

AECC1 STUDY MATERIAL

(PC)

Syllabus

AECC1 COMMUNICATIVE ENGLISH

- Correction of sentences
- Transformation of sentences:
 - Simple, Complex and Compound Sentences;
 - Degrees of Comparison;
 - Affirmative and Negative Sentences;
 - Interrogative and Assertive Sentences;
 - Exclamatory and Assertive Sentences
- Identifying True/False Statements from Given Passages

Marks Division

Internal – **10 marks**

Attendance – **10 marks**

End Semester Questions (MCQ) – **80 marks**

End Semester Question Pattern:

Correction of Sentences: **20 (2 x 10)**

Transformation of Sentences: **20 (2 x 10)**

True/False Statements from Given Passage One: **20 (4 x 5)**

True/False Statements from Given Passage Two: **20 (4 x 5)**

TOPICS

1. Types of Sentences:

Assertive, Interrogative,
Exclamatory, Imperative,
Affirmative, Negative
Simple, Compound, Complex

2. Parts of Sentences:

Subject, Predicate, Object

3. Phrase:

Noun Phrase, Adjective Phrase, Adverb Phrase

4. Clause:

Noun Clause, Adjective Clause, Adverb Clause
Main Clause, Subordinate Clause

TOPICS

5. Noun:

Proper, Common,
Countable, Uncountable,
Abstract, Concrete,
Singular, Plural, Collective, Possessive,

6. Pronoun:

Personal, Possessive, Reflexive, Emphatic,
Relative, Demonstrative, Indefinite, Distributive, Interrogative

7. Verb:

Finite – Transitive, Intransitive,
Regular, Irregular,
Person, Tense,
Active & Passive Voice,
Mood
Non-finite – Infinitive, Gerund, Participle

TOPICS

8. **Adjective:**

Qualitative, Quantitative,
Definite, Indefinite, Distributive,
Demonstrative, Interrogative
Degrees of Comparison – Positive, Comparative, Superlative

9. **Adverb:**

Time, Place, Frequency, Manner, Degree, Reason, Interrogative, Relative

10. Preposition: Direction, Time, Location,
Prepositions of Spatial Relationships,
Prepositions following verbs and adjectives

11. Conjunction: Co-ordinating, Subordinating, Correlative, Compound

12. **Interjection:**

13. **Determiners:**

Article – A, An, The

Sentence

- A set of words that is **complete in itself**, typically containing a **subject** and a **predicate** (containing a **verb**), conveying a thought in the form of a **statement, question, exclamation, or command**, and consisting of a **main clause** and sometimes **one or more subordinate clauses**.

In **written English** sentences begin with a **capital letter** and **end with a full stop/period (.), a question mark (?) or an exclamation mark (!)**.

- Sentences generally include a **finite verb**.

Example - "The quick brown fox **jumps** over the lazy dog."

- A sentence is a set of words that tells a complete thought but it **may make little sense taken in isolation out of context.**
It may be a simple phrase, but it conveys enough meaning to imply a clause, even if it is not explicit.
Ex – “Two” as a sentence in answer to the question “How many were there?” implies the clause “There were two.”
- When you are writing, you are required to express clearly (rather than imply) what you want to say.
- A sentence can be of many types and can be classified according to structure, purpose and regularity.

Sentence Classification by Purpose

Sentences can also be classified based on their **purpose**:

1. A **declarative or assertive sentence**, the most common type, commonly makes a **statement or assertion or states a fact or opinion**.
Ex – I have to go to work.
It is a beautiful day.
2. An **interrogative sentence or question** is commonly used to **request information**
Ex – Do I have to go to work?
** However, a rhetorical question is one for which the questioner does not expect a direct answer.*
Ex – Can't you do anything right?
This question is intended not to ask about the listener's ability but rather to suggest the listener's lack of ability.
3. An **exclamatory sentence or exclamation** is generally a more emphatic form of statement **expressing emotion**.
Ex – I have to go to work!
4. An **imperative sentence or command** tells someone to do something.
Ex – Go to work.

Sentence Classification by Structure

English sentences can be classified according to the **clause structure**, the **number and types of clauses** in the sentence with finite verbs:

- A **simple sentence** consists of a **single independent clause** with **no dependent clauses**.
- A **compound sentence** consists of **multiple independent clauses** with **no dependent clauses**. These clauses are **joined together using conjunctions, punctuation, or both**.
- A **complex sentence** consists of **one independent clause** and at least **one dependent clause**.
- A **compound–complex sentence** (or **complex–compound sentence**) consists of **multiple independent clauses**, at least **one of which** has at least **one dependent clause**.

Affirmative & Negative Sentences

1. **Affirmative sentence:** An affirmative sentence is a sentence that affirms (rather than negates) a proposition.
Example - He is honest.
 2. **Negative Sentence:** A negative sentence states something that is not true or incorrect or presents some fact by using a negative word. A negative sentence can be formed when words like “no”, “not”, “don’t” or “doesn’t” is added to the sentence.
Ex - Dogs do not chase after rats.
- **Assertive Sentence** can be Affirmative (stating that a fact is so; making an assertion) and Negative (stating that something is not the case; expressing negation).
Ex – I was **doubtful whether** it was you. [Affirmative]
I was **not sure that** it was you. [Negative]
Alfred was **the best king**. [Affirmative]
No other king was as good as Alfred. [Negative]
 - **Interrogative Sentence to Assertive Sentence:**
Ex – **When** can their glory **fade**? [Interrogative]
Their glory can **never fade**. [Assertive]
 - **Exclamatory Sentence to Assertive Sentence:**
Ex – **How beautiful** is the night! [Exclamation]
The night is **very beautiful**. [Assertive]

Subject & Predicate

- A sentence consist of 2 main parts:
 - The person or the thing we are talking about.
 - What we are speaking about the person or the thing.

For example-:

Bad habits grow unconsciously.

What are we talking about?

Bad habits – **Subject**

What are we saying about bad habits?

(*They*) grow unconsciously – **Predicate**

- **Subject** is the thing that is being discussed. It is performs the action of a verb, or is joined to a description by a verb.
- **Predicate** is what we say about the subject. The purpose of the predicate is to complete an idea about the subject. It must contain a verb and the verb requires or allows other elements to complete the predicate.
- The **subject is usually (but not always) placed first**. However, the subject (S), **verb** (V), and **object** (O) usually appear in a sentence in these possible sequences – SVO, SOV, VSO, VOS, OVS and OSV (the last three are rare). In an **imperative sentence** or command, the **subject is left out**.

Object

- Some verbs have an object as well as a subject.
The object is the person or thing affected by the verb.
An object can be a noun, a phrase, or a pronoun.
- There are two different types of object: direct objects and indirect objects.

A **direct object** is directly affected by the action of the main verb.

An **indirect object** is usually a person or thing that benefits in some way from the action of the main verb.

Ex –

Jonathan bought a book. - ‘a book’ was bought

Jonathan bought Lisa a book. - ‘Lisa’ has received a book but it is ‘the book’ that has been bought.

You can often reword such sentences to make it easier to identify the direct object:

Jonathan bought a book for Lisa.

SIMPLE, COMPOUND AND COMPLEX SENTENCES

SIMPLE SENTENCE - . It is made up of only one Main Clause and contains only one Subject, one Predicate and one Finite Verb.

Example- **She was eating a sandwich.**

COMPOUND SENTENCE - It is made up of two or more Main Clauses which are joined by a Co-ordinating Conjunction. Each Main Clause contains a Subject and a Predicate of its own and makes complete sense by itself. Each Main Clause is independent of the other or of the same order/status.

Example- **The moon was bright and we could see our way.**

Dogs can be very friendly but they need to be trained.

COMPLEX SENTENCE - It is made up of one Main Clause and one or more Subordinate Clauses. Each Clause contains a Subject and a Predicate of its own but a Subordinate Clause cannot make good sense by itself and is dependent on the Main Clause.

Example- **They rested when evening came.**

Whatever you do, do well.

THE PHRASE AND THE CLAUSE

PHRASE - It is a group of words which makes sense, but not complete sense.

Examples- The sun rises **in the east**.

A vase of roses stood **on the table**.

I **will be going** to college next year.

I want to go to the hospital **as fast as possible**.

CLAUSE - It is a group of words that contains a Subject and a Predicate so it must contain a verb. It can make complete sense on its own.

Examples- She was born in Africa but **her mother is Indian**.

We cannot go **if it rains**.

He has a chain **which is made of gold**.

Bob, **who had fallen asleep**, suddenly roused himself.

Phrase

- In everyday speech, a phrase is any **group of words**, often carrying a **special idiomatic meaning** or other significance, such as "all rights reserved", "kick the bucket", and the like. It may be a euphemism (polite term), a saying or proverb, a fixed expression, a figure of speech, etc.
- In linguistic analysis, a phrase is a group of words (or possibly a single word) that functions as a single unit within a grammatical structure of a sentence.
- There are different types of phrases like noun phrase and prepositional phrase.
- It does not have to have any special meaning or significance, or even exist anywhere outside of the sentence, but it must function there as a complete grammatical unit.

Example -

Yesterday I saw an orange bird with a white neck.

Here the words “**an orange bird with a white neck**” form what is called a noun phrase which functions as the **object** of the sentence.

- Some expressions that may be called phrases in everyday language are not phrases in the technical sense.

Example –

I can't put up with Alex.

The words **put up** with (meaning 'tolerate') may be referred to in common language as a phrase (English expressions like this are frequently called **phrasal verbs**) but technically they do not form a complete phrase, since they do not include “Alex”, which is the complement of the preposition with.

- In grammatical analysis, most phrases contain a key word that identifies the type and linguistic features of the phrase; this is known as the head-word, or the head. The syntactic category of the head is used to name the category of the phrase; for example, a phrase whose head is a noun is called a **noun phrase**. The remaining words in a phrase are called the **dependents of the head**.
- Examples:
 - too **slowly** — **Adverb phrase**; the head is an adverb
 - very **happy** — **Adjective phrase**; the head is an adjective
 - the massive **dinosaur** — **Noun phrase**; the head is a noun
 - **at** lunch — **Preposition phrase**; the head is a preposition
 - **watch** TV — **Verb phrase**; the head is a verb

KINDS OF PHRASES:

(Wren & Martin)

1. **NOUN PHRASE** - It is built around a single noun and does the work of a noun.

Examples- He enjoys playing cricket. [he enjoys **what?**]

I want to win the first prize. [I want **what?**]

2. **ADJECTIVE PHRASE** - It is built around an adjective and does the work of an adjective by describing the noun.

Examples- He was a man **of great wealth**. [**what kind** of man?]

The chief lived in a house **built of stone**. [**what kind** of house?]

3. **ADVERB PHRASE** - It is built around an adverb by adding words before and /or after it and does the work of an adverb by modifying the verb.

Examples- The arrow fell **on this spot**. [the arrow fell **where?**]

He is coming **at this very moment**. [he is coming **when?**]

She ran **as fast as possible**. [she ran **how?**]

KINDS OF CLAUSES:

(Wren & Martin)

1. **NOUN CLAUSE** - It is a group of words which contains a Subject and a Predicate of its own and does the work of a Noun. It acts as the object of the Verb.

Examples- I expect that I shall get a prize. [expect **what?**]

I earn whatever I can. [earn **what?**]

2. **ADJECTIVE CLAUSE** - It is a group of words which contains a Subject and a Predicate of its own and does the work of an Adjective by qualifying the Noun.

Examples- The umbrella **which has a broken handle** is mine. [**which** umbrella?]

The dog **that bites** does not bark. [**which** dog?]

3. **ADVERB CLAUSE** - It is a group of words which contains a Subject and a Predicate of its own and does the work of an Adverb by modifying the Verb.

Examples- They rested **when evening came**. [rested **when?**]

You may sit **wherever you like**. [sit **where?**]

You will pass **if you work hard**. [pass **how?**]

KINDS OF CLAUSES

PRINCIPAL OR MAIN CLAUSE - It consists of one Subject, one Predicate and one Finite Verb and it also makes good sense by itself. Every sentence contains at least one main clause.
Example- He was eating a sandwich.

DEPENDENT OR SUBORDINATE CLAUSE - It cannot make good sense by itself and depends on a main clause for its meaning. Together with a main clause, a subordinate clause forms part of a complex sentence.
Example- They rested when evening came.

Types of **Subordinate Clauses** -

1. **Conditional Clause** - It usually contains the words if or unless and describes something that is possible or probable. Ex- I cannot go if it rains.

I will go tomorrow unless the plane is delayed.

2. **Relative Clause** - It is connected to a main clause by a word such as which, that, whom, whose, when, where, or who. Ex- It is a film which should be seen by everyone.

I first saw her in Paris, where I lived for two years.

Parts of Speech

- In traditional grammar, a part of speech or part-of-speech is a category of words that have **similar grammatical properties**. Words that are assigned to the same part of speech generally **display similar behaviour** —they play **similar roles** within the grammatical structure of sentences.
- Parts of speech that are commonly distinguished in English are: noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction, interjection and determiners (ex - articles).
- **Nouns** form the largest word class, and verbs the second-largest.
- Although words are divided into classes according to the work they do in sentences, we cannot say to which part of speech a **word** belongs if we do not look at **the way it is used in a sentence**.

Example –

They arrived soon **after**. – Adverb

They arrived **after** us. – Preposition

They arrived **after** we had left. – Conjunction

Parts of Speech



NOUN

Name of a person, place, thing or idea.

Examples: Daniel, London, table, hope
- *Mary* uses a blue *pen* for her *notes*.

PRONOUN

A pronoun is used in place of a noun or noun phrase to avoid repetition.

Examples: I, you, it, we, us, them, those
- I want *her* to dance with *me*.

ADJECTIVE

Describes, modifies or gives more information about a noun or pronoun.

Examples: cold, happy, young, two, fun
- The *little* girl has a *pink* hat.

VERB

Shows an action or a state of being.

Examples: go, speak, eat, live, are, is
- I *listen* to the word and then *repeat* it.

ADVERB

Modifies a verb, an adjective or another adverb. It tells how (often), where, when.

Examples: slowly, very, always, well, too
- *Yesterday*, I ate my lunch *quickly*.

PREPOSITION

Shows the relationship of a noun or pronoun to another word.

Examples: at, on, in, from, with, about
- I left my keys *on* the table *for* you.

CONJUNCTION

Joins two words, ideas, phrases together and shows how they are connected.

Examples: and, or, but, because, yet, so
- I was hot *and* tired *but* still finished it.

INTERJECTION

A word or phrase that expresses a strong emotion. It is a short exclamation.

Examples: Ouch! Hey! Oh! Watch out!
- *Wow!* I passed my English exam.

Part of Speech	Definition	Some Examples	
Nouns	people, places, things (and animals)	dog, cat, garden, work, music, town, Manila, teacher, Bob	The <u>sun</u> shines. <u>Anna</u> goes to <u>school</u> .
Pronouns	replace nouns	he, I, its, me, my, she, that, this, those, us, who, whom, you,	<u>John</u> is hungry. <u>He</u> wants to eat.
Verbs	show action or being	run, go, have, invite, laughed, listen, playing, singing, walk	The dog and cat <u>are running</u> .
Adjectives	describe nouns	angry, brave, healthy, little, old, red, smart, two, some, good, big, interesting	<u>Brown</u> dog, <u>Fat</u> cat, <u>Big</u> garden
Adverbs	describe verbs, adjectives or other adverbs	badly, fully, hardly, nearly, never, quickly, silently, well, very, really, almost	Runs <u>quickly</u> , Eats <u>very</u> slowly
Articles	signal that a noun is going to follow	the, a, an	<u>The</u> dog, <u>The</u> cat
Prepositions	show relationship between words in a sentence	above, before, except, from, in, near, of, since, between, upon, with, to, at, after, on	I am going <u>to</u> my garden (Prep) (Object of the P)
Conjunctions	connect words, phrases, clauses or sentences	and, or, but, so, after, before, unless, either, neither, because, since,	I was tired <u>so</u> I went to sleep.
Interjections	exclamations that express strong feelings	aha!, gosh!, great!, hey!, hi!, hooray!, oh!, oops!, phew!, oh!, ouch!, hi!, well	<u>Oops!</u> I spilled the milk.

NOUN

- Nouns are everywhere in our writing. They make up the majority of the English language.
- More nouns appear every year as people come up with new ideas, media, and technologies. However, a noun's basic function never changes.
- A noun is a word that functions as **the name of a specific object or set of objects, such as living creatures, places, actions, qualities, states of existence, or ideas.**
- A noun can be used as the **main word in the subject of a clause, the object of a verb, or the object of a preposition.**
Ex - **Maria** is happy. [Subject]
Give the **books** to her. [Object]
- **Phrases and other parts of speech can also behave like nouns** and can be the subject in a sentence.
Ex - Jogging is a fun exercise. [Here, the verb jogging acts like a noun and is the **subject** of the sentence.]

Types of Nouns

- ❑ **Proper noun** – It is a **specific name or proper name** of a person, place, or thing, representing **unique entities** and is **always capitalized**.
Ex – Africa, London, Monday, Sony, Starbucks, Grand Canyon, Steven
- ❑ **Common noun** – It is the **generic/general name** of an item in a class or group and is **not capitalized unless appearing at the beginning of a sentence or in a title**.
Ex - house, cat, girl, foot, country, canyon, bridge, city, birth, day
- **Countable nouns** - These are **common nouns which can be counted, even if the number might be extraordinarily high and can take a plural, can combine with numerals or counting quantifiers** (e.g., one, two, several, every, most, few, many) and can take an **indefinite article such as a or an**.
Ex - chair, nose, apple, sister, doctor, horse
- **Uncountable nouns** – These are **common nouns that come in a state or quantity which is impossible to count**. They are always considered to be **singular**, and can be used with **some, any, a little, and much** and **cannot combine with number words or certain type of quantifiers**.
Ex – salt, advice, oil, water, sugar, honesty
- Many nouns have **both countable and uncountable uses**.
Ex - Give me three **sodas**. [Countable]
He likes **soda**. [Uncountable]

Common Nouns

- **Concrete nouns** – These refer to objects that **can be observed by at least one of the senses** - something that is **physical or real**.
Ex - table, apple, ear, dog, building, coffee, tree, rain, beach, tune
- **Abstract nouns** – These refer to abstract objects that **cannot be perceived by the senses** but we know it exists like **ideas, concepts, emotions, social concepts, political theories, or character traits**.
Ex - anger, love, creativity, democracy, truth, danger, time, friendship
- Some nouns have multiple senses (**both concrete and abstract**).
Ex - **Art** is an important element of human culture. [Refers to a concept]
I put my daughter's **art** up on the fridge. [Refers to a specific artwork in certain contexts]
- In English, many abstract nouns are formed by **adding a suffix (-ness, -ity, -ion) to adjectives or verbs**.
Ex - happiness (from happy), circulation (from circulate), serenity (from serene).
- A noun may belong to **more than one category**.
Ex - happiness is both a common noun and an abstract noun
Mount Everest is both a proper noun and a concrete noun

Types of Nouns

- **Singular nouns** - They refer to **just one thing**.
Ex - house, cat, girl, country, mango, wolf
- **Plural nouns** - They refer to **more than one** of something.
Ex - houses, cats, girls, countries, mangoes, wolves
- Many singular nouns just **need an S added at the end** to make them plural.
Ex - bee becomes bees
For some **nouns that already end with an S**, you may need to **add -es** to the end to make their plural forms.
Ex - classes and buses
Other nouns have **specific rules** for making plurals – these are called irregular plural nouns.
Ex - person becomes people, life becomes lives, mouse becomes mice, tooth becomes teeth
- **Collective nouns** – These nouns (even when they **seem singular**) **refer to groups consisting of more than one individual or entity**. These take a **singular verb** as if they are one entity.
Ex - herd, team, crowd, flock, committee, government, and police.
- Certain collective nouns may be followed by a singular or a plural verb and referred to by a singular or plural pronoun, the singular being generally preferred when referring to **the body as a unit** and the plural often being preferred, especially in British English, when **emphasizing the individual members**.
Ex - A committee was appointed to consider this subject. [Singular]
The committee were unable to agree. [Plural]

Possessive nouns

- Possessive nouns are nouns which possess something.
We can identify a possessive noun by the **apostrophe**.
- Most nouns show the possessive with **an apostrophe (') and an s**.
Ex - The cat's toy was missing.
The cat is the owner of the toy, and we denote this by use of -'s at the end of cat.
- When **a singular noun ends in the letter s or z**, the same format often applies. This is a matter of style, however, and some style guides suggest leaving off the extra s.
Ex - I have been invited to the boss's house for dinner.
Mrs. Sanchez's coat is still hanging on the back of her chair.
- **Plural nouns ending in s** take **only an apostrophe** to form a possessive.
Ex - My nieces' prom dresses were exquisite.

- **Nominalization** is a process whereby a word that belongs to **another part of speech** comes to be **used as a noun**.

Sometimes adjectives act as nouns referring to people who have the characteristics denoted by the adjective.

Ex - This legislation will have the most impact on the **poor**.

- **Personification** is **giving human attributes to nonhuman objects or ideas**. It is one way to **treat a common noun as a proper noun**.

Ex – In the poem “Because I could not stop for Death” by Emily Dickinson: “Because I could not stop for **Death** —

He kindly stopped for me.”

Here, the poet talks about death as if this **concept is a person**.

PRONOUN

- **Nouns and noun phrases** can typically be **replaced by pronouns**, such as he, it, which, and those, **in order to avoid repetition or explicit identification**, or for other reasons.
- The noun that is replaced by a pronoun is called an antecedent.
Example - I love my dog because **he** is a good boy.
The word he is a pronoun that replaces the noun dog.
- Generally speaking, pronouns allow us to shorten our sentences and make them sound less repetitive.
- Example –
The construction workers are building the office. **The construction workers** are making good progress. **The construction workers** should finish the project in no time.
With pronoun -
The construction workers are building the office. **They** are making good progress. **They** should finish the project in no time.

Types of Pronouns

1. **Personal pronouns** are used to refer to people and, sometimes, animals or objects.
Examples - I, you, she, he, it, we, they, me, us, them
2. **Possessive pronoun** expresses possession, ownership, origin, relationship, etc.
Examples - mine, yours, his, hers, ours, theirs
3. **Reflexive pronoun** is used as an object of a verb that refers to the same person or thing as the subject of the verb.
Examples - myself, yourself, itself, herself, himself, ourselves, themselves
4. **Emphatic pronouns** refer back to the subject in order to add emphasis. They are identical in appearance to reflexive pronouns.
Examples - myself, yourself, herself, himself, itself, ourselves, themselves

Types of Pronouns

5. **Relative pronouns** connect dependent clauses to independent clauses.
Examples - who, whom, which, what, that
6. **Demonstrative pronouns** are used to point to specific things.
Examples - this, that, these, those
7. **Indefinite pronoun** doesn't specifically identify who or what it is referring to.
Examples - some, somebody, anyone, anywhere, nothing, everybody
8. **Distributive pronouns** refer to persons or things one at a time.
Examples – each, either, neither
9. **Interrogative pronouns** are used to ask questions about unknown people or things.
Examples - who, whom, what, which, whose

VERB

- A verb, from the Latin verbum meaning word, is a word (part of speech) that **conveys an action** (Ex -bring, read, walk, run, learn), an **occurrence** (happen, become), or a **state of being** (be, exist, stand).
- Verbs are at the heart of sentences and clauses; they are **indispensable to the formation of a complete thought**. They tell you what the subject of a sentence or clause is doing (or being).
- A **verb can express a thought by itself** (with the subject implied) and be understood.
Ex - Run!
Believe!
- **Verbs are conjugated** (given the different forms) according to **person, number, gender, tense, aspect, mood, or voice**. Hence, there are many different forms of a verb.

Root Form of a Verb

- The **root form** of a verb is the **base form** of the word. Roots have not been conjugated and do not include prefixes or suffixes.
- The root form of the verb is the same as the **infinitive form with “to” removed**.

Ex - to see – **see**; to be – **be**; to wear – **wear**; to go – **go**

- The root form of a verb is **used to create other forms** of the verb when conjugated. This is always true with **regular verbs**, but may not apply with **irregular verbs**, depending on the tense.

Ex - He had **eaten** three hamburgers. (Root: eat)

I am **going** to school. (Root: go)

What **did** you do yesterday? (Root: do)

The girl **showed** her mother the picture she drew in school. (Root: show)

FINITE AND NON-FINITE VERBS:

1. **FINITE VERB** forms show specific tense, person and number (I go, she goes, we went, etc.). A finite verb has a subject (expressed or implied) and can function as the root of an independent clause which in turn, stand alone as a complete sentence.

Example- She **was waiting** in the room.

Aren't you a bit late?

2. **NON-FINITE VERB** forms are not limited by tense, person or number. Typically they are Infinitives, Gerunds and Participles. A non-finite verb cannot serve as the root of an independent clause.

Example- She tiptoed round the house so as not **to wake** anyone.

You need to paint the whole cupboard, **starting** from the bottom.

Deceived by his friends, he lost all hope.

TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE VERBS

1. **TRANSITIVE VERB** – It is one that is used with an object – a noun, phrase or pronoun that refers to the person or thing that is affected by action of the verb.

Ex – She **loves** animals. (**loves** what?)

He **kicked** the football. (**kicked** what?)

2. **INTRANSITIVE VERB** – It does not have an object. It expresses a state or being or an action that is complete by itself.

Ex – We **talked** for hours.

The baby **sleeps**.

here **is** a dog on the road.

- Some transitive verbs can be used with a direct and an indirect object.

Ex – He **sent** her a letter. (**sent** what?) (sent whom?)

Lisa gave me a watch. (**gave** what?) (gave whom?)

- Some transitive verbs can be used as intransitive verbs too.

Ex – She **sang** a song. (**sang** what?)

She **sang** in a beautiful voice.

John **rang** the bell. (**rang** what?)

The bell **rang**.

REGULAR AND IRREGULAR VERBS

- A **regular verb** is any verb whose conjugation follows the **typical pattern**, or one of the typical patterns, of the language to which it belongs.
- A verb whose conjugation follows a different pattern is called an **irregular verb**.
- In English, verbs such as play, enter, and like are regular since they form their inflected parts **by adding the typical endings** -s, -ing and -ed to give forms such as plays, entering, and liked.

On the other hand, verbs such as drink, hit and have are irregular since **some of their parts are not made according to the typical pattern**: drank and drunk (not "drinked"); hit (as past tense and past participle, not "hitted") and has and had (not "haves" and "haved").

Regular Verbs

- Past simple and past participle are formed by **adding -ed** to the base form:

<u>Root/Base Form</u>	<u>Past Simple</u>	<u>Past Participle</u>
call	called	called
wait	waited	waited

- Verbs that **end in a consonant** and **-y** are transformed by **changing the -y to -i and adding -ed**:

<u>Root/Base Form</u>	<u>Past Simple</u>	<u>Past Participle</u>
study	studied	studied
marry	married	married

- Verbs that **end in -e** are transformed by **adding -d**:

<u>Root/Base Form</u>	<u>Past Simple</u>	<u>Past Participle</u>
like	liked	liked
hate	hated	hated

Examples:

1. I **called** her yesterday.
2. They **waited** for her outside while she went in to see the doctor.
3. Why haven't you **dressed** in something warmer?
4. Jack **studied** all day.
5. Paul **married** Lucy four years ago.
6. She has **enjoyed** the show very much.
7. We really **liked** the film we watched last night.
8. She **hated** the cold, dark days of winter.
9. Your flowers haven't **arrived**.

➤ There are three **ways to pronounce -ed**, depending on the last letter of the verb.

/t/ - verbs ending in -f, -k, -ss, -ch, -sh, -x [kicked, watched, fixed]

/ɪd/ - verbs ending in -d, -t [needed, wanted]

/d/ - verbs ending with all other letters [listened, played]

Irregular Verbs

- Verbs which have the same base form, past simple and past participle:

<u>Root/Base Form</u>	<u>Past Simple</u>	<u>Past Participle</u>
cut	cut	cut
let	let	let
put	put	put
cost	cost	cost
hurt	hurt	hurt

Examples:

I **cut** my hand with that knife.

My parents have **let** me stay out late tonight.

They **put** on their jackets because it was very cold.

Our car **cost** a lot of money but it's always breaking down.

Sam **hurt** himself in a soccer match last weekend.

Irregular Verbs

- Verbs which have the same past simple and past participle:

<u>Root/Base Form</u>	<u>Past Simple</u>	<u>Past Participle</u>
bring	brought	brought
buy	bought	bought
catch	caught	caught
feel	felt	felt
find	found	found
get	got	got
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard
keep	kept	kept
leave	left	left
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
say	said	said
sell	sold	sold
read	read (/red/)	read (/red/)

Examples:

They **had** lunch at a Thai restaurant on Monday.

Have you **heard** the news about the train strike?

Tim has **sent** an email to all the suppliers.

She **taught** English to foreign students.

She **thought** long and hard before she made the important decision.

Who **won** the match?

- The verb read has the **same spelling but different pronunciation** while used as past simple and past participle.

Irregular Verbs

- Verbs which have the same base form and past participle:

<u>Root/Base Form</u>	<u>Past Simple</u>	<u>Past Participle</u>
come	came	come
become	became	become
run	ran	run

Examples:

He **came** back home at 4 a.m. on Saturday.

Suzy has **become** the Managing Director.

The dog **ran** into the garden after Mr Lee opened the door.

Irregular Verbs

- Verbs which have a different base form, past simple and past participle:

<u>Root/Base Form</u>	<u>Past Simple</u>	<u>Past Participle</u>
be	was/were	been
do	did	done
eat	ate	eaten
go	went	gone
see	saw	seen
begin	began	begun
break	broke	broken
choose	chose	chosen
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
fall	fell	fallen
give	gave	given
know	knew	known
speak	spoke	spoken
swim	swam	swum

Examples:

The kids **ate** a lot of cakes at the party.

They **drove** to the airport and left their car there.

Has she **taken** her tickets yet?

Mrs Morgan took another biscuit.

I **woke** up with a headache.

I've **written** a letter of application for the manager's job.

Person of a Verb

- In English, we have **six different persons**:
first person singular (I),
second person singular (you),
third person singular (he/she/it/one),
first person plural (we),
second person plural (you),
and third person plural (they).
- The third person singular (he/she/it/one) **conjugation of the verb** form end in -s (or sometimes -es). or regular verbs.
Ex - he sees; she watches; it shrinks; one does
- We must conjugate a verb for each person.
- The verb to **be** is a particularly notable verb for conjugation because it's irregular.

	First Person	Second Person	Third Person
Singular	I am /walk	You are/walk	He is/walks She is/walks It is/walks One is/walks
Plural	We are/walk	You are/walk	They are/walk

TENSE

- In grammar, tense is a category that expresses time reference.
- Tenses are usually manifested by the use of specific forms of verbs, particularly in their conjugation patterns.
- The main tenses found in many languages include the past, present, and future.
- Tenses generally express time relative to the moment of speaking and refer to different forms of a verb or verb phrase. We use different tenses to talk or write about different times. For example, we usually use present tense verb forms to talk about states, events or actions that happen or are happening in the present time.

We usually use past tense verb forms to talk about past time, to describe events, states or actions that have finished.

We can also use past tense forms to refer to present time, for example, for reasons of politeness or indirectness (I was wondering if you wanted a drink) and present tense forms to refer to past time, for example, for dramatic effect.
- There is no future tense form of verbs in English. We refer to future time in several different ways for different functions, for example, using the present tense or be going to or will.

Verb Tenses in English

ENGLISH VERB TENSE	Simple	Progressive	Perfect	Perfect Progressive
PRESENT	I eat.	I am eating.	I have eaten.	I have been eating.
PAST	I ate.	I was eating.	I had eaten.	I had been eating.
FUTURE	I will eat.	I will be eating.	I will have eaten.	I will have been eating.

English Verb Tenses

	PAST	PRESENT	FUTURE
SIMPLE	I did my homework.	I do my homework.	I will do my homework
CONTINUOUS	I was doing my homework.	I am doing my homework.	I will be doing my homework.
PERFECT SIMPLE	I had done my homework.	I have done my homework.	I will have done my homework.
PERFECT CONTINUOUS	I had been doing my homework.	I have been doing my homework.	I will have been doing my homework.

ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE

- The voice of a verb expresses whether the subject of the verb **is performing the action** of the verb or whether the action is **being performed** on the subject.
- The two most common voices are the active voice and the passive voice.

Ex - I saw the car.

The car was seen.

TENSE (or Modal + Base)	<u>Active Voice</u>	<u>Passive Voice</u>
Simple Present	take takes	am taken is taken are taken
Present Continuous	am is taking are taking	am being taken is being taken are being taken
Present Perfect	has taken have taken	has been taken have been taken
Simple Past	took	was taken were taken
Past Continuous	was taking were taking	was being taken were being taken
Past Perfect	had taken	had been taken
Simple Future	will take shall take	will be taken shall be taken
can/may/must + base	can take must take	can be taken must be taken

Mood

- Grammatical mood is used for **signalling modality** (the quality or state of being). Mood is among a verb's many grammatical properties.
- Different **modes or manners** (Latin *modus* meaning manner) may be used to express an action. It is the use of **verbal inflections** (change of form) that allow speakers to **express their attitude toward what they are saying** (for example, a statement of fact, of desire, of command, etc.).
- Mood is distinct from grammatical tense or grammatical aspect, although the **same word patterns** are used for expressing more than one of these meanings at the same time.
- The original Indo-European inventory of moods consisted of **indicative, subjunctive, optative, and imperative**.
These are **all finite forms of the verb**.
Infinitives, gerunds, and participles, which are **non-finite forms of the verb**, are **not considered to be examples of moods**.
- Some other kinds of moods are interrogative, injunctive and potential.

1. INDICATIVE MOOD

- The most common mood, indicative mood or evidential mood, is used for **factual statements, opinions, positive beliefs or to pose questions.**
- It is the **mood of reality.**
- It is used to make a **statement.**

Ex - Every rose **has** its thorn.

Paul **is eating** an apple.

A cat **has** nine lives.

- It is used to ask a **question.**

Ex - **Is** the moon **made** of cheese?

Are you well?

- It is used in expressing a **supposition which is assumed as a fact.**

Ex – If it **rains**, I shall stay at home. [Assuming as a fact that it will rain]

If Jack **wants** the book, I shall give it to him. [Assuming that Jack wants it]

2. IMPERATIVE MOOD

- The imperative mood is used to express **direct commands, prohibitions, and requests or prayers**.
Ex – **Wait** here. [command]
 Take care of your health. [advice]
 Have mercy upon us. [prayer]
- In many circumstances, using the imperative mood **may sound blunt or even rude**, so it is often used with care.
- Many languages, including English, use the **bare verb stem (root verb)** to form the imperative (such as "go", "run", "do").
- **Subject (second person) is implied** rather than expressed in sentences with imperative verbs.
Ex – **Put** that down! (the subject **you** is implied)
 Please **exit** the building in single file. (the subject **you** is implied)
- In English, the **second person** is implied by the imperative except when **first-person plural or third person** is specified.
Ex – **Let** us go. (Let's go.)
 Let him go.
- An imperative is used for **telling someone to do something without argument**.
Ex - Pat, **do** your homework now.

3. SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

- The subjunctive mood is a verb form that refers to **actions that are possibilities rather than facts**. It indicates that something is **not actually the case** or a certain situation or action is not known to have happened.
- Sometimes called **conjunctive** (relating to or forming connections between things) mood, it often uses **dependent clauses**.
- It is used to express a verb discussing **imaginary or hypothetical events/situations, expressing opinions or emotions** (desire or fear) , **or making polite requests**.

Ex - I wish you **were** here. [It is implied by this sentence that **you are not actually here**, but **I wish that were not so**. Were is in the subjunctive mood.]

If I **were** a younger man, I **would run** three miles a day. [Were and would run indicate the subjunctive mood.]

Conditional verbs (which often appear with **if/when statements**) also receive a **subjunctive treatment**.

- This mood has, for some uses, become something of a **linguistic fossil**.

Ex - I suggest that Paul eat an apple. [refers to an event which **may or may not take place**]

Paul will eat an apple. [the verb "will eat" states an **unambiguous fact - indicative verb**]

FINITE AND NON-FINITE VERBS:

1. **FINITE VERB** forms show specific tense, person and number (I go, she goes, we went, etc.). A finite verb has a subject (expressed or implied) and can function as the root of an independent clause which in turn, stand alone as a complete sentence.

Example- She **was waiting** in the room.

Aren't you a bit late?

2. **NON-FINITE VERB** forms are not limited by tense, person or number. Typically they are Infinitives, Gerunds and Participles. A non-finite verb cannot serve as the root of an independent clause.

Example- She tiptoed round the house so as not **to wake** anyone.

You need to paint the whole cupboard, **starting** from the bottom.

Deceived by his friends, he lost all hope.

Infinitive

- The word is derived from Late Latin infinitivus, a derivative of infinitus meaning "unlimited". The infinitive is a **non-finite verb form** created by a **root verb with or without the use of the particle to**. The form without to is called the **bare infinitive**, and the form with to is called the **to-infinitive**.

Ex – I want **to go** there. [to-infinitive]

I must **go** there. [bare infinitive]

I might not **come**. [bare infinitive]

I **go** there every day. [finite verb]

- Being a verb form, an infinitive may take objects and other complements and modifiers to form a phrase. Unlike finite verbs, infinitives are **not usually inflected for tense, person, etc.** However, the infinitive **may be active or passive**.

Ex – You are **to eat** this apple.

This apple is **to be eaten**.

- *Infinitives can be used to form a phrase or clause.*

Ex – I want **to sleep**. [simple]

I want **to write** ten letters. [simple]

I want **to go** to the store for a pound of sugar. [simple]

I want **to tell** you that Brett Favre is going to get married. [complex]

Uses of the to-infinitive

- *Used after certain verbs that indicate thinking, feeling, saying:*
choose, decide, expect, forget, hate, hope, intend, learn, like, love, mean, plan, prefer, remember, want, would like/love, agree, promise, refuse, threaten
Ex - They decided **to start** a business together.
 Remember **to turn** the lights off.
 We agreed **to meet** at the cinema.
 Promise **to call** me every day.
- *Some verbs are followed by a direct object and then the to-infinitive.*
Ex - He encouraged his friends **to vote** for him.
 The children need a garden **to play** in.
- *Used to express purpose (to answer why?).*
Ex - He bought some flowers **to give** to his wife.
 We started our journey early in order **to avoid** the traffic.
 We started our journey early so as **to avoid** the traffic.
- *Used after certain adjectives.*
Ex - I'm really tired. I'm ready **to go** to bed.
 We were happy **to come** to the end of our journey.

Uses of the to-infinitive

- *Used to make phrases.*
Ex - He was annoyed **by her refusal to answer**.
I need **something to eat**.
- *Used as the complement of a verb.*
Ex – I love **to sing**.
His custom is **to ride** daily.
- *Used as the subject of the sentence.*
Ex - **To err** is human.
To visit the Grand Canyon is my life-long dream.
- *Used as the object of the sentence.*
Ex – He likes **to read**.
- *Used with the adverbs too and enough to express the reasoning behind our satisfaction or dissatisfaction.*
Ex - This soup is too hot **to eat**.
She is old enough **to make** up her own mind.
- *Used when making a comment or judgement about a noun.*
Ex - This is the right thing **to do**.

Use of the zero infinitive

- *Used after auxiliaries.*

Ex - They must **leave** before 10.00 a.m.

He should **give** her some money.

- *Used after verbs of perception.*

Ex - They saw us **walk** toward the lake.

We heard them **close** the door.

- *Used after the verbs “make” and “let”.*

Ex - You made me **come** with you.

Her parents let her **stay** out late.

- *Used after the expression “had better”.*

Ex - We had better **take** some warm clothing.

They had better **work** harder on their homework.

- *The question word “why” is followed by the zero infinitive when making suggestions.*

Ex - Why **wait** until tomorrow?

Why not **ask** him now?

Gerund

- A gerund is a **non-finite verb form** and it most often, but not exclusively, functions as a noun. It has the properties of both verb and noun, such as being modifiable by an adverb and being able to take a direct object.
- The **term "-ing form"** is often used to refer to the gerund specifically. However, it is not used as a finite verb form like continuous tense.
- Used to **make phrases**.
Ex – I recommend **arriving** at 8:00. [gerund]
I recommend that you **arrive** at 8:00. [finite verb]
- Some verbs can be followed **either by a gerund or by an infinitive** and there is little or **no difference in meaning** between the two.
Ex - He began **walking** towards the museum. [gerund]
He began **to walk** towards the museum. [infinitive]

Use of the gerund

- *Verbs which can be followed by nouns or gerunds:*
avoid, celebrate, consider, contemplate, defer, delay, detest, dislike, dread, enjoy, entail, escape, excuse, finish, forgive, involve, keep, loathe, mind, miss, pardon, postpone, prevent, resent, resist, risk, save, stop
Ex - I can't imagine **living** in that big house.
I understand **fishing** pretty well.
- *Used as the complement of the verb “to be”.*
Ex - One of his duties is **attending** meetings.
One of life's pleasures is **reading** good books.
- *Used as the subject of the sentence.*
Ex - **Brushing** your teeth is important.
Smoking causes lung cancer.
- *Used as the object of the sentence.*
Ex – I like **swimming**.
Stop **playing**.
- *Used as object of a preposition*
Ex – I am tired of **waiting**.
He was punished for **telling** a lie.
She is good at **painting**.

Use of the gerund

- *Used after phrasal verbs (verb + preposition or adverb)*

Ex - When will you give up **smoking**?

He kept on **asking** for money.

I look forward to **hearing** from you soon.

- *Used in a compound noun to form a meaning that acts as a noun and not as a continuous verb.*

Ex - They have a **swimming** pool in their back yard. [the word “swimming pool” means a pool for swimming in – it is not a pool that is swimming]

I bought some new **running** shoes.

- *Used after the expressions “can't help”, “can't stand”, “to be worth”, “it's no use”.*

Ex - She couldn't help **falling** in love with him.

I can't stand **being** stuck in traffic jams.

It's no use **trying** to escape.

It might be worth **phoning** the station to check the time of the train.

Participle

- A participle is a type of word derived from a verb that is used for a variety of purposes, such as an adjective or to construct verb tenses.
- Participles themselves are considered to be a different part of speech than verbs, but they look a lot like the verbs they come from.

Example -

the verb “walk” can be turned into the participles “walked” and “walking”.

These two words look identical to the past and present tense forms of walk. However, participles do things that verbs can't and can help a verb express some complicated actions.

- Examples –

The shelf was full of **tantalizing** treats.

She has a backpack **covered** in stickers.

He has been **staring** at that painting for hours.

The Easter Bunny had **hidden** lots of eggs.

Having reviewed the evidence previously, the detective was unconvinced of the suspect's guilt.

ADJECTIVE

- An adjective is a word that modifies a noun or a pronoun.
In general, adjectives usually give us more information about a noun or pronoun by describing it or providing more information about it.
For example, the adjective funny is used to say something causes fun or laughter.
- An adjective can precede a corresponding noun or it can follow a corresponding noun.
Structural, contextual, and style considerations can impinge on the position of an adjective in a sentence
Examples –
That's an **interesting** idea.
That idea is **interesting**.
Tell me something **interesting**.

Types of Adjectives

1. **Qualitative** – This kind of adjective is used to define the features and quality of a noun. If you ask questions- ‘of what kind or quality’, you will get the adjective as the answer.
Examples - large, honest, happy
2. **Quantitative** – These adjectives are used to define an amount or quantity of a noun. These adjectives can either define a particular amount or an estimation.
Examples - some, many, much, few
3. **Definite** – These adjectives indicate a particular number of amount of a noun.
Examples - two, third, ten, first
4. **Indefinite** – These adjectives fall in the quantitative section but are unable to define a proper amount or quantity of a noun.
Examples - few, much, many, some

Types of Adjectives

5. **Distributive** – These adjectives are used to define a specific number among a group.
Examples - each, every, either, neither
6. **Demonstrative** – If you consider the literal meaning of this kind of adjective, you will find that they are used to answer the question ‘which?’.
Examples - that, this, these, those
7. **Interrogative** – These adjectives are used with nouns to ask questions.
Examples - what, which, whose

Degrees of Comparison

1. **Positive** - An adjective or adverb that does not make a comparison is said to be in the positive degree. In other words, the positive degree is the normal form of an adjective or adverb.

Examples –

Lily has a **beautiful** voice.

The **tall** boy in the class is very **strong**.

2. **Comparative** - We use comparative adjectives or adverbs to compare one person or thing with another person or thing.

Examples –

Today is **hotter** than yesterday.

I think documentaries are **more interesting** than the news.

Can you drive **faster**? – I'm late.

3. **Superlative** - We use superlative adjectives or adverbs to compare one person or thing with several other people or things of the same kind.

Examples –

September is **the busiest** month for our business.

Angelina Jolie was **the highest** paid actress last year.

Which student has worked **the hardest** this year?

ADVERB

- The English word adverb derives (through French) from Latin adverbium, from ad- ("to"), verbum ("word", "verb"), and the nominal suffix -ium. The term implies that the principal function of adverbs is to act as modifiers of verbs or verb phrases.
- An adverb may provide information about the manner, place, time, frequency, certainty, or other circumstances of the activity denoted by the verb or verb phrase. An adverb adds more information and helps in describing things properly.
- Adverbs often end in -ly, but some (such as fast) look exactly the same as their adjective counterparts.
- An adverb is a word that modifies (describes) a verb, an adjective, another adverb, or even a whole sentence. It describes the way an action is happening, adds a degree of intensity to the adjective, or describes another adverb.
- Examples –
Tom Longboat did not run **badly**.
Tom is **very** tall.
The race finished **too** quickly.
Fortunately, Lucy recorded Tom's win.

Types of Adverbs

1. **Adverb of Time** – It shows the time or moment of doing a task.
For example, I will go there tomorrow.
Asking the question “when?”
2. **Adverb of Place** – It shows the place where the task is being done or has to be done.
Example - You may sit there.
Asking the question “where?”
3. **Adverb of Frequency** – It shows the frequency with which the task has to be done.
Example - I go for a walk daily.
Asking the question “how often?”
4. **Adverb of Manner** – It shows the form with which the task has to be done.
Example - I speak beautifully.
Asking the question “how?”/”in what manner?” .

Types of Adverbs

5. **Adverb of Degree** – It shows the degree or extent to which the task has been done.
Example - He is extremely talented.
Asking the question “to what degree?”
6. **Adverb of Reason** – It shows the reason behind doing a particular task.
Example – He therefore left school.
Asking the question “why?”
7. **Interrogative Adverb** – Whenever a question is asked and the question word is used as an adverb, that adverb is called an Interrogation Adverb. It possesses a unique feature, and that is, it is placed at the beginning of a sentence.
Example - Why do you talk to him?
Here, ‘why’ is a question word used as an adverb. So, ‘why’ is an interrogation adverb.
8. **Relative Adverb** – Whenever an adverb is used to relate or connect or join any two sentences, it is called a Relative Adverb.
Example – I met him when no one was around.
Here, ‘when’ is the adverb that connects the two sentences “I met him” and “no one was around”. So, here, ‘when’ is the relative adverb.

Degrees of comparison

- Like adjectives, adverbs can show degrees of comparison, although it's slightly less common to use them this way.
- With certain “flat adverbs” (adverbs that look exactly the same as their adjective counterparts), the comparative and superlative forms look the same as the adjective comparative and superlative forms.
- It's usually better to use stronger adverbs (or stronger adjectives and verbs) rather than relying on comparative and superlative adverbs.
- Examples –
He smiled **more warmly** than the others.
The **most hastily** written note on the desk was overlooked.

Placement of adverbs

- Adverbs are placed as close as possible to the words they are supposed to modify.
- Putting the adverb in the wrong spot can produce an awkward sentence or completely change the meaning.
- Example –
Phillip only fed the cat.
Phillip fed only the cat.
The first sentence means that all Phillip did was feed the cat. He didn't pet the cat or pick it up or anything else.
The second sentence means that Phillip fed the cat, but he didn't feed the dog, the bird, or anyone else who might have been around.
- When an adverb is modifying a verb phrase, the most natural place for the adverb is usually the middle of the phrase.
Examples –
We are **quickly** approaching the deadline.
Phillip has **always** loved singing.
I will **happily** assist you.

PREPOSITION

- The word preposition comes from Latin: prae- prefix (pre- prefix) ("before") and Latin: ponere ("to put"). This refers to the situation where such words are placed before their complement (a word, phrase, or clause that is necessary to complete the meaning of a given expression) and are hence "pre-positioned".
- A preposition is a word or group of words used before a noun, pronoun, or noun phrase to show direction, time, place, location, spatial relationships, or to introduce an object.
Some examples of prepositions are words like "in," "at," "on," "of," and "to."
- Prepositions in English are highly idiomatic. Although there are some rules for usage, much preposition usage is dictated by fixed expressions. In these cases, it is best to memorize the phrase instead of the individual preposition.

Types of Prepositions

1. **Prepositions of Direction** - To refer to a direction, use the prepositions – to, in, into, on, onto
2. **Prepositions of Time** - To refer to one point in time, use the prepositions – in, at, on
3. **Prepositions of Location** - To refer to a location, use the prepositions – in (an area or volume), at (the general vicinity/a point), and on (a surface), inside (something contained)
4. **Prepositions of Spatial Relationships** - To refer to a spatial relationship, use the prepositions – above, across, against, ahead of, along, among, around, behind, below, beneath, beside, between, from, in front of, inside, near, off, out of, through, toward, under, within
5. **Prepositions following verbs and adjectives** – about, in, from, for, at, on, of, to, with

CONJUNCTION

- Conjunctions are words that link other words, phrases, or clauses together.
- Conjunctions form complex, elegant sentences and avoid the use of multiple short sentences.
- The phrases joined by conjunctions are parallel, they share the same structure.
- There are 4 types of conjunctions:
coordinating, subordinating, correlative and compound.

Coordinating Conjunctions

Coordinating conjunctions connect words or phrases that serve the same grammatical purpose in a sentence.

There are seven main coordinating conjunctions in English, which form the acronym FANBOYS:

F: for *

A: and **

N: nor

B: but

O: or

Y: yet

S: so

* "For" is rarely used as a conjunction in modern English.

** When the conjunctions "and" and "or" connect three or more words or phrases, use a serial comma to separate items in the series.

- Transitional words such as "however" and "therefore" can also function as conjunctions

Subordinating Conjunctions

- Subordinating conjunctions join a subordinate clause to a main clause and establishes a relationship between the two.
- There are many subordinating conjunctions, but here are some of the most common:
after, although, because, before, how, if, once, since, than, that, though, unless, until, when/whenever, where/wherever, whether, while
- There are two ways to structure a sentence using a subordinating conjunction:
Main clause + subordinate clause
Example –
The author must avoid bias **if** she wants to maintain a scholarly tone.

Subordinate clause + , + main clause
Example –
If she wants to maintain a scholarly tone, the author must avoid bias.

Correlative Conjunctions

Correlative or Paired conjunctions consist of two words or phrases that help make a point or establish alternatives.

Although paired conjunctions can be helpful in structuring a sentence, they can also make sentences wordier than necessary.

Examples:

- **both...and** – Both the students and the teachers were satisfied with the pilot program.
Note: When two subjects are connected by "both...and," use a plural verb (such as "are" or "were").
- **not only...but also** – Not only did the student include full sentences from the source without using quotation marks, but he also failed to properly cite paraphrased material.
- **either...or** – Participants in the survey could either choose from a list of possible answers or write in their own responses.
- **neither...nor** – The staff neither followed the new policy nor asked for clarification.

Compound Conjunctions

- The phrases which are used as conjunctions are called compound conjunctions.

Examples: **as though, so that, provided that, in order to, in order that, as much as, as well as, as soon as, as long as, such that, in order that, even if, as if**

- A compound conjunction may have two or three parts and they always go together.

They are different from correlative conjunctions which are conjunctions used only in pairs.

Interjection

- The word interjection comes from the Latin words inter (between) and jacere (to throw). So, an interjection is a word that you throw in between sentences or thoughts to express a sudden feeling. In contrast to typical words and sentences, the function of most interjections is related to an expression of feeling, rather than representing some idea or concept.

Examples –

Hello! Alas! Ah! Yahoo! Terrific! Good gracious!

You planned this party just for me? **Wow!**

Ouch! That wasp just stung me!

- Generally, interjections can be classified into three types of meaning: volitive, emotive, or cognitive.
 - Volitive interjections function as directive expressions, requesting or demanding something from the addressee (e.g., "Shh!" = "Be quiet!").
 - Emotive interjections are used to express emotions, such as disgust and fear (e.g., "Yuck!" = disgust).
 - Cognitive interjections express feelings which are more related to information known to the speaker of the utterance (e.g., "Wow!" = surprise).

DETERMINERS

- Some modern grammar rules include determiners among parts of speech.

Example – **a, an, the, this, that, these, those, every, each, some, any his, one, two etc.**

- These **determine or limit the meaning of the nouns** that follow.
- In Wren and Martin, all determiners **except a, an and the** are classified among **adjectives**.
A, an and the are classified as **articles** in this book.

ARTICLES

- Articles are part of a broader category called **determiners**, which also include **demonstratives, possessive determiners, and quantifiers**.
- Articles are words that **define a noun as specific or unspecific**.
- In English, "the", "a" and "an" are articles, which **combine with a noun** to form a **noun phrase**.
- Articles have developed by **specialization of adjectives or determiners**.
- There are two types of articles in English, **definite article** (The) and **indefinite article** (A, An).
- **Article rules** plays a major role in reading comprehension, writing essay, letter writing, etc.

Definite article

- Definite article – In English, “**the**” is a definite article used to limit the meaning of a noun to one particular thing or to refer to a **particular member of a group or class**.
- It may be **something that the speaker has already mentioned** or it may be **something uniquely specified**.
- The definite article **can be used with singular, plural, or uncountable nouns**.
- Definite articles typically arise from **demonstratives meaning that**.
- Example:
Please give me **the** pen. [Expresses a request for a particular pen]

Indefinite article

- Indefinite article - In English, it's the word “**a**” when it comes before a word that **begins with a consonant sound** and it's the word “**an**” when it comes before a word that **begins with a vowel sound**.
- It **indicates that a noun refers to a general idea rather than a particular thing**.
- Indefinite articles typically arise from **adjectives meaning one**.
The English indefinite article “an” is derived from the **same root as one**.
The **-n came to be dropped before consonants**, giving rise to the shortened form “a”.
- The indefinite article **only appears with singular nouns**.
- Example:
Give me **a** book. [Conveys that the speaker would be satisfied with any book]
A cookie is a wonderful thing to eat. [Used to generalize things that have some property in common]
A thief must have broken into my house last night. [Used to refer to a person whose precise identity is unknown]

Rules for the definite article 'The'

- Rule 1 – Used before a singular or plural noun, which is specific. It indicates a **particular thing/s or person/s in case of a common noun**. 'The' is not used when all of countable noun is indicated in general.
Example: **The girls** in my school like to play basketball. (the sentence is specifically talking about girls of the school)
I love **books**. (the sentence is talking about books in general)
- Rule 2 – Used when the **listener knows what the speaker is talking about**.
Example: **The** mangoes you kept in **the** refrigerator last night do not taste good.
- Rule 3 – Used to generalize the **whole class or group**.
Example: **The** honest are respected.
- Rule 4 – Used for **geographical points or areas on the globe**.
Example: **The** north pole and **the** south pole can never meet.
- Rule 5 – Used for uncountable nouns (the **nouns that cannot be counted**).
Example: **The** water in the Pacific ocean is freezing.
- Rule 6 – 'The' is mandatorily used for things that are **one of a kind in the universe**.
Example: **The** sun and **the** moon shine bright in the sky.
- Rule 7 – An article should not be used with a pronoun because they are both meant to **modify the noun**. Any one should be used depending on the intended meaning.
Example: Why are you reading **the book**?
Why are you reading **my book**?

Rules for the definite article 'The'

- Rule 8 – Used with geographical nouns, depending on the **size and plurality of the noun**. 'The' must precede the names of **oceans, rivers, group of islands, lakes, mountains, countries with united states or islands, countries whose names are plural, etc.**

Example:

The Pacific Ocean is the deepest ocean.

The Ganga is a holy river.

The Great Lakes are a series of large interconnected freshwater lakes.

The Andes is among the world's longest mountain ranges.

The Sahara is a desert in Africa.

The Bay of Bengal is the north-eastern part of **the Indian Ocean**.

The British Isles are a group of islands in **the North Atlantic**.

My sister lives in **the United States**.

Have you ever been to **the Netherlands**?

- However, **'the' must not precede the following** –
Names of people like Sam, Mahatma Gandhi etc.
Names of **continents**, like Asia, South America, etc.
Names of **countries, states, cities or streets** like Alaska, Bolivia, New town street, etc.
Names of **single lakes, mountains, islands or bays**, like Chilka Lake, Mount Everest, Hudson Bay, etc.
Names of **languages, nationalities** like Spanish, French, etc.
Names of **sports** such as basketball, cricket, football, etc.
Names of **subjects** like Economics, Mathematics, History, etc.

Rules for Indefinite Article 'A' and 'An'

- Rule 1 –

'A' is used before a **consonant in a word** or any **vowel with a consonant sound**.

Example: **A man** is sitting on the chair.

She goes to **a university** in Delhi.

'An' is used before the **words beginning with a vowel (a, e, i, o, u)** or a **consonant with a vowel sound**.

Example: She is **an innocent** girl.

He is **an honest** man.

This holds true with acronyms and initials too:

an LCD display, **a UK-based** company, **an HR** department, **a URL**.

- Rule 2 – **A singular common noun** always requires an article 'a' or 'an', but a **plural common noun does not require any article** or can have '**the**' to particularise that noun.

Examples: I saw **an elephant**. (Refers to a random elephant)

I saw **elephants** in a zoo. (No article is required)

I have seen **the elephant** again. (Refers to the elephant already seen)

- Rule 3 – **Proper nouns do not take articles** but to make them **common nouns**, **a/an** is used.

Example: He thinks he is **an Abraham Lincoln**. (not referring to the actual person but someone like him)

She is **an Indian**. (India is a proper noun but 'Indian' is a common noun)

Rules for Indefinite Article 'A' and 'An'

- Rule 4 – Indefinite article is used to **refer to numbers** sometimes.
Examples: The baby is playing with **a doll** (one doll)
I owe him **a thousand** rupees. (this particular amount of one thousand rupees)
He drove 120 kilometres in **an hour** (one hour)
- Rule 5 – The indefinite article precedes the **descriptive adjective**.
The usual word order is **article + adjective + noun**.
Example: She is **an amazing** dancer.
- Rule 6 – The indefinite article is used with the **determiners (few, lot, most)**
Example: There is **a little** wine in the glass.
I have **a few** guests coming over.
- Rule 7 – Indefinite article is not used when uncountable nouns (nouns that are either difficult or impossible to count) are talked about.
Water scarcity is a problem. (it is uncountable)
The water scarcity in my locality is a problem. (talking about specific locality)
However, depending on the context, some nouns can be countable or uncountable (like hair, noise, ice etc.):
We need **a light** in this room.
We need **some light** in this room.
Please give me **an ice cube**.
Please give me **some ice** .
- Rule 8 – **Indefinite article is omitted** before nouns that refer to **abstract ideas**.
Let's go out for **dinner** tonight.

Examples

1. I saw **the thieves** stealing **jewels**.
2. Where are **the notes** I shared with you yesterday?
3. She wore **a pretty** pink dress.
4. I think **an animal** is in **the garage**.
5. We are looking for **an apartment**.
6. I ate **an apple** yesterday. **The apple** was juicy and delicious.
7. **The boy** sitting next to me raised **his hand**.
8. Thank you for **the advice** you gave me.
9. **Trees** are beautiful in **the fall**. (All trees are beautiful in the fall.)
10. He was asking for **advice**. (He was asking for advice in general.)
11. I do not like **coffee**. (I do not like all coffee in general.)
12. I do not want **a gun** in my house (any gun).
13. **The gun** is in his closet (implies there is a specific gun).
14. I am afraid of **guns** (all guns in general).
15. She sent me **a postcard** from Italy (an unspecific postcard - not a letter, not an e-mail).
It's **the postcard** that I have in my office (one specific postcard).
Getting **postcards** makes me want to travel (any postcard in general).
16. I have **a dog** (one dog).
The dog is very friendly (the dog that I have already mentioned).
Dogs make great pets (dogs in general).
17. Greta needs **furniture** in her apartment (furniture is an uncountable noun).
18. She is going to select **the furniture** that she needs (the specific furniture that she needs).
19. She hopes to find **some furniture** this weekend (an unspecified, limited amount of furniture).
20. We are going to see **the Statue of Liberty** this weekend (the only Statue of Liberty).

AECC1 PRACTICE (PC)

Find Subject & Predicate

1. The girl climbed the mountains.
2. Here comes the bus.
3. Sometimes the predicate comes before the subject.
4. I need help with the vocabulary.
5. My favourite month is July.
6. July is my favourite month.
7. My new pen has stopped working.
8. You should thank him.
9. Sweet are the uses of adversity.
10. Nature is the best physician.
11. The earth revolves around the sun.
12. Out of all the days, Tuesday is my favourite.
13. Steve Jobs is the founder of Apple.
14. Sit down.
15. The hour to prepare lessons has arrived.
16. The burnt child died on the way to hospital.
17. They expect to see the prime minister.
18. Your hands are certainly dirty.
19. One man's meat is another man's poison.
20. A barking sound the boy hears.

Subject & Predicate – Answers

1. The girl climbed the mountains.
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Name the Part of Speech

1. Akbar was a great king.
2. Harry is a brave boy.
3. Ron is absent because he is ill.
4. Jane wrote a letter to her brother.
5. He worked quickly.
6. There is a dinosaur in the garden.
7. Chris and Liam are brothers.
8. Hurrah! We have won the game.

Parts of Speech – Answers

1. Akbar was a great king.
– Noun
2. Harry is a brave boy.
– Adjective
3. Ron is absent because he is ill.
– Pronoun
4. Jane wrote a letter to her brother.
– Verb
5. He worked quickly.
– Adverb
6. There is a dinosaur in the garden.
– Preposition
7. Chris and Liam are brothers.
– Conjunction
8. Hurrah! We have won the game.
– Interjection

Correction of Sentences (Alter/Remove a word)

1. I can't believe its finally Friday.
2. An important part of my life have been the people who stood by me.
3. She excepted his offer to work at his school.
4. He called me as a fool.
5. The cat was licking it's tail.
6. She asked to her why she was angry
7. Gita is an university student.
8. The two best things about the party was the food and the music.
9. The man is mortal.
10. The news are not true.

Correction of Sentences

Answers

1. I can't believe **its** finally Friday. – it's/ it is
2. An important part of my life **have** been the people who stood by me.
– has
3. She **excepted** his offer to work at his school. – accepted
4. He called me **as** a fool. – “me a fool”
5. The cat was licking **it's** tail. – its
6. She asked **to** her why she was angry. – “asked her”
7. Gita is **an** university student. – a
8. The two best things about the party **was** the food and the music. –
were
9. **The** man is mortal. – “Man is”
10. The news **are** not true. – is

Correction of sentences

1. Brian is a Irishman.
2. A Mount Fuji is in Japan.
3. She is the teacher.
4. I was happy to see a policeman who saved my cat.
5. My brother has a MA in linguistics.
6. He is going to United States.
7. Is there an university in Rome?
8. Dog that bit me ran away.
9. I need bottle of water.
10. I want to stay in the Italy.
11. A Spanish are known for their warm hospitality.
12. I don't like to study the biology.
13. History is best subject to study along with literature.
14. She had a X-ray to see if any of her ribs were broken.
15. He is the honourable person.

Correction of sentences - Answers

1. Brian is **an Irishman**.
2. **Mount Fuji** is in Japan.
3. She is **a teacher**.
4. I was happy to see **the policeman** who saved my cat.
5. My brother has **an MA** in linguistics.
6. He is going to **the United States**.
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8. **The dog** that bit me ran away.
9. I need **a bottle** of water.
10. I want to stay in **Italy**.
11. **The Spanish** are known for their warm hospitality.
12. I don't like to study **biology**.
13. History is **the best** subject to study along with literature.
14. She had **an X-ray** to see if any of her ribs were broken.
15. He is **an honourable** person.

Correction of Sentences

1. I have visited the Niagara Falls last weekend.
2. She is married with a dentist.
3. Shakespeare's poetries are the wonder of literature.
4. I have been there a few times.
5. There is nothing more better than this.
6. What he has come for?
7. It is very hot to go out.
8. There is not such thing as ghosts!
9. The boat was drowned.
10. He has been suffering by cancer.
11. The police has arrested him.
12. She can ask any one of her four son-in-laws.

Correction of Sentences - Answers

1. I **have visited** the Niagara Falls last weekend. – visited
2. She is married **with** a dentist. – to
3. Shakespeare's **poetries are** the wonder of literature. – poetry is
4. I have been **their** a few times. – there
5. There is nothing **more better** than this. – better
6. What **he has** come for? – has he
7. It is **very** hot to go out. – too
8. There is **not** such thing as ghosts! – no
9. The boat **was drowned**. – sank
10. He has been suffering **by** cancer. – from
11. The police **has** arrested him. – have
12. She can ask any one of her four **son-in-laws**. – sons-in-law

Correction of Sentences (Preposition)

1. I have to submit the assignment at Monday.
2. I have been waiting here since two hours.
3. Try not to pay by cash during the pandemic.
4. Smoking is bad on you.
5. The river flows on the bridge.
6. Too much alcohol is injurious for your health.
7. I will go to the bank in three o'clock.
8. I have not seen him for Monday.
9. Lisa loves listening about Korean music.
10. He could not hear to what I said.

Correction of Sentences - Answers

1. I have to submit the assignment **at** Monday.
I have to submit the assignment **on** Monday.
2. I have been waiting here **since** two hours.
I have been waiting here **for** two hours.
3. Try not to pay **by** cash during the pandemic.
Try not to pay **in** cash during the pandemic.
4. Smoking is bad **on** you.
Smoking is bad **for** you.
5. The river flows **on** the bridge.
The river flows **under** the bridge.
6. Too much alcohol is injurious **for** your health.
Too much alcohol is injurious **to** your health.
7. I will go to the bank **in** three o'clock.
I will go to the bank **at** three o'clock.
8. I have not seen him **for** Monday.
I have not seen him **since** Monday.
9. Lisa loves listening **about** Korean music.
Lisa loves listening **to** Korean music.
10. He could not hear **to** what I said.
He could not hear what I said.

Exercise – Simple/Compound/Complex

1. His courage won him honour.
2. The moon was bright and we could see our way.
3. They rested when evening came.
4. He threw the stone but it missed the dog.
5. I like trains.
6. I don't know how to bake, so I buy my bread already made.
7. I enjoyed the apple pie that you bought for me.
8. In the backyard, the dog barked and howled at the cat.
9. When I stepped out into the bright sunlight, from the darkness of the movie house, I had only two things on my mind.
10. What an idiot.

Exercise – Simple/Compound/Complex - Answers

1. His courage won him honour. - SIMPLE
2. The moon was bright and we could see our way. - COMPOUND
3. They rested when evening came. - COMPLEX
4. He threw the stone but it missed the dog. COMPOUND
5. I like trains. - SIMPLE
6. I don't know how to bake, so I buy my bread already made. - COMPOUND
7. I enjoyed the apple pie that you bought for me. – COMPLEX
8. In the backyard, the dog barked and howled at the cat. - SIMPLE
9. When I stepped out into the bright sunlight, from the darkness of the movie house, I had only two things on my mind. - COMPLEX
10. What an idiot. – INCOMPLETE SENTENCE

Transformation of Sentences

1. Some boys were helping the wounded man. (Active to Passive)
2. My pen has been stolen. (Passive to Active)
3. Nobody was absent. (Negative to Affirmative)
4. He is sometimes foolish. (Affirmative to Negative)
5. Shall we ever forget our college days? (Interrogative to Assertive)
6. There is nothing better than a busy life. (Assertive to Interrogative)
7. What a wonderful creature a unicorn is! (Exclamatory to Assertive)
8. It is very stupid of me to forget your name. (Assertive to Exclamatory)

Transformation of Sentences - Answers

1. Some boys **were helping** the wounded man. (Active to Passive)
The wounded man **was being helped by** some boys.
2. My pen **has been stolen**. (Passive to Active)
Somebody has stolen my pen.
3. **Nobody** was **absent**. (Negative to Affirmative)
Everybody was **present**.
4. He is **sometimes foolish**. (Affirmative to Negative)
He is **not always wise**.
5. **Shall we ever** forget our college days? (Interrogative to Assertive)
We shall never forget our college days.
6. There is nothing better than a busy life. (Assertive to Interrogative)
Is there anything better than a busy life?
7. **What** a wonderful creature a unicorn is! (Exclamatory to Assertive)
A unicorn is a **very** wonderful creature.
8. **It is very** stupid of me to forget your name. (Assertive to Exclamatory)
How stupid of me to forget your name!

Transformation of sentences

1. I was glad to know of his success. (Simple to Complex)
2. A dead man tells no tales. (Simple to Complex)
3. He felt sorry on finding out his mistake. (Simple to Complex)
4. The boy who is wearing blue shirt is our Captain. (Complex to Simple)
5. He pleaded that he was ignorant of the law. (Complex to Simple)
6. As he is rich, he can afford this expensive treatment. (Complex to Simple)

Answers - Transformation of sentences

1. I was glad to know **of his success**. (Simple to Complex)
I was glad to know **that he had succeeded**. [Noun Clause]
2. A **dead** man tells no tales. (Simple to Complex)
A man **who is dead** tells no tales. [Adjective Clause]
3. He felt sorry **on finding out his mistake**. (Simple to Complex)
He felt sorry **when he found out his mistake**. [Adverb Clause denoting time]
4. The boy **who is wearing blue shirt** is our Captain. (Complex to Simple)
The boy **with the blue shirt** is our Captain. [Change of Adjective Clause]
5. He pleaded **that he was ignorant of the law**. (Complex to Simple)
He pleaded **ignorance of the law**. [Change of Noun Clause]
6. **As he is rich**, he can afford this expensive treatment. (Complex to Simple)
Being rich, he can afford this expensive treatment. [Change of Adverb Clause denoting cause/ reason]

Transformation of sentences

1. Taking off his clothes, he jumped into the river. (Simple to Compound)
2. He had every qualification for the post, but he was not sincere. (Compound to Simple)
3. Surrender your arms immediately, or you will be shot dead. (Compound to Complex)
4. If you do not attend your classes regularly, you will fall short of attendance.(Complex to Compound)

Answers - Transformation of sentences

1. **Taking off** his clothes, he jumped into the river. (Simple to Compound)
He took off his clothes **and** jumped into the river. [Adding a conjunction]
2. He had every qualification for the post, **but he was not sincere**.
(Compound to Simple)
He had every qualification for the post **except sincerity**. [Removing the conjunction]
3. Surrender your arms immediately, **or** you will be shot dead. (Compound to Complex)
If you don't surrender your arms immediately, you will be shot dead.
[Removing the conjunction]
4. **If you do not** attend your classes regularly, you will fall short of attendance. (Complex to Compound)
Attend your classes regularly, **or** you will fall short of attendance. [Adding a conjunction]

Identifying True/False statements

The Taj Mahal of Agra is one of the most magnificent monuments of the world. The Mughal Emperor Shah Jahan was in love with his dear wife Mumtaz Mahal. She was a Muslim Princess of Persian descent and her name was Arjumand Bānu Begum before marriage. It was at the age of 14 that Shah Jahan met Mumtaz and fell in love with her. Five years later they got married. Mumtaz Mahal died of childbirth in 1631. It was in her memory that Shah Jahan built the magnificent monument as a mark of love to her, which we today know as the 'Taj Mahal'. The construction of Taj Mahal began in 1631. Artisans were requisitioned by the emperor from all over the empire and from Central Asia and Iran. It took approximately 22 years to build this monument. In total, 22000 labourers and 1000 elephants were used. The monument was built entirely out of white marble.

The Taj Mahal of Agra is one of the most magnificent monuments of the world.

The Mughal Emperor built it to show his power.

Mumtaz Mahal was muslim Princess of Persian descent.

The real name of Mumtaz was Arjumand Banu Begum.

The construction of Taj Mahal began in 1635.

It took 22 years to build this monument.

22000 labourers and 1000 elephant were used to build the monument.

The Taj Mahal of Agra is one of the most magnificent monuments of the world.

Ans. True.

The Mughal Emperor built it to show his power.

Ans. False.

Mumtaz Mahal was muslim Princess of Persian descent.

Ans. True.

The real name of Mumtaz was Arjumand Banu Begum.

Ans. True.

The construction of Taj Mahal began in 1635.

Ans. False.

It took 22 years to build this monument.

Ans. True.

22000 labourers and 1000 elephant were used to build the monument.

Ans. True.

Identifying True/False statements

Mother Teresa, the founder of a Roman Catholic religious congregation called Missionaries of Charity, will be declared a saint at a ceremony in the Vatican at 10.30 a.m. Vatican time (4.30 a.m. EDT) on Sunday on April 9, 2016. Just 19 years after her death, Mother Teresa has been made a saint by Pope Francis in a ceremony at the St

Peter's Square in Vatican City on Sunday. As tens of thousands of pilgrims flocked the Vatican, Cardinal Angelo Amato read a brief biography of her work, following which the Pope was asked to canonise her in the name of the Church. After due deliberation and frequent prayer for divine assistance, and having sought the counsel of many of our brother bishops, we declare and define Blessed Teresa of Calcutta to be a saint and we enrol her among the saints, decreeing that she is to be venerated as such by the whole Church," said Pope Francis. Attainment of Sainthood in this modern age is really a grand feat. Agnese Gonxha Bojaxhiu was born in 1910 to Albanian parents. As a child, she grew up in the current Macedonian capital of Skopje. At the age of 19, she

up in the current Macedonian capital of Skopje. At the age of 19, she joined the Irish order of Loreto, following which she was sent to India, in 1929. She adopted the name Therese while teaching at a school in the East Indian town of Darjeeling. Pope Francis will lead the ceremony that will include a Mass and Canonisation in Saint Peter's Square in Vatican City for the Nobel Prize-winning nun, who died at the age of 87 in 1997. In the first step towards sainthood, Mother Teresa was beatified in 2003. After moving to Kolkata (then Calcutta) in 1946, she set up a hospice and a home for abandoned children. In 1950, she founded the Missionaries of Charity, which now has more than 5,600 members and runs orphanages, hospices, homes for pregnant women and the mentally ill and other services across 139 countries. In 2002, the Vatican recognized the healing of a tumor in the abdomen of an Indian woman as a miracle attributed to Mother Teresa. A second miracle was confirmed on Dec. 17, 2015, when Pope Francis recognized a second miracle that involved the healing of a Brazilian man with multiple brain tumors.

canon.

Mother Teresa moved to Kolkata in 1946.

[redacted]
Mother Teresa by ^{birth} ~~born~~ was an Albanian.

[redacted]
Mother was sent to India in 1946.

[redacted]
Pope Francis is the founder of Missionaries of Charity.

Q.10.
Mother Teresa moved to Kolkata in 1946.

Ans. True.

Mother Teresa by ^{birth} ~~born~~ was an Albanian.

Ans. True.

Mother was sent to India in 1946.

Ans. False.

Pope Francis is the founder of Missionaries of Charity.

Ans. False.

—fin—