



INSTITUTE
OF DISTANCE
EDUCATION **IDE**
Rajiv Gandhi University

BAENC204 ENGLISH COMPULSORY-VI (ENGLISH LITERARY TEXTS II)

ourses

**BA (ENGLISH
COMPULSORY)
4TH SEMESTER**

Rajiv Gandhi University

www.ide.rgu.ac.in

English Literary Texts II

(English Compulsory VI)

BAENC204

BA

IV Semester



RAJIV GANDHI UNIVERSITY

Arunachal Pradesh, INDIA - 791 112

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About the University

Rajiv Gandhi University (formerly Arunachal University) is a premier institution for higher education in the state of Arunachal Pradesh and has completed twenty-five years of its existence. Late Smt. Indira Gandhi, the then Prime Minister of India, laid the foundation stone of the university on 4th February, 1984 at Rono Hills, where the present campus is located.

Ever since its inception, the university has been trying to achieve excellence and fulfill the objectives as envisaged in the University Act. The university received academic recognition under Section 2(f) from the University Grants Commission on 28th March, 1985 and started functioning from 1st April, 1985. It got financial recognition under section 12-B of the UGC on 25th March, 1994. Since then Rajiv Gandhi University, (then Arunachal University) has carved a niche for itself in the educational scenario of the country following its selection as a University with potential for excellence by a high-level expert committee of the University Grants Commission from among universities in India.

The University was converted into a Central University with effect from 9th April, 2007 as per notification of the Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India.

The University is located atop Rono Hills on a picturesque tableland of 302 acres overlooking the river Dikrong. It is 6.5 km from the National Highway 52-A and 25 km from Itanagar, the State capital. The campus is linked with the National Highway by the Dikrong bridge.

The teaching and research programmes of the University are designed with a view to play a positive role in the socio-economic and cultural development of the State. The University offers Undergraduate, Post-graduate, M.Phil and Ph.D. programmes. The Department of Education also offers the B.Ed. programme.

There are fifteen colleges affiliated to the University. The University has been extending educational facilities to students from the neighbouring states, particularly Assam. The strength of students in different departments of the University and in affiliated colleges has been steadily increasing.

The faculty members have been actively engaged in research activities with financial support from UGC and other funding agencies. Since inception, a number of proposals on research projects have been sanctioned by various funding agencies to the University. Various departments have organized numerous seminars, workshops and conferences. Many faculty members have participated in national and international conferences and seminars held within the country and abroad. Eminent scholars and distinguished personalities have visited the University and delivered lectures on various disciplines.

The academic year 2000-2001 was a year of consolidation for the University. The switch over from the annual to the semester system took off smoothly and the performance of the students registered a marked improvement. Various syllabi designed by Boards of Post-graduate Studies (BPGS) have been implemented. VSAT facility installed by the ERNET India, New Delhi under the UGC-Infonet program, provides Internet access.

In spite of infrastructural constraints, the University has been maintaining its academic excellence. The University has strictly adhered to the academic calendar, conducted the examinations and declared the results on time. The students from the University have found placements not only in State and Central Government Services, but also in various institutions, industries and organizations. Many students have emerged successful in the National Eligibility Test (NET).

Since inception, the University has made significant progress in teaching, research, innovations in curriculum development and developing infrastructure.

About IDE

The formal system of higher education in our country is facing the problems of access, limitation of seats, lack of facilities and infrastructure. Academicians from various disciplines opine that it is learning which is more important and not the channel of education. The education through distance mode is an alternative mode of imparting instruction to overcome the problems of access, infrastructure and socio-economic barriers. This will meet the demand for qualitative higher education of millions of people who cannot get admission in the regular system and wish to pursue their education. It also helps interested employed and unemployed men and women to continue with their higher education. Distance education is a distinct approach to impart education to learners who remained away in the space and/or time from the teachers and teaching institutions on account of economic, social and other considerations. Our main aim is to provide higher education opportunities to those who are unable to join regular academic and vocational education programmes in the affiliated colleges of the University and make higher education reach to the doorsteps in rural and geographically remote areas of Arunachal Pradesh in particular and North-eastern part of India in general. In 2008, the Centre for Distance Education has been renamed as "Institute of Distance Education (IDE)."

Continuing the endeavor to expand the learning opportunities for distant learners, IDE has introduced Post Graduate Courses in 5 subjects (Education, English, Hindi, History and Political Science) from the Academic Session 2013-14.

The Institute of Distance Education is housed in the Physical Sciences Faculty Building (first floor) next to the University Library. The University campus is 6 kms from NERIST point on National Highway 52A. The University buses ply to NERIST point regularly.

Outstanding Features of Institute of Distance Education:

(i) At Par with Regular Mode

Eligibility requirements, curricular content, mode of examination and the award of degrees are on par with the colleges affiliated to the Rajiv Gandhi University and the Department(s) of the University.

(ii) Self-Instructional Study Material (SISM)

The students are provided SISM prepared by the Institute and approved by Distance Education Council (DEC), New Delhi. This will be provided at the time of admission at the IDE or its Study Centres. SISM is provided only in English except Hindi subject.

(iii) Contact and Counselling Programme (CCP)

The course curriculum of every programme involves counselling in the form of personal contact programme of duration of approximately 7-15 days. The CCP shall not be compulsory for BA. However for professional courses and MA the attendance in CCP will be mandatory.

(iv) Field Training and Project

For professional course(s) there shall be provision of field training and project writing in the concerned subject.

(v) Medium of Instruction and Examination

The medium of instruction and examination will be English for all the subjects except for those subjects where the learners will need to write in the respective languages.

(vi) Subject/Counselling Coordinators

For developing study material, the IDE appoints subject coordinators from within and outside the University. In order to run the PCCP effectively Counselling Coordinators are engaged from the Departments of the University, The Counselling-Coordinators do necessary coordination for involving resource persons in contact and counselling programme and assignment evaluation. The learners can also contact them for clarifying their difficulties in then respective subjects.

SYLLABI-BOOK MAPPING TABLE

Syllabi

UNIT I: Importance of Spoken English

UNIT II: Feature Writing

Article Writing for newspaper and magazine

UNIT III: Creative Writing I

Writing Notice, Memorandum, Agenda

UNIT IV: Office Writing

Report Writing, Editing, CV

UNIT V: Creative Writing II

Poem and Story

Unit – I

ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSE (EAP)

Structure

- 1.0 Objectives
- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Work for you
- 1.3 Writing Articles
- 1.4 Keep in Mind/Tips
- 1.5 Writing Minutes
- 1.6 Model-1
- 1.7 Model-2
- 1.8 Model-3
- 1.9 Writing Memoranda
- 1.10 Keep in Mind/Tips
- 1.11 Writing Reviews
- 1.12 Keep in Mind/Tips
- 1.13 Model Book Review-I
- 1.14 Model Book Review-II
- 1.15 Model Book Review-III
- 1.16 Model Book Review-IV
- 1.17 Model Book Review-V
- 1.18 Model Book Review-VI
- 1.19 Film Review-I
- 1.20 Film Review-II
- 1.21 Film Review-III
- 1.22 Let Us Sum Up
- 1.23 Key Words
- 1.24 Check Your Learning
- 1.25 Suggested Readings
- 1.26 Hints/Answers to Questions in Check Your Learning.

1.0 Objectives

In this unit, you will get the opportunity to learn English for Academic Purpose - how to write articles, minutes, memoranda, reviews, etc.

1.1 Introduction

Whatever you have learned earlier in writing practice, all that knowledge should have practical application in various fields. You should learn to apply these skills to your study needs appropriately. It is precisely known as English for Academic purpose. Writing articles, minutes, memoranda and review - all require different kinds of skill because each of them has separate design, style, and technique. In this unit, we shall discuss each one of them separately with all necessary details.

1.2 Work for you

You need to read a good number of model examples of articles, minutes, memoranda and reviews to get proper idea of how to go about these. Once you read a model piece on these, please try to

reproduce the same and go for self-check to ensure that you have got the matter right. If, by chance, you happen to detect that there are certain points where you should improve your writing, please do go back to the model pieces and find how to cover up the problems you encountered in our first attempt or first few attempts.

The tips for you here would be – be honest about your own feeling about your writing and do very promptly go for correction and self-improvement exercises till you gather confidence and success in all your attempts.

1.3 Writing Articles

Keep in Mind/Tips

1. An article should have a distinct and meaningful title;
2. The writer's name, designation and address are given at the right hand corner below the line of the title of your article/paper;
3. The theme is introduced in a brief, clear and focused first paragraph. Also here you present your stand, approach and aim/purpose of the paper/article clearly;
4. Appropriate sections and sub-sections with proper headings need to be given throughout the part of the paper/article where you are dealing with or discussing your contentions and positing your observations and remarks;
5. Mention the sources from which you have got ideas to support our points at various stage of your argument in the body of the paper (within parenthesis). Write the writer's last name/title with the publication, date of the work, page number of the matter quoted or discussed following colon marks;
6. Appropriately sum up the article in the conclusion where you may re-state your findings in brief. You may submit a few suggestions and recommendations or put in certain remarks that may go directly with the spirit of your article's theme and approach and purpose;
7. Provide a list of references and sources cited.
8. Neatly type or print the article/paper. Check spellings, sentence construction, punctuation marks, etc. Take special care to make bolds, italics, etc wherever you like. Use numerals in sections, like, 1.1, 2.1.1, etc.

Your academic article/paper introduces your academic achievements to the readers of your paper. Hence, always try to excel in conceiving the theme, planning the details, providing the order of your various points and arguments.

Read and Understand

Model-1

Reasoning in Animals

One key aspect of thinking is the ability to react to events (stimuli) not physically present. If an animal can behave as if it were responding to a signal when that signal is no longer there, then the animal must be responding to some representation, some symbol of that signal. The symbol must be stored in his nervous system.

If we place a desired bone on the other side of a wire fence from a desirous dog, the dog will seek the bone in the most direct way he deems possible – he heads straight through the fence. He sees the bone and he wants it. The fence is in the way. A dog that is not very bright may keep trying the direct approach until he is worn out – or till the fence comes down. But dogs do not often do that. They have the capacity to turn their backs around the end of the fence. This detour behaviour cannot happen unless the dog carries with him some image or symbol or representation of the bone he is not actually seeing. This seems to behaviour of quite a thoughtful kind.

Young children – even very bright young children – have difficulty with such detour tasks. A thirteen-month old child has trouble turning his back on a chair and then sitting down on it. Turning

from the chair involves a loss of direct contact with it; he must turn his face away and come at the chair back end to. Very often the child will get himself in the proper landing position but then look between his legs to see where the chair went. By re-establishing direct sensory contact he can respond to the chair. He often is unable to respond to it in the absence of such direct contact.

Can dog think? It looks as if they can. They can handle problems of detour. Early students of the behaviour of apes (Yerkes, 1943; Kohler, 1925) report many instances of what appears to be thinking in these animals. If a banana is placed outside the chimpanzee's cage, beyond arm's reach, the chimp will soon learn to fasten together a pair of sticks furnished him and use them in raking in his food. Or the ape will stack up a number of boxes, one upon the other, so that he can reach a banana far above his head. This appears to be thoughtful behaviour.

Reasoning in Human Beings: With reasonable safety we can assume, however, that man's thinking is quite different from that of animals, that it leads him on to a highly intricate manipulation of his world. We need only to be reminded of the problem-solving activity of Galileo, Newton, Harvey, and Einstein – and of ourselves – to be rightly convinced that man's reasoning ability is real and unique. But to know only that it is here and that it is intricate is, of course, to know very little about it.

We clearly expect different things from a thinking organism than from one possessed only of the simplest kind of irritability. We expect the thinking organism not only to be "irritated" by aspects of his world not immediately present, but to be capable of manipulating his world through symbols of it.

To know that our individual X is human and has the capacity to think, moves us an appreciable distance toward a description of him. But we still don't know how well he thinks, what he thinks about, how he came to learn to use his head or how his thought processes are interrelated with the rest of his behaviour. To give individual X a good description, then, we need to know more about him as an individual and about the processes, including thought processes, by which he came to be himself and by which he will live through his future. By placing our X in the category "human with thought" we gain knowledge. But we have a long way to go in our tasks of (a) describing and (b) accounting for our individual.

Model - 2

The Handicapped: Hidden No Longer

(The handicapped in the United States have emerged as a strong human rights movement. They are lobbying for simple facilities until now denied to them, and the freedom to live independent lives with dignity.)

1. On a hot summer day that stands particularly fresh in his mind. Bruce Hillam was picking litter off a patch of beach in Oceanside. Following the lead of some friends. Hillam dove into a 4 meter-deep eddy pool to cool off. Having brittle bones, he suffered a compression fracture of the fifth, sixth and seventh vertebrae. By the time he floated to the surface, he was paralyzed from the shoulders down.

2. "About eight months passed before I realized that I would not get up and walk," he recalls. "I figured that the doctors would give me some pills, snap their fingers, and- boom- I'd be up and prancing about. Then I discovered how permanent and devastating my injury was."

3. Hillam swiftly found himself transported into a sombre and unfamiliar world. "The handicapped person, I learned, didn't count for anything. I had been labelled one of life's losers. The majority of my friends were scared off. A doctor told my mother she ought to find me a parrot or *myna* bird to keep me company because I probably wouldn't want to get out of bed."

4. Sheer determination and strong family support, however, got Hillam through high school, then college, where he earned a Ph.D. He decided to become an industrial mathematician. 'Most

interviewers got more of a kick out of my electric wheel-chair than they did out of me. Nobody was interested in bring an obviously physically disabled person. I heard the usual excuses: what about insurance rates, how would I get around, what would coworkers think with this freak there!" Hillam finally rewrote his career plans and found a teaching job. He's now a professor of math and computer science at California State Polytechnic University.

5. In the years since his accident, Hillam has learned that the world is far from well equipped to handle people in wheel-chairs. Difficulties go beyond the elementary problems of mounting stairs, reaching phones, using bathrooms, and squeezing through doors. "Any ordinary chore can be an incredible nuisance. When I go clothes shopping, I need someone to help me get things on. The salesperson will inevitably address questions to that person: What size does he wear? Could he use some suspenders, too? As if I wee a pet. In restaurants, I've often found myself stuck in corners. Theatres have declared my wheelchair and me dire hazards. Two or three times a year, I'm stopped by religious fanatics who insist that I'm not up and about because of my lack of faith in the Lord. Or the types who urge me just to hang on there. God has big plans for me. A really deflating thing is that many people equate a serious physical limitation with mental incompetence. They see my chair and assume I'm a dumb."

6. Hillam is a gregarious man with a tumble of dark hair and a serious turn of mind. Since college, he has directed his feelings into the movement to improve life for the handicapped. "You can see why we've crept out of the attics and said, 'Hey, cut this out,'" he says. "We're not looking for gifts. We want same things everyone else on earth has. We have been denied our civil rights. And we want them."

7. The handicapped – the blind, crippled, deaf, and mentally retarded – mobilized into a civil rights movement in the United States. They have organized and lobbied for what most Americans take for granted: a drink of water at a public fountain, access to buses or subways, a way in and out of buildings, the right to attend the schools of their choice, and the freedom to live independent lives with dignity.

8. The disabled constitute a unique minority, embracing every race and religion, both sexes and all ages. And, as handicapped groups like to point out, membership can be conferred on anyone at any time – by disease, by accident, by heart attack or stroke.

9. No one knows for certain just how many Americans are disables, but estimates range up to 70 million. The 1970 U.S. Census, the first to ask about disabilities, came up with a figure of 40 million, not including handicapped in institutions or those thought to have omitted mention of their disabilities.

10 For most of America's history, its disabled have been locked in institutions, hidden in attics, shoved into basements. They became the invisible minority. Since able bodied people didn't expect or require the physically and mentally limited to work, architecture and attitudes developed with the sound in mind. Then World War II siphoned off much of the American work force, and the disabled were among those hired as replacements. To many people's surprise, industries reported smaller labour turnover, lower absenteeism, fewer accidents, and equal or superior production rates. But once the war was over, returning veterans began squeezing the handicapped out of the job market.

11. By the end of the 1960s, the already huge number of handicapped people had increased still further, owing to progress in medical science. People were surviving accidents and diseases they never used to survive. As an example, the annual U.S. mortality rate for spinal-cord injury cases tumbled from 90 per cent at the close of World War I to below 15 per cent since World War II. In the 1920s, severe mongoloid retardates were lucky to live beyond their teens; now, they often live into their 40s. Moreover, some 490000 disabled Vietnam veterans came home from the war. In the face of widespread unemployment, they voiced their indignation.

12. No U.S. Federal legislation specifically barred discrimination against the handicapped, and since state laws were weak and appropriations for enforcement scant, several hundred groups, representing a medley of disabilities, began to exert pressure on legislators for laws that would guard

their rights. Men like paraplegic Ron Kovic, author of *Born on the Fourth of July*, became strident and eloquent spokesmen for the movement. In May 1970, a group of handicapped New Yorkers, led by an angry young woman rejected for a teaching job, formed Disabled in Action, probably the movement's first truly militant organization.

13. Waving placards and chanting rallying cries ("You given us your dimes. Now allow us our dignity."), the handicapped became a force to be reckoned with. Individual American states began to yield to the handicapped ground swell, pushing through laws that forbade discrimination. In 1973, after a widely publicized sit-in by people in wheelchairs at the Lincoln Memorial, the U.S. Congress passed a Rehabilitation Act for the physically and mentally disabled, a mighty ziggurat of legislation comparable in its implications to the Civil Rights Act of 1964. "No handicapped individual", it proclaimed. "Shall be excluded from any program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance". It also established a board to govern the Architectural Barriers Act of 1968, which stipulates that public facilities built after 1968 with Federal money, must be accessible to the disabled.

14. But months of inaction followed. As bureaucrats struggled to make clear the complex rules of compliance. In 1975, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act was passed, granting all disabled children the right to a free public education. In April 1976, the U.S. Health, Education and Welfare (HEW) Secretary Joseph Califano signed regulations making the Rehabilitation Act effective. The Act. Califano said "opens up a new era of civil rights in America," and will "work fundamental changes in many facets of American life."

15. In broad outline, the regulations say that employers doing work with the government may not refuse to hire the handicapped – including cancer and heart disease sufferers – if their handicaps don't impede their ability to do the job. Employers must make "reasonable accommodation" to their handicapped workers, and they must launch aggressive affirmative action plans so that handicapped people are sought out, hired, and promoted. The rules mandate that all new buildings be made accessible to the disabled through ramps, elevators, and other appurtenances; many existing buildings must also be modified. They instruct universities to make all their programs available to the handicapped. Hospitals must establish special techniques for treating the disabled (such as means to communicate with the deaf in emergency rooms). And all public schools must open their doors to handicapped children. All in all, HEW officials calculate, implementing the legislation will require more than \$2.4 billion a year, though they expect the cost to balance out with the productivity of the newly employed handicapped.

16. Implementation requires a major shift in public attitudes toward the disabled. Most drastically affected will be elementary and secondary schools. Roughly eight million children – around 12 per cent of the school-age population – are handicapped and only 40 per cent of these now receive sufficient special education. A million disabled children have been denied access to school altogether.

17. Clearly, a brand new classroom experience lies ahead for American school children. Like many others, I moved through middle-class public schools without once encountering a child burdened with a handicap greater than the disinclination to study. Mainstreaming promises to produce a different student mix. Healthy children will still be in the majority but classes will also include children who can't walk. Or see. Or speak. Children who pant with the effort of getting out a word, who have to be carried from room to room or who are stuck in respirators. Films and printed materials have been developed for use in classrooms to acquaint children with their handicapped peers. Parents are urged to share the burden of reorientation by telling their children about disabilities.

18. The evidence from at least on state suggests that main-streaming can work smoothly. The model for the Federal legislation was a bill Massachusetts put into effect in 1974. Since then, more than 50,000 children needing special education have been blended into the Massachusetts school system. Most went into separate classrooms, but quite a number were absorbed in regular classes.

19. Barbara Fagone teaches first and second grade at the Trotter School in Roxbury, Massachusetts. Her school offers almost ideal circumstances: a full complement of teachers and other staff, the resources to provide aides for severely handicapped students, even an elevator for wheel chair users.

20. Mainstreaming has worked surprisingly well, she says, "These kids, for the most part, had never seen a handicapped child before. So naturally they reacted with a burst of curiosity. Why can't he walk? Why does he talk so funny? When's he going to hop out of that wheelchair? How's that chair work. Anyway? All that lasted about 20 minutes, till it was explained to them that just as they got sick sometimes with a cold these children are sick in a different way."

21. Fagone's attitude toward mainstreaming is more positive than some. Educators fret that not all schools and teachers will warm to the concept.

22. Frances Connor, chairman of the Special Education Department of Columbia University's Teachers College, while agreeing that the legislation is sound and a giant leap forward says, "I know that teachers are most certainly going to have to undergo retraining. What upsets me more than anything else is the attitude of some of the teachers towards the children they're going to get. A teacher I was talking with recently referred to a mildly retarded student, a child we would think of as marvellously competent, as a vegetable.

23. Inevitably, support services will have to be developed to deal with many of the handicapped students placed in regular classrooms. This will take time, and Connor expects some parental backlash during the early stages of mainstreaming. "Many regular students are going to be held back by the handicapped students in their classes," she says. "So the parents of these children are going to be angry. Some parents of college-bound students are already threatening. Countersuits." "What will happen to the handicapped students themselves?" "I think one third of the students who are mainstreamed will do better than anyone could have imagined," Connor says. "They'll absolutely blossom. Another one-third will hold their own. About a third, without the proper support systems, will be in desperate trouble."

24. The legislation also has a marked impact on higher education, which relies heavily on Federal money in one form or another. The American Council on Education has noted that if all institutions make themselves totally accessible to handicapped students, the cost to higher education could reach \$4.5 billion. Universities have criticized the regulations as ambiguous and inflexible, and for putting the handicapped into an adversary position vis-à-vis the schools.

25. Some colleges are however making the required accommodations without obvious qualms, even while disagreeing about how to attack the problem. The University of Illinois at Champaign-Urbana began making changes years ago to accommodate the flow of disabled World War II veterans. A separate office deals with the handicapped, and the campus provides a special bus service, appropriately equipped ground-floor-living quarters, building entrance ramps and such auxiliary services as readers and book-recording facilities for the blind.

26. Michigan State University, a sprawling hodgepodge of buildings, sports arenas, theatres, and swimming pools, is a prominent example of what many handicapped students prefer. Of the 45,000 students roaming the huge tree-lined campus, 500 are disabled. To meet their needs, the University has begun a 10 phase project that will eventually make the entire campus accessible to every sort of user. The mastermind behind the project is an engineer and wheelchair user named Eric Gentile. "We're rejecting the medical model of disability," he says, "We're opposed to barrier-free design and believe in environmental design. Barrier free design embraces mostly special provisions and segregation. Special this, Special that, Special everything we're decided to mainstreaming. We're not going to mother anybody."

27. Presently in its second stage, the project got under way in April 1974 and will be completed in about 15 years at an estimated cost of \$3.5 million-money drawn from private individuals, the Federal Government, and the University itself. The first phase provided access to the principal public buildings. Only in extreme cases were ramps used. Instead, Gentile asked for graded entrances which everyone uses. (They are also easier than stairs to clear of snow). Rather than build separate quarters, Gentile made existing housing accessible. Some bathrooms were fitted with railings: bathtubs were added to supplement showers. Doors were widened doorknobs were replaced with levers and dial-phones were replaced by touchones.

28. During subsequent phases, one of the four campus swimming pools will be modified with a ramp. Paths wide enough for wheelchairs will be built across the campus. Space for wheelchairs will be constructed in the football stadium. Elevator control panels will be lowered from 48 to 36 inches. Equipment in science laboratories will be redesigned or remodelled to include, science laboratories will be redesigned or remodelled to include, among other things, adjustable desks that can be lowered or raised. Buses accessible to the handicapped will shuttle around the campus.

29. One of the crucial problems confronting the handicapped is that of finding work. The disabled suffer from the highest unemployment rate of any group. Some estimates place it at 40 per cent of those considered employable. Many handicapped people spend most of their lives at poverty level. According to the 1970 U.S. Census, the proportion of the disabled living in poverty is almost twice as high as that for the general population. Often disabled individuals who do work are stuck in sheltered workshops where they labour at menial tasks for scant wages. Anyone who is severely disabled has stories to tell about the obstacles to overcome in getting a decent job.

(from Atlantic, November 1977. Author: Sonny Kleinfeld)

1.5 Writing Minutes

Formal meetings are reported through careful recording of the minute details that mark the various stages of the progress of a meeting. The important deliberations are abridged. Highlights of key points of discussion, argument, observations, suggestions, consensual acceptance or dismissal of points or demand, etc. should be included in the body of the Minutes. The minutes-writer need to be watchful of all the developments that take place during a meeting.

Read and Understand

NYISHI WELFARE ASSOCIATION

BOMDILA

No. NYIWA/BDL-01/05-06

Date: 28/12/05

MINUTES

Minutes of the meeting of the Executive Body Members, Nyishi Welfare Association, Bomdila held on 28th December'05 in the Government residence of Shri C. Chukhu, Circle Officer, Bomdila and member Advisory Board, NYIWA.

The meeting began with a serious note of regrets for deliberate abstinences of the executive members of the association even after duly informed of in advance by Circular or in telephone conveyances which in return resulted in dropping off of several issues confronting the community and the association. However, in spite of such absence, the meeting had taken some decisive measures on various issues as discussed below:

1. Reviewed the activities of the NYIWA and found fairly Satisfactory.

2. Doubts regarding the fund and bank balance of the previous Welfare society, called NIWESO was well-attended and the result of the due considerations on the related matters would be presented in the next immediate general body meeting.
3. The meeting took a serious view of the lack of Co-ordination and information feed-backs amongst the Community people as indicated from the instances of past events affecting some of our own groups.
4. Since it has been made obligatory that group participations in games & Sports and Cultural activities has to be made in the name of the Association, the meeting decided that 30% of the cash award be deposited to the association fund.
5. Audit verification of the previous association account will be held in immediate future after the previous treasurer is found free from his present problems.
6. Henceforth, all the loans from the associations fund will be granted only to the subscribers of the fund and no one else.
7. It was further agreed and decided that all the outstanding loan amounts be recovered anyhow from the debtors/loaners after the supportive documents are cleared from the former treasurer.
8. The meeting authorized the fund collectors to continue to fund drive from its community members.
9. A periodical social service in public places or institutional premises would be conducted in near future.
10. All other issues and problems will be discussed in the next general body meeting.

Sd/- Secretary,
NYIWA, Bdl.

1.9 Writing Memoranda

‘Memoranda’ is the plural form of ‘Memorandum’. A memorandum is a body of expectations, aspirations, dreams and demand of the people who generally submit the Memorandum to draw the attention of those in positions and power and tell them how those very genuine of their so far unfulfilled needs must be fulfilled through appropriate initiative and intervention of those that are capable of redressing people’s grievances.

1.10 Keep in Mind/Tips

A memorandum, by its very nature, is a forceful formal letter addressed to the public leaders and high authorities with clearly spelt out demands with definitely convincing grounds of why those demands are urgent and mostly un-put-down-able any further. Memos address specific people or groups for the purpose of recording an agreement, transmitting information, making a case, or enabling action.

Brevity is essential because most decision makers have little time and must assimilate the contents of your memo quickly.

Hence, the writing has to be strategic and balanced – it must be polite in terms of approaching the authority addressed to and forceful in terms of presenting the demands.

Use simple language. Avoid long flowery introductions, technical jargon, casual chit-chat, or showy vocabulary. All these distract from a memo's essential purpose: to inform or to enable action.

1.11 Writing Reviews

Book reviews, film reviews, reviews of short-stories, etc. are the kind of stuff we generally find published in newspapers, periodicals and other books. For your present purposes you will be benefited if you look at these reviews published in books, journals, newspapers and magazines. To give you a feel of the nature of these reviews and how they are prepared, the following pieces of reviews are presented. You may please go through those carefully several times. Following the reviews, go to the books and stories, etc. reviewed. This would tell you how the reviewer/review-writer has taken care of the various details that go into the making of the work (books, stories, etc.) reviewed or critically discussed.

1.12 Keep in Mind/Tips

A review or review essay or review write-up is a brief critical response to a work by an author (a novel, a story, a film or any other book).

As involved readers of the work under review, we are required to note down those things/descriptions/events that draw our attention at relevant places and under proper divisions/special headings. When we are taking up review of novels or short stories, we need to first grasp the story line that runs throughout the work – the people, the places, their individual details of character and personality, their interpersonal relationships, their actions and behaviour with possible understanding of why they do things the way they do, etc. Also if the theme(s) of the work could be of immediate interest to the readers on grounds of the picture of the contemporary society the novel or the story (or any other work) presents or comments upon.

As reviewers, we have to remember that our review could help develop others' interest in the work reviewed – if our review is able to attract readers to a original work, the labour going into the preparation of the review will be considered to have been put in the right direction. For writing such a review, we need to go through the work thoroughly and carefully till we have a good grasp over the contents and also the basic contentions of the original author's work and till we are confident that we have something definite and concrete to offer in the form of our review .

While dwelling on the work, we have to see if the author wants to lead the readers/society towards any particular direction. We have to grasp the essence of such message and also comment if behind such a message there is any ideological or other influence at work.

After making all these efforts, sometimes printing errors and proper proof reading may spoil all your efforts as readers lose interest to read such reviews. So one should take care so that the work is available in good print and proper readable form.

Read and Understand '-

1.13 Model Book Review-I

Salecl, Renata and Slavoj Zizek, eds. *Gaze and Voice as Love Objects*. Durham, NC: Duke UP, 1996. 255 pp + Index. Paper \$16.95.

Gaze and Voice as love Objects, edited by Renata Salecl and Slavoj Zizek, is a collection of densely theoretical essays that explore the way gaze and voice function as the means to reach a state of

love, or as the conduits through which love is set in motion. In the introduction, Salecl and Zizek describe love as “the kernel of the real, at what is in the object more than the object itself” (3). Each author in the collection offers perspectives on gaze and/or voice that eb and flow around the Lacanian concept of between love as object *petite a* and the voice/gaze that ultimately renders that love politicized, rather than sublime. Salecl and Zizek’s introduction presume certain assumptions that must be accepted as credible – that “Love is a lure, a mirage, whose function is to obfuscate the irreducible, constitutive ‘out-of-joint’ of the relationship between the sexes” (2) – in order to follow the labyrinthine deconstruction of the role gaze and voice play in the human quest for love. Most of the articles in the collection stray far from the point, as their tenebrous theoretical journeys tend to lose sight of the original quest getting lost in a myriad of subjects that swirl around the fringes of love – identity, power, sexuality, possession, and the nature of the real – rather than love itself.

The book is divided into two parts: gaze/voice and love objects. In the first part Mladen Dolar in “The Object Voice” describes voice as a Saussurian signifier, which then functions as an expression of the Lacanian lack.

The exercise of phonology Dolar argues, “dismantles sounds into mere bundles of differential oppositions” which then by its very reduction produces, in a Lacanian sense, the “voice as the object.” Dolar’s analysis of voice centres on music which “evokes the voice and conceals it... Fetishizes it” (10) and as a consequence because music has no human voice represents lack. Dolar then argues that voice becomes the thing that “seems to endow this empty and negative entity (music) with a counterpoint, its ‘missing half’ so to speak, a ‘supplement’ that would enable this negative being to acquire some hold in positively” (11), which allows voice to be the privileged object in that the voice “as a senseless reminder of the letter, is what endows the letter with authority, making it not just a signifier but an act” (27). Dolar explores the attributes of voice as either feminine or masculine, which leads to Dolar’s ultimate conclusion that voice is really one, neither the feminine Other nor the conclusion that voice is really one, neither the feminine Other nor the masculine Voice of the Father, but that the nature of voice is a constant ambiguity. An alluring analysis of music, yet how does this ambiguous object voice propel love and/or render it politicized? The reader is never enlightened.

The only article in the first part to actually touch on the topic of love in some way is Elisabeth Bronfen’s “Killing Gazes, Killing the Gaze: On Michael Powell’s Peeping Tom” in which she explores the protagonist’s obsession with possessing and killing women on film. Bronfen argues that in Peeping Tom the act of gazing, normally an activity that functions as preparation for physical sexual gratification, becomes the sexual aim in itself: “Gazing takes the place of touching, indeed becomes an independent process, acting on its own, leading to a twisted form of penetration of the other... a penetration of the other by virtue of gazing” (60). Bronfen’s exploration of the role the gaze plays in becoming the aim of sexual gratification, as well as the oedipal complexities of the protagonist’s twisted identity, is very engaging and well worth the read. I suppose one could make the connection between the gaze as the singular producer of sexual gratification and love, in the sense of courtly love, love from afar, love that is never truly physically consummated, love as a product and condition of the gaze and basic desire – striving for the thing, but not really wanting to reach it because then the desire disappears. Bronfen, as do the majority of the authors in the collection, seems to focus more on the desire for a love which cannot be realized, rather than the more compelling complexities of actually attaining love.

In part two, Mladen Dolar’s “At First Sight” is the one notable exception in the collection. Dolar considers the role of the gaze in the phenomenon of love at first sight, in that “the exchange of the gaze, of the gaze returned, is constituted by the recognition of one’s own image in the mirror,” more specifically, the Lacanian mirror phase. Dolar’s examination spotlights that one split second of the look (at first sight), that recognition in the other person of narcissistic self-reflection, which, he argues, becomes the object of love: “the object of love is put into a contradictory position where it must maintain the lack in the same time as filling it, it must protect against *jouissance* at the same time as aiming at it” (141). Dolar’s interesting examination of at-first-sight-ness, unfortunately veers off course into a discussion of the artificiality of love produced (Dolar spends too long on the fabled woman who falls in love with her psychiatrist), a function of the “analytical situation, its infallible consequence” which differs from “genuine love.” Though Dolar asserts that love is a “highly pathological state” (146), he stops short of actually examining that pathological state, nor does he offer a definition of what “genuine

love” might be, but rather spends a bit of time explaining how love is mechanical and predicate. Dollar argues that “women, proverbially unstable and capricious...appear to be the best embodiment of this mechanical character, exemplary machines, les femmes machines, puppet” who can be easily manipulated (143), a boorish patriarchal position.

Salecl and Zizek offer an interesting discussion about voice and gaze, but rather, the collection reaffirms how those two, as Freudian “partial objects” (90) help construct human identity – a concept each article addresses – from a Freudian/Lacanian phallo-centric position, but not necessarily an identity in love. Love in this volume is tantamount to “the opposition between Master-Signifier and a, the Incastratable object that can exert its efficiency only quo concealed” (243), as Zizek describes in “There is No Sexual Relationship.” Much like courtly love, the goal seems to be to desire love without actually having to be in a state of love in order to retain control over the Freudian death drive, the drive that forever prevents fulfilment. Zizek argues that the self-sacrificing woman, who will give up her man in order to redeem him, somehow “compels him to take the path of creative sublimation and work the raw stuff of the failed real sexual encounter into the myth of absolute love” (234). And, of course, the successful sexual encounter is the goal of man’s desire, leaving love as an obscure female expression designed to castrate and disseminate man’s freedom of choice, a male condition which seeks to “maintain the semblance of freedom and thus to save (masculine) face” (232).

What I find questionable here is Salecl and Zizek’s discounting of love as unnecessary for a sexual relationship, which is really nothing more than a push (couched in academic vernacular) to justify man’s animal/biological drive, his Epicurean pursuit, i.e. sex with no emotional attachment. Which is not inherently bad (it works for the animals) though the search for the sublime consciousness of love would seem to be a more challenging condition to explore (philosophers have tried for centuries, why not critical theorists?). *Gaze and Voice as Love Objects*, though a richly textured foray into theoretical gyrations, nevertheless offers little insight into the nature of love, but instead merely reinforces those tired old hegemonic Victorianisms. The return to baser instinctual attitudes towards the biologism of sex seems to me a reaction, albeit theoretical, to the feminist movement and its attempt to castrate patriarchal language – the Law of the Father – by enforcement of political correctness, i.e. the control of Voice. For instance, I am consigned to forever read Freudian or Lacanian theorists from a position of other (being female) because their phallus-dependant theories of power (and love) are biologically biased. A more interesting examination of power and love, I would argue, would not be gender-dependent, would transcend the perceived power in mere physical protrusions, and instead reflect each as an androgynous *ding an sich*.

Oklahoma State University

DEBBIE CLARE OLSON

1.14 Model Book Review-II

Birth of a writer
My Ear at his heart
By Hanif Kureishi
Faber and Faber/Penguin

By Shinie Antony

In *My Ear At His Heart*, Hanif Kureishi reads his father through impromptu flashbacks and an unpublished manuscript left behind by the latter. He makes us privy to the birth of a writer – himself – through this memoir, at once a cathartic confession and a curious conjuring act.

Through the sparse strokes of how he found his own literary calling from the ashes of his father’s failed attempts to be a writer, Kureishi does a neat Julian Barnes on us. Like Barnes’s *A History of The World In 10 & A Half Chapters*, he takes us through mesmerizing prose that reveals sepia toned truths in hindsight.

The wellspring of the memoir is Kureishi’s discovery of an abandoned manuscript. It recounts his father’s childhood in Mumai as India splits into two along religious seams during the chaos of

Partition. His fatal travels form his privileged childhood by Mumbai's calm seas to an adult life in Bromley suburbs. There, he spends his days as a minor functionary in the Pakistan embassy in London and his nights writing prose.

Kureishi, in a rather unsentimental voice, suggest: "In terms of worldly success, my father did less well than almost all the other brothers. He was in a low-status job with a small income. He complained about how much it bored him, and how stuck he felt. It seemed to mystify him, and he made it mystify us, not only how someone like him ended up there, but how he came to believe was the only life possible for him... Dad never attempted to become an Englishman; that was impossible. But he did join in the English way of life."

The social snapshots the author provides are literary gems: "By mid 60s the idea of the consumer society had arrived in the London suburbs... Snobbery had been democratized; disposability was the keyword... By the 1980s disposability had permeated everything, including love." John Cheever, Freud, Mark Twain, Albert Camus.. the list of writers who influenced Kureishi's growing years is almost endless. Born and brought up in Kent, he is also the author of *My Beautiful Laundrette*, *Sammy And Rosie Get Laid*, *The Buddha Of Suburbia*, which won the Whitbread Prize for the best first novel in 1990.

My Ear At His Heart, like all memoirs, glistens with by-lanes of unintentional nostalgia and wisdom. With the stethoscope firm against his father's fading heart, Kureishi interprets the real malady.

1.15 Model Book Review-III

Don't be fooled
A Short History of Tractors in Ukrainian
By Marina Lewycka
Published by Viking
By Sumi Thomas

It is a tricky matter, this naming of novels. Some names call out to you from book jackets; other, laboriously thought-up may not stay with you just a few days after you are done with the book. But are they meant to trick you, mislead you even? Which is just, what *A Short History of Tractors in Ukrainian* did to Amazon.com: the Internet retailer took one look at the title and listed the book in the science and engineering section.

Maybe they should have flipped the book over and read the leading excerpt on the back cover. Here's the last line: "She sits on my father's slap and he fondles her superior Botticellian breasts?" Definitely not scientific material. The novel, a first by the England-based Ukrainian, is not for the squeamish; Marina Lewycka displays no timidity in wielding a language far removed from her own and describes sex, relationships and tractors in an unpretentious, almost blasé, vein.

The story revolves around a widower, who is manipulated into a sort-of marriage by a Ukrainian woman (of the shapely breasts) who is only interested in a British visa, lots of money and the best education for her son from a previous marriage. The widower's daughters do not see eye-to-eye on most things but join hands to save their father from the "cheap slut."

The father lapses into writing the history of tractors in Ukraine every so often, more so after the wedding when his new wife's ardour suddenly disappears. The daughter's one, a social climber and the other, a socialist thinker – are forced to come up with underhand schemes to make the father understand his wife's treacherous nature.

Marina's forte is in weaving the story through conversations and accounts of everyday activities, the simplicity of which, conversely, suggests the complexities of human nature. A thread of Europe's fragmented history runs through the delightful tale. *A Short History...* may not keep you up through the night but it will grant you a chuckle or two and, like the good book that it is, set you thinking.

1.16 Model Book Review-IV

Emperor Bush?
Colossus
The Rise and Fall of the American Empire
By Niall Ferguson
Penguin

By Samuel Abraham

The year was 1913. General Victoriana Huerta had seized power in Mexico following the assassination of Francisco Madero. US President Woodrow Wilson refused to accord formal recognition to Huerta and sent an envoy to Mexico City with a plan for Huerta's retreat and the election of a new government. The following conversation is after Walter Page, American ambassador in London, explained his government's position to British foreign secretary Sir Edward Grey.

Grey: Suppose you have to intervene, what then?

Page: Make 'em vote and live by their decisions.

Grey: But suppose they will not so live?

Page: We'll go in and make 'em vote again.

Grey: And keep this up 200 years?

Page: Yes. The United States will be here for 200 years and it can continue to shoot men for that little space till they learn to vote and to rule themselves.

History says that Huerta refused; Wilson used the momentary arrest of American sailors at Tampico as an excuse to send the navy to occupy Veracruz.

Does this ring a bell? Just replace the setting with Afghanistan in 2001 or Iraq in 2003. From Wilson to Bush, Niall Ferguson says, the characteristic feature of American foreign policy has been to dictate democracy, enforce freedom and extort emancipation.

So, is America an empire? Though most Americans consider the word imperialism 'dirty' Ferguson's book shows that the US is one of the greatest empires of all times. If military power alone is the sine quo non of an empire, it is hard to deny America's imperial nature. (In territorial terms though, the US accounts for only 6.5 per cent of the world's surface, much less than the 23 per cent of the British Empire's extent between the world wars.

Economic dominance is just a corollary. American corporations have expanded tremendously in search of new markets. For instance, with more than 30,000 McDonald's restaurants in over 120 countries, Ronald AMc Donlad needs a map of the world like Donald Rumsfeld. The cultural exports are even more: the media, Hollywood films, books, Internet sites and telecommunications.

Ferguson's book is an incisive look into the history of the US empire from its origins – in contrast to the Roman, Ottoman, Chinese or the British empires – to the culmination of well established trends of an empire.

Ferguson is brilliant in his arguments. He concludes that the global power of the US rests on much weaker foundations than is commOnly supposed. This is exemplified, in allegorical terms, in Arnold Schwarzenegger's Terminator 3. (Ironically, according to Ferguson, the election of Schwarzenegger as governor of California offers an important clue to the nature of American power).

In the film, Schwarzenegger plays a robot programmed to protect a young man who is destined to save the world, but the operating system becomes corrupt and, instead of protecting, he comes close to killing him. Before the mission is accomplished, the command ABORT flashes in his head, paralyzing him. In other words, the Terminator is only a Colossus with its intrinsic weaknesses.

1.17 Model Book Review-V

The quest

By Mohandas Moses

One can only agree with Mohandas Moses when he calls the mind “the most marvelous phenomenon in the universe”. Thinkers and scientists have marveled at the wonder called the human brain and debated the existence and seat of the mind. Moses, too, joined the quest and eminently contributed through Last Frontiers of the Mind- Challenges of the Digital Age.

Moses traces the evolution of the mind and consciousness from the early ages to the development of artificial intelligence and the computer age. The book acknowledges the benefits of the computer while examining the machine’s influence on various human functions like creativity, memory, reading and writing.

With an exemplary track record in the civil services to his credit, Moses was drawn to the brain-mind debate during his tenure as secretary, welfare. The interactions with heads of several national institutes for the handicapped gave him an insight into the complex operations of the brain and the nervous system. Later, as health adviser, Jammu and Kashmir, Moses came across many cases of brain injuries, some of which were caused by terrorist attacks, their effect and treatment. This impelled him to study the brain-mind-relationship and the impact of artificial intelligence on the mind.

Though Moses died a month after he completed the book in November 2003 his wife and former education secretary, Achala Moulik Moses, got the work published and released recently in Delhi and Bangalore.

The well-researched book is as much for the general but inquisitive reader as for the scholar.

1.18 Model Book Review-VI

Live and Let Live
Joining the Dots
The report of the Tiger Task Force
Govt. of India

By Mila Joby

The last tiger in Sariska, India’s premier Project Tiger reserve, was sighted in September 2004. A few months earlier, a census in the reserve had shown a worrying drop in the tiger population – from 24-28 to 16-18. As the tiger crisis made news, Prime Minister Manmohan Singh set up a five-member Tiger Task Force in April.

Its report – Joining the Dots – which was completed in three months used the Sariska debacle as a pointer to the collapse in tiger and forest conservation machinery. Sariska has been quoted throughout, either as an example of mismanagement or to show that mere guns, guards and money cannot save the tiger.

The idea is to evolve a conservation strategy that involves the local people as well. “The issue is not tigers per se, but about recreating economic and livelihood bases for forests to be regenerated,” says the report. Quite sensibly, it calls for preference or even reservation to local people in the protection force. The argument is that this will help wean them away from poachers who pay local people for information about tigers.

The task force also recommends two separate departments for environment and forest. Another suggestion is to amend the criminal provisions in the Wildlife (Protection) Act, 1972, and setting up of a wild life crime bureau.

Citing examples of eco-tourism involving local communities, the report recommends

encouraging homestead tourism around reserves.

The report does not recommend relocation but suggests an alternative-co-existence where locals can live in the forests even as tigers get inviolate space for breeding.

A task force member differed on this, though. The note of dissent, which is a part of the report, says the task force has lost its focus by trying to find solutions to larger issues such as inequity and social injustice. Co-existence is utopian, the dissenting voice says.

Spicy and fast – paced

The baseline says “nice is out....naughty is in”, and in keeping with the theme, Yash Raj music has music directors Salim-Sulaiman creating a vibrant score for Neal ‘N’ Nikki.

The album has six tracks including a different version of the title track. (Look like no music album is complete without a couple of versions of its own songs).The album kicks off with the title track, which is fast racing up on the popularity charts. The lyrics are contemporary but kindly explain what is I’m the Neal – poetic licence? This foot-tapping number is followed by the mediocre Halla re! Though it talks about girl power, it does not have the required punch.

I’m in love is your typical mush stuff with not much to write about. Though it has all the signs of becoming a chartbuster, the mix of Punjabi –English does not work too well.

Ankh ladiye is a formula Punjabi song with definite appeal. But the album’s unique and best feature is saved for the last. The English ballad I just wanna spend my life with you, sung by Clinton and Dominique Cerejo (who have done a good job of it), it a heart stealer.

1.19 Film Review-I

Harshikaa Udasi

It’s for real

The Hindi film industry’s new applause-getter: true-to-life cinema.

By Neelam Gupta

Playing with history has been a staple for the Hindi film industry. But what does it do when dealing with current reality of the harsher variety? Do the film-makers play it up or gloss over it? Or do they portray facts in a manner that clicks instantly with the viewer, thanks to a clever mixing of truthfulness to real-life events and creative augmentation? If recent films like Parzania and Amu are anything to go by, this seems to be the case.

“There is a very thin dividing line between fact and fiction as most films are inspired by real-life incidents,” says Rahul Dholakia, who directed Parzania. “But one needs to be extremely careful while dealing with films that express extreme reactions. Parzania details a true-life incident and deals with the trauma of a couple. (The Parsi couple’s child goes missing during the Gujarat riots.) Instead of focusing on the horror of the events, I have focused on the horror of personal loss as an outcome of the event. Whenever there is religious intolerance or a natural calamity, it is the innocent who suffer.”

Parzania, starring Naseeruddin Shah, Sarika and Emmy award winning actor Corin Nemec received rave reviews in festivals abroad for the sensitive handling of the subject. Parzania is not an isolated film that deals with the sensitivity of religious or political intolerance. Amu, Dansh, Hazaron Khwaishen Aisi, Black Friday, Final Solution, Dil Se Pooch Kidhar Janna Hai, Tango Charlie, Pani and Sheen are all in the list.

But won’t these films fan the flames of madness again? Ashok Pandit who made Sheen on the exploitation of Kashmiri Pandits and Pani on the horrors of the Mumbai floods, begs to differ. “These films are based on research,” he says. “They have a balanced point of view. They are meant to show reality a it is. Nowhere is the maker thinking of instigating revenge, so why would it show in the film?”

So what does a writer think of when he is writing such a sensitive story?" The film should not provoke," says Madhur Bhandarkar who has made socially –relevant films like Chandni Bar and Page3. "I look at the human angle because that is of prime importance. If you are human, then compassion comes automatically." Hazaron Khwaishen Aisi directed Sudhir Mishra feels sensitivity is very subjective. "Our audience is smart enough to ignore a provocation, but we must not try to camouflage the truth. Victimisation has to be brought to the notice of people so that it is not repeated again. Stark films provoke thought. Such films need to be shown again and again so that they sicken you and put you off such acts. Films can raise questions; they do not look for solutions."

1.20 Film Review-II

Dil Se Pooch Kidhar Jaana Hai
Directed by Shrirang Dhawale

Shrirang Dhawale's Dil Se Pooch Kidhar Jaana Hai is set against the backdrop of the Mumbai riots. "But I am not playing with the situation," he says. "It is the story of two people – a Hindu boy and a Muslim girl – who separate at the time of this religious unrest. Later when they meet, their lives have completely changed. It shows that the pain generated out of violence lasts for many years. It is not a dark film but it talks about the darkness."

What is the take of the Censor Board on such films? While Black Friday or Final Solution does not get the green signal, many others are released with a U certificate. What is the criterion? Says Rakesh Upadhyay, regional officer at the board: "A film has to show both sides of the coin. Everything has to come naturally without sounding provocative. In Lal Salaam, Nandita Das uses very abusive language. But it was part of her growth and her suffering. It was not there to excite the front benchers. So we gave it a U certificate. Parzania is the story of a family; it tells people how wrong this kind of madness is. It is not so much the subject as the art of story –telling and the effect of the film that matters. "Agrees Madhur: "My films have dealt with abusive language, paedophilia and the politics-underworld synergy, but I never had to face problems with the censor."

1.21 Film Review-III

DANSH
Directed by Kanika Verma

But will the scriptwriter not be tempted to use volatile dialogues to draw applause in the cinema hall? Kanika Verma, director of Dansh, does not agree. "The way my film ends, it cannot instigate. My heroine is pregnant and she is nurturing hope. She comes from the section of society in Mizoram that believes in forgiving and that lives by strong ethics. Dansh shows that anger is not the solution to problems. In fact, the Censor Board gave it a U certificate and deleted only one scene that was constitutionally incorrect."

Dansh starring Kay Kay Menon, Sonali Kulkarni and Aditya Srivastava, is about a young couple who get friendly with a doctor. Later, the wife realizes that the doctor is the one who raped her repeatedly in a refugee camp. The story deals with the three individuals' reactions to the terror in their lives.

Are the artistes affected by the portrayal of such trauma, particularly as they are mimicking real life situations? "Why should it affect you but because you have placed the character" argues Aditya, who also plays the lead in Dil Se Pooch Kidhar Jaana Hai. "You are just acting. By enacting it, you just increase your tolerance and forgiveness levels."

Films like Tango Charlie do not just encompass the miseries of one society. The film, starring Bobby Deol and Ajay Devgan as soldiers, moves from Manipur to Gujarat to West Bengal and finally, Kashmir. "All the time they are surrounded by gore, blood and hatred," says director Mani Shankar. "But they try to maintain their innocence and love of life. Nowhere have I tried to glorify pain or show them as heroes. They are Army men who are just trying to do their duty."

Doing their duty seems to be what these conscientious film-makers are up to as well – by bringing the injustice done to people to the notice of the common man.

1.22 Let Us Sum Up

After going through this unit, you have a clear idea of how to write articles, minutes, memoranda and book reviews. All these exercises come under practical application of the writing skill of English in various fields.

1.23 Key Words

- Article:** Article is a kind of academic writing in which one writes to focus on a particular title with all possible elaboration citing details of the source (book, journals, etc.) consulted for the purpose.
- Minutes:** Minutes of a meeting is a reporting or record of the various stages of the progress of meeting. It highlights the key points of discussion, argument, observation, suggestion, etc. that takes place in a meeting.
- Memorandum :** A memorandum is a body of expectations, aspiration, dreams and demand of the people who submit it to draw attention of those in positions and power. It may contain grievances, unfulfilled needs, etc. and to the language and should be polite and strategic.
- Reviews :** Reviews may be of Book, Film, short stories, etc, published in newspapers, periodicals and that particular book, film, etc. to the reader/guidance giving brief critical response to the work.

1.24 Check Your Learning

1. Write an academic article on the “Importance of Higher Education and the Present Crisis.”
2. As a press correspondent you attend a meeting of “District Adult Education and District Sarva Siksha Abhiyan.” Prepare the minutes of the meeting for record and reporting.
3. As the Gawnburha of your village, you have to place the demand of your villagers to the Deputy Commissioner of the district regarding education facility, poor road condition and poor health centre. Prepare a memorandum citing your grievances.
4. Write a book review of the book ‘God of Small Things’.
5. Write a film review of the film ‘Kauri’.

1.25 Suggested Readings

- Abraham, M.H : *A Glossary of Literary Terms*
Mekay, Sandral : *Teaching Grammar- Form, Function +
Technique*
Mary + Aloan Waters : *Study Task in English*

1.26 Hints/Answers to Questions in Check Your Progress

Check Your Progress-I

For answers to all these questions see section 1.4

Check Your Progress-II

For answers to all these questions see section 1.5

Check Your Progress-III

For answers to all these questions see section 1.9 and 1.10

Check Your Progress-IV

For answers to all these questions see section 1.11 and 1.12

Unit-II

READING AND WRITING ACADEMIC TEXTS: TEXTBOOKS, JOURNAL ARTICLES, WORKSHOP/SEMINAR REPORTS; EXTRACTS FROM TEXTS

Structure

- 2.0 Objectives
- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Articles for Textbooks and Journals
 - 2.2.1 Work for You
 - 2.2.2 Useful Hints/Tips
 - 2.2.3 Model-I
 - 2.2.4 Model-II
 - 2.2.5 Model-III
 - 2.2.6 Model-IV
 - 2.2.7 Model-V
 - 2.2.8 Model-VI
 - 2.2.9 Model-VII
 - 2.2.10 Model-VIII
 - 2.2.11 Model-IX
- 2.3 Writing Reports as Workshops and Seminars
 - 2.3.1 Work for You
 - 2.3.2 Tips
 - 2.3.3 Model-I
 - 2.3.4 Model-II
- 2.4 Writing C.V
 - 2.4.1 Work for You/Tips
 - 2.4.2 Model-I
 - 2.4.3 Model-II
- 2.5 Writing Agenda
 - 2.5.1 Work for You/Tips
 - 2.5.2 Model-I
 - 2.5.3 Model-II
 - 2.5.4 Model-III
- 2.6 Writing from Diagrams, Charts, etc.
 - 2.6.1 Work for You/Tips
- 2.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 2.8 Key Words
- 2.9 Check Your Learning
- 2.10 Suggested Readings

2.0 Objectives

After reading this Unit, you should be able to:

- learn to write articles for textbooks and journals;
- learn to write reports on workshops and seminars;
- write/reproduce extracts from larger texts on the points or titles or details provided;
- write from given diagrams, tables, charts and graphs after carefully understanding the same; and
- reproduce the above (I to V) in various tests and examinations.

2.1 Introduction

Texts of academic nature form an important part of the course of advanced students studying English for academic and creative purposes. In the present Unit, we will read and write academic texts. We will read articles in textbooks/journals, workshop and seminar reports and try to write those. We will read extracts of texts and also from given texts we will write/reproduce extracts following given particulars or points or titles. We will get familiar to C.V.s and Agenda. We will also learn to prepare write-ups on the basis of diagrams, tables, charts and graphs after comprehending those.

2.2 Articles for Textbooks and Journals

2.2.1 Work for You

Read the following pieces (1 to 5).

- Observe that each piece has an introduction, a description and a conclusion;
- Observe how the topic under the title given has been very briefly and effectively introduced (in the introduction part).
- Observe how the discussion of the topic has been organised (in the description part) with points and sub-points with explanation, elaboration and examples;
- See also how effectively and concisely the conclusion has been provided.

2.2.2 Useful Hints/Tips

While going through the pieces (Models 1 to 5), you will find that

- i) Introduction parts have been marked for your convenience;
- ii) Also you are shown how care has been taken to make the introduction fit in well in the context of the topic of the article (Text(s)/Journal(s));
- iii) In the description parts in each article, points and sub-points are underlined to indicate that the topic could be discussed more convincingly with these points and sub-points;
- iv) The description parts contain all examples, explanations and details to make the article convincing;
- v) The article has been summed up by way of a conclusion or concluding note;
- vi) The conclusion in each piece is very brief. It presents in the fewest possible words and sentences the gist or central finding or important findings or suggestions related to the topic of the article.

Check Your Progress-I

1. Write an article for a journal on the topic of "Aids Awareness."
2. The Volker Report recently tabled in the Indian Parliament has raised quite a serious interest among the people of the country. Write an article for a journal on the said report.

2.2.3 Model-I

Are You Smart?

A) How I Got Smart

A common misconception among youngsters attending school is that their teachers were child prodigies. Who else but a bookworm would grow up to be a teacher anyway?

I tried to explain to my students that their image of me as a devotee of homework during my own adolescence was a bit out of focus. Au contraire! I hated compulsory education with a passion. I could never quite accept the notion of having to go to school while the fish were biting.

Consequently, my marks were somewhat bearish. That's how my father, who dabbled in the stock market, described them.

But in my second year of high school, something beautiful and exciting happened. Cupid aimed his arrow and struck me squarely in the heart. My princess sat near the pencil sharpener, and that year I ground up enough pencils to fuel a campfire. Alas, Debbie and I were separated not only by five rows of desks, but by about 50 IQ points. She was the top student in English, the apple of Mrs. Larrivee's eye.

Occasionally, Debbie would catch me staring at her, and she would flash a smile, quickening my heartbeat. It was a smile that signaled hope and made me temporarily forget the intellectual gulf that separated us.

One day, an idea came to me. A sign in the shop window offered the first volume of a set of encyclopaedias at the introductory price of 29 cents. The remaining volumes would cost \$2.49 each, but it was no time to be cynical.

I purchased Volume – 1 – Aardvark to Asteroid – and began my venture into the world of knowledge. I would become chief egghead in English and sweep the princess off her feet with a surge of erudition I had it all planned.

My first opportunity came one day in the cafeteria line. I looked behind me and there she was. "Hi," she said, I wet my lips and replied, "Know where anchovies come from?"

She seemed surprised. "No, I don't."

I breathed a sigh of relief. "The anchovy lives in salt water and is rarely found in fresh water." I had to talk fast, so that I could get all the facts in before we reached the cash register. "Fishermen catch anchovies in the Mediterranean Sea and along the Atlantic coast near Spain and Portugal."

"How fascinating!" said Debbie.

"The anchovy is related to the herring. It is thin and silvery in colour. It has along snout and a very large mouth."

Debbie shook her head in disbelief. It was obvious I had made an impression.

A few days later, during a fire drill, I sidled up to her. "Ever been to the Aleutian Islands?" I asked.

"Never have," she replied.

"Might be a nice place to visit, but I certainly wouldn't want to live there," I said.

"Why not?" asked Debbie, playing into my hands.

“Well, the climate is forbidding. There are no trees on any of the 70 or so islands in the group. The ground is rocky and very little plant life can grow on it.”

“I don’t think I’d even care to visit,” she said.

The fire drill was over and we began to file into the building, so I had to speed it up to get the natives in. “The Aleuts are short and sturdy and have brown skin and black hair. They subsist on fish and sea mammals.”

Debbie’s hazel eyes widened in amazement. She was beginning to realize that she wasn’t dealing with an ordinary person.

Luck was on my side too. One day I spotted Debbie sitting at a library table, absorbed in a crossword puzzle. She was apparently stumped on a word, I leaned over and asked if I could help.

“Four-letter word for Oriental female servant,” Debbie said.

“Try ayah,” I said, quick as a flash.

Debbie filled in the blanks, then turned to stare at me in amazement. “I don’t believe it,” she said.

And so it went, that glorious, amorous, joyous second year Debbie seemed to relish our little conversations and hung on my every word. Naturally, the more I read, the more my confidence grew. I expatiated freely on such topics as adenoids, air brakes and arthritis.

Among my classmates, too, I was developing a reputation as a wheeler-dealer in data. One day, during a discussion of Coleridge’s “The Ancient Mariner,” we came across the word albatross.

“Can anyone tell us what an albatross is?” asked Mrs Larrivee.

My hand shot up. “The albatross is a large bird that lives mostly in ocean regions below the equator, but may be found in the north Pacific as well. The albatross measures as long as 1.25 meters or more and has the greatest wing-spread of any sea bird. It feeds on the surface of the ocean, where it catches squid. The albatross is a voracious eater. When it is full it has trouble getting into the air again.”

There was a long silence in the room. Mrs. Larrivee couldn’t quite comprehend what she had heard. I sneaked a peek at Debbie and gave her a big wink. She beamed proudly and winked back.

My marks edged upward, and my father no longer avoided me when I brought home my report card. I continued reading the encyclopaedia diligently, packing more and more into my brain.

What I failed to perceive was that Debbie all this while was going steady with a third year student from a neighbouring school – a hockey player with a low academic average. The revelation hit me hard, and for a while I felt like disgorging and forgetting everything I had learnt. I had saved enough money to buy volume II- Asthma to Bullfinch – but was strongly tempted to invest in a hockey stick instead. I felt not only hurt, but betrayed. Like Agamemnon, but with less dire consequences.

In time I recovered from my wounds. Although the original incentive was gone, I continued poring over the encyclopaedias, as well as an increasing number of other books. Having savoured the heady wine of knowledge, I could not now alter my course. For “A little learning is a dangerous thing, drink deep, or taste not the Pierian spring.”

So wrote Alexander Pope, as recorded in Volume XIV – Paprika to Pterodactyl

2.2.4 Model-II

Agriculture

The Gen (i) e is Out Again

The cultivation of Bt cotton, a genetically modified seed, in Gujarat opens and old can of worms

By Rakesh Kalshian

When news washed up last week about farmers in Gujarat farming Bt cotton ‘on the sky’, it again fanned the smouldering debate over genetically modified (GM) crops. The government is still

wondering whether to burn down the illegally grown Bt cotton on some 10,000 acres of farmland in the state, But it won

The easy as the crop is valued at crores of rupees and the Gujarat government is unlikely to antagonize the farmers.

It all began earlier this month when Mumbai-based Mahyco, India's biggest seed company and the sole applicant for permission to sell GM cotton seeds in India, confirmed its suspicious about the sale of illegal GM cotton seeds in Gujarat,. Raju Barwale, MD of Mahyco, shot off a letter to the Union government's department of biotechnology (DBT) and other authorities concerned demanding punitive action against the offender. The DBT's Genetic Engineering Approval Committee (GEAC) in turn asked the Gujarat burn the crop. Experts, however, believe that by the time the government makes up its mind on the issue, there will be no crop to speak of – farmers have already started picking it and selling it off.

Seed business being what it is – secretive,, cut-throat and unscrupulous – the clandestine supply of the as-yet-disallowed genetically engineered Bt cotton seeds doesn't come as a surprise. What is intriguing, however, is that the Ahmedabad-based company Navbharat Seeds, run by seed-breeder D.B. Desai, has freely sold these seeds for the past three crop seasons since 1998 and nobody –rival seed companies, scientists, anti-GM activists, and government officials – smelled a rat!

Pushp Bhargava, eminent molecular biologist and a campaigner for a cautious release of GM crops into our fields, doesn't find this surprising at all. "In fact, I've evidence to suggest that many of the cotton farmer suicides in Andhra in 1998 were partly because of the failure of Bt. Cotton sold clandestinely by Monsanto. The problem is even if we knowk there is no autonomous laboratory which can confirm our suspicions. It was found out this time because Mahyco has a vested interest in it."

The seed in question, Navbharat 151, appears to be a variant of the genetically altered Bt cotton created by inserting a gene from *Bacillus thuringiensis* (Bt), a naturally-occurring soil bacterium, so that the plant produces Bt toxins which kill bollworms. The seed was being supplied openly after it was registered with the Gujarat agriculture department in 1998. Though the seed packets are not longer available. Farmers say the seed was price at Rs.550 per 450 gm but was actually sold for Rs.800-1,200 in the black market because of its demand. Regular hybrids cost Rs.200-250 for the same quantity. The company also claimed a yield of 22 quintals acre against for home –grown hybrids.

Another salient characteristic of the seed was its early maturity: 140-150 days as compared to 170-200 days for regular hybrids. The short maturity period would, claimed the company enable the farmer to go in for another crop during winter once the cotton was picked. Most importantly, of course, the seed claimed to be resistant to bollworm.

Industry watches find it hard to believe that Mahyco wasn't aware of illegal selling of Bt cotton seeds. Says a consultant to the Gujarat State Seed Producers Association, insisting on anonymity: "It wasn't in its interest to draw undue attention to Navbharat Seed's improprieties as the MNC couldn't have claimed infringement of its patent right in India which is yet to pass the Plant Variety Protection Bill. This incident is likely to further delay their entry into India."

Be that as it may, experts worry that as many as 10,000-13,000 acres may have been sown with Bt cotton in Gujarat alone. And if suggestions of the seed having been sold in Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh are true, the area covered could be appreciably larger. Protagonists of Bt cotton are already chastising the government for robbing the farmer by not hastening its commercialization. Conversely, wide use may also mean a serious engagement with the risks posed by GM crops.

Although GM cotton is commercially grown in the US, China, Argentina, Australia and Mexico, it doesn't necessarily mean that India should follow suit. In fact, the EU has a three-year moratorium on GM crops.

The Bt cotton debate in particular and the GM controversy in general have been vexed by claims and claims. Proponents of Bt cotton argue that in India where insects eat up 50 per cent of cotton yield,

where 70 per cent of all pesticide use is in cotton and where pesticides make up 50 per cent of production cost in cotton, Bt cotton could greatly benefit cotton farmers.

Critics of Bt cotton disagree. Argues Devinder Sharma, food and trade policy analyst: “The pesticides industry and the agricultural scientific community have made us believe that spraying of still more potent chemicals was the only answer. The result is that the worm has developed resistance to all kind of chemical and pesticide cocktails. We’re now being told that GM cotton is the only solution to the growing menace of pesticide-resistance. What will happen when the insect develops resistance to the Bt cotton? Will we introduce scorpion genes into the plant then, as has been done in maize In America?”

Critics have also cited several problems with the ongoing Bt cotton trials in India:

- * The trial data is not made public and the regulatory process is not transparent.
- * The high yields claimed by Mahyco are questionable as the crop was sown two-three months late due to delayed permission. This means that the crops were not exposed to the brunt of pest attack and hence the high yields aren’t entirely due to Bt. So, this June the GEAC asked Mahyco to repeat its trials for another year.
- * Trials were conducted in one-acre plots though even 100 acre plots are considered to be too small for safe extrapolation from field trials to large-scale cultivation. However, this June, the GEAC asked Mahyco to conduct large-scale trials on 100-acre plots, which are under way.
- * Trials over two seasons were deemed sufficient. In the US trials happen over six seasons.
- * As plot sizes are small in India, it is not possible for farmers to sow non-Bt crop in a portion of his plot so that any resistance to Bt cotton could be registered and hence checked.

Critics further point out that alternative approaches to the problem of pesticide-resistance haven’t been fully explored. Says Sharma: “It is being repeatedly said that Bt cotton is a part of the integrated pest management (IPM) practices. But that IPM package has never been divulged. Scientists are not even aware of an experiment in Madhya Pradesh wherein, 1,100 farmers were growing cotton without chemicals and still getting higher yields.” This mutual distrust between activists and industry/government has made the debate even more shrill and confusing for the lay person.

Meanwhile Desai seems to be on the run. His being incommunicado has left many questions unanswered – origins of the seed, accomplices in the crime, and irregularities with respect to other GM crops. Clearly, with the controversy over Bt cotton taking such a sordid turn, all this and more needs to be investigated in great detail. But that won’t happen unless the DBT and the seed industry come clean.

2.2.5 Model-III

Cricket
Root out ageism

By Dean Jones

FOR QUITE some time now, there has been a speculation about whether this Australian team is due for its old-age pension. This may seem a bit rude, yes, but in reality this is the oldest Australian team since the mid 1930s with an average age of 32.5. No doubt it is a huge concern for the Australian selectors but it is very hard for them to drop any senior player just because he is showing signs of age, notwithstanding his good form.

There’s more. The selectors are always worried about being sued for wrongful dismissal. It will be a sad reality when a player sues his country for being dropped because of his age. Many players make millions every year from the game. Senior players enjoy themselves along the way by beating everyone in sight, so why would they leave?: would you? Spare a thought for the selectors when they

think of dropping a senior player so that an ageing Australian team can remain strong on a fresh pair of legs.

I am sure Australian fans do not want the ‘Windies Syndrome’ to afflict their team. It was the result of an exodus, with 10 senior players pushed out or retiring within 18 months in the mid-90s. This huge void converted the Windies from the most feared team in the world to rabble.

The Aussies have learnt from that, in 1984, the Australians lost Dennis Lillee, Rod Marsh and Greg Chappell to retirement. It took five years for them to reassemble some sort of a competitive unit. Now Cricket Australia has an open policy of not retiring more than one senior player per calendar year.

In 1992, Geoff Marsh retired. Allan Border and I did so in 1994. David Boon and Craig McDermott in 1996. Mark Taylor in 1999. Ian Healy in 2000, Michael Slater in 2001, Mark Waugh in 2003 and his brother Steve in 2004.

So who will it be next? Perhaps not in this order But Darren Lehmann is feeling the pinch. Glenn McGrath presumably has two years to go; Shane Warne and Jason Gillespie probably have three or four, while Adam Gilchrist, Mathew Hayden, Justin Langer, Damien Martyn and Ricky Ponting have four or so years under their belts.

All of which makes it amply clear that Australia will not suffer the Windies Syndrome. NO doubt Michael Clarke and Simon Katich will take over some permanent batting spots, while Brad Williams, Sean Tait and Ashley Noffke will be the new quicks. The major problem for the selectors is to find a replacement for Shane Warne.

One factor a lot of countries are overlooking is the strong Australian medical staffs, which takes pride in taking care of each player. Cricket Australia takes care of players’ families, who often cope with long absences. It also provides creches of players’ children at the grounds and also pays for their families to go on tour when they can because they recognize the importance of what the family brings to a players’ game.

Yes, we can criticize the age of a player but we cannot replace professional athletes who take great pride in their game and are passionate about playing for their country. Why is it that I see a very young Indian team make four changes owing to sickness and soft tissue injuries? Why is it that I see a young lad get an opportunity in Chennai but break down with dehydration when only the day before he has witnessed an ageing Jason Gillespie bowl 35 overs and then bat for four hours without showing any signs of injury or fatigue?

Playing cricket for your country successfully is not just about skill or fitness. It mainly comes from a player who has a big heart. It comes from within. That is how you judge a good Test cricketer – do not look at his body, have a look at the little things he does for his won game and his care for his team-mates.

(Dean Jones is a commentator and former Australian cricketer.)

2.2.6 Model-IV

Development
Gritty water-collectors

Last year there was drought-wrecked faces, today villagers are smiling in Aurangabad and Sangli in Maharashtra

By B. Krishnakumar

On a rainy day in October 2001, Aurangabad Collector V.Radha, agriculture department officer

T.S. Mote and his colleague walked into a nullah in Garaj village in Vaijapur taluka. School students joined the motley group and they began heaving cement bags filled with sand midstream, slowing the flow of water. Though the flow continued, their main purpose was served; thanks to the micro-reservoir, water would seep into the surrounding farm lands.

The message that Radha, the chief motivator of this unique water conservation project, sent to the locals was: A bit of Gandhian shramdan can work wonders.

It was an on-the-job-promotional for Amrutdhara Jal Abhyan for it drew more villagers to the project. Similar blocks were placed in monsoon streams in the villages. The effect: the water-table in the area rose. Now it was time to blast wells, some 60 feet deep, other 20 ft. Today all are full, thanks to unrelenting rains this season.

More, his colleagues and the farmers say “all this happened because of Radha mada,”, who despite doomsayers in the administration, pressed on with the project. “Even I was skeptical about the water preservation idea first,” recalls Mote, now an enthusiastic convert.

Radha’s first task was to get the villagers to think out of the system. A team of farmers and agriculture officers were sent to Dewas in Madhya Pradesh to study water conservation through people participation.

Her unconventional idea did not find favour with politicians, but crucial support came from the then ‘chief minister Vilasrao Deshmukh, her boss then divisional commissioner, V. Ramani and Vijay Singhal, collect of adjoining Hingoli district. “It was like V all three have ‘V’ in their names for victory,” she says with a laugh.

The villagers built mud and concrete bunds to create artificial ponds. As the scheme spread across villages, the government chipped in with Employment Guarantee Scheme for purchasing cement bags, sand and other raw materials. The official acknowledgement of its success came with Irrigation Minister Dr. Padamsinh Patil visiting the sites earlier this year. Radha had by then been posted to Pune.

The villages continue with the self-help scheme with total commitment. Among those who worked actively with Mote was Krishna Panday, known the ‘motivator’ of the village.

Today, Krishna and his family have a 15-acre multi-crop farm where cotton, bajra, maize, lady finger, tomato, moong, palak, kothmeer and onion are cultivated, bringing in lakhs of rupees annually. “Earlier we used to work in other farms and got only Rs.10,000,” says Krishna.

For Jadhav, the silt from the newly dug wells and ponds is cheap fertilizer for his one-hectare farm. The water preservation project has also helped increase his cotton produce – 10 quintals per hectare. He is also into mulberry cultivation and vermiculture. All the 410 farmer families in Kasab have farms spread over 350 hectares. In the absence of a perennial irrigation facility, most of them went for drought-tolerant mulberry and silkworm-rearing. Initially, they worked with a big mulberry farmer in the area; soon 12 cluster villages took it up. The success story came to be known as the ‘Malkapur pattern’ – water conservation, sericulture and worm composting – in integrated development.

Over the last two years, teams of farmers and agriculture department officers from within the state and outside have come to study it first hand. “This less expensive and low-tech method could be adopted by the farmers of the Vidarbha ‘suicide belt,’” says Vijay Chowdhary of Kultabad. In Garaj village, 40 km from Aurangabad, Digambar B. More, 23, who had just completed his graduation, encouraged by the five proactive self-help groups in his village, decided to become a farmer. All the wells have been regenerated, there is a collective for women’s welfare, and a 200-member financial society. So far loans have been granted to 90 unemployed youths and farmers.

The project has given a ‘can-do-it’ spirit to the villagers, School teacher Satish Patil has started roof-top water harvesting in their modest home. It has cost him only Rs. 350.

IAS probationer Prajakta Lavankare, is closely monitoring the water regeneration programme initiated by Radha. “First there are the short-term benefits. Then the idea of water conservation gets into their system. Then follows soil conservation and farm bunding. First impressions count,” she says.

Over 500 km away, drought-hit Vaijapur “had this tanker-water mentality”, says Sangli Collector Manisha Mhaiskar. In December 2003, she had a word with officers of the village agriculture department: “You belong here. Decide whether you want to change your place or not.” The team then took a vow to work for change. “The attitude of villagers changed from asking how much will I get to what can I contribute to the village, taluka or district,” she says. Within five months the water tankers stopped coming, ponds, and new and regenerated wells ensured a year-round supply. Shahaji Yadav dug a 60-foot well in his 10-acre farm, one fourth of which is a vineyard. Thanks to earthen bunds on a stream uphill, water seepage increased and the well is full.

In Home Minister R.R. Patil’s village in Sangli, a series of bunds, percolation tanks and continuous control trenches around a hill range are feeding at least 1,000 wells.

The spin-offs from water conservation are impressive; farmers are into multi-crop farming and have diversified into sericulture and vermiculture. In Malkapur, Sharif Pathan makes Rs.10, 000 a month as a sericulturist. Deepak Shinde, 50, of Amaravati, attends agriculture meetings all over the world. Now there are 250 farmers in cotton farming in 3,200 acres. The high point came when they began exporting organic cotton-made T-shirts, contracted to manufacturing units in Tamil Nadu’s textile city Tirupur, Down in Malegaon in Sangli, Gitaram Kale and 11 other s set up a worm-breeding centre in November 2003.

Advocate Babasaheb Mulik, eestatic about the greening in the angli Zilla Parishad, says: “Last year there were worried faces here – will it work or not? Today, there are smiling faces,” he says.

Governor Mohammed Fazal, after touring the born-again farms on August 16, applauded Collector Manisha and handed over a cheque of Rs. 25,000 for a work well done. He also released Jalja, a book on the project written by Manisha.

Incidentally, Radha is now documenting Manisha’s work in Sangli district. These two proactive bureaucrats have proved what can be achieved with a change of working styles. As Radha aptly put it: “I am not a collector of the British Raj.”

2.2.7 Model-V

On the Ball

A peace project involves cricket in bridging police-public distrust

By Himanshi Dhawan

It’s A Saturday Afternoon And The Last Few stragglers make their way home from the verdant Police Gymkhana lawns. There’s little evidence of the joy excitement and frustration that the players witnessed in the four-day “Cricket for Peace” tournament. Organized by the Mohalla Committee Movement ‘Trust (MCMT) in conjunction with the Mumbai Police, the tournament rose out of the betrayal, distrust and wounds of the 1992 Mumbai riots. Initiated to foster communal harmony and repair strained relations between the police and public, the tournament is a modest success today. “Our focus is to use cricket as a medium to encourage interaction between the police and those from the lower socio-economic strata. They are the most vulnerable section and need to be guided.” Says Julio Ribeiro. Former police commissioner who conceptualized project.

To achieve this goal, the tournament rules make it mandatory for each participating team to include at least one policeman and two members of the Muslim community. Begun with 30 teams in 1994, the tournament today pits 69 teams and 1,600 participants from Mumbai’s 72 police stations against each other.

Gazing at the players dotting the Islam, Parsi, Catholic and Police Gymkhana grounds, one is reminded that the event is not about number churning, sponsored shirts and free soft drinks alone. "It is important to enjoy playing with each other," says Abdul Jabar, 32, from Andheri whose team won the award for exemplary sportsmanship. Jabbar would know – he plays with death every day as a Bollywood stunt man or the likes of Salman Khan and Govinda. For Jabbar, playing the game with dignity is more important than achieving personal triumphs in terms of runs scored and wickets taken. Constable Manoj Satarkar from D.N. Nagar, whose team won the trophy for the fourth time this year, believes in using different means – "fighter's spirit" is his preferred epithet, to gain similar ends. "I support brotherhood and cooperation but still tell my team that when we are on the ground we play to win. This effort has brought our community closer. What would earlier have required force can now be solved by dialogue,"he adds.

A senior police inspector, while admitting that acquaintance with the local lads comes in handy, feels there is still a long way to go. "People are indifferent. If there is a petty theft in a locality and there are 100 eyewitnesses, even now only four would come and complain. We need public cooperation to prevent crime," he says. But some see progress. Says Satish Sawant, an organizer and former police commissioner: "We have seen in the past that force is not completely effective. As part of the police, I know the ground realities. Things were very bad after the riots. "Sawant sees all these as part of the continuing effort to ensure that Mumbai never sees another riot on the basis of caste, religion or creed.

Meanwhile, post-match meetings between the police and the players, arranged by the MCMT, are making some headway. Says Ribeiro: "We were even able to motivate a couple of youngsters to join the police. This is a big step considering the kind of temptation they face and the backgrounds they come from." For all its success, the MCMT retains its firm stand of not involving politicians. Maria Ishwaran, a social worker with the trust, says, "We do not have a political agenda. We go to the houses in our area as volunteers and try to collect funds as best we can. It would be easier to get resources and funding with political backing but then our purpose of helping others will e lost."

The MCMT runs several other projects like tailoring classes for girls, a women's centre and computer classes for children. It is also active in tackling the civic problems in its area. But don't expect miracles. The MCMT's primary objective is only to resolve people's socio-economic problems though personal efforts. As the speeches end and the "Cricket for Peace" winners proudly hold high the shield. It is anyone's guess whether there is an echo in their hearts, not just of the victory shout but also of the message of hope for Mumbai.

2.2.8 Model-VI

DERA NATUNG

Death of a born leader

Death came untimely to Dera Natung, young and energetic leader of Arunachal Pradesh in the shape of a helicopter crash. A tribute

By Deepak Bezbaruah

The tragic death of Dera Natung, education minister of Arunachal Pradesh in a helicopter crash at Sessa near the Tenga Valley in Western Arunachal Pradesh on March eight, has created a void in the political and social scenario of the hill state.

Natung, who was just 31 years of age, was killed along with six others, who included state education secretary Ms Sange Lhaden, a young IAS officer hailing from Sikkim, S.K. Jain, IAS, deputy secretary in the union ministry of human resources development, Nandita Judge, a vice-president of the Times of India group of newspapers, Nityananda Trihan, a noted social worker associated with the Art of Living Foundation, and two crew members, Captain V.K. Dheer and Captain R P Singh, both of Pawan Hans.

The ill-fated helicopter was on its way from Itanagar to Rupa, Seppa, Tezpur and back when it suddenly lost contact after about 30 minutes of take off, only to be found the next day at Sessa in West Kameng district.

Though helicopter crashes have been not uncommon in the state, this is the second occasion in four years that a minister had died. Earlier, it was union minister of state for defence MVM Somu, who was killed in a similar crash near Tawang. Dera Natung, born on July 1 1964, was the eldest son of Sipai Natung and Yatung Natung at Veo village of Papu Valley under Pakkekessang in East Kameng district. A brilliant student, he passed his high school examinations from the Imphal Sainik School in 1979, and then higher secondary from the Bomdila 1983, he passed his BA from the JN College Pasighat, after which he did his MA from Punjab University in 1985.

Born with a tremendous leadership quality, Dera Natung first proved his mettle when he was made the general secretary of All East Kameng District Student's Union in 1980-82. Soon he became the secretary of All East Kameng Welfare and Cultural Organization (1981-82). One of the founders of the All Nyishi Students' Union, he became the treasurer of the all Arunachal Pradesh Students' Union (AAPSU) in 1980-82, to become its advisor in 1983-84.

From 1983 to 1985, he was the president of the ANSU, and after completing his MA, he joined All India Radio as announcer cum duty officer at Itanagar During 1988-90, Dera Natung was vice-president of the Nyishi Elite Society.

On the political front, he was general secretary of the East Kameng District Congress Committee in 1988-90, and in March 1990, was elected MLA for the first time. The same year, he was appointed minister for Information and Public Relations as well as Tourism. From 1992 to 1995, he was minister for art and culture as well as social welfare in the state.

In 1995, he was re-elected to the Assembly, and was made minister for fisheries. IPR and research from March 1995 to August 1996. From 1996, he was treasurer of the Arunachal Pradesh Congress Committee for one year. Then he was elevated to APCC vice-president in June 1998, to be finally appointed president in June 1999.

Elected MLA for the third successive term in 1999, he was made minister for education in October 1999, in which post he continued till his tragic death on May 8.

His first love was Arunachal Pradesh and as IPR minister Takam Sanjoy has said, Dera Natung was born to serve the state and its people. He had a vision for the tribal people of the state and had embarked upon an ambitious strategy to spread education rapidly all over Arunachal Pradesh. On that fateful journey too, he was in a mission to inspect the progress made by elementary education in the Kameng region. Earlier, he had prepared Vision-2000, a comprehensive work-plan for spread of education in the state.

A keen social worker, he was also associated with the North East Research Foundation as its Chairman since 1995. He was awarded the Lok Sree award for Manav Sewa (service towards humanity) by the Institute of Economic Studies, Bangalore in February, 1992.

His death has left a huge void in the state that is beginning to step into real development under the leadership of Mukut Mithi. As president of the APCC, he was the most active leader in receiving and hosting Sonia Gandhi, Congress president, who was in Itanagar to grace the occasion of the Mukut Mithi government completing one year in October last year. Survived by three school-going children (two sons and a daughter, death has definitely snatched away Dera Natung. But his ideals and his mission are alive, to help the state march ahead in the right direction.

While there has been widespread shock at the tragic death of a young and promising leader of the state, as a mark of respect and to keep the memory of the departed leader alive for the future, the state government of Arunachal Pradesh has decided to rename the government college at Itanagar as the Dera Natung Government Degree College.

Making this announcement a few days after Natung's death, state Information and Public Relations minister Takam Sanoy has said that not only Arunachal Pradesh, but the entire North-Eastern region has lost a dynamic leader.

The state government's IPR department on its part has prepared a 15 minute video documentary film on the life and contributions of the departed leader.

Chief Minister Mukut Mithi on his part even compared him with Mahatma Gandhi, going by his ideals and self-less service towards uplifting the lives of the tribal people.

2.2.9 Model-VII

The Messing-Up of Christian Marriages

Marriages are made in heaven. Many winnable grooms and brides hum this oft-repeated line without giving the serious thought it deserves to what it actually conveys. It presupposes that our Creator will take care of every boy and girl brought forth on planet earth. In His divine wisdom, He knows whom and when we should marry.

The suitability factor had already been settled in heaven. But the ultra-modern lads and lasses of this perverse generation are least bothered to find out the flawless surprises that the Almighty's meticulous match-making keeps in store. They believe more in their hunches, own choices and get carried away by the cares of carnal cravings. It is unfortunate that many marriages are no more made in heaven but in bushy parks, wild parties, dingy cabins of shady hotels and even inside motor cars parked at dark street corners. No wonder, the lusty drives throw godliness out of gear, accelerate immorality and conk out, in a fiasco.

The scripture says, "Marriage is honourable among all (Heb. 13:4)". We give a verbose lip-service to this veritable verse in every wedding worth its feast using it as a vehicle to virtually veil the vices of juvenile variations. Putting on a façade of respectability in designer suits and outlandish gowns with no added Gospel charm of conversation experience and making vow in owlish innocence in the curious glare of a critical mixed crowd, by itself, cannot give the honour due to the Author of our lives. Neither does the acerbic defence of customary adherence to the accursed marital traditions of the pre-Christian era.

A holy God is dishonoured when unholy alliances are solemnly pronounced. Anything lesser than pre-marital chastity and post-engagement innocence will fail to measure up to God's standards of a holy marriage. Everything else is but chasing an unholy mirage.

Despite the religious observance of Bishop Valentine (he was martyred in 270 AD by the Roman emperor for performing marriages in a world of unwedded live-in-affairs)'s day, cases of clandestine elopements are on the risen. Those who take this extremely permissive course given excuses like high cost of wedding or joblessness. But it is spinelessness seduced by a darkened soul and a deadened spirit that motivates the wrong-trend-setting fulfilment of fleshly desire that cocky couples mistake for love-union. God honouring wedding, for sure, can be performed within the constraints of one's shoe-string budget. This secret run-away option may save a few thousands of rupees but makes one pay through the nose in restoration of one's spiritual image.

God says he will judge fornicators (Heb. 13:4). Elopement is a sacrilege to the God-ordained institution of marriage. Every physical union outside it is guilty of fornication and provokes the Almighty's wrath. The incestuous lust of Amnon for his half-sister Tamar ended up in terrible hatred and disastrous blood-shed. Several cordial inter-family ties had been served. If not shattered for keeps, by the notoriously knotty issue of elopement. It is an alarming blot on Christianity that many churches which are meant to custodians of righteousness, liberally legitimize illicit liaisons euphemistically named elopement by staging ministrations of hypocritical make-belief unceremonious ceremony called "second marriage." I know of the second Adam; second stage and second place in exam. But what is second marriage? The first had not even taken place unless you equate mere amorous embrace with marriage.

God never wanted wedlock to be messed up in this manner. In the shade of moments in the meadows of Eden. Jehovah said, "It is not good that the man should be alone, I will make him a help meet for him." (Gen.:18)

Obviously, the first man could not possibly be engaged in a sensible tete-atete with the rattle rousing cattle in the unmanned garden. His capacity to think demanded that he talked and be talked to, loved and loved by someone of his own ilk. Had he wished so, God could have filled the earth with the male species only. But that wouldn't have made a perfect setting. In His institution, He had chosen to increase family by family through marriages, not elopements, in successive generations.

“And the rib, which the Lord had taken from man, made the woman and brought her unto the man (Gen 2:22)”

Here's a guidelines for the ideal relationship of the sexes. Woman was made out of man and for the man.” (I Cor. 1:8.9). This is reason enough for woman to be modest, submissive and silent in the presence of her man. A crowing hen and a whistling woman, it is said, are neither good for God for men. And that the woman was made out of man favours her to be his honour and glory.

When his rib was taken, “God caused a deep sleep to fall upon Adam (Gen 2:22)”. He just lay supine and didn't make any move. Eve was created while he slept and was offered to him on a silver platter.

The match was God's own work. Today, teeny boppers do the matching themselves right under the nonchalant noses of indulgent mothers. Some go by the precarious predictions of horoscope to later discover the scope of horror widen in their marital horizon. Some get swept off the feet by appearances only to learn things the appalling way that appearances are not only deceptive but also defective.

Top-job professionals of the lap-top circle usually fall hook, line and sinker for the bold and the beautiful who in no time make fall-guys, if not mouse of the saccharine iconic suitors. And smart, svelte and scheming nocturnal socialites daringly bend rules to cleverly clinch deals of life-time togetherness with promissory VIPs. But in due course of time, they struggle to fight impulses not to feel helplessly nailed to a shaky wedlock to Very Insecure Persons. So, “lean not on your own understanding (Prov. 3:5)”.

“Therefore shall a man leave his father and his mother, and shall cleave unto his wife and they shall be one flesh (Gen. 2:24)”.

Here lies the high-water of the bond of matrimony. The groom shall more bank emotionally on his parents now that his better-half had arrived. The bride, on her part, is to nationally leave for ever the endearing people her heartstrings are attached to. A fountain of tear-drops gushes forth when she tries to reconcile to the distressing truth that hence-forth, she'll no more have regular meals in the cosy company of the erstwhile family members. Play around the familiar spots in her house of many sweet silly memories with the brothers and sisters she's so excessively fond of or gossip away in gay abandon with the witty friend next door. To sadden her still, she doesn't even know her future will shape up with the guy she is to start life afresh with.

It is therefore absolutely necessary that children fear God and cast all the youthful burdens upon Him. If they don't sort out problems in issue in time with doting daddy and mindful mummy, they are missing out on something they will regret afterwards. They stand to gain much if they seek divine and parental consent before taking the risky plunge. NO material comfort in the bride's coming days can compensate for an affectionate sending –off bidding of adieu by her home folks before the D-day.

A rib was removed from Adam to bring to life the “bone of his bones”. But did he become weaker? NO. Did he lose anything? No, Instead, he got back a “help meet” in flesh and blood. In order to be in the perfect will of God, you've got to take a firm stance for the Lord against the heathen norms people blindly follow in the name of tradition. You will have to cut off links with the boy friends and girlfriends you'd been going rock steady with. Kindred who are averse to the Gospel may even plot to deny you the social privilege you enjoyed earlier.

Cheerful endurance with eyes set on Jesus in the face of human persecution is the stuff our Lord

is endeared to. If you follow the word of God, and disregard that of powerful men, you'll be isolated and brushed aside as an upstart and proselyte. But Jehovah rules. He'll help you recover. If you seek your partner through His guidance, you'll ultimately make up for the loss, like Adam's rib with a bonus in the form of a superb soul-mate.

It doesn't mean, however, that it is the end of the road for the ones who had opted the easy way-out of running away on the sly. The over-indulgence of the church and the irrational social sanction play a major role in the gullibles' preference for the blunderous path to partnership.

The forbidden fruit looked like any other fruit but appeared irresistible to Eve and Adam because it was prohibited. So is elopement to the unchastened adolescent. The first act of disobedience opened the eyes of the consciences of the fallen couple of Eden to their shame and sorrow, not to their honour and advantage as the devil foretold. So will wilful breaking of God's wish in matters of matrimony.

"Has thou eaten of the tree, whereof I command thee that thou shouldst not eat? (Gen 3:11)". God asked. He knows all our hidden sins but he will know them from us. Adam and Eve never repented. They just passed the buck on to other and to each other. So cursed suffering came heavily upon their kind.

We grieve a gracious God when we slip into the abominable direction of elopement. The galloping act of perversity is an utter flop in God's sight. Let us not add sin to sin by trying to white-wash our dark deeds in a peculiarly secular "second marriage". The harm has been done. Once bloomed, the rose cannot shut and become a bud again. But if you make an honest confession, deeply repent and make suitable amends, the ever-merciful God will certainly give you a "second lease of life of grace." He that covereth his sins shall not prosper: but whose confesseth and forsaketh them shall have mercy (Pro. 28:13)".

Yes, I marriages are made in heaven, we are expected to follow heavenly rules and adopt heavenly means that we may receive heavenly blessings.

2.2.10 Model-VIII

Globalisation of Terror

By Prem Shankar Jha

The tragedy that has struck America is too poignant for words. As I write, the toll is rising. When the dust settles, we're likely to find that anywhere between 10,000 and 50,000 people have had their lives cut short. In various parts of the world, there are people who openly express their satisfaction that the mighty, presumptive ruler of the world has been struck a crippling blow where it is most vulnerable – in its image of itself. There are many more who regret the huge loss of life but feel the US brought the tragedy onto itself by involving itself in too many places, too often, and not always on the side of justice.

These views are grievously wrong. If the attack was on the US' power and capacity to strong-arm the world, that capacity remains indented while the will behind it may actually have hardened. If it was on the US as a symbol of an unjust order, that world order remains and, given the remorseless logic of globalization, cannot but remain unaffected. What has changed forever is the lives of those killed or wounded, and that of the many more thousands who loved them.

There are profound lessons to be learned from the tragedy. The growth of world terrorism has been co-terminus with globalization and there is an obvious connection between the two. But the time for reflection, and for remedial action, will come later. Today, the US needs to cope with the immediate fallout of the terrorist attack, both on its people and its position in the post-Cold War world order. What needs to be done at home is well understood and has been taken in hand in an exemplary fashion. Where confusion and conflict remain is over how the US should react to the attack, if, as seems likely, it was masterminded from abroad.

Understandably, there has been a call for revenge from some Americans and this demand is likely to grow stronger as the full horror of the tragedy sinks in. President George W. Bush has already promised that ‘those who harboured (the terrorists) will not be spared’. The word ‘harbour’ casts the net far wider than words like ‘plotted’, ‘conspired’ or ‘masterminded’. It includes not only those actually involved in the plot but also the larger population that shares the sentiments of the suicide bombers but was not only involved in but might have disapproved of what was planned. Bush would do well to keep this distinction in mind. The former need to be hunted out and punished and the whole world will help do so. But to take revenge on the latter will only compound the crime the terrorists committed.

Restraining those calling for blood will take a great act of statesmanship. But America needs to remember that its position as the hegemonistic power in the new international order requires it to exercise a far higher degree of restraint than is expected of smaller countries. The global order of the future will only be stable if its leader is seen to be judicious in exercising its military and other powers. That is a difficult lesson the US is still in the process of learning. The learning will now have to be completed in a hurry in the most emotionally trying of circumstances.

If the US has been the first victim of a new level of sophistication in global terrorism, India could well be the next. With the Israelis having virtually ruled out the involvement of Hamas and Al Jihad, the Palestinian organizations that have been sending suicide bombers into Israel, suspicion has focused on Osama bin Laden and his Al Qaeda. But Al /Qaeda is a key element in a coalescing network of fundamentalist organizations that regard themselves as an army of Islam. Some others are the Harkat-ul-Mujahideen, the Al-Badr, the Lashkar-e-Toiba (LeT), and since recently, the Jaish-e-Mohammed. All of these are focused obsessively upon India and have repeatedly warned they intend to go for high-profile targets in Delhi.

The existence of a loose global network of terrorist organizations was acknowledged by British intelligence on May 27, 1999, hours after the start of the Kargil war, when it let The Telegraph and The Independent know that such a network was probably behind the intrusion. It also pointed out that the network was coordinated by Pakistan’s ISI. Indian analysts have reason to suspect that the coordinator was none other than the former hardline chief of Pakistan army staff, Gen Muhammad, Aziz, currently the corps commander in Lahore.

The spectacular success of the attack on the US can’t but infuse a new zeal into those targeting Kashmir and India. If Al Qaeda is indeed behind it, its links with the “Army of Islam” makes it virtually certain that the LeT and Jaish will soon have access to the technology and resources used in the US, India would do well to take precautions against a nightmare eventuality in which one of these manages to “steal” a nuclear weapon from a Pakistani stockpile and get it into a plane operating in, or bound for, Indian skies.

Since hijacking an airliner is the key to the success of the plan, and since the terrorists seem to have solved the problem of getting lethal weapons past metal detectors, the first thing New Delhi must do is to reinforce the body searches that are mandatory in theory but often perfunctory in practice at most Indian airports. A second, even more important need is to ensure that access is completely denied to the cockpit at all times during a flight. This would need some remodelling and enlargement of cockpit and very probably an armour-plating of the partition between it and the rest of the plane. Indeed, had such steps been taken when hijackings first began, scores of planes would have been spared this fate, the World Trade towers would still have been standing, and several thousand of America’s – and India’s – best and brightest would have been alive today. It speaks volumes for the power of profit that no airline has even considered such changes, for fear of losing a few paying seats.

2.2.11 Model-IX

Terror Strikes

Jehad: On My Behalf?

By Mushirul Hasan

Terrorism has no sanction in religion, morality and international law. It follows, therefore, that whosoever struck at the citadel of the US' economic and military might has committed an act of barbarism. Yet, today, its long-term consequences are far more important than the precise identity, religious or ethnic, of the terrorists.

Terrorism is bad news for us and the rest of the world. It represents, though not in official parlance, the collective fury and indignation of a people against the other. For this, as indeed for other reasons, it has to be taken seriously. At the same time it must be combated not by targeting a leader-Osama bin Laden for example – but by coming to terms with the collective anger of people spread across the continents.

Military pacts and hollow moral posturing won't do. Regardless of domestic compulsions, stronger nations need to address themselves to the long-standing grievances of the Palestinians and the beleaguered Iraqis. Talking in terms of 'a monumental struggle of good versus evil' (President Bush) may move audiences, but such self-righteous constructions typify a mindset that will preclude a lasting solution of outstanding international disputes. Henry Kissinger has rightly called for a systemic approach to deal with the terror tactics directed against his country.

The stability of American democracy is close to our heart, but then White House has to think and act differently in relation to Iraq, Palestine and other vulnerable nations across the globe. It can't hope to remain secure by making concessions to Zionism. It can't occupy a high moral ground by legitimizing monarchical and military regimes. If this monumental tragedy turns out to be the defining moment in the reappraisal of priorities. We hope the American people will recognize that their national interest lie in fortifying the values enshrined In their constitution. The great American dream can't be realized without discarding the Zionist, racist and anti-democratic ideological of their allies.

In the long run, the strength and durability of Islamist movements and their ideological impact has to be blunted. Immediately, punishment will be meted out to those involved in this utterly despicable apocalypse-like carnage. At the same time, restraint rather than punitive action against an entire nation will serve the global interests of the US better. Terrorists have no territorial loyalty and no permanent bonding with their fellow-countrymen.

At the time of writing this article, some arrests have taken place in Boston, but the main culprits are still at large in the shadowy world of conspiracies. Bin Laden may well have masterminded this war-like operation, though he has denied involvement. So has al-Hamas. Yet, the knives are already out in the open pointing to the so-called Islamic conspiracy of international dimension. Islam, already stigmatized in the western hemisphere, is once more being equated with fundamentalism and terrorism. Some journalists talk of a worldwide jihad against the West, echoing Samuel Huntington's notoriously ill-founded thesis on the clash of civilizations.

Already, I am inundated with scores of requests to speak and write on Islam and fundamentalism. Is it because the views of a professional historian will enhance the quality of debate? Or, is it simply because I bear a Muslim name and, therefore, am accountable for the conduct of my co-religious from Morocco to Malaysia? It is utterly gibberish to construe last week's tragedy as an assault on Christendom: the Islamic rhetoric and the live images of some Palestinians celebrating the havoc caused by the terrorists are peripheral to a complex configuration of factors – notably, cultural anxieties, mounting political disillusionment and national identity. It's equally preposterous to draw Islam into this debate, for no religious creed sanctions violence. I needn't invoke the Quranic verses to establish the validity of my argument: this task may well be assigned to Muslim divines. My own reading is that Islam's civilisational rhythm flows from its explicit recognition of tolerance, social equality, and high moral order and spiritual depth. This factor, rather than the interpretations of an aberrant stream of Judaeo-Christianity which some people cling to, has enabled Islam to survive through the vicissitudes of history.

Doubtless, political Islam exists; in fact, the reality of mostly semi-feudal and undemocratic Muslim countries contributes to a climate in which the influence of Islamic activists will increase rather

than diminish. Doubtless, fundamentalist ideas – exemplified by the imposition of obsolete moral codes and the brazen vandalism at Bamiyan – inspire certain segments of the Muslim communities. But, then, how do such elements alone represent Islam’s authoritative voice? Why categories and essentialise their stridency, and not the poise and equanimity of the silent majority? Is my Muslim barber ready to attack his next ‘Hindu customer? Do the school-going children on Bombay’s Mohammad Ali Road carry the green flag with the intention to attack their Hindu or Christian neighbourhood?

Why lend credence to the notion of jihad, a doctrine that has undergone changes in its meaning to suit the changing circumstance of life? The change in the conception of jihad in the tenth century from active to dormant war – marked, according to Ibn Khaldun (d.1406), the great Muslim thinker, the change in the character of the nation from the warlike to the civilized stage. Today, the call for jihad is merely a weak component of the Islamist rhetoric. It has few takers among Muslims.

We must reflect on these issues, for they are relevant to Kashmir and our relationship with Pakistan. As for the US, the sober advice of the American scholar John-1 Esposito merits consideration: “Guided by our stated ideals and goals of freedom.... The West has an ideal vantage point for appreciating the aspirations of many in the Muslim world as they seek to define new paths for their future.”

(The writer is an eminent historian and author of many books.)

2.3 Writing Reports on Workshops and Seminars

2.3.1 Work for You

* Read the reports on workshops and on seminars given below as models.

2.3.2 Tips

- a) Give minute details of the events that take place at the workshop/seminar in your report;
- b) The details should include
 - i) the venue of the seminar/workshop;
 - ii) the date of the seminar/workshop;
 - iii) the time of the seminar/workshop;
 - iv) the name and address of the organizers and sponsors;
 - v) the topic of the seminar/workshop;
 - vi) the number of participants with remarkable points about their place or their achievement of their social standing, etc.;
 - vii) the Chief Guest etc. at the inaugural function;
 - viii) the highlights of the address/speech of the chief guest or/and other speakers to the audience;
 - ix) proceedings of the seminar/workshop and important sharing and revelations by the participants; and
 - x) the valedictory function highlights (more in the manner of covering/reporting the inaugural event).

2.3.3 Model-I

Conference Notes

“Dialogics of Cultural Encounters”: A Report.

It was perhaps inevitable that the Forum Conferences should have come round to the theme of cultural encounters and to the presiding spirit of Mikhail Bakhtin some time or the other. In a way this was the Forum’s occasion for self-reflexivity as it revealed its efforts at setting up dialogues across theoretical positions from different sites and locations. Cultural encounter has been part of its rationale as the conferences have moved from one historically significant site to another, making exploration of local culture, cuisine and people an extra dimension of its transnational, trans-cultural appeal. The

Forum has acquired a distinctive identity as a nodal organization that has not only extended the reach and influence of theory, but has facilitated understanding and assimilation by activating regional Indian contexts.

The Seventh International Conference on “Dialogics of Cultural Encounters” was held at Andhra University during December 13-16, 2004, another site that offered a new occasion, a new context, and a new text (the 19th century Telegu play *Kanyasulkam*) that provided theory with another ground to test and rediscover itself, and another opportunity to understand the resonance of cultural encounters. Professor P.C. Kar set the tone of the conference in his opening remarks by reflecting on the various connotations of dialogism – for cultural encounters and for interdisciplinary – while Sura Rath suggested that the theme of the preceding conference on “Rethinking Modernity” was being continued through exchange, dialogue and the absence of hierarchy.

The release of the three volumes – *Rethinking Modernity; In Translation: Reflections, Refractions, Transformations and Samskara: A Critical Reader* – at the inaugural ceremony, were an expression of the Forum’s taking stock of itself its achievements and the kind of work it saw itself doing in the future.

The keynote address was on “Post-Manichean Aesthetics” by Gaurav Desai. Desai offered a critique of the Manichean binary into which Fanonian theory of colonizer-colonized relationships is often believed to have been trapped, by using Jan Mohammad’s essay “The Economy of Manichean Allegory,” and examining the representation of identity in three African and three European writers. The post-Manichean model Desai offered was a triangulated one – the settler, the native and the Asian – in the process asking the question, “How might the inclusion of the third position – that of the East-African Asian – inflect the Manichean settler-colonized binary” and noting how the settler colonized binary is deconstructed when they jointly demonize the intruding Asian? Post-Manichean politics seen as the basis for post-Manichean aesthetics is keen to engage with other positions and is therefore also able to factor in internal divisions within the Asian communities themselves, instead of dealing in two large oppositions. In the variety of positions within this alternative hermeneutic project Desai includes the complex node of “Indians in Kenya, Indians in South Africa, Indians collaborating with the British by suppressing natives in the Boer War, and of course, Gandhi’s struggle that contributes to African nationalist ideology.” The questions that arise out of these various sites – South Africa, India, Great Britain, the Caribbean – point to a global history where intersections and links between and within sites help to deconstruct the center-margin paradigm itself. Gaurav Desai’s presentation elicited several responses, among them queries about possible caste-class issues in the particularities evoked, about the songs that Indians may have carried with them and significantly for a conference on ‘cultural encounter’ which is always a two-way activity the question, “What was happening to Europe? – how was this centre responding on its own ground to the eruptions generated by its own policies and practices?” This is probably the issue that expresses the Forum’s concerns most evocatively – tacitly questioning the might of theory as it ‘exists’, directing the gaze back at the point from which the ‘thought apparatus’ emanates. In other words, setting up through the encounter amongst several sites, new angles to counter the direction of theory.

The plenary session on ‘Derrida and the Question of the Other’ seemed to come naturally out of this scene. It was in the nature of a tribute to Derrida and a stock-taking of Derridean ideas. Sura Rath addressed the pedagogical problem of ‘teaching Derrida’. Suggesting that one might read the Derridean world of trace and supplement and difference through the Sartrean model of the self. R. Radhakrishnan in his presentation, “Tracing ‘Derrida: Neither Fiction nor Real’” carried forward this spirit of interrogating theory by asking, “Is deconstruction politically viable?” – a question that gained immediacy from “the context of recent events in Afghanistan and Iraq and the threat of international terrorism to the civilized world,” as the thematic statement of the conference declares. Radhakrishnan introduced the ‘ethical-political’ and the ‘ethical-epistemological’ to question hidden binaries, and referring to his own earlier essay, “Ethnic Identity and Poststructuralist Difference” his own earlier essay, “Ethnic Identity and Poststructuralist Difference” asked what happens to political struggle if binaries are completely eschewed. This leads him to suggest that there is no stepping out of the logo centric, just a turning of pages in a different way – by a subverting and energizing of banality perhaps, or a common memory remembered asymmetrically -, placing his review of Derrida against Derrida’s own

invitation to read contextually.

Supriya Nair's "Spectres of the other: Derrida as Public Intellectual" read Derrida against the horror of September 11, and asked, "What can ethics be without hospitality" – extending the Derridean idea of hospitality – hospitality preferred to tolerance – to the context of America's response to 9/11. She evoked the idea of 'spectre', the past and the future uncannily together in the present – to speak of the 'spectacle' of 9/11 threatening the US's hegemonic status and linking the question of the other to hospitality to ask, "Would the US mourn for an act of violence on Indian soil", and further 'Whose bodies were/would be counted Derrida pleads for multiple readings of an event like 9/11, and Supriya Nair brings in the dialogical and the dialectical to suggest an avoidance of the fundamentalist and the judgmental, placing Derrida as public intellectual in this effort to intervene by offering enabling and other perspectives on a public event. Keeping to the spirit of this session of reading Derrida in new contexts, D. Venkat Rao, also addressed the question of the other and of hospitality, and from the position that 'justice and ethics are un-programmable' he spoke of the challenge of confronting the 'spectres'. He read Derrida's concept of hospitality with regard to the other as offering a contrast to Levinas who wished to 'know' before admitting/welcoming the other.

The second plenary session on the first day was devoted to the 19th century Telegu play *Kanyasulkam* (1897) by Gurjada Venkata Appa Rao, translated into English by C. Vijayasree and T. Vijaya Kumar (published 2002). The three panelist – M.V. Krishna Rao, A. Prasanna Kumar and D.V. Subba Rao, all placed the text as a social document containing a sharp indictment of social evils like bride money the 'saani' or nautchi question and widowhood. Comments on Appa Rao's use of the vernacular his keenness to promote widow remarriage, his modernity with regard to questions of female foeticide and the sex ratio, all served to contemporize the work. And while this panel did not directly enter into the theme of cultural encounter and dialogism, their reflections and exchanges on the ideas contained in the text did a great deal towards bringing the play closer to readers otherwise alienated both spatially and temporally from the text and its ethos. This session was chaired by T. Vijaya Kumar, one of the translators, who also commented on the challenge of translating a culturally and linguistically different text into the culture of another language, and it was a prelude to the special session of papers on *Kanyasulkam* which considered the problem of translation but also looked at the play as an example of the early modern in Telegu. Papers on "Kanyasulkam and the Early Modern in Telugu," "From Tradition to Modernity: A Study of Kanyasulkam," "Kanyasulkam: Originalist vs. Translator – Disruption of Dialogue" and "Dialectics of cross-Cultural Transactions: Translation of Kanyasulkam," offered the possibility of putting together a critical edition of the text similar to the one on *Samskara*.

Dialogue, dialectics and dialogism were explored, connected, played off against one another and applied in various ways during the conference. Gita Viswanath's examination of the dialogic process involved in the shift from Shakespeare's play *Macbeth* to the Hindi film, *Maqbool* where the actor Tabu started as the mistress of the Duncan character and went on to become the mistress of *Macbeth*, raising issues about women-territory-power. In a different approach to the issue of cross-cultural dialogue, Madan Sarma offered a reading of how the Assamese novelist welcomed British colonial rule against an oppressive exploitative middle class, while Amitava Chakravarty introduced to the audience an essay by Krishnachandra Bhattacharya, "Swara in Ideas" (published in 1954), where the reading of *swaraj* as intellectual freedom was seen to make room for Dalits, women and other marginalized groups because its definitive characteristic was assimilation. Joya Chakravarty offered 'bifocal visioning' a simultaneity of the near and the far, using it to interpret, through Jhumpa Lahiri's cultural dialogics', the situation of the diasporic writer for whom the negotiation of distance and proximity to two cultures is an important aspect of creative identity.

The second day of the conference saw the exploration of cultural encounter and dialogics through special sessions on 'V.S.Naipaul', on 'Travel Writing' and on 'Margins, Cultures and Identities'. Travel writing for example offered interesting possibilities for exploration of 'dialogics' and 'encounters' especially because, in this case all the papers chose to concentrate on travel texts that reversed the direction of the imperial gaze – Vikram Seth, Salman Rushdie and Amitav Ghosh all point to a new site for departure – India, a country that had already been the subject of travel texts under the colonial regime – in the process enabling review of Bakhtin's dialogic model.

B. Sudipta's paper in this session was particularly illuminating, taking the case of Bengalis who had migrated to Andhra Pradesh, - making adjustments in language, clothing and cuisine – to intervene in the larger question of diasporic existence and the complex nature of integration and resistance this involves. Bakhtin's theory of 'dialogism' which is not mere dialogue, but which, in his many different statements on the concept, seems to involve a simultaneity of voices, also touches on the issue of ethics, assimilation and inclusion in all exchanges and encounters. The attempt to enter this debate from the perspective formed as a result of marginal existence - Chanchala Naikm on "Women's Cultural Identity" and C. Pradgna on "Marginalized Cultures and Emerging Identities" – mapping the process of identity formation, looking at nascent, small but meaningful attempts at being heard and acknowledged.

The plenary on "Translation Across Cultures" sharpened the focus of abstract arguments on cultural exchange by identifying specific instances of how such exchange is facilitated, resisted and constructed through translation of particular cultural texts. Paul St. Pierre, the editor of the volume on Translation released on the first day of the conference, introduced the theme of this session by speaking of complicity, sympathy, integrity and assimilation as general categories which have to be specified in every act of translation. In his own paper on "culture and Translation under Globalization" he presented the example of Bill Clinton's autobiography translated into Chinese. In this version the young Clinton is made to say lines from Mao but where because of the speed of back translation from the Chinese to English. St. Pierre uses this example to refer to the direction of translation – who translates whom? He also translators – the emphasis more on simultaneity of different language versions – all of this pointing to the book's brief shelf life, and the need to cash in on immediate popularity and marketability.

Dipti Pattanaik in "Translating Medieval Orissa" used the example of modern translation of medieval Oriya texts to show how a culture may be constructed through translation – the translated text often the only source available. This process of cultural construction involves a complex response – made up of denial, subversion, collusion and competition, all jostling and interrupting one another – indicating that in such cases translation is a contextual rather than a normative practice, finding its way as it proceeds.

Christi Merrill's "Seeds of Discontent: Re-Creation and the Bounds of Ownership" was on the rewriting of Rajasthani folk-tales and the inclusion within them of critiques of patriarchy and of class/caste issues. By raising questions of fidelity and equivalence she wonders how a literature may be kept alive in translation and the related problem of ownership of the translated text in the legal and ethical sense. She evokes Vandana Shiva on the immorality of introducing genetically modified seeds to push out the small local seed industry to suggest the possibility of plural ownership of the translated text.

R. Radhakrishnan in "Translatability in an Uneven World" carried the issues of translation to a philosophical plane. He moment of translation is a moment of crisis; in other words when you are in the linguistic, i.e., when you actually begin to translate a sentence or a word, you also begin to understand it. So the problem is really of how the Tamil language, for example, knows itself, and not how it 'refers' – which would therefore address the question, 'can both these registers, the allegorical and the specific or material, be activated simultaneously in the act of translation?' The issue embedded in these questions is of justice to the other in the translation project: when we 'translate' a novel into a movie we let the movie be a genre in itself, i.e. the process of translation rejects the notion of being true to the original. Introducing the ethical into translation, especially in what Radhakrishnan calls an 'uneven world', would mean that neither pole – the Tamil and the English – would/should have any problems with 'losing' who they are?

The session "Through Bakhtinian Glasses" saw Bakhtin as a powerful and enabling theorist, but one who, brought in to interpret the questions of location and indenture in South Africa, proves not entirely adequate to the 'real' challenges, especially the extent to which the meaning of signs is negotiable (Priya Narisimulu, "Bakhtin and Questions of Voicing, Power, Activism"). Meeta Chatterjee used the Bakhtinian sense of intertextuality and parody to investigate the undervalued humour element in Indian women's writing. Jyoti Rane ("On Dialogics, Dialectics and Discourse") attempted to show that these are interrelated terms and concepts, and that discourse actually enables dialogism. Sabita Manian

“Dialogism in Transnational Politics: Revisiting Globalization, the State and War”) applies Bakhtinian concept of dialogic and the chronotope to International Relations Theory – suggesting that Bakhtin transforms the discipline of international relations. Order is brought into an anarchic international system by the state and this raises questions about the place of ‘identity’ in the master narrative of realism, or in the case of the ‘war against ‘terror’, the war in Iraq, the problem of transformation of the thought/discourse. Viewing was as a concept and looking at the carnivalesque elements of the war on terror, Manian asks: what role do ethical obligations play in realism?

At the plenary on “Comparative Studies,” D. Venkat Rao (“Destinies of the Critical: Humanities and the Tecknowledges of Our Times”) spoke of change in the notion of knowledge in the information age – and addressed the issue of cross disciplinary research. He pointed to an interaction with communities and cultures as a necessary element of the critical-literary project. Nagesh Rao, “Marx, India and Postcolonial Encounter,” spoke of the necessity of fashioning a usable Marxism and suggested that post-colonialism could be used to undo and transcend the Eurocentric, teleological thrust of Marxism – especially by using Marx’s own writings on India.

A. Raghuram Raju (“Terms of Comparison: Similarities, Differences and Beyond”) asks several important questions about comparative studies: How the outsider has better knowledge of the other; how hospitality transforms into a domain of ownership – the example he gives is pithily illustrative of these points about claiming and owning knowledge – the actual discovery of the Borra caves by the tribals when a cow fell in and then the ‘fact’ that William King discovered it. Moving outward from these ‘core’ premises Raghuram Raju pleaded for comparison within the discipline of philosophy – to move out of the Indian amongst the premodern, modern and postmodern.

The plenary “A Homemade World” had John Oliver Perry inviting the audience to introspect whether in the rarefied realm of academic exchange they had not lost sight of the need to connect with ‘others’ at was a salutary if somewhat discomfiting reminder to the audience to review dialogism for its ethical and practical elements.

Subramanian Shankar, “Postcolonial Paradoxes: The Vernacular Writer in English,” on the work of R.K. Narayan, chose to evaluate Narayan as a Tamil writer writing in English and situated against a ‘Tamil context’ created out of intellectual debates in the vernacular. For example, he pointed to Narayan’s dependence on the universe of the Ramayana – brought alive in his time by a host of texts – Kamban’s Ramayana, Narayan’s own retelling Periyar’s ‘Characters from the Ramayana’ and C. Rajagopalachari’s weekly retellings in the local press. Shankar spoke of two varieties of the postcolonial – the transnational (the hybrid, the international) and the vernacular – offering in the process a critique of the postcolonial as a single category.

An important session on the third day of the conference was on “India and Cultural Encounters.” Elizabeth Mary Rohlman in her paper “On Being a Reader of Texts: Horace Wilson, Vans Kennedy and the Fate of the Sanskrit Puranas” undertook a review of Orientalist scholarship through these two instances of Orientalist approach to the Puranas, looking anew at questions like: Do we study Sanskrit in order to be scholars or in order to be rulers? And who can speak for whom? Mohan Ramanan in “Analysis of the Spiritual Aspects of the National Discourse” decided to go back to the question of religion on the spiritual and politics, since the religious had played an important role in the fashioning of national identity, with the nationalists concerned about preserving and safeguarding spiritual space from the colonialists. In this context he evoked Sarvepalli Radhakrishnan’s Upton Lectures on “A Hindu View of Life” and recalled C. Rajagopalachari’s advice: “For a time let religion be our only politics” and ended on an interrogative note:” Is the infusion or religion into politics an entirely malevolent thing?”

In an entirely different perspective on the debate over dialogism Parul Dave Mukherji evoked the other in the form of “other/s’ Stories of Art in the Age of Multiculturalism” while in another session on the “Politics of Otherness” Mandakini Jha suggested the Western-Indian encounter could be understood through the viewing of caste as ‘other’.

The final four sessions of the conference in fact saw several investigations of otherness in ‘practice’: by Sangeeta Handa, M. Swaroop Rani, G. Manoja and Neelam Raisinghani, who looked at

otherness as a trope in Hari Kunzru, Canadian Literature, Mricchakatika and Jasmine respectively; while another set of papers dealt with the “Dialogics of Relationship” in terms of geography and space through novels from various sites, through the study of Ruskin Bond as a case for eco-criticism, and through issues of gender and identity as exemplified in the homosexual representations of the anthology, Yaarana.

The large number of areas that came in for discussion, comment and investigation, while posing several kinds of intellectual challenge, and pointing to critical engagement with the thematics of ‘dialogism and cultural encounters’ did not wholly succeed in taking that necessary step. The issue of dialogism, itself very much the focus of debates on Bakhtin’s work (especially as Caryl Emerson’s book, *One Hundred Years of Mikhail Bakhtin* would suggest) appeared to be accepted as a ‘given’ – missing out on the opportunity to set up a reciprocal exchange of theory and context that the conference seems to have given itself. One would imagine that the next conference seems to have given itself. One would imagine that the next conference, with a sharper investigation of the ludic, will attempt to fulfil this lack.

2.3.4 Model-II

Live and Let Live
Joining the Dots
The report of the Tiger Task Force
Govt. of India

By Mila Joby

The last tiger in Sariska, India’s premier Project Tiger reserve was sighted in September 2004. A few months earlier, a census in the reserve had shown a worrying drop in the tiger population – from 24-28 to 16-18. As the tiger crisis made news, Prime Minister Manmohan Singh set up a five-member Tiger Task Force in April.

Its report – *Joining the Dots* – which was completed in three months used the Sariska debacle as a pointer to the collapse in tiger and forest conservation machinery. Sariska has been quoted throughout, either as an example of mismanagement or to show that mere guns, guards and money cannot save the tiger.

The idea is to evolve a conservation strategy that involves the local people as well. “The issue is not tigers per se, but about recreating economic and livelihood bases for forests to be regenerated,” says the report. Quite sensibly, it calls for preference or even reservation to local people in the protection force. The argument is that this will help wean them away from poachers who pay local people for information about tigers.

The task force also recommends two separate departments for environment and forest. Another suggestion is to amend the criminal provisions in the Wildlife (Protection) Act, 1972, and setting up of a wild life crime bureau.

Citing examples of eco-tourism involving local communities, the report recommends encouraging homestead tourism around reserves.

The report does not recommend relocation but suggests an alternative-co-existence where locals can live in the forests even as tigers get inviolate space for breeding.

A task force member differed on this, though. The note of dissent, which is a part of the report, says the task force has lost its focus by trying to find solutions to larger issues such as inequity and social injustice. Co-existence is utopian, the dissenting voice says.

Spicy and fast – paced

The baseline says “nice is out....naughty is in”, and in keeping with the theme, Yash Raj music has music directors Salim-Sulaiman creating a vibrant score for Neal ‘N’ Nikki.

The album has six tracks including a different version of the title track. (Look like no music album is complete without a couple of versions of its own songs.)

The album kicks off with the title track, which is fast racing up on the popularity charts. The lyrics are contemporary but kindly explain what is I'm the Neal – poetic licence? This foot-tapping number is followed by the mediocre Halla re! Though it talks about girl power, it does not have the required punch.

I'm in love is your typical mush stuff with not much to write about. Though it has all the signs of becoming a chartbuster, the mix of Punjabi –English does not work too well.

Ankh ladiye is a formula Punjabi song with definite appeal. But the album's unique and best feature is saved for the last. The English ballad I just want to spend my life with you, sung by Clinton and Dominique Cerejo (who have done a good job of it), it a heart stealer

(Note: Now you are familiar with writing of reports on seminar and workshops. Attempt the following exercises. For your own interest read any report on workshops/seminars that come your way. Reproduce the reports after you have read and understand them. Check how correctly you have followed the models available. If your reproduced reports conform to the models, it is very good. You deserve congratulations. If, however, you have missed a few things, you may further go to the model reports and try to understand where you have failed to take note of the details, and later improve your own reports with addition of such important details.

Check Your Progress-II

1. Write a report on a seminar held recently in your college.

2.4 Writing C.V.

With applications for jobs under various firms, you are required to furnish particulars of importance about you to canvas your own candidature for a particular post. This Curriculum Vitae (or simply C.V.) is thus your bio-data. A C.V., properly speaking, is your brief, but powerful document of your self-introduction. It carries all the relevant information to prove yourself suitable for a particular post for which you are applying.

Generally, we send an application for a job against a given advertisement of positions vacant under an employer/firm. We go through the advertisement carefully and first satisfy ourselves that we are suitable candidates as per the desired/prescribed eligibility conditions. The next step is to respond to the advertisement and write the job application. Here, care should be taken to present our career and achievement particulars neatly and in a organized form. The purpose is to give the employer a first-hand favourable impression about the candidate in a first prompt look. The C.V. thus must contain a statement of all our qualities and plus points, which must be in line of those the employer is looking for and which must convince the employer that here is a candidate who they could select to help further their own interests.

2.4.1 Work for You/Tips

- * Read the model C.Vs (1 to 3) and their advertisements
- * Remember that you are selling your candidature through your C.V.;
- * Ensure that you have gone through an advertisement for your vacancies very carefully and come to know
 - i) What qualities the employer is looking for,
 - ii) What are the job requirements,
 - iii) How sound in your own opinion your claim as an aspirant /applicant for the post is,
 - iv) Why you consider you are among the best chores for the post,

and

v) That you are able to fix an order of priority to present particulars about you.

* Ensure that the advertisement has or has not insisted on any prescribed format,

* If the format for the C.V. is prescribed just fill-in (and dispatch it along with other relevant attachments while applying to the employer)

– put in

all the details demanded in clear and correct form,

* If the Format is not prescribed and you are designing it with fee-back on the eligibility conditions applicable, take care of the following:

i) Write at the top CURRICULUM VITAE

ii) Divide the details under the heads of (A) Personal details, (B) Educational Qualification (with marks secured, etc.), (C)

Professional Training (D) Work Experience, (E) Special interests

(includes Hobbies, etc.) as may be desirable as extra qualities/

qualifications and required by the Employer (as in the said

Advertisement) or considered by you important to be taken note

of, (F) Conditions from your side (to include special set of

circumstances or facts you would like your employer to consider

while

evaluating your candidature), (G) Signature (with Name in

Full in Capitals and

place and date)

* Put a covering letter stating that a C.V. is attached with your application for a post already advertised under the Reference cited and duly sign it.

Model C.V.'s I + II

2.4.2 Model – I

C.V. of Dr. Anand Prakash for the post of Medical Officer in a Company Hospital.

Curriculum Vitae

1. Name : Dr. Anand Prakash

2. Father's Name: Dr. Prem Prakash
3. Address : Surya Abas, Flat No. 20
Unit-6, Bhubaneswar

1. Qualification: M.B.B.S. (Utkal)
2. Date of Birth: 27 Aug., 1997/Age: 20 years
3. Experience: (1) As M.O. under govt. of Orissa Dept. of Health for 03 (Three) years
4. Salary last drawn: Rs.15, 780/-
5. Salary expected: Rs.20, 000/-
6. Contribution expected to make, if selected to the Company's post:

24 hrs readiness to offer services; willing to undergo training in specialty areas as per the desire and sponsorship of the Company;

Prepared to share accommodation in the Bachelor's Block till getting married; Undertaking to put in for minimum three years under the Company and at the first place of posting; willing to work in the remote locations in future when the Company opens anew branches.

1. Time required to join: 15 days

(A. Prakash)

Place: Bhubaneswar

Dr. A. Prakash

Date: 17.6.2005

Signature

Covering letter for the above:

From: Dr. A. Prakash, Surya Abas, Flat No.20, Unit-6, Bhubaneswar, Orissa.

To
The General Manger
NALCO, Anugul
Dist. Dhenkanal
Orissa

Sub: **Application for the Post of Medical Officer in your Company**

Ref: Your Advertisement Dated 24.5.2005 published in the Samaj, the Oriya daily.

Dear Sir,

This has reference to your Advt. as per detail given above that I am applying in response to your above said Advt. for the post of M.O. under your Company establishment. I am an M.B.B.S. from Utkal and have experience of about three years to my credit. I am willing to abide by the terms and conditions as given in your Advertisement

My C.V. is attached herewith for favor of your perusal and further consideration of my candidature.

This is for your kind information and necessary action.

With regards,

Yours faithfully,

A. Prakash
(Dr. A. Prakash)
Place: Bhubaneswar
Date : 17.6.2005

The C.V. of Mr. R.S. Yadav for the Post of Principal of Shivaji Public School, Dhanbad.

Curriculum Vitae

1. Name : Rama Shankar Prasad Yadav
2. Father's name: Vinay Shankar Prasad Yadav
3. Address: Vill. Chandoli, P.O. Banaras (U.P.)
4. Date of Birth: 03.09.1961/Age as on 1.3.06: 45 years
5. Educational Qualification: M.A. (English), M.A. (Sanskrit), M.A. (Hindi), B.Ed. - all 1st Class
6. Experience: 18 years as Sr. Teacher and Vice-Principal taken together
7. Additional Training : (1) Wood-badge holder from Bharat Scouts and Guides (2) Accounts Training (3) Computer Operations (4) Yoga
8. Additional Experience: Chief Hostel Warden for 10 years
9. Project to be undertaken on selection as Principal: If selected, I'll concentrate on the following:
 - (a) Academic Excellence,
 - (b) Administrative sincerity,
 - (c) Financial discipline.
 - (d) Hostel life discipline
 - (e) Timely examinations and evaluation and
 - (f) Objective explanation of students' achievement case by case
 - (g) Regular Parents-Teachers meetings
 - (h) Publicity campaign for admission
 - (i) Dynamic cooperation with the school management to achieve higher targets to make the school a model school at the national level.
10. Salary expected: Rs.30000/- p.m. with fully furnished free accommodation.

Time required to join: 01 month

Place :

Date : 18.8.2003

R.S. Yadav

Signature

Covering letter for the above

From R.S. Yadav
Chandoli Banaras (U.P.)

To

The Secretary
Shivaji Public School, Dhanbad
Jharkhand

Sub: **Application for the post of the Principal in your school.**

Ref: Your Advt. in *Hindi Dainik Jagaran*, dated 17 July, 2005.

Sir,

I have the honour to inform you that I have been impressed to go through your Advertisement and your school profile has made me interested to serve your school to help fulfil the dream of raising it to a model school of national importance.

As for my candidature, I am a teacher with wide experience in both teaching and academic administration.

I think I may fill your bill as per the work demanded from the new incumbent.

My C.V. and all relevant supporting testimonials and documents are attached herewith for your kind perusal and consideration.

I will be grateful if my candidature is assessed at your end and I be appointed to the post. I would like to offer my very best to achieve your targets.

This is for your kind consideration and necessary action.

With regards,

Yours faithfully,

Place: Banaras

Date : 18/8/2005

(R.S. Yadav)

2.5 Writing Agenda

At formal meetings items of business are carried on in a very systematic way. Small details of business are announced by a formal authority (usually the President or the Chairperson) and then the events take place. When you have an Agenda, your meeting progresses smoothly. The small but important details from the reception of the guests, garlanding guests to vote of thanks proposal and refreshment are taken care of in the agenda. We may say that the agenda is the map to guide the course of events at a meeting or business session and that too as per a well-planned and well-sequenced manner.

2.5.1 Work for You/Tips

- * Read the model Agenda (1 to 4) and learn the very programmes and purposes for which each one of them has been prepared;
- * Ensure that
 - i) You know the nature of the programme (or meeting or function),
 - ii) You know the total number of jobs that would have to be conducted on the programme day at the venue
 - iii) You know the number of guests with their brief identities for purposes of information of the audience,
 - iv) You know the arrival time of the guests including the Chief Guest and also the persons who have been proposed to receive the guests,
 - v) You know who is to preside over the function, how many persons would be allowed to speak and in what order,
 - vi) You know what other activities would be carried on and in what serial,
 - vii) You know who is offering the vote of thanks,
 - viii) You know if there is provision of light refreshment or not.
- * Ensure that
 - i) You are able to take note of every small detail omission from the Agenda which is likely to cause confusion and spoil the formality of decency and grandeur associated with the programme in reference,
 - ii) You are able to confirm from all concerned that events included in the agenda are fully confirmed and all related and responsible members associated with the programme.

Model Agenda I to III

2.5.2 Model – I

Agenda for the meeting of the Students' Union, Netaji College, Shivpuri, New Delhi.

Agenda

(Students' Union, Netaji College, Shivpuri, New Delhi – Meeting dated 15.9.05 at Union Office)

- * Assembling of Members and Special Invitees
- * Reception of the Guests – Action: Secretary, Meetings
- * Proposal of the Chair – Action: President, Students' Union
- * Introduction of the Guests – Action: Secretary, Culture
- * Purpose of the Meeting – Action: Secretary, Meetings
- * Annual Report Presentation – Action: General Secretary, Students' Union
- * Analysis of the Report – Action: Members and the Audience
- * Responses and clarification – Action: General Secretary and Others as concerned.
- * New targets and Ways – Action: President
- * Speech by the Guests:
 - * Guest of Honour – 1
 - * Guest of Honour – 2
 - * Address by the Chief Guest
 - * Vote of Thanks
 - * Light Refreshment

2.5.3 Model –II

Agenda for a meeting of the Commission Agents of a Private Small Finance Organization.

Agenda

(J.L.G. Small Finance Organization Pvt. Ltd. – meeting of the Commission Agents at Shanti Kunj, Itanagar on 17th August, 2005)

- * Assembling at the Venue – 0.30 a.m.
 - * Reception of the Chief of the Organization – Action: all present
 - * Purpose of the Meeting – Action: Local Secretary, Agents
 - * Annual Report for the preceding year of business – Action: Manager (Business)
 - * Target for the current year – Action: Manager (Projects)
 - * Means to achieve the Target - Action: Discussion by all agents present
 - * Important Notes taken by Manager (Business)
 - * Summing up Note – Action: Manager (Business) (Makes summary presentation of Notes above)
 - * Address to the Gathering –
- 1) Vice President, J.L.G.

- * Chief of the Organization's Address
- * Vote of Thanks
- * Tea & Light Refreshment

2.5.4 Model -III

Agenda for a meeting of Party Workers of a Political Party.

Agenda

(Jharkhand Jagaran Morcha meeting of Party workers at Ranchi on 17th September 2005)

- * Assembling of the Party Workers and office-bearers at the Venue
- * Reception of the Chief Guest - Action: Office Bearers
- * Selection of the Chair – Action: Party General Secretary
- * Purpose of the Meeting – Action: Party General Secretary
- * Addresses : 1) Party General Secretary

2) Party Vice-President

- * General discussion on the Ways to follow during the forthcoming elections - Action: initiated by General Secretary and carried on by other and Party workers.
- * Party President's General Address
- * Vote of Thanks
- * Tea & Refreshment

2.6 Writing from Diagrams, Charts, etc

We can often find information presented in the form of diagrams, charts, etc. The method is useful to convey the important features related to any matter in the most precise way. The people, while looking at a diagram or chart take interest in analyzing it for proper interpretation of these. It is important that details provided in the diagrams, charts, etc. are properly understood before a detailed explanation of it in the form of a narrative piece is prepared.

2.6.1 Work for You/Tips

- * Have a look at the diagrams and charts (1 to 5) provided.
- * Follow them to satisfy yourself, if
 - i) the purpose of the diagram, charts, etc. is clear,
 - ii) the information presented in the above form are fully grasped,
 - iii) the audience to whom the diagrams, etc. need to be explained gets your explanation in clear and easy manner.
- * Look at every diagram, chart, etc. and ask yourself the questions that you must ask others if you are being explained about what these diagrams, etc. have to communicate or inform.
 - * As each diagram, chart, etc. is intended to express or specific set of information or content matter, your questions would be necessarily different as per the specific situations described (e.g. a population chart would bring to your mind questions on time factor or duration (annual, decade, etc.), sex ratio (male, female count) etc.; similarly a diagram recording rainfall would beg such questions on m.m. of rainfall, information on time gap over which the rate of increase or decrease is expressed, etc.)
- * For understanding the diagrams etc., follow the related information provided.

Read and understand the tables, charts and graphs, 1 to 5

Check Your Progress-V

1. Study the following diagram and describe how to telephone:

3. Use the following table to write a paragraph on World coal consumption and resources:

Countries	Consumption	Estimated resources
USA	26%	16%
USSR	24%	64%
Western Europe	25%	07%
China	14%	10%
Japan	07%	00%
Others	04%	03%

4. Look at the following histogram. Complete the accompanying description by using the words and phrases from the bracket. Refer to the graph for the necessary percentages, and complete the final sentences from your knowledge.

(disproportionate share; proportion; in relation to; proportionate share; consume (S); represents/shows/indicates/illustrates the consumption of)

FERTILIZER CONSUMPTION AND POPULATION

.....fertilizerpopulation. It is clear that developed countriesof the world's fertilizer. For example, the USA, with ...% of the population, consumes.....%. Japan, however, consumes an almost.....of the world's fertilizer (.....%).....its population (.....%). But theof fertilizer used by other countries (mostly developing) is small.....The reason for this is

5. Write a description of Gases in the atmosphere, using the following chart .

2.7 Let Us Sum Up

In this unit, we have learnt how to read and write academic texts like articles for textbooks and journals, reports on workshop and seminars, C.V., agenda and writing from diagram, tables, charts and graphs. For each topic, separate sub-unit is provided with detail instructions that will help you to write such things and will help you to be perfect in developing such writing skills.

2.8 Key Words

- Article : It is a kind of academic writing in which one writes to focus as a particular title with all possible elaboration citing details of the source (book, journal, etc.) consulted for the purpose.
- Report : A report is minute details of the events that take place at seminar a workshop.
- C.V. : C.V. is a brief but powerful document of self introduction and carries all information about your achievements and performance in life, also known as bio-data.
- Agenda : Agenda is the details of business that takes place in a meeting announced by a formal authority(usually the President or the Chairperson) and then specific events takes place. It helps in the smooth progress of a meeting.
- Diagram, Chart, etc.: Information is also presented in the form of diagram, chart, etc. and we should be able to read and understand these things properly.

2.9 Check Your Learning

1. Write an article on the topic 'Students Unrest' for the journal 'India Tomorrow'.
2. Write a report on the illegal deforestation going on in the nearby forest.
3. Prepare your C.V. and apply for the post of a teacher.
4. Prepare an Agenda for the meeting on 'National Literacy Programme'.

2.10 Suggested Readings

- Mckay, Sandral : *Teaching Grammar-form, function + technique*
- Quirk, et al : *A University Grammar of English.*
- Leech + Svartisk : *A Communicative Grammar of English, ELBS.*

2.11 Hints/Answers to Questions in Check Your Progress

Check Your Progress-I

Hints- (1) Consult relevant books, jot down points and write the article.

- (2) Consult news magazines carrying this report and write the article.

Check Your Progress-II

Hints- (1) Imagine that you have participated in a seminar held recently in the

college

and prepare a report as in the example.

Check Your Progress-III

Hints- Prepare C.V. with the given details as in the model.

Check Your Progress-IV

Hints – Prepare the Agenda with the given details as per the given model.

Check Your Progress-V

Hints- Try to read the chart/graph as instructed in the tips (2.6.1) and the questions.

answer

Unit-III

GRAMMAR AND USAGE

Structure

- 3.0 Objectives
- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Let Us Remember
- 3.3 Phrases
- 3.4 Clauses
- 3.5 Basic Sentence Types
- 3.6 Expansion
- 3.7 Transformation of Sentence
- 3.8 Negation
- 3.9 Interrogative
- 3.10 Passivization
- 3.11 Let Us Sum Up
- 3.12 Key Words
- 3.13 Check Your Learning
- 3.14 Suggested Readings
- 3.15 Hints/Answers to Questions in Check Your Progress

3.0 Objectives

After reading this unit, you should be able to revise the usage of grammar studied earlier and learn the types of sentence formation, sentence transformation and components of sentence like clause and phrase.

3.1 Introduction

We are now entering into a Unit where we would use much of the knowledge of grammar and usage that we have already acquired. Our job in this unit is to have an understanding of how phrases and clauses behave in the sentences where they occur.

3.2 Let Us Remember

- a) Parts of a sentence. Subject and predicate

Sentence

Subject

Predicate

1. I am, Sonam.
2. Mr. Wangdi is the chairman of our club
3. The present Deputy Commissioner of Bomdila is very dynamic and people friendly.
4. The Howrah bound Cormondal Express is perhaps the fastest train of the South Eastern Railways
5. Every distant learner has a lot of regular work to do at home for a glittering success.
6. You Go
7. You never come again.

Note: Your understanding of the part of the sentence (subject and predicate) also goes with your understanding of the word or group of words in each part. You know that in sentences 1 to 7 you have the following words as subject of these sentences and now you may recognize them as Noun or Pronoun as shown below :

1. I (Pronoun)
2. Mr. Wangdi (Noun)
3. The present Deputy Commissioner of Bomdila (Noun)
4. The Howrah bound Cormandal Express (Noun)
5. Every Distant learner (Noun)
6. You (Pronoun)
7. You (Pronoun)

3.3 Phrases

* You may note that in sentences 1, 6 and 7 there are Pronouns (I, You) in the subject place; in sentence 2 there is Noun (Mr. Wangdi); and in sentences 3, 4 and 5 there are many words which together form the subject and each of the said groups of words does the function of Noun. In sentences 3, 4 and 5 these words, in a group and together forming the subject part in the given sentences, are called Noun phrases.

* Groups of words doing the job of the Noun as in the above examples are called Noun Phrases. When groups of words do the job

1. of Verb – we would call them Verb Phrase(s),
2. of Adjective – we would call them Adjective Phrase,
3. of Adverb - we would call them Adverb (ial) Phrase.

* But word groups formed with prepositions are called prepositional Phrase (s);

* We do not have labels of word groups known as conjunction phrase or Interjection Phrase (the reason being Conjunctions are mostly single word expressions (except when ‘in spite of’, ‘instead of’, etc. are grouped under linking words); also Interjections are all one word expressions any (‘Ah’, ‘Oh’, ‘Alas’, etc.)

Let us for purposes of clarity look at the following examples to get a better understanding of phrase types:

1. Noun Phrases: Examples we have already given above. However, those being the examples of Noun Phrases coming in the subject place in the respective sentences, the following examples would tell you about other uses of the Noun Phrases:

a. Noun Phrase in the object place:

1. Give him the year’s award for the best worker of air firm.
2. He possesses a remarkably sound knowledge of the effects of the movement of the stars on our life and events.

3. Call the poorest boy coming from the remotest village.

b. Noun Phrase in the subject complement place :

1. He is a doctor of a lasting renown and good fortune.
2. The applicants appearing at the present interview are management graduates from India's top class management institutes.
3. Mother's milk is the best food for the babies in their need for enriched nourishment.

c. Noun Phrase in the Object Complement Place :

1. The world would brand Alexander the kindest brave man of all times.
2. The luck made Anil Ambani the Chairman of the Ambani household's largest part of the business empire.

2. Adjective Phrase: The phrase (group of words) that functions like an Adjective is called the Adjective Phrase. Like an adjective it goes with a Noun and qualifies the said Noun i.e. it tells something more about the Noun with which it appears in the sentence. Read and understand the following sentences to mark the position of the Adjective phrases and their behaviour (about adding information to the Nouns with which they go) well.

a. Houses built of stone in earthquake zones are not safe to live in. (In this sentence, the parts underlined are examples of adjective phrases) they talk about the houses)

b. The obedience of subordinates working in a firm is productive as a cooperative act. (The underlined parts add information about 'obedience')

c. The prices of petroleum products are higher in the post budget period. (The underlined group of words (= phrase) qualifies (Adds specific information on) the 'prices'

d. Everybody likes men of bold decisions. (The phrase underlined talks about (= qualifies) 'men' and is an Adjective phrase)

3. Adverb (ial) phrase: The phrase doing the function of Adverb in a sentence is called Adverb or Adverbial phrase. Such a phrase (modifies a verb, an adjective or another adverb) tells when something is done (Adverb of time), where something is done (adverb of place), how something is done (Adverb of manner), how often an action is done (Adverb of number), how much or to what extent or in what degree something is done (Adverb of Degree or Extent or Quantity), or asks questions (Interrogative Adverb) with 'when', 'where', 'how often', 'how far', etc.

Check Your Progress-I

1. What do you mean by Phrase?
2. How many types of Phrases are there in English language?
Give examples.

3.4 Clauses

Now we are going to deal with clauses. It is essential here to know how clauses are different from phrases.

Read the following examples to see the difference:

1. I know Dr. Tripathi as a man of eminence.
2. I know Dr. Tripathi as an eminent person here.
3. I know Dr. Tripathi who is an eminent person in this locality.

In sentence 1 and 2 we have the underlined parts which are phrases. In sentence 3 the underlined

Now let us look at the following examples and understand the behaviour and functions of the clauses we get there (Let us remember that we are studying the Dependent Clauses only and deciding their proper labels as Noun Clause or Adjective Clause or Adverbial Clause):

Noun Clause

- a. Tell me what you are doing here.
- b. I did not know what I should speak at the meeting.
- c. Give him what he wants.

(**Note:** The clauses underlined above are all dependent clauses or subordinate clauses and they appear where a Noun should otherwise appear. The clauses above are examples of the Noun Clauses).

Adjective Clause

- a. The boy who wears a red shirt is her brother. (The underlined subordinate clause adds information about the Noun going with it ('boy') and thus does the function of an Adjective. The clause here is an example of a Adjective Clause)
- b. The train which is bound for Chennai is going to leave the station now. (The underlined subordinate clause tells something about the Noun ('train') and is an Adjective Clause.
- c. The television channel which serves information on the terrorist movements of Osama Bin Laden is Al Jajera.(The underlined subordinate clause does the function of an Adjective (=it tells about the Noun ('television channel') and is an Adjective clause.

Adverbial Clause

- a.. The teacher will leave the class when the bell goes. (The subordinate clause underlined does the function of Adverb (= Adverb of time) and answers the question – 'when will the teacher leave the class?' It is an example of Adverbial clause.)
- b. If you do hard labour, you will be given a rich reward. (The clause underlined (the 'If' clause) functions like Adverb (= Adverb of condition) and puts in the condition (= makes it conditional) that 'reward' is linked to 'hard labour'. It is an Adverbial clause.
- c. He asked me to leave the umbrella in the principal's office where I had first found it. (The subordinate, clause underlined here tells 'where' to leave the umbrella and thus functions as Adverb (= Adverb of place) and thus, it is an Adverbial clause)
- d. He failed in the last examination because he had not faced it with adequate preparation. (The subordinate clause here underlined is an Adverbial clause. It offers the answer to 'why he failed' and functions as Adverb (of Reason).
- e. Do it how you think it to be the most useful for others. (The subordinate clause here underlined is an Adverbial clause. It tells about 'how' to do it and thus functions as Adverb (of Manner.)

Check Your Learning-II

1. What do you mean by Clause?
2. Discuss the kinds of Clause with examples.
3. What is the difference between Phrase and Clause.

Note: We have now come to have the basic understanding of

- a. What is a clause?
- b. How is a clause different in form and structure from a phrase?
- c. How could a clause be Independent (or Main or Principal) clause or Dependent (or

- Subordinate) clause?
- d. How should we identify or label a given subordinate clause as Noun clause, Adjective clause or Adverbial clause?
 - e. How could we make expressions using clauses of different types in sentences?

3.5 Basic Sentence Types

By now you have learnt:

- a. What is a sentence?
- b. What go into the making of a sentence?
- c. How words are made to take their respective places to fall into proper word-order in a sentence?
- d. What are the parts of a sentence?
- e. What is a phrase? What are the phrase types?
- f. What is a clause? What are the clause types?
- g. What are the punctuation marks used to show the completion of a sentence?

Now we would know the following:

1. What are the basic sentence types?
2. Which sentence types take which sentence-ending punctuation marks?
3. Which sentence types take 'not' and other negative markers?
4. What are the sentence types based on the clause types they have?

Read the following examples to get some idea of the basic sentence types.

• Sentence types:

- a. Malti is an intelligent student.
- b. Pasang won the title of Mr. College.
- c. The House Test, 2005 will be held in December.

Note : The sentences from a. to c. above say, state or declare something. They are called **statements** or **Declarative** or **Assertive** sentences. They end with full stop.

- d. Madhu does not come from a rich family.
- e. Mohan did not contest the Students' Union Election.
- f. The price of onion will not come down in near future.

Note : These sentences (d. to f.), much as those in a., b. and c. , say, state or declare facts. They are also statements or Declarative or Assertive Sentences.

Important: Whereas sentences from d. to f. use 'not', those in a. to c. do not use 'not'. The sentences a. to c. are **Affirmative** statements and d. to f. are **Negative** statements.

- g. Are you happy with your present boss?
- h. When are we to expect our stipend money?
- i. Why did you choose to disturb me at this hour?
- j. How did the police get scent of the thieves?
- k. Where is the smoke rising from?
- l. How long have you been waiting here?
- m. How often have I asked you not to offer me bribe?
- n. How much sugar you want to be added to your coffee?

Note: The sentences from g. to n. above ask questions. They are called **interrogative** sentences. They end with the question mark (?).

- o. Do this here and now.
- p. Let him go to his village and get the money for his month's expenditure.
- q. Please don't tell lies.

Note: The above sentences from o. to q. express command, order or request. They are called **Imperative** Sentences. These also end with Full stop (.).

- r. May you live long.
- s. May your mother recover soon.
- t. God bless you, my son.

Note: The above sentences from r. to t. express wishes. They are called **Optative** Sentences.

- u. How tall Minu is!
- v. Wow! Look at the sunset!
- w. What a beautiful scenery it is!

Note: The above sentences (from u. to v.) express a strong feeling or emotion. These are called **exclamatory** sentences.

- We, however, have sentences which we label under different types considering the kinds of the clauses and how many clauses these sentences have. Now let us have a look at the following sentences and find out what their clause types are and what type of sentences they would be.

Note: 1. The number of Finite Verb in a sentence tells us how many clauses there are in it.

(i) When there is only one Finite Verb in a sentence (that is otherwise complete), we have a **simple** sentence.

(ii) When the number of Finite verbs in a sentence is more than one, we have to see what type of clauses we are getting in the sentence and then we could come to decide the sentence type:

If there are Independent clauses only and these are joined together with a coordinating conjunction ('and', 'but'), we will have a compound sentence.

- a. He insulted me, but I excused him. (Two Independent Clauses (1) He insulted me, (2) I excused him - are joined together with coordinating conjunction 'but')
- b. We will go to the fair and buy many toys there. (Two Independent Clauses (i) We will go to the fair, (2) We will buy many toys there - are joined together with coordinating conjunction 'and')

Note: The sentences a. and b. above have two Independent clauses each. The clauses in each sentence have been joined together - in (a) 'but' and in (b) 'and' join the clauses. Such sentences with two or more Independent clauses (joined together with coordinating conjunctions) are called **Compound** sentences. The two clauses in (a) above come with the Finite verbs 'insulted' and 'excused'. And in (b) above they come with the Finite Verbs 'will go' and 'will buy'. These clauses are known as Principal clause (P.C.) and Co-Principal Clause (Co-P.C.).

- a. Though he insulted me, I excused him.
(Here the two finite verbs giving the two clauses are - 'insulted' and 'excused'. 'I excused him' is the Independent or Principal clause and 'Though he insulted me' is the Dependent or Subordinate clause.)

- b. We will go to the fair because we will get to buy more things there.
(Here the two finite verbs - 'will go' and 'will get' - give us the Independent or Principal clause 'We will go to the fair' and the Dependent or subordinate clause 'because we will get to buy more things there')

Note: When in a sentence we get both Independent (= principal) and dependent (= subordinate) clauses together, we have **complex** sentences.

Summary

We have the following sentence types:

1. Affirmative and Negative ;
2. Statements, Interrogatives, Imperatives, Optative, and exclamatories;
3. Considering the number of Finite Verbs present in a sentence and the clause types available, there could be simple sentences, compound sentences and complex sentences.

Check Your Progress-III

1. Discuss the sentence types with examples.

3.6 Expansion _

We know that words make sentences. These words come in a definite order in a sentence. The knowledge of this order of words is important as without it we can hardly form correct sentences. Depending on the type of sentence we are going to produce, we use different sentence patterns. Let us go about this business of making sentences. We will have the sentence type in mind. This will tell us in what order we are going to use the words. Here also it is important to remember the words as various parts of speech like Nouns, Pronouns, Verbs, Adjectives, and Adverbs etc. According to the meaning we want to express in sentences, we will use the number of words. Hence when we make longer sentences, we obviously use more words. The idea of Expansion is basically related to this sentence construction and gradual enlargement or lengthening of the sentences.

Read and understand

- a. Go
- b. Go now.
- c. Go there now.
- d. Go there now if you like.
- e. Go there now or stay here and do your work if you like.

Note : In sentences from a. to e. above, we may find that for Imperatives we may have _____ as minimum as only one word expressions or sentences. Gradually as per need _____ we could expand or enlarge the one word expression adding more words to convey _____ time, place, condition, choice etc. Accordingly also we find that we could have _____ simple sentences using less words and complex sentences using more words.

- f. What is this?
- g. What is this that you want?
- h. What is this that you want to achieve through such activities?
- i. What is this that you think you would achieve when other options are there before you?

Note: In the sentences from f. to i. above, we find that simple sentence constructions in _____ Interrogatives require less number of words than the constructions involving _____ complex sentences. You should observe how additional words are used at every _____ step

when we are moving from simple sentence types to the complex ones.

- j. What a cold weather (it is)!
- k. So Cold!
- l. What a cold weather it is here at Bomdila, specially in the months of December and January!
- m. What a cold weather it is here at Bomdila, specially in the months of December and January when cold wind blows past the snow-clad mountain tops of se-la!

Note : The Exclamatories here in sentences from j. to m. above, show how gradually more and more words we come to use to express our feelings about the cold weather at Bomdila and how from simple constructions we move to complex constructions and expressions with feelings and thoughts packed into only one long or very long sentence.

- n. May you live long !
- o. May you live long as you are the only hope for the future for your mother!
- p. May the action of the just smell the sweetest in the dust because it is only then that the succeeding generations will be inspired to follow the path of justice and good!

Note : If you look at the sentences from n. to p. above, you would come to feel how in making Optative sentences longer, we tend to turn to complex type of sentences constructions putting in more words.

- q. This is a cat.
- r. This is a big cat.
- s. This is a big fat cat.
- t. This is a big fat cat and my neighbour's pet.
- u. This is a very big fat cat and my old neighbour Mr. Mohanan's dearest pet.
- v. This is a very big fat cat who is my old neighbour Mr. Mohanan's dearest pet whom his eighty years old grandmother regularly feeds with rice and fish.

Note: In the statements above from q. to v., we find how we have simple sentences, compound sentences and complex sentences or mixed sentences (where we have compound sentence construction mixed with the complex sentence form). We also saw that with every time additional information being required to be put, we have to add more words to convey the new and added meanings.

Check Your Progress-IV

- 1. What do you mean by Expansion?

3.7 Transformation of Sentences

You know by now the following:

- 1. Sentences and sentence parts,
- 2. Basic sentence types,
- 3. Phrases,
- 4. Clause types,
- 5. Parts of speech etc.

Now you should be able to make sentences using your own words to express your ideas and feelings. With this knowledge and this confidence, sometimes you may be feeling that you could speak the same thing in many ways at different times. Yes, we hardly say the same words in same sentences when at different times in different groups we describe the same things.

It is here where we find that there is a need for the knowledge of Transformation of sentences. We would be doing Transformation practice here with some sentences. We would do the following in this section :

1. Using 'sothat' in 'to
2. Using Degrees of comparison interchangeably
3. Changing Affirmative into Negative sentences, and
4. Changing Negative in Affirmative sentences,
5. Changing Assertive into Interrogative sentences and the Interrogative to Assertive sentences,
6. Changing Exclamatory sentences to Assertive sentences and the Assertive to Exclamatory sentences,
7. Changing active voice to passive voice and the passive voice to active voice.
8. Changing one part of speech to another.

We must keep in mind the following few aspects:

1. We are interested in changing only the form of a sentence.
2. We take care for not changing the meaning of the sentence.
3. We are going to get a lot of practice and a lot of confidence in expressing things with freedom and variety.
4. Transformation exercises are also known as conversion (of sentences) exercises.

Read and Understand how Transformation/Conversion is done

* Transformation of 'too to' sentences to 'so that' sentences

'tooto' sentences

'sothat' sentences

- Sentences with ‘too’ could be changed in ‘too + Adjective ‘ expressions (and not in ‘too + adjective + to’ ... expressions i.e. ‘too ... to’ expressions) in the following way :

Examples

‘too + Adjective’ sentences

‘Very’ + Adjective sentences

- Transformation of sentences with one Degree of Comparison into another Degree of Comparison.

Note: Sentences with Adjectives and Adverbs suggest degrees of comparison of the said
 Adjectives or Adverbs. When we change the degree of comparison of Adjective or
 Adverb in a sentence, we must be careful not to change the meaning of the sentence. We
 should remember that Degrees of comparison suggest the positive Degree, comparative degree
 and superlative degree as in ‘good’, ‘better’, ‘best’ or for Adverbs – ‘fast’, ‘faster’, ‘fastest’.
Positive *Comparative*

Comparative

Positive

- Transformation of sentences: Affirmative to Negative and Negative to Affirmative.

Note: 1. You must remember that in Affirmative sentences, we don't use 'not' (the negative marker), and we certainly use 'not' in a Negative Sentences.

2. It is necessary to keep in mind that in Transformation of sentences we are to change the form of the given sentence and ensure that its meaning is not changed.

3. In order to do it i.e. not to change meaning even while changing the form of a sentence, it is necessary to watch that we are not simply doing an exercise of putting 'not'. Rather, we should take care how even after using 'not' we are able to save the meaning of the original sentence.

Affirmative to Negative

Negative to Affirmative

Work for you

Read the above examples to take note of the way the change of form in the above sentences takes place. Move from Negative to Affirmative and again from Affirmative to Negative for greater practice and understanding and confidence.

- Transformation of sentences! Interrogative to Assertive and Assertive to Interrogative.

Assertive to Interrogative

- Transformation of Sentences: Exclamatory to Assertive and Assertive to Exclamatory.

Assertive to Exclamatory

Check Your Progress-V

1. What do you mean by Transformation of sentences?

3.8 Negation _

We are by now having knowledge of the Basic Sentence Types. There we have come across the Affirmative and Negative Sentences. We may remember that we use Affirmative sentences to affirm (firmly put) our positions and points. When we use Negative sentences, we negate certain facts to have been done and negate that certain agent (subject in the sentence) have done something. It is important to state here that we get a Negative sentence by adding the negative marker/word – ‘not’ to the verb in sentence given in the Affirmative form. Negative sentences thus are sentences in which ‘not’ has been used. When we put ‘not’ in a sentence, we change both the form and the meaning of it. Also words like *seldom, rarely, little, few, barely, scarcely, hardly*, etc. used in sentences to offer meaning in the negative.

Read and understand

Now please go through the examples given below. You are acquainted with Affirmative sentences. Let us now deal with the Affirmative sentences first to refresh our knowledge about how these sentences look i.e. about what is the general form of the Affirmative sentences.

Affirmative Sentences

1. This is our beautiful home.
2. Mohan is going to Delhi.
3. Those people in colourful dresses are tourists.
4. My brother is interested in Politics.
5. They will pass the examination.
6. The old men were easily tired.
7. He comes here everyday.
8. The young tailor stitches our trousers.
9. The coach offered them the tips for the match.
10. My friend will come back to India in 2010.
11. The police asked them a few questions on the accident.

Note: The sentences 1 to 11 above all are statements and all are positive statements. They do not have the negative word ‘not’ in them.

Now let’s look at the following examples where we would make ‘negative sentences’ by adding ‘not’ to the verb in each of the Affirmative sentences given above.

Note: In the examples above 'not' has been added to verbs to make the positive statements (= affirmative sentences) negative statements (= negative sentences).

Same basic rules about adding 'not' to verbs:

Note: In the, above examples 'be' as a full verb has 'not' added by placing 'not' after the 'be' verb (*is, are, am*).

'Be' verb forms = *is, am, are* (Present), *was, were* (past)

Similarly, the auxiliary 'be' verb has 'not' added after it. Other auxiliary verbs - *has, have, had, do, did*, and modal auxiliaries *will, shall, may, might, can, could, would, should,* etc. have 'not' added

after them.

Examples

Note : Making negative sentences with Modal Auxiliaries has been given here at one place for purposes of practice. However, remember that while using Modal Auxiliaries, special kind of verbs, for making negative sentences, we have to follow rules and usage related to modals.)

Check Your Progress-VI

1. Discuss the meaning of Negation with examples.

3.9 Interrogative

You know the basic sentence types and there you have come upon the question sentences or Interrogative sentences. In this section we will deal with the various ways in which we ask questions in various situations.

We will discuss the following in this section.

1. Examples of Interrogative sentences (for your easy recollection of the form of these sentences);
2. 'Yes' or 'No' answer-begging questions (called yes-no questions);
3. Question word questions or Information/Enquiry questions; and Question tags.

Interrogative sentences: a few examples:

1. Is he doing well at his new school?
2. Are you going to drop him at his office?
3. Are you not in a proper mood to meet your teacher?
4. Are they happy under their new boss?
5. Will you complain about it with the station superintendent?
6. Do you want me to beg excuse for your bad behaviour?
7. Does he think we would protect him for everything?
8. Did they not repay you the sum as decided?
9. Who do the Calcuttans like to be the captain of the Indian Cricket team?
10. What do you want to get from me in return for your help?
11. When does the Delhi-bound Rajdhani Express reach Guwahati Railway station?
12. Where have they decided to park vehicles on the wedding reception night?
13. How do you dare insult me?
14. Whom would you like to escort you all for the coming college excursion?
15. Why did the students decide to boycott the examination?

Note : The sentences 1 to 15 above express questions. They are called Interrogative sentences. These are making enquiries on certain things. It is important to look at the form of these sentences as different from the Assertive sentences or statements (e.g. The police arrested the thief.) The subject in the above sentences does not come before the verb, but after the part of the verb i.e. after the words *is, are, will, do, does, did* (1 to 8 above) and after *who, what, when, where, how, whom, why*. We must always see that such sentences are always made to end with a question mark (?).

'Yes' or 'No' questions : Some more examples

Note : In examples 1 to 8 under the heading "Interrogative sentences: a few examples" above, the sentences you have already come across elicit either 'Yes' or 'No' as answer when you ask the said questions. These are called 'Yes' or 'No' questions. Let us have a look at a few more such examples and also see how with given statements we can ask questions.

Note : In the sentences 1 to 25 above, when we ask the questions, we get the ‘yes’ or ‘no’ as answer.

Positive-Oriented and Negative-Oriented Questions

Positive-oriented questions are generally asked when the answer is expected to be ‘Yes’.

Examples:

1. Is somebody absent today?
2. Did you see Mr. Gohain somewhere here?
3. Has he left for office already?

(Note : Positive-oriented questions usually take words expressing positive expectation, like *somebody, somewhere, already* etc.)

Negative-oriented questions expect the answer ‘No’

Examples

1. Can’t you stop him (= prevent him) from misbehaving his brother?
2. Aren’t you ashamed of your conduct? (I think you should be, but I feel you are not going to be.)
3. Doesn’t he have any sense? (I thought he had, but it appears he hasn’t.)
4. Don’t you see my point? (I thought you would, but you don’t seem to.)

Note : The Negative-oriented questions always begin with an auxiliary in the negative (like *can't, aren't, doesn't* and *don't* in the examples above.)

Questions Tags or Tag Questions

Question Tags are short questions asked in spoken English or in conversational situations. These short questions, while reproduced in writing, are put just after a sentence (a statement) and are separated from the said statement by a comma. Such question tags appear to be nominally asking the opinion (of persons who are asked these questions), but practically the answer (or opinion) is taken for granted (when the statement is presented followed immediately by the tag question.)

Examples

(Note : The Affirmative statements take a negative tag and the Negative statements go with a positive tag.)

1. The boy is happy with his uncle, isn't he?
2. The students are going on a picnic, aren't they?
3. It has been very windy today, hasn't it?
4. It rained throughout the day yesterday, didn't it ?
5. She has forgotten to carry her umbrella with her, hasn't she ?
6. They are going to invite us to a dinner, aren't they?
7. Debu has passed the examination, hasn't he?
8. One has to be careful in dealing with strangers, hasn't one ?
9. He is attending the Id Namaz, isn't he ?
10. You haven't booked our tickets, have you ?
11. They don't want us to go with them, do they?
12. None of the girls liked the show, did any?
13. We didn't expect such a problem, did we ?
14. Sonam hadn't asked for exemption, had she ?
15. Roshmi won't do anything to hurt us, will she?

Note : The tag question takes an auxiliary and a subject (= mostly, the pronoun suitable for the subject word in the statement to which the tag is being attached.)

Question word questions or Information questions

Interrogative sentences asking for some information (and not answerable with just 'Yes' or 'No') have to take question words like *who, what, why, which, when, where, why, how, how much* etc.

Examples of the question word questions have already been given in the 'Interrogative questions – a few examples' section at the beginning of this section (example sentences 9 – 15)

Here we are going to learn how such question-word questions are to be formed. First, let us take a statement. Let's ask a yes-or-no question. Then let's ask a question to get additional and appropriate answer/ information on the related aspects of the events.

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Question word questions are formed without help of yes or no questions also, when information is already available in a statement and we want to get that information with an appropriate question.

Examples

-

Rhetorical Questions

Rhetorical Questions are neither ‘yes’ or ‘no’ question nor information questions. They only make forceful statements in the form of questions. We have to note that a positive rhetorical question makes a strong negative assertion and a negative rhetorical question makes a strong positive assertion.

Examples:

1. Who has seen the heaven? (No one has.) Who can predict an earth quake? (No one can.)
2. Is that a good reason to leave studies?
(That is not a good reason.)
3. Do you think no one is there to help you?
(Certainly, there will be someone.)

Alternative Question

An Alternative Question wants the answer from among given choices. It is different from a ‘yes’ or ‘no’ question in that it does not get satisfied with a simple ‘yes’ or ‘no’; it wants one of the choices given to form the answer to it.

-

Check Your Progress-VII

1. Discuss the meaning of Interrogative with examples.

3.10 Passivization

While discussing the verbs and their uses, you have come across the use of verbs as transitive (= object – taking verbs). In this section in addition to your knowledge of the transitive verbs, you also would get a chance to remember the parts of the sentence (subject and predicate). You are aware that a subject is the doer of the action (and verb, or more specifically the Finite verb in the predicate part suggests the action done, when it is done etc.) Till you are interested in the subject who does the action (the action denoted by the Verb in the sentence as discussed above), you are having the sentence in the Active Voice form. However, when you are more interested in the action and you are hardly interested in who does the action (subject), you can find a sentence in the Passive voice form.

- It is of great importance for you to use your knowledge of Active voice sentences to get passive voice forms:
 1. I did it. (sentence) = I (subject) + did it (predicate)
 2. Transitive Verb = Verb (did) + Object (it)
 3. Object = i. Direct object; ii. Indirect object.
- It is important to go for passive voice form of sentences for the following purposes.
 1. When who does the action is not important, but what happens (the action, the result) is important.
 2. In describing scientific and technical processes.

Example: Common salt is got from the sea. Sea water is collected in salt pans. It is allowed to evaporate in the sun. Then, salt crystals are formed at the bottom. They are removed and derived in the sun.

- It is always desirable not to insist on a Passive Voice form just because an Active Voice sentence is available right at hand.
- It is also desirable not to be rigid about the use of the ‘by + agent’, or ‘preposition (*with, to* etc.) + agent’ in certain Passive voice forms. The main reason of this advice is that as soon as you have taken up the passive voice form, your main interest is getting shifted from the Agent (subject in the sentence) to the action (the verb and the object (s)).

The Active Voice sentence (for the present purpose only) form would be - subject + Verb(tr) + Object (direct) or Subject + Verb (Tr) + Object (Indirect) + Object (Direct)

e.g. I gave him that pen
 Subject Verb Object Object
 (Pron.) (Finite & Tr.) (Indirect) (Direct)

The verb as it is put in the sentence in the Passive voice form must always be in the auxiliary *be* + past participle form of the Verb (Main verb).

Examples:

Present Tense uses

-

Past Tense Uses

Future Tense Uses

Points to Remember

1. Passive voice form makes us hold our interest in the action (verb and object) and not in the subject/ agent/doer of the action.
2. Once Passive Voice form is used, there is hardly any rigid necessity to give preposition (*by/with/to*) + objective form of the Noun in the subject in the Active Voice Sentence (*I – me, we – us, you – you, he – him, she – her, they – them*).
3. Use Passive Voice form when you are not interested in the doer of the action or the doer is either not important to be specifically given or very obvious to be known without any conscious effort.
Example:
The audience cheered the speech (Active)
The speech was cheered (Passive)
Here the ‘by + agent (audience)’ is superfluous to be given.
4. We must take care to give the form of the verb in the Passive according to the tense of the verb given in the Active. Though clear examples have been provided above involving each tense form (for the present time, the past time and the future time), you may find the following chart useful. It gives the Passive Voice forms of Verbs in the various tenses.

<u>Tense</u>	<u>Form in the Passive Voice</u>
Present simple	<i>am + p.p. (Past Participle), is + p.p, are + p.p.</i>
Past simple	<i>was + p.p., were + p.p.</i>
Future	<i>Will/Shall + be + p.p.</i>
Present continuous	<i>am + being + p.p., is + being + p.p., are + being +p.p.</i>
Past continuous	<i>was + being + p.p., were + being + p.p</i>
Present Perfect	<i>has + been + p.p., have + been + p.p.</i>
Past Perfect	<i>had + been + p.p.</i>
Future Perfect	<i>will/shall + have + been + p.p.</i>

No passive voice forms are in use for Present Perfect Continuous, Past Perfect Continuous, Future Perfect Continuous and also for Future Continuous tenses.

Passive Voice forms of Verbs with modal auxiliaries: Some examples

Passive Voice form in case of Commands

Passive Voice form for Questions

- Yes or No Questions

Note: The form of the verb in the passive voice question:

(Active) *do/does/did* + 1st form of verb.

(Passive) 'be' (= *is/am/are/were*) + Past participle

Example: Is Oriya spoken by them?

(Active) modal auxiliary + 1st form of the verb

(Passive) modal auxiliary + be + past participle

Example: Can he be asked to go by bus?

Must the tree be cut?

(Active) *has/have/had* + past participle

(Passive) *has/have/had* + been + Past participle.

Example: Have you been invited by her?

Question word Question or Information Questions

Note: The form of the verb in the passive: a form of 'be' verb + past participle or modal auxiliary + a form of 'be' + past participle (if modal auxiliary is used in the active voice)

Passive voice form in case of Negative Sentences

Note : The Passive Voice sentences from negative sentences are formed in the same way as the affirmative sentences, but the only point where we must take a little additional care is that we are to put ‘not’ (as in ‘was’ + not + attended’ etc. in the examples above)

Passive voice forms with other than ‘by’ preposition in the ‘by’ + agent part.

Examples:

<u>Active</u>	<u>Passive</u>
1. My son’s progress does not satisfy me.	I am not satisfied at my son’s progress. (not ‘by’ my son’s progress.)
2. Gardening interests my wife.	My wife is interested in gardening (not ‘by’ gardening.)
3. His behaviour has disgusted (‘at’ and not ‘by’)	Everybody is disgusted at his everybody. eveybody.
4. The news shocked us.	We were shocked at the news. (‘at’, not ‘by’)

3.11 Let Us Sum Up

By now you have learnt the practical usage of grammar by using phrases, clauses, knowledge of basic sentence types, expansion, transformation of sentences, etc. These exercises will perfect you in the skill of writing correctly.

3.12 Key Words

Phrase: A phrase is a group of words with no subject-predicate relationship possible within itself.

Clause: A clause is also a group of words (in a sentence) and within the group of these words itself, it has a subject-predicate agreement.

Transformation of Sentences: Here you learn to transform the structure of the sentence without changing its meaning.

3.13 Check Your Learning

- 1) What is a phrase? How many types of phrases are there?
- 2) What do you mean by clause? How many types of phrases are there?
- 3) How many types of sentences are there in English?
- 4) What do you mean by Expansion?

3.14 Suggested Readings

- 1) Mckay, Sandral, : *Teaching Grammer, Form, Function & Technique.*
- 2) Quirk, etal, : *A University Grammar of English.*

3.15 Hints/Answer to Questions in Check Your Progress

Check Your Progress-I

Hints – For answer see section -3.3

Check Your Progress-II

Hints- For answer see section-3.4

Check Your Progress-III

Hints- For answer see section-3.5

Check Your Progress-IV

Hints - For answer see section- 3.6

Check Your Progress-V

Hints – For answer see section-3.7

Check Your Progress-VI

Hints- For answer see section -3.8

Check Your Progress-VII

Hints- For answer see section 3.9

Check Your Progress-VIII

Hints- For answer see section 3.10

Unit-IV

FORMAL AND INFORMAL USAGE, RULES AND CONVENTIONS; CORRECTIONS, GRAMMATICALITY AND APPROPRIACY

Structure

- 4.0 Objectives
- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Works for You
- 4.3 ‘Get’ instead of ‘become’
- 4.4 Use of ‘I think,’ etc.
- 4.5 Infinitive implied by particle
- 4.6 Use of ‘Else’
- 4.7 Use of ‘Or else’
- 4.8 Infinitive

- 4.9 Emphatic connectives
- 4.10 Emphatic colloquial interrogation
- 4.11 Emphatic Clause Inversion
- 4.12 'There is' and 'It is'
- 4.13 Reported Speech: Imperative
- 4.14 Miscellaneous Exercises
 - 4.14.1 Much (many), Far
 - 4.14.2 Also, Too
 - 4.14.3 Just as Well, Just As Soon, Rather
 - 4.14.4 Certainly and Surely
 - 4.14.5 Fairly and Rather
 - 4.14.6 Rather
- 4.15 Noun, Determiners, Adjective
- 4.16 The Personal Pronouns
- 4.17 Gender
- 4.18 Number
- 4.19 Possessive Adjectives and Pronouns
- 4.20 Some, Any, No, None
- 4.21 One, Oneself
- 4.22 All, Both
- 4.23 Half
- 4.24 Each, Either, Neither, Every
- 4.25 Enough
- 4.26 A Few, etc.
- 4.27 More
- 4.28 A good/good many
- 4.29 Gerunds
- 4.30 Prepositional Phrases
- 4.31 Relative Clauses
- 4.32 Adverbial Particles
- 4.33 Adjectives and Adverbs Identical in Form
- 4.34 Permission
- 4.35 Probability and Likelihood
- 4.36 Possibility
- 4.37 Ability and Achievement (and their Opposites)
- 4.38 Intention
- 4.39 Plan and Arrangements
- 4.40 Obligation and Necessity
- 4.41 Determination, and Resolve; Willingness
- 4.42 Promises Threats, Refusals
- 4.43 Wishes, Hopes; Preferences
- 4.44 Purpose and Result
- 4.45 Cause; Reason; Result
- 4.46 Comparison and Contrasts
- 4.47 Concession
- 4.48 Conditions and Suppositions
- 4.49 Formation of words
 - 4.49.1 Negative Prefixes: *un-*, *non-*, *in-*, *il-*, *ir-*, *im-*, *dis-*, *a-*, *ab-*
 - 4.49.2 Reversative Prefixes
 - 4.49.3 Pejorative Prefixes
 - 4.49.4 Prefixes of Degree or Size
 - 4.49.5 Locational Prefixes
 - 4.49.6 Prefixes of Time and Order
 - 4.49.7 Other prefixes
- 4.50 Suffixation
- 4.51 Prepositions
- 4.52 Let Us Sum Up

- 4.53 Key Words
- 4.54 Check Your Learning
- 4.55 Suggested Readings
- 4.56 Hints/ Answers to Questions in Check Your Progress

4.0 Objectives

In this unit you should be able to understand the formal and informal usages, rules and conventions, how to make corrections, grammaticality and appropriacy, etc. which will help you to write correct English for all purposes.

4.1 Introduction

In Unit-III we have learnt grammar and usage on the prescribed areas of phrases, clauses, sentence types etc.

It is important for us in this unit to realize that language is a matter of use. Language is a social phenomenon. For a variety of needs and in a number of situations, we use our knowledge of rules of grammar while formulating sentences for expression of our ideas. In our study of language, it is always useful for us to take note of how on formal and informal occasions we express our feelings and thoughts and how rules of grammar and conventions of use of expressions help us in making our own use of the English language both grammatically correct and situationally appropriate.

4.2 Work for you

The parts selected and reproduced for your reference and study as said above are meant to be carefully read and understood. Go through the exercises that are given along with the examples and provided with explanations on the use of important concepts and expressions in English.

4.3 'Get' instead of 'become'

This use of 'get' is very common. There is an interesting development of this in the *Passive Voice* where the verb *get* replaces *be* usually to stress the moment of action rather than the resultant state. (Owing to the frequent use of past participles as adjectives, the ordinary passive construction cannot always make it clear whether *action* or *state* is meant).

- The boy was hurt.
- The boy got hurt.
- He was married to a beautiful girl. (state)
- He got married to a beautiful girl. (action)
- I got wet through standing in the rain. (became)
- My arms got badly burnt in the sun.

Refashion the following statements using a *get*-form:

1. The razor became rusty.
2. She burned the pudding. The pudding . . .
3. I hope you will become well again quickly.
4. He squashed his finger in the door. His finger. . .
5. We shall soon become tired, waiting here all night.
6. Someone ate the last cake yesterday. The last cake.. .
7. My hands have become dirty oiling my bicycle.
8. My teacher told me off yesterday. I. ...
9. He broke his arm in a fight. His arm . . .
10. If you eat too much, you will become ill.
11. The maid broke another cup last night. Another

cup....

12. The English beat the Australian cricket team. The
Australians . . .

4.4 Use of 'I think' etc.

A useful and important time saver in English speech is this use of *so* with *I think, believe, hope, am afraid*, etc., in responses.

I think it will be fine tomorrow. - Oh, I hope *so*. (Affirmative)

You haven't caught cold, have you? - I *don't* think *so*. (Negative)

Think and *believe* may also use this device, especially when emphasis is required.

I wonder if they've got lost. -

- (1) Oh, I hope not.
- (2) Oh, I don't think *so*. (I think not.)
- (3) I'm afraid *so*. (I'm afraid they have.)

4.5 Infinitive implied by its article

A very odd but important idiom particularly in spoken English is the habit of finishing a phrase (usually a response) with the infinitive particle to leave the verb to be implied.

Example:

Will you show me how to do it properly?

I shall be glad to.

4.6 Use of 'Else'

This interesting adverb is now so closely bound to certain pronouns that it is rarely heard apart from them. The *some, any, and no* compounds are followed by *else* to avoid the clumsy form 'any other person,' some other thing,' etc. All are singular, including *everyone else*. Interrogatives (but rarely *why*,

which, when) are similarly followed by *else*.

For possessives see the next exercise

How *else* and *when else* are less frequently used than the forms in the previous exercise. Since *else* is felt to be firmly tied to the word preceding it, the correct possessive form '*anyone's else*' sounds unnatural; the accepted form in current English is *anyone else's*. The same applies to the interrogatives with *else*. One still hears occasionally, 'what could I do else?' but it seems to be dying out. Perhaps for the sake of clarity, the teacher should insist on *what else could I do?* And for the possessive: *Who else's can it be?*

4.7 Use of 'Or else'

This is a very useful connective expressing the condition *if not*. It is very frequently met with in conversation, but rarely learnt and practised by foreigners.

Come early, or else you won't get anything to eat. = If you don't, you won't get. . .

Or can always take its place; *else* acts as a kind of intensifier.

Check Your Progress-IV

- Q. Join the following pair of sentences with 'or else'.
1. Put your coat on. If you don't, you'll catch cold.
 2. You must hurry. If you don't, you'll be late.
 3. We must look pleased. If we don't, he'll be cross.
 4. Hide it. If you don't, they will steal it.
 5. I must clean it. If I don't, it will get rusty.

4.8 Infinitive

Frequently a clause having the same subject as that in the main sentence can be more concisely expressed by using an infinitive and thereby avoiding repetition of the subject.

I was glad when I heard of your success. I was glad *to hear* of your success.

Notice also its use in other cases as in 'He was the first man to climb Mount Everest.'

Check Your Progress-V

- Q. Re-word the following sentences using the infinitive:
1. He was sorry when he heard of your disappointment
 2. He hopes that he will know by tomorrow.

4.9 Emphatic Connectives

Who, what, which, whose, when, where, how - these are all written as single words when they are joined with *ever* as in *whoever, whatever*, etc. and usually pronounced with stress on the first syllable of *ever*. Note that *whoever* is usually preferred to *whosever*. There are two main uses in modern English.

1. IN THE SENSE 'it doesn't matter who, which, when,' etc.

Whoever says that is a liar.

I'll sell it to whoever arrives first.

Eat whatever you like.*

I'll do whatever you tell me to.*

We were warmly welcomed wherever we went.

We shall be pleased to see you whenever you care to call.

Learn whichever poem you find most interesting.

The three of them agreed that whichever (whoever) arrived first should save seats for the other two.

The simple pronoun *what* can usually replace *whatever* (as in the examples marked*); *who* and *which* are no longer used in this way in modern English.

2. PARENTHETICALLY (suggesting ignorance or indifference).

I'll give the pen back to John or Henry, or whoever it belongs to.

I'll come at 10 to 10.30, or whenever I can get there.

Check Your Progress-VI

- Add the appropriate *ever*-form to the following:
 1. – one of us has got to pay for it, it won't be me.
 2. Take – much you want and – you want to.
 3. – smashed my glass shall pay for them, - he's hidden himself.
 4. Take this bag, basket or – it is, and hangs it up – you can find room for it.

4.10 Emphatic Colloquial Interrogatives

The uses of *ever* in the previous exercise must not be confused with its very common use in spoken English merely to emphasize the speaker's surprise, consternation or annoyance in question form. *Ever* is written here as a separate word, and usually there is stress on *both words* :

Who on earth is that young man in the yellow waistcoat? Who ever can he be? What ever are you doing?

Compare

Whatever he does, he does badly.

In angry or impetuous speech, stronger expressions take their place, notably *the dickens, the devil, the blazes, the hell*, all except the last are tolerable in normal society if the situation warrants violent emphasis, though references to the infernal regions should perhaps be avoided in the presence of sensitive ladies.

What the devil do you mean by that?

Who the blazes do you think you are?

Whom and *whose* are not used in this spoken form

Check Your Progress-VII

Q. Read the following remarks, reinforcing them with *ever*, *on earth*, or any of the stronger forms at will. Be careful of stress and intonation:

- 1 What made you do that?
- 2 Why are you late?
- 3 When is Maisie coming?
- 4 Who broke my pen?

4.11 Emphatic Clause Inversion

A fairly common device for emphasis in spoken English is to change the order of principal and subordinate clauses, in order to lay greater stress on the adverbial phrase. A couple of examples will explain this more easily.

I don't know how far he's gone.

He's gone I don't know *how* far.

I don't know how many things she's broken.

She's broken I don't know *how* many things.

The majority are *how* . . . constructions.

Check Your Progress-VIII

Q. Change the following into a similar emphatic form. Remember that intonation is important:

1. I don't know how many books I've read.
2. I don't know how many times I've told you.

4.12 *There is* and *it is*

There is, *there are* - this is the most usual way of denoting existence in English. When the subject has not already been defined.

The two books are on the table. (We know which books.)

There are two books on the table. (Location of two unknown books.)

'Two books are on the table' is a grammatically possible, but very rare form.

Check Your Progress-IX

Q. Add the correct form of *There is* to the following:

1. - two dogs in the garden.
2. - a good film on at the Regal.
3. - a lot of people in the park yesterday.
4. - a party in our house tomorrow.
5. - an old friend of yours at the concert last night.

It is, *was*, etc. are useful for introducing a complex subject (phrase or clause), which would sound very clumsy if used the real subject.

It's impossible to guess her age.

It is wrong not to do as you are told.

Check Your Progress-X

Q. Add the correct form of '*It is*'.

1. - a pity (that) she is so stupid.
2. - a shame to spend all this money.

3. - a wonder (that) you didn't hurt yourself.
4. - stupid not to go yesterday.
5. - a great day when he passes his examination.
(Note that 'a great day' is not the true subject of this sentence).

See notes on Exercises *above*. *It* is also used as the meaningless subject for impersonal verb that find a few expressions of time and distance.

It's raining hard.
It was nearly 10 o'clock.
It's a long way to Timbuktu.

4.13 Reported Speech: Imperative

Say is usually with the actual words spoken. It is never used with the infinitive in reported speech.

Tell is never used in the sense of 'recount', with the actual words spoken. A personal object is always present. Imperatives become infinitive phrases in reported speech, preceded by a verb such as *tell, order, command, ask*, with a (pro)noun for the person addressed.

Bring me a book.
He asked her (him, us, etc.) to bring him a book.

Check Your Progress-XI

Q. Put into **Reported Speech**, using the verb indicated:

1. Go away. (He told)
2. Come here. (I asked)
3. Eat it up. (Tell)
4. Run away. (They told)
5. Pay at once. (They ordered)

A negative imperative is reported by means of a negative infinitive.

Don't do it. He asked me (her, us, etc.) not to do it.

Check Your Progress-XII

Q. Put into **Reported Speech**:

1. Clean it yourself.
2. Wrap it up in a piece of paper.
3. Cut the corners off.
4. Fasten your safety belts.

4.14 Miscellaneous Exercises

In this section several exercises will be included that are not easily brought into the general grammatical outline of the book. Some are on points of stress, intonation, etc., others on points of grammatical usage not dealt with under the main headings of this book; others on points of more importance in writing than in speech.

4.14.1 Much (many) – a lot of; far - a long way

There is a very strong tendency in English, where alternatives are available to use the shorter

forms in negatives and questions. Thus although 'He has much time' is correct grammatically is NEVER seen or heard in modern English. *Plenty of, a lot of, a great deal of* replace *much* and *many* in simple affirmative statements. *Much* is particularly objectionable in affirmative statements; *many* is uncommon.

Similarly *far* (= extent of distance) has a long way; *far off* (= position at a distance) has a long way off; and *far away, far back* have a long way away, a long way back in simple affirmative statements.

4.14.2 Also, Too

Too can also be used at the end of a phrase. It is more frequently used in the spoken language than *also*.

- Read the following sentences, replacing *also* by *too*:
 1. I've also got one like that.
 2. My friend also speaks German. (2 MEANINGS, 2 INTONATIONS)
 3. You must also buy yourself a new hat.
 4. He also gave me one. (2 INTONATIONS, STRESSING he OR me)
 5. The dog also wants his dinner. _

4.14.3 Just as well, Just as soon, Rather

Might (just) as well, would just as soon, would rather are three very important forms for expressing preference. They are extremely common in speech, but rarely employed successfully by a foreign student. Consider the ideas:

'Come at six.' 'I want to come at five.'

The response can be given further nuances:

1. I might just as well come at five. = It's immaterial to me (as far as I'm concerned); Why not at five? – a counter proposal.
 2. I'd just as soon come at five. = I'd like five equally well, if it makes no difference to you. Unlike (i) this type demands the implication 'I'd just as soon do this as (do) that (subject to your approval)'. A weak preference.
 3. I'd rather come at five. = This is what I'd prefer. Stronger preference than (2). All three are useful vehicles for sarcasm.
- Make three sentences with each of the ideas in brackets: (a) *might (just) as well*; (b) *would just as soon* (short form); (c) *would rather* (short form). It is preferable to go through the exercise with (a), then with (b), then with (c):
 1. Let's go to the pictures. (stay at home)
 2. Let's have a cup of tea. (have a glass of hot water)
 3. Lend him the money. (throw it away)
 4. You must get up at half past three. (not go to bed)
 5. The radio is making unintelligible noises. (not listen)

4.14.4 Certainly and Surely

Certainly takes the same position as the frequency adverbs (Exercise 25.1); has the meaning 'I, etc., know for a fact, it is definite.'

Surely can replace *certainly*, but it rarely found with this meaning. Coming at the beginning of a sentence, or less frequently at the end, or immediately after the subject if it is a pronoun, it has the meaning: 'I firmly believe, I very much hope, this to be true; it's not certain, but I feel confident it will probably happen.'

You're surely not going out in this rain!

Surely you're not going out in this rain. (= I should be very surprised if you did.)

I'm certainly not going out in this rain.

It's worth going to see, surely. (= I believe it is, don't you?)

It's certainly worth going to see. (= There is no doubt in my mind.)

He surely won't forget to bring it. (= I hope not.)

He'll certainly not forget to bring it. (= I know he won't.)

Check Your Progress-XIII

Q. Reconstruct the following sentences, using *certainly* or *surely* according to the sense:

1. I know he'll be there.
2. I expect he'll be there, don't you?
3. I doubt very much if he believes you.
4. I know he doesn't believe you.

4.14.5 Fairly and Rather

The words *fairly* and *rather* are both used in English to express to a moderate degree, but foreign students frequently use those in wrong contexts.

Fairly is used when the speaker or writer wishes to affirm some positive or pleasant ideas; *rather* is used when the idea is negative or unpleasant. Or we might say that *fairly* is a step TOWARDS an ideal, but *rather* is a step away from it; or that *fairly* is half way to enough, whereas *rather* is half-way to too.

So we say 'A person is fairly well' because well is an ideal we strive for; but 'A person is rather ill' because illness is an undesirable state to achieve.

To say 'Mary is rather tall for her age' suggests she is on the way to be too tall. She is taller than we should like, she is ungainly, or she is outgrowing her strength. To say 'Mary is fairly tall for her age' expresses a certain fact, something more pleasant than otherwise. The tallness here is an ideal we approve of. To sum up:

Fairly is used with a positive or pleasant idea i.e. we approve of the ideal we are approaching.

Rather is used with a negative or unpleasant idea i.e. we disapprove of the ideal we are approaching.

Check Your Progress-XIV

Q Put either *fairly* or *rather* in the blank spaces:

1. I hope this exercise will be - easy.
2. Let's go by bus; it's a- uninteresting one.
3. I'm afraid the soup is - cold.
4. Your homework was - good this week.

4.14.6 Rather

Rather is an understatement for *very*. Sentences like:

I've got some rather good news for you.

That's really rather clever of you.

I must confess I thought she was rather charming.

He showed me some rather fine landscapes by Constable.

It wasn't rather a bad play.

Similar mistakes are not rather uncommon. (and other such double negative ideas)

Question: Would you like another cup of tea?

Response: Not half!

Well, I wouldn't say no.

I shouldn't object.

Rather! (wave intonation)

I don't mind (if I do).

This understatement use of *rather* is a diffident way of expressing *very*, especially where the Englishman hates to be definite on a subject of a complimentary, eulogistic or emotional nature.

TIPS: The correct use of *fairly* and *rather* involves a psychological choice rather than a grammatical one. We normally expect something to be *fairly easy* or *rather difficult* to do. But if our 'ideal' is the difficulty, it is quite natural to speak of a suitable sentence as *fairly difficult* and an unsuitable one as *rather easy*.

4.15 Nouns, Determiners and Adjectives

For the purpose of setting out the ways in which determiners are used (or not used) with nouns, the distinction between what are now often called 'countable' or count nouns and uncountable or mass nouns is useful. Nouns such as *book*, *pen*, *apple* and *toy* are countable nouns. They can be used with the articles, with numerals, and in the plural.

Nouns such as *bread*, *knowledge*, *traffic*, *music*, *milk* and *homework* are uncountable nouns. Such nouns are not normally used in the plural (and therefore not with numerals). Some nouns belong to both classes. Time may mean occasion, as in 'How many times have you been absent in this term?' It is, in this context, a countable noun. 'I've been absent three/several/many times.' In the question 'How much time did you spend on your homework?', time is an uncountable noun.

Uncountable nouns can be used with or without determiners. In the sentence, 'Bread is made of flour', *bread* is said to be used with zero article (i.e. no article – see 3.45). Cf *a loaf of bread*: *loaf* is a countable noun and must have a determiner.

Uncountable nouns can be used with or without determiners to indicate quantity and measurement, as in *half a litre of milk*, *three metres of cloth*, *two kilogram's of flour* or as various phrases, as *a piece/bit of glass*, *a sheet of paper*, *a blade of grass*, *a pile/heap of books*, *an item of news information*.

The symbols (C) and (U) stand for countable and uncountable nouns, and are used in the Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary of Current English with noun entries to show which nouns, and, where appropriate, which meanings of nouns, are used as countable and uncountable.

4.16 The Personal Pronouns

4.17 Gender

(a) Gender is distinguished only in the third person singular pronouns *he*, *she*, *it*; *him*, *her*, *its*;
his, *her*, *its*.

If the sex of a person or animal is unknown, *it/its* may be used.

She's expecting another child and hopes *it* will be a girl.

Look at that long haired child! Is *it* a boy or a girl ?

The child was so happy that *its* face lit up with pleasure.

If the sex is known, the appropriate pronoun is used.

The baby has thrown *her/his* rattle out of the pram.

The singer was wildly cheered by *his/her* audience.

The use of the alternatives *he or she/him or her/his or her* is formal, never colloquial.

Every candidate must write his or her name in full.

In informal style such alternatives are usually avoided.

One of the passengers has lost *his* passport.

(b) Persons closely associated with ships, aircraft, cars, locomotives (or other objects for which they feel affection) often use the feminine pronouns. A sailor will use *she/her* when referring to a boat or ship. So will the owner of a car, or a salesman hoping to sell a car. Gardeners may even refer to a rose as *she*.

Isn't she a beauty!

The feminine pronouns are also used for countries. This use is not limited to emotive contexts.

Britain is proud of *her* great poets and dramatists, just as Italy is proud of *her* painters and sculptors, and Germany of *her* composers.

4.18 Number

(a) The plural pronouns *they/them* are often used to refer to persons in authority in a group to which neither the speaker nor his listener belongs and *we/us* are used for those over whom others have authority.

What a lot of questions they ask us in these census forms!

We'd like to build a garage on to the house. Will they give us permission, I wonder? (they = the planning authorities)

(b) *You* is often used with an indefinite meaning.

It's much easier to cycle with the wind behind you.

This is much more usual than:

One finds it much easier to cycle with the wind behind one.

(c) The indefinite pronouns *anybody/ anyone, everybody/ everyone* and *somebody/ someone* are used with verbs in the singular. The pronoun may be *his* or *her* (or formally *his or her*), or the plurals *they, them* and *their* may be used.

When everyone has taken his seat/their seats, the concert will begin.

Everyone seemed to be in Oxford Street, busy with their holiday shopping.

Everyone wants higher wages, don't they?

If anyone calls, tell them I'll be back about four o'clock.

It's unwise to blame anyone for their mistakes until you know all the circumstances.

(a) This common usage evades the problem of *his/her*. In contexts where grammatical correctness is desirable, the dilemma may be avoided by the use of 'we, you or people.'

We all / All of us want higher wages, don't we?

When you're all taken your seats, the concert can begin. It's unwise to blame people for their mistakes until ...

(b) The forms *me, us, him, her* and *them* are required after a preposition and are common in colloquial style when they are the complement after the verb *be*.

Who's there? It's me.

What would you do in these circumstances if you were me (= if you were in my place)?

Do you think Tom did it? I can't be sure. It may have been him, but it may have been Dick.

In formal style 'It may have been he' is preferred.

After prepositions, the object forms are used. 'Between you and me' is correct. * 'Between you and I' is incorrect.

(c) After the conjunction *than*, when there is no likelihood of misunderstanding, e.g. after a finite of *be*, the object forms are often used in colloquial style.

John's several years older than me (= than I am).

With transitive verbs, the choice between the subject and object forms depends upon what is to be understood.

I know you better than he (= better than he knows you).

I know you better than him (= better than I know him).

It is preferable to avoid the ellipsis by giving the complete statement, as in the parentheses in the examples above.

(d) After *such as*, the subject form is usual when a finite of *be* is to be understood.

You wouldn't marry a man such as he (= such as he is), would you?

Because *such as* may be replaced by *like*, the object form is sometimes used.

For men such as us /men like us (= men such as we are), the new regulations are irksome.

4.19 Possessive Adjectives and Pronouns

(a) The possessive adjectives are *my, our, your, his, her, its* and *their*. The possessive pronouns are *mine, ours, yours, his, hers* and *theirs*. *Its* does not occur as a pronoun. The notes that follow deal only with the possessive adjectives and pronouns listed in 3.13.

The possessive adjectives are used for parts of the body when the reference is to the subject of the sentence.

Jane has broken her left arm.

Harry shrugged his shoulders.

He snapped his fingers at me.

They stood there with stupid grins on their faces.

In prepositional adjuncts referring to a part of the body of the person indicated by the object of the verb, the definite article, not the possessive adjective, is used.

He took the girl by the hand and patted her on the head. (Cf He took the girl's hand and patted her head.)

I seized the thief by the collar. (Cf I seized the thief's collar.)

He had been shot through the head.

His face was covered with blood; somebody had punched him violently on the nose. (Cf Somebody had punched his nose violently.)

(b) The possessive adjectives cannot follow the demonstratives. * "That your story is not English." The demonstrative precedes the noun and an *of*-phrase (*of* + possessive pronoun) follows.

That story of yours doesn't sound very likely.

Those relations of his are boring people.

(c) The possessive pronouns normally occur in the predicate but may also have front position with the noun following.

This guitar is mine, not yours. Yours is the one with the broken string.

Is that old black car yours? Mine is the new one parked over there.

Yours has not been as easy life.

The Definite Article

(a) There are many other instances of the use or non-use of the definite article in phrases. E.g. *at night/during the night; in winter (during the winter of 1975; to go to sea/to reach land (e.g. at the end of a voyage)/ to work on the land (e.g. as a farmer or farm worker); to sit down to table (e.g. to have a meal)/to lay the table (i.e. put out cutlery, dishes, etc ready for a meal).*

These uses are too numerous to be listed here. A good dictionary will supply information and examples.

(b) Names of relations (e.g.. father,, uncle) and such nouns as *teacher* and *doctor*, indicating an occupation or profession, are used without a determiner in the same way as titles (e.g. *Mr Green, Professor Green*) are used.

Mother told us to go to bed.

Waiter, bring me some mustard, please.

All right, doctor, I'll do what you say.

(c) The definite article is used with nouns indicating what is unique, as *the sun, the moon, the universe*, and with nouns modified in such a way that uniqueness is indicated, as in *the top/bottom/left side of the blackboard; the front/back of my house; the books on my desk; the year 1974; the year in which I was born.*

It is used with superlatives, as in *the tallest of the five boys; the best book on this subject, the most useful tool for the job.*

Note: Note, however, that *most, may, mean, very* may be preceded by the indefinite article.

This is a most useful reference book I have on this subject.

(d) Material and abstract nouns are used without a determiner.

Copper is a good conductor of electricity.

Wood is used for making furniture.

Her heart was filled with joy.

Faith is unquestioning confidence in someone or something.

(e) The definite article may precede such nouns if they are used with an adjunct which makes them definite.

The copper we use in Britain is all imported.

The wood this table is made of is oak.

The faith I placed in my doctor's treatment perhaps helped in its effectiveness.

(f) The definite article is used with a singular countable noun meaning the kind of (animal/object etc) 'called a ...' a use which is similar to the use of the indefinite article in 3.31.

The tiger is a fierce animal. (Plural: Tigers are fierce animals.)

The bat, they say, judges distances by a kind of echo – location.

(Plural: Bats, they say, judge distances by ...)

In colloquial style the plural is more usual.

4.20 Some, Any, No, None

(a) *Some* and *any* are used as adjectives and pronouns. *No* is used as an adjective. *None* is used as a pronoun. Their positions relative to other determiners are shown in 3.63-8.

Some (in the weak forms/ sam, sm/) and *any* are used as adjectives with plural countable nouns and singular uncountable nouns.

There's a dog in the garden.
There are some dogs in the garden.
Have you a good book on botany you can lend me?
Have you any good books on botany you can lend me?
I must write some letters, so I need some paper.

When *some* is used pronominally the strong form is used.

I need some money. You need some too, I expect. Some of these books are quite interesting.
Scotland has some of the finest scenery in the world.

Some and *any* are used with *more* (of).

Please give me some more of these. Have you any more of those?

(b) *No* is used adjectivally with plural nouns and uncountable nouns. See 3.65-6. It may be replaced by *not...any*.

There were no/ weren't any eggs in the shops.
I've no/I haven't any money.
There's not/There isn't any food in the house.
There are no/aren't any fights to Dublin this morning.
There's no time to lose.

(c) *None* is used pronominally and means *not one* or *not any*. As shown in 3.63-4, it is used with *of*.

None of this meat is fit to eat.
None of them offered to help me.

(d) *Not any* may replace *none*.

'Is there any beer in the house?' 'No, I'm afraid there's none left/ there isn't any left.'

(e) *Some*, *any*, *no* and *every* combine with *one*, *body* and *thing*. *Someone*, *anyone*, *somebody*, *anybody*, *something*, *anything*, *everything* and *nothing* are written as one word. *No* and *one* in combination is written as *no one* or *none*. The stress is on the first syllable, as *someone*, *nothing*, *everybody*.

(f) These compounds must be distinguished from such pairs as *some/any/every/no+one*, with stress on *one*, as in:

These incidents, any one of which might have led to a strike, were caused by increasing unemployment.

I have many valuable books, every one of which I borrowed from friends and did not return.

(g) These compound indefinite pronouns may be followed by adjectives, to-infinitives, or relative clauses.

We met nobody/didn't meet anybody new at the party.
Show me something new.
She won't marry until she finds someone rich and handsome.
I want something to eat.
Can't you find something useful to do?
She wants someone to talk to.
There's nothing/There isn't anything to be done about it.
If only I could find someone I could trust!

(h) The *for* + noun/pronoun + to infinitive construction may follow these compounds.

There's nothing/There isn't anything suitable for children to read in this library.
Haven't you anything/have you nothing for me to do?
I must find someone for you to play tennis with.

4.21 One, Oneself

(a) The indefinite pronoun *one* has the possessive form *one's* and the reflexive form *oneself*. It is to be distinguished from the numeral *one* (as in the series one, two, and three). (See 3.34 and 3.54) The indefinite pronoun *one* is used in formal style meaning 'a person.' It may refer to the speaker or to the person spoken to.

One mustn't take oneself too seriously.

In this example *you* or *people* would be more likely in colloquial style.

One is usually oversensitive about one's own family.

In this example too, *you* is more likely in colloquial style.

One should always give a suspected criminal the benefit of the doubt.

You or *We* is more likely in colloquial style. The indefinite pronoun *one* is followed by *one's* and *oneself* in British usage and by *his/her*, *himself/herself* in American usage.

One does not like to have one's word doubted.

One does not like to have his word doubted.

(b) The pronoun *one*, with plural ones, may be used in place of a countable noun. When used in this way it may be preceded by *the*, *this/that*, *these/those* and *which*.

This is the one I prefer.

These are the ones I prefer.

Add these examples to the ones (= those) you have already noted.

This one is better than that.

These ones are better than those.

Which one(s) do you like best?

One may be used, or omitted, after ordinals and after *either/neither*, *next/last* and *other*.

The first three books are novels, the next two are biographies and the last (one) is a guidebook.

I arrived first. The next (one) to arrive was James. This is a left-hand glove and so's the other (one)! Neither (one) fits me, so they can't be mine.

As shown in the examples, *one* may be omitted.

(c) The indefinite article may precede *one* only when there is an adjective.

Look at these pears. This seems to be a nice ripe one.

Your plan is a good one but mine's a better one/mine's better.

I asked for a short essay, and you've written a long one.

One is not used after a possessive adjective or an genitive unless there is also an adjective.

This is my desk and that's my brother's (* my brother's one).

Tom's desk is neater than John's (* John's one).

If an adjective occurs after a possessive adjective or a genitive, *one* is obligatory.

My cheap camera seems to be just as good as John's expensive one.

Cf My camera seems to be as good as John's (* as John's one).

Your old suit looks as smart as my new one.

(d) *One* as a numeral has to be distinguished from the indefinite pronoun. The numeral *one* is used with an *of*-adjunct and has the plural *some/any*.

One of my friends arrived late.

I'd like to borrow one/some of your books on European history.
One of the men lost his passport.
One of the girls hurt herself.

4.22 All, Both

- (a) *All* is used with countable and uncountable nouns. It precedes possessives and other determiners.

All wines are not sweet.
Is all (of) this money yours?
Are all (of) these books yours?
All (of) my sister's children are good at sport.
All (of) these students passed the examination.

If a noun is preceded by a cardinal number with no other determiner, *of* is not used.

All six boys arrived late.

Of is not obligatory between all and the determiners *the, this/that, these/those* and the possessives. See the examples above, in which *of* is in parentheses.

- (b) *Both* is used with countable nouns. It precedes possessives and other determiners. As with *all* (see 3.55), *of* is not obligatory with *the, this/that, these/those* and the possessives. It is obligatory with personal pronouns.

Both (of) the/these/those books are mine.
Both (of) John's sisters are tall.
Both of them/us/you arrived late.

Both/all of and a plural personal pronoun may be replaced by the pronoun followed by *both/all*.

John wrote to both of us/to us both.
Mother sent both of them/ them both to bed.
He visited all of us/us all.
The teacher praised all of them/them all.

- (c) *All* and *both* may be placed after the verb. They have the same positions as mid-position adverbs (see 4.4)i.e. before non-anomalous finites and after anomalous finites.

With unstressed anomalous finites;

They can both play well.
They were both absent.
You'll both be late.
They've all gone to Wales.

With stressed anomalous finites

I asked neither of them to come, but they both did (come).
I asked all of them to help, and they all did (help).

4.23 Half

Half may be included with the determiners because it is a measure of number or quantity, like *all, both* and the numerals.

Like *both* and *all* it may be used with or without *of*, except before personal pronouns, where *of* is obligatory.

Half (of) the meat was bad.
Half (of) these apples are rotten.
He lived half (of) his life in India.
Half of it is unfit to eat.

Half of them are women.

4.24 Each, Either, Neither, Every

Each, either and *neither* are used adjectivally with singular countable nouns, and pronominally with *of* and a plural countable noun or pronoun.

The Prime Minister invited each member of the cabinet/each of them to state his views.
Each of the Ministers was invited to state his views and each of them did so.

Either proposal/either of these proposals will have my support.
There's nothing that either of us can do to help.

Neither sister/Neither of the two sisters/Neither of them was willing to nurse the sick child.

Every is used only adjectivally.

Every member of the cabinet was present.
Every room in this hotel has a private bathroom.

Every may be used with the pronoun *one*. The words are written separately.

Examine every one of the glasses carefully as you unpack them.

Distinguish this use from the use of the pronoun *everyone* (= everybody).

In this small village everyone knows everyone else.

Each may have mid-position. (Cf *both* and *all*, 3.57)

Tom, Dick and Harry each made different suggestions.

They were each praised for their suggestions.

4.25 Enough

This determiner is used with plural countable nouns and with uncountable nouns.

Have we (got)/Are there enough knives and forks for twenty people?

Have we (got)/Is there enough food for twenty people?

The use of determiners used adjectively with countable nouns

Examples from this Table

The second car is new.

The last house is large.

The first two houses are old.

The next three desks are small.

Note

1. Ordinals follow the definite article.
2. Cardinals follow ordinals.

The determiners are used pronominally with countable nouns.

Note:

1. *Of* is often omitted after *all/both*.
Both/All the boys are tall.
Both/All of the boys are tall.
2. After *none of*, the verb may be singular or plural.
None of my friends was/were there.
3. *Not* may proceed *all, both, many* and *a few, a lot*.
Not many of them are bad.
4. The difference between *a few* and *few* depends upon the situation.

4.26 A few, etc

1. *A few* is affirmative and means 'a small number', 'few' is negative and means 'not many'.
2. *A few*: Although Jack is not very sociable, people like him and he has (quite) a few friends.
3. *Few*: Nobody likes Harry; he has (very) few friends.
4. *Some* is usually replaced by *any* in negative and interrogative sentences.
Don't give me any more of that.
Would you like any more of this?

Some is used in questions that invite or expect the answer 'Yes'.

Would you like some more of this brown bread?

The use of determiners used pronominally with uncountable nouns.

Note

1. *Much* may be preceded by *how*.
2. For the use of *all* and *half* without *of*, see 3.56-6 and 3.58.
3. The difference between *a little* and *little* is like that between *a few* and *few*. *A little* is affirmative and means 'some', 'a small amount'. *Little* means 'not much'.
He earns only 20 a week and has only a little money for amusements.
He earns only 12 a week and has little or no money for anything except essentials.

4.27 More

The use of *more* after determiners used with countable nouns.

Note

1. *More* does not occur after *enough* or with determiners used with *of*.
2. *More* is optional after determiners used without *of* except for *a lot, lots* and *plenty*.
3. *Many* may be preceded by a *great/good*.

4.28 A good/good many

We have a great/good many (more) books in the next room.

The use of *more* after determiners used with uncountable (or mass) nouns.

Note

1. *More* may be omitted after *some, no* and *not, much*.
2. If *more* occurs after *a great/good deal, a lot, lots* and *plenty*, *of* is not used unless the uncountable noun is preceded by a demonstrative or possessive determiner, as in the Tables in 3.67-8.
3. If *more* does not occur after these determiners, *of* is needed.
4. *Any* usually replaces *some* in negative and interrogative sentences.

Determiners used pronominally require *of* before demonstratives and possessives. *More* may be used. In this table the nouns are countable nouns, plural.

Note

1. Compare
I should like some (more) of these/these apples/your apples.
I should like some apples.

Measures of quantity are not determiners but are used in a similar way.

I should like two kilos/ a sack/a create of potatoes.

For the use of *any* in place of *some*, see 3.63 (note 5).

Of is needed before the demonstratives *this/that*, possessives and the mass noun *flour* which must be preceded here by the definite article. The nouns are uncountable or mass nouns.

4.29 Gerunds

Gerunds are used as attributive adjuncts to nouns. The primary stress occurs on the gerund, not on the noun (as is the case when a present participle precedes a noun)

A sleeping child, a child who is sleeping.

A sleeping pill, one that helps a person to sleep.

Growing children, children who are growing.

Growing pains, pains in the limbs, said to be caused by growth, felt by children as they grow.

Examples of gerunds used attributively : *A walking stick, boiling/freezing point, a ploughing match, blotting paper eating, cooking apples, a dining room, a dancing master (a teacher of dancing), retiring age (the age for retiring), a sleeping bag, a flying field.*

There is no standard usage for the use or non-use of hyphens in these collocations. The context shows whether the *-ing* word is a participial adjective or a gerund. The stress pattern is then clear. *A flying saucer* is an unidentified object seen in the sky and *flying* is the participial adjective. *A flying suit* is a suit of clothes worn by someone who is flying an aircraft, a suit for flying. So, *flying* is the gerund.

4.30 Prepositional Phrases

Prepositional phrases are used as adjuncts to nouns. There are several types of prepositional phrases. The phrase may be replaced by a preceding adjective or noun. Examples: *men of honour* (honourable men); *a walk in the evening* (an evening walk); *a swim in the moonlight* (a moonlight swim); *towns by the sea* (seaside towns).

Phrases introduced by *for*, indicating purpose, are common. The phrase may be replaced by a noun or gerund. Examples: *machines for harvesting* (harvest/harvesting machines); *expenses for travelling* (travelling expenses); *paper for writing (notes, letters) on* (writing paper/note-paper); *money for out/of/pocket expenses* (of pocket money).

Many phrases are introduced by *with* and a noun, as *the woman with a baby in her arms; the boy with (= wearing) glasses; a workman with a ladder; the man with a long nose*. When as in the last example, there is an adjective with the noun, a compound may replace the phrase, as *the long nosed man*. Other examples: *a girl with curly hair* (a curly haired girls); *a baby with a fat fingers* (a fat-fingered baby); *a workman with a white jacket* (a white-jacketed workman).

Not all such phrases can be replaced by a compound. The phrase may often be considered as a shortened form of a relative clause. 'People with (= People who receive) small pensions often find it difficult to make ends meet.' Here, *small pensioned people* are unacceptable.

Phrases may also be introduced by *without* and these may often be replaced by an adjective: *a rumour without foundation* (as unfounded rumour); *a boy without intelligence* (an unintelligent boy); *a man without money* (a penniless man); *a performance without faults* (a faultless performance). But *a rule without exceptions* is not convertible to *an unexceptional rule*, (since *unexceptional* means ordinary).

As noted above, these prepositional phrases are often a shortened form of a relative clause. The relative pronoun and a finite *of be* have been dropped, as in: *the man (who is) near the door; a wind (that*

is, that blows) *from the north*; *the shop* (that is) *opposite the post office*; *the girl* (who is) *between Anne and Jane*; *a child of six*, who is six years old/of age (convertible to *a six year old child*).

A small number of adverbs may be used as noun adjuncts. They are *above*, *then*, *after*, *up*, *down*, *away* and *home*. The last two are used of sporting events, e.g. football and cricket. Examples: *the above statement* (the statement which is above); *the then government/mayor* (then in power/office); *in after years* (in the years that up to/down from); *the up platform* (at which up trains stop); *home/away matches* (e.g. football) (played on the home ground/on the opponents' ground).

Of, *these*, *then*, and *above* are commonly used. *The above statement* is used but not *the below statement*, for which we must use *the statement below*.

Inside and *outside* are used as adverbs, and also as noun adjuncts. They are usually, when preceding a noun (as in *the inside cover*, *an outside porter*), considered to be adjectives. Adverb phrases may be hyphenated and used as adjuncts before nouns: *the half-past seven train*; *an up-to-date dictionary*; *a pen and ink drawing* (one made with a pen and ink); *an out and out failure* (a complete failure).

Genitives possession (using the word in a wide sense, to include e.g. characteristics, origin, relationship) can be expressed in various ways, e.g. by the use of the verbs *have* (or more colloquially *have got*), *belong*, *own* or *possess*, or of such nouns as *owner* or *possession*.

They have a large garden.

What pretty ears you've got!

Who does this land belong to? (or more formally) To whom does this land belong?

He owns two houses.

Who's the owner of these houses?

Before leaving the country, you must be in possession of (formal for must have) a valid passport.

Possession is also expressed by the use of possessive adjectives and pronouns.

This car is mine. This is my car.

Nouns may be used in the genitive case.

That is John's cup. That cup is John's.

Adjuncts to nouns may also be prepositional phrases with *of* and the *of*-phrase may, in some cases, be replaced by the noun in the phrase used attributively: *the top of the page* (the page top), *the top of the mountain/the mountain top*; *the foot of the mountain/the mountain foot*; *the legs of the table/the table legs*; *the City of New York/New York City*.

Singular nouns are preceded by an apostrophe as *a woman's hat*, *the boy's bicycle*, *Tom's sister*. So do plurals not ending in *-s*, as *men's shoes*, *women's hats*, *children's clothes*. Plural nouns ending in *-s* have the apostrophe only, as *the boys' books*, *the girls' dolls*. When the noun ends in /s/, /z/, /ɪz/, or /dz/ the genitive is /ɪz/, as in *St James's /dzɛmzɪz/ Park*, *Alice's /ælisɪz/ blue eyes*, *a witch's /wɪtʃɪz/ broomstick*.

After some proper names, the apostrophe without *-s* is used, as *Jesus'* (seldom *Jesus's*), *Achilles' tendon*, *Mr Jones'* (or *Jones's*) *children*. The apostrophe without *-s* is usual after some Greek names, as *xerxes*, *Socrates*, and in a few fixed phrases e.g. *for goodness sake*, *for conscience sake*, *for acquaintance sake*.

The *-s* genitive is used with the pronoun *one*, and with the compounds of *one* and *body* with *some*, *any*, *no* and *every*; *one's*, *someone's*, *anyone's*, *no one's*, *anybody's*, *everybody's*. When these are used with *else*, the *s*-genitive is added to *else*. 'This must be *somebody else's hat*, it certainly isn't mine.'

If two or three names are joined by *and*, to indicate joint owners, the *s*-genitive is added to the last name only: We visited Peak and Pike's factory last week.

The *s*-genitive is added to a group of words forming a sense unit: *my son-in-law's employer; the commander in Chief's visit; the prince of Wales's birthday; in two or three weeks' time*. There is a group genitive in the old puzzle; The son of Pharaoh's daughter is the daughter of Pharaoh's son. The group genitive is daughter of Pharaoh's son. (= the son of the daughter of Pharaoh).

Boys, boy's and *boys'* differ in print and writing but not in pronunciation. All three are pronounced /boiz/. *Doctor's* and *doctors'* are the same when spoken. The possibility of misunderstanding can be avoided by using *of*:

What's the doctor's opinion? (Singular) What's the opinion of the doctors? (Plural)

The *s*-genitive is used with plural nouns when there is no likelihood of ambiguity. Thus we may speak of *the teachers' common room*, the room used by all the teachers in a school. *Your parents' wishes* is unlikely to be ambiguous because, for the singular, either mother or father would be preferred: *your mother's/father's wishes*.

The *s*-genitive is regularly used with nouns which indicate persons. It is less often used with inanimate nouns; with these, the *of*-phrase is normal: *the back of his head; the middle of the blackboard; the front door of the house; the cap of a milk bottle*.

When the *s*-genitive is used with an inanimate noun, it may be in a traditional phrase or collocation: *out of harm's way; to one's heart's content; at one's wits' end; only a stone's throw* (away), i.e. quite near; *have something at one's fingers' ends; get one's money's worth; keep somebody at arm's length*. What the noun stands for may be thought of as having life, as when sailors speak of a ship as 'she', and of the ship's doctor/carpenter.

Nouns indicating a point of time, or measurements of time and distance, are used with the *s*-genitive, as in: *a good day's work; a month's holiday; today's/ yesterday's (news) paper; tomorrow's meeting of the General Assembly of the United Nations; this year's harvest; after a moment's thought; without a moment's rest; a three hours walk; less than a boat's length from the ship; a hair's breadth*.

Such genitives may in some cases be replaced by hyphenated compounds, as *a five-mile walk; a twenty-minute talk*. *After several hours' delay* is normal, and so is *after a delay of several hours*. The use of the *s*-genitive is becoming increasingly common in newspaper style, radio and TV reporting, and colloquial usage: *the citizens of London/ London's citizens; the population of this country/ this country's population; the leaders of the nation/the nation's leaders; the wheels of the car/the car's wheels*.

Note : The construction in which both the *of* genitive and either a possessive pronoun or a noun with the *s*-genitive are used, as in *a friend of mine / of John's*. In this double genitive the noun or pronoun following *of* must refer to a person, not a thing: *A friend of mine* means 'one of my friends', i.e. it is indefinite. Compare: *my friend John*, which is definite. Other examples: *some friends of my brother's; any friends of yours*.

My brother's friend refers to someone whose identity is clear from the situation or context, for example the friend we have been talking about. *A friend of my brother's* is indefinite; it means 'one of my brother's friends'. *Your book* refers to a definite book; *a book of yours* is indefinite. *The Prime Minister's speech* refers to a particular speech, for example one recently made and now in the news; *a speech of the Prime Minister's* is indefinite, one of his many speeches.

When a noun modified by a double genitive (e.g. *laugh* in *laugh of hers*) is preceded by a demonstrative (*this/that, these/those*), the reference is to something or someone presumed to be already known or familiar.

That remark of Susan's was impertinent.

We're getting tired of that bad temper of yours.

This boy of yours is a little nuisance.

Keep that big head of yours out of my light, please.

What business is that of yours? (= What business of yours is that?)

That is often emotive in such double genitives. *That bad temper.* Cf *your bad temper*, which could refer to a single occasion when there was an exhibition of bad temper. Compare these of that in an exclamation such as *Oh! That woman*, used with the suggestion that she is well known for some special characteristic.

An *of*-genitive is often the equivalent of an adjective or a relative clause. Examples: *that rascal of a Landlord*, that rascally landlord; *my angel of a wife*, my angelic wife, my wife who is as kind, patient, etc as an angel; *her brute of a husband*, her husband who behaves like a brute; *in a devil of a hurry*, in a devilish, i.e. in a devilish, i.e. a very great, hurry.

A noun with the *s*-genitive may be used without the following noun when the reference is to an institution, a place of residence, business, etc (e.g. a church, college, hospital, restaurant, hotel, theatre).

I met her at my uncle's (at my uncle's house).

I bought it at Selfridge's/ Harrod's (at the department store with this name).

He's vicar of St Andres's (St John's College, Cambridge or Oxford).

There's a tobacconist's (shop) in the next street.

He's gone to the butcher's baker's grocer's (shop)

When a department store is widely known, the apostrophe may be dropped, as *Selfridges/ Harrods*. When one noun is in apposition to another, the apostrophe may be dropped from the first: *Smith(s), the grocer* (the grocer called Smith).

4.31 Relative Clauses

- a) Jame is a brilliant swimmer.
- b) Jame represented Britain in the Olympic Games.

These two statements may be combined in two ways.

1. Jame, a brilliant swimmer, represented Britain in the Olympic Games.
2. Jame, who's a brilliant swimmer, represented Britain in the Olympic Games.

In sentence-1 the words *a brilliant swimmer* are in apposition to the noun *Jame*. In sentence-2, *who's a brilliant swimmer* is a relative clause. The clause has *who* as its subject. *Who*, in this clause, is a relative pronoun.

- c) That boy is Tom.
- d) He broke one of the school windows.

These sentences may be combined.

3. Tom's the boy who broke one of the school windows.
There is again a relative clause as in 2, and *who* is the relative pronoun.

In 2 the relative clause is marked off with commas. In 3 the clause is not marked off by commas.

In speech, intonation is the equivalent of punctuation, which may be regarded as a not very adequate substitute for intonation.

There is, in 2, a rise in pitch on *Jame* and on *swimmer*, and a slight pause (indicated by two short vertical strokes) after each of these words.

Jame, / who's a brilliant, swimmer, / represented Britain in the Olympic Games.

In 3, where there are no commas, there are no rises in pitch and no pauses. There may be a fall in pitch on the word to which prominence is given, e.g. the word *Tom*.

Tom's the boy who broke one of the school windows.

The two types of clause are distinguished. A clause marked off with commas is called a *non-defining or non-restrictive clause*. A clause not marked off by commas is called a *Defining or Restrictive*

Clause.

A non-defining clause is not essential. *Jame represented Britain at the Olympic Games* is complete in itself. A non-defining clause is added to give additional information. The clause may be separated by means of dashes or placed in parentheses instead of by commas.

This boy (who lives in Church Road) broke one of the school windows yesterday.

This boy/ who lives in Church Road/ broke one of the school windows yesterday.

Variations in this order are possible, chiefly by placing the adverbial of time in front position for emphasis or contrast.

Before supper he walked round the park twice.

Last term he gave lectures at the college three days a week; this term he is lecturing there five days a week.

4.32 Adverbial Particles

The term Adverbial Particle is used for a group of adverbs with characteristics of their own. The most important are: *up, down, in, out, on, off, away, back*.

These particles are used with verbs to form combinations with meanings that are sometimes regular and obvious (as in *take your hat off, put your hat on*) and sometimes irregular (as in *put off a meeting* = postpone it).

Many of these particles are used as prepositions. In the sentence *I ran down the hill*, *down* is a preposition. In the sentence, *The clock has run down*, *down* is adverb. The combination *run down* here means 'stop'. *The clock has run down*, i.e. stopped, because it needs to be wound up. In other contexts *run down* may mean become exhausted: *The battery has run down*. Transitively *run down* may mean 'hit' and 'knock down', as in *Their car ran down a pedestrian*.

There are many hundreds of such verbs – adverb combinations. The meaning is sometimes clear from the meanings of the combination. Sometimes it must be learnt independently of the separate words, as in 'The gun went off (i.e. fired) by accident.'

These particles occur in VP 2c. Sec 1.50 (Table-19).

Won't you sit down?

My hat blew off.

We must turn back.

They also occur in VP 15B. Sec 1.96-7 (Tables 57-8).

Don't throw that old hat away.

Don't throw away that old hat.

Did you wind the clock up?

Did you wind up the clock?

Turn the tap on/off.

Turn on /off the top.

These particles may have front position in exclamatory sentences.

There are two patterns.

If the subject of the sentence is a personal pronoun, the order is: particle + personal pronoun + verb.

Off they went! (= they went off.)

Away it flew! (= It flew away.)

Out it comes! (= It comes/ it's coming out.)

If the subject of the sentence is a noun, or a pronoun, that is not a personal pronoun, the order is; particle + verb + subject.

Off went John! (= John went off.)

Away flew my hat! (= My hat flew away.)

In came the others! (= The others came in.)

Compare the patterns for exclamatory here and there. See 1.35, (Notes to Table 4).

These particles are used in front position to form a lively (informal) imperative. The subject *you* is needed.

In you go! (= Go in, please.)

Out you come! (= Come out!)

The particles are also used in verbless exclamations. The pattern is : particle + with + noun/pronoun.

Out with it! (= Bring it out, tell us the news, the secret, etc. according to context.)

Down with the grammarians! (= Let us suppress them.)

Away with them! (= Take them away!)

Off with their heads! (= Cut their heads off.)

4.33 Adjectives and Adverbs Identical in Form

When we speak of ‘a fast train’, we use *fast* as an adjective. When we say, ‘The train was travelling fast,’ we use *fast* as an adverb. There are numerous adjectives, mostly short and familiar words that can be used, without change of form, as adverbs. Some, like *fast*, have only one form. Others, for example *wrong*, can be used as adverbs without change of form but are also used with the suffix *-ly*. *Wrong* is an adjective in *a wrong answer*. It is an adverb in *to guess wrong*. But before a past participle it is necessary to use *wrongly*, as in ‘We were wrongly informed.’

The following sections deal with adjectives and adverbs that are identical in form, and with the differences in the use of adverbs that sometimes have, and sometimes don’t have, the suffix *-ly* (e.g. the difference between the adverbs *high* and *highly*). These differences are sometimes differences of usage.

There is a small group of adjectives formed by adding *-ly* to nouns that denote a period of time. They are: *hourly*, *daily*, *weekly*, *fortnightly*, *monthly*, *quarterly*, *yearly*. To these may be added: *bi-weekly*, *bi-monthly*, etc. these adjectives are also used as adverbs.

There is an hourly service of trains to London. (adj)

The buses run hourly. (adv)

We advertised for a house in several weekly periodicals. (adj)

This periodical is published weekly. (adv)

Note that when the suffix *-ly* is added to nouns such as *man*, *king*, *scholar* (meaning ‘having the nature or qualities of’), the resulting word is always an adjective. It cannot be used as an adverb.

The chief words in this class are *bestly*, *brotherly*, *cowardly*, (*un*) *earthly*, *fatherly*, (*un*) *friendly*, *gentlemanly*, *heavenly*, *kingly*, *leisurely*, *lively* (from *life* + *ly*), *lovely*, *masterly*, *motherly*, *princely*, *queenly*, (*un*) *scholarly*, *sisterly*, (*un*) *solidierly*, *womanly*. If we wish to express the idea denoted by these adjectives adverbially, a phrase such as *in a leisurely manner* or *in a cowardly fashion* can be used.

That’s a cowardly thing to say. (adj)

He behaved in a cowardly fashion/manner. (adverbial phrase)

The words *early*, *fast*, *half*, *long*, and *straight* are used both as adjectives and adverbs.

We had an early breakfast. (adj)

We had breakfast early. (adv)

We had breakfast earlier than usual. (adv)

We went by a fast train. (adj)

Don’t speak so fast. (adv)

The post is fast in the ground. (adj)

The paper was stuck fast to the desk. (adv)

He was fast asleep. (adv)

We waited half the afternoon. (adj)

The paper was stuck fast to the desk. (adv)
He was fast asleep. (adv)
We waited half the afternoon. (adj)
This is not half good enough. (adv)
We've had a long wait. (adj)
Have you been waiting long?(adv)
I can't stay very long. (adv)
I want a straight answer to my question. (adj)
Tell me straight what you think. (adv)
He has come straight from London. (adv)

The words *cheap, clean, clear, close dead, direct, easy, fair, false, firm, flat, high, large, loud, low, mighty, quick, right, round, sharp, short, slow, soft, sound, strong, sure, tight, wide* and *wrong* are used as adjectives. They are also used as adverbs, sometimes with and sometimes without the suffix *-ly*. The use of these words without *-ly* is a matter of usage and cannot be explained by giving rules. *Guess wrong* is commoner and more idiomatic than *guess wrongly*, but before a past participle *wrongly* is always needed, as in *I was wrongly informed*.

In some cases it may be questioned whether a word is used as an adverb or as a predicative adjective. In the phrase *to hold one's head high*, *high* may be looked upon as an adjective (see VP 22 and of Open your mouth wide) or as an adverb. *Hold one's head highly* is impossible.

This section illustrates these words, with and without the suffix *-ly*. The entries are in alphabetical order.

Cheap and cheaply

Both *cheap* and *cheaply* are used as adverbs. *Cheap* is common with *buy* and *sell*.
That shopkeeper buys cheap but doesn't sell cheap.

My wife buys her clothes cheap (ly).

Clean and Cleanly

Clean is used as an adverb meaning *completely, absolutely*.

I clean forgot to ask him about it.
I'd clean forgotten it.
The prisoner got clean away.
He kicked the ball clean over the roof.
He was clean bowled in the first over.

Clean also occurs as an adverb in compounds: *clean shaven; clean-cut*.
Cleanly is an adjective replacing *clean* when it means habitually clean.

Are cats cleanly animals?

Note the ordinary adverb *cleanly*.

This knife cuts very cleanly (= sharply and neatly).

Clear and Clearly

Clear is used adverbially with the same meaning as *clean* above.

The bullet went clear through the door.

It occurs in compounds: *a clear cut face* (with well defined features); *clear cut outlines*.

It is used adverbially meaning 'not touching', 'well away from'.

Stand/keep clear of the gates of the lift.

The thieves got clear away (i.e. without their pursuers getting near them).

The horse jumped clear of the hedge (i.e. without touching it).

Clearly is used to modify adjectives and with verbs.

He is clearly wrong/ clearly in the wrong.

You must clearly understand that ...

It must clearly be understood that ...

In some cases either *clear* or *clearly* may occur in end position:

He spoke loud(ly) and clear (ly)

The moon shone clear (ly).

If an adverb of degree precedes, *clearly* is used:

He speaks quite/ very clearly.

Close and Closely

Close is used as an adverb meaning near.

Stay close to me.

He was following close behind.

This success brings us closer to final victory.

The closer we look into the problem, the greater the difficulties appear to be.

(In the last example *more closely* is probably preferable in formal style.)

Closely is needed with other meanings.

The prisoners were closely (= strictly) guarded.

Watch closely (= carefully) what I do.

He sent me a letter of two closely written pages (i.e. with the words and lines close together).

It was a closely contested election (i.e. one in which the candidates were close in their chances of election.)

Dead and Deadly

Dead is used adverbially meaning ‘completely’, ‘absolutely’: *dead level, dead straight, going dead slow* (= as slowly as possible, almost stopped); *dead certain, dead drunk, dead beat* (= tired out, exhausted).

The wind was blowing dead against us.

Deadly is an adjective, as in: *deadly poison; deadly hatred; the seven deadly sins*. It is used as an adverb meaning like death in *deadly pale* and (figuratively) *deadly dull*.

Deep and Deeply

Deep is an adjective. It is used adverbially in compounds, as *deep-laid schemes*, and in phrases like *to drink deep*.

Deeply is the usual adverb, as in *to regret something deeply; to think deeply about a problem, to be deeply offended*.

Direct and Directly

Direct is used adverbially meaning straight, without detours, intermediaries etc.

This train goes direct to London.

We went direct to the station.

I shall communicate with you direct (i.e. not through a third party, e.g. not through my solicitors).

Compare the use of *directly*:

We’re not directly affected by the changes in taxation.

She’s directly descended from Charles Dickens.

Directly is also used, rather ambiguously, meaning either at once, immediately, or after a short time, very soon.

He left directly after breakfast.

I’ll be with you directly.

Easy and Easily

Easy is used adverbially in a few phrases only, as in:

Take it easy. (= Don’t work too hard or too energetically.)

Stand easy ! (as a military command)

Go easy with the butter. (colloquial, meaning use it with moderation)

Easier (= more easily) said than done.

Except for these uses, *easily* is used.

He’s not easily satisfied.

You can easily imagine my surprise.

He won the race easily (= with ease).

Fair and Fairly

Fair is used adverbially in a number of fixed phrases: *play fair; hit fair; fight fair, and bid fair to* (= seem likely to).

Otherwise *fairly* is used: *treat a man fairly; act fairly by all men.*

Fairly is used adverbially meaning to a certain extent: *fairly good; fairly certain; fairly well; fairly soon.* Used in this way it must be distinguished from *rather*, which may be followed by a comparative or by *too* Cf.

This book is fairly difficult.

This book is rather more difficult/ is rather too difficult for you.

False and Falsely

False is used adverbially in *play somebody false* (= cheat or betray him). Otherwise *falsely* is needed, as in *falsely accused*.

Fast and Fastly

Fast is used adverbially and *fastly* is rare.

Don't run/speak so fast.

It was raining fast.

He was fast asleep.

Firm and Firmly

Firm is used adverbially in *stand firm; hold firm to one's beliefs/convictions*.

Otherwise *firmly* is used:

I firmly believe that ...

Fix the post firmly in the ground.

I had to speak firmly to him.

Flat and Flatly

Flat is used adverbially in the phrase *fall flat*, meaning fail.

The scheme fell flat.

His jokes all fell flat.

Otherwise *flatly* is used, corresponding to the adjective *flat* in its meaning 'absolutely', in a downright way, without qualification.

He flatly refused my request.

The suggestions were flatly opposed (i.e. met with complete and unqualified opposition).

High and Highly

High is used adverbially in numerous phrases: *aim high; fix one's hopes high; hold one's head high; play high* (i.e. gamble for high stakes); *search high and low*.

It is used after *running*.

The sea was running high.

Passions were running high.

Highly is used before participles: *highly amusing; highly paid; a highly educated/intelligent woman*.

Note: also, *speak/think highly of someone; esteem someone highly*.

Large and Largely

Large is used adverbially after *loom* and *bulk*: *to loom/bulk large*.

Largely is used meaning 'to a great extent'.

His success was largely due to his hard labour.

Loud and Loudly

Loud is adverbial with *talk* and *laugh*:

Don't talk so loud.

Why laughed loudest?

Loudly is also used after *talk*, etc.

He spoke loud (ly) and clear (ly)

Loudly is more usual with other verbs.

He called loudly for help.

She complained loudly of having been kept waiting.

Low and Lowly

Low is used adverbially after *speak, sing, bow, curtsey, buy, sell, aim* and other verbs.

He bowed/She curtseyed low (= made a low bow/curtsey) to the Queen.

I like to buy low and sell high (e.g. of stocks and shares).

He aimed low so as to hit the man in the leg.

Low occurs in compounds as *low born, low bred*.

Lowly is usually an adjective, and the adverbial use, as in *lowly born*, is not common.

Mighty, mightily

Mighty is used in American English colloquial style as an adverb modifying adjectives.

It was mighty kind of you.

Mightily is rare.

Quick (ly)

Quick is used in colloquial style in place of *quickly* after verbs indicating movement:

I ran as quick (ly) as I could.

Come quick (ly) - I need help.

Otherwise *quickly* is used:

The term passed quickly.

Retribution quickly followed.

As the examples show, *quickly* may follow or precede the verb.

Right (ly)

Right is very commonly used adverbially:

It serves you right.

He guessed/answered right.

Nothing goes right with me.

I'll come right away (= at once).

Rightly, meaning 'correctly' has mid position, with the verb:

He rightly guessed that ...

I can't rightly recollect whether

They decided, rightly or wrongly, that ...

Round (ly)

The adverb *round* (and *around* in American English) is used to indicate a return to a starting point.

Christmas will soon be round again.

I shall be glad when spring comes round again.

It is used to indicate a place where the speaker is, was, or will be:

Come round and see me this evening.

It is used with verbs indicating movement:

Hand these papers round (= distribute them).

The car will be round (= will be here) in a few minutes.

Roundly has little or no link with the adjective and adverb *round*. It means pointedly, flatly.

I told her roundly that she was not wanted.

She cursed me roundly.

Sharp (ly)

Sharp is used adverbially meaning ‘punctually’, as in *at six o’clock sharp*. It is also used in *look sharp* (= be quick), *sing sharp* (= above the true pitch), and *turn sharp left/right* (= make a sharp or abrupt turn to the left/right).

The use of *sharply* is shown in : *answer sharply and speak sharply to someone* (= harshly, severely). Note also *a sharply pointed pencil*.

Short (ly)

Short is used adverbially in a number of fixed phrases: *stop short; pull up short; break/snap something off short; cut short* (an interview, the proceedings, etc); *go short of something*.

Shortly is used meaning (1) in a short time, soon, as in *shortly afterwards*; (2) briefly, curtly, abruptly, as in *answer shortly*.

Slow (ly)

Slow is used adverbially with *go*.

I told the driver to go slow(er). (Here more slowly is an alternative.)

The workers decided to go slow (= work slowly, as a sign of protest, dissatisfaction with wages, conditions of work, etc).

You should go slow (= be less active) until you feel really well again.

Otherwise *slowly* is used:

Drive slowly round these bends in the road.

How slowly the time passes!

Soft (ly)

Soft is sometimes used adverbially in the comparative, as *play (the piano) softer*. Otherwise *softly* is used.

Thread softly so as not to wake the baby.

Sound (ly)

Sound is adverbial in *sound asleep*.

You’ll sleep the sounder (= more soundly) after a day in the fresh air.

Otherwise *soundly* is used: *thrash/beat someone soundly; sleep soundly*.

Strong (ly)

Strong is used adverbially in a few phrases, as *still going strong* (= continuing vigorously); *come/go it (rather, a bit) strong* (= exaggerate, go to unnecessary lengths).

Otherwise *strongly* is usual: *a strongly built man; strongly oppose a measure*.

Sure (ly)

Sure is adverbial in *sure enough* and in the colloquial use *as sure as* (e.g. *as sure as my name isn’t Barry Mackenzie*).

Otherwise *surely* is used: *working slowly but surely*.

Tight (ly)

Tight is used adverbially except before a past participle.

Hold it tight.

Hold tight to my hand.

Screw the nuts up tight.
The coat was made to fit tight round the waist.
We were packed tight in the bus.

Before past participles:

The goods were tightly packed in the create.
The children sat with their hands tightly clasped.

Wide (ly)

Wide is often adverbial.

Open your mouth wide, said the dentist.
The windows were wide open/open wide.
He was wide a wake.
Their views are still wide apart.
We searched far and wide for the missing child.
It fell wide of the mark.

Widely with past participles: *widely scattered/separated/known*.

He has travelled widely.

Wrong (ly)

Wrongly is more usual, but *wrong* is used in *get (something), wrong, go wrong, guess wrong, tell (someone) wrong*.

I got his instructions wrong (= misunderstood them).
All our plans have gone wrong.
Surely he hasn't told you wrong (= wrongly informed you) again?

Wrongly is used before a past participle.

You've been wrongly informed.

There are other pairs of adverbs, one without and the other with the suffix *-ly* which differ from the pairs illustrated above. The members of these pairs differ in meaning. The difference between *speak louder* and *speak more loudly* is not a difference of meaning: *speak louder* is more colloquial and *speak more loudly* is considered more correct. The adverbs *hard* and *hardly*, *just* and *justly*, *late* and *lately*, *most* and *mostly*, *pretty* and *prettily* differ in meaning.

Hard, hardly

The adverb *hard* is linked in meaning to the adjective *hard*

You must try harder.
He looked hard at me.
It's freezing hard.
He was running as hard as he could
She was hard at work/working hard.

The most usual meaning of *hardly* is 'scarcely'.

This dress is hardly long enough.
We hardly ever (= seldom) go to the cinema.
I hardly know her.
You'd hardly believe it.

Compare these sentences:

He works hard (is a hard worker).
He hardly does anything nowadays (does very little).
He was hard hit by the financial crisis (was badly hit, suffered severe losses).
He was hardly affected by the financial crisis (suffered little loss because of it).

Hard-earned money is money earned through hard work.

Just, justly.

The adverb *just* has no connection with the adjective *just* and the noun *justice*. Examples of *just* are: *just now/then; just here/there; just as you say; just so*.

We only just managed to catch the train.

I've just seen him.

He earns just enough for his needs.

The adverb *justly* is linked with the adjective *just* and the noun *justice*.

As you justly (= rightly) observe ...

He was justly punished.

Late, Lately

The adverb *late* is the contrary of the adverb *early*: *go to bed/get up/stay up late; arrive late; sooner or later; marry late in life*. *Lately* means 'recently'.

I haven't seen Green lately.

Most, mostly

The adverb *most* is an irregular superlative: *much, more, most*.

What pleased me most was that ...

The people most concerned in the business are ...

The adverb *mostly* means 'for the most part'.

Houses in England are mostly built of brick or stone, not of wood.

Pretty, Prettily

The adverb *pretty* is used colloquially and means "fairly" or "moderately".

The situation seems pretty hopeless.

The car is new, or pretty nearly so (= almost new).

Prettily means in a pretty way, attractively as in *prettily dressed*.

For further examples of the above words and their different meanings the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English may be consulted.

After a small number of verbs, including *smell, taste, feel* and *look*, an adjective, not an adverb, is used. The verb may usually be replaced by *be*.

This medicine tastes (is) horrible.

The fish smells (is) bad.

Silk feels (is) soft and smooth.

He's feeling (is) cheerful/happy/well this morning.

You look (are) very well.

Sound is used in this way.

You don't sound (are not, from what you say) convinced by the argument.

When the verb cannot be replaced by *be*, an adverb is needed.

The man smelt strongly of whisky.

This soup tastes strongly of fish.

She felt deeply/keenly about the affair.

Various Concepts and Ways in which they are expressed

Commands, Instructions, Requests, Invitations, Suggestions, Prohibitions.

(1) These may be expressed in various ways. The verbs *command, order, tell, ask, invite, request, suggest, prohibit, forbid* and their corresponding nouns may be used. Note the verb patterns in these examples.

He commanded/instructed/ordered/told/requested/asked/invited the men to come early.

(Note that *suggest* is not used in VP 17.)

Tourist class passengers are prohibited from using the first class lounge. (VP 14)

I forbid you to use that word. (VP 17)

I forbid you the use of my tape recorder. (VP 12C)

(**Note:** The use of *forbid* is formal and rare, *Must not* is commoner).

Examples with corresponding nouns:

He gave orders/gave the command/issued instructions/made the suggestions/ made a request that the prisoners (should) be set free. (NP3, noun + that clause)

(Note the use of *should be* in the clause. The use of *be* alone is an older use and is less usual than the use of *should be*.)

He gave orders for the setting free of the prisoners/for the prisoners to be set free. (NP2, noun+ preposition)

Compare the constructions in these examples:

The captain ordered his men to fire a salute.

The captain ordered that a salute should be fired.

The captain ordered a salute to be fired.

The captain gave orders that a salute should be fired.

The captain gave orders for a salute to be fired.

The captain gave orders for the firing of a salute.

(2) Other ways of expressing commands or requests range from the plain imperative to polite formulas.

Be here at nine o'clock.

Please be more patient/reasonable.

Why can't/don't you be more reasonable?

You must be here at nine o'clock.

Will you be here at nine o'clock., please.

Would you mind being here at nine o'clock?

Do you think you could be here at nine o'clock?

Will you be kind enough to be here at nine o'clock?

These various ways of expressing a command or request are dealt with below. In speaking, intonation is important. It can make a plain imperative polite.

Come here. (a definite command)

Come here please. (a polite request)

The use of a falling tone can change what is normally a polite formula into an impatient command.

Come here, please.

(3) It is usually unnecessary to indicate the subject with an imperative.

Come here.

Go a way.

Shut the door.

When a subject is needed, for example when commands are given to more than one person or group, the subject may have either front or end position.

You carry the table into the garden, Harry, and you girls take out some chairs.

Come on everybody! Call a taxi somebody!

You may also be used for emphasis, or may express annoyance, impatience, or some other emotion.

You mind you own business!

Mind your own business, you!

(4) The use of *please* or *will you* with the imperative softens a command to a request.

Shut the door please.

Help me with this luggage, will you?

Just is used in the same way, often in addition to *will you*.

Just come here a minute, will you?

Just is also used before an imperative to call attention to something considered unusual or remarkable.

Just listen to her! (and note how clever, perverse, silly, etc. she is)

The addition of *won't you* changes an imperative into an invitation.

Come in won't you?

(5) The use of *don't* before an imperative provides a request or suggestion not to do something.

Don't make so much noise!

Don't be silly!

Don't be late for school!

You is used after *don't* for emphasis.

Don't you dare do that again!

And don't you forget it!

(6) Prohibitions are often indicated by means of brief announcements, e.g. with *no* and a gerund.

No smoking!

No parking!

Smoking not allowed.

Parking prohibited between 8 am and 6 pm

Must is the most usual verb in spoken English for orders and prohibitions.

You must be back before dark.

Cars must not/ mustn't be parked in front of the entrance.

You mustn't do/ mustn't do that.

(7) A common construction for conveying a command or request is the use of a finite of *be* with a *to*-infinitive. Used with *not*, it indicates a prohibition.

You're always to knock before you enter my room.

You're not to come into my room without knocking.

You are to write your name at the top of each sheet of paper.

Entries are to be sent in before May the third.

My mother told me I was not to speak to strange men.

(8) Requests may be made by using *wish* with *would* in a *that* clause. *That* is usually omitted.

I wish you'd be quiet.

I wish Tom wouldn't play his pop records while I'm trying to read.

Compare:

Be quiet!

Don't play your pop records while I'm trying to read.

The use of *wish* in such contexts often indicates that the speaker can not or does not expect to exact obedience.

(9) *Let's* (always in this contracted form) is used to make suggestions, often followed by *shall we*.

Let's start early, shall we?

Let's go for a swim,, shall we ?

This use of *let's* has to be distinguished from the use of *let* (meaning allow) with a noun or pronoun. If the pronoun is *us*, the contracted form *let's* is not used.

Let us know (= please inform us) whether you can come.

Let me give you some advice.

Let me go!

Don't let your dog worry those sheep.

Let there be no more of this quarrelling.

Let is also used in the imperative with an adverbial adjunct (VP 15 B).

Let the window down (i.e. lower it)

Don't let the dog out.

- (10) A request using the formula *will you* may be ambiguous.
Shall you ask about future plans or intentions?
Shall you be back early this evening?
At what time shall you be back this evening?

In contemporary English *shall you* is becoming dated, and *will you* is more usual.

Will you be back early this evening?

This question might mean:

Are you likely to be back early this evening!

Please be back early this evening.

To make the request form (b) unambiguous the addition of *please* is necessary.

Will you be back early this evening, please?

The polite form *would you* is common for requests. It often replaces *will you* and may convey a suggestion of hesitation or diffidence on the part of the speaker.

Would/Will you pass the salt, please?

Would/Will you come back a little later?

Won't you is used for invitations.

Won't you stay a little longer?

Won't you stay a little longer?

Won't you come in?

Won't you have some more?

- (11) *Will* does not normally occur in *if*-clauses.

If you help me, we shall soon finish the job.

It may occur, however, in an *if*-clause which is not purely conditional but which makes a request. *Would* is also used.

If you'll help me, we could finish this job quickly (= Please help me, so that we may finish this job quickly.)

If you'd lend me 5, I could manage until pay day.

- (12) *Could* and less often *can* are used to make informal requests.

Could I have that dictionary for a few minutes?

Can I see your railway time table?

May and might are used in the same way.

May I have the salt, please?

May/Might I borrow your pen for a minute?

Might (but not *may*) is used to make a request or suggestion in statement form.

You might make a little less noise.

- (13) There are numerous other forms of polite request and suggestion.

Would you mind opening the window?

Will/Would you be so kind/good as to help me with this luggage?

Perhaps you'd like to help me with this luggage.

Note: Also the use of *suppose/supposing*, *how/what about* to make informal suggestions.

Suppose we try to do it my way.

Suppose you let me have a try.

How/What about trying to do it my way?

These are not much different from the use of *let's* (5.9 above.).

Let's try to do it my way.

Had better combines suggestions and advice. It conveys the idea it would be advisable or right to do.

We'd better start early.

You'd better do as the doctor says and stay in bed.

4.34 Permission

(14) There are numerous ways in which permission may be asked for and granted.

The verbs *permit*, *allow*, *let* and the noun *permission* are obvious examples.

Will you allow/permit me to use your bicycle?

My doctor won't let me get up yet.

The manager gave his typist permission to leave early.

Allow and *permit* (but not *let*) are used in the passive.

During the curfew nobody was allowed/permitted to be out of doors after sunset.

Will the children be allowed/permitted to stay up late on New Year's Eve?

Would/do you mind are used to ask for permission.

Would you mind my bringing a friend along too?

Do you mind if I go home early this afternoon?

(15) A more idiomatic way of expressing the idea of permission is the use of the modal verbs *may* and *might*. *May* is used for asking and giving permission. *May not* is used to deny permission.

May I come in? – Yes, you may.

May I borrow your pen? Yes, you may.

May I borrow your toothbrush? No, you may not!

If I may say so, your work needs revision.

He asked if he might leave the office half an hour early that afternoon. The manager replied that he might not.

(16) *May* is also used, in formal style, in statements that give authoritative permission. *May not* is similarly used in statements (not necessarily in answer to a request)

You may borrow from the library three works of fiction and two works of non-fiction.

Borrowers may not take out more than three works of fiction.

For a prohibition (stronger than a denial of permission) *must not* is used.

Reference books must not be removed from the Reading Room.

In colloquial style *can/could* often replace *may/might*.

Can I go for a swim this afternoon, mother?

Can I go out and play?

Tom asked his father if (= whether) he could go to the cinema.

His father said he could.

Cannot is used to indicate what is not permitted.

You can't (= must not, are not allowed to) play football in this park on Sundays, though you can do so on weekdays.

(17) *May* is also used to indicate hesitation or apology when asking a question that could be considered impertinent.

And how much did you pay for your new car, if I may/might ask (i.e. if you will allow me to ask the question)?

With a fall in pitch on the noun or pronoun following *may/might* there is sometimes a suggestion of superiority or condescension on the part of the speaker.

And who may/might you be?

And what may/might this little fellow want?

And how old may/might you be?

4.35 Probability and Likelihood

(18) These concepts may be expressed by the use of the adjectives *probable* and *likely*, the adverb *probably*, and the nouns *probability*, *likelihood* and *chance*.

It's likely/probable that he'll come.

Is there any probability/likelihood/chance of his coming?

He's likely to come.

He'll probably come.

(19) *Dare say* (rare except in the 1st person) is used to suggest likelihood. It is often written and printed as one word.

I daresay he'll come later.
You're tired, I daresay.

- (20) *Must* is used to indicate a strong likelihood or probability.
Your father must be nearly eighty now.
You must be hungry after your long walk.
We must have taken a wrong turning.
It must be getting on for ten o'clock.
Why isn't he here? He must have missed the train.
Listen to the laughter! They must be enjoying themselves.

- (21) *Ought* and *should* are used in the same way as *must*. They suggest: Because of the known facts, conditions, etc. it is likely that ...
If he started at nine he ought to/should be here by four.
They left at nine, so they ought to/should have arrived by now.
The author is a well known expert, so his book ought to/should be reliable.
That ought to /should please you.
Pegasus is the horse that ought to win the race.

- (22) The construction *going to* + infinitive is used with a non-animate subject or with impersonal *it* (as in *it's raining*). It indicates what the speaker feels or considers to be probable or likely.
This table is going to collapse one of these days; the legs are very weak.
(Cf The table will collapse if you stand on it, where the *if*-clause requires the use of *will*.)
Be careful! The ice is going to crack.
This ice is going to melt when the sun comes out (i.e. will probably melt).
(Cf The ice will melt if the sun comes out.)
It's going to rain before evening; you'd better take an umbrella.
(Cf There will be rain in the London area during the night - as an official weather forecast.)
The sun's going to come out soon. (the speaker feels that this is likely, perhaps because the clouds already show signs of parting.)
The sun will rise at 6.35 tomorrow morning. ('will' simple future; no element of probability).
Is this housing shortage going to continue?
This work is going to be more difficult than I (had) expected.

- (23) When the construction *going to* + infinitive is used with an animate subject (e.g. Tom, that girl, she), it may indicate intention. (see 5.45.)
It may going to have a cup of tea.
It may also indicate the speaker's feeling of what is likely.
I think I'm going to have flu.
We're going to enjoy our day by the sea; the weather forecast says it will be warm and sunny.
I haven't worked very hard this term. I'm afraid I'm not going to pass my exams.
Tom's going to find himself in trouble one of these days.

- (24) *Will* and *would* are also used to indicate probability, likelihood, or conjecture.
This will be book you're looking for. (This is probably, this is likely to be, the book you're looking for.)
That'll be the postman, I expect.
You'll have heard the news. (You have probably heard the news.)
She won't have heard the news. (It is unlikely that she has heard the news.)
That happened a long time ago – I'd have been (was probably) about twenty at the time.
She would be (is probably) about fifty now, I suppose.
A: I don't understand this article in the newspaper. B: No, you wouldn't (i.e. It's unlikely that you would understand it, perhaps because it's too difficult or perhaps because you're too stupid.)
The girl at the Information Desk will know what time the next train for Edinburgh leaves (i.e. is

likely to know).

Note: That the construction *be going to* is impossible in the examples in this section.

4.36 Possibility

(25) There are several ways of indicating possibility. For possibility that depends upon ability or knowledge, see 5.34-35 (the use of *can*, etc.) The adjective *possible*, the noun *possibility*, and the adverbs *possibly* and *perhaps* are obvious ways.

It's possible that he'll come.

There's a possibility of his coming/that he'll come.

Possibly he hasn't heard the news yet.

Perhaps he's been ill.

(26) When doubt or uncertainty is mixed with possibility, *may/might* is often used.

It may rain tomorrow.

He said he thought it might rain.

I may be away from home tomorrow.

He may need to borrow money.

That may, or may not, be true.

It's so quiet (that) one might hear a pin drop.

If I ask him again, he may refuse.

I was afraid that if I asked him again, he might refuse.

In some cases *may/might* indicate what seems possible because it is reasonable to expect or hope for something.

The weather has been excellent, so we may expect a good harvest.

He said he thought we might expect a good harvest.

With such a strong Ministry, we may hope for an improvement in the country's economic affairs.

(27) *Might* is used in reported speech for past time, but is also used to indicate a future possibility if this is looked upon as more remote or uncertain.

Compare:

Take an umbrella. It will rain before evening.

You'd better take an umbrella. It may rain before evening. (Rain is possible. The sky is cloudy.)

I think you should take an umbrella. It may rain before evening. (Rain is possible. The sky is cloudy.)

I think you should take an umbrella. It might rain before evening.

(Although the sky is bright now, a change in the weather is always possible in this climate.)

Mr X: 'We might win 500 at the races. Mrs X: 'Yes, and pigs might fly.'

(28) Note the use of *may* and *might* with perfect infinitives.

He may have been hurt. (Perhaps he was hurt. The possibility exists. We do not yet know.)

He might have been hurt. (That was a possibility in the past. But he was not hurt.)

He isn't back yet. He may have had an accident. (Perhaps he has had an accident. We do not know yet.)

You oughtn't to have driven that car with the brakes out of order. You might have had a serious accident. (But luckily you did not.)

He might have had a serious accident. (But we didn't ask him.)

You might have asked me to your wedding! (This is a reproach addressed to someone for not sending an invitation.)

(29) *May* is also used to indicate a possibility that arises naturally, or as the result of arrangement. There is, in this case, little or no element of uncertainty. For this reason *may* is replaceable by *can* or *be possible*. The negative is never *may not* but always *cannot* or *be impossible*. Even in the affirmative, *can* is, in colloquial style, as frequent as, perhaps more frequent than, *may*.

You may go (you can go, it is possible to go) from A to B by changing trains at C, or you may (can) go by way of D, but you cannot go (it is impossible to go) there direct.
Specimen copies of these textbooks may be obtained on application to the publisher.
A plan of the new housing estate may be seen at the offices of the Town Council.

(30) *May/Might* and in colloquial style *can/could* often indicate what is possible.
You may/might/can/could walk for miles through the forest without meeting anyone.

(31) When possibility and uncertainty are mixed, *may* is used.

The news may, or may not, be true.

May the news be true?

In questions asking about possibility, however, *can* is used.

Can the news be true?

Could the news be true, she wondered.

Similarly *cannot* indicate a belief that something is impossible.

The news can't be true!

(32) When *can* is stressed in a question introduced by an interrogative pronoun or adverb, puzzlement or impatience is suggested.

What can he mean?

What could be mean, she wondered.

Where can he have got to?

Compare the use of *ever*, and the colloquial use of *on earth*, *the devil*, *in the name of goodness* etc.

What ever does he mean?

What on earth does he mean?

4.37 Ability and Achievement (and their Opposites)

(33) The most important verb for denoting ability is the verb *can*. *Can* is a defective verb. It has the past tense form *could*. *Could* is also used with reference to future time (see 5.110, 112) and is not always suitable for use as the past tense of *can*. The phrase *be able + to*-infinitive is used when *can* and *could* are inadequate.

(34) *Can* is used to denote ability resulting from physical power or capacity or from knowledge or skill.

Can you lift this box?

He's over eighty but can still read without glasses.

The child is ten years old but can't read yet.

She can make all her own clothes.

Can you speak Swedish ?

(35) *Can* is also used to denote ability resulting from circumstances. Used for this purpose, it may be paraphrased as 'be in a position to'.

Can you come to the meeting tomorrow? (Are you free to do so?)

Are you in a position to do so?

Can you lend me three pounds?

For other uses of *can* to denote possibility, see 5.29-31. For the use of *can* to indicate permission, see 5.16.

(36) For the use of *can/could* with verbs of perception, see 2.62.

I can hear a dog barking somewhere. (* I am hearing a dog barking somewhere.)

He could smell something burning. (* He was smelling something burning.)

(37) *Could* points to past time only when the context or situation shows that the reference is to past

time. Thus, when there is another verb in the sentence, and this verb indicates that the time is past, *could* is possible.

The box was so heavy that I couldn't lift it.

I tried to lift the box but couldn't.

She could read Latin when she was twelve!

He could speak German well when he was young, but he has forgotten most of it now.

He said he couldn't come to the meeting.

He said he was sorry he couldn't lend me the money.

(38) As *can* has no infinitive, *be able to* is used with *used to*, *seem*, and *appear*.

He used to be able to speak German well.

He seems (to be) quite unable to give up his bad habits.

He seemed (to be) unable to give up his bad habits.

The last two sentences may be recomposed (colloquial style) with *can't/couldn't* and the infinitive *seem*.

He can't seem to give up his bad habits.

He couldn't seem to give up his bad habits.

(39) When there is no indication of time, *could* is ambiguous because it may be taken as conditional, with reference to present or future time. Thus, *I could help you* is a conditional sentence referring to present or future time. In the sentence *I told him I could help him*, although the main verb is in past tense, the reference may be to help in present or future time.

Alternative construction for past, present, and future time are illustrated below.

I was/am/shall be able to help you.

I was not/am not/shall not be able to help you.

I was/am/shall be powerless to help you.

When *could* is used with a perfect infinitive, it indicates a past possibility that was not fulfilled or achieved. See 5.110 (iii).

He could easily have done it.

You could have caught the train if you had hurried.

(40) To indicate the attainment or achievement of something in the past, or failure to do so, the use of the simple past tense is usually satisfactory.

Tom passed the examination.

Harry swam across the river.

Anne didn't catch her train.

Could would be unsatisfactory in these three sentences with reference to past time.

(41) The verbs *manage* and *succeed* are used to indicate achievement. The use of *manage* suggests difficulty, need for effort. Note the patterns.

Tom succeeded in passing (VP3) the examination.

Harry managed to swim (VP7) across the river.

Anne didn't manage to catch the train.

Did you manage to get to the top of the mountain?

How did you manage to get here in time?

I managed to get/succeeded in getting all my clothes into the suitcase.

(42) The examples below illustrate (a) achievements facts and (b) conditions. Note that in (a), *could* is not used.

(a) As he was not interrupted, he finished/was able to finish/managed to finish/suggested in finishing by evening.

If he is not interrupted, he can/will be able to finish by evening.

(b) If people did not interrupt, he could/would be able to finish by evening.

If he had not been interrupted, he could have finished/would have been able to finish by evening.

A common colloquial alternative is the construction with *get*. (See 1.121).

(a) He got it done ...

(b) He will get it done ... could get it done ... could have got it done ...

(43) When the context does not show that past time is referred to, *could* refers to present or future time.

I could never get all these clothes into that suitcase. (Compare the similar use of *would* for a condition: I don't think these clothes would go into that suitcase.)

A: Is there anything I can do to help?

B: No, thank you there's nothing you could do.

4.38 Intention

(44) Intention can be expressed by the use of the verbs *intend*, *plan*, *mean* and the nouns *intention*, *plan* etc.

I intend/plan/mean to visit India some day.

It's my intention plan to visit India some day.

Where do you plan/intend to spend your summer holidays?

I don't intend to do it/have no intention of doing it.

He means/intends to make us respect him.

Do you think they intended/meant/planned to start another war?

Note that in *that*-clauses after *intend/intention* the finites *shall/should* are used.

We intend/our intention is that this Bill shall become law by the end of the year.

We intended/ Our intention was that the Bill should become law by the end of the year.

(45) The construction *going to* + infinitive is very commonly used to indicate intention. (For other uses of this construction see 5.22-23.)

He's going to visit India.

We're not going to have this tree cut down.

We're not going to have this tree cut down.

This tree is not going to be cut down. (i.e. We don't intend to cut this tree down or We don't intend to allow anyone to cut this tree down.)

We're going to grow more vegetables this year.

Are you going to take the examination?

Note that when *going to* is used, the idea of intention is more prominent than the idea of futurity. Note also that when there are external circumstances that may influence a person's plans, constructions with *will/shall* are preferable. Compare:

Tom's father is going to buy him a bicycle.

This is a simple statement of intention.

If Tom passes the examination, his father is going to buy him a bicycle.

Here, too, there is an intention, though the fulfilment of the intention depends upon Tom's passing the examination. But Tom's father has the intention.

If Tom asks his father to buy him a bicycle, his father will probably do so.

In this sentence *going to* is not acceptable. Tom's father is unlikely to have the intention of buying the bicycle because he has not yet been asked to do so. In some cases, however, the idea of intention is not very obvious and the construction *going to* is used in a sense not much different from that with *will/shall*.

Now, children, I'm going to tell you a story.

This means little more than I am about to tell you a story.

4.39 Plans and Arrangements

(46) Plans (closely linked to intentions) and arrangements may be stated or asked about by the use of the verbs *plan* and *arrange* and the nouns *plan* and *arrangement*.

I've planned/arranged to go to Glasgow next week.

She has made plans/arrangements to spend her holiday in Wales.

We've made plans/arranged to get married in May.

(47) A simpler way of indicating or asking about something arranged, planned, or decided upon is the use of the Present or Past Progressive tenses.

I'm going to Glasgow next week.

She's spending her holiday in Wales.

We're getting married in May.

The past Progressive is used in reported speech.

She said she was going to the theatre that evening.

He told me he was going to Glasgow.

(48) The Future Progressive is also used to show that an event will occur as part of a plan or programme. In many cases there is little or no difference between the Present Progressive and the Future Progressive.

I'm seeing Bob this afternoon.

I'll be seeing Bob this afternoon.

In some cases the use of the Future Progressive shows not only that the future event or activity is part of a programme but also that, for this reason, something else is possible or likely. In the examples below there are, in parentheses, suggestions of the kind of possibility or likelihood that might be present.

Will/shall you be getting home late this evening? (If so, it may be necessary to keep supper back.)

I'll be seeing Bob this evening. (Is there anything you'd like me to tell him?)

We'll be having supper in about twenty minutes (so don't go out.)

He'll be coming to see us again soon (so we needn't trouble to send him the book he left here).

The use of the Present Progressive shows that an event has been decided upon. The use of the Future Progressive may look beyond the event to something made possible or likely by the event.

The interrogative form of the Future Progressive is often no more than a polite form used to ask about future intentions. Compare;

Are you staying in London long? (This is a simple inquiry about plans.)

Are you going to stay in London long? (This puts more emphasis on intentions.)

Will/Shall you be going to the party? (This asks in a more polite way, about plans.)

(49) Plans, arrangements, and agreements are also indicated by the use of the Simple Present Tense. There is usually an adverbial to show future time.

I leave for Berlin on Saturday.

The plane takes off at six tomorrow morning.

Is it this evening that we have dinner with Fred and Sue?

When do the school holidays begin?

When does your father get back from his visit to Rome?

(50) Plans, arrangements, and agreements are also indicated by the use of the finites of *be + to* infinitive.

We are to be married in May.

Jim and Mary are to meet us at the station.

The new building is to be ten storeys high.

The use of a perfect infinitive indicates an arrangement that was made but not carried out.

We were to have been married in May but had to postpone the wedding until June.

This pattern is also used to indicate obligation, an arrangement that is the result of a command or request made by a third person. It should be used to indicate a voluntary arrangement only when there is no ambiguity.

He's leaving at eight o'clock this evening.

He's to leave at eight o'clock this evening.

The second sentence suggests an arrangement made as the result of orders.

4.40 Obligation and Necessity

(51) There are many ways of expressing the ideas of obligation and necessity. The verbs *oblige* and *compel*, the nouns *obligation*, *compulsion*, *need*, and *necessity*, and the adjectives *obligatory*, *compulsory*, *needless*, and *(un)necessary* are obvious ways of expressing these ideas.

In most countries the law obliges parents to send their children to school.

Is attendance at school obligatory?

If, through carelessness, someone damages your bicycle he is under a legal obligation to pay the cost of repairs.

He was compelled by illness to give up his studies.

A defeated enemy usually signs a treaty under compulsion.

Military service is compulsory in many countries.

There is no necessity/It is not necessary for you to do that.

Is there any need for haste?

The ideas of obligation and necessity are expressed more idiomatically by the use of the verbs *must*, *ought to*, *should*, *have to*, and *be to*. Absence of necessity is expressed by *don't I have to*, *haven't got to* and *needn't*.

(52) *Must* is a defective verb. It can be used to express an immediate or future obligation. In reported speech *must* is used for past time. Except in reported speech a past obligation is not normally expressed by *must*.

You must do as you are told.

He said they must do as they were told.

Soldiers must obey orders without question.

As he had broken my watch he agreed that he must pay the cost of the repairs.

On the other side of the wood there was a field that he must (= had to) cross.

Candidates must (= are required to) answer at least five out of the ten questions.

(53) Absence of obligation or necessity may be expressed by *needn't*, *need hardly*, *scarcely* and by constructions with the noun *need* or the adjective *needless*.

Must you go so soon? No I needn't go yet.

He didn't need to be reminded about it. (It wasn't necessary to remind him about it.)

I need hardly tell you ... (It is hardly necessary for me to tell you ...)

You needn't have hurried. (There was no need, no necessity, for you to hurry – although, in fact, you did hurry.)

I didn't need to hurry. (It was not necessary for me to hurry – and in fact I did not hurry.)

Need we tell him about it? (Is there any need for us to tell him?)

Are we obliged to tell him? Is it necessary for us to tell him?

There's no need for you to hurry.

Needless to say, we shall refund any expenses you may incur.

(54) *Have to* is regularly used to express obligation and necessity. In the present tense, affirmative and interrogative, it means the same as *must*. For absence of obligation, *do not have to* is used but *need not* is more usual.

The construction with *have to* is very common for past and future time (because *must* is defective). In colloquial style *have got to* is used for *have to*. *Had got to* is occasionally used for *had to*. For the use of auxiliary *do*, interrogative and negative, see 1.23.

At what time have you (got) to be there? (At what time must you be there? At what time is it necessary for you to be there?)

She had to be in the office by nine o'clock. (She was required to be there, it was necessary for her to be there, by nine o'clock.)

We shall have to hurry. (It will be necessary for us to hurry.)
We had to hurry. (It was necessary for us, we were obliged or compelled, to hurry.)
We've got to be there (we must be there) by ten o'clock.
Have we (got) to (Must we) answer all the questions?
These shoes will have to be repaired. (It will be necessary to have them repaired.)

- (55) Absence of obligation is expressed by *don't have to* or *haven't got to*.
He's so rich that he doesn't have to work (is not obliged to work, need not work).
You don't have to go to school seven days a week, do you?
Tomorrow's a holiday, so I shan't have to get up early.
We haven't got to (are not required to) answer all the questions in the examination paper, have we?

- (56) The finites of *be* with a *to*-infinitive are also used to indicate an obligation.
We are to be there at nine o'clock.
For this construction see Commands and Requests (5.7).

- (57) *Ought* is used to express desirability, moral obligation and duties. *Ought* is a defective verb. It can indicate present or future time. It is used of past time in reported speech.
You ought to start at once (if you want to catch your train).
You ought to leave early tomorrow morning.
He ought to be ashamed of his ignorance.
Ought I to go? Yes, I think you ought (to).
I told him he ought to do it, so he did (it).

- (58) *Should* is used in a similar way. *Should* is often used when giving or asking for advice. It is not so strong as *ought* and often indicates a recommendation rather than an obligation.
You shouldn't laugh at his mistakes.
How much should I contribute towards the relief fund?
Do you think he should apologize (that he ought to apologize)?
You shouldn't give the baby scissors to play with.

- (59) *Ought to have* and *should have* with a past participle are used to indicate a past obligation that was not fulfilled or carried out.

You ought to have helped him (but you did not).
He ought to have been more careful. (He was not careful enough.)
You should have used the money for paying your debts instead of for a new motor – cycle.
I think you should have told her you were sorry.
You should have put part of your salary in the bank each month.

Ought not to have and *should not have* are used to indicate disapproval of something that was done in the past.

You oughtn't to/shouldn't have laughed at his mistakes.
She oughtn't to/shouldn't have given the baby scissors to play with.

- (60) The *to*-infinitive after a conjunctive may indicate or ask about desirability, obligation or duty. See 1.79 (VP8, Table 44) and 1.113 (VP 20, Table 71). Sentences in VP8 and VP 20 are convertible into sentences in VP 10 and VP21, in which the modal auxiliaries *must*, *should*, *ought* (*or have to*, *be to*) are used.

We must find out what to do next. (VP8)
We must find out what we ought to/have to do next. (VP 10)
Do you know how to do it? (VP8)
Do you know how you ought to/ should/are to do it? (VP 10)
Tell me how to do it. (VP8)
Tell me how I ought to/should/must do it. (VP21)

Ask your mother where to put it. (VP8)

Ask your mother where you are to/should/must put it. (VP21)

4.41 Determination and Resolve; Willingness

(61) The ideas of determination and resolve can be expressed by the use of the verbs *determine*, *decide*, and *resolve*, the corresponding nouns *determination*, *decision*, and *resolve*, and the phrase *make up one's mind*. The verbs are used in VP7 and 9.

I determined/resolved/made up my mind to learn German.

He determined/resolved/made up his mind that nothing should prevent him from going.

His determined/resolved/made up his mind that nothing should prevent him from going.

His determination/resolve to give his children/that his children shall have a good education is most praiseworthy.

(62) The idea of willingness can be expressed by *willing(ly)*.

He's quite willing to come.

Were they willing to help?

Did they do it willingly?

Note also the phrase *against one's will*.

She was married against her will.

(63) The ideas of determination and willingness are more often indicated by the use of the verbs *will/would* and *shall/should*.

Will is used in the first person to indicate willingness. When stressed, it indicates determination.

I will/ I'll lend you the book if you need it.

I will be obeyed (= I am determined to be obeyed, I insist on being obeyed).

I' will (am determined to) do as I 'like.

In the negative *won't* or the negative adverb, *never* is stressed to indicate determination.

I will never (am determined never to) speak to that man again.

I won't (am determined not to) have any backchat from you!

The interrogatives *will I/we* (for willingness) is used only as an echo or repetition of a question put to the speaker.

A: Will you lend me your pen?

B: Will I lend you my pen? Of course I will.

(64) In the second and third persons *will* and *would* in the affirmative and negative may indicate obstinate determination, the *will* or *would* always being stressed.

If you will eat so much pastry, you can't complain if you get fat.

He will (obstinately continues to) go out without an overcoat/though it is freezing out there.

You would go (insisted on going), in spite of my warning that it was unwise.

(65) *Will* and *would* used in the second and third persons, interrogative, ask about willingness.

A: Will you sing at the concert tomorrow ? B: Yes I will. (Cf *Are you singing and are you going to sing* for plans and intentions. See 5.45)

A: Do you think Miss X will/would sing at the concert tomorrow evening?"

B: Yes, I think she will/would.

(66) When *shall* and *shan't* are used in the second and third persons, they may indicate the speaker's determination concerning the person(s) spoken about. The *shall* or *shan't* is always stressed.

You shall marry him. (I insist on your marrying him)

They shall do what I tell them to do. (I am determined to make them do it.)

(Cf the use of *you shall* and *you shan't* to indicate a promise or a threat. *Shall* and *should* occur in dependent clauses after verbs and phrases indicating determination or willingness. They are used in all persons.)

The officer gave orders that they should be well looked after.

He is determined that you shall obey him.

Is your father willing that you should go abroad?

The *for* + noun/pronoun + *to*-infinitive construction is often preferable.

He gave orders for them to be well looked after.

Is your father willing for you to go abroad?

4.42 Promises; Threats; Refusals

(67) Promises and threats can be expressed by the use of the verbs *promise* and *threaten*, and the nouns *promise* and *threat*. They can also be expressed by the use of the verbs *shall* and *will*.

Promise is used with a *to*-infinitive with two objects and with *that*-clauses. The indirect object is often dropped.

He promised (me) to come early.

Please promise not to tell anyone.

Didn't you promise the book to your brother?

Mr Green has promised his son a new bicycle if he passes the examination.

The foreman has promised that the work shall/will be done before Saturday.

They promised that the work should /would be done before Saturday.

Note, in the last two examples, the use of *shall* and *should* in the *that*-clause. The noun *promise* is also used with a *to*-infinitive or a *that*-clause.

He broke his promise to help me.

I hope they will keep their promise that the work shall/will be done by the end of next week.

They didn't keep their promise that the work should/would be finished before the end of the week.

The verb *threaten* is used with a *to*-infinitive and in the pattern *threaten somebody with something*.

They threatened to punish him.

They threatened him with death if he did not tell them what he knew.

(68) In the first person *will* is used to express a promise or threat.

I'll be there to help.

I'll punish you if you don't behave yourself.

In the second and third persons *shall* and *should* are used to express promises and threats.

You shall have the money back next week.

Ask and it shall be given you. (Bible, AV)

A: I want this luggage taken to my room.

B: It shall be taken up at once, sir.

If he passes the examination, he shall have a new bicycle.

Tom was told that if he behaved badly he should go to bed without any supper.

(69) Refusals can be indicated by the use of the verb *refuse*. This verb can be used with a direct object with a *to*-infinitive or with two objects.

They refused our offer.

The invitation was refused.

He refused to help me.

I asked him to come but he refused.

He refuses her nothing (i.e. he gives her everything she asks for).

(70) A more colloquial way of indicating refusal is the use of *will not* (*won't*) and *would not* (*wouldn't*).

I won't (I refuse to) do it.
They won't (They refuse to) accept your offer.
Why won't she (Why does she refuse to) agree?
He wouldn't (He refused to) answer any questions.
The engine wouldn't start.
The wound wouldn't heal.

4.43 Wishes, Hopes; Preferences

(71) In some languages, there is an optative mood, i.e. a set of verbal forms to indicate wishes. There is no optative mood in English. In a few cases, chiefly fixed phrases or minor patterns, wishes are expressed by the use of the subjunctive.

God Save the Queen!
Long live the Queen!
God bless you!
Convention be damned!

The subjunctive equivalent with *may* is commoner.

May God bless you!
May you have a long and happy life!
Long may you live to enjoy it!
Much good may it do you!

(72) *May* and *might* are used in *that*-clauses after such verbs as *hope* and *trust*. In less formal style *may* and *might* are not much used.

I trust that this arrangement may (less formal: will) meet with your approval.
He trusted that the arrangement might (less formal: would) meet with our approval.
I hope he may succeed. (Less formal: succeeds or will succeed)
I hope he might succeed. (Less formal: would succeed).

In ordinary colloquial style, the imperative is often used to express a wish.

Well, have a good time.
Enjoy yourselves.

(The use of *may*, as in: May you have a good time! May you enjoy yourselves is less usual.)

(73) The verb *wish* (or exclamatory if only) can be used with *that*-clause (VP9). The conjunction *that* is almost always omitted. *That* is always omitted after *if only*. If the wish refers to present or future time, the Past Tense is used in the clause. For a wish that was not or could not be realized in the past, the Past Perfect Tense is used in the clause.

I wish I knew how to do it. (I'm sorry I don't know.)
I wish I had known how to do it. (I didn't know.)
I wish I didn't go. (I'm sorry I did go.)
I wish I could help you.
He wishes his wife wouldn't spend so much time gossiping with the neighbours.
I wish I were rich.
If only the rain would stop! I wish the rain would stop!
If only I knew! If only I had known!

(74) *Wish* is used with an Indirect Object and a Direct Object.

He wished me a pleasant journey.
They wished her success in her new career.
He wished me good night.
I wish you all a merry Christmas and a Happy New Year.

(75) *Wish* is also used with a *to*-infinitive. In these patterns *want* is commoner.

Where do you wish/ want me to go?
What do they wish/want me to do?

Note the use of *want* or *wish* in *if*-clauses (*will* being impossible in such clauses) to indicate a desire.

If you want to smoke, you must go into a smoking compartment.

(The use of *will* in an *if*-clause is a request, or indicates willingness or insistence: If you will help me, we can soon finish the work.)

(76) *Wish* is also used with the preposition *for*. The phrase *wish for* means feel or express a desire for, usually a desire for something that is considered unattainable or unlikely to be attained. If, therefore, you go into a shop, you would not say, *I wish for a fountain pen*. You would say *I want a fountain pen*. *Wish for* is used more often in situations where the object of the wish or desire is something that can come or is likely to come, only through chance or unexpectedly.

‘What do you wish for?’ Said the genie to Aladdin.

The weather was all that one could wish for/all that could be wished for.

She had everything that a woman could wish for.

(77) *Shall I/ we* is often used to introduce a question about a person’s wishes. It may be an offer of service. Alternatives used in those parts of the English speaking world where *shall* is going out of use are *Do you want me/us to* and *Would you like me/us to*.

Shall I thread the needle for you?

Shall I open the window?

Shall we carry the box into the house for you?

Shall with a noun or a third person pronoun ask about the wishes of the person to whom the question is put.

Shall he carry your suitcases upstairs? (Do you want/would you like, him to do this?)

Shall the messenger wait?

The hotel manager asked me whether the taxi should wait (whether I wanted the taxi to wait.)

(78) Instead of *Shall I/we/he*, etc the construction *be + to*-infinitive may be used. This, however, asks for orders rather than about wishes.

Is the messenger to wait?

The manager asked me whether the taxi was to wait.

What am I to do next?

(79) *I should/would like*, often contracted to *I’d like*, is used to express a wish.

I’d like to be there. (I wish I were there.)

I’d like to have been there or I’d have liked to be there. (I wish I had been there.)

Would you like asks about a person’s wishes.

At what time would you like breakfast?

Would you like me to order a taxi?

(80) The verb *hope* is used with a *that*-clause. With a *to*-infinitive and with *for*. That is usually omitted.

I hope (that) he has arrived safely.

I’m hoping to hear that he has arrived safely.

I’m hoping for news of his safe arrival.

Note : The possible use of the Present Tense instead of the Future Tense in the clause.

I hope he will arrive/he arrives safely.

The time will come, I hope, when you have/you’ll have more leisure.

We hope to see you in May.

We shall hope to see you in May.

The use of the Future Tense in the last example does not indicate much difference in meaning. The example might be recomposed as:

We hope (that) we shall see you in May.

We shall hope to see you in May.

The use of the Past Perfect Tense indicates a past hope that was not realized.

We had hoped that she would soon be well again.

(81) Preference can be indicated by the use of the verb *prefer* and the noun *preference*. *Prefer* is used in several patterns.

I prefer my meat well done.

Would you prefer to start early?

I should prefer you to start early.

He preferred that nothing should be said about his generous gifts.

I prefer walking to cycling.

Note the use of *rather than* in the next example. *Rather* is obligatory after *prefer*.

I should prefer to start early rather than have to travel in crowded trains.

The phrase *would rather* is also used to indicate preference. It is used with a bare infinitive.

I would rather stay at home (than go for a walk).

When used with a *that*-clause, the Past Tense is used in the clause.

The *that* is usually omitted.

I would rather (that) you stayed at home.

He would rather (that) people didn't know about his generous gifts.

4.44 Purpose and Result

(82) There are several constructions to express purpose. As purpose is so closely connected with result, both purpose and result are treated in the following sections. See also the article on intention.

In answer to a question asking 'Why?' a *to*-infinitive is often used. *In order to* is rather more formal and more emphatic than *to* alone. When the idea of result is also present the infinitive is often preceded by *so as to*.

I 've come here to have a talk with you.

Did you do that to annoy me?

He has gone to England (in order) to perfect his English.

I shall go on working late today so as to be free tomorrow. (Purpose and result)

He stood up so as to see better.

The car is waiting to take you to the station.

Children go to school to learn things.

He works hard in order/ so as to give his family a holiday by the sea every year.

(83) The *to*-infinitive may modify a noun or a noun substitute such as *something*, *anything*, *somebody*.

She bought a brown coat and skirt and a pair of brown shoes to match (i.e. shoes that were brown so that they would match the coat and skirt).

Take this book to read during the journey (i.e. in order to have a book that you may read).

Give me something to eat.

She wanted someone to take care of

When the infinitive phrase modifies the whole sentence, it often has front position.

In order to appreciate poetry, you should read it aloud.

To get the best results, follow the directions carefully.

(84) Instead of an infinitive phrase, it is possible to have a dependent clause.

Children go to school to learn things.
Children go to school in order that they may learn things.

In the second sentence, the pronoun *they* (subject of the dependent clause) stands for children (subject of the main clause). In such cases the infinitive construction is usually preferred.

Clauses of purpose are introduced by *in order that*, *so that*, and (more formal and literary) *that* alone. *So that* (like *so as to*) often combines the ideas of purpose and result. Several modal verbs are used in such clauses.

May, *might*, *should* are often used. In colloquial style, *can* and *could* are also used.

I stepped aside so that she might/could go in.
Let the dog loose so that it can/may have a run.
We shall grow a hedge round the garden so that the neighbours may not/can't overlook us.
We put up a fence so that the neighbours might/should not overlook us.
Tie him up so that he can't escape.
Thirty copies of the book were bought so that each boy in the class should have one.
We hid it carefully so that no one should see it.
I did that in order that everyone should be satisfied.

When, in more formal or literary style, *that* is used along, *may* and *might* are preferred to *can* and *could*.

They died that we might live. (They fought and died so that we might live in safety.)

(85) *In order that ... not and so that ... not*, when used to indicate a fear or possibility, are sometimes replaced by *for fear (that)*, *in case*, or (rare except in literary style) *lest*.

We dared not move for fear the enemy might/should see us.
We hid behind some bushes for fear that /in case passers by should see us.

(86) Purpose is also expressed by the use of *for* and a noun or gerund. Note the question form *What ...for?*

What do you use that tool for? We use a hammer for knocking in nails.
This tool is used for tightening bolts.

Purpose is also indicated by the construction *for* + noun/pronoun + *to* infinitive.

I stood aside for her to enter (so that she might enter).
He brought some paper for me to sign (in order that I should sign them).
The announcement was put up on the notice board for everyone to see (so that everyone might/should/could see it).

(87) The patterns *so* + adjective/adverb + *as* + *to* infinitive; *too* + adjective/adverb + *enough* + *to* infinitive are used to indicate consequence or result.

You're not so foolish as/not foolish enough to believe all you read in the newspapers, I hope.
Do you know him well enough to be able to borrow money from him?
We were so fortunate as/were fortunate enough to be in Paris on Bastill Day.
I hope he won't be so weak as to yield.
She's too young to understand.
He ran too quickly for me to catch him.

(88) Instead of the infinitive constructions illustrated in the last section, clauses of result may be used. They are used when the subject of the clause of result is different from that of the main clause. The clause of result may be introduced by *that*, following *so* or *such* + an adjective, adverb, or noun. An adjective or adverb is preceded by *so*, a noun by *such*.

He was so quick that I couldn't catch him.

He ran so quickly that I couldn't catch him.

He was such a good runner that I couldn't catch him.

The construction may also be: main clause + *so* + *that* clause. In this case, *that* is sometimes omitted.

He worries about his financial position all day, so (that) he can't sleep at night. (Cf He worries so much about his financial position that he can't sleep at night.)

The burglar wore gloves, so (that) there were no finger prints to be found.

The clause sometimes has front position in colloquial style.

It was so hot (that) I couldn't sleep.

I couldn't sleep, it was so hot.

4.45 Cause; Reason; Result

(89) A statement about cause or reason may be made in an independent sentence.

I'm not going out tonight. I'm tired.

She knew she had said something foolish. They all laughed.

It is more usual to place the cause or reason in a subordinate clause. Adverbial clauses of cause may be introduced by the conjunctions *because*, *as*, *since*, *considering that*, *seeing that*, *now that*, and (in literary or formal style) *in that*, *in as much as*.

When *because* is used, the emphasis is on the reason and the subordinate clause usually comes last.

He succeeded because he worked hard.

When a subordinate clause is placed early in the sentence for prominence after *it is*, *it was*, etc. *because* is always used (never *as* or *since*).

It is because he has behaved so badly that he must be punished. Cf As he has behaved badly, he must be punished.

When the conjunction is *as*, *since*, *seeing that*, etc, the subordinate clause usually comes first. There is less emphasis on the cause and more emphasis on the result (stated in the main clause). *Since* calls more attention to the cause than *as*.

As he is working hard, he is likely to succeed.

Since I haven't much money, I can't buy it.

Since you insist, I will reconsider the matter.

As I've never met the man, I can't tell you what he looks like.

Seeing that it's raining, you had better stay indoors.

Now that we're here, we may as well see the sights.

The coordinating conjunction *for* is also used (in written English but rarely in Spoken English) to join a statement of result to a statement of cause.

He stood his ground firmly, for he was a brave man.

(90) The conjunction *that* may also introduce adverbial clauses of cause. Such clauses usually follow a main clause that is either a negative exclamation or a rhetorical question.

The clause gives the reason for what is expressed in the exclamation or question.

I'm not a cow that you should expect me to eat grass!

Am I a cow that you should offer me grass?

The conjunction *that* is used to introduce adverbial clauses of cause after adjectives (and past participles) that express emotion. See 3.79 (AP3). The *that* is usually dropped in colloquial style.

I'm glad (that) I came.

He's sorry (that) he can't come.

Aren't you thankful (that) your life has been spared?

We're delighted (that) you can come.

They're disappointed (that) you couldn't pay them a visit.

The use of an adverbial *that*-clause after a finite of an intransitive verb expressing an emotion is literary, not colloquial.

I rejoice that they have become friends again.

(Cf spoken English, I'm glad they've become friends again.)

(91) Adverbial clauses of cause may sometimes be replaced, usually in written English, seldom in spoken English, by a participial construction.

As he was poor, he could not afford to buy books.

Being poor, he could not afford to buy books.

Mr Green was unable to come because he had been asked to lecture in Leeds.

Mr Green, having been asked to lecture in Leeds, was unable to come. (or)

Having been asked to lecture in Leeds, Mr Green was unable to come.

As the rain had ruined her hat, she had to buy a new one.

The rain having ruined her hat, she had to buy a new one.

As there was nothing to do, we went home.

There being nothing to do, we went home.

When the participle is *being*, it is sometimes dropped.

As this book is written in simple English, it is suitable for beginners.

This book, (being) written in simple English, is suitable for beginners.

As she was tired out after her long walk, she went to bed early. Tired out after her long walk, she went to bed early.

Adverbial clauses of cause may in some cases be replaced by a preposition or prepositional phrase and a gerund.

The boy was scolded because he was late.

The child was scolded for being late.

The criminal dared not go out because he was afraid of being recognized by the police.

The criminal dared not go out for fear of being recognized by the police.

(92) An infinitive construction may also indicate cause.

What a fool I was to have expected him to help me! (I was foolish because I expected him to help me).

We were glad to have you with us. (We were glad because we had you with us.)

When the infinitive has a subject different from that of the main clause, the infinitive is introduced by *for* + subject.

The neighbours must have annoyed you very much for you to speak in that way about them. (As you speak in that way about the neighbours, they must have annoyed you very much.)

(93) Cause and reason may, of course, be indicated by the use of the two nouns *cause* and *reason*.

The cause of the accident is still not known.

Reason is used with the preposition *for*. (But note the phrase *by reason of*.)

The reason for his absence was illness.

He was absent because he was ill.

He was absent by reason of because of his illness.

Reason is used with the relative adverb *why*, often omitted.

The reason (why) he was absent was that he was ill.

There is a strong link between *why* and *because*, and this explains the frequent use of *because* in place of *that*.

The reason for my behaving in this way/ Why I behaved in this way is that/because I wanted to save money.

4.46 Comparisons and Contrasts

(94) When we compare two objects, persons, qualities, degrees, etc. that are in some respects equal, we may use the Comparison of Equality. This is formed by the use of the adverb *as* before, and the conjunction *as* after, the adjective or adverb.

Your house is as large as mine.

Does John work as hard as Henry?

When the comparison is negative, the adverb *as* is often replaced by *so*. *As*, however, is often used, especially when it comes immediately after a verb to which a contracted *not* (*n't*) is joined (as in *isn't/wasn't*). If an adverb such as *quite* occurs between *not* and the adjective or adverb, *so* is more frequent.

Your house is not quite so large as mine.

Your house isn't as/so large as mine.

John doesn't work as/so hard as Henry.

This box isn't as large/is not quite so large as that.

(95) When we compare two objects, persons, qualities, degrees, etc. that are in some respects unequal, we may use the comparative degree of the adjective or adverb with *than*. (Exceptions are adjectives taken from Latin: *inferior*, *superior*, *junior*, *senior*, *prior*. These take *to*.)

Your house is larger than mine.

My house is smaller than yours.

John works harder than Harry.

His new book is more interesting than his earlier books.

The Comparison of Inferiority, formed by the use of *less ... than* is also used.

The new edition is less expensive than the old edition.

His new novel is less interesting than his earlier ones.

Often, however, it is preferable to use the Negative Comparison of Equality, thus.

The new edition is not so expensive as the old edition.

His new novel is not so interesting as his earlier ones.

This is particularly the case with short adjectives and adverbs.

Tom's not so tall as his brother. This is preferable to:

Tom's less tall than his brother.

Mr. Green's not so old as he looks. This is preferable to:

Mr. Green's less old than he looks.

(96) The finite verb in a subordinate clause of comparison is often dropped. Thus, in the examples below, the finites in parentheses may be dropped.

Your house is as large as mine (is).

John doesn't work so hard as Henry (does)

Note the possible omissions in the examples below:

I like him more than she (does).

I like him more than (I like) her.

In the first sentence of this pair, the pronouns *I* and *she* are contrasted. In the second, the pronouns *him* and *her* are contrasted, Compare these sentences:

Jane likes me more than she likes Harry.

Jane likes me more than Anne does (or than Anne likes me).

In the first of this pair, *me* and *Harry* are contrasted. In the second, *Jane* and *Anne* are contrasted. In speech the words to be contrasted are given prominence by means of tone or stress or a combination of tone and stress. In writing there may be ambiguity:

Tom likes me better than Harry.

This should be (in writing) either.

Tom likes me better than he likes Harry.

Or Tom likes me better than Harry does.

In colloquial style speakers do not always take the trouble to choose the correct pronoun when there is

no risk of ambiguity.

Is she as tall as me?

Grammatically, as *I (am)* is required. Here the fault is not serious. Cf the use of *It's me, That's him/her*, can be used in colloquial style.

(97) In some adverbial clauses of comparison both subject and verb may be dropped.
My uncle is better today than (he was) when I wrote to you last week.

He is more shy than (he is) unsocial.

Some people think much more about their rights than (they do) about their duties.

Note: In the next example, the shifting of the subject to the end of the clause, for emphasis.
Nobody did more for education in this country than (did) the late Mr. Green.

(98) Note the use of *should* in clauses of comparison introduced by *than that*.

There is nothing I want more than that you should be happy and contented.

I am ready to do the work myself rather than that you should have to do it.

It is more important that the explanation should be clear than that it should cover every possible exception.

(99) Comparison and contrast are also expressed by the use of *the ...* with comparatives. This construction indicates a parallel increase or decrease.

The more learned a man is, the more modest he usually is.

The longer we stayed there, the more we liked the place.

The longer he stayed there, the less he liked the people.

The sooner you start, the sooner you'll finish.

The more he read, the less he understood.

(100) An infinitive phrase may take the place of a clause.

They say that nothing pays better than to be honest (that nothing pays so well as/better than honesty does).

He knew better than to mention the subject to her.

4.47 Concession

(101) A simple way of expressing concession is by the use of the conjunctions *although* and *though*.

Although they're brothers, they never write to each other.

Although he has a car, he often uses buses and trains.

Though he's so rich, he has made his money honestly. Though the restaurant was crowded, we managed to find a table.

Though may have its place at the end of the sentence which would be the main clause if the sentence were complex. It means about the same as 'nevertheless' of all the same.

He's very rich. He's made his money quite honestly, though he didn't tell me where he had been, but I knew it, though. (Although he didn't tell me, I knew where he had been.)

(102) In place of a construction with *although*, a construction with *may* is possible. The use of *may* gives a shift of emphasis as illustrated in the pairs of sentences below.

Although *Ben* is only ten, he plays the guitar beautifully.

(Attention is directed chiefly to the second half of the sentence.)

Ben may only be ten, but he plays the guitar beautifully.

(Here the speaker puts more emphasis on the concession in the first part of the sentence and then draws attention to the fact that, in spite of what has been conceded. Ben plays he guitar well.)

Although James has lived for five years in France, he does not speak French well.

James may have lived for five years in France, but he does not speak French well.

Although Mrs Harris is blind, she runs her own cake-shop.

Mrs. Harris may be blind, but she runs her own cake shop.

In these examples *may* is used to introduce a concession (I concede that ..., I grant that ...) This use of *may* must be distinguished from the use of *may* to suggest a possibility.

He may be (= is perhaps) in the garden.

(103) Compounds in *ever* are also used to introduce concessive clauses. The verb in the clause is sometimes, but not always, used with *may*. In clauses introduced by compounds in *ever*, the idea of possibility is also present.

However often I try (= although I often try), I cannot find the answer.

However often I tried (= although I often tried), I could not find the answer.

Whatever faults he may have (= although he perhaps has some faults), meanness is not one of them.

Whatever faults he may have had (= although he perhaps had some faults), meanness was not one of them.

However often you ring (= although/even if you ring the bell again and again), no one will answer.

However much Tom may admire her (= although he perhaps admires her very much), he is unlikely to ask her to be his wife. Whatever we may think of the wisdom of his plans (= although we may have our doubts about their wisdom), no one can deny that they are bold and imaginative.

Whatever happens/may happen (= although there may be failure, disappointment, etc), you will always be glad that you tried to do your best.

The use of compounds in *ever* may be compared with the examples below. The construction is used especially with *will*, *would may*, and *might*.

Come what may (= whatever may come, or happen), we must remain cheerful.

Try as you will (= however hard you may try), you won't manage it.

Say what you will (= whatever you may say), I shall trust to my own judgment.

(104) The word *matter* is used in a construction that indicates concession. Both the noun and the verb are used.

No matter what I did, no one paid any attention. (Cf Whatever I did, although I did various things ...)

No matter how hard I tried, I couldn't manage it. (Cf Although I tried hard ...)

It doesn't matter how hard you try ... (Cf Although you may try very hard...)

(105) In another type of concessive clause with *as*, an adjective or adverb is given front position for emphasis.

Rich as he is, I don't envy him. (Cf I don't envy him, although he is rich. However rich he may be, I don't envy him. No matter how rich he is, I don't envy him.)

Much as I admire Shakespeare's comedies (= although I admire them, however much I may admire them), I cannot agree that they are superior to the tragedies.

For all (= in spite of all) is used to introduce a concession.

For all his wealth (= although he is wealthy), he is not happy.

For all you say (= say what you will about him; whatever you may say; no matter what you say), I still like him.

(106) *Even if* or *if* may replace *although*. When *if* is used the concession is not so complete or is not so willingly made. The speaker grants something not as a fact, but as a possibility.

Even if he did say so, we can't be sure he was telling the truth.

Even if it takes me six months, I'm determined to finish the job.

I couldn't be angry with her, even if I tried.

If she is stupid, she's at any rate pleasant to look at.

4.48 Conditions and Suppositions

(107) English verbs have no forms specially inflected for conditional tenses. In place of inflected forms English uses either the tenses of the indicative mood or various auxiliary or modal verbs (e. g *would, should, could, might*). The subjunctive mood is used in a few cases.

There is a great variety of conditional sentences. The two main divisions are : A. those with clauses that contain a condition that may or may not be fulfilled. B. those with clauses in which a theoretical or hypothetical condition is put forward – these are clauses in which the condition is combined with improbability or unreality.

- A) What can we do if it rains?
Don't come unless I tell you to (come).
We shall go provided the weather is fine.
If you are right, I am wrong.
- B) He would come if he had time.
You would have succeeded if you had tried harder.
If you were a bird, you could fly.

(108) Conditional clauses may be introduced by *if (even if, if only), as/so long as, suppose or supposing (that), on condition (that), provided (that)*, and, for a negative condition, *unless* (which means the same as, but is more emphatic than, *if ... not*). To introduce a contingency or possibility against which a precaution is needed or advisable, *in case* is used.

If you have enough money, why don't you buy a bicycle?
So long as you return the book by Saturday, I will lend it to you with pleasure.
Suppose/supposing your friends knew how you're behaving here, what would they think?
He says he'll accept the post provided/on condition that the salary is satisfactory.
You'd better take an umbrella with you in case it rains.

Note: That the subsidiary clause may either precede or follow the main clause.

If you have enough money, why don't you buy a bicycle?
Why don't you buy a bicycle if you have enough money?

The conditional clause is more prominent or emphatic when it is placed first.

(109) Conditional clauses of the A type are sometimes called clauses of open condition or factual condition (contrasted with the theoretical condition in the clauses of the B type). The speaker does not declare that the condition will be realized or that it will not be realized. He leaves the question open or unanswered.

What shall we do if it rains?

The speaker here merely puts forward the possibility that it may rain.

In clauses of open condition, any of the tenses of the indicative mood, except the future tense with *will/shall*, may be used. (For exceptional uses of *will/would*, see 5.112.) The various auxiliary verbs that are used in conditional clauses of the B type are not used in conditional clauses of the A type. There are many possible combinations of tenses in the main clause and the subsidiary (or conditional) clause.

(i) Present Tense in both main and subsidiary clauses :

If he comes, what are we to do?
What can we do if he doesn't come?
Provided the weather keeps like this, the farmers have no need to worry about the crops.
It doesn't matter where you put it so long as you make a note of where it is.

(ii) Future Perfect Tense in the main clause and Present Tense in the subsidiary clause. Imperatives and future tense equivalents are also used in the main clause.

If it's ready he'll bring it tomorrow.

What shall we do if it rains?
What are you going to do if it rains?
Come indoors at once if it rains.
Don't come unless I tell you to come.
I shall take an umbrella in case it rains.
Supposing the enemy wins the war, what will happen to us?

- (iii) Future Perfect Tense in the main clause and Present Tense in the subsidiary clause.
If you don't hurry and get there before five o'clock, he'll have left the office and gone home.
- (iv) Future Tense in the main clause and Present Perfect Tense in the subsidiary clause.
If he has finished his work by six o'clock we shall be able to take him with us.
Unless he has done the work to my satisfaction, I shall not pay him for it.
- (v) Present Tense in the main clause and Present Perfect Tense in the subsidiary clause.
If you've been travelling all night, you probably need a rest.
If you've finished your homework, you can/may go out and play.
- (vi) Future Tense in the main clause and Past Tense in the subsidiary clause.
If she promised to be here she'll certainly come
If he arrived only yesterday he'll probably not leave before Sunday.
- (vii) Present Tense in the main clause and Past Tense in the subsidiary clause.
If he arrived only yesterday he's unlikely to leave today.
If you spent the night on the train you probably need a rest.
- (viii) Past Tense in the main clause and Past Tense in the subsidiary clause.
If that was what he told you he was telling lies.
- (ix) Present Tense in the main clause and Past Perfect Tense in the subsidiary clause.
If he hadn't left any message when you called, he probably intends to be back before you leave.

(110) Conditional clauses of the B type are sometimes called clauses of rejected or hypothetical condition. The condition is one that is contrary to fact, or one that is impossible (e.g. *if you were a bird*), or one that is considered unlikely to be fulfilled or has not yet been fulfilled, or, for past time, one that was not fulfilled.

If the supposition refers to future time, the main clause contains one of the verbs *would*, *should*, *could* and *might* are used in this type of conditional sentence. The subjunctive *were* is sometimes used in the conditional clause.

There are many possible combinations for (i) future time, (ii) present and future time combined, and (iii) past time.

- (j) If the supposition refers to future time, the main clause contains one of the verbs *would*, *should*, *could*, *might* or *ought*. The conditional clause may contain either *should* or *were to*.
If he were to/should hear of your marriage, he would be surprised.
He wouldn't do it unless you were to specially ask him.
If you should be passing my house, you might return the book you borrowed from me.
If you were to start early tomorrow morning, you would/could/might/ought to/should be at your destination by evening.

(ii) If the supposition refers to present time, or to both present and future time, the main clause contains one of the verbs *would, should, could, or might*, and the conditional clause contains a Past Tense. This is sometimes called the imaginative use of the past tense. Cf I wish I knew! If only I knew!

If I had the money I should pay you.

If he heard of your marriage he would be surprised.

He wouldn't do it unless you specially asked him.

Supposing I accepted this offer, what would you say?

He wouldn't be in debt if he were not so extravagant.

If you went to London you might see the Queen.

If he took his doctor's advice he might soon be well again.

I couldn't promise to be there (even if I wished to be present).

You could do it if you tried.

Supposing my father saw me with you, what might he think?

(iii) If the supposition refers to past time, the main clause contains one of the verbs *would, should, could, or might* with a perfect infinitive (or a simple infinitive if the reference is to consequence in the present). The conditional clause contains a Past Perfect Tense.

If he had heard of your marriage, he would have been surprised.

I should never have got here in time (= I should not be here now) if you hadn't given me a lift in your car.

If you'd been at the meeting I should have seen you.

If you hadn't told me about it I should/might not know (= I should still be unaware of) the facts.

You could have done if it you had tried.

If he'd taken his doctor's advice he might not have died (= he might still be alive).

(111) The subjunctive form *were* (with a singular subject) is usual in literary English in conditional clauses. It is used in spoken English in the phrase *If I were you*. But *was* is also used in *if*-clauses in spoken English.

When the condition is expressed without a conjunction by means of inversion of the subject and finite verb, *were* (not *was*) is used. This inversion is rare in spoken English.

Were he to see you (= if he were to see you, should he see you), he'd be surprised.

The negative *wasn't* is often preferred to *weren't* as being more emphatic.

If it wasn't that you have been ill, I should consider your work unsatisfactory.

Had and *should* also occur in this inverted construction, often in literary style, and occasionally in spoken English.

Had I known you were ill, I'd have called to see you.

Should you need help, please let me know at once.

Should you change your mind, please let me know.

(112) It was stated in 5.109 that the future tense with *will* is not used in conditional clauses.

If he comes (* if he will come) next week, what shall we ask him to do?

When *will* is not an auxiliary for the future tense but a verb indicating or asking about willingness, it may occur in an *if*-clause. The past tense *would* can be used.

Compare :

If you help me, we can finish by six.

If you'll help me/ if you'll be so kind as to help me, we can finish by six.

If you'd help me/if you'd be so kind as to help me, we could finish by six.

(113) *Will* and *would* are also used (always stressed) meaning insist. In this case, too, they may occur in *if*-clauses.

If you will bet (if you insist on betting) on horse races, you mustn't complain if you lose your money.

If he would bet (if he insisted on betting) on horse races in spite of your warnings, he deserved to lose his money.

(114) *Should* sometimes means *ought to*. With this meaning, it can be used in *if*-clauses of the A type (i.e. open or factual condition)

If your parents disapprove of the plan, you should (ought to) give it up.

If you shouldn't (oughtn't to) do it, don't do it.

(115) Conditions are sometimes implied in a relative clause. Note the tenses in these examples.

A country that stopped working would quickly be bankrupt. (If a country stopped working, it would quickly be bankrupt.)

Imagine being married to a man who snored! (Imagine being married to a man if he snored.)

(116) Instead of a sentence with a conditional clause, we sometimes have two co-ordinate clauses. Such sentences are usually proverbial.

Spare the rod and spoil the child. (If a child is spared punishment, it will be spoilt.)

See a pin and let it lie, you'll want a pin before you die. (If you see a pin and do not pick it up, you will one find yourself in need of a pin.)

From : Modern English, by N. Krishna Swamy, Madras, Macmillan, 1984 edition.

Words

'Words, words, mere words, no matter from the heart.' Shakespeare.

The study of words is as important as the study of sentences because sentences are made up of words. The study of words not only helps us recognize the parts of speech (i.e. the grammatical class of a word) by their structure but also shows the relationship between classes of words : noun-verb , noun-adjective; adjective-adverb, adjective-verb, etc.

4.49 Formation of Words

Often 'new' words are formed from the existing ones by adding a small unit either at the beginning or at the end, this is known as word formation. There are three important ways of word formation:

(a) Affixation.

(b) Conversion

(c) Compounding

Affixation may be prefixation (adding something at the beginning of a word) or suffixation (adding something at the end).

1. Prefixation : Prefixes do not generally alter the word class of the base.

4.49.1 Negative Prefixes: *un-*, *non-*, *in-*, *il-*, *ir-*, *im-*, *dis-*, *a-*, *ab-*

Examples: *Unfair*, *unwise*, *non-smoker*, *nonconformist*, *insane*, *illogical*, *irregular*, *impossible*, *disobey*, *amoral*, *abnormal*.

(a) '*il-*' is used before words beginning with 'l'

it- is used before words beginning with 'r'.

im- is used before words beginning with 'm', 'p', 'b' (*immoral*, *impolite*, *imbalance*)

(b) Sometimes, what is acceptable in the positive becomes unacceptable with '*un-*'
a heeded problem (unacceptable), an unheeded problem (acceptable)

(c) '*un-*' is normally used before adjectives and participles : *unwise*; *unexpected*; *unassuming*.

(d) '*non-*' is used before adjectives, nouns, etc.: *non-specific*; *non-person* (=nonentity)

(e) '*in-*' is normally used before adjectives: *insane*, *in-decent*

(f) Sometimes the form without the prefix may not be in use: *innocent*, *inhale*

(g) Sometimes *in-* may not have a negative meaning: *inflammable* (it does not mean *non-flammable*)

mean

- (h) 'dis-' is normally used before verbs and adjectives: *dislike, disinterested*
- (i) 'a-' is used before adjectives and nouns: *amoral, anarchy, amorphous*
- (j) There are also other prefixes like 'anti-' and 'counter' with negative implications.

4.49.2 Reversative Prefixes

These prefixes have the meaning of reversal of the action indicated by the base; they do not have a negative implication:

un -, de-, dis -

Examples : *Undo, untie, unpack, dehydrate, decode, defrost, decentralize, disown.*

4.49.3 Pejorative Prefixes

These prefixes give the sense of ill, bad, wrong, wrongly, not in the right way, etc.: *mis-, ma-, pseude-*.

Examples: *misuse, misunderstanding, malfunction, malnutrition, pseudo-intellectual.*

4.49.4 Prefixes of Degree or Size

arch-, super-, out-, sur-, sub-, over-, under-, hyper-, ultra-, mini- Examples: *archbishop, supernatural, superfluous, superman, outgrow, surcharge, substandard, subnormal, overeat, underfed, hyperacidity, ultra-modem, mini-skirt*

Note: 'arch-', 'over-', 'under-' and 'hyper-' may have pejorative implication as in *arch-enemy, overdressed, underworked, hyperactive.*

4.49.5 Locational Prefixes

Super-, sub-, inter-, trans-

Examples: *superstructure, subway, international, transatlantic* (Sometimes 'over-' and 'under-' may have locational meaning *overspill, underpass*)

4.49.6 Prefixes of Time and Order

fore-, pre-, post-, ex-, re-

Examples.: *forewarn, pre-war, post-war, ex-president, reappear.*

4.49.7 Other Prefixes

ambi, amphi, ante-, anti-, auto, bene-, bi-, circum-, con. como, col-, co., contra-, counter-, di-, dia-, epi-, eu-, eo, extra., hypo., inter-, intra-, intro-, mono-, multi-, neo-, pan-, peri-, poly. pro-, proto-, quad-, retro-, se-, semi-, syn-, sym-, tri-, uni-, vice

Examples: *ambivalence, amphitheatre, anteroom, anti-war, autobiography, benefactor, bifocal, circumspect, concord, compact, collateral, correlate, cooperate, contraband, counteract, diaphragm, dichotomy, epigram, euphony, egress, extraordinary, hypotenuse, intersect, intravenous, introspection, monotone, multimillionaire, neo-classism, pan-Indian, periscope, polysyllabic, pro-Indian, prototype, quadrangle, retroflex, seduce, semi-circle, synchronize, symmetry, triangle, uniform, vice-president.*

Prefixes That Change Word-Classes

be-, en-, a-

These three convert the base into a different word class: *bewitch, empower, astray*
 The old witch *bewitched* the dogs. (verb from noun) She gave them a *bewitching* smile.
 (adjective) They *empowered* him to do that. (verb from noun)
 He was led *astray* by *pad* companions. (adverb from verb).

Hyphenation of Prefixes

Ordinarily, prefixes are not separated by hyphens. There are a few exceptions, however, as follows:

- (i) When the last letter, of the prefix is the same as the first, letter of the base:
co-operate, pre-election, re-enter
- (ii) When the prefix 'self-' is used: *self-control, self-educated*
- (iii) When the prefix 'pan-' is used: *Pan-American, Pan-Indian*
- (iv) When the prefix 'ex-' is used: *ex-president, ex-chairman*
- (v) When confusion would otherwise result between similar words : *re-act* (to perform again), *react* (to respond to a stimulus) *re-form* (to form again), *reform* (to change something for the better)

4.50 Suffixation

Suffixes often alter the word-class of the base; for example, the adjective 'kind' by the addition of the suffix, '-ness', is changed in to an abstract noun 'kindness'.

Listed below are some of the suffixes that turn one word-class into another:

(i) One Kind of Noun into another Kind of Noun

-ster	gang - gangster	-eer	profit - profiteer
-er	teenage - teenager	-let	book - booklet
-ette	kitchen - kitchnette	-ess	poet - poetess
-y	dad - daddy	-ship	friend - friendship
-hood	boy - boyhood	-ry	slave - slavery
-dom	king - kingdom	-ful	mouth - mouthful
-ery	snob - snobbery	-age	bag - baggage
-ist	art - artist; science- scientist	-ing	mat - matting

Other miscellaneous pairs:

library - librarian; message - messenger; music - musician; poet - poetry; scene- scenery; slave - slavery; thief - theft; treasure - treasury.

agent - agency; crime - criminal; engine - engineer; law - lawyer;

library - librarian; message - messenger; music - musician; poetry; scene- scenery; slave - slavery; thief - theft; treasure - treasury.

(ii) Verbs into Nouns

<i>work - worker;</i>	<i>-ature sign - signature</i>
<i>serve - server</i>	<i>-al refuse - refusal</i>
<i>(also 'servant')</i>	<i>-ing drive- driving</i>

(iii) Adjectives into Nouns:

<i>-ness bitter - bitterness</i>	<i>-th deep - depth; true - truth</i>
<i>-y honest - honesty</i>	<i>-ce distant - distance</i>
<i>-ty cruel - cruelty</i>	<i>-cy efficient - efficiency</i>
<i>-ity original - originality</i>	

brave - bravery; foreign - foreigner; free - freedom; hard - hardship; high - height;
just - justice; literary - literature; proud - pride; strange - stranger; wise - wisdom; young -
youngster.

(iv) Adjectives/Nouns

-ite, -(i)an, -ese, -ist, -ism.

Examples: *Israelite, Indonesian, republican, Chinese, idealism*

(v) Verbs into Adjectives

<i>-ent</i>	<i>obey – obedient</i>	<i>-able agree –agreeable</i>
<i>-ant</i>	<i>please - pleasant</i>	<i>-ible sense – sensible</i>
<i>-ive</i>	<i>act – active</i>	<i>-ed damage – damaged</i>
<i>-tive</i>	<i>attend – attentive</i>	<i>-en swell –swollen</i>
<i>-ative</i>	<i>imagine – imaginative</i>	<i>-ing annoy – annoying</i>
<i>-itive</i>	<i>sense – sensitive.</i>	

Miscellaneous pairs

continue - continuous; forget - forgetful; imagine - imaginary; quarrel - quarrelsome;

satisfy-satisfactory; sleep-asleep;

slip-slippery; wake-awake

(vi) Adjectives into Verbs

-ize civil-civilize

-en dark-darken

(vii) Some Suffixes Common in Borrowed and Neo-Classic Words

-al, -ial, -ical, -ic, -ive, -ative, -itive, -ous, -lous, -ious

sensitive, ambitious, vivacious (=full office)

(viii) Adjectives into Adverbs

-ly cautious-cautiously

(ix) Nouns into Adverbs

-ly month - monthly

-ward(s) east - eastwards; back - backward(s)

Conversion: Conversion is the process whereby a word is converted into a new word-class without adding an affix. For example, the word ‘*release*’ can be used as verb or as a noun.:

They released him. (verb)

They ordered his *release*. (noun)

There are several types of conversions, The important ones are.

(a) Verb-Noun Conversion

The *guard* was unnoticed.

The captain *guarded* the men.

Some of the common words that are used as verbs and as nouns are: *aim, answer, attempt, break, cause, change, comb, command, cook, cure, curse, dance, defeat, exercise, fall, fear, finger, flash, guard, guide, hope, limit, love, note, pile, pin, promise, pump, regret, reply, report, roar, share, sign, smile, smoke, support, walk, witness, wound, wreck.*

(b) Adjective-Noun Conversion

It seemed *average*. (adjective)

The *average* was eighty. (noun)

Some of the common words that are used as adjectives and nouns are: *average, cold, dear, elastic, equal, English (American, Indian, etc.), explosive, evil, fat, final, human, ideal, light, moral, native, natural, official, orange, particular, plain, public, secret, solid, sore, special, welcome.*

(c) Adjective-Verb Conversion

They were very *humble*. (adjective)

They *humble* him. (verb)

Some of the common words that are used as adjectives and verbs: *blind, calm, clean, clear, complete, cool, correct, direct, dirty, dry, dull, empty, faint, fit, free, idle, level, near, open, slow, tame, thin, tidy, upset, wet.* Some words like *average, equal, hollow, welcome,* etc. may be used as adjectives, verbs and nouns:

He seemed *average*. (adjective)

Let's *average* the scores. (verb)

The *average* was interesting. (noun)

(d) Proper Noun-Common Noun Conversion

He is a *Shelley* (common noun)

I have read the poem of *Shelley* (proper noun)

(e) Adjective-Adverb Conversion

The poem reads *well*. (adjective)

He read the poem *well*. (adverb)

Some of the common words that are used both as adjectives and adverbs are:

alone, backward, early, far, fast, fine, first, hard, high, late, lively last, long, low, near, next, right; well, wrong.

(f) Transitive – Intransitive Conversion

We run the water. (Transitive verb)

The water runs. (Intransitive verb)

Compounding: A compound word is a unit that consists of two or more bases. There is no one formal criterion that can be used for a general definition of compounds. Sometimes, in writing, they are hyphenated (e.g. *tax-free*), sometimes, they are written as one word (e.g. *bedroom*); and sometimes, as two words without a hyphen (e.g. *reading room*). In speech, compounds can often be identified as having a main stress on the first unit and secondary stress on the second unit (e.g. *blackbird* = a species of bird); but, many speakers place a secondary stress on the first unit (e.g. *head master*).

In terms of meaning, compounds may or may not be directly related to or inferred from the meanings of its parts. For example, in *a hot dog* (= a sausage in a sandwich), the word *dog* has nothing to do with the meaning of the compound. But, in *a darkroom* (= a room used for photographic processing), it is not just a room that is dark, but, a room that is also dark; not all darkrooms are darkrooms (i.e. used for photographic processing). In such cases there is some relationship between the meanings of the parts and the meaning of the compound.

Some compounds may appear to be similar but, grammatically, they are formed in different ways: *play-boy* ('boy' is the subject of 'plays' – the boy plays); *call girl* (girl is the object of *call* - Someone calls the girl); they are also not directly related to the meanings of the parts.

Compounds, quite often, are reduced versions of sentences. So the study of compounds is, in a way, part of the study of syntax. For example, compounds may be classified on the basis of their syntax:

i. Subject and verb compounds :

The day breaks: *daybreak*

The head aches : *headache*.

ii. Verb and object compounds:

Someone reviews a book : *a book review*

- Someone controls birth: *birth-control*
- iii. Verb and adverbial compounds :
 - Walk in one's sleep: *sleep walking*
 - Go to theatre: *theatre goer*
 - Dream during the day: *daydreamer*
- iv. Verbless compounds :
 - A man who is mad: *madman*
- v. Verb compounds:
 - Someone sees sights: *sightseeing*.

Other process : There are also other processes in word formation :

- (i) Reduplication : *tick-tock; ding-dong*
- (ii) Clipping: 'telephone' becomes '*phone*';
moving pictures becomes '*moves*' or '*pictures*';
'microphone' becomes *mike*.
- (iii) Blending: travel catalogue becomes *travelogue* 'breakfast and lunch' becomes '*brunch*'
'rural and urban' becomes '*rurban*'; 'motorist's hotel' becomes *motel*; 'smoke plus fog'
becomes *smog*.

4.51 Prepositions

Prepositions : *at, to* ; preposition/ adverb : *in*

Insert suitable prepositions in the following.

1. Could I speak ... Tom, please?
I'm afraid Tom's ... work. But Jack's ... Would you like to speak Him?
2. How do I get ... the air terminal?
Turn right ... the end of this street and you 'll see it ... front of you.
3. He started going ... school ... the age of five. So now he's been ... school for ten years.
He's leaving ... the end of this year.
4. He goes ... his office every day except Sunday. On Sunday he stays ... home and works
... the garden.
5. I think I left my umbrella ... the bus. I'd better write ... the Lost Property Office.
6. We arrived ... the airport ... good time for the plane.
7. Can I look up a word ... your dictionary? I left mine... home..
8. Our train arrived... York ... 6.30. Paul met us ... the station.
9. Have you been ... the theatre recently?
Yes, I was ... the Old Vic last night.
10. I'm returning... France ... the end of this term.
Are you coming back ... England after the holidays?
11. He isn't living ... home now, but if you write ... his home they'll forward the letter ... his
new address.
12. I went ... bed early but I couldn't get ... sleep because the people ... the next from were
talking so loudly.
13. ... first I found the work very tiring, but ... a few weeks I got used ... it.
14. There was an accident ... the crossroads ... midnight last night. Two men were taken ...
hospital. I believe one of them is still ... hospital.
15. ... the daytime the streets are crowded but ... night they are quite deserted.
16. ... first her father refused to allow her to go back ... work, but ... the end he agreed.
17. ... the beginning of a text book there is a preface, and ... the end there is an index.
18. He went ... sea ... 18, and spent all his working life ... sea. He retired ... 56 and went to
live ... the country.
19. I saw Tom ... the bus stop this morning but couldn't speak ... him because we were
standing ... a queue and he was ... the front of it and I was ... the back.
20. I'll leave some sandwiches ... the fridge in case you are hungry when you come in.

21. We'd better start ... six, because climbing up ... the gallery takes some time. I hope you don't mind sitting ... the gallery. No. of course not. When I go ... the opera I always go ... the gallery.
22. He is always ... a hurry. He drives ... a tremendous speed.
23. When he began speaking ... English, she looked ... him ... amazement.
24. Write ... ink and put your name ... the top of the page.
25. We start serving breakfasts ... 7.30. Shall I send yours up ... your room, or will you have it ... the restaurant?
26. He's always ... a bad temper ... breakfast time.
27. According ... the guidebook there are three hotels ... the town.
28. The pilot climbed ... 5,000 metres and flew ... that height till he got ... the coast. Then he came down... 1,000 metres and began to take photographs.
29. I'm interested ... chess but I'm not very good... it.
30. Who is the girl... the blue dress, sitting ... the head of the table?
31. I couldn't offer him a room ... my flat because ... that time my mother-in-law was staying with us.
32. The train stopped ... all the stations, and long before we got ... London every seat was taken and people were standing ... the corridors.
33. Shall we discuss it ... my room, or shall I come ... your office?
34. ... my astonishment I was the only person ... the bar. Everyone else had gone ... the Casino.
35. The Loch Ness Monster is supposed to live ... the bottom of the Loch and come ... the surface from time ... time.
36. You can't say that he lives ... luxury. There's hardly any furniture ... his room. He hasn't even got a desk to write ...

Prepositions and prepositions/adverbs: *at, by, in, into, of, off, on, out (of), to, under, with.*

Fill the gaps in the following sentences from the above list.

I'm going to Bath ... Monday ... Tom. Would you like to come. Us ? –

1. Are you going – bus?
No. we're going ... Tom's car.
2. I saw him standing ... the queue but I don't know whether he got ... the bus or not.
3. How do you go ... school? It depends ... the weather ... wet days I go ... tube ... fine whether I go ... foot.
4. The car stopped ... the traffic lights and wouldn't start again, so the driver got ... and pushed it ... the side ... the road.
5. Someone threw a stone ... the speaker. It hit him ... the head and knocked his glasses ...
6. I want to post this ... a friend ... Italy. Will he have to pay duty ... it?
7. According ... Tom, it is impossible to live ... Paris ... less than 10,000 a year.
8. Are you ... your own (alone)?
No, I'm ... a friend ... mine.
9. You ought to be ashamed ... yourself for coming ... my nice clean kitchen ... muddy boots.
10. Children get presents ... Christmas and ... their birthdays.
11. How would we get (escape from) this room if the hotel were Fire?
12. He arrived ... London ... 6 p.m. ... a foggy November day. We often have fogs... November.
13. The man ... his back ... the camera is the Minister ... Agriculture.
14. How do I get ... the Public Library? - Go ... the end ... this street and turn right: turn left... the next traffic lights and then take the second turning ... your right. This will bring you ... Brook Street, and you 'll find the library... your left.
15. Alternatively you could get a 14 bus ... this stop and ask the conductor to tell you where to get ... (alight).
16. The boy was leaning against the wall... his hands ... his pockets. Take you hands ... your pockets. Said his father sharply.

17. As she was getting ... the car one ... her buttons fell ... Although we were ... a hurry she insisted ... stopping to look for it.
18. Mr Jones is very keen ... punctuality. His lessons start dead ... time and you get ... terrible trouble if you're late.
19. The man ... the pipe and red hair is the brother ... the girl ... blue.
20. Don't leave your luggage ... the corridor. It'll be ... everyone's way. Bring it ... the compartment and put it ... the rack.
21. He sits ... his desk all day ... his head ... his hands. It gets ... my nerves.
22. ... mistake I opened Mary's letter instead ... my own. She was very angry ... me and said that I'd done it ... purpose.
23. I buy a newspaper ... my way ... the station and read it ... the train. By the time I get ... London I've read most ... it.
24. He was charged ... driving while ... the influence ... alcohol.
25. People who drop litter ... the pavements are liable ... a fine ... 50.
26. He accused me ... selling secret information ... the enemy.
27. You look worried. Are you ... some sort ... trouble?
Yes... a way. I'm ... debt and my creditors want to be paid ... the end ... the month, And ... the moment I haven't any money The bank.
28. The car skidded ... the tree, the windscreen was smashed and the driver was cut... the face ... splinters ... glass.
29. Four people were injured ... the demonstration. Three ... them are students ... the university, the fourth is here ... holiday. That's him over there ... his arm ... plaster.
30. This picture was painted ... Picasso: and there's another Picasso ... the opposite wall
31. The horse stopped suddenly and the rider fell ... He couldn't get ... against without help and there was no one ... sight.
32. The children hastily changed ... bathing things and jumped ... the river ... shouts of delight.
33. We'll have to go ... car: we can't go ... bus ... account ... the bus strike.
34. Divers breathing a mixture ... helium and oxygen can work ... a depth ... 100 meters
35. I'm tired ... working ... the suburbs and I've asked to be transferred ... our central branch.
36. Can I have Monday ...? Or Can I have a holiday ... Monday? I want to go ... my grandson's wedding.

Prepositions and prepositions/adverbs: at, by, during, for, from, in, of, on, over, since, till, under, with.

Insert suitable words, choosing them from the above list.

1. I've lived ... this street ... ten years.
2. He has lived ... 101 Cornwall Gardens ... 1966.
3. ... the age ... 18 he was sent to prison ... theft.
4. He was ... prison ... two years ... that time he became interested ... pigeons.
5. There is a parcel of books ... you ... the table ... the hail. Oh, they must be ... my brother. He always sends me books ... my birthday.
6. We heard that Bill wasn't ... arrest but was helping the police ... their enquires. The police are interested ... a bank robbery which took place ... Bill's last holidays.
7. As the child was too young to travel ... herself, they arranged ... her to travel ... the care ... a friend of the family.
8. Have you heard ... John ... his return? Yes I had a letter ... Monday. He's thinking ... going back... America.
9. He was ill... a week and ... that week his wife never left his side.
11. Aren't you coming ... us? No. I'm waiting ... Tom. But he won't be ready... some time. I'm not ... a hurry. I'll wait till he's ready.
12. I'm very sorry ... being late. It was good ... you to wait ... me.
13. Passengers may leave bulky articles ... the stairs ... the conductor's permission,, but the bus company will not be responsible ... such articles.
14. Remember to be ... good time ... the opera because if you're late they won't Let you ...

- the end ... the act.
15. I want two seats ... Romeo and Juliet... Friday night.
 16. ... spite ... the heat he refused to take ... his coat.
 17. He was wounded ... the shoulder ... a bullet fired ... an upstairs window.
 18. While ... their way from the coast... the mountains they were attacked ... a jaguar.
 19. What platform does the train ... York leave ...? Platform 8, and you'd better hurry. It'll be leaving ... a minute.
 20. He invited me to dinner ... his club and ... the meal he asked me ... advice about his investments.
 21. He's not independent ... any means. He depends ... his father ... everything.
 22. He has a picture ... Picasso (Picasso painted the picture) and he can't decide whether to hang it ... the hall... the right as you come... or... the sitting room ... the fireplace.
 23. I'm tired ... hearing about Tom and his Picasso. He can hang it ... his garage ... all I care!
 24. He said he was ... debt and asked me ... a loan... 50.
 25. What's the cheapest way ... getting ... London ... Edinburgh? Well, you could hitchhike there ... next ... nothing or you could go ... coach... about 20.
 26. I was horrified ... his appearance. He looked as if he hadn't slept ... weeks.
 27. When he gets back ... the office he expects his wife to meet him ... the door ... his slippers, and have a hot meal waiting ... him.
 28. Yesterday the children went ... a walk and didn't get back ... 10 p.m. Their mother was furious ... them... coming in so late.
 29. Passengers who get ... or ... a bus (i.e. who board or leave it) except ... the official stops do so ... their own risk.
 30. The rows are lettered ... A to T, beginning... the row nearest the stage. So if Tom is sitting ... B 26, and Jack is sitting ... C26, Tom will be directly ... front ... Jack.
 31. What's the best way ... cooking a lobster? Cook it ... boiling salted water, and serve it cold ... mayonnaise.
 32. He was fined ... parking his car ... a no parking area.
 33. He opened the door ... a rusty key and went down the steps ... the cellar, followed by Bill ... a torch.
 34. The adults worked ... 6 a.m. to 6 p.m. ... an hour... lunch. Boys ... 18 were not supposed to start ... 8 p.m. (earlier than 8 a.m.)
 35. He died ... heart failure ... Tuesday night. His wife is still suffering ... shock.
 36. The house is ... fire! Send ... the Fire Brigade!

Prepositions and prepositions / adverbs: *about, at, away (adverb only), by, for, from, in, into, on, out, to, under, up, with, over.*

Insert a suitable word in the following sentences.

1. He insisted ... seeing the documents.
2. They succeeded ... escaping ... the burning house.
3. I am not interested ... anything that happened ... the very remote past.
4. The children are very fond ... swimming ... summer they spend most ... their time ... the water/
5. How are you getting ... at school? I'm getting ... all right except ... English. I'm very bad... English: I'll have to work harder ... it and spend more time ... it.
6. Paul goes ... school ... you doesn't he? How's he getting ... his English? Or How's his English getting ...?
7. I don't know. We're not ... the same class. But he gets ... the other students all right. He has heaps ... friends.
8. There is not point ... going ... car if we can't park near the theatre.
9. She made a point ... coming late so that everyone would look ... her.
10. It never occurred... me to ask him ... proof ... his identity.
11. ... first, driving on the left is confusing, but you'll soon get used ... it.
12. I've heard such a lot ... him that I'm looking forward ... seeing him very much .

13. He was so absorbed ... his work that when I came ... he didn't even look... (raise his head)
14. I'm sorry ... Tom (I pity him.) He has worked ... Brown and Company ... ten years ad now the firm has been taken ... by Jones Ltd. And they're going to dismiss him.
15. I'm sorry ... being late ... Monday. Or I'm sorry ... Monday.
16. The complete set ... books can be ordered ... 10 ... Jones and Company (Jones and Company will send them to you if you write enclosing 10)
17. I'm waiting ... my friend. He'll be here ... a moment.
18. I see... today's paper that you need a secretary ... a knowledge of French. I should like to apply ... the post.
19. You can't rely ... him. He's almost always late ... appointments.
20. If you do not comply ... the traffic regulations you will get ... trouble ... the police.
21. Wine is good ... you, but it is expensive ... England because there is a fairly high tax.... It.
22. ... fairy stories, stepmothers are always unkind ... their stepchildren: but my stepmother has always been very good... me.
23. He was so infuriated ... the play that he walked ... (left the theatre) ... the ...the first act. middle
24. A pair of girls take care ... my little boys (looks ... them) ... the afternoons, She's very good ... children. (She can manage them well.)
25. He threw stones ... his attackers, trying to drive them...
26. I threw the ball ... Peter, but instead ... throwing it back ... me, he ran ... and hid it.
27. I object ... being kept waiting. Why can't you be ... time?
28. ... accordance ... the wishes ... my people, the president said, I am retiring ... public life.
29. This regulation doesn't apply ... you. You are ... (Less than) 18.
30. I'm not exactly keen ... cooking but I prefer it ... washing up. (Washing up is worse than cooking.)
31. I was so afraid ... missing the train that I took a taxi ... the station.
32. What ... taking the day ... and spending it ... the seaside?
33. I don't object ... lending you my pen, but wouldn't it be better if you had a pen ... your own?
34. Don't ask the office ... information. I will provide you ... all the information you need.
35. I disapprove ... people who make all sorts ... promises which they have no intention ... keeping.
36. I was ... the impression that I had paid you ... the work you did ... me.

Use and Omission of Prepositions

Insert a preposition if necessary. Choose from *at, by, for, in, of, on, past, till/until, to, with*.

1. He asked ... his father ... money.
2. They paid ... me... the books.
3. I thought he would offer ... Ann the job, but he offered it ... me.
4. Keep ... me a place, and keep a place ... Ann too.
5. They showed ... us photographs ... their baby.
6. Buying presents ... children is sometimes very difficult ... the end I bought a kite ... Tom and a torch ... Ann.
7. Pass the salt ... your father. Peter, and pass ... me the pepper. Please.
8. When you have lunch... a restaurant, who pays ... the bill ? Oh, each ... us pays ... what he has had.
9. Paul's a pianist. He sometimes plays ... us ... the evening. Last night he played some Chopin.
10. I think I'll be able to find... Ann a job – Could you find a job... me. Too ?

11. He sold the picture ... an American dealer ... 5,000.
12. He promised... Us a share ... the profits.
13. He built a very nice house ... Jack ... only 50,000. I wonder what sort ... house
he would build ... me ... 30,000.
14. She is knitting socks ... refugees. I wish she'd knit ... me some socks.
15. Sitting ... the floor isn't exactly comfortable. Throw ... me a cushion,
please, Ann.
16. If you are going ... the Post Office, could you buy... me a book ...
stamps?
17. If you write ... me a song I'll sing it ... the school concert. I'll get Paul to
accompany ... me ... the guitar.
18. Could you lend... us your lawnmower, please? I'm afraid you'll have to ask ...
someone else to lend ... you one. We've lent ours ... Mr Jones and he always
keeps it ... ages.
19. I thought you'd be late ... dinner, so I ordered some sandwiches ... you; they're
the bar. I haven't paid ... them: you can pay ... the barman.
20. I explained ... him that it was the custom ... England to wash one's car at the
weekend.
21. I described the machine ...him and asked ... him if he could make ... me one
like it.
22. She told ... us that she'd been attacked ... the street. We asked ... her to
describe her attacker and she said he was a tall man ... a limp.
23. He told ... them to wait ... him ... the bridge.
24. I cannot repeat... you what she said ... me ... confidence.
25. The headmaster warned ... me to work harder. What did he say ... you. Jack?
26. He advised ... the strikers to go back ... work. They received his
advice... shouts ... contempt.
27. They don't allow ... you to smoke... cinemas ... France.
28. He told lies ... the police. I am not surprised. He told ... me a pack ... lies
yesterday.
29. This film reminds ... me ... my childhood.
30. I rely ... you to remind ... me to pay Jack... the books he bought Me.
31. We must try to get ... home ... tie ... tea.
32. We didn't reach Berlin ... after dark, and had some difficulty ... finding our
hotel.
33. If we say 'The manager showed ... us to our room, we mean that he led ... us
... the door. If we say, He showed... us the room, we mean that he entered ... the room
... us.
34. I read ... him the report. He listened... me ... amazement.
35. He ordered ... us to give ... him all the maps ... our possession.
36. He suggested ... me that we should offer to pay ... her ... dollars.

Till/until, to, for, since, then, after, afterwards.

Insert *till, until, to* where appropriate.

1. Go on ... the crossroads.
2. Go on ... you see a church on your right.
3. We work from 9 a.m. ... 6 p.m.
4. Start now and go on ... I tell you to stop.
5. I'm going to wait ... it stops raining.
6. You'll have to stay in bed ... your temperature goes down.
7. The library is open from 10 ... 4 o'clock.
8. This train goes ... York.
9. We have lunch from 12.00 ... 1.00. Then we start again and go on ... 5.30.
10. Go back ... the hotel and wait there ... I call for you.
11. I'm not going for a walk. I'm only going ... the bank. Then you'd better wait ... the bank

opens.

12. If you're going ... the Post Office would you post a letter for me? Yes, of course; but it won't go ... tomorrow.

4.52 Let Us Sum Up

In this unit, you have learnt the usage of grammar, both formal and informal rules which will help you to write correct English for all purposes.

4.53 Key Words

Emphatic Clause Inversion	:	A fairly common device for emphasis in spoken English is the trick of changing the order of principal and sub-ordinate clauses, in order to lay greater stress on the adverbial phrase.
Infinitive	:	It is the first form of verb used with 'to'.
Adverbial Particles	:	It is a group of Adverbs with characteristics of their own.

4.54 Check Your Learning

a) Insert *for* or *since*.

1. It's a long time ... I had a good meal. Or I haven't had a good meal ... ages.
2. I've been waiting for Tom ... 6.00; I wonder if he's lost his way.
3. Ever ... his accident he's been afraid of flying.
4. I haven't seen Tom ... we left school.
5. The astronauts have already been in orbit ... two days.
6. ... last year the noise has become very much worse.
7. I've had this toothache ... the last week.
8. Her husband died last year, and ... then she has been supporting the family. Or She's been supporting the family ... the last year.
9. It's three years ... I did any skiing. Or I haven't done any skiing ... three years.
10. the windows haven't been cleaned ... weeks.
11. He has been missing ... 48 hours.
12. ... last year we haven't been allowed to park here.

b) Insert *then*, *after*, or *afterwards*.

1. We had tea and ... went for a walk. Or ... tea we went for a walk.
2. We'll have watercress soup to start with. What would you like ... that. ?
3. ... waiting for half an hour he went home in disgust ... (later on) he was sorry he hadn't waited longer.
4. I give all the guests breakfast ... I have my own.
5. First you loosen the nuts ... you jack up the car ... you take the wheel off.
6. He listened at the keyhole for a minute ... he opened the door cautiously.
7. University administrators sometimes appear more important than scholars; but the administrators will not be remembered ... their death.
8. Put your toys away, said his mother, and ... we'll have tea.
9. In the story, the Princess married the Prince and they lived happily ever ...
10. He would up the clock set the alarm for 5.00 ... got into h=bad and fell asleep.
11. He poured the brandy into a glass, warmed it in his hands a little, ... drank it slowly.
12. I covered the pudding with cream and decorated it with cherries . And ...? ... we ate it, of course.
13. For years ... people remembered that terrible night.
14. I spoke angrily, (some time later) I regretted my words.

15. He looked round to see that nobody was watching; ... he took a piece of bent wire and began trying to open the door.
16. First you say 'Yes', and ... you say No. You're an impossible person to make plans with.

4.55 Suggested Readings

- A.S. Hornby : *Guide to Patterns and Usage in English* (2nd Edn.), Delhi : Oxford, 1995 impression.
- N.K.Krishnaswamy : *Modern English, Madras*; Macmillan, 1984 edition. .
 A.J. Thomson and A.V. Martiaet,; *A Practical English Grammer* (3rd Edn.), Delhi, OUP, 1987 (Indian Reprint) (Exercises -2)
- W. Stannard Allen, : *Living English Structure*, Calcutta: Orient Longman, 1962 (Indian Reprint)
- Swan. M. : *Practical English Usage*, ELBS, New Delhi,1980.

4.56 Hints/Answers to Questions in Check Your Progress

Check Your Progress-I

- | | |
|-----------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. I think, it is so. | 6. I don't believe so. |
| 2. I believe so. | 7. I hope so. |
| 3. I don't think so | 8. I'm afraid so. |
| 4. I hope so. | 9. I don't think so. |
| 5. I'm afraid, it isn't so. | 10. I hope so. |

Check Your Progress-II

- | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. You are not allowed to | 4. But I promise to |
| 2. I refuse to. | 5. I prefer to. |
| 3. I don't wish so. | 6. I mean to. |

Check Your Progress-III

1. What else have you decided?
2. Who else's had it may be?
3. At what else time we could meet?
4. Which other umbrella can do?
5. In what other way can you possibly do it?

Check Your Progress-IV

1. Put your coat or else you'll catch cold.
2. Hurry up please, or else...
3. We must look pleased or else...
4. We must look pleased or else...
5. I must clean it or else....

Check Your Progress-V

1. He was sorry to hear.
2. He hopes to know.

Check Your Progress-VI

1. Whoever
2. Whatever, whomever
3. Whoever, Whomever
4. Whatever, Wherever.

Check Your Progress-VII

1. What on earth made you do that?
2. Why on earth you are late?
3. Whenever is Maisie coming?
4. Who on earth broke my pen?

Check Your Progress-VIII

1. I don't know the number of books I.
2. I told you, I don't know how many times.

Check Your Progress-IX

1. There are two dogs in the garden.
2. There is...
3. There are...
4. There is....
5. There is....

Check Your Progress-X

1. It is...
2. It is...
3. It is...
4. It is....
5. It is...

Check Your Progress-XI

1. He told him to go away.
2. I asked him to come here.
3. Tell him to eat it up.
4. They told him to run away.
5. They ordered to pay at once.

Check Your Progress-XII

1. He asked me to clean it myself.
2. He asked to wrap it up in a piece of paper.
3. He asked to cut the corners off.
4. He asked to fasten my safety belts.

Check Your Progress-XIII

1. I know he'll certainly be there.
3. I certainly doubt very much...
2. I certainly expect he'll be...
4. I surely know...

Check Your Progress-XIV

1. fairly
2. rather
3. rather
4. fairly
5. rather.

Unit-V

ENGLISH FOR CREATIVE PURPOSES

Structure

- 5.0 Objectives
- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Figures of Speech
- 5.3 Story Writing
 - 5.3.1 Introduction
 - 5.3.2 Work for you

- 5.3.3 Model-I
- 5.3.4 Model-II
- 5.4 Let Us Sum Up
- 5.5 Key Words
- 5.6 Check Your Learning
- 5.7 Suggested Readings
- 5.8 Hints/Answers to Questions in Check Your Progress

5.0 Objectives

In this Unit, you should be able to learn English for creative purposes. The knowledge of figures of speech, etc may help in writing poems, stories, etc.

5.1 Introduction

You must have experience of reading stuff like newspaper stories, short stories, novels, plays and poems. Some of you may also be taking interest in writing stories and poems. This unit brings you some poems and you would hopefully like them. Besides reading the poems, you will be required here to observe and learn how expressions of experiences and thoughts are rendered beautifully. A few techniques of saying things differently make apparently ordinary expressions beautiful and memorable. We will discuss in this unit characteristics of a few figures of speech with which creative writers can make beautiful expressions out of ordinary situations successfully. Though there are quite a great number of those figures of speech, we will be dealing with some of those only. We will discuss nine figures of speech, namely simile, metaphor, onomatopoeia, alliterations, personification, oxymoron, metonymy, synecdoche and transferred epithet.

5.2 Figures of Speech

Figures of speech refer to the way words are used in the usual and everyday ordinary way while describing things, feelings, experiences etc. It refers to a special way in which words are brought into use to increase effect of these and their special manner of presentation in relation to facts, events or ideas they describe. Nesfield defines it like this, “A figure of speech is a deviation from the ordinary use of words with a view to increasing their effect.” And, we may add that such ‘deviation’ is a creative and purposeful, and hence, conscious and planned deviation. The goal is to bring to the words and their unusual association a power of suggestion and communication that ordinarily they would never have. Thus, a figure of speech is a tool in the hands of an artist with which he/she could create beauty, wonder and magic of appeal.

Simile and Metaphor: These two figures of speech are widely used. These two happen to be figures based on similarity. For purposes of comparing things, these two figures of speech are used. In a simile, for comparing two similar things, words like ‘like’ and ‘as’ etc. are used - x is said to be like y. But in a Metaphor ‘x is said to be y’ as in ‘x is y’.

Simile: Some Examples

1. O my love’s like a red, red rose, that’s newly sprung in June, O my loves like the melodie, that’s sweetly played in tune. - Robert Burns.

Note: ‘Love’ is compared to ‘rose’ and ‘melody’.

2. Words are like leaves: and where they most abused, Much fruit of sense beneath is rarely found.

Note: ‘Words’ are compared to ‘leaves’.

3. A sweet and virtuous soul like seasoned timber never gives. - George Herbert.

Note: ‘Virtuous soul’ and ‘seasoned timber’ are compared to be both longer

lasting.

4. The child shows the man as the morning shows the day.

Note: 'Child' and 'morning' are compared as beginning things and 'man' and 'day' are compared as being results of 'child' (child – man) and 'morning' (morning – day).

5. I don't know politics but I know the names of those in power, and can repeat them like Days of week, or names of months, - Kamala Das.

Note: - Names of powerful politicians are compared to names of 'days of week' and 'months' of the year.

6. And ideas behave like rumours, once casually mentioned somewhere they

Come back to the door as prodigies born to prodigal fathers, A.K. Ramanujan.

Note: - 'ideas' and 'rumours' are compared,

7. Kings are like stars - they rise and set – You worship of the world but no repose. Shelley.

Note: - 'Kings' and 'Stars' are compared. Both would 'set' or end.

Note : In all the above examples from 1 to 7, we find that two different objects having or common point have been compared, by using words – 'like' and 'as' to set up the comparison. These are examples of simile.

Metaphor: Some Examples

1. The Camel is the ship of the desert.

Note: 'Camel' as the desert-transport is compared to 'ship' as the sea-transport. Unlike in a simile, here no word like 'like' or 'as' is used. The comparison is direct and effective.

2. Variety is the spice of life.

Note: 'Variety' as opposed to 'uniformity' and 'monotony' is compared to 'spice' that makes the curry tasty – 'variety' accounts for the charm or taste in life.

3. Napoleon was a lion in the battle field.

Note: The heroic quality of both 'Napoleon' and the 'lion' makes the comparison powerful and convincing.

4. The waves thundered on the shore.

Note: The 'waves' of the sea and the 'thunder' of the sky are compared in terms of the terrible sound they produce.

Note: You must grasp the difference between Simile and Metaphor. You must, however, take note of the fact that a simile when condensed becomes a Metaphor. Similarly, a Metaphor when expanded, elaborated, explained takes on the features of a simile.

E. G. : Napoleon was a lion in the battle field (Metaphor)
Napoleon was like a lion in the battle field. (Simile)

Metonymy and Synecdoche

These two figures of speech are based on the consideration of 'association'. Things associated with each other are treated as representing each other. Metonymy, by which we mean 'a change of name', is used when an object is designated by the name of something which is generally associated with it. Thus, in Metonymy, by 'The Crown' we mean 'The king', by 'The Chair', we mean 'The Chairman or the Chairperson' etc. Synecdoche, however, uses the idea of associatedness of the part and the whole and makes 'the whole designate a part' or 'a part designate the whole'. Thus, we mean 'food' by 'bread' (as in 'sometimes even their daily bread is difficult to be arranged by the poor'.) We mean 'the people' by 'heads' (as in 'count the heads and tell us for what exact number for whom lunch will have to be arranged'). And 'India lost the match' would mean 'The Indian cricket team lost the match'.

Metonymy: Some more Examples

1. The Bench (The Judges) will give its verdict on August 6th.
2. The sceptre (The king) will go to the dust.
3. From the cradle to the grave (From infancy to death), life is a long tale of education in the society.

Note: Here the signs ('cradle', 'grave') symbolize the things ('infancy' and 'death')

4. You can find the entire college out there in the field to witness the cricket match.

Note: 'College' (where students study) refers to the 'students'. The *container* is used to represent the *contained*.

5. The pen is mightier than the sword.

Note: The instruments (pen and sword) are used to represent the agent or the persons who use them (the 'writer' and the 'soldier')

6. Shakespeare is very interesting.

Note: The author (Shakespeare) stands for his works (the plays of Shakespeare).

7. 'Adieu for ever more my love'.

Note: "Love" (a feeling or passion) here refers to the 'Beloved' (the object of passion 'love').

Synecdoche: Some more Examples

1. Uneasy lies the head that wears the crown.
2. All the best brains after receiving education in India leave her to take up high salary jobs in the states.
3. How many mouths could she feed with her feeble hands?

Note : In 1 to 3 above, the parts ('head', 'brains', 'states', 'months') are used to designate the whole (the 'body' (king), the talented (brainy) people, America (the USA) and 'men, women and children' respectively.)

4. Oh! What a noble mind is here overthrown. (mind = 'man' who was noble)
5. India won the Bangalore one day international. ('India' = the whole country).

Note: Here is used to refer to the 'Indian Cricket team' (the part).

Personification

'Personification' as a figure of speech is based on migration (imagined resemblance).

To personify something means to speak of non-living objects and abstract notions as living beings, as having life and intelligence.

Examples

1. Death lays his icy hands on kings.

Note: 'Death' an abstract notion, is said to be doing the job of laying hands and also it is said to be having hands ('his hands').

2. Pride goeth forth on horse back, grand and gay,

Note: 'Pride', an abstract notion, is said to be going riding a horse like living men.

3. Thus Nature spoke - The work was done how soon my Lucy's race was run. - Wordsworth

Note: 'Nature', an abstract notion, something non-living is imagined here to be resembling a living man to speak and to lay claim on a human child (Lucy).

4. The pyramids themselves, dotting with age have Forgotten the names of their founders.' - Fuller

Note: The lifeless ‘Pyramids’ here are imagined as doing the job of the living human beings (‘doting’, forgetting).

Transferred Epithet

This figure of speech refers to the transfer of an epithet (or adjective) from the word it actually qualifies to another word with which it (the adjective/word) stands closely associated in any given sentence.

Examples

1. The ploughman homeward plods his weary way.

(Note: The adjective ‘weary’ actually should qualify ‘ploughman’ and should ideally be going with it to give us ‘The weary ploughman’ concept, but in the given sentence it is made to go with (i.e. it has been transferred from its actual place to) ‘way’ making it ‘his weary way’. We have to recognize this problem of transfer and restore the actual meaning that not the way, but the ‘ploughman’ is ‘weary’ (= tired) while he is returning home ward).

2. Students have to spend sleepless nights before they face their class examinations.

(Note : Here the adjective ‘sleepless’ has to be put back in its proper place (before ‘students,) to give us ‘sleepless nights’ as ‘nights’ cannot be sleepless while the ‘students’ generally are ‘sleepless’ before examinations (i.e. They prepare for the examinations and don’t (find time to) sleep.)

Onomatopoeia and Alliteration

These two figures of speech are based on sound considerations in writing. In Onomatopoeia the sense of a word is suggested by the sound it makes. The sound of the words helps reproduce or echo the sense. The examples of onomatopoeic words (words where onomatopoeia is used) include: *bang, bump, bubble, hum, murmur, crash, clap, roar, growl, thunder, munch* etc. Use of onomatopoeic words in talking of sounds makes association of the sound produced and sense indicated easily possible.

Onomatopoeia: Some more Examples

1. The moan of doves in immemorial elms and murmuring of innumerable bees. Tennyson **(Note:** ‘Moaning’ of doves and ‘murmuring’ of bees are talked of in the above lines to bring the sounds produced to our mind and to give us a special mood to enjoy the scene rich with such sounds.)

2. A trickling stream from high rocks tumbling down. Spenser

(Note: ‘trickling’ and ‘tumbling’ in the above bring out the sound produced by the stream and thus they suggest the sense of beauty that the scene evokes.)

3. The ice was here, the ice was there, The ice was all around, It cracked and growled, and roared and howled, Like noises in a sounds! – S T Coleridge

(Note: ‘Cracked’, ‘growled’, ‘roared’ and ‘howled’ are the sounds produced (cracking, growling, roaring and howling) by ice, and the breezing and chilling fear that the scene suggests is evoked by the use of these words.

Alliteration

Also a figure of speech based on sound, alliteration refers to the repetition of the same sound with which the words coming closely together begin in expressions. The sounds with which each of the words in a group begins may be either vowels or consonants.

Examples

1. I hear lake water lapping with low sounds by the shore – Yeats.

(**Note:** Words ‘lake’ lapping, ‘low’ begin with the same consonant sound ‘l’; there is a musical effect produced as we hear these words together at regular intervals.)

2. A reeling road, a rolling road, that rambles round the shire - Chesterton

(**Note :** The repetition of ‘r’ sound in ‘reaching’, ‘road’, ‘rolling’, ‘road’, ‘rumbles’, ‘round’ is interesting to produce the impression of a zig-zag running road.)

3. Full fathom five they father lies. – Shakespeare

(**Note :** The ‘f’ sound is repeated across the above line producing a sense of curiosity and longing for where the line tells his ‘father lies’.)

Oxymoron

The figure of speech ‘oxymoron’ is based on the sense of contrast. In ‘oxymoron’ two contradictory qualities at once are talked of in relation to one and the same thing.

Examples

1. So innocent arch, so cunningly simple.

(**Note:** The arch is described as ‘innocent’ and ‘simple’ and yet ‘cunning’. Its being ‘simple’ is not a virtue, there is more cunningness (negative side) behind why it must be ‘simple’.)

2. His honour rooted in dishonour stood. And faith unfaithful kept him falsely true.

(**Note:** ‘Honour’ and ‘dishonour’ ‘faith unfaithful’ and ‘falsely true’ in their use show how special effect is created by bringing the usually opposite words and qualities to speak at one and the same time of one and the very same person.)

3. What could be said about such kind cruelty of the surgeon’s knife that it saves the patient by cutting his ailing parts apart and again putting in the stitches of repair.

(**Note:** It is difficult but at the same time comforting to understand how the doctor’s knife has to be cruel (the doctor has to be cruel to do the operation using the knife) in a bid to be ultimately kind.)

Check Your Progress-I

1. Explain with examples the following figures of speech:-

- | | |
|-----------------|---------------------|
| a. Oxymoron | b. Alliteration |
| c. Onomatopoeia | d. Simile |
| e. Metaphor | f. Metonymy |
| g. Synecdoche | h. Personification. |

5.3 Story Writing

5.3.1 Introduction

We all love to listen to stories. Sometimes also we tell stories taking many incidents around us into consideration. Story-telling and story-writing require the presentation to be interesting. An interesting story requires planning on part of the letter/writer. It is important to keep the whole plot clearly in mind. It is also important to maintain a good order of the main points so that their arrangement makes the presentation interesting.

First it is essential to draw an outline of the story. This gives us roughly the skeleton of the story. As a story teller, we should next think of properly clothing the skeleton with flesh and make it look

lively. A neat ordering of the events that are to take place in the story must be worked out to produce a connected narrative. Only when the narrative is coherent, it is certain to give us an interesting story.

5.3.2 Work for You

1. Have a clear idea of the plot of the story in mind before beginning to write. (By 'plot' we generally mean the cause and consequence relationship among events that helps the story progress along the line determined by the writer.)
2. The outline of the story given in a roadmap which must be followed: No point may be omitted and the order in which the points have been arranged needs to be keenly followed.
3. Know that you are taking a story and from beginning to the end you are able to retain the interest of the listener or reader. The outline of the story in your hand tells you how you move from one point to another till you reach the last point. But it is upto you to interlink the points providing imaginative touches here and there. Yes, you must also be careful that the way you are providing the links appears natural - this is important to hold the interest of the readers/audience.
4. When you are moving form one point to another, find for yourself if any conversation could be introduced. Even here, think and make the dialogues appear natural and interesting.
5. Provide a fitting end or conclusion to your story. Try to satisfy yourself that the end comes naturally through the point to point movement of the story. A natural and convincing ending is important to make your point of view, as presented through the story, acceptable.
6. Provide a title to the story. Make the title attractive. For the title, go to the main character or event in the story. Proverbs, where you could think of, could come as interesting titles when the matter and the theme are suitable.
7. Revise the story form the beginning to the end to ensure that grammatical mistakes are nil, conversations are neatly put and good and simple English is used. Remember a reader comes to a story for entertainment – he/she enjoys a story when he/she reads it. Difficult words and difficult sentence constructions, hence, need to be avoided with care.

5.3.3 Model-I

Outline of the Story

A king upset - a kingdom of lazy people - calls a meeting of ministers - decides to teach his people the lesson of the need to work - puts a big stone in the middle of the road - everybody sees the stone, thinks somebody else should remove it or the government should clear the road - king's officers also blame the people and leave the stone where it was - the king then comes, calls his officers and his people - removes the stone and finds the box with 'for the man who removes the stone' written on it – opens the box and shows his people a lot of money that was there with box - The people learn the lesson to work.

The Complete Story (Model)

Title: Reward for the men who work

Once upon a time there was a king. He was very popular. He would never leave his people unhappy and suffering. He would satisfy all his people's needs immediately as he came to know through his intelligence department what his people wanted him to do to keep them happy.

The King's kind ways, however, were not properly appreciated by his people. The king actually

wanted that the people should work in order to be happy forever. But it was always a matter of deep concern for him that his people were very lazy. Seeing this, the king used to keep upset most of the time.

He thus called his intelligent ministers to tell him of a possible way by which he could teach his people a lesson on the need for them to work. He wanted to tell them that true and lasting happiness come only from work and good work in time.

To do so, the king put a big block of stone in the middle of very important road. When the traffic suffered, people came out and blamed the king for not removing it. When king's officers saw the stone, they also did nothing. They blamed the people and their lazy ways.

At long last, there came the king on the scene. He called his officers. When the king came, a big crowd of people also gathered around him.

The king told nobody anything. He went to remove the stone himself. Soon with others' help the stone was removed. There was a big box with words 'for the man who removes the stone' written on it lying under the stone. The king took the box. He opened it in the presence of his people. To the utter surprise of all, there was a lot of money in the box.

The officers and the people present there were ashamed. The king was able to deliver the message to his people that good work always brought good people rich rewards.

5.3.4 Model – II

(From Wren and Martin)

Specimen Outline

Boy set to guard sheep – told to cry “Wolf” if he sees a wolf near the flock – watches the sheep for several days – get tired of the monotonous work – so one day shouts “wolf” as a joke – all the villagers hasten to his help – they find no wolf – boy laughs at them – villagers angry - plays the same joke a few days later – some villagers take no notice - some come running – finding nothing , they beat the boy – at last wolf really comes – boy is terrified and shouts “Wolf! Wolf” – villagers take no notice – wolf kills several sheep.

Complete Story

The Boy Who Cried “Wolf!”

One of the boys in a village was sent out into fields to look after the sheep.

“Mind you take care of them and don't let them stray.” Said the villagers to him. “And keep a good look out for wolves. Don't go far away; and if you see a wolf coming near the sheep shout out ‘wolf!’ as loudly as you can, and we will come at once to help you.”

“All right!” said the boy. “I will be careful.”

So every morning he drove his sheep out to the hillside and watched them all day. And when evening came he drove them home again.

But after a few days he got rather tired of this lonely life. Nothing happened and no wolves came. So one afternoon he said to himself. “These villagers have given me a very stupid job. I think I will play a trick on them just for fun.”

So he got up and began shouting as loudly as he could. “Wolf! Wolf!”

The people in the village heard him, and at once they came running with sticks. “wolf! wolf!” Shouted the boy. They ran faster. At last they came up to him out of breath.

“Where is the wolf?” they panted. But the boy only laughed and said “There is no wolf. I only shouted in fun. And it was fun to see you all running as hard as you could!”

The men were very angry.

“You young rascal!” they said. “If you play a trick like that again we will beat you instead of the wolf.”

And they went back to their work in the village.

For some days the boy kept quiet. But he got restless again, and said to himself: "I wonder if they will come running again if I cry 'wolf!' once more. It was such fun the last time."

So once more he began shouting, "wolf! wolf!"

The villagers heard him. Some said, "That boy is to his tricks again." But others said, "It may be true this time: and if there really is a wolf, we shall lose some of our sheep."

So they seized their sticks, and ran out of the village to the hillside.

"Where is the Wolf?" they cried, as they came up.

"Nowhere!" said the boy laughing. "It was fun to see you running up the hill as fast as you could."

"We will teach you to play jokes," shouted the angry men: and they seized the boy and gave him a good beating, and left him crying instead of laughing.

A few days later a wolf really did come. When the boy saw it, he was very frightened and began shouting "wolf! Wolf! help! help!" as loudly as he could.

The villagers heard him, but they took no notice.

"He is playing his tricks again," they said. "We won't be made fools for a third time. You can't believe a boy after you have caught him lying twice."

So no one went to his help; and the wolf killed several sheep and frightened the boy nearly out of his wits.

Check Your Progress-II

1. Construct readable stories from the following outlines
 - (a) An old lady becomes blind – calls in a doctor – agrees to pay large fees if cured. But nothing if not – doctor calls daily – covets lady's furniture – delays the cure – every day takes away some of her furniture – at last cures her – demands his fees – lady refuses to pay, saying cure is not complete – doctor brings a court case – judge asks lady why she will not pay – she says sight not properly restored – she cannot see all her furniture – judge gives verdict in her favour – moral.
 - (b) A jackal wants crabs on the other side of a river- wonders how to get across – tells camel there is sugarcane the other side – camel agrees to carry him across in return for the information - they cross – jackal finishes his meal – plays trick on camel - runs round the fields howling – villagers rush out – see camel in sugarcane – beat him with sticks – camel runs to river – jackal jumps on his back – while crossing, camel asks jackal why he played him such a trick – jackal says he always howls after a good meal – camel replies he always takes a bath after a good meal – rolls in the river – jackal nearly drown – tit-for-tat.

5.4 Let Us Sum Up

By now, you have learnt some skills to use English for creative purposes and for this you have been given the knowledge of figures of speech which is essential for the writing of poems. The technique of developing a short story is also shown to help you to write a story. Obviously this unit provides you with an opportunity to utilize and brush up some skills to be a poet and a short story writer.

5.5 Key Words

- | | | |
|-------------------|---|---|
| Figures of Speech | : | Figures of speech refers to the way words are used in the usual and everyday ordinary way while describing things, feelings, experience, etc. |
| Short story | : | A short story deals with a single episode/plot involving a few characters with a length of not more than 2500–300 words. |

5.6 Check Your Learning

Construct readable short stories from the given outlines

1. A miser loses a purse of a hundred pieces of gold – in great distress – goes to town crier – crier says he must offer a reward – offers reward of ten pieces of gold – the crier announces this – a few days later a farmer comes to the miser – he has pick up the purse – returns to miser – miser counts the money – a hundred pieces of gold – thanks the farmer – the farmer asks for the reward – miser says there were a hundred and ten pieces in the purse. So the farmer has already taken his reward of ten pieces – they quarrel – farmer appeals to the judge – the judge hears the case, and asks for the purse – sees that it only holds hundred pieces–decides it cannot be the miser’s purse – so give the purse to farmer – the miser had overreached himself.
2. A king distressed – his people lazy- to teach them a lesson he had a big stone out in the middle of the road one night – next day merchants pass and go round it – an officer driving in his carriage did the same – a young soldier came riding, did the same – all cursed the stone and blamed the government for not removing it – then the king had the stone removed – under – it was an iron box. Marked, “For the man who moves away the stone” – inside a purse full of money – the people were ashamed.
3. Tiger kills an Indian lady travelling through the jungle – as he eats her body, he notices her gold bangle – keeps it as he thinks it may be useful – later he hides himself by a pool, dusty and tired – strips and bathes in cool water – sees the tiger in bushes watching him – terrified – tiger greets him with a mild voice – says he is pious and spends time in prayer – as a sign of goodwill. Offers the traveller the gold bangle – traveller’s greed overcomes his fear – crossed pool to take bangle – tiger springs on him and kills him.
4. A young man setting out on a journey – accompanied part way by an old man – they part under a papal tree – young man asks old man to keep Rs. 100 for him till he returns – old man agrees and takes money – old man says he never gave him any to keep – young man takes him before judge – judge sends young man to summon tree to court – a long time away – judge asks old man, “Why ?” – old man says tree is long way off–judge sees that the old man knows which tree it is– when young man returns, judge gives verdict in his favour.
5. A poor Brahmin travelling through forests – comes across a tiger caught in a trap – tiger begs him to let him out – Brahmin in pity does so – tiger knocks him down – Brahmin pleads for his life and says the tiger is ungrateful – tiger agrees that he may appeal to three things against tiger – Brahmin first asks a papal tree – tree says all men are grateful – tree gives them shade and they cut its branches – Brahmin next asks the road – the road says that in return for its services men trample on it with heavy boots – Brahmin then asks a buffalo – buffalo says her master beats her and makes her turn a Persian wheel – Brahmin in despair – consults a jackal asks how tiger got into cage – tiger jumps in to show him – jackal shuts cage and walks away with Brahmin.

5.7 Suggested Readings

- Leech and Svartvik : A Communicative Grammar of English, ELBS,
New Delhi, 1974
- Abrahams, M. H : A Glossary of Literary Terms.

5.8 Hints/Answers to Questions in Check Your Progress

Check Your Progress-I

Hints: See 5.3

Check Your Progress-II

Hints: Construct stories as in 5.4.2



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