

***FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR AND
COMMUNICATION IN ENGLISH***

(ENG1 A02)

I SEMESTER

COMMON COURSE FOR B.A.

(2022 Admission)

CBCSS



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Study Material

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FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR AND COMMUNICATION IN ENGLISH (ENG1 A02)

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MODULE I

BASIC CONCEPT OF SYNTAX

1.1. WHAT IS SYNTAX?

Syntax is a form of grammar. It is chiefly concerned with word order in a sentence and with the agreement of words when they are used together. Word order refers to the way words are arranged in a sentence. To communicate your thoughts and ideas word order is important. English is a language that follows strict word order and it has a structure known as **SVO**, that is, **Subject**, **Verb**, and **Object**.

For example,

The boy plays football.

Here the sentence can be read as;

The boy plays football.

(Subject) (Verb) (Object)

This sentence makes sense as the word order is correct and you can see an agreement between the words.

If we write the sentence as,

The boy football plays.

This sentence does not make any sense as there is no agreement between the words in the sentence.

Hence, it should be understood that English is not just a collection of words. Words are put together to form sentences and this way of arrangement is called syntax of the language. In short, syntax is the way words are put together to form phrases and sentences. In other words, syntax is the study of the structure of sentences. To study syntax is to study the patterns and relationships of words, phrases and clauses. Syntax attempts to uncover the underlying principles or rules for constructing well-formed sentences.

There are two types of rules in syntax. They are:

1. Phrase structure rule
2. Transformational rule

1.1.1. Phrase Structure Rules:

Phrase Structure Rules attempt to describe the internal composition of syntactic units: ie, sentences and phrases, showing what kind of smaller units they are made up of. They also explain the order between these smaller components.

For example,

A rule of the form $S \rightarrow NP + VP$

This can be interpreted as ‘a sentence can consist of the component units **NP** (a noun phrase) and **VP** (a verb phrase), which are ordered in the way stated’.

Phrase structure rules are also called **constituent structure rules** because words, phrases, and sentences can all be constituents in larger combinations.

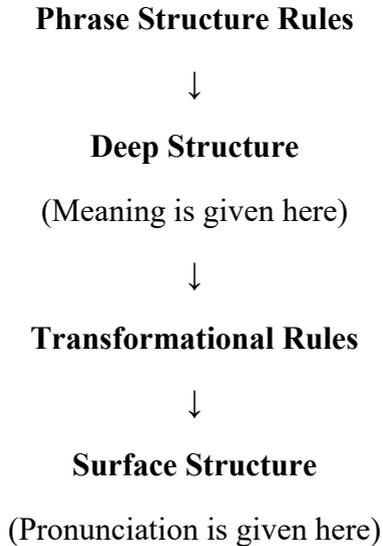
1.1.2. Transformational Rules

Transformational rules attempt to recognise the well-formed sentence and those sentences which are related to each other.

Transformational rule consists of

- i) Deep structure
- ii) Surface structure

Grammar resulted by these two rules can be drafted as follows:



1.2. WORD ORDER AND BASIC SENTENCE PATTERNS

A. Subject + Verb (SV)

This is the simplest of verb patterns. The subject is followed by an intransitive verb, which expresses complete sense without the help of any other words.

	Subject	Verb
1.	Birds	fly.
2.	Dogs	bark.
3.	Flags	flutter.

B. When we make simple English sentences, we usually follow the **Subject + Verb + Object (SVO)** pattern.

Steps:

1. Put the subject and the adjectives such as 'fat', 'thin' etc. or any words describing the subject at the beginning of the sentence.
2. Put the verb and some adverbs such as 'often', 'usually' etc. after the subject.
3. Put the object of the verb, the adjectives or other words describing the object and the adverbs describing the verb at the end of the sentence.

	Subject	Verb	Object
1.	Tom	often eats	Chocolates.

2.	The fat cat	is chasing	a mouse.
3.	My boss	reads	newspaper everyday.
4.	The audience	Enjoyed	the movie.
5.	Mary	will visit	her aunt tomorrow.

C. Some verbs can be followed by two objects without an ‘and’ connecting them. One of these objects is called the ‘direct object’ and the other the ‘indirect object’. Below is the pattern of a sentence containing both direct object and indirect object:

Subject + Verb + Indirect Object + Direct Object (SVOO)

	Subject	Verb	Indirect Object	Direct Object
1.	I	Gave	my sister	a birthday present.
2.	My grandparents	always tell	me	stories.
3.	I	have lent	him	some books.
4.	The customer	is paying	the shopkeeper	two hundred dollars.
5.	The nurse	gave	the patient	some medicines.

D. Sometimes a preposition is put in front of the indirect object. The pattern of such sentence is:

Subject + Verb + Direct Object + Preposition + Indirect Object

	Subject	Verb	Direct Object	Preposition	Indirect Object

1.	My friend	has sent	a letter	to	me.
2.	My brother	showed	his new wallet	to	me.
3.	The students	sent	a present	to	their teacher.
4.	Betty	has painted	a beautiful picture	for	her best friend.

E. Subject + Verb+ Subject complement (SVC)

The complement usually consists of a noun, a pronoun, or an adjective.

	Subject	Verb	Subject complement
1.	This	is	a pen
2.	His brother	became	a soldier
3.	Gopal	looks	sad
4.	The children	kept	quiet.

F. Subject + Verb+ Object+ Complement (SVOC)

	Subject	Verb	Object	Complement
1.	The parents	named	the child	angelina.

2.	He	Painted	the house	yellow.
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1.1.2. PARTS OF SPEECH

Parts of speech are the basic units of a sentence. Recognizing parts of speech can be done by using two approaches:

- i) Traditional approach
- ii) Descriptive approach

Traditional approach uses intuition to determine them while, Descriptive approach uses formal properties of language (morphological and syntactic) to recognize them.

In the traditional approach, there are eight parts of speech. They are:

1. **Noun (N)** – a word which names a person, place or thing.
e.g., Tommy, Cat, Bike, New York
2. **Pronoun (PRO)** – a word which can replace a noun.
e.g., He, she, it, they, we
3. **Adjective (ADJ)** – a word which modifies a noun.
e.g., beautiful, intelligent, handsome, busy, lazy
4. **Verb (V)** – a word which names an action or a state of being
e.g., read, write, speak, walk, hit, run, is

5. **Adverb (ADV)** – a word which modifies a verb, adjective, or adverb

e.g., quickly, very, hastily
6. **Preposition (P)** – a word which shows some relationship between a noun or pronoun and another word in a sentence.

e.g., in, on, at, from, with, to, by
7. **Conjunction (CONJ)** – a word which connects words or phrases

e.g., and, but, or
8. **Interjection (INTERJ)** – a word used as an exclamation.

e.g., Oh! ah, well, yeah, good heavens!

These definitions seem to be clear-cut and easy to learn but identifying a word based on them can be difficult. So, it would be better if we consider the function of a word in the whole sentence. Due to this constraint, the descriptive approach is preferred most of the time.

The descriptive approach offered by structuralists provides the division of parts of speech into two broad classes, that is, open classes and closed classes.

The open classes include **nouns, verbs, adjectives** and **adverbs**. Syntactic frames state the type of words that can precede or follow each word in a class.

Closed class words, better known as **function words**, are those which have little meaning outside of their grammatical purpose,

to relate from class words to each other. They include **determiners (DET), auxiliary verbs (AUX), preposition (P), and conjunctions (CONJ).**

Exercise 1

Pick out the **nouns** in the following sentences. There may be more than one noun in each sentence.

e.g., Terry told his friends many secrets.

Nouns: Terry, friends, secrets

1. His success made his parents happy.
2. Cows give us milk.
3. The train has just left the station.
4. Paris is the capital of France.
5. Our family spent the holiday in London.

Answers

Exercise 1

1. success, parents
2. cows, milk
3. train, station.
4. Paris, capital, France.
5. family, holiday, London.

Exercise 2

Pick out the **pronouns** in the following sentences. There may be more than one pronoun in each sentence.

e.g., These socks are hers.

pronoun: hers

1. The yellow car over there belongs to him.
2. This cat is beautiful, but mine is more beautiful.
3. Who gave her the money?
4. He cut himself when he was shaving.
5. Which do you prefer, an apple or an orange?

Answers

Exercise 2

1. him.
2. mine
3. Who, her
4. He, himself, he
5. Which, you

Exercise 3

Pick out the **adjectives** in the following sentences. There may be more than one adjective in each sentence.

e.g., He is a hard-working student.

adjective: hard-working

1. These apples are sweet but expensive.
2. Whose umbrella is this?
3. There is some milk in the refrigerator.
4. Tai Mo Shan is the highest mountain in Hong Kong.
5. We have not got any mango trees in our garden.

Answers

Exercise 3

1. These, sweet, expensive
2. Whose
3. some
4. highest
5. any, our

Exercise 4

Pick out the **verbs** in the following sentences. There may be more than one verb in each sentence.

e.g., There are thirty students in my class.

verb: are

1. After the rain had stopped, the children went out to the playground.
2. My sister enjoys listening to classical music.
3. We will visit the museum tomorrow.
4. Who has finished doing the exercise?
5. The tiger was shot by the hunter.

Answers

Exercise 4

1. had stopped, went
2. enjoys
3. will visit
4. has finished
5. was shot

Exercise 5

Pick out the **adverbs** in the following sentences. There may be more than one adverb in each sentence.

e.g., The soldiers fought bravely in the war.

adverb: bravely

1. The little girl smiled sweetly at me yesterday.
2. Please hang the wet clothes here.

3. The chairman seldom arrives on time.
4. You must spend your money more wisely.
5. It is raining heavily. You must drive carefully.

Answers

Exercise 5

1. sweetly, yesterday
2. here
3. seldom
4. more wisely
5. heavily, carefully

Exercise 6

Pick out the **prepositions** in the following sentences. There may be more than one preposition in each sentence.

e.g., My father works in a factory.

preposition: in

1. Take off your hat before you go into the room.
2. I bought this book for fifty dollars.
3. There is a bridge over the river.
4. I like walking along the riverbank.
5. She kept her jewellery in a box under the bed.

Answers

Exercise 6

1. off, into
2. for
3. over
4. along
5. in, under

Exercise 7

Pick out the **conjunctions** in the following sentences.

e.g., A fish can swim but a bird cannot.

conjunction: but

1. Although he was late, he managed to catch the bus.
2. My father had locked the door before he went to bed last night.
3. I am dark but my sister is fair.
4. We must hurry or we will be late.
5. Do not move until the general gives the order.

Answers

Exercise 7

1. Although
2. before.

3. but
4. or
5. until

Exercise 8

Pick out the **exclamations** in the following sentences.

e.g. Hush! Don't make any noise.

exclamation: Hush

1. Oh! I am sorry to hear that.
2. Ah! This is my dream car.
3. Hush! Be quiet. The baby is asleep.
4. How wonderful! It can fly.
5. Alas! The dog is dead.

Answers

Exercise 8

1. Oh
2. Ah
3. Hush
4. How wonderful
5. Alas

1.2. CONCORD/ AGREEMENT OF SUBJECT AND VERB

Verbs can change form in tense, person, and number. The subject and verb of every clause (independent or dependent), however, must agree in person and number. Once you identify the subject and the verb, you can then determine such agreement of the subject and the verb.

There are three persons:

First person- the speaker

Second person-the person spoken to

Third person- the person spoken about

There are two numbers:

Singular- denoting one person or thing

Plural- denoting more than one person or thing

Nouns ending in *s* are usually plural.

Verbs ending in *s* are singular.

Singular subjects should be paired with singular verbs and plural subjects should be paired with plural verbs.

she walks

the book is

they want

Bill, John, and Jane go

1.2.1. Compound Subjects

Compound subjects joined by *and* normally require a plural verb:

Hard work and persistence are required in all rewarding accomplishments.

Where are the pens and paper?

Subjects which include at least two nouns or pronouns connected by *and* should be paired with plural verbs.

the manager and the employees are

the cats and the dog run

the man and the woman are

1.2.2. Subjects Joined by *Or* or *Nor*

When two or more subjects are joined by *or* or *nor*, the verb should agree with the subject part closest to the verb. This also applies to *either/or* and *neither/nor*.

The professor or her students write

The students or their professor writes

The boy or the girl walks

1.2.3. Intervening Expressions

Modifying phrases or clauses that come between the subject and the verb do not change the number of the verb. The number of the verb is determined entirely by the number of the subject:

The assignment, which they submitted to their professor, was incomplete.

[Assignment is the subject of the verb *was*].

The new computer classroom, with its many work stations and its sophisticated technology, fills [not fill] a long-felt need.

[*Computer classroom* is the subject of the verb *fills*; the phrase *with its many work stations...* has nothing to do with the verb.]

1.2.4. Verb Preceding the Subject

It is possible for a verb to come before a subject in a sentence. The rules of agreement between the subject and the verb remain the same despite the change in order.

There is a desire in many cities to reduce traffic and pollution. [*Desire* is the subject of the verb *is*.]

There are a stapler, two pens, four books, and a writing tablet on the desk. [*Stapler, pens, books* and *writing tablet* are the subjects of the verb *are*.]

Where are *Joan and her daughters* going? [*Joan and her daughters* are subjects of the verb *are going*.]

1.2.5. Indefinite Pronouns

The indefinite pronouns or adjectives *either, neither, and each*, as well as compounds such as *everybody, anybody, everyone, and anyone* are always singular. *None* may be singular or plural. The plural usage is more common.

Each of the cars has its insurance proof in the glove compartment.

Everyone at the meeting was upset over the policies announced.

Every employee, supervisor, and executive reveals the operation of a model company.

Is either of you ready for lunch?

None of the employees have brought their children to the company dinner.

None of the students is interested in the research project.

None--no, not one--is planning to attend the retreat.

1.2.6 Subjects Plural in Form

Singular verbs are usually used with nouns that are plural in form but singular in meaning.

The following nouns are usually singular in meaning: *news*, *economics*, *ethics*, *physics*, *mathematics*, *gallows*, *mumps*, *measles*, *shambles*, *whereabouts*.

A Peanut butter and jelly sandwich is...

Physics is a difficult course...

Politics is...

Athletics seems...

Nouns such as *jeans*, *pants*, *outskirts*, *tactics*, *trousers*, *scissors*, *athletics*, *tidings*, *acoustics*, *riches*, and *barracks* are usually treated as plural.

His tactics are sneaky.

The scissors are on the table.

The trousers are hanging in the closet.

There are some other nouns such as *information*, *hair*, *fish*, *airplane*, *news*, which are usually seen as singular nouns and they take a singular verb.

Is there any interesting news?

The information sent by you is not really sufficient.

Likewise, names of subjects such as *electronics*, *physics*, *mathematics*, *economics*, and *statistics* are treated as singular nouns and take singular verbs. Same is the case with the name of sports like *gymnastics*, *hurdles* etc.

Statistics is a very scoring subject.

He is at his best in performing gymnastics.

Plural nouns denoting a mass, a quantity, or a number require a singular verb when the subject is regarded as a unit.

Five dollars is too much for her to pay.

Fifty bushels was all the bin would hold.

Though usage is mixed, phrases involving addition, multiplication, subtraction, and division of numbers usually take the singular form.

Two plus two is four.

Two times three is six.

Twelve divided by six is two.

In expressions like *part of the apple*, *some of the pie*, *all of the money*, *the number of parts*, *some*, and *all* is determined by the number of the noun in the prepositional phrase.

Some of the pie has been eaten.

Some of the pies have been eaten.

1.2.7. The subject of some form of *To Be*

When one noun precedes and another follows some form of the verb *to be*, the first noun is the subject, and the verb agrees with it and not with the complement even if the complement is different in number.

The only food remaining is mashed potatoes.

Mashed potatoes are the only food remaining.

[In the first sentence, *food* is the subject; in the second, *mashed potatoes*.]

1.2.8. Relative Pronoun as Subject

When a relative pronoun (*who*, *which*, or *that*) is used as the subject of a clause, the number and person of the verb are determined by the antecedent of the pronoun, the word to which the pronoun refers.

This is the professor who is to be hired. [The antecedent of *who* is the singular noun *professor*; therefore, *who* is singular.]

These are the employees who are to be working tomorrow. [The antecedent of *who* is the plural noun *employees*.]

Should I, who am not a student at the school, be allowed to take the class? [*Who* refers to *I*; *I* is first person, singular number.]

She is one of those tough professors who are always expecting the best from students. [The antecedent of *who* is *professors*.]

If sentences such as the last one gives you trouble, try beginning the sentence with the "of" phrase, and you will readily see that the antecedent of *who* is persons and not one.

Of those tough professors who are always expecting the best from students, she is one.

1.2.9. Collective Nouns

Some nouns are singular in form but plural in meaning. They are called collective nouns and include such words as *team*, *class*, *committee*, *crowd*, and *crew*. These nouns may take either a singular or plural verb; if you are thinking of the group as a unit, use a singular verb; if you are thinking of the individual members of the group, use a plural verb.

When referring to a group as a single unit, a singular verb is used.

The public is...

The family is...

The class is demanding...

When referring to a group's members as individuals, a plural verb is used.

The committee fight among themselves.

The student body are talking with each other.

The class are writing.

1.2.10. Nouns with Foreign Plurals

Some nouns retain the plural forms peculiar to the languages from which they have been borrowed: *alumni*, *media*, *crisis*. Still other nouns occur with either their original plural forms or plural forms typical of English: *aquaria* or *aquariums*, *criteria* or *criteria*. If you are in doubt as to the correct or preferred plural form of a noun, consult a good dictionary.

Note: Be careful not to use a plural form when you refer to a singular idea.

For instance:

He is an alumnus [not *alumni*] of this school.

Exercise:

I. Mark the appropriate verb choice for each of the following sentences:

1. The noisy students (**have/ has**) to leave after two warnings.
2. She is the only one of the students who (have/ **has**) failed the test.
3. The crying baby (irritate /**irritates**) them.
4. The longest of the presentations (**is/ are**) the next group.
5. The students and their teacher (is/ **are**) traveling to the competition.
6. Either one of the choices (**is/ are**) going to disrupt the schedule.
7. This is the stereo system that (have/ **has**) been purchased most often in our store.

8. Nobody (dare/ **dares**) to challenge the teacher when she is wrong.
9. The players or their coach (**is/ are**) holding a press conference.
10. Neither of the students (**has/ have**) been to Europe.
11. The problems (was/ **were**) due to a misunderstanding.
12. Which (**is/ are**) more interesting, the red jackets or the blue sweaters?
13. (**Has/Have**) the manager or the assistant manager approached you?
14. Joan, as well as my sister, (**is/are**) in college now.
15. Several of the students (has/ **have**) left.
16. Both of the children (has/ **have**) red notebooks.
17. One of the best-known love stories (**is/ are**) *Romeo and Juliet*.
18. Mathematics (**is/ are**) very difficult for many students to master.
19. She is one of the girls who (**have/ has**) long hair.
20. She or her sisters (**is/ are**) going.

II. Mark the appropriate verb choice for each of the following sentences.

1. Each of the exercises (take/ **takes**) about twenty minutes to complete.

2. The ladies and the child (is/ **are**) planning to have pizza for lunch.
3. The teacher, along with her students, (is/ **are**) determined to have a good year.
4. Please tell me when John and Mary (**go/** goes) to the store.
5. The class (watch/**watches**) a movie every Friday night.
6. The number of issues (seem/ **seems**) to be increasing.
7. The husband and his wife (**drive/**drives) a convertible.
8. Hardly anyone (speak/ **speaks**) to her.
9. He or his sister (want/ **wants**) to visit Europe next summer.
10. She (take/ **takes**) her dog for a walk each evening.
11. The brother and sister (**want/** wants) to visit their aunt and uncle.
12. The high school senior, along with his parents, (is/ **are**) upset over the sudden policy change.
13. The songs they sing (**stay/** stays) in my mind all day.
14. Ten dollars (is/ **are**) too much to charge for such a small item.
15. She and her mother (**talk/** talks) over the phone almost every day.

1.3. TYPES OF SENTENCES BASED ON FUNCTIONS

A **sentence** is a word or a group of words expressing a complete idea.

E.g. *They are reading a book.*
Do you speak English?
It's a fine day!

According to *the purpose of the utterance* we distinguish four kinds of sentences:

- 1) The Declarative Sentence
- 2) The Interrogative Sentence
- 3) The Imperative Sentence
- 4) The Exclamatory Sentence

1.3.1. A **declarative** sentence states a fact in the affirmative or negative form.

E.g., *This is a museum.* (+)
She is not a student. (-)

Negative sentences are formed by means of the negative particle “*not*” which is put after the verb (auxiliary, modal, link verb).

E.g., *I do not like rainy weather.*

Negative pronouns (no-one, none, neither, nothing, no, etc.), negative adverbs (never, nowhere, etc.) and some other words (hardly, refuse, without, etc.) are also used to express negation.

Mind! There is only one negation in an English sentence.

E.g., *She never walks alone.*

1.3.2. Interrogative sentences ask questions.

E.g., *Where do you live?*

1.3.3. Imperative sentences express commands, requests, invitations, etc.

E.g., *Stand up.*

Open the door, will you?

1.3.4. An exclamatory sentence expresses some kind of emotion or feeling (joy, anger, grief,

wonder, etc.). It often begins with the words “*What*” and “*How*”.

E.g., *How wonderful!*

What fine weather we are having today!

1.4. TYPES OF SENTENCES BASED ON CLAUSES

A sentence is composed of one or more clauses. A clause contains a subject and verb.

Independent and Dependent Clauses

There are two types of clauses: independent clauses and dependent clauses. A sentence contains at least one independent clause and may contain one or more dependent clauses.

An independent clause (or main clause)

- is a complete thought.

- can stand by itself.

A dependent clause (or subordinate clause)

- is an incomplete thought.
- cannot stand by itself.

You can spot a dependent clause by identifying the subordinating conjunction. A subordinating conjunction creates a dependent clause that relies on the rest of the sentence for meaning. The following list provides some examples of subordinating conjunctions

- after
- As
- Before
- if
- though
- while
- unless
- although
- because
- even though
- since
- when
- until
- whereas
-

Independent and Dependent Clauses

Independent clause: When I go to the movies, **I usually buy popcorn.**

Dependent clause: **When I go to the movies,** I usually buy popcorn.

Independent clause: **I don't like the ocean** because sharks scare me.

Dependent clause: I don't like the ocean **because sharks scare me.**

1.5. STRUCTURE OF SENTENCES

According to their grammatical structure, there are three types of sentences

1. Simple sentences
2. Compound sentences
3. Complex sentences

1.5.1 SIMPLE SENTENCES

A simple sentence consists of only one main clause and no subordinate clause. It contains one subject and one verb in the predicate part.

Some examples are:

- i) All the boys and girls have passed.
- ii) The news made him sad.

- iii) Walking is a good exercise.
- iv) What a beautiful view!
- v) Where can I find him?
- vi) He was too tired to walk.

1.5.2. COMPOUND SENTENCES

A compound sentence has more than one main clause joined together by coordinating conjunctions (joining words) such as and, but, yet, still, or neither... nor, not only.... But also, etc.

Example,

- a) Mohan worked hard and passed in the first division.

In this sentence, there are two clauses

1. Mohan worked hard.
2. He passed in the first division.

Here both the clauses are main clauses and they can be linked by **‘and’**.

- b) In a compound sentence there can also be more than two independent clauses.
- c) You should give up smoking or you will get cancer of the mouth and lung. (**‘or’** is the coordinator)
- d) Let’s take a taxi, otherwise we will miss the train. (**‘otherwise’** is the coordinator)

- e) He neither works himself, nor lets others work. (here ‘**neither...nor**’ is the coordinator)

1.5.3. COMPLEX SENTENCES

A complex sentence has one main or independent clause and one or more subordinate or dependent clauses but these subordinate clauses cannot stand independently of the main clause.

Example,

I have finished reading the book that you gave me.

Here, ‘I have finished reading the book’ is the main clause and ‘that you gave me’ is the dependent clause. The second clause cannot stand independently of the main clause.

1.5.3.1. Subordinate clauses

There are three kinds of clauses:

- 1) Noun Clauses
- 2) Adjective Clauses
- 3) Adverbial Clauses

Examples:

- a) This is the house where I was born.

Here the clause ‘where I was born’ tells us about a particular house. It does the work of an adjective and is, therefore, an adjective clause; adjectival clauses are also called relative clauses.

- b) What she says is quite true.

Here what she says does the work of a noun and is therefore a Noun clause.

- c) He went home when school was over.

In this sentence, the clause ‘when the school was over’ does the work of an adverb and is, therefore, an adverbial clause.

1.5.3.1.1 THE NOUN CLAUSE

Below are some sentences. The italicised clauses in these sentences are Noun Clauses i.e., they take the place of nouns.

1. He told me *that he would come to see me*. Here the noun clause is introduced by ‘that’ and functions as the object of the verb ‘told’
2. *That she is the most brilliant girl of our class* will be admitted by everyone. Here the noun clause functions as the subject of the verb ‘will be admitted’.
3. My belief is *that he is innocent*. (functions as the complement of the verb ‘is’)
4. I am glad to hear *that you have passed*. (object to an infinitive)
5. *Hoping that he would succeed*, he made another attempt. (object to a participle)
6. My success depends on *how you help me*. (object to a preposition)
7. I was not sure *whose mistake it was*. (adjectival complement)

8. If/ whether clauses as Noun clauses.

I asked her *if/ whether she can speak Russian*.

Whether he comes or not doesn't concern me.

1.5.3.1.2 ADJECTIVAL CLAUSES

Adjectival Clauses, also called Relative Clauses, qualify or define the nouns or noun phrases before them. They answer the question: 'Which person or thing?' They are introduced by relative pronouns such as *that*, *which*, *who*, etc. **who** is used to refer to persons, **which** to things, small animals, etc., and **that** to both persons and things.

When the adjectival clause defines a place, time, or reason, we use *where*, *when* and *why* in place of the relative person. These words are called "relative adverbs".

Example:

The house, *which is for sale*, is at the end of the street.

We asked the doctor the reason *why the patient was not recovering*.

That is the man *who quarrelled with me in the train*.

DEFINING AND NON-DEFINING RELATIVE CLAUSES

A defining relative clause is one which is essential to the clear understanding of the noun preceding it.

In the sentence ‘The man who gave me this information refused to give me his name’, ‘who gave me this information’ is the defining relative clause. If we omit this, it is not clear what man we are talking about. Notice that there is no comma between the noun ‘man’ and the defining relative clause following it.

The noise that they made woke up everybody.

The girls who work in the restaurant are the owner’s daughters.

A non-defining relative clause is placed after a noun which is already definite. It does not, therefore, define the noun, but merely adds something to it by giving some more information about it. It is separated from its noun by a comma. This construction is more common in written than spoken English.

Clara’s father, *who lives in Bombay*, is seriously ill.

1.5.3.1.3. ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

Adverbial Clauses are of many kinds. They modify the verbs to which they are connected in meaning.

1. Adverbial Clauses of Time

It denotes or specifies the time when the time expressed by the main clause takes place.

Examples,

Whenever we have a puncture, she just sits in the car while I change the wheel.

It is now ten years *since he gave up drinking*.

The train had left *before we reached the station.*

Wait here *till I come back.*

As soon as we left the house, it began to rain.

Note the conjunctions that introduce the adverbial clauses of time: when, whenever, since, after, before, as long as, till etc. The adverbial clause of time can come either at the beginning of the sentence or in its predicate part.

2. Adverbial Clauses of Place

This clause is introduced by subordinate conjunctions—where, whatever, etc.

Examples,

Keep these papers *where you can find them easily.*

He makes friends *wherever he goes.*

Wherever you go, I will go with you.

3. Adverbial Clauses of Purpose

The clause expresses a purpose and so they are called adverbial clauses of purpose.

Note: we can use ‘in order that’ or simply ‘that’ in place of ‘so that’.

Examples,

We do exercise *so that we may keep fit.*

I am insuring my life *so that my children should have something to live on if I am killed.*

I worked hard *that/ so that/ in order that I might get good marks.*

4. Adverbial Clauses of Reason or Cause

Some examples,

As we had not any money, we could not buy anything to eat.

As it was raining, he wore a raincoat.

As / since he is honest and hardworking, he will easily get the job.

5. Adverbial Clauses of Result or Effect

Some examples,

He worked *so hard that* he fell ill.

He was so tired *that he* could not walk further.

The box was *so heavy that* I could not carry it.

His speech went on for *so long that* people began to fall asleep.

Or

He spoke for *such a long time that* people began to fall asleep.

Note the difference between the two constructions, ‘**such + a + adjective + noun**’ and ‘**so + adjective + a+ noun**’

6. Adverbial Clauses of Comparison

For example,

She is more intelligent than her brother.

I like you not less than him.

He is as tall as you are.

She looks younger than she actually is.

He is not as stupid as he looks.

Note:

- a) 'so...as' cannot be used in affirmative sentences. It is used only in negative sentences.
- b) 'as...as' can be used in both affirmative and negative sentences.
- c) When pronouns are used without verbs, an accusative form is used. But it is better to use normative pronouns with verbs.
- d) 'like' can be followed by noun/ pronoun or gerund. It should not be followed by subject + verb.

E.g.: Sitting here is like sitting in hell.

7. Adverbial Clauses of Manner or Extent

Examples,

You may do as you please.

As you sow, so shall you reap.

It looks as if it might rain.

He speaks as if he knew everything.

8. Adverbial Clauses of Condition

The three kinds of conditional sentences should be distinguished: conditional sentences have two parts, the if-clause and the main clause.

Type I. Probable Condition

The verb in the if-clause is in the present tense; the verb in the main clause is in the future tense:

Examples,

If you work hard, you will pass.

If you take a taxi, you will reach the station on time.

If the weather is fine, we shall go for a picnic.

The adverb clauses in these sentences express conditions that may or can be fulfilled.

The adverb clause can also express a negative condition.

If you don't take a taxi, you will not reach the station in time.

If the weather is fine, we shall go for a picnic.

The adverb clauses in these sentences express conditions that may or can be fulfilled.

Negative conditions can also be expressed with the conjunction ‘unless’.

Unless you work hard, you will not pass.

Unless you reach the venue on time, you will miss the premiere.

Type II. Improbable Condition

The verb in the if-clause is in the past tense; the verb in the main clause is in the conditional tense (would, should etc).

If he asked me, I would help him (but I don’t suppose he will ask me).

This type is used when we don’t expect the action in the if-clause to take place. This is also used in imaginary suppositions.

If a bear embraced you, you would be crushed to death.

If he ran all the way, he would get to the station on time (but I don’t suppose he will run all the way).

Type III. Impossible Condition

If I had known of your arrival, I would have come to the station to receive you (but I did not know so I didn’t come to the station).

If he had not wasted his time, he would not have failed (but he wasted his time and so he failed).

These sentences express an unfulfilled condition relating to the past. The verb in the if-clause is in the **Past perfect tense** and the verb in the main clause is in the **Perfect Conditional** (could have, would have, might have, should have).

Some examples,

If the printing press had not been invented, there would not have been much progress in knowledge.

Had I been rich, I would have helped you.

9. Adverbial Clauses of Concession or Contrast

These are introduced by though, although, even if, however, whatever, no matter etc.

Examples,

Though he is rich, he is not happy.

All opposed him; he, however, stuck to his point.

Even if it drizzles, we shall go out for jogging and our morning exercises.

No matter how heavy the box is, I shall carry it.

I have read this passage several times, yet I haven't been able to understand it.

Note:

- a) 'Even though' is the stronger form of 'although'
- b) But is not used after 'although', 'though' or 'even though'
- c) Although/ though as a subordinate conjunction is the equivalent of but / still/ that as a coordinating conjunction.

d) 'However' is followed by an adjective/ adverb.

1.6. AFFIRMATIVE AND NEGATIVE SENTENCES

1.6.1. Affirmative sentence:

An **affirmative sentence** is a sentence that affirms (rather than negates) a proposition.

E.g. He is honest.

1.6.2. Negative Sentence:

A **negative sentence** states something is not true or incorrect or presents some fact by using a negative word (e.g. no, not). A negative sentence can be formed when words like “**no**”, “**not**”, “**don't**” or “**doesn't**” are added to the sentence.

E.g. Dogs do not chase after rats.

1.6.3. Interchange of affirmative and negative sentences:

(i) By way of using negative words with opposite adjectives, an affirmative sentence could be transformed into a negative sentence.

Affirmative: Man is mortal.

Negative: Man is not immortal.

Affirmative: He is honest.

Negative: He is not dishonest.

Affirmative: Brutus loved Caesar.

Negative: Brutus did not hate Caesar.

Affirmative: Where there is fire, there is smoke.

Negative: There is no smoke without fire.

Affirmative: Everyone distrusts a liar.

Negative: No one trusts a liar.

(ii) By the way of changing degrees of comparison:

Affirmative: He is as good as I am.

Negative: I am not better than he is.

Affirmative: He is the best student.

Negative: No other student is as good as he.

Affirmative: As soon as the teacher arrived, the noise ceased.

Negative: No sooner did the teacher arrive than the noise ceased.

(iii) There are also other ways to change an affirmative sentence to a negative sentence:

Affirmative: Only the brave deserves the fair.

Negative: None but the brave deserves the fair.

Affirmative: He is too weak to walk.

Negative: He is so weak that he cannot walk.

DEGREE OF COMPARISON

Adjectives change in form to show comparison. They are called the three Degrees of Comparison.

Examples, *Sweet- Sweeter- Sweetest*

The adjective *sweet* is said to be in the **Positive Degree**.

The adjective *sweeter* is said to be in the **Comparative Degree**.

The adjective *sweetest* is said to be in the **Superlative Degree**.

The Positive Degree of an Adjective is the Adjective in its simple form. it is used to denote the mere existence of some quality of what we speak about. It is used when no comparison is made.

The Comparative Degree of an Adjective denotes a higher degree of the quality than the positive, and is used when two things (or sets of things) are compared.

For example:

This boy is *stronger* than that.

Apples are *dearer* than oranges.

The Superlative Degree of an Adjective denotes the highest degree of the quality, and is used when more than two things (or sets of things) are compared.

This boy is *the strongest* in the class.

Note1: There is another way in which we can compare things. Instead of saying ‘Tom is stronger than Jerry’, we can say ‘Jerry

is less strong than Tom'. Instead of saying 'Stephen is the laziest boy in the class', we can say 'Stephen is the *least industrious* boy in the class'.

Note 2: The Superlative with most is sometimes used where there is no idea of comparison, but merely a desire to indicate the possession of a quality in a very high degree; as in

This is *most* unfortunate.

Truly a *most* ingenious device!

This usage has been called **the Superlative of Eminence or the Absolute Superlative**.

FORMATION OF COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE

Most Adjectives of *one* syllable, and some of more than one, form the Comparative by adding *er* and the Superlative by adding *est* to the Positive.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Sweet	sweeter	sweetest
Small	smaller	smallest
Tall	taller	tallest
Bold	bolder	boldest
Clever	cleverer	cleverest
Kind	kinder	kindest
Young	younger	youngest
Great	greater	greatest

When the Positive ends in *e*, only *r* and *st* are added.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Brave	braver	bravest
Fine	finer	finest

Large	larger	largest
Able	abler	ablest
Noble	nobler	noblest
Wise	wiser	wisest
White	whiter	whitest

When the Positive ends in *y*, preceded by a consonant, the *y* is changed into 'i' before adding *er* and *est*.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Happy	happier	happiest
Easy	easier	easiest
Heavy	heavier	heaviest
Merry	merrier	merriest
Wealthy	wealthier	wealthiest

When the Positive is a word of one syllable and ends in a *single* consonant, preceded by a *short vowel*, this consonant is doubled before adding *er* and *est*.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Red	redder	reddest
Big	bigger	biggest
Hot	hotter	hottest
Thin	thinner	thinnest
Sad	sadder	saddest
Fat	fatter	fattest

Adjectives of more than *two* syllables form the Comparative and Superlative by putting *more* and *most* before the Positive.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
Difficult	more difficult	most difficult
Industrious	more industrious	most industrious
Courageous	more courageous	most courageous

Two-syllable adjectives ending in *ful* (e.g. useful), *less* (e.g. hopeless), *ing* (e.g. boring) and *ed* (e.g. surprised) and many others (e.g. modern, recent, foolish, famous, certain) take *more* and *most*.

The following take either *er* and *est* or *more* and *most*:

Polite, simple, feeble, gentle, narrow, cruel, common, handsome, pleasant, stupid etc.

Example:

She is *polite/ more polite* than her sister.

He is the *politest/ most polite* of them.

The Comparative in *er* is not used when we compare two qualities in the same person or thing. If we wish to say that the courage of Rama is greater than the courage of Balu, we say,

Rama is *braver* than Balu.

But if we wish to say that the courage of Rama is greater than his prudence, we must say,

Rama is *more brave* than prudent.

When two objects are compared with each other, the latter term of comparison must exclude the former; as'

Iron is more useful than *any other* metal.

If we say,

Iron is more useful than any metal,

That is the same thing as saying ‘Iron is more useful than iron’ since iron is itself a metal.

IRREGULAR COMPARISON

The following Adjectives are compared irregularly, that is, their Comparative and Superlative are not formed from the Positive:

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Good, well	better	best
Bad, evil, ill	worse	worst
Little	less, lesser	least
Much	more	most (quantity)
Late	later, latter	latest, last
Old	older, elder	oldest, eldest
Far	farther	farthest
(Fore)	(former)	foremost, first
(Fore)	further	furthest
(In)	inner	inmost, innermost
(up)	upper	upmost, uppermost
(Out)	outer, (utter)	utmost, uttermost

Note: The forms *nigh*, *nigher*, *nighest*, *fore* and *utter* are outdated.

The double forms of the Comparative and Superlative of the Adjectives:

Later, latter; latest, last- *Later* and *latest* refer to time; *latter* and *last* refer to position.

Examples:

He is later than I expected.

The last chapter is carelessly written.

Ours is the last house in the street.

The latter chapters are lacking in interest.

Elder, older; eldest, oldest – elder and eldest are used only of persons, not of animals or things; and are now confined to members of the same family. Elder is not used with *than* following. Older and oldest are used of both persons and things.

Farther, further- both farther and further are used to express distance. Further is used to mean “additional”.

Examples:

After this he made no *further* remarks.

The raft carried the family *farther* north than they had planned.

Nearest, next- Nearest means the shortest distance away. Next refers to one of a sequence of things coming one after the other.

Examples:

Mumbai is the seaport *nearest* to Europe.

My uncle lives in the *next* house.

Certain English Comparatives have lost their comparative meaning and are used as Positive. They cannot be followed by *than*. These are:

Former, latter, elder, upper, inner, outer, utter.

Examples:

Both the tiger and the leopard are cats; the former animal is much larger than the latter.

The inner meaning of this letter is not clear.

The soldiers ran to defend the outer wall.

My elder brother is an engineer.

This man is an utter fool.

Certain Comparatives borrowed from Latin have no Positive or Superlative degree. They all end in *or*, not *er*. They are twelve in all. Five of them have lost their Comparative meaning and are used as Positive Adjectives. These are:

Interior, exterior, ulterior, major, minor.

Examples:

The exterior wall of the house is made of stone.

His age is a matter of minor importance.

I have no ulterior motive in offering you help.

The other seven are used as Comparative Adjectives followed by *to* instead of *than*. Comparative Adjectives ending in *-or* are followed by the preposition *to*; as

Inferior, superior, prior, anterior, posterior, senior, junior

Examples:

Hari is *inferior* to Ram in intelligence.

Rama's intelligence is *superior* to Hari's.

He is *junior* to all his colleagues.

All his colleagues are *senior* to him.

Adjectives expressing qualities that do not admit of different degrees cannot, strictly speaking, be compared; as,

Square, round, perfect, eternal, universal, unique.

Strictly speaking, a thing cannot be more square, more round, more perfect. But we say, for instance,

This is the *most perfect* specimen I have seen.

INTERCHANGE OF THE DEGREE OF COMPARISON

It is possible to change the Degree of Comparison of an Adjective in a sentence, without changing the meaning of the sentence:

Examples:

Positive: Some poets are at least as great as Tennyson.

Comparative: Tennyson is not greater than some other poets.

Superlative: Tennyson is not the greatest of all poets.

Superlative: Chennai is one of the biggest of Indian cities.

Comparative: Chennai is bigger than most other Indian cities.

Positive: Very few Indian cities are as big as Chennai.

1.7. CONNECTIVES/ CONJUNCTIONS

According to the **Common Core State Standards (CCSS)**, students are to use language comprehensively and be able to develop different methods of linking paragraphs in oral and written language. Hence, it is important that students learn appropriate use of connectives and conjunctions as both have similar grammar functions. A connective is used as connecting words within a sentence whereas, conjunction usually connects two sentences. Connectives are commonly used to indicate different purposes, such as addition, sequence, consequence and/or contrast. They are also used to indicate reason and time.

1.7.1. Use of Connectives

Connectives can be one word or a phrase. The purpose of the words or ideas to be connected will determine the type of connective used. Connectives can be also used as starters of a paragraph or clause, whereas conjunctions generally cannot.

1.7.2. Basic Rules for Using Connectives

The different types of connectives are not interchangeable. The sentences/ideas being connected must be related. Connectives are usually used only once in a sentence.

Connectives Used for Different Purposes

Adding	Cause and Effect	Sequencing	Contrasting
and, also, as well as, moreover,	because, so, therefore, thus,	next, then, first,	whereas, instead

furthermore, besides, in addition, etc.	consequently, as a result of, etc.	second, finally, meanwhile, after, etc.	of, alternatively, otherwise, unlike, on the other hand, in contrast, etc.
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Qualifying	Emphasizing	Illustrating	Comparing
however, although, unless, except, if, as long as, apart from, yet, despite, etc.	above all, in particular, especially, significantly, indeed, notably, most of all	for example, such as, for instance, as revealed by, in the case of, as shown by, etc.	equally, in the same way, like, similarly, likewise, as with, as compared with, etc.

Examples,

1. The teacher liked my grades, **in particular** my 100% grade for writing. (emphasizing)
2. I can go out with friends, **as long as** I am home by 9:00 p.m. (qualifying)

3. The film is long and boring, **whereas** the book is thrilling and well written. (contrasting)
4. Class debates are interesting, **for example** the one about the Civil War. (illustrating)
5. Today, we completed the chapter on cells; **therefore**, we will have a quiz on this topic tomorrow.

Exercise

Fill in the blanks with appropriate connectives:

1. I put a note beside his cereal bowl; _____, he would not notice it.
2. She married him _____ he was extremely rich.
3. You should study more, _____ you might fail your exams.
4. Sarah was not smiling. _____, Sarah was already lonely.
5. I will go for a walk if the weather is nice; _____, you can ride your bike.

(since, because, furthermore, otherwise, likewise)

Connectives such as **and, but, after, because, though, as, wherein, whereupon, for, unless, lest, while, whereas** etc. are also called conjunctions. Some of these connectives are known as coordinating conjunctions and some others are called subordinating conjunctions.

Examples,

He was not well and he could not come to the meeting.

Unless you solve sums, you cannot feel confident in Mathematics.

A main/ principal/ independent clause can independently convey the meaning, while a dependent/ subordinating clause has to depend on the clause for its meaning.

Main coordinating conjunctions: And, but, or, also, either... or, neither...nor, etc.

Main subordinating conjunctions: Though, although, as, when, unless, while, because etc.

1.8. COLLOCATIONS

A collocation is a pair or group of words that are often used together. These combinations sound natural to native speakers, but students of English have to make a special effort to learn them because they are often difficult to guess. Some combinations just sound ‘wrong’ to native speakers of English. For example, the adjective *fast* collocates with *cars*, but not with *a glance*.

Learning collocations is an important part of learning the vocabulary of a language. Some collocations are fixed, or very strong, for example **take a photo**, where no word other than *take* collocates with *photo* to give the same meaning.

Some collocations are more open, where several different words may be used to give a similar meaning, for example, **keep to / stick to the rules**.

Here are some more examples of collocations:

You must **make an effort** and study for your exams (NOT do an effort)

Did you **watch TV** last night? (NOT look at TV)

This car has a very **powerful engine**. It can do 200 km an hour. (NOT strong engine)

There are some **ancient monuments** nearby. (NOT antique monuments)

Sometimes, a pair of words may not be absolutely wrong, and people will understand what is meant, but it may not be the natural, normal collocation. If someone says *I did a few mistakes*, they will be understood, but a fluent speaker of English would probably say **I made a few mistakes**.

1.8.1. Compounds and Idioms

Compounds are units of meaning formed with two or more words. Sometimes the words are written separately, sometimes they have a hyphen and sometimes they are written as one word. Usually, the meaning of the compound can be guessed by knowing the meaning of the individual words. Some examples of compounds are **car park, post office, narrow-minded, shoelaces, teapot**.

It is not always easy to separate collocations and compounds and, where they are useful for learners or an important part of the vocabulary of a topic, we include some compounds in this book too.

Idioms are groups of words in a fixed order that have a meaning that cannot be guessed by knowing the meaning of the individual words. For example, **pass the buck** is an idiom meaning ‘to pass

responsibility for a problem to another person to avoid dealing with it oneself’.

1.8.2. Importance of Collocation

Learning collocations is a good idea because they can:

a) give you the most natural way to say something: *smoking is strictly forbidden* is more natural than *smoking is strongly forbidden*.

b) give you alternative ways of saying something, which may be more colourful/expressive or more precise: instead of repeating *It was very cold and very dark*, we can say *It was bitterly cold and pitch dark*.

c) improve your style in writing: instead of saying *poverty causes crime*, you can say *poverty breeds crime*; instead of saying *a big meal* you can say *a substantial meal*. You may not need or want to use these in informal conversations, but in writing they can give your text more variety and make it read better: this book includes notes about formality wherever the collocations are especially formal or informal.

1.8.3. Types of collocation

There are many different types of collocation.

Here are some examples.

1.8.3.1. Adjectives and nouns

Notice adjectives that are typically used with particular nouns.

Emma always wears red or yellow or some other **bright colour**.

We had a **brief chat** about the exams but didn't have time to discuss them properly.

Unemployment is a **major problem** for the government at the moment.

Improving the health service is another **key issue** for the government.

1.8.3.2. Nouns and verbs

Notice how nouns and verbs often go together.

The examples below are all to do with economics and business:

The **economy boomed** in the 1990s. [the economy was very strong]

The company has **grown** and now employs 50 more people than last year.

The company has **expanded** and now has branches in most major cities.

The two **companies merged** in 2013 and now form one very large corporation.

The company **launched the product** in 2012. [introduced the product]

The price increase **poses a problem** for us. [is a problem]

The internet has **created opportunities** for our business. [brought new opportunities]

1.8.3.3. Noun + noun

There are a lot of collocations with the pattern *a ... of ...*.

As Max read the lies about him, he felt **a surge of anger**. [literary: a sudden angry feeling]

Every parent feels **a sense of pride** when their child does well or wins something.

I felt **a pang of nostalgia** when I saw the old photos of the village where I grew up.

1.8.3.4. Verbs and expressions with prepositions

Some verbs collocate with prepositional expressions.

As Jack went on stage to receive his gold medal for the judo competition you could see his parents **swelling with pride**. [looking extremely proud]

I was **filled with horror** when I read the newspaper report of the explosion.

When she spilt juice on her new skirt the little girl **burst into tears**. [suddenly started crying]

1.8.3.5. Verbs and adverbs

Some verbs have particular adverbs which regularly collocate with them.

She **pulled steadily** on the rope and helped him to safety. [pulled firmly and evenly]

He **placed** the beautiful vase **gently** on the window ledge.

‘I love you and want to marry you,’ Dylan **whispered softly** to Madison.

She **smiled proudly** as she looked at the photos of her new grandson.

1.8.3.6. Adverbs and adjectives

Adjectives often have particular adverbs which regularly collocate with them.

They are **happily married**.

I am **fully aware** that there are serious problems. [I know well]

Harry was **blissfully unaware** that he was in danger. [Harry had no idea at all, often used about something unpleasant]

Collocation	Example
pay a compliment	I was trying to pay her a compliment but she misunderstood.
pay your (last) respects	At a funeral people pay their last respects to the person who has died.
pay tribute [formal]	When Jack retired, his boss made a speech paying tribute to all he had done for the company.
pay attention	You must pay attention to the teacher.

have a break	Let's have a break when you finish this exercise.
have a conversation/chat	I hope we'll have time to have a chat after the meeting.
have difficulty	The class had difficulty understanding what to do.
have a dream/nightmare	I had a nightmare last night.
have an experience	I had a frightening experience the other day.
do your best	All that matters in the exam is to do your best .
do someone a good turn / do someone a favour	Jess did me a good turn by lending me her car while mine was in the garage. Could you do me a favour and pick me up some milk from the supermarket?
do harm	Changing the rules may do more harm than good.
do your hair	No, I'm not ready. I haven't done my hair yet.
make arrangements for	The school can make arrangements for pupils with special needs.
make a decision	I'm glad it's you who has to make the decision , not me.

make an effort	Michael is really making an effort with his maths this term.
make an excuse	I'm too tired to go out tonight. Let's make an excuse and stay at home.
make friends	Caroline is very good at making friends .
make a phone call	I've got to make some phone calls before dinner.
strongly deny	The PM strongly denied claims of corruption made against him.
reject an idea / a suggestion	Ann rejected all Joe's suggestions about how to decorate their flat.
to walk briskly/swiftly	The nurse walked briskly over to the bed.

1.8.3.7. Common mistakes

Note these collocations:

deny/reject a claim, deny a rumour / an allegation / an accusation but **reject an idea / a suggestion** and **refuse an invitation/offer**. You **deny/ reject/refuse something**. You **deny that something** is true. You can also **refuse to do something** (in the future) but **deny doing something** (in the past).

1.8.3.8. Common expressions for everyday events

The book **caused an uproar** in the United States. [made a lot of people complain angrily]

If you make her angry, you'll have to **suffer the consequences**.

The accident **had a huge effect** on her life.

Latino singers have **had a major impact** on pop music this year.

Remember that it **makes/creates a bad impression** if you're late.

The drug companies **have a lot of influence** on doctors.

Their love affair **caused a sensation**.

It's two o'clock. Let's **make a start / get started**, shall we? Then we can finish by five.

As my time at university **came to an end**, I knew I had to start looking for a job.

1.9. PUNCTUATION MARKS

Punctuation marks are visual indicators used in a written or printed text to separate sentences or a part of a sentence from another. We use punctuation to make the meaning of words and sentences clear. The most important punctuation marks are

1. Full stop / Period (.)
2. Comma (,)
3. Dash (__)
4. Hyphen (-)
5. Semicolon (;)
6. Double inverted commas (“”)
7. Single inverted commas (‘’)

8. Colon (:)
9. Apostrophe (')
10. Parenthesis ()
11. Sign of interrogation / Question mark (?)
12. Exclamation mark (!)
13. Capital letters

Let us discuss these punctuation marks in detail

1.9.1. Full stop/ period (.)

- It is used to mark the end of an affirmative, negative, or imperative sentence.

For example:

Marie Curie was a great scientist.

Listen to me.

She did not know the way to the market.

- It is also used in abbreviations, such as the following:

He is an M.B.B.S. doctor.

Our teacher is pursuing his Ph.D.

- Do not use periods with acronyms. Acronyms are abbreviations formed from the first letters of a name or title. Acronyms are usually pronounced as words.

Example:

NASA stands for National Aeronautical Space Administration.

- Many organizations whose shortened names are not pronounced as words, but as individual letters do not use periods after the letters in the shortened names.

Example:

You need to file your tax return with the **IRS** no later than April 15.

- Periods are used in Internet addresses. If an Internet address is at the end of a sentence, use a period at the end. The reader should know not to include that period when using the address online.

Example:

My favourite source for news is www.cnn.com.

- It was customary to write Mr. and Mrs. in English, that is, with a full stop at the end of these words. In present usage, we write these abbreviations as Mr and Mrs, that is, without a full stop since they are now seen as full spellings. With *Miss*, do not use a period.

Example:

Miss Linda is a music teacher.

1.9.2. Comma

A comma (,) suggests a pause in writing. Some of the uses are:

- It indicates omission of a word, especially a verb.

Examples:

Her mother was English, her father, an American.

- It separates the coordinate clause(s) in a compound sentence.

Examples:

I came, I saw, I conquered.

Father is in the office; mother is in the kitchen.

- It separates the subject and the long preceding phrase that characterizes it.

Examples:

Harassed and distraught right from the early days of her marriage, she decided to embark on a journey of her own.

- It separates the same parts of speech used in the same sentence.

Examples:

He was tall, slim, and handsome.

Books, chairs, tables, desks, and settees could be seen in the lawn.

- It separates the parenthetical ideas from the core ideas in a sentence.

Examples:

Your suggestion, however, is quite tempting.

No such efforts, therefore, are going to yield fruit.

- It marks a non-defining clause. It is used to contribute to the original idea in a parenthetical way and can be omitted without doing any harm to the core meaning of the sentence.

Examples:

My friend, who is a journalist, doesn't think so.

The poet, the one who always defied the system, decided not to comply with the king's orders.

- It is used to separate two or more nouns in apposition.

Examples:

Shakespeare, the greatest dramatist of all times, was born in 1564.

Sam, my uncle, is returning from England.

- It is used to address people.

Examples:

Sir, I am indebted to you.

How are you, my dear?

- It marks off direct quotations from the rest of the sentence.

Examples:

Mother said to her children, 'Have your food'.

"Come in and tell what happened", the fat man said.

- It is used to separate an adverbial clause from the main clause.

Examples:

If you do not work hard, you cannot succeed.

When we came back, we found the doors open.

- It is used before and after words, phrases, or clauses that are introduced to the main thought in a parenthetical way.

Examples:

This, in no way, is my problem.

Your story, in all probability, is a fairy tale.

1.9.3. Dash (_)

A dash (_) indicated by a long horizontal line is often used in place of a colon or parenthesis. Some of the uses are:

- It is used to emphasize the idea anticipated in the sentence.

Examples:

Finally, we got what we had all along desired – our first television set at home.

He is what you expect him to be – the greatest fool on earth!

- At times, much like a comma, a dash is used to separate an expression from the rest of the sentence.

Examples:

He is – after all – his mother's son.

In the end – to be precise – I would say that all that shines is not gold.

- It is also used after the colon to indicate something that follows.

Examples:

These are some of the views –

He says – *frailty thy name is woman!*

- It is used to indicate an abrupt change of idea.

Example:

Had he not boarded the plane – but what is the use of thinking like that?

Once you reach here – but wait, you are coming, aren't you?

1.9.4. Hyphen (-)

It is a shorter line than a dash. The following are some of the uses:

- It is used to join two or more words in a compound word.

Examples:

She was truly happy for her daughter-in-law.

The ex-director of the company is paying a visit this afternoon.

The commander-in-chief refused to sanction any leave to the sergeant.

1.9.5. Semicolon (;)

It stands for a longer pause than a comma. Following are the uses:

- It is used to separate clauses.

Examples:

Reading maketh a full man; conference a ready man; and writing an exact man.

Man proposes; God disposes.

- It is used to express different ideas without writing a new sentence.

Examples:

In the morning, he fought with his wife; in the afternoon, he reconciled with her.

One man kept her in good humour; the other kept her in the need of the first.

1.9.6. Colon (:)

It is used to list examples and enumeration.

Examples:

Following are the examples of parts of speech: noun, pronoun, adjective, adverb, etc.

These are the points to be kept in mind:

1.9.7. Single inverted commas (‘’)

These are used to cite a quotation within another quotation.

Example:

“There is no point in keeping a pulled face”, said he, “even if you are perturbed by the ‘to be or not to be’ conundrum.”

“What sort of movie was that – so loud and so pompous?” felt she, “they seem to have forgotten that ‘art lies in concealing art’.”

1.9.8. Double inverted commas (“”)

These are used to quote exact words of the person being quoted.

Examples:

He said, “You are my friend.”

Eliot begins by saying, “April is the cruellest month.”

1.9.9. Apostrophe (’)

- It is used to indicate the possessive case of a noun. If the noun is singular, the apostrophe is followed by an **s**; if the noun is plural, the **s** is followed by the apostrophe, except when the plural does not end in **s**, as in the case of a few irregular nouns, e.g., children’s:

Example:

The children’s books are lying there.

The girl’s purse was lost. (The purse of a girl)

The girls' purses were stolen. (Purses of many girls)

- It is also used to show words in a contracted form.

Example:

Let's go and watch some play. (let's stands for let us)

You're just a complete fool. (you're stands for you are)

- It is sometimes also used to show the letters and figures in the plural form to avoid confusion.

Example:

In 1970's was seen the first wave of Parallel Hindi Cinema.

Articulate your s's and sh's properly.

1.9.10. Parentheses ()

Used by writers to indicate an afterthought by introducing some words, phrase, or a clause:

Examples:

The great man (this is how he is seen to be in the area) is reported to have killed his wife.

The development (so it seems) was achieved by turning the poor out of their huts.

1.9.11. Sign of Interrogation/ Question Mark

It is used after a direct question or a tag question that is appended to a statement.

Example:

Do you understand what I say?

You are stupid, aren't you?

Remember that a question mark is not used after an indirect question.

Example:

I am not sure what to do in life.

They asked their children whether they are doing good parenting.

1.9.12. Exclamation Mark

It is used in phrases and sentences that express sudden, strong emotion or a wish:

Example:

May you live long!

What a terrible sight!

O Hamlet, speak no more!

1.9.13. Capital letters

Capital letters are used for various purposes. To begin with, we start a sentence with a capital letter:

Examples:

We can't do anything about it.

No problem.

Has he come?

- They are used to begin a sentence inside inverted commas.

Examples:

It is said, “To err is human.”

- They normally begin a proper noun and the adjectives we form from it.

Pinter is known for his theatre language popularly known as Pinteresque idiom.

- They are used to refer to a person’s title or degree.

Examples:

Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru was the first prime minister of India.

Sir V.S. Naipaul is visiting India next year.

- They are used to refer to the names of festivals.

Examples:

Christmas falls on 25th December.

Diwali is the single most important festival in our family.

- They are used to refer to the names of days, weeks, months, and events.

Examples:

On Sundays, we generally get up quite late.

North India is quite cold in January.

- They are used to mark the important words in a title.

Example:

‘Ode on a Grecian Urn’ is a great poem by John Keats.

- They are chosen to refer to the word God and the pronouns replacing it.

Example:

God is great.

No one knows His ways.

- They are used in words of exclamations

Examples:

Oh! You are back.

This is the solution, Eh!

- The personal pronoun *I* is always capitalized.

Examples:

I can't see you.

‘It is doubtful, I said to her.

Exercise:

I. Identify the sentence patterns in the following sentences:

1. Birds fly.
2. Jane reads her sister a story.
3. Ashly learned to ride a bike.

II. Identify the types of sentences:

1. Are you going abroad?
2. Bring me that file.
3. What a time we've had!
4. Meera is a successful writer.

III. Transform the following sentences as instructed:

1. She returned home at midnight. (Change to Complex)
2. He is so sick that he cannot speak. (Change to Simple)
3. Despite trying hard, he failed to reach the target. (Change to Compound)

IV. Change the following into negative:

1. Rani is honest.
2. Everybody was present for the meeting.
3. A giraffe is taller than an elephant.

V. Choose the correct linking word / phrases from the brackets:

(because of, despite, nevertheless, still, even though, while, whereas, though, however, in spite of, yet, on the other hand)

1. _____ it was summer and the nights were quite chilly.
2. He is good at languages, _____ his brother is an athlete.
3. I like hamburgers, I don't like pizza _____.
4. My car is _____ in very good condition. It's 12 years old.
5. Jimmy can't read very well. _____ he is a skilful worker.

VI. Choose the right word to form proper collocations:

(give, keep, pay, make, hold, do, take, write, have, create, cause, bring, get, become, waiting, expecting)

1. The webinar was almost four hours so it was impossible to _____ attention all the time.
2. The teacher could not _____ students' fight under control.
3. Could you _____ me a favour by posting these letters on your way home?
4. Rani will quit her present job as she's _____ a baby.
5. I don't think we should _____ a decision yet; we should wait.

V. Rewrite the sentence using proper punctuations:

sammy and ralph were snowmen sammy was ralphs cousin
sammy was a very proper little snowman and ralph was a rebel
ralph always wanted to do things differently while sammy always
wanted to do what he was supposed to do because ralph wanted
to be different

MODULE II:

BASIC FUNCTIONAL ASPECTS OF GRAMMAR

2.1. TENSES

The word ‘tense’ literally means ‘time’. The word ‘tense’ refers to the form which a verb takes and shows the time (past, present or future) in which the action has been performed or is being performed.

2.1.1. PRESENT TENSE

2.1.1.1 SIMPLE PRESENT (OR PRESENT INDEFINITE) TENSE

Form:

Subject + auxiliary verb (**do**) + main verb (**base**)

- a) To express a habitual or repeated action

Examples:

I go to college at 9 a.m. everyday.

He goes for a morning walk daily.

He always tells lies.

- b) To express universal, permanent and verifiable truths

Examples:

The earth moves round the sun.

The rose smells sweet.

Water boils at 100^o C.

- c) To state things of general nature.

Examples:

She sings well.

Man does not live by bread alone.

- d) It is used with the verbs of going (go, leave, set off, take off, sail, fly etc) and coming (come, arrive, return etc) provided futurity is implicit in the context.

Examples:

He goes to London next week. (will go)

Our ship sails next month. (will sail)

- e) In ‘if-clause’ of conditional sentences when the principal clause’ is in the future tense:

Examples:

If you do not hurry, you will not be able to catch the train.

If it does not rain, there will be a drought.

- f) This tense is often used in running commentaries during sports events:

Example:

Tom passes the ball to John and John throws it right on the stumps and Roy is out.

- g) It is also used in describing a past event in a dramatic manner:

Now King Porus appears before Alexander the Great after his defeat and boldly answers his questions.

Three important exceptions:

1. For positive sentences, **we do not normally use the auxiliary.**
2. For the third person singular (he, she, it), we add **s** to the main verb or **es** to the auxiliary.
3. For the verb **to be**, we do not use an auxiliary, even for questions and negatives.

Examples:

Mother cooks food daily.

They are not old.

Am I late?

Form:

- a) Do/does + subject + main verb (base)
- b) **Wh – questions** (What, why, when etc) + do / does + subject + main verb (base)

Examples:

I work. (**Affirmative**)

I do not work. (**Negative**)

Do I work? (**Interrogative**)

Do I not work? (**Negative Interrogative**)

Where does he work?

2.1.1.2. PRESENT CONTINUOUS (PROGRESSIVE) TENSE

Form:

Subject + auxiliary verb (be) + main verb (base) + ing + Object

- a) To describe an action which is in progress at the time of speaking. Ordinarily no adverb of time is used with it.

Example:

The boys are flying kites.

Who is making that horrible noise?

- b) To express an action that has been arranged to take place in the near future. One usually uses this tense to express one's immediate plans. The time of the action should be generally mentioned, otherwise there may be confusion between the present and future meanings.

Example:

I am meeting the Education Minister tomorrow.

He is meeting us this week.

Some more sentences showing the use of the present continuous tense.

Example:

He is teaching English and learning German.

My father is writing a book.

My sister is always watching television.

- c) This tense is not used with such verbs as: see, hear, smell, wish, care, hate, like, think, remember, forget, seem, contain, cost etc.

Example:

I smell something burning.

I think it is coming from Sita's room. She is probably ironing.

What does this book contain?

But when some of these verbs are used in the present continuous tense, their meaning changes.

Example:

I am seeing the Home Minister tomorrow. (means 'visiting')

He is thinking seriously of leaving the job. (means 'considering')

- d) In making this tense, the helping verbs 'is', 'am', 'are' are followed by the 'ing form of the verb' (present participle)

2.1.1.3. PRESENT PERFECT TENSE

This tense may be said to be a sort of mixture of present and past. It always implies a strong connection with the present. We use this tense when we are interested in something having happened which has some result or bearing on the present.

Form:

Subject + auxiliary verb (**have**) + main verb (**past participle**)

Example:

He has been in the army for five years. (He is still in the army)

He has lived here all his life. (He still lives here.)

The train has just arrived.

I have known him for a long time. (and I still know him.)

What is said in each sentence has current relevance', i.e., some link with the present.

Some other examples showing the use of present perfect.

- a) This tense is used for actions or events which, though completed in the past, have 'current relevance'. Time is not mentioned for action of the present perfect tense.

Examples

1. I have seen the Taj; I saw it last month.
2. I have been to Chennai several times; I went there recently in October.
3. Our manager has returned from Delhi, he came back this morning.

In these sentences, the first clauses are of the present perfect tense, and the second clauses are of the simple past tense. When we have to refer to a definite time in the past (last year, last month, two hours back etc), we use past tense and not the present perfect

tense. A common mistake is to use the present perfect instead of the past.

Examples

I have received a letter from him yesterday. (X)

I received a letter from him yesterday. (✓)

I have met him last Sunday and had a long talk with him. (X)

I met him last Sunday and had a long talk with him. (✓)

- b) The use of the present perfect tense with adverbs like **just, already, yet, never, lately, for, since** etc.

Examples:

He has just gone out. (a recently performed action)

The train has just left.

I have been very busy lately.

I haven't finished my work yet.

Note: 'For' is used for a period of time in the past and 'since' for a point of time. 'Since' means from that point to the time of speaking. It is always used with a perfect tense. It can never be omitted.

E.g., She has been here since Sunday.

When 'for' is used with the simple past tense, it denotes a terminated period of time.

E.g., We lived here for ten years (but we don't live here now)

We have lived here for ten years (and still live here)

c) The present perfect can be used with a time expression.

Examples:

- i. He has been in the army for five years (he is still in the army).
 - ii. This room had not been cleaned for months (but we are cleaning it now).
 - iii. I have known him for a long time.
- d) It is used in time clauses with 'when', 'after' etc.

Examples:

- i. As soon as (when) I have learnt English, I will go to France and learn French.
- ii. She will sing when she has rehearsed.
- iii. We shall go to meet them after we have had our breakfast.
- iv. We shall play after we have finished our work.

2.1.1.4. PRESENT PERFECT CONTINUOUS TENSE

- a) This tense is used to express an action which began in the past and is still continuing or has just finished.
- i. I have been living in this house since 1980.

- ii. How long have you been waiting for the bus?
 - iii. Ever since he came to us, that man has been trying to make trouble.
- b) In many sentences (but not in all) present perfect tense can be used in place of present perfect continuous, especially in the case of verbs which themselves carry the sense of a continuous action. We generally use 'since' or 'for' in such sentences.
- c) But this replacement is not possible in most of the cases. If we do so, the sense of the sentence will change.

Note that when we mention the number of things that have been done, we generally use present tense and not present perfect continuous.

The present perfect continuous is not used with verbs which are not normally used in the continuous forms (see, smell, forgive, live, hate, own, belong, understand, know, mean, etc)

- d) The form of the verb in this tense is:

Subject + has/ have+ verb + ing

Affirmative:

I have been working. He has been working etc.

Negative:

I have not been working.

He has been working.

Interrogative:

Have you been working?

Has he been working?

2.1.2. PAST TENSE

2.1.2.1. SIMPLE PAST OR THE PAST INDEFINITE TENSE

This tense is used for actions completed in the past at a definite time. Adverbs of time are often used with this tense.

To make the simple past tense, we use:

- **Past form** only

or

- auxiliary **did** + **base form**

The structure for **positive sentence** in the simple past tense is:

Subject + main verb (past)

The structure for **negative sentences** in the simple past is:

Subject + auxiliary verb (did) + not + main verb (base)

The structure for **question sentences** in the simple past tense is:

Auxiliary verb (did) + subject + main verb (base)

We use the simple past tense to talk about an action or a situation – an event – in the past. The event can be short or long.

We use simple past tense when:

- the event is in the past
- the event is completely finished.
- we say (or understand) the time and / or place of the event

In general, if we say the time or place of the event, we must use the simple past tense; we cannot use the present perfect tense.

Example:

My father left for Madras yesterday.

We visited Agra last year and saw the Taj.

It rained heavily last night.

When I was in Bombay, I went to the sea beach.
(Habitual action in the past)

For making negative and interrogative sentences ‘did’ is used for all persons.

I worked. **(affirmative)**

He did not work. **(Negative)**

Did you work? **(Interrogative)**

Didn't he work? **(Negative interrogative)**

Note:

When we tell a story, we usually use the simple past tense. We may use the past continuous tense to “set the scene”, but we almost always use the simple past tense for the action.

Example of how a story began:

“The wind was howling around the hotel and the rain was pouring down. It **was** cold. The door **opened** and James Bond **entered**. He **took off** his coat, which **was** very wet, and **ordered**

a drink at the bar. He **sat down** in the corner of the lounge and quietly **drank** his....”

2.1.2.2. PAST CONTINUOUS TENSE

Expresses an action in progress in the past.

Examples:

The boys were playing in the garden when it began to rain.

She was ironing her saree when the electricity failed.

The structure of the past continuous tense is:

Subject + auxiliary verb (**be**) + main verb (**base**) + ing

Example:

She was singing.

The tense is used for

- a) for continuous actions in the past about the beginning or end of which we are not concerned.

Example:

The boys were flying kites.

It was raining.

Peacocks were dancing in the jungle.

Flowers were blooming.

b) to express gradual development of some action:

Example:

It was getting darker. They were getting late. They were being detained at every step.

c) to describe an action which was continuing when another action took place.

Example:

She was sleeping when the telephone rang.

As he was crossing the road, a motorcycle knocked him down.

d) to describe two actions continuing side by side

Example:

While they were watching the television, thieves were stealing their goods.

While some students were reading in the library, the others were playing in the playground.

Note: in such sentences often the conjunction ‘while’ is used.

e) the past continuous with ‘always’

Example:

He was always ringing me up.

This sentence expresses a frequently repeated past action, which often annoys the speaker.

2.1.2.3. THE PAST PERFECT TENSE

- a) This tense is used to emphasize that one past action took place before another. The two actions are in some way related to each other. The earlier action or event is expressed in the past perfect tense and the later in the simple past. In other words, this tense talks about the “past in the past”.

The structure of the **past perfect** tense is:

Subject + auxiliary verb (**had**)+ main verb (**past participle**) V3

Example:

The train had left when I reached the station.

When we reached the theatre, the play had already begun.

We went for a walk after the rain had stopped.

*For negative sentences in the past perfect tense, we insert **not** between the auxiliary verb and main verb. For question sentences, we exchange the **subject** and **auxiliary verb**.*

Example:

She had not gone to school.

We had not left.

Had they eaten dinner?

Had you arrived?

When speaking with the past perfect tense, we often contract the subject and the auxiliary verb.

Example:

I had – **I'd**

You had – **you'd**

He had – **he'd** etc.

The 'd contraction is also used for the auxiliary verb would.

For example, **we'd** can mean:

We **had**

Or

We **would**

But usually, the main verb is in a different form.

For example,

We had **arrived**. (Past Participle)

We would **arrive**. (base)

Hence, we should understand the difference from the context.

- b) Two past actions can also be combined with 'till, until', 'as soon as', 'before', etc. unless it is necessary to emphasize that the first action was completely finished before the second one started, simple past tense is used in both clauses.

Examples:

We stayed there till it got dark.

As soon as it began to rain, we ran indoors.

Look at the following sentences:

When the play ended, the audience went home.

When the child died, its mother wept and cried bitterly.

Here two simple past tenses are used. The idea is that the first action led to the second and the second followed the first closely.

But when we wish to emphasize the sequence of the two actions in the past, we use 'past perfect tense' in the earlier action.

For example,

He refused to go till he had seen all the papers.

When she had sung her song, she sat down.

As soon as the guests had finished all the sweets and drinks, they left his house.

c) We often use the past perfect tense in reported speech after verbs like said, told, asked, thought, wondered:

For example:

He told us that the train **had left**.

I thought I **had met** her before, but I was wrong.

I wondered if I **had been** there before.

d) Use of the past perfect in conditional sentences. This tense is used in the 'if-clause' of the conditional sentences of the third type (to express an unfulfilled condition in the past).

Example:

If we had worked hard, he would have passed.

If he had taken a taxi, he would not have missed the train. (*This sentence shows that he did not take a taxi and so he missed the train.*)

e) This tense is used to express an unfulfilled wish.

Example:

I wish I had written that letter.

I wish I had accepted that job.

2.1.2.4. PAST PERFECT CONTINUOUS TENSE

This tense expresses an action or event that had begun and was going on up to a given point of time in the past. This tense bears the same relation to the past perfect which the present perfect continuous bears to the present perfect.

Examples:

He **had been teaching** English for 35 years when he retired last year.

Radha **had been sleeping** for two hours in the evening when her mother awakened her.

The structure of the past continuous tense is:

Subject + auxiliary verb (**had**) + auxiliary verb (**been**) + main verb (**base + ing**)

*For negative sentences in the past perfect continuous tense, we insert **not** after the first auxiliary verb. For question sentences, we exchange **the subject** and **first auxiliary verb**.*

Examples:

We had **not** been expecting her.

Had you been drinking?

Had they been waiting long?

Note:

This tense is not used with verbs which are not used in the continuous forms, except with want and sometimes 'wish'. (Verbs such as like, feel, hear, see, think, understand, dislike, know, own, possess, etc)

Examples:

The boy was delighted to have a new watch. He **had been wanting** to have one for a long time.

Note: the past perfect continuous tense is like the past perfect tense, but it expresses longer actions in the past before another action in the past.

For example:

Ram started waiting at 9 am. I arrived at 11 am. When I arrived, Ram **had been waiting** for two hours.

2.1.3. FUTURE TENSE

There are several ways of expressing future time in English. One of these ways is to use 'shall' or 'will' with an infinitive (base form or the dictionary form of the verb).

2.1.3.1. SIMPLE FUTURE TENSE

This tense usually expresses the ‘neutral future of prediction’ (when the speaker just wants to say what is likely to happen in future).

The structure of the simple future tense is:

Subject + auxiliary verb (**will**) +main verb (**base**)

Example:

Forecast for Saturday:

Weather will be cloudy and cold. There will be thunder showers at many places.

The President will address the nation on the Republic Day eve.

He will reach Delhi on Tuesday morning.

For negative sentences in the simple future tense, we insert **not** between the auxiliary verb and main verb. For question sentences, we exchange **the subject** and **auxiliary verb**.

Examples:

She will not be at school tomorrow.

You will finish before me.

Will you arrive on time?

Will they want dinner?

When we use the simple future tense in speaking, we often contract the subject and auxiliary verb:

I will – I’ll

You will – you'll

He will – he'll

She will – she'll etc.

For negative sentences in the simple future tense, we contract with won't, like this:

I will not – I won't

You will not – you won't

He will not – he won't

She will not – she won't

It will not – it won't

Uses:

- a) We use the simple future tense when there is no plan or decision to do something before we speak. We make the decision spontaneously at the time of speaking.

For examples:

- Hold on. I'll get a pen.
- We will see what we can do to help you.
- Maybe we'll stay in and watch television tonight.

In these examples, we had no firm plan before speaking. The decision is made at the time of speaking.

We often use the simple future tense with the verb to think before it:

For examples:

- I think I'll go to the gym tomorrow.
- I think I will have a holiday next year.
- I don't think I will buy that car.

b) We often use the simple future tense to make a prediction about the future. Again, there is no firm plan. We are saying what we think will happen.

Some examples:

- It will rain tomorrow.
- People won't go to Jupiter before the 22nd century.
- Who do you think will get the job?

c) When the main verb is be, we can use the simple future tense even if we have a firm plan or decision before speaking.

Examples:

- I'll be in London tomorrow.
- I'm going shopping. I won't be very long.
- Will you be at work tomorrow?

Note:

When we have a plan or intention to do something in the future, we usually use other tense or expressions, such as the present continuous tense or going to.

2.1.3.2. FUTURE CONTINUOUS TENSE

Form:

Subject + auxiliary verb (will) + auxiliary verb (be) + main verb (base +ing)

Examples:

The train will be arriving soon.

I shall be meeting Tom in the evening.

You will be working in the office.

She will not be using the car.

Will they be watching tv?

Note:

We sometimes use **shall** instead of **will**, especially for **I** and **we**.

Uses:

The future continuous tense expresses action at a particular moment in the future. The action will start before that moment but it will not have finished at that moment.

For example:

At 4 pm tomorrow, I will be working.

When we use the future continuous tense, our listener usually knows or understands what time we are talking about.

Examples:

I will be playing tennis at 10 am tomorrow.

What will you be doing when I arrive?

Take your umbrella. It will be raining when you return.

2.1.3.3. FUTURE PERFECT TENSE

The future perfect tense is quite an easy tense to understand. The future perfect tense talks about the past in the future.

Form:

Subject + auxiliary verb (will) + auxiliary verb (have) + main verb (past participle)

For example:

I will have finished by evening.

She will not have gone to school.

Will they have received it?

In speaking with the future perfect tense, we often contract the subject and will. Sometimes, we contract the subject, will and have all together.

I will have – I'll have – I'll've

He will have – he'll have – he'll've

Uses:

The future perfect tense expresses action in the future before another action in the future. This is the past in the future.

For example:

The train will leave the station at 9 am. You will arrive at the station at 9.15 am. When you arrive, the train will have left.

You can call me at work at 8 am. I will have arrived at the office by 8.

They will be tired when they arrive. They will not have slept for a long time.

2.1.3.4. FUTURE PERFECT CONTINUOUS TENSE

Form:

Subject + auxiliary verb (will) + auxiliary verb (have) + auxiliary verb (been) + main verb (base + ing)

For negative sentences in the future perfect continuous tense, we insert not between will and have. For question sentences, we exchange the subject and will.

For example:

You will have been travelling for two days.

Will they have been watching TV?

We will not have been waiting long.

When we use the future perfect continuous tense in speaking, we often contract the subject and auxiliary verb:

I will – I'll

You will – you'll

Uses:

We use the future perfect continuous tense to talk about a long action before some point in the future.

For example:

I will have been working here for ten years next week.

He will be tired when he arrives. He will have been travelling for 24 hours.

2.2. ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE

There are two voices:

1. Active
2. Passive

Look at the following sentences:

1. Ram wrote the novel.
2. The novel was written by Ram.

In the first sentence Ram, the ‘doer’ or the ‘agent’ is the subject of the verb ‘wrote’. Here the verb is said to be in the ‘active voice’.

In the second sentence, the ‘doer’ or the ‘agent’, Ram is not the subject of the verb ‘wrote’. It is the object (novel) of the action which has been made the subject of the sentence. Here the verb is said to be in the ‘passive voice’.

Some more examples:

Active	Passive
They read the Ramayana daily.	The Ramayana is read by them daily.
You are wasting your time.	Your time is being wasted by you.
The teacher punished him.	He was punished by the teacher.

We shall play the match.	The match will be played by us.
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Note: As a rule, only a transitive verb (verb with object) can be changed into the 'Passive Voice) and not an intransitive verb because an intransitive verb has no object.

Tense	Voice	Simple	Continuous	Perfect	Perfect continuous
Present	Active	She washes clothes.	She is washing clothes.	She has washed clothes.	She has been washing clothes.
	Passive	Clothes are washed by her.	Clothes are being washed by her.	Clothes have been washed by her.	No passive
Past	Active	She washed clothes.	She was washing clothes.	She had washed clothes.	She had been washing clothes.
	Passive	Clothes were washed by her.	Clothes were being washed by her.	Clothes had been washed by her.	No passive
Future	Active	She will wash clothes.	She will be washing clothes.	She will have washed clothes.	She will have been washing clothes.

	Passive	Clothes will be washed by her.	No passive	Clothes will have been washed by her.	No passive
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The following verbs cannot be changed into the Passive Voice because they are intransitive (have no object):

1. Fire burns
2. He laughs
3. The water is boiling
4. The ship sank
5. Birds fly in the air.

2.2.1. When a sentence in the ‘active voice’ is changed into one in the ‘passive voice’, the following changes occur:

- a) The ‘object’ of the verb in the ‘active voice’ becomes the ‘subject’ of the verb in the passive voice and the ‘subject’ in the ‘active voice’ becomes the ‘object’ in the ‘passive voice’.
- b) The main verb is changed into the ‘past participle’ (the third form) and an appropriate form of the verb “to be” (be, is, am, are, was, were, being, been) is put before it.
- c) The ‘subject’ in the active voice (the doer of the action) becomes the ‘object’ in the passive voice and generally takes ‘by’ before it.

Examples:

Active	Passive
They grew rice.	Rice was grown by them.
Mohan has completed his work.	His work has been completed by Mohan.
He is exhibiting some paintings.	Some paintings are being exhibited by him.
Mr. John sells radios.	Radios are sold by Mr. John.

d) The nominative case of the pronoun is changed into the objective case.

i) He has done his work. (Active Voice)

His work has been done by him. (Passive voice)

ii) I shall finish my work by tomorrow. (Active voice)

My work will be finished by me by tomorrow. (Passive voice)

2.2.2. In the sentences of ‘passive voice’ ‘be’ is used after modal auxiliaries (should, must, may, might, can, could, ought to, etc.)

Active	Passive
I can help you.	You can be helped by me.
You ought to respect your teachers.	Your teachers ought to be respected by you.
He is exhibiting some paintings.	Some paintings are being exhibited by him.

A specialist should examine the patient.	The patient should be examined by a specialist.
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2.2.3. If a transitive verb has two objects, either of them may be made the subject in the ‘passive voice’ and the other remains unchanged. The ‘unchanged object’ is called the ‘retained object’.

Active	Passive
He will teach me English.	English will be taught to me by him. Or I shall be taught English by him.
My uncle gave me a scooter.	A scooter was given to me by my uncle. Or I was given a scooter by my uncle.

2.2.4. Sometimes, an intransitive verb takes an object which is similar to the verb in meaning. Such an object is called the ‘Cognate object’. Such verbs can be changed into the passive voice.

Active	Passive
We ran a race.	A race was run by us.
She sang a sweet song.	A sweet song was sung by her.
He lived a happy life.	A happy life was lived by him.

2.2.5. The ‘passive voice’ is used to lay emphasis on the things done or things acted upon instead of on the ‘doer’ or the ‘agent’. It should be borne in mind that all the sentences of the active voice should not be turned into the ‘passive voice’. Some sentences when turned into the passive voice look awkward and clumsy.

Active	Passive
Quinine tastes bitter.	Quinine is bitter when tasted.
The rose smells sweet.	The rose is sweet when smelled.

2.2.6. Since the ‘passive voice’ sounds impersonal, it is used in preference to the ‘active voice’ in scientific and technical processes and objective reporting:

Examples:

Common salt is got from the sea.

When the Chief Minister was contacted and asked why no action was being taken against the dishonest traders and corrupt officials, he evaded answering the question directly.

2.2.7. In a passive construction, when it is not important to know who or what caused the action (the doer or the agent), then the use of the doer along with the word ‘by’ is omitted.

Active	Passive
People speak English all over the world.	English is spoken all over the world.

	(Here, our interest is in the predicate ‘speaking of English and not in the vague subject ‘people’.
Somebody has broken my dinner plates.	My dinner plates have been broken (by somebody).
No one has ever beaten my brother at badminton.	My brother has never been beaten at badminton.

2.2.8. But in certain sentences the ‘doer’ of the action is very important and is very necessary to complete the meaning of the sentence:

Examples:

Shakuntala was written by the Sanskrit poet Kalidasa.

Electric bulb was invented by Edison.

2.2.9. Change of Tenses from Active to Passive

a) In the ‘simple present’ tense the form is:

Subject + am/ is/are + third form of the verb

Active	Passive
I write a letter.	A letter is written by me.
He loves me.	I am loved by him.
They grow rice there.	Rice is grown there.
I do not hate them.	They are not hated by me.

b) In the simple past tense, the form is:

Subject + was/ were + third form of the verb

Active	Passive
He killed a cockroach.	A cockroach was killed by him.
I ate fruits.	Fruits were eaten by me.
She did not obey her parents.	Her parents were not obeyed by her.

c) In the future tense, the form is:

Subject + will/ shall + be + third form of the verb

Active	Passive
I shall help him.	He will be helped by me.
Will she cook the meals?	Will the meals be cooked by her?
They will never deceive us.	We shall never be deceived by them.

d) In the present continuous and past continuous tenses, the form is:

Subject + am/ is/ are/ was/ were + being + third form of the verb

Active	Passive
I am reading a book.	A book is being read by me.
We are playing a match.	A match is being played by us.
Farmers were ploughing their fields.	Their fields were being ploughed by farmers.

He was writing letters.	Letters were being written by him.
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e) In the present perfect and past perfect tenses, the form is:

Subject + has/ have/ had + been + third form of the verb

Active	Passive
I have finished my book.	My book has been finished by me.
He has not helped her.	She has not been helped by him.
I had warned you of the danger.	You had been warned of the danger by me.
We had not seen the Taj Mahal before.	The Taj Mahal had not been seen by us before.

f) In the *future perfect tense*, the form is:

Will/ shall + have been + third form of the verb

Active	Passive
He will have prepared his speech by now.	His speech will have been prepared by him by now.

Note: There is no passive voice in the ‘future continuous’ tense and the present, past and future perfect continuous tenses.

2.2.10. a) In the ‘**interrogative sentences**’ (of yes – or – no type questions) the subject is put between the auxiliary and the main verb.

Active	Passive
Are you doing your work?	Is your work being done by you?
Have you completed the essay?	Has the essay been completed by you?
Does he speak Bengali?	Is Bengali spoken by him?
Will they hold the elections?	Will the elections be held by them?

b) In interrogative sentences beginning with ‘who, what, why, when, where (Wh questions)’, ‘who’ is changed into ‘by whom’, while, what, why etc are retained. In the passive voice also the ‘Wh’ questions (except who) begin with the same question – word as is used in the active voice.

Active	Passive
What do you want?	What is wanted by you?
Who has stolen my pen?	By whom has my pen been stolen?
Where did you find my umbrella?	Where was my umbrella found by you?
Why are you wasting your time?	Why is your time being wasted by you?

d) Passive of Negative sentences

In a negative sentence the negative word ‘not’ is put between the auxiliary (helping verb) and the past participle (third form of the verb):

Active	Passive
He does not write poems.	Poems are not written by him.
They don't teach English in lower classes.	English is not taught in lower classes.
Didn't they invite you to the meeting?	Were you not invited to the meeting by them?

2.2.11. Passive voice of imperative sentences:

- a) In imperative sentences expressing order, command, advice etc. the verb in the 'active voice' is changed into the 'passive voice' by making the sentence with 'let' and adding 'be' before the 'past participle':

Active	Passive
Help the poor.	Let the poor be helped.
Open the door.	Let the door be opened.
Do this work.	Let this work be done.
Love all.	Let all be loved. / All should be loved.

- b) Imperative sentences expressing requests, invitations or advice are changed into the passive voice by putting 'you are requested to', 'advised to' etc. in the beginning of the sentence:

Active	Passive
Please help me.	You are requested to help me.
Kindly grant me leave.	You are requested to grant me leave.

Work hard.	You are advised to work hard.
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2.2.12. a) Use of prepositions other than ‘by’.

Active	Passive
We do not know him.	He is not known to us.
This book contains many delightful pictures.	Many delightful pictures are contained in this book.
The news alarmed all.	All are alarmed at the news.
The discovery surprised the researcher.	The researcher was surprised at the discovery.
He displeased his teachers with his behaviour.	His teachers were displeased at his behaviour.

b) Sentences with Prepositional Verbs.

Active	Passive
The police charged him with theft.	He was charged with theft by the police.
Mother has switched off the lights.	The lights have been switched off by the mother.
His uncle is looking after him.	He is being looked after by his uncle.

The new Principal has taken over the charge of the school.	The charge of the school has been taken over by the new Principal.
Have you gone through the book?	Has the book been gone through by you?

Note: some intransitive verbs become transitive when a preposition is added to them. In that case they can also be changed into the passive voice.

Example:

They laughed at the lame beggar. (active)

The lame beggar was laughed at by them. (passive)

2.2.13. Change of Voice by Change of Infinitives.

Look at the following sentences in which infinitives with ‘to’ are used. In the passive voice ‘to be’ is used before the past participle (third form of the verb).

Active	Passive
It is time to close the shop.	It is time for the shop to be closed.
It is time to offer prayers.	It is time for the prayers to be offered.
It is time to stop writing.	It is time for the writing to be stopped.
It is time to give the final call.	It is time for the final call to be given.

2.2.14. Use of ‘shall have’, ‘will have’, ‘should have’, ‘could have’, ‘may have’ etc.

Active	Passive
You could have helped him.	He could have been helped by you.
You should have praised him.	He should have been praised by you.
He may/ might have stolen my book.	My book may/might have been stolen by him.
You could have informed me earlier.	I could have been informed earlier by you.
The peon should have rung the bell.	The bell should have been rung by the peon.

TAG QUESTIONS

Tag questions are questions that are attached to a statement in order to provide emphasis on it. Though tag questions are questions, they are rhetorical in nature and in asking them, the speaker really does not seek an answer but just intends to stress the idea suggested in the statement.

1. The basic rule for putting a tag question is that a positive statement takes a negative tag question and a negative statement takes a positive tag question. When we use it, we put a comma (,) after the statement and use small letters in a contracted form, followed by a question mark.

Example:

It is a wonderful idea, **isn't it?**

The statement is positive; so, it requires a negative tag question ***isn't it.***

2. There is no need to write ***it*** in the tag question when the subject of the statement is ***that***. So it should be written as follows:

That was a great shot, **wasn't that?**

3. The third statement below does not carry an appropriate tag question.

Jane is very brave, **isn't she?**

In this statement, *Jane* is the subject of the sentence. Since *Jane* is a feminine noun, it should be replaced by a feminine personal pronoun, *she* and not *it*.

4. since the subject of the sentence given below is we, the sentence should be written as:

We are Indians, **aren't we?**

5. In the sentence given below since the main statement is in the simple present tense, the tag must also be written in the same tense and hence *does* should be written:

Jack looks ill, **doesn't he?**

(i.e., Looks = does + look)

Note:

The correct way of adding the tag questions to the statements like:

We all need money, **don't we?**

Reading grammar is quite boring, **isn't it?**

You are not a fool, **are you?**

Americans are quite rich, **aren't they?**

6. words such as few and little mean hardly anything, which is equivalent to nothing or none. Similarly, words such as hardly, scarcely, barely, and seldom also suggest a negative idea and hence tag questions appended to all these statements should be positive.

In short, remember *to use a positive tag for a statement which connotes a negative thought even though it may seem to use a positive verb.*

Examples:

Few want to help others these days, **do they?**

We could hardly concentrate, **could we?**

There is little hope of his recovery, **is there?**

We seldom meet each other these days, **do we?**

None of them were interested, **were they?**

7. Imperative statements that connote a request, order, command, suggestion etc. usually take will you as a tag questions. *Let's* is followed by *shall we*. Further, when the verb *have* is used in the sense of *take or eat*, the tag question will be according to the tense, e.g., in the present tense it should take **don't we**.

8. Expressions such as *everybody*, *everyone*, *someone* and *somebody* are followed by a plural tag question whereas *one* is followed by *one* and not *he*. This is how we can use the tag questions in the sentences appropriately:

Please stay with us tonight, **will you/ won't you?**

Let's play cricket, **shall we?**

One must not lose patience, **must we?**

Everyone enjoyed the party, **didn't they?**

Keep quiet, **will you?**

Pass me the salt, **will you?**

Everybody has come, **haven't they?**

2.3. DIRECT AND INDIRECT SPEECH

The sentence spoken by a person can be reported in two ways. One way is to report the actual words of the speaker. This is called **direct speech**.

The boy said, "I want to play football this evening."

The verb 'said' in the above sentence is called the **reporting verb** and it is also the finite verb in the main clause. The actual words of the speaker are used here and so they are placed between inverted commas. There is also a comma used after the reporting verb.

The second way of reporting someone's words is to put them indirectly, that is, in the words of the reporter. This is called **reported speech or indirect speech**.

The boy said that he wanted to play football that evening.

When we convert direct speech into indirect speech a few changes are made. In the above example, we made the following changes:

- i) The verb ‘want’ is changed into ‘wanted’.
- ii) ‘This evening’ is changed into ‘that evening’.
- iii) The pronoun ‘I’ becomes ‘he’.
- iv) The inverted commas are removed.

Besides these, several other changes also may take place. They are given below:

2.3.1. Change of the tense in the reporting verb:

If the reporting verb is in the present or future tense, there will be no change in the tense.

- i) The boy says, “I am ill.”
→ The boy says that he is ill.
- ii) He has said to me, “I am guilty.”
→ He has told me that he is guilty.
- iii) He will say, “I can come tomorrow.”
→ He will say that he can come the next day.

If the reporting verb is in the past tense, the verb in the direct speech will be changed into the corresponding past tense as shown below:

Direct	Indirect
Simple present	→ Simple past
The boy said, “I like ice cream.”	The boy said that he liked ice cream.

Present continuous → Past continuous	
The girl said, “I am studying grammar.”	The girl said that she was studying grammar.
Present perfect → Past perfect	
They said, “We have tried our best.”	They said that they had tried their best.
Present perfect continuous → Past perfect continuous	
The man said, “I have been living here since 2000.”	The man said that he had been living there since 2000.
Simple past → Past perfect	
He said, “I saw the thief.”	He said that he had seen the thief.
Past continuous → Past perfect	
The teacher said, “I was reading then.”	The teacher said that he had been reading then.

Note:

i) The tense of the verb is not changed from present to past when we change sentences containing a universal truth into indirect speech:

The boy answered, “the sun rises in the east.”

→ The boy answered that the sun rises in the east.

The teacher said, “honesty is the best policy.”

The teacher said that honesty is the best policy.

ii) according to the nature and tone of the speech reported, different reporting verbs may be used. The following are some of the reporting verbs for reporting statements: say, tell, admit, assure, complain, declare, demand, deny, object, observe, point out, promise, protest, remark, retort, state, etc.

2.3.2. The conjunction ‘that’ is used after the reporting verb:

He said, “I am a fool.”

He said that he was a fool.

2.3.3. Pronouns and possessive adjectives of the first and second persons are changed into the third person.

She said, “I am looking for my purse.”

She said that she was looking for her purse.

Note:

i) The second person changes into the first if ‘me’ follows in the reporting verb.

He said to me: “You can come at any time.”

He told me that I could come at any time.

ii) When the speaker reports his own speech the first person remains unchanged:

I said, “I will keep my promise.”

I said that I would keep my promise.

iii) When there is a chance of ambiguity in the use of pronouns, the noun should be specified.

Geetha told Leela that her bag should be mended.

(Here, we do not know whether ‘her’ refers to Geetha’s or Leela’s. So, when reporting it we should mention the name in brackets.)

The following are some of the usual changes that take place when direct speech is changed into indirect speech.

This	→	That
These	→	Those
Here	→	There
Now	→	Then
Today	→	That day
Tomorrow	→	The next day, the following day
Tonight	→	That night
Yesterday	→	The previous day
The day before yesterday	→	Two days before
Day after tomorrow	→	After two days
Next week	→	The following week
Next month	→	The following month
Last week	→	The previous week
A year ago	→	A year before or The previous year

Examples:

He said, “I saw her the day before yesterday.”

→ He said that he had seen her two days before.

“I will not do it tomorrow.”, he promised.

→ He promised that he would not do it the next day.

“I am starting the day after tomorrow, mother.”, he said.

→ He told his mother that he was starting after two days.

Note:

If the speech is made and reported on the same day, these changes in time are not necessary.

At breakfast this morning he said, “I will be very busy today.”

→ At breakfast this morning he said that he would be very busy today.

2.3.4. Questions in Indirect Speech

The verbs usually used to report questions are ‘ask’, ‘enquire’, ‘demand’ and ‘want to know’.

He said, “Where are you going?”

→ He asked me where I was going.

“Where is the railway station”, he enquired to me

→ He enquired to me where the railway station was.

When a question begins with a ‘question word’ no other connective is used.

He asked me, “What is your name”?

→ He asked me what my name was.

When a 'Yes/ No question' is changed into indirect speech 'if' or 'whether' is used as a connective.

a) My friend Raju said to me, "Will you help me with some money?"

→ My friend Raju asked me if I would help him with some money.

b) My mother asked, "Will you be back before lunch?"

→ My mother asked me if I would be back before lunch.

Note:

In indirect questions there is no need of inversion. The word order of an indirect question is the same as that of a statement.

2.3.5. Imperative Sentences in Indirect Speech

The reporting verbs used are advise, ask, beg, command, entreat, forbid, implore, order, recommend, remind, request, tell, urge, warn.

He said, "Lie down, Salim." (Direct command)

→ He told Salim to lie down. (Indirect command)

"You had better hurry, Tom"

→ He advised Tom to hurry.

Direct	Indirect
"Why don't you remove your shoes"	He advised me to remove my shoes.

“Could you show me your passport, please?”, he said.	He asked me to show my passport.
“Try again”, said his uncle encouragingly.	His uncle encouraged him to try again. Or His uncle told him encouragingly to try again.
“Don’t open the windows”, she said.	She told me not to open the window.
“Let us go for a walk”, she said.	She suggested we/ they should go for a walk.
“Come to my room, if you are free”, he said.	He invited me to his room if I was free.
“Come on, apply for the job”, said John.	John urged me to apply for the job.

2.3.6. Exclamations in Indirect Speech

To report exclamations the following reporting verbs are used: exclaim, shout, cry out, wish, pray, etc.

i) He said, “what a clever idea!”

→ He exclaimed that it was a very clever idea.

ii) “Good”, he said

→ He gave an exclamation of pleasure/ satisfaction.

iii) He said, “Happy Christmas”

→ He wished me a happy Christmas.

iv) “Congratulations!” he said.

→ He congratulated me

v) He said, “Damn”

→ He swore.

Note:

i) When an exclamation is changed into reported speech, the word order used is that of a statement.

ii) A word belonging to the category of intensifiers is used. Intensifiers are words (adverbs) adding to the degree or force of an adjective. They are words like ‘very’, ‘quite’, ‘extremely’ etc.

iii) Even if there is no finite value in the exclamation sentence, a verb has to be used in the statement.

2.3.7. Future simple tense

Direct speech: “*I will call* you tomorrow.”

In reported speech, *will* goes back a tense and becomes *would*:

• “**He said** *he would call* me tomorrow.”

It is also common for the future simple to remain in the same tense in reported speech, especially if what was reported happened very recently.

For example:

• Person A: “What did Barry say just now?”

• Person B: “**He said/says** *he will call* me tomorrow.”

2.3.8. Special cases

Can

Direct speech: “I *can swim*.”

In reported speech, as with *will*, *can* moves back a tense and becomes *could*:

- “She told me *she could swim*.”

Must

Direct speech: “I *must go*.”

In reported speech, *must* can either remain in the simple present, or else take the past tense of *have to* in reported speech, as in:

- “She said *she had to go*.”

or:

- “She told me *she must go*.”

2.3.9. Modal auxiliary verbs

If we use the modal auxiliary verbs *should*, *would*, *could*, *may*, *might*, or *ought to*, then direct speech and reported speech are always the same.

For example:

Direct speech: “You *should take* an aspirin.”

Reported speech: “She said I *should take* an aspirin.”

Direct speech: “I *would phone* him if I had his number.”

Reported speech: “She told me *she would phone* him if she had his number.”

Direct speech: “They *could stay* another day if you want.”

Reported speech: “**They said *they could stay*** another day if I wanted.”

Direct speech: “*I might/may be* late.”

Reported speech: “**I told them *I might/may be*** late.”

2.3.10. Reporting the negative

Where we put the negating *not* or *never* depends on what is negative in the reported speech: the speech being reported or the report itself. Both cases are simple to structure.

2.3.11. Reporting negative speech

When we report negative *speech*, we simply use the reporting verbs and tense shifts that we have looked at already.

For example:

Direct speech: “*I did not buy* a car.” (Negative past tense)

Reported speech: “**He said *he hadn’t bought*** a car.” (Shifts to the negative past perfect)

However, as with reporting speech in the positive past simple, it is common in modern English to leave the reported speech in the negative past simple, as in:

- “**He said *he didn’t buy*** a car.”

2.3.12. Reporting negative commands

There are two general ways to report imperative speech that was in the negative:

we either use *not to* before the verb of a reported clause without a subject, or else use *was/were not to* before the verb of a reported clause with a subject. (We often contract *was/were* with *not* in this construction.)

For example:

Direct speech: “Don’t speak.”

Reported speech:

- “**He said *not to speak*.**”
- “**He said *I wasn’t to speak*.**”
- “**I told you *we were not to speak*.**”

2.3.13. Giving negative reports

When we are giving a *negative report* of quoted speech, we typically use the negative past tense of the reporting verb:

Direct speech: “*She is studying* for a test.”

Reported speech: “**She didn’t say *she was studying*** for a test.”

If we want to put the report further in the past, we can also use the negative past perfect, as in:

- “**She hadn’t said *she was studying*** for a test.”

2.4. ARTICLES

Definition

Articles identify whether a noun is **definite** (specific or particular) or **indefinite** (general or unspecific). For this reason, articles are divided into two categories:

- the **definite article**, *the*, and
- the **indefinite articles**, *a* and *an*.

2.4.1. The

The definite article ‘*the*’ is used to identify a specific person, place, or thing.

For instance:

- “I’m looking forward to **the** game.” (There is a specific game that the speaker is looking forward to.)
- “Would you pass me **the** phone?” (There is a specific phone that the speaker is asking for.)
- “She turned on **the** lamp next to her bed.” (There is a specific lamp next to her bed that she turned on.)
- “He’s going to **the** play later.” (There is a specific play that he is going to see.)

We can also use *the* to refer to plural nouns, when they are being referenced specifically, as in:

- “**The** dogs next door keep me awake with their barking.”
- “She’s looking for **the** papers she printed last night.”
- “I see that **the** students have already arrived.”

2.4.2. A/An

A and *an*, on the other hand, are used to identify a person or thing that is unspecific or generic—the speaker is not referring to someone or something in particular, or the person or thing may not be specifically known to the speaker. Unlike *the*, *a/an* can only be used before **singular** nouns.

For instance:

- “I’m looking for **a** pen.” (There is not a specific pen that the speaker is looking for.)
- “Would you please turn on **a** light?” (There is not a specific light the speaker is asking to be turned on.)
- “There is **an** angry student waiting to speak with you.” (Although there is a particular student, he or she is unknown to the speaker.)
- “I’m waiting for **an** answer.” (There is not one specific answer the speaker is waiting for it.)

2.4.2.1. Other parts of speech

Articles always modify nouns. For this reason, they are often considered a subclass of **determiners**. However, an article can also precede a **noun phrase**, even if it begins with an adjective or an adverb.

For example:

- “That was **an exciting night**.” (Noun phrase beginning with an adjective)
- “**The truly remarkable thing** is how long the deal took to happen.” (Noun phrase beginning with an adverb)

Articles **can't** precede verbs, however, as verbs are not used to create noun phrases.

2.4.2.2. Vowel Sounds vs. Consonant Sounds

We use the indefinite article *a* when it precedes a word beginning with a consonant sound, and we use *an* when the article precedes a word beginning with a vowel sound. Note that this rule applies to the sound of the noun, rather than the specific spelling.

For example:

✗ “What **a** *unusual* discovery!” (incorrect)

✓ “What **an** *unusual* discovery!” (Correct—the word begins with the vowel “u,” and it makes the vowel sound “uh.”)

✗ “What **an** *unique* discovery!” (incorrect)

✓ “What **a** *unique* discovery!” (Correct—the word begins with the vowel “u,” but it makes the consonant sound “yu.”)

✗ “It is **a** *honour* to meet you.” (incorrect)

✓ “It is **an** *honour* to meet you.” (Correct—the word begins with the consonant “h,” but it makes the vowel sound “ah.”)

✗ “There was **an** *heap* of food left over.” (incorrect)

✓ “There was **a heap** of food left over.” (Correct—the word begins with the consonant “h,” and it makes the consonant sound “he.”)

Here are a few other examples where a word’s spelling goes against its pronunciation:

an hour — makes the vowel sound “ow”

an honest man — makes the vowel sound “awh”

a university — makes the consonant sound “yu”

a European citizen — makes the consonant sound “yu”

a once-in-a-life-time chance — makes the consonant sound “wuh”

2.4.2.3. Identifying a profession

In addition to identifying an unspecified noun, we also use the indefinite article *a/an* to talk or inquire about someone’s profession.

For example:

✗ “Are you teacher?” (incorrect)

✓ “Are you **a** teacher?” (correct)

✗ “John is engineer.” (incorrect)

✓ “John is **an** engineer.” (correct)

We only use the definite article ‘*the*’ if we are referring to a particular person in that profession.

For instance:

- “Are you *a* doctor?” (Unspecific—it enquires about the person’s profession in general.)
- “Are you **the** doctor?” (Specific- it inquires if this person is a particular doctor that the speaker was waiting or looking for.)
- “Mary is *a* technician for the gas company.” (Unspecific—Mary’s general profession is as a technician for the specific gas company.)
- “Mary is **the** technician for the gas company.” (Specific—Mary is either the *sole* technician for the gas company, or else she is a specific technician the speaker is referencing.)

2.4.2.4. Uncountable nouns

In addition to **plural nouns**, the indefinite article *a/an* cannot be used with **uncountable nouns** (also known as **mass nouns** or **non-count nouns**). These are nouns that cannot be divided or counted as individual elements or separate parts. They can be tangible objects (such as substances or collective categories of things), or intangible or abstract things such as concepts or ideas.

For example:

- ✗ “Would you like *a* tea?” (incorrect)
- ✓ “Would you like **tea**?” (correct)
- ✗ “Do you have *an* information?” (incorrect)
- ✓ “Do you have (*some/any*) **information**?” (correct)

(We often use the words *some* or *any* to indicate an unspecified quantity of uncountable nouns.)

Uncountable nouns can sometimes take the definite article *the*, as in:

- “Have you heard ***the* news?**”
- “***The* furniture** in my living room is old.”
However, this is only the case if a specific uncountable noun is being described.

For example:

- ✗ “I am looking for ***an* accommodation.**” (incorrect)
- ✗ “I am looking for ***the* accommodation.**” (incorrect)
- ✓ “I am looking for **accommodation.**” (correct)
- ✓ “I am looking for ***the* accommodation** listed in this advertisement.” (correct — references specific accommodation)

2.4.3. Uses of Articles

1. Use *a/an* to say what something or someone is.

A Porsche is **an** expensive car.

A Lhasa Apso is **a** kind of dog from Tibet.

Morocco is **a** country in Africa.

2. Use *the* after a second reference to the same noun. Do not repeat ‘*a*’.

✗ I saw a car drive down the street. A car was driving very quickly.

✓ I saw a car drive down the street. The car was driving very quickly.

3. Use *a* or *one* interchangeably before the numbers *hundred*, *thousand*, *hundred thousand*, *million*, and *billion* when referring to either those exact amounts or a number that is near (approximately) one of these numbers.

Examples:

That company lost more than **a/one** hundred thousand dollars in the stock market yesterday.

That watch costs over **a/one** thousand dollars.

We need **a/one** hundred more boxes of cookies for the cookie sale.

4. In situations other than numbers such as *hundred* and so on, do not substitute *one* for *a*.

Example:

✗ He is one teacher.

✓ He is a teacher.

✗ Please bring me one doughnut.

✓ Please bring me a doughnut.

5. Use *one* only to give emphasis to the number.

Example:

Please bring me **one** doughnut, not two.

6. If you give special stress (loudness) to the word *one*, you can say:

Please bring me **one** doughnut.

7. Use *a + day* to talk about the day.

Today is **a** beautiful late September **day**.

8. Use *one day* to talk about an indeterminate day in the past.

✗ **A** Day last August, it rained for six hours without stopping.

✓ **One** day last august, it rained for six hours without stopping.

9. Use *a* to talk about prices by weight, such as per-pound prices.

Cheddar cheese is on sale for \$2 **a** pound.

Bananas are only 33 cents **per** pound this week.

2.4.4. Choosing Between *A* and *An*

Follow these rules for choosing between *a* and *an*.

1. In general, use *a* before a consonant and *an* before a vowel.

I'd like **a** salad and **a** large orange juice, please.

Please give me **an** apple and **an** orange.

2. Use *an* before a silent initial *h*. Words with silent *h* include *hour*, *honour*, *herb*, and *honest*.

Please be ready to leave in **an** hour.

It's **an** honour to meet you.

3. Use *a* before certain vowels that sound like the consonant sound /y/.

He graduated from **a** university in California.

She is from **a** European country.

4. Never use **a** or *an* with uncountable nouns. Use *some*.

✗ I bought a sugar.

✓ I bought some flour.

5. We can use *some* to mean “a few” or “not all.”

I like **some** cats. (I don't like all cats.)

The following nouns are uncountable in English but not in many other languages: *bread*, *news*, *information*, *furniture*, *work*, *research*, and *spaghetti*. Do not use ‘a’ with these nouns. Use *some*, and do not make these nouns plural.

Example:

✗ Please buy a bread from the supermarket.

✓ Please buy some bread from the supermarket.

6. Do not confuse *job* and *work*. *Job* is a countable noun that means “an employment” or “a task.”

Work is an uncountable noun. When we use *work* with an article such as *some* or *this*, this word refers to tasks we have to do. We can use *work* without an article to mean “a job.”

Example:

I need to find a work. ✗

I need to find work. ✓

I need to find a job. ✓

2.4.5. *The*

We use '*the*' to refer to one unique person, place, or thing.

Example:

I need to go to **the** bank, **the** post office, and **the** library.

The cashier gave me too much change.

1. Do not use '*the*' with names of people.

The Mr. Smith is my friend. ✘

Mr. Smith is my friend. ✔

2. Use *the* with *doctor* and *dentist* when referring to a certain doctor or dentist but not using his or her name.

The doctor will see you now.

The doctor says I should get more rest.

3. Do not use *the* with *Dr.* + name.

Example:

✘ I have an appointment with the Dr. Alfred next week.

✔ I have an appointment with Dr. Alfred next week.

4. Use '*the*' with kinds of entertainment.

Example:

Tom loves to go to **the** opera and **the** movies.

5. Do not use *the* with *TV* when *TV* refers to entertainment or to TV programs. Use *the* only when referring to the electrical appliance.

6. Use ‘*the*’ with organizations.

Tom went camping with **the** Boy Scouts this weekend.

She joined **the** army when she graduated from high school.

7. Do not use ‘*the*’ when referring to organizations’ acronyms.
An acronym is an abbreviation that is said as a word.

✗ He works for the UNICEF.

✓ He works for UNICEF.

8. Use ‘*the*’ with rivers, seas, and oceans.

The Mississippi is the longest river in the United States.

I’ve never seen **the** Pacific Ocean.

9. Do not use ‘*the*’ with lakes.

✗ The Lake Michigan is in North America.

✓ Lake Michigan is in North America.

10. Do not use ‘*the*’ for most countries.

He lives in **England**.

Vietnam is in Southeast Asia.

11. Use ‘*the*’ with countries that have words such as *kingdom*, *republic*, or *states* in them.

I am from the United States.

“The People’s Republic of China is the official name of China.

12. Use ‘*the*’ with plural countries.

He lives in **the** Bahamas.

I am from **the** Netherlands.

13. 'The' is part of the name of a few countries. In these cases, *the* is capitalized.

He is from **The Gambia**.

14. *Barbados* ends with an *-s*, but does not use *the*.

She is from Barbados.

15. Use 'the' when talking about mountain ranges.

The highest peaks in **the** Rocky Mountains are often covered in snow, even in summer.

16. Do not use 'the' to talk about individual mountains.

Her dream is to climb Mount Everest.

17. Use *the* to talk about something that is one of a kind in our solar system.

The sun is behind a cloud right now.

The moon will rise at 8:51 tonight.

18. Do not use 'the' for planets. Use 'the' for galaxies.

Uranus is the eighth planet.

Earth is in the Milky Way.

19. Some English speakers use *the* with *Earth*.

Earth is the third planet from the sun.

The Earth is the third planet from the sun.

20. Use 'the' with superlatives.

This is **the** most expensive perfume in the world.

21. Use *the* with the word *same* when two things are similar or identical.

I can't tell the difference between regular and extra spicy fried chicken. They taste the same to me.

22. Use *the* to make a general statement about a singular countable noun.

The rose is a beautiful flower.

When *country* means "rural area," we use *the*, not *a*.

I spend the holidays in the country.

23. Use '*the*' with specific foods and drinks.

The tea smells delicious.

24. Do not use '*the*' with meals.

Breakfast was delicious.

25. Use '*the*' with nationalities.

The British settled North America.

The French are famous for excellent cooking.

The ancient Greeks invented democratic government.

26. Do not use '*the*' with languages.

Spanish is an easy language to learn.

2.4.6. Zero Article

1. A noun with a zero article has no article.

He ordered ham and eggs.

I smell roses.

Do you want coffee or tea?

He has lots of luggage.

2. Use the zero article with an uncountable noun or a plural countable noun when the noun has a general meaning.

Fresh bread smells delicious.

Flowers grow in spring.

Let's make **cookies** tomorrow.

3. Use the zero article with meals, sports and games, cities, countries, and towns.

What do you want for **breakfast**?

I like to watch **baseball** and **play basketball**.

He lives in **Paris, France**.

Let's play **cards** tonight.

4. Use the zero article with languages.

He speaks **Spanish**.

Joe knows **Chinese**.

5. Use the zero article with prepositions and places such as *church, school, bed, prison, and home* when the meaning of

the sentence implies the person is there to pray, study, sleep, and so on.

He is at **school** all day.

They are playing football at **the school**.

6. Use the zero article with days, months, or expressions such as *last week*.

Next week we will have a test.

Your appointment is on **Monday**.

7. Articles with the names of illnesses are complicated.

Use *a/an* with *cold*, *headache*, and *fever*.

I have a fever.

Use '*the*' with *flu*.

He is sick in bed with the flu.

Use the zero article with *diabetes*, *high blood pressure*, and *hepatitis*.

High blood pressure can be a life-threatening condition.

2.5. PREPOSITIONS

Prepositions are used to express the relationship of a noun or pronoun (or another grammatical element functioning as a noun) to the rest of the sentence. The noun or pronoun that is connected by the preposition is known as the **object of the preposition**.

Common prepositions include *in, on, at, until, since, for, before, after, during, under, behind, opposite, by, above, below, with, and about*.

Examples:

The book is **on the table**.

Your appointment is **at 2:30**.

We went swimming **before breakfast**.

This book is **about the history of China**.

A noun or a gerund follows a preposition.

He is **in the office**.

On seeing the movie star, the fans began to scream.

A bus stop is **near my house**.

An infinitive can follow the prepositions *but* and *except*.

You can't park here **except to unload**.

You can't park here **but to unload**.

A pronoun can follow a preposition.

I bought this present for **you**.

I think that this book is by **him**, too.

If a pronoun follows a preposition, it must be an object pronoun.

Example:

× Between you and I, she is a very nice singer.

✓ Between you and **me**, she is a very nice singer.

Prepositional phrases modify other parts of a sentence. A prepositional phrase can modify a noun, a verb, an adjective, an adverb, another prepositional phrase, or a sentence.

Examples:

A woman **with bright red hair** just entered the room.
(modifies the noun *woman*)

Your shift begins **at seven o'clock**. (modifies the verb *begins*)

Your shift ends at three o'clock **in the afternoon**. (modifies the phrase *three o'clock*)

I am worried **about these bills**. (modifies the adjective *worried*)

He isn't old enough **to join the army**. (modifies the adverb *enough*)

At lunch tomorrow, let's have a birthday celebration for Kate! (modifies the entire sentence)

Prepositional phrases often give information about time, location, direction, and purpose.

2.5.1. Time

We use the prepositions *in*, *on*, *at*, *for*, *since*, *from ... to/until*, *until*, *by*, *before*, *after*, *during*,

when, and *while* to talk about time.

In

Use '*in*' to talk about months, years, and seasons.

We always go on vacation **in summer**.

Taxes are due **in April**.

In 2008, the Olympics were in Beijing.

Use '*in*' to talk about morning, afternoon, and evening.

I always feel sleepy **in the afternoon**.

On

Use *on* to talk about specific days, such as days of the week, holidays, and dates.

I have a day off from work **on Monday**.

Your appointment is **on April 25**.

We are going to Aunt Phyllis's house **on Christmas Day** this year.

In general, *on* is optional with days of the week: We use *on time* and *on schedule* to state that someone or something is following the schedule.

The train is **on time** today.

We need to stay **on schedule**, or we won't finish our work **on time**.

When we are early, we can say *early*, *ahead of time*, or *ahead of schedule*.

The train is **early**.

The train is **ahead of schedule**.

We finished **ahead of time**.

Use 'on' with *weekends*.

What do you like to do **on** weekends?

Many English speakers say *over the weekend* to emphasize the amount of time.

Over the weekend, I will paint the kitchen and back stairs.

At

We use 'at' to state specific times of appointments, meetings, classes, and so on.

Your appointment is **at two** o'clock.

Please meet us at the restaurant **at noon**.

Do not use 'to' to say the time of a meeting, appointment, and so on. Use *at*.

We use *it + be + time* to say the current or past time.

It's noon.

It **was** 8:44 when the train pulled out of the station.

Do not use *in*, *on*, or *at* with *this*, *last*, *next*, and *every + time*.

For

We use '*for*' to state a period of time.

We played basketball **for two hours** after work yesterday.

Mr. Jefferson has been our neighbor **for eleven years**.

Since

We use *since* to state a beginning point for an action that has continued up to the present. We often use *since* with the present perfect tense.

He's lived in Chicago **since 2000**.

That company is very old. It's been in business **since 1847**.

Do not use '*since*' for a period of time. Use *for*.

From ... to/Until

We use *from... to* or *until* to state a period of time.

In this part of the country, it's rainy **from** December **to** March.

Today I worked **from** 8 o'clock **until** 6 o'clock.

Until

We use *until* to state the end point of a period of time.

They stayed out dancing **until midnight**.

The shop stayed busy **until closing time**.

In informal speech, many speakers say *till* instead of *until*. Use *until* in formal writing.

By

We use *by* to state that an action occurs before no later than a certain time. English speakers often use ‘*by*’ to state deadlines.

You must file your tax return **by April 15**.

He should arrive by midnight.

Before

Use *before* + noun to tell what happened prior to another activity.

Before work, I always get a cup of coffee and a doughnut.

After

We use *after* to tell an action that followed a previous action.

I went to the mall **after work**.

We can use a noun, gerund, or clause with *before* and *after*.

Before **leaving** home, I closed and locked all the windows.

Before **I left home**, I closed and locked all the windows.

He took a nap after **finishing lunch**.

He took a nap after **he finished lunch**.

Do not use *that* to introduce a clause following *before* or *after*.

During

We use *during* to say when an action happened.

During the afternoon, a blizzard struck.

The power went out **during the blizzard**.

He left work **during lunch** to go shopping.

During the week means during the workweek—that is, Monday to Friday. For weekends, we say *during the weekend* or *over the weekend*.

While

We can use *while* + gerund to talk about actions that take place during another action.

While running, she hurt her foot.

While driving to the store, I saw an accident.

While can also be used to introduce a clause.

While I was running, she hurt her foot.

While I was driving to the store, I saw an accident.

Do not confuse *during* and *while*. Different words follow these words. We use *during* + noun.

We use *while* + gerund or *while* + clause.

In sentences with *while* + gerund, *before* + gerund, and *after* + gerund, the gerund must refer to the same subject as the main clause.

While talking on the phone, she read her email.

Before getting on the train, get your ticket punched.

After arriving, you turn your ticket in at the exit gate.

If the gerund in a phrase with *while*, *before*, or *after* does not refer to the subject of the main clause, rewrite the sentence.

2.5.2. Location

In

Use ‘*in*’ when you think about space as an interior.

Let’s go **in the train station** and buy our tickets.

It was raining, so we waited **in a bookstore** for a few minutes.

Use ‘*in*’ for cities, states, and countries.

I live **in Dallas, Texas**.

People often eat dinner at ten o’clock at night **in Spain**.

On

Use *on* when you think about space as a surface.

A coffee shop is **on the corner**.

There are many beautiful houses **on my street**.

The milk is **on the kitchen table**.

Please put these books **on the bookshelf**.

To talk about people who are riding the subway, train, or bus, we use *on*. However, we use *in* for car passengers.

On a car means “on the roof of a car.”

When we talk about how we get from one place to another, we use *by*.

We use ‘*in*’ when someone is performing in a concert, play, movie, or sporting event.

I played **in a Softball game** on Sunday morning.

My daughter is **in a band concert** at school on Thursday night.

At

Use ‘*at*’ when you think about a space as a point.

Run! The bus is **at the bus stop**.

Stop **at the red light** or you’ll get a ticket.

We always use *at with work*:

Usually, I am **at work** every day except Sunday.

For locations on streets, we use *on* + street name or *at* + street address.

We use ‘*at*’ when we state that someone is attending a concert, play, movie, or sporting event.

I was **at a baseball game** last night.

My oldest son is **at the movies** with his friends right now.

We usually use *in* and a kind of school (such as elementary school or college) to state that someone is a student. We use ‘*at*’ to state that someone is currently in a school building.

My son is going to be **in high school** next year.

Right now, he’s **at middle school** playing basketball.

Do not use ‘*in*’ + *university*. Use *in* + *college*.

Sometimes, we use *in* or *at* with a location to stress whether it’s a public place or a building.

I have to stop **at the bank** to deposit my pay cheque. (The bank is a public place.)

It's too cold **in the bank**. (The bank is a building.)

We can use 'in' or 'at' with *restaurant*, *coffee shop*, or *hotel*.

We ate breakfast **in** a coffee shop today. We stayed **in** a great hotel.

We ate breakfast **at** a coffee shop today. We stayed **at** a great hotel.

We use 'at' to state that we are at home.

I was **at** home all day yesterday.

Do not use *at* + *home*, or any preposition, when talking about traveling home.

Do not use a preposition to announce that you have arrived home.

Behind

We use *behind* to describe something that is located at the back of another thing.

Please put these trash bags in the containers **behind the building**.

A school is **behind my house**.

By

We use *by* to describe something that is near and along the side of something else.

There is a great restaurant **by the river**.

I walked **by the store** this morning, but it was closed.

Near

We use *near* to describe something that is located close to something else.

In winter it's nice to sit **near a roaring fire**.

My house is located **near a bus stop**.

Do not use 'to' after '*near*'.

Above

We use '*above*' to describe something that is higher than another thing.

Look! A helicopter is flying **above the football stadium**.

Over

We use *over* to describe something that is directly above something else.

A plane flew **over** the lake.

A car drove **over** the bridge.

On Top Of

We use *on top of* to describe something that is above and touching an object such as a table, cabinet, or refrigerator.

Your backpack is **on top of the cabinet**.

Often, we can use *on* interchangeably with *on top of*.

The iron is **on top of** the fridge.

The iron is **on** the fridge.

Below

We use *below* to describe something that is lower than another thing or directly under it.

From the mountaintop, we could see a beautiful valley **below us**.

The people in the apartment **below us** always make a lot of noise.

Under

We use *under* to describe something that is directly below another thing.

Never stand **under a tree** during a thunderstorm.

I always forget to vacuum **under my bed**.

We can use *below* and *under* interchangeably when they mean “directly under.”

In Front Of

We use ‘*in front of*’ to describe something that is directly ahead of us.

Why can’t you find your car keys? They’re right **in front of you**.

I found a great parking spot right **in front of the main entrance** to the mall.

Do not use *in front of* to describe buildings that face one another. Use ‘*opposite*’.

Next To

Next to means “to one side of.”

A parking lot is **next to the museum**.

The closet is **next to the front door**.

Use *next to* and *by* only when the items are directly adjacent to one another. If they are not adjacent, use *near*.

Between

'*Between*' means "in the middle of two things."

The convenience store is **between the video store and the restaurant**.

Let's put a small table **between the sofa and the armchair**.

2.5.3. Direction

In and Into

We use *in* and *into* to mean "enter."

He walked **in the room** and sat down.

He walked **into the room** and sat down.

I was surprised to see a police officer run **into the store**.

I was surprised to see a police officer run **into the store**.

Out Of

We use '*out of*' to mean "out from inside."

The cookies are ready. Let's take them **out of the oven**.

He walked **out of the room**.

Off

We use *off to* describe movement away from the top of another thing.

The antique vase fell **off the shelf** and broke into hundreds of pieces.

Please clear your homework **off the kitchen table** so we can eat dinner.

To

We use ‘*to*’ to describe movement in the direction of something.

Let’s go **to the park** for a picnic.

Please open your books **to page 101**.

Toward

We use *toward* to describe movement in the general direction of something.

Let’s walk **toward** the park.

Do not use *toward* and *to* interchangeably. *Toward* means “in the general direction of.” *To* means “directly to.”

From

We use *from* to describe movement away.

He arrived **from China** this afternoon.

We use *from* to state someone’s nationality.

Carlos is from Mexico.

To state nationality, do not use *of*. Use *from*.

2.5.4. Other Meanings

On

We use ‘*on*’ to talk about TV and radio.

At work, I like to listen to music **on the radio**.

I saw a great documentary **on** TV last night.

By

We use ‘*by*’ to talk about transportation.

He often comes to work by bus.

I am afraid to travel **by plane**.

I hate traveling by bus.

We use ‘*on foot*’ to talk about walking.

Use *by* + *bus*, *plane*, or *train* to talk about means of transportation.

He goes to work by subway. (Subway is the transportation he uses.)

Let’s not drive to the art fair. Let’s go by bus. (Bus is the transportation they will use.)

Do not use ‘*the*’ with ‘*by*’ + *bus*, *train*, and so on.

Use *on* + *the* + *bus*, *plane*, or *train* to talk about someone or something’s location.

I forgot my purse **on** the bus.

I think that John is **on** the subway right now. He should be at work in a few minutes.

Use *the* with *on* + *bus*, *plane*, or *train*.

We use a prepositional phrase with *by* to state the passive subject in a passive-voice sentence.

His car was hit **by a bus**.

With and Without

We use *with* and *without* to talk about things we do or do not have, want, or own.

Jennifer lives **with two roommates**.

I want to buy a car **with a sunroof**.

I'd like some French fries **with my Hamburger**.

I feel nervous **without my cell phone**.

About

We use '*about*' to talk about subjects or topics of a book, article, discussion, film, lecture, and so on.

This book is **about Abraham Lincoln**.

Let's not talk **about the accident**. It's too upsetting.

We also use '*about*' to mean "approximately."

It's **about two hundred miles** from here to Houston.

Right now, it's **about four o'clock**.

Do not use '*of*' to show possession. Use a possessive noun or '*belongs to*'.

2.5.5. Adjective + Preposition Combinations

We use these adjectives and pronouns together.

Do not confuse *angry with*, *angry at*, and *angry about*. Use *angry with* and *angry at* to talk about people whom you have a disagreement with. Use *angry about* to talk about the cause of the anger.

He is angry at his neighbour. (He has a disagreement with the neighbour.)

He is angry with his neighbour. (He has a disagreement with the neighbour.)

He is angry about his neighbour. (He is upset because of something the neighbour did.)

There are many exceptions to the rules about prepositions. As you listen to English speakers and read, take notes on the details.

Exercises:

I. Fill in the blanks with appropriate articles (a/ an/ the):

1. I saw _____ accident this morning. _____ bus crashed into _____ tree. _____ driver of the bus wasn't hurt, but _____ bus was badly damaged.
2. My parents live in _____ old house in a small village. There is _____ beautiful garden behind the house. I would like to have _____ garden like that.

II. Fill in the blanks with appropriate prepositions:

1. Is there anything interesting _____ today's paper?
2. Ram and I used to be good friends, but I don't have much contact _____ him now.
3. There are many advantages _____ being able to speak a foreign language.

III. Rewrite the correct tense of the verbs supplied in brackets:

1. Father (cook) some food in the kitchen at present. He always (cook) in the morning.
2. Karim will be forty when I (be) fifty.
3. The train (leave), when I (reach) the station.

IV. Change into indirect speech:

1. He says, "They have come."
2. "What a lovely evening", Anju said.
3. "Could you lend me some money?" Rakesh asked me.

V. Change the following into passive form:

1. They have vacated the office.
2. She was making a solution.
3. Rajani sends articles to journals.

VI. Change the following sentence into active form:

1. The field is being ploughed by the farmer.
2. Will the letters be delivered by the postman?
3. English was taught to us by him.

Module III

Skills for Communication

3.1. Aspects of Formal Communication

The word communication is used in common talk, usually, to mean speaking or writing or sending a message to another person. Communication is really much more than that. It involves ensuring that your message has reached the target audience, (that is, the persons to whom it is sent) and that the receiver understands and responds as you want them to. It also involves ensuring that you yourself are able to understand, interpret, and respond to messages that you receive. Communication is an important aspect of behaviour; human communication is affected by all factors that influence human behaviour.

In the last sixty to seventy years, the study of human communication has been strengthened by contribution from many disciplines. Definitions, descriptions of the process, and analyses of the elements of communication have been developed by many scholars.

Communication is central to everything that we do. We do things in organisations; our family, school/college, office, hobby group, community group, our city/town are the organisations in which we live and act. Our activities succeed or fail, and our goals are achieved or not achieved, according to our ability to communicate effectively with other members.

Communication plays a foundational role in the development of any healthy relationship. It can strengthen a mutual sense of commitment; it also helps to bridge the gap between people who have misunderstandings. Indeed, communication plays a critical role in all phases of interpersonal relations, from creating a relationship to maintenance of relationships.

3.1.2. Definitions of Communication

Communication is the buzzword in today's world. It originates from the Latin term *communico* or *communicare* which means 'to share'.

Communication has been defined by many theorists in different ways. Some of these definitions are quoted here.

- Communication is a process of passing information and understanding from one person to another. - Keith Davis
- Communication is any behaviour that results in an exchange of meaning. - The American Management Association

Communication is the transmission of information and meaning from one individual or group to another. The crucial element is **meaning**. Communication has as its central objective the transmission of meaning. The process of communication is successful only when the receiver understands an idea as the sender intended it. Both parties must agree not only on the information transmitted but also on the meaning of that information. In other words, communication essentially means the transfer of ideas, feelings, plans, messages or information from one person to another. Hence, communication is considered effective only when it gets the desired action or response.

3.1.3. Process of Communication

Communication is a process whereby information is encoded, channelled, and sent by a sender to a receiver via a medium. The receiver then decodes the message and gives the sender feedback. All forms of communication require a sender, a channel, a message, a receiver, and the feedback which effectively winds up the process. Communication requires both the sender and the receiver to have an area of communicative commonality. However, sometimes there occurs a hindrance in the communication process, which is known as **noise**. Noise can be defined as an unplanned interference in the communication environment, the one that causes hindrance to the transmission of the message. It may mainly occur due to two reasons: disturbance in the channel/ medium and/ or some kind of error in the message sent.

3.1.4. Features Of Successful Professional Communication

Since communication matters a lot in the professional world, it is quite important for us to get acquainted with the most important features of successful professional communication.

1. Communication is a two-way process by which information is transmitted between individuals and/ or organizations to develop an understanding among them.
2. Communication is a process of meaningful interactions among persons in an organization that results in meanings being perceived and understood in a desired way.
3. The role of the receiver and the sender keeps changing in the entire communication activity.
4. Communication broadly includes both verbal and non-verbal forms. Therefore, it also includes lip reading, finger

spelling, sign language, and body language used in face-to-face communication.

5. It is a process which transmits and disseminates important ideas, thoughts, feelings, plans, etc.
6. Communication skills are generally understood to be an art or technique of persuasion through the use of oral, written, and non-verbal features.

3.1.5. Importance of Communication

The following factors make communication indispensable in the world of business.

1. Growth
2. Complexity
3. Competitiveness
4. Harmony
5. Understanding and Cooperation

3.1.6. Different Forms of Communication

Communication is generally classified into the following types:

a) Verbal Communication

Verbal communication stands both for the spoken and the written word used in the communication process. It is further divided into oral and written communication.

- **Oral communication** is a face-to-face interaction between the sender and the receiver. In this type of communication, there could be two or more than two persons who use spoken language as a medium of

communication. For example, whenever we make presentations, deliver speeches, participate in group discussions, appear for interviews, or simply interact with somebody, we are involved in oral communication.

- In **Written communication**, the sender uses the written mode to transmit his/her messages. Reports, proposals, books, handbooks, letters, emails, etc. come in this category. Written communication is routinely used for documentation purposes in business and government organizations.

b) Non- Verbal Communication

When a message is communicated without using a word, the process requires non-verbal cues to be transmitted and received. Non-verbal communication forms an important part in the professional world. It can be further categorized into two –

- **Body language** involves aspects such as personal appearance, walk, gestures, facial expressions, hand movements, posture, and eye contact.
 - **Paralingual features** include a person's voice, volume, pitch, rate, pauses, articulation, voice, modulation etc.
- c) **Intrapersonal Communication** means individual reflection, contemplation, and meditation. Hence, communication that takes place within one's own self is termed intrapersonal communication. An example is transcendental meditation. Communication with the divine and with spirits in the form of prayers, rites and rituals are some of the other examples.

- d) **Interpersonal Communication** is a direct, written, or oral communication that occurs between two or more persons. The oral form of this type of communication, such as a dialogue or a conversation between two or more people, is personal and direct, and permits maximum interaction through words and gestures.
- e) **Extra personal Communication** does not take place only among human beings. Sometimes we do communicate with non-human entities, such as animals, birds, etc. for example, we command our pet dog or cat to sit, stand, or go, they immediately follow our orders. Dogs wag their tails as a sign of their gratitude. This type of communication is known as extra personal communication.
- f) **Mass Communication** is generally identified with tools of modern mass media, which include books, the press, cinema, television, radio, the internet, etc. it is a means of conveying messages to an entire populace. This also includes the speeches delivered by a political leader.
- g) **Media Communication** includes communication that takes place only with the help of electronic media, such as computers, cell phones, LCD, video, television, etc. of these, the internet has become a major means for all sorts of official or personal communication.

Exercise:

1. Define communication
2. explain the major elements of communication
3. Write an essay on different types of communication.

3.2. BARRIERS TO COMMUNICATION

Barriers to effective communication could be anything that disrupts the free flow of communication. It can lead to miscommunication between the sender and the receiver.

Following is some of the barriers to effective communication:

1. Verbal barriers
2. Non-verbal barriers
3. Listening barriers
4. Cultural barriers
5. Miscellaneous barriers

Let us study in detail about the various types of barriers to effective communication.

3.2.1. Verbal barriers: Speaking fluently is an important aspect of communication. One should be able to listen effectively, speak fluently and clearly, write well, and read in the language(s) others are familiar with. Thus, there are some verbal barriers such as verbal attack, speaking loudly unnecessarily and using complex words and phrases.

Some of the reasons for verbal barriers are:

Lack of proper planning will fail to serve the purpose of the message. This may result in miscommunication or partial breakdown in the communication process.

Selection of a wrong variety of language: The language used for communication should be appropriate to the context and situation. Since we choose different varieties of expressions for various human interactions, the selection of the wrong variety of

language for a particular context may lead to failure in proper communication.

Badly encoded or wrongly decoded messages occur when the message conveyed by the sender would not reach the receiver as the message might have been improperly expressed. The reasons for this could be the choice of wrong words, absence of punctuation marks, or wrongly-timed pauses, poor organization of ideas, use of unnecessary jargons etc.

Semantic gaps or distortion might be deliberate or accidental. Ambiguity in conveying the messages can lead to confused situations.

Differences in perception of a message happen when different people perceive a particular situation in different ways. Hence, the message could be interpreted as per the context/ situation and then verify the matter from a different point of view and come to a conclusion.

Variation in language occurs as certain words and idiomatic expressions are culture specific. If we do not use it appropriately in the respective cultural context, it might lead to miscommunication or non- communication.

3.2.2. Non-Verbal Barriers: Non- verbal aspects are crucial in communication skills. Sometimes flashing eyes, rolling eyes, quick movement or very slow movement, or avoiding eye contact may also cause non-verbal barriers to effective communication. raising eyebrows constantly suggests that the speaker is not convinced about the information he/ she has shared. Bulging eyes leave the audience alienated as the speaker unnecessarily sounds arrogant. When the presenter keeps his/ her hands or thumbs constantly in the pockets of his/ her trousers, he/she will certainly appear snobbish, scared, or deceptive to his/ her audience.

3.2.3. Listening barriers: poor listening results in incomplete, incorrect, and inconsistent responses. Listening requires concentration, patience and focus. Some of the other reasons that may cause listening barriers are:

- Making the speaker feel as though he/she is wasting the listener's time.
- Being distracted by something that is not part of the ongoing communication.
- Getting ahead of the speaker and completing his/her thoughts.
- Topping the speaker's story with one's own set of examples.
- Forgetting what is being discussed.
- Asking too many questions for the sake of probing.

3.2.4. Cultural barriers: Cultural barriers are those that arise due to lack of similarities among the different cultures across the world. A term that can be harmless in one culture can be regarded as slang in another culture. Moreover, various beliefs can differ from one culture to another.

3.2.5. Miscellaneous barriers: There are a few complex barriers such as:

Premature evaluation of a message may include to jump to hasty conclusions, approve or disapprove what is being said or written and generalize the ideas without being convinced. This tendency often leads to failure in communication because the listeners and readers evaluate the message without fully understanding its real essence.

Information overload may often tend to ignore the important information unconsciously while processing information.

Distrust, threat and fear are aroused among the subordinates due to inconsistent and unpredictable behaviour of the superiors.

Less time for orientation and for adjustment to change-changes affect people in different ways and it takes time to adapt to a particular situation in both our personal and professional worlds. In some communication situations a need for further training, career adjustment, or status identification are required. Lack of sufficient time to adjust, alter, or prepare the employees to face the changes around them make them less confident and it may also severely affect their performance in an organization.

Emotional reaction may create a barrier depending on the intensity of our emotions while responding or reacting to a context / situation. Emotions such as fear, suspicion, anger, and joy may act as hindrance in making ourselves clear to our audience.

Rigid attitude: A stubborn attitude on the part of the listener or speaker may lead to a failure of communication because human communication is all about sharing and conveying emotions, ideas and attitudes.

Exercise:

Answer the following: -

1. What is 'noise' in communication?
2. Write an essay on the various barriers to communication.

3.3. PREPARATION OF MINUTES FOR MEETING

Minutes of meeting are a helpful tool for recording meeting activities, group or individual accomplishments, and for providing a record for the group's activities, programs, and issues.

3.3.1. The Purpose of Meeting Minutes:

- ✓ An official record of the organization's business
- ✓ Record to highlight procedures, traditional activities, etc.
- ✓ Tool for informing members not in attendance at a meeting
- ✓ Tool to assist in follow-up of assignments and decisions, and the organizing of the next agenda
- ✓ Can assist when selecting members for award nominations, special programs, etc.

3.3.2. What to Include in Meeting Minutes:

- ✓ Name of the organization or committee
- ✓ Type of meeting (regular, special, etc.)
- ✓ Date, time, and place of meeting
- ✓ Name of presiding officer and minute-taker
- ✓ Notation of reading of previous minutes
- ✓ All major meeting motions (except those withdrawn) and points of order or appeals. Include name of person making the motion

- ✓ Names of committee chairpersons, their reports and statement of committee assignment with due date
- ✓ Adjournment time, along with date, time, and place of next meeting

3.3.3. Some Hints on Writing Meeting Minutes:

- ✓ Use full names, not nicknames
- ✓ Ask the presiding officer to restate a motion if you are unsure of exact phrasing
- ✓ Use a tape recorder, if that's easier for you (if you are writing minutes later); just be sure to check with the meeting officers and members first
- ✓ Ask the name of the person making the motion if you're not sure of their name
- ✓ State whether or not the motion passed
- ✓ Identify major items of business in outline form or by underlining, bolding, etc.
- ✓ Include any and all committee and officer reports along with new business.

A formal meeting takes place in three stages:



An agenda for a meeting is a document given to all attendees before the meeting that lists, in order, the matters to be discussed. It is also known as **order of business or meeting timetable**.

Meeting refers to the procedure of the meeting held. A standard committee will have well laid out rules regarding frequency and duration of meetings and the quorum required to set a meeting. There shall be a chairperson for the smooth conduct of the meeting. He/ she shall make sure that all the members present have a fair chance to express their views, no speaker is interrupted and the agenda is followed as per the order.

The minutes of a meeting summarizes the important points which were discussed in the meeting. The minute of the meeting will be detailed for having a clarity of the meeting.

All formal meetings are conducted by a chairperson. Sometimes, the secretary looks into the functional aspects of the meeting such as preparation of documents, informing members etc.

<p>Same main headings as the Agenda</p>	<p>AURORA HOLDINGS plc</p> <p>SOCIAL CLUB</p> <p>A meeting of the Sports and Social Club will be held in the Conference Suite A on Friday 14 May 200– at 1800</p>																						
<p>Leave right side blank and use the heading NOTES Chairman will write notes in this section during the meeting</p>	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th style="text-align: left;">A G E N D A</th> <th style="text-align: left;">NOTES</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>1 APOLOGIES FOR ABSENCE None received</td> <td>1</td> </tr> <tr> <td>2 MINUTES OF LAST MEETING Circulated on 16 May. Point out error in 4.1 - £1,200 should read £12,000</td> <td>2</td> </tr> <tr> <td>3 MATTERS ARISING</td> <td>3</td> </tr> <tr> <td>4 CHAIRMAN'S REPORT Separate notes attached</td> <td>4</td> </tr> <tr> <td>5 FOOTBALL RESULTS AND MATCHES Frank Jones to report on 3 matches held during April. Also future match schedule.</td> <td>5</td> </tr> <tr> <td>6 NEW KEEP-FIT CLASSES Carol Chen to propose the introduction of Keep Fit classes for staff.</td> <td>6</td> </tr> <tr> <td>7 PURCHASE OF TENNIS EQUIPMENT Aileen Forster to report on new tennis equipment needed for July tournament.</td> <td>7</td> </tr> <tr> <td>8 ANNUAL DINNER AND DANCE Discuss date and venue, ideas for programme and appoint person in charge.</td> <td>8</td> </tr> <tr> <td>9 ANY OTHER BUSINESS</td> <td>9</td> </tr> <tr> <td>10 DATE OF NEXT MEETING Suggest 24 June 200–</td> <td>10</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	A G E N D A	NOTES	1 APOLOGIES FOR ABSENCE None received	1	2 MINUTES OF LAST MEETING Circulated on 16 May. Point out error in 4.1 - £1,200 should read £12,000	2	3 MATTERS ARISING	3	4 CHAIRMAN'S REPORT Separate notes attached	4	5 FOOTBALL RESULTS AND MATCHES Frank Jones to report on 3 matches held during April. Also future match schedule.	5	6 NEW KEEP-FIT CLASSES Carol Chen to propose the introduction of Keep Fit classes for staff.	6	7 PURCHASE OF TENNIS EQUIPMENT Aileen Forster to report on new tennis equipment needed for July tournament.	7	8 ANNUAL DINNER AND DANCE Discuss date and venue, ideas for programme and appoint person in charge.	8	9 ANY OTHER BUSINESS	9	10 DATE OF NEXT MEETING Suggest 24 June 200–	10
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<p>Mention any details which will help the Chairman to conduct the meeting</p>																							
<p>Reference and date</p>	<p>CE/ST 12 May 200–</p>																						

Figure 1. Model of Writing Agenda

Main heading includes meeting, place, day, date and time	AURORA HOLDINGS plc			
List those present in alphabetical order with Chairman first	MINUTES OF A MEETING OF THE SPORTS & SOCIAL CLUB HELD IN CONFERENCE SUITE A ON FRIDAY 14 MAY 200– AT 1800			
This separate ACTION column is a popular way of displaying minutes	PRESENT	Mr Chris Evans (Chairman) Miss Carol Chen Miss Aileen Forster	Mr Frank Jones Miss Maxine Street Mrs Wendy Williams	ACTION
The minutes must be corrected if necessary before they can be signed	1	APOLOGIES FOR ABSENCE No apologies were received.		
	2	MINUTES OF LAST MEETING The Chairman asked members to correct an error in item 3.1 where the figure £1,200 should read £12,000. After this correction the minutes were approved and signed by the Chairman as a correct record.		
	3	MATTERS ARISING There were no matters arising.		
	4	CHAIRMAN'S REPORT The Chairman pointed out that membership had fallen by 20% over the last 6 months. It was felt that this was due largely to lack of publicity during the present year, and also because new employees were not sure how to join. Various decisions were reached:		
Break down items if appropriate into separate headings	4.1	CIRCULAR TO STAFF A letter would be sent to all employees who were not members of the Club outlining its aims and activities. A tear-off slip would be included for interested employees to indicate their areas of interest.		CE
Insert initials or full names in the ACTION column	4.2	SOCIAL EVENING A social evening with refreshments would be organised specifically for non-members. Carol Chen agreed to make arrangements.		CC
	5	FOOTBALL RESULTS AND MATCHES		
	5.1	Frank Jones reported on the results of the 3 football matches during April:		
		Team A v Victory Enterprises	12 April	Won 4-3
		Team B v Pentagon Supplies	19 April	Lost 3-2
		Team A v Ward Hi-Tech	26 April	Won 5-2

Figure 2. Format of Writing Minutes of a Meeting(i)

Include the page number at the top left

2

5.2 Future matches were scheduled to be:

Team A v Team B	18 May	1500	Home
Team A v Connolly Industries	25 May	1500	Away

6 NEW KEEP FIT CLASSES

Carol Chen proposed that Keep Fit classes should be held. Sharon Warner from the Fun N Fitness Gym had agreed to conduct such classes on the Company's premises every Wednesday evening 1800–1900.

A discussion was held on a suitable room for the classes, and it was agreed that the Training Office would be suitable. Carol would circulate a notice to all staff announcing the first Keep Fit class on Wednesday 22 May.

7 PURCHASE OF TENNIS EQUIPMENT

Aileen Forster reported that the in-house tennis tournament would start on Monday 4 July. New nets and balls were needed and the tennis courts needed repairing. It was agreed that Aileen should make the necessary arrangements as soon as possible.

8 ANNUAL DINNER AND DANCE

It was agreed that the Annual Dinner and Dance would be held on Saturday 14 September. Wendy Williams agreed to take charge of all the arrangements. She was asked to contact Aston Hall to make preliminary enquiries about their facilities and to report back to the next meeting. Members were asked to consider ideas for the programme for discussion at the next meeting.

9 ANY OTHER BUSINESS

There was no other business.

10 DATE OF NEXT MEETING

It was agreed that the next meeting would be held in Conference Suite A on Thursday 24 June 2000 at 1800.

..... (Chairman)
 (Date)

CE/ST
 16 May 200–

Leave a space for Chairman to sign and date at the next meeting

CC
 AF
 WW
 Members

Figure 3. (cont.) Format of Writing Minutes

3.4. MEMO WRITING

Memo is the short form of ‘memorandum’. The term is derived from Latin word *memorare* which later changed to *memorandus* which means ‘to provide information’. A memo is usually an internal working paper written to share information and/or instructions among peers, most often those working for the same organization or those working together on a common project even though they represent different organizations. Because they are informal working papers, memos are rarely sent to outsiders, especially those you or your organization want to impress. A business letter is considered more formal, more serious, more forceful, and more impressive than a memo.

Because they are written to people who are involved in or at least familiar with your work, your organization, and the standard practices of your profession, memos use an informal style in which jargon, abbreviations, and short-form references to people and organizations are acceptable.

Most memos request specific information, respond to previous questions, share new information, or give instructions to do something. They may also be written to create a "*paper trail*" for future reference.

Note: In recent years and in many organizations, e-mail has increasingly taken the place of hard-copy memos. In fact, the basic format of email is a direct adaptation of memo format. Consequently, many of the guidelines for writing e-mail and for memo writing are totally interchangeable.

3.4.1. Some tips to be followed:

- ✓ state the subject clearly and precisely.
- ✓ get to your main message directly.

- ✓ make your sentences short and simple.
- ✓ give preference to direct statements using personal pronouns if necessary.

e.g., **instead of saying,**

“The chairman has desired that all section heads prepare monthly reports on the implementation of the project and submit the same to the undersigned for compilation.” **You can say-** “I have been asked by the Chairman to compile all monthly reports on the implementation of the project. Please send me a report pertaining to your section by the 7th of the month.”

- ✓ break up your message into points.
- ✓ make it brief because your reader may be a busy person and may not have time to read a long message.

3.4.2. Memo format and set-up suggestions:

- ✓ Some people like to center the work MEMORANDUM at the top of the page.
- ✓ Some use a DATE: heading above the other headings or inserted between the FROM and RE lines.
- ✓ SUBJ: or SUBJECT: are often used as an alternative on the RE line.
- ✓ Titles may be added on the same line and immediately after a person’s name or on the next line, intended to align with the start of the person’s name.
- ✓ The departments in which the TO and FROM people work may also be included on the line beneath their names.

- ✓ Traditionally, the writer initials or signs first name only— Full signatures are almost never used —after or over their name on the FROM line of the original memo. Additional copies are usually left unsigned.
- ✓ Bottom notes, if needed, are added under the body of the memo and aligned with the left margin.
- ✓ Initials and capitalization identify a secretary and the type of help provided in preparing the memo.
- ✓ *cc:* (meaning carbon copies) or *c:* (copies) followed by names identifies people whose names are not listed in the TO line who are also being sent copies of the memo.
- ✓ *Enclosures:* or *Attachments:* are reminders meant to ensure that the recipient gets everything promised in the body of the memo.

3.4.3. FORMAT

(COMPANY NAME OR MEMORANDUM)

TO: _____

FROM: _____

DATE: ___/___/___

SUBJECT: _____

(NOTICE)

EXAMPLE:

MEMORANDUM

TO: The Security Manager

FROM: Director (Building)

DATE: 04/11/2022

SUBJECT: Security Measures

After three incidents of theft of scooters in the previous week from our parking shed, it is important that security measures should be tightened with immediate effect. A strict check at the entrance and exit gates is required. Only permanent token holders should be allowed to park their vehicles in the parking shed.

1. (a) Please issue identity cards to all the employees of the establishment with their recent photographs.

(b) Each employee should be given a token for his/her vehicle.

2. A full time parking shed caretaker should be appointed with immediate effect. Financial sanction be obtained. Manager (Personnel) be consulted about the recruitment rules.

3. Please discuss these and other security measures with members of the staff.

Their suggestions will be welcome.

Sd/

Director (Building)

In short, **office memos** are neither letters nor notices. They give instruction and information.

Exercise:

1. Prepare a memo as a Manager of a company to be circulated among staff for preparing the documents for the upcoming ISO Audit decided next month.
2. Prepare a memo as the Manager of a Bank to complete the pending work before the annual financial year closing due next week.

3.5. EMAILS

Email is a very specific form of communication—it is a quick, inexpensive and convenient way of communicating with a small or large audience, who may be next door or across the world. It is a great way to make arrangements—provided that they are not urgent. Instant delivery does NOT mean the recipient will read it immediately. It is an excellent way to get information to a wide range of people— as long as your subject line is relevant or interesting enough to get them to read it. It is a simple way of asking for a response—as a follow up, not as a long explanation and request for action. It is a wonderful way to send information—as attachments not in the body of the email. An email is not a letter, a report or the minutes of a meeting—but it is an excellent way of sending information to an audience, or asking for a response.

A crucial point to be aware of is:

→ any email can end up anywhere with anyone!

→ It is so easy: to put the incorrect addressee to accidentally hit “Reply to All” for the person who receives your email to send it to anyone.

→ And it stays on the server, even if you delete it from your machine.

Remember: an email is a business document.

3.5.1. Structure of emails

Emails are by far the most common method of communication for internal office correspondence, and they are fast replacing letters in all but the most formal business situations. Most people in companies use emails for a wide range of purposes: to confirm appointments and meetings, request help or action, provide information, etc.

Here is the explanation of some terms you will come across while composing a new email message:

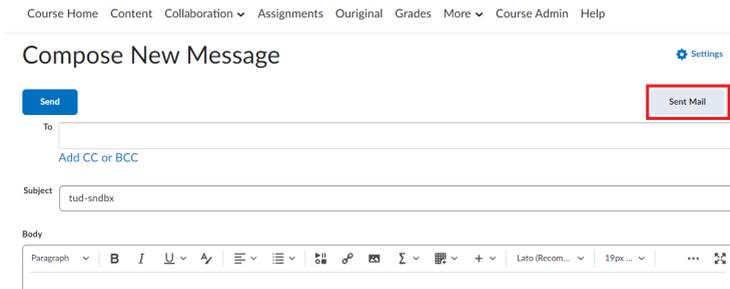


Figure 1. Format of an e-mail

To: this line is for providing the address of the person you are mailing to.

Subject: this is for providing the title of the message. It should be brief.

Cc: you can enter an address here to send a copy of a mail to someone else other than the person to whom you are mailing.

Bcc: it means blind copy. As with the cc line, a copy of the message will be sent to the address you provide in the Bcc line. However, the recipient of the original message will not be able to tell that the Bcc address received a copy.

Attachments: this option is to attach and send files on the computer along with the message.

The big blank area: this is where you type your message (body of the text)

3.5.2. Differences between letters and emails

- Letters can be formal, while emails tend to be less formal in tone and style. Letters use conventions for opening and closing a letter, while emails have few standard conventions.
- Letters start with "Dear (name)". Emails often start without a name, or with "Hello" or "Hi".
- Letters provide a permanent, written record, while emails can be easily deleted.
- Letters tend to be longer, while emails are better for brief responses or notices.
- Letters tend to have a clear paragraph structure, while in emails, the paragraphs tend to be shorter.
- Letters are used more for external correspondence, while emails are suitable for internal memos and messages.

3.5.3. Structure of emails – layout

Emails are generally shorter and more informal than letters. Unlike letters, emails don't have conventional openings and closings and a variety of salutations can be used. Because emails are often written quickly - sometimes as an immediate response to a request or query - they can often look like notes, with short one-sentence paragraphs and abbreviations.

3.5.4. An email may contain:

- Subject line
- (Salutation - optional)
- Reason for writing
- Main point
- (Development of point - optional)
- (Additional points - optional)
- (Closing - optional)

3.5.5. Guidelines for writing emails

Be brief

Get straight to the point with your reason for writing. Edit carefully so that your email contains only the most important information. Less important information can be sent in a separate email.

Be clear

Use a descriptive subject line that tells your reader what your email is about. If necessary, change the original subject line if it's too vague or if the conversation has moved on to other areas.

Don't write your email in dense paragraphs. Shorter paragraphs (even if only one line long) help your reader to easily scan for information.

Plan

For longer emails, a plan helps you focus on the objective of your email and keeps your ideas linked and concise.

Be accurate

Use your spell check to eliminate spelling or typing errors.

Delete previous emails

Delete original emails if they are long or unconnected to your present email. Instead, refer to parts of the previous email with angle bracket keys: < and > or << and >>

Use a plain background

It is better to use black text on white background to be sure that your email is easy to read. Patterns or motifs in the body of the email risk making you look childish or immature – stick to a plain white background.

Be polite

Avoid writing sarcastic or angry comments. It's far better to delay sending an email until after you've had time to cool off than send something you might later regret.

Starting an email

You don't need to write "Dear ..." at the beginning of the email, especially if you are writing to people within your company. As the name of the person you are writing to appears in the *To:* box of the email, you can start writing your message immediately. If

you're writing to people outside your company, or to friends, you can use "Dear..." to create a friendly tone. In some situations, for example when you are emailing a group of people, you can leave out "Dear ...(name)" and start with the objective of the email.

Examples:

"Please find attached the memo we have sent to all our suppliers."

"A new security code for the front door will be in operation from January 12th."

Ending an email

There are a variety of ways to end your email. If you start with "Dear..." you can choose one of the endings used also in letters:

The email starts "Dear Mary".

The email ends with "Best wishes" or "Kind regards".

The email starts "Dear Mr Johnson".

The email ends "Yours sincerely" or "Sincerely" in American English.

If your email did not start with "Dear" and a name, then you can use any of these endings:

"Best wishes"

"Thanks"

"Thanks and regards"

"Kind regards"

"Yours"

"Cheers" (very informal, particularly British English meaning "Thanks")

"All the best" (British English meaning "Best wishes")

If you're writing an email to someone within your company, you can leave out an ending:

For example:

From: Clare

Subject: Forms I've attached the forms for you.

Punctuation in emails Capital letters

Use capital letters only where necessary, such as for names, places and days of the week. Don't write the whole email in capital letters as this looks as if you're shouting at your reader. However, remember to capitalize 'I' when you are writing about yourself. It's distracting for the reader to see 'i'.

Abbreviations

Some email writers abbreviate as much as possible, making their emails difficult to understand.

You should avoid using 'wld' for "would", 'cld' for "could", 'plse' for "please", 'thks' for "thanks", 'rgds' for "regards" or 'wkr' for "with kind regards".

If you abbreviate words down to consonants, your reader may not understand your email. Using too many abbreviations looks as if you can't be bothered to write words out in full. However, there are some standard abbreviations which are generally understood, such as:

asap = "as soon as possible"

etc = "et cetera"

i.e. = "that is to say"

e.g. = "for example"

re = "regarding" (about)

Language of emails - writing concisely

Emails tend to be shorter than letters, and the points you make in your email will be more concise. Letters often contain 'standard' phrases, which you can rewrite in a shorter form in emails.

Here are some common examples:

I regret to inform you (*letters*)

Sorry to tell you (*emails*)

I would be grateful if you could... (*letters*)

Could you... (*emails*)

Regarding... (*letters*)

About... (*emails*)

I would like to confirm... (*letters*)

Just to confirm (*emails*)

We look forward to seeing you on... (*letters*)

See you on... (*emails*)

Thank you for your attention (*letters*)

Thanks (*emails*)

In response to your letter, (*letters*)

Following (*emails*)

Please confirm (*letters*)

Please let us know (*emails*)

Exercise:

1. Prepare an email to inform the Class tutor that you are not keeping well and hence you will not be able to attend the class for the next three days.
2. Prepare an email to the Manager of the Bank that you have an account. You want to get the monthly statement of transactions via email. Request him/her to do the same.

3.6. LETTER WRITING

Letter Writing is an important channel of communication between people who are geographically distant from one another. In earlier times when the telephone and email were not available, the only means of communication between people was through letters.

Letter-writing is a skill that has to be developed. In general, there are two types of letters:

- **Formal**, that are written to convey official business and information and
- **Informal**, which are personal letters to communicate with friends and family.

Formal letters are sent out when we need to write to various public bodies or agencies for our requirements in civic life. For example,

we might have to ask for a certificate or to inform a change in our address. A letter is usually one in a series of exchanges between two people or parties.

3.6.1. Formal letters can be divided into two different categories:

- i. Official
- ii. Business

3.6.1.1. Official Letters

Official letter is written in an official capacity to correspond with a colleague, senior or any other member in an office.

3.6.1.2. Business letters

A business letter is written to a company/organization/industry from another official firm regarding various issues such as placing orders, settling payments, making complaints etc.

- The format of a business letter is that of a formal official letter. It is straightforward and specific.
- Avoid using long and complicated sentences. Keep the vocabulary simple.
- One should avoid making any grammatical or spelling mistakes in an official letter.

Formal letters are usually written for some of the following:

- To apply for a job.
- To make a complaint.
- To order goods.

- To the editor of a newspaper.
- To ask for something – a form, an appointment.
- To ask for information.
- To make a booking for a holiday etc.
- To invite someone to an event or to visit such as a school open day or annual day celebration.

Most formal letters have the following parts:

1. Sender's Address / Letterhead

You should add your address at the top left of the letter. Institutions will write to you on their official letterheads, which include their name, address and contact details such as telephone and fax numbers, e-mails or website address.

2. Date

This will be followed by the date on which the letter is being written/ sent. It is advisable to use one date format consistently in all your correspondence. For the sake of simplicity and clarity it is recommended that you use the alphanumeric format as on 1 January 2022.

3. Reference Number (if any)

Companies and institutions use this alphanumeric notation to file the letter. It is advisable to quote it in continuing correspondence. In the letter it will be usually labelled as 'Ref:', which is followed by the actual reference number.

4. Receiver's Address

Then you will include the name and the address of the receiver (also called addressee) of the letter. If you are writing to a

specific individual, you must include the name and designation of the person.

5. Subject Line

Labelled usually as ‘Sub:’, the subject line is a short description, not more than one line, that highlights the purpose of your letter.

6. Salutation

Use ‘Dear’ followed by the title (Dr, Professor, Mr, Ms) and the surname of the person you are writing to; for example, Dear Dr Bhatt, or Dear Ms Verma. In case you do not know the name of the addressee, you can write Dear Director or Dear Manager.

7. Body

Your text constitutes the body. It can be divided into two or three paragraphs as per the requirement.

8. Closing

You close your letter with ‘Yours truly’ or ‘Yours sincerely’. It is wrong to say Your’s. Be careful with the apostrophe.

9. Signature Area

After the complimentary close, remember to sign the letter. Below your signature, you will also need to have your name written/ printed in upper case.

10. Enclosure Notation

Next to the label ‘Encl.’ you will list the additional documents being sent with the letter.

Nowadays all the parts of a letter are aligned on the left. This style is called the **Full-Block style**.

- The date and signature are very important in letters.
- We do not use commas after every line in the address.
- Do not begin your letters with hackneyed expressions like, ‘With reference to your letter dated 10 January’. Instead, use personalized variations like, ‘I was glad to receive your letter of 10 January...’ or ‘We were happy to note from your letter that the goods have reached you safely...’
- Never end your letters with hanging participles like ‘Thanking you’ or ‘Awaiting your reply’. Instead write, ‘Thank you’ or ‘We/I await/look forward to your reply’.

Format of formal letter

Ritu Patel
Manager, Customer Services
Vijayanagar Gas Company
121, Ameerpet
Hyderabad 500 016
12 November 2005.

Mr Shagun Thomas
801, Vijay Apartments
Begumpet
Hyderabad 500 016

Dear Mr Thomas,

Sub: Your application No. F323 for a new gas connection

With regards,

Yours sincerely,

(Sd/-)

RITU PATEL

3.6.2. An informal letter

- An informal letter is addressed to a personal relation such as parents, friends, relatives etc.
- It is casual in tone wherein you can relax and express your emotions accordingly. One should use simple and natural style of writing here.
- There is no specified rule regarding the length, format or expression in it.

3.6.2.1 Format of an Informal letter

Hyderabad
12 November 2005

Dear Sujata,

Bye,

Yours affectionately/With love/

All the best/Take care etc.

(Signature)

3.6.3. Application Letter

- It is very important to be able to write a good letter when you are applying for a job. This kind of letter is called a letter of application.
- Sometimes you will have to fill in an application form, but at other times you will be asked to write a letter.
- Many people send a Curriculum Vitae, or CV for short, with a letter of application.

- A CV gives all the basic details about you and means your letter of application can be quite short.
- If you have not prepared a Curriculum Vitae/CV, you will need to give all the important details about yourself in your letter.
- These are important things which an employer needs to know about you.
 - age.
 - school attended.
 - educational record.
 - work experience.
 - any special skills.
 - hobbies or interests.
 - have you got references?
 - are you available for an interview?

3.6.3.1. Planning an application letter

First paragraph: Identify your objective/ goal exactly

In the first paragraph, say specifically the position/ job you are applying for and how you came to know about it- through an advertisement or someone known to you. Sometimes, you may apply without knowing that a position exists or is available. Use the opening paragraph to show what kind of position you are qualified for. Also state the reasons for your interest to work in that particular company.

Second paragraph: Give sufficient evidence of your ability / qualifications for the position.

In the second paragraph, explain why you are qualified for the position/ job. Do not repeat what you have written in the resume. But mention briefly your education or work experience and indicate the particular points relevant to the position applied for. As a pass-out graduate, mention in your education important courses or special projects that have enriched your preparation and enhanced your sustainability for the position you are seeking for. Give here your extracurricular activities, if any, that show your qualities of leadership or abilities to organize and coordinate or functionally form a part of your education. Show how your project work/ industrial visits/ work experience is related to the position you want.

Third paragraph: Ask for an interview opportunity

At the end, suggest that you would like to come for an interview at the employer's convenience. The purpose of your letter is to make the prospective employer decide to meet you.

In writing an application letter, we should remember that we are selling those merits which the employer needs. And further we shall be able to write the application letter effectively if we remember the important principles of writing such as

- ✓ Coherence
- ✓ Concreteness
- ✓ Simplicity
- ✓ Emphasis
- ✓ Originality

- ✓ Sincerity
- ✓ Empathy
- ✓ Convention

Keep your letter brief. Like the resume it should be spotless, nicely typed or written and centred on a white page of about 21 cm by 29.5cm. Address your letter to a specific person by name, if possible. If the advertisement does not give the name of the concerned person and mentions only the Post box office number, then mail it according to the address given in the advertisement. Sign your letter prominently.

Example of an Application Letter

49 Broome Avenue
Nottingham
NJT 3JT
02 June 2022

Mrs Loise John
Human Relations Manager
Temple Street
London
6221111

Dear Mrs John,

**Sub: Application for the Post of Telephone
Executive (Marketing)**

I am interested in applying for this post as advertised in today's Nottingham Post.

I have been employed as Part-time Administration Assistant in Nottingham Technical College for the last 6 months while studying there on an Administration Course. My Course finishes soon and I am keen to join a progressive company such as Arora Holdings.

My full particulars are shown on my enclosed Curriculum Vitae.

I shall be happy to attend an interview at any time, and looking forward to hearing from you soon.

Yours sincerely

(signature)

ADRIENNE LANGSTON (Miss)

Enc.

Exercise:

1. Write a letter to the Editor of a newspaper calling attention to the negligence on the part of the authorities regarding disposal of waste in your area.
2. Write a letter as a Librarian of a school to Reading Publishers Pvt Ltd. WB to claim compensation for 50 books (Indian History) which arrived in a damaged condition. Alternatively, request a replacement at the publisher's cost.

3.7. CURRICULUM VITAE (CV) / RESUME

Curriculum vitae is Latin, literally meaning ‘the course of one’s life’. A curriculum vitae (CV) sets out your personal details, education, qualifications and working experience. Make sure you organise all the information logically under headings and use columns where appropriate. All your details can then be found at a glance. It is known by several names such as resume, personal profile, biodata, personal data sheet, qualification sheet, summary and so on. A CV/ Resume is a self-introduction to promote yourself. To be able to advertise yourself successfully, you need to know how to prepare a good resume. In other words, it is the standard representation of credentials within academia.

- The full CV is only used when applying for academic positions in four-year institutions.
- Do not use a CV when applying to community colleges—use a teacher-focused resume instead.
- Tailor your CV to the specific positions to which you are applying and place more relevant sections earlier in the document.

–For a position at a teaching-focused liberal arts college, the CV will strongly emphasize teaching.

–For a position at a research-intensive university, the CV will stress research.

- Format can vary by field, so also seek disciplinary-specific advice from advisers, professors, and others within your field.
- There are no length restrictions for CVs.

3.7.1. FORMATTING

- Your CV must be well organized and easy to read.
- Choose an effective format and be consistent.
- Use bolds, italics, underlines, and capitalization to draw attention.
- List all relevant items in reverse chronological order in each section.
- Strategically place the most important information near the top and/or left side of the page.
 - In general, place the name of the position, title, award, or institution on the left side of the page and associated dates on the right.
- Use a footer with page numbers and your last name, in case pages get separated.

DESCRIBE YOUR EXPERIENCES

- Articulate what you have done and take advantage of the opportunity to describe your research and teaching experiences—do more than simply list them.
- Avoid the bland phrase “responsibilities included.” This can sound like a dull job description. Instead, use bullets to describe your activities, accomplishments, and successes.

3.7.2. SECTIONS TO INCLUDE

The Basic Sections

Heading: Name, email address, mailing address (only one), and phone number

Education: List academic degrees, with in progress or most recently earned first.

- Name of institution, city and state, degree type and major, month and year of when the degree was (will be) awarded
- Thesis title and advisor, if applicable

Relevant Experience: List positions that show off your skills and expertise. You can group experiences into relevant categories to enhance your CV (e.g., Research, Teaching, and Administration). For each position, include:

- Title, organization name, city and state, dates position was held.
- Bullet points that summarize your activities/duties, accomplishments, and successes. Use action verbs.

Publications: Give bibliographic citations for articles, pamphlets, chapters in books, research reports, or any other publications that you have authored or co-authored. Use the format appropriate to your particular academic discipline for a clean look.

Presentations (Oral and Poster): Give titles of professional presentations, name of conference or event, dates and location, and, if appropriate in your discipline, also include a brief description. Use the format appropriate to your particular academic discipline for a consistent and clean look.

Honours and Awards: Receipt of competitive scholarships, fellowships, and assistantships; names of scholastic honours; teaching or research awards.

References: Three to five are appropriate. If you are responding to an advertisement that asks for references, include those requested on a separate addendum sheet.

3.7.3. OPTIONAL SECTIONS

Qualifications or Skills: A summary of particular or relevant strengths or skills which you want to highlight. Typically, this is not included as a separate section, but addressed in other sections. Occasionally, it may be appropriate to list special computing or language skills.

Grants Received: Include name of grant, name of granting agency, date received, and title or purpose of research project.

Institutional Service: List institutional committees you have served on, including offices held, student groups you have supervised, or special academic projects you have assisted with.

Certifications: List all relevant certifications and the year received.

Professional Associations: Memberships in national, regional, state, and local professional organizations. Also, list significant appointments to positions or committees in these associations. Student memberships in professional associations are appropriate.

Recent/Current Research: Description of research projects recently conducted or in progress. Include the type of research and a brief description of the purpose.

Community Involvement: Appropriate and relevant volunteer work, church work, community service organizations, etc.

Educational Travel: Names of countries, dates, purpose.

Note: There are several styles for writing a CV or resume. Below is given a generally used chronological format.

Sample CV

AKSHITA MEHRA

21/A, AMRITA SHERGIL MARG. NEW DELHI- 110003

Phone (011) 24620980/24692993, 9810455654

Email: akshita123@yahoo.com

JOB OBJECTIVE

Initially I want to work as a management trainee in an industry where my education in management, with a major in marketing, may be developed. My ultimate goal is to be a senior executive in marketing.

PERSONAL PROFILE

Date of birth 7 June 1980

Marital Status Single

SPECIALIZATION

Marketing and Sales

Human Resource Management

EDUCATION

Postgraduate Diploma in Business Management from XLRI,
Jamshedpur-2004

Bachelor of Arts – Sociology Honours, Lady Shri Ram College
(LSR), New Delhi- 2002

Senior Secondary (XII) CBSE – Humanities, Sardar Patel
Vidyalaya, New Delhi-1999

Higher Secondary (X) CBSE, Sardar Patel Vidyalaya, New Delhi
– 1997

SCHOLARSHIPS/ AWARDS

Shri Ram Swaroop Ahuja Award for Outstanding performance in
Sports -1998

Shri Jaswant S Pandaya Award for Outstanding Performance in
Athletics- 1996

Govt. of India Sports Talent Search Scholarship Scheme - 1997

INTERESTS AND ACHIEVEMENTS

President of National Sports Organization 2001-2002 at Lady Shri Ram College.

Awarded certificate of merit for Contribution to Sports

First Degree International Black Belt in Tae- Kwon- Do (Korean Martial Art)

Held Merit Positions in Basketball, Volleyball, Badminton, Table Tennis and Judo.

Won 9 medals including 7 Golds.

Master of Ceremony for the following events organized by Amity Business School.

Alumni Meet

Mentor Meet

Corporate Meet

Acumen 2003, Organized by Business Today

PERSONAL OBJECTIVES

My desire is to create a truly competitive arena wherever I work. I want to bring my enthusiasm and sense of confidence to the organization and to the people I work with. My involvement in various areas of activities at college has taught me crucial lessons on leadership and teamwork.

STRENGTHS

Team Player

Self-Confident and Goal oriented

Fast learner with an ability to excel

WORK EXPERIENCE

Worked as a Trainee in Enterprise Nexus, Ad Agency in the Research and Planning Department.

Conducted research for General Motors undertaken by Enterprise Nexus

REFERENCES

Available on request

Exercise:

1. What is a CV?
2. prepare a job application letter based on the following facts. Applications are invited for the post of Software Engineer. The candidate should be an MCA or MSc in Computer Science. Apply within 15 days to HRD manager, HI-TECH Pvt Ltd, Hyderabad. Pin: 500 081

3.8. RESEARCH /PROJECT PROPOSAL

After evaluating the problem, you have to prepare and write down a proposal, synopsis, or a plan for undertaking the project work. It would include a statement of the problem, and its significance, formulation of hypothesis(es) (if any), the methods indicating the selection of sample(s), tools, techniques to be used in the collection and analysis of data and a detailed bibliography.

A project proposal/ research proposal is a systematic plan, which brings to focus the preliminary planning that will be needed to achieve the objectives of the proposed project. The initial draft of the proposal is subject to modifications in the light of the constructive criticism, comments and suggestions of the experts in the field. The experts include your supervisor, counsellors, colleagues or research specialists in the concerned field. The research/ project proposal always goes through the developmental phases, and therefore, deficiencies, if any, may be corrected by discussing the same with experts. You may note that an acceptable research/project proposal, therefore, is usually the result of several modifications. The proposal should be prepared with all care and caution.

In other words, a research/ project proposal is to allow the student to place the proposed study within a coherent, organised framework, which is also standardized. The proposal should be based on the topic/ scope of work assigned by the organization. Project proposal will enhance the student's understanding, grasp and clarity of the subject matter, the context of the problem and the research problem. This is necessary for the direction and procedure of the study to be brought within the required scope, coverage, and rigour, and also for enhancing the quality of the research effort, with the inputs of the expert panel to identify and suggest rectification of possible problems in the proposal.

A research/ project proposal must have information about:

- What are you proposing to do;
- How you plan to do it;
- Why you select the proposed strategy

The following categories of information should be carried in the proposal:

- Definitions, problems and limitations;
- A statement of the objectives of the study;
- A list of hypotheses (if you are testing any);
- The research instrument(s) you are planning to use;
- The information on sample size and sampling design;
- Information on data processing procedures;
- An outline of the proposed chapters for the report; (if possible)
- A proposed time-frame.

The project proposal should appear in the following order:

Page i: Cover page

Page ii: Second title page

Page iii: Certificate of approval

Page iv: Approval of organizational and faculty guides

Page v-vi: Abstract

Page vii: Acknowledgement

Page viii: Table of contents

Page ix: List of figures

Page x: List of tables

Page xi: List of appendices

Page xii: Abbreviations

Page I: Introduction

Page II: Background of the study / Review of Literature

Page III: Methodology

Page V: Proposed Chapter Division

Page...: References/ Bibliography

Time Schedule

Page....: Appendices

Cover Page: the format of the cover page of a project proposal is as below:

Project Title

A Project Proposal for

Course Title

By

Your name

Under the guidance of

Shri [Name of the supervisor]
Designation
Organization

Dr/Prof. [Name of the faculty]
Designation
Institution

Second page

Project Title

by

Your name

Under the guidance of

Shri [Name of the supervisor]
Designation
Organization

Dr/Prof. [Name of the faculty]
Designation
Institution

Approval of organizational and faculty guides: the format is below

Certificate of Approval

The following Project Report titled “ABC....” is hereby approved as a certified study in [Discipline: Languages, sociology, management studies etc.] carried out and presented in a manner satisfactory to warrant its acceptance as a prerequisite for the award of [Course Title: Postgraduate Programme in Management] for which it has been submitted. It is understood that by this approval the undersigned do not necessarily endorse or approve any statement made, opinion expressed or conclusion drawn therein but approve the Project Report only for the purpose it is submitted.

Project Report Examination Committee for evaluation of Project Report

	Name	signature
1. Faculty Examiner	_____	_____
2. Project Coordinator	_____	_____

Certificate from Summer Project Guides

This is to certify that Mr/ Ms [Student’s Name], a student of the [Course Title], has worked under our guidance and supervision. This project Proposal had the requisite standard and to the best of our knowledge no part has been reproduced from any other summer project, monograph, report or book.

Institute Faculty Guide	Organizational Faculty Guide
Designation	Designation
MDI, New Delhi	Organisation
	Address
Date	Date

Abstract: Each project report must include an abstract of a maximum of two pages in single space (about 800 – 1000 words). It should state clearly and concisely the topic, scope, method, and conclusions. The emphasis should be on the conclusions and recommendations. The word limit should be strictly adhered to.

Acknowledgements: Students are advised to acknowledge help and support from faculty members, library, computer centre, outside experts, their sponsoring organizations and so on.

Table of Contents: A project proposal must contain a table of contents that provides a view of the organisation of the report material.

List of tables, figures and abbreviations: If the project proposal contains tables, figures and abbreviations used, they should be listed immediately following the table of contents. Each of these lists begin on a separate page.

See the format for List of Figures below:

List of figures		
Figure No.	Description	Page

The title

The title of the research/ project proposal should do no more than name the topic. In selecting a title, you are advised to consider two things:

- i) The title should not be burdened by pompous words and should not include terms of unscientific, rhetorical, emotional or biased nature.
- ii) The title should not be too lengthy or too involved. It should be specific to the area of study.

Introduction

Introduction of the proposal should include:

- The statement of the problem – the definition of the problem which has a specific part in the introductory part of the proposal. It means the expansion of the title with a focus on the stated goals.
- Significance of the problem under discussion. A good research/ project proposal should specify the worth and urgency of the project.
- Definitions, assumptions, limitations and delimitations- it is important to define all the unusual terms and concepts that could be misinterpreted.
- Research objectives that facilitate the execution of activities of the project in a planned manner.

Background of the study/ Review of Literature

Review of related literature available in research journals, books, dissertations, theses and project reports is helpful to a researcher

to acquaint himself/ herself with current knowledge in the area in which the study is to be conducted. It enables the researcher to define the limits of the field and scope of the study. The review brings the researcher up-to-date on the work which others have done and thus to state the objectives clearly and concisely. Background study and review is often helpful in avoiding unintentional duplication of well-established findings and thus helps in the formulation of hypotheses.

Methodology

This section explains various methods used for study by the researcher.

Proposed Chapter Division

In this part, we give a brief idea about the division of chapters in the final project report.

Bibliography/ Reference

The research/ project proposal should include a list of books, journals and other documents that have been used in identifying and selecting the problem and which may be used during the tenure of project work.

Time Schedule

For completing the project work, you should also prepare a realistic time schedule keeping in view other requirements of the project and your own personal commitments. Dividing the project work into phases and assigning dates for completion of each phase will help you to use your time systematically.

3.9. STATEMENT OF PURPOSE (SOP)

There are two types of essays for academic purpose:

i) Personal Statement.

ii) Statement of Purpose.

Before getting into Statement of Purpose, let us understand Personal Statement.

Personal Statement is a story about your personal experiences, your work, your voluntary experiences and so on in the past that has made you the person that you are today and led you to arrive at this juncture where you are motivated to apply to college. Now, a personal statement is typically used by the admission's office to figure out whether you fit into their student community or their student body. **Personal Statement** should be limited to 750 words.

A Statement of Purpose (SOP), on the other hand, is a bridge between your past experience and the future that you want to build at this programme specifically at this university. The SOP is used by the admission counsellors to decide whether you are a right fit for that programme.

Generally, undergraduate programmes ask for a personal statement. SOP is required usually for admissions to graduate schools (PG programmes, research etc). Sometimes additionally a personal statement and a resume as well.

Before writing SOP, divide all the credentials into three categories:

1. Information you want to write on your CV or resume (One page)

2. Information you want to write on your SOP.

3. Stories you want to talk about in your personal statement.

Six P's to be followed

1. Purpose

- Clear articulation of your goals and interests
- Questions to be asked yourself:
 - Why do you want to do graduate studies?
 - Why do you want to pursue this particular course?
- Talk about your research interest, if the programme is research based.
- What skills and knowledge do you hope to gain?
- What do you want to do after you complete this programme?

2. Past experience

- Some of the questions to think about:
 - What kind of and how much past experience?
 - What skills do you hope to gain from this programme?
- Share vivid, concrete examples of your work (project work/ presentation etc.)

3. Programme

- Crux of the SOP
- Questions to be answered:

- Why do you want to study in that country? (Skip this question if you are applying to USA)
- Why do you want to study at that college in particular? (Use right vocabulary)
- How does your work connect with the programme?
- How does the programme fulfil your needs and interests?
- What are your expectations from the programme and how are you going to contribute to the programme?
- Does the department have a particular research methodology that you like or does it have certain facets of the curriculum that appeal to you?
- Is there any professor that you would like to work with?
- You can contact the professor beforehand if necessary.

4. Personality

- Apart from your work and education, what makes you unique?
- What are the one or two things about your personality that you want to showcase to the admission officer?
- What do you know about the student body?
- How you think you are going to fit in is also an aspect of connecting your personality to the personality of the college.

The key to writing a good SOP is to be unique and standing out. You can begin the SOP with a quote, an anecdote or an experience.

5. Plain English

- You need to communicate clearly, effectively and logically.
- Make it simple and effective.
- Write appropriate words
- Make it very easy to read
- Write it yourself.
- Authenticity, uniqueness and genuineness is the hallmark of a good SOP.

6. Process

If the process is right, the end result is definitely going to be perfect.

- i) Begin early – give 3-4 months to write the SOP.
- ii) Never lift a single line from anyone else's SOP
- iii) Always follow directions
- iv) Proof-read.
- v) Get feedback from a number of people from different fields.
- vi) Avoid overusing the word 'I' and don't use slang or short forms.
- vii) Never let your SOP exceed two pages.

viii) In an SOP keep your personal information limited. Try using a reading app to proofread the SOP.

In short, the **Statement of Purpose (SOP)** is your personal statement about who you are, what has influenced your career path so far, your professional interests and where you plan to go from here. It need not be a bold statement of facts as several successful SOPs address these questions through anecdotes, stories or by describing their hero. But whether your SOP is subtle or to the point, it must be well written to have a positive impact on your application. This is because the SOP is the only part of your application packet over which you have full control. Your academic and extra-curricular records are in the past. It is important to choose recommendation letter writers carefully, but while you hope they give you the best possible recommendation, this is not within your control.

The SOP is your chance to talk directly to the admissions committee, to make yourself stand out from among a multitude of similarly qualified candidates and to convince the committee that you have the spark, the thirst for knowledge that could add value to your class.

A good SOP will certainly improve your chances of getting admission to the school of your choice, and even compensate for weaker portions of your application such as less-than-perfect grades. A bad SOP, on the other hand, has the potential to drag down an otherwise strong application.

If you plan correctly, you can give yourself enough time to submit a well-written, thoughtful, polished essay that will boost your chances for admission. Equally important, this is a great opportunity to look inside yourself and be rewarded for a better understanding of who you are.

Writing a reasonably good Statement of Purpose is not an impossible task. It requires care, attention and patience. And enough time for you to be able to write several drafts, show them to people and polish the essay till you get a version you are happy with. Done right, this will even turn out to be an enjoyable process. And you will be richer and happier.

Language Guidelines

Please keep in mind the following when writing your essays and SOP:

- **Flow**

While each paragraph should make a complete statement on its own, the essay should logically progress from paragraph to paragraph. Read your essay for flow, or have someone else read it, and ask yourself if there seems to be an abrupt shift between ideas in two consecutive paragraphs.

- **Structure**

This follows naturally from flow. Do all the paragraphs mesh together to form a cogent whole? Does the essay, through a logical progression of ideas, demonstrate your interest, enthusiasm, and fit in the department you have applied to?

- **Language**

Avoid slang and abbreviations. For acronyms, use the full form the first time and show the acronym in parentheses. Use grammatically correct English and ALWAYS read your essay carefully for spelling mistakes before you send it off -your computer's spell check may not flush out all the errors. Try to make your essay crisp, cutting out unnecessary adverbs, articles and pronouns (for instance, a careful reading may yield several "the's" that are superfluous).

- **Tone**

Use a consistent tone throughout the essay -it will only confuse the admissions officers if you alternately sound like Ernest Hemingway and Shakespeare. This is definitely not going to impress them. While you should avoid flowery language and cliches, there is no harm in looking for the most apt phrase or sentence. However, be careful while using humour -it can backfire and harm your chances for admission.

Exercise:

Prepare an SOP for joining a reputed university abroad.

1. The applicant desires to pursue a PhD in Cultural Anthropology. His/ her M.A was in English language and literature

3.10. REVIEWS

3.10.1. FILM REVIEW

A film review is a short description of a film. It is written to give a description and evaluation of a film. It gives viewers someone's opinion and recommendation about whether (or not) they should watch a film. The film review is a popular way for critics to assess a film's overall quality as well.

Preparing to Write the Review

- While film reviews tend to be fairly short (approximately 600 to 1200 words), they require a lot of preparation before you begin writing.
- Prior to viewing the film, you may want to get a sense of the bodies of work by the director, writer, or individual actor. For

instance, you may watch other films by the same director or writer in order to get a sense of each individual style. This will enable you to contextualize the film and determine whether it works as a continuation and/or disruption within the broad trends of the director's or writer's work.

- Writing a film review often requires multiple viewings of the film. Plan to watch the film two or even three times.

Writing the Film Review

Most of the film reviews include:

1) Introduction

- In the opening of your review, provide some basic information about the film. You may include the film's name, year, director, screenwriter, and major actors (cast of the film).

- Your introduction, which may be longer than one paragraph, should also begin to evaluate the film, and it should point to the central concept of the review. A film review does not have to contain a thesis or main claim, but it should focus on a central analysis and assessment.

2) Summary Plot

- Remember that many readers of film reviews have not yet seen the film. While you want to provide some plot summary, keep this brief and avoid specific details that would spoil the viewing for others.

3) Description

- While the plot summary will give the reader a general sense of what the film is about, also include a more detailed description of your particular cinematic experience watching the film. This may

include your personal impression of what the film looks, feels, and sounds like. In other words, what stands out in your mind when you think about this particular film?

4) Analysis

- In order to explain your impression of the film, consider how well the film utilizes formal techniques and thematic content. How do the film's formal techniques (such as cinematography, editing, mise-en-scène, lighting, diegetic and non-diegetic sound, genre, or narrative) affect the way the film looks, feels, and sounds to you? How does the thematic content (such as history, race, gender, sexuality, class, or the environment) affect your experience and interpretation? Also, do the formal techniques work to forward the thematic content?

5) Conclusion/Evaluation

- The closing of your film review should remind the reader of your general thoughts and impressions of the film. You may also implicitly or explicitly state whether or not you recommend the film. Make sure to remind the reader of why the film is or is not worth seeing.

A film review may be formal or semi- formal in style, depending on its intended readership, and is usually written in present tense.

Exercise:

1. attempt a film review on a recent movie that you have seen. A classroom discussion on the review written can be conducted.

3.10.2. BOOK REVIEW

There are two approaches to book reviewing:

1. **Descriptive reviews** give the essential information about a book. This is done with description and exposition, by stating the perceived aims and purposes of the author, and by quoting striking passages from the text.
2. **Critical reviews** describe and evaluate the book, in terms of accepted literary and historical standards, and support this evaluation with evidence from the text. The following pointers are meant to be suggestions for writing a critical review.

BASIC REQUIREMENTS

To write a critical review, the reviewer must know two things:

- **Knowing the work under review:** This demands not only attempting to understand the author's purpose and how the component parts of the work contribute to that purpose, but also knowledge of the author: his/her nationality, time period, other works etc.
- **Requirements of the genre:** This means understanding the art form and how it functions. Without such context, the reviewer has no historical or literary standard upon which to base an evaluation.

REVIEWING ESSENTIALS

- **Description of the book.** Sufficient description should be given so that the reader will have some understanding of the author's thoughts. This account is not a summary. It can be woven into the critical remarks.

- **Discuss the author.** Biographical information should be relevant to the subject of the review and enhance the reader's understanding of the work under discussion.
- **Appraise the book.**

A review must be a considered judgment that includes:

- a statement of the reviewer's understanding of the author's purpose
- how well the reviewer feels the author's purpose has been achieved
- evidence to support the reviewer's judgement of the author's achievement.

While you read:

- Read the book with care.
- Highlight quotable passages.
- Note your impressions as you read.
- Allow time to assimilate what you read so that the book can be seen in perspective.
- Keep in mind the need for a single impression which must be clear to the reader.

THE REVIEW OUTLINE

A review outline gives you an over-all grasp of the organization of the review, to determine the central point your review will make, to eliminate inessentials or irrelevancies, and to fill in gaps or omissions.

- Examine the notes you have made and eliminate those with no relationship to your central thesis.
- By organizing your discussion topics into groups, aspects of the book will emerge: e.g., theme, character, structure, etc.
- Write down all the major headings of the outline and fill in the subdivisions.
- All parts should support your thesis or central point.

First draft

Opening paragraphs set the tone of the paper. Possible introductions usually make a statement about the:

- Thesis
- Authorial purpose
- Topicality of the work or its significance
- Comparison of the work to others by the same author or within the same genre
- Author.

The body of the review logically develops your thesis. Follow your outline or adjust it to further your argument. The aim should be to push your central point. Put quoted material in quotation marks, or indented, and properly footnoted.

Concluding paragraph sums up or restates your thesis or it may make a final judgement regarding the book. Do not introduce new information or ideas in the conclusion.

Revising the draft

- Allow time to elapse, at least a day, before starting your revision.
- Correct grammatical mistakes and punctuation as you find them.
- Read your paper through again looking for unity, organization and logical development.
- If necessary, do not hesitate to make major revisions in your draft.
- Verify quotations for accuracy and check the format and content of references.

REVIEWING CONSIDERATIONS FICTION

Rule number one: do not give away the story!

Character

- From what sources are the characters drawn?
- What is the author's attitude toward his characters?
- Are the characters flat or three dimensional?
- Does character development occur?
- Is character delineation direct or indirect?

Theme

- What is/are the major theme(s)?
- How are they revealed and developed?

- Is the theme traditional and familiar, or new and original?
- Is the theme didactic, psychological, social, entertaining, escapist, etc. in purpose or intent?

Plot

- How are the various elements of plot (eg, introduction, suspense, climax, conclusion) handled?
- What is the relationship of plot to character delineation?
- To what extent, and how, is accident employed as a complicating and/or resolving force?
- What are the elements of mystery and suspense?
- What other devices of plot complication and resolution are employed?
- Is there a sub-plot and how is it related to the main plot?
- Is the plot primary or secondary to some of the other essential elements of the story (character, setting, style, etc.)?

Style

- What are the "intellectual qualities" of the writing (e.g., simplicity, clarity)?
- What are the "emotional qualities" of the writing (e.g., humour, wit, satire)?
- What are the "aesthetic qualities" of the writing (e.g., harmony, rhythm)?

- What stylistic devices are employed (e.g., symbolism, motifs, parody, allegory)?
- How effective is dialogue?

Setting

- What is the setting and does it play a significant role in the work?
- Is a sense of atmosphere evoked, and how?
- What scenic effects are used and how important and effective are they?
- Does the setting influence or impinge on the characters and/or plot?

BIOGRAPHY

- Does the book give a "full-length" picture of the subject?
- What phases of the subject's life receive the greatest treatment and is this treatment justified?
- What is the point of view of the author?
- How is the subject matter organized: chronologically, retrospectively, etc.?
- Is the treatment superficial or does the author show extensive study into the subject's life?
- What source materials were used in the preparation of the biography?
- Is the work documented?

- Does the author attempt to get at the subject's hidden motives?
- What important new facts about the subject's life are revealed in the book?
- What is the relationship of the subject's career to contemporary history?
- How does the biography compare with others about the same person?
- How does it compare with other works by the same author?

HISTORY

- With what particular period does the book deal?
- How thorough is the treatment?
- What were the sources used?
- Is the account given in broad outline or in detail?
- Is the style that of reportorial writing, or is there an effort at interpretive writing?
- What is the point of view or thesis of the author?
- Is the treatment superficial or profound?
- For what group is the book intended (textbook, popular, scholarly, etc.)?
- What part does biographical writing play in the book?
- Is social history or political history emphasized?

- Are dates used extensively, and if so, are they used intelligently?
- Is the book a revision? How does it compare with earlier editions?
- Are maps, illustrations, charts, etc. used and how are these to be evaluated?

REVIEWING POETRY

- Is this a work of power, originality, individuality?
- What kind of poetry is under review (epic, lyrical, elegiac, etc.)?
- What poetic devices have been used (rhyme, rhythm, figures of speech, imagery, etc.), and to
- What effect?
- What is the central concern of the poem and is it effectively expressed?

CONCLUSION

- **Relate your argument to other books or authors:** Support your argument for or against the author's opinions by bringing in other authors you agree with.
- **Relate the book to larger issues:** How did the book affect you? How have your opinions about the topic changed? How is the book related to your own course or personal agenda?
- **Tie together issues** raised in the review.
- **Briefly restate your main points** and your thesis statement if your teacher requires it.

- Also, if required, indicate how well the book has achieved its goal, what possibilities are suggested by the book, what the book has left out, how the book compares to others on the subject, what specific points are not convincing, and what personal experiences you've had related to the subject.

Exercise:

1. Students can select a few recently published books in English. They can attempt a brief review on each and the same can be presented to the class for discussion.

3.11. CASE STUDIES

A successful case study analyses a real-life situation where existing problems need to be solved. It should relate the theory to a practical situation; for example, apply the ideas and knowledge discussed in the coursework to the practical situation at hand in the case study.

1. Identify the problems.
2. Select the major problems in the case.
3. Suggest solutions to these major problems.
4. Recommend the best solution to be implemented.
5. Detail how this solution should be implemented.

There are usually eight sections in a case study:

1. Synopsis/Executive Summary

- Outline the purpose of the case study.

- Describe the field of research.
- Outline the issues and findings of the case study without the specific details.
- Identify the theory that will be used.
- Note any assumptions made (you may not have all the information you'd like so some assumptions may be necessary e.g.: "It has been assumed that...", "Assuming that it takes half an hour to read one document...").

2. Findings

- Identify the problems found in the case by:
 - analysing the problem, supporting your findings with facts given in the case, the relevant theory and course concepts.
 - searching for the underlying problems
- This section is often divided into subsections.

3. Discussion

- Summarise the major problem/s.
- Identify alternative solutions to this/these major problem/s.
- Briefly outline each alternative solution and evaluate its advantages and disadvantages.
- There is no need to refer to theory or coursework here.

4. Conclusion

- Sum up the main points from the findings and discussion.

5. Recommendations

- Choose which of the alternative solutions should be adopted.
- Briefly justify your choice explaining how it will solve the major problem/s.
- This should be written in a forceful style as this section is intended to be persuasive.
- Here integration of theory and coursework is appropriate.

6. Implementation

- Explain what should be done, by whom and by when.
- If appropriate, include a rough estimate of costs (both financial and time).

7. References

- Make sure all references are cited correctly.

8. Appendices (if any)

- Attach any original data that relates to the study but which would have interrupted the flow of the main body.

3.11.1. HOW TO WRITE A CASE STUDY

There are two types of case studies:

- (1) factual ones depicting real organizations, people, and situations and
- (2) fictional ones that, although usually based loosely on actual people and events, do not use real organization's or people's names.

The advantages of factual case studies are that they can provide a wealth of detail, give credibility to situations and problems, and, most important, provide real outcomes. Actual results give those who analyse a case real-world solution:

How did the organization or manager solve the problems? Did the solutions work?

Although factual cases furnish concrete, not theoretical, solutions, they also have some drawbacks. Often students or case analysts get hung up debating the details of the case as they may remember them. Some analysts claim inside information or refer to later outcomes that bring the organization's solutions into question. When discussing factual cases, analysts tend to focus on the accuracy of the details rather than on the appropriateness of the solutions.

Factual cases tend to become outdated as organizations, strategies, problems, and people change over time. Also, if a factual case portrays real organizations or people in a negative way, questions of taste, fairness, and even libel can arise. Finally, in a factual case writers must obviously stick to the facts, which means that they are limited to dealing with only those management topics that are implicit in the case. The most effective use of factual cases is for describing current organizational problems, then analysing and attempting to solve the problems using a consultative approach.

Fictional cases have the drawback that students can never know if a solution worked or not. Fictional cases are theoretical ones, and thus often do not have the credibility that factual ones do. On the other hand, fictional case writers are not constrained by the facts. Case writers can exercise their poetic license and embellish on problems, issues, situations, and people in order to focus only on the problems they want to address. Often the best solution for

teaching is to write fictional cases that closely parallel factual situations.

3.11.2. CASE STUDY ORGANIZING TIPS

Before beginning to outline a case study, writers must decide on less than six dominant problems.

Case writers must ask, "What is this case study about?" Each problem (topic meant for discussion) should be written in the form of a simple question (For example: What types of sales goals are effective?). If it takes several sentences to ask a problem-defining question, then it is too complicated and not likely to be recognized or understood by readers. If there are more than five problems in a case, readers are apt to become confused and fail to focus on the important problems the writer intended to address. A case study with more than five problems is difficult to discuss in a practical amount of time (a class period, for example) and apt to require many hours of rambling discussion. If the situation being studied contains more than five problems, then the case study should be written in several sections. Each section, in addition to being a continuation of the narrative, should be able to find possible solutions to the problems (answers to the questions). (For example: Billing or revenue goals are not the most effective ones, activity and task-oriented goals are better.) Many case writers may want to tie problems to topics discussed in assigned reading material. There are often multiple approaches to solving problems, several answers to the questions. However, case writers should know what the potential solutions are and have a sense of what the best solutions are.

Case studies do not have to be restricted to problems and how-not-to situations; they can show solutions and how-to situations also. A case study can address several problems and show what was done right in solving them.

Often the best teaching cases are those that contain both appropriate and inappropriate problem solutions. By using this technique, writers do not signal to readers that all the solutions are either right or wrong--case analysts have to figure it out for themselves.

The next step is to select or create situations that give readers a clear delineation of the problems and point the way to a discussion about possible solutions. The most effective way to depict a problem is to write situations or scenes that have conflict in them: scenes in which the characters have opposite points of view, disagreements, or different solutions.

Each situation or scene in a case study should either:

- (1) carry the narrative forward,
- (2) relate directly to one of the major problems in the case, or
- (3) provide insight into the personality and motives of one or more of the characters. The ideal situation is one that the writer knows will elicit conflicting opinions about potential solutions.

3.11.3. CASE STUDY WRITING TIPS

a. Keep your audience in mind: Remember that you are writing for students or discussants who may not be familiar with the background, details, and terminology of the situation. Keep jargon to a minimum.

b. Use short-story-writing techniques: A case has flesh-and-blood characters who should be intriguing. Each story element should move the narrative forward.

c. Openings: Grab the reader with a character facing his or her biggest problem: set the scene for the confrontations, the frustrations, and the main conflicts.

d. Present situations and scenes without any attempt at analysis: Scenes must follow a logical order and should illustrate a point, concept, or issue that relates to the problems that the writer wants to have analysed. Do not give any signals that one solution might be preferred.

e. Provide relevant details: After an opening that sets up the situation, provide relevant details about goals, strategies, dilemmas, issues, conflicts, roadblocks, appropriate research, relevant financial information, people, and relationships. Be stingy with numbers; they must help solve the problems, not confuse readers or send them off on unproductive analytic tangents.

f. Use as much dialogue as possible: Make the characters come alive with dialogue. Straight narrative is boring.

g. Endings: Leave the reader with a clear picture of the major problems--either ask or imply "what is to be done now?"

3.12. GROUP DISCUSSIONS (GD)

A GD is a formal discussion which involves six to fifteen participants who sit in a group to discuss a topic or a case given for this purpose. It is a methodology used by an organization to measure whether a candidate possesses certain personality traits and / or skills that are desired of him/ her. In GDs, the group members have to interpret, analyse, and argue, so as to discuss the topic or case threadbare as a team.

3.12.1. Difference between GD and Debate

A GD is not the same as a formal debate. In a debate, you are supposed to speak either for or against a motion. In GDs, on the

other hand, all the members of the group are expected to deliberate upon the issue extensively, and it is possible for any of them to change their stand if they find themselves convinced about the other side of the perspective. In GDs, the discussion just evolves naturally without anything to be proved from the onset. The very nature of GD, therefore, demands flexibility on the part of the participants, and a lack of it, or a consequent stubbornness or rigidity is seen as a serious flaw in their personality.

Number and Duration

In a formal GD, there are six to fifteen members in a group and they are asked to sit in a circular, semi-circular, or U-shaped seating style (senate room sitting). They may be familiar or unfamiliar to each other. They are given fifteen or forty-five minutes to discuss a topic or a case study depending on its nature.

Personality Traits to be Evaluated

Following are the most important personality traits that a candidate should possess to do well in GDs:

- Reasoning ability
- Leadership
- Openness
- Assertiveness
- Initiative
- Motivation
- Attentive listening
- Awareness

Dynamics of Group Behaviour/ Group Etiquette and Mannerisms

In any group task- be it project or presentation or discussion – the behaviour of the group really matters. It is important to keep the purpose, goal, or task in mind, and bring the discussion back to the stated focus when it goes off the track now and then. This is a shared responsibility of all, because as a participant in a GD, every member has to ensure that the discussion takes place in a smooth and proper manner. Logical ideas, poised demeanour, supportive attitude, balanced view and team spirit are some of the most important ingredients of a successful GD.

Following are some of the points you should keep in mind to exhibit your positive group etiquette:

- Being friendly and approachable
- Encouraging participation from co-participants
- Avoiding emotions
- Avoiding peer discussion
- Leadership is important because a group without a leader can be as wayward as a ship without a captain. Some of the attributes of leadership are clarity, objectivity, discernment, expression, composure, erudition, maturity, amiability, patience, motivation.

3.12.2. Types of GD

GDs are of two types

- 1. Topic – based**
- 2. Case- based**

Topic based can be divided into three types:

- i) **Factual topics** -these are related to day-to-day socio-economic facts or environmental issues. For example: *Growth of Tourism in India, Higher Education in India* etc.
- ii) **Abstract topics** are given at the higher level. These are usually intangible in nature. You need to approach these topics with innovative and lateral thinking. For example, topics like *Blue is Better than Green, All are Equal but Some are More Equal than Others* etc.
- iii) **Controversial topics** are controversial in nature. Participants are bound to have divided opinions. These topics are given to observe the maturity level of participants on such issues. You should not lose your temper or give a narrow interpretation of issues being discussed. For example, debatable topics like *Reservation Should be Abolished in India* or *Women are Unfit for Defence Services* etc.

Case studies- based discussion- these are real-life simulated situations. Usually, these involve some kind of problems which are to be resolved. The key to such topics is that there is no right or wrong answer, but your approach to the solution is highly important.

Opening of a GD

You should open the GD only when you have enough points to set it in motion. Any of the participants can initiate the discussion, but always try to speak and contribute as early as possible. The participant / the leader has to not only introduce the topic by providing the background but also raise pertinent questions to steer the discussion.

Summarizing a Discussion

Just as the beginning of a GD is crucial, so is its ending. If you plan to conclude the GD, keep it brief and concise. You should avoid raising new points. You should not state only your viewpoint. In fact, you should try to include the major points discussed by the whole group. Moreover, an abrupt ending in a GD is perplexing and annoying.

3.12.3. Some tips for Group Discussions

Do's

- Sit comfortably
- Keep track of time
- Share time fairly
- Encourage participation from others
- Rope in the reticent/ diffident ones
- Listen to the topic
- Organize ideas
- Speak at the earliest
- Allow supporters to back your ideas
- Sound cogent and convincing
- Avoid reproach
- If derailed, bring it back to the track
- Look relaxed and comfortable
- Identify supporters/ opponents

- Maintain eye contact
- Connect to the ideas of others
- Avoid clashes and heated debates
- Reveal and induce friendship
- Feel and reveal keenness to share
- Transcend personal choices
- Take mental notes
- Provide vital points
- Steer the discussion smoothly

Don'ts

- Be in hurry
- Be silent
- Dominate vocally/ physically
- Assume the role of the chairperson
- Be aggressive
- Take extreme stance
- Look at evaluators
- Put up an uninspired and boring performance
- Be curt and dismissive
- Appear to be impatient/ restless

- Indulge in peer discussion
- Look stubborn/ snobbish
- Move/ shift excessively
- Speak fast
- Digress and deviate
- Indulge in debate and altercation
- Get emotional
- Use slang
- Thrust greatness upon yourself
- Ever start your GD with a decisive, firm stand or a conclusion
- Throw all ideas at one shot
- Feel trapped or scared

Exercise:

Read and prepare arguments for the following topics:

1. Social media have effectively divided the society
2. Vegetarian food is better for both physical and mental health.

3.13. PRESENTATION SKILLS

Presentations are made every day – to your teacher, to your boss in the workplace, in front of your customers, and even for friends and relatives. Academic presentation is an effective speech made by a person on a particular subject. To make an academic

presentation successful the speaker should have mastery over a number of skills such as:

- His use of language should be suitable to the kind of audience he is speaking to.
- He should know the art of speech, and
- He must have a thorough knowledge of the subject he is dealing with.

There are certain conditions for a successful presentation:

3.13.1. THE AUDIENCE

Having an idea about the nature of the audience is key to a successful presentation. You must know the audience as you draft material for your presentation. You must establish a good rapport with your audience so that they feel you are one among them. Audiences can be categorised into two.

1. Primary audience
2. Secondary audience

Primary audiences are those who have lent you their ears. They are the formal audience who participate in the room where you are presenting. They are active listeners. Their age, education, culture and economic status are of vital importance to you.

Secondary audience consists of the opinion leaders who are responsible for the political, cultural and religious opinion that your primary audience has. They can be the director of the company or they may be people who decide whether you deserve a scholarship or not. In an academic presentation you should know who is present there. Always remember that your secondary audience is also your friends and family – people who helped you

design your presentation. Be very careful while distributing hand-outs. They travel beyond your primary audience and hence avoid making unverified comments in them.

3.13.2. THE OBJECTIVE OF PRESENTATION

It is extremely important to know the objective of your presentation:

- Are you speaking to persuade?
- Are you speaking to inform?

An academic presentation is generally a mix of informative and persuasive speaking. An academic presentation is a mix of persuasion and information.

The following areas should be decided before beginning to deliver your presentation:

1. Language: your language should reveal clearly what your audience wants to know
2. Trimming your presentation: delete all unnecessary information
3. Ice breaking: a good way to identify the objective of your presentation is to begin with an ice breaking session where you gather information about your audience by asking them to participate in a group activity. Different presenters use different techniques to make their presentation effective. Some often circulate handouts and questionnaires to gather information.

3.13.3. TECHNIQUES OF EFFECTIVE PRESENTATION

- First and foremost, surprise and grab attention
- Practice exercise
- Beginning
- Repetition
- Summarizing

3.13.4. STRUCTURE OF THE PRESENTATION

The usual sequence in presentation is as follows:

- Introduction (3 minutes)
- Main body (15 minutes)
- Conclusion (2 minutes)
- Question and Answers (10 minutes)

3.13.5. VISUAL PRESENTATION AIDS

A presentation of statistical data, figures, diagrams and so on is made clear by the use of visual aids. Through visual display of ideas, we make our audience see what they hear. We help the listeners receive our message effortlessly. We keep them immersed in the presentation. The visual projection of the message also enables the speaker to keep to the structure of the presentation.

Use of Visual Aids

Visual aids should be used to:

- Present numerical and statistical data.
- Present topics related to art, design, or any subject which involves display of material.
- Present new data or plan of which the audience is not aware. The new information will be better understood when seen. For instance, a complex business plan can be orally presented. But it will be better understood if supported visually as well.
- Present comparative statements of facts and figures, especially graphic and diagrammatic forms. Visual presentation of comparisons always helps comprehension. Suppose you want to compare two structures; the point of comparison can be better appreciated when shown rather than described.

Advantages of Visual Aids

- We can easily respond to what we see.
- It promotes interests and arrests the attention of the audience.
- It saves time a lot.
- It increases the effectiveness of communication

How to use Visual Aids?

- Do not use too many visuals.
- Plan the visuals according to your main points.

- Prepare it in bold, clear letters that can be seen even by the person sitting at the other end of the room.
- Do not fill a slide with too many words.
- Use different colours to distinguish different points.
- Number the slides to avoid confusion.
- Explain the purpose and content of the slide when you show it.

Different kinds of Visual Aids

- **Board – Black/white**

It is the primary aid used in classrooms. The use of a board helps listeners attend with concentration. The board should be used skilfully. On a black board white chalk is used and on a white board, dark marker is used. Do not leave the board written over, when you end a talk/ lecture.

- **Flip charts**

A flip chart is a large pad of papers on a stand used as a visual aid for presenting information to a small group of 15 to 20 persons. They can be prepared in advance for presenting well-drawn diagrams, bar charts, and all kinds of graphs. Flip charts are of great use for creating and presenting the audience's feedback, suggestions, comments, or any other kind of observation, at the end of the talk.

- **Overhead Project**

The most often used visual aid in presentation is an overhead projector (OHP). By using it, the presenter can speak while looking at the audience. The bright and large images projected on the screen hold the audience's attention.

- **Power Point Projection**

PowerPoint Projection is the computer-based modification of OHP. This is a very useful visual aid for professional or academic presentations. This is projected with the help of a multimedia projector. An enlarged computer screen displays the information to a large audience. The visual impact is impressive and absorbing.

- **Video**

Video gives you a chance to show stimulating visual information. Use video to bring movement, pictures and sound into your presentation. Always make sure that the clip is directly relevant to your content. Tell your audience what to look for. Avoid showing any more films than you need.

- **Artifacts or props**

Sometimes it can be very useful to use artifacts or props when making a presentation. If you bring an artifact with you, make sure that the object can be seen and be prepared to pass it around a small group or move to different areas of a large room to help your audience view it in detail. Remember that this will take time and that when an audience is immersed in looking at an object, they will find it hard to listen to your talk. Conceal large props until you need them; they might distract your audience's attention.

Place of Presentation

Before presenting, check the size, ventilation, and seating arrangement of the room for the audience. The presenter should place the screen according to the number of persons and the size of the room. Keep enough space between you and the screen to

indicate the points on the screen with a pointer. Stand as close to the audience as possible.

3.13.6. CLARITY AND PERSUASION

A clear presentation is an effective presentation. Following are the ways to make your presentation effective:

1. You must have an in-depth knowledge of the topic.
2. Use language appropriate for the audience.
3. Establish a good rapport with the audience.
4. A well -structured presentation will lead to clarity of thought and expression.
5. The examples and illustrations that are meaningful will help the audience to get clarity of the concept.
6. Effective use of audio-visual tools will enhance the impact and clarity of your presentation.

In short, the clearer you are, the more persuasive your presentation is likely to be.

3.13.7. NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

Body language

Since the presentation is a live performance, your non-verbal skills while speaking will influence the audience. Attention is drawn to the following aspects of your non-verbal behaviour such as:

- Appearance

- Maintaining good/ positive posture
- Eye contact
- Gesture – use positive gestures and hand movements to reinforce your argument.
- Do not stand fixed like a statue.
- Smile and look relaxed while answering questions.

Rehearsal

To give a good presentation, you should rehearse your full performance to be able to:

- Coordinate speech and visual projections
- Know if the information has been properly edited
- Check if the duration is as allowed and specific.
- Minimize your stage fright.

Some guidelines for an effective presentation

- Involve the audience and encourage their participation.
- Avoid doing things that would reduce audience involvement.
- Visualise the successful end of your presentation. Prepare well. Perform well. The presentation is bound to end well.
- Don't speak too low in a feeble voice that cannot be heard.
- Don't shout which makes you sound angry and jarring.

To arouse interest among the audience, do the following:

- Maintain eye contact with the whole group throughout your presentation
- Be simple and clear.
- Put interesting questions to the audience.
- Invite volunteers to role-play.
- Stand close to the audience in a way that you are fully visible to them.
- Make the presentation sound well researched and enthusiastically presented.
- Final tip for effective presentation is to treat stage fright to be a natural experience of all presenters. Use it as a positive source of nervous energy essential for performing well.

3.13.8. OPENING AND CLOSING

Opening

You get a very short time to grab the attention of your audience and get them interested in your topic, say 30 to 45 seconds. A pleasant expression on your face, a confident posture, definite eye contact will help you connect with the audience. A brief, sharp opening statement uttered with conviction and enthusiasm is all that is needed to set you off. Follow some of the tips given below to begin your presentation:

1. Pose a question to the audience.
2. Narrate an incident that arouses curiosity.

3. Use some interesting statistics.
4. Challenge a popular notion/ idea.
5. Use an anecdote.

Note: be natural

Closing

The way you close is as important as the way you begin. You want your presentation to be a memorable incident for your audience, something that was informative as well as delightful. Here are some ways to close your presentation:

1. A summary statement that captures the gist of your presentation.
2. A positive ending that makes the audience feel elevated.
3. An appeal for action.

3.13.9. TIME MANAGEMENT

In a presentation, the speaker should always keep in mind the time taken to communicate. To be able to observe it, plan your time judiciously to wind up your presentation on time. The audience should not feel rushed through. Your pace of presentation should not exceed 110-120 words per minute. The discussion of the problem is equally important. The audience/ listener should never be made to feel a passive captive listener. Hence, we keep time for questions and answers at the end of the presentation. It is always important that you conclude your argument.

Note: the key to time management lies in preparing your presentation well.

- Organise your argument well in advance.
- Make swift transitions.
- Do audience research to anticipate queries and refutations.
- Make an impressive introduction so that people want to hear you.
- Be objective- do not be carried away by your subject or your oratory.

Exercise:

Prepare a presentation for the following topics:

1. Indian Constitution and Freedom of expression
2. Challenges faced by students in Higher Education
3. Reading habits and the adverse influence of new media

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FIRST SEMESTER DEGREE EXAMINATION

**ENGI1A02: FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR AND
COMMUNICATION IN ENGLISH**

Model Question Paper

Time: 2 Hours
Marks

Maximum:60

Section A

Do as directed

1. He pleaded ignorance of the law. (Change into a complex sentence)
2. Neither of them _____ ready to undertake the journey. (Use the appropriate form of 'be')
3. It was _____ a sunny day _____ January that she got married. (Fill in with prepositions)
4. No other metal is as precious as Gold (Use the superlative form)
5. That must have been a _____ experience. (Use the appropriate form of 'terrify')
6. He had closed the window. (Rewrite into passive form.)
7. The proposal was accepted by _____ unanimous vote. (Use an appropriate article)
8. Hardly had I reached the station _____ the train steamed off. (Use the appropriate connective)

9. You play tennis, _____? (Use the correct form of the tag)
10. Do you speak Tamil? (Convert into negative sentence)
11. You are lucky. You came _____ car but I came _____ foot. (Identify the missing prepositions)
12. It _____ rain tonight. Look at those dark clouds. (Use either 'may' or 'might')

(Ceiling – 20 marks)

Section B

Answer the following

(5 marks)

13. Rewrite in Indirect speech:

When I finished my lunch I asked the waitress, “Do you know the girl who was sitting over there?”

“No sir, I do not know her to speak of. I notice she has lunch here on Saturdays”

“Doesn’t she come any other day”

“I never see her on other days”

14. Punctuate the following:

Once three men met in the course of the conversation one of them turned to the other and said what would you do if you woke up one fine morning found yourself a millionaire pat came the reply from the first man i would build a big house the second man thought for a while and said i would take the next flight to paris and enjoy my life the third man said i would go to sleep again and make another million

15. Explain a few barriers to communication and the means of overcoming them.
16. Your local gas cylinder distributor is charging Rs. 120 for each consumer card as against the normal charges messaged by the company. Your local dealer has not given any response to the complaint that you have raised. Prepare an email to the LPG Corporation asking for a refund of the excess charges from the local distributor.
17. You are the secretary of the Film Society in your town. You plan to organise a Film Festival named *Kaleidoscope* so as to exhibit films of great Indian filmmakers. A meeting has been convened by the society executive committee. Prepare an agenda and minutes of meeting.
18. Prepare a presentation on the topic “Greenhouse Effect and Climate Change”
19. Differentiate formal and informal communication.

Section C

Answer any one

(10 marks)

20. Prepare a Curriculum Vitae for the sake of submitting an application to CEE TV NETWORK Pvt Ltd for the post of Journalist Trainee. Provide all necessary details. The basic qualification is graduation with requisite skills in news reporting. Attach a covering letter also.
21. Organise a Group Discussion and report the same on the topic: “Classroom teaching: Have the age-old practices become obsolete in Pandemic times?”
