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Including Important Rules and With Examples

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COMPLETE ENGLISH GRAMMAR

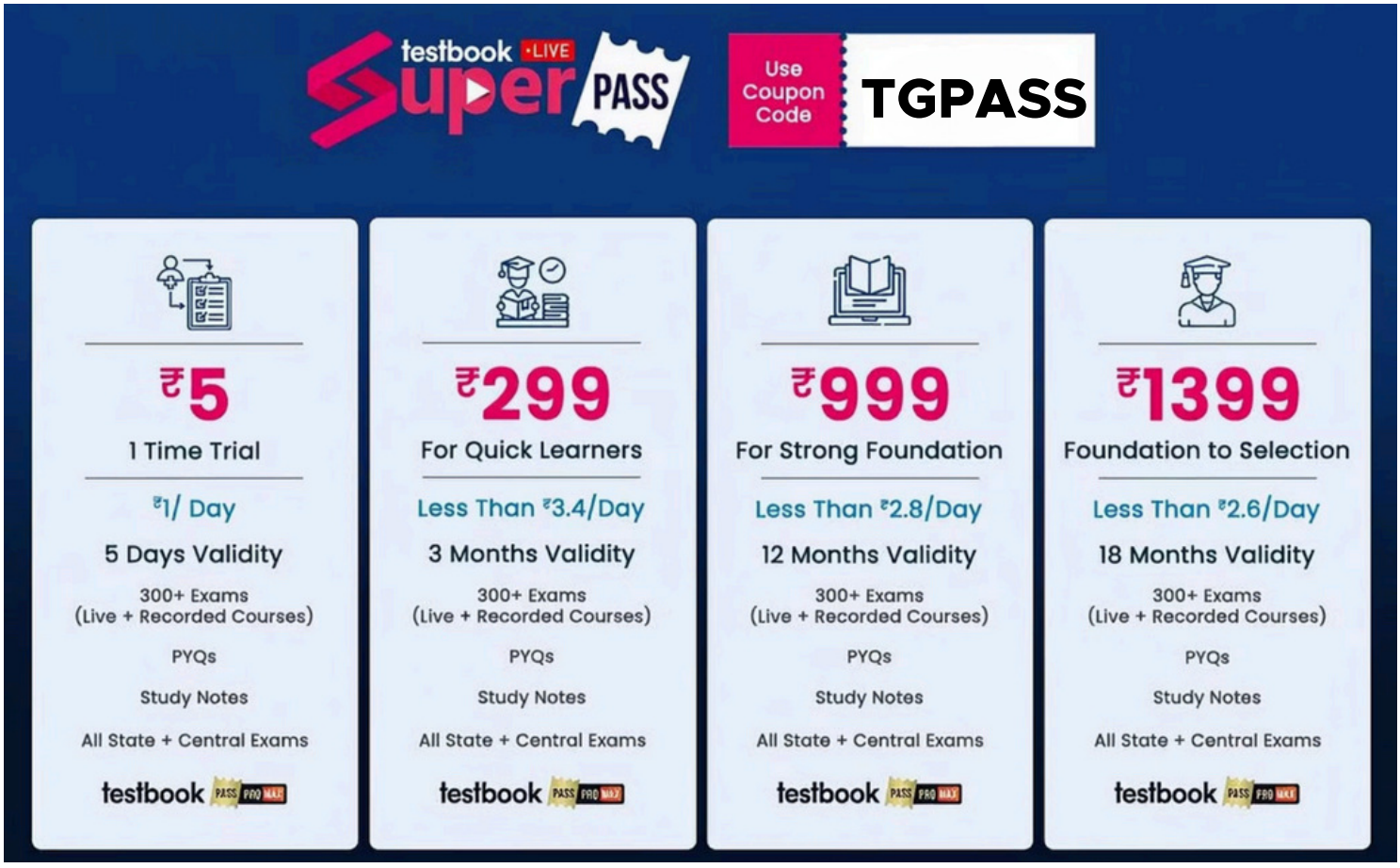
Revision Capsule



General English - Cheat Sheet

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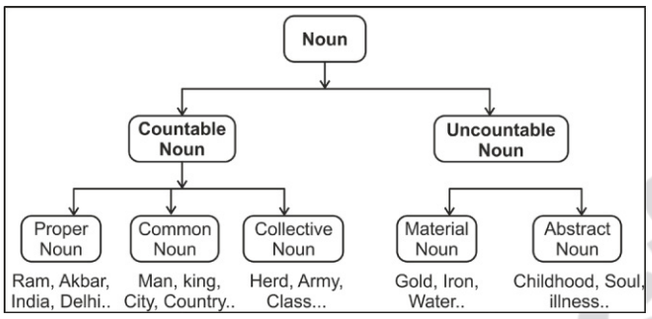
GRAMMAR

Noun

A **noun** is a fundamental grammatical term used to denote a word or group of words that functions as the main carrier of meaning in language. Serving as the primary naming word for living creatures, places, things, objects, and abstract ideas, nouns have an important role in shaping the structure of a sentence.

They can represent physical objects, like a “tree” or “dog,” as well as concepts or ideas, such as “freedom” or “love.” Nouns often act as the subjects of verbs, indicating what the sentence is about, or as the objects, indicating the recipients of an action.

Types of Noun:



1. Proper Nouns:

Definition: Proper nouns are names of specific persons, places, or things. They always begin with a capital letter.

- **Example:** Michael, Paris, Christmas.

2. Common Nouns:

Definition: Common nouns are general names for persons, places, things, or ideas. They are not capitalized unless they begin a sentence.

- **Example:** Boy, city, festival.

3. Material Nouns:

Definition: Material nouns are used to describe an object that can be perceived by the senses.

- **Example:** Apple (you can touch), Music (you can hear).

4. Abstract Nouns:

Definition: Abstract nouns denote ideas, qualities, or feelings that cannot be seen or touched.

- **Example:** Love, Bravery, Freedom.

5. Collective Nouns:

Definition: Collective nouns are names of a group of people, animals, or things.

- **Example:** A swarm of bees, A fleet of ships, A flock of birds.

6. Countable Nouns:

Definition: Countable nouns are those things that can be counted.

- **Example:** Books, Dogs, Houses.

7. Uncountable Nouns:

Definition: Uncountable nouns are those things that cannot be counted because they are considered whole or mass items.

- **Example:** Sugar, Air, Information.

Important Rules and Exceptions:

1. Proper Nouns:

When it comes to proper nouns (specific names of people, places, institutions, etc.), the use of articles can be a bit tricky and is largely determined by tradition and usage. Here are some general rules:

a) No Article with Most Names: Usually, we don’t use articles with names of people, towns, streets, states, countries, continents, lakes, mountains, or bays.

- **Example:** We visited Paris, not ‘**the**’ Paris.

b) “The” with Names of Geographical Areas, Rivers, Mountain Ranges, Groups of Islands, Canals, and Oceans: Use “the” with names of regions, deserts, peninsulas, rivers, seas, oceans etc.

- **Example:** The Nile, The Pacific, The Sahara Desert, The Iberian Peninsula.

c) “The” with Pluralized Names: Use “the” with pluralized names of people and countries

- **Example:** The Smiths, The Netherlands, The Philippines.

d)“The” with Names of Hotels, Restaurants, Theatres, Museums, etc.: When the name can be seen as a description, “the” is often used.

- **Example:** The Hilton Hotel, The Museum of Modern Art.

e) “The” with Unique Landmarks/Buildings/ Structures: We use “the” with the names of famous build-ings, works of art, cinemas, theatres, hotels, etc.

- **Example:** The Eiffel Tower, The Grand Canyon, The Louvre.

2. Common Nouns

The general rules for using articles with common

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nouns are as follows:

a) **A, An - Indefinite Articles**: "A" and "an" are used when you are referring to any member of a group or category.

- **"A" is used before words that begin with a consonant.**
- **Example:** A cat, A university
- "An" is used before words that begin with a vowel or have a vowel sound.
- **Example:** An apple, An hour
- **b) The - Definite Article**: "The" is used when referring to something specific, when both the speaker and listener understand what is being referred to.
- Article "The" is used before both singular and plural, and it can be placed before words starting with either a consonant or a vowel sound.
- **Example:** The book on the table is mine. I like the apples from that market.

3. Countable Nouns

Usually, to make a countable noun plural, we add "-s" or "-es". If a countable noun is singular and starts with a vowel, we use "an"; if it starts with a consonant, we use "a."

- **Example:** "I have a book''. Or, "I have two books."

4. Uncountable Nouns

These nouns cannot be counted, and so they can't be used with "a" or "an," nor can they be made plural by adding "-s" or "-es". However, they can be quantified using measures like "some," "a lot of," "a bit of," etc.

- **Example:** You would say, "I need some water," not "I need a water."

5. Collective Nouns

When collective nouns act as one single unit, or one whole, then you use singular verbs. But when you're considering individuals within the group, you use plural verbs.

- **Example:**
- The committee **has** reached a decision. ('Commit-tee' is seen as a single entity here, so we use "has")
- The committee **are** still holding their votes. ('Com-mittee' as individuals within the group, so we use "are")
- Our team **is** winning the game. ('Team' is viewed as one unit here, so we use "is.")
- Our team **are** arguing amongst themselves about the next move. ('Team' is viewed as different individ-uals, so we use "are.")

6. Plural form of Nouns:

The plural form of a noun refers to more than one person or thing. Typically, you add an "-s" or "-es" to make regular nouns plural. But there are irregular nouns that change form entirely or remain the same in both singular and plural forms.

Examples:

- **Book to Books (regular)**
- **Bus to Buses (regular)**
- **Child to Children (irregular)**
- **Sheep to Sheep (irregular)**

a) **Ending in 'y':**

Rule: If a noun ends in a vowel + "y'', add -s. If it ends in a consonant + 'y', change 'y' to 'i' and add -es.

- **Example:** Toy – Toys, City – Cities

b) **Ending in '-o'**

Rule: For most nouns that end in 'o', preceded by a consonant, you add '-es' to pluralize.

- **Example:** Potato - Potatoes, Hero - Heroes

Note: There are exceptions like "pianos," "photos," and "zeros," where you just add -s.

c) **Ending in '-f' or '-fe'**

Rule:For nouns ending in 'f' or 'fe', replace the 'f' or 'fe' with 'ves'.

- **Example** : Knife - Knives, Leaf - Leaves

d) **Ending in '-us'**

Rule: Words ending in '-us' often change '-us' to '-i' while pluralizing

- **Example:** Cactus - Cacti, Focus - Foci

Note: Exceptions differ significantly in this group. For instance, "campus" becomes "campuses."

e) **Ending in '-is'**

Rule: Words that end in '-is' often take on '-es' in the plural.

- **Example:** Analysis - Analyses, Crisis - Crises

f) **Endings in '-on' or '-um'**

Rule: For nouns that end in '-on' or '-um', change '-on' or '-um' to '-a'.

Example: Criterion - Criteria, Datum - Data

Note: There are exceptions like "stadium" which becomes "stadiums."

7. Possessive Nouns

For singular nouns, add an apostrophe and "s" ('s). For plural nouns ending in "s", add only an apostro-phe. For plural nouns not ending in "s", you add an apostrophe and "s" ('s).

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Examples:

- The dog's toy. (singular possessive)
- The dogs' kennel. (plural possessive)
- Children's books. (plural not ending in "s")

8. Nouns as Adjectives (Attributive Nouns)

When nouns are used to modify other nouns, they function as adjectives. The modifying noun is usually in singular form.

- **Example:** "Dog" in "Dog House."

Exceptions apply for some attributive nouns which are always plural.

- **Example:** "Customs" in "Customs Officer."

Unlike adjectives, attributive nouns can't be com-pared (with "more", "less", "-er" or "-est"). They also do not take an adverbial form (no "-ly").

Points to Remember

1. Singular form but plural verb:

There are certain nouns that are **singular in form** but are **plural** in **meaning**. As they are plural in meaning, they take a **plural verb**.

Cattle
Peasantry
Police
Infantry
Children

- **Cattle:** The cattle are grazing peacefully in the field.
- **Peasantry:** The peasantry **were** still toiling in the fields as the sun set.
- **Police:** The police **are** investigating the incident thoroughly.
- **Infantry:** The infantry **are** advancing cautiously towards the enemy lines.
- **Children:** The children **are** playing joyfully at the park.

2. Plural form and Plural verb:

Certain nouns exist in **plural form** only. Thus, they t ake a **plural verb**.

Binoculars
Trousers
Manners
Assets
Belongings
Valuables
Surroundings
Pliers
Tongs
Scissors
Alms
Pants

- **Binoculars: The binoculars are on the table.**
- **Trousers:** These trousers **are** too tight for me.
- **Pants:** His pants **are** too short.
- **Alms:** The alms given to the poor **are** a sign of compassion.
- **Scissors:** Those scissors **are** too dull to cut the paper.
- **Tongs:** The tongs **are** too hot to touch.
- **Pliers:** The pliers **are** needed to fix the wire.
- **Surroundings:** Her surroundings **are** very peaceful.
- **Valuables:** His valuables **are** locked in the safe.
- **Belongings:** Their belongings **are** still in the 'lost and found' department.
- **Assets:** All of his assets **are** tied up in the business.
- **Manners:** Your manners **are** impeccable.

3. Plural form but singular verb:

Some words are **plural in form** but **singular** in meaning. Thus, it agrees with a **singular verb**.

Innings
News
Police
Linguistics
Politics
Summons

- **Innings:** The innings **has** turned the tables in the favor of the home team.
- **News:** The news **is** very distressing today.
- **Linguistics:** Linguistics **is** a fascinating field of study.
- **Politics:** Politics **plays** a critical role in shaping our society.
- **Summons:** The summons **has** been sent to the defendant.

4. Singular verb when treated as a body and plural verb when treated individually

The following nouns are used with **singular verbs**

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when they are used as a **body** or **group**. However, when these nouns denote **members** or **individuals**, the **verb** is used in **plural** form.

Committee
Jury
Ministry
Family
Audience

- **Committee:** The committee has approved the proposal. (singular entity)
- The committee **are** divided on **their** opinions about the proposal. (multiple individuals)
- **Jury:** The jury **is** still deliberating the case. (singular entity)
- The jury **have** different viewpoints, causing the deliberation to extend. (multiple individuals)
- **Ministry:** The ministry has announced a new policy. (singular entity)
- The ministry are at odds over the details of the new project. (multiple individuals)
- **Family:** The family lives in a large house in the country. (singular entity)
- The family each have their own opinions about where they should go on vacation. (multiple individuals)
- **Audience:** The audience is eagerly waiting for the show to start. (singular entity)
- The audience are chatting amongst themselves as they wait for the performance. (multiple individuals)

5. Uncountable Nouns:

Certain nouns are **uncountable** in nature. Their characteristics are:

- Uncountable nouns are always in a **singular form.**
- Articles “A” or “An” are not used with them.
- **T**hey are not used with **plural verbs.** Some of the **uncountable** nouns are:

Equipment
Baggage
Advice
Information
Machinery
Jewellery
Luggage
Furniture
Knowledge

- **Equipment:** The gym has a lot of new equipment.
- **Luggage:** She had to carry her heavy luggage up two flights of stairs.
- **Furniture:** The furniture in this room is quite antique.
- **Machinery:** The factory buys machinery from a reputable supplier.
- **Jewellery:** She lost some of her jewellery at the beach.
- **Baggage:** It took a while for his baggage to arrive.
- **Advice:** He needs good advice before he makes his decision.
- **Information:** The information given by the witness was crucial for the case.
- **Knowledge:** Knowledge is pivotal to make informed decisions.

6. Compound Nouns

For compound nouns, the most significant word or the end word usually takes the plural form.

Singular	**Plural**
Man servant	Men servants
Woman servant	Women servants
Sister-in-law	Sisters–in–law
Brother-in-law	Brothers-in-law
Commander-in-chief	Commanders – in–chief



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Noun Gender Rules and Exception:

Masculine: Refers to a male person or animal

- **Example: Boy, Father, Bull**

Feminine: Refers to a female person or animal.

- **Example: Girl, Woman, Cow**

Common: Used for both feminine and masculine form.

- **Example: Child, Friend, Parent**

Neuter : Used for a person, thing or idea that has no gender.

- **Example: Table, Fan, Box**

Exception - Some words change their forms to indicate gender. For example, the suffix "-ess" denotes feminine gender for certain roles or professions, and "-or" for males:

- Waiter (male), Waitress (female)
- Host (male), Hostess (female)

Noun Number (Singular & Plural) Rules and Exceptions:

- **Irregular Plurals:**

Rule: Some nouns don't follow standard pluralization rules.

- **Example:** Man – Men, Woman – Women, Child – Children, Foot – Feet, Tooth – Teeth
- **Nouns that remain the same:Standard Rule:**

Some nouns have the same form whether they're singular or plural.

- **Example:** Sheep – Sheep, Deer – Deer, Series – Series
- **Latin and Greek Origin Words:**

Standard Rule: Some words of Latin and Greek origin have special plural forms.

Example: Nucleus – Nuclei, Criterion – Criteria.





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PRONOUN

A **pronoun** is a part of speech that serves as a substitute for a noun or noun phrase to avoid repetition and create a smooth flow in both oral and written discourse. Using pronouns makes our sentences more varied and flexible, helping us to express our thoughts better and more easily.

Pronouns can represent specific or general entities, and they can vary based on number (singular or plu ral), gender (Masculine, feminine or neuter), case (subjec tive, objective, or possessive), and person (first, sec ond, or third).

Types of Pronoun:

Types of Pronoun				
Personal Pronouns	**Demonstrative Pronouns**	**Interrogative Pronouns**	**Indefinite Pronouns**	**Distributive Pronoun**
e.g.I, we, you, he, she,it, they	e.g.This, that, those, these etc.	e.g. How, who, which, what, where etc.	e.g. few, some, everyone, all etc.	e.g. Each, either, neither etc.
Possessive Pronouns	**Reciprocal Pronouns**	**Relative Pronoun**	**Reflexive Pronoun**	**Intensive Pronoun**
e.g. My, your, his, hers etc	e.g.Each other, one another etc.	e.g. whom, whomever, that, (Sometimes), what.	e.g. Himself, itself, ourselves etc.	The intensive/ reflexive pronouns include myself etc.

1. Personal Pronouns: These are the most common type of pronouns, representing specific people or things.

Cases of Pronoun			
Nominative	Objective	Possessive Adjectives	Possessive Pronouns
I	me	my	mine
you	you	your	yours
he	him	his	his
she	her	her	hers
it	it	its	its
we	us	our	ours
they	them	their	theirs

a. Subjective (Nominative) Case: They are used as the subject of the verb. Some of the subjective pronouns are: I, you, he, she, it, we, they.

- **Example: She** dances gracefully.

b. Objective Case: They are used as the object of a verb or preposition. Some of the objective pronouns are: Me, you, him, her, it, us, them.

- **Example:** They met **him** at the park.

c. Possessive Pronouns: They show ownership or belonging. Some of the possessive pronouns are: Mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, theirs.

- **Example:** That book is **mine**.

If a pronoun is used before the verb in a sentence, it is in the Nominative case (also known as Subjective case). If the pronoun is used after the verb, it is in the Objective case.

For example:

- "I teach her." (Active Voice)
  Here, "I" is the subject (Nominative case) performing the action (teach) on the object "him" (Objective case).
- "She is taught by me." (Passive voice)
  "She" is still the object, but it appears before the verb in the passive voice sentence formation. The subject "me" appears after the verb. Despite their positioning in the sentence, "she" is technically the object and "me" is the subject.

2. Reflexive Pronouns: These pronouns refer back to the subject of the clause or sentence, indicating that the action affects the one who performs it. Some of the reflexive pronouns are: Myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves.

- **Example:** I prepared dinner for **myself**.

3. Intensive Pronouns: These pronouns emphasize their antecedent and are often used to add emphasis to a noun or pronoun. Some of the intensive pronouns are: Myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves**.**

- **Example:** I **myself** witnessed the event.

4. Demonstrative Pronouns: These pronouns point to and identify nouns or pronouns. This identification can be either specific or non-specific. Some of the de monstrative pronouns are: This, that, these, those.

- **Example: This** dish is delicious.

5. Interrogative Pronouns: These pronouns, as the name suggests, are used to ask questions. Some of the interrogative pronouns are: Who, whom, whose, which, what.

- **Example: Who** is the author of this book?

6. Relative Pronouns: These pronouns introduce rel ative clauses, which are a type of dependent clause that gives additional information about a noun. Some of the relative pronouns are: Who, whom, whose, which, that.

- **Example 1:** The girl **who** sits next to me is my cousin.
- **Example 2:** The car **that** I like is red in colour.

Who vs. Whom

"Who" is used as a subject.

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- **Example -** Who is going to the store?
  "Whom" is used as an object.
- **Example -** To whom did you give the book?

7. Indefinite Pronouns: These pronouns refer to non-specific people or things, either in singular or plural form. Some of the indefinite pronouns are: Another, anybody, everyone, nobody, everything, nothing, both, few, many, several, all, any, most, none, some.

- **Example 1: Someone** left the door open.
- **Example 2: Nobody** is supposed to know this.

8. Reciprocal Pronouns: These pronouns describe a mutual action or relationship. Each other' is used for two people or things. 'One another' is used for more than two people or things.

- **Example 1:** The two boys were blaming **each other.**
- **Example 2:** The four brothers were fighting amongst **one another.**

9. Possessive Pronouns: These pronouns indicate ownership or a form of possession. Some of the possessive pronouns are: my, your, his, her, its, our, their (used before nouns) and mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, theirs (used on their own).

- **Example 1:** This is **my** book.
- **Example 2:** The book is **mine**.

10. Distributive Pronouns: These pronouns refer to people or things one at a time. This means they rep resent singular nouns even though they may be talking about multiple things. Some of the distributive pro nouns are: each, either, neither and every.

- **Example: Neither** of them is coming.
- **Example: Each** of you have to work together

Important Rules:

1. Reflexive Pronouns

Reflexive pronouns, such as myself, yourself, himself, herself, ourselves, etc., are not typically used to start a sentence or as the subject of a sentence.They are used when the subject and the object of the sentence are the same person.

- **Example:**
- Incorrect: She bought **her** a dress.
- Correct: She bought **herself** a dress.

2. Demonstrative Pronouns

'This' and 'that' are used with singular nouns while 'these' and 'those' are used with plural nouns.

- **Example 1: This** is my hat. ('hat' is singular)
- **Example 2: Those** are your gloves. ('gloves' are plural)

3. Interrogative Pronouns

'Who' is used for the **subject** of a sentence.
'Whom' is used for the **object** of a sentence.

- **Example 1: Who** made the cake?
- **Example 2:** To **whom** should I give this letter?

4. Relative Pronouns

Just as 'who' is used for subjects & 'whom' for objects, 'whose' is used to show **possession**.

- **Example 1:** The man **who** sits next to me is my brother.
- **Example 2:** The person to **whom** you should talk is the manager.
- **Example 3:** The boy **whose** dog is lost is sad.

5. Indefinite Pronouns

Indefinite pronouns such as "everyone,""anybody," "no one," "somebody," etc. are considered singular and require singular verbs.

For example:

- **Everyone is** coming to the party.
- **Somebody has** left their jacket at my place.
- **Anyone is** welcome to join us for dinner.

However, there's a special case when the indefinite pronoun "none" is used. **"None" followed by 'of'** can be either singular or plural, based on the noun it is referring to or the meaning of the sentence.

Examples:

- **None of the pie was** eaten. (Here, 'pie' is a singular noun, so 'was' is used.)
- **None of the students are** going to the field trip. (Here, 'students' is plural, so 'are' is used.)

6. Distributive Pronouns

Distributive pronouns always take singular verb and pronoun.

Examples:

- **Each** of the books **is** interesting.
- **Either** of these books **is** good.
- **Neither** of the answers **is** correct.
- **No one** in the group **has** a map.

However, when **each** has been used after **plural subjects** like **you, we, they, more than 2 nouns separated with certain conjunctions,** we use the **plural form** of the verb in this case.

- **Example:** They **each are** planning to go to Goa for the vacations.

7. Uses of 'That'

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i. When you're using "only," "all," or "same" in a sentence, and want to continue the sentence to give more information about the noun, use "that" rather than "which" or "who".

- "You're the only person that I trust."
- "It's the same question that I had
- All the books that I've read by that author have been excellent.

ii. Referring to Things or People: The relative pronoun "that" can refer to both things and people in a relative clause.

- "The car that I bought is brand new."
- "The person that helped me was really kind."

iii. After Superlatives "That" is often used after superlative forms to provide more information about the superlative.

For example:

- "That was the best pie that I've ever tasted."
- "Raj is the most generous person that I know."

8. Uses of 'Which'

i. The relative pronoun "which" is typically used to refer to things.

- "The car, which is painted red, is very old."
- "This is the book which I was talking about."

ii. When a choice has to be made from two or more, 'which' must be used

Example:

- "Which car do you prefer, the red one or the blue one?"
- "Of these two dogs, which has the shiniest fur?"
- Which is your sister in the crowd?

iii. Referring to Entire Sentences: "Which" can be used to refer to the entire preceding sentence or clause.

- **Example:** "The party was a great success, which was not surprising."
  Here, "which was not surprising" refers to the entire preceding clause, not just "a great success."

iv. Preceded by a Preposition: When a preposition precedes the relative pronoun, "which" is used.

- Example: "The table on which the book lies is old."

v. Inquiries: "Which" can also be used as an interrogative pronoun to ask questions.

- Example: "Which book are you reading?"

9. Uses of 'It'

i. As a Subject: "It" is often used as the subject of a verb to refer to a thing, animal, child, or an idea whose gender is not specified.

- "It is raining."
- "It is a cat."
- "It is my decision."

ii. Dummy Subject: "It" is used as a dummy subject (or impersonal "it") in sentences about time, distance, or weather, or with reflexive verbs.

- "It is 2 o'clock."
- "It is 5 miles to the nearest town."
- "It is snowing."

iii. As a Demonstrative Pronoun: "It" can refer to something mentioned previously.

- "I have a cat. It is black."
- "I presume it will rain today." (where "it" refers to the weather)

iv. Placeholder Subject: "It" is used as a placeholder for the subject in sentences, where the real subject comes after the verb (this is a type of dummy "it").

- "It is interesting to read science fiction novels."
- "It's nice to meet you."

v. In Idiomatic Expressions: There are many common English phrases that use "it", such as "keep it up", "what's it to you?", "take it easy", "it's a deal", and "make it".

vi. To Refer to a Child or Pet: When the gender of a baby, child, or pet is not known or not specified, we often use "it".

- "The baby is crying. It must be hungry."

Note:

"It" can be used as both a subject pronoun (nominative case) and an object pronoun (accusative case). And remember to always ensure "it" has a clear reference, to avoid ambiguity in your sentence.

10. Possessive Adjectives Vs Possessive Pronoun

i. Possessive adjectives are used to modify a noun and indicate ownership or possession. They always precede a noun in a sentence. They do not stand alone.

- **Examples** of possessive adjectives are: my, your, his, her, its, our, their.
- Example in a sentence: "This is my book."

ii. Possessive pronouns are used to replace a noun and indicate ownership or possession. They do not need to be accompanied by a noun as they replace the noun in a sentence. They can stand alone.

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- **Examples** of possessive pronouns are: mine, yours, his, hers, ours, theirs.
- **Example** in a sentence: "The book is mine."

In summary, possessive adjectives modify nouns, while possessive pronouns replace nouns.

Points to remember:

1. It's vs. Its:

"It's" is a contraction for "it is" or "it has".

- **Example -** It's raining today.

"Its" is a possessive pronoun.

- **Example -** The cat licked its paws.

2. Their vs. They're vs. There:

"Their" is a possessive pronoun.

- **Example - Their** house is big.

"They're" is a contraction for "they are".

- **Example - They're** going to the beach.

"There" indicates a place or existence.

- **Example -** The books are over **there**.

3. Agreement in Number:

A pronoun must agree in number (singular or plural) with its antecedent.

Example:

- **Incorrect:** Everyone should bring their book.
- **Correct:** Everyone should bring **his/her** book.

4. Agreement in Person:

The pronoun must match the person of its antecedent.

Example:

- **Incorrect:** If one wants to succeed, you need to work hard.
- **Correct:** If one wants to succeed, **one** needs to work hard.

5. Agreement in Gender:

The pronoun must match the gender of its antecedent.

Example:

- **Incorrect:** Every woman should take care of their health.
- **Correct:** Every woman should take care of **her** health.

6. Subjective vs. Objective Pronouns:

Use subjective pronouns when the pronoun is the subject, and objective pronouns when the pronoun is the object.

Example:

- **Incorrect:** Him and I went to the store.
- **Correct: He and I** went to the store.

7. Position of Personal Pronouns:

When combining pronouns with nouns, the pronoun generally comes second.

Example:

- **Incorrect:** I and my sister went shopping.
- **Correct: My sister and I** went shopping.

8. Intensive vs. Reflexive Pronouns:

Don't confuse intensive pronouns (for emphasis) with reflexive pronouns (indicating the subject performs the action on itself).

Examples:

- **Reflexive:** She did the project herself.
- **Intensive:** She herself did the project.

9. Use Objective Pronouns after these words:

Let
Between
Like
But
Except

a. Let: Let **us** consider another option.

b. Between: The secret was kept between **her** and **me**.

c. Like: She does chores just like **me**.

d. But: I have no one but **him** to trust.

e. Except: Everyone was late except **us**.

10. Order of Pronouns:

i. Order of pronouns in case of singular:

a. In case of positive effect, (refers to a situation, action, or outcome that is good, beneficial or favorable)**, the order of pronouns is** 231**:**

Second person> Third person> First person

For example:

- You (second person), he (third person) and I (first person) are going to win the game.
- "She and I have finished our work."
- '' You and she have written an excellent report.''

b. In case of negative effect (some kind of problem, fault, or unfavorable condition)**, the order of pronouns is** 123:

First person> Second person> Third person.

- **For example:** I (first person), you (second person) and he (third person) will be punished.

ii. Order of pronouns in case of plural:

When referring to plural form (more than one person) in a sentence, the preferred order will be 123:

First person> Second person> Third person

- **For example:** We (first person), you (second person) and they (third person) are going to the station.

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VERB

A **verb** is a word that describes an action, occurrence, or state of being. It is a fundamental part of the predicate in a sentence, conveying what the subject is doing, undergoing, or being.

Key Characteristics:

1. **Tense:** Indicates when an action takes place. (e.g., past, present, future)
2. **Aspect:** Indicates the duration or type of action. (e.g., simple, continuous, perfect)
3. **Mood:** Expresses the speaker's attitude towards the action. (e.g., indicative, imperative, subjunctive)
4. **Voice:** Tells whether the subject is the doer or receiver of the action. (e.g., active, passive)

The six basic forms of verbs:

1. Base Form (or Infinitive without "to"):

This is the basic version of the verb, often used with the simple present tense.

- **Example:** run, speak, write.

2. Infinitive:

The base form of the verb is preceded by "to."
It can function as a noun, adjective, or adverb in a sentence.

- **Example:** to run, to speak, to write.

3. Simple Past:

It indicates actions that occurred in the past and have been completed.
Some verbs have regular formations (usually "-ed" endings), while others are irregular.

- **Example:**

Regular: Agree → Agreed
Irregular: Eat → Ate

4. Past Participle:

It is often used with perfect tenses and the passive voice. Like the simple past, verbs can be regular (typically ending in "-ed") or irregular in this form.

- **Example:**

Regular: Laugh → Laughed
Irregular: write → written

5. Present Participle:

It always ends in **"V-ing."** They are used to form continuous (progressive) tenses.

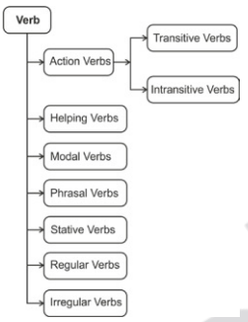
- **Example:** running, speaking, writing.

6. Gerund:

A gerund is the 'V-ing' form of a verb that functions as a noun in a sentence.
It can be a subject, an object, or the complement of a sentence.

- **Example 1: Swimming** is a good exercise. (Subject)
- **Example 2:** She enjoys **swimming**. (Object)

Types of Verbs:



1. Action verbs

They indicate what the subject of a sentence per forms. Action verbs can make the listener/ reader feel emotions, see scenes more vividly and accurately.
Action verbs can be transitive or intransitive.

a. Transitive verbs must have a direct object. A transitive verb demands something/someone to be acted upon.

- **Example 1:** I painted the car. (The verb 'paint' demands an object to be painted)
- **Example 2:** She is reading the newspaper. (The verb 'read' asks the question "what is she reading?" – the answer is the object)

b. Intransitive verbs do not act upon anything. They may be followed by an adjective, adverb, preposition, or another part of speech.

- **Example 1:** She smiled. (The verb 'smile' cannot have any object since the action of 'smiling' does not fall upon anything/anyone)
- **Example 2:** I wake up at 6 AM. (No object is needed for this verb)

2. Helping (or Auxiliary) Verbs

They accompany the main verb to form different tenses, moods, voices, or aspects. Common helping verbs include: am, is, are, was, were, being, been, be, have, has, had, do, does, did.

- **Example:** She has been studying for hours.

3. Modal Verbs

These are special type of auxiliary verbs that ex press necessity, possibility, permission, or ability.
Modal verbs include**:** can, could, shall, should, will, would, may, might, must.

- **Example 1:** I will do it.

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- **Example 2:** They should know about this.

4. Phrasal Verbs

They consist of a main verb combined with one or more particles (prepositions or adverbs). The combination creates a new meaning.

- **Example:** Turn on the light. (Here, "turn on" is the phrasal verb.)

5. Stative Verbs

They describe a state or condition, rather than an action. They aren't usually used in the present continuous form.

Stative verbs often relate to:

a. Thoughts and opinions: agree, believe, doubt, guess, imagine, know, mean, recognise, remember, suspect, understand.

b. Feelings and emotions: dislike, hate, like, love, prefer, want, wish.

c. Senses and perceptions: appear, be, feel, hear, look, see, seem, smell, taste.

d. Possession and measurement: belong, have, measure, own, possess, weigh.

- **Example:**

Incorrect: I am not knowing the answer.

Correct: I don't know the answer.

6. Regular Verbs

They follow a predictable pattern when forming the past tense or past participle. Typically, they end in "-ed".

- **Example:** play (base form) → played (past form).

7. Irregular Verbs

They do not follow the regular pattern when forming the past tense or past participle.

- **Example:** go (base form) → went (past form)

Important Rules:

1. Agreement with Subject

A verb must agree with its subject in number. If the subject is singular, the verb should also be singular. If the subject is plural, the verb should be plural as well.

- **For example**: "He runs" (singular subject and verb) or "They run" (plural subject and verb).

Singular: "The cat chases its tail." (In this sentence, 'cat' is singular and so is 'chases')

Plural: "The cats chase their tails." (In this sentence, 'cats' is plural and so is 'chase')

2. Tense Consistency

The tense of the verb needs to be consistent throughout the sentence or piece of writing unless there is a time change that needs to be reflected.

- **Incorrect:** "She goes to the store and bought a loaf of bread." (The sentence inconsistently switches from present tense "goes" to past tense "bought".)
- **Correct:** "She went to the store and bought a loaf of bread." (The sentence correctly keeps the past tense consistent.)

3. Proper Use of Infinitives and Gerunds

Infinitives and gerunds can act as nouns in a sen tence, but they have different uses. An infinitive (to + verb) often acts as a subject or complement, while a gerund (verb + ing) frequently serves as an object of a preposition.

Infinitive: "To swim is my favorite activity." (Here the infinitive "to swim" is used as a subject.)

Gerund: "I love swimming." (Here the gerund "swimming" acts as the object.)

4. Correct Use of Modal Verbs

Modal verbs (i.e., can, could, may, might, must, should, would, will, etc.) are used to show likelihood, ability, permission, and obligation. They are used together with the **base form(V_1)** of the main verb.

Let's see the usage of some important modal verbs:

a. 'May' & 'Might'

These two modal verbs are often used interchangeably, but there are specific contexts where one is preferred over the other:

i. Possibility: Both 'may' and 'might' are used to express possibility in the present or future. However, 'may' suggests a higher chance or likelihood than 'might'.

- **Example 1:** "It may rain this evening" (indicating a fairly decent chance of rain).
- **Example 2:** "It might snow today" (implying a low possibility of snow).

ii. Permission: 'May' is frequently used to ask for or give formal permission.

- **Example:** "May I use your phone?" (a polite request for permission).

'Might' is usually not used in this context.

iii. Suggestions or Mild Instructions: 'Might' is often used when providing a suggestion or milder instruction.

- **Example:** "You might want to reconsider your decision" (a suggestion).

'May' is not typically used to offer suggestions.

iv. Past Events: For hypothetical situations or unlikely events in the past, 'might' is used, not 'may'.

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- **Example:** "If he had hurried, he might have caught the train" (a hypothetical situation about a past event where the event didn't happen).

v. Uncertainty: Both 'may' and 'might' can express uncertainty, but 'might' is usually seen as less certain than 'may'.

- **Example 1:** "I may go to the party later." (The speaker is uncertain, but there's a reasonable chance he/she will go to the party).
- **Example 2:** "I might go to the concert." (The speaker is uncertain and it's less likely they'll go to the concert).

vi.Conditions: Both 'may' and 'might' can be used in hypothetical or unreal conditions, often following 'if'. 'Might' is sometimes preferred to express a less likely condition.

- **Example 1:** "If it keeps raining, we may have to stay home." (A possible condition)
- **Example 2:** "If I won the lottery, I might buy a mansion." (A less likely condition)

b. 'Can' & 'Could'

Here are the main differences between them:

i. Present Ability: "Can" is used to denote a present ability or capacity to do something. It's about what someone is able to do now.

- **Example:** "I can play the piano." (it means I have the ability to play the piano now)

"Could" is the past tense of "can" and is used to express abilities or capacities in the past.

- **Example:** "When I was young, I could run a mile in six minutes." (means I had the ability to do that in the past)

ii. Permission: "Can" is used to request or give permission in informal and casual settings.

- **Example:** "Can I use your phone?" (it's an informal request for permission to use the phone)

"Could" is more polite and formal compared to "can," and it's used to request or give permission.

- **Example:** "Could I have a glass of water, please?" (a more polite way to request permission)

iii. Possibility: "Can" and "could" can both be used to express possibility, but they create different levels of certainty:

"Can" infers a higher level of certainty.

- **Example:** "It can rain later today." (the speaker believes it's very likely based on the current situation)

"Could" infers a lower level of certainty, suggesting that something is possible but not definite.

- **Example:** "It could rain later today." (the speaker believes there's a chance it may rain, but isn't sure)

iv. Suggestions: "Could" is also often used to make suggestions or give advice, while "can" is usually not used in this way.

- **Example:** "You could go see a movie if you're bored." (it's a suggestion)

v. Past Actions: "Could" is also used to talk about something someone did repeatedly in the past, but not usually in the present.

- **Example:** "When I lived in Spain, I could go to the beach every day."

vi. Conditional Statements: "Could" is used in the conditional sentences to express hypothetical situations or actions.

- **Example:** "You could've gotten a better job if you had more experience." (a hypothetical situation)

c. 'Dare' & Need'

"Dare" and "need" are both semi-modal verbs. They can be used as main verbs and also as auxiliary verbs, with their usage usually depending on the context.

i. Dare as a modal verb: It is used to express defiance, challenge, or courage.

Note that when used as a semi-modal, it's usually used in negative expressions or questions.

- **Example as a semi-modal:** "Dare he confront his boss?" (As a question)

As a main verb, a most common way it's used is in "Dare to", which implies a challenge to do something that needs courage. It can also be used in positive, negative and interrogative forms

- **Example:** "He dares to confront his boss." (As a positive statement)
- **Example:** "He doesn't dare to confront his boss." (As a negative statement)

ii. Need as a modal verb:

When used as a semi-modal verb, "need" expresses necessity or obligation, similar to must. It's usually used in questions or negative statements.

- **Example as a semi-modal:** "Need I say more?" (As a question)
- **Example as a semi-modal:** "You needn't worry about it." (As a negative statement)

Note: As a regular verb, "need" is used to express necessity or demand, generally in positive, negative and interrogative forms.

- **Example as main verb:** "I need to finish this project today." (As a positive statement)
- **Example as main verb:** "I don't need to go to that meeting." (As a negative statement)
- **Example as main verb**: "Do you need anything else?" (As a question)

iii. Use of preposition 'to' with 'Dare' & 'Need':

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If Dare & Need are used in positive statements, they are followed by the structure '**to + V1**'.

Examples:

- She **needs to** work(V1) hard.
- She will not **dare to** go(V1) there.

If Dare & Need are used as helping verbs in negative statements, **they are not followed by the preposition 'to'**.

d. 'Shall' or 'Will'

Both "shall" and "will" are used to talk about future events, but they are used differently, with implications about formality, probability, and intention.

i. **Future predictions:** "Shall" is used with first person pronouns (I, we) to talk about the future, while "will" is used with second and third person forms (you, he, she, it, they).

- **Example 1:** "We shall overcome the difficulties."
- **Example 2:** "You will see a difference in your performance."

ii. **Intention and Volition:** "Shall" has traditionally been used to express a strong intention or assertion, or to ask about what to do.

"Will," on the other hand, does imply volition (a plan or a decision already made).

- **Example 1:** "We shall never surrender." (a strong assertion)
- **Example 2:** "I will call you later today." (a decision)

iii. **Offer or Suggestion:** When used in a question, "shall" often suggests an offer or a suggestion.

"Will," in contrast, is not generally used this way.

- **Example:** "Shall I open the window?" (offering to open the window)

iv. **Formality and Politeness:** "Shall" is generally more formal and refined compared to "will". It's often used in formal legislative and legal contexts.

- **Example:** "All employees shall adhere to these guidelines." (in a legal or formal document)

v. **Command and Instruction:** In the imperative mood where the subject is not expressed, "shall" is used to express a command or instruction, often in legal or official contexts.

- **Example:** "You shall not pass!" (a command)

vi. **Predictions and Promises:** Both "shall" and "will" can be used to make predictions about the future or promises.

- **Example:** "I shall return before nightfall." (a promise)
- **Example:** "You will enjoy the concert." (a prediction)

vii. **Contractions:** "Shall" is contracted as shan't in the negative (though this is quite formal and less common in everyday speech), while "will" is contracted as won't in the negative.

e. 'Would', 'Should' & 'Must'

i. **Would:** This is typically used to express repeated past actions, hypothetical scenarios, politeness, or future in the past.

Repeated past action: When I was young, I would visit my grandmother every summer.

Hypothetical scenario: If I won the lottery, I would buy a house.

Politeness: Would you pass me the salt, please?

Future in the past: He said that he would visit us next year.

ii. **Should:** This is often used to suggest something, give advice, talk about obligations, or discuss what is probable or expected.

Giving advice: You should eat healthier.

Suggesting something: We should go to the beach this weekend.

Obligations: I should finish this report by tomorrow.

Probable or expected events: She should be here by now.

iii. **Must:** This is typically used to express an obligation, deduce something, or emphasize necessity or importance.

Obligation: You must stop at a red light.

Deduction: This must be the right address.

Necessity or importance: We must protect the environment.

f. 'Ought to'

This is often used to advise or suggest something express a probable situation, or indicate a duty or obligation (almost like 'should'). While "should" is ge nerally more common in everyday speech, "ought to" o ften carries a slightly stronger connotation of moral or ethical responsibility.

Advice/Suggestion: You ought to save some money for a rainy day.

Probable situation: It's sunny outside. The picnic ought to be nice.

Duty or obligation: You ought to tell the truth.

Note: 'Ought to' can be used in both positive and negative sentences.

(g) 'Used to'

This is usually used to talk about past habits, states, or regular actions that no longer happen in the present.

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Past habit: I used to eat a lot of junk food, but now I eat healthily.

Regular action: She used to walk to school every day when she was a kid.

State: We used to live in Ohio.

Let's see some important grammatical structures associated with 'used to':

i. **'used to + V1':** We typically refer to a past action or state that no longer exists or occurs now.

- **Example:** "I used to smoke." means that in the past the doer had a habit of smoking, which is not present now.

ii. **'used to + V-ing':** This is used when we refer to something that may have felt strange or uncomfortable but now feels normal or comfortable because we have done it many times or have experience with it.

- **Example:** "I am used to getting up late in the morning." means that the doer has the habit of waking up late and is now comfortable with it.

iii. **'Verbs/adjectives/phrases + to + V-ing':** Many verbs/ adjectives/phrases are followed by a gerund (V + ing) which acts as a noun. This structure " Adj/verb/ phrase + to + V-ing" is important to understand.

Here are some special words & phrases which are followed by 'to + V-ing':

Accustomed, averse, with a view, addicted, d voted, in addition, look forward, object, owing, given, taken, prone.

- **Example 1:** "He is addicted to smoking".
- **Example 2:** "I am looking forward to meeting you".
- **Example 3:** "He was used to driving on the right when he was in London".

Exception:

These are idiomatic uses of the language, meaning that they have become standard through common usage, even if they do not strictly follow typical grammatical rules. It's important to remember these structures don't apply in every case. For example, while we say "I look forward to meeting you", we would also say "I want to meet you", not "I want to meeting you".

5. Use of 'Bare Infinitive'

The bare infinitive is the base form of a verb without **"to"** before it. It's used in several ways.

i. **After Auxiliary Verbs:** The bare infinitive is often used after the auxiliary verbs 'do', 'did', and 'does'.

- **Example:** I do understand your concern.

ii. **After Modal Verbs:** The bare infinitive is used after modals like can, could, may, might, will, would, shall, should, must, etc.

- **Example:** She must leave early to catch the train.

iii. **When two verbs are connected by 'and' or 'or':** The second verb is often a bare infinitive.

- **Example:** He wants to eat dinner and watch a movie.

iv. **Following 'let', 'make' and 'help':** The words 'let', 'make', and sometimes 'help' are followed by a bare infinitive.

- **Example 1:** Let me try.
- **Example 2:** She made him clean the room.

v. **In some phrases or expressions:** Certain phrases in English using verbs like 'see', 'hear', 'feel' or 'watch' take the bare infinitive.

- **Example:** I saw him cross the street.

vi. **Following 'why not' or 'why don't' in questions:** When proposing an action in question, we generally use the bare infinitive.

- **Example:** Why not try a new cuisine tonight?

vii. **After 'than' or 'as' in comparisons:** In comparative structures, we can use a bare infinitive after 'than' or 'as'.

- **Example:** He runs faster than fly.

viii. **With 'had better', 'better', and 'rather':** These phrases are typically followed by a bare infinitive.

- **Example:** You had better leave now to avoid traffic.

ix. **In 'if' clauses:** In some cases, where 'if' is used to form a conditional structure, we can use a bare infinitive. These are often commands or instructions.

- **Example:** If you see Tom, tell him to call me.



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FORMS OF VERBS
(REGULAR VERBS)

V1 (Base Form)	V2 (Simple Past)	V3 (Past Participle)
walk	walked	walked
play	played	played
work	worked	worked
study	studied	studied
watch	watched	watched
talk	talked	talked
move	moved	moved
help	helped	helped
hope	hoped	hoped
start	started	started
jump	jumped	jumped
listen	listened	listened
need	needed	needed
love	loved	loved
like	liked	liked
call	called	called
live	lived	lived
clean	cleaned	cleaned
stop	stopped	stopped
try	tried	tried

Common irregular verbs in the V1, V2, and V3 forms:

V1 (Base Form)	V2 (Simple Past)	V3 (Past Participle)
be	was/were	been
become	became	become
begin	began	begun
break	broke	broken
bring	brought	brought
buy	bought	bought
come	came	come
do	did	done
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
feel	felt	felt
find	found	found
get	got	gotten
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
have	had	had
know	knew	known
see	saw	seen
take	took	taken



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SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT

Subject-verb agreement is a foundational rule in English grammar. It means that the **subject** and **verb** in a sentence must agree in number. In other words, a **singular subject** needs a **singular verb**, and a **plural subject** needs a **plural verb**. This helps the sentence to make sense and sound correct. Here are the basics:

1. Singular Subject with Singular Verb

The **cat sleeps** on the couch.

(Here, "cat' is a singular subject, so it will be followed by the verb 'sleeps' in the singular form.)

2. Plural Subject with Plural Verb:

The **cats sleep** on the couch.

(Here, 'cats' is a plural subject, so it will be followed by the verb 'sleep' in the plural form.)

Subject-Verb Agreement with Prepositional Phrases:

The subject-verb agreement in English is deter-mined by the subject, not the object of a preposition (or other elements) that might follow the subject. This rule can sometimes be confusing for learners because a plural object of a preposition might be mistaken for the subject, but it's important to always identify the true subject of the sentence. Here are some details and examples to clarify this rule:

1. Singular Subject with Singular Verb:

Even when the **singular subject** is followed by a prepositional phrase with a plural object, the **verb** remains **singular**.

- **Example:** The **list** of names **is** on the table. (Here, "list" is the subject, and "names" is the object of the preposition "of". The verb "is" agrees with "list", not "names".)

2. Plural Subject with Plural Verb:

Even when a **plural subject** is followed by a prepositional phrase with a singular object, the verb remains plural.

- **Example:** The **dogs** in the house **are** noisy. (Here, "dogs" is the **subject**, and "house" is the object of the preposition "in". The **verb** "are" agrees with "dogs", not "house".)

3. "The Number " vs. "A Number":

"The Number of" is followed by a singular verb & **"A number of"** is followed by a plural verb. Even if they're followed by a prepositional phrase, the rule remains the same.

- **Example 1: The number of** students in the class **is** thirty. ("The number" is the **subject**, and "students" is the object of the preposition. The **verb** "is" agrees with "the number".)
- **Example 2: A number** of students in the class **are** absent today. ("A number" is the **subject**, and "students" is the object of the preposition. The verb "are" agrees with "a number".)

The use of "And":

If two words or phrases are joined by **"and"**, then the subjects are combined. Therefore, the **verb** that must be used should also be **plural**.

- **Example:** Arnab **and** Neeraj **are** preparing for the upcoming exam.

i. Exception I: However, if two words are treated as a **unit**, the verb that agrees with them must be **singular**.

- **Example 1: Hide and seek** is a popular game. (Here, "hide" and "seek" is treated as a unit)
- **Example 2: Law and order** is the primary concern of the new mayor.

  (These two concepts, while distinct, are commonly grouped together in the context of governance.)

ii. Exception II: When two or more words or phrases are separated by "and" and they refer to the **same subject**, the **verb** will always be **singular**.

- **Example:** The new **footballer's** money and popularity **is** on the rise. (The "money" and "popularity" belong to the same subject i.e., the "footballer". Therefore, the singular verb "is" agrees with it.)

Compound Subjects using Conjunctions/ Prepositions other than 'And':

If two subjects are separated by anything except "and", the verb agrees with the **main subject**. The list of such words is:

As well as
Besides
In addition to
With
Including
Accompanied by
But

- **Example: Ronaldo,** as well as Messi, **is** included

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in the Ballon D'or list. (Here, 'Ronaldo' is the main-subject. Therefore, the verb 'is' agrees with it.)

Let's look at more **examples**:

- **John**, **besides** his coworkers, **is** present at the conference.
- The **director**, **in addition to** the cast members, **is** expected on the red carpet.
- The **lead singer**, with the band, **is** touring Europe next month.
- The **captain**, **including** his teammates, **is** responsible for the performance on the field.
- The **queen**, **accompanied by** her guards, **is** visiting the museum.
- **He**, **but** not his friends, **is** willing to join the adventure.

In each of these sentences, the verb agrees with the main subject, even though additional subjects or elements are introduced by the given conjunctions or prepositions.

Subject-Verb Agreement with Correlative Conjunctions:

When two or more subjects are connected by the **co relative conjunctions** as given in the list, the verb agrees with the nearest subject.

Either… or
Neither… nor
Not only… but also
None… but

- **Example: Neither** the students **nor** the **teacher is** interested in History. (The singular verb 'is' must be used as it agrees with the nearest subject 'teacher' which is in the singular form.) Let's look at more examples:
- **Either** Jessica **or** her **friends are** attending the concert.
- **Not only** the mother **but also** her **children love** the new game.
- **None but** the **experts understand** this compli-cated theory.

In each example, the verb agrees with the subject that's closest to it, as per the rule of subject-verb agreement with correlative conjunctions.

Subject-Verb Agreement with Distributive Pronouns:

A **distributive pronoun** considers members of a group separately, rather than collectively. Some of the important distributive pronouns are:

Each
Every
Either
Neither
Any, None, one, etc.

i. Rule: Each/Every/Either/Neither/Any/None/one + Subject (Singular) + Verb (Singular).

- **Example 1: Neither** candidate **is** eligible for the post.
- **Example 2: Either** side of the road **is** not smooth.

ii. Rule: Each/Every/Either/Neither/Any/None/one + of + Subject (Plural) + Verb (Singular).

- **Example1: Either of** the **answers is** acceptable.
- **Example 2: Neither of** the **players is** available for the match.
- **Example 3: One of** the **candidates is** expected to win the election.

Subject-Verb Agreement with Plural Nouns denoting specific measures or quantities:

When plural nouns explain a specific amount, quantity, distance, etc., the verb should be singular.

- **Example 1: Five hundred rupees is** lying on the ground.
- **Example 2: Twelve kilometers is** not a long distance for an athlete.

Agreement based on articles:

i. When each of the two subjects has an **article** in front of them, use a **plural verb** because we're talking about two separate things or people.

- **Example 1: The captain** and **the coach are** discussing the game strategy. (Here, the "captain" and the "coach" are two different individuals.)
- **Example 2: The author** and **the editor have** worked closely on this book. (Here, the "au thor" and the "editor" are two distinct persons.)

ii. When just the first subject has an **article** in front of it, use a **singular verb** because it's referring to the same person or thing.

- **Example 1: The** actor and director **is** attending the premiere tonight. (This implies that the same person is both the actor and director.)

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- **Example 2: The** author and illustrator **has** signed the book copies. (This means that the same individual is both the author and illustrator.)

iii. When talking about two things or qualities of one person, we **don't use the article twice**.

- **Example 1:**
  Incorrect: Leon was a talented painter and a gifted musician.
  Correct: Leon was **a** talented painter and gifted musician.
- **Example 2:**
  Incorrect: She is an excellent teacher and a wonderful mother.
  Correct: She is **an** excellent teacher and wonderful mother.

Verb Agreement with the Relative Pronoun 'Who' Based on its Antecedent:

'It' is always followed by a **subjective pronoun**. If a sentence starts with **"It"**, look at the main subject of the sentence to decide if you should use a singular or plural **verb**. When using **'who'** to talk about people (I, you, he, she, they, etc), make sure the **verb** it takes agrees with that **pronoun**.

- **Example 1:** It is **I** who **am** responsible for this mess. (The verb "am" agrees with the subject "I". Also, "I" is used as it is a subjective pronoun).
- **Example 2:** It is **she** who **is** singing.

The use of 'Many a':

When we use the expression **"Many a"** or **"Many an"**, we're talking about a specific number of things, but we're treating them as a **single group**. It's like saying "a lot of one thing." Because of this, we use a **singular noun** and a **singular verb** to match the idea of that single group.

For example, instead of saying "Many cars are parked outside," you would say "Many a car is parked outside." Here, we're thinking of all those cars as a single group, even though there's more than one car. So, the rule is: When you use "Many a" or "Many an," make sure to follow it with a **singular noun** (like "car," "dog," or "book") and use a **singular verb** (like "is" or "runs").

- **Example 1:** Many a **book has** been written about global warming. (Here, the subject is singular i.e., 'book' and the verb is also singular i.e., 'has').
- **Example 2:** Many an **athlete runs** for miles each day.

The use of 'More than one':

If you are saying "more than one person is going", it means that there are numerous people, but you are referring to them one at a time. Hence, the expression **'more than one'** should always be followed by a **singular noun** and a **singular verb**.

- **Example 1:** More than one **student is** studying in the library right now. (In this sentence, the phrase 'more than one' is followed by the singular noun 'student' and the singular verb 'is studying'.)
- **Example 2:** More than one **car is** parked outside my house.



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ADJECTIVE

'Adjective' is a word or phrase that modifies or describes a noun or pronoun. It often expresses attributes or properties of the thing referred to by the noun or pronoun.

These attributes can include qualities such as size, color, feeling, shape, temperature, sound, time, and many other characteristics.

For example, in the sentence "She has a beautiful red dress," "beautiful" and "red" are adjectives describing the noun "dress". Adjectives can come before the noun they modify (as in "beautiful red dress") or after a linking -verb(as in "the dress is red and beautiful").

Types of Adjectives

1. Positive adjectives

Definition: They are used to provide a straightforward attribute or quality to a noun without making any comparisons.

- **Example: "The cat is fast".**

Here, "fast" is a positive degree adjective.

We're making a simple statement about the cat's speed, without comparing it to the speed of any other cat or animal.

2. Comparative adjectives

Definition: They are used to compare two things, typically by adding '-er', such as 'bigger', 'stronger', or 'more interesting'.

- **Example:** Sam runs **faster** than his brother.

3. Superlative adjectives

Definition: They are used to compare three or more things, typically by adding '-est', such as 'strongest', 'happiest', or 'most interesting'. It denotes the form of an adjective or adverb that expresses the highest or a very high degree of quality of a thing, person, etc.

- **Example:** Mr. Chopra is one of the **most** successful businessmen in the city.

Positive Adjective	Comparative Adjective	Superlative Adjective
Bad	Worse	Worst
Evil	Worse	Worst
Good	Better	Best
Far	Farther	Farthest
Well	Better	Best
Late	Later	Latest
Little	Less	Least
Much	More	Most
Many	More	Most
Near	Nearer	Nearest
Pretty	Prettier	Prettiest
Lucky	Luckier	Luckiest
Lovely	Lovelier	Loveliest
Dry	Drier	Driest
Clever	Cleverer	Cleverest
Wide	Wider	Widest
Busy	Busier	Busiest
Famous	More famous	Most famous
Honest	More honest	Most honest
Expensive	More expensive	Most expensive
Courageous	More courageous	Most courageous
Handsome	More handsome	Most handsome

4. Descriptive Adjectives

Definition: They are the most common type and are used to describe qualities and characteristics.

- **Example: 'Blue', 'angry', 'cold', 'loud', or 'fuzzy'.**

5. Quantitative Adjectives

Definition: They describe the quantity of something.

- **Example-** 'Some', 'any', 'many', 'few', 'lots', 'plenty', etc.

6. Demonstrative Adjectives

Definition: They point out specific things.

- **Example-** 'This', 'that', 'these', and 'those'.

7. Possessive Adjectives

Definition: They indicate ownership or possession of something.

- **Example-** 'My', 'your', 'his', 'her', 'its', 'our', 'their'.

8. Interrogative Adjectives

Definition: They are used to ask questions and include 'which', 'what', and 'whose'.

9. Distributive Adjectives

Definition: They refer to individual items within the whole.

- **Example-** 'Each', 'any', 'either', 'neither', and 'every'.

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10. Proper Adjectives

Definition: They are derived from proper nouns and are often used to signify nationality or origin.

- **Example-** 'American', 'Shakespearean', 'English', and 'French'.

11. Compound Adjectives

Definition: They are formed by combining two or more words, often with a hyphen.

- **Example-** 'Well-known', 'full-time', and 'high-quality'.

12. Indefinite Adjectives

Definition: They refer to any or all of a given type.

- **Example-** 'Any', 'many', 'few', 'most', 'several'

Adjective Rules

Rule 1:

We always use **'than'** after a comparative degree adjective when we make a comparison between two things, people, etc.

- **Example:** Reena is more beautiful **than** Sita.

Rule 2:

We always use the definite article **'the'** before every 'Superlative degree adjective'.

- **Example:** Rohan is **the** most intelligent student in the class.

Rule 3:

Whenever we make a comparison between two things or people **we don't use 'more or very**' with the comparative degree adjective because it becomes a case of superfluousness(not necessary).

Example:

- Tarun is **more smarter** than Harish.(Incorrect)
- Taun is **smarte**r than Harish.(Correct)

Rule 4:

When we compare two qualities of a noun or pronoun, we use "**more + positive degree**" instead of comparative degree.

Example:

- He is **braver** than intelligent.(Incorrect)
- He is **more brave** than intelligent.(Correct)

Rule 5:

Absolute adjectives do not normally form comparatives or superlatives. This is because their qualities cannot exist in different degrees. For instance, something cannot be "more perfect", because "perfect" already describes the absolute, ultimate degree of quality.

Example:

- This is the **most unique** book I have ever read. (Incorrect)
- This is the **unique** book I have ever read.(Correct)

Let's have a look at these similar kinds of adjectives:

Interior- more interior (×), most interior (×)
Exterior- more exterior (×), most exterior (×)
Extreme- more extreme (×), most extreme (×)
Complete- more complete (×), most complete (×)
Perfect- more perfect (×), most perfect (×)
Final- more final (×), most final (×)
Ideal- more ideal (×), most ideal (×)
Supreme- more supreme (×), most supreme (×)

Rule 6:

A compound adjective is formed of two or more words that jointly describe a noun. When a compound adjective precedes the noun it modifies, it is often hyphenated to prevent confusion.

Examples:

- I delivered a **two-hours** lecture.(Incorrect)
- I delivered a **two-hour** lecture.(Correct)
- He gave me two **hundred-rupees** notes.(Incorrect)
- He gave me two **hundred-rupee** notes.(Correct)

In these examples, 'two-hour' and 'two hundred rupee' are compound adjectives.

Note:-

The second word in the compound adjective (the number) is always singular. We say "two-hour lecture", not "two-hours lecture". This is because the compound adjective is describing the noun as a single unit. So, even if the lecture lasts for two hours, 'two-hour' describes one lecture, so 'hour' stays singular.



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Rule 7:

We generally add **'ly**' to an adjective to transform it into an adverb.

Examples:

Adjective	Adverb
Happy	Happily
Sad	Sadly
Quiet	Quietly
Loud	Loudly
Beautiful	Beautifully
Careful	Carefully
Honest	Honestly
Calm	Calmly
Immediate	Immediately
Constant	Constantly

Exception:

But, with **verbs of sensation**(feel, taste, smell, sound, look), the adjective used is an adverb itself, so 'ly' is not added to the adjective to make it an adverb.

Examples:

- The food is deliciously.(Incorrect)
- The food is delicious.(Correct)
- He feels badly.(Incorrect)
- He feels bad.(Correct)

Rule 8:

When the definite article "the" is used with an adjective and there is no noun following it, then that adjective often serves as a **plural common noun** & takes a **plural verb**.

Example:

- **The wealthy** are responsible for helping **the needy.** If we break down the sentence: "The wealthy" refers to people who are rich, "are" is the plural verb that describes the action being done. "The needy" is the object receiving the action i.e. people who are poor. In a similar way, other examples like rich, poor, needy, aged, blind, dead, meek, and wicked can also be used as plural nouns to refer to people with those characteristics.

Rule 9:

Consistent use of adjective forms in parallel structures. When we use conjunctions (like 'and', 'or') to connect two or more adjectives that describe the same noun or pronoun, the adjectives should share the same degree form. If one adjective is in the superlative degree form, the other adjective(s) should be in the same form as well.

Examples:

- "Rahul is the **noblest** and **wiser** of all the students". (Incorrect)
- "Rahul is the **noblest** and **wisest** of all the students".(Correct) In the incorrect sentence, 'noblest' is in the superlative degree, whereas 'wiser' is in the comparative degree. There's a lack of consistency in the forms of the adjectives being used. In the corrected sentence, both 'noblest' and 'wisest' are in the superlative degree, which maintains parallelism and is grammatically correct.

Rule 10:

Difference between 'as___as' & 'so___as':

The structures 'as_____as' and 'so_____as' are used to make comparisons. Here's a basic difference between the two:

(i) 'As_____as': This structure is used in positive or affirmative sentences for comparison between two things. It's used to say that two things are equal in some way.

The pattern is usually **"as + adjective/adverb + as".**

Example:

- He is as tall as his brother. (Here, the person's height is equal to his brother's height.)
- She sings as beautifully as a nightingale. (Here, the quality of the woman's singing is compared to a nightingale's song, indicating they're equal in beauty.)

(ii) 'So_____as': This structure is generally used in negative sentences for comparison. It's used to say that something isn't as much or to the degree "as". The pattern is usually **"not so/as + adjective/ adverb + as"**.

Example:

- He is not so/as tall as his brother. (Here, the person's height isn't equal to his brother's height, it's lesser.)
- She does not sing so/as beautifully as a nightingale. (Here, the quality of the woman's singing is compared to a nightingale's song, indicating the woman's singing isn't as beautiful.)

Rule 11:

When comparisons are made using multiples "two times, three times, ten times, etc.", we use the structure 'as…….as'. The adjective remains in the

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base form (big), and not the comparative form (bigger).

Example:

- "My house is four times bigger than yours."(Incorrect)
- "My house is four times as big as yours"(Correct)
  In this example, 'four times as big as' describes how much larger one house is compared to another. The pattern is **'multiplicative number + times + as + adjective + as'.**

Exception:

This rule does not only apply to size but also to other properties like weight, height, speed, etc.

Example:

- "This bag is three times as heavy as that one,"
- "He runs two times as fast as me."

Rule 12:
Order of Multiple Adjectives

When multiple adjectives modify a single noun, they usually follow a specific order:

Order of adjectives	Examples
Quantity	Two
Quality	Beautiful
Size	Big
Age	Old
Shape	Round
Color	Red
Origin	Spanish
Material	Wooden
Purpose	Dining

Example:

"She bought two beautiful big old round red Spanish wooden dining tables".

Rule 13:

Difference between 'Cardinal' & 'Ordinal' Numbers:

Cardinal Numbers: Cardinal numbers are used for counting and showing how many. They indicate quantity. The cardinal numbers are **one, two, three, four, five,** etc.

Examples:

- I have **three** apples.
- She read **two** books.

Ordinal Numbers: Ordinal numbers are used for indicating position or order in relation to others. They are the rank or position of numbers in a series, such as **first, second, third, fourth**, etc.

Examples:

- He finished in **first** place.
- This is the **third** chapter in the book.

Rule 14:
Use of "any other"

When we compare one thing with all other things in a group, we use the phrase "any other".

Example:

- "Gold is more precious than **any metal**,"(Incorrect)
- "Gold is more precious than **any other metal**."(Correct)
  In the first sentence, it logically implies that gold is also a metal, and hence gold is compared with itself, which does not make sense.
  The correct sentence should be "Gold is more precious **than any other metal**." Here "any other" means "all other members of the group, not including the subject we're talking about". So, essentially we're saying that Gold is more precious than any metal, other than gold itself, which is logical and correct.

Exception:

"Diamond is more precious than any metal," In the above sentence, the comparison is grammatically and logically correct without needing the phrase "any other," because diamonds and metals are different categories of items. A diamond is not a metal, so it can be directly compared with all metals.

Rule 15:
Some fixed adjective structures

(i) "Adjective(kind) + enough"

- **Example-** He is **kind enough** to donate this huge amount of money to the NGO.

(ii) "Much too + Adjective(beautiful, small, big)"

- **Example-** The almirah is **much too** big for the room.

Rule 16:

Certain adjectives require specific prepositions to form a correct grammatical structure. So, we use different prepositions for the different adjectives used in a sentence.

Example:

- He is senior and more experienced than you. (Incorrect)
- He is senior to and more experienced than you. (Correct)
  It involves two different prepositions associated with the comparative form of two separate

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adjectives. A few more examples of correct preposition usage with particular comparative adjectives:

- My cat is different from yours, not "different than" yours.
- I am similar to my sister, not "similar than" my sister.

Note:-

We use the fixed preposition **'to'** before the adjectives **senior, junior, inferior, superior, prior, prefer, elder.**

Rule 17:

Some adjectives are used only in the Positive Degree and Superlative Degree but not in the Comparative Degree.

Examples:

Positive	Superlative
Top	Topmost
Northern	Northernmost
Southern	Southernmost
Eastern	Easternmost
Western	Westernmost

Rule 18:

Minute differences

(i) Farther vs Further

"Farther" refers to a literal or physical distance. It is the comparative form of the word "far" in terms of distance.

- **Example-** Los Angeles is farther from New York than Chicago.

"Further", on the other hand, refers to a metaphorical or figurative distance. It can mean "to a greater degree", "moreover", or "additional". Further can also be used in the context of the abstract extension of a process or journey.

- **Example-** "I will look further into the matter before making a decision.

(ii) Elder vs Older

"Elder" and **"older"** are both used to denote age, however, they have slightly different connotations and uses in English.
"Older" is a comparative form of "old" and can be used in any context to compare the age of two things or people.

- **Example-** She's older than me by two years.

"Elder" is more specific and is typically used when discussing the age differences between two people who are related, namely siblings. Unlike 'older', it is only used before a noun, and it cannot be used with 'than'.

- **Example-** He is the elder brother in the family.

(iii) Later vs Latter

"Later" is a comparative form of "late", and it is generally used to refer to something happening after a certain time. It can be a time point in the future or a sequence of events in the past.

- **Example:** Let's have a meeting later this afternoon.

"Latter" is used to refer to the second of two things or people that have been mentioned previously. It is usually used in a comparison or list structure.

- **Example:** Between coffee and tea, I prefer the latter.

(iv) Little v/s A Little v/s The Little

All three terms can be used to refer to a small amount, but the exact connotations and ways they are used can differ substantially.
"Little": When "little" is used without an article like "a" or "the" before a noun, it tends to have a negative connotation, implying that there's not enough of something or less than expected.

- **Example:** "I have little time to finish this project." In this sentence, the speaker indicates that they don't have enough time to comfortably complete the task.

"A Little": When we use "a little" before a noun, it suggests a small amount, but it's usually more than 'little', and it's not necessarily a negative thing. It can also mean some but not a lot.

- **Example:** "I have a little money." In this case, the speaker has some money, not a lot, but more than if they had said "I have little money".

"The Little": When we use "the little" before a noun, it means the small amount of something that is available or that we possess, regardless of whether we need more or not.

- **Example:** "The little time we have left should be spent wisely." Here, the speaker is saying that the small amount of time that remains should be used in a wise way.

(v) Few v/s A Few v/s The Few

Similar to 'little', 'few', 'a few', and 'the few' are also used to refer to small quantities, but specifically to countable things.
"Few": When "few" is used without an article, it implies a negative connotation too, meaning 'not many' or 'almost none'. It often indicates a smaller number than expected or desired.

- **Example**: "He has few friends."

This sentence suggests that he doesn't have many friends, probably fewer than he would like or fewer

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than the speaker expected.

"A Few": "A few" means a small number, but unlike "few", it doesn't carry a strongly negative connotation. It just suggests that the amount isn't large.

- **Example:** "I have a few apples." This sentence suggests that the speaker has a small number of apples, not a bountiful amount, but it's still a sufficient quantity, not like having "few apples".

"The Few": "The few" refers to the small number that one does have. When the phrase "the few" is used, it often implies that the speaker is talking about a specific, potentially known, quantity.

- **Example:** "The few books she owns are all classics." In this context, the speaker is suggesting that the person in question doesn't have many books, but the books she does own are classic ones.

Rule 19:
Correct Usage of some Adjectives

(i) 'Some' & 'Any'

'Some' and 'Any' are often used in similar contexts and both refer to an unspecified amount or number. However, their usage can differ based on the type of sentence they're used in- affirmative, negative, or interrogative - and also sometimes based on the speaker's expectations or assumptions.

"Some": 'Some' is often used in positive or affirmative sentences and in offers or requests. It's used when the speaker believes the thing in discussion exists, or when the speaker is thinking about a particular thing.

- **Example:** "I bought some apples." Here, the speaker definitely bought apples. In offers or requests, "Would you like some coffee?" Here, 'some' is used to offer an unknown quantity of coffee.

"Any": 'Any' is typically used in negative sentences or questions. It's used when the speaker is not thinking of a particular thing, or when the existence of the thing in discussion is unknown or irrelevant.

- **Example:** "I didn't buy any apples." Here, 'any' strongly negates the presence of apples.
  In Questions: "Do you have any coffee?" 'Any' is used in questions where the answer isn't known.

Note:-

There can be some overlap in usage, particularly in questions. For instance, "Do you have some coffee?" and "Do you have any coffee?" are both grammatically correct, but the former might subtly suggest the speaker believes coffee is available, while the latter is more neutral and genuinely inquiring about the availability of coffee.

(ii) 'Much' & 'Many' The main difference between 'much' and 'many' revolves around the type of noun they modify: 'much' is used with uncountable (or singular) nouns, and 'many' is used with countable (or plural) nouns.

"Much": 'Much' is used with uncountable nouns, which are usually things that we cannot count individually. They often refer to abstract notions or collective names for things.

- **Example:** "I don't have much time." Time is uncountable because we can't count it as one time, two times, etc. Also, note that 'much' is more often used in negative statements or questions.
- **Example:** "I don't have much money" or "Is there much water left?" It's less common in affirmative sentences, except with words like 'so', 'too' and 'very'. For instance, "I love you so much."

"Many": 'Many' is used with countable nouns, which are names for individual things that we can count.

- **Example:** "I have many friends." Friends are countable because we can count them as one friend, two friends, etc. Like 'much', 'many' is most frequently used in negative statements and questions.
- **Example:** "He doesn't have many books" or "Do you have many apples?"

Note:-

However, in formal English, 'much' and 'many' can sometimes be used affirmatively.

- **Example**, "Much wisdom comes from experience" and "Many people live in this city".

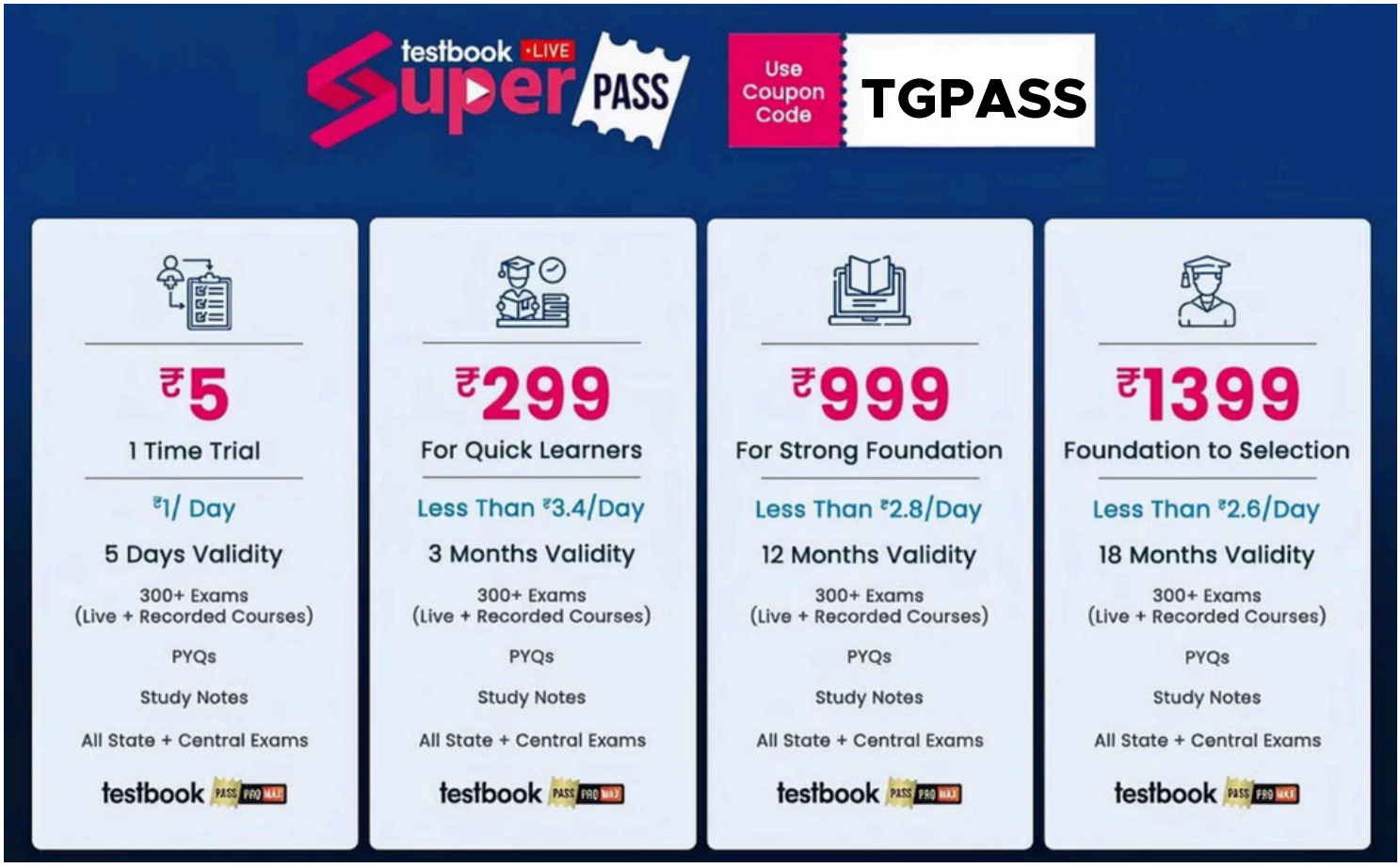
(iii) 'All' & 'Both' The words "all" and "both" are quantifiers; they describe the quantity of something, typically a noun. This rule refers to the correct positioning of these quantifiers when they are used with possessive adjectives (my, your, his, her, its, our, their).

"All": When "all" is used with a possessive adjective, the correct order is **"all + possessive adjective noun"**. So, you say "All my friends", not "my all friends". The same rule applies to "All his books", "All her clothes", etc.

"Both": Similarly, with "both", the correct order is **"both + possessive adjective + noun"**. For instance, "Both my parents", not "my both parents".

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ADVERB

'Adverb' is a word or phrase that modifies or qualifies an adjective, verb, or other adverb or a word group, often expressing a relation of place, time, circumstance, manner, cause, and degree. Adverbs can describe **when**(adverbs of time), **where**(adverbs of place), **how**(adverbs of manner), or **why**(adverbs of reason) something happens.

Types of Adverbs:

1. Adverbs of Manner

Definition: Adverbs of manner describe how some thing happens or is done. They are usually placed either after the main verb or after the object.

- **Example-** Happily, sadly, slowly, quickly, badly, well, etc.

2. Adverbs of Place

Definition: Adverbs of place describe where the action happens.

- **Example-** Here, there, everywhere, outside, inside, below, above, etc.

3. Adverbs of Time

Definition: Adverbs of time tell us when an action was performed or when it will happen.

- **Example-** Now, yesterday, tomorrow, today, again, often, etc.

4. Adverb of Degree

Definition: Adverbs of degree tell us about the intensity or degree of something.

- **Example-** Very, quite, almost, too, enough, just, etc.

5. Adverbs of Frequency

Definition: Adverbs of frequency explain how often something occurs.

- **Example-** Always, never, rarely, sometimes, usually, etc.

6. Adverbs of Probability

Definition: They tell us the likelihood of something happening.

- **Example-** Certainly, likely, probably, undoubtedly, etc.

7. Interrogative Adverbs

Definition: They are used in asking questions.

- **Example-** Where, when, why, how, etc.

8. Relative Adverbs

Definition: They introduce relative clauses.

- **Example-** When, where, why, whereby, wherein, etc.

Adverb Rules:

Rule 1: Adverb Position

Usually, an adverb is placed after the verb it modifies.

- **Example-** "She sings beautifully." Here, "beautifully" is an adverb modifying the verb "sings".

However, adverbs can also go at the beginning or end of a sentence for emphasis or style.

Rule 2: Adverbs of Frequency

Adverbs of frequency such as always, often, some times, rarely, and never usually go before the main verb.

- **Example-** "I always eat breakfast".

However, when using the verb 'to be', the adverb follows it.

- **Example-** "I am always late."

Rule 3: Adverbs Modifying Adjectives or Adverbs

When an adverb modifies an adjective or another ad verb, it is usually placed directly before the word it is modifying.

- **Example-** "He runs very quickly". Here, "very" is an adverb modifying another adverb "quickly".

Rule 4: Adverb Formation

Many adverbs are formed by adding "-ly" to an adjective.

- **Example-** "quick" becomes "quickly", "happy" becomes "happily". But remember, not all words that end in "-ly" are adverbs, and some adverbs(like "well") don't follow this pattern.

Rule 5: Adverb vs Adjective

Remember that adjectives modify nouns, whereas adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.

- **Example-** "She is a slow driver"(adjective) vs "She drives slowly"(adverb).

Rule 6: Avoiding Double Negatives

When using adverbs like **'seldom,' 'nowhere,' 'never,' 'nothing,' 'hardly,' 'scarcely,' 'neither,' 'barely,'** and **'rarely,'** which already have a negative or limiting sense, **avoid** using additional negative words like **'no,' 'nobody,' 'nothing,'** etc., immediately after them. Instead, use positive or neutral words like **'any,' 'an**

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body,' 'anything,' etc.

Examples:

- **Incorrect:** I rarely went to meet nobody.
- **Correct:** I rarely went to meet anybody.
- **Incorrect:** She hardly knows nothing about me.
- **Correct:** She hardly knows anything about me.
- **Incorrect:** I hardly know somebody in the city.
- **Correct:** I hardly know anybody in the city.

Rule 7: Comparatives and Superlatives

Some adverbs have comparative and superlative forms. Use "-er" and "-est" for one-syllable adverbs, like "hard", "harder", "hardest", and "more" and "most" for multi-syllabic adverbs, like "more slowly", "most slowly".

Note:-

Many adverbs in English are formed by adding "-ly" to an adjective. For instance, "happy" (an adjective) can be made into the adverb "happily" by adding "-ly". However, not all words ending in "-ly" are adverbs and not all adverbs end in "-ly".

Rule 8: Use of adverb 'as'

Adverb **'as'** can be used with:

Regard
Define
Describe
View
Know

Examples:

- **Regard:** He regards her **as** his best friend.
- **Define:** The dictionary defines 'empathy' **as** the ability to understand and share the feelings of others.
- **Describe:** They described the situation **as** challenging.
- **View:** I view it **as** an opportunity to learn more.
- **Know:** I know him **as** a dependable person.

Rule 9: Skipping the adverb 'as'

The adverb **'as'** is not used with:

Elect
Consider
Appoint
Choose

Examples:

- **Elect:** They **elected** him president.
- **Consider:** I **consider** him a good friend.
- **Appoint:** They **appointed** her manager.
- **Choose:** She **chose** him team leader.

Rule 10: Adjectives that look like adverbs

There are certain words that take 'ly' at the end but are actually adjectives (not adverbs). Some of the words are: **cowardly, niggardly, scholarly**.

Examples:

- **Noun("coward"):** Tim was considered a coward because he always ran away from any confrontation or difficult situation.
- **Adjective("cowardly"):** The lion in the story displayed a cowardly behavior, unlike his fierce counterparts.
- **Adverb("in a cowardly manner"):** He acted in a cowardly manner when faced with the challenge, choosing to hide rather than stand up for what was right.

For instance, when we consider the word "coward," it can be transformed into the adjective "cowardly" to describe someone who shows fear or lack of bravery. Additionally, the adverb form "in a cowardly manner" is used to explain how a specific action was performed by someone displaying cowardice.
Similarly, the term "niggard" can be changed to "niggardly" to depict a person who is reluctant to spend or share. To further illustrate the action, we can use the adverb "in a niggardly manner."
The word "miser" can be turned into the adjective "miserly," portraying a person who is excessively thrifty. For the manner in which a behavior is carried out, the adverb form "in a miserly manner" can be employed.
Furthermore, the word "scholar" can be transformed into "scholarly" as an adjective to describe someone who is learned and academic. The adverb form "in a scholarly manner" is used to explain how an action was conducted with scholarly attributes.

Nounform	Adjective form	Adverb form
Coward	Cowardly	In a cowardly manner
Niggard	Niggardly	In a niggardly manner
Scholar	Scholarly	In a scholarly manner

Rule 11: Words that function both as adjectives and adverbs

Certain words in English can function as both **adjectives** and **adverbs**. Here's a list with

Examples:

Fast:

- Adjective: She drives a fast car.
- Adverb: He runs fast.

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Hard:

- Adjective: This bread is hard and stale.
- Adverb: She works hard every day.

Late:

- Adjective: I have a late meeting tonight.
- Adverb: He arrived late to the party.

Early:

- Adjective: We have an early flight tomorrow.
- Adverb: He woke up early in the morning.

Daily:

- Adjective: The daily newspaper is on the table.
- Adverb: She jogs daily to stay fit.

High:

- Adjective: The high mountain is a challenge for climbers.
- Adverb: Birds fly high in the sky.

Please note that the way these words are used can depend on context, and sometimes subtle changes in meaning or usage might occur.

Rule 12: Confusing adverbs

a. Late vs. Lately

Late: After the expected or usual time; tardy.

Usage: He arrived late to the party.

Lately: Recently; not long ago.

Usage: Have you seen any good movies lately?

b. Hard vs. Hardly

Hard: With a great deal of effort; strenuously.

Usage: She worked hard to finish the project on time.

Hardly: Barely, scarcely, almost not.

Usage: I hardly had time to grab lunch today.

Rule 13: Inversion

When starting a sentence with certain adverbs like **'seldom,' 'never,' 'no sooner,' 'hardly,'** and 'so,' you must follow the **adverb** with the **helping verb**, and then the **subject**. This is known as **inversion**, where the usual order of the subject and the verb is switched.

Examples:

- **Incorrect:** Seldom he comes to meet me.
- **Correct:** Seldom does he come to meet me.
- **Incorrect:** Never I'll go that place.
- **Correct:** Never shall I go to that place.

Rule 14: Verbs of Sensation

When using verbs of sensation such as **"taste," "smell," "feel," "appear," "seem," "sound,"** and **"look,"** you often use **adjectives** rather than **a verbs** to describe how something is perceived.

Examples:

Taste:

- The soup tastes delicious.(Correct)
- The soup tastes deliciously.(Incorrect)

Smell:

- The flowers smell fresh.(Correct)
- The flowers smell freshly.(Incorrect)

Feel:

- The fabric feels soft.(Correct)
- The fabric feels softly.(Incorrect)

Appear:

- He appears happy about the news.(Correct)
- He appears happily about the news.(Incorrect)

Seem:

- You seem tired today.(Correct)
- You seem tiredly today.(Incorrect)

Sound:

- Her voice sounds sweet.(Correct)
- Her voice sounds sweetly.(Incorrect)

Look:

- You look beautiful in that dress.(Correct)
- You look beautifully in that dress.(Incorrect)

These examples demonstrate how adjectives, rather than adverbs, are used with these specific verbs to describe sensations or states.



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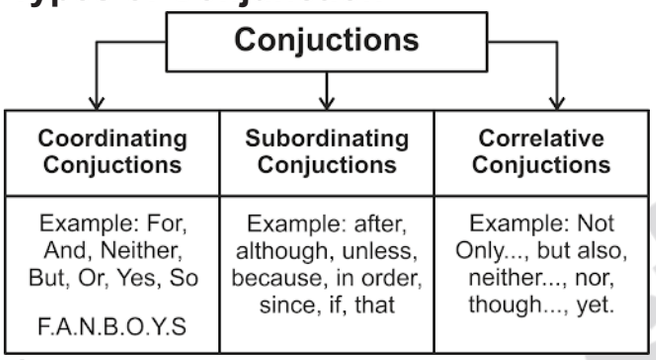
CONJUNCTION

In grammar, **a conjunction** is a word or a group of words that serves to link two or more units in a sentence. These grammatical units may be single words, phrases, or complete clauses. It plays a pivotal role in structuring sentences, facilitating the formation of complex and compound sentence structures.

Examples:

- Alex **and** Robin are playing together.
- Alex plays well, **but** Robin plays better than him.
- She said she **neither** wanted the yogurt **nor** the ice cream.

Types of Conjunction



1. Coordinating Conjunction

Definition: Coordinating conjunction joins two words, phrases, or independent clauses, which are parallel in structure. There are seven coordinating conjunctions which are by far the most common conjunctions: and, but, for, nor, or, so, yet.

a. For: This conjunction is used to give reasons or causes. It is often viewed as a synonym for "because" or "since." However, it's more formal and less common than "because" or "since."

- **Example:** "He couldn't go to school, **for** he was feeling unwell."

b. And: This is one of the most commonly used conjunctions, and it's used to add one thing to another or express addition.

- **Example:** "She likes reading books **and** playing guitar."

c. Nor: This conjunction connects two negative ideas. Not only is it negative, but it adds a sense of further negativity, a second negation.

- **Example:** "He doesn't eat meat, **nor** does he eat dairy."

d. But: This conjunction is used to introduce a clause expressing contrast or contradiction in the context of what was said before.

- **Example:** "It's a sunny day, **but** it is still cold outside."

e. Or: This conjunction presents options or alternative choices.

- **Example:** "Would you like coffee **or** tea?"

f. Yet: This conjunction is used to introduce a clause expressing a contrast with what has been stated before, giving a sense of unexpectedness.

- **Example:** "She is very tired, yet she continues to work."

g. So: This conjunction is used to demonstrate cause and effect relationship or show a conclusion based on evidence.

- **Example:** "She didn't study for the test, **so** she failed."

2. Correlative Conjunction

Hardly... when
Such... that
Neither... nor
Whether... or
As... as
Rather... than
Scarcely... when
Both... and
Not only... but also
Either... or
So... as
No sooner... than
The more... the more
So... that

Definition: Correlative conjunctions are pairs of conjunctions in a parallel sentence structure to show a compare the equal parts of a sentence.

Correlative conjunctions bring a balanced structure to

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the sentence and statements they connect, meaning the words or phrases that follow each correlative conjunction have the same grammatical form.

Examples:

a. Either...or: This pair is used to present two mutually exclusive options or choices.

- **Example:** "You can either have ice cream or cake not both."

b. Neither...nor: This pair is used to indicate that two or more things are equally not true or applicable.

- **Example:** "He neither drinks nor smokes."

c. Both...and: This pair is used to indicate that two or more things are equally true or applicable.

- **Example:** "She is both intelligent and beautiful."

d. Not only...but also: This pair is used to present an additional point, fact or aspect of the subject that emphasizes or intensifies the initial part of the sentence.

- **Example:** "He is not only a talented musician but also an excellent singer."

e. Whether...or: This pair is often used to present two possible scenarios or alternatives.

- **Example:** "Whether you like it or not, you need to finish your homework."

f. Hardly/Scarcely... when: used to connect two events and suggest that one action was followed immediately by another. They are typically used with a negative connotation to imply that an action (usually unexpected) occurred just after another action was completed.

Example:

- Hardly had I reached the station when the train arrived.
- Scarcely had we started the show when the lights went out.

3. Subordinating Conjunction

Definition: A subordinating conjunction is a type of conjunction that introduces a subordinate clause. A subordinate clause cannot stand alone as a complete sentence. It depends on an independent clause to form a complete sentence. The role of the subordinating conjunction is to show a relationship between the independent and the subordinate clause. These relationships can be of time, cause and effect, contrast, condition, or purpose. Important subordinating conjunctions are:

After, how, then, when, although, if, that, where, as, in order that, though, which, as much as, unless, while, because, provided, until, who whom, before, since, what, whoever/ whomever.

Examples:

a. After: Refers to a condition or an event following another.

- **Example:** She went for a run after she had break-fast.

b. Although: Presents a contrast or an unexpected element.

- **Example**: Although it was late, he still agreed to help me.

c. As: Can mean because (cause and effect), or while (during the same time).

- **Example:** As it was raining, they decided to stay indoors.

d. Because: Indicates a cause or a reason.

- **Example:** She was upset because her phone was stolen.

e. If: Refers to a condition where one action depends on another action.

- **Example:** "If it rains, we will postpone the match.

Key Rules Regarding Conjunction

1. Correct Positioning:

Conjunctions should be used in the correct place in a sentence. For instance, subordinating and coordinating conjunctions typically sit between the clauses they connect.

- **Example:** "I wanted to buy a new phone but I didn't have enough money."

2. Pairing Correlative Conjunctions Properly:

When using correlative conjunctions (**either...or, neither... nor, both...and**, etc.) ensure the words that follow each conjunction are grammatically parallel (have the same form).

- **Example:** "She is both a talented dancer and an experienced singer."

3. Avoid starting sentences with Coordinating conjunctions:

While it's become more accepted in informal and creative writing to start a sentence with a coordinating conjunction (For, And, Nor, But, Or, Yet, So), it is still considered incorrect in formal writing.

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4. Inverted sentence structure with “Hardly” and “Scarcely”:

When beginning a sentence with “hardly” or “scarcely,” the sentence usually, though not always, follows an inverted structure (the auxiliary verb comes before the subject).

- **Example:** “Hardly had I walked in when the phone rang.”

5. Avoid Double Negative with Neither and Nor:

Using “not” with “neither... nor” can create a double negative, which is generally considered incorrect in standard English.

- Example:
- **Correct:** “Neither John nor Mary was available.”
- **Incorrect:** “Neither John nor Mary wasn’t available.”

6. Subject-Verb Agreement after Correlative and Coordinating Conjunctions:

After using “either... or” or “neither...nor,” the verb should agree with the subject closer to it.

- **Example:**

“Either the manager or the employees handle the queries.” In the case of coordinating conjunctions, if two subjects are joined by ‘and,’ they typically require a plural verb unless the two subjects are thought of as a single unit.

- **Example:** “Peanut butter and jelly is my favorite sandwich.”

7. Avoid comma splices with Coordinating Conjunctions:

Avoid connecting two independent clauses with just a comma; this is known as a comma splice, a common punctuation error. Instead use a coordinating conjunction (for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so) after the comma or divide the clauses into separate sentences.



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PREPOSITION

'Preposition' is a word that indicates the relationship between a noun and the other words of a sentence. They explain relationships of sequence, space, and logic between the object of the sentence and the rest of the sentence.

For instance, consider the preposition **"on"** in the sentence "The book is on the table." The preposition "on" helps us understand the relationship, or connection, between the book and table. It tells us where the book is — it's on top of the table. Prepositions are very useful in making our language detailed and clear. Without prepositions, it would be hard to express the exact meaning of our thoughts in sentences.

In short, they are vital words that help shape our messages by connecting different parts of our sentences together in meaningful ways.

Types of Preposition

Kind of Preposition	
Preposition of Time	in, on, for, since, at, from, between, during after, before, by, within, till, until, from etc
Prepositions of Position/Place	between, among, amid, in, at, on, beside, by under, behind, over, above, below, in front of etc
Prepositions of Direction	along, across, against, up, down, to, towards, for, from, at, on etc
Other Prepositions	without, with, by, off, around, about, besides, except etc

1. Prepositions of Agents or Things

They indicate a casual relationship between nouns and other parts of the sentence. Of, for, by, with, about, etc. are the most used and common prepositions of agents or things.

Example:

- This article is about smartphones.
- Most of the guests have already left.

2. Prepositions of Time

They indicate when something happens. Common ones include 'at', 'on', 'in'.

'At' is used for precise times.

- **Example-** "We're meeting at 5pm".

'On' is used for specific days and dates.

- **Example-**"We're meeting on Friday".

'In' is used for longer periods of time, like months or years.

- **Example-** "We're meeting in August".

3. Prepositions of Place

They indicate where something is or happens. The most common ones include 'at', 'on', 'in', 'under', 'over', 'behind', 'in front of'.

'At' is used to specify a point of place or venue,

Example- "He's waiting at the bus stop".

'On' refers to surface positions,

- **Example-** "The book is on the table".

'In' refers to enclosed space,

- **Example-** "Maria is in the house".

4. Prepositions of Direction

They indicate the direction of something. The most common ones include 'to', 'into', 'out of', 'toward', 'from'.

'To' is used to express movement toward a place.

- **Example-** "I am going to the library".

'From' is used to express a point of origin.

- **Example-** "She's coming from Canada".

5. Preposition of Manner

They express how something happens or is done, such as 'by', 'in'.

'By' shows the manner of doing something.

- **Example-** "We traveled by car".

'In' could express the way something is done.

- **Example-** "She wrote the letter in blood".

Prepositions that can be used in Multiple Contexts

A. Uses of 'To'

1. **Indicating Direction or Destination**:
   - "I am going to the park."
   - "She travels to work by bus."
2. **Expressing Time:**
   - "The store is open from Monday to Friday."
   - "It's five minutes to seven."

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3. **Indicating Relationship or Comparison:**
- "She is a cousin to him."
- "It's similar to the one I lost."
4. **Used when directly giving or sending something to someone:**
- "I gave the book to John."
- "He wrote a letter to her."
5. **Indicating Purpose or Intention (when used with a verb in the infinitive form):**
- "I'm saving money to buy a new car."
- "She left early to get a good parking spot."
6. **As a part of an Infinitive:**
- "We need to clean up before we leave."
- "He began to worry when she didn't come home."
7. **Expressing Limit or an End Point:**
- "The speed limit changes from 70 to 50 kilometers per hour."
- "He works from nine to five."
8. **Expressing a Range:**
- "The kids ranged from five to twelve years old."

B. Uses of 'For'

1. **Indicating Purpose or Function**:
- "This tool is for cutting metal."
- "She runs every morning for exercise."
2. **Indicating Recipient or Beneficiary**:
- "I booked a table for two."
- "This present is for you."
3. **Indicating Duration:**
- "She's going away for a week."
- "I've lived here for three years."
4. **Expressing a Cause or Reason:**
- "He was late for work."
- "She's incredibly happy for getting her dream job."
5. **Pertaining to a Specific Event or Occurrence:**
- "We're having a party for my mother's birthday."
- "I'm excited for the weekend."
6. **Indicating the Intended Goal or Result:**
- "They're aiming for a better future."
- "She's studying for her finals."
7. **Expressing a Favorable Attitude:**
- "I'm all for equality."
- "She's for gun control."
8. **Expressing Agreement or Support:**
- "Can you vouch for his character?"
- "I can do nothing for you."

C. Uses of 'In'

1. **Indicating Location or Position within something:**
- "She's in the garden."
- "The clothes are in the closet."
2. **Indicating when something will happen in the future or has happened in the past.**
- "She will arrive in an hour."
- "In the 19th century, many important inventions were made."
3. **Indicating the method, state, or condition:**
- "She talks in a low voice."
- "They're in love."
4. **To show Belief, Opinion, Interest, or Value:**
- "I believe in freedom of speech."
- "He failed in his duty."
5. **Indicating Shape, Color, or Size:**
- "She wrote the letter in blue ink."
- "I've organized the files in alphabetical order."
6. **Indicating Grouping or Packaging Quantities:**
- ''Books are sold in sets of six at the store.''
7. **While Using Mediums:**
- "I heard that song in a movie."
- "She works in radio."
8. **Indicating a State or Process:**
- "She is in transition."
- "He broke the glass in anger."

D. Uses of 'At'

1. **Denoting Precise Location or Specific Point**
- "She is waiting at the bus stop."
- "We are eating at the new restaurant."
2. **Used for a precise point in time::**
- "He will arrive at 8:00 PM."
- "The event starts at sunrise."
3. **Addressing Electronic Communication:**
- "You can reach me at johnsmith@example.com."
- "She found the information at www.examplewebsite.com."
4. **Addressing Specific Activity or Event:**
- "She excels at mathematics."
- "We are having a party at Christmas."
5. **Indicating the Target or Goal:**
- "She was laughing at his joke."
- "Don't throw stones at the window."
6. **Indicating a specific Condition:**

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- "He's at rest now."
- "She's at peace with her decision."

7. Indicating the Method or Manner:

- "You're looking at it the wrong way."
- "I sighed at his lack of understanding."

E. Uses of ' Of'

1. Denoting Belongingness or Association:

- "The popularity of the singer rose quickly."
- "The responsibility of the teacher includes mentoring students."

2. Expressing Components or Elements:

- "Some of the cookies are chocolate chip."
- "One of the tires is flat."

3. Communicating Quantity or Degree:

- "A group of children was playing in the park."
- "He drank a cup of coffee."

4. Signifying the Material or Composition:

- "The sculpture is of marble."
- "The sweater is made of wool."

5. Identifying Specific Moments within a Timeframe:

- "She always exercises at the break of dawn."
- "His birthday is on the 15th of March."

6. Signifying a Particular Type or Category:

- "There are several kinds of fruits in the basket."
- "Different methods of teaching have different results."

7. Showcasing the Source or Origin:

- "She is of Spanish descent."
- "The antique vase is of Chinese origin."

Preposition Rules

Rule 1: Never End a Sentence with a Preposition

The rule that says not to end a sentence with a preposition is a legacy from Latin grammar. In Latin, prepositions must come before (pre-position) the noun or pronoun they link. Many people vehemently follow this rule, considering it a marker of good grammar and etiquette.

The traditional adherence to this rule can sometimes lead to awkward or overly formal sentence constructions.

For instance,

- "That's something I cannot agree with." is transformed into "That's something with which I cannot agree."

It's important to note that while some linguists and grammar experts maintained this rule throughout history, others, including modern style guides and grammar checkers, take a more relaxed stance.

Rule 2: Preposition and Object

Following a preposition comes the object of the preposition, this object could be a noun, pronoun, or even a verb in its -ing form (gerund) or any phrase or clause playing the role of a noun. The combined unit of the preposition and its object is a prepositional phrase.

For instance,

- "She sat on the chair." Here, 'on' is the preposition that shows the relationship of where 'she' sat. What did she sit on? She sat 'on the chair.' Thus, 'chair' is the object of the preposition, and together 'on the chair' forms a prepositional phrase.

Let's take a more complex example with a phrase as the object:

- "He was annoyed with having to wait so long."

Here, 'with' is the preposition, 'having to wait so long' is a phrase that serves as the object of the preposition, and together they form the prepositional phrase: 'with having to wait so long.'

It's important to note the preposition should always have an object. Without an object, a word is not functioning as a preposition; it could be part of a verb phrase or an adverb.

Rule 3: Use Object Pronouns After Prepositions

An object pronoun is a word that takes the place of a person or a thing. It includes words like "me", "you", "him", "her", "it", "us", and "them".

When a preposition is used in a sentence, it usually needs an object pronoun after it. It includes words like "me", "you", "him", "her", "it", "us", and "them". This makes the sentence complete and logical.

Here are a few examples:

- "The gift is for her." This means the gift is intended for a specific girl or woman.

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- "He sat next to me." This means a boy or man took a seat close to the speaker.
- "She is coming with us." This means a girl or woman is joining the speaker's group.
- "I will share it with them." This means the speaker will share something with a group of people.

So, in short, **object pronouns** neatly complete the ideas that prepositions start.

Rule 4: Idiomatic Use of Prepositions

Sometimes, prepositions are used in idiomatic ways, like in phrasal verbs (e.g., 'look up to', 'run out of') or in certain phrases (e.g., 'at risk', 'in time'). Use of prepositions can add a layer of complexity to language learning, as their meanings cannot always be inferred from the words alone.They're often non-literal and highly dependent on cultural and contextual knowl edge. In these cases, one needs to learn the idiomatic expression as a whole.

The three primary ways that idioms involve prepositions are in **phrasal verbs, prepositional phrases, and compound prepositions.**

Rule 5: Phrasal preposition

A phrasal preposition is not a prepositional phrase but a combination of two or more words that function as a preposition. This grouping of words then works collectively to link nouns, pronouns, phrases, or clauses to other words within a sentence.

What makes phrasal prepositions distinct is their ability to behave as a singular preposition, thereby establishing a relationship, often indicating time, location, cause, or manner, between other elements.

Phrasal Preposition	**Example Sentence**
According to	According to the weather forecast, it will rain.
Along with	She came along with her brother.
Apart from	Apart from studying, he enjoys playing guitar.
As for	As for me, I'll have the chicken.
As of	As of now, the project is still incomplete.
As per	As per your request, I have booked a table.
Aside from	Aside from the noise, the park is peaceful.
By means of	We communicate by means of email.
In addition to	In addition to the cake, there were cookies.
In front of	The car is parked in front of the house.
In spite of	In spite of the rain, they continued playing.
Instead of	He had tea instead of coffee for breakfast.
On account of	On account of the delay, they missed the bus.
On behalf of	I am speaking on behalf of the team.
Owing to	Owing to bad weather, the flight was canceled.
Prior to	Prior to the meeting, he reviewed the report.
Subsequent to	Subsequent to the announcement, there was chaos.
Such as	He enjoys outdoor activities, such as hiking.
Together with	Together with her friends, she went shopping.
With regard to	With regard to the matter, we need more information.

Rule 6 : Some Fixed Prepositions with verbs

Certain verbs in English are often followed by specific prepositions. This combination of a verb and a preposition is called a prepositional verb.

The preposition that follows the verb gives it a specific meaning, and these pairings must often just be memorized as there isn't a set of rules that governs them.

For example, the verb "look" can be paired with different prepositions to give different meanings.

- "Look after" means to take care of or help someone.
- "Look for" on the other hand, means to search or seek for something.

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Verb	Preposition	Example
Accuse	of	The prosecutor accused him **of** the crime.
Apologize	for	She apologized **for** her behavior yesterday.
Apply	for	He applied **for** a scholarship for his Master's degree
Approve	of	My parents don't approve **of** my decision to quit my job
Argue	about	The siblings are always arguing **about** their chores.
Believe	in	I believe **in** the power of positive thinking.
Benefit	from	I really benefited **from** doing regular workouts.
Choose	between	I can't choose **between** these two dress designs.
Comment	on	The teacher commented **on** my progress during the parent-teacher meeting.
Depend	on	Plants depend **on** sunlight for photosynthesis.
Dream	of	As a child, she dreamt **of** becoming an astronaut.
Insist	on	My grandfather insists **on** reading the newspaper every morning.
Suffer	from	He suffers **from** severe migraines.
Worry	about	It's natural to worry **about** your children, regardless of their age.
Abstain	from	He decided to abstain **from** drinking alcohol.
Concentrate	on	She is concentrating **on** finishing her project.
Conform	to	The product conforms **to** the quality standards.
Refer	to	The doctor referred me **to** a specialist
Aim	at	The new plan aims **at** increasing overall productivity.
Listen	to	She listens **to** music while doing her homework.
Rely	on	We rely **on** the internet for all kinds of information.
Consent	to	I did not consent **to** have my information shared.
Complain	about	Students complained **about** the lack of library resources.
Opt	or	I decided to **opt** for the vegetarian meal option.
Quench	with	He quenched his thirst **with** a glass of water
Warn	about	The weather report warned **about** the upcoming hurricane
Hope	for	After days of rain, we are hoping **for** some sunshine.



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Confusing Pairs of Prepositions

Confusing pairs of prepositions are sets of prepositions which, to non-native speakers of English or even to some native speakers, might seem inter changeable due to similar meanings or appearances, but which actually have different uses or subtle differ ences in meaning.

Understanding the correct usage of these prepositions often requires learning the specific contexts or phrases in which each one is used, which can be a com plex task given the nuanced and flexible nature of English prepositions. Misuse of prepositions is a com mon source of errors in English writing and speech, even for native speakers.

Some of the popular confusing pairs of prepositions are -

1. Across vs Through

"Across" generally means from one side to the other, often implying an open, horizontal plane.

- **Example,** "He walked across the bridge."

"Through" usually suggests movement from one side to another in an enclosed space.

- **Example,** "He walked through the tunnel."

2. On vs Upon

"On" is generally used to mean touching or resting, implying contact or connection.

- **Example,** "The book is on the table."

"Upon" is a more formal version of "on" and is used interchangeably in some contexts, often in literary or elevated language.

- **Example,** "Once upon a time..."

3. On vs Over

"On" indicates contact from above, typically with something beneath.

- **Example,** "The lamp is on the ceiling."

"Over" can indicate something higher with no contact implied, or passage from one side to another.

- **Example,** "The plane flew over the city."

4. In vs Into

"In" indicates a condition or state within something.

- **Example,** "The pencils are in the box."

"Into" implies movement, moving from outside to inside.

- **Example,** "She dove into the pool."

5. In vs Within

"In" typically indicates being enclosed or surrounded by the thing mentioned

- **Example,** "There are cookies in the jar."

"Within" is more specific, often referring to being inside a particular range in time, space or amount

- **Example,**"The park is within a mile from here."

6. By vs With:

"By" typically refers to identifying the agent doing the action or proximity.

- **Example,** "The book was written by her."

"With" usually describes having or using something.

- **Example,** "He is cutting the vegetables with a knife."

7. Between vs Among:

"Between" is usually used when referring specifically to two or more things which are clearly separate.

- **Example:** "Share the candy between the two kids."

"Among" is more general and used when the items are part of a group or not clearly separate:

- **Example:** "She couldn't choose among the three dresses."

8. Beside vs Besides:

"Beside" means next to or at the side of:

- **Example:** "She sat beside him during the dinner."

"Besides" means in addition to or apart from:

- **Example:** "Besides his job, he also takes care of his elderly father."

9. For vs Since:

"For" is used when specifying the amount of time an action occurred.

- **Example,** "I've been waiting here for two hours."

"Since" is used when the time when the action started is relevant or given.

- **Example,** "I have been waiting since 10 AM."

10. In spite of vs Despite of

''In spite of'' gives the meaning of "even though," "however," or "regardless of." It is commonly used in English to denote an unexpected situation or action. "In spite of" is usually followed by a noun, pronoun, or gerund (verb ending in -ing functioning as a noun).

- **Example:** "In spite of working hard, he failed."

''Despite''is synonymous with "in spite of." The **main difference in usage is that "despite" is not used with 'of'**. It shouldn't be followed by a verb directly but it can be followed by a noun, pronoun, or gerund.

- **Example:** "Despite being rich, he is not happy."

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List of Confusing Pairs of Prepositions

Preposition Pair	Meaning	Example
At / In	At: Specific point/location. In: Within.	She's waiting at the corner. He's in the building.
From / Of	From: Origin, starting point. Of: Belonging	I'm from New York. A friend of mine is coming.
Under / Below	Under: Covered, beneath. Below: Lower.	The cat is under the table. The temperature is below freezing.
Over / Above	Over: Covering or higher than. Above: Higher.	The plane flew over the mountains. The sun is above the horizon.
Through / Throughout	Through: Passage. Throughout: Entirety.	He walked through the park. It rained throughout the day.
To / Into	To: Destination, direction. Into: Movement	She went to the store. He jumped into the pool.
Till / Until	Till: Informal. Until: Formal.	Wait till I finish this. We'll wait here until you arrive.
On / Upon	On: Surface or specific time. Upon: Formal.	The book is on the table. Upon further consideration, I agreed.
Unless / Until	Unless indicates a condition necessary to be fulfilled, while "Until" specifies a stopping point in time	I won't go unless I'm invited. "Wait here until I come back."
During /While	During is used to express something that happens within a certain period of time, "while" is used to indicate something that happens at the same time as something else	I fell asleep during the movie. "I fell asleep while watching the movie."
Off /From	Off is used when something is separated or removed from a place, "from" denotes the starting point of an action or state	She took the hat off her head. "She received a gift from her friend."
Beside/ Next to	Both express the idea of 'at the side of' or 'adjacent to', though 'next to' is more commonly used in everyday English while 'beside' is slightly more formal or literary	He sat next to me in the cinema. "The small cottage is beside the sea."
Inside /Within	Inside' means to be contained in a space, while 'within' is often used to describe something inside a defined area, limit, or boundary, hence carrying a more abstract meaning	There are some cookies inside the jar. "I aim to finish the task within the given deadline."

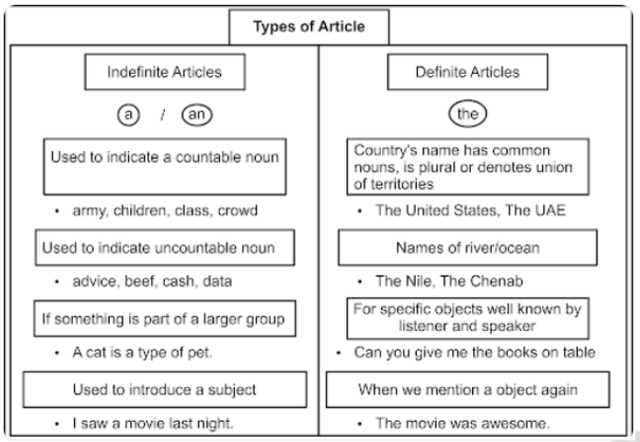
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ARTICLE

An **article** is a word used to modify a noun, which is a person, place, object, or idea. Technically, an article is an adjective, which is any word that modifies a noun. In English, articles are usually considered as a separate part of speech.

'Articles' are used before nouns to clarify whether the noun refers to something specific or unspecific. They are categorized as a type of **determiner**.

Types of Articles:



There are **two types of articles** in English:

1. Definite Article

Definition: The definite article is the word "**the**".

It is used before a **noun** to define it as something specific (e.g., something **previously mentioned** or **known**, **something unique**, etc.).

Example:

- "**The** car in the driveway is mine."
- "**The** moon is bright tonight."

2. Indefinite Articles

Definition: The indefinite articles are **'a'** and **'an**'. They are used when the exact identity of the noun is not important or known.

(i) Use **'a'** before words that begin with a consonant sound: "**a** dog," **"a** book," "**a** car".

(ii) Use **'an'** before words that begin with a vowel sound: "**an** apple," "**an** elephant," "**an** umbrella." Remember, the usage of 'a' and 'an' is determined by the sound that follows it, not necessarily the letter.

We use 'an' before the silent 'h' when it makes a vowel sound, as in 'hour': **"an hour,"** not "**a hour**."

Conversely, we use '**a**' with words that begin with a vowel that sounds like a consonant, as in **'university'**: **"a university,"** not "**an university**."

Moreover, we also sometimes refer to '**zero article**,' which means **no article** is used. This is common with **plural or uncountable nouns**, names of **languages**, names of **academic subjects, meals**, and more.

- **Example**- "**Apples** are good for health."

Here, we didn't use any article before the plural noun 'apples'.

Important Article Rules:

1) Use of Indefinite Article 'A/An':

(i) Usage with Singular Countable Nouns

The indefinite articles **"a"** and **"an"** are used before **singular countable nouns**.

Examples:

- "I have a pen."
- "She has a car."
- "Ram has an umbrella."
- "She is a housewife."
- "Do not make a noise."

(Note: "**Noise**" is an **uncountable** noun, but it uses the article "**a.**")

(ii) Usage with exclamatory Sentences

In exclamatory sentences following "**What**" or **"How,"** and preceding singular countable nouns**, "a" or "an"** is used.

Examples:

- "What a grand building!"
- "How beautiful the mountains are!''

(iii) Usage to Indicate Rate or Price

The articles "a" or "an" are used to describe the rate or price per unit, such as per month or per item.

Examples:

- "This car runs twenty kilometers a liter."
- "I earn Rs.ten thousand a month."
- "This train runs seventy kms. an hour."

(iv) Usage with Certain Counting Words

With counting words like "hundred," "thousand," "million," "dozen," and "couple," the article "a" is used.

Examples:

- "A dozen pencils were bought by her."

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- "I have a hundred pens."

(v) Usage with 'Half'

The article "a" is used before "half" in certain contexts, such as measurements.

Examples:

- **"Metre-** two and a quarter metre."
- **"Kilo-** three and a half kilo."
- "She has to run half a mile every day."

(vi) Usage with Verbs as Nouns

When a verb is used as a noun in a sentence, it is preceded by "a" or "an."

Examples:

- "He goes for a walk daily."
- "He has gone for a ride."
- "I want to have a drink."

(vii) Usage with Modifiers

If words like "many," "rather," "quite," and "such," are followed by a singular noun, "a" or "an" is used.

Examples:

- "Many a citizen would welcome such a change."
- "It is rather a pity.
- "It was such a foolish decision.

(viii) Usage with Special Phrases

Certain phrases use "a" or "an," such as "in a fix," "make a noise," "a short while ago," and "at a stone's throw." Some phrases do not use articles, such as "to lose heart," "at home," and "by car/bus etc."

2) More specific cases where "a" and "an" are not used:

(i) Non-Usage with Plural Nouns

Indefinite articles "**a**" and "**an**" are not used before **plural nouns.**

Examples:

- **Incorrect**: "A boys have come."
- **Correct**: "Boys have come." or "The boys have come."

(ii) Non-Usage with Uncountable Nouns

Generally, "a" and "an" are not used with uncountable nouns. Uncountable nouns refer to things that cannot be counted individually.

Examples of uncountable nouns include:

- **Advice**
- **Accommodation**
- **Baggage**
- **Luggage**
- **Information**
- **Poetry**
- **Furniture**

Incorrect sentences:

- "He gave me an advice." (Remove **'an'**)
- "I will buy a furniture today." (Remove **'a**')

(iii) Making Uncountable Nouns Countable

Sometimes, uncountable nouns can be made countable by using certain words with them. In such cases, "a" or "an" can be used.

Examples:

- "I have a piece of information for you."
- "I ate a slice of bread."
- "He gave me a piece of work to do."

(iv) Non-Usage with 'kind of', 'sort of', 'type of', 'variety of'

Articles are not used after phrases like "kind of," "sort of," "type of," and "variety of" when followed by nouns.

Examples:

- **Incorrect**: "What sort of a man is he!"
- **Correct**: "What sort of man is he!"

3) Use of Definite Article 'The'

The definite article **'the'** is used before a **noun** that is **specific** or **already known** to the speaker and listener. It's called a "**definite**" article because it specifies an exact thing or person. Here are the main rules governing the usage of **'the'**:

(i) Reference to Previously Mentioned Nouns

When a noun has already been introduced, **'the'** is used in subsequent references to that noun.

Examples:

- Once upon a time there lived **a** king.
- **The** king was very kind.
- One day he met **an** old man.
- **The** old man was very poor.

In this example, **'a**' is used when the **king** and **old man** are **first mentioned** (since they are new to the listener), and **'the'** is used afterwards (since they are **now known** to the **listener**).

(ii) Identification of Specific Nouns

'The' is used to point out a specific person or thing among others. It highlights a **unique quality** or **aspect** that distinguishes the noun from others:

Examples:

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- **The** man in the white shirt is my brother.
- **The** boy standing near the gate is my brother.

In sentences, 'the' directs attention to a particular man or boy, specified by additional information provided.

4) Use of Articles with Different Kinds of Nouns

a. Proper Nouns:

Proper nouns refer to specific names of people, places, or things. Here are the rules regarding the use of articles with proper nouns:

i. No Article with Specific Names:

Proper nouns that refer to individual people or places do not usually require an article.

- **Example**: "Ram was an ideal son."

Here, "Ram" is a specific name, so no article is used.

Exception- A/An with Unfamiliar Proper Nouns: When a proper noun refers to an unknown individual, the indefinite article 'a' or 'an' can be used.

- **Example**: "A Mr. Sharma has come to meet you."

In this case, the speaker does not know who Mr. Sharma is, so the article 'a' is used.

ii. Article with Symbolic Usage:

When a proper noun is used symbolically, representing some quality, the article 'the' may be used.

- **Example**: "He is the Ram of modern India."

Here, "Ram" is symbolizing a virtuous person.

iii. 'The' with Certain Place Names:

Some place names inherently require 'the' as part of their proper name.

- **Example**: "The Bahamas."

The article is part of the official name of the country.

iv. No Article with States:

State names generally do not use an article. However, some exceptions like "The Punjab" exist. This can be historical or cultural and may reflect a unique aspect of the place.

Union, United, Republic, or Kingdom: Countries with these words in their names often use the definite article 'the'.

- **Example**: "The United States."

Here, 'the' is used because the country is a union of states.

v. Mountains and Mountain Ranges:

Mountain ranges use 'the', while individual peaks do not.

- **Example**: "The Himalayas" refers to the range, while "Mt. Everest" refers to a specific peak.

vi. Nationality and Language:

'The' is used with words representing nationality but not language.

- **Example**: "The English speak English."

'The' is used to refer to the people, but not the language.

vii. No Article with Diseases, with Exceptions:

Most diseases don't require an article, but some, like "the Measles," do. This can be related to the historical or common usage of the term.

viii. Proper nouns like names of rivers, oceans, etc., require 'the'. This usage is often standardized and reflects common linguistic practice.

Examples:

- The Yamuna, the Ganga, the Godavari, the Sutlej.
- The Arabian sea, the Caribbean sea.
- The Indian Ocean, the Pacific Ocean, and the Atlantic Ocean.
- The Lakshadweep, the Andaman and Nicobar Islands

ix. Unique Entities:

Unique entities like **"the world"** or "**the universe**" require **'the'** as there is only one of them. This signals that there is no other entity like it.

Specific Exceptions:

Words like **"Heaven," "Hell," "God," "Parliament"** may or may not take **'the'** depending on context.

Example:

- "Go to hell" (no article) vs. "The hell we imagine" (with article).

x. Environment and Atmosphere:

These words often take **'the'** as they refer to the entire surrounding environment or atmospheric layer.

- **Example**: "**The** atmosphere consists of three layers." Here, **'the'** refers to the entire atmosphere surrounding the Earth.

xi. Space as Outer Space vs. Area:

When "**space**" refers to the cosmos, no article is used ("going to space"). When referring to a specific area, "**the**" is used ("the space was not sufficient").

xii. Directions and Names of Places:

"The East," and "the West" when referring to

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directions, but no article with names like “West Bengal.” No article with “Northern,” “Southern,” etc., as in “Western India.”

xiii. Names of Gulfs and Bays: Use “the” with names of gulfs and bays, like “The Bay of Bengal.”

xiv. Names of Deserts: Use “the” with names of deserts, like “The Sahara desert.”

xv. Names of Canals: Use “the” with names of canals, like “The Suez Canal.”

xvi. Names of Newspapers: Use “the” with names of newspapers, like “The Hindu.”

xvii. Names of Sacred Texts: Use “the” with names of sacred texts like “The Gita.” No article with names combined with the author’s name like “Valmiki’s Ramayan.”

xviii. Names of Historical Buildings: Use “the” with names of historical buildings, like “The Taj Mahal.” No article with names combined with people or places, like “Victoria Palace.”

xix. Names of Movements: Use “the” with names of movements, like “The Quit India movement.”

xx. Names of Organizations: Use “the” with names of organizations, like “The United Nations.”

xxi. Names of Rail/Air Routes: Use “the” with names of routes, like “the Intercity.”

xxii. Names of Political Parties: Use “the” with names of political parties, like “The BJP.”

xxiii. Names of Acts/Constitutional Units: Use “the” with names like “The Indian Penal Code.”

xxiv. Names of Musical Instruments: Use “the” with names like “The Flute.”

xxv. Names of Religious Communities: Use “the” with names like “The Hindus.”

xxvi. Before Titles: Use “the” before titles like “The Chairman.” Also, “a/an” can be used like “a director.”

xxvii. Before Inventions: Use “the” before inventions like “The telescope.”

xxviii. Before Committees, Clubs, Trusts: Use “the” like “The Lions Club.”

xxix. Before Dynasties: Use “the” with names of dynasties like “The Marathas.”

xxx. Before Body Parts: Use “the” in specific contexts, like “He was wounded in the eye.”

xxxi. Before Dates: Use “the” with specific dates like “The 10th of May.”

xxxii. Before Armed Forces: Use “the” with forces like “The Army.”

xxxiii. Before Planets: Use “the” with planet names like “The Venus.”

xxxiv. Before Hotel Names: Use “the” with hotel names like “The Taj Hotel.”

xxxv. Before Sports Trophies: Use “the” with names like “The World Cup.”

xxxvi. Before Wars, Revolutions, Centuries: Use “the”

with names like “The French Revolution.”

xxxvii. No Article with Months, Days, Subjects, Roads, Meals, Languages, Hobbies, Sports: These proper nouns do not take an article, like “June,” “Sun-day,” “English,” etc.

xxxviii. No Article with Noun Complements: In cases like “They elected him president,” no article is used.

b. Common Noun:

(i) Use of ‘The’ with Common Nouns: ‘The’ is used when a common noun is understood or identified.

- **Example**: “Can you turn off the light?” or “Kindly return the book.”

(ii) Singular Common Noun with Articles: If a singular common noun is preceded by an article, it can denote the entire species, but with a singular verb.

- **Example:** “A dog is a faithful animal.”

(iii) Quality or Expression: An article is used with a noun to denote qualities or expressions.

- **Example**: “**The** judge in him prevailed over the father.”

(iv) Article Usage with Schools, Temples, etc.: Articles are not used when referring to primary functions of schools, colleges, temples, etc. However, if they are **referred to as a building or location, an article is used**.

Examples:

- Children should go to school.
- I go to temple every morning.

c. Abstract/Material Nouns:

Normally, articles are not used with abstract or material nouns as they are uncountable.

Examples:

- Gold is precious.
- Honesty is the best policy.

If used in specific sentence formations, **(Article + Noun + of + …)** “**The**” might be used.

- **Example:** “**The** cotton of Egypt is known for its quality.”

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5) Use of Articles with Adjectives:

(i) 'The' is used before **superlative degrees**.

- **Example:** "He is **the** best student."

(ii) 'The' is used with **comparative degrees** to show direct or inverse proportion.

- **Example**: "**The** more electricity you use, the higher your bill will be**.**"

(iii) 'The' is used before **comparative degrees** when choosing **between two.**

- **Example:** "He is **the** stronger of the two wrestlers.")

(iv) 'The' is used with **adjectives** like **honest**, **rich, poor, meek** to address the **whole class.**

- **Example:** "**The** honest are always rewarded."

(v) 'The' is used with **proper nouns** followed by **adjectives** that qualify the **noun**

- **Example**: "**Ashoka**, the great."

(vi) 'The' is used with **ordinals**

- **Example**: "**The first volume** is on verbs."

(vii) 'The' is used before **'same'** and **'whole'** and after **'all'** and **'both'**

Examples

- **He** is **the** same boy that met me.
- All **the** students in the class passed the exam.

(viii) Changing '**a**' and **'the'** with **'few'** and **'little'** alters their meanings. The phrases **"a few," "few," "the few," "a little," "little," and "the little"** are used to indicate quantity, and they differ in nuance and meaning. Here's an explanation of each:
A few: This means a small number, but not zero. It's used with countable nouns and implies a positive sense, as in something is there, though not much.

- **Example**: "I have a few friends." (I don't have many friends, but I have some.)
  The few: This refers to a specific small number of countable items or people known to the speaker.
- **Example**: "The few students who attended the lecture learned a lot." (Only a small number attended, but they were specific, known students.)
  A little: This means a small quantity but not zero. It's used with uncountable nouns and implies a positive sense.
- **Example**: "I have a little money." (I don't have much money, but I have some.)
  The little: This refers to a specific small amount of uncountable things known to the speaker.
- **Example**: "The little money I had was stolen." (Only a small amount was there, but it was specific and known to the speaker.)

(ix) If **'so', 'as', 'too', 'how', 'quite'** are used before an adjective, then **'A/An'** follows

Examples:

- He's not **so** wealthy a man as his lifestyle would suggest.
- It was **too** beautiful a day to spend indoors.
- This is **too** serious a matter for us to ignore.

6) Use of Article According To Subject – Verb Agreement

(i) Use of 'the' with Two or More Nouns Representing a Single Entity: If two or more nouns are referring to a single person or thing, the article 'the' is used before the first noun only.

Examples:

- **"The secretary and treasurer was present there.**
- **"The director and producer has come for the shooting."**

Here, the "secretary and treasurer" and "director and producer" are considered a single entity, so the singular verb form is used.

(ii) Use of 'the' with Distinct Entities: If you want to refer to two or more nouns as separate individuals or things, the article 'the' should be used before each noun. This will require the use of a plural verb.

Example:

- "The secretary and the treasurer were present there."

Here, "the secretary" and "the treasurer" are considered two separate individuals, so the plural verb form 'were' is used.



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7) Difference Between "A/An" and "One"

"A/An" is used as an article, whereas "One" is used as an adjective. This distinction guides their different uses in sentences.

(i) Usage of "A" for Rates or Frequencies: For expressing rates, prices, or frequencies, use "a" instead of "one."

- **Example**: "Ten rupees **a** kilo," "Four times **a day**."

(ii) Different Meanings with Nouns: The use of "a" and "one" with nouns can lead to different meanings. "A/An" can mean "any" or "every."

- **Example**: "**One** cow is not enough for the family's requirement." vs. "**A cow** is a useful animal."

(iii) Use of "One" with "Another/Other": "One" can be used with "another" or "other," but "a" cannot.

- **Example**: "**One** student wants to study; **another** wants to play."

(iv) Use of "One" with Time References: "One" can be used before words like day, week, month, year, etc., to refer to a specific event.

Examples:

- **"One night** there was a terrible storm."
- "**One day** Ravana came to Sita's cottage."

(v) Use of "One Day" for Indefinite Time Reference: "One day" can mean "someday."

- **Example**: "**One day** you'll realize your mistake."

(vi) Use of "One" as a Pronoun: "One" can be used as a pronoun, similar to "a/an."

- **Example**: "Did you get any berth? Yes, I managed to get **one**."

(vii) Plural Form and Avoiding Repetition: The plural form of "one" in a specific context is "some."

- **Example**: "Did you get berths? Yes, I managed to get **some**."

(viii) To avoid repetition, "**one**" can be used as a pronoun to refer back to a noun.

- **Example**: "This car is better than that **one**."

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TENSE

Tenses are one of the most fundamental aspects of English grammar, and they form an integral part of daily communication. Incredibly vital for both speaking and writing, tenses give listeners and readers contextual information about when and how actions or states are happening. Understanding tenses is key for effective communication as it provides the ability to express timeframes and sequences of events accurately. Tenses in English are primarily categorized into **Past**, **Present**, and **Future** - each of these has four sub-categories: **Simple**, **Continous** (also known as Progressive), **Perfect**, and **Perfect Continuous**. These tenses enable us to talk about time, and they express when an action or state happened, is happening or will happen.**Let's look at the chart below to understand the types of tenses and their divisions.**

Now, let's study the usage of the given tenses:

Tense	Formula	Example
Simple Present	Sub + verb(1st) + e/es + obj	He goes to the office by car
Simple Past	Sub +verb(2nd) + obj	He went to the office by car
Simple Future	Sub + will/shall + verb(1st) + obj	He will go to the office by car
Present continuous	Sub + is/am/are +verb(ing) +obj	He is going to the office by car
Past continuous	Sub + was/were+ verb(ing)+obj	He was going to the office by car
Future continuous	Sub +will be/ shall be+ verb(ing)+obj	He will be going to the office by car
Present Perfect	Sub + has/have + verb (3rd) + obj	He has gone to the office by car
Past Perfect	Sub + had + verb (3rd) + obj	He had gone to the office by car
Future Perfect	Sub + will have + verb (3rd) + obj	He will have gone to the office by car
Present perfect continuous	Sub + has/ have + been +verb (ing) + obj	He has been going to the office by car
Past perfect continuous	Sub + had + been + verb (ing) + obj	He had been going to the office by car
Future perfect continuous	Sub + will have been + verb (ing) + obj	He will have been going to the office by car

1. Simple Tenses:

i. Present Simple: This tense is used to describe habits, general truths, and facts. It's formed using the base form of the verb for all subjects except for he she/it, which take the verb + "-s" or "-es".

- **Examples:**

General Truth: "The sun rises in the east."
Habit: "She goes to the gym every day."
Fact: "Water boils at 100 degrees Celsius."

ii. Past Simple: This tense is used for actions that took place and were completed at a specific time in the past. It's formed using the past form of the verb.

- **Examples:**

"He went to London last year."
"They played soccer yesterday."

iii. Future Simple: This tense is used to predict or decide to do something in the future. It's formed using "will" + base form of the verb.

- **Examples:**

"I will finish my work tomorrow."
"She will start her new job next Monday.

2. Continuous (Progressive) Tenses:

i. Present Continuous: This tense is used for ongoing actions happening now or for a planned future action. It's formed using "am/is/are" + verb "V-ing".

- **Examples:**

Ongoing action: "I am doing my homework."
Future plan: "We are visiting our grandparents tomorrow."

ii. Past Continuous: This tense is used for actions that were ongoing at a specific time in the past or when two actions were happening at the same time. It's formed using "was/were" + verb "V-ing".

- **Examples:**

"She was reading a book all evening."
"I was cooking while he was cleaning."

iii. Future Continuous: This tense is used to express actions that will be in progress at some specific moment in the future. It's formed using "will be" + verb "V-ing".

- **Example:**

"You will be working at this time tomorrow."

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3. Perfect Tenses:

i. Present Perfect: This tense is used for actions that started in the past and continue to the present or have a result affecting the present. It's formed using "have/ has" + past participle.

- **Examples:**

"I have lived in Chicago for five years."
(I started living in Chicago five years ago and I still live there now.)
"She has eaten all the cookies."
(She ate the cookies and there are now none left.)

ii. Past Perfect: This tense is used to indicate that an action was completed before another took place in the past. It's formed using "had" + past participle of the verb.

- **Example:**

"He had left before I arrived."

iii. Future Perfect: This tense is used to say that an action will be completed by a certain time in the future. It's formed using "will have" + past participle.

- **Example:**

"By next year, we will have finished building our house."

4. Perfect Continuous Tenses:

i. Present Perfect Continuous: This tense refers to an unspecified time between 'before now' and 'now'. The speaker is thinking about something that started but perhaps did not finish in that period of time. It's formed using "have/has been" + present participle (verb "V-ing").

Example:

"She has been reading for two hours." (She started reading two hours ago and is still reading now.)

ii. Past Perfect Continuous: This tense refers to a time earlier than before now. It is used to show that some thing started in the past and continued up until another action in the past. It's formed using "had been" + present participle.

Example:

"I had been sleeping for 2 hours when he called."

iii. Future Perfect Continuous: This tense is used to project ourselves forward into the future and look back at actions that will be completed some time later. It's formed "will have been" + present participle.

- **Example:**

"By the time he finishes his work, he will have been working for 8 hours."

Important rules:

Let's see the rules that are very important from the exam point of view.

1. Present Perfect + Point of Time = Simple Past:

If an action has taken place at a definite time in the past, and that time is referenced by expressions like:

Ago
Before
Yesterday
The other day

- Thus, when we have **past adverbial phrase** in the sentence, it should be **simple past tense.**

Here are examples with the time references:

i. Ago:

Incorrect (Present Perfect + Ago): "I have met him a week ago.
Correct (Simple Past): "I met him a week ago."

ii. Yesterday:

Incorrect (Present Perfect + Yesterday): "She has arrived yesterday."
Correct (Simple Past): "She arrived yesterday."

iii. The Other Day:

Incorrect (Present Perfect + The Other Day): "They have found my lost phone the other day."
Correct (Simple Past): "They found my lost phone the other day."

iv. Before:

Incorrect (Present Perfect + Before): "I have visited this museum before."
Correct (Simple Past): "I visited this museum before."

2. Dependency of verb form on point of time/period of time

The Present Indefinite (or Simple Present) tense, generally states facts, habits, or routines without implying any time duration. However, when we add the time expressions **"for"** and **"since"**, it becomes necessary to transform the verb tense to **Present**

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Perfect. This is because “for” and “since” are used to communicate time durations and require the use of Present Perfect to correctly express the continu-ous state or habitual action from a time in the past up until now.

- The Present Perfect tense is used to show that an action has started at a point in the past and continues to the present.
- The time expressions “for” and “since” are often utilized with this tense.
- **“For”** is used with a period of time, and it indicates the duration of an action
- **“Since”** is used with a specific point in time, indicating when the action started.

i. In the case of ‘for’:

Thinking this action in Present Indefinite: “I live here” + Time expression: “for 5 years” (incorrect)

The correct sentences should be:

Present Perfect: “I **have lived** here **for** 5 years.”

Present Perfect Continuous: “She has been teach-ing here for 5 years.”

ii. In the case of ‘since’:

If we consider this action in Present Indefinite: “They are married” + Time expression: “since 2000”. (incorrect)

The correct sentences should be:

Present Perfect: “They **have been married since** 2000.”

Present Perfect Continuous: “It has been raining cats and dogs since 2 o’clock.”

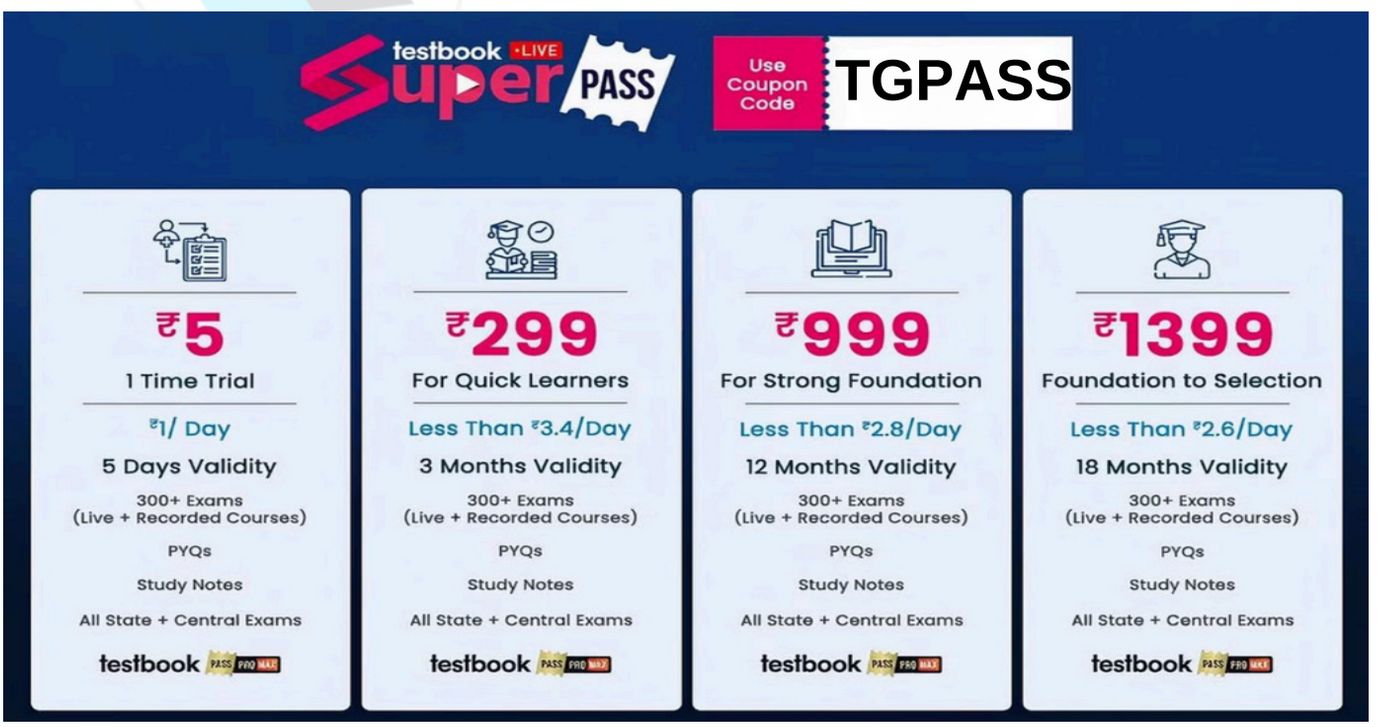
Examples for Practice:

Questions:

1. They _____ my lost phone the other day. (find)
2. I _____ the guitar for a year. (learn)
3. The king _____ before the peasants arrived at the castle. (leave)
4. I _____ this fruit tomorrow. (eat)
5. They _____ in this neighborhood since 2010. (live)
6. The earth _____ around the sun. (revolve)
7. Andrea _____ the project a month ago. (complete)
8. I _____ him since 1992. (know)
9. I _____ him yesterday. (meet)
10. He _____ French for three years. (study)

Answers:

1. found
2. have been learning
3. had left
4. will eat
5. have been living
6. revolves
7. completed
8. have known
9. met
10. has been studying



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QUESTION TAG

Question tags, often referred to as “tag questions”in English grammar, are short questions added to the end of declarative statements. Their primary function is to turn a statement into a question, typically for the purpose of confirming or clarifying the information in the original statement. These tags encourage the listener to respond, either by confirming the statement’s accuracy or refuting it. Their usage can vary based on regional dialects, but their core function remains consistent: to invite confirmation or agreement.

Structure:

Typically, question tags consist of an auxiliary verb and a pronoun. The structure depends on the statement:

If the statement is positive, the tag will usually be negative.

Example:

- You have seen this movie, **haven’t you?**

If the statement is negative, the tag will usually be positive.

Example:

- She hasn’t seen that movie, **has she?**

Based on Tense:

Question Tags		
Verb Tense	**⊕ sentence →⊖ tag**	**⊖ sentence →⊕ tag**
Present be	She is going, isn't she?	She isn't going, is she?
Present simple	You study English, don't you?	You don't study English, do you?
Past simple	You were at the party, weren't you?	You weren't at the party, were you?
Past continuous	John was watching TV, wasn't he?	John wasn't watching TV, was he?
Present Perfect	He has studied, hasn't he?	He hasn't studied, has he?
Past Perfect	You had had dinner, hadn't you?	You hadn't had dinner, had you?
Will	He'll wake up tomorrow, won't he?	He won't wake up tomorrow, will he?
Modal Verbs	He can read this book, can't he?	He can't read this book, can he?

Basic Rules:

1. Auxiliary Verbs:

Use the auxiliary verb from the statement in the tag. If there’s no auxiliary verb in the statement, use “do” in the tag.

Examples:

- She’s coming to the party, isn’t she?
- They don’t like sushi, do they?

2. Pronouns:

Always use a pronoun in the tag.

Example:

- Julia is a teacher, isn’t she?

3. Positive and Negative:

If the statement is positive, the question tag should be negative, and vice versa.

Example:

- You’re studying, aren’t you?
- You didn’t study, did you?

4. Imperatives:

With imperatives, you can use “will you” or “won’t you” depending on the context.

Example:

- Close the door, will you?
- Don’t tell anyone, will you? **Let’s:** The tag for “Let’s” is usually “shall we.”
- Let’s go to the beach, shall we? **I am:** The tag for “I am” is “aren’t I.”
- I am right, aren’t I?

Special Cases:

1. Statements with “I am”:

Use “aren’t I” in the question tag.

- **Example:** I am late, aren’t I?

2. Statements with “Nothing”:

This follows a double-negative pattern. Use a negative tag.

- **Example:** Nothing’s wrong, is it?

3. Statements with “Everyone/No one/Som one”:

Use “they” in the tag.

Example:

- Everyone knows the answer, don’t they?
- No one is coming to the party, are they?

4. Statements with “There is/There are”:

Use “there” in the tag.

Example:

- There’s a problem, isn’t there?
- There aren’t any issues, are there?

5. Negative Adverbs in Statements:

When statements contain negative adverbs like *“never,” “hardly,” “seldom,” “rarely,” and “scarcely,”* they are treated as negative statements and thus will have positive question tags.

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Never: Used to indicate the absence of an action or event at any time.

- **Example:** She's never been to Paris, has she?

Hardly: Used to indicate that something is scarcely true or possible.

- **Example:** He hardly knows the subject, does he?

Seldom: Used to indicate that something happens not often.

- **Example:** They seldom watch movies, do they?

Rarely: Used to indicate that something doesn't happen often.

- **Example:** I rarely eat sweets, do I?

Scarcely: Used to indicate that something happens immediately after something else.

- **Example:** I had scarcely entered the room, when the phone rang.

Seeking Confirmation:

If the speaker believes the statement and is seeking confirmation, the intonation goes down.

- **Example:** It's a lovely day, isn't it? (when it's obviously a lovely day)

Not Sure: If the speaker is not sure and is genuinely asking, the intonation rises.

- **Example:** You're not using this pen, are you? (when they want to borrow the pen)

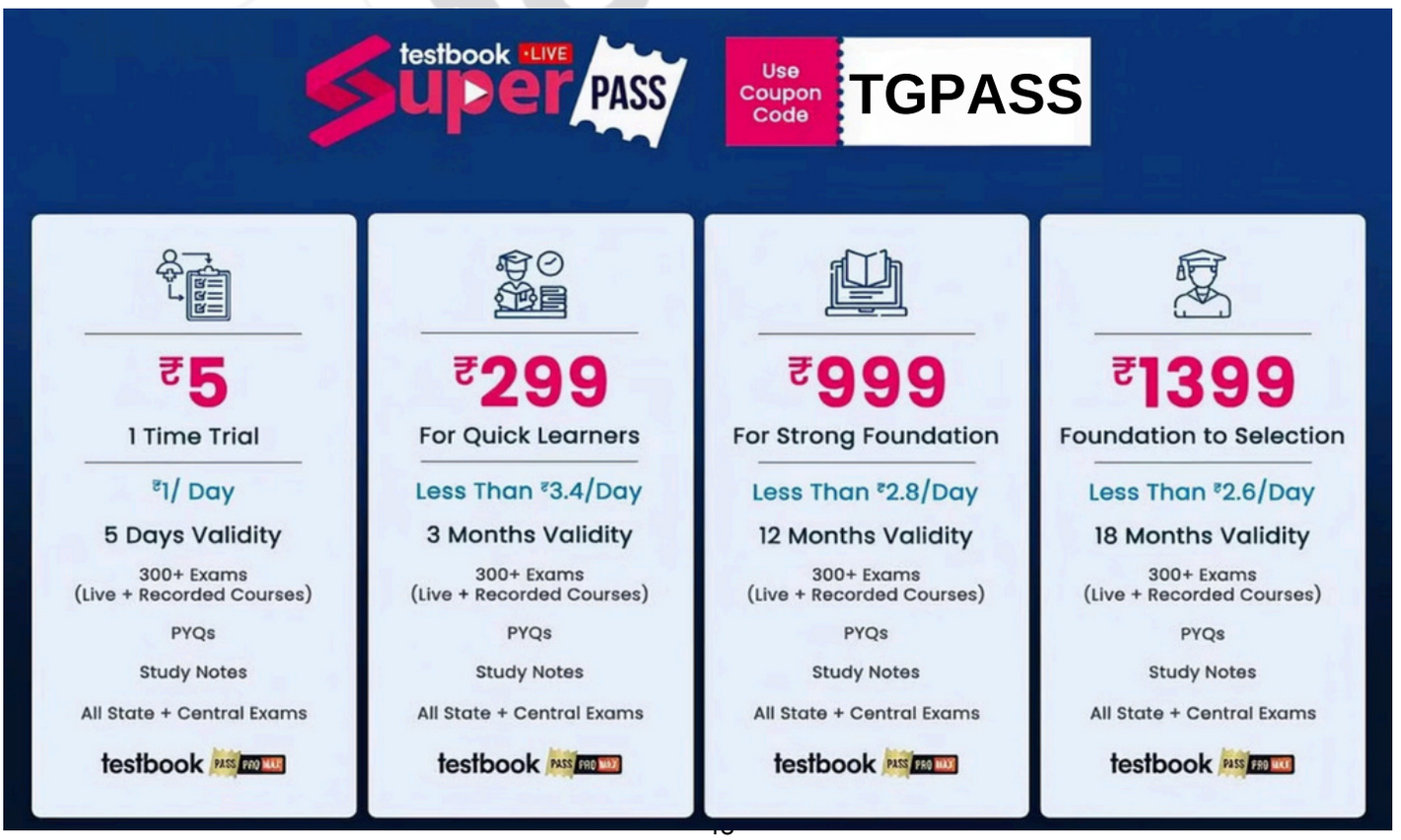
Examples for Practice:

1. They've met before, _____?
2. She won't mind if I go, _____?
3. You had dinner already, _____?
4. You like coffee, _____?
5. He's a doctor, _____?

Answers

1. haven't they
2. will she
3. didn't you
4. don't you
5. isn't he

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NARRATION & VOICE

Direct & Indirect Speech

Direct and Indirect Speech are tools used in the English language to express or report what someone has said.

In **Direct Speech**, we convey or report the **exact words** spoken by a person within quotation marks. Such as, “John said, ‘I am very hungry’”. Here, the exact words of John are contained within the quotation marks.

On the other hand, **Indirect Speech** (also often referred to as reported speech), is used to report what someone has said without quoting his exact words. In this case, instead of using quotation marks, we often use a reporting verb like ‘said’, ‘told’, ‘asked’, etc., and then rephrase or paraphrase what was said. For instance, “John said that he was very hungry”.

Changing sentences from Direct to Indirect Speech and Indirect to Direct Speech involves changes to **tense**, **pronouns**, and **time** and **place** words to match the perspective of the person doing the reporting. These changes in grammar are referred to as ‘backshift’. For instance, if the sentence in Direct Speech uses present tense, it will likely change to the past tense in Indirect Speech. A present simple tense (‘I go’) can become past simple (‘I went’) when reported indirectly.

When converting **Direct Speech to Indirect Speech**, several important changes typically occur:

1. Introduction of ‘that’: In Indirect Speech, we usually introduce the reported clause (the actual words spoken) with the word ‘that’. This word serves to connect the reporting clause (e.g., “He said”) with the reported clause (e.g., “I am hungry”).

- **For example:**

Direct: He said, “I am hungry.”

Indirect: He said that he was hungry.

Note: It’s important to note that ‘that’ can often be omitted in Indirect Speech. Both “He said that he was hungry” and “He said he was hungry” are correct.

2. Change in Pronouns: When reporting what someone else said, we often need to change the pronouns to match the subject of our sentence. The pronoun should shift in perspective from the speaker’s viewpoint to the reporter’s viewpoint.

- **For example:**

Direct: John said, “I am tired.”

Indirect: John said that he was tired.

In the Direct Speech, John refers to himself as “I”. When we report his speech, we change “I” to “he” to fit the perspective. Let’s look at the table given below to understand all the important changes in pronouns.

Direct Speech	Indirect Speech
I	he/she
you	he/she/they/him/her
we	they
my	his/her
me	him/her
our	their
your	his/her/their
us	them
myself	himself/herself
ourselves	themselves

3. Changes in Time and Place References: Words that refer to time and place will often need to be changed in Indirect Speech to match the time and place in which the reporting is done. This maintains the accuracy of the information.

- **For example:**

Direct: He said, "I'm buying this shirt today".

Indirect: He said that he was buying that shirt that day.

Similarly, **“here”** might change to **“there”**, **“yesterday”** to **“the day before”**, **“next week”** to **“the following week”**, and so on. Let’s look at the table given below to understand all the important changes in time and place.

Direct Speech	Indirect Speech
this	that
these	those
it	it
here	there
thus	so
now	then
just	then
ago	before
hither	thither
come	go
hence	thence
yet	till then

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today	that day
tomorrow	the next day
the day after tomorrow	the day after the next day
yesterday	the day before
the day before yesterday	the day before the previous day
tonight	that night
next day	the following day
next week	he following week
last night	the night before

When converting **Indirect Speech to Direct Speech**, several important changes typically occur:

1. Omission of 'that': In Direct Speech, the reported clause (the actual words spoken) doesn't contain the conjunction 'that'. Instead, the reporting clause is separated from the reported clause with a comma and quotation marks.

- **For example:**

Indirect: He said that he was hungry.

Direct: He said, "I am hungry."

2. Change in Pronouns: When transitioning from Indirect to Direct Speech, the pronouns will need to be changed to match the point of view of the speaker. The pronoun should shift in perspective from the reporter's viewpoint to the speaker's viewpoint.

- **For example:**

Indirect: John said that he was tired.

Direct: John said, "I am tired"

In the Indirect Speech, we refer to John as 'he'. However, in Direct Speech, John would use 'I' to refer to himself.

3. Changes in Time and Place References: Words that refer to time and place will often need to be changed in Direct Speech to match the time and place in which the original dialogue occurred. This maintains the accuracy of the information.

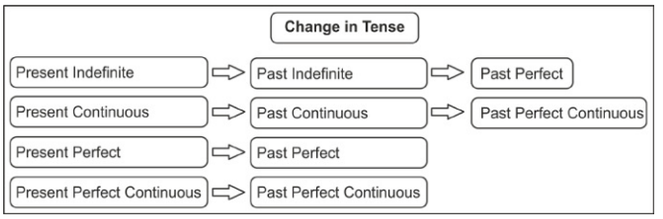
- **For example:**

Indirect: He said that he was buying that shirt that day.

Direct: He said, "I'm buying this shirt today".

Similarly, **"here"** might change to **"there"**, **"yesterday"** to **"the day before"**, **"next week"** to **"the following week"**, and so on. Let's look at the table given below to understand all the important changes in time and place.

Based on Tense:



1. Simple Present to Simple Past:

Direct: He said, "I eat apples."

Indirect: He said that he ate apples.

Rule: Simple Present (Subject + V1 + Object) is converted into Simple Past (Subject + V2 + Object).

2. Present Continuous to Past Continuous:

Direct: Vivek said, "I am reading a book."

Indirect: Vivek said that he was reading a book.

Rule: Present Continuous (Subject + am/is/are + Verb-ing + Object) is converted into Past Continuous (Subject + was/were + Verb-ing + Object).

3. Present Perfect to Past Perfect:

Direct: She said, "I have baked a cake."

Indirect: She said that she had baked a cake.

Rule: Present Perfect (Subject + have/has + V3 + Object) is converted into Past Perfect (Subject + had + V3 + Object).

4. Present Perfect Continuous to Past Perfect Continuous:

Direct: Suraj said, "I have been studying for the exam."

Indirect: Suraj said that he had been studying for the exam.

Rule: Present Perfect Continuous (Subject + have/has been + V-ing + Object) is converted into Past Perfect Continuous (Subject + had been + V-ing + Object).

5. Simple Past to Past Perfect:

Direct: Subham said, "I went to the zoo."

Indirect: Subham said that he had gone to the zoo.

Rule: Simple Past (Subject + V2 + Object) is con verted into Past Perfect (Subject + had + V3 + Object).

6. Past Continuous to Past Perfect Continuous:

Direct Speech: She said, "I was studying all night."

Indirect Speech: She said that she had been

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studying all night.
Rule: Past Continuous (Subject + was/were + V- ing + Object) is converted into Past Perfect Continuous (Subject + had been + V-ing + Object)

7. Simple Future to Present Conditional:

Direct: He said, “I will try my best.”
Indirect: He said that he would try his best.
Rule: Simple Future (Subject + will + V1 + Object) is converted into Present Conditional (Subject + would + V1 + Object).

8. Future Continuous to Conditional Continuous:

Direct: He said, “I will be using the new machine next Friday.”
Indirect: He said that he would be using the new machine the following Friday.
Rule: Future Continuous (Subject + will/shall + be + V1 + ing + Object) is converted into Conditional Continuous (Subject + would + be +V1 +ing + Object).

9. Simple Future to ‘was/were going to’:

Direct: He said, “I am going to visit her tomorrow.”
Indirect: He said that he was going to visit her the next day.
Rule: Simple Future (Subject + am/is/are going to + V1 + Object) is converted into ‘was/were going to’ (Subject + was/were going to + V1 + Object).

10. Past Perfect in the same tense form:

Direct: Anita said, “I had just finished the movie.”
Indirect: Anita said that she had just finished the movie.
Rule: Past Perfect (Subject + had + Past Participle + Object) should remain in the same tense form.

11. Universal Truth or Habitual Action:

Direct: The teacher said, “The sun revolves around the sun.”
Indirect: The teacher said that the sun revolves around the sun.
Rule: If there is any Universal Truth or Habitual Truth in the Direct Speech, there is no change in the Indirect Speech.

Based on interrogative sentences:

In the case of **Interrogative sentences**, “said” in Direct Speech is changed into “enquired (of)”, “wanted to know”, “asked”, etc. In Indirect speech, the **verb** is placed **after** the **subject**, unlike in Direct Speech.

1. Yes/No (Asking) Questions:

Direct: Jennifer asked, “Are you coming to the party?”
Indirect: Jennifer asked if/whether I was coming to the party.
Rule: For ‘yes’ or ‘no’ questions in Direct Speech, we generally introduce the reported clause with ‘if’ or ‘whether’ when changing to Indirect Speech.Yes/No question (auxiliary verb + Subject + Verb + Object) changes to (if/whether + Subject + Verb + Object))

2. Without Yes/No Questions:

Direct: He said, “Where do you live?”
Indirect: He asked where I lived.
Rule: For questions in Direct Speech that are not ‘Yes/No’ questions, we use the equivalent question word (who/what/where/when/why/how etc.) to introduce the reported clause when converting into Indirect Speech. Without Yes/No question (Question word + Auxiliary verb + Subject + Verb + Object) changes to (Question word + Subject + Verb + Object).

3. Whom/Who Questions:

i. Who:

When the question in Direct Speech begins with ‘who’ as the subject of the sentence, we retain ‘who’ when converting it into Indirect Speech.
Direct: She asked, “Who drank all the milk?”
Indirect: She asked who had drunk all the milk.
Rule: In Direct Speech, ‘who’ questions follow the structure ‘Who + verb...’. In Indirect Speech, the sentence is reported in statement syntactical order - subject before verb. (The question ‘Who drank all the milk?’ becomes the statement ‘who had drunk all the milk’. The tense changes from simple past (drank) to past perfect (had drunk) follow general rules of tense backshift in reported speech.)

ii. Whom:

When the question in Direct Speech begins with ‘whom’ as the object of the sentence, the question is essentially asking ‘to whom’ something was done or ‘by whom’ something was done. Hence, the relative pronoun ‘whom’ is retained when converting it into Indirect Speech. Again, statement syntax is maintained

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in the reported speech.
Direct: He asked, “Whom did you meet at the party?”
Indirect: He asked whom I had met at the party.
Rule: In the direct question ‘Whom did you meet at the party?’, ‘whom’ is the object of the verb ‘meet’, hence we keep ‘whom’ as the object in the reported speech. (Tense changes from simple past ‘met’ to past perfect ‘had met’. It follows the general rules of back shift in reported speech.)

Based on imperative sentences:

An **imperative sentence** is a type of sentence that gives commands, instructions, or expresses requests or orders. Imperative Sentences begin with Principal verbs like ‘Go’, ‘Make’, etc in the Direct speech.
Direct: She said, “Study well for the test.”
Indirect: She advised me to study well for the test.
Rule: In Direct Speech, commands or orders are reported in Indirect Speech using **‘to’** before the **base form of the verb**. As per the meaning of “Said”, “Say”, etc the verbs change forms like “advised/ advises” etc.

Based on ‘Let’:

“Let” is used to mean “to allow”. “Say/ Said” in Direct Speech is changed into “Propose/ Proposed”, “Suggest/ Suggested” etc. If there is an object in the Direct Speech, “to” is used after “proposed” and “sugested” in the Indirect Speech.

1. ‘Let’ as a proposal:

Direct: He said, “Let us go to a party”
Indirect: He proposed that they should go to a party.

2. ‘Let’ as a request:

Direct: The student said to the teacher, “Let me go home”.
Indirect: The student requested the teacher to let him go home.

3. In case there is no object:

Direct: He said, “Let’s go to the station.”
Indirect: He suggested going to the station.
Rule: If there is **no object** in the Direct speech and “Let” is there, the verb takes an “ing” form while transforming into the Indirect Speech.

Based on exclamatory sentences:

Exclamatory sentences, which express emotion or excitement, have their own rules for conversion from direct to indirect speech. Use a reporting verb that conveys the emotion expressed in the exclamatory sentence, such as ‘exclaim,’ ‘cry,’ ‘declare,’ ‘shout,’ etc. The interjection or exclamation at the beginning of the sentence is generally omitted in indirect speech. Replace the exclamation mark at the end of the direct speech with a full stop in indirect speech. The structure of the sentence changes according to the type of exclamatory sentence. Let’s look at a few examples:

1. Exclamatory Sentence of Joy or Sorrow:

Direct: John said, “Hurrah! I have won the game.”
Indirect: John exclaimed with joy that he had won the game.

2. Exclamatory Sentence of Wonder:

Direct: John said, “What a beautiful painting.”
Indirect: John exclaimed that it was a beautiful painting.

3. Exclamatory Sentence of Curse:

Direct: John said, “May you fail in your exams.”
Indirect: John cursed that the person might fail in the exams.

Direct Speech in Present Tense or Future Tense:

When the Direct Speech is in **Present Tense** or **Future Tense**, there is **no change** in the Indirect Speech.

1. In Present tense:

Direct: Ronaldo says, “I want to be the best player in the world.”
Indirect: Ronaldo says that he wants to be the best player in the world.

2. In Future tense:

Direct: Subham will say, “Kaustav is always late.”
Indirect: Subham will say that Kaustav is always late.

Indirect Speech to Direct Speech:

The more you practice transforming **Direct Speech** into **Indirect Speech** and understanding the nuanced

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alterations, the better equipped you are to do the reverse - that is, transforming **Indirect Speech** into **Direct Speech**. **Option elimination** comes into play in situations where you have multiple choices and need to select the correct one.

For instance, say you have this indirect statement: "Sara said that she was happy." And you got 4 options for its direct form:

A. Sara said, "She will be happy."
B. Sara said, "I am happy."
C. Sara said, "I was happy."
D. Sara said, "She have been happy."

Option B: "Sara said, 'I am happy.'" is the correct option. This is because the statement "Sara said that she was happy" is an example of indirect speech, where the words of the speaker are integrated into the structure of the main phrase and are rephrased according to certain rules. In English, when converting a present tense verb in the direct speech to indirect speech, it's generally changed to the corresponding past tense form. Here, Sara's direct speech ("I am happy") has been converted to indirect speech ("she was happy").

As for the other options, let's break those down:

A: "Sara said, 'She will be happy.'". This option incorrectly uses the future tense "will be" instead of the present tense "am". When converted to indirect speech, "will be" would become "would be", not "was".

C: "Sara said, 'I was happy.'". This option uses the past tense "was" in the direct speech instead of the present tense "am". "I was happy" would convert to "she had been happy" in indirect speech.

D: "Sara said, 'She have been happy.'". This option is incorrect both on tense and subject-verb agreement grounds. It incorrectly uses the present perfect tense which would change to the past perfect in in-direct speech. Furthermore, "have" should be "has" when referring to the third person singular ("she").

The exception of the Past Perfect tense:

There is a special rule in the case of Indirect to Direct speech which states that **Past Perfect** is transformed into **Simple Past** or **Present Perfect**. Also, **Past Perfect** tense remains unaltered while changing from Indirect to Direct speech. Let's look at the rules and **examples:**

1. Past Perfect to Simple Past:

Indirect: He said that he had eaten lunch.
Direct: He stated, "I ate lunch".
Rule: Past perfect (Subject + had + verb (3rd form) + object) is converted into Simple past (Subject + verb (2nd form) + object).

2. Past Perfect to Present Perfect:

Indirect: She mentioned that she had completed the assignment.
Direct: She mentioned, "I have completed the assignment."
Rule: Past perfect (Subject + had + verb (3rd form) + object) is converted to Present perfect (Subject + has/ have + verb (3rd form) + object).

3. Past perfect to Past perfect:

Indirect: They told me that they had seen that movie.
Direct: They said to me, "We had seen this movie."
Rule: Past perfect (Subject + had + verb (3rd form) + object) remains the same in both indirect and direct speech.

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ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE

In **active voice** sentences, the **subject performs** the **action** of the **verb**. This makes the sentence direct and dynamic. It's frequently used in daily speech and informal writing because it's clear and concise.

For example: "The dog chased the cat" - 'the dog' is the subject, 'chased' is the verb, and 'the dog' is doing the action of chasing.

On the other hand, with **passive voice,** the **subject** receives the **action** of the **verb.** The object (what is being acted on) and the action come before the subject (what or who is doing the action) in the sentence structure.

For example: "The cat was chased by the dog." Here, 'the cat' (which was the object in the active sentence) becomes the subject.

To Change from Active to Passive:

1. The **subject** of the Active Voice is changed into the **object** of the Passive Voice. Also, the **object** of the Active Voice is changed into the **subject** of the Passive Voice.
   - **Explanation with Example:** The active voice sentence, "John ate the apple" becomes "The apple was eaten by John" in passive voice. Here, 'John' (the subject in active voice) is being acted upon in the passive sentence, and 'the apple' (the object in the active voice sentence) is now the subject in the passive voice sentence.
2. The rule involving changing **subjective** and **objective pronouns** from active to passive voice, often called transformation of sentences, revolves around interchanging the **subject** and the **object** of the sentence. In active voice, the **'doer'** of the action is the **subject** (often a subjective pronoun), while in passive voice, the **'receiver'** of the action becomes the **subject** (often an objective pronoun in the active sentence).
   - **Explanation with Example:**
     Active: "She (subjective pronoun) loves him (objective pronoun)."
     Passive: "He is loved by her."
     Active: "They (subjective pronoun) are watching us (objective pronoun)."
     Passive: "We are being watched by them."
3. The usage of a **helping verb** is necessary while changing the voice of the sentence from Active to Passive.
   - **Explanation:** In the sentence "Sarah is writing an essay," 'is writing' is the active verb. In the passive form of this sentence, 'is writing' becomes 'is being written'. So, the sentence becomes "The essay is being written by Sarah."
4. The preposition "by" is used before the **object** in Passive Voice. However, it is optional in some cases.
   - **Explanation:** The active sentence "The teacher checked the homework" becomes passive as "The homework was checked by the teacher." 'By' is the preposition that introduces the agent (the teacher) in the passive sentence.

To Change from Passive to Active:

Just like the active voice can be converted into the passive voice, the reverse is also true – the passive voice can be transformed into the active voice. Here are the rules explaining the process:

1. The **subject** of the Passive Voice is changed into the **object** of the Active Voice. Also, the **object** of the Passive Voice is changed into the **subject** of the Active Voice.
   - **Explanation with Example:**
     The passive voice sentence, "The apple was eaten by John," becomes "John ate the apple" in active voice. Here, 'John' (the object in the passive voice sentence) becomes the subject in active, and 'the apple' (the subject in the passive voice sentence) is now the object in the active voice sentence.
2. **The change in pronouns** from Objective to Subjective while converting from Passive voice to Active voice should be kept in mind. In **passive** voice, the **'receiver'** of the action is the **subject** (often in objective pronoun form in active), while in **active voice,** the **'doer'** of the action becomes the **subject** (often a subjective pronoun in the passive sentence).
   - **Explanation with Example:**
     Passive: "He (subjective pronoun) is loved by her (objective pronoun)."
     Active: "She loves him."
     Passive: "We (subjective pronoun) are being watched by them (objective pronoun)."
     Active: "They are watching us."
3. The usage of a **helping verb** modifies while changing the voice of the sentence from Passive to Active.
   - **Explanation with Example:**
     In the sentence "The essay is being written by Sarah," 'is being written' is the passive verb. In the active form of this sentence, 'is being written' becomes 'is writing'. So, the sentence becomes

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"Sarah is writing an essay." The helping verb 'being' is removed from the Active voice.

4. The preposition **"by"** is dismissed or replaced with a more appropriate preposition when changing from Passive voice to Active voice.

- **Explanation with Example:**
  The passive sentence, "The homework was checked by the teacher" becomes active as "The teacher checked the home work." 'By' is the preposition that is dismissed while changing the voice from passive to active.

Based on Tenses (Helping Verbs):

Tense	Active Voice	Passive Voice
Present Indefinite	Does/Do	Is/Am/Are
Present Continuous	Is/Am/Are	Is/Am/Are + being
Present Perfect	Has/Have	Has been/Have been
Present Perfect Continuous	Has/Have been	Has/Have been
Past Indefinite	Did	Was/Were
Past Continuous	Was/Were	Was/Were+ being
Past Perfect	Had	Had been
Past Perfect Continuous	Had been	Had been + being
Future Indefinite	Will	Will be
Future Continuous	Will be	Will be + being
Future Perfect	Will have	Will have been
Future Perfect Continuous	Will have been	Will have been + being

1. Present Simple:

Active: [Subject] + [base form of verb] + [object

Example: "She makes a cake."

Passive: [Object] + is/are + [past participle of verb] + by + [subject].

Example: "A cake is made by her."

2. Present Continuous:

Active: [Subject] + is/are/am + [verb+ing] + [object].

Example: "They are delivering the package."

Passive: [Object] + is/are/am + being + [past participle of verb] + by + [subject].

Example: "The package is being delivered by them."

3. Present Perfect:

Active: [Subject] + has/have + [past participle of verb] + [object].

Example: "She has finished the project."

Passive: [Object] + has/have + been + [past participle of verb] + by + [subject].

Example: "The project has been finished by her."

4. Past Simple:

Active: [Subject] + [verb in past tense] + [object].

Example: "James fixed the car."

Passive: [Object] + was/were + [past participle of verb] + by + [subject].

Example: "The car was fixed by James."

5. Past Continuous:

Active: [Subject] + was/were + [verb+ing] + [object].

Example: "The dog was chasing the mailman."

Passive: [Object] + was/were + being + [past participle of verb] + by + [subject].

Example: "The mailman was being chased by the dog."

6. Past Perfect:

Active: [Subject] + had + [past participle of verb] + [object].

Example: "They had completed the marathon."

Passive: [Object] + had + been + [past participle of verb] + by + [subject].

Example: "The marathon had been completed by them."

7. Future Simple:

Active: [Subject] + will + [base form of verb] + [object].

Example: "He will play the piano."

Passive: [Object] + will + be + [past participle of verb] + by + [subject].

Example: "The piano will be played by him."

8. Future Perfect:

Active: [Subject] + will + have + [past participle of verb] + [object].

Example: "I will have written a book."

Passive: [Object] + will + have + been + [past participle of verb] + by + [subject].

Example: "A book will have been written by me."

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Based on Modal Verbs:

Active Voice	Passive Voice
May	May be
Might	Might be
Can	Can be
Could	Could be
Will	Will be
Would	Would be
Should	Should be
Ought to	Ought to be
Could have	Could have be
Should have	Should have be
Would have	Would have be
Must have	Must have be

The general structures for passive and active sentences involving modal verbs and examples for each are given below.

Active sentence structure with modal verbs:
[Subject] + [modal verb] + [base form of verb] + [object].

Example: He can write an essay.

Passive sentence structure with modal verbs:
[Object] + [modal verb] + be + [past participle of verb] + by + [subject].

Example: An essay can be written by him.

The structure for the transformation between active and passive voice essentially remains the same for all modal verbs. The modal verb comes after the subject (or object, in case of passive) followed by "be" and the past participle of the main verb. Let's see a other set of examples for each modal:

1. Can:
Active: "She can bake a cake."
Passive: "A cake can be baked by her."

2. Could:
Active: "He could solve the problem."
Passive: "The problem could be solved by him."

3. May:
Active: "The officer may issue a permit."
Passive: "A permit may be issued by the officer."

4. Might:
Active: "They might complete the task."
Passive: "The task might be completed by them."

5. Should:
Active: "You should submit the report."
Passive: "The report should be submitted by you."

6. Must:
Active: "Everyone must follow the rules."
Passive: "The rules must be followed by everyone."

Based on Interrogative sentences:

Interrogative sentences ask questions and require careful handling when converting from active to passive voice due to their unique structure. Here are the rules and examples:

1. Do, Does, Did:
Active structure: [Do/Does/Did] + [subject] + [verb] + [object]?
Passive structure: [Is/Are/Am/Was/Were] + [object] + [verb in 3rd form - past participle] + by + [subject]?
Example:
Active: "Did Tom paint the picture?"
Passive: "Was the picture painted by Tom?"

2. Have, Has, Had:
Active structure: [Have/Has/Had] + [subject] + [verb in 3rd form - past participle] + [object]?
Passive structure: [Have/Has/Had] + [object] + been + [verb in 3rd form - past participle] + by + [subject]?
Example:
Active: "Has Mike eaten the apple?"
Passive: "Has the apple been eaten by Mike?"

3. Modal Auxiliary Verbs:
Active structure: [Modal verb] + [subject] + [base form of verb] + [object]?
Passive structure: [Modal verb] + [object] + be + [verb in 3rd form - past participle] + by + [subject]?
Example:
Active: "Can you open the door?"
Passive: "Can the door be opened by you?"

4. Which, What, Who, Whom:
For questions that start with these words, keep the question part intact and modify the rest of the

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sentence as per the rules of active-to-passive con version.

Active structure: [Question word] + [auxiliary verb if any] + [rest of sentence]?

Passive structure: [Question word] + [auxiliary verb if any, altered if required] + [rest of sentence, converted to passive voice]?

Example:

Active: "Who wrote this book?"

Passive: "By whom was this book written?"

Based on Imperative sentences:

Imperative sentences typically command or request something and are characteristically tricky when it comes to transformation from active to passive due to their unique structure. Here are the rules along with examples:

1. Imperative sentences that express commands or orders:

Active structure: [Verb in base form] + [object]

Passive structure: [Let] + [object] + be + [past participle of verb]

Example:

Active: "Close the door."

Passive: "Let the door be closed."

2. Imperative sentences that express requests: Active structure:

[Please/Kindly] + [verb in base form] + [object]

Passive structure: [object] + [is/are] + [to be requested to be] + [past participle of verb]

Example:

Active: "Please, finish the task."

Passive: "The task is to be finished."

Based on infinitive sentences:

Infinitive sentence is: To + V1 form. The infinitive structure is often used in active and passive voice sentences, and like other structures, it can be switched between the two. Let's look at the rules and examples:

Active Structure: Subject + am/is/are/was/were + to + V1 + object.

Passive structure: Object of the active voice (Subjective case) + am/is/are/was were + to + be + V3 + Subject of the active voice (Objective case).

For example:

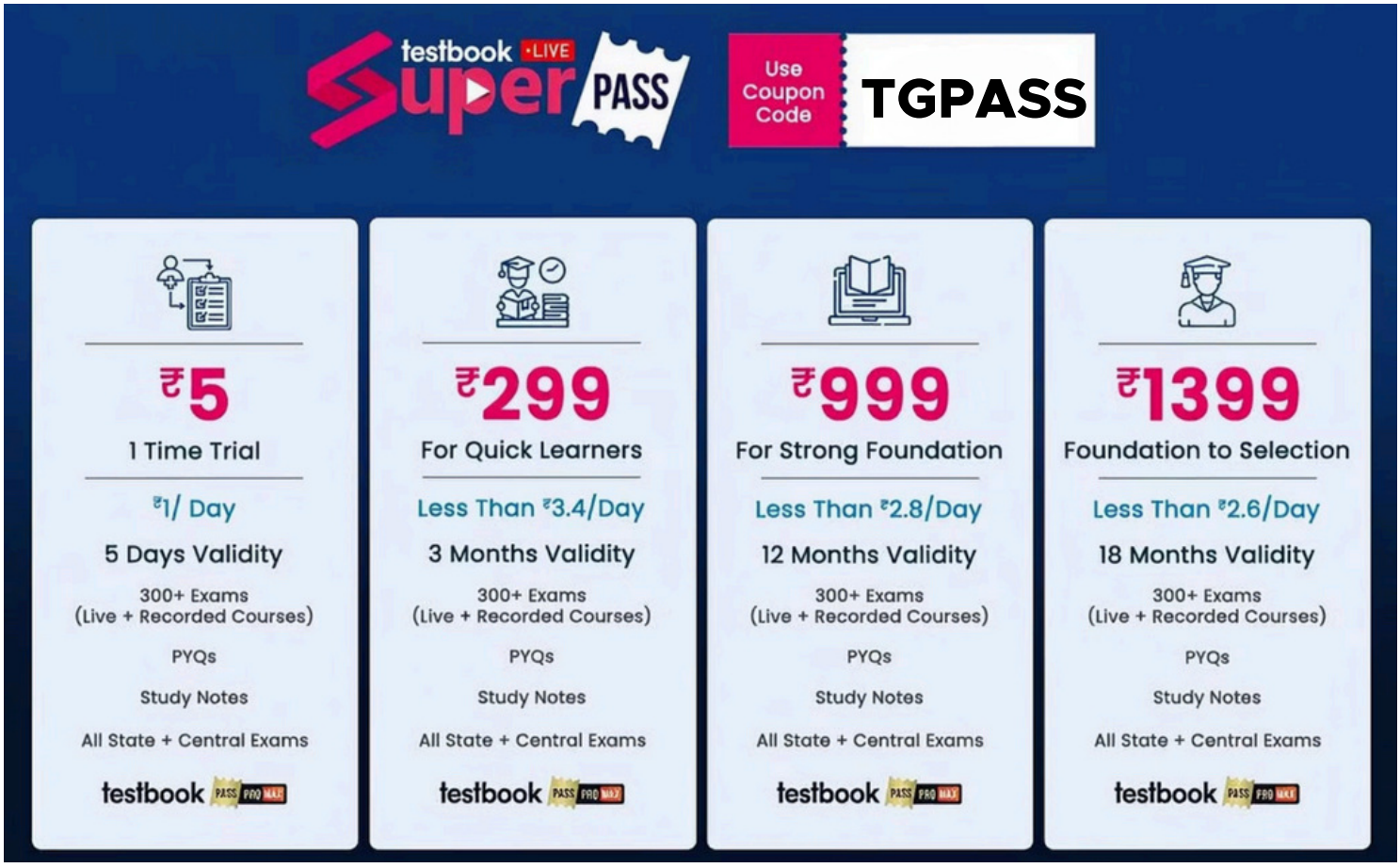
Active: You are to help her.

Passive: She is to be helped by you.











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