that,	I couldn't come for the wedding because I had fever in order that
Time	after, before, while, once, when	After the meeting had finished, we all went to Lunch.

KEY TAKEAWAYS

- Coordination and subordination join two sentences with related ideas.
- Coordination joins sentences with related and equal ideas, whereas subordination joins sentences with related but unequal ideas.
- Sentences can be coordinated using either a coordinating conjunction and a comma or a conjunctive adverb and a semicolon.
- Subordinate sentences are characterized by the use of a subordinate conjunction.
- In a subordinate sentence, a comma is used to separate the main clause from the dependent clause if

the dependent clause is placed at the beginning of the sentence.

Exercises:-

Complete the following sentences using appropriate subordinating conjunctions.

1. I wanted to see Golden TempleI go to Punjab.
2. She could not attend the meeting ,.....she came late.
3. _____ she tried really hard, she lost the race.
4. _____ sending everyone the same email, John composed a separate email for each of his friends.
5. _____ she comes, I will not talk to her.
6. _____ I prefer to live in an apartment, my wife wants to buy a house.
7. _____ you already know the answer, why are you asking me?
8. I will call you -----I know more about it.
9. My mom buys chocolate for meI come home.
10. You should better start study.....it is too late.

MODULE 3

Section -1

TRANSFORMATION OF SENTENCES

Sentences may be classified into declarative or assertive, imperative, interrogative and exclamatory sentences based on the meaning and word order. These sentences can be transformed or changed into different forms without changing the meaning of the sentence. This process is known as transformation of sentences. So, basically transformation of sentences means **changing the form or nature of a sentence without changing its meaning**. The various types of transformation can be classified as follows:

1. Assertive or Declarative Sentence:

Any sentence which states a fact or a statement may be called as an assertive or declarative sentence. They may be either affirmative or

negative. Assertive sentences end with a full stop (period).

Examples:

They are dancing.

She likes to swim.

2. Interrogative Sentence:

A sentence that asks a question is known as an interrogative sentence. These types of sentences end with a question mark.

Examples:

Did you wash your hands?

When did you go to the beach?

3. Imperative Sentence

A sentence that expresses a request or a command or an advice is called an imperative sentence.

Examples:

Please meet me at ten tomorrow morning. (A request)

Close the door. (An order)

4. Exclamatory Sentence

A sentence which expresses strong, excited feelings or emotions is known as an exclamatory sentence. Such sentences express joy, appreciation, sorrow, frustration etc. These sentences end with an exclamation mark.

Examples:

How dare you!

Excellent work! Keep it up!

Positive sentences may be **converted** into negative ones by adding words showing negative meaning like never, neither, no, not, not at all etc.

TYPES OF SENTENCES	POSITIVE	NEGATIVE
Statements When statements are turned from positive and negative, we have to add a 'not', 'n't' to the auxiliary verb.	He is an enthusiastic learner.	He is not an enthusiastic learner.

<p>In case an auxiliary verb is not there in the affirmative, we will have to add an auxiliary verb in the negative according to the tense of the verb in the positive sentence by adding negative words like never, not, neither...nor etc.</p>	<p>She enjoys baking cakes.</p> <p>He likes eating idlis and dosas.</p>	<p>She does not enjoy baking cakes.</p> <p>He likes neither idlis nor dosas.</p>
<p>Commands and Requests</p> <p>As imperative sentences have ‘you’ as their subject, the auxiliary verb will be ‘do’. So to form a negative we have to add ‘do not or don’t’ to the sentence.</p>	<p>Open the window.</p> <p>Please listen to me.</p>	<p>Do not open the window.</p> <p>Do not listen to me please.</p> <p>Or</p> <p>Don’t listen to me, please.</p>

<p>Questions</p> <p>Yes/ No</p> <p>questions which begins with an auxiliary verb can be converted into negative by adding 'not' after the subject</p>	<p>Is he a chef?</p> <p>Can you speak Arabic fluently?</p>	<p>Is he not a chef?</p> <p>Can you not speak Arabic fluently?</p>
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TRANSFORMATION OF AFFIRMATIVE TO NEGATIVE & VICE VERSA

The following methods may be used in order to change an affirmative sentence to a negative one **without affecting the meaning** of the original sentence:

1. Affirmative sentences with words like ‘only/alone’, changes into ‘none but/ nothing but/ not less than or not more than’ when changed to negative.

Example: Affirmative: I need a slice of pizza **only**.

Negative: I need **nothing but** a slice of pizza.

2. ‘Must/have to/ can’ in an affirmative sentence is replaced with ‘cannot but’ or ‘cannot help’ in a negative sentence.

Example: Affirmative: We **must** read well.

Negative: We **cannot but** read well.

3. ‘And/both’ in an affirmative statement becomes ‘not only...but also’ in a negative one.

Example: Affirmative: She ate bread **and** an egg.

Negative: She ate **not only** bread **but also** an egg.

4. When transforming an affirmative into a negative, the word ‘every’ is replaced with ‘there is no ...but’. However, in case of the word ‘everybody’, the words ‘nobody’ along with the opposite of the verb/adjective can be used in the negative.

Examples: Affirmative: **Every** teacher loves her students.

Negative: **There is no** teacher **but** loves her students.

Affirmative: **Everybody** loves smiling.

Negative: **Nobody** hates smiling.

5. 'Always' in an affirmative statement becomes 'never + the opposite word' in a negative statement.

Example: Affirmative: I am **always against** lying.

Negative: I am **never in favour** of lying.

6. Universal truths are transformed into interrogative negative sentences:

Example: Affirmative: Time passes quickly.

Negative: Doesn't time pass quickly?

7. 'Many' in affirmatives becomes '(not) a few' in negative sentences.

Example: Affirmative: I have **many** toys.

Negative: I do **not** have a **few** toys.

8. 'Sometimes' in affirmative becomes 'not always' in negative.

Examples: Affirmative: The inmates are **sometimes** happy.

Negative: The inmates are **not always** happy.

9. 'As soon as' in an affirmative turns to 'No sooner had...than' in a negative statement.

Example: Affirmative: **As soon as** the bus came, he jumped in.

Negative: **No sooner had** the bus come **than** he jumped in.

10. Many affirmative sentences can be transformed into negative by using negative word 'Not' and an 'opposite word' of the verb.

Example: Affirmative: I missed breakfast.

Negative: I could not eat breakfast.

EXERCISES (As given in the Text)

I. Change the sentences into negative :

1. He is a brave man.
2. I will never forgive her.
3. He is always late.
4. James is the best actor in the school.

5. As soon as the train arrived, we jumped in.

II. Change the sentences into affirmative :

1. The place is so cold that we cannot live there.
2. None but the police caught the thief.
3. No sooner had I finished the exam than the bell rang.
4. Nobody likes a fake person.
5. Not only Jack but also Jill went up the hill.

**TRANSFORMATION FROM ASSERTIVE
TO IMPERATIVE & VICE VERSA**

The following methods may be applied in order to change an affirmative/ assertive sentence into an imperative sentence:

1. If the assertive sentence consists of an auxiliary verb and no negative word then to make it imperative, remove the subject and auxiliary verb from the sentence.

Example: Assertive: You should obey the rules.

Imperative: Obey the rules.

2. If the assertive sentence is made up of an auxiliary verb and negative word ‘not’, then to make it imperative, remove subject and auxiliary verb from sentence and start the sentence with Do not.

Example: Assertive: You do not waste food.

Imperative: Do not waste food.

3. If the assertive sentence consists of an auxiliary verb ‘should’ and negative word ‘never’, then to convert it into an imperative sentence, remove the subject and auxiliary verb from the sentence and start sentence with ‘never’.

Example: Assertive: You should never break the rules.

Imperative: Never break the rules.

4. If the assertive sentence consists of a subject other than ‘you’ and there is no auxiliary verb, then to turn it into an imperative sentence, use object form of pronoun if subject is pronoun and start the sentence with ‘Let’.

Example: Assertive: We bake cookies.

Imperative: Let us bake cookies.

5. If the assertive sentence consists of pronoun as its subject (other than you) and an auxiliary verb along with a negative word (not), then in order to make it imperative, use object form of pronoun and start the sentence with 'Let' and place 'not' after the subject.

Example: Assertive: We do not do it.

Imperative: Let him not do it.

6. If the assertive sentence consist of noun as subject and auxiliary verb and also negative word 'not' then to make it imperative start the sentence with 'Let not'.

Example: Assertive: He does not dance to that song.

Imperative: Let him not dance to that song.

Change the sentences from Affirmative into Imperative:

1. They should obey their master.
2. He should finish the work.

3. You should always work hard.
4. You are requested to follow the rules.
5. We should not break the traffic rules.

**TRANSFORMATION FROM
AFFIRMATIVE TO INTERROGATIVE
SENTENCE & VICE VERSA**

We can change assertive sentences to interrogative by following the rules given below:

1. When an auxiliary verb is present, this is how the transformation takes place:

Affirmative: We can bath in the river.

Interrogative: Can't we bath in the river?

2. Affirmative sentences without an auxiliary verb are changed into interrogative by using 'Wh' question word + Do/Does/Did:

Example: Affirmative: Everyone loves the beach.

Interrogative: Who doesn't love the beach?

3. Words like nobody, never, no or none are changed to who+affirmative verb, and words like anybody/ever are changed into who+negative verb.

Examples: Affirmative: Nobody can go to Mars.

Interrogative: Who can go to Mars?

Affirmative: Anyone can do that.

Interrogative: Who can't do that?

4. 'There is no.../nothing but' in an affirmative sentence becomes 'who/what is...'.
Example: There is no use of a written exam.

What is the use of a written exam?

Change the sentences from Affirmative into Interrogative:

1. No one can solve the problem.
2. He can never get a first class.
3. You are a liar.
4. He can finish the work in time.
5. Everybody wants to achieve success in life.

TRANSFORMATION OF SENTENCES FROM AFFIRMATIVE TO EXCLAMATORY & VICE VERSA:

The following rules may be applied in order to change an assertive sentence into an exclamatory one and vice versa:

1. In exclamatory sentences, 'very' is replaced by 'what + a/an' or 'how' and these are used after verb and before adjective/adverb.

Examples: Assertive: It is a very beautiful place.

Exclamatory: What a beautiful place!

Assertive: She looks very beautiful.

Exclamatory: How beautiful she looks.

2. If the word 'wish' is used along with the subject in an assertive sentence, the word 'wish' is replaced with 'If...had/could/would'.

Example: Assertive:

Exclamatory:

Change the sentences from Affirmative into Exclamatory:

1. The day is very sunny.
2. It is a breath taking view.
3. I wish I were a millionaire.
4. I wish I had a magical wand to make all dreams come true.
5. You sing well.

Section - 2

TAG QUESTIONS

Tag question is a statement that is followed by a mini-question. These mini-questions or short questions at the end of a statement are known as Question tags. Question tags are usually asked for further confirmation or to check information or to ask for agreement. Tag questions (or question tags) are formed with the auxiliary or modal verb from the statement and the

appropriate subject. When forming tag questions , one has to keep the following points in mind:

1. A positive statement is followed by a negative question tag
2. A negative statement is followed by a positive question tag
3. If the verb in the main sentence is in the present simple, the question tag is formed by using the words 'do' or 'does'
4. On the other hand, if the verb in the main sentence is in the past simple, the question tag is formed using the word 'did'.
5. If the statement contains a word with a negative meaning, the question tag is supposed to be positive.
6. For a negative sentence without 'not', we must use a positive question tag.
7. In cases where 'have' is a main verb in the sentence and refers to states, there are two possibilities

8. In the case of simple present Imperatives, use ‘will’ or ‘would’.
9. In the case of an imperative sentence which is a polite request, use ‘won’t’
10. Use ‘shall’ if the statement uses the word ‘Let’s’.
11. The use of the Auxiliary must
12. When the personal pronoun I is used

It must also be noted that the intonation one uses while pronouncing a tag question could bring about a change in the meaning of tag questions in spoken language. When the statement is a real question, rising intonation is used and if it’s more of an affirmation seeking statement where the answer isn’t really required, the falling intonation is used.

EXERCISES

1. Aleena went for a swim, _____?
2. You like sambar, _____?

3. Pull a chair, _____?
4. It isn't a sunny day, _____?
5. We've been walking, _____?
6. You like near the beach, _____?
7. You would like to meet me, _____?
8. It is easy to get along with Rahul, _____?
9. You are getting married, _____?
10. He doesn't drive, _____?

Section - 3

ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE

The term 'voice' is a grammatical category which applies to verbs. In English, 'voice' expresses the relationship of the subject to the verb. There are basically two kinds of voices in English:

1. **Active:** In active voice, the subject does the action or **acts upon** the verb in such sentences and so the sentences are said to be in the active voice. The active voice emphasizes the person or

agent who performs the action. The active voice is more commonly used and it conveys a strong, clear tone while the passive voice is comparatively weaker.

Examples: The cat chased the mouse.

Raheem cooked the biryani.

- 2. Passive:** In passive voice, the subject receives the action or the subject is being **acted upon** (or is passive) and so the sentences are said to be in the passive voice. The passive voice lays stress on the recipient of the action or sometimes the action itself. We only use the passive voice when the receiver of the action is more important or when we have no idea about who did the action.

Examples: The mouse was chased by the cat.

The biryani was cooked by Raheem.

CHANGING ACTIVE INTO PASSIVE

In order to change an active voice sentence to a passive voice one, we must make the object of the active sentence into the subject of the passive

sentence. Also the verb ‘to be’ must be used in the same tense as the main verb of the active voice sentence. The past participle of the main verb in the active sentence must be used in the passive voice sentence. While forming a passive voice sentence, changes in the auxiliary verbs of all tense are as follows:

TENSE	ACTIVE VOICE SENTENCE	PASSIVE VOICE SENTENCE
Simple present	Tina helps me.	I am helped by Tina.
Present Continuous	Tina is helping me.	I am being helped by Tina.
Simple past	Tina helped me.	I was helped by Tina.
Past continuous	Tina was helping me.	I was being helped by Tina.
Present perfect	Tina has helped me.	I have been helped by Tina.
Past perfect	Tina had helped me.	I had been helped

		by Tina.
Simple Future	Tina will help me.	I will be helped by Tina.
Present Infinitive	Tina wants to keep the book.	The book wants to be kept by Tina.
Present Participle & Gerund	I have a feeling that Laya may be baking a cake.	I have a feeling that a cake is being baked by Laya.
Questions	Why did Laya bake the cake?	Why was the cake baked by Laya?

EXERCISES (As given in the Text) :

Form passive voice sentences from the following:

1. Mathew collects the bills
2. Maria opened the door.
3. We have done our assignments.
4. I will finish the job.
5. He can mark the wrong points.
6. The farmer ate a lot of potatoes.

7. We do not clean our house.
8. William will not pay his rent.
9. Did Sue draw this circle?
10. Could you feed the dog?
11. Someone has returned the lost key.
12. The father will not send you any message till tomorrow.
13. She is looking for the wounded soldier.
14. Has anyone informed you about the change of program?
15. My colleague stole my confidential files.

Section - 4

DIRECT AND INDIRECT SPEECH

In grammar, indirect speech (also called as reported speech or indirect narration/discourse) refers to reporting someone else's statement in your own words without changing the meaning of the statement. Basically, it means quoting a

person's words without using the exact words and yet not causing a change in the meaning of the statement is known as a reported speech (indirect speech). For example,

Direct speech : Sairah says, “ I love cooking, but not cleaning.”

Indirect speech : Sairah says that she loves cooking but dislikes cleaning.

In the first sentence, the reporter conveys Sairah's words exactly as she said it using her actual words. In the second sentence, the reporter conveys the essence or the basic message of Sairah's words but does not use the exact same words. So through this example, we may understand that both direct and indirect speeches are two different methods of reporting the statement of a person.

Key Terms :

1. **Reporting Speech:** The first part in a direct speech is known as reporting speech.
2. **Reported Speech:** The second part of the sentence in a direct speech is called as reported speech. This part is enclosed within inverted commas or quotation marks.
3. **Reporting Verb:** The verb present in the reporting speech is known as the reporting verb.
4. **Reported Verb:** The verb present in the reported speech is called as the reported verb.

RULES TO KEEP IN MIND WHILE CHANGING A DIRECT SPEECH INTO INDIRECT SPEECH:

1. **CHANGE OF PRONOUNS :**
 - a. Pronouns of the first person (I) in direct speech are changed in the indirect speech to the same person of the introductory verb. For example,

Direct Speech - Nancy said, "I am reading."

Indirect Speech - Nancy said that she was reading.

- b. Pronouns of the second person (You) in the direct speech are changed in indirect speech as the noun or pronoun which comes after the introductory verb. The introductory verb will be ‘told’ instead of ‘said’ in the indirect speech(or reported speech). For example,

Direct Speech - Vineetha said to me, “You are a good listener.”

Indirect Speech - Vineetha told me that I was a good listener.

- c. Pronouns of the third person (He, She, It) in the direct speech will remain exactly the same in the indirect speech. For example,

Direct Speech - She said to me, “He is good.”

Indirect Speech - She told me that he was good.

EXERCISES (As given in the text)

Turn the following sentences into indirect speech:

1. James said to me, "I will do it now."
2. You said, "I have not completed the work."
3. He said to her, "You have been a studious child."
4. Ram said, "I saw this man long ago."
5. Jeena said, "I came here yesterday."
6. Ryan said, "I went to the cinema last night."
7. She said, "Today is a fine day."
8. I said, "These mangoes are sweet."
9. She said to him, "I shall leave this place tomorrow."
10. He said to Ram, "I had no sleep last night."

2. **CHANGES IN VERBS:**

a. If the reporting verb is in the present (say) or future tense (will say), the verb in the reported speech is not changed at all and this verb could be in any tense (present, past or future). For example,

Direct Speech - The chef says, "Raju is a good cook."

Indirect Speech - The chef says that Raju is a good cook.

- b. If the reporting verb is in the past tense, the the verb in the indirect speech or reported speech will also be changed based on the following rules:
- i. Present indefinite tense is changed into past indefinite tense. For example,

Direct Speech : Doctor said, “They take medicines daily.”

Indirect Speech : Doctor said that they took medicines daily.

- ii. Present continuous is converted into past continuous tense. For example,

Direct Speech : Doctor said, “They are taking medicines daily.”

Indirect Speech : Doctor said that they were taking medicines daily.

- iii. Present perfect is altered into the past perfect tense. For example,

Direct speech - Doctor said, “They have taken medicines.”

Indirect speech - Doctor said that they had taken medicines.

- iv. Present perfect continuous tense is changed into past perfect continuous tense. For example,

Direct Speech : Doctor said, “They have been taking medicines since yesterday.”

Indirect Speech : Doctor said that they had been taking medicines since yesterday.

- v. Past indefinite is changed into past perfect tense. For example,

Direct Speech - Doctor said, “They took medicines.”

Indirect Speech - “Doctor said that they had taken medicines.”

- vi. Past continuous tense is changes into past perfect Continuous tense. For example,

Direct Speech : Doctor said, “They were taking medicines.”

Indirect Speech : Doctor said that they had been taking medicines.

- vii. Changes are not required to be made into past perfect and past perfect continuous tenses. For example,

Direct Speech - Doctor said, “They had taken medicines.”

Indirect Speech - Doctor said that they had taken medicines.

- viii. No changes are made in future tense, except the words ‘shall’ and ‘will’ will be changed into ‘could’. For example,

Direct Speech : Doctor said, “They will take medicines.”

Indirect Speech : Doctor said that they would take medicines.

3. Changes in different kinds of Sentences

I. Assertive Sentences : This refers to sentences that make a statement. The statements may be positive, negative, true or false statements. In order to change or convert such sentences into indirect speech, the above said rules may be

applied except that the word 'said' is at times replaced with the word 'told'. For example,

Direct Speech : She said to me, "I would love to visit the bakery."

Indirect Speech : She told me that she would love to visit the bakery.

II. Imperative Sentences: Imperative sentences are sentences that give a direct command or an order and they may be in the form of an advice, request or order. According to the degree of force used by the speaker a full stop or a sign of exclamation is used at the end of the sentence. (Eg. - Shut the door!). In order to change such sentences into indirect speech, the above mentioned rules along with the following rules may be applied:

a. The reporting verb is changed into order in case the sentence gives a direct command. For example,

Direct Speech : The Principal said to me, “Shut the door.”

Indirect Speech : The Principal ordered me to shut the door.

- b. The reporting verb is changed into a request in case the sentence makes a request. For example,

Direct Speech : Nancy said to me, “Shut the door!”

Indirect Speech : Nancy requested me to shut the door.

- c. The reporting verb is changed into ‘advise’ if the sentence is giving a piece of advice. For example,

Direct Speech : My teacher said to me, “You must read the novel and not the summary for a better understanding”

Indirect Speech : My teacher advised me to read novels and not the summary for a better understanding.

- d. The reporting verb is changed into 'forbade' when the sentence prevents someone from doing something. For example,

Direct Speech : He said to Biju, "Do not overeat."

Indirect Speech : He forbade Biju from overeating.

EXERCISES (As given in the text)

1. I said to my children, "Please allow me to work."
2. He said to me, "wait till I return."
3. Sam asked his friend, "please lend me your pen."
4. Shoot these terrorists, "The commander said to the soldiers."
5. The teacher said, "look at the black board."
6. The headmaster said to the children, "work hard if you want to pass."
7. They said, "waiter, come and serve us food."
8. He said, "Please listen to me."
9. "Go away," she told Ashok.

10. Father said to him, “work hard if you want to win.”

III. Interrogative Sentences: Those sentences that ask questions are known as interrogative sentences. Interrogative sentences end with a question mark (also known as a sign of interrogation). Some of the rules to be kept in mind while converting an interrogative sentence into indirect speech are:

1. The reporting verb ‘said to’ is converted into ‘asked’.
2. If the direct speech has the reporting verb at the beginning of the sentence, then ‘if’ is used in place of ‘that’.
3. If the direct speech has interrogative words like who, when, how, why, when etc, then ‘if’ is not used. Neither are any other words added to it.
4. When a direct interrogative sentence is converted into an indirect speech, then a full stop replaces the question mark at the end of the sentence.

Examples:

Direct speech: The doctor said to him, “Are you ill?”

Indirect speech: The doctor asked him if he was ill.

EXERCISES (As given in the Text)

1. I said to Laila, “Have you brought lunch today?”
2. He said to us, “Will you finish your work tomorrow?”
3. Mother said to Neena, “Why did you come late today?”
4. You said to me, “Did you write a letter to me last week?”
5. The teacher said to them, “Why did you make noise yesterday in the class?”
6. Hari said to Sita, “Who teaches you English?”
7. I said to her, “When did your father join Railways?”

8. The manager said to the secretary, “will you attend the meeting tomorrow?”

9. I said to my children, “Do you love me?”

10. Father said to me, “How much money have you got?”

IV. Exclamatory Sentences: Sentences which express our feelings and emotions are known as exclamatory sentences. An exclamation mark (!) is used at the end of an exclamatory sentence. In order to change exclamatory sentences into indirect speech the following rules should be kept in mind:

1. If the exclamatory sentence contains an interjection like *alas!*, *aha!*, *hurry!* etc., these interjections are omitted in the indirect speech
2. If the word ‘said’ appears in the exclamatory sentence, then it is replaced with ‘exclaimed with joy’, ‘exclaimed joyfully’, ‘exclaimed with great wonder or sorrow’ etc in the indirect speech.

3. The exclamatory sentence becomes an assertive sentence when it is converted into indirect speech.

Example :

Direct Speech : He said, “What a delicious dosa this is!”

Indirect speech : He exclaimed what a delicious dosa it was.

EXERCISES (As given in the Textbook)

1. The nurse said, “Alas! The child is dead.”
2. He said to her, “May God be with you!”
3. Shiva said, “How handsome I am!”
4. Father told Don, “What a lazy fellow you are!”
5. They said, “Hurrah! We have passed.”
6. She said, “Oh! I missed the bus.”
7. Ravi said to her, “What a beautiful place!”
8. He said, “How lucky you are!”
9. Mother said, “Wow! The cake looks awesome!”
10. “Alas! I am ruined,” said the poor man.

RULES FOR CONVERTING INDIRECT TO DIRECT SENTENCES:

Until now, we were talking about the rules to be followed while converting different kinds of direct sentences to indirect sentences. Now let us take a look at rules to be kept in mind while transforming an indirect sentence to a direct one.

The rules are as follows:

1. Use the reporting verb 'say' or 'said to' in its correct tense.
2. Remove conjunctions like 'that', 'to', 'whether' etc. wherever necessary.
3. Use question marks, exclamatory marks, quotation marks and fulltops wherever necessary.
4. Place a comma before the statement.
5. Always write the first letter of the statement in capital letters.
6. Change the past tense into present tense wherever the reporting verb is in past tense.
7. Convert past perfect into either past tense or present perfect as required.

EXERCISES (As given in the Textbook)

Convert the following sentences from indirect to direct sentences:

1. She said that she had baked a cake.
2. Leela said that she might meet him there.
3. He said that Sun rises in the East.
4. She says that she will go to school the next day.
5. The old man exclaimed with sorrow that he was ruined.

Section – 5

SIMPLE, COMPLEX AND COMPOUND SENTENCES

Simple, Complex and Compound are different types of sentences. In order to understand the difference between each of these, one must first develop an idea about what a clause is. So let's first look at what a 'Clause' means.

CLAUSE

A clause consists of a group of words which contains a subject and a verb. A clause contains only one subject and one verb. A clause may form part of a sentence or it may be a complete sentence in itself. Clauses may be divided into two types :

1. Independent Clause
2. Dependent Clause

Now let's first take a look at **Independent Clauses**. Independent clauses function on its own to make a meaningful sentence. They appear like regular sentences most of the time and are also called as the principal or main clause. An independent clause can also be part of a multi-clause sentence. For example, I want to buy a cup of coffee, but I don't have enough money. Now in this sentence, there are two clauses and both are independent clauses because they make sense

if used as a separate sentence on its own. That is, both ‘I want to buy a cup of coffee’ and ‘I don’t have enough money’ can function as separate sentences.

On the other hand, **Dependent clauses** cannot stand alone as a sentence. It is always a part of a sentence on which it depends for meaning. So in other words, a dependent clause cannot function on its own because it leaves an idea or thought unfinished. It is also called as a subordinate clause. There are three types of dependent clauses, they are:

1. Noun Clause
2. Adjective Clause
3. Adverb Clause

Now that we have a basic understanding of what clauses are, let’s study what simple, complex and compound sentences are.

A SIMPLE SENTENCE

A simple sentence is a sentence which consists of only one clause, with a single subject and predicate. The clause in a simple sentence will be an independent clause. Example : Hari likes reading. This is a simple sentence with a single subject (Hari) and one predicate (reading).

A COMPLEX SENTENCE

A complex sentence consists of one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses. A complex sentence must contain at least one dependent clause. Example : The exhibition was cancelled, because of the rain.

A COMPOUND SENTENCE

A Sentence containing at least two independent clauses is known as a compound sentence. Basically, a compound sentence joins two or more independent

clauses with a coordinator such as ‘for’, ‘and’, ‘but’, or a semi-colon. A compound sentence does not contain any dependent clauses. Example: It rained and the exhibition was cancelled.

Now let’s take a look at how transformations can be applied on the above given types of sentences.

TRANSFORMATION OF SENTENCES

- **CONVERTING SIMPLE SENTENCES INTO COMPLEX 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.

Examples : Simple Sentence : He inherited his mother’s land.

Complex Sentence : He inherited the land **that belonged to his mother.**

Simple Sentence : I saw an empty box of chocolates.

Complex Sentence : I saw a box of chocolates **that was empty**.

Simple Sentence : The lady sitting next to the window is his wife.

Complex Sentence : The lady **who is sitting** next to the window is his wife.

Some points to be remembered while transforming a simple sentence to a complex one are:

1. The single, independent clause in the simple sentence is converted into two clauses - one should be an independent clause and the other should be dependent clause.
2. Use subordinating conjunctions before the subject in the dependent clause.

EXERCISES :

Transform the following simple sentences into complex sentences : -

1. She baked cakes for a living.
2. On seeing the teacher, he ran back to his seat.
3. We need a house to live in.
4. He liked his former job.
5. He bought his sister's shop.

- **TRANSFORMING SIMPLE SENTENCES INTO COMPOUND SENTENCES :**

A simple sentence can be converted into a compound sentence by expanding a word or a phrase into a clause and by using a coordinating conjunction to connect both the clauses.

a. By using cumulative conjunctions like 'and', 'not only...but also' etc.

Example: Simple Sentence: Besides being intelligent, she is also a dancer.

Compound Sentence: She is not intelligent but also a dancer.

b.By using conjunctions like ‘but’, ‘still’, ‘yet’ etc.

Example: Simple Sentence: In spite of his poverty, he is happy.

Compound Sentence: He is poor but he is happy.

c.By using alternative conjunctions like ‘or’, ‘otherwise’, ‘else’ etc.

Example: Simple: You must a diet rich in iron to prevent anemia.

Compound: You must take a diet rich in iron or you will not be able to prevent anemia.

EXERCISES

Convert the following simple sentences into compound sentences:

1. We must eat to live.
2. In spite of many failures he hopes to succeed.

3. Being lazy, he failed.
4. Being guilty he went into hiding.
5. The old woman sat in a corner, knitting.

- **TRANSFORMATION OF COMPOUND SENTENCES INTO SIMPLE SENTENCES :**

A compound sentence can be converted into a simple sentence by reducing the number of clauses into one. This conversion can take place by using a prepositional phrase or a participle or infinitive phrases.

a.By using prepositional phrase

Example: Compound Sentence : She repeatedly failed but she did not give up.

Simple Sentence : In Spite of repeated failures, she did not give up.

b.By using Participle

Example: Compound Sentence: The sun rose and the sky cleared.

Simple Sentence: The sun having risen, the sky cleared.

c.By using Infinitive

Example: Compound: You must eat well, or you will not grow strong.

Simple: You must eat well to grow strong.

EXERCISES

Convert the following compound sentences into simple sentences :

1. He must work hard or he will fail.
2. You must practice well otherwise you will lose the match.
3. We must eat or we cannot live.
4. She was very happy, and she started to dance.
5. Radhi worked hard, so the boss praised him.

• TRANSFORMATION OF COMPOUND SENTENCES INTO COMPLEX SENTENCES:

Compound sentences may be converted to complex sentences by replacing the coordinating conjunction with a subordinating conjunction so

that one part of the sentence is dependent on the other part for its meaning.

a.Compound sentences with the conjunction ‘and’. For example:

Compound: She wanted to pass the exam **and** worked hard.

Complex: She worked hard **so that** she could pass the exam.

b.Compound sentences with conjunctions like ‘but’, ‘still’, ‘however’, ‘nevertheless’ etc. For example:

Compound: He is rich, but he is humble.

Complex: Though he is rich, he is humble.

c.Compound sentences with alternative conjunctions like ‘or’, ‘otherwise’, ‘else’, ‘therefore’, ‘either...or’ etc. For example:

Compound: Workout for half an hour daily or you will gain weight.

Complex: If you do not work out for half an hour daily, you will gain weight.

- **TRANSFORMATION OF COMPLEX SENTENCES INTO SIMPLE SENTENCES:**

A complex sentence can be converted into a simple sentence by changing noun clauses, adjective clauses and adverb clauses to a word or phrase.

a. By converting noun clause into a word or a phrase. For example:

Complex: She wanted to know *why she had been sent out*.

Simple: She wanted to know *the reason for being sent out*.

b. By converting an adjective clause into a word or phrase. For example:

Complex: The *bag that is made of cotton* was bought from Jaipur.

Simple: The *cotton bag* was bought from Jaipur.

c. By converting an adverb clause into a word or a phrase. For example:

Complex: *When he saw* the Principal he ran away.

Simple: *On seeing* the Principal he ran away.

EXERCISES (As given in the Text)

1. He said that he was an innocent.
2. As he was tired, he went to bed.
3. He died in the village where he lived.
4. He was too tired that he cannot stand.
5. I saw a girl who had blue eyes.
6. I saw a dog that was wounded.
7. The girl who is sitting next to Peter is his sister.
8. I was the first who reached the spot.
9. He liked the place where he lived formerly.
10. We need a house where we can live in.

• **TRANSFORMATION OF COMPLEX SENTENCES INTO COMPOUND SENTENCES:**

A complex sentence can be transformed into a compound one by changing a dependent clause into an independent clause. In order to do this, we need to remove that subordinating conjunction

and connect the two clauses with a coordinating conjunction. Dependent clauses are introduced by subordinating conjunctions like ‘when’, ‘after’, ‘because’, ‘since’, ‘if’ etc. Independent clauses, on the other hand, are usually introduced by the coordination conjunctions like ‘and’, ‘or’, ‘but’, ‘so’, ‘yet’ etc.

a. By using cumulative conjunction ‘and’. For example:

Complex: **As soon as** the rain stopped, we started the journey.

Compound: The rain stopped, **and** we started the journey.

b. By using conjunctions like *but*, *still*, *however*, *nevertheless* etc. For example:

Complex: **Although** they failed the test, they performed well.

Compound: They failed the test, **but** they performed well.

c. By using alternative conjunctions like ‘or’, ‘otherwise’, ‘else’, ‘either...or’ etc. For example:

Complex: If you do not study hard, you will be unable to score good marks.

Compound: You must study hard or you will be unable to score good marks.

EXERCISES (As given in the Text)

1. Though he tried his luck, he didn't win the lottery.
2. When the teacher entered the class, the students stood up.
3. As soon as we heard the gunshot, we rushed to the spot.
4. If you do not hurry you will miss the bus.
5. Though the scene is over, the picture isn't over yet.
6. Although the stock markets are down, we still should try to invest in shares.
7. I called for John who came at once.
8. Everybody knows that Gandhi is the father of our nation.

9. Unless he works hard, he cannot pass the examination.

10. If you send in a written request, we will look into the matter.

FOR FURTHER READING

1. Visit this link to try out online quizzes on sentence transformations and kinds of sentences :
<https://www.learngrammar.net/practice/27/transformation-of-sentences-exercise-practice-with-explanation>

Section – 6

COLLOCATIONS

Collocation is a group of two or more words which we usually use together as a set phrase. The word ‘collocation’ itself explains its meaning as ‘co’ means together and ‘location’ means

place. So when put together, co+location = Words that are located together. For example, we use ‘heavy rain’ instead of ‘strong rain’ and similarly, we say ‘tall building’ instead of ‘high building’. Although we can use other word combinations, it is important to understand the commonly used collocations in order to improve their fluency. Learning and using collocations also makes our English sound more natural.

Collocations are broadly divided into two :

1. **Lexical Collocation** : Lexical collocation is a type of construction where a verb, noun, adjective or adverb forms a connection with another word.

TYPES OF LEXICAL COLLOCATIONS :

1. **ADVERB + ADJECTIVE :**

Examples :

- Painfully slow
- Widely believed

2. ADJECTIVE + NOUN :

Examples :

- Deep sleep
- Strong Tea

3. NOUN + NOUN :

Examples :

- Bar of soap
- Round of applause

4. NOUN + VERB :

Examples :

- Dogs bark
- Snow falls

5. VERB + NOUN :

Examples :

- Keep a secret
- Give a speech

6. VERB + ADVERB :

Examples :

- Speak loudly
- Walk softly

2. Grammatical Collocation : Grammatical collocation is a type of construction where a verb or adjective must be followed by a particular preposition, or a noun must be followed by a particular form of the verb.

Example :

- Verb + Preposition : burst into tears
- Adjective + Preposition : angry at
- Noun + Preposition : attempt to do it

Before we end our discussion on collocations, it is important to discuss two more types of collocations , namely, strong and weak. For example, **Strong collocations** are those words that don't match to many other words. The connection is quite strong as there are very few other acceptable or preferable options to say the same thing. For example, some words like 'curly', 'blissful' etc can collocate with limited words only. **Weak collocations** are those words that have many other options. That is, such words can

collocate with many other words. For example, the expression “very interesting” is commonly used, but the collocation is weak because ‘really interesting’ or ‘extremely interesting’ can also be used as substitutes.

EXERCISES

Fill in the blanks using appropriate words that would complete the collocation.

1. She will _____ a speech at the Convocation ceremony.
(a) Give (b) Say
2. Can you _____ a secret ?
(a) give (b) keep
3. He _____ full attention to his work.
(a) Paid (b) took
4. She did not _____ rashly when she was angry or irritated.
(a) Pretend (b) act
5. I make it a point to _____ in touch with my old friends.
(a) Continue (b) keep

Section - 7

MOVEMENT

Recursion is a term used in generative grammar to refer to the innate ability of humans to use finite number of grammatical constituents to generate infinite number of acceptable and grammatical sentences. In simpler words, a linguistic element or grammatical structure that can be used repeatedly in a sequence is said to be recursive. In linguistics, recursion enables ‘discrete infinity’ by embedding phrases within phrases of the same type in a hierarchical structure. Recursion can be used to create infinite sequences. Recursion may therefore be used to generate sentences of any size or shape in any natural language. It is also an important point that differentiates human language from animal communication system

Movement has been a key concept in transformational theories of generative grammar. Movement is a syntactic rule for moving a piece of structure within the tree, giving rise to displacement situations where a word or constituent appears in some position other than where we could expect it.

There are two types of movement:

1. NP Movement
2. Wh- movement

MODULE 4

IMPORTANT GRAMMATICAL CONCEPTS

Section – 1

TIME, TENSES AND ASPECTS

Tense refers to the time period in which the verb of a sentence places an action. Or in other words, it refers to the way verbs change their form in order to indicate at which time a situation occurs or an event takes place. So, any of the forms of a verb that distinguish when an action or state of being occurs or exists is known as a tense. There are three basic tenses in English: Present, Past and Future. For all three of these tenses, there are subcategories. These subcategories are called **aspects**. So, aspect refers to the duration of an event within a particular tense. Aspect describes the action's degree of progress or completion. So **tense** tells us when a particular action began and it is **aspect** that tells us whether an action

was continuous, completed, or something else. There are four aspects in English. They are : Simple, Progressive, Perfect and Perfect Progressive. Let's now take a look at each of these aspects in detail :

PRESENT TENSE

The present tense refers to circumstances that exist now, or that have taken place over a period of time which includes the present. Present tense can also be used in order to express basic facts or circumstances that are continuous. The different types of present tense are as follows:

- 1. Simple Present:** Simple present expresses things like universal truths, theories and principles, proverbs/sayings, characteristics, professional activities, normal routine activities and habitual activities.

Example: The sun *sets* in the West

 . I *wash* the car

2. Present Progressive: The present progressive expresses continuous actions. In order to show that the action is continuous in nature the verbs are usually paired with the appropriate form of the verb *to be* like am, is and are.

Examples: They *are* always *working* at the cafe.

I *am washing* the car

3. Present Perfect : Present perfect is used to express a completed event which is still relevant to the present. Often ‘have’ and ‘has’ is paired along with the verbs in this case in order to show readers that these actions began in the past and are still occurring in the present.

Examples : Sheela *has written* a book on English grammar.

I *have washed* the car.

4. Present Perfect Progressive : Present perfect progressive indicates that an action began in the past and

is still going on. It can also be used with time phrases like 'for', 'since', 'how long', 'all the time', 'all week' etc. The present perfect progressive tense combines *has/have* with *been* and the verb in order to show that the action began in the past and is still occurring in the present.

Examples : The baby *has been* crying all day.
 I *have been* washing the car.

PAST TENSE

Past tense refers to events that have taken place in the past or an event that occurred continually in the past. It can also be used when discussing speculative or hypothetical situations. The various types of past tense are given below:

- 1. Simple Past** : The simple past expresses a past event or action. Simple past is also used when the time of a past action is implied, not expressed. In the examples given , you can see that the past tense of the verbs (took, washed) are used. This is

in order to show that these actions have already taken place.

Examples : The father *took* his son to the beach every day last summer.

I *washed* the car.

2. Past Progressive : The past progressive expresses a continuous action in the past. In the past progressive tense, the primary action verbs (cooking, washing) are paired with the past tense of the verb *to be* (*was*) to show that the action/ event occurred continually in the past.

Examples : She *was cooking* dinner when the electricity went out.

I *was washing* the car.

3. Past Perfect : The past perfect expresses a completed action from the past. So verbs in past perfect express an action that both began and was also completed in the past. Here, 'had' is paired with the main verb in the sentence.

Examples : I *had already seen* Vineetha that morning.

I *had washed* the car.

4. Past Perfect Progressive: Past perfect progressive expresses a continuous, completed action that had taken place in the past. In the example given below, you will notice that this tense combines *have/ has* with *been* and the past tense of the verb (baking, washing) in order to show that the action occurred continually in the past until the action was completed.

Examples: I *had been baking* when she dropped in to visit me.

I *had been washing* the car.

FUTURE TENSE

Future tense is used to express an action or events that will take place in the future. Future verbs are formed by combining them with words like 'shall' or 'will' or the phrase 'going to'. The different kinds of future tenses are as follows:

1. Simple Future : Simple future expresses an action that will take place in the future.

Examples : I *shall be* eighteen on my next birthday.

I *will wash* my car later.

2. Future Progressive: Future progressive is used to express a continuous action which will occur in the future. In order to show that the action is continuous and in the future, the verbs are paired with ‘will be’, and to show that they are progressive, the main verb usually ends with ‘-ing’.

Examples: He *will be conducting* a webinar at around six tomorrow night.

I *will be washing* my car next week.

3. Future Perfect: The future perfect expresses a completed action that will have taken place in the future. Here, ‘will’ and ‘have’ are paired with the main verb in

order to show that these actions have already taken place in the future.

Examples : Neha *will have finished* baking by the time the fair begins.

I *will have finished* washing my car before Friday.

4. Future Perfect Progressive: Future perfect progressive tense expresses a continuous, completed action that will have taken place in the future. The verb is paired with ‘will’ to show that it takes place in the future and ‘have been’ is also used to show that it is completed. Also an ‘-ing’ verb will be there in the sentence to show that it is progressive or continuous.

Examples : By the month of January, Ahmad *will have been* working for Toystore for four consecutive years!

I *would have been* washing my car for hours by the time you wake up tomorrow.

EXERCISES (TAKEN FROM THE TEXT)

Fill in the correct form of the verb:

1. My family have _____ (buy) some land in Southern Karnataka recently. They _____ (build) a bungalow there at the moment.
2. Arun and Maithali _____ (go) to a concert tomorrow night. They _____ (look forward to) it the whole week.
3. Unnikrishnan _____ (watch) the news on TV every day and it _____ (help) with his English.
4. My car _____ (break) down when I _____ (drive) home from work. I _____ (fix) it if I _____ (know) what was wrong. But I didn't so ___ (have) to take it to the garage.
5. Mrs. Santha said that one day she _____ (retire) from teaching. She said that she _____ (spend) her new free time learning about computers.

6. I _____ (not sleep) at all last night.
Someone _____ (listen) to music all night.
7. The judge sentenced the man to 6 years in prison
because he _____ (rob) a bank.
8. She _____ (not see) her father since he
_____ (start) to work in Mahe two years ago.
9. Deepa phoned and explained that she
_____ (not can) to come to the party the
next day because she _____ (be) still sick.
10. I _____ (just see) the film “Gone with
the Wind”. _____ (you see) it too? - No, I
_____ (not have) but I _____ (read) the
book.
11. My niece _____ (fly) home from London today.
Her flight _____ (arrive) in an hour so I
_____ (leave) for the airport right now to get
there in time.
12. I _____ (use) to play badminton when I was
at the university.
13. Last year I _____ (go) on a school trip to
Shimla. We (have) a very interesting time.

14. At the moment, I _____ (think) about what subjects to take next year but I _____ (make) a final decision yet.
15. A few people _____ (misbehave) in class sometimes, but generally everyone is quite well behaved.

Section – 2

ANOMALOUS FINITES

A verb may be finite or non-finite in form. A **finite** verb is a verb that shows tense, number (singular or plural) or person. On the other hand, a verb form which is not affected by number or person is called **non - finite**. Anomalous finites are irregular finite verbs which are different from other finite verbs and hence they are called ‘anomalous’. The word anomalous means irregular, abnormal or atypical. **Anomalous finites** are termed as **irregular verbs** because they do not form the past tense in the regular manner by the addition of -ed, -

d or -t, instead they make a change in the root vowel. Some anomalous finites like must or ought have no past tense forms at all. Unlike other finites, anomalous finites are the only verbs in modern English that can form their negatives by the simple addition of ‘**not**’ and they are also the only verbs that can be used along with ‘**n’t**’ (the shortened form of ‘not’). In English grammar, ‘anomalous finites’ refers to the group of 24 finites given below :

- Is, am, are, was, were
- Has, have, had
- Do, does, did
- Will, would; shall, should; can, could; must, ought, need, dare, used; may, might

USE OF ANOMALOUS FINITES

Now that you must have formed an idea of what Anomalous finites are, let’s take a look at the uses of these verbs. Anomalous finites play an important role in the formation of negatives, questions and question tags. They are also commonly used in short answers and as

additions to remarks. Some of the most prominent uses of anomalous finites have been discussed below :

1. **To make negative sentences** : In modern English it isn't possible to make a negative sentence by simply adding 'not' to the positive statement. Only an anomalous infinite can form their negatives by simply adding 'not' or 'n't'.

Examples : She loved me.

She **did not** love me. (NOT She loved not me.)

Tina called me.

Tina **didn't** call me. (NOT Tina called not me.)

2. **To emphasize an affirmative statement** : To emphasize an affirmative statement the anomalous finites *do*, *does* and *did* could be placed before the verb to show emphasis.

Examples : Adil did accept the invitation. (This sentence is more emphatic than ‘Adil accepted the invitation.’)

I do want you to come. (This is also more emphatic than ‘I want you to come.’)

3. To form questions: A question is usually formed by putting the anomalous finite before the subject of the sentence. And if the affirmative statement does not contain an anomalous finite, the auxiliary ‘do’ and its forms are used in order to make questions.

Examples : He is a good dancer. **Is** he a good dancer?

He should obey. **Should** he obey?

She likes cricket. **Does** she like cricket?

4. To form negative questions : Anomalous finites are also used to form negative questions.

Examples : Iza **did not** touch it. **Did** Iza **not** touch it? **Didn’t** Iza touch it?

She **does not** like it. **Does** she **not** like it?
Doesn't she like it?

Section - 3

SUBJECT VERB AGREEMENT

The word 'concord' means agreement or harmony and is derived from the Latin for agreement. Hence in English grammar, concord refers to the grammatical agreement between two words in a sentence. So concord is the agreement between the subject and the verb in number and person in the sentence. Or we could say that subject - verb concord is when the subject of a sentence and the verb of a sentence agree. This means that in a subject-verb concord, if the subject of the sentence is singular, the verb must also be singular. And if the subject is plural, the verb also must be plural.

Example : The bakery (subject) is (verb) closed.

The bakeries (subject) are (verb) closed.

Listed below are some examples of circumstances where (and how) you use concord and certain exceptions as well :

1. A phrase in between the subject and verb :

Sometimes we tend to get confused in identifying the correct subject of a sentence. This happens especially when a phrase comes in between the subject and the verb.

For example, in the sentence, “The message between the lines is that we need to get there before winter.”, the tendency is to consider ‘lines’ as the subject and thereby use a plural verb (are) instead of singular (is). But it is to be noted that ‘between the lines’ is merely a prepositional phrase and not the subject of the sentence. The subject here is ‘message’, which is singular and so the verb must also be singular.

2. When two subjects are connected by ‘or’, ‘nor’, ‘either/or’ or ‘neither/nor’ :

In cases where two singular subjects are connected by either/or, or neither/ nor, one must use a singular verb.

Examples : Janaky Ma’am or Mohammed Sir **is** sure to come.

Either Abdulla or Justin **has** the keys to the seminar hall.

3. When two subjects are connected by the word ‘and’ :

When you have two subjects connected by ‘and’, use the plural form of the verb.

Examples : Jaya and Jenny **are** at the library.

The cat and its kittens **are** missing.

4. Plural subjects that call for singular verbs :

We must use a singular verb when the subject conveys a single unit of distance, time or money.

Example : Hundred rupees **is** a good price for a kilo of that fish.

Half an hour **is** all I have to prepare for my last exam.

5. Subjects that are collective nouns :

Some words form a collective, singular subject like team, faculty, staff, government, audience etc. So in such cases it is important to remember that a singular verb should be used and not plural.

For example, The team **is** holding a celebration at the hotel.

The faculty **wants** to hold a meeting.

6. Other subjects that call for Singular verbs :

Words like everyone, each, everybody, nobody, somebody, none, anyone, anybody, no-one and someone.

Examples : Each of their team members **has** to fill up the form.

Someone **has** left their bag in the library.

None of us **wants** to take up extra work now.

Everyone **is** having a great time.

7. Uncountable nouns are treated as singular :

Uncountable nouns like water, gold, silver, air etc are treated as singular subject and therefore followed by singular verbs.

Examples : Air **is** necessary for life.

Silver **is** a precious metal used in making ornaments.

8. Titles of certain books are treated as singular as they denote one unit :

Titles of books are singular nouns that may have a plural form. But since we are talking about a single book, it is treated as a singular noun and hence combined with a singular verb.

Examples : “Of Cats and Kings” **is** an entertaining book.

“Little Women” **is** a beautiful coming of age novel.

EXERCISE (FROM THE TEXT) :

I. Attempt the following questions :

Make use of the verb given in the brackets :

1. (Do/Does) everyone in the band play well?
2. (Has/ Have) the books or other supplies come?
3. Ethics (is/are) a code of values.
4. Civics (was/were) my dad's best subject.
5. Everybody on the team (show/shows) outstanding ability.
6. Measles (is/are) very contagious.
7. Mrs. Sharma, along with Mrs. Kalpana, (do/does) volunteer work.
8. Neither sheets nor towels (is/are) furnished at camp.
9. Next week the Smith family (leave/leaves) for vacation.
10. Either Suraj or his friends (is/are) planning to attend.
11. In the jungle, the herd often (stampede/stampedes).
12. Every one of the girls (do/does) her shorthand homework.
13. Politics (appeal/appeals) to some people.

14. On the table (was/were) a pen, a pad of paper and two rulers.
15. One of the students (is/are) studying algebra.
16. The curtains in the room (don't/doesn't) match the colors of the walls.
17. The women, as well as the men (sing/sings) beautifully.
18. Shopping for school clothes often (test/tests) a mother's patience.
19. Sunny, in addition to his brothers, (sleep/sleeps) in this tent.
20. Why (hasn't/haven't) someone given us the signal?

Section - 4

DEGREES OF COMPARISON

In order to understand degrees of comparison, one must first have a basic idea about what an adjective is. An **adjective** is a part of speech that is used to qualify a noun or a pronoun. Or you

could put it in a simpler way and say that adjectives are words that tell us more about a noun. It highlights the quality of a noun (or pronoun) in a sentence. Adjectives change in form in order to show comparison. These different forms of the adjective are known as **degrees of comparison**. Degrees of comparison are used when we compare one person or one thing with another. Most adjectives have three different forms to show degrees of comparison - the positive, the comparative and the superlative. The **positive degree** is used to describe one item, group or a person. The **comparative degree** is used to compare between two items, groups or people. The **superlative degree** is used to describe three or more items, groups or people. Take a look at the following examples of positive, comparative and superlative forms of words in order to understand the basic difference between each :

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
good	Better	Best
sweet	sweeter	Sweetest
easy	Easier	Easiest
beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
tasty	less tasty	least tasty

Let's take a detailed look at each of these degrees of comparison for a better understanding:

1. **POSITIVE DEGREE** : The positive degree of an adjective is the adjective in its simplest form. The primary form of the adjective is called the adjective. This means that the positive degree is the adjective itself. It is used simply to denote the existence of some quality or feature. It is not used for the purpose of any comparison unlike the other two degrees of comparison.

Examples : Laila is a **clever** girl.

This is a **delicious** biryani.

- 2. COMPARATIVE DEGREE :** The comparative degree of an adjective shows a higher degree of the quality than that is present in the positive degree. It is used when two things (or people) or two pairs/sets of things (or people) are compared. To change the positive degree into comparative, the adjective is joined with ‘er’ or ‘more’.

Examples : Laila is **cleverer** than Jai.

This biryani is **more delicious** than the college canteen one.

- 3. SUPERLATIVE DEGREE :** The superlative degree of an adjective refers to the highest degree of the quality. It is used when more than two things or sets of things or people are compared. So when comparing three or more nouns or subjects, the superlative degree is used in the sentence. When converting the superlative degree into the comparative degree, the words “any other”

should be used in the comparative degree after the adjective. And when converting the superlative into the positive degree, the words ‘no other’ should be used.

Examples : Laila is the **cleverest** student in ninth grade.

This biryani is the **most delicious** biryani in our neighborhood.

RULES TO BE FOLLOWED WHILE WRITING AN ADJECTIVE IN THE POSITIVE, COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE DEGREES

Listed below are some of the important rules to be kept in mind for the different degrees of comparison :

1. When writing a sentence in the comparative degree, the word *than* is used after the adjective. Hence, the structure of the adjective in the comparative degree is ‘**adjective + er + than**’.

Examples : Fathima is **thinner than** her daughter.

Raju is **taller than** Hemant.

2. When two qualities of the same person are compared, then the positive degree should be used instead of a comparative degree. Also, the word *more* is used before the adjective.

Examples : Sita is **more shy** than bold.

Riya's handwriting is **more beautiful** than clear.

3. When converting a comparative or superlative into a positive degree, the adjective should be used between 'as -- as' or 'so -- as'.

Examples : Rowling is not **as great as** Paro Anand.

No other bike is **as loud as** that one.

4. When writing an adjective in the superlative degree, the article 'the' is used before it.

Examples : My mother is **the best** cook in the world.

Neha is **the loudest** girl in our class.

5. For adjectives ending in 'ior' (like inferior, exterior etc.), 'to' is used in the comparative degree instead of 'than'.

Examples : Her marks are inferior **to** mine.

He is junior **to** Hari in college.

6. There is no comparative degree for directions. Directions can only be written in the positive and superlative degrees.

Examples : Top - Topmost

North - Northmost

West - Westmost

Bottom - Bottommost

7. When one person or thing is compared to all other of the same kind we use 'all other' or 'any other'.

Examples : Nigella Lawson is better than any other television cook.

Priyanka is stronger than all other actresses.

8. To enhance or lay greater emphasis on the degree of comparison we use the word far or more before the comparative degree.

Examples : Haala is more creative than any other artist.

Karnad is far greater than all other playwrights.

RULES FOR FORMING THE COMPARATIVE & SUPERLATIVE DEGREE

The following are the rules to be followed for **forming** the comparative and superlative degrees of adjectives :

TYPE OF POSITIVE DEGREE	HOW TO FORM THE COMPARATIVE DEGREE	HOW TO FORM THE SUPERLATIVE DEGREE
Single syllable adjectives like 'clever'	Add 'er' 'cleverer'	Add 'est' 'cleverest'

Adjectives with more than one syllable like 'famous'	Add 'less' or 'more' 'more famous'	Add 'most' or 'least' 'least famous'
Adjectives ending with y like 'angry'	Replace 'y' with 'i' and add 'er' at the ending. 'angrier' For less, it becomes less angry	Replace 'y' with 'i' and add 'est' at the ending. 'angriest' For less, it becomes least angry
Adjectives ending with 'e' like 'wise'	Add 'r' Wiser	Add 'st' Wisest
Adjectives ending with a consonant	Double the consonant and add 'er'	Double the consonant and add 'est'

with a vowel before it like 'fat'	fatter	Fattest
Adverbs with one syllable like 'hard'	Add 'er' 'harder'	Add 'est' 'hardest'
Adverbs with more than one syllable like 'happily'	Add 'less' or 'more' 'More happily'	Add 'least' or 'most' 'Most happily'

EXERCISES (As given in the Text)

Attempt the questions below :

I. Use comparative forms given in brackets :

1. The weather this summer is even _____ last summer. (bad)
2. This flower is _____ that one. (beautiful)
3. A holiday by the sea is _____ a holiday in the mountains. (good)
4. Tortoises live _____ cats. (long)
5. I'm _____ my brother. (smart)

II. Use superlative forms given in brackets :

1. Mukesh is always the _____ (early) to work.
2. Dogs are the _____ (friendly) animals on earth.
3. That is the _____ (pretty) ring I have ever seen.
4. Abhinandan is the _____ (courageous) person I know.
5. The Black Mamba is the _____ (deadly) snake in the world.

III. Use comparative or superlative forms :

1. Nothing makes me _____ waiting on the phone.
(angry)
2. This car uses _____ electric engine. It's _____
economical. (much,little)
3. Sanskrit is _____ difficult to learn than English.
(little)
4. It's _____ hotel in Thiruvananthapuram.
(expensive)
5. How much _____ are we going? (far)

MODULE 5

PRACTICAL EXERCISES

Section – 1

REORDER JUMBLED SENTENCES

Jumbled sentences is a kind of language proficiency test question. It is made up of mixed words or sentences which are written in a mixed up order. The task here is to arrange these sentences in a logical order according to the context to produce grammatically correct meaningful sentences. Such questions are usually asked in competitive examinations in order to test a person's language and communication skills. We have given below a few tips to be kept in mind while attempting to reorder jumbled sentences:

1. Read the sentences thoroughly and try to identify the main theme of the entire paragraph so that you can easily make out the probable order of the jumbled sentences.

2. Try to identify the first sentence first.

3. Establish a link between the sentences and look out for transition words. Also try to identify a link between at least two statements. Once this is done it would be easier to make out what follows or precedes it.

4. Find out the final statement by analyzing which of the sentences could serve as a conclusion. It may begin with words like 'Thus', 'Hence', 'Finally' or 'Therefore' (not necessarily always). This final concluding statement may contain a brief summary of the entire paragraph.

Last, but not the least, students should always try reading newspapers, articles or journals in order to improve reading ability and to develop a better command over the language. This would in turn make it easier for one to make sense out of jumbled passages and reorder the mixed up sentences.

Examples for solving a jumbled passage:

I.

1. Till date it has no cure.
2. Ebola outbreak is the most deadly virus in human history.
3. Research is still at large to find the cure.
4. It has taken numerous lives in Africa.

Solution:

Ebola outbreak is the most deadly virus in human history (2). It has taken numerous lives in Africa. (4) Research is still at large to find the cure (3). Till date it has no cure. (1)

II.

1. Although the Reserve Bank of India recently signaled higher short term interest rates, by and large it has preferred to restrain an explosive growth of bank lending only in certain sectors where bubbles are seen to be developing.

2. Along with many other countries, India is learning that there are no simple solutions.
3. The Central bank has to strive for a balance between the imperatives of holding the price line and meeting genuine credit requirements.
4. Restraining credit growth by raising interest rates has not always been feasible.
5. For policy makers, supply side solutions involve the balancing of conflicting interests.
6. The rise in inflation is a global phenomenon.

Solution:

The rise in inflation is a global phenomenon. Along with many other countries, India is learning that there are no simple solutions. Restraining credit growth by raising interest rates has not always been feasible. Although the Reserve Bank of India recently signaled higher short term interest rates, by and large it has preferred to restrain an explosive growth of bank lending only in certain sectors where bubbles are seen to be developing. The Central bank has to strive for a

balance between the imperatives of holding the price line and meeting genuine credit requirements. For policy makers, supply side solutions involve the balancing of conflicting interests.

EXERCISES (Taken from the Textbook)

Attempt to reorder the jumbled up sentences given below:

A. But she does it so elegantly that the end product is a beautiful, artistic piece. Small minute details are taken care of. We so readily become inhabitants of her small world, knowing her characters as we know our friends. Jane Austen's characters are drawn from the work-a-day world. It is quite true that she works upon "two inches of ivory".

B. There is a very private habit in every man to entertain himself with fantasies. Good friends when they meet console and amuse themselves by sharing such fantasies. Children flock around the elders to listen to stories. But when these fantasies are to be presented to a larger public, they need more coherence

and sequence than the fantasies shared and enjoyed privately. There is a primitive instinct in human beings to listen to stories. The seasoned novelist creates such well-ordered, coherent fantasies for the entertainment of larger audience. Grown-up persons also are keen on listening to stories.

C. Technology is the sum total of all the different techniques by which man changes his environment. Other animals have to take nature as they find her; they must fit into the environment that she provides as best as they can. He moves things about. Man has won his dominant position on this planet by his command of technology. Man alters them in a constant effort to create an environment more hospitable than that which nature has thrust him into.

D. The objective of each player is to arrive at apposition such that the opponent's king has no legal move which would avoid the capture of the king on the following move. A situation is called checkmate and the player who checkmates his opponent wins the game. The game of chess is played between two

opponents who move pieces alternately on a square board called a chessboard. The player who has been checkmated loses the game. The player who has control of the white pieces (White) starts the game.

Section – 2

CORRECT/IMPROVE THE GIVEN SENTENCES ACCORDING TO ACCEPTED MODERN USAGE & JUSTIFY THE CHANGES MADE: (As given in the Textbook)

1. A crowd poured in the compartments of the train.
2. A dog ran on the middle of the road.
3. A good teacher not only teach, but he is also a good guide.
4. A umbrella is useless in a stormy weather.
5. Although he studies in my class, he is three years elder than me.

6. An stitch in time saves nine.
7. Being a famous actor, the school invited him to be the chief guest on the Annual Day function.
8. Calling him on phone, he was informed of the news by me.
9. Could you lend me any of your books to day?
10. Did you see some good movies during your visit to the town?
11. Do you like listening the radio?
12. Don't laugh those who are deprived of God's blessings.
13. Each of the candidates were awarded a certificate of participation.
14. Eating too much his health was spoiled.
15. Either of those dresses are suitable for the party.
16. Either the student or his parents has to be present in the function.
17. Elephant is a sensible creature.
18. Employees are prohibited smoking on company property.

19. Finding some talent in him, they employed him in the key position of the organization
20. Having checked the engine and petrol in their car, their journey was resumed.
21. He admitted to steal the lady's handbag.
22. He has much sense than you have.
23. He helped a honest one eyed man.
24. He is a doctor but his wife is a MLA.
25. How long you have lived in this town?
26. I work in a pizza restaurant at the moment.
27. In a mature democracy like India, the voters know whom to vote.
28. In U.S., the average age at which young women get married has risen over the past several decades.
29. Is there the post office near here?
30. It is so rainy in this region that it rain very frequently even in winters.
31. It requires an energy.
32. Let's leave now, isn't it?

33. Looking through the view-finder, some strangers were seen standing at the door.
34. Most people are respectful of the police if the police is courteous.
35. Most students spend a lot of time preparing exams.
36. My father works in this office since 1990
37. Neither of them are an expert of the subject.
38. No one know what happens after death.
39. Sandeep broke the window, didn't Sandeep?
40. Shakespeare was the most prolific writer which time has ever seen.
41. She didn't want nothing to drink.
42. She has got a cold and cough.
43. Singing sweetly and walking smoothly, the bride was taken home by the palanquin bearers.
44. The businessman suffered great losses and was soon declared bankrupt.
45. The cost of textbooks has risen a lot in recent years.
46. The dogs are faithful creatures.

47. The most important news in the newspaper are usually on the first page.
48. The new office manager seems as a competent person
49. The ones who is found guilty must be punished.
50. The Venad Express usually run on time.
51. There is a time to work and the time to play.
52. These days when an employee returns to work after a vacation, she often finds an inbox full of hundreds of email messages.
53. They and I was present there last night.
54. To be honest, I believe God.
55. We usually go by bus to school.
56. We were walking on the road when we saw an accident.
57. Where did you learn driving?
58. Where there is the will, there is the way.
59. You cannot buy anything with such less amount of money.
60. You or she have to be blamed for the accident.

ADDITIONAL PRACTICE EXERCISES

I. Choose the correct option from the brackets:

1. They are going to the museum, _____?(aren't they/ are they)
2. Teddy lives in Kochi, _____? (does he/ doesn't he)
3. They said it is wrong, _____?(didn't they/did they)
4. He was not going to the shop, _____? (wasn't he/ was he)
5. You know the answer, _____? (do you/ don't you)
6. Her teacher never comes to late to class, _____? (does she/ doesn't she)
7. Let us go to the supermarket, _____? (shall we/ shan't I)
8. Jiya will wait for the next train, _____? (will she/ won't she)
9. He has known Anjali since childhood, _____? (hasn't he/ has he)

10. You can help your partner, _____? (can you/ can't you)

II. Choose the right option from the bracket:

[as popular as, as clever as, as light as, costlier, costliest, farther, farthest, tastier, tastiest, biggest, tallest, hottest, hotter, nicer, nicest, lighter, lightest]

1. No other playwright is _____ Shakespeare.
2. Aysel is the _____ girl in the school.
3. This necklace is _____ than the other.
4. Today seems to be the _____ day of the year.
5. This is the _____ pudding that I've eaten.
6. Clouds float in the sky because they are _____ than air.
7. Mumbai is one of the _____ metropolitan cities in the world.
8. The _____ you go up the hill, the steeper it gets.
9. He is one of the _____ persons I know.
10. No other girl in class is _____ Megha.

Section – 3

PARAGRAPH EDITING

Paragraph is a distinct section of a piece of writing. In other words, a paragraph is a sentences or a group of sentence which conveys one main idea. Paragraphs help the writer to organize his thoughts during the writing process. It is also used to section out a larger piece of writing and thereby making it easier to read as well as understand

A good paragraph is made up of a key sentence (or a topic sentence), relevant supporting sentences and a closing sentence (or a transition sentence). So the beginning of a paragraph conveys the main idea or topic of the paragraph. And the core content is usually in the middle of the paragraph while the ending of a paragraph either provides a shift to the next paragraph or a conclusion on the topic discussed within the paragraph.

While organizing ideas and writing a paragraph, one should keep in mind the following points:

1. Ensure that the paragraph has a topic sentence.
2. Make sure that the supporting sentences are in line with the topic sentence and don't stray from the main idea.
3. Ensure that a proper closing sentence is there at the end of the paragraph.

Now once you are capable of writing well structured paragraphs, the next thing to do is editing your draft. Editing refers to the process of improving a draft by correcting errors. It involves adding, deleting and rearranging words in order to avoid unnecessary information or repetitions. Here are some tips you can follow when editing a paragraph:

- 1. Cut long sentences into two:** Even if long sentences are grammatically correct, they often contain too many ideas and are harder to understand and can make readers lose their focus as well. So, one sentence for one idea would be a good rule to follow. Try to reword long sentences into briefer, smaller sentences

by conveying as much as possible in as little words as you can.

2. Avoid over complicated language: For better clarity and understanding, it is better to use easier, simpler and concise language rather than using high sounding words or difficult language.

3. Remove unnecessary adverbs and adjectives: Adverbs and adjectives tend to weaken the draft and such excess words can be removed or replaced according to the situation.

4. Remove unnecessary punctuation: Any piece of writing which is filled with all kinds of punctuations kills the flow of the writing. Be careful not to overdo with the parentheses, colons, ellipses, semicolons etc.

5. Reduce the use of prepositions: Prepositions tend to lengthen sentences. At times a prepositional phrase can easily be replaced with a single word. However, prepositions must be used where it is inevitable.

6. Avoid passive voice in places where the active form functions well.

7. Eliminate repetitions, redundancies and avoidable sentences.

8. Avoid unnecessary expressions like ‘start to’, ‘there are’, ‘more than’, ‘in order to’ etc.

Below we have provided an example (taken from the text) of how a rough draft of a paragraph can be rewritten and improved upon to reach a better final draft:

FIRST DRAFT

He woke up. He went downstairs. It was cold. The table was set. He sat down. Breakfast was hot. He ate quickly. He stood up. He cleaned his dishes. He went upstairs. He got dressed. It was time to start his day.

IMPROVED DRAFT

As he always did, he woke up immediately and went down the steep staircase to the kitchen table. It was cold, but the table was set and breakfast was hot so he sat down and ate quickly. He stood up, cleaned his dishes, went upstairs, and got dressed. It was time to start his day.

A POSSIBLE FINAL DRAFT

He woke up immediately and went down the steep staircase to the kitchen table. It was cold. The table was set and breakfast was hot, so he sat down. He ate quickly. When he was finished, he stood up, cleaned his dishes, went upstairs, and got dressed. It was time to start his day.

Attempt the following questions (As give in the Textbook):

Revise the draft given below (There is no single correct answer possible for these questions)

- A. Scientists believe generally, that God is the combination of all the laws of physical sciences – both known and unknown, and the search, the quest, is on for discovering the latter. Scientists are including, in their quest, chemistry, to the extent that emotions like anger, love and hatred are also because of the result of certain chemicals released by the human body. Simultaneously, more and more of applied science is being used to improve the quality of all forms of life – longer,

younger, stronger. But in spite of all this, they do not fully and totally exclude God. The greatest scientist Einstein said that if anybody did not believe in God, let him study the structure and functioning of the eye, a perfect optical device which has not been replicated by scientists yet. A well-known eminent scientist once said, even if there is no God, we need to invent one. (Pre-modified draft source: The Indian Express, 2006)

B. Natural Language Generation (NLG) has been used by many media companies and marketing firms to generate content based on very large datasets. NLG is powerful because it can integrate keywords, improving SEO and personalized customer communication at scale. The technology is still evolving to a great extent. NLG machines are learning to translate content into different languages and generate content for different mediums and in different voices or different styles. One day, it is hoped, publishers may generate content in different reading levels to improve search engine ranks or reach a

great, wider level of audience. (Pre-modified draft source: Future Today Institute 2018-2019)

C. The historic, ancient Indian custom of cherishing, adoring and respecting the old has suffered a setback seriously because of the growing cost of living, dwindling of family unit size, and rampant rate of urbanization. This has also sparked off the much debated issues related to medical bills, old age diets and other physical conditions. As in the Western countries, the old in the family are now an embarrassment to be tucked away in the remote corners, usually shunted around between children or relegated to the so-called-security of geriatric old age homes through expediency rather than callousness. The terrors of old age have become a reality which are really frightening and tragic. People need to read *King Lear* now for a different reason altogether.

FOR FURTHER READING

9. <https://www.csun.edu/sites/default/files/Auerbach-Handout-Paragraph-Writing-Examples.pdf>

Section - 4

TRANSLATION

Let's first try to understand the meaning of the term 'translation'. The word translation has been derived from the Latin word 'translation' which comes from 'trans-' and 'latum'. When put together, 'trans' and 'latum' mean 'carrying across' or 'bringing across'. So essentially, translation is a communication process where one message is transferred or carried across from one language into another language. Here, the language which is being translated is known as the source language. And the language into which the source language is to be translated into is known as the target language. In other words, the source text refers to the text that is taken for translation. The target text is the text

that is translated. We may conclude that translation consists basically of two main processes and they are :

1. Decoding the meaning of the Source Language
2. Re-encoding this meaning into the Target

Language

Next let's take a look at who translators are. Translators are language professionals who convert text from the source language into the target language. However, this is no easy task as the translator has to be aware of the cultural and social differences that may exist in their languages. Also, a good translation must read as if it was originally written in the target language and this requires expertise and skill. Therefore, a good translator is part linguist and part author who must be skilled in communication, writing as well as language comprehension. Now why exactly do we need a human translator? If you have ever used Google translator that it always falls short of the mark for anything that is more complex than a simple sentence or phrase. This is because technology cannot replace the human element required in a translation. Only human translators can

effectively and accurately translate the nuances and unique phrases or sayings in a particular source language. Peter Newmark and Eugene Albert Nida are Western theorists in the field of translation and both of them used linguistics as their theoretical basis for formulating their translation theories. Here, we will be discussing the translation processes and procedures put forward by both of Newmark and Nida. Newmark (1988) suggests different translation procedures consisting of transference, naturalization, cultural equivalent, functional equivalent, descriptive equivalent, componential analysis, synonym, through translation, shifts or transposition, compensation, expansion, omissions etc. He has further categorized the translation process into three basic processes which are as follows:

1. The interpretation and analysis of the Source Language text.
2. The translation procedure (choosing equivalents for words and sentences in the Target language)

3. The reformation of the text according to the writer's intention, the reader's expectation, the appropriate norms of the Target language.

Newmark (1988) has also listed eight different methods of translation on the basis of language used to emphasize either the Source Language or the Target Language.

They are as follows :

1. Word-for-word translation
2. Literal Translation
3. Faithful translation
4. Semantic Translation
5. Adaptation
6. Free Translation
7. Idiomatic Translation
8. Communicative Translation

Nida (1964) proposes two kinds of translation procedures, namely, technical and organizational. According to him, technical procedures consist of analyzing the respective Source Language(SL) and Target Language (TL) along with careful studying of the SL text, and determining the appropriate equivalents.

Here, Nida lists five stages for the study of meaning which can be gained from different levels of analysis and they are:

1. Lexico-grammatical features of the immediate unit
2. Discourse Context
3. Communicative Context
4. Cultural Context of the Source Language
5. Cultural Context of the Target (or Receptor) Language

The organizational procedure on the other hand, involves the general organization of a work by a single translator or by a committee, and they are also applied to all types of translating.

Now that we have gone through the different processes and procedures of translating propounded by both Newmark and Nida, let us now move on to the types of translation that we are concerned with. Basically, there are two categories of translation that we are concerned with and they are literary and non-literary translation. So what is a literary text? A literary text is a text from

literature work and examples include plays, novels, poetry etc. Non-literary texts are texts that are mainly concerned with information, facts and reality. Examples of non-literary texts include articles, documents, scientific journals etc. Now there is a difference in the translating procedure of each of these categories. That is, while translating a literary text more importance is given to linguistic, stylistic and semantic features of the Source Language text. On the other hand, when translating a non-literary text, more importance is laid on the content and focus is on direct meaning rather than metaphorical language. When we compare literary and non-literary translation, usually, literary translation is considered as more difficult as it has to maintain aesthetic and expressive values. On the contrary, non-literary translation need not maintain the aesthetic value and the focus here is on accuracy of the information being conveyed. Here, there is no need of attempting to interpret or improve upon the text. One drawback of non-literary translation would therefore be that the translator has very little freedom in playing with the text

and his role is quite minimal and formal. In this case the translator also must have a thorough knowledge and expertise in the subject or topic he is translating.

Here, we will be dealing more with the translation of prose texts or prose passages. Since we are concerned more with literary translation, the contextual meaning should be understood and communicated in the translated piece. The emotional, metaphorical and expressive value of the text must be taken into consideration. Beginners may find it difficult to understand and effectively translate cultural components within the text as well as connotative meaning of the text.

Attempt translation of the following English excerpts into Malayalam:

1. Actually they are two different coaches; definitely there will be techniques and this and that things that differ from person to person. Hopefully it's for the better of the team and hopefully we will start the next series with a positive note and definitely win some finals in

the Tri Series that are coming up.(Interview with MS Dhoni, CricketHerald)

2. Then she went silent, but my impression was that she was continuing to say things inside her head, because for sometime her gaze kept roving over us, going from face to face just as if she were still speaking to us. We were all pretty relieved when she turned to look out over the playing field again.
(*Never Let Me Go*, Kazuo Ishiguro)
3. But by steps, as he begins to live his days more fully with Teresa and the dead Byron, it becomes clear that purloined songs will not be good enough, that the two will demand a music of their own. And, astonishingly, in dribs and drabs, the music comes. Sometimes the contour of a phrase occurs to him before he has a hint of what the words themselves will be; sometimes the words call forth the cadence; sometimes the shade of a melody, having hovered for days on the edge of hearing, unfolds and blessedly reveals itself. As the action begins to unwind, furthermore, it calls

up of its own accord modulations and transitions that he feels in his blood even when he has not the musical resources to realize them. (*Disgrace*, J.M.Coetzee)

(Students are suggested to take up small passages in Malayalam and practice the same)

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QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

(As given in the Textbook)

- 1."It's I" is preferred by purists rather than "It's me". Why?
2. Differentiate adverbs of frequency and adverbs of time.
3. Differentiate attributive and predicative adjectives.
4. Differentiate complex and compound sentences.
5. Differentiate Form Class and Function Class.
6. Differentiate restrictive and non-restrictive clauses.
7. Differentiate transitive and intransitive verbs.
8. Explain briefly what is subject- verb agreement?
9. Explain conditional sentences. Give examples.
10. Explain conditional sentences. Give examples.
11. Explain futurity in English.

12. Explain present participles with infinitive + ing: and past participle with the infinitive + d or ed.
13. Explain reflexive pronouns.
14. Explain the different forms of auxiliary verbs.
15. Explain the term 'Movement' in grammar.
16. Explain types of question formation.
17. Give example of the use of anticipatory 'it'.
18. Give examples of clipping and reduplication.
19. Grammaticality and acceptability are two distinct but related notions. Explain.
20. Identify the pattern of the sentence: 'He gave me a book.'
21. Identify the three categories of Modality as distinguished in linguistics.
22. Illustrate 'backformation'.
 23. Illustrate a noun clause.
 24. Illustrate a pattern using SVOA.
 25. Illustrate a sentence with instrumental role.
 26. Illustrate a SVC pattern.
 27. Illustrate co-ordinating and subordinating conjunctions.

28. Use 'Only' in a sentence at various positions.
29. Use the same word both as adjective and adverb.
30. Using an example each, explain derivational and inflectional affixes.
31. What are anomalous finites?
32. What are Blends?
33. What are Count and Noncount nouns?
34. What are Determiners?
35. What are dynamic and stative verbs?
36. What are free and bound morphemes? Give examples.
37. What are the different kinds of pronoun?
38. What are gradable and non-gradable adjectives? Give examples.
39. What are inflections?
40. What are modal auxiliaries?
41. What are phrasal verbs? Give examples.
42. What are sentence adverbials?
43. What are the basic modalities to be followed when translating from SLT to TLT?

44. What are the drawbacks of traditional grammar?
45. What does 'collocation' refer to?
46. What is 'clipping'?
47. What is a concord? Illustrate.
48. What is a morpheme?
49. What is a zero-morph?

50. What is affixation?
51. What is an adverbial? Illustrate.
52. What is an echo question?
53. What is descriptive grammar?
54. What is passive voice? Give examples of a few transformations.

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