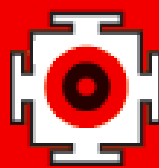
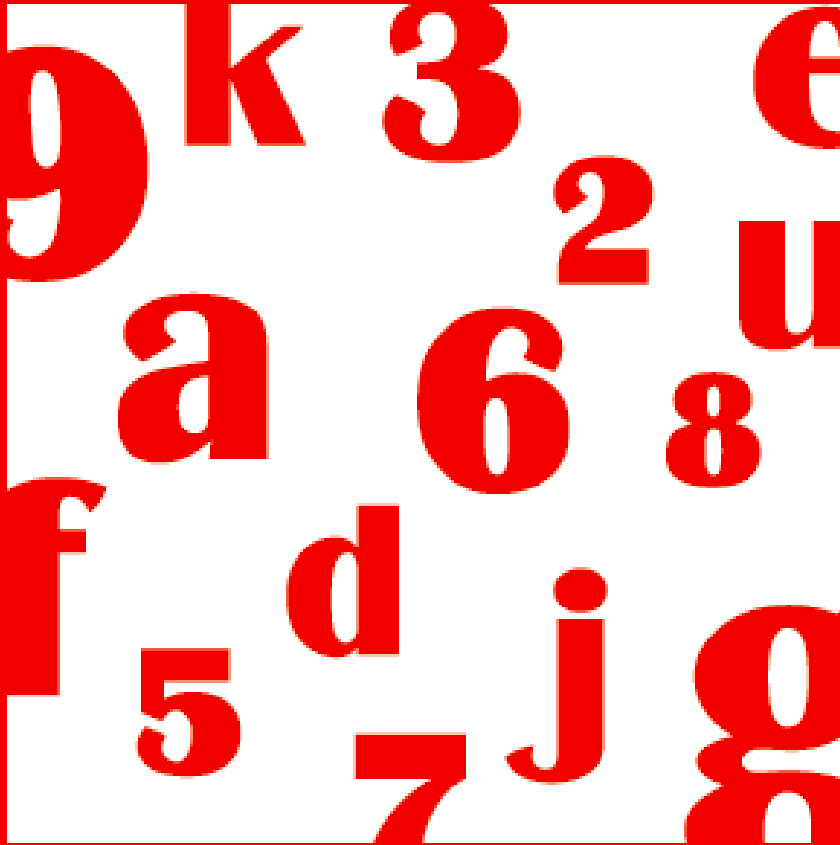


# GRAMMAR



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Published in India by



[www.takshzila.com](http://www.takshzila.com)

MRP: Rs. 350

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# Parts of Speech

There are 8 parts of speech:

1. **Noun**            A word used to name something.
2. **Pronoun**        A word used to replace a noun.
3. **Adjective**      A word that qualifies (describes) a noun
4. **Verb**            A word (of group) of words used to denote actions, states or happenings.
5. **Adverb**         A word used to modify a verb, an adjective or another adverb.
6. **Conjunction**   A word used to connect one part of a sentence to another.
7. **Interjection**   A word used to express mood or reaction.
8. **Preposition**   A word placed before another word to locate the latter in time and space

Each **part of speech** explains not what the word is, but how the word is used. In fact, the same word can be a noun in one sentence and a verb or adjective in the next. The next few examples show how a word's part of speech can change from one sentence to the next:

**Books** are made of ink, paper and glue.

(In this sentence, "books" is a noun, the subject of the sentence.)

Sneha waits patiently while Seema **books** the tickets.

(Here "books" is a verb, and its subject is "Seema.")

We **walk** down the street.

(In this sentence, "walk" is a verb, and its subject is the pronoun "we".)

The mail carrier stood on the **walk**.

(In this example, "walk" is a noun, which is part of a prepositional phrase describing where the mail carrier stood.)

The town decided to build a new **jail**.

(Here "jail" is a noun, which is the object of the infinitive phrase "to build.")

The cop told us that if we did not leave town immediately he would **jail** us.

(Here "jail" is part of the compound verb "would jail.")

They heard high pitched **cries** in the middle of the night.

(In this sentence, “cries” is a noun acting as the direct object of the verb “heard.”)

The baby **cries** all night long and all day long.

(But here “cries” is a verb that describes the actions of the subject of the sentence, the baby.)

## 1.1 Noun

A **noun** is the name of a person, place, animal, thing or idea. Anything that exists, we assume, can be named, and that name is a noun.

A **proper noun**, which names a specific person, place or thing (Rahul, Queen Elizabeth, Middle East, Delhi, Malaysia, Sanskrit, God, Hinduism, Buddhism, the Congress Party), is almost always capitalized.

**Common nouns** are the general terms/names we use to refer to one of a class of a person, place, or thing (boy, tiger, flower); things that usually are not capitalized.

A **noun clause** is a group of words containing a subject and a verb and acts as a noun. Thus it can do anything that a noun can do:

That he freed humans from slavery is one of his greatest achievements.

A **noun phrase** can be a noun or pronoun alone, but is frequently a noun or pronoun with pre- and/or post-modification:

the name      an odd name      the name of the game      the name he gave

### 1.1.a Categories of Nouns

Nouns can be classified further as:

**Countable nouns**, which name anything that can be counted (six boys, seven continents, a few oranges, a dozen buildings);

**Uncountable nouns**, which name something that can't be counted (water, air, information, furniture);

We use uncountable nouns to talk about things we think of as a mass, rather than countable individual things. We use them with singular verbs.

It may not be immediately obvious whether nouns are countable or uncountable, and some uncountable nouns in English are countable in other languages.

Quick tip:

Never try to translate English into your own mother tongue and then work out the solution

**Collective nouns**, nouns that refer to a group of individual people or animals, and which in the singular can take either a singular or plural verb:

*army, audience, committee, family, herd, majority, parliament etc.*

The choice of singular or plural verb—and corresponding pronouns and determiners—depends on whether the group is considered as a single unit or a collection of individuals, e.g.:

The audience, *which was* a large one, *was* in *its* place by 7 pm

The audience, *who were* all waving *their* arms above *their* heads, *were* clearly enjoying *themselves*

The use of a plural verb with a grammatically singular noun of this type is common in British English than in American. But even when followed by a plural verb, such a noun still takes a singular determiner e.g. *This family are all accomplished musicians.*

Then there are **abstract nouns**, used mainly of nouns that denote an action, idea, quality or state: *love, warmth, fun, luck*. Your five senses cannot detect this group of nouns: you cannot see them, cannot hear them, cannot smell them, cannot taste them, and cannot feel them.

A little into the details:

## Countable Nouns

Countable nouns refer to things that we can count. Such nouns can take either singular or plural form.

Concrete nouns may be countable.

There are a dozen *mangoes* in the basket.

He ate *an apple* for a snack.

Collective nouns are countable.

She attended three *classes* today.

London is home to several *orchestras*.

Some proper nouns are countable.

There are many *Iraqis* living in Pune.

The *Ambanis* would throw lavish parties at their Manali summer mansion.



## Uncountable Nouns

Uncountable nouns refer to things that we cannot count. Such nouns take only singular form.

Quick tip:

Uncountable nouns don't have a plural form and can't be preceded with an "a" or an "an"

Abstract nouns are, usually, uncountable.

His *love* for books is admirable.

Her *intelligence* is boundless.

Some concrete nouns, when understood as a unit, are uncountable.

*Oil* is the reason of most wars today.

*Rice* is the staple diet of Asians.

Sometimes uncountable nouns take plural form – this is when they are used in a countable sense. The difference between the uncountable and countable meanings of nouns that are used in either sense can be seen in the following chart:

Uncountable Sense	Countable sense
<b>Art</b> is sometimes very shallow.	The folk <b>arts</b> of Indian states.
<b>Life</b> is amazing.	I wish I had many <b>lives</b> .
<b>Pizza</b> is bad for health.	How many <b>pizzas</b> should we eat?
<b>Religion</b> has been the cause of many a war.	India is home to many <b>religions</b> .
She has beautiful <b>skin</b> .	Trading in animal <b>skins</b> is illegal.
<b>Coffee</b> causes insomnia	Get us two <b>coffees</b> .
<b>Paper</b> should not be wasted.	Where are my <b>papers</b> ?

The Maths teacher [subject] is good.

He went to the Maths teacher [object].

The Maths teacher's [possessive] cell-phone is nice.

Nouns in the subject and object role are identical in form; nouns that show the possessive, however, take a different form.

## Possessive Nouns

In grammar, *possession* shows ownership. These are the rules to create possessive nouns:

1. With singular nouns, add an apostrophe and an *s*.

cat → cat's tail                      witch → witch's magic

2. With plural nouns ending in *s*, add an apostrophe after the *s*.

cats → cats' tails                      witches → witches' voices

3. With plural nouns not ending in *s*, add an apostrophe and an *s*.

men → men's cell phones      mice → mice's tails

## Plural Nouns

Almost all nouns change form when they become **plural**, usually with the simple addition of an *-s* or *-es*. Unfortunately this is not always the case.

Here are the guidelines for creating plural nouns.

1. Add *s* to form the plural of most nouns.

cat → cats                                  table → tables

2. Add *es* if the noun ends in *s*, *sh*, *ch*, or *x*.

wish → wishes                      witch → witches                      fox → foxes

3. If a noun ends in consonant plus *-y*, change the *y* to *i* and add *es*.

city → cities                              lady → ladies

4. If a noun ends in vowel plus *-y*, add *s*. Words ending in *-quy* don't follow this rule (as in *soliloquies*).

essay → essays                      monkey → monkeys

## 1.2. Pronoun

A **pronoun** replaces a noun or another pronoun. You use pronouns like “he,” “which,” “none,” and “you” to avoid repetition. A pronoun gets its meaning from the noun it stands for. The noun is called the *antecedent*.

Although *Mumbai* is humid, *it* is my favorite city.  
                                     antecedent           pronoun

There are different kinds of pronouns. Most of them have antecedents, but a few do not.

Pronouns can be classified into several types, including the personal pronoun, the demonstrative pronoun, the interrogative pronoun, the indefinite pronoun, the relative pronoun, the reflexive pronoun, and the intensive pronoun.

### 1.2.a. Personal Pronouns

A **personal pronoun** refers to a specific person or thing and changes its form to indicate person, number, gender, and caste.

	Singular	Plural
First person	I, me, mine, my	we, us, our, ours
Second person	you, your, yours	you, your, yours
Third person	he, him, his, she, her, hers it	they, them, their, theirs, its

#### Quick Tip:

Dont confuse personal pronouns with contractions. Personal pronouns never have an apostrophe, while contractions always have an apostrophe. Use this chart:

Pronoun	Contraction
yours	you're (you are)
its	it's (it is)
their	they're (they are)
whose	who's (who is)

### 1.2.b. Possessive Pronouns

A **possessive pronoun** indicates that the pronoun is acting as a marker of possession and defines who owns a particular object or person. It shows a sense of belonging. The **possessive personal pronouns** are “mine,” “yours,” “hers,” “his,” “its,” “ours,” and “theirs.” Note that possessive personal pronouns are very similar to possessive adjectives like “my,” “her,” and “their.”



In each of the following sentences, the highlighted word is a possessive personal pronoun:

The Xbox is **mine**.

(Here the possessive pronoun “mine” functions as a subject complement.)

**This** is yours.

(Here too the possessive pronoun “yours” functions as a subject complement.)

**His** is on the kitchen counter.

(In this example, the possessive pronoun “his” acts as the subject of the sentence.)

**Theirs** will be delivered tomorrow.

(In this sentence, the possessive pronoun “theirs” is the subject of the sentence.)

**Ours** is the green one on the corner.

(Here too the possessive pronoun “ours” function as the subject of the sentence.)

### 1.2.c. Demonstrative Pronouns

A **demonstrative pronoun** points to and identifies a noun or a pronoun. “This” and “these” refer to things that are nearby either in space or in time, while “that” and “those” refer to things that are farther away in space or time.

The demonstrative pronouns are “this,” “that,” “these,” and “those.” “This” and “that” refer to singular nouns or noun phrases and “these” and “those” refer to plural nouns and noun phrases. Note that the demonstrative pronouns are identical to demonstrative adjectives, though, obviously, you use them differently. Also that “that” can also be used as a relative pronoun.

In the following sentences, each of the highlighted words is a demonstrative pronoun:

**This** must not happen.

Here “this” is used as the subject of the compound verb “must not happen.”

**This** is Bunny; **that** is the dog that bit me.

In this example “this” is used as subject and refers to something close to the speaker. The demonstrative pronoun “that” is also a subject but refers to something farther away from the speaker.

### 1.2.d. Interrogative Pronouns

**Interrogative pronouns** are used to ask questions. The interrogative pronouns are “who,” “whom,” “which,” “what” and the compounds formed with the suffix “ever” (“whoever,” “whomever,” “whichever,” and “whatever”).

The highlighted word in each of the following sentences is an interrogative pronoun:

**Who** got the highest in the test?

“Who” is the subject of the sentence.

**Whom** do you think he has rewarded?

In this sentence, “whom” is the object of the verb “rewarded”.

To **whom** it may concern?

Here the interrogative pronoun “whom” is the object of the preposition “to”.

**Who** will do this for me?

In this sentence, the interrogative pronoun “who” is the subject of the compound verb “do this”.

**What** did she say?

Here the interrogative pronoun “what” is the direct object of the verb “say”.

#### Quick Tip:

Note that either “which” or “what” can also be used as an interrogative adjective, and that “who,” “whom,” or “which” can also be used as a relative pronoun.

### 1.2.e. Relative Pronouns

**Relative pronouns** begin a subordinate clause. There are five relative pronouns: that, which, who, whom, those.

Piyush claimed **that** he could run the entire marathon.

Ram was the person **who** helped Piyush after Piyush had collapsed.

### 1.2.f. Indefinite Pronouns

An **indefinite pronoun** is a pronoun referring to an identifiable but not specified person or thing. An indefinite pronoun conveys the idea of all, any, none, or some.

The most common indefinite pronouns are

all	another	any	anybody	anyone	anything
each	everybody	everyone	everything	few	many
nobody	none	one	several	some	somebody

someone.

Note that some indefinite pronouns can also be used as indefinite adjectives.

The highlighted words in the following sentences are indefinite pronouns:

**Many** were invited to the party but only six showed up.

Here “many” acts as the subject of the compound verb “were invited”.

The cops searched the house and **everything** was thrown onto the floor.

In this example, “everything” acts as a subject of the compound verb “was thrown”.

## 1.2.g. Reflexive Pronouns

You can use a **reflexive pronoun** to refer back to the subject of the clause or sentence. In other words when the subject and the object of a sentence are the same, the object takes the reflexive case.

Reflexive pronouns end in *self* and *selves*: “myself,” “yourself,” “herself,” “himself,” “itself,” “ourselves,” “yourselves,” and “themselves.”

People fool **themselves** all the time.

Rita hurt **herself** while cutting vegetables.

Sometimes I ask **myself** the reasons behind my choices.

Varun needs to force **himself** to do his homework.

We need to find **ourselves**.

## 1.2.h. Intensive/Emphatic Pronouns

An **intensive** or **emphatic** pronoun is a pronoun that just emphasises its antecedent. In other words it is not necessary for the meaning of the sentence. We can do without it. Intensive pronouns are identical in form to reflexive pronouns.

I **myself** cooked the food today.

Siddhartha **himself** said that he would pick up the kids.

They **themselves** are responsible for the mess.

In each of the above sentences, eliminating the intensive pronouns does not change or affect the meaning of the sentences. For e.g.:

I cooked the food today.

It does not alter the meaning of the first sentence above.

	Subjective	Possessive	Objective
<b>Nouns</b>			
Singular	Cat	Cat's	Cat
	Shweta	Shweta's	Shweta
Plural	Cats	Cats'	Cats
	witches	witches'	witches
<b>Personal Pronouns</b>			
Singular			
1st person	I	my, mine	me
2nd person	you	your, yours	you
3rd person	he, she, it	his, her, hers, its	him, her, it
Plural			
1st person	we	our, ours	us
2nd person	you	your, yours	you
3rd person	they	their, theirs	them
<b>Relative &amp; Interrogative pronouns</b>			
	who		whom
	whoever	whose	whoomever
	which/that/what		which/that/what
<b>Indefinite pronouns</b>			
	everybody	everybody's	everybody

### 1.3. Adjective

*Adjectives* are words that describe nouns and pronouns. Adjectives answer the questions:

*What kind? How much? Which one? How many?*

For example:

What kind?	<i>lovely</i> girl	<i>diamond</i> pearl
How much?	<i>more</i> freedom	<i>little</i> effort
Which one?	<i>third</i> time	<i>those</i> people
How many?	<i>several</i> chances	<i>five</i> oranges

There are five kinds of adjectives: *common adjectives*, *proper adjectives*, *compound adjectives*, *articles*, and *indefinite adjectives*.

1. *Common adjectives* describe nouns or pronouns.

*frail man* *yellow flower*

*beautiful scene*

2. *Proper adjectives* are formed from proper nouns.

*Italian* fruits (from the noun “Italy”)

*Punjabi* food (from the noun “Punjab”)

3. *Compound adjectives* are made up of more than one word.

*far-off* island

teenage boy

**Quick Tip:**

In grammar the word ‘compound’ refers to a word that consists either of two or more elements that are independent words

4. *Articles* are a special type of adjective. There are three articles: *a*, *an*, *the*.

*The* is called a “definite article” because it refers to a specific thing.

*A* and *an* are called “indefinite articles” because they refer to general things. Use *a* with consonant sounds; use *an* before vowel sounds.

5. *Indefinite adjectives* don’t specify the specific amount of something.

all	another	any	both	each	either
few	many	more	most	neither	other
several	some				

Important things to remember when you use adjectives:

1. Use an adjective to describe a noun or a pronoun.

Shreya was *reluctant* to leave *the* job.

noun          adj.          adj.          noun

2. Use vivid adjectives to make your writing more specific and descriptive.

Take a *larger* slice of the *luscious* cake.

adj.          noun          adj.          noun

3. Use an adjective after a linking verb. A linking verb connects a subject with a descriptive word. The most common linking verbs are *be* (*is*, *am*, *are*, *was*, *were*, and *so on*), *seem*, *appear*, *look*, *feel*, *smell*, *sound*, *taste*, *become*, *grow*, *remain*, *stay*, and *turn*.

Chicken made this way *tastes* more *delicious* (not *deliciously*).

The adjective that follows a linking verb is known as a predicative adjective.



## 1.4. Adverbs

*Adverbs* are words that describe verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. Adverbs answer the questions: *When?* *Where?* *How?* or *To what extent?*

When?	fell <i>yesterday</i>	start <i>now</i>
Where?	went <i>below</i>	move <i>up</i>
How?	<i>sadly</i> thought	danced <i>badly</i>
To what extent?	<i>partly</i> finished	eat <i>completely</i>

Most adverbs are formed by adding *-ly* to an adjective. For example:

<b>Adjective</b>	<b>Adverb</b>
quick	quickly
careful	carefully
accurate	accurately

Here are some of the most common non-*ly* adverbs:

afterward	almost	already	also back	even	far
fast	hard	here	how	late	long
low	more	near	never	next	now
often	quick	rather	slow	soon	still
then	today	tomorrow	too	when	where
yesterday					

**Quick Tip:**

Conjunctive adverbs are used to connect other words and to link ideas and paragraphs.

Accordingly	again	also	besides
Consequently	finally	for example	furthermore
However	indeed	moreover	on the other hand
otherwise	then	therefore	nevertheless

## 1.5. Verbs

*Verbs* are words used to denote an action or describe a state of being in a sentence.

**Every sentence must have a verb.** There are three basic types of verbs: *action verbs*, *linking verbs*, and *helping verbs*.

### 1.5.a. Action Verbs

**Action verbs** tell what the subject does. The action can be visible (*jump, kiss, laugh*) or mental (*think, learn, study*).

The baby *broke* the glass.

Priya *considered* going for shopping.

An action verb can be *transitive* or *intransitive*.

*Transitive verbs* need a direct object.

Mehul *likes* ice-cream.

Somya *gave* her dog food.

*Intransitive verbs* do not need a direct object.

Who *called*?

Rahul *fell* down.

#### Quick Tip:

To determine if a verb is transitive, ask yourself “Who?” or “What?” after the verb.

If you can find an answer in the sentence, the verb is transitive.

For example in the sentence above ask “likes what” and you will get the answer, “ice-cream”. So “likes” is a transitive verb.

### 1.5.b. Linking Verbs

**Linking verbs** join the subject and the predicate. They do not express action.

Instead, they connect the subject of the verb to additional information about the subject. The most common linking verbs include: *be, feel, grow, seem, smell, remain, appear, sound, stay, look, taste, turn, become*. Look for forms of *to be*, such as *am, are, is, was, were, am being, can be, have been*, and so on.

Sheela *was* not satisfied with her result.

He *is* going for a walk.

Many linking verbs can also be used as action verbs.

Linking: The kids *looked* excited.

Action: I *looked* for Reema in the fair.

**Quick Tip:**

To determine whether a verb is being used as a linking verb or an action verb, substitute am, are, or is for the verb. If it makes sense, the original verb is a linking verb.

### 1.5.c. Helping Verbs

**Helping verbs**, also known as “*auxiliary verbs*”, are added to another verb to make the meaning clearer. Helping verbs include any form of *to be, do, does, did, have, has, had, shall, should, will, would, can, could, may, might, must*. *Verb phrases* are made up of one main verb and one or more helping verbs.

She *has* finished her work.

They *still have not yet found* what they’re looking for.

## 1.6. Conjunctions

*Conjunctions* connect words or groups of words and show how the words are related. There are three kinds of conjunctions: *coordinating conjunctions, correlative conjunctions, and subordinating conjunctions*.

*Coordinating conjunctions* link similar words or word groups. There are seven coordinating conjunctions:

for and nor but or yet so

*Correlative conjunctions* also link similar words or word groups, but they are always used in pairs. The correlative conjunctions are:

both . . .and                      either . . . or                      neither . . . nor  
not only . . . but also            whether . . . or

*Subordinating conjunctions* link an independent clause (complete sentence) to a dependent clause (fragment). The most often used subordinating conjunctions are:

after	although	as	as if	as long as
as soon as	as though	because	before	even though
if	in order that	since	so that	though
till	unless	until	when	whenever
where	wherever			

## 1.7. Interjections

An **interjection** is a word added to a sentence to convey emotion. Since interjections are not linked grammatically to other words in the sentence, they are set off from the rest of the sentence with a comma or an exclamation mark. For example:

*Hey!* Don't do that.

*Wow!* What a fabulous apartment.

## 1.8. Prepositions

First of all a *preposition* is a “pre-position”. So it is usually (not always) placed before a noun or a pronoun. And it links this noun or a pronoun to another word in the sentence.

Some of the most common prepositions are:

about	above	across	after	against	along	amid
around	as	at	before	behind	below	beneath
beside	between	beyond	but	By	despite	down
during	except	for	from	in	inside	into
like	near	On	onto	of	off	opposite
out	outside	over	past	since	through	to
toward	under	underneath		until	upon	with

A noun or pronoun always follows a preposition – almost. This noun or pronoun is called the *object* of the preposition. A *prepositional phrase* is a preposition and its object. A prepositional phrase can be two or three words long.

under the wall

at home

However, prepositional phrases also can be much longer, depending on the length of the preposition and the number of words that describe the object of the preposition.

*near* the beautifully crafted furniture

*on account of* his nearly devilish attitude

## Exercise:

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State whether the following statements are True or False

1. A noun names a person, place, or thing.
2. Common nouns name any one of a class of person, place, or thing.
3. Proper nouns name a specific person, place, or thing. Proper nouns are never capitalized.
4. Plural nouns show ownership.
5. Verbs express action, condition, or state of being.
6. There are six basic types of verbs: action verbs, linking verbs, helping verbs, transitive verbs, intransitive verbs, and plural verbs.
7. Helping verbs are added to another verb to make the meaning clearer. Helping verbs include any form of *to be*.
8. Adjectives describe nouns and pronouns.
9. Never use an adjective after a linking verb.
10. Adverbs describe verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.
11. All adverbs are formed by adding *-ly* to an adjective.
12. Prepositions link a verb to another word.
13. A pronoun gets its meaning from the noun it stands for. The noun is called the antecedent.
14. Conjunctions connect words or groups of words.
15. Interjections express strong emotions and are usually set off with an exclamation mark (!).

Select the word that best completes each sentence.

1. Proper adjectives are formed from (common nouns, proper nouns).
2. The three articles are *a*, *an*, and (*the*, *then*).
3. *The* is called the (indefinite article, definite article).
4. (Predicate adjectives, Proper adjectives), which describe the subject of the sentence, are adjectives separated from the noun or pronoun by a linking verb.
5. (Interjections, Conjunctive adverbs) are used to connect other words and to link ideas and paragraphs.
6. There are (three, seven) different coordinating conjunctions.
7. Correlative conjunctions also link similar words or word groups, but they are always used (in pairs, one at a time).
8. Collective nouns (name groups, show ownership).
9. (I, Which) is a personal pronoun.
10. (Yours, Herself) is a possessive pronoun.
11. Intensive pronouns, unlike reflexive pronouns, (begin a subordinate clause, add emphasis).
12. (Interrogative pronouns, Indefinite pronouns) ask a question. They are: *what*, *which*, *who*, *whom*, *whose*.
13. Every sentence must have a noun and a (preposition, verb).
14. Action verbs can be visible and (mental, linking).
15. In the sentence “Prem dropped his cap,” the verb *dropped* is (transitive, intransitive).
16. In the sentence “Nita awoke early,” the verb *awoke* is (transitive, intransitive).
17. To determine if a verb is transitive, ask yourself (“Who?”/“What?”, “How many?”) after the verb.
18. (Helping verbs, Linking verbs) join the subject and the predicate and do not show action.
19. Helping verbs, which are added to another verb to make the meaning clearer, can include any form of (to be, to see).
20. In the sentence “I traded my pen for three butter toasts,” the word *butter* is a/n (noun, adjective).

Identify the part of speech for the underlined word.

1. The outside of the house needs painting.  
a) Noun            b) Adjective        c) Adverb            d) Preposition
2. You should paint the house without outside help.  
a) Noun            b) Adjective        c) Adverb            d) Preposition
3. Let's sit outside and work out a way to do it.  
a) Noun            b) Adjective        c) Adverb            d) Preposition
4. The car is parked right outside the garden, next to the tree.  
a) Noun            b) Adjective        c) Adverb            d) Preposition
5. The politician repented of his past mistakes.  
a) Noun            b) Adjective        c) Adverb            d) Preposition
6. Turn right past the house with a huge banyan tree.  
a) Noun            b) Adjective        c) Adverb            d) Preposition
7. Did you watch that movie before?  
a) Conjunction    b) Adjective        c) Adverb            d) Preposition
8. Always follow through with what you start.  
a) Interjection    b) Conjunction    c) Adverb            d) Preposition
9. He went right through the glass wall, which he couldn't make out.  
a) Noun            b) Adjective        c) Conjunction    d) Preposition
10. The girl started dressing up after she watched the movie.  
a) Conjunction    b) Adjective        c) Adverb            d) Preposition

## 2. Phrases and Clauses

Before we get into phrases and clauses, we need to first understand a sentence.

### 2.1. What is a Sentence?

Sentence: Halt!

Sentence: You halt!

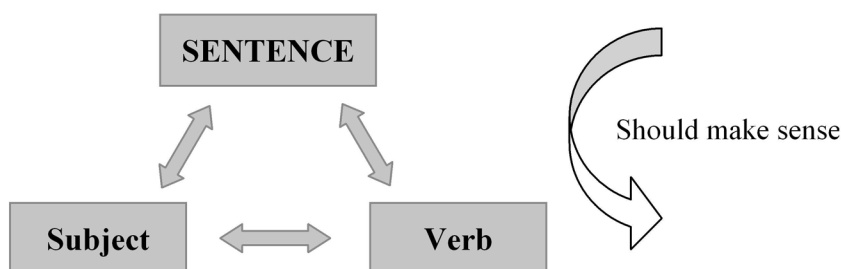
Sentence: Please halt right now, before you go any further.

Each of these three word groups is a sentence because they each meet the three requirements for a sentence. To be a sentence, a group of words must

Have a *subject* (noun or pronoun)

Have a *predicate* (verb or verb phrase)

Express a *complete thought*



A *sentence* has two parts: a *subject* and a *predicate*. The *subject* includes the noun or pronoun that tells what the subject is about. The *predicate* includes the verb that describes what the subject is doing.

You can also look at it this way:

Subject	Predicate
( <i>You</i> is understood but unstated)	Halt!
Freedom	is the most important thing.
A tiger	does not attack humans.
Several tourists	love to roam around in the Himalayas.
Some books	teach you a lot about life.



A *subject* is that performs the action in a sentence. It's the doer of the action.

An *object* is on what the action is performed. It's the receiver of the action.

Being able to recognize the subject and the verb in a sentence will help you make sure that your own sentences are complete and clear. To check that you've included the subject and verb in your sentences, follow these steps:

To find the subject, ask yourself, "What word is the sentence describing?"

To find an action verb, ask yourself, "What did the subject do?"

If you can't find an action verb, look for a linking verb.

#### Quick Tip

In a question, the verb often comes before the subject. For example: "Are you going for the party?" The verb is are; the subject is you.

### 2.1.a. The Four Different Sentence Functions

There are four sentence functions in English: *declarative*, *exclamatory*, *interrogative* and *imperative*.

1. *Declarative sentences* is the most important type. Declarative sentences simply state a fact or argument – an idea. They end with a period.

New Delhi is the capital of India.

The distinction between interests and hobbies eludes me.

He asked what was cooked for dinner.

2. *Exclamatory sentences*, or **exclamations**, are simply more forceful versions of declarative sentences, marked at the end with an exclamation mark. They convey strong emotions.

What a beautiful car!      The cook did it!      The glass is smashed!

3. *Interrogative sentences* ask a question. They end with a question mark.

Who would come with me to the ball?

How many roads must a man walk down?

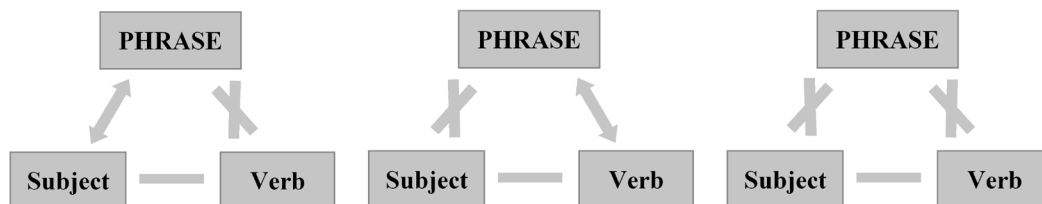
Would you please close the door?

4. *Imperative sentences* give a direct command to someone — this type of sentence can end either with a period or with an exclamation mark, depending on how forceful the command is mark. Imperative sentences often omit the subject, as in a command.

Sit!      Clean up your room!      Finish your homework.

## 2.2. Phrases

A **Phrase** is a part of a sentence that lacks either the subject or the verb or both; so it obviously doesn't make complete sense. A phrase cannot stand alone as a sentence, but is used in a sentence as a single part of speech.



A *phrase* is a group of words that functions in a sentence as *a single part of speech*. A phrase does not have a subject or a verb, so it cannot stand alone as an independent unit—it can function only as a part of speech. As you write, you use phrases to add detail by describing.

Phrases help you express yourself more clearly.

Type of Phrase	Definition	Examples
Prepositional	Begins with a preposition and ends with a noun or pronoun	<i>near the waterhole</i> <i>over the wall</i> <i>under the car</i>
Adjectival	Prepositional phrase that functions as an adjective	Shreya has a dress <i>with blue stripes</i> .
Adverbial	Prepositional phrase that functions as an adverb	The tiger jumped <i>with a loud roar</i> .
Appositive	Noun or pronoun that renames another noun or pronoun	Vikram, <i>a musician</i> , likes to be alone.
Verbal Infinitive	Verb form used as another part of speech	See Participle, Gerund,
Participle	Verbal phrase that functions as an adjective	<i>Moving fast</i> , the car was uncontrollable.
Gerund	Verbal phrase that functions as a noun	<i>Thinking creatively</i> requires patience.
Infinitive	Verbal phrase that begins with an infinitive and that functions as a noun, adjective or adverb	<i>To forget the past</i> is not easy.

## 2.2.a. Prepositional Phrases

A *prepositional phrase* is a group of words that begins with a preposition and ends with a noun or a pronoun. This noun or pronoun is called the “object of the preposition.”

by the sea	near the table	over the mountain
with help	in the ocean	below sea level

Prepositional phrases can further be classified into 2 types:

### 1. Adjectival Phrases

When a prepositional phrase serves as an adjective, it’s called an *adjectival phrase*. So it describes a noun or a pronoun, just like an adjective does. To find out if a prepositional phrase is functioning as an adjectival phrase, see if it answers these questions: “Which one?” or “What kind?”

The taste *of the pastry* was disgustingly appalling.

The adjectival phrase “of the pastry” describes the noun *taste*.

The boy *with the hat* looks really good.

The adjectival phrase “with the hat” describes the noun boy.

### 2. Adverbial Phrases

When a prepositional phrase serves as an adverb, it’s called an *adverbial phrase*. So it describes a verb, an adjective, or adverb, just like an adverb does. To find out if a prepositional phrase is functioning as an adverbial phrase, see if it answers one of these questions: “Where?” “When?” “In what manner?” “To what extent?”

The Doors played *at Woodstock*.

The adverbial phrase “at Woodstock” modifies the verb *played*.

The story ended *in a happy way*.

The adverbial phrase “in a happy way” modifies the verb *ended*.

## 2.2.b. Appositives and Appositive Phrases

An *appositive* is a noun or a pronoun that renames another noun or pronoun. Appositives are placed directly after the nouns or pronouns they identify. *Appositive phrases* are nouns or pronouns with modifiers.

Azaad, *a freedom fighter*, died for his country.

(The appositive “a freedom fighter” renames the noun *Azaad*.)

Rahul's jean, *a Levi's*, was torn in a fight.  
 (The appositive "*a Levi's*" renames the noun *jean*.)

Rahul's new jean, *a blue 501 Levi's*, was torn in a fight.  
 (The appositive phrase "*a blue 501 Levi's*" renames the noun *jean*.)

## 2.2.c. Verbal Phrases

A *verbal* is a verb form used as another part of speech. Verbals come in three varieties: *participles*, *gerunds*, and *infinitives*. Each type has a different function in a sentence:

- *Participles* function as adjectives.
- *Gerunds* function as nouns.
- *Infinitives* function as nouns, adjectives, or adverbs.

Although a verbal doesn't function as a verb in a sentence, it does retain two qualities of a verb:

- A verbal can be described by adverbs and adverbial phrases.
- A verbal can add modifiers to become a *verbal phrase*.

Verbal Phrases are of 3 types:

### 1. Participle Phrases

A *participle* is a form of a verb that functions as an adjective. There are two kinds of participles: *present participles* and *past participles*.

- Present participles end in *-ing* (jumping, burning, speaking).
- Past participles usually end in *-ed*, *-t*, or *-en* (jumped, burnt, spoken).

Pooja has a *singing doll*.

The present participle "singing" describes the noun *Pooja*.

*Frustrated*, the *manager* rushed out the door..

The past participle "frustrated" describes the noun *manager*.

Participle phrases contain a participle modified by an adverb or an adverbial phrase. They function as an adjective. A participle phrase can be placed before or after the word it describes.

*Swimming underwater*, Bourne managed to escape the assassins.  
The participle phrase “swimming underwater” describes the noun Bourne.

*Nisha, unhindered by obstacles*, kept on working.  
The participle phrase “*unhindered by obstacles*” describes the noun *Nisha*.

## 2. Gerund Phrases

A *gerund* is a form of a verb that ends in -ing and operates as a noun in a sentence. *Gerunds* can function as subjects, direct objects, indirect objects, objects of a preposition, and appositives.

Gerunds always end in *-ing*.

Gerunds always act as nouns.

*Thinking* can be painful.  
The gerund “thinking” is acting as the subject – hence noun.

Like a participle, a gerund can be part of a phrase.

The *painful, slow walking* took him no further.  
The gerund phrase is “*painful, slow walking*.”

Fiza’s dream was *winning the national championship*.  
The gerund phrase is “*winning the national championship*.”

## 3. Infinitive Phrases

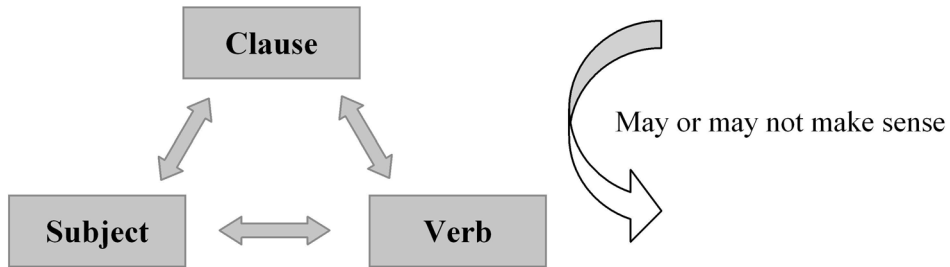
The *infinitive* is a form of the verb that comes after the word *to* and acts as a noun, adjective, or adverb. So they are quite similar to gerunds. An infinitive phrase contains modifiers that together act as a single part of speech.

Guru’s dream, *to become a very successful businessman*, was about to come true.  
The infinitive phrase “*to become a very successful businessman*” modifies the noun *dream*.

*To study efficiently and effectively* should be the motto of anyone preparing for CAT.  
The infinitive phrase “*to study efficiently and effectively*,” is acting as the subject.

## 2.3. Clauses

A clause is a part of a sentence that has both the subject and the verb and it may or may not make sense.



So, basically, **every sentence is a clause but every clause is not a sentence.**

There are two types of clauses: *independent clauses* (main clauses) and *dependent clauses* (subordinate clauses and relative clauses).

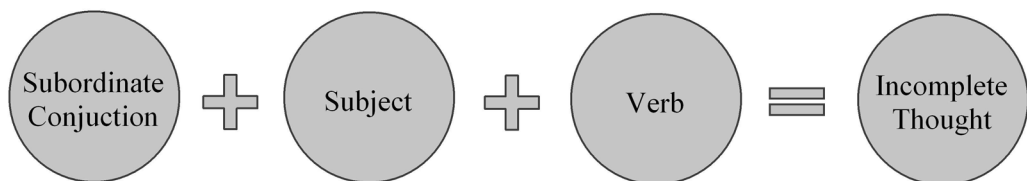
An *independent clause* is a complete sentence because it has a subject and verb and expresses a complete thought.

A *dependent (subordinate) clause* is part of a sentence, so it cannot stand alone.

An independent clause will follow this pattern:



A dependant clause will follow this pattern:



### Dependent Clause

When the fire broke out

In summer of '69, when I was in school

For two years after I passed

### Independent Clause

it wrecked havoc.

man landed on the moon.

I didn't get a job.

## 2.3.b. Dependent Clauses

Dependent clauses add additional information to the main clauses, but they must be combined with an independent clause so that they become part of a sentence that can stand by itself. Although each of the dependent clauses shown on the previous chart has a subject and a verb, it does not express a complete thought. As a result, it cannot stand by itself.

A dependent clause often starts with a word that makes the clause unable to stand alone. Look back at the three dependent clauses in the chart. The words used here are *when*, *in*, and *for*, respectively. These words are *subordinating conjunctions*.

*Subordinating conjunctions* link an independent clause to a dependent clause. Each subordinating conjunction expresses a relationship between the dependent clause and the independent clause. For example, some conjunctions show time order, while others show result or effect.

### Quick Tip:

You can't determine whether a clause is independent or dependent from its length.

Either type of clause can be very long or very short—or somewhere in between.

Skilled writers often vary the length of their clauses to achieve rhythm, balance, and meaning in their writing.

The following chart lists the subordinating conjunctions used most often and the relationships they express:

Subordinating Conjunctions	Relationship
unless, provided that, if, even if	Condition
because, as, as if	Reason
rather than, than, whether	Choice
though, although, even though, but	Contrast
where, wherever	Location
in order that, so, so that, that	Result, effect
while, once, when, since, as whenever, after, before, until, as soon	Time

### Quick Tip

When a dependent clause introduced by a subordinating conjunction comes before the independent clause, the clauses are usually separated by a comma. When you are in Rome, you should do as the Romans do. (before) You should do as the Romans do when you are in Rome. (after)

There are three different kinds of subordinate clauses: *adverb clauses*, *adjective clauses*, and *noun clauses*.

## 1. Adverb clause

An *adverb clause* is a dependent clause that describes a verb, adjective, or other adverb. As with adverbs, an adverb clause answers these questions:

Where? Why? When? To what extent? Under what condition? In what manner?

*Wherever tornadoes occur*, they *leave* destruction behind.

The adverb clause “wherever tornadoes occur” modifies the verb *leave*.

The teacher wanted to *scold* Jamal *because he had missed many lectures*.

The adverb clause “because he had missed many lectures” modifies the verb *scold*.

## 2. Adjective clauses

An *adjective clause* is a dependent clause that describes nouns and pronouns. As with adjectives, an adjective clause answers these questions:

What kind? Which one? How many? How much?

Most adjective clauses start with the pronouns *who*, *whom*, *why*, *whose*, *which*, *that*, *when*, *where*.

*My father, who is a scientist*, helped me with my maths.

The adjective clause “who is a scientist” describes the noun *father*.

*Students whom I admire* want to become English teachers.

The adjective clause “whom I admire” describes the noun *students*.

### Relative clauses

Adjective clauses that begin with one of the relative pronouns are called relative clauses. The relative pronouns are: *who*, *whom*, *whose*, *which*, *that*. Relative pronouns connect an adjective clause to the word the clause describes.

The *movie that we watched* was quite bad.

The relative clause “that we watched” describes the noun *movie*.

The person of whom you spoke is crying right now.

The relative clause “of whom you spoke” describes the noun *person*.



### 3. Noun clauses

A noun clause is a dependent clause that functions as a noun.

Tweety does *whatever she is not supposed to*.

The noun clause is “whatever she is not supposed to.”

Do you know *what he knows*?

The noun clause is “what he knows,” acting as the object.

## 2.4 Sentence Errors

### 2.4.a. Run-on Sentences and Comma Splices

There are two basic types of sentence errors: *fragments* and *run-on sentences*. These problems with sentence construction confuse your readers and obscure your meaning. Their use will also result in clumsy, unpolished writing and speech. Let’s look at each of these sentence errors in detail so that you’ll be able to fix them with ease.

As you’ve learned, there are two types of clauses: *independent* and *dependent*.

*Independent clauses* are complete sentences because they have a subject, a verb, and express a complete thought.

I go to the parties every Saturday night.

Gandhi’s dream was to get freedom.

*Dependent clauses* cannot stand alone because they do not express a complete thought, even if they have a subject and a verb.

Since *I* *enjoy* the parties.  
subject    verb

Because Gandhi’s *dream* *was to get* freedom.  
subject    verb

A *run-on sentence* is two incorrectly joined independent clauses.

A *comma splice* is a run-on sentence with a comma where the two independent clauses run together. When your sentences run together, your ideas are garbled.

Run-on: I gave him everything he is still thankful.

Corrected: I gave him everything, but he is still thankful.

Run-on: A duck's quack doesn't echo, no one knows why.

Corrected: A duck's quack doesn't echo; no one knows why.

Or

A duck's quack doesn't echo, *and* no one knows why.

Run-on: Indians are very proud of their tradition, they say it is the oldest.

Corrected: Indians are very proud of their tradition; they say it is the oldest.

Or

Indians are very proud of their tradition, *and* they say it is the oldest.

#### Quick Tip

Run-on sentences are not necessarily long. Some can be quite short, in fact.

Sheetal ran she fell down. Sheetal cried Hari cried too.

Run-on sentences can be corrected in four ways:

The British in the Raj were not liked by the people, they were quite cruel, sometimes.

1. Divide the run-on sentence into two sentences with the appropriate end punctuation, such as a period, exclamation mark, or a question mark.

The British in the Raj were not liked by the people. They were quite cruel, sometimes.

2. Add a coordinating conjunction (and, nor, but, or, for, yet, so) to create a compound sentence.

The British in the Raj were not liked by the people, for they were quite cruel, sometimes.

3. Add a subordinating conjunction to create a complex sentence.

Since the British in the Raj were quite cruel sometimes, they were not liked by the people.

4. Use a semicolon to create a compound sentence.

The British in the Raj were not liked by the people; they were quite cruel, sometimes.



## 2.4.b. Fragments

A sentence fragment is a group of words that is punctuated like a sentence (that is, it begins with a capital letter and ends with end punctuation) but lacks one or more of the elements of a sentence. Most times, a fragment is missing a subject, a verb, or both. Other times, a fragment may have a subject and a verb but still not express a complete thought. Fragments can be phrases as well as clauses.

There are three main ways that fragments occur.

1. When a dependent clause masks as a sentence.

Because humans have a tendency to do random things.

Since they do not have anything to do at times.

2. When a phrase is cut off from the sentence it describes.

Used to do a lot of cleaning on weekends.

Trying to prevent oneself from going mad.

3. You can also create a fragment if you use the wrong form of a verb.

The frog gone to the pond by the reservoir.

Saffron being a very costly and pungent spice.

You can correct a fragment in three ways:

1. Add the missing part to the sentence.

Fragment: Because humans have a tendency to do random things.

Complete: Because humans have a tendency to do random things, they sometimes get into a mess.

Fragment: Since they do not have anything to do at times.

Complete: Since they do not have anything to do at times, humans end up doing random things.

### Quick Tip

Don't be misled by a capital letter at the beginning of a word group. Starting a group of words with a capital letter doesn't make the word group a sentence. It just makes it a fragment that starts with a capital letter.

2. Correct the misused verb.

Fragment: The frog gone to the pond by the reservoir.

Complete: The frog went to the pond by the reservoir.

Fragment: Saffron being a very costly and pungent spice.

Complete: Saffron is a very costly and pungent spice.

3. Omit the subordinating conjunction or connect it to another sentence.

Fragment: Because humans have a tendency to do random things.

Complete: Humans have a tendency to do random things.

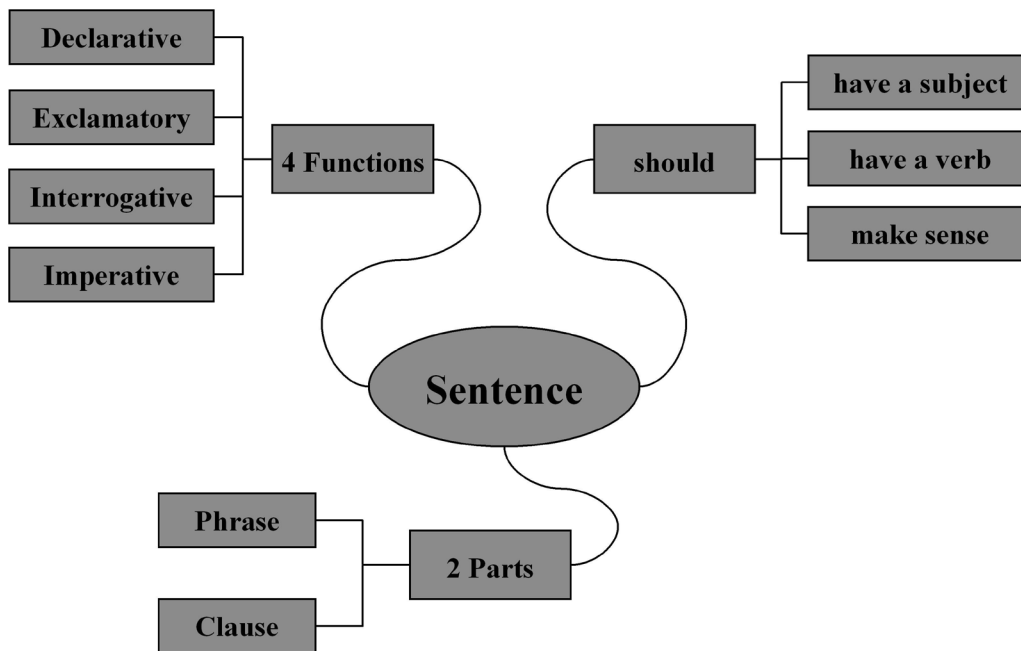
Fragment: Since they do not have anything to do at times.

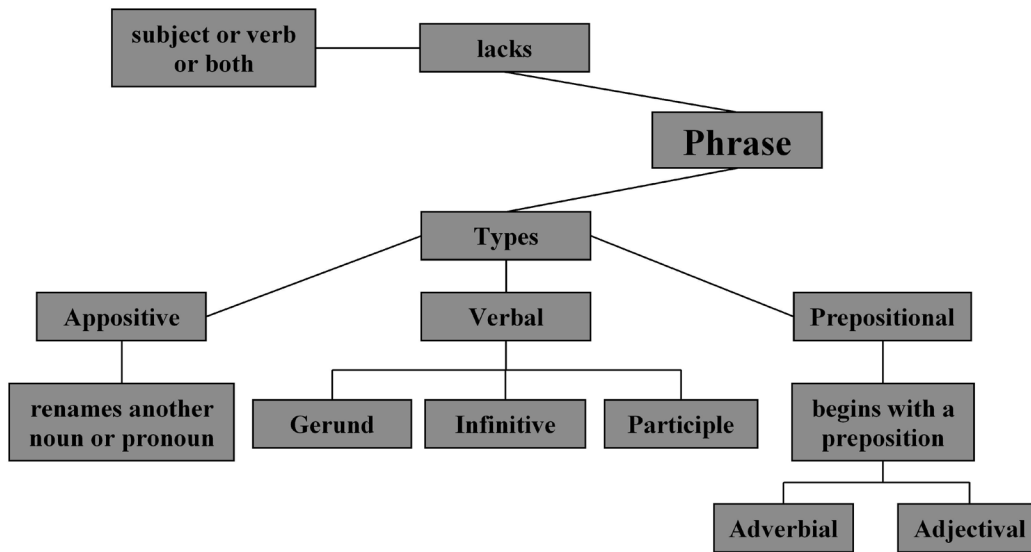
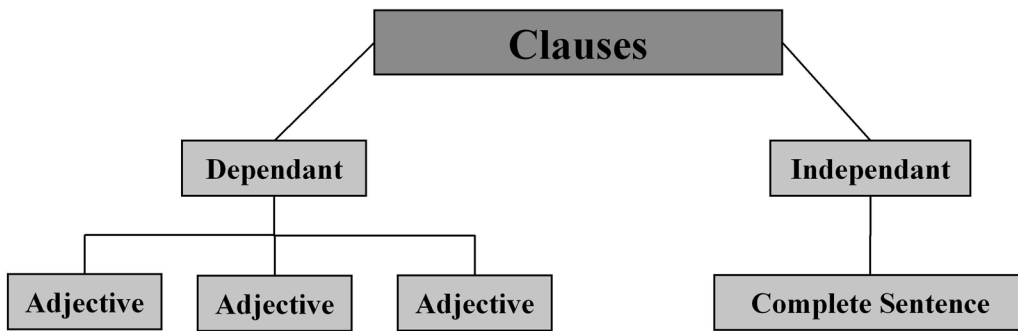
Complete: They do not have anything to do at times.

**Quick Tip**

Sentence fragments are common and acceptable in speech, but not in writing—  
unless used intentionally for stylistic effect.

## Summary:





## Exercise:

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State if each of the following statements are True or False

1. A *phrase* is a group of words that functions in a sentence as a single part of speech.
2. A phrase has a subject and a verb, so it can stand alone as an independent unit.
3. A *prepositional phrase* is a group of words that begins with a preposition and ends with a noun or a pronoun.
4. The italic portion of the following sentence is a prepositional phrase:  
The Corrs, *my favourite Irish band*, can always sense when I'm upset.
5. An *adjectival phrase* describes a noun or a pronoun.
6. To find out if a prepositional phrase serves as an adjectival phrase, see if it answers these questions: "In what manner?" or "To what extent?"
7. The italic portion of the following sentence is functioning as an adjective phrase:  
The fireworks continued *late into the night*.
8. *Adverbial phrases* describe a verb, an adjective, or adverb.
9. The italic portion of the following sentence is functioning as an adverbial phrase:  
My College basketball team competed *in the local arena*.
10. A *clause* is a noun or a pronoun that renames another noun or pronoun.
11. A *verbal* is a verb form used as another part of speech.
12. Verbals are the same as appositives.
13. *Participles* function as adjectives.
14. *Infinitives* function as nouns.
15. *Gerunds* function as nouns, adjectives, or adverbs.
16. Present participles always end in *-ing* (kissing, leaping, moaning).
17. Past participles often end in *-ed*, *-t*, or *-en* as in *smoked* and *burnt*.
18. Gerunds always end in *-ing* and function as verbs.
19. The italic phrase in the following sentence is an infinitive: *To sleep*, so that one can dream
20. The italic portion of the following sentence is functioning as an adjectival clause:  
She is the type *who listens carefully*.

21. The italic portion of the following sentence is functioning as an adjectival clause:

*Whenever he travels*, Sid takes his camera along.

22. The italic portion of the following sentence is functioning as an adverbial clause:

He worked *as if there was no end to it*.

23. The italic portion of the following sentence is functioning as an adverbial clause:

*Whomever you meet* must look good.

24. The italic portion of the following sentence is functioning as a noun clause:

The point is *whether we will be able to reach on time*.

25. The italic portion of the following sentence is functioning as an independent clause:

*When they reached the office*, everyone was sleeping.

Select the word that best completes each sentence.

1. A *clause* is a group of words with its own subject and (relative pronoun, verb).
2. There are two types of clauses: independent clauses and (verbal clauses, dependent clauses).
3. Independent clauses are also called (main clauses, relative clauses).
4. (Adjectival, Subordinating) conjunctions link an independent clause to a dependent clause.
5. The conjunction *unless* shows (time, condition).
6. The conjunction *although* shows (contrast, result).
7. Dependent clauses are the same as (infinitives, subordinate clauses).
8. All dependent clauses are (subordinate clauses, complete sentences).
9. When a dependent clause introduced by a subordinating conjunction comes before the independent clause, the clauses are usually separated by a (comma, colon).
10. As with adverbs, an adverb clause answers these questions: Where? Why? When? (In what manner? What kind?).
11. Adjective clauses that begin with one of the relative pronouns are called (prepositional, relative) clauses.
12. The relative pronouns are: who, whom, whose, which, (that, there).
13. Use *which* and *that* if the antecedent is a (person, thing).
14. The following italic word group is a (dependent, independent) clause:

*If you don't want to do it*, why are you still doing it?

15. The following italic word group is a (dependent, independent) clause:

If most car accidents occur within 5 miles of home, *why doesn't everyone just move 10 miles away?*

Choose the best answer to each question, from the choices given

1. Which of the following is not a prepositional phrase?
  - a) By the river
  - b) In the rear-view mirror
  - c) Over the top
  - d) That he didn't go for the movie
2. What is the adjectival phrase in this sentence? Keep the book of blue cover in the shelf, please.
  - a) Of blue cover
  - b) Keep the book
  - c) Please
  - d) In the shelf
3. What is the adverbial phrase in this sentence? The eagle soared over the river full of fish.
  - a) The eagle
  - b) Soared
  - c) Over the river full of fish
  - d) river full of fish
4. All the following are subordinating conjunctions except
  - a) After
  - b) Walks
  - c) Because
  - d) Unless
5. Most adjective clauses start with the pronouns *who, whom, why, whose, which, that, when*, or
  - a) *Since*
  - b) *Where*
  - c) *Because*
  - d) *However*
6. What is the prepositional phrase in the following sentence?  
The house by the river is extremely beautiful.
  - a) The house
  - b) Is extremely beautiful
  - c) By the river
  - d) The river is
7. What is the appositive in the following sentence?  
The city, lost in oblivion for centuries, has been rediscovered by archaeologists.
  - a) The city
  - b) Has been rediscovered
  - c) By archaeologists
  - d) Lost in oblivion for centuries
8. What is the participle phrase in the following sentence?  
The toast, thoroughly burnt, sent a foul odour through the house, but Shelly ate it anyway.
  - a) The toast
  - b) Thoroughly burnt
  - c) Sent a foul odour through the house
  - d) But Shelly ate it anyway



9. What is the independent clause in this sentence?

If work is so terrific, how come they have to pay you to do it?

- a) How come they have to pay you to do it      b) If work is so terrific  
c) How come they have      d) To pay you to do it

10. What is the dependent clause in this sentence?

If all the world is a stage, where is the audience sitting?

- a) If all the world is a stage      b) If all the world  
c) Is a stage      d) Where is the audience sitting

11. What is the italic word group in the following sentence called?

Our window, *broken completely by kids*, is in need of repair.

- a) Independent clause      b) Prepositional phrase  
c) Participle clause      d) Participle phrase

12. What is the italic word group in the following sentence called?

*Thinking of the future* made her nervous

- a) Noun clause      b) Gerund phrase  
c) Prepositional phrase      d) Independent clause

13. What is the italic word group in the following sentence called?

The freedom fighters fought *to regain their freedom*.

- a) Prepositional phrase      b) Infinitive clause  
c) Infinitive phrase      d) Prepositional clause

14. What is the italic word group in the following sentence called?

*If I let you go*, would you still come back?

- a) Dependent phrase      b) Independent clause  
c) Dependent clause      d) Independent phrase

15. What is the italic word group in the following sentence called?

Freya wanted to buy the purse *because it was so different to look at*.

- a) Adverb clause      b) Adverb phrase      c) Infinitive phrase      d) Sentence

## 3. Pronouns

### 3.1. Overview of Pronoun Case

Only two parts of speech, nouns and pronouns, have *case*. This means that they change form depending on how they are used in a sentence. English has three cases: *subjective*, *objective*, and *possessive*.

In the *subjective* case, the pronoun is used as a subject. It is also known as the nominative case.

*I* took that picture.

In the *objective* case, the pronoun is used as an object.

Give the picture to *me*.

In the *possessive* case, the pronoun is used to show ownership.

The picture is *mine*.

The following chart shows the three cases of personal pronouns:

<b>Subjective</b>	<b>Objective</b>	<b>Possessive</b>
(Pronoun as subject)	(Pronoun as object)	(Ownership)
I	me	my, mine
you	you	your, yours
he	him	his
she	her	her, hers
it	it	its
we	us	our, ours
they	them	their, theirs
who	whom	whose
whoever	whomever	whoever

To avoid errors in personal pronoun use, you must understand how to use each case. The rules are explained below. Relax: They're actually not difficult at all!

### 3.1.a. Using the Subjective Case

Use the subjective case when...

#### 1. The pronoun is the subject of a verb.

Sam and (I, me) like to click photographs.

*I* is the subject of the sentence. Therefore, the pronoun is in the subjective case:

*Correct:* "Sam and *I* like to click photographs."

#### Quick Tip

When you list two or more subjects, always put yourself last. Therefore, the sentence would read "Sam and I," never "I and Sam."

To help determine the correct pronoun, take away the first subject and try each choice. See which one sounds better. For example:

*I* like to click photographs OR *Me* like to click photographs.

The first one definitely sounds better.

(Who, Whom) do you believe is the better photographer?

*Who* is the subject of the verb *is*. Therefore, the sentence would read, "*Who* do you believe is the better photographer?"

Ignore interrupting expressions such as *do you believe*, *you think*, *do you suppose* (and so on). They do not affect pronoun case.

#### 2. The pronoun is a predicate nominative.

A *predicate nominative* is a noun or pronoun that follows a linking verb and identifies or renames the subject. Remember that a *linking verb* connects a subject to a word that renames it. *Linking verbs* indicate a state of being (*am*, *is*, *are*, etc.), relate to the senses (*look*, *smell*, *taste*, etc.), or indicate a condition (*appear*, *seem*, *become*, etc.). In other words, use the subjective case if the pronoun is the complement of the linking verb "to be".

The person on the terrace was (I, me).

Use *I*, since the pronoun renames the subject, the person on the terrace.

*Correct:* "The person on the terrace was *I*."

Which is correct: "It is *I*" or "It is *me*"? Technically, the correct form is "It is *I*," since we're dealing with a predicate nominative. However, "It is *me*" (and "It is *us*") has become increasingly acceptable as standard usage.

### 3.1.b. Using the Objective Case

Use the objective case when...

#### 1. The pronoun is the direct object of a verb.

A *direct object* is a noun or pronoun that receives the action. (***On what the action is performed***)

The teacher failed (he, him).

*Correct:* The teacher failed *him*.

(Who, Whom) did she finally invite to the party?

*Correct:* *She* is the subject, the person doing the action. Therefore, the sentence should read: “*Whom* did she finally invite to the party?”

Of course, she can invite (whoever, whomever) she wants.

*Correct:* Of course, she can invite *whomever* she wants.

#### Quick Tip

When you have a pronoun combined with a noun (such as we family, us family), try the sentence without the noun. You can usually “hear” which pronoun sounds right.

It is always a pleasure for we to attend the reunion.

It is always a pleasure for us to attend the reunion.

The second sentence sounds correct; doesn't it?

#### 2. The pronoun is the indirect object of a verb.

An *indirect object* tells *to* or *for* whom something is done. You can tell a word is an indirect object if you can insert *to* or *for* before it without changing the meaning. For example:

The book gave (to) my boss and (to) me some new strategies.

The movie gave (we, us) a shock.

*Correct:* The movie gave *us* a shock.

#### 3. The pronoun is the object of a preposition.

Remember that a preposition is a small word that links a noun or a pronoun following it to another word in the sentence. ***The noun or pronoun is known as the object of the preposition.***

Put the sheet over (I, me).

*Correct:* The pronoun is the object of the preposition *over*, so the sentence reads: “Put the sheet over *me*.”



### 3.1.c. Using the Possessive Case

#### 1. Use the possessive case to show ownership.

Shweta said that the CD was (her's, hers).

*Correct:* *Hers* is the correct spelling of the possessive case, which is needed here to express ownership (belonging to her). Therefore, the sentence should read: "Shweta said that the CD was *hers*."

#### 2. Use the possessive case before gerunds.

A *gerund* is a form of a verb that acts as a noun. Gerunds always end in *-ing*, and they always function as nouns.

(You, Your) singing has been greatly appreciated.

*Correct:* The gerund *singing* requires the possessive pronoun *your*. Therefore, the sentence should read: "*Your* singing has been greatly appreciated."

Do you mind (my, me) borrowing your cell phone?

*Correct:* Do you mind *my* borrowing your cell phone?

#### 3. Use some possessive pronouns alone to show ownership.

This cell phone is *mine*, not *yours*.

#### Quick Tip

Pronouns that express ownership never get an apostrophe. Watch for these possessive pronouns: yours, his, hers, its, ours, theirs.

### 3.1.d. Three Other Rules for Using Pronouns

Here are three more rules that apply to pronouns and case.

#### 1. A pronoun used in apposition with a noun is in the same case as the noun.

An *appositive phrase* is a noun or pronoun that adds information and details. Appositives can often be removed from the sentence, so they are set off with commas. The appositive in the following sentence is underlined.

Two girls, Priya and (she, her), were recommended for scholarship.

*Correct:* The pronoun must be in the subjective case (*she*) because it is in apposition with the noun *girls*, which is in the subjective case. Therefore, the sentence should read: Two girls, Priya and *she*, were commended for bravery.

Exception: *A pronoun used as the subject of an infinitive is in the objective case.* For example:

“The Boss wants Anuj and (I, me) to host the show.” The correct pronoun here is *me*, since it is the subject of the infinitive *to host*.

2. Use *-self* forms correctly with reflexive and intensive situations.

As you learned earlier, *reflexive pronouns* reflect back to the subject or object. In other words when the subject and object of a sentence refer to the same person or thing, we use a *reflexive pronoun* as the object rather than a personal pronoun. Compare:

**She** forced **her** to visit the doctor. (‘she’ and ‘her’ refer to different people) and

**She** forced **herself** to visit the doctor. (‘she’ and ‘herself’ refer to the same person)

Don’t use reflexive pronouns in place of subjects and objects.

The boss and (myself, I) went for a trip.

*Correct:* Use the pronoun *I*, not the reflexive form. Therefore, the sentence reads: “The boss and *I* went for a trip.”

*Intensive* usage is just like it sounds: adding emphasis, or intensity, to the subject as a way to reinforce the idea that it’s that person who’s involved and not someone else. For example:

You yourself should go there.

I will keep it myself.

The mountain itself caused his fall.

Notice that in each of the other 3 examples the intensive pronoun can be removed without affecting the meaning of the sentence. So it’s not really essential; it just adds emphasis as already mentioned. It’s also known as *emphatic pronoun*.

3. *Who* is the subjective case; *whom* is the objective case.

No one will argue that *who* and *whom* are the most troublesome pronouns in English.

Even though *who* and *whom* were discussed earlier in this chapter, these little words cause such distress that they deserve their own subsection. Let’s start by looking back at our pronoun-use chart.

	<b>Subjective</b>	<b>Objective</b>	<b>Possessive</b>
	(Subject case)	(Object case)	(Ownership)
Singular	who	whom	whose
	whoever	whomever	whosoever
Plural	who	whom	whose
	whoever	whomever	whosoever

Now, some guidelines:

Use *who* or *whoever* when the pronoun is the subject of a verb.

*Who* was responsible for this mess?

Use *who* or *whoever* when the pronoun is the predicate nominative.

The winner was *who*?

Use *whom* or *whomever* when the pronoun is the direct object of a verb or the object of a preposition.

*Whom* did he beat up this time?

### **The “m” test**

When deciding between “who” and “whom,” it can be easier if you use the **“m” test**: Think of how you would restate the sentence with the pronoun he/**him** or they/**them**, and if you use a form that ends in “m,” you need “whom.” For example, in this sentence, you’d say, *Did he beat him?* You wouldn’t say, *Did he beat he.* That “**him**,” in the objective case—with the “m” on the end—is your clue that you need the objective case form “whom” with the “m” on the end. Or you can figure out how you’d answer a who/whom question using he or him. In the sentence Who/whom was the friend you brought with you? You would answer “he is the friend” not “him is the friend.” Subjective case, no “m”—that’s the signal that “who” is correct.

Here are more correct uses of “who” and “whom”:

That’s the boy whom Simran dislikes. (Simran dislikes him.)

Can I tell her who is calling? (He is calling.)

Whom are you inviting for the dinner? (You are inviting them for the dinner.)

To whom are you giving these flowers? (You are giving the flowers to him.)

I want the people who did this to step forward. (They did this.)

Now here’s a tricky correct example that even “who/whom” whizzes can get confused:

She'll marry the man who she thinks has the finest collection of ties.

The “she thinks” gives a lot of people fits here: It may seem as if the pronoun should be the object of “thinks” and that therefore we need “whom.” But the pronoun is actually the subject of “has,” which becomes clear when we apply the “m” test. You wouldn't say She thinks him has the finest collection of ties, instead, you'd say, She thinks he has the finest collection of ties. No “m,” so we need “who.” Many sentences follow a similar pattern when they include an extra clause reporting what people believe, think, or say.

Sheila, who I believe has the largest collection of fountain pens in India, always writes letters on her computer.

My blind date, who you'd said would be “interesting,” proved to be just that.

As must be clear from the table, whoever and whomever, just replace who and whom respectively. So they follow the same pattern.

#### Quick Tip

In spoken English, who and whomever are becoming more and more uncommon.

Informally, people use who and whoever in almost all situations.

## 3.2. Use Correct Pronoun Reference

The meaning of a pronoun comes from its antecedent, the noun or pronoun to which it refers.

Your speech and writing will be confusing if your pronoun reference is unclear.

Carelessly placed pronouns can create unintentionally funny sentences as well as confusing ones.

Consider the difference between what the writer *thinks* he or she said and what is *really* being said in the following sentences:

Last week, a wart appeared on my right thumb, and I want *it* removed.  
(Are you removing the wart or the thumb?)

Guilt and unkindness can be emotionally destructive to you and your friends. You must get rid of *them*.  
(Are you getting rid of the guilt or your friends?)

There are three ways to prevent pronoun confusion.

1. A pronoun must clearly refer to a single antecedent.
2. Place pronouns close to their antecedents.
3. Make a pronoun refer to a definite antecedent.



Let's look at each guideline in detail.

1. A pronoun must clearly refer to a single antecedent. A common writing and speech problem occurs when the same pronoun refers to more than one antecedent. For instance, in the last example in the previous section, *them* can refer to *guilt*, *unkindness*, or *your friends*.

Remember that a pronoun replaces a noun. To make sure that your writing and speech are clear, always use the noun first before you use the pronoun. Clarify the sentence by replacing the unclear pronouns with nouns. That way, all the remaining pronouns will clearly refer to a single antecedent.

Guilt and unkindness can be emotionally destructive to you and your friends. You must get rid of *them*.

Here are two ways you could rewrite this sentence:

Guilt and unkindness can be emotionally destructive to you and your friends. You must get rid of *these issues*.

Guilt and unkindness can be emotionally destructive to you and your friends. You must get rid of *these destructive emotions*.

2. Place pronouns close to their antecedents. If too many phrases come between a pronoun and its antecedent, the sentence can be difficult to read and understand. This can happen even if the intervening material is logically related to the rest of the sentence. Consider the following sentence:

After meeting a few guests, the Prime Minister entered the reception. At that point, the Finance Minister and the other elected officials began to pose for pictures. Even so, *he* did not join them.

In this sentence *he* is too far away from its antecedent, the Prime Minister. One solution is to replace *he* with *the Prime Minister*. The other solution is to rewrite the sentences to move the pronoun closer.

After meeting a few guests, the Prime Minister entered the reception. At that point, the Finance Minister and the other elected officials began to pose for pictures. Even so, the Prime Minister did not join them.

After meeting a few guests, the Prime Minister entered the reception. He did not join the Finance Minister and the other elected officials, even though they began to pose for pictures.

3. Make a pronoun refer to a definite antecedent. Be sure all pronouns refer to only one antecedent. The pronouns *it*, *this*, *that*, and *which* are especially prone to unclear pronoun reference. Consider the following sentence:

I told my friends that I was going to be a rock star, which annoyed my mother.

The following form is better because it is less ambiguous:

My mother was annoyed because I told my friends that I was going to be a rock star.

#### Quick Tip

When you start a new paragraph, repeat the noun from the previous paragraph rather than using a pronoun in its place. Repeating the noun (usually a name) can help your reader more easily follow your logic.

### 3.3. Using Who, Which, That

Special rules govern the use of the relative pronouns *who*, *which*, and *that*.

1. *Who* refers to people or animals (only animals with names or special talents, like Lassie).

She is not the actress *who* was originally cast in the role.

2. *That* and *which* refer to things, groups, and unnamed animals.

The choice between *which* and *that* depends on whether the clause introduced by the pronoun is *restrictive* or *nonrestrictive*.

A *restrictive* clause is essential to the sentence.

A *nonrestrictive* clause adds extra meaning, is set off by commas, and can be removed from the sentence.

Use *that* for restrictive clauses and *which* with nonrestrictive clauses.

The cat, which had been sleeping for hours, woke up when the canary sang.

The cat that had been sleeping for hours was hungrier than the cat that ate the canary.

Now, in the first sentence, the clause “which had been sleeping for hours” gives us some information about the cat, but it isn’t essential to the meaning of the sentence; we know the significant fact, that the cat awoke, whether or not we have the additional information contained in the clause, “which had been sleeping.” This clause is, we can say, nonessential, or, as the grammarians put it, a nonrestrictive clause—nonrestrictive because, although it does describe what the cat has been doing, it doesn’t restrict or limit the meaning of the principal clause; the cat awoke, regardless of how long it had been sleeping. Because our clause is thus nonrestrictive, or nonessential, we indicate its “expendable” nature by using the pronoun “which” and, in writing, by setting off the clause with commas.

In the second sentence, on the other hand, the clauses beginning with “that” are clearly essential to the meaning of the sentence, which would otherwise only tell us that one (unspecified) cat was hungrier than another (unspecified) cat. For the sentence to do any sort of job, it must narrow its meaning down; it must distinguish between cats, between the sleeper and the canary-eater, and thus restrict the principal action to two particular, clearly different creatures. These restrictive clauses are not expendable; they are essential to and inseparable from the basic meaning of the sentence. They are signaled by the pronoun “that,” and, in writing, they are not set off by commas.

As you can see, the rules can be pretty clearly stated:

Use **which** in a **nonrestrictive** clause (a clause not essential to the meaning of the sentence).

Use **that** in a **restrictive** clause (a clause essential to the meaning of the sentence).

There’s one pretty obvious exception to these rules. If you have a nonrestrictive clause (calling for “which”) but you are referring to a person, follow the earlier rule (and probably your own instinct); avoid the “which” and go back to “who” or “whom.” So it’s proper (and certainly natural) to say:

Bob, who (and not, in this case, “which”) had been spending his day fishing, ate all the hot dogs.

With a restrictive clause referring to a person, you can, as with all restrictive clauses, use “that,” or, as many people prefer, “who” or “whom.” Here are a few examples:

The man that you just insulted is my brother-in-law.

Or: The man whom you just insulted is my brother-in-law.

3. In “it-clauses (clauses beginning with ‘it’), use ‘that’.

*It is this book that I was referring to.*

4. Clauses having a ‘superlative’ should use ‘that’.

This is the *worst* movie *that* I have ever seen.

The *best* book *that* anyone can find.

5. If a clause has two relative pronouns; they should not be the same.

*Who* is the boy *that* you were talking about? (Not: Who is the boy whom you were talking about?)

*That* is the boy *whom* I was talking about. (Not: That is the boy that I was talking about.)

*Which* is the book *that* you like? (Not: Which is the book which you like?)

## Exercise:

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State if each of the following statement is True or False

1. *Case* refers to the way a noun or pronoun changes, depending on how it is used in a sentence.
2. English has three cases: nominative, objective, and possessive.
3. In the *nominative case*, the pronoun is used to show possession.
4. In the *possessive case*, the pronoun is used as an object.
5. *Who* is in the nominative case; *whom* is in the objective case.
6. A *predicate nominative* is a noun or pronoun that follows a linking verb and identifies or renames the subject.
7. Use the objective case to show the object of a noun, verb, or adjective.
8. Gerunds always end in *-ed*, and they always function as verbs.
9. A pronoun used in apposition with a noun is in the same case as the noun.
10. A pronoun used as the subject of an infinitive is in the subjective case.
11. Pronouns that express ownership always take an apostrophe.
12. Use reflexive pronouns in place of subjects and objects.
13. A pronoun must clearly refer to a single, definite antecedent.
14. Place pronouns close to their antecedents.
15. *Who* refers to people or animals, while *that* and *which* refer to things, groups, and unnamed animals.

Select the word that best completes each sentence.

1. Krish and (I, me) have decided to finish this together.
2. The new friends are (they, them).
3. The problem is unquestionably (she, her).
4. Human beings, (who, whom) are the most fascinating species on earth, are also the most deplorable.
5. Those (whom, who) are early to bed and early to rise are healthy, wealthy, and very tired.
6. The most amazing person has always been (him, he).
7. The winning contestants are the Mehtas and (they, them).

8. The concept (which, that) intrigued (we, us) had not yet been publicized.
9. My car, (who, which) was brand new, had relatively little damage.
10. The car (which, that) hit me was speeding.
11. From (who, whom) did you buy that beautiful purse?
12. The thunderstorm frightened my cat and (I, me).
13. Please sit next to Rita and (me, I).
14. Shreya gave (he, him) a lot of unsolicited advice.
15. With (who, whom) have you agreed to carpool?

Select the best revision for each sentence.

1. When Sam and Chuck return home, he will call.
  - a) When Sam and Chuck return home, they will call.
  - b) When Sam and Chuck return home, Sam will call.
  - c) When Sam and Chuck return home, him will call.
  - d) When Sam and Chuck return home, calling will take place.
2. When Deepa spoke to Diya that morning, she did not realize that she would win the international beauty pageant.
  - a) When Deepa spoke to Diya that morning, her did not realize that she would win the international beauty pageant.
  - b) When Deepa spoke to Diya that morning, they did not realize that she would win the international beauty pageant.
  - c) When Deepa spoke to Diya that morning, Deepa did not realize that she would win the international beauty pageant.
  - d) When Deepa spoke to Diya that morning, no one realized that she would win the international beauty pageant.

3. When the rain started, we pulled out an umbrella. It annoyed the people around us, but we decided to stay at the ball field.
  - a) When the rain started, we pulled out an umbrella. It's annoyed the people around us, but we decided to stay at the ball field.
  - b) When the rain started, we pulled out an umbrella. Its annoyed the people around us, but we decided to stay at the ball field.
  - c) When the rain started, we pulled out an umbrella. The umbrella annoyed people around us, but we decided to stay at the ball field.
  - d) When the rain started, we pulled out an umbrella. They annoyed the people around us, but we decided to stay at the ball field.
4. If you asked Siddhartha to describe Arjun, he would say that he was sly, boring, and cheap—and then he would snicker.
  - a) If you asked Siddhartha to describe Arjun, Siddhartha would say that he was sly, boring, and cheap—and then Siddhartha would snicker.
  - b) If you asked Siddhartha to describe Arjun, Siddhartha would say that he was sly, boring, and cheap—and then he would snicker.
  - c) If you asked Siddhartha to describe Arjun, he would say that he was sly, boring, and cheap—and then snickering would occur.
  - d) If you asked Siddhartha to describe Arjun, Arjun would say that Arjun was sly, boring, and cheap—and then Siddhartha would snicker.
5. They gave we losers a gag prize.
  - a) They gave them losers a gag prize.
  - b) They gave yours losers a gag prize.
  - c) They gave they losers a gag prize.
  - d) They gave us losers a gag prize.
6. My neighbor agreed to support he for the corporation.
  - a) My neighbor agreed to support she for the corporation.
  - b) My neighbor agreed to support him for the corporation.
  - c) My neighbor agreed to support I for the corporation.
  - d) My neighbor agreed to support we for the corporation.

7. Naturally, you can invite whoever you want.
  - a) Naturally, you can invite who you want.
  - b) Naturally, you can invite which ever you want.
  - c) Naturally, you can invite whomever you want.
  - d) Naturally, you can invite that you want.
8. A student must understand that homework is very important to them.
  - a) Students must understand that homework is very important to them.
  - b) A student must understand that homework is very important to him.
  - c) A student must understand that homework is very important to her.
  - d) A student must understand that homework is very important to I.
9. The story was good, but they didn't explain what happened in the end.
  - a) The story was good, but he didn't explain what happened in the end.
  - b) The story was good, but the author didn't explain what happened in the end.
  - c) The story was good, but she didn't explain what happened in the end.
  - d) The story was good, but explaining what happened in the end didn't happen.
10. Shreyas saw the ad on the newspaper yesterday, but he can't seem to find it today.
  - a) Shreyas saw the ad in the newspaper yesterday, but he can't seem to find the today.
  - b) Shreyas saw the ad in the newspaper yesterday, but he can't seem to find its today.
  - c) Shreyas saw the ad in the newspaper yesterday, but he can't seem to find today.
  - d) Shreyas saw the ad in the newspaper yesterday, but he can't seem to find the ad today.

# Tenses

A Tense is nothing but a **verb** indicating the time of an action, event or condition by changing its form.

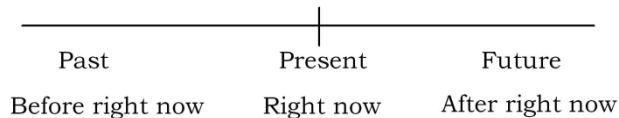
Basically there are three Tenses:

Past Tense – indicates an action that **finished** before the **present** (right now)

Present Tense – indicates an action that is occurring in the present or that is generally true.

Future Tense – indicates an action that hasn't happened yet (will happen in the future).

On a time line they can be represented as:

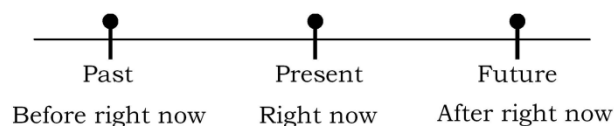


Each one of these tenses has 3 aspects. An Aspect refers to the nature or form of the action described by the verb. There are three aspects: indefinite (or **simple**), complete (or **perfect**), continuing (or **progressive**).

	Past	Present	Future
Simple	I went	I go	I will go
Progressive	I was going	I am going	I will be going
Perfect	I had gone	I have gone	I will have gone
Perfect Progressive	I had been going	I have been going	I will have been going

## The Simple Aspect

When we use the simple aspect, we view the action or series of actions as a whole. It shows the state of being.



The dots, in the above figure, represent points in time with respect to past, present and future.



The Simple aspect indicates one or both of the following:

That an action or series of actions is complete.

That the situation is permanent or is regarded as permanent.

We can use both action and stative (linking) verbs in the simple aspect.

Action verbs are verbs which describe actions, e.g. go, ask, walk, explain, work.

Stative verbs are verbs which do not describe actions: they describe feelings, thoughts, wishes, the senses and states of being, e.g. believe, belong, know, smell, understand, want.

## Present Simple

### FORM

I work, etc.

**Do/Does** + infinitive for questions, negatives and short answers

### USE

A regular repeated activity.

I **catch** the 8 o'clock train every day.

He **attends** the board meeting every Monday.

Something that is generally true; a statement of fact:

Water **boils** at 100 degrees centigrade.

Cats **don't like** water.

Introducing a quotation:

This book **says** that too much butter and milk is bad for you.

The local newspaper **says** that the government should do more to create jobs in the area.

## Past Simple

### FORM

Positive: past simple form of verb:

I **arrived**, etc. (regular)

I **came**, etc. (irregular)

Negative and question form: **did** + infinitive

Short answer: **did**

### USE

Completed actions.

To talk about events and actions in the past that are now finished. The past simple refers to the complete event. The time or approximate time that the event took place is stated or is understood from the context. It may be in the very recent past:

Your mother **phoned** a few minutes ago.

Who **opened** this window?

or it may be in the more distant past:

I never **learnt** to swim as a child.

Past habit or regular event.

To talk about a regular, repeated or habitual event (in the past):

We **went out** for a meal every evening on holiday.

He **got up** at 7 o'clock every morning to go to work.

or a past habit or situation of some duration:

He **smoked** for most of his life.

She **worked** there for twenty years.

Past situation at a point in time.

With stative verbs, to talk about a situation that existed at a certain time in the past:

In 1950, there **were** fewer than 50 million cars in use around the world.

At the time, I **had** a poorly-paid job in the local shop.



## Future Simple

### FORM

**will ('ll)** + bare infinitive: I **will** (I'll) go, etc.

Short form of **will not**: **won't**

### USE

To make a statement of fact or a prediction about the future:

Ajay **will be** here tomorrow.

Tonight's programme **will be** very interesting.

To make formal announcements of future plans and to present weather forecasts. It is therefore often used in newspapers and on the television and radio:

The new President **will move** into the White House tomorrow.

Rain **will continue** throughout the day.

#### Notes: The use of **shall**

In spoken English, **shall** is most often used in the question form with I or we to make offers or suggestions or to ask for suggestions, advice, instructions:

**Shall** I come with you?

What **shall** we do tomorrow?

**Shall** is occasionally used to express strong determination about oneself or someone else:

I **shall** go anyway. I don't care what you think.

I **shan't** let him bully me.

You **shall** have whatever you want.

**Shall** can be used in the same way as **will** in the first person but **will** is more common. In spoken English, the contraction '**ll** is the most common.

**Shall** is used more frequently in formal written English than in informal written or spoken English:

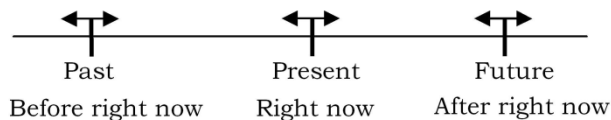
We **shall** make every effort to answer your enquiry as soon as possible.

I **shall** be at the airport to meet you in person.

Short form of shall not: shan't.

## The Continuous (or Progressive) aspect

When we use the continuous aspect, we view the action or series of actions in progress. The continuous aspect does not describe the whole event.



The arrows, in the above figure, represent unfinished events in time with respect to past, present and future

The continuous aspect indicates one or more of the following:

That the action or series of actions are in progress. We view the action at some point between its beginning and its end.

That the action is not complete.

That the situation is temporary.

When we use the continuous aspect, we describe an activity in progress. We therefore use the continuous aspect with action verbs but not with stative (linking) verbs.

### Present continuous

#### FORM

Verb **to be** + present participle:

I **am working**, etc.

#### USE

Activity in progress at this moment:

Where's Hari?

He's **doing** his homework.

An activity that is taking place in the present time period and will continue for a limited time. The activity may or may not be in progress at the moment of speaking.



The present continuous is often used in this way with *these days, this week, today, this month*, etc:

‘And what’s Linda **doing** these days?’

‘She’s **doing** a course in engineering.’

(Linda may not be studying engineering at this minute.)

The decorator’s **painting** the children’s bedrooms this week so they’re **sleeping** in the living room.

(The decorators may not be painting at this moment and the children may not be sleeping.)

A situation that is in the process of changing:

Venice **is falling** into the sea.

The number of cars on the road **is increasing** rapidly each year.

A future intention with a verb of motion:

We’re **driving** up to Scotland next week.

He’s **flying** back on Saturday.

## Past continuous

### FORM

**was/were** + present participle: I **was studying**, etc.

### USE

Used in conjunction with the past simple to describe an action or event that started before the event in the past simple and was in progress when the event in the past simple occurred:

They **were watching** a film when we arrived.

She **was studying** law when the war started.

To describe an action, event or situation that was in progress at a specified time in the past:

In 1982, we **were living** in a small flat in Agra.

In May of last year, she **was studying** hard for her final exams.

At 6 o’clock this morning, I **was walking** along the beach.

**Contrast: Past Continuous versus Past Simple**

The past simple describes a complete event in the past. The past continuous does not describe the complete event; it describes the event in progress, at some time between its beginning and its end.

Look at the difference between these sentences:

He **was cooking** the dinner when I arrived.

(He started cooking the dinner before my arrival and the cooking was in progress at the time of my arrival.)

He **cooked** the dinner when I arrived.

(I arrived and then he cooked the dinner. Two complete events.)

I **was reading** a book about astrology last night.

(The reading of the book was in progress last night. The past continuous does not describe the complete event so we assume that the book was not finished last night.)

I **read** a book about astrology last night.

(I read the whole book from beginning to end last night.)

## Future Continuous

### FORM

**will be** + present participle: **I'll be coming**, etc.

### USE

To describe an activity that will be in progress at a point in the future:

This time tomorrow we **will be eating** dinner together.

To describe an activity that will cover the whole of a future time period:

**I'll be studying** at Takshzila all day.

**Note:** The future continuous is not used with verbs that do not normally take the continuous form.

**Contrast: future continuous versus will future**

*will* future: expresses intention, belief, hope, assumption and willingness

future continuous: indicates future activity or event but does not express intention or willingness

<b>I'll come</b> and visit you tomorrow	<i>intention / promise</i>
<b>I'll be coming</b> to visit you tomorrow	<i>future activity in normal course</i>
so <b>I</b> can bring the magazines then.	<i>of events</i>
<b>Will</b> you <b>come</b> to the meeting tonight?	<i>request</i>
<b>Will</b> you <b>be coming</b> to the meeting tonight?	<i>casual question about future event</i>

### Contrast: future continuous versus present continuous as future

Present continuous as future: used for plans. The intention is not important. Future continuous: can also be used to refer to plans. It is not generally used when we first tell someone about a plan. It is often used to refer to a plan when this plan is relevant to the main future event in the sentence:

We're **spending** the summer on the coast. (Telling someone about our plans)

A: Have you ever been sailing?

B: No, but we'll **be spending** the summer on the coast so I might try it then.

(Referring to the arrangement to spend summer on the coast in connection with the main idea of the sentence - to try sailing)

A: **Will** you **be using** your bike tomorrow?

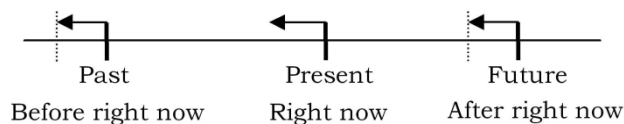
B: No, I won't.

A: Well, I wonder if I could borrow it for the afternoon.

(Asking about plans in order to make a request for the future that is connected to those plans)

## The Perfect Aspect

The use of the perfect aspect indicates that the event took place before the time being referred to (see figure below) **or** that it covered a period of time up to the time being referred to. It also shows that this event has some relevance to the time being referred to:



Veer **has left**. (present perfect)

Veer left before the present time.

He is not here now.

Veer **had left** when we got there. (past perfect)

Veer left before we got there.

He was not there when we got there.

Veer **will have left** when we get there. (future perfect)

Veer will leave before we get there.

He will not be there when we get there.

## Present Perfect

### FORM

**have ('ve) / has ('s) + past participle:** I **'ve decided**, etc.

### USE

The present perfect shows a relationship between past time and present time.

It can be used in the following ways:

**A.** To describe an action that happened at an indefinite time before the present.

For example:

To refer to things that people have done and experiences they have had. Its connection with the present is that the experience is part of that person in the present:

He's **taught** English in five different countries.

**Have** you **been** round the National Gallery?

I **'ve been** to Spain but I **haven't** been to Italy.

When there is very specific evidence in the present of the event that took place in the past:

Oh, you **'ve had** a haircut.

I see they **'ve knocked** down the old cinema in the centre of town.

Often in news reporting. The use of the present perfect makes the event seem more immediate and of direct relevance to the present:

At least twenty people have been killed in a motorway crash.

The Prime Minister **has** announced that taxes are to increase from the beginning of next year.

**B.** With *since*, *for* and *how long* to describe the duration of an activity or situation that started in the past and continues up to the present and possible into the future:

She's **been** away from home for six months.

Hello, I **haven't seen** you for ages.

He's **lived** there since he was a child.

How long **have you** had this problem?



### Contrast: Present Perfect versus Past Simple

I <b>’ve been</b> to Spain and Italy.	(indefinite time)
I <b>went</b> to Spain a couple of years ago and I <b>visited</b> Italy a few times as a child.	(specific time)
<b>Have</b> you <b>been</b> busy this morning?	(It is still the morning now.)
<b>Were</b> you busy this morning?	(This morning is now the finished past.)
He’s <b>been</b> in the army for fifteen years.	(And he is still in the army now.)
He <b>was</b> in the army for fifteen years.	(But he is no longer in the army. The time period of fifteen years finished in the past.)

## Past Perfect

The past perfect simple is used to refer to a past time which preceded the past time already being referred to.

It is used in combination with other past tenses to clarify the sequence of events in a past narrative.

### FORM

I **had** (‘d) + *past participle*: **I had finished**, etc.

### USE

It is used to make it clear that the event in the past perfect came before the event in the past simple:

When I got to the station, the train **had left**.

(The train left before I got to the station.)

Compare with:

When I got to the station, the train left.

(The train left as I arrived or immediately after my arrival.)

As the equivalent of the present perfect.

The present perfect looks back from the past:

Richa and Siddhartha have just got married.

It was June 1991. Richa and Siddhartha **had just got married**.

Jeremy’s 21 now and he’s been in a wheelchair since he was 10.

Jeremy was 21 and he **had been** in a wheelchair since he was 10.

(Note that we use **was** in the *since* clause in both sentences.)

## Future Perfect

To talk about the past from a point in the future. It is the equivalent of the present perfect with the reference point in the future. The present perfect looks back from now: the future perfect looks back from the future.

### FORM

Future perfect simple: **will have** + *past participle*:

**I'll have** finished, etc.

### USE

We use the future perfect simple to say that, at a certain time in the future, something will be completed and be in the past. It is often used with *by* + time reference:

**I'll have finished** this book by tomorrow.

**I'll have told** him the news by the time you get here.

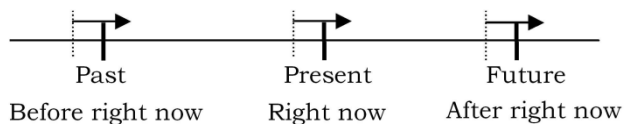
We use the future perfect simple (and continuous) with *for* to talk about the duration of an activity or state up to a time in the future:

**We'll have lived** here for two years in January.

**She'll have been working** here for ten years soon.

## The Perfect Continuous (Progressive) Aspect

The use of the perfect continuous aspect indicates the continuity of an action as well as the point in time (or duration) since the event started.



## Present perfect continuous

### FORM

**have ('ve) / has ('s) + been** + *present participle*: **I've been studying**, etc.

## USE

**A** To refer to an activity which has been taking place in the recent period up to the present. The activity may have finished shortly before the moment of speaking or finish at the moment of speaking in the present:

'You look tired. What **have** you **been doing**?'

'**I've been playing** football.'

'Have you had a good evening?'

'Well, **I've been watching** this film on television but it's rubbish so I think I'll turn it off now.'

They **'ve been going** out a lot recently.

**B** With *since*, *for* and *how long* to refer to an activity which started in the past and continues up to the present and possibly into the future. Also used with phrases starting with *all* (*all day*, *all night*, *all morning*), phrases which emphasize the duration of the activity:

They **'ve been studying** English for three years.

John's **been looking** for a job since he finished university.

How long **have** you **been feeling** so depressed?

She's **been working** all day.

Contrast: Present Perfect Simple versus Present Perfect Continuous

**A.** With no time reference:

**I've been reading** that book. (Describes the activity. The book is not finished.)

**I've read** that book. (Describes the completion of an event. The book is finished.)

**She's been running.** (Describes the activity of running.)

**She's run** three miles. (This describes the completion of the three miles. We cannot say ~~She's been running~~ three miles.)

**He's written** a book about wind-surfing. (Completed at an unspecified time in the past.)

**He's been writing** a book about wind-surfing. (Describes his recent activity.)

**B.** With a time reference:

We can use both the present perfect simple and the present perfect continuous to describe an activity that started in the past and continues up to the present and possibly into the future:

They **'ve been studying** English for three years.

They **'ve studied** English for three years.

(Both these sentences are correct. The present perfect continuous puts more emphasis on the continuity of the activity.)

We can use the present perfect simple and the present perfect continuous with **lately** and **recently**:

**I've been working** really hard lately. (The activity of working is important.)

**I've done** a lot of work lately. (The completion of a lot of work is important.)

## Past Perfect Continuous

### FORM

**had ('d) been** + *present participle*: I **had been** running, etc.

### USE

The past perfect continuous is the equivalent of the present perfect continuous. The present perfect continuous describes an activity looking back from the present and the past perfect continuous describes an activity looking back from the past:

I'm very tired. I've been working all day.

I was very tired. I **had been working** all day.

Why are you so wet? What have you been doing?

Why were you so wet? What **had you been doing?**

The dog from next door has been barking for two hours.

It was 1 o'clock and the dog from next door **had been barking** for two hours.

It's been raining here for days,' she said.

She said it **had been raining** there for days.

(Present perfect continuous becomes past perfect continuous in reported speech.)

## Future Perfect Continuous

### FORM

Future perfect continuous: **will have been** + *present participle*: I'll **have been** working, etc

### USE

We use the future perfect continuous (and simple) with *for* to talk about the duration of an activity or state up to a time in the future:

She'll **have been working** here for ten years soon.

We'll **have lived** here for two years in January.

We use the future perfect continuous to describe an activity leading up to a time in the future:

They might be tired when you see them because they'll **have been working hard**.

## Other ways of referring to the future

We often express future actions with the expression **to be going to**:

I **am going to move** to another apartment as soon as possible.

The simple present tense is also used to speak of future events. This is called the *anticipatory future*. We often use the anticipatory future with verbs of motion such as *come, go, arrive, depart, and leave*:

The flight **arrives** at 7:30 tomorrow morning.

The minister **is leaving** for Europe tomorrow.

We also use the anticipatory future in two-clause sentences when one verb is in the regular future tense:

By the time the textbook **is** completed, it will already be obsolete.

The disputants will announce the new truce as soon as they **agree** on its terms.

## SEQUENCE OF TENSES

When a sentence has two or more verbs in it, you should always check to see whether the tenses of those verbs correctly indicate the order in which things happened. As a general rule, if two things happened at the same time, the verbs should be in the same tense.

Wrong: Just as the sun rose, the rooster crows.

Rose is past tense and crows is present tense, but the words just as indicate that both things happened at the same time. The verbs should be in the same tense.

Correct: Just as the sun **rose**, the rooster **crowed**.

Also Correct: Just as the sun **rises**, the rooster **crow**s.

When we're talking about the past or the future, we often want to indicate that one thing happened or will happen before another. That's where the past perfect and the future perfect come in.

Use the past perfect for the earlier of two past events, and the simple past for the later event.

Wrong: Mozart finished about two thirds of the Requiem when he died.

Putting both verbs of the sentence in the simple past tense makes it sound as if Mozart wrote two thirds of the Requiem after dying. If we put the first verb into the past perfect, though, the sentence makes much more sense.

Correct: Mozart **had finished** about two thirds of the Requiem when he **died**.

**NOTE:** Occasionally, the CAT/GMAT won't use the past perfect for the earlier event. They'll use a word like *before* or *after* to make the sequence of events clear. You should always look for the past perfect, but if it's not there you can settle for the simple past with a time word such as *before* or *after*.

Use the future perfect for the earlier of two future events.

Wrong: By the time I write to Leo he will probably move.

The point the author is trying to get across is not that Leo will move when he gets the letter, but that by the time the letter arrives he'll be living somewhere else.

Correct: By the time I write to Leo, he **will** probably **have moved**.

When you use a participial phrase in a sentence, the action or the situation that phrase describes is assumed to take place at the same time as the action or state described by the verb of the sentence. In other words, if we say:

**Being** a French colony, Senegal is a Francophone nation.

We imply (wrongly, in this case) that Senegal is now a French colony. To make it clear that Senegal used to be a French colony and that that's why its citizens speak French, we say:

**Having been** a French colony, Senegal is a Francophone nation.

In other words, we can make the information in the participial phrase refer to an earlier time than does the verb by changing the regular participle to what's called a perfect participle. The name isn't important as long as you remember that the way to do it is to use *having* + *the past participle*.

You can do the same thing with infinitives by replacing the regular infinitive with *to have* + *the past participle*.

I'm glad **to meet** you. (I'm glad to be in the process of meeting you right now.)

I'm glad **to have** met you. (I'm glad now that I met you earlier today, last week, or whenever.)

## THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

The subjunctive mood is used to indicate a hypothetical situation, a wish, or a circumstance contrary to fact. Examples of the last might be, “If I were rich,” said by someone who is not, or “If I were you,” because one could never actually be the other person. The subjunctive is also used occasionally to make a suggestion or a demand. Here are some uses of the subjunctive:

**Hypothetical Situation:** If we were to leave on Friday, we’d get there early.

**Wish:** I wish I were on the morning shift.

**Contrary to Fact:** If I were you, I would run for office.

**Suggestion:** I suggest she take her things with her on the trip.

**Demand:** His teacher demanded that Ed show up on time.

You’ll notice that in most of these examples, the form of the verb doesn’t seem to match the person and number of the subject—it says, “I were” instead of “I am,” “she take” instead of “she takes” and “Ed show” instead of “Ed shows.” There is a whole thicket full of odd-sounding constructions in the subjunctive mood, most of them used only in poetic or parliamentary contexts. However, all you really need to know in order to navigate the subjunctive waters successfully for most occasions are two rules. Here’s the less important one first:

In the subjunctive mood, verbs in the present tense drop the “s” they normally end with in the third person. In other words, instead of *I suggest she attends*, it should be *I suggest she attend*.

The most significant rule, though, is for the verb “to be,” because that’s the verb most commonly used in the subjunctive mood today. And the rule is this:

The past tense form “was” is always replaced by “were” in the subjunctive mood, no matter what the person and number of the subject is. For example, you shouldn’t say *If he was there, this wouldn’t have happened*. You should say *If he were there, this wouldn’t have happened*.

How can you be sure you’re dealing with the subjunctive so you know whether “were” is correct? Here’s a litmus test:

First, check for key words, such as “if,” “as though,” and “wish.” They are used in all the moods but are so common in the subjunctive that their presence in a sentence increases the odds that that’s the mood you’re dealing with. Second, ask yourself if the sentence is about an uncertainty, a wish, a suggestion, a demand, or a condition clearly contrary to fact, such as *If wishes were horses then beggars would ride*. If it is, you’re definitely in the subjunctive and you need to change your “wases” to “weres.”

## CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

Conditional sentences are if-then statements.

*If you go, then I'll go, too.*

*If I were you, (then) I wouldn't do that.*

We use conditional sentences when we want to speculate about the results of a particular situation.

There are three types of conditional sentences.

### Statements of Fact

If Mamta Banerjee resigns, there will be unrest in West Bengal.

If John Milton met Galileo, they probably discussed astronomy.

**Contrary-to-Fact:** The situation in the *if* clause never happened, so what is said in the *then* clause is pure speculation.

Blaise Pascal wrote that if Cleopatra's nose had been shorter, the face of the world would have changed.

Alexander the Great said, "If I were not Alexander, I would want to be Diogenes."

**Future Speculation:** Some conditional sentences speculate about the future, but with the idea that the situation in the *if* clause is extremely unlikely to happen.

*If Shakespeare's manuscripts were to be discovered, the texts of some of his plays would be less uncertain.*





## Exercise:

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Fill in the blank with the correct option from the choices given

1. .... any one object if I turn the heating down?  
 a) do                                      b) does                                      c) did                                      d) doing
2. I ..... come to the conclusion that nowadays nobody cares about anything.  
 a) will                                      b) had                                      c) do                                      d) have
3. No matter what happens next I ..... help you.  
 a) am                                      b) have                                      c) will                                      d) would
4. They ..... for 3 hours when the storm suddenly broke.  
 a) had been running                                      b) have been running  
 c) are running                                      d) will be running
5. I assumed you ..... paying for the repairs until the end of last year.  
 a) have been                                      b) was been                                      c) are being                                      d) had been
6. .... get tired of answering the same questions every day?  
 a) Have you ever                                      b) had you ever                                      c) do you ever                                      d) are you ever
7. She ..... working on that manuscript for 2 years now.  
 a) will be                                      b) has been                                      c) had been                                      d) is
8. I ..... there once a long time ago and haven't been back since.  
 a) went                                      b) go                                      c) have gone                                      d) was going
9. She ..... trying to pass her driving test but fails every time.  
 a) kept                                      b) is keeping                                      c) had kept                                      d) keeps
10. I ..... complete silence now while I try this experiment.  
 a) am wanting                                      b) want                                      c) did want                                      d) have wanted
11. Many people ..... tried but no-one has succeeded so far.  
 a) did                                      b) have been                                      c) were                                      d) have
12. That programme is so boring that it's like watching paint .....  
 a) dries                                      b) dried                                      c) dry                                      d) has dried



7. James Garfield could (wrote, write) Latin with one hand and Greek with the other—simultaneously.
8. Before Bill Clinton, no left-handed American president had ever (serve, served) two terms.
9. Only three Presidents (have graduated, graduate) from the military academies: Grant and Eisenhower from West Point, and Carter from Annapolis.
10. The U.S. Constitution stipulates that, to be eligible for the Presidency, a candidate must be a natural-born citizen, must (have lived, live) in the United States for a minimum of 14 years, and must be at least 35 years old.
11. Franklin D. Roosevelt was the first U.S. president to have a presidential aircraft, but he only (flew, flew) on the airplane once, to travel to the Yalta conference during World War II.
12. Of all U.S. presidents, none (live, lived) to be older than John Adams, who died at the age of 91.
13. John Quincy Adams (taked, took) his last skinny-dip in the Potomac on his seventyninth birthday.
14. All U.S. presidents (have worn, weared, have weared) glasses, but some of these men didn't like to be seen wearing eyeglasses in public.
15. When Harry Truman left office in 1952, he (get, got) in his own car and (drived, drove) himself back to Missouri.



## 5. Subject-Verb Agreement

Subject-Verb Agreement, as the phrase suggests, is when there is agreement between the verb and the subject to which it refers. The verb should agree with the subject in *number* and in *person*. *Number* means singular or plural; *person* means whether the subject is: the speaker – *1st person*, the person being spoken to – *2nd person*, or the person being spoken about or being referred to – *3rd person*.

### Agreement in number

Shiela is going for a walk.

Shiela and Seema are going for a walk.

They are going for a walk.

### Agreement in person

I am going for a walk.

You are going for a walk.

He is going for a walk.

Attention:

Verbs, unlike nouns, are singular with an 's' or 'es' and plural without an 's' or 'es'.

Singular verbs end in -s or -es.

Plural nouns end in -s or -es.

Here are some examples:

Singular			Plural		
First	Second	Third	First	Second	Third
I begin	You begin	(He, she, it) begins	We begin	You begin	They begin
I do	You do	(He, she, it) does	We do	You do	They do

Here are some rules you need to remember:

1. When two or more subjects are separated by an **either ...or...** or **(neither) ...nor...** the verb agrees with the nearest subject.

Either he **or** his friends **are** going.

Neither his students **nor** the teacher **is** going.

2. When two or more subjects are separated by an **and...** the verb will obviously be plural.

The baby **and** its toy **are** looking so cute in the photograph.

However there are a few exceptions to this rule, and all these exceptions have one thing in common, i.e. when they function as a single unit or item, they take a singular verb.

*Sita and Gita* **was** a good movie. (Title of a movie)

*Chhola and Bhatara* **is** tasty. (Name of a dish)

Other phrases like this include *fish and chips*, *bacon and eggs*, *research and development* etc.

When two or more things separated by an **and** refer back to the same subject, the verb will be singular.



**His** fame and popularity **is** on the decline.

(Fame and popularity both refer to the same subject)

When each of the two subjects is preceded with an article, the verb will be plural as we are talking about two different individuals or things. However when only the first subject has an article preceding it, the verb will be singular, as we are now talking about the same person.

**The** politician and **the** businessman **have** arrived.

**The** politician and businessman **has** arrived.

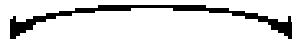
3. When you have two subjects separated by anything but an **and** the verb agrees with the main subject. Such expressions include *with*, *together with*, *including*, *accompanied by*, *in addition to*, or *as well as*. This rule doesn't apply to the 1<sup>st</sup> rule.



**Jack**, as well as his friends, **is** going for the dance.



**Amit**, accompanied by his wife, **has** gone for dinner.

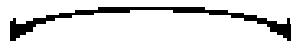


All the **books**, including yours, **are** in the cupboard.

4. Do not be misled by a phrase that comes between the subject and the verb. The verb agrees with the subject, not with a noun or pronoun in the phrase.



**One** of the boys **is** supposed to do it.



The **man** with all his children **is** running.

5. Subjects that are singular in meaning but plural in form require a singular verb. These subjects include words such as *means* (= 'method' or 'money') some diseases, e.g. *diabetes, rabies, measles, mumps*, some academic disciplines e.g. *civics, social studies, economics, mathematics*, some sports, e.g. *gymnastics, athletics* etc. However these academic disciplines when used in the general sense can take plural verbs.



**Politics is** my favourite subject.



His **politics are** bordering on the communist.

(=political belief)

**Economics is** an interesting discipline

The **economics** behind their policies **are** unreasonable.

(= financial system)

6. Indefinite pronouns such as *each, each one, either, neither, everyone, everybody, anybody, anyone, nobody, somebody, someone*, and *no one* are singular and require a singular verb.



**Everyone is** supposed to dance.



**Either is** correct



**Each** one of these questions **is** difficult.

Note: 'Many a' also takes a singular verb. Note that 'many a' will also take a singular subject.



**Many a** little boy **has** wanted to become a doctor.

7. Nouns such as *scissors, tweezers, trousers*, and *shears* require plural verbs. (There are two parts to these things.). Compare;



All my **trousers are** woollen.



This **pair** of trousers **is** dirty.



These **scissors are** not sharp.



A **pair** of scissors **is** kept on the shelf.



8. Collective nouns are words that imply more than one person but that are considered singular and take a singular verb, such as: *group, team, committee, class, and family*.

In very few cases, the plural verb is used if the individuals in the group are thought of and specifically referred to.

A collective noun is considered *singular* when it functions as a single unit. Collective nouns used as one unit take a singular verb.

A collective noun is considered *plural* when the group it identifies is considered to be individuals. Collective nouns that indicate many units take a plural verb.

Compare:

The jury **has** given **its** verdict (body)

The jury **are** divided over the issue (individuals)

The committee **decides** how to proceed. (unit)

The committee **were** asked to raise **their** hands. (individuals)

9. Some phrases with a plural form are thought of as a single thing and have a singular verb. These include phrases referring to measurements, amounts and quantities:



**Three hundred meters is** not very much.



**Fifty rupees is** not what I want.

10. The nouns police, people and staff always have a plural verb in the English Language.

11. **A number** of anything is plural and **the number** of anything is singular

**A number of** boys **are** required to do this job.

**The number** of boys required to do this job **is** quite large.

12. Countable nouns take singular or plural form depending on the subject with which they are used and uncountable nouns take singular verbs. (See section on *Nouns in Parts of Speech* chapter)



Three **chocolates are** fine for me. (Plural Countable)



A **chocolate is** one of the most amazing things. (Singular Countable)



**Money is** the root of most evils. (Uncountable)



All the **equipment has** been removed. (Uncountable)

13. Phrases such as **any of, none of, a lot of, plenty of, all (of), some of**, look plural but the verb they take is a function of the subject with which they are used, depending on which the verb can be singular or plural.



Some of the **girls have** not turned up. (Plural Countable)



Some of the **cake has** been eaten (Singular Countable)

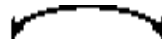


Some of the **furniture is** antique. (Uncountable)

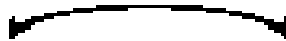
14. We use the word **percent** as part of a numerical expression. We use the word **percentage** to suggest a portion. So **percent** can be singular or plural depending on the subject, whereas **percentage** will always be singular.



Only two **percent** of the **students have** failed. (Plural Countable)



Around 10 **percent** of the **forest is** destroyed each year (Uncountable)



The **percentage** of students who fail **has** decreased (Percentage)

15. Check the Correct Pronoun Reference section of the Pronouns chapter.



## Exercise

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State if each of the following statements is True or False

1. A subject must agree with its verb in number. *Number* means singular or plural.
2. A *plural* subject names *one* person, place, thing, or idea.
3. A *singular* subject names *more than one* person, place, thing, or idea.
4. In English, the plural of most nouns is formed by adding -s or -es to the singular form.
5. Pronouns do not have singular and plural forms.
6. Verbs also show singular and plural forms.
7. The form of the verb changes only in the third-person singular form.
8. A plural subject must have a singular verb. A singular subject must have a plural verb.
9. Two or more singular subjects joined by *or* or *nor* must have a singular verb.
10. Subjects that are singular in meaning but plural in form require a singular verb.
11. Plural subjects that function as a single unit take a plural verb.
12. Titles are always singular.
13. Two or more plural subjects joined by *or* or *nor* must have a plural verb.
14. A compound subject joined by *and* is singular and must have a singular verb.
15. If two or more singular and plural subjects are joined by *or* or *nor*, always use a plural verb.
16. A *collective noun* names a group of people or things.
17. *Collective nouns* are always plural, no matter how they are used in a sentence.
18. *Indefinite pronouns* can be singular or plural, depending on how they are used in a sentence.
19. Indefinite pronouns include words such as *everyone*, *someone*, *all*, and *more*.
20. When you are determining agreement, disregard words or phrases that come between the subject and the verb.
21. A pronoun agrees (or matches) with its antecedent in *number* and *person*, but not *gender*.
22. Use a singular personal pronoun with a singular indefinite pronoun.
23. In general, use a plural pronoun when the antecedents are joined by *and*. This is not true if the antecedents are singular.

24. Antecedents joined by *or*, *nor*, or correlative conjunctions such as *either . . . or*, *neither . . . nor* agree with the antecedent closer to the pronoun.
25. Agreement makes sentences sound smooth and logical.
26. The noun *car* is singular, but *cars* is plural.
27. The noun *tomatoes* is singular, but *tomato* is plural.
28. The noun *women* is singular, but *woman* is plural.
29. The pronoun *I* is singular, but *we* is plural.
30. The verb *stands* is singular, but *stand* is plural.
31. The verb *are* is singular, but *is* is plural.
32. The verb *was eating* is singular, but *were eating* is plural.
33. The verb *were* is singular, but *was* is plural.
34. The verb *grows* is singular, but *grow* is plural.
35. The verb phrase *have been watching* is singular, but *has been watching* is plural.

Select the word that best completes each sentence.

1. The pop you get when you crack your knuckles (are, is) actually a bubble of gas bursting.
2. Polar bears (is, are) left-handed.
3. The name of all the continents (ends, end) with the same letter that they start with.
4. No president of the United States (were, was) an only child.
5. Everyone (are, is) entitled to my opinion.
6. Here is some good advice: Don't sneeze when someone (is, are) cutting your hair.
7. If a man (are, is) wearing a striped suit, it's against the law to throw a knife at him in Natoma, Kansas.
8. In 1659, Massachusetts (makes, made) Christmas illegal.
9. Unless you have a doctor's note, it (are, is) illegal to buy ice cream after 6 P.M. in Newark, New Jersey.
10. It is a misdemeanour to show movies that (depicts, depict) acts of felonious crime in Montana.
11. I (drives, drive) way too fast to worry about cholesterol.
12. If Barbie (are, is) so popular, why do you have to (buys, buy) her friends?
13. Many people (quits, quit) looking for work when they find a job.

14. A Rolling Stone (play, plays) the guitar.
15. It's always darkest just before I (open, opens) my eyes.
16. The squeaking wheel (get, gets) annoying.
17. A journey of a thousand miles (begin, begins) with a blister.
18. Don't count your chickens—it (take, takes) too long.
19. Donald Duck comics (was, were) banned from Finland because he doesn't wear pants.
20. *Kemo Sabe* (mean, means) "soggy shrub" in Navajo.
21. All porcupines (floats, float) in water.
22. The only nation whose name (begins, begin) with an A but doesn't end in an A is Afghanistan.
23. Emus cannot (walks, walk) backwards.
24. Most Americans' car horns (beep, beeps) in the key of "F."
25. No word in the English language (rhymes, rhyme) with *month*.

Choose the best answer to each question.

1. The American slogan for Salem cigarettes, "Salem-Feeling Free," \_\_\_\_\_ translated into the Japanese market as "When smoking Salem, you will feel so refreshed that your mind \_\_\_\_\_ to be free and empty."
  - a) Was, seems
  - b) Was, seem
  - c) Were, seem
  - d) Were, seems
2. Frank Perdue's chicken slogan, "It takes a strong man to make a tender chicken," \_\_\_\_\_ translated into Spanish as "It \_\_\_\_\_ an aroused man to make a chicken affectionate."
  - a) Were, takes
  - b) Were, take
  - c) Was, takes
  - d) Was, take
3. I had a linguistics professor who said that it's man's ability to use language that \_\_\_\_\_ him the dominant species on the planet. That may be. But I think there's one other thing that \_\_\_\_\_ us from animals. We aren't afraid of vacuum cleaners. —Jeff Stilson
  - a) Make, separate
  - b) Make, separates
  - c) Makes, separate
  - d) Makes, separates
4. According to the national average: Once someone \_\_\_\_\_ an elevator button, 58 seconds will pass before they will \_\_\_\_\_ it again. In New York, it's 11 seconds.
  - a) Push, push
  - b) Push, pushes
  - c) Pushes, push
  - d) Pushes, pushes
5. If police arrest a mime, do they \_\_\_\_\_ him he \_\_\_\_\_ the right to remain silent?
  - a) Tell, have
  - b) Tell, has
  - c) Tells, has
  - d) Tells, have

6. I've learned that it \_\_\_\_\_ years to build up trust and only seconds to destroy \_\_\_\_\_.
- a) Takes, them                      b) Takes, it                      c) Take, them                      d) Take, it
7. I've learned that either you \_\_\_\_\_ your attitude or it \_\_\_\_\_ you.
- a) Control, controls                      b) Control, control                      c) Controls, control                      d) Controls, controls
8. I've learned that our background and circumstances may have influenced who we \_\_\_\_\_, but we are responsible for who we \_\_\_\_\_.
- a) Is, become                      b) Is, becomes                      c) Are, becomes                      d) Are, become
9. I've learned that credentials on the wall do not \_\_\_\_\_ you a decent human being.
- a) Made                      b) Makes                      c) Make                      d) Making
10. Up to 3,000 species of trees \_\_\_\_\_ been catalogued in one square mile of the Amazon jungle.
- a) Is                      b) Was                      c) Has                      d) Have

#### Further Exercises

1. Correct all errors in agreement in the following paragraph.

Two people left a 15-mile-long trail of doughnuts after they took a donut truck from a parking lot and fled, police said Thursday. The truck were parked at a convenience store with its rear doors open and its engine running while a deliveryman carried doughnuts inside, said a Slidell police spokesman. Two suspects hopped in the truck and sped off to the nearby town of Lacombe, with doughnuts spilling out along the way, he said. They abandoned the truck when they was spotted by police responding to reports of a dangerous driver who were losing his doughnuts. A passenger were captured, but the driver, whose name were not released, ran away. Their motive for taking the truck filled with donuts were unclear. "I don't know if it were a need for transportation or if they just had the munchies," the police said.

2. Correct all errors in agreement in the following paragraph.

A wife are complaining about her husband spending all his time at the local tavern, so one night he take her along with him.

"What'll ya have?" he ask.

"Oh, I don't know. The same as you, I suppose," she reply.

So the husband order a couple of Jack Daniels and gulp his down in one go.

His wife watch him, then take a sip from her glass and immediately spit it out.

"Yuck, it tastes awful, worse than awful!" she splutter. "I don't know how you can drink this stuff!"

"Well, there you goes," cry the husband. "And you thinks I'm out enjoying myself every night!"



## 6. Modifiers and Parallel Structure

### 6.1. Dangling modifiers

Incorrect: Flying over the countryside, cars and houses looked like toys.

Correct: As we flew over the countryside, cars and houses looked like toys.

A *modifier* is a word or phrase that describes a subject, verb, or object. (To “modify” is to qualify the meaning.). The modifier is said to “dangle” when the word it modifies has been left out of the sentence. Dangling modifiers confuse your readers and obscure your meaning because the sentence doesn’t make sense.

Correct a dangling modifier by adding the word or words that have been left out. Here, the subject *we* was added and *flying* was changed to *flew* so the sentence makes sense.

And while we’re dangling, let’s look at another mangled construction, *dangling participles*. A *participle* is a verb ending in *-ing*. It is *dangling* when the subject of the participle and the subject of the sentence don’t agree. For example:

Incorrect: Rushing to finish the paper, Sandy’s printer broke.

(The subject is Sandy’s printer, but the printer isn’t doing the rushing.)

Correct: While Sandy was rushing to finish the paper, his printer broke.

One way to tell whether the participle is dangling is to put the clause with the participle right after the subject of the sentence: “Sandy’s printer, rushing to finish the paper, broke.” You can easily hear that it doesn’t sound right.

*Note:* Not all words that end in *-ing* are participles. For example: “Completing the task by Tuesday is your next assignment.” The word *completing* functions as a noun, not a verb. (Nouns ending in *-ing* are called *gerunds*.)

### 6.2. Misplaced modifiers

Incorrect: My parents bought a kitten for my sister they call Paws.

Correct: My parents bought a kitten they call Paws for my sister.

A *misplaced modifier* is a phrase, clause, or word placed too far from the noun or pronoun it describes. As a result, the sentence fails to convey your exact meaning. As this sentence is written, it means that the sister, not the kitten, is named Paws. That’s because the modifier *they call Paws* is in the wrong place in the sentence. **To correct a misplaced modifier, move the modifier as close as possible to the word or phrase it describes.**

You also need to watch the placement of modifiers such as *almost*, *even*, *hardly*, *nearly*, *often*, and *only*. A couple of examples should be enough:

1. Big Dog almost ran around the yard twenty times.
2. He nearly ate a whole box of treats.

In both sentences—when he “almost ran” and “nearly ate”—nothing happened! He didn’t quite get around to doing either thing. What is intended is:

1. Big Dog ran around the yard *almost* twenty times.
2. He ate *nearly* a whole box of treats.

### 6.3. Squinting Modifier

A third problem in modifier placement is described as a “squinting modifier.” This is an unfortunate result of an adverb’s ability to pop up almost anywhere in a sentence; structurally, the adverb may function fine, but its meaning can be obscure or ambiguous. For instance, in the sentence below, do the students seek advice frequently or can they frequently improve their grades by seeking advice? You can’t tell from that sentence because the adverb often is “squinting” (you can’t tell which way it’s looking). Let’s try placing the adverb elsewhere.

Confusion Danger!

Students who seek their instructors’ advice often can improve their grades.

Repair Work: Students who often seek their instructors’ advice can improve their grades OR Students who seek their instructors’ advice can often improve their grades.

### 6.4. Split Infinitive

What is a split infinitive, and why should I avoid using one?

This is a split infinitive:

*To boldly go where no man has gone before!*

The infinitive is *to go*, and it has been ‘split’ by the adverb *boldly*. Split infinitives have been the cause of much controversy among teachers and grammarians, but the notion that they are ungrammatical is simply a myth: in his famous book *Modern English Usage*, Henry Fowler listed them among ‘superstitions’!

Split infinitives are frequently poor style, but they are not strictly bad grammar. In the example above, to avoid the split infinitive would result either in weakness (*to go boldly*) or over-formality (*boldly to go*): either would ruin the rhythmic force and rhetorical pattern of the original. It is probably good practice to avoid split infinitives in formal writing, but clumsy attempts to avoid them simply by shuffling adverbs about can create far worse sentences.

## 6.5. Parallel Structure

In 1946, Winston Churchill travelled to Fulton, Missouri, *to deliver* a speech and *to be present* at the dedication of a bust in his honour. After his speech, an *attractive* and *ample* woman approached the wartime prime minister of England and said, “Mr. Churchill, *I have travelled* over a hundred miles for the unveiling of your bust.” Churchill, who was known *far* and *wide* for his quick wit, responded, “I assure you, in that regard, *I would gladly return the favour.*”

Parallel structure means putting ideas of the same rank in the same grammatical structure. In the above anecdote, the italicized words and phrases show parallel structure. Your writing and speech should have parallel words, phrases, and clauses. Parallel structure gives your writing many admirable strengths, including tempo, stress, balance, and conciseness.

1. *Parallel words* share the same part of speech (such as nouns, adjectives, or verbs) and tense (if the words are verbs).

To some people, travelling by air is *safe*, *inexpensive*, and *convenient*.

To others, it’s *dangerous*, *expensive*, and *inconvenient*.

You should eat foods that are *nourishing* as well as *tasty*.

2. *Parallel phrases* contain modifiers.

Polyester shirts wash easily, drip-dry quickly, and wear durably.

Nick took the new job to learn more about finance, make important connections, and get a health plan.

“For taking away our Charters, abolishing our laws, and altering the Forms of our Government . . .” (Declaration of Independence)

3. *Parallel clauses* can be complete sentences or dependent clauses.

I came, I saw, I conquered.

“Our chiefs are killed; Looking-Glass is dead; Ta-Hool-Shute is dead.” (Chief Joseph’s surrender speech, 1877)



## Exercise:

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### Modifiers:

**Type 1:** From the following pairs of sentences, select the one which is correct.

1. a) Piled up next to the washer, I began doing the laundry.  
b) I began doing the laundry piled up next to the washer.
2. a) While Rohan was talking on the phone, the doorbell rang.  
b) While talking on the phone, the doorbell rang.
3. a) Standing on the balcony, the ocean view was magnificent.  
b) Standing on the balcony, we had a magnificent ocean view.
4. a) As I was running across the floor, the rug slipped and I lost my balance,  
b) Running across the floor, the rug slipped and I lost my balance.
5. a) While taking out the trash, the sack broke.  
b) While Jamie was taking out the trash, the sack broke.
6. a) I almost listened to the whole album.  
b) I listened to almost the whole album.
7. a) He was staring at the girl wearing dark glasses by the vending machine.  
b) He was staring at the girl by the vending machine wearing dark glasses.
8. a) We read that Janet was married in her last letter.  
b) In her last letter, we read that Janet was married.
9. a) The faulty alarm nearly sounded five times yesterday.  
b) The faulty alarm system sounded nearly five times yesterday.
10. a) On the evening news, I heard that there was a revolution.  
b) I heard that there was a revolution on the evening news

**Type 2:**

1. Select the correctly written sentence in this group.
  - a) Spending way too much money on his old car, Asim's salary just wasn't enough.
  - b) Spending way too much money on his old car, Asim soon found he'd used up his salary.
2. Select the correctly written sentence in this group.
  - a) To become a respected politician, one must administer campaign funds carefully.
  - b) To become a respected politician, campaign funds must be carefully administered.
3. Select the correctly written sentence in this group.
  - a) I like to listen to rock music doing my homework.
  - b) I like to listen to rock music while I do my homework.
4. Select the correctly written sentence in this group.
  - a) The soccer team only won four games in the last three years.
  - b) The soccer team won only four games in the last three years.
5. Select the correctly written sentence in this group.
  - a) Without a plan for the weekend, we decided to take in a Saturday matinee.
  - b) Without a plan for the weekend, a Saturday matinee seemed a good idea at the time.
6. Select the correctly written sentence in this group.
  - a) The children were delighted by the monkeys swinging wildly through the trees.
  - b) Swinging wildly through the trees, the children were delighted by the monkeys.

**Type 3:**

1. Which of the following sentences contains a dangling modifier?
  - A. To raise a good dog, patience is useful.
  - B. Moving slowly, Bobby stalked the rabbits.
  - C. After eating the catfood, Bobby belched.
  - D. all of the above
  - E. none of the above

2. Which of the following sentences contains a dangling participial phrase?
  - A. Fiza got into serious trouble missing the grammar quiz last Monday.
  - B. To complete the grammar quiz on time, you will have to click your heels three times.
  - C. When taking a grammar quiz, concentration is everything.
  - D. all of the above
  - E. none of the above
3. Which of the following sentences contains a dangling gerund phrase?
  - A. On completing the grammar quiz, spiking your pencil is acceptable.
  - B. Wearing a helmet is a sign of a healthy awareness of death.
  - C. When she talks to her parents, she is reminded that she is lucky that they are happy and healthy.
  - D. all of the above
  - E. none of the above
4. Which of the following sentences contains a dangling modifier?
  - A. After washing my car, I waxed it.
  - B. After talking with our veterinarian, I felt better about the prognosis.
  - C. She called her boyfriend because she missed him.
  - D. all of the above
  - E. none of the above
5. Which of the following sentences contains a dangling modifier?
  - A. Having worked for the company for twenty years, I was surprised to learn that my retirement benefits would not be sufficient.
  - B. Having taught phonology every semester for the last five years, he was eager to teach syntax.
  - C. After sweating in Reavis Hall throughout the summer, I am ready for winter.
  - D. all of the above
  - E. none of the above

6. The sentence “John wants to really do well on this exam” contains which of the following errors?
- A. dangling modifier
  - B. squinting modifier
  - C. split infinitive
  - D. all of the above
  - E. none of the above
7. Which of the following sentences has a misplaced modifier?
- A. He only talks about changing his habits. [Intended meaning: He only talks but does nothing else, like consulting a physician or psychiatrist, about changing his habits.]
  - B. A dog appeared in my dreams that sang like an angel.
  - C. The steak on the grill is hers.
  - D. all of the above
  - E. none of the above
8. Which of the following sentences is grammatically correct?
- A. Only Bill wanted to go to the lake. [Intended meaning: Bill wanted to go to the lake, but no one else did.]
  - B. Bill only hinted that he would help us move. [Intended meaning: Bill hinted but did not, for example, promise that he would help us move.]
  - C. Bill wanted only Mary to win. [Intended meaning; Bill wanted Mary to win, but did not want anyone else to win.
  - D. all of the above
  - E. none of the above
9. Which of the following sentences has a misplaced modifier?
- A. The dog bit only the mail carrier. [Intended meaning: The dog bit the mail carrier but didn’t bite anyone else.]
  - B. He talked too quickly.
  - C. You should consider your options carefully.
  - D. all of the above
  - E. none of the above

10. Which of the following sentences has a misplaced modifier?
- A. Most stress disorders can be effectively treated with serotonin-uptake inhibitors.
  - B. These disorders include depression, heat intolerance, onychophagia, pathologic jealousy, dysthymia, and trichotillomania.
  - C. Most dictionaries will not have obscure medical terminology, although most good dictionaries will have the Latin and Greek roots that morphologically compose the terminology.
  - D. all of the above
  - E. none of the above

## Parallelism:

**Type 1:** Select the sentences that illustrate the use of proper parallel construction:

1. a) Shweta Sinha has wit, charm, and she has an extremely pleasant personality.  
b) Shweta Sinha has wit, charm, and a pleasing personality.
2. a) In English class, Saloni learned to read poems critically and to appreciate good prose.  
b) In English class, Saloni learned to read poems critically and she appreciated good prose.
3. a) Rahul's GPA is higher than Ramesh.  
b) Rahul's GPA is higher than Ramesh's.
4. a) He wanted three things out of college: to learn a skill, to make good friends, and to learn about life.  
b) He wanted three things out of college: to learn a skill, to make good friends, and learning about life.
5. a) Coach Gupta was a brilliant strategist, a caring mentor, and a wise friend.  
b) Coach Gupta was a brilliant strategist, a caring mentor, and friend.
6. a) We found the film repulsive, offensive, and we thought it was embarrassing.  
b) We found the film repulsive, offensive, and embarrassing.
7. a) Mr. Singh kept his store clean, neat, and he made it conveniently arranged.  
b) Mr. Singh kept his store clean, neat, and conveniently arranged.
8. a) Professor Ali rewarded his students for working hard on the final project and going beyond the call of duty.  
b) Professor Ali rewarded his students for their hard work on the final project and going beyond the call of duty.

9. a) There's nothing I like better than finding a good trout stream, setting up camp, and spending a couple of days fishing.
- b) There's nothing I like better than finding a good trout stream, setting up camp, and to spend a couple of days fishing.

**Type 2:** Make the following sentences parallel. Enter the correct version of the item in the series which does not match the others. (Don't worry about closing punctuation.)

1. Meena wanted to paint her office, to add some new draperies, and the carpet need cleaning.
2. When Friday rolls around, do you go to the mall, head for a bar, or are you going to work?
3. Last year, my brother dropped out of school, was looking for work, and needed a place to stay.
4. He watched the latest version of King Lear, studied for his math test, and was talking on the phone.

# Answer Key

## Parts of Speech

### True-False Questions

1. T    2. T    3. F    4. F    5. T    6. F  
7. T    8. T    9. F    10. T    11. F    12. F  
13. T    14. T    15. T

### Completion Questions

- |                        |                           |
|------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. proper nouns        | 2. the                    |
| 3. definite article    | 4. Predicate adjectives   |
| 5. Conjunctive adverbs | 6. seven                  |
| 7. in pairs            | 8. name groups            |
| 9. I                   | 10. Yours                 |
| 11. add emphasis       | 12. Interrogative pronoun |
| 13. verb               | 14. mental                |
| 15. transitive         | 16. intransitive          |
| 17. "Who?"/"What?"     | 18. Linking verbs         |
| 19. to be              | 20. adjective             |

### Multiple-Choice Questions

1. a    2. b    3. c    4. d    5. b    6. d  
7. c    8. c    9. d    10. a

## Phrases and Clauses

### True-False Questions

1. T    2. F    3. T    4. F    5. T    6. F  
7. F    8. T    9. T    10. F    11. T    12. F  
13. T    14. F    15. F    16. T    17. T    18. F  
19. T    20. T    21. F    22. T    23. F    24. T  
25. F

### Completion Questions

- |                        |                        |
|------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. verb                | 2. dependent clauses   |
| 3. main clauses        | 4. Subordinating       |
| 5. condition           | 6. contrast            |
| 7. subordinate clauses | 8. subordinate clauses |
| 9. comma               | 10. In what manner?    |
| 11. relative           | 12. that               |
| 13. thing              | 14. dependent          |
| 15. independent        |                        |

## Multiple-Choice Questions

1. d    2. a    3. c    4. b    5. b    6. c  
7. d    8. b    9. a    10. a    11. d    12. b  
13. c    14. c    15. a

## Pronouns

### True-False Questions

1. T    2. T    3. F    4. F    5. T    6. T  
7. F    8. F    9. T    10. F    11. F    12. F  
13. T    14. T    15. T

### Completion Questions

- |          |          |          |             |
|----------|----------|----------|-------------|
| 1. I     | 2. they  | 3. she   | 4. who      |
| 5. who   | 6. he    | 7. they  | 8. that, us |
| 9. which | 10. that | 11. whom | 12. me      |
| 13. me   | 14. him  | 15. whom |             |

### Multiple-Choice Questions

1. b    2. c    3. c    4. a    5. d    6. b  
7. c    8. a    9. b    10. d

## Tenses

### Fill in the Blanks

1. b    2. d    3. c    4. a    5. d    6. c  
7. b    8. a    9. d    10. b    11. d    12. c  
13. b    14. d    15. a    16. c    17. b    18. d  
19. c    20. a

### Completion Questions

- |                |               |                   |
|----------------|---------------|-------------------|
| 1. was         | 2. resigned   | 3. shot           |
| 4. won         | 5. gained     | 6. appeared       |
| 7. write       | 8. served     | 9. have graduated |
| 10. have lived | 11. flew      | 12. lived         |
| 13. took       | 14. have worn | 15. got, drove    |

## Subect Verb Areement

### True-False Questions

1. T    2. F    3. F    4. T    5. F    6. T  
 7. T    8. F    9. T    10. T    11. F    12. T  
 13. T    14. F    15. F    16. T    17. F    18. T  
 19. T    20. T    21. F    22. T    23. F    24. T  
 25. T    26. T    27. F    28. F    29. T    30. T  
 31. F    32. T    33. F    34. T    35. F

### Completion Questions

1. is            2. are            3. ends            4. was  
 5. is            6. is            7. is            8. made  
 9. is            10. depict    11. drive    12. is, buy  
 13. quit        14. plays        15. open        16. gets  
 17. begins    18. takes        19. were        20. means  
 21. float        22. begins    23. walk        24. beep  
 25. rhymes

### Multiple-Choice Questions

1. a    2. c    3. d    4. c    5. b    6. b  
 7. a    8. d    9. c    10. d

### Further Exercises

1. Two people left a 15-mile-long-trail of doughnuts after they took a donut truck from a parking lot and fled, police said Thursday. The truck was parked at a convenience store with its rear doors open and its engine running while a deliveryman carried doughnuts inside, said a Slidell police spokesman. Two suspects hopped in the truck and sped off to the nearby town of Lacombe, with doughnuts spilling out along the way, he said. They abandoned the truck when they were spotted by police responding to reports of a dangerous driver who was losing his doughnuts. A passenger was captured, but the driver, whose name was not released, ran away.

Their motive for taking the truck filled with donuts was unclear.

“I don’t know if it was a need for transportation or if they just had the munchies,” the police said.

2. A wife is complaining about her husband spending all his time at the local tavern, so one night he takes her along with him.

“What’ll ya have?” he asks.

“Oh, I don’t know. The same as you, I suppose,” she replies.

So the husband orders a couple of Jack Daniels and gulps his down in one go.

His wife watches him, then takes a sip from her glass and immediately spits it out.

“Yuck, it tastes awful, worse than awful!” she splutters. “I don’t know how you can drink this stuff!”

“Well, there you go,” cries the husband. “And you think I’m out enjoying myself every night!”

## Modifiers

### Type 1:

1. b    2. a    3. b    4. a    5. b    6. b  
 7. a    8. b    9. b    10. a

### Type 2:

1. b    2. a    3. b    4. b    5. a    6. a

### Type 3:

1. A    2. C    3. A    4. E    5. E    6. C  
 7. B    8. D    9. E    10. E

## Parallelism

### Type 1:

1. b    2. a    3. b    4. a    5. a    6. b  
 7. b    8. a    9. a

### Type 2:

- Meena wanted to paint her office, to add some new draperies, and to clean the carpet.
- When Friday rolls around, do you go to the mall, head for a bar, or go to work?
- Last year, my brother dropped out of school, looked for work, and needed a place to stay.
- He watched the latest version of King Lear, studied for his math test, and talked on the phone.





## Glossary of Grammatical Terms

**Accusative case:** Form of a pronoun showing that the pronoun is the object of a verb or preposition: *me, her, him, us, them, whom*. Also called objective case.

**Active voice:** See Voice.

**Adjective:** Word or words used to modify a noun, pronoun, or verbal: *good food, wonderful you, poor fishing*.

**Adjective clause:** Subordinate clause used as adjective: Everyone who approves should vote for him.

**Adjective phrase:** Phrase used as adjective: The woman *in the red dress* is beautiful.

**Adverb:** Word or words used to modify a verb, verbal, adjective, adverb, or entire clause or sentence: run *quickly*, to sit *quietly*, *quite* fresh, *Naturally* he was elected.

**Adverbial clause:** Subordinate clause used as adverb: John left *whenever he felt like it*.

**Adverbial phrase:** Phrase used as adverb: She sent her son *to the store*.

**Antecedent:** Word or words to which a pronoun refers: *Alice* (antecedent) asked for *her* (pronoun) dessert.

**Apposition:** Placement of a noun or noun substitute next to another to explain or identify it: New York, *the Empire State*; Richard *the Lion Hearted*. *The Empire State* and *the Lion Hearted* are known as appositives.

**Article:** *A, an, and the* are articles. Their function is to modify a noun or noun substitute. *A* and *an* are the indefinite articles. *The* is the definite article.

**Auxiliary verb:** Verb used with other verbs to form tense or voice: We *should* go to the movies. He *was* slaughtered.

**Case:** Form of a noun or pronoun to show function. The three cases are nominative (subjective), genitive (possessive), and accusative (objective). Nominative *I* saw. Genitive *my* hat. Accusative The dog bit *me*.

**Clause:** Group of words containing a subject and verb. Clauses are either dependent: The man *who came to dinner* left early; or independent: *The milkman left two bottles of cream*.

**Collective noun:** A noun that appears to be singular but refers to a group. Treated as singular when the group is thought of as a unit, treated as plural when the members of the group are considered individually.

**Comparison:** Inflection of adverbs or adjectives to show degrees of quality or amount. Absolute: *good, quickly, famous*. Comparative: *better, quicker, more famous*. Superlative: *best, quickest, most famous*.

**Complement:** Noun or adjective used to complete the meaning of a copulative verb. Also known as predicate complement: She is *sick* (predicate adjective). She is an *opera star* (predicate noun).

**Complex sentence:** Sentence containing one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses.

**Compound sentence:** Sentence containing two or more independent clauses.

**Compound-complex sentence:** Sentence containing two or more independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses.

**Conjunction:** Word or words used to join words, phrases, or clauses. Coordinating conjunction joins elements of equal value. Subordinating conjunction joins dependent clauses to independent clauses.

**Conjunctive adverb:** Adverb used as conjunction. Most common examples are: *however, thus, and therefore*.



**Coordinate:** Of equal grammatical or syntactical importance: two nouns, two phrases, two clauses, etc.

**Copulative verb:** Verb that links a subject and its complement. Most common copulative verb is *be*. Also known as linking verb.

**Demonstrative adjective:** Adjective that indicates a particular noun or pronoun: *this* hat, *that* boat, *this* one.

**Demonstrative pronoun:** Pronoun that specifies a particular referent: *this* is what I want; *that* is too much.

**Dependent clause:** See Subordinate clause.

**Descriptive adjective:** Adjective that names the condition or quality of noun it modifies: *green* trees, *wrecked* wagon.

**Direct address:** Construction in which the writer addresses the reader directly: Paul, hand me the case. Ethel, leave the room.

**Direct object:** Word or words that receive the action of a verb: The speaker hit the *table*. He believed *that the boy would return the book*.

**Gender:** Of no consequence in English grammar. Refers to masculine, feminine, neuter nouns in certain other languages. Personal pronouns in English have gender in third person singular: *he, she, it*.

**Genitive case:** Form of a noun or pronoun to show possession: *woman's, hour's, her, hers, his, their*, etc. Also known as possessive case.

**Gerund:** *-ing* form of a verb used as a noun or performing a noun function: *Swimming* is more fun than *lying* on the beach. They both love *boating and fishing*. Gerunds are verbals.

**Imperative mood:** Verb construction used in giving commands. The subject of the verb is usually lacking: *Go home! Stop smoking!*

**Indefinite pronoun:** Pronoun that does not specify a particular referent: *any, anyone, each, everyone*, etc.

**Independent clause:** Clause that can stand alone and convey meaning as a simple sentence: *She was fond of all her friends*, although she loved no one in particular. Also known as main clause or principal clause.

**Indicative mood:** Form of verb used to make a statement or ask a question: *She drives well. Is he baking bread?*

**Indirect object:** Noun or pronoun receiving the direct object: They gave *me* a present. They gave a present *tome*.

**Infinitive:** Simple form of the verb, usually preceded by *to*: (to) run, (to) jump, (to) attempt. Infinitives function as nouns, adjectives, and adverbs. Infinitives are verbals.

**Infinitive phrase:** Infinitive plus its modifiers and object: *to swim gracefully. to read a book* . Infinitive phrases have the same functions as infinitives.

**Inflection:** Change in form to indicate grammatical relationships. Inflection of nouns and pronouns is known as *declension*. Inflection of verbs is known as *conjugation*. Inflection of adjectives and adverbs is known as comparison.

**Intensive pronoun:** Pronoun used to strengthen a noun or pronoun: the manager *himself*, you *yourselves*, the bee *itself*.

**Interjection:** Ejaculatory word or expression: *Alas. there's no more to eat. Heavens above. is there no shame in the man?*

**Interrogative adjective:** Adjective used in asking question: *whose* book? *which* street?

**Interrogative pronoun:** Pronoun used in asking a question: *whose* was lost? *which* was stolen?



**Intransitive verb:** Verb that does not take an object: I *smiled* all day. She *argues* well. All copulative verbs are intransitive. Many verbs function transitively as well as intransitively.

**Irregular verb:** Verb that forms its past tense and past participle by a change of vowels: *be. was. were; run, ran, run; sing. sang. sung.* Also known as strong verb.

**Linking verb:** See Copulative verb.

**Modifier:** Word or words that limit, describe, or make more precise the meaning of the words modified: *blue hat, the man whom you saw, they walked silently.*

**Mood:** Characteristic of a verb that shows the manner in which a statement is regarded by the writer. See Indicative mood, Imperative mood, and Subjunctive mood.

**Nominative case:** See Subjective case.

**Nonrestrictive modifier:** Modifier of a word or group of words already limited or restricted: Jane's father, *who rowed for Yale*, still rows every day. I brought him to my house, *which is in Pittsburgh.*

**Noun:** Name of a person, place, thing, quality, action, or idea. Nouns function as subjects, objects, objects of prepositions, objects of verbals, and as adjectives.

**Noun phrase:** Phrase that functions as a noun: *afternoon tea, the train to Denver.*

**Number:** Singular and plural aspects of nouns, pronouns, and verbs.

**Numerical adjective:** Adjective that numbers the word it modifies: *six Indians, first anniversary.*

**Objective case:** See Accusative case.

**Parallel construction:** Repetition of grammatical construction for coherence and emphasis: *flying and swimming; I came, I saw. I conquered.*

**Participle:** Adjective form of a verb. Present participle ends in *ing*: *running, walking.* Past participle ends in *ed* if the verb is regular, changes a vowel if the verb is irregular: *walked, talked; run, eaten.* Participles are verbals.

**Passive voice:** See Voice.

**Person:** Forms of verbs and pronouns to indicate person speaking: *I am* first person; person spoken to: *you are* second person; person spoken of: *he is* third person.

**Personal pronoun:** Pronoun used to indicate people: *I, you, he, she, etc. I saw her.*

**Possessive adjective:** Adjective used to indicate possession: *my, your, his, her, hers, its, etc. Our hats, his typewriter.*

**Possessive case:** See Genitive case.

**Predicate:** In a clause or sentence, the verb with its modifiers, object, complement, or indirect object.

**Predicate adjective:** See Complement.

**Predicate complement:** See Complement.

**Predicate noun:** See Complement.

**Preposition.** A word or words that convey a meaning of position, direction, time, or other abstraction.

Together with a noun or pronoun and its modifiers, it forms a prepositional phrase, which serves as a modifier: *to the front, from the shore, with them.* In these prepositional phrases, *front, shore, and them* function as objects of prepositions.

**Principal parts of a verb:** The infinitive (look), past tense (looked), and past participle (looked).

**Pronoun:** A word that takes the place of a noun: *I, it, etc.* See Antecedent.

**Proper adjective:** Adjective formed from a proper noun: *Italian restaurant, American history.*

Proper noun: Name of a specific person, place, or thing: *Elizabeth, Finland, Soldiers and Sailors Monument*.

Reciprocal pronoun: *Each other* and *one another*. Used only as the object of a verb or preposition: They saw *each other* regularly. We spoke to *one another* yesterday.

Regular verb: Verb that forms its past tense and past participle by adding *ed*: *worked, worked; talked, talked*. Also known as weak verb.

Relative adjective: Limiting adjective introducing subordinate clause: The bookseller *whose* store burned is despondent.

Relative pronoun: Pronoun introducing subordinate clause: The man *who* hired you has been promoted.

The book *that* you gave me is missing.

Restrictive modifier: Modifier that limits or restricts a word or group of words: Henry *the Eighth*. the man *who worked for you*.

Sentence: Group of words normally containing a subject and predicate, expressing an assertion, question, command, wish, or exclamation.

Strong verb: See Irregular verb.

Subject: Element in a sentence performing the action indicated by an active verb; element in a sentence receiving the action of a passive verb: *Jane* saw her sister. *She* was received in court. Infinitives may also take subjects: Mother asked *him* to return home.

Subjective case: Form of pronoun showing that the pronoun is the subject of a verb: *I, she, he, we, they, who*. Also called nominative case.

Subjunctive mood: Form of verb used to express doubts, possibilities, desires, and conditions contrary to fact: I doubt that she *will ever*

*become* chairperson. If he *were* here, this problem would vanish.

Subordinate clause: Sentence element consisting of a subject and predicate and functioning as a noun, adjective, or adverb: *That he was fired* is no surprise to me. The book you *sent me* never arrived. He wondered *when he would hear of his appointment*. A subordinate clause, also known as a dependent clause, cannot stand alone as a sentence.

Superlative: Highest degree of comparison used when comparing three or more units: my *best* effort, the *oldest* child in the family, the *smallest* error. See Comparison.

Tense: Characteristic of verb forms that shows differences in time of action performed: */ run, / ran, / will run. I will have run*, etc.

Transitive verb: Verb that takes an object: She *bought* the car. Jack and Jill carried the *water*.

Intransitive verb: See Copulative verb.

Verb: Word or words used to express action or state of being of the subject: Anne *studied* hard. She *is* willing. They *are going* home. The family *will have received* notice by this time tomorrow.

Verbal: Word derived from a verb, but functioning as a noun or modifier. See Gerund. See Infinitive. See Participle.

Voice: Characteristic of verbs that differentiates between the subject as performer of the action of the verb (active voice) and the subject as receiver of the action of the verb (passive voice). Active voice: The lecturer *emphasized* her main points. Passive voice: The main points *were emphasized* by the lecturer.

Weak verb: See Regular verb.

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