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FOUR YEAR DEGREE COURSE

(CBCS in Accordance with NEP 2020)

FOUNDATION COURSE IN ENGLISH

Second Semester

Discipline Specific Core Course

UNDERGRADUATE PROGRAMME

Padmanath Gohainbaruah School of Humanities

KRISHNA KANTA HANDIQUI STATE OPEN UNIVERSITY

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FOUNDATION COURSE IN ENGLISH

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COURSE INTRODUCTION: FOUNDATION COURSE IN ENGLISH

The 'Foundation Course in English' contains an elaborate study on the fundamentals or the basic building-blocks of English Grammar in order to strengthen the learner's spoken and written skills of the English Language. The course specifically focuses on 'Parts of Speech', 'Time and Tense', 'Vocabulary and Punctuation' and 'Synthesis and Transformation of Sentences'. Particularly, 'Parts of Speech' and 'Time and Tense' have been divided into two-three units for the ease of the learner's reference and study. The course also highlights the discussion on some of the important topics of English Grammar such as Phrases and Idioms, Common Errors of English Grammar and the important aspects of Remedial Grammar together with an emphasis on areas of composition and writing.

Unit 1: This unit introduces you the fundamentals of English Grammar and is titled 'Parts of Speech I'. It provides a detailed idea on the formal and functional constituents of sentences and their differences along with sufficient examples. Also, it discusses the various parts of speech, and some of their interchanging forms and functions.

Unit 2: This unit titled 'Parts of Speech II' is a continuation of the previous unit and discusses the three parts of speech namely Nouns, Pronouns and Determiners and their sub categories in details. Also, it highlights the mutual relationship between the three in the formation of the noun phrase while also explaining the constituent structures of the verb form.

Unit 3: This unit titled 'Parts of Speech III' takes up the discussion on the remaining parts of speech namely Adjectives and Adverbs (both of which reveal shared characteristics), Prepositions, Conjunctions and Interjections along with their respective functions and usage in language communication.

Unit 4: This unit titled 'Time and Tense' provides a detailed study on the differences in the concept of 'Time' and 'Tense' along with the various other forms of tenses in English Grammar, while also discussing the structures of their forms and functions. The correct usage of tenses in both spoken and written English is essential and therefore, a thorough study of the definitions and examples will be beneficial to the learner.

Unit 5: This unit titled 'Time and Tense II' provides a study on the passive verb forms in order to

highlight the differences between active and passive verb forms, modal verbs with their function and the change of voice in interrogative sentences. Therefore, the learner will be able to acquaint himself/herself to the primary auxiliaries and modals in a detailed manner.

Unit 6: This unit introduces you to the importance of 'Vocabulary' in English Grammar and examines some of the important vocabulary items namely synonyms and antonyms, one word expressions, phrasal verbs, words used as different word class and difference between similar types of words.

Unit 7: This unit takes up the importance of 'Punctuation' in English Grammar that highlights the main indicators used in written texts while also defining the various types and functions of punctuation marks with relevant examples. The unit will enable the learner to use the correct punctuation marks particularly while writing in English.

Unit 8: This unit takes up some concepts of 'Synthesis and Transformation of Sentences'. Transformation of sentences provides an idea on how to change sentence structures by conveying the same idea without altering its meaning. Examination questions require the learner to transform sentences from the affirmative form to the negative, interrogative, imperative or exclamatory forms and vice versa together. Also degrees of comparison and combination of sentences are taken up in the unit.

Unit 9: This unit presents the usage of regular 'Phrases and Idioms' in both spoken and written English. It touches upon the significant uses of idiomatic expressions in our general writing or usual conversations. The usage of phrases and idioms add a dash of implied meaning and enliven our regular expressions. The unit contains several such examples along with the use of these idioms in sentence structures.

Unit 10: This unit takes up a unit on the 'Common Errors' of English Grammar which will enable the learner to develop a sharp eye or the quick ability to identify basic grammatical errors or any other form of erroneous content in language. It identifies errors in grammar which tend to be of various types such as errors of concord, errors of construction, errors of order, errors of prepositions and errors of conjunctions.

Unit 11: This introductory unit on 'Basic Remedial Grammar' examines the particular areas or aspects where grammatical errors commonly occur and ways in which they can be corrected. It takes up basic remedial grammar with the concepts of 'Introductory There' and 'Introductory It' and is followed by a discussion on the concept of 'emphasis' along with a supplemented glossary.

Unit 12: This second discussion on the aspects of 'Basic Remedial Grammar II' provides a detailed glossary as an answer to any grammatical inadequacies that the learner might be facing in language communication. Remedial grammar is necessary in order to sharpen one's ability to

use the language correctly in real life situations. This explains the necessity of remedial measures that helps in transforming grammatical competence into communicative competence.

Unit 13: This unit takes up 'Précis-writing' which involves certain skills such as quick reading, extracting of relevant information and the ability of presenting the essence of any given text-source in a short, crisp and informative style. A discussion on the use of language in the précis form shall enable the learners to develop an understanding of the rules to be followed in précis writing.

Unit 14: This unit discusses 'Note-Taking' which is also considered as one form of information transfer skills. While exploring some of the possible strategies for making notes on a piece of text, it also highlights some of the major points that require attention in the task of note making.

Unit 15: The unit takes up aspects on 'Story Writing' which is a part of creative writing skills. It focuses on the skills and techniques involved in developing a story, right from its basic structural frame-work to the creativity involved in narrative story-telling in order to make it interesting. Also, it highlights how a 'suitable title 'is necessary in any story as it gives away the hinted essence of the story in just about two to three words.

While going through a unit, you may also notice some text boxes, which have been included to help you know some of the difficult terms and concepts. You will also read about some relevant ideas and concepts in "LET US KNOW" along with the text. We have kept "CHECK YOUR PROGRESS" questions in each unit which have been designed to self-check your progress of study. The hints for the answers to these questions are given at the end of the unit. We strongly advise that you answer the questions immediately after you finish reading the section in which these questions occur. We have also included a few books in the "FURTHER READING" which will be helpful for your further consultation. The books referred during the preparation of the units have been added at the end of the SLM. However, this SLM is not an end in itself and the learners are strongly advised to consult the books and other resources recommended for reading.

UNIT 1 : PARTS OF SPEECH I

UNIT STRUCTURE

1.1 Learning Objectives

1.2 Introduction

1.3 Grammatical Units of a Sentence

- 1.3.1 Formal Constituents of a Sentence
- 1.3.2 Functional Constituents of a Sentence

1.4 Parts of Speech

1.5 Formation of Parts of Speech

- 1.5.1 Formation of Nouns from Verbs
- 1.5.2 Formation of Nouns from Adjectives
- 1.5.3 Formation of Verbs from Nouns
- 1.5.4 Formation of Adjectives from Nouns
- 1.5.5 Formation of Verbs from Adjectives
- 1.5.6 Formation of Compound Words

1.6 Let us Sum up

1.7 Answers to Check Your Progress

1.8 Model Questions

1.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to :

- distinguish between formal and functional constituents of grammar
- learn the functions of different grammatical units
- acquaint yourself with the different parts of speech so as to learn their functions
- familiarise yourself with the techniques of formation of different parts of speech.

1.2 INTRODUCTION

This unit has the grammatical title '' Parts of Speech". The term "Parts of Speech" implies that language is primarily speech. We use different

words in our speech. These words are parts of our speech. Since the words that we use in our speech belong to different categories or classes, the traditional term 'parts of speech' is also referred to as word- classes' or word class. The different word classes are units of grammar. These units have different forms or structures. At the same time, they perform certain functions. In these units on grammar, we propose to look at the different units of grammar basically in terms of their function. However, in doing so, we need also to refer to their grammatical forms.

What do we mean by 'form' ? The term 'form' in the context of grammar refers to the grammatical characteristic of units such as the sentence, clause, phrase and word. We shall discuss the grammatical characteristics of these units in the course of our units. You will note that these characteristics are essentially structural. A word has a definite structure. Similarly, phrases, clauses and sentences have their distinctive structures. These structures are the formal properties of these grammatical elements.

There is another word that we used: function. The term 'function' refers to the role that a grammatical unit plays in expressing meaning. As we have stated, language is primarily speech and we use speech to communicate messages. In other words, these grammatical elements need to be meaningful in social contexts. You will see how these grammatical elements have a functional role in the context of their social use.

Considering that grammatical units like the sentence, clause, phrase and word have a hierarchical structure, with the sentence as the largest unit, we shall begin with the sentence.

1.3 GRAMMATICAL UNITS OF A SENTENCE

Let us begin with the following sentence:

(1) John plays football.

This is a simple sentence consisting of only one finite verb 'plays'. We can also say that it is a sentence consisting of a single clause. It is a monoclausal sentence unlike the following sentence:

(2) John plays foot ball when he finds time.

This is a complex sentence consisting of two clauses

(i) John plays football

(ii) When he finds time

We find that each of the clauses has a finite verb 'plays' and 'finds'. For the time being let us accept that the finite verb is an obligatory element of a clause.

Let us rephrase sentence (1) below:

(3) That boy in the corner plays football.

Like sentence (2) above, this sentence also has seven words. But this is not a complex sentence. In this sentence 'That boy in the corner' has the same status as John. Both are phrases. A phrase is a group of words but it does not have a finite verb. A single word in a sentence like (1) above can be a phrase. Let us go back to sentence 1 and make these statements.

(a) "John plays football" is a simple sentence.

(b) It has one independent clause

(c) It has two noun phrases: John and football

(d) It has one verb phrase: plays.

The above is a formal description of a simple sentence. In our description of a sentence in terms of form, we use levels like Noun Phrase, Verb Phrase, Adjective Phrase, Adverb Phrase and Prepositional Phrase. These are grammatical units of a sentence when we describe a sentence in terms of form.

Let us go back to sentence (1) again and look at the sentence from the functional point of view. We now state that:

(a) "John plays football" is a statement. It is an assertive sentence (We also use the word' declarative')

(b) John is the subject of the sentence

(c) plays football is the predicate of the sentence

(d) plays is the verb

(e) football is the object of the sentence

This is a functional description of sentence "John plays football.

In a description of a sentence in terms of functions, we use labels such as subject, verb, object complement, adverbial, linking verb, transitive verb etc. These are the functional units of a sentence.

1.3.1 Formal Constituents of a Sentence

In 1.3 we had indentified the labels that we use when we analyse a sentence in terms of form. Let us take the following sentences and label them by using formal terms.

1.	Birds	fly			
	NP	VP			
2.	John	is	in the room		
	NP	VP	Prep Ph		
3.	John	is	a teacher		
	NP	VP	NP		
4.	John	plays	football.		
	NP	VP	NP		
5.	He	put	the book	on the table	
	NP	VP	NP	Prep Ph	
6.	His teacher		considered	him intelligent	
	NP		VP	NP	Adj
7.	His teachers		gave	his	a prize
	NP		VP	NP	NP

The above examples show that even a single noun or a pronoun in a sentence structure can be a noun phrase. Similarly, we find that a single verb is labelled as a verb phrase. It is useful to remember that a verb in a sentence structure always carries the tense. We shall learn more about these forms as we go along.

1.3.2 Functional Constituents of a Sentence

We had also identified the labels that we use when we analyse a sentence in terms of function. Let us take the same sentences that we had used in 1.3.1 and provide functional labels to the consituents of the sentences:

1.	Birds	fly
	S	V

2.	John	is	in the room		
	S	V	Adv		
3.	John	is	a teacher		
	S	V	C		
4.	John	plays	football		
	S	V	O		
5.	He	put	the book	on the table	
	S	V	O	Adv	
6.	His teachers		considered	him	intelligent
	S		V	O	C
7.	His teachers gave		him	a prize	
	S		V	O	

There are basically five main functional constituents of a sentence structure. They are subject, verb, complement, object and adverbial. It may be useful for us to know the difference in meaning between an adverb and an adverbial.

An adverb is a part of speech or what we call, a word class, Some adverbs are single indivisible words such as yet, down, then, too, soon etc. Others are obviously formed from adjectives by the addition of a suffix -ly eg. happily, quickly, clearly etc. Others are formed from two words eg sometimes, however etc but have become so fused together that the two parts have made a word whose meaning is different from the meaning of the individual parts. In some cases, this fusion has not been complete and we still have adverbs consisting of two or three individual words eg. next morning. in front, at first etc. One the other had, the term adverbial is used as an element of the structure of a clause wherein that element or constituent performs a modifying function. In a constituent labelled as an adverbial we may not discover an adverb that we can identify from its form or appearance. In sentences 2 and 5 above, we find two constituents that have been labelled as adverbial. These constituents have the following three parts of speech.

(a) in the room
prep det noun
(b) on the table
prep det noun

But in the above sentence structure, these constituents perform the function of an adverb of place. Hence, they are called adverbials.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q1. Give functional labels to the constituents of the following sentences:

(a) Her younger sister is a Kathak dancer.

(b) Her examination results have made us happy.

(c) The sun rises in the east.

(d) Dilip bought a book from that shop.

(e) Mr and Mrs Das live in Jorhat.

(f) The brown dog jumped over the fence.

1.4 PARTS OF SPEECH

"Parts of Speech" is a traditional grammatical term to describe the different types of words which are used to form sentences. These types of words have been categorised as noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction and interjection. Form time to time, other parts of speech have been proposed, such as the determiner. Parts of speech in a sentence may be indentified by their form, meaning and function. However, in their basic forms we have identified nine parts of speech out of which the first eight given below are main and the ninth called 'interjection' refers to a small class of words that express strong feelings.

(1) Noun: A noun is a word which typically refer to people, animals, places, things or abstractions. Functionally, they can occur as the subject or object of a verb or the complement to express meaning of the sentence. Examples include book, school, river.

(2) Pronoun: It is a word that may replace a noun or a noun phrase in a sentence. In spoken or written discourse (units larger than sentences

eg paragraph), the pronoun performs a cohesive function. eg. he, she, its.

(3) **Determiner:** It is a word which is used with a noun whose function is to limit the meaning of the noun in some way. eg. a book, the school

(4) **Verb:** It is a word which functionally occurs as the part of the predicate of a sentence and carries markers of grammatical categories such as tense, aspect, person, number and mood and refers to an action or state eg. begin, play, be.

(5) **Adverb:** It is a word whose function in a sentence is to describe or add to the meaning of a verb, an adjective, another adverb, or a sentence and which answers such questions as how, when, where, etc. eg. here, carefully, slowly

(6) **Adjective:** It is a word whose function in a sentence is to describe the thing, quality, state or action which a noun refers to eg. tall, fat, heavy.

(7) **Preposition:** It is a class of words used with nouns, pronouns and gerunds whose function in a sentence is to link these elements grammatically to other words, eg. at, on, by etc.

(8) **Conjunction:** It is a word class whose function in a phrase or clause is connective. Depending upon their function, conjunctions can be co-ordinating eg. and, but, or and sub-ordinating eg. because, when, unless etc.

(9) **Interjection:** It is a small class of words that are unproductive, i.e., they lack a creative capacity to change forms or class. Besides they do not enter into any syntactic relation with other parts of speech. Its function is purely emotive. eg. oh! ah! wow! etc.

There are the nine parts of speech in English grammar. In view of the fact that each of these categories of words constitute a distinct class of words, modern grammar prefers the term 'word class' to ' parts of speech'. However, It is useful for us to note that a word can be used in the same form as another word class as the word reading in these three sentences indicates:

(a) Your reading is slow

(b) Where did I leave my reading glasses?

(c) He is reading a detective novel

Depending upon the position that a word occupies in a sentence structure, the word gets its identity as a distinct word class. In sentence (a) reading is a verbal noun or a gerund, in (b) it is an adjective qualifying the noun glasses and in (c) it is a verb in the present progress tense form.

A word which is considered to be a noun in the traditional definition of the word (name of a person, place, thing etc.) can be used as another part of speech.

(a) He writes with his left hand.

(b) He handed me the letter

You can frame many of such sentences from the nouns like back, arm, eye, head, palm, etc.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 2. (a) Frame sentences using the following words as nouns and verbs. The first two have been done for you:

(i) advance (ii) boast (iii)care

(iv) dance (v) edge (vi) file

(vii) ground (viii) help

(i) Advance

Noun : With the advance of his retirement he lost interest in his work

Verb : The date of the examination was advanced from 6th June to 1st June.

(ii) boast

Noun: It was the ship-builder's boast that the Titanic was unsinkable

Verb : He often boasts to his neighbours about his daughter's achievements

(b) Name the parts of speech of each of the words in the following sentences:

(i) The tall boy is a tennis champion

(ii) He is always getting into trouble.

1.5 FORMATION OF PARTS OF SPEECH

Among the nine parts of speech listed above with examples, there are only four parts of speech that are referred to as content words. They are: noun, verb, adjective and adverb. They are distinguished from the other five parts of speech that are referred to as function words.

- Content words are words which refer to a thing, quality, state or action and which have independent meaning i.e., when the words are used alone. For example, we can say pen is a noun, red is an adjective etc. Besides when we say that the vocabulary of a language increases over the years, it is the content word that increases. In the sentences 'Anthrax is weaponised' we have two new words "Anthrax" wich is a noun and "weaponised" which is a verb.
- Function words are words which have little meaning on their own, but which show grammatical relationships in and between sentences. They express grammatical meaning whereas content words express lexical meaning. Function words are also called form words, empty words, grammatical words structural words or structure words whereas content words are called full words or lexical words.

The number of function words is fixed in the language unlike the content words. We cannot create another article or a preposition or a pronoun in English. But we can create more and more content word in English. Eminent authors of English like Shakespeare, Milton, Dr. Johnson, Matthew Arnold and T.S. Eliot have created new words in English. But that is a part of another story.

Here, instead we shall see how words of one part of speech undergo some modification of forms to become words of other parts of speech. They are distinguished from the case of same words used as different parts of speech as in the following:

(a) Back:

(i) His friends are at his back (noun)

(ii) He somehow managed to escape through the back door (adjective)

(iii) I' m sure my friends will back me. (verb)

(iv) The boy didn't come back (adverb)

(b) Fast:

(i) Gandhi's mother used to observe fasts on many occasions. (noun)

(ii) Rajdhani Express is a fast train. (adjective)

(iii) She fasts on Thursdays.

(iv) She walks very fast (adverb)

(c) For:

(i) The police has been sent for. (adverb)

(ii) I have sent for the police. (preposition)

(iii) I stopped, for I was tired. (conjunction)

(d) Past:

(i) Assam has a glorious past (noun)

(ii) The past days are always golden. (adjective)

(iii) The storm swept past. (adverb)

(iv) His condition is now past all hopes (preposition)

(e) Right:

(i) She has done the right thing by joining the post. (adjective)

(ii) The wrongs done to her were righted. (verb)

(iii) I was right on time (adverb)

(iv) Might is right (noun)

(f) Some:

(i) Some men are born great. (adjective)

(ii) I brought some of my old photographs. (pronoun)

(iii) Some thirty persons were present. (adverb)

There examples show that the placement of a word in a particular position in a sentence changes the part of speech. The form of the word does not undergo any major change except those of number in case of

their use as nouns or third person singular number in case of their use as verbs. But there are other cases where prefixes and suffixes are used in changing a word from one part of speech to another. We shall discuss a few of them.

1.5.1 Formation of Nouns from Verbs

In this section, we shall see how nouns are formed by adding suffixes like -once-, -ion, -ment, -age, -ure, -ee/-eer/er etc. to a verb.

Suffix	verb	noun
-ance	abound	abundance
	accept	acceptance
	allow	allowance
	attend	attendance
	maintain	maintenance
	defy	defiance
	rely	reliance
	vary	variance
-on	allude	allusion
	assume	assumption
	compel	compulsion
	concede	concession
	oblige	obligation
	occupy	occupation
	omit	omission
	decide	decision
	destroy	destruction
	repeat	repetition
	satisy	satisfaction
	solve	solution
	prepare	preparation
	recognise	recognition
	reduce	reduction

	vary	variation
-ment	attain	attainment
	conceal	concealment
	judge	judgement
	move	movement
	punish	punishment
	amaze	amazement
	employ	employment
-age	carry	carriage
	leak	leakage
	marry	marriage
	pass	passage
	break	breakage
	bind	bondage
-ure	mix	mixture
	please	pleasure
	depart	departure
	fail	failure
	seize	seizure
	sign	signature
-ee	employ	employee
	pay	payee
	train	trainee
-eer	auction	auctioneer
	hunt	hunter
	sell	seller

1.5.2 Formation of Nouns from Adjectives

In this section, we shall see how nouns are formed by adding suffixes like- ity/-ety, -cy,-ness -th etc.

suffix	adjective	noun
-ity	able	ability
	brutal	brutality

	certain	certainty
-ity/ety	brief	brevity
	chaste	chastity
	civil	civility
	curious	curiosity
	double	duplicity
	human	humanity
	local	locality
	mortal	mortality
	necessary	necessity
	noble	nobility
	notorious	notoriety
	pure	purity
	equal	equality
	ferocious	ferocity
	gay	gaiety
	various	variety
	grave	gravity
	generous	generosity
	hostile	hostility
	vain	vanity
	real	reality
	timid	timidity
-cy	accurate	accuracy
	bankrupt	bankruptcy
	decent	decency
	elegant	elegance
	private	privacy
	vacant	vacancy
	secret	secrecy
	supreme	supremacy
-ness	dry	dryness
	fond	fondness

	happy	happiness
	hard	hardness
	red	redness
	white	whiteness
	weak	weakness
	weary	weariness
-th	broad	breadth
	young	youth

1.5.3 Formation of Verbs from Nouns

In this section, we shall see how verbs are formed from nouns by adding prefixes and suffixes to a noun. The prefixes are -em, en-, be- and the suffixes are -ise, -fy.

prefix/suffix	noun	verb
-en	act	enact
	cage	encage
	camp	encamp
	cirde	encircle
	courage	encourage
	force	enforce
	joy	enjoy
	roll	enroll
	slave	enslave
	throne	enthrone
em-	bed	embed
	body	embody
	power	empower
	balm	embalm
-ise	apology	apologise
	authority	authorise
	character	characterise
	economy	economise
	colony	colonise

	monopoly	monopolise
	harmony	harmonise
	sympathy	sympathise
	system	systematise
	patron	patronise
	memory	memorise
	theory	theorise
	nation	nationalise
-fy	beauty	beautify
	class	classify
	glory	glorify
	horror	horrify
	justice	justify
	peace	pacify
	person	personify

1.5.4 Formation of Adjectives from Nouns

Here we shall see how adjectives are formed from nouns by adding suffixes such as -ful, -y, -ly

suffix	noun	adjective
-ful	beauty	beautiful
	bounty	bountiful
	doubt	doubtful
	joy	joyful
	mouth	mouthful
	use	useful
	youth	youthful
-y	blood	bloody
	dew	dewy
	fault	faulty
	grass	grassy
	hand	handy
	heart	hearty

	hill	hilly
	silver	silvery
	sun	sunny
	water	watery
-ly	body	bodily
	brother	brotherly
	day	daily
	earth	earthly
	coward	cowardly
	friend	friendly
	god	godly
	heaven	heavenly
	home	homely
	king	kingly
	maiden	maidenly
	mother	motherly
-cy	accurate	accuracy
	bankrupt	bankruptcy
	decent	decency
	private	privacy
	secret	secrecy
	supreme	supremacy
	urgent	urgency
	vacant	vacancy
-ish	boy	boyish
	child	childish
	fool	foolish
	girl	girlish
	red	reddish
	style	stylish
-ous	contempt	contemptous
	danger	dangerous
	fame	famous

joy	joyous
luxury	luxurious
miracle	miraculous
ruin	ruinous
study	studious
vice	vicious

1.5.5 Formation of Verbs from Adjectives

Here we shall see how verbs are formed from adjectives by adding prefixes such as em-, en-, a-, re-,as-, de- and suffixes such as -fy, -en, -ise, -en

prefixes/suffixes	adjectives	verbs
em-	bitter	embitter
en-+-en	bold	embolden
en-/-en	able	enable
	dear	endear
	deep	deepen
	glad	gladden
	grave	engrave
	hard	harden
	large	enlarge
	mad	madden
	noble	ennoble
	strong	strengthen
	sure	ensure
	thick	thicken
	white	whiten
	wide	widen
-fy	ample	amplify
	false	falsify
	pure	purify
	simple	simplify

	just	justify
	stupid	stupify
-ise/ ise	equal	equalise
	familiar	familiarise
	fertile	fertilise
	special	specialise
	particular	particularise
	popular	popularise
-re	fresh	refresh
-ate	different	differentiate
	necessary	necessitate
	perpetual	perpetuate

1.5.6 Formation of Compound Words

It may interest you to know that the words that are parts of our speech can be categorised as simple words, complex words and compound words. You can draw a distinction between simple words and complex words. Simple words are words that contain no prefixes and suffixes. They are words in their basic forms and not derived words. eg pen, book, take, able, dear, deep etc.

On the other hand, words that are formed by adding prefixes and suffixes are complex words. Pen is a simple word, pens is a complex word containing the plural suffix -s. Able is a simple word, enable is a complex word containing the en- prefix to form the words.

Compound words are words that are made up of a combination of two or more words to function as a single word. Let us look at the formation of a few compound words here.

(a) Formation of Compound nouns:

Noun+Noun: Goldsmith, newspaper, headache, homeward, rainbow, cupboard

Pronoun+Noun: he-goat, she-wolf.

Adj + Noun: blackboard, highway blackbird, nobleman

Verb+ Noun: pickpocket, breakfast, cut-throat

Gerund + Noun: blotting-paper, looking-glass, drinking water

Noun+ Gerund: hand-writing, bird-watching

Verb + Adv/ Prep: lock-up, go- between, fare-well

(b) Formation of Compound adjectives:

Noun+Adjective:	home-sick, milk-white
	word-wide, colour- blind
Noun + Participle:	home-made, self-styled
	heart-rending
Adj+Adj :	red- hot, blue-frock
Adj+ Participle:	full- grown, ready-made
Adv/Part + Noun:	up-hill, under-growth



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 3: (a) Make nouns from: allow, deny, expel, stupid, familiar, accept, behave, timed, blind, poor

(b) Make verbs from: black, circle, dark, office, blood, body, sure, glad, glory, authority

(c) What is a simple word? Give two examples.

(d) What id a complex word? Give two examples.

(e) What is a compound word? Give two examples.



1.6 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we learnt the different labels that we need to apply when we describe the constituents of a sentence and see how they differ when we use functional labels while describing the constituents of a sentence. We have used the terms 'parts of speech' and class' synonymously to describe the components that we use in our speech.

We looked at nine parts of speech and made an attempt to describe them functionally. We categorised the words of English in terms of content words and function words and attempted to explain the distinction between

these two categories of words.

We also discussed how we use words belonging to one part of speech in other parts of speech in different sentences with examples. Further, we presented several ways of formation of words in different parts of speech and spent some time looking at the concept of compound words with illustrative examples.



1.7 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Ans to Q No 1:

(a) Her younger sister is a kathak dancer
S V C

(b) Her examination results have made us happy
S V O C

(c) The sun rises in the east
S V A

(d) Dilip bought a book from that shop
S V O A

(e) Mr and Mrs Das live in Jorhat
S V A

(f) The brown dog jumped over the fence
S V A

Ans to Q No 2:

(i) advance

Noun: He allowed me an advance of my salary

Verb: The data of the exams is advanced by a few days.

(ii) boast

Noun: One must not boast of his/her wealth

Verb: He boasted of his wealth.

(iii) care:

*noun: You should take care of your studies.

*verb: He doesn't care much about his work.

(iv) dance

* noun: I like Bihu dance.

*verb: I could have danced in the programme.

(v) edge

*noun: He was caught with a knife with a sharp edge.

*verb: She edged the hankerchief with pink lace.

(vi) file

*noun: He put the letter in the file.

*verb: He filed the letter.

(vii) ground

*noun: The old man sat exhausted on the ground.

* verb: The aircraft was grounded by fog.

(viii) help

*noun: I need some help to complete the task.

*verb: She helped me with my work.

2.(b)

(i)	The	tall	boy	is	a	tennis	champion
	Det	Adj	N	v	Det	Adj	Noun

(ii) (To try yourself)

Ans to Q No 3:

(a) allowance, denial, expulsion,
stupidity, familiarity acceptance
behaviour, timidity, blindness, poverty.

(b) blacken, encircle, darken, officiate, bleed embody, ensure, gladden, glorify, authorise

(c), (d) and (e) : look up 1.5.6



1.8 MODEL QUESTIONS

Q.1. (a) Which of the following is not a functional label Subject, Noun phrase, Complement, Adverbial.

(b) Which of the following is not a formal label Noun phrase, Verb phrase, Prep phrase, Complement.

Q.2. (a) Label the constituents of the following sentences using formal terms.

(i) The man bought the mangoes from the workers

(ii) The girls visited the book fair

(b) Label the constituents of the following sentences using functional terms.

(i) The girl in the car is his sister

(ii) Mr Das teacher English.

Q.3. (a) Give functional definition

(i) noun (ii) verb (iii) adjective (iv) adverb

(b) Define with examples:

(i) Content words (ii) Function words

Q.4. Discuss the distinctions between content and function words.

Q.5. Write a note on compound words.

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UNIT 2 : PARTS OF SPEECH II

UNIT STRUCTURE

2.1 Learning Objectives

2.2 Introduction

2.3 Nouns, Pronouns and Determiners

- 2.3.1 Nouns
- 2.3.2 Numbers
- 2.3.3 Possessive-'s
- 2.3.4 Pronouns
- 2.3.5 Determiners

2.4 Verbs

- 2.4.1 Finite and Non-Finite Verbs
- 2.4.2 Infinitives
- 2.4.3 Participles
- 2.4.4 Gerunds

2.5 Let us Sum up

2.6 Answers to Check Your Progress

2.7 Model Questions

2.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit you will be able to:

- develop an idea on the basic forms of some of the parts of speech and the inflections that can be made from them.
- grasp the network of associations between various parts of speech.
- appreciate the meaning or semantic value of words in communication.

2.2 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, you will be introduced to the nine parts of speech in English grammar. Our aim is to highlight the function of these parts of speech in the process of communication.

You will note that in section 2.3. we have taken the noun, pronoun and the determiner together because they formally constitute the Noun Phrase; while the determiner and the noun constitute the most basic Noun Phrase, the pronoun can also be the element of the NP. Again, the noun and the pronoun can constitute two of the obligatory elements of the NP.

In this unit, we have minimally introduced you to the concept of the verb by briefly dwelling on the finite and non finite forms of the verb. Other elements like time, tense, aspect have been taken up in a separate unit for a more comprehensive discussion.

2.3 NOUNS, PRONOUNS AND DETERMINERS

The three parts of speech- nouns, pronouns and determiners- are taken up in this section together primarily because of the mutual syntactic relationship that these parts of speech share. A determiner combines with a noun to form a noun phrase which performs the functions of a subject, object, complement etc. of a sentence. A pronoun, on the other hand, can be used in place of a noun or a noun phrase in a sentence to form similar functions. To illustrate this information about the ''mutual syntactic relationship" of nouns, pronouns and determiners read the following extract:

> The officials felt powerless without Gandhi's cooperation He helped them regulate the crowd. He was polite and friendly. He was giving them concrete proof that their might, hitherto dreaded and unquestioned, could be challenged by Indians.

In the first sentence given in the box, "The officials' is a noun phrase performing the function of the subject of the sentence. In the second sentence "He" performs the function of the subject of the sentence. In the second sentence the pronoun "He" refers back to Gandhi is the first sentence. Similarly, the pronoun "them" refers back to the noun phrase "The officials". The pronoun not only replaces the noun phrase but also establishes a cohesive relationship between the sentences. We shall now consider the distinctive features of these three parts of speech in the sub-sections that follow.

2.3.1 Nouns

In 2.3 above we have stated that a noun (or a noun phrase) functions as the subject, object, complement of a verb. Let us elaborate on this point further with illustrative examples.

The first thing that we notice about nouns is that they have a specific distribution in a sentence. It means that nouns occur in certain pre-determined positions in the sentence structure. Nouns can commonly enter into constructions known as the Noun Phrase (NP). We shall see elsewhere that nouns combine with other elements like the determiners which include articles, demonstratives, possessives, quantifiers etc in a fixed sequence besides pre-determiners. From their pre determined position, we find that a noun or an NP performs the following functions:

1. A noun can function as the subject of a sentence eg.
   (a) Birds fly
   (b) John plays chess
   In these two sentences "Birds' and 'John' are subjects of the sentences at (a) and (b) respectively.
2. A noun can function as the object of a sentence eg.
   (a) I know John
   (b) I know the boy
   In these two sentences 'John' and 'the boy' are the objects of the sentences.(a) and (b) above.
3. A noun can function as the complement of a sentence. eg.
   (a) John's mother is a teacher
   (b) We made him our leader
   In these two sentences " a teacher" and "our leader" are NPs performing the function of complements.
4. A noun can function as the indirect object of a sentence. eg.
   (a) John gave Mary a present.
   (b) He gave the girl a book.
   In the above two sentences "Mary" and 'the girl' are indirect

objects whereas "a present" and "a book" are direct objects of the given sentences respectively.

5. A noun can follow prepositions to form a prepositional phrase. eg.

(a) I gave the book to Mary

(b) I gave the book to the girl.

In the above two sentences "to Mary" and 'to the girl' are prepositional phrases functioning as prepositional objects.

6. A noun can occur as the antecedent of a relative pronoun eg.

(a) The plane which brought the Prime Minister was two hours late.

(b) The boy who broke the window is absent today.

In these two sentences, the NPs "the plane" and "The boy" occur as antecedents of the relative clauses that follow.

While we are discussing the functions of the noun in a sentence structure, we may also refer to the gerund which is a verb form ending in -ing, but which is used in a sentence to function as a noun:

(a) Jogging is good for you.

(b) I don't like smoking.

The words 'jogging' and 'smoking' occur in predetermned positions of a noun. We can replace 'jogging' and 'smoking' in these two sentences with 'coffee' and see how coffee fits the structure neatly.

2.3.2 Numbers

In the English number system, the term "plural" is used to denote the idea of "more than one" and is contrasted with the term singular which denotes the idea of "one". Only countable nouns can be used in the plural form.

(a) The plural of regular countable nouns is invariably the base form and the sibilant suffix -s or es. th writing the plural suffix is spelt -s as in

book- books

cat- cats

In the following words the plural suffix -s is pronounced as [2]

dog- dogs

bird- birds

boy- boys

(b) The following words that end with -s, -sh, -ch, -x and -z, take the -es plural ending and is pronounced [iz]

glass- glasses

brush- brushes

church-churches

box- boxes

(c) Most words that end in 'o' take the-es ending eg.

potato- potatoes

hero-heroes

But there are exceptions eg piano- pianos, cuckoo- cuckoos etc.

(d) The ending -f or -fe of most singular nouns is changed to -ves with a corresponding change in pronunciation. of [f] to[v] es in

leaf- leaves

wife- wives

thief- thieves

However, there are many words ending in 'f' or 'fe' that simply add the -s to form the plural as in

roof-roofs

gulf- gulfs

(e) There is a small group of eight nouns which form their plural by a change of vowels. eg

man-men

tooth-teeth

foot-feet

mouse-mice

(f) There are three nouns that have still retained the Old English Plural ending -en eg.

child- children

ox- oxen

brother-brethren

(g) A few foreign words from Latin and Greek have still retained their foreign plural forms eg.

axis-axes

medium-media

analysis-analyses

(h) There are a few nouns with no singular forms. eg scissors, trousers, drawers etc.

(i) There are a few nouns with no plural forms eg deer, sheep, hair. scenery etc.

(j) The proper noun belongs to a grammatically distinct class of nouns which characteristically function alone as the subject of a sentence or the head of an NP serving as proper names as John or London. It may interest you to note that proper names may not be proper nouns but they can serve as the head of NP eg:

- Chief Minister is a proper name but not a proper noun.
- In the sentence 'The Khans are great actors, 'the Khans' is not a proper noun but a proper name.

(k) Proper nouns can take the definite article in certain contexts:

Bordoloi is the Scott of Assam.

There are other situations where 'The' is used before proper nouns which are treated under the word class Determiners.

2.3.3 Possessive-'s

Possessive-'s refers to the apostrophe-s taken by a noun to express possessive relationship with another noun or noun phrase

in a sentence. Note that the possessive-'s is also called genitive inflection. Here are three examples:

(a) A tiger's tail (ie. a tail of a tiger)

(b) A girl's hostel (ie. a hostel for girls)

(c) John's book (ie. a book that belongs to John)

The above examples show that the possessive-'s is suffixed in different ways in singular and in plural nouns. It is also suffixes with proper nouns.

2.3.4 Pronouns

A pronoun as a part of speech can replace a noun, noun phrase, a sentence or a clause in a piece of connected text. We mentioned this print by referring to the extract from Louis Fischer's book *The Life of Mahatma Gandhi* in section 2.3. Depending on the function that a pronoun performs, we can classify pronouns as follows:

(a) Personal Pronouns: Personal pronouns I, we, you, he, she, it and they refer back to someone or something that has already been mentioned as illustrated in the following example:

"Gandhi protested against the delay.
He read a statement pleading guilty"

In this example, 'He' refers back to Gandhi' in the first sentence.

(b) Possessive Pronouns: These pronouns refer to the owner of an object or item etc. Words like my, mine, his, her, hers, its, their, theirs, your, yours belong to this category of pronouns. Here is an example:

"When a people are enslaved, as long as they hold on the their language it is as if they have the key to their prison."

(c) Demonstrative Pronouns: These pronouns point to a physical object or identify people / refer to a particular person or thing eg. this, that, these and those. Here is an example:

These are mine and these are yours.

(d) Relative Pronouns: These pronouns introduce relative

clauses. Words like who, whom, that which, when, where, whose belong to this category.

e.g. This is the house that Jack built.

(e) Reflexive Pronouns: In order to state that an object is the same person or thing as the subject in the same clause or sentence, a reflexive pronoun is used. Words like myself, yourself, himself, herself, themselves, our self, itself belong to this category of pronouns.

e.g. He did the work himself.

These pronouns also emphasise the person or thing that is being referred to.

(f) Reciprocal Pronouns: When we require to express the idea of two persons doing the same thing we use reciprocal pronouns like each other, one another as in

They love each other.

(g) Indefinite Pronouns: These pronouns are used to refer to people or things without saying exactly who or what they are.

I haven't got a pen. Can you lend me one?

(h) Interrogative Pronouns: These pronouns are used to ask questions. They are collectively known as who - words e.g. who, whom, whose, what, which, why, etc. as in

Who built the Taj Mahal?

2.3.5 Determiners

Determiners refer to one of the nine parts of speech that are a close set of words used with a noun whose function is to limit the meaning of the noun in some way. Depending on their use, the following category of words are determiners.

(a) Articles, (b) Demonstratives, (c) Possessives (d) Quantifiers and (e) Wh- determiners. Illustrations of each of the above categories are as follows:

(a) Articles: Articles are words like a, an, the, and which are used with nouns. Their use depends on three factors:

(i) The countability and unaccountability of a noun

(ii) Whether the noun referred to belongs to a general class (trees, boys, students) or a particular/specific member or item of the general class (three, a boy, a student)

(iii) Whether the noun referred to is a particular member of a class, whether it is definite or indefinite.

(i) Countability and Uncountability

Nouns are classified into countable and uncountable nouns. A countable noun can take an indefinite article a/an whereas an uncountable noun does not take an indefinite article. Note the usage of a and an.

(a) We use a before nouns and houn phrases that begin with a consonant sound.

a University, a European

a one rupee coin

(b) We use an before words that begin with a vowel sound including silent h

an orange, an umbrella

an Assamese, an hour

(c) We use an before abbreviations spoken as individual letters that begin with A,E,F, H, I, L, M, N,O, R, S or X.

an MA an IOU

(d) A generic countable noun can take either the definite article the or a/ an

(e) A generic uncountable noun can take no articles

The tiger the dog

(b) Demonstratives: Demonstratives one words like this, that, these, those

This book is mine

That book is yours.

These pencils are new.

(c) Possessives: Words like my, your, our, their etc. which can be

used before both singular and plural nouns are possessives.

This is my book.

India is our Country

His/Her father is a teacher

(d) Quantifiers: Words like some, any, much, many are quantifiers.

I want some time to complete it.

I don't have any time to waste.

(e) Wh-determiners: Words like what and which used before nouns in questions are wh- determiners.

Which house is yours? or What book are you reading?



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q. 1: Give brief examples of the following:

(a) A noun phrase as the object of a sentence.

(b) A noun phrase as the complement of a sentence.

(c) A noun phrase as the antecedent of a relative pronoun.

(d) Two examples of nouns which form their plural by change of vowels. (do not provide the examples given-2.3.2(e))

(e) Two examples of proper nouns that take an article before them.

(f) Two examples of reflexive pronouns.

(g) Two examples of the use of 'an' before abbreviations.

(h) Two examples of much and many as determiners.

(i) Two examples of few and a few as determiners.

(j) Two examples of little and a little as determiners

2.4 VERBS

We have two units following Unit 3 that are exclusively concerned with the verb. Unit 4 deals with Time and Tense and Unit 5 with the Present, Past and Future Tenses. In this Unit, the verb appears in a section only as a member of the parts of speech. In this section, we shall draw a distinction between two kinds of verbs:

(a) Finite Verb/ Finites

(b) Non- finite Verb/ Non-Finites

2.4.1 Finite and Non-Finite Verb

The finite verb is a type of verb that is related to a subject in person and/or number. Besides, it has tense, as well

(a) I play football

(b) He/She plays badminton

(c) They play basketball

From the three examples we noted that the subject and the finite verb that follows the subject depend on each other. Depending on the subject and the tense that a finite verb carries, there can be four forms of a finite verb:

(a) walk- walks- walked-walking

(b) play- plays- played-playing

Some finite verbs have five forms:

(c) give- gives-gave- given- giving

(d) eat- eats-ate-eaten-eating

The 'be' verb has six forms:

(e) be- one- is- are- was- were

A finite verb is an essential ingredient in a sentence.

A non-finite verb form is not marked according to differences in the person or number of the subject and has no tense. Nor can we say that the non-finite verb is an essential ingredient of a sentence. The non-finite verb is used to express various kinds of meaning. There are three kinds of non-finites:

(a) Infinitive

(b) Participles and

(c) Gerund

Each of them are briefly discussed in the following subsections.

2.4.2 Infinitives

An infinitive can be of the following types:

(1) to- infinitive

(2) bare infinitive

The functions of each catagory of infinitives are as follows.

(1) To infinitive:

(a) The to + verb infinitive can be used as the subject of a sentence:

(i) To travel hopefully is better than to arrive

(ii) To smoke in a public place is an offence.

(b) To to+verb infinitive can be used as a complement:

(i) The object of the paper is to acquaint you with the culture of Assam.

(ii) My hobby is to collect stamps.

(c) An infinitive can be used as the object of a verb:

(i) I want to buy the book.

(ii) I like to walk in the Park.

(d) An infinitive can be used as an object complement:

(i) I would like you to see the Principal.

(ii) He wants me to see the Principal.

(2) Bare infinitive:

(a) A bare infinitive is used as a complement of the following verbs bid,behold, feel, find, hear, know, let, make, notice, see, watch, have

(i) I heard her sing.

(ii) Why did you let him go?

(iii) I would have them reach in time.(have in the sense of want/ wish)

(b) The bare infinitve is used after better/had better, but/except etc.

(i) I better leave than work under you.

(ii) She does nothing but watch TV all day.

(3) Split infinitive

An infinitve consists of two items namely to + verbs when an adverb is placed between to and verb, the construction is called split infinitive.

Examples:

(i) May I request you to kindly grant me leave.

(ii) He asked me to briefly say a few words.

2.4.3 Participles

A participle is a non-finite verb form which functions as an adjective. A participle can have the following forms:

1. Present participle form: verb+ ing
   (a) He jumped off a running train.
   (b) A barking dog seldom bites
2. Past participle form: verb+ d/ed/en
   (a) He is a retired teacher
   (b) I appeared in a written test.
3. Perfect participle form: having + past participle
   (a) Having finished his work, he went home.
   (b) Having passed the exams, he started work.

2.4.4 Gerunds

The gerund is indistinguishable in form from the present participle, whereas the participle is a verbal adjective, the gerund is a verbal noun. In other words, the gerund has most of the characteristics of a noun. Thus, it can be:

1. The subject of a sentence:
   Swimming is a good exercise.
2. The complement of a sentence:
   Seeing is believing.
3. The object of a sentence:
   I remember seeing him
4. The object of a preposition:
   He began by explaining the theory.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 2: State whether the following statements are true or false:

(a) In the sentence 'I play football', 'play' is a finite verb. T/F

(b) In the sentence 'I like to play football', both 'like' and 'play' are non-finite T/F

(c) A non-finite verb is not an essential ingredient in a sentence. T/F

(d) A participle can also be called a verbal noun. T/F

(e) A gerund can be used as the subject of a sentence. T/F



2.5 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we have introduced all the nine parts of speech. You have so far learnt that most parts of speech have distinct forms and functions. You learnt the functions of different parts of speech in the process of communication. You have learnt the mutual relationship of nouns, pronouns and determiners in the formation of the noun phrase.

The unit has discussed the structure of the verb and both the finite and non-finite verbs of English in a detailed manner. The verb forms, we have learnt, require an exhaustive treatment which would be taken up in the subsequent unit.



2.6 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Ans to Q No 1:

(a) He wrote a letter

(b) She is a doctor

(c) The boy who stood first in the exams is her brother.

(d) louse- lice, goose-geese

(e) (i) A Daniel is come to judgement .

(ii) Kalidas is often called the Shakespeare of India.

(f) I wrote the poem myself. (The other: Try yourself)

(g) This is an RCC bridge.

An M.Phil degree is a research degree.

(h) Try yourself (j) Try yourself

Ans to Q No 2:

(a) True (b) False (c) True (d) False (e)True



2.7 MODEL QUESTIONS

Q.1. Discuss the different functions of the noun in the sentence structure.

Q.2. Discuss the rules of plural in English nouns.

Q.3. Discuss the genitive inflection in English.

Q.4. Distinguish positive pronoun and demonstrative pronouns with determiners by citing examples.

Q.5. What are infinitives? Illustrate with examples.

Q.6. Write short notes on:

(a) Participles

(b) Gerunds

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UNIT 3 : PARTS OF SPEECH III

UNIT STRUCTURE

3.1 Learning Objectives

3.2 Introduction

3.3 Adjectives and Adverbs

3.3.1 Adjectives

3.3.2 Adverbs

3.4 Prepositions

3.4.1 Functions of Prepositions

3.5 Conjunctions

3.5.1 Coordinating Conjunctions

3.5.2 Correlative Conjunctions

3.5.3 Sentence Connector Conjuctions

3.5.4 Subordinating Conjunctions

3.6 Interjections

3.7 Let us Sum up

3.8 Answers to Check Your Progress

3.9 Model Questions

3.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- gain an idea on the functions of adjectives and adverbs
- discuss the functions of prepositions and its proper use
- grasp the functions of interjections.

3.2 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, you will note that the adjectives and adverbs have been taken up together mainly because of their mutually shared characteristics. In some cases, we have seen that they even share the same form.

He is a hard worder (adjective)

He works hard. (adjective)

We have taken prepositions, conjunctions and interjections separately in different sections of this unit. Both the prepositions and the conjunctions have a linking function. We know that a preposition is used with nouns, pronouns and gerunds to link then grammatically to other words in a prepositional phrase structure. Conjunctions too have a connective function.

The last section is the interjection which are used to express strong feelings of emotion eg. Hurrah ! We have won. Several of the interjections appear to be archaic in use.

3.3 ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

Both adjectives and adverbs have a qualifying/ modifying function. Besides, it is difficult to identify an adjective or an adverb in isolation. We can identify them only in the sentence structures. They are two different parts of speech mainly because they have their distinctive functions in their relationship with other parts of speech and in the structure of a sentence or phrase. Let us briefly look at the adjectives first.

3.3.1 Adjectives

An adjective as a part of speech has a describing function. It describes the thing, quality, state or action which a noun refers to. For example, the noun that car can be used to signify any car. Adjectives in front of the noun can qualify the noun car by giving it a more specific meaning.

- 'the new car' tells us more about the car. We know, it is not the 'old' one that is being referred to. Likewise,
- 'the new green car' tells us still more about the car that is being referred to. Again,
- 'the big, new, green car can narrow down the description of the car by making it more specific.

In English, adjectives usually have the following properties:

(a) They can be used before a noun eg. a new car

(b) They can be used after a noun in a predicate position in an

S+V+C sentence structure as the complement of the sentence. eg.

John's car is new.

Her hair is long.

(c) They can be used after a noun in a predicate position in an S+V+O+C sentence structure as the complement of the object eg.

The gift made many happy.

He painted the door green.

(d) They can be modified by an adverb. eg.

The gift made Mary very happy.

The work made me rather tired.

(e) They can have degrees of comparison. eg.

strong-stronger-strongest

good-better- best

little- less-least

beautiful- more beautiful-most beautiful

(f) They can appear in a definite sequence together to qualify a noun eg.

A beautiful tall young fair English teacher

A big, brown Labrador dog.

(g) They can appear as head of a noun phrase with the qualifying noun absent eg.

Only the brave deserve the fair.

The rich are not always happy.

(h) Adjectives can be used after a noun in a noun phrase eg.

The Chairman asked the members present to express their views.

Adjectives are of five kinds namely:

1. Adjectives of quality:

Examples include: tall, short, big, small, black, blue, hot, cold etc. as in:

- Kolkata is a big city.

- The river is very wide in Dibrugarh

2. Proper adjectives:

   These are formed from proper nouns, especially from names of places etc.

   Hamlet is an Elizabethan play.

   He is an officer in the Indian Navy.

3. Intensifying adjectives:

   These adjectives heighten or reduce the effect of the noun they modify eg.

   He is mere student; how can he shout at his teacher.

4. Participle adjectives:

   When the present participle drinking, running etc. and the past participle experienced, spoken etc. are used in the adjective position in a noun phrase, they are called participle adjective. eg.

   The culprits who threw stones at the running train were arrested.

   An experienced teacher was selected for the post.

5. Noun as adjective:

   When a noun function as a modifier to another noun, describing a quality, the noun becomes an adjective in the noun phrase.

   The gold necklace was missing.

   A stone wall does not make a prison.

   Moreover, it was stated earlier that adjective have degrees commonly known as degree of comparison. The three degree of comparison are positive- comparative and superlative.

   (i) The adjectives are comparative in the following examples:

   The climate of Shillong is colder than that of Guwahati

   The girl is more beautiful than her sister.

   (ii) The adjectives are superlative in the following examples

   He is the tallest boy in the class.

   Winter is the coldest season of the year.

(iii) In the positive degrees of comparison, we can have the following forms.

Asoka was as brave as a lion.

The man is as cunning as a fox.

3.3.2 Adverbs

An adverb, like the adjective, is a part of speech that has a describing function. That is, it adds to or modifies the meanings of verbs, adjectives or other adverbs.

1. Adverbs as modifier of Verbs:

   He walks slowly.

   John, come here.

   The underlined adverbs modify the verbs that they follow.

2. Adverbs as modifier of adjectives:

   It is very hot in June.

   I am quite happy with my new job.

   The adverbs 'very' and 'quite' modify the adjectives that they precede.

3. Adverbs as modifier of adverbs:

   She did extremely well in the exams.

   You walk too slow.

   The adverbs 'well' and 'slow' are modified by the adverbs 'extremely' and 'well'.

4. Adverbs as modifier of nouns:

   The up train is late by two hours today.

   The above lines are an extract from Shelley's poem "Ozymandias".

5. Adverbs as modifier of Sentence:

   Fortunately, we reached the bus station in time.

   Obviously, we would be there for the party.

   In English, adverb can have the following forms:

(a) Some adverbs are single, indivisible words eg.

I always go for a walk in the morning.

It is too hot to go out now.

(b) Some adverbs are formed from an adjective by the addition of the

-ly suffix. eg- quick-quickly, happy- happily etc.

The birds sang sweetly.

He could easily work out the sum.

(c) We cannot add -ly to an adjective which already and in -ly. Instead we can use a prepositioned phrase with manner/ fashion/way or we can use another adverb.

Adj: I received friendly greetings.

Adv: I was greeted in a friendly manner.

(d) Some adverbs have the some form as adjectives. It is the sentence structure that determines the part of speech of the words. eg.

Adj: I caught the fast train.

Adv: The train was going quite fast.

Adj: I have an early night.

Adv: I go to bed early.

(e) Some adverbs can be with or without -ly. It is more informal to leave out -ly.

You can buy fish cheap/ cheaply at the Railway Colony Bazar.

Don't talk so loud/ loudly.

(f) There are some pairs of adverbs where the addition of the -ly suffix creates different meaning.

He works hard.

He hardly works

Fish is scarce in the market these days

He scarcely knows me.

(g) Adverbs like adjectives form comparative and superlative degree.

(i) Positive degree

He works as hard as his boother.

A kite can't fly as high as a plane

(ii) Comparative degree

He works harder than his brother.

A plane flies higher than a bird.

(iii) Superlative degree

He ran fastest of all.

She behaves most politely.

Finally, it is useful to note that adverbs may express time, place, degree, frequency, interrogation. A few example of each function are given here:

1. Time:

(a) I will do the work tomorrow.

(b) The train arrived a few minutes early.

(c) What shall we do next.

Adverbs of time include after, already, before, immediately, once, presently, shortly, soon etc.

2. Place:

(i) I shall sit here waiting for you.

(ii) I went downstairs to see him.

(iii) I've looked everywhere for my glasses.

Adverbs of place include above, abroad, across, along, away, back, below, in, on somewhere, there etc.

3. Degree:

(i) The weather today is very hot.

(ii) I was completely wet in the rain.

(iii) I was utterly disappointed by her performance.

Adverbs of degree include words like absolutely, completely, deeply, entirely, extremely, greatly, equally, much, partly. perfectly etc.

4. Frequency:

(i) I always do my work sincerely

(ii) He generally reaches school by nine.

(iii) I rarely meet him these days.

Adverbs of frequency includes words like continually, frequently, occasionally, regularly, scarcely.etc.

5. Interrogation:

(i) How did you come here?

(ii) When will you visit us?

(iii) Why are you late today?

Adverbs of interrogation include words like what, when, where, whose, how etc.

6. Quantity/ Amount

(i) I have little time to spare.

(ii) There is much water in the jug

(iii) Rushdie received the prize twice.

Adverbs of quantity/ amount include words like little, much, once, few, and so on.

7. Manner

(i) I wrote the letter hurriedly.

(ii) He behaved arrogantly.

(iii) She sang sweetly.

Adverbs of manner include the following adverbs:

actively, anyhow, boldly, calmly, carefully distinctly, easily, equally, fast, gladly, promptly, quickly, simply, suddenly etc.

In addition to these seven types, we have adverbs that express affirmation, negation, probability etc. Here are a few examples:

(1) Do you play cricket?

Yes, I do.

(2) Have you got a pen?

No, I don't.

(3) Will you help me?

Sure.

Words like absolutely, certainly, indeed, obviously etc. belong to this category.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 1: Answer the following questions.

(a) Frame a sentence by using the following structure:

S+V+O+Adjective

(b) Correct the following sentence

Tom is a brown big cat

(c) Give an example of an adjective used in a noun phrase modified by an adverb.

(d) Give an example of a noun behaving as an adjective in a noun phrase.

(e) Transform the following sentences as directed

(i) He is the tallest boy in the class.
(Rewrite in the comparative degree)

(ii) Papori is the best singer in her class.
(Rewrite in the positive degree)

(f) Form adverbs or adverb equivalents from the following adjectives:

(i) skilful, (ii) easy, (iii) friendly

3.4 PREPOSITIONS

A preposition is a part of speech that is usually placed before a noun or a pronoun to show or to express the idea of place, time, cause, purpose or means. eg:

(i) I live in Guwahati, (place)

(ii) I shall meet you at six o'clock. (Time)

(iii) You must work hard to shine in life. (purpose)

(iv) I sharpened the pencil with a pen-knife. (means)

In terms of form, prepositions are of two types (a) simple prepositions and (b) complex or compound prepositions.

(a) Simple prepositions: Preposition that consist of one one word are called simple preposition,eg. at, by, for, from, in, of, to, up etc. as in

(i) The car is in the garage.

(ii) The book is on the table.

(iii) I go to school by bus.

(b) Complex/Compound prepositions: Prepositions 'that consist of more than one word as in the following list are referred to as complex/ compound prepositions eg. according to, along with, because of, but for, by virtue of, with regard to, in spite of, in search of, as in

(i) He left for the city in search of a job.

(ii) The match had to be postponed due to rain.

3.4.1 Functions of Preposition

(a) Prepositions function as adjuncts in the clause structure S+V+A as in

(i) He is in the room.

(ii) The book is on the table

(b) Prepositions/ Prepositional phrases can function as post-modifiers in a noun phrase eg.

(i)The girls in the room were singing

(ii) The books on the shelf are new.

(c) Prepositions can function as complementation of a verb eg.

(i) We were looking at his beautiful painting.

(ii) We were gazing at the sunset scene.

(d) Prepositions can function as complementation of an adjective eg:

(i) I am happy at the news.

(ii) She was tired of his behaviour.

(e) Prepositions can function as adverbs. eg.

(i) He put the book on the table. (preposition)

(ii) I put the radio on. (adverb)

(iii) You must be here before five. (preposition)

(iv) We've had this trouble before. (adverb)

(v) She is in the room (preposition)

(vi) I opened the door and she walked in. (adverb)

(f) Certain verbs are used with certain prepositions :

(i) abide by (ii) abstain from (iii) account for

(iv) attend to (v) begin with (vi) care for

(vii) confer with (viii) contribute to

(g) Certain adjectives are used with certain prepositions :

(i) acceptable to (ii) anxious about (iii) based on

(iv) deaf to (v) liable to/for (vi) partial to

(vii) popular with (viii) vexed with

(h) Certain nouns are used with certain prepositions :

(i) ability for (ii) appetite for (iii) accent to

(iv) conversation with (v) faith in (vi) fancy for

(vii) relation with (viii) revolt against

A list of appropriate preposition will be annexed at the end of the block for your reference in the subsection 3.6.2



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 2: (a) Fill in the blanks with prepositions to complete the sentences.

(i) A : Is Dipa..... work?

B : No, She's .....holiday.

(ii) A: Do you always go..... college..... bus

B: No, Sometimes I go..... my bike

(b) Frame sentences with

(i) abide by (ii) abstain from

(iii) appetite for (iv) vexed with

3.5 CONJUNCTIONS

In this section, we shall take up the part of speech known as conjunction. The function of conjunctions is to join words, phrases and clauses. There are primarily four different kinds of conjunctions. They include:

- Coordinating conjunction
- Correlative conjunction

- Sentence connections
- Subordinating conjunctions

Each of these types are discussed in the following subjection.

3.5.1 Coordinating Conjunctions

Coordinating conjunction join words, phrases or clauses of co-ordinate (in equal) rank. These conjunctions include: and, but, or, nor, neither, for, yet, so. eg.

1. Ravi and his wife are coming to visit us.
2. He tried hard but was unsuccessful
3. Is your car black or grey?

The conjunction in each of the sentence above joins two similar parts in the sentence. In sentence 1 and joins two nouns (Ravi and his wife) in sentence 2 but joins two clauses.

'He tried hard' with ' he was unsuccessful' to contrast each other. In sentence 3, the conjunction 'or' joins the two colour adjectives 'black' and ' blue' as alternatives. As they join two grammatical units of the same kind these conjunctions are called coordinating conjunctions.

3.5.2 Correlative Conjunctions

Conjunctions used in pairs are called correlative conjunctions. Read the following examples:

1. either.....or.....: You can use either a pen or a pencil.
2. neither.....nor: He is neither kind nor honest.
3. both.....and : He is both honest and hard-working.
4. though.....yet: Though he is hardworking, yet he is poor.
5. Whether.....or: I cannot say whether he will come or not.
6. not only..... but also: He not only quarrelled with me but also took away the book.
7. so..... that: It is so hot that I cannot go out.
8. as/so..... as: Dimpi is not as beautiful as her sister.

9. hardly..... when: Hardly had I reached the school when it began to rain.
10. no sooner..... than: No sooner had I reached the station than it began to rain.
11. Such.....as: Such men as are honest are respected everywhere.
12. Scarcely..... when: Scarcely had I reached school when it began to rain.

3.5.3 Sentence Connector Conjunctions

Sentence connectors are cohesive devices that establish connections between sentences in a paragraph or any piece of spoken or written text larger than a sentence. Firstly, secondly, thirdly, next, then, besides, moreover, hence, therefore etc. are sentence connectors.

Read the following passage and note the sentence connectors and their function in making the passage cohesive.

One morning, 17 year old Geeta Sharma woke up to find that she could not get out of bed because of a severe back pain. Her parents were stunned when they were told that Geeta had suffered a slip disc. Most doctors put the blame squarely on the life-style of youngsters. First , they hold the view that girls exercise little than boys. Secondly, they also blame the schools for not laying so much importance on sports and physical activity. Moreover, there are hardly any parks or proper places for the children to play. So where can they go?

You will see how sentence connectors help to bring a unity in the passage.

3.5.4 Subordinating Conjunctions

Subordinating conjunctions are used to introduce the dependent or subordinate clauses to form a complex sentence structure. Words

like after, although, as, because, before, if, unless. however, till etc. are conjunctions of this category. Here are a few examples:

(a) Subordinating conjunctions used in noun clauses of complex sentences:

(i) That you will refuse the offer is quite unlikely

(ii) How the prisoner escaped is a complete mystery.

(iii) He asked me where I lived.

(iv) He only laughed at what we said.

Noun clauses are introduced with subordinators like that, how, where and what.

(b) Subordinating conjunctions used in adjective clauses of complex sentences:

(i) That is the house that Jack built

(ii) The student who answered the question was Dipa.

Subordinating conjunctions used in adjective clauses in complex sentences include that, who, which and whose.

(c) Subordinating conjunctions used in adverb clauses of complex sentences.

(i) Please wait till the rain stops.

(ii) I will find her wherever she may be.

(iii) I didn't come because I wasn't well.

(iv) We left early so that we might avoid the rush.

Subordinating conjenctions in adverb clauses include when, as, while, till, before, after, since, where, wherever, because, now that, so that, so as to, if, unless etc.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 3: Fill in the blanks with the appropriate choice from the alternatives given.

(a) I have read about the Education Policy in the newspaper,..... I haven't got the details.(but/however)

(b) It all seems sensible to me..... the proposal has the support of the NCERT. (What's more/On the other hand)

(c) I like the idea of reviewing the non detention policy.

..... the EM may run into rough weather. (Although/However)

3.6 INTERJECTIONS

A part of speech, the interjection is a word or a sound used to express some sudden feeling or emotion. Among the most usual interjections are

1. Oh! (to express suprise or pain)
2. Ah! (to express surprise or satisfaction)
3. Hey! (to attract attention)
4. Alas! (a 'literary form to express sorrow or disappointment.)

An interesting point that we notice about interjections is that interjections have no grammatical connection with any other word or words in the sentence. It is merely an exclamatory sound, brought into a sentence to denote feelings or emotions. The relation between the interjection and the sentence is governed by meaning. For example, if the sentence is an exclamation of joy eg: "We have won the match!" the interjection that will precede the sentence will be "Hurrah!" We can't say:

* "Alas ! we have won the match.

There are certain phrases or expressions that are used like interjections to express some feelings or emotions. The most common ones are:

(a) Hi ! (It is a form of address to someone while meeting for the first time)

(b) Bye ! or Good bye (It is an expression of leave taking)

(c) Oh/O dear! (It expresses surprise)

(d) By god ! (It expresses wonder)

(e) How sad ! (It almost replaces Alas!)

(f) Good heavens! (Expresses surprise)

Readers may come across many more of such variations of interjections in British novels. In one of Joseph Conrads novelles titled *The Secret Sharer*, the chief mate had the habit of using interjections like "Bless my soul!" to express surprise.



3.7 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, you have learnt the functions of the adjectives and the adverbs and their relative closeness. At the same time, we noted their individual distinctiveness - how adjectives in spite of their shared features have their own function in the sentence structure.

You have studied the parts of speech- prepositions, conjunctions and interjections separately and note each of their communicative functions. You are aware of the importance of the knowledge on the use of appropriate prepositions.

Likewise, you noted the importance of conjunctions in making our spoken and written discourse cohesive. You also looked at the small group of words known as the interjections and noted their communicative functions.



3.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Ans to Q No 1:

(a) Her behaviour made me angry

(b) Tom is a big brown cat

(c) He is a very honest man.

(d) An iron gate

(e) (i) He is taller than any other boy in the class.

(ii) No other girl in the class is as good as Papori in her class

(f) (i) skilfully (ii) easily (iii) in a friendly manner

Ans to Q No 2: (a) i. at, on ii. to, by, on

(b) i. We should abide by the traffic rules while driving in the city.

(ii) We must abstain from bad habits.

(iii) I have a huge appetite for classical music.

(iv) I was indeed vexed with this problem

Ans to Q No 3: (a) But (b) What's more (c) However



3.9 MODEL QUESTIONS

Q.1. Give the meaning of the following pairs of sentences

(a) He stopped to smoke a cigarette

He stopped smoking cigarettes

(b) Please remember to bring the book.

I remember bringing the book.

Q.2. Frame sentences with: put out, put by, make after, make off. make away with.

*** ***** ***

UNIT 4 : TIME AND TENSE - I

UNIT STRUCTURE

4.1 Learning Objectives

4.2 Introduction

4.3 Time and Tense

4.3.1 Simple Present Form

4.3.2 Simple Past Form

4.3.3 The Future Form

4.4 Aspect

4.4.1 The Perfective

4.4.2 The Progressive

4.4.3 The Perfect Progressive

4.5 Let us Sum up

4.6 Answers to Check Your Progress

4.7 Model Questions

4.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit you will be able to:

- familiarise yourself with the concepts of time and tense
- gain a brief idea on the perfective, progressive and the perfect progressive aspects
- distinguish between active and passive verb forms.
- acquaint yourself with the primary auxillaries and modals and their active and passive voice structures.

4.2 INTRODUCTION

The unit aims to help you to distinguish between the concepts of time and tense. We shall see that while time is a universal concept with divisions of past, present and future tense is grammatical concept realised through verb forms. We shall discuss the present, past and future tense forms of English with relevant examples.

The unit also introduces you to the concept of aspect as a grammatical category expressed through the progressive, perfective and perfect progressive forms of the verbs. For example, we shall see that

- progressive indicates that an action is in progress.
- perfective or perfect shows a relationship between state or event and
- perfect progressive establishes a link between the past and the present (present perfect) but it is used to indicate that the action which began in the past is in progress or was in progress or will be in progres.

The unit also introduces you to the passive verb forms so as to bring out a distinction between the verb form in the active voice and in the passive voice. These forms may help you to understand that as far usage is concerned, the active and the passive and not merely counterparts of one another. Each has its own distinctive use in a social situation. There is the question of grammaticality and appropriateness in the use of English.

Moreover, we shall take up the auxiliaries which include the primary auxiliaries and the modals and illustrate the use of the modals in passive constructions. We have illustrated the more frequently used forms by keeping aside those forms that have very rare use.

4.3 TIME AND TENSE

In this unit, we shall discuss the concepts of time and tense and to understand the relation between these two terms. We shall understand that time is a universal concept with three divisions:

Past time---Present time---Future time

The concept is universal in that the units of time exist independently in the grammar of a language. The representation of time above indicate that time is a continuum: the past time, the present time and the future time constitute some kind of a continuum.

On the other hand, tense is grammatical concept that is realised through forms of the verb. There are grammatical forms that express present time, past time and future time. We shall discuss tense by taking up the different tenses of English as we have done in the case of the first three units by highlighting their forms and functions.

4.3.1 Simple Present Form

The simple present form is generally the base form of the verb. The term 'base form' means the form of a word without the prefixes and suffixes added to it. The word 'play' is the base form of the words playing, played, playful and plays. In the simple present tense form except in the case of the form in the third person singular number, we use the base form of the verb as the following table indicates:

Person	Number	
	Singular	Plural
1st person	I play	We play
2nd person	You play	You play
3rd person	He/She plays	They play

The above is a conjugation table. A conjugation table shows the way in which a particular verb changes (conjugates) for tense, person or number.

Let us now examine the functions of the simple present tense forms:

1. We use the simple present tense for: habitual actions as the following examples show.
   (a) Every morning I get up at 5 o' clock.
   (b) I leave for school at 7.30.
   (c) I go by the school bus.
   (d) Our school starts at 8 o'clock.
2. For general statement or proverbs
   (a) The earth moves round the sun.
   (b) Necessity is the mother of invention.
   (c) I live in Guwahati.
3. To describe and action happening in the instantaneous present in sports commentaries and in exclamations:
   (a) Here comes the VIP.

(b) John kicks the ball straight to the goal.

4. To describe future action.
   (a) Our school reopens on the 1st August.
   (b) The Prime Minister arrives tomorrow.
   (c) The next train leaves at 8 o' clock in the evening.
5. For past time reference.
   (a) Your father tells me that you have not done well in the exams.
   (b) The teacher says that our exams start on the 18th February
6. In subordinate clauses of time or condition expressing a future action
   (a) When you see him, remember me to him.
   (b) Don't write until the bell rings.

4.3.2 Simple Past Form

The simple past form of regular verbs is always the base form and the -ed suffix eg. play-played, open- opened. But in the case of irregular verbs, we find two variations.

(a) Some irregular verbs form their past tense by a change of vowels. eg. eat-ate, give-gave ring-rang.

(b) Some irregular verbs do not change their form in the past tense. eg. cut- cut, hit- hit.

The following are the functions of the past tense form of the verb:

1. To express an action wholly completed at some point or during some period, in the past, eg.
   (a) I worked in this office for three years.
   (b) He arrived last evening.
2. To express suppositions
   (a) If he worked hard he would pass the exams.
   (b) If I were you, I should accept the offer.
   (c) It would be better if you went there yourself.

4.3.3 The Future Form

The future tense is formed by using the auxiliary will and shall. These are forms of the pure future. But these are several other forms that are used to express future i.e., to express the idea that something is going to happen in the future . Example.

(a) I shall do what I like

(b) He will come tomorrow

(c) It is going to rain

(d) He is coming by the end of the week.

(e) The train leaves at 8 o'clock.

(f) We are about to leave

(g) The meeting was to be held the following week.

The above examples show that we can use

- shall / will to express future
- present progressive to express future
- simple present to express future
- be + about to to express future
- going to to express future
- simple past to express future.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 1: Answer the following:

(a) What is base form?

(b) What is a conjugation table?

(c) Give an example of a sentence in simple present tense expressing future time.

(d) Give an example of a sentence in the present continuous (progressive) tense to express future time.

(e) Correct the sentences :

(i) I am loving classical music.

(ii) He has come yesterday.

4.4 ASPECT

Aspect is a grammatical category which refers to the manner in which the verb action is regarded or experienced. The choice of aspect is a comment on or a particular view of the action. English has the following three types of aspects: (a) perfective, (b) progressive (or continuous) and (c) perfect progressive (or perfect continuous). We shall note the different forms that the verb takes to indicate these different aspects and also identify their functions.

4.4.1 The Perfective

The perfective, also called perfect tense in grammar is an aspect which shows a relationship between one state or event and a later state, event or time. In English, the perfect is formed from the auxiliary verb have and the past participle form of the verb

(1) Present Perfect tense

I have finished the work.

He has done the work.

(a) The present perfect tense is often used to talk about past actions and events which are completely finished. However, instead of the simple past tense, the present perfect tense in used if the action/ event has current relevance, that is, related to the speaker's present experience. The following sentence may be examined:

I have read the book.

The present perfect indicates that now I know what the book is about.

(b) The present perfect tense is used for an action just completed when the resulting state is still present:

I have lost my pen, (I am unable to do my homework)

She has made the tea (it's ready now)

(c) This tense is also used when the time of the action is indefinite.

I have visited Delhi.

I have seen the film.

We can compare these two sentences with the following sentences:

I visited Delhi last year

I saw the film yesterday.

(2) Past Perfect tense

The tense is formed by had+ past participle. It is used

(a) to speak of an action concluded before a certain time in the past or before the occurence of another action.

(i) Before I reached the station the train had left.

(ii) I told her that I had come by bus.

(b) to express duration up to a certain time in the past:

(iii) By the time I left the college I had. worked there for twelve years.

(c) to express a past condition or supposition with an implied negative.

(iv) if I had known that you would be coming, I would have come earlier.

(3) Future Perfect Tense

The tense is formed by the use of shall/ will + have + a past participle. It is used to indicate.

(a) An action that will be completed before a certain time or another action in the future. This tense is always associated with the preposition 'by' and the construction 'by the time'.

(i) By the time you finish your breakfast, the taxi will have arrived.

(ii) In another year or so you will have forgotten all about him.

(b) Duration up to a time in the future eg.

(iii) When I leave the school next week, I shall have worked here for fifteen years.

(iv) On 4th July next, we shall have been married for twenty years.

(c) Possibility or assumption eg.

(v) It is 9.30; the Shatabdi Express from Jorhat will have arrived Guwahati by now.

4.4.2 The Progressive

The Progressive or the Progressive Tense also referred in traditional grammar as continuous tense is a grammatical aspect which indicates that an action is incomplete, in progress or developing. The progressive in English is formed with the auxiliary 'be' and the '-ing' form of the verb.

(1) Present Progressive Tense:

This tense is formed by using the simple present tense of the verb to be and as stated above the '-ing' form (or the present participle form) as in the table.

Person	Number	
	Singular	Plural
1st person	I an playing	We are playing
2nd person	You are playing	You are playing
3nd person	He/She is playing	They are playing

The conjugation table shows how the 'be' verb takes different forms in different persons. The following are the uses of the present progressive tense. It is used:

(a) to express an action in progress at the time of speaking.

(i) Today I am wearing a blue shirt.

(ii) It is present tense; progressive aspect)

(ii) He is having breakfast.

(b) to express an action which is in progress but which may not necessarily be going on at the time of speaking.

(iii) She is practising Yoga these days.

(iv) He is writing a book on Assam tea.

The actions described in these two sentences do not necessarily take place at the time of speaking.

(c) to express future time (for a pre- planned activity), to refer to a planned activity to take place in the future.

(v) He is arriving tomorrow.

(vi) We are leaving for New York next month.

There are two classes of verbs that are namely used in the continuous tense.

(a) Verbs which express activities of the mind or of the senses which express feelings or emotions. These include: admire, believe, care, dislike. expect, feal, forget, hate, hear, imagine, know, like, love, notice, realise, recognise, remember, see, small, taste, think, want, wish.

(b) Verbs which express a state or condition eg: appear, belong, consist, cost, have (possess) include, possess, remain, resemble etc.

In the present tense, we use these verbs in the simple present and not in the present progressive tense.

(2) Past Progressive Tense:

The past progressive tense in formed by using was/ were and the present participle. We use this form of the verb to:

(a) express an action or state which was continuing at a certain point of time in the past.

(i) When I was going to school, I met Rumi.

(ii) We were watching the programme when the lights went off.

(b) draw attention to a continuous activity that went on during a certain period of time in the past.

(iii) What were you doing yesterday afternoon between four to five o' clock?

(iv) I was doing my homework then.

(3) Future Progressive Tense:

The future progressive tense is formed by using shall/will + be

+ present perticiple. It is used to

(a) express a future activity, beginning before and finishing after some given time in the future.

(i) This time tomorrow I shall be flying to Delhi

(ii) John will be waiting for me at the airport.

(b) express an action that will take place at an indefinite time in the future.

(iii) We shall be visiting Agra during our stay in Delhi.

(iv) I'll be writing for you after I reach Hyderabad.

4.4.3 The Perfect Progressive

The perfect progressive is a grammatical aspect which indicates that an action that began in the past is/was/will be continuing. It contrasts with the progressive which does not indicate the point of time or the period of time the action has been going on.

(1) Present Perfect Progressive Tense:

This tense is formed by the present perfect of the verb to be and the present participle. It is used to express the duration of an action up to the present. The tense suggests that the action is still continuing at the moment of speaking. The action may continue into the future.

(i) I have been teaching in this college for six years now

(ii) She has been teaching in the university since 2014.

Both the sentences are the same except for the use of since and for. It is notable that since is used to describe a point of time when an action began and is still continuing.

(iii) The boys have been studying since morning.

(iv) We have been living in this house since 2009.

On the other hand, for is used to refer to a period of time an action has been going on.

(v) The boys have been studying for five hours.

(vi) We have been living in this house for a long time.

(2) Past Perfect Progressive Tense:

This tense is formed by had been + present perticiple. It is used.

(a) to express the duration of an action up to a certain time in the past.

(i) I had been waiting for an hour but he didn't turn up.

(ii) She had been acting in mobile theatres for several years before she decided to join politics.

(b) to express present perfect continuous in reported speech.

(i) I said to her, "How long have you been working in this office?"

I asked her how long she had been working in that office.

(3) Future Perfect Progressive Tense:

This tense is formed by the future tense shall/will + have+ been + a present participle. It is used to express a duration of an action up to a certain time in the future. eg

(i) In January 2020, I shall have been working in this college for ten years.

(ii) In another year's time the girl will have been living in this house for five years.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 2: Answer the following questions:

(a) What is the progressive aspect?

(b) What is the perfective aspect?

(c) What is the form of the perfect progressive aspect?

(d) What is the difference between present perfect tense and simple past tense. Give an example each

(e) When do we use a past perfect tense? Give an example

(f) Give an example of a present progressive sentence that expresses future time.



4.5 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we have learnt the difference between time and tense. While time is a universal concept with three divisions past, present and future, tense is a grammatical concept realised through verb forms. It is important to note that there is no one-to-one relation between time and tense. A simple present tense form of the verb may not always refer to a present time; it may also refer to a future time as well. Moreover, there are several ways through which we can express future time.

Aspect is a grammatical category which refers to a progressive/ continuous action, a perfective action and a perfect progressive action taking place in the present, past and future.



4.6 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Ans to Q No 1: (a) see 4.3.1.(b) see 4.3.1. (c) The Prime Minister arrives tomorrow. (d) He is leaving on Monday (e) (i) I love classical music. (ii) He came yesterday.

Ans to Q No 2: (a) The progressive aspect in English is a form of the verb consisting of an auxiliary verb BE (am/is/are/was/ were) and the present perticiple (v-ing) form as in :

She is wearing a new dress.

They were crossing the road when I saw them.

They will be reaching here by 9.30.

When the progressive aspect is used with the present tense we call it present progressive tense or present continuous tense; When it is used with the past tense we call it past progressive or past continuous tense, and so on.

(b) The perfective aspect is formed by using the auxiliary verb 'have' (has/had/ will have) with the past participle form of the verb. In

the different tense uses, we have the present perfect tense as in:

I have finished my work.

The past perfect tense as in :

I had lived here for five years and

The future perfect tense as in:

They will have finished the work by now.

(c) The form of the perfect progressive tense is have/had/ will have + been+ (V+ ing) eg:

I have been doing the work since morning.

(d) The difference between the present perfect tense and the past tense is brought out by taking the following two sentences:

(a) I have seen the Taj Mahal.

(b) I saw the Taj Mahal a few years ago.

In the first sentence, given in the present perfect tense we refer to the past event of my seeing the Taj Mahal in order to connect if with something I have in mind now; I can describe the Taj Mahal. The second sentence in the simple past tense refers to the action of seeing the Taj Mahal completed in the past.

(e) We use the past perfect tense to refer to the earlier of two actions in the past.

The train had left before we reached the station.

(f) My brother is arriving tomorrow.



4.7 MODEL QUESTIONS

Q 1. Differentiate between time and tense. Give examples

Q 2. Define the following: a. Simple Past Form b. The Future Form

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UNIT 5: TIME AND TENSE- II

UNIT STRUCTURE

5.1 Learning Objectives
5.2 Passive Verb Forms
5.2.1 Differences in Active and Passive Forms
5.2.2 Modal Verbs with Passives
5.2.3 Change of Voice in Interrogative Sentences
5.3 Let us Sum up
5.4 Answers to Check Your Progress
5.5 Model Questions

5.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit you will be able to:

- gain a basic idea on the passive verb forms.
- distinguish between active and passive verb forms.
- acquaint yourself with the primary auxiliaries and modals and their active and passive voice structures.

5.2 PASSIVE VERB FORMS

The passive verb forms commonly called passive voice contrasts with the verb forms of the active voice. But what exactly is voice? Voice refers to the ways in which a language expresses the relationship between a verb and the noun phrases which are asssociated with it. Two sentences can differ in voice and yet have the same basic meaning. However, there may be a change in emphasis and one type of sentence may be more appropriate than the other for a particular situation. Let us look at the following sentences.

(a) The police arrested the robber.

(b) The robber was arrested (by the police)

In the first sentence, 'the police ' is the subject of the verb 'arrested'. In the second, the robber is the subject of the verb' was arrested' which is in the passive voice. The first sentence in the active voice lays more focus on

the police when the situation of robbery in a bank demands more focus on the robber. When you are reporting a bank robbery, definitely the sentence in the passive is appropriate. In this section, we shall place the different verb forms of the passive against their active counterparts to enable you to see the changes that take place in the forms during the process of transformation.

5.2.1 Differences in Active and Passive Forms

Note the differences between the active and passive verb forms in the different types of tenses:

(1) Simple Present Tense:

(a) Active : tall (s)

Seema tells me that she is a singer.

(b) Passive : am/is/are told

I am told(by Seema) that she is a singer.

(2) Present Progressive Tense:

(a) Active: am/is/are/telling.

Seema is telling me that she is a singer

(b) Passive: am/is/are being told

I am being told that Seema is a singer

(3) Present Perfect Tense :

(a) Active: have/has told

Seema has told me that she is a singer.

(b) Passive: have/has been told

I have been told (by Seema) that Seema is a singer.

(4) Simple Past Tense :

(a) Active: told

Seema told me that she was a singer.

(b) Passive: was/were told

I was told that Seema was a singer.

(5) Past Progressive Tense :

(a) Active: was/were telling

Seema was telling me that she was a singer

(b) Passive: was/were being told

I was being told that Seema was a singer.

(6) Past Perfect Tense:

(a) Active: had told

Seema had told me that she was a singer.

(b) Passive: had been told

I had been told that Seema was a singer.

(7) Simple Future Tense:

(a) Active: will tell

Seema will tell me that she is a singer

(b) Passive: will be told

I will be told (by Seema) that Seema is a singer.

(8) Future Perfect Tense:

(a) Active: will have told.

Seema will have told me that she is a singer

(b) Passive: will have been told

I will have been told that Seema is a singer.

Other forms like present perfect progressive, past perfect progressive and future progressive forms are rare in the passive forms in normal language use and hence, these forms have not been taken up in this section.

5.2.2 Modal Verbs with Passives

Modal verbs also called 'modals' a 'modal auxiliaries are distinguished from the primary auxiliaries be, have and do. The primary auxiliaries have these forms.

1. be: am, is, are, was, were

2. have: has, had

3. do: does, did.

What distinguishes primary auxiliaries from the modals is that the primary auxiliaries can both be used as auxiliary verbs and main verbs as the following examples show.

1. Be

   (a) auxiliary: I am waiting for you.

   (b) main verbs: I am in the library.

2. Have

   (a) auxiliary: I have written the essay.

   (b) main verb: I have the essay with me.

3. Do

   (a) auxiliary: I do not play tennis.

   (b) main verb: She does all the housework herself.

Modals, on the other hand, do not have a main-verb function. However, each modal expresses more than one communicative function. We can use modals to tell or allow people to do things; or we can use them to say how certain or uncertain we are. The modals are will, would, shall, should, can, could, may, might,must, need, ought to and dare. How these modals have a communicative function is illustrated below from an example quoted from professor Frank Palmer's *The English Verb* (p24) wherein the author quotes Finth, This is a conversation between two persons.

A: Do you think he will?

B: I don't know. He might

A: I suppose he ought to, but perhaps he feels he can't.

B: Well, his mothers have. They perhaps think he needn't,

A: Perhaps eventually he may. I think he should,

   and I very much hope he will.

   [The key to this code is join the army]

Let us see have how these modals behave in passive forms of verbs.

1. (a) Active: You should tell John to join the army.

   (b) Passive: John should be told to join the army

   (c) Negative: John shouldn't be told to join the army

   (d) Interr. : Should John be told to join the army?

   (e) Tag q: John should be told to join the army, shouldn't he?

2. (a) Active: You should have told John about it.

   (b) Passive: John should have been told about it.

(c) Negative: John shouldn't have been told about it.

(d) Interr. : Should John have been told about it?

(e) Tag q: John should have been told about it, shouldn't he?

3. (a) Active: You should have been telling John about it.

(b) Passive: John should have been told about it.

(c) Neg: John shouldn't have been told about it.

(d) Int. : Should John have been told about it?

(e) Tag: John should have been told about it, shouldn't he?

4. Note that we can use a modal verb with a passive in the following pattern modal + be + passive participle

(a) Cakes can be made even without eggs.

(b) At this time you should really be seen at school.

(c) The room ought to be cleaned every day.

5. A modal verb can also go with the perfect and the passive verb together in the following pattern:

modal + have been + passive participle

We can use this structure when we transform the following types of active voice structures into the passive.

1. (a) Active: They ought to have paid the mobile bill yesterday.

(b) Passive: The mobile bill ought to have been paid yesterday.

2. (a) Active: Seema must have written this poem.

(b) Passive: The poem must have been written by Seema.

3. (a) Active: He will have reached the airport by now.

(b) Passive: The airport will have been reached by him now.

5.2.3 Change of Voice in Interrogative Sentences

Though, we have given a few examples in the earlier section of interrogative sentences, it may be useful for you to note the following points concerning interrogative sentences. We can form interogative sentences in two ways:

(a) In the case of yes-no type questions we begin with an auxiliary

(b) In the case of who questions, ie., questions beginning with

a question word (eg. what, who, when, why, where, whose etc.) we begin with a 'wh' word.

1. Yes-no type questions :

We begin a yes-no type question with both primary and modal auxiliaries both in the active and passive voice. The forms of primary auxiliaries are given at the beginning of 4.5.2. Here are a few examples of transformations from active to passive voice:

(a) Active: May I borrow your pen?
Passive: May your pen be borrowed by me?

(b) Active: Can I send this packet by air mail?
Passive: Can this packet be sent by air mail?

(c) Active: Will the District Board hold the exams?
Passive: Will the exams be held by the District Board?

2. Wh- type Questions:

We begin a wh- type question with a wh- word both in the active and passive forms:

(a) Active: Who wrote the book?
Passive: By whom was the book written?

(b) Active: Why should I read this book?
Passive: Why should this book be read (by me)?

(c) Active: How could you say such thing?
Passive: How could such things be said by you?

(d) Active: Why should we object to this proposal?
Passive: Why should this proposal be objected by us?

(e) Active: Why do you want the money?
Passive: Why is the money wanted by you?

You will note from the examples that the modals in wh- questions invariably follow the wh- word. There are contexts in our real life situations where passive has a definite use and where active may not be suitable and vice versa. You should be cautious in your use of active and passive forms.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 1: Answer the following questions:

(a) Change the following sentences into passive:

(i) People always admire the Taj Mahal.

(ii) Someone has broken the plate.

(iii) She gave me a present.

(iv) We must take care of our natural resources.

(v) We shall have saved a lot of money by that time.

(b) Change the following sentences into active:

(i) Is English spoken by your teacher in the class?

(ii) Are you known to the Principal?

(iii) How could such mistakes be done by you?

(iv) The Headmaster should have been told about the matter.

(v) The boys should be told to come for their oral exams.



5.3 LET US SUM UP

The passive form of the verb is another way of expressing the relationship between a noun phrase and the verb although this does not mean that the passive form is a counterpart of the active. The passive has its own specific uses.

Modal verbs need to be considered in the discussion on time, tense and aspect considering that each modal has more than one communicative function which involves eliciting responses (asking questions) making responses, requests, seeking permission and so on.Thus, the unit has provided you with a detailed idea on the transformative functions of passive verb forms.



5.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Ans to Q No 1:

(a) (i) The Taj Mahal is always admired.

(ii) The plate has been broken by someone.

(iii) I was given a present by her.

(iv) Our natural resources must be taken care of.

(v) A lot of money shall have been saved by that time.

(b) (i) Does your teacher speak English in the Class?

(ii) Does the Principal know you?

(iii) How could you make such mistakes?

(iv) We should have told the Headmaster about the matter.

(v) We should tell the boys to come for their oral exams.



5.5 MODEL QUESTIONS

Q.1. Give brief answers:

(a) Define the term 'base form' with an example.

(b) How do irregular verbs form their past tense?
Give two examples.

(c) What is the form of the future perfect tense?
Give an example.

Q.2. Answer the following questions.

(a) Give at least five verb forms of expressing future time

(b) Conjugate the present progressive tense in the passive voice by using a table.

(c) List the primary auxiliaries with examples.

Q.3. Answer the following questions.

(a) Give the form of the simple present tense and describe its functions.

(b) There are two classes of verbs that are rarely used in the continuous tense. Give examples of these two classes of verbs and illustrate their use in sentences from each group. (Atleast 4 from each group.)

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UNIT 6: VOCABULARY

UNIT STRUCTURE

6.1 Learning Objectives

6.2 Introduction

6.3 Vocabulary

- 6.3.1 Synonyms and Antonyms
- 6.3.2 One word Expressions
- 6.3.3 Words Used as Different Word Classes
- 6.3.4 Phrasal Verbs
- 6.3.5 Distinction Between Similar Words Often Confused

6.4 Let us Sum up

6.5 Further Reading

6.6 Answers to Check Your Progress

6.7 Model Questions

6.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- grasp the importance of vocabulary
- discuss the various items of vocabulary
- differentiate between the use of synonyms and antonyms
- learn one word expressions and words used as different word clauses
- learn about phrasal verbs
- differentiate between similar types of words
- develop an interest in building up your vocabulary.

6.2 INTRODUCTION

This unit deals with important grammatical items like vocabulary. The objective is to allow the learners to develop vocabulary that includes antonyms and synonyms, one word expressions, different word classes, phrasal verbs and similar type of words often confused.

6.3 VOCABULARY

In this section, we shall look at the following Vocabulary items as categorised below:

1. Synonyms and Antonyms
2. One word expressions
3. Words used as different word-classes
4. Phrasal verbs.

The examples taken are from the common day-to-day use.

6.3.1 Synonyms and Antonyms

The term synonym refers to similarity or sameness of meaning of a word. Though it is difficult to get examples of total synonymy, the illustrations are examples of near synonymy. On the other hand, antonyms refer to opposite meaning. In the list given below, you will get the synonym and antonym of the same word.

Word	Synonyms	Antonyms
abandon	leave, give up	stay, retain
abate	lessen	increase
abhor	dislike	approve
abnormal	unusual, unnatural	natural, normal
abjure	disclaim	accept
aboriginal	native	immigrant
abortive	futile, unsuccessful	successful
abridge	condense, shorten	expand, enlarge
abrupt	sudden	gentle
abscond	decamp	remain
abundant	plentiful	meagre
abuse	injure	praise
accede	assent	refuse
accomplish	finish	fail
accord	agreement	discord

acute	sharp	blunt
addicted	devoted	unaddicted
adjourn	postpone	advance
alliance	union	separation
altercation	quarrel	agreement
amiable	lovable	unlovable
analogy	likeness	difference
annihilate	destroy	restore
annul	cancel	ratify
antagonistic	opposed	friendly
anticipate	forecast	miss
antique	ancient	modern
apparent	clear	implicit/invisible
applaud	cheer	cry down
apprise	inform	keep secret
arbitrary	dictatorial	reasonable
arduous	difficult	easy, simple
ardent	fiery	calm, cool
arrogant	haughty	humble
ascendancy	superiority	inferiority
assail	attack	defend
assuage	calm	excite
audacious	bold, daring	timid, humble
augment	increase, enlarge	decrease, lessen
authentic	genuine, true	unauthentic
auspicious	lucky, favourable	unlucky, unfavourable
avenge	retaliate, punish	forgive, pardon
aversion	dislike	willingness, like
awkward	clumsy, rude	graceful, refined
baffle	puzzle	inform,
barbarous	uncivilised	civilised
bare	naked	clothed, dressed
barricade	barrier	open

benevolent	charitable	malevolent
betray	deceive	loyal
bewilder	puzzle	enlighten
bleak	cheerless	warm
bliss	happiness	unhappiness
brevity	shortness	lengthy
brutal	cruel	humane
captivity	bondage	freedom
cease	stop	begin
cede	surrender	refuse
celebrated	famous	unknown
censure	blame, condemn	praise
cheer	gladden	depress
clamour	outcry	silence
coarse	rough	smooth, fine
colossal	gigantic	small
combat	fight	peace
comprehend	understand	exclude
comprehensive	inclusive	exclusive
conceal	hide	reveal
concise	short	large
concord	accord	discord
condemn	blame	praise
confer	give	refuse
conspiracy	plot	counter plot
contradict	oppose	agree
corroborate	strengthen	weaken
counterfeit	spurious	authentic
cruel	harsh	gentle
cursory	careless	careful
danger	hazard	safety
debar	prevent	allow
debase	degrade	exalt

declare	announce	conceal
decrease	decline	increase
defame	malign	praise
defray	settle	be in debt
descend	drop	climb, ascend
desist	stop	continue
destitute	needy	well-provided
devoid	empty	full
devout	pious	profane
dexterity	skill	clumsiness
diligence	industrious	laziness
discern	perceive	misunderstand
disgrace	debase	praise
dogmatic	authoritative	liberal
dreadful	awful	harmless
dwell	reside	move on
dwindle	decrease	increase
eager	keen	uninterested
ecstasy	rapture	calmness
edible	eatable	inedible
elegant	graceful	ungraceful
embarrass	confuse	enable
embezzle	steal	be honest
encroach	intrude	keep away
endorse	approve	disapprove
endow	furnish	deprive
enormous	gigantic	small
ensue	follow	precede
envy	jealousy	good-will
escape	flee	submit
exalt	raise	lower
excel	surpass	fail
explicit	express	implicit

exquisite	delicate	clumsy
extenuate	lessen	heighten
fabulous	false	real
fallacy	deception	truth
fantastic	fanciful	real
feeble	weak	strong
felicity	joy	sorrow
finite	limited	infinite
flimsy	slight	substantial
fluctuate	waver	constant
forgo	give up	preserve, keep
fortify	strengthen	weaken
fragile	brittle	strong, tough
fraudulent	dishonest	honest
frivolous	silly	serious
furtive	stealthy	open
futility	useless	profitable
ghastly	horrible	pleasing
genuine	real	artificial
gloomy	dark	cheerful
grudge	envy	good-will
harmony	concord	discord
heed	pay attention	neglect
hobby	pursuit	profession
humane	gentle	cruel
hostile	unfriendly	cordial
humorous	comical	gloomy
immerse	plunge	draw out
impatient	restless	patient
impeach	accuse	pardon
impediment	hindrance	facility
impertinent	irrelevant	pertinent
implicate	entangle	exclude

impel	drive	prevent
implicit	implied	explicit
imposter	cheat	honest
imitate	copy	deviate
inaccessible	unapproachable	approachable
incite	arouse	hinder
inevitable	unavoidable	avoidable
infirm	sickly	strong
infinite	boundless	limited
infringe	break	submit
insanity	lunacy	sanity
insipid	tasteless	tasty
intricate	complicated	straightforward
jeopardise	endanger	secure
jolly	jovial	miserable
juvenile	youthful	old
kindle	ignite	extinguish
laborious	tiresome	easy
lack	dearth	abundance
lament	wail	rejoice
lofty	high	low
lucrative	profitable	unprofitable
luminous	bright	dark
lunacy	insanity	sanity
malice	spite	love
malign	defame	praise
massive	enormous	minute
meagre	scanty	plentiful
melancholy	sad	joyous
melodious	musical	tuneless
mingle	mix	dissolve
migrate	emigrate	remain
misery	sorrow	joy

moderate	limited	excessive
monotonous	dull	exciting
monstrous	horrible	normal
mortal	perishable	immortal
mutable	changeable	unchanging
mutiny	revolt	loyalty
mystify	puzzle	illuminate
native	aboriginal	alien
nervous	restless	steady
obedient	dutiful	disobedient
oblivion	forgetfulness	remembrance
obscene	indecent	decent
obscure	darken	clear
oppress	harass	relieve
outstanding	distinguished	mediocre
pacify	peaceful	violent
paltry	little	great
paramount	supreme	inferior
paucity	scarcity	abundance
pensive	thoughtful	active
prejudiced	biased	unbiased
prey	victim	captor
profuse	lavish	meagre
prohibit	ban	permit
prone	inclined	averse
propel	press	discourage
proscribe	outlaw	forgive
prosecute	indict	defend
provident	foreseeing	extravagant
prudent	judicious	imprudent
quash	cancel	restore
quell	calm	subdue
queues	random	casual, formal

rancid	sour	fresh
reciprocal	mutual	selfish
reckless	rash	cautions
rectify	repair	destroy
redeem	recover	return
relinquish	abandon	retain
repulsive	abhorrent	admirable
reveal	disclose	conceal
revive	renew	depress
robust	strong	weak
rustic	rural	urbane
sacred	holy	temporal
sad	dejected	happy
saucy	rude	polite
scandal	shame	praise
scanty	meagre	abundant
scatter	sprinkle	gather
seductive	alluring	repelling
sensual	carnal	spiritual
smite	strike	spare
sober	calm	excited
solace	peace	pain
solitary	lone	sociable
sordid	dirty	clean
splendid	gorgeous	shabby
squander	waste	save
stout	strong	thin
stray	wander	stay
sublime	exalted	depressed
subdue	check	incite
sumptuous	costly	cheap, simple
superfluous	redundant	useful
superlative	highest	lowest

synonymous	equivalent	dissimilar
tacit	implied	explicit
tedious	wearisome	agreeable
terse	brief	lengthy
trivial	petty	important
turbulent	stormy	calm
unanimous	agreed	discordant
valiant	brave	cowardly
vanish	disappear	appear
venerable	revered	trifling
verbose	wordy	terse
vivid	clear	hazy, dark
whimsical	fanciful	serious
wretched	unfortunate	fortunate
wrinkle	crease	smooth
yearn	long, hanker	contended
yoke	link	likely
zenith	apex, top	base, bottom



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 1. Fill in the blanks with appropriate words

	Word	Synonym	Antonym
1.	abrupt	_____	gentle
2.	abuse	_____	_____
3.	bloom	flush	_____
4.	canvass	_____	leave alone
5.	cripple	_____	_____
6.	decrease	_____	_____
7.	grim	sullen	_____
8.	hostile	_____	_____
9.	malice	_____	love
10.	unique	unmatched	_____

6.3.2 One Word Expressions

You may have noticed how one word expressions help to reduce the length of a piece of text without affecting meaning and thereby giving a compactness to your style. Here we shall look at some one word expressions:

alien- a person living in a country of which he is not a citizen
amphibian- an animal that lives both in land and water
animate- having life
antidote- a medicine that destroys the effect of poison
atheist- a person who does not believe in God.
audience- an assembly of hearers
annual- coming once a year
autobiography- life story of a person written by himself/herself
audible- that which can be heard
bankrupt- a person who cannot pay off his debts
biennial- coming off after every two years
biography- life-story of a person
brittle- that which can be broken
carnivore- an animal that lives on flesh
changeable- that which can be changed
corrigible- that which can be corrected
curable- that which can be cured
describable- that which can be described
edible- that which can be eaten
fatalist- a person who believes in fate
herbivore- an animal that lives on gross
ignorant- one who lacks knowledge
illegal- that which is against the law.
illiterate- one who can neither read nor write
invisible- that which cannot be seen
irreparable- that which cannot be repaired
monotheist- a person who worships one god

movable- that which can be moved

non-vegetarian- a person who takes animal food

omnipotent- all powerful

opaque- through which light cannot pass

orphan- a child whose parents have died.

pessimist- one who looks at the dark side of life.

polytheist- a person who worships many gods

theist- a person who believes in god

widow- a woman whose husband has died.

zenith- point in heaven directly above the observer.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 2. Give the meanings of the following expressions in one word :

1. A person who cannot pay off his debts.
2. One who is all- powerful.
3. Life story of a person written by himself/ herself.
4. Place for keeping birds.
5. An unmarried woman.

6.3.3 Words Used as Different Word Classes

Nouns	**Adjectives**	**Verbs**
ability	able	enable
activity	active	activate
advice	advisable	advise
allusion	allusive	to allude
argument (ation)	arguable, argumentative	argue
authority	authoritarian, authoritative	authorise
barbarism	barbaric	barbarise
bliss	blissful/blessed	bless

blood	bloody	bleed
capital	capitalist	capitalise
censor	censorial	censor
choice	choice	choose
clearness	clear	clarify
collection	collective	collect
compulsion	compulsory, compulsive	compel
confidence	confident	confide
courage	courageous	encourage
custom	customary	accustom
danger	dangerous	endanger
decision	decisive	decide
depth	deep	deepen
destruction	destructive	destroy
device	devisable	device
devil	devilish (diabolical)	bedevil
dew	dewy	bedew
dog	doggish (canine)	dog
economy	economic (al)	economise
emphasis	emphatic (al)	emphasise
energy	energetic	energise
enthusiasm	enthusiastic	enthuse
equality	equal	equalise
error	erroneous	err
evasion	evasive	evade
eye	(ocular)	eye
face	facial	face, to deface
falsehood	false	falsify
fame	famous	defame
fear	fearful	fear
feebleness	feeble	enfeeble
finery	fine	refine

fool (ishness)	foolish	befool
force	forceful	enforce
friend	friendly	befriend
fullness	full	fill
fury	furious	infuriate
gladness	glad	gladden
glory	glorious	glorify
gold	golden	gild
grass	grassy	graze
grief	grievous	grieve
guile	guileless	beguile
habit	habitual	habituate
hardship	hardy	harden
haste	hasty	hasten
heart	hearty	hearten
heir	hereditary	inherit
ignorance	ignorant	ignore
impulse	impulsive	impel
industry	industrial, industrious	industrialise
injury	injurious	injure
ink	inky	ink
joy	joyous	enjoy
judge	judicial	adjudicate
justice	just	jump
knowledge	knowledgeable	know
law	lawful/legal	legalise
length	lengthy	lengthen, elongate
life	lively	live
liquid	liquid	liquidate
machine	mechanical	mechanise
man (hood)	manly	to man
mass	massive	amass

medicine	medical, medicinal	medicate
mobility	mobile	mobilise
moisture	moist	moisten
mother	motherly	to mother
mystic (ism)	mystic (cal)	mystify
nation	national	nationalise
navy	naval	navigate
necessity	necessary	necessitate
nerve	nervous	enervate
night	nightly	benight
nullity	null	to nullify
obedience	obedient	obey
offence	offensive	offend
option	optional	opt
penalty	penal	penalise
peace	peaceful	pacify
people	popular	people
peril	perilous	imperil
pest	pestiferous	pester
port	portable	deport
poverty	poor	impoverish
propriety	proper	appropriate
quarrel	quarrelsome	quarrel
quickness	quick	quicken
reality	real (isable)	realise
rebellion	rebellious	rebel
red (ness)	red, reddish	redden
reliance	reliant	rely
repulsion	repulsive	repel
revolution (ary)	revolutionary	revolt
ruin	ruinous	ruin
sadness	sad	sadden
saint	saintly	sanctify

selection	selective	select
series	serial	serialise
sharpness	sharp	sharpen
sickness	sick	sicken
simplicity	simple	simplify
slavery	slavish	slave, to enslave
strange	strange	estrange
stupidity	stupid	stupefy
table	tabular	tabulate
terror	terrible	terrify
theory	theoretical	theorise
thought	thoughtful	think
thrift	thrifty	thrive
timidity	timid	intimidate
title	titular	entitle
tribute	tributary	attribute
union	unitary	unite
universe	universal	universalise
urgency	urgent	urge
utility	utilitarian	utilise
vacancy	vacant	vacate
validity	valid	validate
vice	vicious	to vitiate
vigour	vigorous	to invigorate
warmth	warm	warm
wax	waxen	wax
whiteness	white	whiten



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 3. Interchange the following words as directed. Write a sentence each to illustrate its use:

1. air (into adjective)
2. bliss (into verb)
3. capital (into verb)
4. confident (into noun)
5. deep (into noun)

6.3.4 Phrasal Verbs

A verb can combine with an adverb or a preposition. When it combines with an adverb, it is called phrasal verb. Eg.

Break out-War broke out between the two countries.

Below is a list of phrasal verbs with illustrative examples.

bring up-	Oliver was brought up in a poor house
break out-	War broke out between the two countries.
call on-	I called on the Minister in the Circuit House.
call in-	Please call in a doctor immediately.
fall out-	The brothers have fallen out after their father's death.
give up-	Gandhi gave up his attempt to become an English gentleman.
go out-	The light has gone out.
get along-	She could not get along with her mother-in-law.
look into-	The officer looked into the matter.
look for-	He looked for the pen in the cupboard.
make out-	I could not make out what the teacher had said.
run over-	The man was run over by a car.
run into-	I ran into an old friend yesterday.
turn out-	The boy will turn out to be famous one day.
ask for-	The labourers are asking for more money.
back out-	Hari promised to help me but now he has backed out.
blow out-	The wind blew out the lamp.

break down-	The robbers broke down the door
break in-	The thief broke in to the room.
carry on-	He carried on the business with much difficulty.
carry out-	He carried out the order of his Principal.
catch up-	He was absent for long and tried to catch up with other students of the class.
close down-	The factory was closed down.
come across-	I came across the man after a long time.
come off-	The game came off suddenly.
come about-	I could not think that such an incident would come about.
come of-	Gandhiji came of a good family.
fall back-	The enemy fell back.
fall on-	The Assamese army fell on the Mughals in Saraighat Battle.
fall through-	My advice fell through.
fix up-	The club has fixed up a cultural show.
get away-	The man got away quickly after the incident.
get on-	He is getting on with his business.
give in-	He is giving in after his first attempt.
give out-	The Board has given out the names of the candidates.
go down-	Prices of essential commodities are not going down.
go for-	The two boys went for each other.
go into-	The police have gone into the murder case.
hand over-	He handed over the charge of the committee to Hari.
hold on-	He holds on the telephone to hear his brother.
hold up-	Their payments of salary has been held up.
keep off-	Please keep off the fire.
keep on-	He keeps on drinking liquor.
keep up-	He could not keep up his reputation.
lay out-	The architect laid out the structure.
live on-	We live on rice.
look after-	He had no time to look after his children.

make up- He made up his mind to go there./He made up a story on the issue.

pass away- His father passed away in June.

pass for- He spoke English so well that he could pass for an Englishman.

pass off- The festival passed off peacefully.

pick out- He picked out a pen from the box.

point out- He pointed out the bird on the tree.

put down- The army jawans are trying to put down the ULFA militant.

put off- We have put off our journey to Delhi.

put in- He has put in an application for the post.

put out- Put out the fire before it spreads.

put up with- I cannot put up with such insult.

run after- The dog ran after the fox.

run up (against)-The decision of the Government has to run up against a lot of opposition.

see through- I can see though your idea.

see off- I have gone to the aerodrome to see off my friend.

sit for- He will sit for the HSLC examination this year.

sit out- He sits out the theatrical performance.

set apart- I set apart some money to buy books.

set aside- The appeal was set aside.

set in- The spring has set in.

set off- My father set off to Bristol.

set up- He has set up a factory there.

stand by- My friend stood by me in time of need.

stand for- He stood for his party.

sit up- My mother had to sit up the whole night for my illness.

stand on- Try to stand on your own foot.

stand off- He stood off the quarrel among his friends.

stand on- Guwahati stands on the Brahmaputra

stand to- This does not stand to reason.

take after-	The boy is taking after his father.
take down-	The students took down what the teacher said.
take for-	I took him for Rahim.
take off-	He took off his shirt.
turn down-	The boy turned down the job of the company.
turn into-	Water may be turned into ice.
take to-	Do not take to drinking wine.
turn over-	He turned over a page of the book.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 4. Fill in the gaps in the following sentences by using the appropriate phrasal verbs:

1. He ……the Minister in the Circuit House. (called on, called at, called for)
2. I ……an old friend yesterday. (ran to, ran into, ran about)
3. You must not ……to his unreasonable demands. (give up, give in, give out)
4. The employee refused to ……the Principal's order. (carry through, carry out, carry on)
5. The function …….. well. (passed off, passed on, passed out)

6.3.5 Distinction Between Similar Words Often Confused

1. accept, except:
   (a) He has agreed to accept the offer.
   (b) Everyone except Rina has come.
2. access, excess:
   (a) He has access to the Minister.
   (b) Excess of everything is bad.
3. adopt, adapt:
   (a) The government has adopted steps to remove poverty.

(b) We must adapt ourselves to changes.

4. affect, effect:
   (a) Sunlight affects life.
   (b) Water boils under the effect of heat.
5. altar, alter:
   (a) Offerings were placed on the altar of Goddess Saraswati.
   (b) We must alter the plan.
6. aught, ought:
   (a) For aught I know, he is honest.
   (b) We ought to love our country.
7. bare, bear:
   (a) We entered the temple with bare feet.
   (b) He has to bear the burden of the family.
8. berth, birth:
   (a) I reserved an upper berth.
   (b) She gave birth to a boy.
9. check, cheque:
   (a) He is checking the accounts
   (b) He gave me a cheque for Rs. 2,000.
10. cite, site
   (a) He cited an example to support his view.
   (b) The school is located in a pleasant site.
11. defer, differ:
   (a) The meeting has been deferred.
   (b) I differ with you on this point.
12. desert, dessert:
   (a) The Sahara desert is in North Africa
   (b) We had fruit for dessert.
13. dose, doze:
   (a) I take a dose of this medicine after food.
   (b) Rina was caught dozing in class.

14. fair, fare:
    (a) She is tall, slim and fair.
    (b) The bus fare from Guwahati to Sivasagar is Rs.160/-
15. gait, gate:
    (a) She walks with a graceful gait.
    (b) Please close the gate.
16. heard, herd:
    (a) I have heard that you are married.
    (b) A herd of cows trampled on my garden.
17. idle, idol:
    (a) We should not remain idle
    (b) The idol was placed on the altar.
18. loose, lose:
    (a) The shirt is too loose for me.
    (b) Do not lose the pen I gave you.
19. mail, male:
    (a) The letter was mailed yesterday.
    (b) She gave birth to a male child.
20. oar, ore:
    (a) The boatman uses oars to paddle his boat.
    (b) Goa produces iron ore.
21. piece, peace:
    (a) A crow stole a piece of meat.
    (b) After murdering the king, Macbeth lost his peace of mind.
22. prescribe, proscribe:
    (a) The book is prescribed by the Board for classes IX-X.
    (b) *The satanic Verses* by Salman Rushdie has been proscribed in several countries.
23. principal, principle:
    (a) The principal is the head of an educational institution.

(b) He is a man of principles.

24. quiet, quite:
    (a) He kept quiet.
    (b) It is quite cold outside.
25. reins, reign:
    (a) He pulled the reins to control the horse.
    (b) The Ahoms reigned in Assam for six hundred years.
26. sail, sale:
    (a) The ship sailed to the island.
    (b) The car is for sale.
27. soar, sore:
    (a) The skylark soars in the sky.
    (b) We were sore at his behaviour.
28. suit, suite:
    (a) He wore a dark suit to attend the party.
    (b) A new suite of rooms has been added to the hotel.
29. stationary, stationery:
    (a) The sun is stationary
    (b) The shop deals in stationery.
30. team, teem:
    (a) Our team won the match.
    (b) The teeming millions of India paid their homage to Nehru.
31. waist, waste:
    (a) Her waist is 26 inches only.
    (b) We must not waste food.
32. wait, weight:
    (a) I waited for her at the bus stop.
    (b) The weight of the box is 20 kgs.



6.4 LET US SUM UP

After having gone through the unit, you will be able to grasp the

importance of vocabulary and discuss the various items of vocabulary. A detailed study of the various items will enable the learner to differentiate between the use of synonyms and antonyms, learn one word expressions and words used as different word clauses,learn about phrasal verbs and differentiate between similar types of words. Thus, the unit will enable the learner to develop an interest in building up vocabulary and emphasise on reading and listening, as well as, speaking and writing skills.



6.5 FURTHER READING

1) Dowerah, Sawpon. *A Students' Grammar of English*, Guwahati : Students' Stores.

2) Sarkar, P. K. De. *Higher English Grammar and Composition*, Kolkata: Book Syndicate.

3) Wren and Martin. *High School English Grammar and Composition*, New Delhi : S. Chand & Company.



6.6 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Ans to Q No 1:

1.	sudden	2.	ill-treat, praise
3.	decay	4.	solicit
5.	disable, healthy	6.	reduce, increase
7.	jolly	8.	unfriendly, friendly
9.	hate	10.	common

Ans to Q No 2:

1.	bankrupt	2.	omnipotent
3.	autobiography	4.	aviary
5.	spinster		

Ans to Q No 3:

1.	called on	2.	ran into
3.	give in	4.	carry out

5. passed off

Ans to Q No 1:

1. airy- The room is very airy.
2. bless- May God bless you.
3. capitalise- The Indian cricket team failed to capitalise on the early lead.
4. confidence- I have confidence in your ability.
5. depth- Water was found at a depth of twenty feet.



6.7 MODEL QUESTIONS

Q.1. Write sentences to illustrate the difference in meaning between the following pairs of words/ phrases:

(i) corrigible; curable (ii) eligible; illegible

(iii) site; cite (iv) sale; sell

(v) access; excess

Q.2. Frame sentences using the following phrases:

(i) make up (ii) break out

(iii) back out (iv) run into

(v) keep off (vi) look into

Q.3. Give the synonyms and antonyms of the following:

calm, tacit, zenith, verbose, solace

Q.4. Use the following words in grammatically correct sentences as directed:

Arrive (use the noun form) Harm (use the adjective form)

Battle (use as a verb) Fast (use as an adverb)

Heart (use the verb from)

*** ***** ***

UNIT 7: PUNCTUATION

UNIT STRUCTURE

7.1 Learning Objectives

7.2 Introduction

7.3 Punctuation

7.4 Let us Sum up

7.5 Further Reading

7.6 Answers to Check Your Progress

7.7 Model Questions

7.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- discuss the meaning of punctuation
- define the various punctuation marks
- grasp the functions of punctuation marks
- gain an idea on the correct use of punctuation marks in any written text

7.2 INTRODUCTION

This unit discusses the types and functions of punctuation. The objective is to enable the learners to use correct punctuation marks while reading, as well as, writing compositions. The purpose of punctuation is to use the proper punctuation marks (as discussed in the following subsection) particularly while writing in the English language.

7.3 PUNCTUATION

Punctuation marks are indicators that are used in written texts to :

- mark the end of sentences
- express joy, praise, wonder etc.
- separate words, pairs of words, phrases and clauses
- indicate pause, a break in a sentence etc.

1. Full stop (.)

The full stop, also called period, is the most common mark of terminal punctuation. It is used :-

(a) At the end of a statement:

(i) This is my book

(ii) I live in Guwahati

(iii) Yes

(iv) Indeed

(b) At the end of a command:

(i) Please close the door

(ii) Do not go there

(c) At the end of an indirect question:

(i) She asked me where I lived

(ii) She asked me what I was reading

(d) With abbreviations:

(i) Dr. P.K. Dutta, M.B.B.S., M.D.

(ii) Prof. M.M. Choudhury

(e) To separate hour from minute:

(i) 9.30 am

(ii) 5.15 pm

(f) To separate date from the month/year:

(i) 7.7.2008

(ii) 31.3.2009

2. Comma (,)

The comma is probably one of the most misused marks of punctuation. It is used:-

(a) To separate more than two words in a series:

(i) I bought a pen, a book, a packet of pins and a ruler.

(ii) John, David and Maurice are brothers.

(b) To separate phrases and clauses:

(i) The village, where he lives, is five miles away

(ii) If you work hard, you will do well in the examination.

(c) To separate adverbials in a clause structure:

(i) However, you may try

(ii) Therefore, the statement is true

(d) To separate question tags:

(i) You play tennis, don't you?

(ii) He doesn't sing, does he?

3. Semi-colon (;)

The semi colon is used when a greater pause is required than is indicated by a comma:-

(a) To separate the clause of compound sentences when they contain a comma:

(i) He was a decent, kind hearted man; and we all respected him.

(b) To separate a series of loosely related clauses:

(i) The miller's heart was pure; his life serene.

4. Colon (:)

The colon is used :-

(a) To introduce quotation:

(i) Shakespeare said: "All that glitters is not gold"

(b) To introduce a list of items:

(i) The list of things we need is as follows: two cups of flour, 100gms of butter, 250gms of sugar, 4 eggs and baking powder.

5. Question Mark (?)

The question mark is used:

(a) At the end of a direct question

(i) Is she pretty?

(ii) What is your name?

(b) At the end of a question tag

(i) It's a lovely morning, isn't it?

(ii) You didn't come yesterday, did you?

6. Exclamation mark (!)

The exclamation mark is used :

(a) At the end of an exclamation:

(i) How lovely!

(ii) How silly of you to do it !

7. Quotation marks ('…….')

They are also called inverted commas. They can be of two types :

(i) Single inverted commas ('……')

(ii) Double inverted commas ("……")

Quotation marks are used :

(a) To enclose direct speech:

(i) He said, "It's a lovely morning"

(ii) The teacher said, "Don't make noise"

(b) To enclose a quotation:

(i) Orwell said, "The only good human being is a dead one".

(ii) Kennedy said: "The greater our knowledge increases, the more our knowledge unfolds".

(c) To enclose titles of articles, stories, poems etc:

(i) Wordsworth wrote the poem "Tintern Abbey."

(ii) "The Last Leaf" is a story by O' Henry.

(d) Single inverted commas are used to enclose quotations within quotations:

(i) Dr..Radhakrishnan states: "It is wrong to think as Blake said, 'the tree of life is sustained by art, the tree of death by science.'"

(ii) Gardiner wrote the essay "On Saying Please.'"

8. Apostrophe (')

It is used:-

(a) to indicate possession :

i. Dipali's water bottle

ii. Her husband's scooter

(b) To indicate contraction in the form of a word:

i. Do not - don't

ii. Cannot - can't

iii. It is - it's

iv. I will - I'll

9. Hyphen (-)

It is used:-

(a) In writing out compound numbers:

i. Twenty - five (not twenty five)

ii. Fifty - nine (not fifty nine)

(b) Between cardinal and ordinal numbers:

i. One - third

ii. Three - fourths

(c) Between two numbers to indicate inclusion:

i. Deluxe rooms 603 - 615 (read as 603 to 615)

ii. William Shakespeare (1564-1616)

(d) Between compound words:

i. sister - in - law

ii. man - of - war

(e) Between certain prefixes:

i. Co-operative

ii. Non-technical

10. Ellipses (……)

It is used:-

(a) To indicate a break or interruption :

i. He said, "you may not . . . "

ii. So Hardy felt . . . bored

(b) To indicate an omission of a word or phrase from a quotation :

Grow old along with me . . .

(here the three dots indicate the omission of "the best is yet to be".)

11. Capital letters:

A capital letter is used :-

(a) At the beginning of every sentence

(b) At the beginning of sentence within quotes

i. He said, " May you be happy"

ii. I said, "Come here, Please".

(c) At the beginning of every line in a poem:

Behold her single in the field

Yon solitary Highland lass.

(d) To write a proper noun, the Personal Pronoun & Proper Adjective:

i. John

ii. Guwahati

iii. The Assamese Language

(e) At the beginning of a day / month / religion / festival / special day:

Monday, July

Hinduism

Holi, Republic day

(f) For the names of books, journals etc:

The Bible

The Times of India

(g) For the names of organisations, schools, colleges etc:

UNO

The Congress Party

Cotton Collegiate Higher Secondary School

(h) For the names of roads, rivers, mountains etc:

The Grand Trunk Road

The Brahmaputra

The Himalayas



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 1: Punctuate the following adding capital letters where necessary.

a. aparna said hello is it international hospital

b. utpal said to naseem let us visit the zoo next Sunday

c. did you watch oliver twist in the history channel last night I asked dipali

d. no i didn't she said

e. you enjoyed the film didn't you

f. mr.dutta the director said i have an important meeting today.



7.4 LET US SUM UP

After having gone through the unit, you will be able to discuss the importance of punctuation and define the various punctuation marks. A thorough study of the unit will enable you to grasp the functions of punctuation marks. The purpose of the unit is to basically enable the learner to gain an idea and identify the correct use of punctuation marks in any form of text source.



7.5 FURTHER READING

1) Dowerah, Sawpon, *A Students' Grammar of English*, Guwahati : Students' Stores.

2) Sarkar, P. K. De, *Higher English Grammar and Composition*, Kolkata: Book Syndicate.

3) Wren and Martin, *High School English Grammar and Composition*, New Delhi : S. Chand & Company.



7.6 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Ans to Q No 1 : (a) Aparna said, "Hello', Is it International Hospital?"

(b) Utpal said to Neseem, "Let us visit the Zoo next Sunday".

(c) "Did you watch Oliver Twist in the History Channel last night?" I asked Dipali.

(d) "No, I did not", she replied.

(e) You enjoyed the film, didn't you?

(f) "Mr Dutta", the Director said," I have an important meeting today".



7.7 MODEL QUESTIONS

Q 1. Punctuate the following:

(a) do not misunderstand me della he said lovingly such a simple thing as a haircut need not disturb me there is nothing in the world that can make me get vexed with you but only open the packet and you shall know why i was upset for a while

(b) (i) may i come in sir she said

(ii) tell me he said why did you do it

(iii) why are you shouting ramen said to me

(iv) god said see the light and follow the path of honesty and truth you will find a heaven on the earth

(v) you said it is your duty now

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UNIT 8: SYNTHESIS AND TRANSFORMATION OF SENTENCES

UNIT STRUCTURE

8.1 Learning Objectives

8.2 Synthesis of Sentences

8.3 Transformation

- 8.3.1 Affirmative to Negative
- 8.3.2 Assertive to Interrogative
- 8.3.3 Assertive to Imperative
- 8.3.4 Assertive to Exclamatory
- 8.3.5 Simple to Complex and Compound

8.4 Degrees of Comparison

8.5 Combining Sentences

8.6 Let us Sum up

8.7 Answers to Check Your Progress

8.8 Model Questions

8.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit you will be able to :

- grasp the meaning and importance of synthesis and sentence transformation
- transform different structures from one pattern to another
- synthesise and combine sentences for stylistic effect
- use different sentence patterns to suit a context or situation.

8.2 SYNTHESIS OF SENTENCES

Synthesis essentially means ‘combination'. In English grammar, it refers to the process of combining two or more simple sentences into one sentence. The resultant sentence can be simple, complex or compound.

A. Synthesis of Simple Sentences into Simple Sentences :

Simple sentences can be combined into a simple sentence by using

the following methods.

1. By using participles :
   (a) He completed the work. He went home.
   Completing the work, he went home.
   (b) I saw it was raining. I boarded a bus.
   Seeing it was raining, I boarded a bus.
2. By using participial phrases :
   (a) The seminar was over. The participants went out. They boarded the bus.
   The seminar having been over, the participants went out and boarded the bus.
   (b) I locked the door, I went out.
   Having locked the door, I went out.
3. By using infinitive :
   (a) He was very poor. He could not own fine furniture.
   He was too poor to own fine furniture.
   (b) He was very tired. He could not proceed further.
   He sank on the ground.
   He was too tired to proceed further and sank on the ground.
4. By using prepositions with nouns :
   (a) I completed my college education. Then I took up a teacher's job.
   After completing my college education, I took up a teacher's job.
   (b) I bought a ticket. Then I entered the theatre.
   After buying a ticket, I entered the theatre.
5. By using noun phrases in opposition :
   (a) Bassanio was a friend of Antonio. He married Portia.
   Bassanio, a friend of Antonio, married Portia.
   (b) Delhi is the capital of India. It is a beautiful city.
   Delhi, the capital of India, is a beautiful city.

6. By using adverbs or phrases :

   (a) We were annoyed by his behaviour. It is understandable

   Understandably, we were annoyed by his behaviour.

   (b) I would not like to take the job. I tell you seriously.

   Seriously, I would not like to take the job.

B. Synthesis of Simple Sentences into Complex Sentences:

1. By using a noun clause :

   (a) The earth is round. Everyone knows it.

   Everyone knows that the earth is round.

   (b) She is still alive. It is a consolation.

   That she is still alive is a consolation.

2. By using an adjective clause :

   (a) I know the person. He came here.

   I know the person who came here.

   (b) I brought the magazines.

   They were lying on the table.

   I brought the magazines which were lying on the table.

3. By using an adverb clause :

   (a) I lent him the money. He needed it.

   I lent him the money for he needed it.

   (b) I left early. I had to catch a train.

   I left early so that I could catch a train.

C. Synthesis of Simple Sentences into Compound Sentences:

1. By using cumulative conjunctions :

   (a) He worked hard. He passed the examination.

   He worked hard and passed the examination.

   (b) The day dawned. The birds began to sing.

   The day dawned and the birds began to sing.

2. By using alternative conjuctions :

   (a) Hurry up. You will miss the train.

   Hurry up or you will miss the train.

   (b) Take the umbrella. You will be wet in the rain.

   Take the umbrella or you will be wet in the rain.

3. By using adversative conjunctions :

   (a) Rina dances. Her sister sings.

   Rina dances but her sister sings.

   (b) He is poor. He is happy.

   He is poor yet he is happy.

4. By using illative conjunctions :

   (a) It is time for studies. Let us go home.

   It is time for studies so let us go home.

   (b) You must take rest. You are ill.

   You must take rest for you are ill.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 1. Combine each set of sentences into a simple sentence:

(1) We reached home very late at night. We went to bed at once.

(2) The sun had set. We returned home.

(3) I have heard of your achievement. I am very happy.

(4) I can do the job. I don't need your help.

(5) Newton was a great scientist. He made many discoveries.

Q 2. Combine each set of sentences into a complex sentence:

(1) I put my purse somewhere. I don't remember it.

(2) I know the person. He came here.

(3) It rained heavily. The town was flooded.

(4) No goals were scored. It was an excellent match.

(5) Work hard. You will pass the examination.

Q 3. Combine each set of sentences into a compound sentence:

(1) He is clever. He is intelligent. He is shy.

(2) He was punished. He was also fined.

(3) Pay me the money. I shall report against you.

(4) He is rich. He is unhappy.

(5) He plays football. He plays tennis.

8.3 TRANSFORMATION

Transformation is a process of changing the form or pattern of a sentence without changing its basic meaning. Let us take a look at the following pairs of sentences:

1. I missed the bus.
   I could not catch the bus.
2. Nobody has seen God.
   Has anybody seen God?
3. I order you to return the book
   Return the book.
4. Papori is a pretty girl.
   What a pretty girl Papori is!
5. Being ill, he could not attend the meeting.
   As he was ill, he could not attend the meeting.
6. Rina is as tall as Binita.
   Binita is not taller than Rina.
7. He gave her a ring.
   She was given a ring by him.
8. He said, "I live in Guwahati"
   He said that he lived in Guwahati.

In each of the above pairs, you will see that the basic meaning has not changed. In other words, transformation is a method of expressing the same meaning/ concept in a different way.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS



Q 4. What is the difference in each sentence in a pair in the above eight sentences? (One is done for you.)

a. It is a transformation from affirmative to negative.

b. .....

c. .....

d. .....

e. .....

f. .....

g. .....

h. .....

8.3.1 Affirmative to Negative

Affirmative sentences are statements containing a positive form. Such sentences can be transformed into negative by adding 'not'. But, when we want to transform them to negative without changing the meaning, a few words may have to be changed.

1. The girl was absent today.
   The girl was not present today.
2. The knife is sharp.
   The knife is not blunt.
3. He attended the meeting.
   He did not fail to attend the meeting.
4. As soon as the teacher came, we all stood up.
   No sooner did the teacher come than we all stood up.
5. I was doubtful of your sincerity.
   I was not sure of your sincerity.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 5. Transform the sentences into negative without changing the meaning:

1. He is too poor to buy a car.
   .....
2. I am too busy to come.
   .....
3. He loves all his sons equally.
   .....

However, you can transform an assertive sentence into negative by giving a negative meaning also.

1. Mr. Phukan has a car

   Mr. Phukan doesn't have a car.

2. She wrote the letter.

   She didn't write the letter.

Note the following contracted forms :

will not = won't	must not = mustn't
is not = isn't	have not = haven't
shall not = shan't	had not = hadn't
was not = wasn't	do not = don't
were not = weren't	does not = doesn't

8.3.2 Assertive to Interrogative

An assertive sentence can be transformed into a question. Such questions are called rhetorical questions.

1. Everybody has heard of Gandhi.

   Who hasn't heard of Gandhi?

2. The blind can't see.

   Can the blind see?

3. A mother loves her children.

   Doesn't a mother love her children?



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 6. Transform the sentences into interrogative

a. I cannot stay in this room.

.....

b. Nobody asked you to come here.

.....

c. The earth is round.

.....

8.3.3 Assertive to Imperative

Imperatives are orders or directions to do something.

1. I request you not to make a noise.
   Please don't make a noise.
2. I ask you to stand up.
   Please stand up.
3. You are asked to leave the room.
   Please leave the room.
4. If you do not hurry up you will miss the bus.
   Hurry up or you will miss the bus.

8.3.4 Assertive to Exclamatory

Exclamatory sentences are exclamations.

1. It is a lovely morning.
   What a lovely morning!
2. She has a very sweet voice.
   What a sweet voice she has!
3. He is a fine gentleman.
   What a fine gentleman he is!
4. He runs very fast.
   How fast he runs!

8.3.5 Simple to Complex and Compound

(a) Simple to compound

1. In spite of old age, he can run fast.
   He is old but he can run fast.
2. You must work hard to succeed in life.
   You must work hard or you will not succeed in life.
3. Owing to bad weather, I could not go out.
   The weather was bad and so I could not go out.
4. You must walk fast to avoid being late.
   You must walk fast or you will be late.
5. He must work hard to win a scholarship.
   He must work hard or he cannot win a scholarship.

6. For all his good points he cannot be trusted.
   He has many good points, yet he cannot be trusted.

(b) Simple to complex

1. I am sure of my success.
   I am sure that I will succeed.
2. I wish you to succeed.
   I wish that you may succeed.
3. Ignorance of the law is no excuse.
   It is no excuse that one is ignorant of the law.
4. Good students are obedient to their teachers.
   The students who are good are obedient to their teachers.
5. He broke Rina's pencil.
   He broke the pencil that belonged to Rina.
6. He could not complete his education because of poverty.
   Because he was poor, he could not complete his education.

8.4 DEGREES OF COMPARISON

There are three degrees of comparison:

(i) Positive : tall
(ii) Comparative : taller
(iii) Superlative : tallest

(a) Positive to Comparative

1. No other girl is as pretty as Papori.
   Papori is prettier than any other girl.
2. A bird cannot fly as fast as an aeroplane.
   An aeroplane flies faster than a bird.
3. Few countries are as hot as India.
   India is hotter than most countries.

(b) Superlative to Comparative:

1. Papori is the best singer in the class.
   Papori is better than any other singer in the class.

2. Sita is the best student in the class.

   No other student is better than Sita in the class.

3. This is the longest snake that I have ever seen.

   This is longer than any other snake that I have ever seen.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 7. Rewrite the sentences as directed:

(a) London is the richest city in the world.

(Change it into the comparative degree)

(b) Only a fool can act thus.

(Make it negative without changing the meaning)

(c) Please do your homework. (Make it assertive)

(d) We hope that better times will come.

(Make it a simple sentence)

(e) He wants me to go. (Turn it into a complex sentence)

(f) We can prove that the earth is round.

(Rewrite it as a compound sentence)

Answers:

(a) .....

(b) .....

(c) .....

(d) .....

(e) .....

(f) .....

8.5 COMBINING SENTENCES

Combining sentences is known as synthesis in grammar. The word 'synthesis' means building up or putting together of parts into a whole. In grammar, it means joining two or more simple sentences to form either a simple or a complex or a compound sentence.

This is a useful technique for you to develop. You should be able to compress your thoughts or express more than one thought in one sentence. Understanding the rules of synthesis can help you to achieve this.

1. Simple sentences into one simple sentence.

In order to combine two or more simple sentences into one simple sentence, we can use several techniques or forms.

(i) Participles before subject :

I finished the book. I returned it to the library.

Having finished the book, I returned it to the library.

(ii) By using having + past participle construction after subject:

The rain stopped. We left for home.

The rain having stopped, we left for home.

(iii) By using prepositions with nouns or gerunds :

The thief stood still. The sound of someone approaching made him do so.

The thief stood still on hearing the sound of someone approaching.

(iv) By using infinitives :

That man deceived everybody. He must be very clever.

That man must be very clever to have deceived everybody.

(v) By using noun phrases in apposition :

I live in Guwahati. It is a beautiful city.

I live in Guwahati, a beautiful city.

(vi) By using adverb or adverbial phrases :

The college team won the prize. It was interesting.

Interestingly, the college team won the prize.

2. Combining simple sentence into complex sentence.

(i) By using Noun Clause as subordinate clause:

The earth is round. Everyone knows it.

Everyone knows that the earth is round.

(ii) By using Adjective clause as subordinate clause:

Here comes the boy. He stood first in the examination.

Here comes the boy who stood first in the examination.

(iii) By using Adverb clause as subordinate clause:

Do not smoke too much. Your health will be affected.

If you smoke too much, your health will be affected.

3. Combining simple sentences into Compound sentences:

(i) By using the conjunction 'and':

He worked hard. He passed the examination.

He worked hard and passed the examination.

(ii) By using the conjunction 'or':

Walk fast. You will miss the bus.

Walk fast or you will miss the bus.

(iii) By using the conjunction 'but':

He is rich. He is dishonest.

He is rich but dishonest.

A Note on participles

1. Look at the following sentences:

(a) An amusing incident occurred yesterday.

(b) That was an interesting story.

In the above sentences amusing and interesting are present participles and are used to denote a particular effect.

2. Look at the following sentences :

(a) A tired traveller was walking down the road.

(b) He had a surprised look in his eyes.

In the above sentences tired and surprised are past participles and are used to mean "effected in a certain way."

3 Look at the following sentences :

(a) Having failed two times, he did not want to sit in the examinations again.

(b) The results having been announced, the boys left the hostels.

In the above sentences, having failed and having been announced are examples of perfect participles.

We can say that a participle is a verb that ends in -ing, or -ed and is used both as a verb and as an adjective. Participles can be present participles, past participles or perfect participles. Since a participle is partly a verb and partly an adjective, it has some of the force of both.

A note on gerund :

The gerund is a verb that ends in a -ing and is used as a verbal noun. Gerunds have the functions of both nouns and verbs. It may be the subject, the complement or the object of a sentence or the object of a preposition.

(a) As subject : Swimming is a good exercise.

(b) As object : The boys enjoy playing cricket.

(c) As object of a preposition : He missed the lecture for coming late.

(d) As complement of a verb : My favourite hobby is reading.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 8. Combine the following into a single sentence each:

a. The thief was breaking into the house. The policeman saw him.

b. She was ugly. The Prince married her.

c. He went to the market. He wanted to buy a shirt.

Answers:

a. .....

b. .....

c. .....



8.6 LET US SUM UP

In this, unit we discussed transformation of sentences like affirmative to negative, assertive to interrogative, assertive to imperative and assertive to exclamatory. We have also dealt with the three degrees of comparison-positive, comparative and superlative. Apart from this, we have also

discussed synthesis, i.e., joining two or more simple sentences to form either a simple or a complex or a compound sentence. After having gone through this unit, you will be able to use different sentence patterns to suit different context or situations.



8.7 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Ans to Q No 1:

(1) Reaching home very late at night, we went to bed at once.

(2) The sun having set, we returned home.

(3) I am very happy to have heard of you.

(4) I can do the job without your help.

(5) Newton, a great scientist, made many discoveries.

Ans to Q No 2:

(1) I don't remember where I put my purse.

(2) I know the person who came here.

(3) It rained so heavily that the town was flooded.

(4) No goals were scored though it was an excellent match.

(5) If you work hard you will pass the examination.

Ans to Q No 3:

(1) He is clever and intelligent but shy.

(2) He was not only punished but also fined.

(3) Pay me the money otherwise I shall report against you.

(4) He is rich yet he is unhappy.

(5) He plays football as well as tennis.

Ans to Q No 4:

a. (It is given as an example)

b. Assertive to interrogative

c. Assertive to imperative

d. Assertive to exclamatory

e. Simple to complex

f. Positive to comparative

g. Active to passive

h. Direct to indirect.

Ans to Q No 5:

a. He is so poor that he cannot buy a car.

b. I am so busy that I cannot come.

c. He does not love one son more than the others.

Ans to Q No 6:

a. How can I stay in this room?

b. Did anyone ask you to come?

c. Isn't the earth round?

Ans to Q No 7:

a. London is richer than any other city in the world.

b. None but a fool can act thus.

c. I ask you to do your homework.

d. We hope for better times to come.

e. He wants that I should go.

f. The earth is round and we can prove it.

Ans to Q No 8:

a. The policeman saw the thief breaking into the house.

b. Though ugly, the Prince married her.

c. He went to the market to buy a shirt.



8.8 MODEL QUESTIONS

Q.1. Synthesise the following sentences as directed :

(i) Gold is the most precious metal. It shines very brightly. (Make it a simple sentence)

(ii) She lives in a village; she lives there. (Make it a complex sentence)

(iii) She is beautiful. She is intelligent. (Use 'not only')

(iv) I may go to class. I may play football. (Combine as compound sentence)

(v) I was walking past a building. The building was under construction. (Combine into a simple sentence).

Q.2. Rewrite the sentences as directed :

(a) God alone can save me. (Make it negative without changing the meaning)

(b) If you try, you will succeed. (Turn into a compound sentence)

(c) Iron is the most useful metal. (Change it into comparative degree)

(d) Everybody wishes to be happy. (Rewrite in interrogative form)

(e) He is too lazy to shine in life. (Make it a complex sentence)

(f) He desired that we should keep silent. (Make it a simple sentence)

(g) I do not know where he lives. (Point out the two clauses)

(h) No other metal is as useful as iron. (Change it into the superlative degree)

(i) All men are mortal. (Change it to negative without changing the meaning)

(j) I can never forget you. (Make it interrogative)

(k) We saw them go out. (Change it into passive)

(l) The children were looked after. (Change it into active)

(m) Smoke filled the room. (Change it into passive)

(n) She lives here. (Write the question beginning with 'where' to which the sentence given here is the answer)

(o) He was proud of this. (Use the noun form of 'proud')

(p) He is rich. He is not happy. (Combine the sentences using 'though')

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UNIT 9 : PHRASES AND IDIOMS

UNIT STRUCTURE

9.1 Learning Objectives

9.2 Introduction

9.3 Samples of Phrases and Idioms

9.4 Let us Sum up

9.5 Answers to Check Your Progress

9.6 Model Questions

9.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- familiarise yourself with some of the common idiomatic expressions of the English language
- identify whether a given expression is literary, colloquial, slang or is out-dated
- use phrases and idioms appropriately in language communication.

9.2 INTRODUCTION

One of the basic characteristics of the English language is its huge stock of idiomatic expressions. Most of these expressions have posed a serious problem to English second language learners.

The problem arises because the meaning of these expressions cannot be easily deduced from knowledge of the normal meaning of the constituent words. Any student with knowledge of the normal meaning of 'fall' and 'out' would be able to understand a sentence like: My wallet fell out my pocket. Knowledge of meaning of individual words will give a person no clue to such expression. e.g. 'They had been good friends for years until they fell out over some trivial matter'.

It is important for second language speakers not only to understand such idiomatic expressions but also to use them in order to add sparkle to their expressions.

Two central features underlying an idiom are:

(a) The meaning of an idiomatic expression cannot be deduced by examining the individual words that make up the expression.

(b) The expression is fixed both grammatically and structurally. Thus, the sentence below is incorrect:

He turned every stone to get the job.

The expression 'turn every stone' distorts the fixed structure: leave no stone unturned as in: He left no stone unturned to get the job. We cannot change the form of the expression.

Moreover, an interesting point about these idiomatic expressions is that a word can enter into an enormous number of constructions. A word like 'hand' can enter into as many as 92 idiomatic expressions which include: free hand, hand in glove, catch red-handed, wash one's hands off and a host of others.

9.3 SAMPLES OF PHRASES AND IDIOMS

(a) ADJECTIVE AND ADVERB GROUP

BAD

Bad blood (enmity) : There has been bad blood between the two neighbours.

Be in one's bad books (be out of favour) : If you do not work hard, you will be in the teacher's bad books.

BIG

Make it big (be very successful) slang : His dream was to make it big in business.

Too big for one's boots (acting in a superior way): After Prabin got the job, he's been altogether too big for his boots.

DEAD

Dead drunk (extremely drunk): When I saw him, he was dead drunk.

Flog a dead horse (wastes one's time and efforts): Teaching him to operate computers is like flogging a dead horse.

FLAT

Fall flat (a plan that failed): Our plans to take a package tour to the Far East fell flat when she fell ill.

Tell someone flat (tell someone in a definite manner): She told him flat that she did not like him.

GOOD

As good as (almost certainly): Dilip as good as knows that he cannot pass the examination.

For good (for ever): They left the village for good.

Hold good (continue to be valid): If your invitation still holds good, I'd like to visit you next Sunday.

In good time (with plenty of time to spare): We got to the station in good time, so we had time for a cup of tea at the cafeteria.

HARD

Be hard up (be short of money): After his retirement without a pension, he was rather hard up.

Hard and fast rule (a rule that applies without exception): The third person singular-s is a hard and fast rule of grammar.

HIGH

High and dry (ignored): After the celebrations were over and everyone had left, I was left high and dry.

High and low (everywhere): I've searched high and low for you.

In high time (to do something without more delay): It's high time you started doing some work.

HOT

Blow hot and cold (be undecided): Informal We are still blowing hot and cold about buying the house.

Strike while the iron is hot (taking advantage of something while the situation is favourable): While you are at the University, strike while the iron is hot; you may not get advantage of such a wonderful library once you leave.

LONG

Go a long way (be successful): He has a brilliant educational record;

I'm sure he'll go a long way in life.

The long and the short of it (the essential facts): The long and the short of the matter is that he doesn't know how to do the work.

OLD

A chip of the old block (like the previous one): The new manager is just a chip of the old block.

Old hat (out of date): He thought he gave an impressive lecture; but most of his ideas are old hat.

SHORT

Run short of (not having enough): I'm running short of time; I need to finish the assignment today.

Cut short (bring something to an end): On hearing the news, the Minister cut short his tour and rushed to the capital.

THICK

To have thick skin (become insensitive to criticism): As a politician, in public life you quickly learn to grow a thick skin.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 1. What are the two central features underlying an idiom?

Q 2. Make suitable sentences using phrases and idioms from the following adjective and adverb group. Also briefly describe in a few words the implied meaning of the idioms:

E.g. Too big for one's boots (acting in a superior way):
After taking charge of his new company, he has started acting too big for his boots.

a. Take a hard line
b. Through thick and thin
c. Give someone a piece of mind
d. One's weak point
e. Read between the lines

(b) NOUNS

END

Make both ends meet (manage somehow): How can you expect to make both ends meet with my salary?

To clear/tie loose ends (settle matters): I have quite a number of loose ends to tie up before leaving.

LINE

The bottom line (result/ outcome): He did not want any excuses but the bottom line of the inquiry.

In the line of fire (in a position between two opposing sides): My position is such that I am always in the line of fire: there is the union on one side and the establishment on the other.

Read between the lines (understand more than the actual words said): She didn't tell me much; but reading between the lines I understood that she did not want to come.

MIND

Give someone a piece of one's mind (scold): The next time he neglects his work, the boss is sure to give him a piece of his mind.

Have half a mind to do something (uncertain): I had half a mind to tell him to mind his own business.

Make up one's mind (take a decision): Have you made up your mind where you will study?

POINT

A sore point (an irritating matter): The scandal involving him in the deal was always his sore point.

One's strong point (one's best quality): Mathematics has never been my strong point.

WAY

Give way (break): After the heavy rain, the weak bridge gave way.

In the way (causing an obstruction): Your arguments stand in the way of an amicable settlement.

Ways and means (methods): Let me know the ways and means of doing the work.

WORLD

A man of the world (experienced): He is a man of the world; he knows how to face such situations.

Out of this world (wonderful): The Taj Mahal looks like a piece of art that is out of the world.

(c) MISCELLANEOUS

ALL

After all (contrary to what one thinks): I took my umbrella along, but it did not rain after all.

All in all (considering everything): We did not agree on every point, but all in all we had a successful meeting.

All the same (in any case): I expect the report is correct, but I'll check it myself all the same.

Be- all and end-all (the most important thing): Cricket is his be-all and end-all. It's all he ever talks about.

Once and for all (finally): I'm telling you once and for all, I don't like to see you here.

(d) ADJECTIVE + NOUN

The acid test (the ultimate test): Facing the civil service interview board was the acid test of his communication skills.

A/the burning question (an important matter): Unemployment is a burning question in the State.

Cold comfort (poor consolation): It was cold comfort telling him that it was good for him to have lost the contract.

Fair weather friend (person who stops being a friend when one is in trouble): When he lost his job and was no longer able to lead an expensive social life, then only he discovered that all his friends were fair weather friends.

Open secret (one that is generally known but is supposed to be a secret): It's an open secret that Dilip and Priya are going to get engaged.

A rolling stone (person who moves from place to place): For years Vicky was a rolling stone until he met Deepa.

(e) PAIRS OF NOUNS

Bag and baggage (with all belongings): Dilip got tired of the job; he left the city bag and baggage.

Board and lodging (food and accommodation): The board and lodging expenses at Hotel Nandan come to around Rs. 1,800.00

Chapter and verse (details): I know the chapter and verse of the matter.

By hook or by crook (by any method): I'll get the money somehow, by hook or by crook.

Lock, stock and barrel (everything): He had decided to go to live in Canada with his son, so he's selling up here lock, stock and barrel.

Ups and downs (good and bad moments): There's no need to be so angry with me; these ups and downs are a part of our lives.

(f) PAIRS OF ADVERBS

By and large (taken as a whole): By and large, it has been a pretty good year for Team India.

Far and wide (everywhere): The news of the incident spread far and wide in no time.

Few and far between (seldom): We enjoy your company; but your visits are so few and far between.

(g) IDIOMS WITH PREPOSITIONS

Above board (honest): In business matters Mr. Das is above board.

At one's beck and call (at one's disposal): He has a lot of people at his beck and call.

At daggers drawn(enemies): Mr. Das and his neighbour Mr. Deka have been at daggers drawn for years.

At home in (knowledgeable about): I am at home in French.

By fits and starts (not continually): The work on the book is going on by fits and starts.

In the eye of (in the opinion of): You will be found guilty in the eye of the law.

In a nutshell (concisely): Please give me the report in a nutshell.

On the cards (likely to happen): It is on the cards that a new wing of the library will be built.

Out of the blue (unexpected): The news came to me out of the blue.

With flying colours (with great success): He passed the examination with flying colours.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 3. Briefly describe the meaning of the phrases and idioms in a few words and make suitable sentences with the following:

a. Once and for all

b. Hook or by crook

c. In a nutshell

d. On the cards

e. To have thick skin

Q 4. Find out more phrases and idioms other than those listed in the unit.



9.4 LET US SUM UP

After going through the unit, you will be able to figure out the common phrases and idioms that are used in our regular expressions. The implied meanings in the idiomatic phrases add a dash of sparkle to our expressions and when used in its proper context make our expressions more apt and precise. Sometimes, it also adds a dash of wit or humour.

The lists of phrases and idioms are too exhaustive to be covered in one unit and therefore the learner must try to find more of such examples on his or her own. It is important to grasp the essence of these idiomatic expressions in order to use them correctly both in spoken or written form.



9.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Ans to Q No 1: The two central features are:

a. The meaning of an idiomatic expression cannot be deduced by

examining the individual words that make up the expression.

b. The expression is fixed both grammatically and structurally

Ans to Q No 2:

a. Take a hard line (be uncompromising): The government has taken a hard line on unauthorised constructions.

b. Through thick and thin (through good times and difficulties): Both of us went through thick and thin together in all crisis.

c. In the long run (over a long period of time): I have invested some money in shares; I hope they will be beneficial in the long run.

d. The old school (traditional thinking/ standard): Dr. Baruah is an English Professor of the old school who loves to talk about the magnificence of European culture with intense emotion.

Ans to Q No 3:

a. Once and for all (finally): She had completed her payments once and for all.

b. By hook or by crook (anyhow or by any means): I want that fur coat by hook or by crook.

c. In a nutshell (briefly or concisely): In a nutshell the chapter highlights the significant breakthroughs in science.

d. On the cards (likely to happen): The construction of the new building is on the cards.

e. A necessary evil (something unpleasant yet important): Examination is a necessary evil in school life.



9.6 MODEL QUESTIONS

Q.1. Make sentences with the following idioms:

(1)	hard and fast	(2)	at daggers drawn
(3)	in cold blood	(4)	at a stretch
(5)	on the brink of	(6)	to the backbone
(7)	put up with	(8)	by and by
(9)	in lieu of	(10)	in vogue

(11)	end in smoke	(12)	lion's share
(13)	null and void	(14)	look down upon
(15)	black sheep	(16)	cut short
(17)	dark horse	(18)	bring to light
(19)	bring to book	(20)	look after.

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UNIT 10 : COMMON ERRORS

UNIT STRUCTURE

10.1 Learning Objectives

10.2 Introduction

10.3 Errors of Concord

10.4 Errors of Construction

10.5 Errors of Order

10.6 Errors in Prepositions

10.7 Errors in Conjunctions

10.8 Let us Sum up

10.9 Answers to Check Your Progress

10.10 Model Questions

10.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to :

- spot the errors in your speech and writing
- correct your own errors that might have slipped into your writing
- improve the quality of your speech and writing.

10.2 INTRODUCTION

A language is governed by a set of rules which have two main tasks:

(a) The rules separate grammatical from ungrammatical sentences, thus making explicit claims about what is acceptable and what is not.

(b) They also provide a description of the grammatical sentences stating how it should be pronounced and what it means.

While using language either in speech or in writing, we tend to make a lot of slips and errors. Slips are accidental in nature which means we know the form but accidentally we have used a wrong form. While revising our writing, we can correct it on our own.But errors occur due to a gap in our knowledge of the rules of the language. Here, we shall identify some of the areas where we tend to make errors and correct them.

Note: The asterisk # before a sentence indicate that the sentence has errors.

10.3 ERRORS OF CONCORD

1. Two singular subjects followed by a singular verb:

   (i) # The headmaster and secretary are absent

   The headmaster and secretary is absent.

   When two singular nouns refer to the same person or thing and have only one article, the verb is singular.

   (ii) # His power and influence are immense.

   His power and influence is immense.

   When two singular nouns are practically synonymous, one being added to the other for emphasis, the verb is singular.

   (iii) # Bread and butter are what they have for breakfast.

   Bread and butter is what they have for breakfast.

   When two singular nouns are not synonymous but are intended to express jointly a single idea, the verb is singular.

2. Singular subject followed by a plural verb:

   (i) # The cattle is grazing in the field.

   The cattle are grazing in the field.

   (ii) # The whole group does not agree on the point.

   The whole group do not agree on the point.

   When the singular noun is a mass/ collective noun, the verb is always in the plural.

3. Plural subject followed by a singular verb:

   # "The Human Seasons" are prescribed in class IX.

   "The Human Seasons" is prescribed in class IX.

   When the plural noun is a proper name for some collective unit or a single object, the verb is singular.

4. Subject followed by "as well as":

   # Rimlee as well as Momee have arrived

   Rimlee as well as Momee has arrived.

'As well as' is not synonymous of and; so a singular verb is used.

5. Subjects connected by "either….or"/ "neither….nor"

(i) # Either you or I are in the wrong.

Either you or I am in the wrong.

(ii) # Neither he nor you was in the wrong.

Neither he nor you were in the wrong.

When two singular pronouns of different persons are connected by "either …..or"/ "neither …..nor", the verb according to the rule must agree with the one nearest to it.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 1: Correct the following sentences:

a. Many a man come and go.

b. None but the brave deserve the fair.

c. The house with all its furniture and valuable antiques were sold for thirty lakhs.

d. In the Gulf War the United States have no friend except Britain.

Answers:

a. .....

b. .....

c. .....

d. .....

10.4 ERRORS OF CONSTRUCTION

1. Articles

I am studying for a MA in History.

I am studying for an MA in History.

Note: We use 'an' before a vowel sound. MA begins with a vowel sound. Otherwise, we use a. In most cases, the letters 'e' 'o' and 'u' are vowels; but sometimes they are pronounced as consonants e.g. a European, a one-hour journey, a University.

2. Adjective

(i) # I was two frightened to move

I was too frightened to move

Note: Many adjectives are past participles i.e. frightened, scared, pleased, proposed

(ii) # The medicine made me feel more better.

The medicine made me feel much better.

We do not use -er/-est form and more/much together. Thus, 'more' and 'better' do not correlate.

(iii) # My most favourite subject is English.

My favourite subject is English.

Some adjectives are not normally used with -er/-est or with more/ most because they already have a comparative/superlative meaning.

3. Adverb

(i) # I want to go to France for learning French.

I want to go to France to learn French.

We use for + ing when we mention the purpose of an object. This knife is for cutting bread. When we mention the purpose of an action, we normally use a to- clause.

(ii) # He behaved rather silly.

He behaved in a rather silly way.

Some words ending in -ly are adjectives not adverbs. Commonly -ly adjectives include brotherly, cowardly, elderly, fatherly, friendly, likely, lively, lonely, lovely, manly, motherly, silly, sisterly, ugly, womanly.

Since these -ly adjectives do not have a corresponding adverb, we have to use either a different structure or an adverb with a similar meaning.

(iii) # I pulled the string tightly.

I pulled the string tight.

If the word that follows an object describes the object, we use an adjective. The structure is S + V + O + A as in 'I painted the door green'.

(iv) # If you will turn on the radio, it makes a strange noise.

If you turn on the radio, it makes a strange noise.

When 'if' means every time or whenever, we normally use the simple

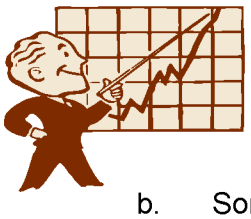
present tense in both parts of the sentence i.e. the if clause and the main clause.

However, when we are talking about something in the future, we normally use the simple present in the 'if' clause.

eg. If he comes, I will go out with him.

(v) # If you will go to Delhi, you can stay in Assam House.

If you go to Delhi, you can stay in Assam House.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 2: Correct the following

a. Cheap products are often more inferior.

b. Some ill people refuse to take medicine.

c. I'll be ready for leaving by 5 o'clock.

d. I'll telephone you when I will reach the airport

e. She always looks beautiful.

Answers :

a. .....

b. .....

c. .....

d. .....

e. .....

10.5 ERRORS OF ORDER

(i) # When you are going home?

When are you going home?

In interrogative sentences, the 'be' verb precedes the subject.

(ii) # Last week happened to me something very strange.

Last week something very strange happened me.

In a statement, we put the subject before the verb. The normal word order does not change when the verb is happen.

(iii) # He was too busy unfortunately to see me yesterday.

Unfortunately, he was too busy to see me yesterday.

Some adverbs express our attitude to what we are about to say e.g. sadly, unfortunately, surprisingly, luckily, undoubtedly, frankly, apparently, in short, of course.

They are normally placed at the beginning of a sentence.

Many of them can also be used in the middle position.

- We would naturally be delighted to see you
- You are undoubtedly in the wrong.

(iv) He told us to read carefully the questions.

He told us to read the questions carefully.

Note that an adverb does not normally come between a verb and its object. Take note of the structure sub+ verb+ object+ Adverb.

(v) # I shall be every afternoon available.

I shall be available every afternoon.

An adverb does not normally come between a verb and a complement. Note the order: Sub+ Verb+ Comp+ Adv.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 3: Correct the following:

a. She has to stay for one more week in hospital.

b. Why you are late?

c. She tore the paper into two halves neatly.

d. It is cheaper to go by train to Dibrugarh.

e. I waited for two whole hours in the queue.

Answer:

a. .....

b. .....

c. .....

d. .....

e. .....

10.6 ERRORS IN PREPOSITIONS

(i) On last Sunday I visited the zoo.

Last Sunday I visited the zoo.

We do not use on/before a time expression beginning with last, next, this, that, every etc.

(ii) # On this photograph you can see me in my naval uniform.

In this photograph you can see me in my naval uniform.

Note that before things which have three dimensions such as a room or a photograph, we use in. Before things which have two dimensions such as a map, we use on.

(iii) # My teachers congratulated me for my success.

My teachers congratulated me on my success.

Note that we congratulated someone on (doing) something or not for doing something.

(iv) # Don't meddle with my affairs.

Don't meddle in my affairs.

'Meddle' takes the preposition 'in' when we talk about 'meddle' in one's affairs. Meddle in politics. But we can say: Don't meddle with the files.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 4: Correct the following

a. We are proud for our country.

b. He is eligible to the post.

c. It is bad to hanker for wealth.

d. Steel is made of iron.

e. He died for cancer.

Answer:

a. .....

b. .....

c. .....

d. .....

e. .....

10.7 ERRORS IN CONJUNCTIONS

(i) # The table was filled with books, pictures, posters.

The table was filled with books, pictures, and posters.

When a sentence or part of a sentence consists of two equal units, we link the two units with and, or, or but. When there are three or more co-ordinates, we link the last two.

(ii) # I am interested in poetry, drama and in music.

I am interested in poetry, drama and music.

There should be a consistency in our expression. There is nothing wrong with in music but in that case there should have been an in before drama.

I am interested in (poetry, drama and music)

I am interested (in poetry, in drama and in music)

(iii) # She both lost her money and her passport.

She lost both her money and her passport.

Note that when we use coordinating conjunctions like either…or, neither….nor, both….and, not only….but also, etc., we must ensure that they co-ordinate the two alternatives only and not the verb.

(iv) # And on the whole, the editors have scored a success.

On the whole, the editors have scored a success.

We must avoid the common mistake of beginning a fresh sentence with 'and'. The function of 'and' is to join one word or one clause with another.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 5: Correct the following sentences :

a. Scarcely had we reached the station than the train left.

b. He is not only hard working even intelligent.

c. No sooner had he seen us when he ran away.

Answer:

a. .....

b. .....

c. .....



10.8 LET US SUM UP

After going through this unit, you will be able to point out the errors in your speech as well as in writing. We have discussed in this unit errors relating to concord, construction and order. Also, we have discussed the common errors that we tend to make while writing parts of speech like preposition or conjunction. The unit will enable you to improve the skills of writing error-free sentences and your language communication skills as well.



10.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Ans to Q No 1: a. comes b. deserves c. was d. has

Ans to Q No 2 : a. Cheap products are often inferior.

b. Some sick people refuse to take medicine.

c. I'll be ready to leave by 5 o'clock.

d. I'll telephone you when I reach the airport.

e. She always looks beautiful.

Ans to Q No 3 : a. She has to stay in hospital for one more week.

b. Why are you late?

c. She neatly tore the paper -- into two halves.

d. It is cheaper to go to Dibrugarh by train.

e. I waited in the queue for two whole hours.

Ans to Q No 4 : a. proud of b.eligible for c. hanker after

d. from e. of

Ans to Q No 5 :

a. scarcely…..when b. not only….but also c. no sooner…. than.



10.10 MODEL QUESTIONS

Q.1. Rewrite the following sentences correctly:

(a) The flowers smell sweetly.

(b) He could not come due to illness.

(c) He was very surprised by the news

(d) We must preserve our hard won freedom at every cost.

(e) He was appointed and dismissed from the post.

(f) We searched the lost articles.

(g) The High Court set apart the decree of the Lower Court.

(h) No sooner had I reached the station when the train left.

(i) It is raining since yesterday.

(j) He left the hostel with the bag and baggage.

(k) Madam Curie invented Radium.

(l) He turned every stone to get the job.

(m) We should work very hardly to shine in life.

(n) He has denied my application.

(o) The population of London is greater than any town in India.

(p) She said that she has completed her work.

(q) You are taller than me.

(r) One must do his duty.

(s) Our teacher advised us to work hardly.

(t) Hari as well as Ram were present in the meeting.

(u) He said me to leave the place at once.

(v) The passenger has many luggage with him.

(w) He could not come due to illness.

(x) Who invented America?

(y) Our school will be reopen to- morrow.

(z) He passed in the B.A. Examination this year.

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UNIT 11: BASIC REMEDIAL GRAMMAR I

UNIT STRUCTURE

11.1 Learning Objectives

11.2 Introduction

11.3 Introductory 'There'

11.3.1 Uses of Introductory 'There'

11.3.2 Interrogatives with 'There'

11.4 Introductory 'It'

11.4.1 Uses of 'It'

11.4.2 Distinction between 'There' and 'It'

11.5 Emphasis

11.5.1 Emphasis with 'Cleft Sentence'

11.5.2 Emphasis with 'Pseudo-Cleft Sentence'

11.6 Let us Sum up

11.7 Answers to Check Your Progress

11.8 Model Questions

11.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit you will be able to :

- appreciate the importance of the rules of grammar in writing or speaking correct sentences in English.
- look at sentences and other grammatical concepts more critically
- learn how sentences are modified by the use of 'there' and 'it' to suit a situation
- modify utterances to make them more functional or emphatic.

11.2 INTRODUCTION

This unit and the one that follows are meant for basic remedial grammar work. It is assumed by now that you have already had some grounding on a number of basic elements of the grammar of the language. However, language use involves much more than your knowledge of the

basic elements of the language. It involves an ability to look at the sentences that you have written or the utterances that you have made more critically. This critical look at the sentences produced will help you to remedy some of your earlier ideas and to manipulate the structures of your sentences or utterances to suit a communicative situation.

The primary aim of grammar is to provide you with the fundamental knowledge of the language to enable you to use the language in speech and writing. Grammatical rules are primarily concerned with providing a corpus of grammatical knowledge to make the language user more confident with the language. You have for example, learnt the different parts of speech and how these parts of speech are organised into different types of sentences that you can use in real life situations. This is your grammatical knowledge.

However, in order to be a competent language user, your knowledge of the rules of grammar will have to be supplemented with the rules of use. It means that apart from being grammatically correct, your sentences have to be acceptable and appropriate to a given situation. A sentence may be grammatically possible and feasible but can still be unacceptable if it is not appropriate to a particular context or a situation.

It is from this point of view we have proposed to begin this unit on basic remedial grammar with the concepts of 'Introductory There' and 'Introductory It' and follow it up with a discussion on the concept of 'Emphasis'. The remaining unit of basic remedial grammar will introduce you to a select glossary of English grammar as a strategy for remedial grammar learning.

11.3 INTRODUCTORY 'THERE'

You are by now aware of the fact that the rules of grammar can be very helpful to develop grammatically correct sentences. But it may interest you to know that in certain communicative contexts, a grammatically correct sentence may appear unusual. For example, you may find a sentence like "A man is at the gate" to be rather unusual though it is a grammatically correct sentence. A more usual variant of the sentence would be "There's a man at the gate". We put 'there' in the subject position so that 'a man' can come after the verb. When we introduce a new person or thing into what

we are saying to provide some new information, we use a sentence beginning with 'there' as in:

(a) There's a tourist office near the railway station.

(b) There have been some problems with the employees in the factory.

(c) There might be a lot of traffic on the way to the airport.

11.3.1 Uses of Introductory 'There'

1. We use 'there' as a formal subject of a sentence to say that something exists. We can use 'there' to talk about things that exist physically.
   (a) There is an Arts College in the village.
   (b) There are three high schools in the area.
   (c) There's some milk in the pan.
   (d) There was a bamboo bridge on the river earlier.
2. We can also use there as a formal subject of a sentence to talk about things that happen and about situations.
   (a) There was a big earthquake in Assam in 1897.
   (b) There's an accident on the highway.
   (c) There are no vacancies in our office.
   (d) There's hardly any time left for revising the essay.
3. We can use 'there' as a formal subject of a sentence for a number of people and things.
   (a) There are four of us in this group.
   (b) There are sixty seats in this coach.
   (c) There are five books on the table.
4. We can use a clause with 'There being' to introduce a reason for something.
   (a) There being no adverse reports against him, he was allowed to join.
   (b) There being no evidence against him, the case was dropped.
   (c) There being no electricity last night, I could not complete

my essay.

5. We can use 'there' with problem/difficulty and a gerund.

(a) There won't be any problem in finding out the house.

(b) There will be some problem if the guide doesn't turn up.

Note that if the formal subject 'there' is used in a sentence, the 'be' verb that follows agrees with the real subject that follows the 'be' verb.

11.3.2 Interrogatives with 'There'

When we make interrogatives of sentences beginning with 'there', we make use of the subject-verb inversion rule as illustrated in the following sentences:

(a) There's someone in the room.

Is there anyone in the room?

(b) There is no one in the room.

Isn't there anyone in the room?

Is there no one in the room?

(c) There is a chance that the Eid holiday will be shifted to Thursday.

Is there a chance that the Eid holiday will be shifted to Thursday?

We frequently, especially in conversation, add a question tag to a statement, thereby turning it into a question.

(a) There's no one in the room, is there?

(b) There are three books on the table, aren't there?



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 1. Rewrite the sentences using 'there':

(a) A wooden bridge was across the river.

(b) Nothing is to see in this museum.

(c) Is something bothering you?

(d) No classes were held today.

(e) The story has no truth in it.

(f) Are any letters for me?

(g) Is any more tea left in the pot?

(h) A man is at the gate.

11.4 INTRODUCTORY 'IT'

Read these two sentences:

(a) To ride a bike without a helmet is illegal.

(b) It is illegal to ride a bike without a helmet.

Both these sentences are grammatically correct. However, the first sentence is rather unusual. Instead, we normally use 'it' as a formal subject of a sentence as in the second sentence to make the information appear more natural. A long clause comes more naturally at the end of a sentence than in the subject position of a sentence. We use 'introductory it' to begin such sentences.

11.4.1 Uses of 'It'

1. We can use 'it' as the formal subject of a sentence to place long or grammatically complex sentences at the end.
   (a) To find good rented accommodation in the city is very difficult these days.
   (b) It is very difficult to find good rented accommodation in the city these days.
2. We use 'it' to say the time, day, month, date etc.
   (a) It's half past nine now.
   (b) It's nearly ten o'clock.
3. We use introductory 'it' as formal subject with verbs concerning weather conditions.
   (a) It rained all day at Jorhat that day.
   (b) It was pleasantly warm in Shillong.
4. We use 'it' as formal subject in the following patterns:
   (a) It + be + or + me/him etc + to infinitive
   It was hard for him to pass the exams.

(b) It + be + adj + that clause

It was kind of you to help me.

(c) It + be + adj + that clause

It is obvious that he is angry.

These patterns describe someone's situation, behaviour or express opinions about situations.

4. 'It' can function as a formal object also when it stands for a whole sentence as follows.

(a) You have helped me in my difficulties. I shall never forget it.

(b) He wants to beat Ramesh in the test. He won't find it easy.

11.4.2 Distinction between 'There' and 'It'

We have noted that 'there' + 'be' expresses the fact that something exists. 'It' identifies or describes something or says something about the object. 'There' introduces a noun phrase with indefinite meaning. But 'it' refers to something definite.

(a) There is a man at the gate.

(b) It's the postman.

(c) There was a bridge on the river.

(d) It was washed away in the last floods.

Sentences (a) and (c) refer to indefinite persons and things whereas sentences (b) and (d) refer to definite persons and things.

Besides, there are a few expressions in the following patterns:

There + is/was + no.....

It + is/was + no.....

Here are a few examples:

1. There + is/was + no ...

(a) There is no denying that he was involved in the case.

(b) There was no hope of getting a bank loan.

(c) There's no need to explain.

(d) There's no reason to be annoyed.

(e) There's no point in raising the question.

2. It + is/was + no...

(a) It's no use telling me now.

(b) It's no good getting angry.

(c) It's no longer necessary to sit for an oral examination in Grade III jobs.

(d) It is no secret that he is involved in the issue.

(e) It is no surprise that he will get the best actor award.

The sentences with It is/was no... have alternatives in which the that, -ing or to-infinitive clause is placed at the front, but the sentences with There is/was no... do not. The sentence 'It is no secret that he wants a new job' can be rephrased as 'That he wants a new job is no secret.' But was cannot rephrase a sentence like 'There is no denying that he is a good student' as 'That he is a very good student is no denying.'



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 2: Complete the dialogue by filling in the blanks with there or it.

Anita: What are you doing this afternoon? ___(a)___ is a new film at Anuradha.

Rita: Is ___(b)___ any chance to get a ticket?

Anita: I already have two tickets blocked on line. _____(c)_____ is a good film.

Rita: _____(d)___ was a review of this film in today's *Assam Tribune.*

Anita: Yes, I've read it . _____(e)_____ is a good review.

11.5 EMPHASIS

In this unit on Remedial grammar, we are revisiting some of the old forms that we had studied in our earlier units for certain functional purposes. We had for example, discussed the assertive/declarative sentence forms

and functions in great detail. However, there may arise certain situations when our normal assertive sentence structures need to be modified for the sake of emphasis. In this section, we shall discuss how such modification take place.

Let us begin by giving a brief description of what constitutes emphasis. Emphasis refers to the special force given to certain words, ideas or details, in speaking or writing to show that they are important. Let us take a sentence:

(a) Anita borrowed the book from her teacher.

The sentence is a plain assertive sentence providing a piece of information that Anita had borrowed a book from her teacher. Now let us suppose you want to contradict the information that Anita did not borrow any book from the teacher but Rita had borrowed the book form her teacher by making this statement:

(b) Rita borrowed the book from her teacher.

Like the earlier sentence, this is also a plain assertive sentence providing a different piece of information that Rita had borrowed the book from the teacher. But the sentence lacks force, it lacks emphasis. You want to be more forceful in your statement by contradicting the earlier statement about Anita. Here is an example:

(c) It was Rita that borrowed the book from her teacher.

(d) It was Rita that borrowed the book from her teacher, not Anita.

The above two sentences are more emphatic than sentence (b) above. What we did was to rephrase the assertive sentence by using the 'it clause' with a form of the 'be' verb. The above two emphatic sentences about Rita are referred to as 'cleft sentences'. We shall study the structure of the cleft sentences below.

11.5.1 Emphasis with 'cleft sentence'

A cleft sentence is a sentence whose main function is to emphasise a part of a given sentence. Such a sentence is divided into two parts, each part having its own finite verb. A cleft sentence usually begins with 'it' as formal subject followed by a form of the

verb 'be' and the name of the person concerned. This part of the sentence is followed by a 'that /which' clause that contains the element being emphasised. For example

(a) Dilip gave Rina a book.

First, let us put the emphasis on Dilip to mean that the book was given to Rina by no one else but Dilip. The focus or emphasis will be on Dilip. We can rephrase the sentence as:

(b) It was Dilip that gave Rina a book.

Secondly, let us put the emphasis on Rina to mean that Dilip gave the book to Rina and to no one else. We can rephrase the sentence as follows.

(c) It was Rina that Dilip gave a book to.

Thirdly, let us put the emphasis on 'book' to mean that Dilip gave Rina only a book and nothing else. In this case, the sentence can be rephrased as follows.

(d) It was a book that Dilip gave to Rina.

We use 'which' or 'who' or 'that' to introduce the second clause of a cleft sentence. The pattern is it + be + noun phrase + relative clause. The phrase that we want to emphasise comes after be.

11.5.2 Emphasis with 'Pseudo-Cleft Sentence'

Apart from the 'it clause' in cleft sentences, there are other ways of emphasising a sentence. The use of what-clause at the beginning is another way of emphasising certain information in a sentence. Here is an example.

(a) I need a good holiday in Goa.

We shall use a 'what-clause' followed by a form of the verb 'be'. Sentences with this pattern are another form of cleft sentences. In English, a sentence with a what-clause (e.g. What I want...) as subject or complement is known as a pseudo-cleft sentence. Let us rephrase the sentence with a what-clause and form a pseudo-cleft sentence.

(b) What I need is a good holiday in Goa.

In the above sentence the what-clause is the subject of the sentence. We can rephrase the sentence by making the what-clause the complement of the sentence.

(c) A good holiday in Goa is what I need.

The information that we want to emphasise is outside the what-clause.

We often use the what-clause when we introduce a new topic in our classroom, when we want to give a reason, instruction or explanation, or to correct something that had been said or done.

(d) What I'd like to do today is to introduce you to the concept of the epic theatre.

(e) What had happened was that I missed the bus and hence the delay.

(f) What you can do is to rewrite the concluding part of the essay by giving your observations on the topic.

(g) What I'm looking for is a briefcase slightly bigger than this one.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 3: Give responses beginning with 'No what....' correcting what was said in the question.

(a) Did you visit the zoo yesterday? (visit my uncle)

(b) Did your teacher scold you for being late? (advised to be punctual)

(c) Did you come by bus all the way from Dibrugarh? (by Rajdhani Express)

(d) Did you say that you are going to Kolkata?
(Rewrite the sentences emphasising with it-clause.)

(e) John gave her a present.

(f) Anita wrote the poem.

(g) Rakesh came by bus.

(h) We visited the theatre yesterday.



11.6 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we learnt that remedial grammar involves an ability to grasp a number of things. Most importantly, we have learnt the following that the sentences that we produce need to be both grammatical and appropriate to the situation. We can also make our sentences appropriate by modifying the sentences that we have produced by applying the rules of use. The uses of 'there' and 'it' as subject of sentences can make certain sentence structures more acceptable thereby indicating that mere grammaticality does not ensure acceptability or appropriateness.

Further, 'emphasis' is an important communicative activity and in order to make our sentences emphatic we need to modify them by using 'it-clauses' and 'what-clauses' in cleft and pseudo-cleft sentences.



11.7 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Ans to Q No 1:

(a) There was a wooden bridge across the river.

(b) There is nothing in the museum.

(c) Is there something bothering you?

(d) There were no classes held today.

(e) There is no truth in the story.

(f) Are there any letters for me?

(g) Is there any more tea left in the pot?

(h) There is a man at the gate.

Ans to Q No 2 :

(a) There (b) there (c) It (d) There (e) It

Ans to Q No 3 :

a. No, what I did was to visit my uncle.

b. No, what he did was to advise me to be punctual.

c. No, what I did was to come by Rajdhani Express.

d. No, what I said was that I was going to Delhi.

e. It was John who gave me a present.

f. It was Rakesh who came by bus.

g. It was the theatre that we went to yesterday.

h. Try yourself.



11.8 MODEL QUESTIONS

Q.1. Answer the questions as directed:

(a) Use the proper form of the verb 'be' in the following blanks

(i) There _____ substantial evidence against him.

(ii) There _____ a shower, TV set and two single beds in each room.

(b) Rewrite the sentences using 'it'.

(i) To drive without a licence is illegal.

(ii) That she wasn't hurt was a miracle.

(c) Rewrite the sentences using 'there' only if found appropriate.

(i) Your books are on the table.

(ii) No evidence is against him.

Q.2. Write short notes on:

(a) Cleft Sentence

(b) Pseudo-Cleft Sentence

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UNIT 12: BASIC REMEDIAL GRAMMAR II

UNIT STRUCTURE

12.1 Learning Objectives

12.2 Introduction

12.3 Glossary: Active Voice to Base Form

12.4 Glossary: Clause to Direct Speech

12.5 Glossary: Ellipses to Irregular Verbs

12.6 Glossary: Lexical Verb to Word

12.7 Let us Sum up

12.8 Answers to Check Your Progress

12.9 Model Questions

12.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to-

- make your approach to English grammar more focussed on the basic elements of the language
- develop a knowledge of some of the important grammatical elements in modern English grammar presented in the form of dictionary entries
- grasp how these grammatical elements operate
- evaluate these elements in the larger context of language use.

12.2 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, we propose to provide you with a glossary of a selection of grammatical concepts. You might have come across quite a number of them though there may be others that could possibly strike you as a novelty tempting you to go back to the units for a fresh look. You may even be inspired to follow up these concepts for a better understanding.

You will perhaps agree that a glossary on English grammar can play the role of a very useful instructional material for basic remedial work. A remedial grammar material ought to provide you with grammatical

explanations which would help you to remedy, correct or compensate for the inadequacies that you might have felt as you were looking at some of the sub-sections of the units of grammar. That is obvious. One cannot overload sub-units with too much information. The glossary is an answer to that inadequacy you might have experienced. It can provide you with an opportunity to self-check yourself on the concepts and points of correctness of your use of the language so as to help you to identify the areas where you would require some remediation. With regard to the familiar concepts, you can be more focussed and perhaps tend to be more critical in your approach to the concepts.

12.3 GLOSSARY: ACTIVE VOICE TO BASE FORM

Active voice: The term refers to a form of a sentence structure that contrasts with the form known as the passive voice. These two patterns express the relationship between a verb and the noun phrase in the structure. Two sentences can differ in voice and yet have the same basic meaning. However, there may be changes in emphasis and one type of sentence may be more appropriate than the other. A sentence like 'I had my lunch an hour ago' will be inappropriate in the passive while 'He was killed in the accident' may be inappropriate in the active.

Adjective: It is a word that describes a noun (e.g. a beautiful painting) or a pronoun (e.g the tall one) having gradation to make the description more specific (e.g. beautiful - more beautiful - most beautiful; tall - taller - tallest). There are some adjectives that are not gradable (e.g. impossible) and can have a qualitative use and a predicative use (e.g. a beautiful picture; The picture is beautiful).

Adjective phrase: It is a phrase that can be the constituent of a noun phrase. It is made up of an intensifier and an adjective. In the noun phrase, “a very wide road” the words 'very wide' constitute an adjective phrase modifying the noun 'road'. The word 'very' is an intensifier.

Adjective clause: It is a subordinate clause in a complex sentence structure. It qualifies the noun in the principal clause. ‘I know the person who came here’ is a complex sentence consisting of the subordinate

adjective clause 'who came here' qualifying the noun person in the principal clause.

Adverb: It is a word that describes or gives more information about a verb (e.g. He ran quickly); about an adjective (e.g. The painting is very beautiful); another adverb (e.g He ran rather slowly) or a phrase (e.g. I live just across the road). Like adjectives they can be gradable which is done by adding 'very'; there are non-gradable adverbs too (e.g. completely, mainly etc.)

Adverbial: It refers to any word or phrase that functions like an adverb in a clause structure. For example, in the sentence 'He is in the room', the prepositional phrase in the room is an adverbial. Thus, the sentence has an SVA structure.

Adverbial clause: It is a subordinate clause in a complex sentence structure whose function is to modify the verb in the principal clause. For example, the sentence 'When I arrived I went straight to the Principal' contains the subordinate adverbial clause 'when I arrived' modifying the verb in the principal clause.

Affirmative sentence: It is a type of sentence in English grammar that has no markers of negation, that is , it expresses an assertion. The affirmative, also called positive, contrasts with the negative sentence. (e.g. I like fish).

Alternative question: It is a type of question whose answer is to be found in the question itself as in:

Shall we go by bus or by taxi?

Are you coming or not?

Anomalous finites: It is a term used by some grammars to refer to the auxiliaries, the primary auxiliaries and the modals.

Appropriate preposition: The term refers to particular prepositions that are used after certain words such as the ones given below where each of the blanks require an appropriate preposition:

Each of the above blanks can be filled in by a preposition that is appropriate to the situation of the sentences. For example, abide always takes by; absorbed takes in; accede takes to; acceptable takes to.

Article: It is a type of determiner that is used with a noun, which shows whether the noun refers to something definite (e.g. the book) or indefinite (e.g. an apple, a pen). When nouns are used without an article (e.g. Gold is a precious metal) this is sometimes called 'zero article'.

Aspect: It is a grammatical category which deals with how the events described by a verb is viewed, such as whether it is a progressive (e.g. He is reading) perfective, (e.g. He has read the book) or perfect progressive (e.g. He has been reading the book).

Auxiliary verb: Verbs like be, have, do and their different forms when used before a main verb are called auxiliary verbs (e.g. I have read the book). Modals are also treated as auxiliaries.

Base form: The term is used to refer to the main part of a word that does not use any prefix or suffix. The word like is the base form of the words likely, unlike or unlikely.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 1: Change the voice of the following sentences

(a) The work was being done by me.

(b) They had done the work.

(c) Did you write the letter?

(d) They have brought the puppy from Shillong.

12.4 GLOSSARY: CLAUSE TO DIRECT SPEECH

Clause: It refers to a group of words which form a syntactic constituent. In English, the most central grammatical constituent of a clause is the verb. This verb and all its possible noun phrases, preposition phrases that the verb must occur with, constitute the clause. A clause forms a simple sentence (e.g. I shall not go) or a part of a complex sentence (e.g. If it rains I shall not go) or a compound sentence (e.g. I shall not go but you must go).

Cleft sentence: A cleft sentence is a sentence which has been divided into two parts, each with its own verb, to emphasise a piece of information. Cleft sentences usually begin with an It - clause (e.g. It was John that/who came yesterday). If we want to focus particular attention on

certain information in a sentence, we can also use a what clause (e. g. What I need is a good holiday.) Sentences using this pattern are referred to as pseudo-cleft sentences.

Comparative: It is a form of an adjective or an adverb which is used to show comparison between two things in English. The comparative is formed with the suffix -er or more (e.g. stronger, more beautiful).

Complement: It refers to that part of a sentence which follows the verb and which thus completes the sentence. The verb is usually the linking verb 'be' in its different forms. The commonest complements are:

- Subject complement: the complement linked to a subject by a linking verb - She is a teacher.
- Object complement: the complement linked to an object - He made her happy.

Complex sentence: A sentence that consists of a main clause and one or more subordinate clauses is a complex sentence. For example: 'When Franz reached school, the teacher had already started his lessons." In this sentence, the clause 'when Franz reached school' is a subordinate clause while the remaining part is the main clause.

Compound word: It refers to a combination of two or more words which function as a single word. For example self-styled is a compound adjective (e.g. He is a self-styled leader); blackboard is a compound noun (e.g. Please clean the blackboard).

Compound sentence: It refers to the sentence structure that consists two or more coordinate clauses joined by one or more special words called conjunctions such as and, but, either...or. example: ' He worked very hard but he could not pass the examination.'

Conditional clause: It refers to an adverbial clause of condition that begins with an 'if' or an 'unless' or a conjunction with similar meanings, where a state or situation in one clause is dependent on something that may or will happen, and which is described in another clause. For example:

- If it rains, we will not go out.
- Unless you wear a helmet, you cannot ride a bike in the city.

Conjugation: It refers to a way in which a particular verb changes

for tense (e.g. past, present and future), person (e.g. 1st person, 2nd person and 3rd person) and number (e.g. singular and plural).

Conjunction: It is a word class that refers to an item or a process whose primary function is to connect words or other constructions. A distinction is made between coordinating conjunctions (e.g. and, or, but) and subordinating conjunctions (e.g. because, when, unless etc) also referred to as coordinators and subordinators respectively. Certain types of adverbials are often referred to as conjuncts (e.g. however, hence, moreover etc).

Continuous: It is a term used in the grammatical description of verb forms that are handled under the category of aspect. The usual contrast recognised is between continuous and progressive (e.g. I am playing) and non-progressive simple (e.g. I play). The term progressive is preferred to continuous tense which has some degree of oversimplification.

Contraction/ contracted forms: It is a term that is used in the context of fusing a sequence of forms so that they appear as single forms. For example, 'I have' is contracted to 'I've', 'I am' is contracted to 'I'm' etc.

Copula: It is a term used to refer to a linking verb, i.e., a verb that has little independent meaning and whose main function is to relate other elements of clause structure, especially subject and complement. In the sentence 'She is a teacher', the verb 'is' can be called either a linking verb or a copula.

Countability: It is a term used in the grammatical classification of nouns and contrast with uncountability. Countable nouns are those nouns that take the plural suffix. Besides, these nouns can be preceded by articles in a noun phrase construction (e.g. a book). On the other hand, uncountable nouns normally do not take plural suffixes (e.g. water, information).

Declarative sentence: It is a type of sentence that is usually seen in contrast with imperative, interrogative and exclamatory sentences. A declarative sentence is a statement. In declarative sentences the normal structures are: SV, SVA, SVO, SVC, SVOA, SVOC, SVOO.

Degree: It is a grammatical category that is used to specify the extent of a comparison between adjectives and adverbs. A three-way contrast

of adjectives and adverbs is usually recognised. We use the following three degrees of comparison: positive, comparative and superlative as in strong - stronger - strongest or beautiful - more beautiful - most beautiful.

Determiner: It is a word class in English grammar whose main role is to co-occur with nouns to express a wide range of meanings. The determiners include articles (e.g. a, an, the), possessives (e.g. my, your, his, her), demonstratives (e.g. this, that, these, those), quantifiers (e.g. some, any, much many, little, a little, the little, few, a few, the few) and wh determiners (e.g. what, which).

Direct speech: It refers to speech that is written by using the exact words of the speaker, without any change. The direct speech is put within quotes. It contrasts with indirect speech where the exact words are modified by the reporting verb, pronouns and adverbs and sentence forms and no quotes are used.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 2: Rewrite the following dialogue in indirect speech.

(a) "What do you want?" he said to her.
"A fountain pen", she replied.

(b) He asked me, "How is your father?"
"He is fine", I said.

(c) The man said to me, "What are you doing?"
"Waiting for the bus", I replied.

12.5 GLOSSARY : ELLIPSES TO IRREGULAR VERBS

Ellipses : It is a term used in English grammar to refer to a sentence which for reasons of economy or style, is modified by removing a part of the sentence which is recoverable form the context. (e.g. John: When did you come? David : Yesterday.) The complete sentence of David ' I came yesterday' is shortened to provide only the word 'yesterday' which is the new information in this context.

Finite verb: It refers to a type of verb that can occur on its own in an

independent sentence (e.g. He bought the book). A finite verb can be modified by tense, number and person. It contrasts with the non-finite forms of the verb which include infinitives, participles and gerunds.

Form: In grammar the term form refers to the structure of a word, phrase, clause or a sentence. We can say that the be verb can have the following forms: am, is, are, was, were. We say that in terms of form or structure, sentences can be simple, complex and compound. The term 'form' contrasts with the term function.

Function: It is a term in grammar that contrasts with the term 'form' to refer to how a grammatical element functions in the language. For example, a noun phrase can function as the subject, object, complement etc of a sentence.

Gender: It is a grammatical category used for the analysis of word classes displaying contrasts such as masculine (e.g. boy, man, bull, he, etc), feminine (e.g. girl, woman, cow, she, etc), neuter (e.g. child, it, etc).

Genitive: It refers to the forms that nouns and pronouns can take to express possessive relationship by means of inflections (e.g. a boy's shirt, a girls' hostel, a tiger's tale, John's book.)

Idiom: It is a term used in grammar to refer to a sequence of words which functions as a single unit. The expression 'blow one's own trumpet' is an idiom. The individual meaning of each of these words do not help us to get the idiomatic meaning of the sequence as a unit.

Imperative: It is a term used in the grammatical classification of sentence types, and usually seen as contrasting with declarative, interrogative and exclamatory sentence types. Imperative sentences are in the form of a command (e.g. Pick up the letter.) or request (e.g. Please close the gate.)

Infinitive: An infinitive is a non-finite form of the verb. It can be a bare infinitive (e.g. I'd rather sit at the back of the room) or it can be a to-infinitive (e.g. I want to sit here.)

Inflection/inflexion: It is a process of adding suffixes to a word. We make plural of a singular noun by adding -s, -es, etc as in book - books, horse - horses. The -s and -es are called plural inflections. Similarly, we

make the past tense of a verb by adding past tense inflection -ed, as in played. We make comparative degree of an adjective by adding a comparative degree inflection -er, as in stronger.

Irregular verbs: Irregular verbs refer to a category of verbs that are distinguished from the category of verbs known as regular verbs. Irregular verbs form their past tense and past participle by a change of vowels. The following are a list of a few of the verbs of this category:

Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle
begin	began	begun
break	broke	broken
cling	clang	clung



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 3: Rewrite the following sentences correctly.

(a) The flowers smell sweetly.

(b) He was very surprised by the news.

(c) We searched the lost bicycle.

(d) No sooner had I reached the station when the train left.

12.6 GLOSSARY : LEXICAL VERB TO WORD

Lexical verb: The term is used to refer to full verbs. These are verbs that can be used as the only verb in a sentence e.g. I work in a school. The primary auxiliaries be, have, do can also be used as lexical verbs. Here are a few examples: (a) She is a teacher. (b) She has a car. (c) She does her work properly.

Lexical word: It is a term used to refer to content word that contrasts with grammatical word or function word. Nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs are word classes belonging to this category of words.

Modal: Also called modal verbs, modals are a type of auxiliary verbs that contrast with the primary auxiliaries be, have and do. The following are the modals in English: can, could, shall, should, may might, must, will, would, dare, used to.

Pre-determiner: It is an element that occurs before a determiner in

a noun phrase. The pre-determiners include: half of, some of, all of, each of, etc. e.g. half of the students in the class, some of the students, most of the countries etc.

Preposition: It is a word class in English referring to a close set of items (e.g. of, in, with, by, at, to, for, on, from etc.) Prepositions are used with nouns, pronouns and gerunds to link them grammatically to other words.

Prepositional phrase: A preposition normally precede noun phrases (or single nouns or pronouns) to form a single constituent structure. The resulting prepositional phrase can thus be described in terms of distribution e.g. their use following a noun as in, the man in the corner.

Subordinate clause: It is a type of clause that is the constituent of a complex sentence and contrasts with the principal clause in the sentence structure. A subordinate clause can be a noun clause, an adjective clause or an adverbial clause.

Syntax: It is the study of sentences and their structure. Therefore, English syntax is the study of sentences and their structures in the English language in terms of phrases, clauses and sentences. These different kinds of units larger than the words are different kinds of syntactic constituents. They are called syntactic constituents because they combine with each other as though they were single indivisible units.

Verbs of perception: There are a group of verbs that are normally incompatible with the progressive aspect of verbs

Word: In grammar, the word is considered to be the smallest unit of a sentence. We say that a sentence is made of words though at times a single word can be a sentence as in: Come. There are different classes of word called word classes. They are also called parts of speech. The following are the nine word classes in English: noun, pronoun, verb, adverb, preposition, conjunction, interjection and determiner.



12.7 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we were introduced to a glossary of the grammar of English. We have learnt that the grammatical concepts need to be related to the

structure of sentences. Further, grammatical competence should lead to communicative competence. The general idea is that we do not learn grammar for its own sake but to sharpen our sensitivity to the language that would enable us to use the language in real life situations. Therefore, each of the grammatical concepts to which we have been introduced should be seen in the larger context of language use.



12.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Ans to Q No 1 :

(a) I was doing the work.

(b) The work was done by them.

(c) Was the letter written by you ?

(d) The puppy was brought from Shillong.

Ans to Q No 2 :

(a) He asked her what she wanted.
She replied that she wanted a fountain pen.

(b) He asked me how my father was.
I replied that he was fine.

(c) The man asked me what I was doing.
I replied that I was waiting for the bus.

Ans to Q No 3 :

(a) The flowers smell sweet.

(b) He was very surprised at the news.

(c) We searched for the lost bicycle.



(d) No Sooner had I reached the station then the train left.

12.9 MODEL QUESTIONS

Q.1. Give brief answers to the following questions:

i. Correct the following sentences.

(a) He could not come due to illness.

(b) We must preserve our culture at every cost.

ii. Supply tags.

You are a student, _____ ?

They don't visit your place _____ ?

iii. Complete the sentences using appropriate prepositions.

I am not satisfied _____ your explanation.

He has to deal _____ a lot of clients every day.

iv. Rewrite the following sentences using appropriate forms of the verbs.

He (begin) his speech before we arrived.

I wish I (be) dead.

v. Frame sentences with the following idioms:

Put up with

In black and white.

In the long run

Q.2. Answer the following questions.

i. Frame a sentence showing the noun phrase as object complement.

ii. Write a noun phrase illustrating the use of adjective phrase in an noun phrase.

iii. Give an example of a conditional clause.

Q.3. Write short notes in about 100 to 150 words:

i. Ellipsis

ii. Imperative sentence

Q.4. Answer the following questions in about 200-250 words.

1. Distinguish between countable and uncountable noun.
2. Distinguish between primary auxiliary and modals.

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UNIT 13: PRECIS WRITING

UNIT STRUCTURE

13.1 Learning Objectives

13.2 Introduction

13.3 Techniques of Faster Reading

13.4 Writing a Good Précis

13.5 Language Work

13.6 Worked Out Examples

13.7 Let us Sum up

13.8 Answers to Check Your Progress

13.9 Model Questions

13.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit you will be able to :

- locate the key-words and sentences in a piece of text and identify the main points in a passage so as to provide a title to the given passage in your précis
- discriminate the important points of information from the less important ones
- develop techniques by which a passage or an extract can be shortened without affecting the information
- grasp at the central idea of the piece of text
- write out the précis of the passage in about one third of its length by adding a suitable title.

13.2 INTRODUCTION

A précis is a summary or an abstract of a passage, an article, a speech or a book usually within an approximately stated number of words. In writing a précis, we make a shorter version of a passage, usually one-third of its length. The précis contains all the important points in the passage, but leaves out the less important details.

A précis writing exercise is not done merely for its own sake. It is of great practical importance among which the following may be noted :

1. It is a great aid to study: a student can prepare précis of notes, write-ups, articles and so on for his/her future reference.
2. It is an effective device for recording minutes/proceedings of meetings, preparing reports for further developments etc.

A précis writing exercise is an activity in which several language sub-skills are involved notably, an ability to:

- read a passage silently in a reasonable speed for comprehension of the passage
- skim through the text to locate information of importance
- write a cohesive piece of text by avoiding words and phrases that are superfluous.

In this unit, you will learn that as a general rule the précis is to be one-third of the length of the original passage. This implies two things:

- You should know what the passage is about and
- You must have a fair idea of the exact number of words in the precis.

Regarding the first point, two or three readings of the passage should give you a fair idea of what the passage is about. However, with regard to the number of words in the passage, you may have the tendency to count the words in the passage by running your finger back and forth in the fear of confusing the total number of words. If you have the time and patience, there is no other full-proof calculation of the exact number of words other than counting every word. You know that 'I' and 'a' are also words. Thus is how you get the correct word count.

If you find the passage too long to count words in the limited examination time, you may like to try an easier method which will give you to an approximate total. You are to count the total number of words in 5 lines of the passage. You divide this by 5 and multiply it by the total number of lines in the passage including incomplete lines. So, if there are 45 words in the first five full lines, and 26 lines in all, the passage counts as 45 × 26/

5 = 9 × 26 = 234 words. This calculation, you will find, gives you more or less a close total of the number of words in a passage. You now have a total which you divide by 3 to get an approximate length of your answer.

13.3 TECHNIQUES OF FASTER READING

In reducing a passage to one third of its original length and to decide on a title for the passage, it becomes important for you to know what the central idea of the passage is. For this purpose you will have to read the passage more than once. Remember, you do not have all the time in the world to read the passage at a leisurely pace. Therefore, you should develop the skill of faster reading and that too with comprehension.

In order to develop the skill of faster reading, make sure that you do not do the following things while reading a passage silently.

a) Do not run your finger/pen/pencil along the words or the lines. Such a habit slows down reading.

b) While reading silently, do not make head movement as if you are trying to make your nose point to a word. The eye can easily pass through the lines with speed.

c) While reading silently, do not vocalise or make lip movement. This practice slows down reading and affects comprehension.

d) While reading do not make it a point to regress i.e. go back along a line of print to re-read a word or phrase. This is a sign of poor reading habit. Good readers make very few regressions.

Let your eyes pass over the lines with a rapidity.

13.4 WRITING A GOOD PRÉCIS

In order to write a good précis, first of all, read the passage very carefully in order to grasp the meaning of the subject as a whole. That is, in your first reading you should be able to get a gist of the passage in your mind.

After you have received a gist of the passage in your mind, read it a second time, noting some of the specific points you may like to refer to in

your writing.

Now, you are ready to make a précis of the passage. At this stage you will have to take note of the following points :

1. You will have to write out your précis in one third of the length of the original passage. If the passage is 300 words, your précis will be in about a 100 words.
2. Select a title for your précis. In fact, your title is a gist of the passage. It should be a clear and concise statement of what the précis is about. A title is an integral part of the précis you are writing.
3. The précis must be written in the form of reported speech / indirect speech. You should bear in mind that the writer of the précis is a reporter. He simply reports in a concise, easy, continuous form, the summary of what he has read. So, in précis writing always use the rules of reported speech.
4. There is no scope for the writer to give individual opinion on the original passage. Hence, you should avoid comments, criticism or remarks in a précis.

Now, let us take a passage and see how we can shorten it without dropping any important pieces of information contained in the passage.

Read the passage given below twice:

The process of learning may very well be compared to the undertaking of a journey. The learner or the student is the journey-taker or traveller. Just as a traveller has to undergo all the botherations of buying a ticket, booking his luggage, taking care of his things, engaging a car or a cab, and suffering every other item of tedious journey to reach his destination, so a learner too has to manage his learning affairs himself. It is a laborious process and no one else can do the labour for him as no one else can do a journey for another. Just as a traveller may enquire here and enquire there in case of doubt and difficulty, so can a student take help and advice from guides or teachers whenever in difficulty. But the journey is the passenger's own concern - so is learning of the student on the learner.

The passage contains 148 words. You are to write your précis in about 50 words which of course excludes the words you will be using in the

title.

We will break the passage into meaningful units and see how we can reduce the length of each chunk.

Read the first sentence once again:

The process of learning may very well be compared to the undertaking of a journey. (15 words)

Let us break up the phrases and re-write them:

The process of learning	:	The learning process
may very well be compared to	:	is like
the undertaking of a journey	:	a journey
The précis of the first line is	:	The learning process is like a journey (7 words)

We have reduced a sentence of 15 words to one of only 7 words. Don't worry about one-third measurement at this stage. You will certainly take care of that while you are revising your précis in order to prepare a final version of your writing.

Let us come to the second sentence,

The learner or the student is the journey-taker or traveller. (10 words)

What you can do here, you can link it up with the first sentence which will give you something like this:

The learning process is like a journey undertaken by a student. (11 words)

Thus, we have reduced 25 words to just 11 words.

Let us look at the next few lines:

Just as a traveller..... to himself.

We have 51 words here. Now read the précis of the lines :

Like the traveller facing botherations of buying tickets, booking luggage and hiring cabs to reach his destination, the student has to manage his learning himself. (25 words)

Finally let us look at the remaining lines of the passage

It is a laborious process ..... learner.

We have 72 words here. Let us reduce the lines to the form given below:

Again, like a traveller making enquiries, the student seeks guidance from teachers in difficulty.

We have reduced the extract to mere 14 words.

However, there is one more thing that needs to be done: finding a suitable title for the passage. We can perhaps decide on a title like this:

The learning process

Let us now reconstruct the passage into a real précis.

The Learning Process

The learning process is like a journey undertaken by a student. Like the traveller facing botherations of buying tickets, booking luggage and hiring cabs to reach his destination, the student has to manage his learning himself. Again, like a traveller making enquires, the student seeks guidance from teachers in difficulty.

Original passage : 148 words

Precis : 50 words



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 1: Reduce the following sentences in as few words as you can without affecting the important information.

a) He confessed that he was guilty of the crime.

b) His efforts were crowned with success.

c) My efforts did not meet with the kind of success that I desired.

d) Let me have an idea as to how much this car is going to cost.

e) There is little hope that he will recover.

13.5 LANGUAGE WORK

Although we consider a précis to be a shortened version of a piece of text, we have to note that it also involves using condensed expressions:

This is a life story of Nehru written by himself.

This is Nehru's autobiography.

We won't give sentences here. Instead, you will use single words to mean the same thing eg.

(a) Life story of a person written by himself or herself

Ans : autobiography

(b) Science of the behaviour of heavenly bodies.

Ans : astronomy



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 2: Give single word expressions :

1. a person who lives on plant food

.....

2. a person who takes animal food

.....

3. an animal that lives on herbs

.....

4. an animal that feeds on flesh

.....

5. a person who believes in God

.....

6. a person who does not believe in God

.....

7. science of the development of mankind

.....

8. science of the human body

.....

9. science of the human mind

.....

10. that which can be seen

.....

11. that which can be moved

.....

12. that which cannot be read

.....

13. that which cannot be corrected

.....

14. that which cannot be heard

.....

15. that which is easily breakable

.....

16. through which light can pass

.....

17. through which light cannot pass

.....

18. written life story of a person

.....

19. medicine that kills germs

.....

20. that which can be corrected

.....

13.6 WORKED OUT EXAMPLES

Read the following worked out examples :

Passage-I

Trees give shade for the benefit of others and while they themselves stand in the sun and endure the scorching heat, they produce the fruits by which others profit. The character of good men is like that of trees. What is the use of this perishable body if no use of it is made for the benefit of mankind? Sandal wood, the more it is peeled and cut up into pieces, the more juice does it produce. The men who are noble at heart do not lose these qualities even in losing their lives. What matters is whether men praise them or not. What difference does it make whether riches abide with them or not. What does it signify whether they die at the moment or whether their lives are prolonged? Life itself is unprofitable to a man who does not live for others. To live for the mere sake of living one's life is to live the life of dogs and cows. Those who lay down their lives for the sake of others will assuredly do well for ever in the world of bliss.

(184 words)

Précis:

Title : Leading a Meaningful Life

Men are like trees. Trees stand in the sun and give shade and fruit. Similarly, a man who is noble, works for the benefit of mankind. Whatever be his life-span or his financial position, he will find his life to be more meaningful when he lives for others. To live for the sake of living is to lead the lives of dogs and cows.

(63 words)

Passage-2:

Not much attention has been paid till very recently to the menace of ragging sweeping like an epidemic in the campuses of the educational institutions of the country. Even a section of the guardians at first regarded it as mere innocent mirth indulged in by young people. But later events showed that they were sadly mistaken. It is gratifying to note that the authorities and the thinking public have at last woken up to the danger posed by this 'innocent mirth'. For the last few years the menace of ragging in educational institutions has been assuming alarming dimensions and the Government, educationists and guardians became worried and started thinking 'whither education?' In many institutions the new-comers are subjected to unimaginable torture and humiliation. The evil effects of this savage practice can be judged from the fact that ragging has driven some to suicide and the careers of many brilliant students were cut short. The suicide of an engineering student two years ago so shocked the then President Sri Sanjiva Reddy, that he asked the Government to stop this menace.

(179 words)

Précis:

Title: The Menace of Ragging

Till recently, ragging in educational institutions was not taken seriously. It was regarded to be an innocent mirth of youngsters. But later events have woken up educationists and guardians to the dangers of ragging. In many institutions, new comers are tortured and humiliated. As ragging had led to the suicide of many brilliant students, President Sanjiva

Reddy had asked the Government to stop the menace.

(63 words)

Passage-3

What is it that makes a good school? It must have good teachers, but they do not make the school. You have to learn things in order to train your brains; but that is only a part of education. What distinguishes a good school is what is commonly called its tone; and that is nothing more or less than the mass consciousness of the boys. It is boys who make or mar a school. It is not merely a question of the observance of rules or obedience to orders. It is a subconscious feeling of self-respect among the boys themselves. Certain things are recognised as what we call 'bad form', unworthy of the boys themselves or of their school, and this crystallises into tradition which it requires a great deal of audacity to break. If this feeling of self-respect among the boys is on the right lines, the tone of the school is good, and you will find in later life that you will never lose the feeling of pride in your school and its tone.

(176 words)

Précis:

Title: A Good School

Besides having good teachers, a good school is distinguished by its tone that is set by the mass consciousness of the pupils. Indeed, pupils can make or mar a school. More than observance of rules or obedience to orders, there is the need for self-respect among the pupils for a school to be good. Thus, a tradition is built up.

(59 words)



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 3: Read the passage given below followed by the précis. The title is not given. Give an appropriate title to the précis.

In every country people imagine that they are the best and the cleverest and the others are not so good as they are. The Englishman thinks that he and his country are the best; the Frenchman is very proud of France and everything French. The Germans and Italians

think no less of their countries and many Indians imagine that India is in many ways the greatest country in the world. This is wrong. Everybody wants to think well of himself and his country. But really there is no person who has not got some good and some bad qualities. In the same way, there is no country which is not partly good and partly bad. We must take the good wherever we find it and try to remove the bad wherever it may be. We are, of course most concerned with our own country, India. Unhappily, it is in a bad way today. Most of our people are poor and unhappy. They have no joy in their lives. We have to find out how we can make them happier. We have to see what is good in our ways and customs and try to keep it, and whatever is bad we have to throw away. If we find anything good in other countries, we should certainly take it. (218 words)

Q 4: Read the following passage and the précis that follows. Provide a title to the passage.

Conversation is a fine art. It is the art of exchanging thoughts. It is an art which even the least gifted of us can cultivate. Not everybody can paint or play music, but almost every one can talk. Conversation, therefore, is that art which affords the greatest pleasure to the greatest number.

Conversation is indeed the most easily teachable of all the arts. All you need to do in order to become a good conversationalist is to find a subject that interests you and your listeners. There are, for example, numberless hobbies to talk about. But the important thing is that you must talk about the other fellow's hobby rather than your own.

It is just as important to know what subjects to avoid as what subjects to select for good conversation. If you don't want to be regarded as a bore, be careful to avoid certain unpleasant topics. Avoid talking about yourself, unless you are asked to do so. People are interested in their problems, not in yours. Sickness or death bore everybody. The only one who willingly listens to such talk is the doctor, but he gets paid for it. (191 words)



13.7 LET US SUM UP

After going through the unit, you will be able to point out the basic ideas of précis writing. Precis writing involves developing certain techniques by which any given text or passage can be summarised. You are now aware of the length of a precis which should not exceed one third of the given passage. Also, several techniques have been discussed that will enable you to develop faster reading skill. Lastly, you have learnt that the language while writing a precis should be in the form of reported speech and should avoid comments, criticism or remarks.



13.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Ans to Q No 1 :

a) He confessed his guilt.

b) His efforts were successful.

c) My efforts were not successful as desired.

d) Tell me the cost of the car.

e) There is little hope for his recovery.

Ans to Q No 2 :

1. vegetarian	2. non-vegetarian	3. herbivore
4. carnivore	5. theist	6. atheist
7. anthropology	8.# physiology	9. psychology
10. visible	11. mobile	12.illegible
13.incorrigible	14. inaudible	15. brittle
16. transparent	17. opaque	18. biography
19.germicide	20. corrigible	

Ans to Q No 3 : Title :Taking the Best from Others.

Précis :

People in every country, whether English or French, German or Italian or Indian think that their country is the best and the greatest. This is a wrong notion because like individuals, every country has some good and bad qualities. We must take the good from others. Our country is poor and its people have no joy in their lives. By taking the best from other countries, we can help to make the country happier and better. (79 words)

Ans to Q No 4: Title: The Art of Conversation

Précis:

Conversation is the art of exchanging thoughts. It can be cultivated even by the least gifted and it provides great pleasure. Unlike painting or music, conversation is easily teachable. To be a good conversationalist, we need an interesting subject like other people's hobbies. We must know what subject to select, avoiding unpleasant topics like talking about ourselves or our problems which interest the doctor only. (64 words)



13.9 MODEL QUESTIONS

Give the précis of the following passages:

Q.1: Nowadays many an educated youth of the middle class in our country is out of unemployment for want of service. The principal reason for this employment problem is the fact that the number of educated men is gradually increasing and yet all the educated men hanker after service. Many again, bearing some prejudice are unwilling to do such deeds. But what is more humiliating than idles? In fact, if this false idea of social labour is not rejected and a conviction of the dignity of labour is not established, there can be no solution of the unemployment problem. There is indeed no humiliation in any work whatsoever. Humiliation lies in idleness and hanging on others.

Q.2: Among the manifold misfortunes that may befall humanity, the loss of health is one of the severest. All the joys that life can give cannot

outweigh the suffering of the sick. Give the sick man everything and leave him his sufferings, and he will feel that half the world is lost to him. Lay him on a soft silken couch, he will nevertheless grow sleepless under the pressure of his sufferings, while the miserable beggar, blessed with health, sleeps sweetly on the hard ground. Spread his table with dainty dishes and choice drinks and he will thrust back the hand that proffers them and envy the poor man who thoroughly enjoys his hard crust. Surround him with the pomp of kings; let his chair be a throne, and his crutch a world-swaying scepter; he will look with contemptuous eyes on marble and gold, and would deem himself happy if he could enjoy, even were it under a thatched roof, the health of the meanest of his servants.

Q.3: Long ago, when men were only just beginning to be human they lived almost like the animals. For shelter they used forests and caves in the rocks. For defence against enemies, they had only their hands and their teeth. For food they gathered fruit and caught what animals and fish they could. The body of a man differs from animals' bodies in many ways. He has a better brain and he has hands. Thanks to his better brain, be can think. Some animals can think a little, but man's power of thought is very much greater than theirs. Again, some animals have paws which are something like hands, but the human hand is very much more useful than any paw. If you look at your hand, you will notice that the thumb can touch each of the fingers. Your hand is so made that you can hold things well and do many things with it. And, of course hands were the first tools men had. So, using brains and hands, men slowly learned to build shelters of stone or wood or earth, to make simple tools and weapons, and to grow food for their own use. But remember that the very first tools that they had were their hands. We still use hands as tools in many ways. For example, the potters still shapes the clay by hand. For many kinds of work, however, hands are not very good. You cannot shape a piece of wood with your hands alone. So, because men were able to think, they made tools to help their hands.

Q. 4: Give one word for each of the following:

1. an assembly of hearers
2. an assembly of people in a prayer meeting
3. the pen name of a person
4. that which cannot be repaired
5. one who looks at the dark side of things
6. one who looks at the bright side of things
7. a man whose wife is dead
8. a woman whose husband is dead
9. science of the earth's surface and atmosphere
10. a government by a few
11. a person who files a civil suit
12. that which cannot be described.

*** ***** ***

UNIT 14 : NOTE MAKING

UNIT STRUCTURE

14.1 Learning Objectives

14.2 Introduction

14.3 Note Making and Note Taking

14.4 Skimming a Piece of Text

14.5 Scanning a Piece of Text

14.6 Format of Note Making

14.7 Samples of Note Making

14.8 Further Reading

14.9 Answers to Check Your Progress

14.10 Model Questions

14.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- learn the difference between note making and note taking
- discuss the function of skimming in note making
- analyse the function of scanning in note making
- grasp the techniques of note making as a part of study skills.

14.2 INTRODUCTION

Note making is an important study skill like summarising, substance writing and precise writing. It is one form of information transfer skill. The information contained in a piece of text is given in one form, note making required you to transfer the information to another form. In this unit, we shall look at some of the ways by which we transfer information contained in a piece of written or printed text to yet another forum or format.

14.3 NOTE TAKING AND NOTE MAKING

You must have noticed in public meetings or conferences, people sitting quietly in press galleries noting down the main points, facts, ideas

and arguments made by the speakers in the meeting or conference. These persons in the press galleries are actually taking down notes. They will use these notes to write their reports on the meeting for the paper or agency that they represent. Thus, note taking means noting down the most important facts, ideas and arguments given by a speaker.

Note making, on the other hand, means listing out, in brief, the most important facts and ideas and arguments contained in a piece of written text. Note making is a means of recording information from the written or printed material that we are reading. The material may be a book, an essay or an article, a piece or fiction or even a poem.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 1: Select the appropriate answer:

(a) Note taking requires the use of the skill of _____ (listening/ speaking/ reading)

(b) Note making requires the use of the skill of _____ (listening/ speaking/ reading)

(c) Note taking means taking down notes that we _____ (listen/ speak/ read)

(d) Note taking means taking down notes that we _____ (listen/ speak/ read)

In this unit we shall look at some of the strategies that we can adopt while making notes on a piece of text that we have read. The following steps may be useful for the purpose.

14.4 SKIMMING A PIECE OF TEXT

The term 'skimming' refers to a reading activity that involves reading a text quickly by running one's eyes over the text to get a gist of the text. By skimming, we get information regarding:

- What does the passage deal with?
- How does the writer develop the theme?

You might be wondering why this activity has been given the first priority. Until recently materials have concentrated on the units smaller than

the sentence. It was assumed that a text was a succession of separate sentences thematically related and that it would be necessary to proceed from words to phrases, from phrases to clauses, from clauses to sentences, from sentences to paragraphs to understand a paragraph.

But if reading is to be efficient, the structure of longer units such as the paragraph on the whole text must be understood. Efficient reading involves starting with global understanding and moving towards detailed understanding rather than working the other way round. Reading is a constant process of guessing, and what one brings to the text is often more important than what one finds in it.

When you read a paragraph, or let us say, when you skim through a paragraph, what will be your immediate task? You are certain to find difficult words and sentences in the passage. But we shall take care of that at a later stage. First, your task will be to identify the topic sentences of the text. Every paragraph has a topic sentence which usually contains one central idea and enough particulars to put the idea across.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 2: Read the text given below -

There are three kinds of book owner. The first has all the standard sets and best sellers -unread, untouched. (This deluded individual owns woodpulp and ink, not books.) The second has a great many books - a few of them read through, most of them dipped into, but all of them as clean and shiny as the day they were bought. (This person would probably like to make books his own, but is restrained by a false respect for their physical appearance.) The third has a few books or many - every one of them dog-eared and dilapidated, shaken and loosened by continual use, marked and scribbled in from front to back. (This man owns books.)

- Mortimer J. Adler, "How to Mark a Book"

14.5 SCANNING A PIECE OF TEXT

While reading the passage globally, the first thing that you did was to identify the central controlling idea of the passage. The next step for you would be to move on to explore the way by which the central controlling idea is developed. The cohesive devices used in the passage will help you to explore this.

Cohesive devices are linkers that find a piece of text together. Just as one word in a sentence leads to another, one sentence in the text ought naturally to lead to another. The cohesive devices as linkers help in the process of linking up the sentences to bind them together to form a unified piece of text. These cohesive devices can be covert or overt.

(a) Covert cohesive devices are usually reference features. For example, a pronoun in a subsequent sentence may refer back to the concerned noun in the proceeding sentence and thereby establish connectivity between the sentences.

(b) Overt cohesive devices are usually the following -

(i) additives: and, or, further more, similarly, firstly, secondly etc.

(ii) adversatives: but, however, on the other hand etc.

(iii) causal: so, consequently, for this reason etc.

(iv) temperal: then, after that, an hour later, finally, at last etc.

Look at the paragraph in Check Your Progress-Q2 once again and try to find out the main points that are contained in the central controlling ideas.

When you scan the passage for specific details, you will perhaps be able to form a mental image on the paragraph which would appear as follows

Whole Part

Kinds of book owner non-readers

partly-reader reader

With this visual image, it will be possible for you to make the following notes on the passage -

I. Three kinds of book owners -

1. Has all the standard sets and best sellers

2. Has great many books - a few of them read
3. Has a few books or many - each one of them bears signs of being thoroughly read.

Note how the numbering is done :

- The major point or division is given in large Roman numbers I, II, III etc.
- The main points are given as 1, 2, 3 etc.
- Sub-points are given as a, b, c etc.
- To break up sub points still further, we use (i), (ii), (iii) etc.
- If major themes are to be identified in a passage - between I and 1, we can use capital letter indicators A, B, C etc.

14.6 FORMAT OF NOTE MAKING

Here we shall look at some of the major points that require attention in the task of note making.

(a) If you are reading a long text, an essay for example, your first task will be to chunk into meaningful parts. It is possible that the text may begin with an introduction and end with a conclusion. In between, there may be two or three points in which the thematic concerns are taken care of. For each major division supply suitable headings and give large Roman numbers I, II, III etc.

(b) For each heading and sub-heading, it is not necessary to use complete sentences. First you identify the topic sentence of each chunk or section and condense the information into brief, clear and crisp words and phrases. Thus the topic sentence : 'There are three kinds of book owners' can be condensed to the words 'book owners' as shown in the Check Your Progress-Q1 example.

(c) Omit illustrations and examples if you think that they are not important. In the passage cited at (b) above, it is possible to draw out illustrations and examples. For example, the information about the non-reader includes the following illustration : "This deluded individual owns wood pulp and ink, not books." But we omit this information in our notes.

(d) Organise the condensed information in a suitable format. Depending

on the concepts of the passage/ article/ essay, choose a suitable format. A neat format is the one used for the Mortimer Adler passage.

Let us take another passage and carry out the exercise of note making. Read the passage given below -

Women in our society complain of the lack of stimulation, of the loneliness, of the dullness of staying at home. Little babies are poor conversationalists, husbands come home tired and sit reading the paper, and women who used to pride themselves on their ability to talk find on the rare evening they can go out that their words clot on their tongues. As the children go to school, the mother is left to the companionship of the fridge and the washing machine. Yet she can't go out because the delivery man might come, or a child might be sent home sick from school. The boredom of long hours of solitary one sided communication with things, no matter how shining and streamlined and new, descends upon her. Moreover, the conditions of modern life, apartment living, and especially the enormous amount of moving about, all serve to rob women of neighborhood ties. The better her electric equipment, the better she organises her ordering, the less reason she has to run out for a bit of gossipy shopping at the corner store. The department stores and the moving picture houses cater to women alone on their few hours out. Meanwhile efficient mending services and cheap ready made clothes have taken most sensible busy work out of women's hands and left women -still at home- listening to the radio, watching television.

-Margaret Mead, "What Women Want"

You will find that the passage has a very clear structure. We will come to that later.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 3: Read Margaret Mead's passage and identify the topic sentence. It is obvious that the first sentence is the topic sentence.

"Women in our society complain of the lack of stimulation, of loneliness, of the dullness of staying at home." Now, in order to

make a heading of the passage, you have to condense that sentence into a phrase. Which of the phrase appears more appropriate for the passage?

1. Women in our society.
2. Lack of stimulation.
3. The dullness of staying at home

Ans._____

_____

Why did you choose the phrase "the dullness of staying at home?" The passage begins with the generalisation that women experience the dullness of staying at home. Before you read the passage beyond the first sentence, you mentally prepare yourself for the possible reasons for this experience of dullness. The passage gives five adequate reasons, with details, to support the view that the home is dull.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 4: From Margaret Mead's passage the following five reasons are given to support the view that the home is dull. Read each reason and condense the information to a sub-point to support the main point.

1. Little babies are poor conversationalists, the husbands are too tired to talk.

   .....

   .....

   .....

2. As the children go to school, the mother is left to the companionship of the fridge and the washing machine.

   .....

   .....

   .....

3. Living in apartment, and the enormous amount of moving about robs her of neighborhood ties.

   .....

   .....

   .....

4. Surrounded by the modern appliances, she has less reason to go out for gossips.

   .....

   .....

   .....

5. Efficient mending services has eliminated sensible busy work out of women's hands.

   .....

   .....

   .....

Let us now represent the information of the passage in a flow diagram as follows -

Generalisation	Reasons
Women's dullness of staying at home	Lack of interesting conversation
	Lack of companionship
	Lack of neighborhood ties
	Need to go out eliminated by modern appliances
	Sensible busy work eliminated by efficient service

With this visual, we are now in a position to work out the note making of the passage from Margaret Mead.

Note : Women's boredom

I. Women's boredom of staying at home

   1) Lack of interesting conversation

      (a) Babies are poor conversationalists

      (b) Husbands too tired to talk

2) Lack of companionship
   (a) Only company - the fridge and the washing machine
   (b) Tied to home - delivery man, child sent home early
3) Lack of neighourhood ties
   (a) Too much work at home
4) Need to go out eliminated by modern appliances.
5) Sensible busy work eliminated by efficient service
   (a) Listening radio
   (b) TV

However, it is possible to use symbols and abbreviations wherever possible. You can use abbreviations in common use; you can make your own abbreviations.

(i) Standard abbreviations include KKHSOU, GU, DU, AHSEC, SEBA, ASEB, ASTC, Rly, AIR, DD

(ii) Create your abbreviations - ME for Minister of Edn. AS for Assam Secretariat, etc.

(iii) Clipping longer words - govt., dept., engr., res., sub. (subject), exam., fig. (figure), etc.

The following are some of the common standard symbols generally used

	approximately
w	with
...	because
∴	therefore
/	or
+	positive
-	negative
=	equal to
≠	not equal to
||	parallel
|||	similar
c	it follows that
esp	especially

> more than
< less than
ff following
cf compare
* most important
resulting in
$\Rightarrow$ as a result of
Δ change

14.7 SAMPLES OF NOTE MAKING

In this section we shall look at two samples of note making by using texts which are not linear as we have found in Martimer Alder's and Margaret Mead's passages.

Sample-1: The Passage

The human brain is spherical like a ball. It is divided into two halves called the two hemispheres. The right hemisphere controls the working of the left side of the body, while the left hemisphere controls the right side. Furthermore, each hemisphere controls certain kinds of mental activity. In most people, reasoning or logical thinking and the learning of mathematics and languages are controlled by the left hemisphere while the abilities in the arts and crafts and in music, dance and spent are controlled by the right hemisphere.

Notes : Human Brain-2 Hemispheres

I. Left Hemisphere controls.
   1. right side
   2. reasoning
   3. log. thinking
   4. training of
      (a) maths
      (b) languages

II. Right Hemisphere controls
   1. Left side
   2. Abilities in

(a) fine arts

(b) crafts

(c) sports

Sample-2: The passage

With the HSLC/ AHM examination being over, now in the time for students to make plans for their future course of studies and to take positive decisions on the aims that they would like to pursue in life. At this stage of their lives it is obvious that they would be receiving abundance of advice from guardians and neighbours, teachers and well-wishers on what to study and where to study. It is all very good to be provided with such inputs on one's career. However, what is of greater importance is that more than anyone else, it is the student who must have a clear understanding of himself/ herself, his/ her aptitudes and abilities, interests and limitations, resources and facilities. The student should understand that a particular course of studies may be suitable for him/ her or may not be within his/ her easy grasp. Wrong choice of a course due to parental pressure and wrong role-models, often lands many a student in a mess.

Secondly, the student should have clear knowledge of the requirements and opportunities and prospects in different courses of studies. Unemployment is a serious problem of our country. But more serious is the fact that millions of unemployed people are coming out of various institutions every year, people who could have made themselves more useful had they chosen a field of study more suited to their competence. There are enormous numbers of young men and women who lack the attitudes, skills or personal goals that constitute employability.

India is a vibrant country with enormous developmental strides being taken at all fronts. This fact implies that India is constantly in need for a vibrant work force in order to meet her emerging needs. As the future leaders in these diverse fields of work, the students should be able to equip themselves with the skills and techniques that would make them employable in one field or the other. Today's students have much more educational and career avenues open to them than their counterparts a decade or so ago. They can see a growing linkage between education and work with lots of

institutions opening the doors for what is known as campus interviews. What is necessary on the part of each student in whatever institution he or she studies is the willingness to seriously pursue a field of study and put some extra dedication to one's work at hand and not leave everything to luck and chance.

Notes : Choosing a career

I. HSLC/ AHM exams over
   1. make plans - aims in life
   2. advice from guardians etc. on career
   3. student's clear understanding necessary of
      (a) abilities
      (b) aptitudes

II. Prospects available
   1. Unemployment
   2. Unemployability
      (a) lack attitudes
      (b) lack skills needed

III. India, a vibrant country
   1. need for vibrant work force
   2. future leaders - need to equip themselves
   3. willingness to pursue goal.



14.8 FURTHER READING

1) Brown, Harry M (1997). *The Contemporary College Writer.* New York : D. Van Nostrand Company.

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14.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Ans to Q No 1:

(a) listening (b) reading

(c) listen (d) read

Ans to Q No 2: "There are three kinds of book owners."

Ans to Q No 3: "The dullness of staying at home."

Ans to Q No 4:

1. lack of good conversation
2. lack of company
3. lack of neighbourly ties
4. modern appliances prevent going out
5. efficient services eliminate sensible busy work.

14.10 MODEL QUESTIONS

Q. 1. Read the following passages and make notes:

Passage-1

It is undoubtedly very heartening for the people of Assam that the state Government had chosen the occasion of the 82nd birthday to confer upon celebrated singer and musician and Dada Saheb Phalke Award winner, Dr. Bhupen Hazarika the first Assam Ratna award. The award announced as a "birthday gift" from the people of Assam was given in recognition of Dr. Hazarika's immense contribution to the socio-cultural life of the State through his creations spanning over more than half a century.

At the age of 82, Dr. Hazarika took the occasion to share his thoughts with his millions of admirers in the state telling them that "he was feeling younger each day though the doctors do not agree". True, at this age one can hardly be in the best of health. But it is equally true that he will remain forever as the best among the best, an inexhaustible source of the richness

of life for generations to come. On the occasion of his birthday, his message to the people of Assam is of great significance. "I want peace everywhere in the world. I want Assam to prosper. If there is peace, the rest of the good things will follow."

In his songs Dr. Hazarika pours out his soul for the cause of peace. He becomes in the songs at once the humble hutment dweller tending to the embers of a husk fire, he becomes at other times, the spar itself, igniting a people in stupor with electrifying energy. Cutting across the bonds of high and low, rich and poor, young and old alike, Dr. Hazarika sings tirelessly with gushes of various types of emotions making one to laugh and to cry, to rejoice and to despair and yet, long after the music ceases, it continues to echo in our hearts. Through the magic of his songs, he invites each one of us to be aware of the fact that we are indeed in the same boat; we are brothers that know not that we are truly brothers.

Passage-2

Several State Governments including Assam have adopted the Non-detention Policy (NDP) at the lower and upper primary stages of education. The Policy implies that students are to be promoted to the next higher class without detention. The immediate positive result of this Policy is that it has been able to check the alarming drop out rates at these stages of education to a considerable extent considering that failure in annual examination was seen to be a major factor of school drop-outs. However, the issue concerning the achievement levels of students under NDP vis-a-vis those under non NDP remains an interesting field of study.

A recent NCERT study comparing the achievement levels of class V students in the states where the NDP is implemented vis-a-vis students of the states where the NDP is not implemented showed interesting finding. The objective of the study was restricted to knowing the achievement levels of students in Language and Mathematics in class V. For achieving the objectives of the study and finding answers to the questions, a multi-stage sampling design was used. From each region one state was identified and from each state one district was selected from where two rural blocks and one urban area were randomly identified. It was found that.

- Students studying where NDP is in practice performed better in Mathematics than their counterparts studying in the States where detention policy is followed.
- The performance of students studying in the States where NDP is being followed was better in language than their counterparts studying in States following detention policy.

The study is of value of us because it throws light on several important issues. It has been recommended that there is the need for thorough re-look into the entire stages of school education vis-a-vis NDP. There is also the need for establishing a mechanism which should regularly maintain that implementation of the policy. To improve the achievement levels of the students it was recommended that diagnostic and remedial teaching should become an integral part of the teaching learning process. Considering that these mechanisms have been strengthened, can we think of implementing the NDP up to class IX in our state?

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UNIT 15 : STORY WRITING

UNIT STRUCTURE

15.1 Learning Objectives

15.2 Introduction to Story Writing

15.3 Technique of Story Writing

15.4 Samples of Stories

15.5 Let us Sum up

15.6 Further Reading

15.7 Answers to Check Your Progress

15.8 Model Questions

15.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit you will be able to:

- define the importance of story writing
- grasp the skills involved in writing stories
- employ the techniques of story writing.

15.2 INTRODUCTION TO STORY WRITING

A story is a narrative of an incident drawn from one situation. Hudson observed that a story may be little more than an anecdote working up into literary form. The success of a story depends on how it is narrated.

15.3 TECHNIQUE OF STORY WRITING

One of the common techniques used in telling a story is to make use of narration without explicit comment or interpretation. We often make use of narration in telling others about the actual events that had happened. A piece of narration can be a simple narration or an expository narration.

(a) Simple narration: If we just relate the event without interpreting it, we are using simple narration.

(b) Expository narration: If we see the event as making some point, such as illustrating some principle of life or telling us something about

people, we are using an expository narration. Stories make use of expository narration.

15.4 SAMPLES OF STORIES

Now read the following extract:

1. Just at that turning between Market Road and the lane leading to the chemist's shop he had his establishment. If anyone doesn't like the word 'establishment', he is welcome to say so, because it was actually something of a vision spun out of air. At eight you would not see him and again at ten you would see nothing; between eight and ten he arrived, sold his goods and departed.
2. Those who saw him thus remarked: "Lucky fellow! He had hardly an hour's work a day and he pockets ten rupees… what graduates are unable to earn! Three hundred rupees a month!" He felt irritated when he heard such glib remarks and said, "What these folk do not see is that I sit before the oven practically all day frying all this stuff…"
3. He got up when the cock in the next house crowed; sometimes it had a habit of waking up at three in the morning and letting out a shriek. "Why has the cock lost its normal sleep?" Rama wondered as he awoke, but it was a signal he could not miss. Whether it was three o'clock or four, it was all the same to him. He had to get up and start his day.

("The Martyr's Corner" : R.K. Narayan)

The major portion of the three paragraphs is narration of the life of Rama. Note how informal the style is; it seems as if the author is trying to narrate to you an account of Rama's life, the kind of work he did for a living and the attitudes of other people towards his business. You will see how the author uses vivid details to bring the scene to life.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 1: Here is the outline of a story :

An old former had four sons - all good for nothing - the farmer very anxious about them - the farmer on his death bed

- summons his sons - tells them that a huge treasure lies buried in the long neglected fields - then dies - the sons start work in the fields - dig hard - rains come - sow seeds - a rich harvest - got the desired treasure.

Write a beginning for the story narrating the life of the old farmer (you may give a name to the old man) giving an account of the persons' life and the way of life of his four sons. You don't have to complete the story here.

Another technique used in writing a story is to make use of descriptions. Description brings a scene to life: an object, a landscape or scene, a building, a person or anything else perceivable. Used to put the reader "on the scene", effective description has two basic principles:

1. Using many concrete details so that the reader can visualise the description.
2. Selecting the important details and arranging them so as to create a cumulative impression.

For instance, if you wished to describe a person from an outward perspective only you would give details of the person's dress, build, facial expression, movement and so on. Read the following beginning of a story by Maupassant:

(1) "Along all the roads around Goderville the peasants and their wives were coming towards the town because it was market day. The men were proceeding with slow steps, the whole body bent forward at each movement of their long twisted legs, deformed by their hard work, by the weight on the plough which, at the same time, raised the left shoulder and swerved the figure, by the reaping of the wheat which made the knees spread in order to hold the wheat firmly, by the slow and painful labours of the country. Their blue blouses, ornamented with a little design in white at the neck and wrists, puffed about their bony bodies, seemed like balloons ready to carry them off. From each of them a head, two arms and two legs protruded."

(2) "Some led a cow or a calf by a cord, and their wives, walking behind the animal, whipped its haunches with a leafy branch to hasten its

progress. They carried large baskets on their arms from which chickens and ducks thrust out their heads. And they walked with a quicker and livelier step than their husbands. Their spare straight figures were wrapped in a scanty little shawl, pinned over their flat bosoms, and their heads were enveloped in a white cloth glued to the hair and surmounted by a cop."

("A Piece of String": Maupassant)

On the other hand, you might want to describe what person is essentially, in which case you would refer to qualities of the person's personality, such as intelligence, courage, arrogance, honesty, nervousness and the like. You would use outward details such as mesmerisms, action, relationships and speech, as evidence of his internal traits. You might wish to concentrate on his dominant feature or describe several complementary features.

Read the following beginning of a story:

"My aunt will be down presently, Mr.Nuttel," said a very self possessed young lady of fifteen, "in the mean time you must try and put up with me".

Framton Nuttel endeavoured to say that correct something which should duly flatter the niece of the moment without unduly discounting the aunt that was to come. Privately he doubted more than ever whether these formal visits on a succession of total strangers would do much towards helping the nerve cure which he was supposed to be undergoing.

"I know how it will be," his sister had said when he was preparing to migrate to this rural retreat; "you will bury yourself down there and not speak to a living soul, and your nerves will be worse than ever from moping. I shall just give you letter of introduction to all the people I know there.Some of them, as far as I can remember, were quite nice."

Framton wondered whether Mrs.Sappleton, the lady to whom he was presenting one of the letters of introduction, came into the nice division.

"Do you know many of the people round here?" asked the niece, when she judged that they had sufficient silent communion.

"Hardly, a soul", said Framton. "My sister was staying here, at the rectory, you know; some four years ago, and she gave me letters of

introduction to some of the people here."

He made the last statement in a tone of distinct regret.

("The Open Window": Saki)



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 2: Answer the following:

(i) The above extract from Saki's story contains a description of two persons. They are:

(a) .....

(b) .....

(ii) What aspect of the young man's character is highlighted by the author?

(iii) What aspect of the lady's character is focused here?

In the extract, many concrete details are used to describe the young man. These details help you to form your views about the person's character.

Now, let us look at the description of a scene as observed by a lady from a hotel window in Italy.

"There were only two Americans stopping at the hotel. They did not know any of the people they passed on the stairs on their way to and from their room. Their room was on the second floor facing the sea. It also faced the public garden and the war monument. There were big palms and green benches in the public garden. In the good weather there was always an artist with his easel. Artists liked the way the palms grew and the bright colours of the hotels facing the gardens and the sea. Italians came from a long way off to look up at the war monument. It was made of bronze and glistened in the rain. It was raining. The rain dripped from the palm trees. Water stood in pools on the gravel paths. The sea broke in a long line in the rain and slipped back down the beach to come up and break again in a long line in the rain. The motor cars were gone from the square by the war monument. Across the square in the doorway of the cafe a waiter stood looking out at the empty square.

The American wife stood at the window looking out. Outside right under their window a cat was crouched under one of the dripping green

tables. The cat was trying to make herself so compact that she would not be dripped on.

("Cat in the Rain": Hemingway)



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 3: (The beginning of a story may have as many variations as there are writers. Read the following beginning of a story and rewrite it in your own language)

A farmer named Ramu lived with his wife and four sons in a small village. Ramu was not keeping well for some time. A hard working man, he had his own paddy field that provides him and his family a modes way of life. But this illness of his was rather disturbing to him. Lying on his bed, he reflected on the condition of his family if he happened to remain bed-ridden. This year his fields had remained uncultivated. With four lazy sons in the family, Ramu wondered what the future had for him.



15.5 LET US SUM UP

After having gone through the unit, the learner will be able to discuss the skill of story writing and the various techniques employed in story writing. The aspects of story writing as discussed in the unit will encourage the learners to further develop and hone their story writing skills which is also much to do with creative writing. Moreover, the samples of stories will be helpful for the learner to gain a fair idea on the nuances and important aspects of narration of stories.



15.6 FURTHER READING

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15.7 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Ans to Q No 1: (The learner is to write story according to the given outline.)

Ans to Q No 2:

(i) (a) The niece of Mrs.Sappleton, (b) Mr.Framton Nuttle

(ii) He suffers form a nerve disorder

(iii) Self possessed

Ans to Q No 3: (To try on your own.)



15.8 MODEL QUESTIONS

Q.1. Develop each of following outlines into the form of complete stories:

a) A school boy one evening Dilip finds that his neighbour's house has caught fire - rings up fire brigade - wastes no time - fits a hose pipe in their water pump and fights fire alone - saves the old lady and her daughter - by the time fire brigade arrives - fire under control - bravery award.

b) Three school boys run off to the nearby river for a swim - the strong current carries away one of the boys - the other two shout for help - a fisherman leaps into the water - the boy saved - fisherman refuses reward from the father of the rescued boy.

c) An English sailor taken prisoner by Napoleon's soldiers on the coast of Bonlogue - the sailor tried to cross the English Channel in a barrel - brought to Napoleon - sailor explained that he longed to see his mother - Napoleon sent him to England in a ship with a flag of truce.

d) A grandmother celebrates the birthday of her 4 year old grandson who is far away in America with his parents - host of guests and relatives arrive - merriment - grandson rings up with his father - grandmother greets happy birthday - guests depart - grandmother breaks down in loneliness.

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