He died from over-eating. They died from injuries.

: He is different *from* his brother. (not to or than) Different

Disapprove: We disapprove of his conduct. (not about)

: She was dressed in black. (not with) **Dress** Full : The box was full of sarees. (not with)

Glad : I was glad of a break after my long journey. (not for)

But no preposition is used when it is followed by an infinitive.

I am glad to inform you that we plan to visit you soon.

: Your warning was very helpful to us. (not for) Helpful Interested : My grandson is interested *in* cricket. (not about)

Live : Goats live *on* grass. (not by)

But if 'live' means to earn a living, then by is used to specify the method or means of living.

He lived by robbing others.

Make : Flour is made from wheat. (not of)

But the chair is made of steel. (not from)

When a new substance is made out of something we use from, but when the original material is not changed in substance but is given only a new form we use of.

Married : As a verb it can be used as transitive or intransitive.

As a transitive verb it takes no preposition.

I married my friend's sister.

But used as an adjective it is followed by to.

I am married to my friend's sister.

ercise

The correct forms of idiomatic prepositions are given below. Frame sentences to bring out their meaning

Pleased with

Prefer to

Proud of

Rid of

Sit at a desk

Sit on a chair or a seat

Sit in a car

Sit in a room

Sorry for the person

Sorry about the misfortune

Take care of

Useful to a person

Useful for a purpose

Useless to me

Useless for a purpose

Write in ink/in pencil

Write with the pen or with the left hand

(When write refers to the act of writing itself and the thing named (pen/pencil) is the instrument of writing, the preposition used is with.)

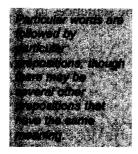
WORDS FOLLOWED BY PREPOSITIONS

Particular words are followed by particular prepositions, though there may be several other prepositions that have the same meaning. For instance, out of the many prepositions or prepositional phrases signifying cause, the verb "die" has somehow or other selected "of" for indicating the illness which was the cause of death, and refuses to be followed by any other. Thus we say, "He died of fever." We do not say, "He died through fever, or by fever, or from fever, or owing to fever, or on account of fever, or with fever." Yet in other connections all of these prepositions may be used to denote cause... Again, though we always say "die of fever", we never say "sick of fever", but always "sick with fever," where "with" and "of" are both used in the sense of cause.

The following examples show what the meaning of a verb is, when it stands alone, and how its meaning is modified when a preposition is added to it —

Admit I do not admit (accept) the excuse. This matter admits *of* no excuse (in such that it cannot be excused or pardoned).

Attend He attends (goes to) the meeting. He attends *to* the meeting (gives his mind to the business of the meeting).



Bear We must bear (endure, suffer) his reproaches. We must bear with (endure patiently, tolerate) his reproaches.

Begin Let us begin this song (commence to sing it). Let us begin with this song (sing this song before we sing any other)

Believe I do not believe this man (accept his statement as true). I do not believe in this man (trust in his honesty).

Call I will call him (shout to him and order him to come). I will call on him (visit him at his house).

Catch He caught (seized) the reins. He caught at (tried to seize) the reins.

Close This closes (finishes, concludes) the bargain. I cannot close with (accept) such a bargain.

Commence We must commence this work (begin to do it) today. We should commence with this work (do this work before doing any other).

Consult I must consult you (ask your advice) on this point. I must consult (take counsel) with you on this point.

Count Have you counted (reckoned up) the money? I count *on* that money (expect it as a certainty)

Deal He dealt (distributed) the cards. He dealt in (sold) cards and other kinds of games.

Dispense Dispense (distribute) your charities fairly all round. We can dispense with (we do not require) your charities.

Eat Do you ever eat cheese (take it as food)? The mice are eating into the cheese (making a hole in it by eating).

Feel Feel this table (examine it by feeling or touching it). The blind man is feeling for the table (trying to find the table by groping for it with his hand).

Gain He gained the land (reached it safely). The sea is gaining on the land (washing it down) along this coast.

Grasp He grasped (seized and held tight) the money. He grasped at (attempted to seize) the money.

Guard Guard this man (protect him) from danger. Guard against (take every precaution against) this man.

Guess He guessed the facts (hit upon the facts by guess or conjecture). He guessed at the facts (made a guess or conjecture concerning them, tried to find them out by conjecture).

Inquire He inquired or enquired the reason (asked what was the reason). He inquired *into* the reason (investigated it by a careful examination of the evidence).

Mediate He mediates revenge (future action). He mediates *on* the revenge that he took (past action.)

Meet I met him on the road (walking on the road I came in front of him). I met *with* him (found him) in the library.

Prepare He prepared (got ready) a feast. He prepared *for* the feast (got himself ready for it).

Repair Let us repair the house (put it into good repair). Let us repair (go) *to* the house.

Search Search that thief (examine his clothes and other belongings). Search *for* that thief (try to find out where he is).

See Do you not see (perceive) this danger? We must see *to* this danger (attend to it, and guard against it).

Send Send (despatch) the doctor at once. Send *for* the doctor (send someone to call the doctor).

Snatch He snatched the book (seized it by a rapid movement of the hand). He snatched *at* the book (attempted to seize it).

Strike He struck the dog. He struck *at* (aimed a blow at, or endeavoured to strike) the dog.

Taste He tasted the salt. This water tastes of (has a flavour of) salt.

Touch He has not yet touched the point (come to the point under debate). He touched *upon* the point (briefly alluded to it).

Work He worked (managed) the machine. He worked *at* (was busily engaged with) the machine.

Note: Sometimes there is no appreciable difference of meaning between a verb standing alone and the same verb followed by a preposition. The following are some examples —

Accept, or accept of, a gift

Attain, or attain to, perfection

Beg, or beg of, a person to do something

Confess, or confess to, a fault

Enter, or enter into, a house

Judge, or judge of, a person

Join, or join in, a game

Know, or know of, a fact

Penetrate, or penetrate into, a secret

Seek, or seek for, happiness

Succeed, or succeed to, someone.

Treat, or treat of, a subject

ercise

Insert prepositions or prepositional phrases —

I.	1. The judges acquit you all complicity that crime; and hope
	you will be compensated the annoyance entailed you
	the groundless imputation. 2. She was horrified the sight so
	much distress. 3. Ram did not die cholera, but the effects
	over-exposure the sun an unhealthy time the
	year. 4. This merchant deals grain, but he did not deal honestly
	me, and I shall have no more dealings him in future. 5. She will have to
	answer me her misconduct. 6. Fifty students competed
	one another a single scholarship. 7. He must consult you
	that matter shortly. 8 Do not exult offensively the match you
	have won Australia. 9. Lata is not possessed much wisdom,
	but is possessed a very high notion her own importance.
	10. Will you entrust me that poem? No, I will entrust nothing
	you. 11. Always be prepared the worst. 12. This motive prevails
	us. 13. She prevailed him to make the attempt, but he could not prevail
	his opponent. 14. They rejoiced not only their own success,
	but yours. 15. Parents must provide their children the
	evil day. 16. Some people stick nothing, so long as they can stick
	their point. 17. Why do you stare her the face? It is bad manners to
	stare one in that manner. 18. The boat touched Goa. 19. The
	sailor touched the subject of tides. 20. The trader supplied money
	the men; and they supplied his horses provender. 21. Sita could
	smile their threats; for fortune continued to smile her. 22. My
	friends proceeded the business that they had commenced yesterday,
	before they proceeded the consideration of any new proposals. 23. You
	should not live riches, but whatever you live, live
	honest labour; and if you have to live a small income, live
	your means. 24. Manmohan Singh is labouring a misapprehension;
	but he thinks he is labouring a good cause and the public
	welfare. 25. My friend once laid me an obligation, and therefore I am
	very unwilling to lay the blame of this affair his charge. 26. She not
	only intruded my house, but my leisure; for I was engaged
	that time reading an interesting novel. 27. The roads intersect
	each otherthis place. 28. Let me intercedeyou
	my brother. 29. I inquired her that matter. 30. My mother is
	impressed that notion, and she desires to impress it me.

took a boat and rowed the stream the opposite bank. 2. The tenant promised to abide the contract, and we relied his honour its fulfilment. But we were disappointed our hopes, and found we could never trust our work him again. 3. She lives small cost, and she does so abstaining every kind of luxury and accustoming herself humble fare such as is suitable a person small income. 4. The boy who stood the judge yesterday was accused throwing a stone his neighbour's window; but nothing more came the matter, and he was acquitted the charge imputed him. 5. A man honour will adhere his convictions, and act a sense duty, even if people rail him and think him weak understanding and wanting common sense. 6. The intentions that person admit no doubt; we must agree his terms, whether we approve them or not, and there is no reason to be anxious the result. 7. Aim doing your duty all risks, and do not be uneasy in mind the consequences. 8. She was much alarmed what she had just heard, and alluded it as soon as she arrived what she had just heard, and alluded it as soon as she arrived my house and alighted her carriage. 9. The ship stopped a little way the shore, and an experienced man was at once appointed the post of pilot bringing her port. 10. She had a great affection her parents, but she had no taste hard work, and was not attentive her studies. 11. One player complained the umpire Zaheer's dishonesty; another brought a complaint Zaheer some abuse; in fact, Zaheer had made many enemies himself. 12. When you attend college, attend your studies. What has been the cause your idleness hitherto? Surely there was no just cause such laziness. 13. They took advantage my ignorance; but they gained no real advantage me in the end. 14. I am vexed	II.	1. The river which I went my sister abounds fish; we
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		no real advantage me in the end. 14. I am vexed her
what she has done. 15. A person is adapted any occupation which is		what she has done. 15. A person is adapted any occupation which is
adapted his capacities.		

STRUCTURAL USE OF THE INFINITIVE, GERUND, AND **PARTICIPLES**

The Infinitive

to + verb (to walk)

A verb in this mood does not have any number or person as it does not combine with any subject. This mood denotes the action, without referring to the doer.

There are four forms of the infinitive mood—two forms of the Present tense and two of the Past.

	Form	Active voice	Passive voice
D .	Indefinite	To write	To be written
Present	Imperfect	To write To be writing	(not possible)
Past	Perfect	To have written	To have been written
Past	Perfect	To have written To have been writing	(not possible)
	l continuous	writing	

An infinitive has no future form.

However, future can be expressed in the Infinitive only by some such phrase; "to be about to write," "to be on the point of writing," or "to be going to write."

Use of Infinitive without "to."

'To' is usually used with an Infinitive Verb but sometimes omitted.

- (a) The word 'to' is not used after the following main verbs. Please, hear, see, feel, watch, behold, know, let, bid, dare, need, make.
 - (i) Please hear me and not please to hear me.
 - (ii) I hear you speak (to speak) of a better future.
 - (iii) I saw her take (to take) the oath solemnly.
 - (iv) She feels the hot sand strike (to strike) against her body.
 - (v) They watched us leave (to leave) and come (to come) back.
 - (vi) We beheld the sun set (to set).
 - (vii) We have known him call (to call) for nothing.

- (viii) Let the past remain (to remain) buried.
 - (ix) She bade me tell (to tell) her the whole story.
 - (x) I dare not say (to say) this to my father.
 - (xi) You need to (to go) there.
- (xii) The seniors made the freshers sit (to sit) and get up (to get up) a hundred times.

Note If 'dare' is an affirmative verb (without not), the word 'to' is used after dare.

- (a) She dares to do it herself.
- (b) He dares to challenge his elder brother.

'To' is left out after the adjective "better".

(c) Better be late than absent.

(= to be late (would be) better)

- (d) Better live on dreams... (= to live on dreams would be better...)
- (e) 'to' not used after the verb 'had' in phrases like "had sooner", "had better", "had rather", "had as soon... as"
 - (i) She had better not remain here.
 - (ii) I had rather read this than that.
 - (iii) I had as soon walk as run.

Please note that "had" here is used in a subjective sense = would have. "I had rather read this than that" means it would be better for me to read this.

- (f) "to" is not used after the conjuction "than".
 - I am better able to sing than dance = than I am able to dance.
- (g) "to" is left out after the preposition "but", if it follows the verb "do":

They did nothing but talk = (to talk).

Verbs that do not need 'to' as Infinitives.

- (i) Let us/go for a walk.
- (ii) Do not let his threats/stop you.
- (iii) She lets her students/read what they want.
- (iv) I felt the table/shake.
- (v) He will not *have* his sons/spoil themselves.

- (vi) I heard someone/come in.
- (vii) I watched the train/disappear from my sight.
- (viii) She *made* her pupils/repeat the lessons.
- (ix) They did not *notice* anyone/come out of the door.
- (x) Many people saw the thief/snatch her chain.

Notes The words "help" and "know" take an Infinitive with or without "to".

A driver helped me start my car.

A driver helped me to start my car.

I felt the suggestion to be excellent.

Here, the word 'felt' is used in the sense 'to think'.

Infinitive is of two kinds —

- 1. Simple infinitive, also called the noun infinitive
- 2. Qualifying infinitive or the gerundial infinitive
- i. The Noun Infinitive acts as a noun and it can be used (a) as a subject of a verb; (b) as object to a verb; (c) as complement to a verb; (d) as object to certain prepositions
 - (a) Subject of a verb —

To forgive is to forget.

(forgiveness)

(b) Object to a verb —

A brave man does not fear to die = (death)

(c) Complement to a verb —

The Supreme Court ordered him to be released.

She appears to be an intelligent student.

(d) Object to the prepositions given below —

'about', 'except' or 'but' and 'than'.

The train was about to depart (departure).

He aimed at nothing but to succeed (success).

She did nothing else than sing.

ii. The gerundial or qualifying infinitive

This kind of infinitive can be used (a) to qualify a verb, (b) to qualify a noun, (c) to qualify an adjective, (d) to introduce a parenthesis.

(a) It can qualify a verb in the sense of purpose, cause, or result —

They came to meet me. (purpose)

She wept to see her ailing mother. (cause) I studied hard to be selected at the last chance. (result)

(b) Used to qualify a noun, in the sense of purpose. The Infinitive can be attributive or predicative.

A house to let. (attributive)

This house is to be sold. (predicative, complement to verb 'is')

- (c) Used to qualify an adjective in the sense of purpose or respect. For example Quick to learn and quick to forget.
- (d) Used to introduce a parenthesis —

I feel, to tell you the truth, sick of all these discussions.

Thus, a gerundial infinitive can work both as an adverb and an adjective.

(e) Introductory 'It' with the Infinitive

We generally use "it" as the subject and follow it with an infinitive, in apposition to "it" after the adjective. Study the basic pattern of this structural use of the Infinitive as given below —

Table 15.2 Structural Use of Infinitive

Subjective	Adjective	Infinitive
It is wrong		to kill.
It is unsafe		to cross the road.
It is difficult		to believe in a liar.
It is foolish		to waste your time.
It is selfish		to consume more than you need.
It is silly		to talk like that.
It is impossible		to live without water.
It is rude		to interrupt someone.
It is dangerous		to swim in a flooded river.

The same structure may also be used with a noun in place of an adjective before the infinitive.

Table 15.3 Structural Use of Infinitive

Subject	Noun	Infinitive
It was a shame		to insult the parents.
It was <i>fun</i>		to attend the circus.
It is a <i>pleasur</i> e		to meet a healthy old person.
It is a <i>mistake</i>		to postpone things for tomorrow
It is a <i>pity</i>		to neglect historical buildings.

You may have seen that all the statements made in sentences with "adjectives + the infinitive" are general. They can be applied to anyone. In case we want to apply them only to a particular group of people, then we use a restrictive phrase beginning with "for" between the adjective and the infinitive. By this, the noun or pronoun that follows for becomes the subject of the infinitive. See for example the following sentences.

Table 15.4

It Adjective	for	Infinitive
It is impossible	for you	to live there alone.
It is rude	for a girl	to speak those words.
It is difficult	for me	to forget you.
It is easy	for anyone	to reach that place.
It is not safe	for you	to stay there.
It is absurd	for them	to expect so much.
It is dangerous	for children	to play on the roof.
It is early	for me	to go to office.

In some cases even after a noun (not an adjective) "for" can be used to give emphasis to the doer and not the action. Study the following examples.

Table 15.5

noun	for	to
a chance	for us	to get the train.
a pity	for us	to cancel the programme.
a shame	for you	to insult her.
a pleasure	for us	to have you with us.
fun	for children	to play with fire.
a surprise	for me	to know that.
	a pity a shame a pleasure fun	a pity for us a shame for you a pleasure for us fun for children

Exercise

- 1. Rewrite the following sentences using the introductory "It".
 - (i) To take what belongs to you is your right.
 - (ii) To follow what he said was easy.
 - (iii) To abuse someone is rude.
 - (iv) To read your handwriting is impossible.
 - (v) To go by road will be best.
 - (vi) To miss this chance would be a pity.

THE PARTICIPLE

(x) I never let anyone

A participle is a double or two parts of speech combined in one: a verb and adjective combined.

An experienced teacher is required. The word "experience" is a verb, for it is a form of the verb "experience". It acts also as an adjective because it qualifies the noun "teacher". Therefore, a participle is rightly a verbal adjective. It has two characteristics — a verb and an adjective.



The forms of participles are —

Transitive verbs

	Active voice	Passive voice
Present or continuous	Writing	Being written
Past	(x)	Written
Perfect	Having written	Having been written
Intransitive verbs		
Present or continuous		Rising
Past		Risen
Perfect		Having risen

As part of a finite verb you must be aware that all the tenses of the passive voice are formed out of "to be" form of the verb and past participle — 'The letter is written', 'the letter was written', 'the letter will be written'.

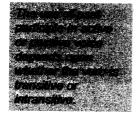
All the continuous tenses in the active voice are formed with the help of the verb of "to be" form followed by the present participle — 'I was writing a letter', 'I shall be writing a letter'.

Again all the perfect tenses in the active voice are formed with the verb "to have" followed by the past participle, 'I had written', and 'I shall have written'.

As an adjective

When a participle acts as an adjective, it is of the kind of descriptive adjective. Like any descriptive adjective it can (a) qualify a noun, (b) be qualified by an adverb, (c) change according to degrees of comparison, and (d) be used as a noun.

- (a) Being tired of writing, I went for a walk.
- (b) The injured was rushed to hospital in a dying state.
- (c) The colour of my shirt is more faded than that of his shirt.
- (d) The witness could not recall the past.



Because a participle is a verb and also an adjective, as a verb it can have an object, which can be of five kinds —

Having finished the work, he went home. (Direct object)

She stays there, teaching her friend's children English. (Indirect object)

Having been taught English, he was an effective teacher. (Retrieved object)

I saw Iraqis fighting a losing battle. (Cognate object)

Having sat herself down, she began to drink. (Reflective object)

Past Participle

The use of past participle in active or passive voice depends upon whether the verb is transitive or intransitive.

- (a) In the case of a transitive verb, the past participle is always used only with the passive voice, never in the active. The much-awaited news turned out to be disappointing.
- (b) If the verb is intransitive, the past participle is not used at all in most verbs. But if at all it happens to be used, it is placed before its noun and not after it.

The lost leader, the retired general, the fallen tower, a failed student, a departed friend, a faded lily, a withered plant, the dead soldier.

The past participle of verbs sometimes expresses some permanent habit, state, or character —

An outspoken person = a person who always speaks out his/her mind.

A well-behaved boy = a boy whose habitual behaviour is good.

A well-read scholar = a scholar who has read a lot.

GERUNDS

A gerund is a verb and noun combined

I dream of becoming a great scholar.

In this sentence "becoming" is a part of the verb "become" and it is also a noun as it is object to the preposition "of."

Therefore, a gerund is called a verbal noun.

Double character of Gerunds —

- 1. As a kind of noun
- 2. As part of a verb

Because a gerund is a kind of noun, it has to be the subject to some verb or the object to some transitive verb; or the complement to some intransitive verb; or the object to some preposition -

Subject of a verb Walking is good for health.

Object to a verb I enjoy walking in the park.

Complement to a verb His first interest was eating.

Object to a preposition He was interested in eating.

Gerund is like an abstract noun, or as a noun-infinitive. For example see the following sentences.

Gerund Walking is good for health.

Noun-infinitive To walk is good for health.

Abstract Noun Walk is good for health.

Gerund as a verbal noun

As a verbal noun, the gerund has to be preceded by "the" and followed by "of".

- (i) I am busy in *the* writing *of* a new book.
- (ii) I am busy in writing a new book.

Gerund with an object

As a part of verb, a Gerund can have an object after it, which may be of any of the following kinds —

Direct (with transitive verb)—He is good at teaching English.

Indirect (with tran)—He is good at teaching his sister English.

Retained (with passive)—She is pleased at being taught English.

Cognate (with intran.)—We are ashamed of having fought a poor fight.

Reflective (with intran.)—He is fond of over-praising himself.

Use of Gerund or Infinitive

Some verbs can be used either with a gerund or an infinitive as an object. But there is a difference in their meanings. The infinitive refers to a specific occasion, or a specific instance, whereas the gerund refers to something that is more general.

She does not like to write to the newspapers. (on a specific subject or time)

She does not like writing to the newspapers. (as a general dislike)

We prefer to stay together. (on a particular occasion)

We prefer staying together. (general preference)

The infinitive used with to be afraid (of) refers to the thing that fear discourages one from doing.

The old man was afraid to cross the street.

I was afraid to touch the cobra.

The gerund indicates a possible result that causes the particular fear. The old man was afraid of being run over by a bus.

I was afraid of being bitten by the cobra.

The Gerund is the only part of a verb that follows a preposition.

I was punished for disturbing the class. (not for disturb...)

The typical examples of this pattern are given below. Study them carefully—

We locked the gates before going out.

The thief entered the house by breaking the door.

We cannot live without sleeping.

She was congratulated on winning the Gold Medal.

The magistrate fined me for speeding.

She is very clever at designing dresses.

Adjectives and verbs (fond of, interested in, object to) which are always used in their combination must be followed by a gerund, not an infinitive.

My son is interested in reading novels. (not to read novels) She objects to doing it. (not to do it)

1.	rite in the blank the correct form of the verb given in brackets.	
	i) No one can stop me from what is right. (do)	
	ii) Do not let me prevent you from (go)	
	ii) We were surprised at your father there. (find)	
	v) By early, they avoided traffic rush. (leave)	
	v) On the news, the meeting was postponed. (hear)	
	ri) This milk is not fit for (drink)	
	ii) He was charged with into a house. (break)	
	ii) He fell ill by stale food. (eat)	
	x) She was disqualified for (cheat)	
	x) The whole class was punished for so much noise. (make)	

COMMON ERRORS IN ENGLISH

To write correct, balanced, and complete sentences, avoid the following pitfalls —

1. Dangling Modifier

WRONG: Expecting a large crowd, extra chairs were provided by the management. (Dangling modifier because the modifier does not logically and sensibly refer to the subject of the main clause. It is not the "extra chairs" (subject) which are "expecting a large crowd.")

RIGHT: Expecting a large crowd, the management provided extra chairs.

RIGHT: Since a large crowd was expected, extra chairs were provided by the management.

2. Vague References of "this", "that", "which"

WRONG: He wants to begin immediately and to make his first sale before the end of the year. As a result of this, he will probably become a successful salesman.

RIGHT: He wants to begin immediately and to make his first sales before the end of the year. As a result of this attitude, he will probably become a successful salesman. ("This" must not refer to a cause, sentence, or idea; it must refer to one specific word.)

3. Lack of Parallel Construction

WRONG: The man liked meeting and to talk to people. ("and" joins one gerund and one infinitive constructions)

RIGHT: The man liked to meet and to talk to people. ("and" joins parallel infinitive constructions)

RIGHT: The man liked meeting and talking to people ("and" joins parallel gerund construction which express ideas of equal importance)

N.B. Parallel construction applies as well to the enumeration of points, particularly of recommendations.

WRONG

- 1. The company should increase the price of all products.
- 2. Increase the variety of products.
- 3. Provide more services.
- 4. They should review their advertising programme.

RIGHT

The company should —

- (i) increase the price of all products
- (ii) increase the variety of products
- (iii) provide more services
- (iv) review their advertising programme.

4. Needless Shift in Tense of Verb

WRONG: He usually makes sensible decisions although he frequently changed his mind. (Shift from present tense in main clause to past tense in subordinate clause)

RIGHT: He usually makes sensible decisions although he frequently changes his mind.

N.B. Tense should be consistent within the sentence (as in the example above) and from sentence to sentence within the paragraph.

5. Needless Shift in Mood of Verb

WRONG: Do this work carefully; you should also do it slowly. (Verb shifts from imperative to indicative mood)

RIGHT: You should do this carefully; you should also do it slowly.

RIGHT: Do this work carefully; also, do it slowly.

N.B. Generally speaking, the imperative mood should be avoided in report writing. This mood expresses a command or a strong request; a report should suggest or recommend rather than command.

6. Needless Separation of Related Sentence Elements

WRONG: I, hoping very much to find Mrs Singh at home and to sell her one of our new products, knocked at the door. (needless separation of subject "I" and verb "knocked")

Hoping very much to find Mrs Singh at home RIGHT:

and to sell her one of our new products, I

knocked at the door.

WRONG: I only telephoned those men. (needless

separation, of adverb "only" and "those men"

which "only" modifies)

RIGHT: I telephoned only those men.

7. Lack of Subject-Verb Agreement

WRONG: The price of the new products were reasonable.

RIGHT: The price of the new products was reasonable.

(singular verb to agree with singular subject,

even though a plural word intervenes)

WRONG: The advantage of Product A and Product B are

the profits.

The advantage of Product A and Product B is RIGHT:

the profits. (singular verb to agree with singular subject, even though a plural word follows the

verb as its object/compliment.)

WRONG: There is a man and woman waiting to see me.

RIGHT: There are a man and woman waiting to see me.

(plural verb to agree with double subject, especially when "there" begins the sentence

and subject follows verb)

WRONG: Everyone on the top three floors work for one

company.

Everyone on the top three floors works for one **RIGHT:**

company. (singular verb to agree with singular subject, especially when subject is "everyone"

or "each")

WRONG: There is only one of the girls who play the sitar.

There is only one of the girls who plays the sitar. RIGHT:

> (singular verb to agree with "one", the singular word to which subject "who" refers. Important when subject of verb is "who", "which", or

"that")

WRONG: Neither the report nor its appendix were

published.

RIGHT: Neither the report nor its appendix was published. (singular verb to agree with singular subjects joined by "or" or "nor")

N.B. If one subject is singular and one plural, the verb agrees with the nearest subject. For example

Neither the report nor the books were published.

8. Lack of Pronoun Agreement

WRONG: Everyone brought lunch to work.

RIGHT: Everyone brought his lunch to work. (singular pronoun to agree with "everyone", the singular word to which pronoun refers. It is important when pronoun refers to "everyone" or "anyone")

WRONG: He does not usually make those kind of errors.

RIGHT: He does not usually make that kind of error. (singular pronoun to agree with "kind", the singular noun which pronoun modifies. Important when "this", "that", "these", or "those" modifies "kind "or "sort")

RIGHT: He does not usually make these kinds of errors. (plural pronoun modifying plural noun)

WRONG: Neither the manager nor his favourite employee could do their work alone.

RIGHT: Neither the manager nor his favourite employees could do his work alone. (singular pronoun to agree with singular words which are joined by "nor" and to which the pronoun refers. Same when "or" joins singular words)

N.B. If "or" or "nor" joins one singular and one plural word, the pronoun agrees with the one nearest to it.

Neither the manager nor the workers were aware of their error.

ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS (CONFUSED)

Note Use the words 'Hard', 'Hardly', 'Late', 'Lately', 'Most', and 'Mostly' carefully. As adjectives hard, late and most have two adverb forms which should be clearly understood.

Hard as an adverb means 'strenuously' 'diligently'. It is normally placed after the verb. It is an adverb of manner.

I worked hard yesterday. (not hardly)

She worked hard to pass the examination. (not hardly)

Sometimes, for emphasis, hard can be used at the beginning of the sentence —

Hard as she tried she could not get through.

But this use is rare.

Hardly as an adverb means 'not much', scarcely any or at all.

It is an adverb of degree. It is used before the verb. In case of a verb used with auxiliary it is placed between the auxiliary and the next part of the verb.

He sang so softly that the audience could hardly hear him.

He was so reduced that I hardly recognised him.

This pen has hardly been used.

Hardly had he gone when his wife reached here.

Late (adverb) means two things —

(i) 'After the expected time' or 'after the time' by which one should have done it.

Every Sunday morning they get up late. (not lately)

Three times this week he has come to office late. (not lately)

(ii) 'Towards the end of a specified period of time' —

Doctors refuse to visit patients late at night.

I rang her late in the afternoon.

She did not have a child until late in life.

Lately means recently.

Have you seen any movie lately?

Have you met your brother lately?

Most as adverb means 'to the greatest extent'.

The thing that I admire most is simplicity. (not mostly)

He who boasts most is often one who does least. (not mostly)

Mostly means 'for the most part'.

The lecture covered mostly the recent trends in politics.

The paper consisted mostly of old questions.

I.	Co	omplete the sentences with one of the words given in brackets
4	1.	The student could get pass marks. (hardly, hard)
	2.	She could raise her arms. (hard, hardly)
	3.	The child can lift the school bag. (hardly, hard)
	4.	It has rained this year. (hardly, hard)
	5.	He had entered the road when he was injured. (hard, hardly)
,	6.	She studies into the night. (lately, late)
'		The airbus arrived ten minutes (late, lately)
}	8.	The examinations will be held in April this time. (late, lately)
•	9.	I reached home very last night. (late, lately)
		We have not heard any thing from them (late, lately)
		The great singers have been women. (mostly, most)
1	12.	Join the course which will help you (mostly most)
1	13.	I have books which are novels. (mostly, most)
1	14.	It was my elder brother who guided me to get this position. (most, mostly)
1	15.	In the computer course, the students are girls from renowned schools. (mostly, most)

Adverbs ending in -ly

Consider the adverbs formed by adding 'ly' to an adjective — gladly, slowly, foolishly, wisely, nicely. These adverbs are usually adverbs of manner.

But if an adjective itself ends with 'ly', we cannot normally change it into an adverb. Such words belong to two classes.

1. Words which act both as adjectives and adverbs, without any change —

cowardly, daily, early, fortnightly, hourly, surely, nightly, only, weekly, yearly.

She has arrived by an early flight. (adj.)

She has come early. (adverb)

There is an hourly change of classes. (adj.)

But if an adjective itself ends with 'ly', we cannot normally change it into an adverb. Such words belong to two classes.

The classes change hourly. (adverb)

The Statesman is a daily newspaper. (adj.)

The Statesman is published daily. (adverb)

2. Words which are used only as adjectives —

brotherly, fatherly, motherly, friendly, gentlemanly, godly, goodly, homely, likely, lovely, manly, seemly, unseemly, womanly.

They can be changed into adverbs by using a phrase like 'in a brotherly manner' or 'in a lovely fashion', or 'in a manly way'.

He is a very friendly boss. (adj.)

She received us in a very friendly manner. (adverb)

Note

The word 'kind' (adj.) has 'kindly' as its adverb. But kindly is also an adjective.

My father was of a kindly nature. (adj.)

My father always talked to us in a very kindly manner. (adj.)

Exercise

In each of the following pairs of sentences, complete the second sentence by using an adverb or an adverbial phrase giving the same meaning as of the adjective.

- 1. She is an early bird. She rises.....
- 2. From here, there is an hourly bus service to Delhi. The buses to Delhi run....
- 3. That was a cowardly action. That was acting.......
- 4. I have hired this car on a monthly basis. I pay the car charges.....
- 5. The tutor gave daily classes. The tutor holds classes......
- 6. Most magazines are monthly publications. Most magazines are published........
- 7. She is a very gentle person. She always behaves.......
- 8. He gave us a friendly advice. He advised us.......
- 9. The friend noticed my fatherly smile at the child. My friend noticed my smiling at the child......
- 10. He is a very gentlemanly person. He always behaves.......

ERRORS IN THE USE OF ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

Adjectival complements

1. Study the following sentences.

The sky became bright. (not brightly)

This year good apples are rare. (not rarely)

She got angry. (not angrily)

The tea became bitter. (not bitterly)

The job is difficult though it appears easy. (not easily)

The price seems to be low. (not lowly)

In the above sentences, the verbs to be, to seem, to become, or any other verb having a similar meaning (appear, feel, look, grow, turn—in the sense become) need an adjective and not an adverb to act as a complement which qualifies the subject to complete the meaning of the sentence. No adverb is required to modify the verb.

Note When these three verbs 'turn', 'grow', and 'appear' are used in a different sense they are followed by an adverb, not adjective.

The ship appeared suddenly on the horizon. (not sudden)

These plants have grown quickly. (not quick)

She turned and left unexpectedly. (not unexpected)

In the above sentences, the verbs 'appear' means 'come into sight', 'grow' means 'increase in size', 'turn' means 'move in a direction'. Therefore, the need is an adverb, and not adjective.

2. Use an adjective, not an adverb, after verbs such as 'feel', 'sound', 'taste', 'smell' to show a quality experienced by one of the physical senses.

This cloth feels smooth. (not smoothly)

These pipes sound nice. (not nicely)

This orange tastes sour. (not sourly)

That rose smells sweet. (not sweetly)

Exercises

- 1. It feels very.....in this room. (cold, coldly)
- 2. The weather has turned.....(hot, hotly)

- 3. At her call I turned round.....(sudden, suddenly)
- 4. He seems very.....by his result. (sad, sadly)
- 5. Some trees grow very.....(slow, slowly)
- 6. She looks.....in this dress. (pretty, prettily)
- 7. His story is to appear very.....(short, shortly)
- 8. Her signatures do not appear to be.....(genuinely, genuine)
- 9. If you feel.....remove the shirt. (warm, warmly)
- 10. The Director congratulated the position holders.....(warm, warmly)
- 11. The girl was very.....to catch the robber by herself. (brave, bravely)
- 12. The audience became.....when the winners of the Film Award 1998 came on the stage. (excited, excitedly)
- 13. Her room smells......of sandal incense. (strong, strongly)
- 14. Our new teacher seems very.....(strict, strictly)
- 15. This food smells very.....(appetising, appetisingly)

PUNCTUATION AND CAPITALISATION

Punctuation

Of all punctuation symbols, the four discussed below are the ones most commonly misused.

1. Comma (,)

Use of comma

- (a) To set off main clauses joined by "and", "but", "or", "nor", "for" For example—The first alternative certainly offered the company many advantages, but the second was probably more economical.
 - N.B. If the clauses are short, the comma separation is unnecessary.
- (b) To separate long introductory elements from the rest of the sentence.
 - For example—When all the proposals had been fully investigated and discussed, we were able to make the final decision.

- For example—On Friday we were able to make the final decision. (introductory element is particularly short, so comma separation is unnecessary)
- (c) To separate words in a series of three or more

For example—The controller of accounts, vice-president and president took part in the investigation.

N.B. The last comma in the series is generally optional unless it is needed for clarity.

For example—The controller of accounts, vice-president and general manager, and president took part in the investigation. (last comma indicates that one person holds the dual position of vice-president and general manager)

(d) To set off parenthetical expressions from the rest of the sentence A parenthetical expression is inserted into a sentence. Therefore the latter must be grammatically complete without it. Unless it begins or ends a sentence, a parenthetical expression must be set off by two commas.

For example—Ram, unlike his brother, was a good salesman.

N.B. If the expression does not cause an abrupt interruption, the comma separation is often unnecessary (especially with words "also", "too", "indeed", "at least", "perhaps", "likewise").

For example—Ram's personality was indeed more pleasing than his brother's.

- N.B. When a parenthetical expression (particularly a lengthy one) causes an abrupt interruption, dashes or parenthesis may be used instead of commas. (Like the comma, the dash and parenthesis must be used in pairs. However they should be used much less frequently than the comma.)
- For example—Ram was a good salesman he sold more than anyone else in the company and had a pleasing personality. (emphatic)
- For example—Ram was a good sales man (he sold more than anyone else in the company) and had a pleasing personality. (less emphatic)
- (e) To set off non restrictive elements

Non restrictive elements are parenthetical (see (d) above) and are not essential to the meaning of the sentence. They must be set off by two commas.

For example—Ram, who sold more than anyone else in the company, was awarded the salesmen's trophy. (restrictive sentence does not make sense without it)

(f) To set off a direct quotation from the rest of the sentence.

For example—The foreman replied, "I have done all I can", and

Do not use the comma

(g) To separate subject and verb or verb and object

WRONG: The company with the best reputation in this area, was awarded the contract. (subject-verb separation)

The company with the best reputation RIGHT: in this area was awarded the contract.

WRONG: The company knew last week, that it had been awarded the contract. (verbobject separation)

The company knew last week that it RIGHT: had been awarded the contract.

N.B. If words requiring punctuation (see (d) and (e) above) intervene between subject and verb or between verb and object, the comma is then necessary.

For example—A B C Company, which has a good reputation in this area, was awarded the contract. (non restrictive phrase intervenes between verb and object)

For example—The company knew last week, probably by Wednesday, that it had been awarded the contract. (non restrictive phrase intervenes between verb and object)

(h) To join two main clauses unless "and", "but", "or", "nor", or "for" comes between them.

> WRONG: The salesman displayed his goods, then he talked about the newest product.

> The salesman displayed his goods; then RIGHT: he talked about the newest product.

> **RIGHT:** The salesman displayed his goods, and then he talked about the newest product.

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(i) To separate two words or phrases joined by "and", "but", "or", "nor", or "for"

WRONG: I cannot remember whether the head office is in Calcutta, or in Bombay.

RIGHT: I cannot remember whether the head office is in Calcutta or in Bombay.

(j) To separate adjective from the noun it modifies

WRONG: We should choose an economical, flexible, plan

RIGHT: We should choose an economical, flexibile plan.

(k) To separate parentheses () from the rest of the sentence

WRONG: Several miscellaneous items are included in the total expense, (see Exhibit I).

RIGHT: Several miscellaneous items are included in the total expense (see Exhibit I).

WRONG: Although several miscellaneous items are included in the total expense, (see Exhibit I), they are not important.

RIGHT: Although several miscellaneous items are included in the total expense (see Exhibit I), they are not important. (second comma necessary to set off introductory element see (b) above)

2. Colon (:)

Use the colon

(a) To introduce a list (often preceded by "the following" or "as follows")

For example—The following men were nominated for the top honour: Singh, Jain, Basu and Jha.

(b) To separate two main clauses, the second of which explains the first

For example—The purpose of his speech was obvious: he wanted to present a concise outline of company policy.

3. Semi-colon(;)

Use the semi-colon

(a) To separate two main clauses not joined by "and", "but", "or", "nor" or "for"

For example—Last year at this time, Mr Singh was general manager; he is now president. (period could be substituted for the semi-colon, but the latter is preferable when the clauses are short and closely related in thought)

(b) To separate two main clauses joined by "however", "therefore", "moreover", "consequently", "also", "furthermore", "nevertheless", "then", "thus", "likewise"

For example—We thought that Ram would be the new president; however, his brother was chosen instead.

(c) To separate two main clauses when the second is preceded by "for example", "that is", or "namely".

For example—We do not like the attitude of the new manager that is, we resent his air of superiority.

(d) To separate items in a series when the former contains commas For example—We called on Mr Singh, the president; Mr Jain, the vice-president and general manager; Mr Basu, the controller of accounts; and Mr Jha, the secretary.

For example—We chose these people because they held responsible positions, both within the company and in organisations outside; because they had valuable experience; because they had the ability to work well with others; and because they all had the time for outside work.

Do not use the semi-colon

(e) To separate a main clause from a subordinate clause

WRONG: Mr Singh was named honorary president; because of his long association with the firm.

Mr Singh was named honorary RIGHT: president because of his long association with the firm.

N.B. Except in (d) above, the semi-colon always separates one main clause from another main clause.

4. Apostrophe (')

Use the apostrophe to show possession in the following instances —

(a) possessive singular nouns

For example—manager's salary

man's character (add "'s" to noun)

(b) possessive plural of nouns

For example—manager's salaries (add only the apostrophe if plural form of the noun ends in "s")

For example—men's salaries (add "'s" if the plural does not end in "s")

(c) possessive of the pronouns "one", "someone", "somebody", "everyone", "everybody", "anyone", "anybody", "none", "nobody"

For example—anyone's (add "'s" to pronoun)

Do not use the apostrophe for

(d) the pronouns "his", "hers", "ours", "yours", "theirs", "whose", (because they are already possessive).

WRONG: It's meaning was clear. ("It's" means "it is")

RIGHT: Its meaning was clear.

CAPITALISATION

The rules for the capitalisation of words in English are simple and not especially numerous.

Always capitalise the first word in a sentence, the first word in any quotation included within a sentence, and the first word of any phrase that is used as a sentence.

The office building is fully air-conditioned. (sentence)

She answered the telephone and said, "Good morning! May I help you?"

(sentence, quotation, and phrase used as a sentence—Good morning!)

Many newspapers gave news of India's N-test on the front page. (sentence)

Capitalise the names of people; specific geographical locations; calendar indications such as the days of the week, the months of the year, and holidays; organisations, including governmental bodies; and historical events and documents.

When capitalising the names of people, you will sometimes

The rules for the capitalisation of words in English are simple and not especially numerous.

encounter parts of names that are not capitalised, such as Emil von Hoffman, Leonardo da Vinci, and Simone de Beauvoir. Generally, all parts of a person's name are capitalised, including any initials used. If titles are used with the name, these titles are also capitalised.

Ram Chandra

Mrs Deepti Chaturvedi

John S Morgan

Mr H F Khan

Rev. Samel Wilkins

Senator William Kaufmann

Ms T Sheila Kual

In written English, only proper nouns are capitalised. It is incorrect to capitalise words such as woman, man, boy or girl. Unless a specific person is named, capitalisation is not used. The same is done for geographical designations. A specific location, site, or area must be mentioned. Remember the word specific. When a word such as street, building, park, mountain, river is included in the name of a particular place, the word becomes specific because it names a distinctive thing or place rather than a general locale. When the location is mentioned in specific terms, capitalise. When it is given in general terms, do not capitalise.

The Times Building was built in 1936.

(specific)

The building that houses our office has been sold.

(general)

The southeast section of the United States is known for its cotton

production.

(general)

The southeastern has a temperate climate.

(specific)

The river was muddy after several days of rain.

(general)

The Ganges gives up its eastern boundary.

(specific)

Capitalise all calender designations and names of holidays, but do not capitalise the names of seasons.

July

Monday

Christmas

March

Friday

Teachers' day

winter

summer

Diwali

Capitalise the names of organisations, companies, and governmental bodies, but do not capitalise the word 'the' when it precedes the name unless it is a part of the official name.

The United Nations

The Bank of Korea

The Rialto Theater

The University of Delhi

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The Advertising Council, Inc.

The Better Business Bureau

The Internal Revenue Service

The Rand Corporation

All names of continents, countries, states, and cities and the adjectives derived from these are capitalised.

The western part of Russia is in Europe, but its eastern section is in Asia.

Our company has branch offices in Seattle, Phoenix, Kansas City, Memphis, and Cleveland.

I plan to study the history of the Spanish-speaking people in the West Indies.

C'ezanne and Renior were French artists.

The names of commercial products should also be capitalised, but do not capitalise the generic name when it is not part of the brand name. For example, Esquire Boot Polish and Lipton Cup-A-Soup are the correct brand names, but Maxwell House Coffee and Van Heusen Shirts are not correct, although Maxwell House makes coffee and Van Heusen makes shirts.

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Abstract

Acquisition and Assimilation of Technology in the Tractor' Industry in India: The Strategic Perspective*

by

XYZ

Researchers in international transfer of technology have predominantly assumed the perspective of top management of multinational corporations or public policy makers in developing countries. The influence of the external as well as the internal environments on the technology acquisition and assimilation process has been studied by previous researchers. However, the processes through which top managers of firms manage the two environments while acquiring and assimilating technology has received less attention. This research was focused on the managerial processes involved in managing the interaction of the external and internal environments in relation to technology acquisition and assimilation in the specific context of a typical developing country like India.

This study used the framework for Corporate Strategy, which links the external environment with the organisations by utilising the concept of matching of environmental opportunities and threats with organisational resources and capabilities. The research sites chosen were six major firms in the Indian tractor industry. The perspective assumed was of the top management of these firms.

The major findings are:

- 1. The Government exercised a pervasive influence on the process of technology acquisition and assimilation in the tractor industry because of its importance to the economy. In spite of the constraints imposed by Government, the firms were able to develop different product -market and technological strategies. When these strategies were uniquely related to the environment and the organizational resources and competence, there was all around improvement in performance. The better the match between technological decisions, the firm's environment and organizational resources and capabilities, the easier and faster was the process of technology assimilation.
 - A general conclusion arrived at was that several firms operating in the same environment could achieve overall success by developing strategies uniquely related to their environment and resources and capabilities. Two dominant modes of the strategy development process were identified. They were both characterised by an adaptive response to environmental changes and were termed: (i) Formulatory-Adaptive, and (ii)Evolutionary-Adaptive depending on the nature of the process.
- 2. The process of acquisition and assimilation of technology was viewed as the process by which firms attempt to relate technological decisions to their environment and resources and distinctive competence. This process was conceptualised as consisting

of four interrelated sub-processes: i) Technology Acquisition, ii) Technology Adaptation, iii) Technology Utilisation and iv) Technology Development. These sub-processes were distinguished from each other by the differences in organisational characteristics, key managerial tasks and critical skills required to manage them.

Some applications were examined for three likely audiences: i) researchers in management and international transfer of technology, ii) managers, and iii) public policy makers in developing countries.

Data was collected in 2003 from six major tractor manufacturing firms, which comprised more than 80 percent of the total sales turnover. The technological issues studied were i) choice of product, ii) choice of foreign collaborator and mode of collaboration, iii) choice of plant size, iv) choice of plant location, v) choice of manufacturing technology, vi) choice of R & D activities, etc.

Environmental factors like competition, Government regulations, technological capabilities of farmers, automotive ancillary industry, role of national laboratories, etc. were considered. Organizational characteristics like formal organizational structure, system of control and coordination, training methodology, philosophy of top management of the firms, and their resources and capabilities were studied in conjunction with environmental factors.

The clinical methodology used consisted of three phases:

- (i) a pilot study of two major firms for a period of one and a half months approximately
- (ii) study of secondary data sources, and
- (iii) a re-examination of the previous two organisations and study of the additional four.

Major data sources were in-depth interviews of some 60 senior company executives for a total period of about 300 hours. In addition, detailed study of various company documents like detailed project reports, feasibility reports, organizational announcements, etc. was also undertaken.

^{*} Source: IIM Ahmedabad, 1997–98, Manual of policies and procedures, pp. 50–51 (as cited by MDI, Gurgaon).

3.2

Appendix 7

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Reference Style

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Basu, A (1963), Consumer Price Index: Theory, Practice and Use in India, Modern Book Agency, Calcutta.

Two authors

Singh, M. and Pandya, JF (1967), Government Publications of India, Metropolitan Book Co., Delhi.

Three authors

Mote, VL; Malya, MM and Saha J (1968), Tables for Capital Investment Analysis, Indian Institute of Management, Ahmedabad.

Edited book

Basu, G (ed.) (1962), Indian Tax Laws and Foreigners Having Investment in India or Having Business Connections in or with India, Oxford Book & Stationery, Calcutta.

Government publication

Ministry of Law, Government of India (1960), The Copyright Act, 1957, The Manager of Publications, Delhi.

Journal paper

Jain, SK (1967), World Class Manufacturing, International Journal of Operations Management, Vol. 6, No. 12, pp. 11–31.

pp. stands for page number.

Article in a newspaper

Gandhi, VP (1968), Will the Budget Achieve Its Aims? Certain Doubts, The Economic Times, Mar. 8, pp 5–6.

Conference paper

Bhattacharya, S.K. (1967), Control Techniques and Their Applicability, paper presented at the Ahmedabad Management Association, Ahmedabad, Nov. 22, pp. 11–17.

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