

GRAMMAR

Chapter : 1

Types of Articles

1.0	Objectives
1.1	Introduction
1.2	Types of Articles
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1.0 OBJECTIVES

Friends! We begin with the most important aspect of English language - Grammar ! As we get introduced to each chapter, you will realize how interesting grammar is and also how it improves your language skills.

This chapter deals with three small words 'a', 'an' and 'the' - 'yes' the articles. They have a unique importance in every sentence.

At the end of this chapter, we will be able to -

- 1) use definite and indefinite articles.
- 2) explain examples where articles are omitted.
- 3) explain nouns used in general and special sense.

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Article is a word which points out at a person, thing or place spoken of. Thus article refers to the noun.

There are two types of articles. Definite and Indefinite article. Definite article tells us about a specific person or this while indefinite article speaks of any person thing or place.

In some cases, as we see ahead nouns may be referred to without any article.

1.2 TYPES OF ARTICLES

The unit at first introduces rules for correct use of articles in sentences.

There are two Articles - *a* (or. *an*) and *the*

A or **an** is called the **Indefinite Article**, as it leaves indefinite the person or thing spoken of as : A doctor, A school, A man, A woman - here a points out any doctor, any school or any man or woman.

The is called the **Definite Article**, as it normally points out some particular person or thing as : He saw *the* doctor - where *the* points out some particular doctor.

The indefinite article is used before *singular countable nouns* e.g. A book, An orange, A girl The definite article is used before singular countable nouns, plural countable and uncountable nouns, for eg. *The book, the books, the milk*

A or An

The choice between *a* and *an* is determined by *sound* before a word beginning with a vowel sound *an* is used : For eg., *an egg, an orange an honest man, an hour.* *A* and *An* are used with the singular number only.

1.3 USE OF THE DEFINITE ARTICLE

1. When we talk about a particular person or thing, or one already referred to earlier,
2. When a singular noun is meant to represent a whole class
for eg. The cow is a useful animal,
The rose is the sweetest of all flowers
3. Before some proper names :
for eg., oceans and seas: *the* Pacific, *the* black sea
rivers : *the* Ganga, *the* Nile
4. Before the names of certain books :
for eg., The Vedas, the Puranas, the Ramayana
5. Before names of things unique of their kind; as
for eg., The sun, the sky, the earth
6. Before a Proper noun when it is qualified by an adjective or a defining adjectival clause :
for eg., The great Caesar, The immortal Shakespeare
7. With Superlatives
for eg., The darkest cloud has a silver lining, This is the best book of elementary chemistry.
8. With ordinals :
for eg., He was the first man to arrive, The ninth chapter of the book is very interesting.
9. Before an adjective when the noun is understood,
for eg., The poor is always with us.
10. Before a noun to give the force of a Superlative
for eg., The Verb is the word in a sentence.
11. As an Adverb with Comparatives :
for eg., The more the merrier.
12. Uncountable nouns take the *the* when used in a particular sense (especially when qualified by an adjective or adjectival phrase or clause) for eg., Would you pass me the sugar! The wisdom of Solomon is great

1.4 USE OF THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE

1. In its original numerical sense of one:
for eg., Twelve inches make a foot. Not a word was said
2. In a vague sense of a certain
for eg., One evening a beggar came to my door
3. In the sense of any, to single out an individual as the representative of a class: for eg., A pupil should obey his teacher A cow is a useful animal
4. To make a common noun of a proper noun:
for eg., A Daniel come to judgement! (A Daniel - a very wise man)

1.5 OMISSION OF THE ARTICLE

1. Before names of substances, proper and abstract nouns (uncountable nouns) used in a general sense:
for eg., Sugar is bad for your teeth.
Gold is a precious metal
Delhi is the capital of India
Wisdom is the gift of heaven
2. Before plural countable nouns used in a general sense:
for eg., Children like chocolates
Computers are used in many offices
3. Before languages
for eg., We are studying English
They speak Punjabi at home
4. Before predicative nouns denoting a unique position i.e., a position that is normally held at one time by one person only:
for eg., He was elected Chairman of the Board
Mr. Mathur became Principal of the School in 1995.

1.3 - 1.5 Check your progress

1. French iseasy language
2. He ishonour to the profession
3. Mumbai isvery dear place to live in.
4. Which islongest river in India
5. The guide knowsway.

1.6 SUMMARY

The given chapter thus explains the significance of articles we can summaries the chapter in the following points :-

- ◆ 'a' and 'an' are called indefinite articles while 'the' is a definite article.
- ◆ Definite article point out to a particular person or a thing or place a.
- ◆ Indefinite articles points out to any person, thing or place.
- ◆ Articles are omitted in case of proper and abstract nouns and plural countable nouns.

1.7 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS - ANSWERS

1.3 - 1.5

1. an 2. an 3. a 4. the 5. the

1.8 QUESTIONS FOR SELF - STUDY

Complete the following sentences by filling in a or an or the as may be suitable:

1. French is _____easy language.
2. Who is _____girl sitting there ?
3. Which is _____longest river in India ?
4. The guide knows _____way.
5. He is _____honour to this profession.
6. The world is _____happy place.
7. _____reindeer is a native of Norway.
8. Mumbai is _____very dear place to live in.

1.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

1. *High School English Grammar and Composition* by P. C. Wren, H. Martin (Edited by N.D.V. Prasada Rao)
2. *Speaking English Effectively* by Mohan Krishna and Singh N.

Chapter : 2

Prepositions

2.0	Objectives
2.1	Introduction
2.2	Types of Prepositions
2.3	Prepositions that require special notice
2.4	Some Special Prepositions
2.5	Summary
2.6	Check your Progress - <i>Answers</i>
2.7	Questions for Self - Study
2.8	Suggested Readings

2.0 OBJECTIVES

Dear Friends ! Today we learn about prepositions. Now what are they, What is their importance in grammar?

At the end of this chapter we will be able to explain -

1. what prepositions are.
2. why and how they are placed before those particular words.
3. the various types of prepositions.
4. their usage in sentences.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

A preposition is a word placed before a noun or a pronoun to show in what relation the person or thing denoted by it stands in regard to something else.

The word preposition means 'that which is placed before'.

The noun or pronoun which is used with a preposition is called its Object.

A preposition may have two or more objects as:

for eg., The road runs over *hill* and *plain*.

A preposition is often placed *before* its object, but sometimes follows it : for eg.,

- i) Here is the watch that you asked *for*.
- ii) What are you looking *at*?

The Preposition for, from, in, on are often omitted before nouns of place or time as:

- i) for eg., We did it last week.
- ii) I cannot walk a yard.

2.2 KINDS OF PREPOSITION

Prepositions may be arranged in the following classes:

1. Simple Preposition :

At, by, for, from, in, of, off, on, out, through, till, to, up, with.

2. Compound Prepositions :

which are generally formed by prefixing a preposition to a Noun, an Adjective or an Adverb.

About, Above, Across, Along, Amidst, Among, Before, Behind, Beside, Between, Inside, Outside, Underneath, Within, Without.

3. Phrase Preposition :

which is a group of words used with the force of a single preposition

for eg., According to, in accordance with, in place of, along with, in course of, owing to, with a view to, in order to, for the sake of.

4. Preposition of Place :

About, across, among, before, between below, behind, from, through, near, on, over, under, upon, within, round, without, beside into.

5. Preposition of Time :

After, at, in, on, during, since, through, throughout, towards, from, during, into, behind.

At – is used to indicate a definite point of time:

for eg., He came *at* 8 o'clock, I shall tell him the fact *at* the right time.

In – is used to indicate year, century, morning, evening, time period (in years, hours, days, months) seasons etc as:

for eg., I get up early *in* the morning. It shall be completed *in* four hours/months.

On – is used in expressing days and dates, as

for eg., My school shall reopen *on* Monday, India was declared independent *on* 15th August 1947.

From and **To** – *from* is used to indicate the beginning of an action, and to indicate the time when the action ends.

for eg., The Diwali vacation is *From* 15th October to 22nd October 2005.

6. Preposition of Agency, instrumentality

Sell goods *at* auction, sent the parcel *by* post, heard this *through* a friend, cut it *with*

7. Preposition of manner

Fought *with* courage, worked *with* earnestness, won *with* ease

8. Preposition of cause, reason, purpose

Labored *for* the good of humanity, did it *for* our good, does it *from* perversity, concealed it *through* shame, lost his purse *through* negligence, shivers *with* fever, took medicine *for* cold.

9. Preposition of Possession

The mosque *of* Omar, a man *of* means, the boy *with* red hair

10. Preposition of measure, standard, rate, value : as

He charges interest *at* nine per cent, Stories like these must be taken *at* what they are worth.

Cloth is sold *by* the yard. It was one *by* the tower-clock.

11. Preposition of contrast, concession : as,

For one enemy he has a hundred friends. *For* one enemy he has a hundred friends.
With (in spite of) all his faults I admire him.

12. Preposition of Inference, motive, source or origin : as

From what I know of him, I hesitate to trust him. He did it *from* gratitude. Light emanates *from* the sun. This is a quotation *from* Milton.

Note :- It will be seen that the same preposition, according to the way in which it is used, would have its place under several heads.

2.3 PREPOSITIONS THAT REQUIRE SPECIAL NOTICE

The following prepositions require special notice :

1. We can use *in* or *at* with the names cities, towns or villages. We can use *in* when we are talking about a place as an area, we use *at* when we see it as a point.
for eg., We stayed *in* Mumbai for five days.
How long have you lived *in* this village?
2. We use *at* to talk about group activities and shops/workplaces
for eg., Did you see Shobha *at* the party?
There weren't many people *at* the meeting.
3. We use *in* with the names of streets and *at* when we give the house-number.
for eg., He lives *in* Church Street
He lives *at* 45 Church Street.
4. We use *on* when we think of a place as a surface
for eg., The dog is lying *on* the floor
Put this picture *on* the wall.
5. *Till* is used of *time* and *to* of place
for eg., He slept *till* eight o'clock
He walked *to* the end of the street
6. *With* often denotes the *instrument* and *by* the agent
for eg., He killed two birds *with* one shot
He was stabbed *by* a lunatic *with* a dagger.
7. *Since* is used before a noun or phrase denoting some *point* of time and is preceded by a verb in the *perfect* tenses, as
for eg., I have eaten nothing *since* yesterday.
He has been ill *since* Monday last.
8. *In* before a noun denoting a period of time, means *at the end of*, *within* means *before the end of*, as
for eg., I shall return in an hour, I shall return within an hour.
9. *Beside* means *at (or by) the side of*, while *besides* means *in addition to*, as:
for eg., *Besides* his children, there were present his nephew and niece.
Besides being fined, he was sentenced to a term of imprisonment.

2.2 & 2.3 Check your progress

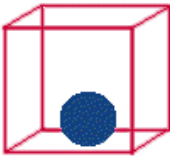
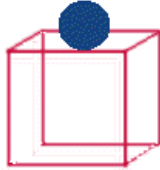
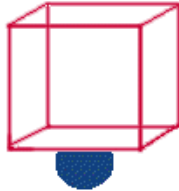













Fill in the blanks

1. The boy fellthe bicycle
2. I have goneyour work.
3. Let us walkthe shore.
4. I have been here..... 10 O'clock.
5. He has eaten nothingyesterday.
6. They drovemumbaiPune



Prepositions of Place

Where is it?

				
The ball is in the box	The ball is on the box.	The ball is under the box.		
John's house 	Jane's house 	Bill's house 		
John's house is next to Jane's house.	Jane's house is between Bill's and John's houses.	Bill's house is next to Jane's house.		
				
The climbers stood on top of the mountain.	The man stood between the two enemies.	The enemies stood opposite each other.	The gardeners stood behind the pumpkins.	The man stood next to the gopher and held the umbrella over it.
				
The man looked through the telescope in his hands.	The man wrote the address on the package.	The man looked at the mail in the post box.	The man looked at the clock on the wall.	The manager sat at his desk on his chair.

2.4 SOME SPECIAL PREPOSITIONS


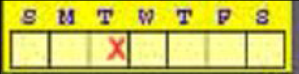




Special Preposition :

than – This word is usually a Conjunction, but is sometimes used as a Preposition, for eg., I cannot accept less *than* forty rupees for this article.

but – As a rule *but* is a conjunction, when used as a preposition, *but* means 'except', 'with the exception of':

for eg., None *but* the brave deserves the fair.
She returned all the gifts *but* one.


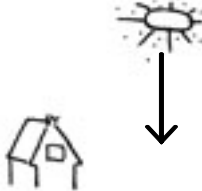
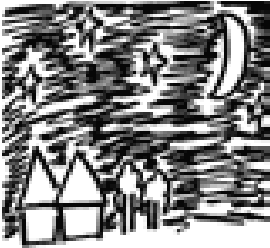

a – In some sentences, *a* is a weakened form of the preposition *on*, for eg., Her wages are ten rupees *a* day
I meet him once *a* week

Prepositions of Time		
Picture It Clip Art	Preposition	Example
	at (a time)	"I got to work at 8.00 this morning."
	on (a day)	"I'll see you on Tuesday."
	on (a date)	"I have an appointment on the 31st."
	in (a month)	"My birthday is in June"
	in (a year)	"I was born in 1959"
	in (the morning)	"I get up in the morning."

2.5 SUMMARY

So Friends ! We saw words that show the relation between two words. Prepositions can be summarized as :

- ◆ The basic types of prepositions are simple, compound (Prefixing a noun, adjective or adverb) and phrase prepositions.
- ◆ The other types are closefisted as prepositions of time, place, reason, measure etc as their meaning indicates.
- ◆ Some words like than and but which are actually conjunctions, may serve the purpose of prepositions.
- ◆ Last but not the least, using the correct preposition is very important. It makes the sentence sound grammatically perfect.

Picture It Clip Art	Preposition	Example
	in (the afternoon)	"I have lunch in the afternoon."
	in (the evening)	"I go home in the evening."
	at (night)	"I go to bed at night."
	in	"It usually snows in

2.6 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS - ANSWERS

2.2 & 2.3 : 1. off 2. through 3. along 4. since 5. since 6. from to

2.7 QUESTIONS FOR SELF - STUDY

1. Enlist the different types of prepositions.
2. Define preposition.
3. In what cases is preposition in used?

Fill in the blanks with suitable prepositions:








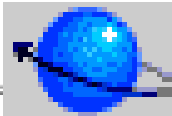

1. What is that _____ me?
2. He has not yet recovered _____ his illness.
3. The village was destroyed _____ fire.
4. The exercise was written _____ me _____ a Camlin pen.
5. They drove _____ Mumbai _____ Pune.
6. I have not seen him _____ Wednesday last.
7. We suffered _____ your neglect.
8. You, boys must settle it _____ yourselves.
9. The moon does not shine _____ its own light.
10. He died _____ his country.

2.8 SUGGESTED READINGS

1. *High School English Grammar and Composition* by P. C. Wren, H. Martin (Edited by N.D.V. Prasada Rao)
2. *Speaking English Effectively* by Mohan Krishna and Singh N.



Prepositions of Movement

Picture It Clip Art	Preposition	Example
	to	"He carried the rubbish to the bin."
	through	"The train came through the tunnel."
	across	"He swam across the channel."
	along	"He walked along the road."
	down	"He skied down the mountain."
	over	"They walked over the bridge."
	off	"The man ran off the cliff."
	round	"The arrow is moving round the ball."
	into	"The man poured the sand into the timer."

NOTES

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Chapter : 3

Tenses

3.0	Objectives
3.1	Introduction
3.2	Present Tense
3.2.1	Simple Present Tense
3.2.2	Present Continuous Tense
3.2.3	Present Perfect tense
3.2.4	Present Perfect continuous Tense
3.3	Past Tense
3.3.1	Simple past Tense
3.3.2	Past Continuous Tense
3.3.3	Past Perfect Tense
3.3.4	Past perfect continuous Tense
3.4	Future Tense
3.4.1	Simple Future Tense
3.4.2	Future Continuous Tense
3.4.3	Future Perfect Tense
3.4.4	Future Perfect continuous Tense
3.5	Summary
3.6	Check your Progress - Answers
3.7	Questions for Self - Study
3.8	Suggested Readings

3.0 OBJECTIVES

So Friends ! We come to a very important topic in grammar ie. Tense. Tense shows the time and state of any action. Any and every action and event occurs in a time frame. Hence every sentence too is referred to a time frame and that is tense. After studying this chapter you would be able to use tenses correctly.

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Tense is defined as that form of a verb which shows the time and the state of an action or event.

Accordingly there are three major tenses :

Present Tense : Action or event occurring in the present

eg. I Write

Past Tense : Action/event that has occurred in the past.

e.g. I wrote

Future Tense : Action/ event that is likely to occur in the future.

e.g. I will write.

We may define Tense as that form of a Verb which shows the *time* and the *state* of an action or event.

There are three main tenses, the **Present**, the **Past** and the **Future**. A verb may refer to present, past or future time. The tense of a verb shows the time of an action or an event.

3.2 PRESENT TENSE

The present tense has four forms :

I write Simple Present

Here the verb shows that the action is mentioned simply, without anything being said about the completeness or incompleteness of the action.

I am writing Present Continuous

It shows the action is mentioned as incomplete or continuous, or as still going on

I have written Present Perfect

The verb shows that the action is mentioned as finished, complete at the time of speaking

I have been writing Present Perfect Continuous

The verb shows that the action is going on continuously, and not completed at this present moment.

As the Present Tense has four forms, similarly the Past Tense and Future Tense also has the four forms.

I wrote Simple Past
I was writing Past Continuous
I had written Past Perfect
I had been writing Past Perfect Continuous

And:

I shall/will write Simple Future
I shall/will be writing Future Continuous
I shall/will have written Future Perfect
I shall have been writing Future Perfect Continuous

3.2.1 Simple Present Tense

The Simple Present is used as:

1. To express a habitual action; as
for eg., He *drinks* tea every morning, My watch *keeps* good time
2. To express general truths; as
for eg., The sun *rises* in the east, Fortune *favors* the brave.
3. In exclamatory sentences beginning with here and there to express what is actually taking place in the present; as
for eg., There goes the bus!
4. In vivid narrative, as substitute for the Simple Past;
for eg., Immediately the Sultan *hurries* to his capital
5. To express a future event that is part of a fixed timetable or fixed programme;
for eg., The next flight is at 7.00 tomorrow morning, When does the coffee house *reopen*?

3.2.2 Present Continuous Tense

The Present Continuous is used in

1. For an action going on at the time of speaking; as
for eg., The boys *are playing* cricket.

2. For a temporary action which may not be actually happening at the time of speaking; as
for eg., I *am reading* 'Great Expectations' (though not at this very moment).
3. For an action that has already been arranged to take place in the near future;
for eg., I *am going* to the cinema tonight. My uncle *is arriving* tomorrow.

3.2.3 Present Perfect tense

1. To indicate completed activities in the immediate past;
for eg., He *has just left*. It *has just struck* ten.
2. To express past actions whose time is not given and not definite;
for eg., Have you *read* 'Gulliver's Travels'? Mr. John *has been* to America.
3. To describe past events when we think more of their effect in the present than of the action itself;
for eg., I *have finished* my work (ie., I am free now).
4. To denote an action beginning at some time in the past and continuing up to the present moment;
for eg., We *have lived* here for ten years.

3.2.4 Present Perfect continuous Tense

1. It is used for an action which began at some time in the past and is still continuing;
for eg., They *have been building* the bridge for several months (and is still building).
2. The tense is also sometimes used for an action already finished. In such cases the continuity of the activity is emphasized as an explanation of something.
for eg., 'Why are your clothes so wet?' – 'I *have been watering* the garden'.

3.3 PAST TENSE

Simple past Tense

1. The Simple Past is used to indicate an action completed in the past.
for eg., He *received* his letter a week ago. She *left* school last year.
2. Sometimes it is used without an adverb of time. In such cases the time may be either implied or indicated by the context.
for eg., Babar *defeated* Rana Sanga at Kanwaha. I *learnt* Hindi in Nagpur.
3. It is used for past habits; as
for eg., He *studied* many hours everyday. She always *carried* an umbrella.

3.3.1 Past Continuous Tense

1. The past continuous is used to denote an action going on at sometime in the past, the time of the action may or may not be indicated;
for eg., We *were listening* to the radio all evening.
2. This tense is also used with always, continually for persistent habits in the past;
for eg., He *was always grumbling*.

3.3.2 Past Perfect Tense

1. The Past Perfect describes an action completed before a certain moment in the past.
for eg., I met him in New Delhi in 1996, I *had seen* him last five years before.

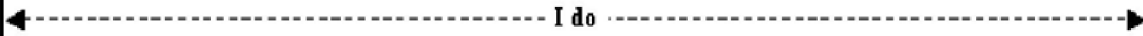
The Present Tenses

Present Simple

Present Simple

Used to say what someone usually does

I always study English on Tuesday.



Past

Future

Present Progressive/Continuous

Present Progressive

Used to say what someone is doing now

I am studying English now



Past

Now

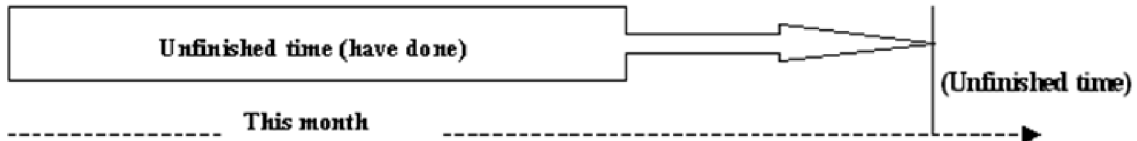
Future

Present Perfect Simple

Present Perfect Simple

Used to show unfinished time

I have studied English twice this week.



Present Perfect Progressive/Continuous

Present Perfect Progressive

Used to say how long someone has been doing

I have been studying English for 2 years.

I have been studying English since 1997.

2. If two actions happened in the past, it may be necessary to show which action happened earlier than the other. The Past Perfect is mainly used in such situations. The Simple Past is used in one clause and the Past Perfect in the other.

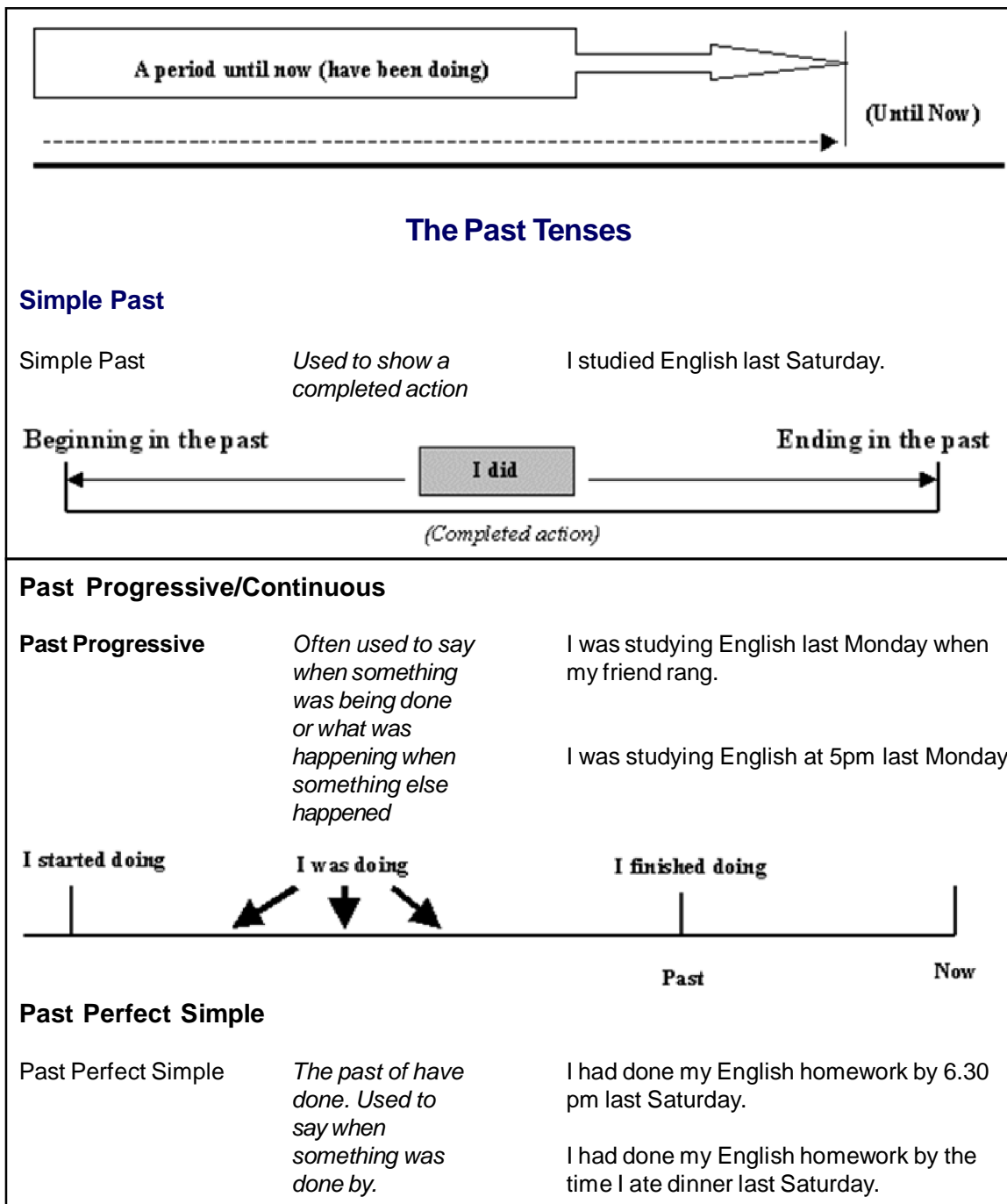
for eg., When I reached the station the train *had started* (so I couldn't get into the train).

I *had done* my exercise when Hari came to see me.

3.3.3 Past perfect continuous Tense

The Past Perfect Continuous is used for an action that began before a certain point in the past and continued up to that time;

for eg., At that time he *had been writing* a novel for two months.



3.4 FUTURE TENSE

3.4.1 Simple Future Tense

1. The Simple Future Tense is used to talk about things which we cannot control. It expresses the future as fact;
for eg., We *will know* our exam results in May.
2. We use this tense to talk about what we think or believe will happen in the future;
for eg., I think Pakistan *will win* the match.
3. We can use this tense when we decide to do something at the time of speaking;
for eg., It is raining, I *will take* an umbrella.
4. The Simple Present is often used for future time in clauses with *if, unless, when, while, as (= while), before, after, until, by the time and as soon as*. The Simple Future Tense is not used in such cases.
for eg., I won't go out if it *rains*. Can I have some milk before I *go* to bed?

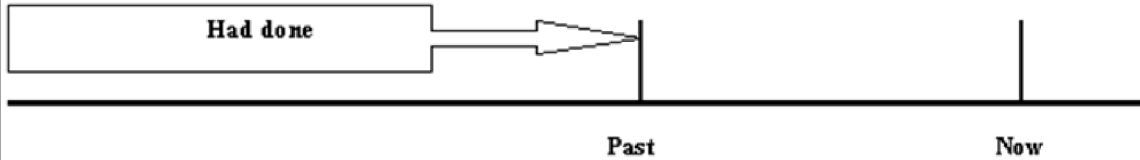
Past Perfect Progressive/Continuous

Past Perfect Progressive

The past of have been. Used to show how long something was done for by a

I'd been doing my English homework for 30 minutes when my friend rang last Saturday.

I'd been doing my English homework for 30 *certain time*. minutes by 1 pm last Saturday.



The Future Tenses

The future can be indicated in several different ways in English. It is often created with the use of auxiliaries: "She will be a student.", "She is going to drive a new car." English can even create the future by using the simple present (used for timetables, programs etc.), "The train arrives at 10pm" or the present progressive (used for future plans), "He is collecting his mother from the station tonight."

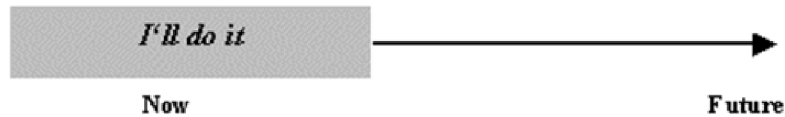
Simple Future (uses will or shall or going to + base form)

Simple Future (Some uncertainty)

Decide to do something at the time of speaking

I think I'll do my English homework tonight.

A decision is made now to do something in the future



Simple Future (Certain)

Have already decided or arranged to do something

I am going to study English next Saturday.

Present Continuous Tense

We use present continuous tense when we talk about something that we have planned to do in the future;

for eg., I *am going to* Shimla tomorrow. Mr. Hari *is arriving* this evening.

3.4.2 Future Continuous Tense

It is used to talk about actions which will be in progress at a time in the future.

for eg., I suppose it *will be* raining when we start.

This time tomorrow I *will be* sitting on the beach in Singapore.

We also use this tense to talk about actions in the future which are already planned or which are expected to happen in the normal course of things;

for eg., I *will be staying* here till Sunday. He *will be meeting* us next week.

A decision was made in the past to do something in the future

I'm going to do it

Past

Now

Future

Future Progressive/Continuous (uses will be, shall be or going to be +-ing form)

Future Progressive (Some uncertainty)

*The English lesson **should** begin at 7.30 and end at 9.15, so the person **should be** studying at 7.30 (but the lesson might start late).*

I will be starting my English lesson at 7.30 pm.

Future Progressive (Certain)

*The English lesson begins at 7.30 and ends at 9.15, so he's **certain** to be studying when his friend arrives at 8.00*

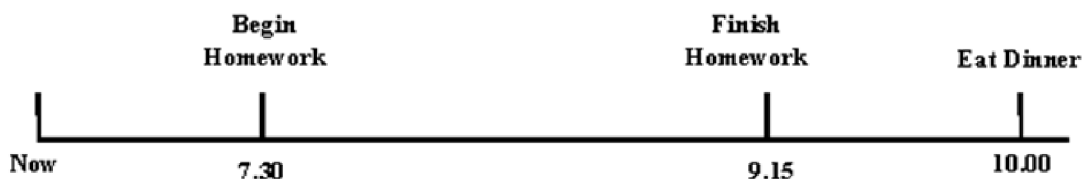
I am going to be studying English when my friends arrive at 9.00 pm.

Future Perfect Simple (uses will have or shall have + past participle)

Future Perfect Simple

Used to say something will already be complete by a time.

I will have already done my English homework by the time I eat dinner on Saturday.

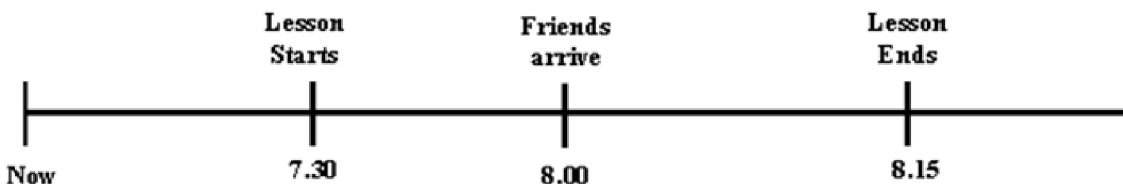


Future Perfect Progressive/Continuous (uses will have been or shall have been + -ing form)

Future Perfect Progressive

Used to say how long something will have been happening in the future by a certain

I will have been studying English for 30 minutes when my friends arrive.



3.4.3 Future Perfect Tense

It is used to talk about actions that will be completed by a certain future time; for eg., I *shall have written* my exercise by then.

By the end of this month I *will have worked* here for five years.

3.4.4 Future Perfect continuous Tense

The Future Perfect Continuous Tense is used for actions which will be in progress over a period of time that will end in the future;

for eg., By next March we *shall have been living* here for four years.

3.2-3.4 - Check your progress

Change the tense of the verb given in the bracket as required.

1. I.....(Study) all night long.
2. Please((takes) your suncoat when you go out.
3. I((go) for a walk every evening.
4. Preeti((clean) the table just now.
5. When, we went to cinema, the film((start).
6. He((receive) the cheque from the bank yesterday.
7. My mom((stay) with us for the next six months.
8. She always((speak) softly.
9. Do you think you((see) me somewhere before?
10. This paper((appears) Twice weekly.

3.5 SUMMARY

Tense forms an integral part of grammar as every sentence occurs in one or other form of Tense. The summary of Tense can be studied as :

- * The three basic types of tenses are the Present, Past and Future Tense.
- * Each of the above types can be classified as simple, perfect, continuous and perfect continuous.
- * Continuous Tense indicates the activity going on in the respective tense while perfect continuous indicates activity that has begun and is continuing.
- * To understand Tense or to convert a sentence from one tense to another, it is essential to concentrate on the verb.

3.6 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS - ANSWERS

3.2-3.4 -

1. Have been studying, 2. take 3. go 4. has cleaned 5. had already started
6. received 7. will be staying ? 8. speaks 9. have seen 10. appears

3.7 QUESTIONS FOR SELF - STUDY

1. Define Tense
2. State the types of Present Tense with example.

3. State the types of Past Tense with example.
4. State the types of Future Tense with example.

I) Point out the verbs in the following sentences and name their tenses:

1. God forgive you!
2. He told me that he had finished the work.
3. He is waiting for you in the compound.
4. Beware lest something worse should happen to you.
5. The farmer is cutting the corn which has ripened.

II) Choose the correct verb form from those given in brackets:

1. I _____ him only one letter up to now (sent, have sent, send)
2. This paper _____ twice weekly (is appearing, appearing, appears)
3. Every day last week my Aunt _____ a plate. (breaks, broke, was breaking)
4. The town _____ its appearance completely since 1960. (is changing, Changed, has changed)
5. When we went to the cinema, the film _____ (already started, had already started, would already start)
6. She has bought some cloth; she _____ herself a shirt. (will make, is going to make)
7. This book is not long. I _____ it by lunch time. (will be reading, will have read).
8. I _____ into town later on. Do you want a lift? (drive, will be driving).
9. Men _____ to abolish wars up to now, but may be they will find a way in the future. (never managed, have never managed, will have never managed)
10. Did you think you _____ me somewhere before? (have seen, had seen, were seeing)

3.8 SUGGESTED READINGS

1. *High School English Grammar and Composition* by P. C. Wren, H. Martin (Edited by N.D.V. Prasada Rao)
2. *Speaking English Effectively* by Mohan Krishna and Singh N.



Parts of Speech

4.0	Objectives
4.1	Introduction
4.2	Definition of various parts of speech
4.3	Summary
4.4	Check your Progress - Answers
4.5	Questions for Self - Study
4.6	Suggested Readings

4.0 OBJECTIVES

Friends ! Words together make up a sentence. Have you ever wondered, What these words are? There are different types of words that are classified into various classes. These are known as parts of speech.

In depth study of this chapter would enable you to -

- 1) explain the various parts of speech like noun, adjective, verb etc.
- 2) explain their role in the structure of a sentence.
- 3) define various parts of Speech.
- 4) describe their role in the structure of a sentence.
- 5) identify various parts of speech correctly.

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Words are divided into different kinds or classes, called parts of speech, according to their use or according to the work they do in a sentence. They are eight in number:

1. Noun
2. Adjective
3. Pronoun
4. Verb
5. Adverb
6. Preposition
7. Conjunction
8. Interjection

4.2 DEFINITION OF VARIOUS PARTS OF SPEECH

1. **A Noun** is a word used as the name of a person, place or thing.
for eg., His *courage* won him *honour*.
2. **An Adjective** is a word used to add something to the meaning of the noun.
for eg., He is a *brave* boy.
3. **A Pronoun** is a word used instead of a noun.
for eg., The books are where you left *them*.
4. **A Verb** is used to express action or state.
for eg., The girl *wrote* a letter to her cousin.
5. **An Adverb** is used to add something to the meaning of the verb, an adjective or another adverb.
for eg., She pronounced the word *quite* correctly.
6. **A Preposition** is a word used with a noun or a pronoun to show how the person or thing denoted by the noun or pronoun stands in relation to something else.
for eg., The girl is fond *of* music.

Adverbs of Manner - Comparative/Superlative

Greedy



He ate his dinner **greedily**.

Comparative

He ate **more greedily than** usual.

Superlative

He ate **the most greedily**.

Loud



She played the radio **loudly**.

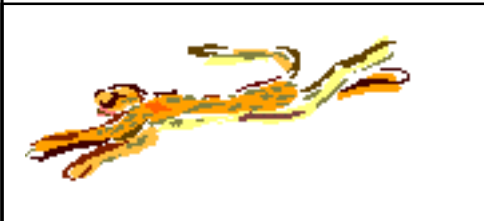
Comparative

She played her radio **more loudly than** usual.

Superlative

She played the radio **the most loudly**.

Fast / Slow



Cheetahs run **fast**.

7. **A Conjunction** is a word used to join words or sentences.
for eg., Two *and* two make four.
8. **An interjection** is a word which expresses some sudden feeling.
for eg., *Hurray!* We have won the game.



Some modern grammars include Determiners among the parts of speech. Determiners are words like a, an, the, this, these, those, every, each, some, any, my, his, one, two etc., which determine or limit the meaning of the nouns that follow.

As the words are divided into different classes according to the work they do in sentences, it is clear that we cannot say to which part of speech a word belongs unless we see it used in a sentence. for eg.,

They arrived soon *after*. (Adverb)

They arrived *after* us. (Preposition)

They arrived *after* we had left. (Conjunction)

	Hedgehogs walk slowly		
	Snails crawl very slowly .		
Comparative	Cheetahs run faster than hedgehogs.	Hedgehogs walk more slowly than cheetahs	Snails crawl more slowly than hedgehogs.
Superlative	Cheetahs move the fastest .		Snails move most slowly .

Adjectives - Comparative and Superlative

Big | Small



This is a **small** box.





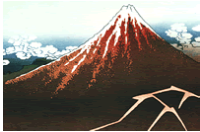



This is a **big** box.

4.2 - Check your Progress :

What is the part of speech of the underlined words?

1. He is the right man in the right place.
2. Men who work hard enjoy life fully.
3. It matters little what he says.
4. Take this parcel over to the post office.
5. Still waters run deep.
6. What most annoys me is his obstinacy.
7. We shall lie all alike in our graves.
8. He was only a yard off me.
9. Several men were standing about.
10. That boy gives any amount of trouble.
11. His answer was a decided no.
12. He has returned home long since.
13. He died that he might save his country.
14. Enough is as good as feast.
15. The next moment is dead.

		
<p>The green box is smaller than the red box and the blue box.</p> <p>The green box is the smallest box.</p>	<p>The blue box is bigger than the green box.</p> <p>The blue box is smaller than the red box.</p>	<p>The red box is bigger than the blue box and the green box.</p> <p>The red box is the biggest box.</p>
Higher / Lower Highest / Lowest		
<p style="text-align: center;">Mount Snowdon</p>  <p style="text-align: center;">1,085 metres</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Mount Fuji</p>  <p style="text-align: center;">3,776 metres</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Mount Everest</p>  <p style="text-align: center;">8,848 metres</p>
<p>Mount Snowdon is the lowest mountain.</p>	<p>Mount Fuji is higher than Mount Snowdon.</p> <p>Mount Fuji is higher than Mount Snowdon, but lower than Mount Everest.</p>	<p>Mount Everest is the highest mountain.</p>

4.3. SUMMARY




Thus the parts of Speech give us an idea of the various functions which the words perform.

Words Serve as naming words (nouns), action words (verb) or they may be describing nouns action, connecting, relating other words and so on! This shows that much effort goes in creation of a sentence. Even a simple sentence that we alter, is based on certain rules of grammar according to which the words are combine.




4.4 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS - ANSWERS

1. Right - adjective
2. enjoy-verb, fully -adverb
3. he - pronoun
4. over- preposition
5. Still - adjective
6. obstionary - noun
7. in - preposition
8. He - pronoun, off - preposition

Longer / Shorter | Longest / Shortest

<p>River Danube</p>  <p>2,850 (km)</p>	<p>River Amazon</p>  <p>6,516 (km)</p>	<p>River Nile</p>  <p>6,695 (km)</p>
<p>The river Danube is the shortest river.</p>	<p>The river Amazon is longer than the river Danube.</p> <p>The river Amazon is longer than the river Danube, but shorter than the river Nile.</p>	<p>The river Nile is the longest river.</p>

Cheaper / More (Less) Expensive | Cheapest / Most (Least) Expensive

<p>John's car cost</p>  <p>£15,000</p>	<p>Jane's car cost</p>  <p>£25,000</p>	<p>Bill's car cost</p>  <p>£55,000</p>
<p>John's car is the least expensive car. It's the cheapest car.</p>	<p>John's car was less expensive than Jane's car. It's cheaper than Jane's car.</p> <p>Jane's car is more expensive than John's car, but less expensive than Bill's car.</p>	<p>Bill's car is the most expensive car.</p>

9. were standing - verb
10. gives - verb
11. answer - noun
12. He- pronoun
13. that - preposition
14. least - noun
15. next - adjectives

4.5 QUESTIONS FOR SELF - STUDY

1. Define parts of speech
2. Define each type of parts of speech and give suitable examples.

4.6 SUGGESTED READINGS

1. *Speaking English Effectively* by Mohan Krishna and Singh N.
2. *English in Context - Idioms* by Betty Kirk Partrick



Transformation of Sentences

5.0	Objectives
5.1	Introduction
5.2	Direct and Indirect Speech
5.3	Active and Passive Voice
5.4	Enclamatory and Assertive Sentences
5.5	Transformation of sentences change of Degree
5.6	Summary
5.7	Check your Progress - <i>Answers</i>
5.8	Questions for Self - Study
5.9	Suggested Readings

5.0 OBJECTIVES

Friends ! The last chapter taught us about the part which make up a sentence. In this chapter, we will learn to change one type of a sentence into another type.

Thus, we will be able to change the style of speech - Direct to Indirect, Voice - Active to passive and style and degree too. So you will to able to-

1. explain the basic types of sentences.
2. explain the speech and voice in a sentence.
3. do conversion or transformation of sentences do conversion.
4. use the rules of grammar that need to be followed in this process use the rules.

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The transformation of a sentence means changing its form without affecting its sense. It can be brought about by one of the following ways -

1. Changing the manner of speech. Direct to Indirect or Vice a versa.
2. Changing the voice of a sentence from active to passive and vice a versa.
3. Changing the style of a sentence from assertive to exclamatory and vice a versa.
4. Changing the degree of a sentence. Comparative to Superlative and Vice a Versa.

The Transformation or conversion of a sentence means changing its form without affecting its sense. The phrase can be expanded into a clause and a clause contracted into a phrase : That is the form of a sentence can be changed without changing the meaning. The conversion or transformation of a sentence is an excellent exercise as it teaches us a variety of expression in written English.

5.2 DIRECT & INDIRECT SPEECH

Direct speech: gives the exact words of the speaker, in the first person. If it occurs in an ordinary narrative, it is marked off by inverted commas, and a new paragraph is given to each speaker.

Direct	Indirect
1) The teacher said, "The earth is round."	1) The teacher said that the earth is round.
2) He said, "The sun rises in the East."	2) He said that the Sun rises in the East.
3) He said, "Honesty is the best policy."	3) He said that honesty is the best policy.
4) He said, "Your bag is here."	4) He said that his bag was there.
5) She said, "I will go to Bombay tomorrow".	5) She said that she would go to Bombay the next day.
6) The fox said, "These grapes are sour."	6) The fox said that those grapes were sour.
7) The child said to his mother, "I am very hungry now."	7) The child told his mother that he was very hungry then.

5.3 ACTIVE & PASSIVE VOICE

A sentence in the Active form can be changed into the passive form, and vice versa : -

- Compare :
- 1) Jack helps John.
 - 2) John is helped by Jack.

In sentence above have the same meaning. Sentence1, shows, the form of verb shows that the person denoted by subject Jack **does** something. Hence, the verb is said to be in **Active Form / Voice**.

In sentence2, Something is done to the person denoted by the subject John. the form of verb 'is helped' is said to be in the **Passive Form / Voice**.

Active	Passive
1) Brutus stabbed Caesar.	1) Caesar was stabbed by Brutus.
2) Who taught you grammar?	2) By whom were you taught grammar? By whom was grammar taught to you?
3) The King gave him a reward.	3) He was given a reward by the king. A reward was given to him by the King.
4) One should keep one's promises.	4) Promises should be kept.
5) Give him order.	5) Let the order be given.
6) The enemy has defeated our Army.	6) Our army has been defeated.

Exclamatory & Assertive Sentences

5.4 EXCLAMATORY & ASSERTIVE SENTENCE

Exclamatory	Assertive
1) What a wonderful opportunity!	1) It is a very wonderful opportunity
2) Oh, that I were young again!	2) I wish I were young again.
3) How kind of you to help him	3) It is very kind of you to help like that! him that.
4) How noble he is!	4) He is truly noble.
5) What a great pleasure it is!	5) This is indeed a great pleasure.

5.5 TRANSFORMATION OF SENTENCES

Change of Degree of comparison of an adjective or adverb in a sentence without changing the meaning of the sentence.

Change of Degree : three degrees.

Positive degree -(as + as), Comparative Degree- (er + than), superlative most + of all)

*** Change of Degree: When the comparison is between two only.**

- 1) (a) Honey is as sweet as sugar. (+ve degree)
(b) Sugar is not sweeter than honey. (Comparative degree)
- 2) (a) This fort is taller than the fort in your town. } (Comparative degree.)
(b) The fort in your town is not as tall as this fort. } (+ve degree.)
- 3) (a) A mango is sweeter than an apple. (Comparative)
(b) An apple is not as sweet as a mango. (Positive)
- 4) (a) He works harder than his brother. (comparative)
(b) His brother doesn't work as hard as he. (+ve degree)
- (1) (a) The rose is the most beautiful flower. (Superlative degree)
(b) The rose is more beautiful than any other flower. (Comparative)
(c) No other flower is as beautiful as rose.
- (2) (a) Mount Everest is the highest peak in the world. (Superlative)
(b) Mount Everest is higher than any other peak in the world. (Comparative)
(c) No other peak in the world is as high as Mount Everest. (+ve degree)
- (3) (a) Napoleon was the bravest of all generals (Superlative)
(b) Napoleon was the bravest than any other general. (Comparative)
(c) No other general was as brave as Napoleon. (+ve degree)
- (4) (a) No other metal is as useful as iron. (+ve degree)
(b) Iron is more useful than any other metal (comparative)
(c) Iron is the most useful metal. (OR) Iron is the most useful of all metals. (Superlative)
- 5) (a) Gavaskar is better than any other batsman. (Comparative)
(b) Gavaskar is the best batsman OR Gavaskar is the best of all batsman (Superlative)
(c) No other batsman is as good as Gavaskar. (+ve degree)

Superlative :

- (1) Our school is one of the biggest school in Pune. (Superlative)
- (2) Our school is bigger than most other schools. (Comparative)
- (3) Very few schools in Pune are as big as our school. (+ve degree)
- (a) Japan is one of the most advanced country in the world. (Superlative)
- (b) Japan is more advanced than most other countries in the world. (Comparative)
- (c) Very few countries in the world are as advanced as Japan. (+ve degree)

5.2 - 5.5 Check your Progress**(A) Change the degree :**

1. A snail moves more slowly than a tortoise.
2. Ajit does not bowl as fast as keki.
3. Mahabaleshwar is cooler than Matheran.
4. My sister is as fair as a Lily.
5. Is a tiger more fierce than a lion?

(B) Change the degree in the following sentences as directed :

- (1) No other river is as sacred as the Ganges. (Superlative)
- (2) Shivaji was the wisest ruler. (Comparative)
- (3) Rustom was stronger than most other Persian warriors. (Comparative)
- (4) Very few Cities are as clean as Bangalore. (Superlative)
- (5) The Himalayas are the youngest mountains in the world. (Comparative)

- (6) Ashoka was more generous than any other rulers in India. (Positive)
- (7) The nearest Star to the earth is the Sun. (Positive)
- (8) Durvasa was the most wild - tempered Rishi (Comparative)
- (C) Direct to Indirect: Change the following sentences into Indirect Speech.**
- (1) The woodcutter said, "I have not kept anything back".
- (2) He said, "I am looking for my glasses".
- (3) She said, "I am only a little girl but I can save the town".
- (4) He said, "The Sun Sets in the West".
- (5) The teacher said, "Three and three make Six,"
- (D) Active - Passive : Change the following sentences into the passive form.**
- (1) Summon the fire- brigade.
- (2) We admire the brave.
- (3) I bought the baby a doll.
- (4) Pay that bill today.
- (5) They enjoy bathing.
- (E) Exclamatory - Assertive: Transform the following exclamatory sentences into sentences.**
- (1) How hot it is today!
- (2) What a glorious morning!
- (3) What a fall was there my Countrymen!
- (4) Death to the traitors !
- (5) How glad I am that you have come !
- (F) Assertive to Exclamatory :
- (1) It was an extremely delightful party.
- (2) He has become very rich in a few years.
- (3) I wish I were young again.
- (4) I wish I had never met you.
- (5) She danced very beautifully.

5.6 SUMMARY

In this way, this chapter tells us about the types of sentences and the transformation from one type to another.

Thus it teaches us a variety of expression in English grammar. We have learnt about sentences expressed in style of voice, degree, speech and so on,

However the student has to be careful about one thing. Irrespective of the type of sentence or the transformation, one cannot violate the basic rules of grammar. Hence the transformation should follow these rules and also should not change the meaning of the sentence.

5.7 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS- ANSWERS

5.2-5.5

- (A) 1. A tortoise moves faster than a snail.
2. Keki bowls faster than Ajit.
3. Matheran is not as cool as Mahabaleshwar.
4. Lily is not fairer than my sister.
5. A tiger is as fierce as a Lion.
- (B) 1. The Ganges is the most Sacred river.
2. No other ruler was as wise as Shivaji.
3. No other Persian warrior was as strong as Rustum.
4. Bangalore is one of the cleanest city,
5. The Himalayas are younger than any other mountains in the world.
6. No other ruler in India was as generous as Ashoka.
7. No other star is as nearer to the Earth as the Sun,
8. No other Rishi was as short tempered as Durvasa.
- (C) 1. The woodcutter told that he has not kept anything back.
2. He said that he was looking for his glasses.
3. She said that though she was only a little girl, she could save the town.
4. He said that the sun set in the west.
5. The Teacher said that three and three made six.
- (D) 1. The fire-brigade needs to be Summoned.
2. The brave are admired by us.
3. A doll was brought for the baby by me.
4. Let the bill be paid today.
5. Bathing is enjoyed by them.
- (E) 1. It is very hot today.
2. It is a glorious morning.
3. There was a great fall for my country men.
4. The traitors should die,
5. I am glad that you have come.
- (F) 1. What a delightful party it was !
2. How rich he has become in few years!
3. Oh! that I were young again.
4. Oh! How I wish I never meet you again!
5. How beautifully she danced!

5.8 QUESTIONS FOR SELF - STUDY

1. Explain what are active and passive voices / forms of sentences?
2. Explain the concept of degree with examples.
3. What do you mean by direct and indirect speech?
4. What is Voice? In what types of voices do sentences occur?

5.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

1. Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English - Douglas Biber, Stig Johansson, Geoffrey Leech, Susan Conrad, Edward Finegan
2. *High School English Grammar and Composition* - P. C. Wren, H. Martin (Edited by N.D.V. Prasada Rao)



Idioms and Phrases

6.0	Objectives
6.1	Introduction
6.2	List of commonly used idioms (Alphabetical order)
6.3	Summary
6.4	Check your progress - Answers
6.5	Questions for Self - Study
6.6	Suggested Readings

6.0 OBJECTIVES

Dear Friends ! Here we are with a very interesting topic - idioms when you say life is not a bed of roses !, the term bed of roses indicates something that is easy or smooth, such a group of words or a phrase is called an idiom. This chapter thus helps you to -

1. use the commonly used idioms and phrases.
2. explain the actual meaning of the idiom.
3. construct meaningful sentences by using these idioms.

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Idioms and phrases are a group of words used for more effective use of language.

These words are not interpreted by their literal meaning but by their indicative meaning. Idioms and phrases are expressions peculiar to the language.

Their effective use brings the command over the language.

Idioms are expressions peculiar to a language. They play an important role in all languages. The English language is rich in phrases and idioms. Nouns and Verbs in English combination with Prepositions, Adverbs and other parts of speech, constantly makes phrases and idioms by means of which finest shades of meanings can be expressed. The more it is increasingly used the better will be one's command over the language.

Distinction between Idioms and Phrases is not made clear. Add the following line to the sub-topic.

Sometimes a group of words does the work of an Adjective, such a group is called **Adjective Phrase**, e.g. 1) He lived in a stone house. (Stone=adjective) 2) He lived in a house built of stone (built of stone = adjectival phrase).

6.2 LIST OF COMMONLY USED IDIOMS

Bear

1. Satish bore away (won) many prizes at the school sports.
2. In his misfortune God gave him strength to bear up (to keep up spirits, not to despair).
3. The new leader has been able to bear down (overthrow, crush) all oppositions.
4. A religious hope bears up (supports) a man in his trials.
5. I trust you will bear with (have patience with, show forbearance) me few minutes more.

Break

1. He broke down (failed) in the middle of his speech.

2. He broke off (stopped suddenly) in the middle of his story.
3. I gave him no cause to break with (quarrel with) me.
4. The burglars broke into (entered by force) the house.

Bring

1. His folly has brought about (caused) his ruin.
2. Idleness and luxury bring forth (produce, cause) poverty and want.
3. The building brings in (yields as rent) Rs.7000 a month.
4. She brought up (reared) the orphan as her own child.
5. The teacher often tells us a story to bring out (show) the meaning of a lesson.

Call

1. His master called for (demanded) an explanation of his conduct.
2. New responsibilities often call out (draw forth) virtues and abilities unsuspected before.
3. Call in (summon, send for) a doctor immediately.
4. He called on me (paid me a visit) yesterday.
5. The old man could not call up (recollect) past events.

Carry

1. He agreed to carry out (execute) my orders.
2. His passion carried him away (deprived him of self-control).
3. His son carried on (managed) his business in his absence.
4. Many persons were carried off (killed) by plague.

Cast

1. The ship was cast away (wrecked) on the coast of Africa.
2. He was much cast down (depressed) by his loss.

Come

1. How did these things come about (happen)?
2. How did you come by (get) his purse?
3. At last the truth has come out (transpired)?
4. The taxes come to (amount to) a large sum.
5. The question came up (was mooted or raised for discussion) before the Municipal Corporation last week.
6. I hope he will come round (agree) to our views.

Cry

1. Men of dissolute lives cry down (depreciate) religion, because they would not be under the restraints of it.
2. He cried out against (protested against) such injustice.
5. That young author is cried up (extolled) by his friends.

Cut

1. He was cut off (died) in the prime of life.
2. He is cut out for (specially fit to be) a sailor.
3. You must cut down (reduce) your expenditure.

Do

1. I am done for ruined.
2. Having walked twenty miles, he is quite done up (fatigued, exhausted).

Fall

1. At last the rioters fell back (retreated, yielded).
2. The scheme has fallen through (failed for) want of support.

3. I am told the two brothers have fallen out (quarreled).
4. It is said that the standard of efficiency in public service has recently fallen off (deteriorated).

Get

1. His friends expected that he would get off (escape) with a fine.
2. It is hard to get on with (agree or live socially with) a suspicious man.
3. The thief got away (escaped) with my cash-box.
4. The dog tried to get at (attack) me.
5. He has got through (passed) his examination.
6. They were lucky to get out of (escape from) his clutches.

Give

1. We are credibly informed that the murderer has given himself up (surrendered himself) to the police.
2. The doctors have given up (have no) hope of his recovery.
3. The fire gave off (emitted) a dense smoke.
4. The strikers seem determined, and are not likely to give in (submit, yield).
5. It was given out (published, proclaimed) that he was a bankrupt.
6. The rope gave way (broke, snapped) while the workmen were hauling up the iron pillar.
7. Give over (abandon) this foolish attempt.

Go

1. You cannot always go by (judge from) appearance.
2. It is a good rule to go by (to be guided by).
3. He promised to go into (examine, investigate) the matter.
4. The concert went off well.
5. I must first go through the accounts.
6. The auditor went over the balance sheet.

Hold

1. The rebels held out for about a month.
2. He holds out no promise of future prospects.
3. They were held up by robbers.
4. The subject is held over till next meeting.

Keep

1. A few boys were kept in after school-hours.
2. I was kept in by a bad cold.
3. They kept up a long conversation.
4. Little disputes and quarrels are chiefly kept up by those who have nothing else to do.
5. He is trying his best to keep up the reputation of his family.
6. She kept on talking.

Knock

1. He has knocked about the world a great deal.
2. The dressing table was knocked down for fifty rupees.
3. We were greatly knocked up after our steep climb.

Lay

1. The rebels laid down their arms.
2. He had laid out a large sum in railway shares.

3. Foolish people, who do not lay out their money carefully, soon come to grief.
4. He is laid up with fever.

Let

1. I was let into her secret.
2. This being his first offence, he was let off with a fine.

Look

1. His uncle looks after (takes care of) him.
2. He looks down upon (despises) his poor cousins.
3. Look up (search for) the word in the dictionary.
4. The old man is looking forward to (expecting with pleasure) the visit of his grandchildren.
5. I will look into (investigate) the matter.
6. I look on (regard) him as my son.
7. Some look on (rely on) legislation to hasten the progress of social reforms.
8. Look to (be careful about) your manners.
9. Things are looking up (improving).

Make

1. Contentment makes for (conduces to) happiness.
2. I cannot make out (discover) the meaning of this verse.
3. You have failed to make out (decipher, read) your case.
4. Some time ago the two brothers quarreled, but they have now made it up (become reconciled).

Pass

1. He generally passed by (overlooked) the faults of his subordinates.
2. The crew of the boat passed through (underwent) terrible sufferings.
3. He passed himself off as (pretended to be) a nobleman.
4. He passes for (is regarded as) a great Sanskritist.

Pick

1. The Committee picked out (selected) the best players for the team.
2. He lost twenty pounds in sickness, but is now picking up (regaining or recovering health).

Pull

1. Unless we pull together (cooperate, work together in harmony) we cannot succeed.
2. My cousin pulled through (passed with difficulty) the examination.
3. The doctor says the patient will pull through (recover from his illness).
4. It is easier to pull down (demolish) than to build up.

Put

1. He puts on (assumes) an air of dignity.
2. Please put out (extinguish) the light.
3. He was put out (vexed, annoyed) when I refused his request for a loan.
4. He tried to put me off (evade me, satisfy me) with promises.
5. While traveling I had to put up with (endure) a good deal of discomfort.
6. I cannot put up with (tolerate) his insolence.
7. I am sorry to put you to (give you) so much trouble.
8. The measure was put through (passed) without opposition.

Run

1. He always runs down (disparages) his rivals.
2. The lease of our premises has run out (expired, come to an end).
3. He has run through (squandered away) his fortune.
4. He has run into (incurred) debt.
5. While turning corner I ran against (chanced to meet) an old friend).

See

1. I saw through (detected) the trick.
2. It is hard to see into (discern) his motive.
3. His friends were present at the station to see him off (witness his departure).

Set

1. The High Court set aside (annulled) the decree of the lower court).
2. He immediately set about (took steps towards) organizing the department.
3. He set off (started) for Peshwar early this morning.
4. He has set up (started business) as a banker.
5. I have enough capital to set me up (establish myself) in trade.
6. Who set you on (instigated you) to do it?
7. Winter in England sets in (begins) about December.

Speak

1. In Mumbai there is no free library to speak of (worth mentioning).
2. I was determined to speak out (express my opinion freely).

Stand

1. They are determined to stand up for (vindicate, maintain) their rights.
2. Let this matter stand over (be deferred or postponed) for the present.
3. He is always standing up for (championing the cause of) the weak and oppressed.
4. We shall be formidable if we stand by (support) one another.

Strike

1. He is struck down with (attacked by) paralysis.
2. The Medical Council struck off (removed) his name from the register of medical practitioners.
3. While we were planning a family picnic, my sister struck in (interrupted) with the suggestion that we invite our neighbor's children as well.

Take

1. The piano takes up (occupies) too much room.
2. He takes after (resembles) his father.
3. At present I am reading the Essays of Bacon, but it is sometimes difficult to take in (comprehend, understand) his meaning.
3. Recently he has taken to (become addicted to) opium eating.

Talk

1. We talked over (discussed) the matter for an hour.
2. I hope to talk him over (convince him by talking) to our view.

Tell

1. I am afraid your antecedents will tell against you (ie., prove unfavorable to you).
2. The strain is telling upon (affecting) his health.

Throw

1. My advice was thrown away (wasted) upon him, because he ignored it.
2. The bill was thrown out (rejected) by the Assembly.

3. When he became rich he threw over (abandoned or deserted) all his old friends.

Turn

1. The factory turns out (produces, manufactures) 20,000 lbs of cloth a day.
2. If he's lazy, why don't you turn him off (dismiss him).
3. He turned out (proved) to be a sharper.
4. His very friends turned against (became hostile to) him.
5. He promised to come, but never turned up (appeared).

Work

1. We tempted him with many promises, but nothing would work on (influence) him.
2. He worked out (solved) the problem in a few minutes.
3. He is sure to work out (excite) the mob.
4. He worked upon (influenced) the ignorant villagers.

6.2 Check your progress

Give the meanings of the following idioms -

1. Turn against
2. carry out
3. cut down
4. give up

6.3 SUMMARY

Idioms thus prove to be extremely useful in a more effective way. Memorising idioms, learning to use them at the right place requires practice.

Slight change in the phrase, often changes the meaning of the idiom. eg. take up means occupy, take after indicates resembles. While take to indicates becoming addicted to.

Thus study of idioms is an altogether different perspective of English Language.

6.4 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS - ANSWERS

6.2

Turn against - become hostile to

2. Carry out - execute
3. Cut down - reduce
4. Give up - have no hope
5. set on with - Agree or live socially with

6.5 QUESTIONS FOR SELF - STUDY

1. What are idioms?
2. Write any 5 idioms with their meanings.

6.6 SUGGESTED READINGS

1. *English in Context - Idioms* by Betty Kirk Partrick
2. *High School English Grammar and Composition* - P. C. Wren, H. Martin (Edited by N.D.V. Prasada Rao)

Phrasal Verbs

7.0	Objectives
7.1	Introduction
7.2	Phrases
7.3	Summary
7.4	Check your Progress - Answers
7.5	Questions for Self - Study
7.6	Suggested Readings

7.0 OBJECTIVES

Dear Friends! After understanding idioms, we come again to some thing similar - Phrasal verbs.

This chapter will help you -

1. describe what exactly phrasal verbs are.
2. describe use of phrasal verbs in Sentences as per their meaning.
3. explain the meaning of these phrases.

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Definition : When certain prepositions are put after verbs, their meaning is drastically changed and they acquire an idiomatic sense. These are called Phrasal Verbs.

The major difference in phrasal verbs and idioms is that these are essentially associated with verbs while idioms may not be.

The use of phrases also makes the language more impressive.

When certain prepositions are put after verbs their meaning is drastically changed and they acquire an idiomatic sense, these are called Phrasal Verbs. Sometimes these verbs act as adverbs.

7.2 PHRASES

Act

Act upon: You will not pass, as you did not act upon (to work on) the suggestion of your teacher.

Act for: In his absence I acted (to work in someone's place) for him.

Bear

Bear down : The dictator bore down (smash) all the requests of opposition in no time.

Bear with: I cannot bear with (tolerate) with you any longer.

Break

Break out : The fire broke out (to spread wildly) in the village yesterday.

Break with : I have broken with (to end a relation) my friend Hari.

Bring

Bring up : She brought up (to educate) all her children.

Bring forward : The proposal she brought forward (to propose for discussion) seemed a

foolish one.

Bring about: A good tree brings forth (to produce) good fruit.
Bring to light: His investigation brought to light (reveal) the whole story.

Call

Call in : Call in (summon) a doctor immediately.
Call up: He could not call up (recall) past events.
Call off: The strike has been called off (withdraw) at the appeal of the Managing Director.
Call at : I called at (pay a visit) at Pandey's last night.

Come:

Come across: I came across (meet unexpectedly) my old friend in the market yesterday.
Come off: The tournament will come off (take place) tomorrow.

Carry:

Carry on : His son carried on (continue) on his business in his absence.
Carry out: She carried out (execute) the plan in every detail.

Do:

Do up : Having walked ten miles he is quite done up (exhausted).
Done with: I have done with (to make an end to) with scheming.
Do the trick: My last hit did the trick (to achieve one's object).

Draw :

Draw the line: We must draw the line (fix the limit) in relations with him.

Fall

Fall into : Your brother has fallen into (landed in) bad company.
Fall off: Generally attendance falls off (reduce) on every Saturday in every school.

Get

Get through : He has got through (succeed) the examination.
Get under: The man could get the fire under (bring under control) by throwing water and sand.

Give

Gave away: The Governor gave away (distribute) the prizes.
Give in: When pushed hard the door finally gave in (yield).
Give up: I have given up (surrender) smoking.

Go:

Go off: The concert went off (succeed) very well.
Go in for: Nobody else is going in for it (in support with) I believe, except the mover.
Go back on: He gave me a definite promise and he is not likely to go back (fail to keep) his word.
Go through: This was their playing and I think they mean to go through it (to carry determinedly to a finish).

Hold:

Hold out: The strikers will not be able to hold out (to offer resistance) for long.
Hold back: He held back the secret of his parents.

Keep:

Keep up: The husband and wife kept up (carry on) the discussion.
Keep on: She kept on (continue) talking all the night.
Keep back: I shall keep back (conceal) nothing from you.

Lay

Lay up: He was laid up (confined) with fever.
Lay by: She resolves to lay by (store for future use) a part of her income.

Look

Look after: You must look after (take care) your old parents.

Look into: I will look into (investigate) the matter.

Look up: Look up (search) the word in the dictionary.

Make:

Make out: You have failed to make out (prove) your case.

Make up: The train is much late, but I may make up (compensate).

Make off: He has made off (escape) with my tools.

Put

Put in: I have put in (forwarded) my claim for the arrears.

Put by: He did not put by (spare or put aside) anything for old age.

Put up at: We put up at (stay) adjust with a hotel for the night.

Put up with: We have to put up with (remove) inconvenience.

Put off: The traveler has put off (remove) his clothes because of hot weather.

Run:

Run after: The policemen are running after (chase) the thief.

Run out: The enemy will surrender soon as his supply has run out (lack).

Set:

Set upon: The robbers set upon (attack) the defenseless camp.

Turn:

Turn up: Seven students did not turn up (report or appear) in the examination.

Turn down: The Principal turned down (refuse or reject) the request of students to postpone the examination.

Work

Work out: I worked out (to solve) the problem in fifteen minutes.

Work up: I worked him up (excite or invoke) into a great patience.

Work upon: He worked upon (to influence) the religious feelings of the poor ignorant ones.

7.2 Check your progress**A) Give the meaning of the following phrases.**

1. Put up with
2. Turn up
3. Come across
4. get through
5. Keep up

B) Make sentences by using the given phrases

1. Look after
2. Bear with
3. Draw the Line

7.3 SUMMARY

Phrasal verbs just like idioms play an important role in making the language more effective and impressive. They are preposition which are associated with verbs which acquire a particular meaning.

Similar to idioms, the study and use of phrasal verbs in the language requires practice.

7.4 CHECK YOU PROGRESS - ANSWERS

7.2

- A)
1. Remove
 2. report / appear
 3. meet unexpectedly
 4. succeed
 5. carry on
- B)
1. She looks after her mother.
 2. You will have to bear with me if i make mistake.
 3. We must draw the line in relations with her.

7.5 QUESTIONS FOR SELF - STUDY

1. What are phrasal verbs.
2. enlast five phrasal verbs with their meanings and use them in your own sentences.

7.6 SUGGESTED READINGS

1. Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English - Douglab Biber, Stig Johansson, Geoffrey Leech, Susan conrad, Edward Finegan
2. *High School English Grammar and Composition* - P. C. Wren, H. Martin (Edited by N.D.V. Prasada Rao)



Vocabulary

8.0	Objectives
8.1	Introduction
8.2	Synonyms
8.3	List of Commonly used synonyms
8.4	Antonyms
8.5	One word substitution
8.6	Homonyms & Homophones
8.7	Words often confused
8.8	Summary
8.9	Check your Progress - <i>Answers</i>
8.10	Questions for Self - Study
8.11	Suggested Readings

8.0 OBJECTIVES

Dear Friends ! Vocabulary is the essence of language. Now you are familiar with a lot of words and you understand their interrelation. You are on your way to master your linguistic skills.

This chapter will help you to explain several such relations. Such as-

1. Synonyms or which have similar meanings.
2. Antonyms - words, which mean exactly the opposite.
3. Words that are confused by the users, a single word which can be used as a substitute for a group of words and so on.

So lets see what the words tell us!

8.1 INTRODUCTION

This unit explains the uses of word power. Vocabulary means knowledge of words. Words are the instruments by which we fabricate and embody our ideas. It is in words that writer as well as the speaker clothes his thoughts and feelings. It is therefore, essential for his success that he should enlarge his vocabulary so that he may have a fairly good stock of words to use and to choose the right words for right place. This unit explains:

- i) To make use of appropriate one word to fabricate and embody ideas in a better manner.
- ii) It helps encouraging the increase in vocabulary to develop fairly good stock of words to use right words for right place.
- iii) Clear confusions related with words having same or similar pronunciation but different meaning.
- iv) For easy understanding and learning the complicacies of words, we discuss the world of words under following heads:
 1. Synonyms
 2. Antonyms

3. One word substitution
4. Homophones and Homonyms

8.2 SYNONYMS

They are the words nearly same or similar in meaning at first sight, they seem to mean very much the same thing, but a closer examination reveals important difference in meaning.

Examples :

i. Accurate, Exact, Precise :

What is accurate must be exact, but exactness does not necessarily mean accurate. An accurate writer is one who aims at exactness. We speak of an exact coincidence. Precise when applied to things is nearly the same as exact, but less extended in significance.

ii. Allow and Permit :

Allow is used more in the active use to give positive sanction to the action and Permit more in passive sense implies not to hinder him.

iii. Also, Too, Likewise, Besides :

'Too' is more a familiar expression, 'Also' has something more specified and formal.

'Likewise' implies more connection or agreement between the words it unites and 'Besides' is used rather when some additional circumstance is named after others as a kind of after thought and generally to introduce some new clause of sentence.

iv. Astonish and Amaze

'Astonish' means to effect very strongly with overpowering wonder. 'Amaze' conveys the impression of some degree of perplexity or bewilderment.

v. Anger and Wrath

'Anger' is more correctly applied to the inward feeling, 'wrath' to the outward manifestations.

vi. Amusement, Entertainment and Recreation

'Amusement' is applied to a useful pursuit that pleases and recreates the mind. 'Entertainment' conveys the idea of a big show or spectacle. Recreation means refreshment after business or some hectic life suit.

vii. Announce, Proclaim and Declare

To 'announce' is applied to persons and tidings, but not to opinions. To 'declare' and 'proclaim' to opinions, but not to persons. To announce is used with reference to the present and to things that are to happen in the near future.

viii. Answer and Reply

The first time a question is responded is always called an 'answer', but if this, again is 'answered' this second answer is called a reply. 'Answer' is used to mean something which serves the purpose for which it is said i.e., which satisfies the questioner and defeats the opponent. A 'reply' is merely something said in return, or by way of an answer to some question or attack.

ix. Ask, Request and Beg

'Ask' is the simplest form of making a request. 'Request' is more polite form of asking and 'Beg' is a stronger request.

x. Genuine and Authentic

A 'genuine' book is one, which was written by the person whose name it bears, as the author of it. An 'authentic' book is that which relates matters of fact as they really happened.

xi. Suffer, Bear and Endure

'Suffer' means some body pain or distress of body or mind. To 'bear' or 'endure' is to suffer that distress or pain with fortitude.

xii. Beautiful, Handsome

Beautiful implies some degree of softness and delicacy. Handsome implies the beauty of some person or thing which is trained or cultivated.

xiii. Completely, Entirely

Completely is used in question of degree, entirely in those of quantity.

xiv. Confidence, Trust, Reliance

Confidence implies trust, but trust does not imply confidence. We may report trust in a person in whose character we have no confidence. But we can repose confidence only in that man whom we trust. Reliance is only applied to qualities or actions; not in general to persons.

xv. Distinguish, Discriminate

To distinguish is merely to mark broad and obvious differences, to discriminate is to notice minuter and more subtle difference.

xvi. Error, Mistake, Blunder

Error is always used to designate some action which is blamed, whether morally or intellectually. It may proceed from nothing but a failure in judgment implying some degree of blame though slight. An error is always a mistake. A mistake may attach no sort of blame to the person who makes it. A blunder implies a mistake which is inconsistent with the knowledge the person possesses.

xvii. Prohibit, Forbid

Prohibit has often a more official character than is implied by forbid, which is often used in relation to private life.

xviii. Gift, Present

Gift is an act of generosity, it contributes to the benefit to the receiver, the present is an act of kindness, courtesy or respect, it contributes to the pleasure to the receiver.

xix. Illusion, Delusion

Illusion has most to do with the visions of the imagination, it is an idea which is presented before us and which does not exist in reality, delusion with some decided mental deception, a false view entertained of something which really exists.

xx. Nearly, almost

Nearly is applied to questions of quantity, time and space, almost to questions of degree.

xxi. Wisdom, prudence

Wisdom consists in the ready and accurate perception of analogies, it consists in the use of best means for the attainment of the most important ends. Prudence is the lower kind of wisdom, consisting in the employment of the best means for the attainment of any end.

8.3 LIST OF COMMONLY USED SYNONYMS

1. Continual, perpetual, continuous, eternal
2. Give, confer, grant
3. Idle, Lazy, indolent, negligent
4. Leave, quit, forsake, relinquish, abandon
5. Liberal, generous, charitable
6. Pain, grief, ache, agony, anguish
7. Timid, cowardly
8. Enormous, vast, huge, big, immense
9. Glad, happy, delighted
10. Silly, foolish, stupid
11. Understand, grasp, comprehend
12. Utility, usefulness
13. Security, safety
14. Secret, hidden, concealed
15. Praise, admire
16. Shun, avoid, elude
17. Teach, instruct, educate
18. Help, aid, assistance
19. Disaster, calamity, catastrophe
20. Only, solely, merely, simply
21. Pity, sympathy, compassion
22. Pleasant, pleasing
23. Fruitless, useless, waste, vain
24. Enemy, opponent
25. Durable, lasting
26. Satisfaction, contentment
27. Cruel, barbarous, inhuman, savage
28. Deceit, fraud, deception
29. Confess, acknowledge, admit
30. Calm, tranquil, quiet
31. Attachment, affection, love, liking
32. Anger, displeasure, resentment
33. Reject, refuse
34. Mislead, delude
35. Graceful, elegant.

8.4 ANTONYMS

Antonyms are the words totally opposite or contrast in meaning at first sight. They seem to mean totally the opposite, but a closer examination reveals important difference in the exact opposite meaning.

The synonyms and antonyms of the following words are given below:

1. **Abandon**

Synonym : Decamp, Disappear, Evacuate, Forsake, Give up, Leave, Quit, Relinquish, Repudiate

Antonym : Accept, Adopt, Carry on, Cling to, Continue, Keep, Possess, Pursue.

2. **Ability**

Synonym : Attainment, Capability, Competency, Efficiency, Faculty, Skill, Talent, Understanding

Antonym : Debility, Frailty, Ignorance, Incompetence, Langour, Nescience, Stupidity, Weakness.

3. **Abnormal**

Synonym : Anomalous, matchless, odd, peculiar, peerless, queer, rare, solitary, uncommon, unique, unusual, whimsical

Antonym : Common, conventional, familiar, natural, normal, ordinary, prevalent, usual

4. **Abolish**

Synonym : Abrogate, annul, cancel, destroy, expunge, invalidate, nullify, obliterate, rescind, revoke

Antonym : Approbate, approve, build, confirm, continue, corroborate, endorse, erect, establish, ratify, retain, validate.

5. **Abrupt**

Synonym : Precipitous, prerupt, sudden, unanticipated, unexpected,

Antonym : Anticipated, Expected, predictive.

6. **Absolute**

Synonym : Accomplish, Complete, despotic, entire, fulfill, imperative, plenary, perfect, whole

Antonym : Conditional, dependent, imperfect, incomplete, limited, punctuation, partial, qualified, restricted.

7. **Absorb**

Synonym : Assimilate, consume, exhaust, imbibe, incorporate, reinstate, suck

Antonym : Belch, disgorge, disperse, eject, emit, evict, oust, yield

8. **Abstain**

Synonym : Cease, desist, give up, keep away, quit, refrain

Antonym : Accompany, indulge, join, participate, persist, pursue

9. **Absurd**

Synonym : Asinine, dopey, dozy, foolish, imbecile, non-sensical, paradoxical, silly, stupid, witless.

Antonym : Astute, discreet, intelligent, judicious, logical, rational, sagacious, sane,

sensible, wise.

10. Abundant

Synonym : Abounding, ample, bountiful, copious, lavish, opulent, overflowing, plentiful, superfluous.

Antonym : Inadequate, insufficient, lacking, niggardly, scanty, skimpy, sparing.

11. Accept

Synonym : Accede, admit, agree, approve, confirm, get, receive

Antonym : Decline, deny, disagree, disbelieve, discard, dispute, protest, refuse, reject

12. Accompany

Synonym : Attend, conduct, convoy, escort, follow, lead, regulate

Antonym : Abandon, decomp, depart, desert, discontinue, forsake, leave, quit, refrain

13. Accumulate

Synonym : Aggregate, amass, assemble, collect, cull, gather, pile

Antonym : Dispel, disperse, disseminate, distribute, spread, spend, squander, strew, waste

14. Accuse

Synonym : Blame, censure, condemn, criticize, indict, rebuke, reprehend, reprimand, reprove

Antonym : Acclaim, admir, applaud, appreciate, commend, compliment, extol, laud

15. Accurate

Synonym : Assured, authentic, certain, correct, exact, minute, precise, reliable, right, true

Antonym : Dubious, erroneous, false, inaccurate, questionable, uncertain, wrong.

16. Achieve

Synonym : accomplish, acquire, attain, complete, execute, fulfill, gain, obtain, perform, secure, win

Antonym : Dissipate, drop, dwindle, fall, lose, miss, waste.

17. Adulterate

Synonym : Alloy, contaminate, corrupt, debase, defile, mix, pollute

Antonym : Chasten, cleanse, filter, improve, purify, refine, purge.

18. Baffle

Synonym : Abash, astound, balk, confound, confuse, elude, faze, foil, frustrate, hinder, muddle, outwit, perplex, thwart

Antonym : Abet, aid, assist, clarify, co-operate, encourage, facilitate, help, rally

19. Barbarous

Synonym : Atrocious, boorish, brute, callous, cruel, execrable, merciless, oppressive, pitiless, rude, ruffianly, savage, uncouth, uncultured

Antonym : Benevolent, civilized, compassionate, courteous, generous, humane, kind, lenient, philanthropic, pleasant, refined, sympathetic.

- 20. Bare**
Synonym : Empty, exposed, naked, nude, unadorned, unconcealed, uncovered, undisguised, undraped
Antonym : Adorned, covered, hidden, veiled
- 21. Belief**
Synonym : Credence, credit, creed, doctrine, faith, opinion, persuasion, reliance, surety, troth, trust
Antonym : Ambiguity, disbelief, distrust, doubt, equivocalness, misgiving, suspicion
- 22. Benevolence**
Synonym : Bounty, charity, clemency, compassion, decency, generosity, grace, humanity, kindness, mercy, selflessness, sympathy
Antonym : Cruelty, enmity, hatred, inhuman, malevolence, malice, ruthlessness, stinginess
- 23. Bestow**
Synonym : Cede, confer, deliver, distribute, give, grant, handover, render, relent, supply, yield
Antonym : Divest, hold, obtain, receive, retain, seize.
- 24. Bewilder**
Synonym : Abash, astound, baffle, confound, confuse, discompose, embarrass, faze, mingle, muddle, surprise
Antonym : Appease, arrange, clarify, compose, demonstrate, edify, encourage, enlighten, rally, reassure.
- 25. Bitter**
Synonym : Acrid, acute, harsh, offensive, painful, penetrating, point, pungent, sharp, sour, rough
Antonym : Admirable, dainty, delectable, elegant, excellent, fine, palatable, sweet, tasty
- 26. Blame**
Synonym : Accuse, censure, charge, chide, condemn, criticize, dampen, disparage, indict, rebuke, reprehend, reproach
Antonym : Acclaim, admire, appreciate, cheer, comment, compliment, exalt, exhilarate, extol, hail, laud, praise, tribute.
- 27. Bleak**
Synonym : Bare, black, cold, desolate, dismal, doleful, dreary, gloomy, piteous, plaintive, sad
Antonym : Bright, cheerful, gay, hopeful, inspiring, jolly, merry, pleasant, promising, propitious, reassuring, sunny
- 28. Blunt**
Synonym : crude, direct, dull, flat, insipid, obtuse, rude, uncouth, undiplomatic
Antonym : Alert, edged, keen, piquant, polite, sensitive, sharp, shrill, sophisticated, wise.
- 29. Borrow**
Synonym : Accept, acquire, adapt, beget, copy, earn, fetch, get, obtain, receive,

secure, take

Antonym : Advance, deliver, denote, deny, forfeit, forge, give, lend, loss, relinquish

30. Breech

Synonym : Break, disobedience, gap, infringement, split, violation

Antonym : Compliance, fulfillment, obedience, observance

31. Bulk

Synonym : Abundance, ample, cargo, heap, mass, pile, plenty

Antonym : Deficiency, deficit, less, meagreness, part, piece, short, small, scant

32. Buy

Synonym : Achieve, acquire, bribe, gain, get, influence, obtain, procure, purchase

Antonym : Dispose, market, retail, sell, transfer, vend.

33. Calamity

Synonym : Adversity, affliction, agony, anguish, bale, disaster, distress, grief, misery, pang, sorrow, trouble, woe.

Antonym : Blessing, bliss, boon, comfort, delight, fortune, gratification, happiness, joy, peace, pleasure, prosperity.

34. Calculate

Synonym : Ascertain, assess, compute, count, enumerate, estimate, infer, justify, number, prove, reckon.

Antonym : Assume, believe, conjecture, fancy, guess, imagine, predict, suppose, surmise

35. Calibre

Synonym : Ability, capability, capacity, competency, intelligence, judgement, quality, skill, standing, talent, wit.

Antonym : Demerit, handicapped, inability, inaptitude, incurability, puerility, stupidity.

36. Callous

Synonym : Apathetic, bestial, brute, cold, cruel, hard, indurative, insensible, inveterate, rigid, stiff, solid, tough, unfeeling.

Antonym : Demerit, eager, easy, enthusiast, humane, inspired, kind, pliable, soft, sympathetic, zealot.

37. Calm

Synonym : Composed, hush, lull, pacify, palliative, quiet, serene, sedate, silent, solace, staid, tacit.

Antonym : Agitated, boisterous, clamorous, confused, distributed, excited, flustered, hectic, roused, ruffled, turbulent.

38. Cease

Synonym : Conclude, discontinue, end, finish, halt, pause, quit, stop, terminate, yield.

Antonym : Begin, commence, establish, inaugurate, initiate, open, originate, rise, start.

Check your Progress - 8.4

Write antonyms of the following

- 1) Abolish
- 2) Accuse
- 3) Blame

8.5 ONE WORD SUBSTITUTION

It reflects good literary sense to use one word in place of ten to express the appropriate meaning. Therefore, for writing good English and to be precise as well, we should always avoid being wordy, and should use short clear-cut words to express our thoughts and feeling. This always leaves greater effect and weight than long ones. It will always be a useful practice for the student to pause and think while writing and find out whether he has used any of those expressions which can, without changing the sense, be substituted by a single word. This way alone he can learn to be precise in speech and writing. Following is a list of words which can be substituted by a single word.

- ❖ Something no longer in use or fashion – Obsolete
- ❖ Someone which is not very clear to read – Illegible
- ❖ Sound or voice which is too slow to be made out with any degree of clarity – Inaudible
- ❖ Something beyond all price – invaluable
- ❖ Something contrary to law – illegal
- ❖ Something which is entirely beyond belief – incredible
- ❖ Someone who hates all mankind – misanthrope
- ❖ One who hates women – misogynist
- ❖ Lasting only a very short time – transient or temporary
- ❖ Conduct which deserves all praise – laudable
- ❖ One who uses confusing words to hide the truth to mislead others – equivocal
- ❖ Someone who can be easily fooled by others – gullible
- ❖ One who uses his both left and right hand with ease – ambidextrous
- ❖ Organized scheme or plan for popularizing something – propaganda
- ❖ Skillfully planning or handling the movements of an event or machine – maneuvering
- ❖ Organizations in successive grades or leaves – hierarchy
- ❖ To take revenge – retaliate
- ❖ The power of being present everywhere – omnipresent
- ❖ Post for which no salary is paid – honorary
- ❖ A remedy for all diseases – panacea
- ❖ The power of reading the thoughts or minds of others immediately – telepathy
- ❖ One having much energy which is not in use but capable of using it into action at a moment of emergency – dormant
- ❖ One who is out to subvert a government – Anarchist
- ❖ One who is recovering from illness – convalescent
- ❖ One who knows everything – omniscient
- ❖ One who can do anything for money – mercenary
- ❖ One who has no money – pauper
- ❖ One who changes sides – turncoat
- ❖ One who loves books – bibliophile

- ❖ One who doubts the existence of god – agnostic
- ❖ One who pretends to be what he is not – hypocrite
- ❖ One incapable of being tired – indefatigable
- ❖ One who helps others – good Samaritan
- ❖ One who copies from other writers – Plagiarist
- ❖ One who knows many languages – polyglot
- ❖ One who thinks only of himself – egoist
- ❖ One who thinks only of welfare of women – feminist
- ❖ One who is indifferent to pleasure or pain – stoic
- ❖ One who has strange habits – eccentric
- ❖ One who speaks less – reticent
- ❖ One who goes on foot – pedestrian
- ❖ One who believes in fate – fatalist
- ❖ One who dies without a will – intestate
- ❖ One who always thinks himself to be ill – valetudinarian
- ❖ A government by the people – Democracy
- ❖ A government by a king or queen – monarchy
- ❖ A government by officials – bureaucracy
- ❖ A government by the rich – plutocracy
- ❖ A government by few – oligarchy
- ❖ A government by the nobles – aristocracy
- ❖ A government by one – autocracy
- ❖ Rule by the mob – mobocracy
- ❖ A sentence whose meaning is unclear – ambiguous
- ❖ That which cannot be imitated – inimitable
- ❖ That which cannot be avoided – inevitable
- ❖ That which cannot be defended – indefensible
- ❖ That which is not likely to happen – improbable
- ❖ People living at the same time – contemporaries
- ❖ A book written by an unknown author – anonymous
- ❖ People who work together – colleagues
- ❖ One who eats too much – glutton
- ❖ That which cannot be satisfied – insatiable
- ❖ One who questions everything – cynic
- ❖ One who lives in a foreign country – immigrant
- ❖ To transfer one's authority to another – delegate
- ❖ That which is lawful – legal
- ❖ That which is against law – illegal
- ❖ A study of ancient things – archaeology
- ❖ To free somebody from all blame – exonerate
- ❖ To write under a different name – pseudonym
- ❖ A thing no longer in use – obsolete
- ❖ One who is greedy for money – avaricious
- ❖ A person's peculiar habit – idiosyncrasy
- ❖ An animal who preys on other animals – predator
- ❖ Violating the sanctity of a church – sacrilege

Check your Progress - 8.5

Write one word for the following expressions.

- 1) Something beyond all price
- 2) One who eats too much
- 3) A thing no longer in use

8.6 HOMONYMS & HOMOPHONES

Homonyms are two or more words, which have same or similar pronunciation as another but with different meaning and origin and usually a different spelling.

Homophones are two or more letters or groups of letters representing the same speech sound.

The following is a list of some words commonly confused and misused:

1. Accept, except, expect

Accept means to agree to,

Except to spare something out of a group

Expect means hoping for

2. Access, Excess

Access means provision

Excess something in abnormal quantity or abundance

3. Adapt, Adopt

Adapt is to adjust or to make fit

Adopt to receive or to accept

4. Advice, Advise

Advice means opinion

Advise means to give advice

5. Affect, Effect

Affect means to influence

Effect means to carryout or produce

6. Affection, Affectation

Affection means feelings and emotions of attachment

Affectation means false display or artificial show of emotions

7. Ascent, Assent

Ascent means a sense of going up

Assent is to agree

8. Assure, Ensure, Insure

Assure means to assure life, the future

Ensure means to ensure a person against or from risk

Insure means a formal contract to protect against risks

9. **Bare, Bear**
Bare means uncovered
Bear means to sustain or suffer
10. **Berth, Birth**
Berth means sleeping place in a train or ship
Birth bringing forth or put to life
11. **Break, Brake**
Break means to put apart
Brake a device used to check the speed of a moving vehicle
12. **Bridal, Bridle**
Bridal is something related to wedding
Bridle is a device to control a horse
13. **Calendar, Calender**
Calendar means a table or chart showing months and days of years
Calender means to press clothes or paper
14. **Consensus, Census**
Consensus is a moment when all the members of a meeting or group reach a common decision
Census means counting for eg., of population
15. **Chord, Cord**
Chord means a string or a wire of a musical instrument
Cord means a thin rope
16. **Collision, Collusion**
Collision means a violent encounter of two vehicles
Collusion means fraudulent secret understanding
17. **Sailor, Seller, Cellar**
Sailor is one who sails a boat
Seller is one who sells goods or merchandise
Cellar means an underground room
18. **Coma, Comma**
Coma is a state of unconsciousness
Comma is a punctuation mark
19. **Compliment, complement**
Compliment is an expression of admiration or civility
Complement is which fills the gap or completes something
20. **Continual, Continuous**
Continual means not coming to an end, though there may be breaks in the action
Continuous means no breaks between and end

21. Council, Counsel

Council means a body of people deliberately organized for some purpose

Counsel means advice or legal advisor

22. Elicit, Illicit

Elicit is a verb which means to draw out or to reveal

Illicit means unlawful

23. Eligible, Illegible

Eligible means qualified enough for the post or fit to be chosen

Illegible means something which cannot be read

Check your Progress - 8.6

Write homonyms of the Following

- 1) Affect
- 2) Calendar
- 3) Council

8.7 WORDS OFTEN CONFUSED

There are some words which are often confused with others because of their similarity in spelling, pronunciation and meaning. For clear communication it is necessary to understand their meaning and usage more precisely. Given below is a short list of such words which are in common use but are generally confused because they sound alike.

1. Accept, Except

i) His offer was readily accepted and he was asked to start working immediately. (agree to take)

ii) Except Hari, all were present for the group discussion. (not including)

2. Accede, Exceed

i) The manager gladly acceded to my request. (agree)

ii) The budget of our library exceeds Rs. 60,000 a year. (surpass)

3. Access, Excess

iii) I have an easy access to the Managing Director. (approach)

iv) Excess of everything is bad. (a quantity that is more than expected or desired)

4. Adopt, Adapt, Adept

i) I like your methods of teaching and shall adopt them in my class. (take an idea, method, etc. and use it)

ii) They had no children of their own; so they adopted a neighbour's son. (take a child into one's family and treat it as one's own)

iii) My Experiments with Truth has been adapted for use in schools. (change and make suitable for different use or for new conditions)

iv) When you go to a foreign country, you must adapt yourself to the manners and customs of the people. (adjust)

v) I am not adept at photography. (expert)

5. Advance, Advancement

i) Nothing could stop the advance of our soldiers into the enemy territory. (forward movement)

ii) Science has made great advances during the last twenty years. (progress)

iii) To meet the expenses in connection with his illness he has asked for an advance on his salary. (sum of money lent, or paid before it is due)

iv) The aim of university should be the advancement of learning. (promotion)

- 6. Advice, Advise**
i) The advice of a legal expert is required in this case. (valued opinion, noun)
ii) He advised me to seek your opinion. (give advice, verb)
- 7. Adverse, Averse**
i) He faced the adverse circumstances cheerfully. (unfavourable)
ii) Because of the adverse weather conditions, the aeroplane was diverted to another airport. How can he prosper if he is averse to hard work? (disinclined, opposed)
iii) He is averse to criticism from friends. (having a dislike for)
- 8. Affect, Effect**
i) My throat is quickly affected by cold. (cause a change, good or bad)
ii) She was deeply affected by the sad spectacle that she began to cry. (be moved)
iii) The X-ray examination shows that his right lung is affected. (damaged)
iv) After a long discussion, a settlement of the dispute has been effected. (achieve, accomplish)
v) The medicine did not have any effect on the patient. (result)
- 9. All together, Altogether**
i) By working all together we can do the job well in time. (in company)
ii) I think his story is altogether false. (entirely)
- 10. Allusion, Illusion**
i) In his report Hari has made an allusion to the recent address of the General Manager. (reference)
ii) Sheela cherishes the illusion that everyone admires her. (likes to believe)
iii) I have no illusion about his ability as an administrator. (false beliefs)
- 11. Already, All Ready**
i) The mail has already been delivered. (by this time)
ii) He is all ready for the journey, (entirely prepared)
iii) The Secretary has the information all ready for the meeting.
- 12. Altar, Alter**
i) He made his offerings on the altar, (the place of sacrifice or worship in a temple, church, etc.)
ii) When he comes to know of this, I think he will alter his plans. (change)
- 13. Alternately, Alternatively**
i) Hari and Govind will work for me alternately. (by turns)
ii) You have a choice: you may travel by rail or alternatively by road. (choice between two things)
- 14. Ancient, Old**
i) He has specialized in the history of ancient India. (of times long past)
ii) Sri Manmohan is an old employee of the firm. (of long standing)
iii) Old habits die hard. (been in existence for a certain period of time).
- 15. Ascent, Assent**
i) The ascent to the summit was difficult, (the act of going or climbing up)
ii) The President gave his assent to the Bill (consent)
iii) He assented to the changes made in the draft.
- 16. Bad, Badly**
i) The officer felt bad about his error. (sorry, bothered)
ii) Satish is dressed badly. (in a bad manner)
iii) He needs a job badly. (very much)
- 17. Beneficial, Beneficent**
i) Fresh air and fruit are beneficial to health. (helpful)
ii) Sri Datta is a beneficent manager and that is why he is so popular among the employees. (kind)

Effect Affect

Most of the time *effect* is a noun and *I* is a verb.

If you're unsure, cry
substituting a different
verb and see if it works

As a child, he was affected
by his parents.

As a child he was **affected**
eaten by his parents. ↑



C'MERE, RANDALL

I want to ingest you, just like
I did your obnoxious PaRakeet



You ate him?!!
Exit he sang
only of
Love and beauty!
You're a monster,
pad!

A Verb works here so you
should use "affected"

18. **Beside, Besides**
- His house is beside the factory. (close to, near)
 - Besides helping me with money, he gave me advice. (in addition to, moreover)
19. **Calender, Calendar**
- The calender has gone out of order. (roller machine for pressing and smoothing cloth or paper) Please consult the calendar and tell me on what day Deepawali falls. (list of days, weeks, months, of a particular year)
20. **Childish, Childlike**
- The arguments in favour of his proposal were rather childish. (silly)
 - His childlike manners have won everybody's heart. (simple and pure like that of a child)
21. **Clothes, Cloth**
- Winter clothes are so costly that even middle class people find it difficult to buy them. (dress)
 - A book with a cloth binding would obviously be more expensive than the one bound in paper covers. (material made by weaving cotton, wool, silk, etc.)
22. **Compliment, Complement**
- Soon after his arrival, he went to the Manager to pay his compliments. (regards, greetings)
 - This book forms the complement to the one published last month. (that which makes something complete)
23. **Considerable, Considerate**
- He has made considerable progress in a short time. (a good deal of)
 - It was considerate of you not to press your point in the last meeting. (thoughtful)
24. **Contemptible, Contemptuous**
- His behaviour is contemptible; for money he would stop to anything. (deserving contempt)
 - It is a pity that he is ill-mannered and contemptuous of his neighbours. (showing contempt)
25. **Continual, Continuous**
- The speaker was continually interrupted. (constantly, recurring)
 - He has been speaking continuously for the last one hour. (without a break)

- 26. Council, Counsel, Consul**
- i) Preparations are being made for the ensuing elections to the Advisory Council (an assembly that deliberates on affairs)
 - ii) I would counsel you not to act in haste in this matter. (give advice)
 - iii) Sri Zahir Ahmed was the counsel in the murder case. (lawyer)
 - iv) This letter of introduction to the Indian Consul in Paris will help you meet the business magnates. (a government official in a foreign country appointed to look after the interests of his country's citizens there)
- 27. Credible, Creditable, Credulous**
- i) Nobody would sympathise with you because what you say is hardly credible. (believable)
 - ii) It was certainly creditable for him to have bagged the first prize at this young age. (worthy of praise)
 - iii) Clever people often exploit those who are credulous. (apt to believe without sufficient reason)
- 28. Defective, Deficient**
- i) You must immediately write to the manufacturer for replacement because the machine is defective. (faulty)
 - ii) He is mentally deficient and that is why his performance in mathematics is so poor. (weak-minded)
 - iii) He is deficient in courage and so he will not be able to undertake this task. (not having enough of)
- 29. Discovery, Invention**
- i) Columbus made the discovery of America. (finding out of something that existed before but which was unknown)
 - ii) Wireless is the greatest invention of Marconi. (the act of devising or originating something new)
- 30. Deny, Refuse**
- i) The accused denied the charge. (say that something is not true)
 - ii) As he did not have a pass, he was refused permission to enter the lecture hall. (show unwillingness to accept something offered or to do something one is asked to do)
- 31. Deprecate, Depreciate**
- i) The manager deprecated the hasty action of the salesman. (feel and express disapproval of)
 - ii) The purchasing power of money has depreciated during the last ten years. (make or become less in value)
- 32. Device, Devise**
- i) The thief seems to have used a clever device to put the police off the scent. (plan, scheme, trick, noun)
 - ii) It is essential to devise an effective scheme to save money for this project. (think out, plan, verb)
- 33. Eligible, illegible**
- i) When does one become eligible to vote? (fit, suitable to be chosen, having the right qualifications)
 - ii) His handwriting is illegible, so I have advised him to type all his letters. (that which cannot be easily read)
- 34. Eminent, Imminent**
- i) He is an eminent scholar of Sanskrit. (of great repute) There is an imminent danger of the war breaking out. (events, specially dangers, likely to come or happen soon)
- 35. Envious, Envious**
- i) Do not be envious of the good fortune of your friends. (feeling of disappointment, jealousy and ill-will)

- ii) The position that he occupies is enviable. (one that excites envy)
- 36. Excite, Incite**
- i) Everybody was excited by the news of India's victory in the Fourth Test Match. (feel strongly, stir up the feeling of)
- ii) The Trade Union Leaders incited the workers to disobey the orders of the management. (arouse)
- 37. Famous, Notorious**
- i) Tansen was a famous musician. (well-known, in a complimentary sense)
- ii) All the notorious smugglers who were operating in this area have been arrested. (widely known, in a derogatory sense)
- 38. Formally, Formerly**
- i) The proposal has not yet been formally made. (in accordance with rules, customs, conventions)
- ii) Dr. Bhandari was formerly a professor of electrical engineering. (previously)
- 39. Honorary, Honourable**
- i) Sri Govind Prasad is working as an Honorary Secretary of the Indian Chamber of Commerce. (holding office without remuneration)
- ii) He retired after rendering honourable service to the nation for 30 years. (worthy of respect)
- 40. Human, Humane**
- i) To err is human. (pertaining to man)
- ii) The abolition of bonded labour is a humane measure. (kind, benevolent)
- 41. Imply, Infer**
- i) Silence sometimes implies consent. (suggest, hint at)
- ii) You have rightly inferred from this letter that the firm wants an extension of time for completing the job. (conclude from, deduce from)
- 42. Industrial, Industrious**
- i) Ahmedabad is an industrial town. (relating to industry)
- ii) Sri Aggarwal is both industrious and honest. (hardworking)
- 43. Judicial, Judicious**
- i) This matter should be referred to the judicial authorities. (pertaining to courts of justice)
- ii) He has made a very judicious choice of books; most of them will be useful to the young trainees next year also. (wise)
- 44. Later, Latter**
- i) I am busy at present, please see me later. (after some time)
- ii) Both Hari and Rashid are my friends; the former is a painter and the latter is a singer. (the second of two things or persons already mentioned)
- iii) During the latter half of the year, the production went up considerably. (belong to the end of a period)
- 45. Lay, Laid**
- i) A bricklayer is a man who lays bricks. (put down in a certain position)
- ii) The foundation-stone of this building was laid by the Chairman in January, 1977. (past tense and past participle form of lay)
- 46. Lie, Lay, Lain**
- i) You are tired; lie down and rest. (place oneself flat on a horizontal surface or in a resting position)
- ii) He lay on the beach enjoying the fresh air and sunshine. (past tense form of lie)

iii) He has lain in bed all morning, reading a detective novel. (past participle form of lie, now rarely used in ordinary speech)

47. Lie, Lied

i) He has lied to me several times in the past and so I do not accept any of his statements without verification. (past tense and past participle form of lie, make a statement that one knows to be untrue)

48. Loose, Lose

- i) The dog is too dangerous to be left loose. (free, not held)
- ii) He likes wearing loose trousers. (not close-fitting)
- iii) If you are not alert, you will lose the chance. (no longer have)

49. Momentary, Momentous

- i) Many decisions taken in life are of only momentary importance. (lasting for a moment, short-lived)
- ii) The Chairman said that at the next meeting some momentous decisions would be taken and so he would like all members to be present. (of great importance)

50. Official, Officious

- i) The official version is that about 28 persons died in the train accident near Bhavnagar. (said or done with authority)
- ii) His officious behaviour has annoyed all his colleagues. (too eager to give advice or use authority)

51. Prosecute, Persecute

- i) After his father's death he could not prosecute his studies further. (continue with)
- ii) He was prosecuted for exceeding the speed limit. (start legal proceedings against)
- iii) In a truly democratic country, no community suffers persecution for its religious beliefs. (cruel treatment, punishment)

52. Practical, Practicable

- i) They should try to overcome the practical difficulties in the implementation of the proposal. (concerned with or relating to practice)
- ii) The methods you suggest are practicable and will yield results. (that can be put into practice)

53. Principle, Principal

- i) A man of sound principles succeeds in life in the long run. (rules of conduct)
- ii) The principal food of the people of Bengal is rice. (highest in order of importance, chief)

54. Proceed, precede

- i) You must proceed with your work if you want to finish it before lunch. (go on, continue)
- ii) This point has already been discussed in the preceding paragraph. (previous, going before)

55. Respectful, Respectable, Respective

- i) We must be respectful to our parents and teachers. (showing respect to)
- ii) She is poor but quite respectable. (worthy of respect)
- iii) After the function, we left for our respective homes. (belonging to each of those persons, things in questions)

56. Social, Sociable

- i) Man is a social animal. (living in groups)
- ii) Sri Harcharan Singh is sociable and that is why he is so popular among his colleagues. (fond of company)

57. Spacious, Specious

- i) This room is spacious enough to accommodate 150 persons. (having ample space)
- ii) The arguments of the lawyer were specious and hence, they failed to convince the judge. (seeming right or true, but not really so)

58. Stationery, Stationary

- i) The office manager occasionally carries out a physical verification of stationery items in stock. (articles used in connection with writing)
- ii) The sun is stationary body and the earth revolves round it. (not moving, fixed)

59. Verbal, Verbose

- i) He sent me a verbal message that he will reach the office half an hour before the meeting. (spoken, not written)
- ii) A verbose style leads to vagueness in communication. (using more words than necessary)

60. Zealous, Jealous

- i) For rural development we need an army of zealous workers. (full of enthusiasm)
- ii) He is jealous of his colleague's promotion. (full of envy)

Check your Progress - 8.7

Use the following words into your own sentences.

- 1) Altar, Alter
- 2) Human, Humane

8.8 SUMMARY

Thus we learn that one needs to enrich oneself in the knowledge of words. Unless you know the words, you cannot make their appropriate use. This will not improve your language skills.

Many a times, many words have the same meaning. You can use one word instead of the other, if it is more apt. Such words are called synonyms.

Antonyms are those words which have the opposite meaning. One word can have many antonyms.

Sometimes, a single word can replace group of words as the meaning remains unchanged. This also gives an ease of expression.

Homonyms are those words which sound alike but differ in spelling and meaning as well. one has to be careful while reflecting or understanding such words.

Similar are set of words that appear confusing due to similar pronunciation.

Thus altogether language is a play of words, an interesting play !

8.9 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS - ANSWERS

8.4

- 1) Continue
- 2) Admire
- 3) Compliment

8.5

- 1) Invaluable
- 2) Glutton
- 3) Obsolete

8.6

- 1) Effect
- 2) Calender
- 3) Counsel

8.7

- 1) She made her offerings on the altar.
- 2) I will alter my plan according to the new schedule.

8.10 QUESTIONS FOR SELF - STUDY

- 1) Write down at least two synonyms for each of the following words --
Fraction, apparent, bashful, agitate, defend, ludicrous, penury, achieve, build, absurd, cheerful, common, accord, blemish, conciliate.
- 2) What preposition should follow.
Accord, admit, agree, amenable, averse, chary, compatible, different, guiltless, impervious, indicative, inspires, instill, incident, include, militate, profuse, prevail, savour.
- 3) Write against each of the following words a word of opposite meaning.
Advance, barrier, strange, glut, improve, persist, magnify, following, augment
- 4) Write ten sentences showing two meanings for each of the following words.
authority, duty, nobility, sight, wonder.
- 5) Give the meaning of the following words and explain their origin.—
Yahoo, malapropism, gamp, boundaries, boycott, meander, titanic, macai bohemian. (necessary)

8.11 SUGGESTED READINGS

1. Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English - Douglas Biber, Stig Johansson, Geoffrey Leech, Susan Conrad, Edward Finegan
2. *High School English Grammar and Composition* - P. C. Wren, H. Martin (Edited by N.D.V. Prasada Rao)



Sentence

9.0	Objectives
9.1	Introduction
9.2	Types and Analyses of Sentences
9.3	Transformation of Sentences
9.4	Summary
9.5	Check your Progress - Answers
9.6	Questions for Self - Study
9.7	Suggested Readings

9.0 OBJECTIVES

Friends! In this chapter we are going to learn about sentences. When we learn any language, we first learn the words and then try to make sentences. Thus it is through sentences that we try to communicate

This chapter will enable you to -

1. describe what a sentence is
2. describe the basic types of sentences
3. do transformation of sentences

9.1 INTRODUCTION

A sentence is a group of words which makes complete sense. It is divided into two main parts – the Subject and the Predicate

The subject denotes the person or thing about which something is said.

The predicate is what is said about the person or thing denoted by the subject.

For eg., The hour to prepare lessons (subject) has arrived (predicate).

9.2 TYPES AND ANALYSES OF SENTENCES

Sentences: Simple, Compound and Complex

- i) A simple sentence is one which has only one Subject and one Predicate
For eg., His courage won him honor.
- ii) A Compound sentence is one which is made up of two or more Principal or Main Clauses.
For eg., The moon was bright and we could see our way. (The sentence has two parts – i. The moon was bright and ii. we could see our way which are joined by the Co-ordinating Conjunction *and*.)
- iii) A Complex sentence consists of one Main clause or more Subordinate Clauses
For eg., As the boxers advanced into the ring, the people said they would not allow them to fight.
The above given sentence has three clauses:
* The people said – Main Clause

- * As the boxes advanced into the ring – Subordinate Clause
- * They would not allow them to fight – Subordinate Clause

Analysis of Compound Sentence:

A compound sentence is made up of two or more independent sentences or principal or main clauses joined together by a coordinating conjunction:

For eg., The horse reared and the rider was thrown (Here each co-ordinate clause is a simple sentence).

It will be seen that each main clause of a compound sentence may be a simple sentence or a complex sentence.

Analysis of Complex Sentence:

In analyzing a Complex sentence, the first step is to find out the Principal or Main Clause.

The next step is to find out the Subordinate Clause or Clauses, showing the relation which each Clause bears to the Principal Clause.

Complex sentence containing three Subordinate clauses:

For eg., Whenever he heard the question, the old man who lived in that house, answered that the earth is flat.

1. The old man who, lived in that house, answered – Principal Clause
2. Whenever he heard the question. (Adverb clause of time, modifying answered in 1)
3. Who lived in that house (Adjective clause, qualifying man in 1)
4. That the earth is flat (Noun clause, object of answered in 1)

9.3 TRANSFORMATION OF SENTENCE

The form of a sentence can be changed without changing the meaning. The conversion or transformation of sentences is an excellent exercise as it teaches variety of expression in writing English.

We can change the form of a sentence containing the adverb too: The news is too good to be true. - The news is so good that it cannot be true.

These mangoes are too cheap to be good – These mangoes are so cheap that they cannot be good.

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

Positive: I am as *strong* as him.

Comparative: He is not *stronger* than me.

A Simple sentence can be converted into a Compound one by enlarging a word or a phrase into a Co-ordinate clause. For eg.,

Simple: He must work very hard to make up for the lost time.

Compound: He must work very hard and make up for the lost time.

A compound sentence can be converted into a simple sentence. For eg.,

Compound: He finished his exercise and put away his books.

Simple: Having finished his exercise, he put away his books.

A simple sentence can be converted to a Complex sentence by expanding a word or phrase into a Subordinate clause. This clause may be a Noun, Adjective or

Adverb clause.

Simple: He confessed his crime.

Complex: He confessed that he was guilty.

Conversion of Complex sentence to Simple sentence:

Complex: He said that he was innocent.

Simple: He declared his innocence.

Conversion of Compound sentences to Complex sentence:

Compound: Search his pockets and you will find the watch

Complex: If you search his pockets, you will find the watch.

Conversion of Complex Sentences to Compound

Complex: I am certain you have made a mistake.

Compound: You have made a mistake, and of this I am certain.

9.3 Check your progress

Change the form of the given sentence as indicated.

1. Reems is not smarter than her sister (Positive)
2. The artist praised the beauty of the sculpture (Complex)
3. Due to office time, the roads were crowed. (compounds)

9.4 SUMMARY

Thus sentence is a group of words that makes sense. Basically sentences are of 3 types - simple sentences which have only one subject and one predicate compound. - Two or more independent sentences joined together.

Complex Sentences which have one main clause and more that one sub ordinate clauses.

The form of sentences can be changed without. This exercise enriches the variety of expression in written English.

9.5 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS - ANSWERS

- 9.3
1. Reema's sister is as smart as her.
 2. The artist praised by saying that the sculpture was beautiful.
 3. It was office time and the roads were crowded.

9.6 QUESTIONS FOR SELF - STUDY

- Define the following
- Sentence
- Simple Sentence
- Compound Sentence
- Complex sentence

9.7 SUGGESTED READINGS

1. *High School English Grammar and Composition* - P. C. Wren, H. Martin (Edited by N.D.V. Prasada Rao)
2. *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* - Douglab Biber, Stig Johansson, Geoffrey Leech, Susan conrad, Edward Finegan



Spellings in English & Phonology

10.0	Objectives
10.1	Introduction
10.2	Vowels
10.3	Consonant
10.4	Diagraph & Diphthong
10.5	Summary
10.6	Questions for Self - Study
10.7	Suggested Readings

10.0 OBJECTIVES

Dear Friends ! Welcome to the world of speech. Yes! this chapter deals with the concepts of Phonetics and phonology. So here we talk about speech sounds and their study.

This chapter will enable you to describe -

1. The alphabets, vowels and consonants
2. The concept of phonetics and Phonology.
3. The technique of dealing with sounds in English language.

10.1 INTRODUCTION

Phonetics - Phonetics is a science that studies the speech sounds.

Phonology - Phonology is a study of speech sounds in a particular language.

English spelling is not phonetic

- ❖ In pointing out the deficiencies of the English alphabet, we are really calling attention to the fact that modern English spelling is not phonetic, that is, it does not accurately and consistently represent the sounds of speech. The spelling of old English was very nearly phonetic. How is it, then, that the spelling of today is not perfect as a symbolic representation of the spoken language?
- ❖ The sounds of the spoken language are represented in writing by means of symbols known as the letters of the alphabet. In a perfect alphabet, every letter would be a phonetic symbol representing one sound and only one, and each sound would have its appropriate symbol. Judged by this standard the English alphabet can be called defective. We do not have enough symbols to represent all the sounds. There are 26 alphabets that have to represent 44 sounds and hence,-
 - a) The same symbol may represent many different sounds; e.g. (i) "a" in rat, tall, many* mane, want, bare, (ii) "o" in hot, woman, whose, hero, son.
 - b) The same sound may be represented by various symbols: e.g. hit, nymph, busy, women, sieve (All these words contain the vowel sound of hit.) fate, champagne, pail, vein, they, reign, gauged, steak (all these words contain the diphthongal sound of fate). On the other hand, some letters are superfluous: e.g. - "q" (quite equally well be written kw, "x" (ks = X-ray or gs = Xerox), "c" (k=Cause, Continue, Cursive or S=Cement, Cinderella, Civil) examples of words.

10.2 VOWELS

A vowel is the speech - sound produced when the breath passes through the vocal chords and is not obstructed in the mouth.

The quality of the vowel is altered according to the position of the tongue and the lips and also the size of the mouth opening. There are thus theoretically an unlimited number of vowel - sounds, though only a certain restricted number regularly occur in the given language.

Vowel - sounds are represented in English by letters (a,e,i,o,u,y) and by symbols of groups of letters (au in aught i .e in believe, etc.)

10.3 CONSONANT

A consonant is a sound produced when the breath passing up from the lungs is more or less obstructed in the mouth. Thus the sound represented by P is produced by first obstructing the breath with the lips and then releasing it suddenly; the sound represented by a consonant is produced by squeezing the breath between the lower lip and the top teeth. Examples:

10.4 DIPHTHONG

A diphthong is a combination of two vowels- sounds forming one syllable e.g. the middle of the sound in house (a combination of the vowel - sounds in ma and put). A Diphthong may be represented by one or two **symbols**, as insight, boy. Note that the letter i stand for vowel in bit, but it stands for a diphthong in ' silent.'

Note :

It is important to understand clearly that "vowel", "consonant" "diphthong" are all names of sounds, and not of symbols.

Diagraph

A diagraph is a double symbol used to represent single sound: e.g. - ae in Caesar, ph in physic.

10.5 SUMMARY

Phonology and phonetics deal with the study of speech sounds in a language. In English language, the alphabets are represented by the symbols of their sounds in phonetics. However many a times, these phonetic rules are not obvious. Based on these sounds the alphabets are combined or solely classified as vowels, consonants, diphthongs and diagraph.

Each deals with how the pronunciation of the respective alphabets or their combinations produce the particular sound.

10.6 QUESTIONS FOR SELF - STUDY

- 1) Discuss how far the English alphabet is efficient in representing speech sounds with the help of pairs such as e.g. Pen, pain, fill, feel.
- 2) What is meant by saying that modern English spelling is not phonetic? Illustrate this fact. How do you account for it?
- 3) Explain & illustrate the following terms : -
Idiom, archaism, hybrid word, doublet, digraph.
- 4) Define clearly - vowel, consonant, and diphthong. Which of the following words contain diphthongs?
Buy, archaeology, mind, found, guise, beauty, brought, deal, teeth, moon, suit, flute.

10.7 SUGGESTED READINGS

1. *Speaking English Effectively* by Mohan Krishna and Singh N.
2. *Developing Reading Skills* by Grellet, F.

Composition

Chapter : 11

Reading Skills

11.0	Objectives
11.1	Introduction
11.2	Types and Analyses of sentences
11.3	transformation of sentences
11.4	Summary
11.5	Check your Progress - <i>Answers</i>
11.6	Questions for Self - Study
11.7	Suggested Readings

11.0 OBJECTIVES

Friends! After speaking, we come to the next important skills in communications - Reading Skills. Reading is not just reading the matter, but its is understanding and analyzing it too.

Indepth study of this chapter would enable you to -

1. discuss reading as a process.
2. describe the types of reading skills.
3. discuss the skills required to be acquired for effective reading.

11.1 INTRODUCTION

The ability to read is one of the characteristics of civilized society and one of the factors that separates man from other animals. The level of reading ability and skill in reading also help us to gauge levels of civilization and industrialization. Experts suggest that in order to pass from an agricultural society to an industrialized society at least 45 per cent of the adults should know how to read and write.

At the individual level, the ability to read places a person above his illiterate companions, and among those who know how to read, the one who can grasp complex ideas ;or legal and technical ideas enjoys a higher status than his friend, who can only read newspapers, magazines or story books.

Even in the field of literature, the emphasis has now shifted from the writer to the reader. Thus if one read all the novels of Charles Dickens, one would come to know how his mind worked at different periods of his life. Today we think differently, and are more concerned with the impact that writing has on the mind of the reader. What an author writes will be just markings on a paper unless the reader is able to understand and absorb what is written.

11.2 THE READING PROCESS

The mental process of understanding a writer's message is known as reading. The message may be in the form of written or printed words or symbols. Reading is not merely 'seeing letters, words and figures but also involves understanding, interpreting and responding or reacting. The reader must be able to recognize the words and symbols, he must know their meaning, must feel the tone and mood that the writer is trying to convey. At a more advanced level he should be able to judge the accuracy and correctness of the writer's thoughts and also know how to apply or use them.

How a person reads :

We do not read with our eyes but with our mind. In order to understand and interpret the words and phrases our mind should be alert and attentive. The ability to read well does not depend so much on the sharpness of one's vision as the clarity and richness of one's mind.

According to an expert there are three types of readers :

a) motor readers b) auditory readers c) visual readers

Motor readers are those who move their lips while reading, and not only their lips but also their tongues, vocal chords and larynx. Reading for such persons is a painfully slow process and the reading is usually of a poor quality. Auditory readers are those who need to hear the sound of the word in their minds in order to understand the meaning of words, even if they may not actually be using their lips and larynx. Again the speed and quality of reading needs much to be desired. Visual readers can be very efficient readers, though, it must be admitted, all are not. Visual readers are able to understand words, phrases and entire sentences without having to 'say' or 'hear' the words. For visual readers the eye is merely an extension of the mind to which the message of the written words, sentences, paragraphs, goes directly. Most readers tend to be oral readers while adults who have received a good education tend to be silent readers. In the early days of the development of the English language there were more oral readers as books were few and expensive and the man who know how to read was expected to read aloud to those who did not know. Also in earlier centuries the English language was more phonetic, making the task of oral reading easier.

Whether a language is phonetic or symbolic has a direct bearing on silent or oral reading. In a phonetic language each letter of the alphabet has only *one* sound and when voiced the word becomes a combination of the individual sounds. In English many letters have more than two sounds and are sounded differently in different words. Thus the letter V is differently voiced in words like 'god' and 'more'.

11.3 THE SPEED AND PURPOSE OF READING

As a general rule one can say that silent reading is quicker than oral reading, otherwise the speed at which an adult reads depends upon the difficulty of the written material and the purpose for which it is being read. An interesting and well written novel can be read at a speed of about 300 words per minute. If however one is reading an article on physics or economics, the significance of every sentence has to be digested and, hence, the speed of reading slows down to about 200 words per minute. In the case of technical or legal writing the speed may go down to just about 100 words per minute. The purpose of reading can be any one of the following and sometimes even two or more purposes can be fulfilled by the same reading: 1) for information, 2) for education 3) for acquiring physical skill 4) for instruction 5) for interest 6) for pleasure or entertainment 7) for acquiring better taste and refinement.

Reading with Fluency and Speed - Skimming and Scanning

Inefficient readers read slowly and understand less of what they read than efficient readers. Skimming and Scanning are the favorite tools of the efficient reader. To skim means to take matter from the surface and scan means to look at all parts quickly. Almost all written material can be skimmed. Understood at the simplest level skimming would involve the ignoring of unimportant linking words like the, a, it, to, on, therefore, etc and concentrating on key important words. Since skimming and scanning go together the efficient reader is able to understand the general import of a paragraph while being able to concentrate on the one or two important ideas that it contains. Being able to get at the essence of written material by a judicious and selective skipping of inessentials makes for faster reading with greater fluency.

The secret of efficient reading, involving skimming and scanning is the ability to fixate on key words and phrases rather than on each word in slow progression. An extremely poor reader will concentrate (fixate) on each word painfully and even after doing so may fail

to grasp the idea or message of the writer. The efficient reader, on the other hand, quickly scans a paragraph or a page and is able to grasp the main ideas of the writer.

How to Read Efficiently

- a) Get rid of bad habits that may have built up over the years, like reading with only half attention, listening to the radio while reading, reading in bad light or while lying down.
- b) Test your reading speed and also your powers of comprehension and then set about improving both.
- c) Read more, you must make time for reading
- d) Learn to read for main ideas by resorting to skimming and scanning
- e) Challenge your own comprehension. You will never become an efficient reader if you restrict yourself to reading easy-to-digest material in magazines and novels. Read books of non-fiction and occasionally legal documents or technical or philosophical books.
- f) Train your mind for immediate concentration. This calls for a degree of mental aggression on the part of the reader.
- g) Improve your vocabulary. Only persons with a large vocabulary make efficient readers as the words they come across, being familiar become quick conveyors of thought.
- h) Learn to fixate. Fixation is the technical term for the brief moment during which your eyes focus on a word, phrase or a section of the line of print. During fixation the eye pauses or stops and then again flies along the printed line.
- i) Get in tune with the writer's mind. Efficient readers know how to think along with an author so that they are able to follow the central theme of the written material. At the same time they should not be carried away by the flood tide but should be able to critically evaluate what has been written and it is always helpful to retain a sense of healthy skepticism about what has been written.

Acquiring Reading Skills

A. Pinpointing Arguments and Providing Logical Sequence

The student who wishes to acquire communication skills must be able to pinpoint an argument and provide a logical sequence to an argument. Pinpoint an argument means being able to pick out the main topic or argument from a given passage (whether oral or written), while providing a logical sequence means being able to give further arguments, conclusions or examples in line with the main argument.

Pinpointing an argument is only possible when the passage is not of a purely descriptive or narrative nature. In purely narrative or descriptive passages the writer tells us what happened in order to time or tells us about an object, event or scene, piece by piece and hence it is not possible to pick out the main argument. When a passage consists of more than one paragraph the student should train himself to pick out the main argument or topic of each paragraph and write it down in a sentence of his own. In a good piece of composition the student will find that the main point is usually expressed in the form of a general statement and that this statement is supported by facts, figures, examples and illustrations.

B. How to Read and Listen Critically

In this section we shall briefly consider how a student can cultivate the habit of reading and listening critically. He should know not only how to be logical himself, but should be able to spot out the illogical approach of others. Logic is the science of reasoning, i.e., the science of arriving conclusions with the help of thought. We are not concerned with the study of this science but will only touch upon a few aspects of it which play an important part in developing the communication of the student.

1. **Logical inclusion and exclusion, ie., categorization and classification**

A category is a division in a complete system or grouping and to categorize means to place in a category. For eg., one may say that books are of three kinds i) those that provide information, ii) those that entertain iii) those that both entertain and provide information. On the basis of this we can go further and say that a book on General Knowledge comes in the first category, a detective novel in the second and a historical novel or travelogue comes in the third category.

The process of arranging into different classes is known as classification. Thus, in a library, books are arranged on shelves or mentioned in the catalogue according to the subject to which they pertain or according to the name of the author.

2. **Re-ordering Information**

In oral and written composition there has to be logical order. By logical order we mean the way in which things are placed in relation to each other, ie., in order of time, importance, cause-effect or by passing from the general to the particular. When things are arranged in proper logical order there will be no room for inconsistencies or contradictions. Local implication means that on the basis of logic something is suggested or hinted at even if it is not plainly expressed. Often writers do not present relevant information in a proper logical order. The efficient reader will have to do this himself in order to get to the correct message or to get to the facts that the writer is trying to put across.

3. **Tautology**

When in an oral or written composition, the same thing is said again and again, in a slightly different manner, without making the meaning clearer, is called tautology. In other words it means needless repetition. This should not be confused with deliberate repetition which is used by good speakers and writers in order to emphasize what they have been speaking or writing about. The chief characteristic of tautology is that it does not make the meaning clearer but performs a kind of verbal 'merry-go-round'. A large number of redundant phrases are used. When tautology occurs in a long passage it is a clear indication of an untidy, mind.

4. **Two Other Common Mistakes**

- a) The mistake of the 'non sequitur', this is a kind of wrong or mistaken reasoning. In this we come to a conclusion which does not tightly follow from the first statement.

For eg.,

- i) He plays golf; he must be a gentleman.
- ii) He reads many books; he must be wise.

In the sentences given above the second half is made to depend on the first when, in fact, there is no proper connection. A man who plays could be a ruffian and there are many gentlemen who do not play golf.

- b) Sometimes trying to be very logical in a literal or mathematical sense can also lead us to ridiculous conclusions. In the examples given below the mathematical application of reasoning leads to absurd conclusions :

Statement: Jagdish's father ate dal and chapattis every day. He lived till the age of 100
Conclusion : To live till an old age one should eat dal and chapattis every day.

C) **Understanding Complex Sentence Structures**

The student is often frightened by a long and complex sentence and he sometimes reads it twice or thrice without being able to understand it. If however, he goes about reading the sentence by breaking it up into parts (analyse) he will be able to understand it quite well.

For eg., Sita has a book.

This is a simple sentence with a subject, verb and object. Now if we add some, more words or phrases to tell the reader something more about Sita and the book, we are giving more information to the reader but the main sentence remains the same. So we may add:

'Sita, the girl who lives next door to me, has a blue coloured book on botany which formerly belonged to my sister'.

In this much longer sentence we tell the reader something more about Sita- and also something more about the book. The original simple sentence thus becomes a complex sentence with the main clause remaining the same.

A complex sentence is therefore a sentence with one or more main clauses (called co-coordinating clauses) and one or more subordinate clauses which tell something more about words in the main clause or in other parts of the sentence).

When two or more main clauses are joined together by words like 'but' 'and' 'yet' the sentence is known as a Compound Sentence.

D. Isolating Facts From Opinions

Good or bad writers often mix their facts and opinions. Bad writers do this because they cannot help it, and good writers sometimes do this deliberately in a skilful attempt to persuade readers to look at things from their point of view. While it is always easy to separate facts from opinions in bad writing, it requires considerably more skill and discernment on the part of the reader to do so in the case of good writers. Writers like GB. Shaw and Salman Rushdie have to be read with care for they have messages to deliver and the line between fact and fiction often gets blurred.

On a daily basis the problem of isolating facts from opinions arises when we read newspapers. According to journalistic theory, the newspaper report is supposed to deal exclusively with facts while the editor's opinions appear on the editorial page. But, in an age when newspapers are in stiff competition with each other and sensationalism has to be resorted to by the best of papers, this never really happens.

E. Multi-levelled Readings

A piece of written communication is to be understood at many levels. First is the meaning of the words themselves and their meaning in the context of other words within the sentence and the paragraph. Next, the reader has to try to understand the nature of the situation being described, the point of view of the writer, his personal philosophy or outlook (optimistic, pessimistic, neutral or critical) and the writer's vision of life. And most important, the reader should be able to understand the tone of the passage; whether it is humorous, sarcastic, ironic, thought-provoking, dramatic or poetic.

F. Recognition of Register

When you read a passage of prose or poetry you should be able to make out if the style is appropriate to the situation or not. Let us begin with words. A dictionary contains thousands of words, but all of these are not to be used on every occasion. There is an active vocabulary and a passive vocabulary. Words and phrases of the active vocabulary can be used by us on every occasion without doubt or hesitation. Words and phrases of the passive vocabulary must be known and studied but need not be used at all except on very special occasions.

The use of slang and colloquial words poses another problem. Slang and colloquial words and phrases go out of fashion very soon.-It is frequently found that the older and younger generations use a different set of slang phrases.

Spoken and written English can be formal or informal in tone and style. The modern trend is towards informal writing. In formal writing the tone and style is impersonal and stiff and use is made of what is called the 'them-language' - or writing in the third person even when the communication is directly between two persons. Government

notifications, letters and circulars are usually found to be in this formal style. Thus a government department will write a letter to a tax payer and inform him: 'the assessed is required to note that interest at 12% per annum will be charged on late payment. Perhaps the most glaring example of the excessive use of formality is in business letters where, out of habit, the businessman continues to use 'commercial jargon'.

Rapid developments in science and technology have led to a different style of writing which one can come across in technical books or journals. When scientists are communicating with each other the language tends to be full of technical words and phrases. Gradually this development has begun to influence language in general as more and more people have started reading popular science magazines and science fiction.

Journalistic writing has a distinctive style of its own. As space is money the journalist writes in terse and condensed style. It has a special style and approach for the presentation of news.

The purpose of literary writing and speech is to create an effect by itself. It is the beauty of language, the turn or felicity of phrase that catches the eye and engrosses the attention. While commercial correspondence, scientific writing and formal communication use style in a functional manner to convey the meaning clearly and quickly, in literature the reader is expected to derive pleasure from the style itself. For the literary man, how he says a thing is more important than what he says, while for a technical man, what he says is more important than the way he says.

G. Figures of Speech

Figures of speech are rarely used in everyday spoken and written English. When used, they make the language flowery, bombastic and sometimes unnatural. Poetry, however, makes frequent use of these figures and so does a certain type of poetic prose. Accordingly the student should be able to recognize the commonly used figures of speech.

11.2 - 11.5 Check your Progress

Fill in the blanks.

1. The mental process of understanding a writer's message is called
2. _____ is the science of reasoning.
3. _____ is the technical term for brief moment during which your eyes focus on the matters.
4. _____ and _____ are the terms which indicate surficial reading.

11.6 SUMMARY

Reading can be defined as the mental process of understanding a writer's message. The message may be in the form of written, printed words or symbols.

There are three types of readers - Motor readers. they move their lips, tongue, vocal cords and larynx. Auditory readers. They hear the sound of word in their minds to understand it. Visual Readers. They understand the matter without having to say or hear the words. The speed and purpose of reading varies in different cases. Acquiring reading skills. To do this, the following things need to be kept in mind.

- A] Pinpointing arguments and providing logical sequence.
- B] Reading and Listening critically develop the reasoning skills.
- C] Understanding complex sentence structures and simplifying them in your mind.
- D] Isolating facts from opinions from your own perspective.
- E] Multi-Level readings - Levels indicate words - phrases - sentences - paragraphs.
- F] Recognizing the Register. This becomes easy when the vocabulary skills of the

reader are developed. Also if the reader is exposed to various styles and forms of writing, reading becomes interesting.

G] Grasping the meaning of figures of speech.

11.7 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS - ANSWERS

11.2 - 11.5

1. Reading 2. Logic 3. Fixation 4. Skimming and Scanning.

11.8 QUESTION FOR SELF - STUDY

1. Define Reading and explain the concepts.
2. Describe the different types of readers.
3. Define Tautology.
4. Explain the steps essential for critical listening and reading.
5. Name and explain the skills essential to develop reading.

11.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

1. *Developing Reading Skills* by Grellet, F.
2. *High School English Grammar and Composition* - P. C. Wren, H. Martin (Edited by N.D.V. Prasada Rao)



Writing Skills

12.0	Objectives
12.1	Introduction
12.2	Formal Letters
12.3	Business Letters
12.4	Essentials of effective Letter writing
12.5	Summary
12.6	Questions for Self - Study
12.7	Suggested Readings

12.0 OBJECTIVES

Hello Friends ! In this chapter, let's learn something about written communication. Written communication encompasses wide variety of writings, however in this chapter we deal with formal communication.

This chapter would enable you to explain -

1. the basics of Letter writing, mainly formal letters.
2. the basic skills that are essential for effective letter writing.

12.1 INTRODUCTION

This section focuses on meaning and tools of written communication through writing letters, applications and reports. Much of the formal communication in any organization is written communication. Advantage of written communication is creating records for future reference. Organizations use some type of documents to communicate with the outside world and other type of documents to communicate within the organization itself. It includes writing letters, letters for official correspondence, Business events, Social Events, Interpersonal idea exchanges and Commercial Correspondence.

Human beings need to keep communicating with each other, as humans are social animals. In the olden days when people were not so literate so news passed from one person to another through mouth (oral communication). Later we developed different forms of communication. Now the world is flooded with different modes from basic letters to faxes and e-mails. But the basic method remains the same. We need to convey messages to each other, and these should be as clean and accurate as possible.

Everyone needs to write letter of some type, and may have to face the problem of writing an important letter that will greatly affect his interest in life. The art of letter writing is, therefore no more ornamental accomplishment, but something that every educated must acquire for routine.

12.2 FORMAL LETTERS

Structure of a formal letter

Letters are messages, and certain structures of a formal letter have been developed by experience and custom. These structures act as principles or guidelines to be followed, for neglect of them may reflect ignorance and carelessness. Letters may be of different types such as Friendly letters, business, official letters etc. But each of them has its own particular basic structure. There are few main parts of a letter which apply to all types of letter.

1. Heading
2. Salutation
3. Message
4. Conclusion
5. Signature
6. Superscription

1. Heading :

After setting the layout of the letter, a reasonable amount of margins on all sides i.e., top, bottom, left and right. Once the margins are set as per the type of the letter, put the heading. The heading contains the name and address of the party being written to and the date. This way heading works as when of a letter. Next to it come name and address. But if one is writing on a firm's is not necessary.

2. Salutation

The letter of the person he is writing to may be abbreviated as, Dr. _____ or as Prof. Dr. _____. In the case of a lady it is always Ms.. The form of salutation and subscription depends a lot on the relation in which you stand to the person to whom the letter is written to.

4. Message :

First part – Here first one identifies himself if you are not known to the reader of the letter or greet him/her if known to you

Middle part – This is the main part of the letter. Here you must explicitly express the main reason for the letter and if it a reply of an earlier letter one must follow up the matter discussed previously. Here are some important tips to be taken care of:

- * Divide your letter into paragraphs (unless it is very short).
- * Use simple and direct language and short sentences
- * Try to be complete
- * Mind your punctuation

Concluding part – here you sum up the letter, ending with final greetings or personal messages. Finish the letter and do not leave anything midway.

5. Conclusion :

This part deals with actual ending. To give it a proper conclusion some points are to be taken care of:

With very kind regards

With best wishes

Thanking you

The signature or name of the writer

12.3 BUSINESS LETTERS

With remarkable improvements in the opening of new markets, the progress of human knowledge, there has been a relative increase in the importance of commercial correspondence. Many formal phrases and clauses have been discarded without losing any weight and value of the argument put for advertising or convincing a customer to buy a certain commodity.

Direct and simple approach to the customer's desire and its fulfillment saves time and expense both to the seller and the buyer. Although personal solicit action may be

preferred to that by letter, still the time factor has its own importance and that is why orders are frequently given or cancelled by emails or telegram.

To conform to the requirements of commercial usage, transitions should always be embodied in writing, so that possible disputes in the future may be avoided and business can assume a fixed or permanent form. The terms and conditions mutually agreed upon, and obligations entered into give the business letter the appearance of formal declaration, which may serve as evidence in a court of law. As the business correspondence entails great responsibility, utmost care is needed in its execution and preservation, for a period of several years. The preliminary requirements for a good commercial correspondent are general knowledge and experience of business, a thorough conception of subject matter in hand, a high degree of care, knowledge of style and a proper acquaintance with the rules of language.

12.4 ESSENTIALS OF EFFECTIVE LETTER WRITING

The qualities which are essential for a good letter are correctness, clarity, conciseness and courtesy and other related qualities are completeness, coherence, compactness, confidence, consideration, friendliness, directness and vigour.

◆ **Correctness**

A letter must be correct in every respect:

Firstly, in spelling, grammar and use of language. Incorrect language spoils the message, distracts the reader's attention and creates a poor impression of the sender, it may also convey a wrong meaning.

Secondly, in appearance and form of layout. Poor and untidy appearance, with correctness made in link or carelessness in the layout, creates a poor impression of the company.

Thirdly, wrong and incomplete information is the most harmful thing in a letter, it leads to waste of time in making corrections and can lead to loss of goodwill and loss of business. Correctness depends on completeness.

Fourthly, in tone, formality and style. The tone of every letter must be appropriate to the occasion, the content and the relationship between the writer and the reader.

◆ **Clarity**

The message of the letter must be clear at the first reading, people appreciate a letter that takes very little time to read and understand, clearly written messages avoid misunderstanding and save time. Clarity depends on these factors:

1. Simple, common everyday words which everyone can understand there should be no technical terms unless absolutely necessary and it is better to use concrete words with a definite meaning or to give concrete examples and description.
2. Short and simple sentences with an average length of 15 to 20 words keep the writing clear.
3. Proper punctuation helps to provide pauses and stops and to break up groups of words into sensible units. A sentence can often be made easy to follow by using a punctuation mark.
4. Giving definite and concrete details with figures and names.
5. Following a logical sequence of ideas. Making a clear plan for the letter ensures that the ideas are in logical order; coherence that is logical connection of ideas makes any composition easy to read.
6. Consistency in the use of numbers, dates, units of measure, technical terms, abbreviations, hyphens, grammar, spelling, punctuation and capitalization and style of writing the date vary. So whatever is decided should be maintained consistently throughout the document.

- ◆ **Conciseness**

It means expressing much in a few words; in business writing it means keeping to the point, using as few words as possible without sacrificing clarity or courtesy. It does not necessarily mean being brief, but making every word count. Conciseness can be achieved by:

1. Leaving out unnecessary modifiers
2. Reducing less important ideas to phrases or single words
3. Making sure that only the necessary and relevant details are included

- ◆ **Courtesy**

Courtesy is consideration for other people's feelings, it is seen in an individual's behavior with others. A well-mannered and courteous person shows consideration and thought for others. In a letter, the style, the manner and the choice of words reflect the courtesy of the writer. Some simple rules for courtesy are:

- ◆ Use the courtesy words *please, thank you and sorry* as the situation requires
- ◆ Express appropriate feeling according to the situation Make the other person feel comfortable
- ◆ Be attentive and prompt in responding
- ◆ The tone, choice of words and the style of the message reflect consideration for the feelings and needs of the reader.

- ◆ **Language of Business Writing :**

Modern business language is simple, easy to understand, friendly and courteous. Personal relations with customers can be cultivated by writing friendly letters in a natural and informal style. Old fashioned business language is not suitable for modern business methods and practice.

Letters convey messages, they must also build goodwill and create positive and pleasant feelings. It should convey a favorable emotional response from the reader. The brief contact with the reader which a letter makes, must be pleasant and memorable.

- ◆ **Avoiding Business Jargon**

Jargon means the vocabulary and phrases peculiar to a particular trade or profession. Business jargon or commercialize refers to the words and phrases which businessmen used in the old days of writing. Letters, memos and notes and reports are written in modern, simple style which is easy to understand.

- ◆ **Dealing with Technical Terms**

The use of technical terms is not a problem if the letter is being written to a person who is in a related profession. If the technical terms are absolutely unavoidable in describing a product, the meaning should be given in plain terms. As far as possible the language should be adapted to lay persons; it should not have any technical terms which the non-professional or non-technical person would not understand.

- ◆ **Meanings and Associations of Words**

Words do not have just dictionary meaning; but most words acquire associations and implications. Some words get additional meaning or power of suggestion because of being associated with certain ideas or activities. One must develop the skill of using the language so that the letter would never be offensive to the reader.

- ◆ **Taking the Reader's Point of View**

Looking at a situation from the reader's point of view helps one to frame the message in a pleasant and acceptable way. Presenting ideas, suggestions, proposals in

such a way that the reader sees how it is advantageous to himself, is called as the 'You' attitude.

One must show understanding of the reader's needs and desires, what the reader expects from the letter. Usually a letter proposes that the reader should take an action, and the reader's action will ultimately benefit the writer in some way, but the writer's benefit should not be the main point of the letter. The main point and emphasis should be on the advantage of the reader.

In business transactions many difficult situations arise which need the cooperation of both, the supplier and the buyer, the debtor and the creditor, the employer and the employee. Cooperation is crucial, messages must be an effort to exchange views and share understanding in order to cooperate. In every communication, there are two points of view and therefore, two sets of ideas; one that interests the recipient and one that interests the sender; messages can be conveyed with the recipient's interest in mind.

It is important that the emotional response of one's reader should be favourable to him. A sales letter may convince an executive of the value of computerizing the office work, but he may feel emotionally inclined to go to a competing firm. The test of the effectiveness of a company's letters is the number of customers it retains even after collecting dues and refusing credit terms.

- ◆ **Planning the Letter**

Careful planning is the basis of success in most tasks. Thinking, reasoning and planning before writing a letter has many advantages. It enables one to compose the letter in a logical order and in the style most suited to the needs of the reader. It is a good method to separate the two elements of communication: planning the content and choosing the language/style for presentation. This involves thinking about why one wants to communicate (the purpose), to whom the message is to be sent (the receiver), and what is to be achieved by the communication (the desired receiver-response). One should make sure that all the information is included, and number the points in the logical order in which one wants to use. A letter is a short composition and it is easy to arrange the collected notes in the structure of a letter.

- ◆ **Composing the Letter**

The first and the concluding paragraphs are important places, which are to be used both to the maximum effect. It should not begin by repeating what is said in the subject line or end by making a flat or useless statement, each of them has a definite function. Showing interest in the reader's needs and paying attention to his feelings and desires creates goodwill at the beginning of the letter.

If there is no subject line, the opening sentence has to indicate the subject of the letter; and it may have to refer to any previous communication on the subject, like telephone talk or letter or visit. But if there is a subject line, the opening sentence should not repeat it.

Congratulation, appreciation, etc, are good ideas for either the opening or the closing but not for both in the same letter. If it has been expressed in the opening it should not be repeated in the closing sentence. Clarity, goodwill, courtesy, self-respect are most important in the last paragraph.

The last sentence has two functions: firstly to tell what is the next action to be taken and who is to take it, the writer or the reader, secondly, to win a favorable response for whatever has been said in the letter, thirdly if the matter has been finally settled, and no further action or communication is to follow, a goodwill message is a suitable ending.

In letters which try to persuade the reader, the last sentence can add to or take away from the effect of the arguments stated. A firm, persuasive and convincing argument can be spoilt by a weak ending line and a confident and lively ending has a better chance of getting action.

The last sentence leaves the final impression on the reader's mind, and can be used to remind him about the last date for taking action or impressing upon him the advantage offered or for leaving a pleasant memory.

12.5 SUMMARY

Being a social animal, human being has always required the need to communicate. Of the different modes of communication, written communication has its own significance.

In this mode, letter writing, commercial correspondence, emails are of the various types. Like any other mode, writing too requires certain skills to be effective.

Formal & Business Letter :

Letters have a basic structure or framework that needs to be followed, One has to be specific about each aspect of the structure as it is significant in business.

Essentials of effective writing :

This is a very broad topic. However in a nutshell, completeness, coherence, compactness, confidence, consideration, friendliness and vigour could be summarised as the skills of effective writing.

12.6 QUESTION FOR SELF - STUDY

I. Write short paragraphs (Paragraph writing)

- 1) A Rainy Day, 2) A walk, 3) The Cow,
- 4) Anger, 5) Boating, 6) A fire

II. Write short letters -

- 1) To your cousin, requesting the loan of a Camera during your holidays.
- 2) From a student staying in a hostel to his mother who is keeping poor health.
- 3) To your younger brother, scolding him for having neglected his studies.
- 4) Reply to the above.
- 5) To a friend, who has failed to take his defeat well.
- 6) To a friend, giving a brief description of a holiday tour you intend to make.
- 7) To a friend, describing a pleasant dream.

Business Letters

- 1) Write the house agent's reply.
- 2) Write a letter to the Manager of a factory, asking permission for a party to visit the factory.

Official letters :

- 1) To the Commissioner of Police, about the grant of license to Stating reasons.
- 2) To The Inspector-General of Police, applying for the post of Sub-Inspector.
- 3) To the Editor of a newspaper, on reckless driving. 4) To a newspaper protesting against street noises.

12.7 SUGGESTED READINGS

1. *Organised Writing Book* by Saraswati V.
2. *8. Letter writing, Precis Writing & Comprehension* Minerva by Dean M. classic series -



Report Writing

13.0	Objectives
13.1	Introduction
13.2	Importance of Report writing
13.3	Types of Report
13.3.1	Routine Reports
13.3.2	Laboratory Reports
13.3.3	Inspection Reports
13.3.4	Confidential Reports
13.4	Elements of Structure and Layout of a Report
13.4.1	Main Body
13.4.2	Back matter
13.5	Summary
13.6	Questions for Self - Study
13.7	Suggested Readings

13.0 OBJECTIVES

Friends! We introduce you to another aspect of writing i.e. Report writing, Reports as you are aware are an important and unavoidable form of routine business procedures. Being as formal type of writing, you have to follow the formatting rules too. So now we will be able to describe -

1. basics of reports
2. what makes report writing so important
3. the basic types of report.
4. the details of the structure and layout of a report.

13.1 INTRODUCTION

The word 'report' is derived from the Latin '*reportare*' which means to carry back (re – back + portare – to carry). A report, is a description of an event carried back to someone who was not present on the scene. Thus in a broad sense, many memorandums, letters and news items are reports. When an instructor prepares a list of absent students or an analysis of an examination result, or when a technician fills in a form the readings taken from a measurement instrument, he is writing a report. But the types of reports we are interested in those which scientists, engineers, business executives and administrators have to write as part of their duty. These relate either to the work they have done or to the activities of the organizations they belong to. Such reports are the result of careful investigation, sound thinking, logical organization and clear writing and they are presented in a conventional form sanctioned by long varied experience. Some essential points of a report are:

A report is a formal statement of facts or information or an account of something.

- ◆ It is presented in a conventional form.
- ◆ It is written for a specific audience.
- ◆ It includes information about the procedure of collecting data and the significance of such data.
- ◆ It contains conclusions reached by the writer.
- ◆ It often includes recommendations.

Keeping in view the above points we may now define a report as follows:

A report is a formal communication written for a specific purpose, it includes a description of procedures followed for collection and analysis of data, their significance, the conclusions drawn from them, and recommendations, if required.

A report differs from other compositions inasmuch as it is written in a more or less conventional form to meet a specific need or requirement. It is not an outburst of powerful feelings or an expression of recollected emotions, nor is it written because one feels an irresistible urge to unburden one's heart. A report writer should examine the present objectively the data collected. His conclusions and recommendations are strictly based on the facts included in the report. There is scope for freedom regarding the choice of diction and structure, technique of presentation and style of exposition, subject to the paramount need of precise and clear communication.

13.2 IMPORTANCE OF REPORT WRITING

Whatever profession one chooses, it is certain that one will be asked to write and read reports. It has been estimated that an engineer, a business executive or a government officer spends about 75 per cent of his time at the desk either writing reports, letters etc., or processing them. A large number of important decisions in business, industry or government are taken on the basis of information presented or recommendations made in reports. Whenever a problem comes to notice or a need is felt to analyze a situation or detailed information is required to take a decision, the report writer comes into the picture. A commission or a committee, a study group or a panel is required to present its findings and/or recommendations in the form of a report.

It is rightly been said that for running an industry or a business efficiently the skill of report writing is as necessary as good equipment and quality raw materials. A statement like a business executive who cannot write effective reports for his boss and gets his subordinates to write good reports for himself is almost totally ineffective, is an exaggeration of a vital truth. It is an undeniable fact that a report helps an executive perform his functions of planning and evaluating men and material resources efficiently.

In earlier times when business was run by small groups, all members could meet, pool their knowledge, discuss problems and arrive at decisions. Now when an industry employs thousands of workers, many of them specialists in particular fields of operation, it is not possible to keep one informed of what others are doing without the aid of reports. Life in the latter half of the twentieth century has become highly competitive owing to unprecedented advances in science and technology. Whether it be an individual or an organization, critical evaluation of performance is essential for mere survival, more so for growth and progress. Thus, continuous efforts are required for an organization to improve its working through an analysis of its own processes of production, distribution, etc., and comparison with other similar organizations. And these tasks cannot be performed without preparation of reports on various aspects of business and research activity.

Writing reports is a discipline which has an intrinsic value. It trains the writer in planned and orderly procedures and logical presentation of ideas and information. It reveals gaps in reasoning spotlights woolly thinking, identifies digressions from the correct line in the work done, shows up faults of tactics or strategy which the smoke and confusion of day-to-day close combat comfortably conceal.

As a student one will have to write a number of reports, project reports, survey reports, laboratory reports, etc. One will discover that he gets a better understanding of what he has done while writing the report. Report writing develops the power of discrimination, organization, judgement and communication. Universities offering professional programmes are beginning to take an increasing interest introducing courses in report writing, and progressive organizations are specially designing intensive programmes in report writing for the benefit of their employees.

13.3 TYPES OF REPORT

Reports may be oral or written. An oral report is a piece of face-to-face communication about something seen or observed. Unless recorded, it is as ephemeral as any other oral communication. Though it saves the reporter's time, it is more time-consuming for the receiver as he has to listen to every word of the report. A written report is relatively more accurate and permanent. In certain cases the reader may just skim through it, or read the abstract or the conclusions or recommendations only. It can be referred to again and again and is by its very nature more formal than an oral report. There are however, certain types of written reports also which, like oral reports are comparatively informal. For eg., the manager of a firm may write a report giving his assessment of the working of the branches he visits on a tour for the information of the proprietor. Generally, such reports are written in the form of a memorandum and range from a few lines to several pages of detailed information. Some times they are written in the letter form too.

Formal reports vary a great deal according to their purpose and contents, and different organizations have different ways of classifying them. Some classify them according to their source or frequency of appearance, others by their length or degree of formality or physical form. Whatever is the basis of classification, there is one thing common to them all – they follow more or less a similar pattern. We may for our purposes classify these reports into the following two broad categories:

i) Informational

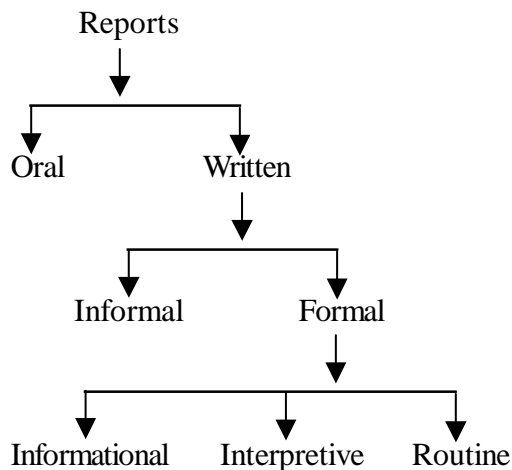
ii) Interpretive

Both kinds of reports are the result of an analysis, investigation of a problem, survey of a situation, or a piece of research. An informational report contains only the data collected or the facts observed in an organized form. It presents the situation as it is and not as it should be. It does not contain any conclusions or recommendations. It is useful because it presents relevant data put together in a form in which it is required by the management to take decisions.

An interpretive report, like an informational report, contains facts but it also includes an evaluation or interpretation or analysis of data and the reporter's conclusions. It may also have recommendations for action. An interpretive report which consists principally of recommendations is also called a recommendation or recommendatory report.

There are some reports which are written in a prescribed form. All that the report writer has to do is to put a tick mark against certain items listed in the form or write very brief remarks against them. These reports are written usually for recording routine matters at regular intervals, eg., confidential reports on employees, periodic reports on the progress of projects, reports on inspection of equipment, etc. Though these reports are formal and contain information and sometimes recommendations also, they are called routine reports.

The following tree diagram summarizes the various types of reports that have been mentioned in this section:



13.3.1 Routine Reports

Progress Reports

When a long-term project or work is undertaken, the administration keeps itself informed through progress reports. The project may be the construction of a bridge or building, the layout of a residential colony, the installation of equipment in a factory, or the investigation of some problem. These reports also help the officers and workers immediately responsible for the job to take stock of what has already been done and to relate it to the total amount of time and/or money available. A student, who undertakes a research project, will be required to submit progress reports periodically. These reports usually include a chronology of the progress made since the last report or the commencement of the project and indicate further time and/or money available for its completion. When government departments give work on contract they insist on such reports from contractors. These enable the government to know whether the work is progressing according to schedule.

The frequency of progress reports depends upon the practice followed in an organization. They may be written and circulated at the end of each phase or a specified period of time or completion of a stage of work. If they are prepared at regular intervals, they are sometimes called periodic reports. The proforma for preparation of such reports is specified by each organization. But generally speaking they contain the following information:

1. Name of the work or project
2. Total work to be completed
3. Date
4. Work completed to date
5. Work to be completed
6. Possible date for completion
7. Remarks, if any
8. Signature and designation of the reporting officer

13.3.2 Laboratory Reports

If one is a student of science and engineering, he will be required to do a number of experiments in the laboratory to test a theory, verify the modifications he has in his mind or to examine the validity of his research findings. The experiments will demand the ability to choose the right equipment, to arrange various instruments appropriately, to observe and record processes, reactions and readings faithfully and accurately, and to arrive at valid conclusions. A laboratory report is an account of these various steps, findings and conclusions put together in a logical order. As a matter of fact, no scientific experiment can be considered valid unless it is presented in terms intelligible to other scientists. Thus writing laboratory reports is considered to be an essential part of scientific investigation and experimentation.

Educational institutions and research organizations have devised proformas for writing laboratory reports to suit their individual requirements. But generally these reports contain the following elements:

1. Heading
2. Experiment No.
3. Date
4. Statement of objects
5. Apparatus used
6. Method or procedure followed

7. Observations
8. Conclusion
9. Signature

13.3.3 Inspection Reports

Inspection reports are of two types:

- a) The report which incorporates the result of the inspection of a piece of equipment to ascertain whether it is functioning properly or requires any repairs or replacement. This may be done as a matter of routine or on receipt of a complaint.
- b) The report which indicates the result of inspection of a product as a part of quality control. Most manufacturing organizations have a quality control section or department whose duty is to inspect every product with a view to ensuring that it fulfils the required specifications.

- **Inventory Reports**

It is customary for every organization to take stock of equipment, furniture, stationery etc. at regular intervals. The person who checks the stock fills in his findings in a prescribed form.

13.3.4 Annual Confidential Reports on Employees

Most organizations make a periodic evaluation of the performance and general conduct of their employees. The assessments thus made are used at appropriate times for rewards such as increments, promotions, transfer to more responsible jobs, etc. A large number of factors determine whether a person is efficient or not. It is almost impossible to measure scientifically human qualities such as alertness, zeal, confidence etc. So by their very nature such reports are subjective. Some organizations on the basis of their experience have identified qualities required for doing a particular job efficiently.

13.4 ELEMENTS OF STRUCTURE AND LAYOUT OF A REPORT

Custom and convenience have more or less standardized the parts or elements that constitute a report and also established the sequence in which they appear. Variations in structure are, however, made according to the purpose, scope and contents of a report. The order in which various elements are organized is given below. The first ten elements are collectively termed as front matter, because they appear before the main body. The last five are known as the back matter, as they follow the main body.

Front Matter

1. Cover
2. Frontispiece
3. Title page
4. Copyright Notice
5. Forwarding Letter
6. Preface
7. Acknowledgments
8. Table of Contents
9. List of illustrations
10. Abstract and Summary

Main Body

1. Introduction

2. Discussion or Description
3. Conclusion
4. Recommendation

Back Matter

1. Appendices
2. List of Reference
3. Bibliography
4. Glossary
5. Index

Of the above elements, only the title page, the introduction and the discussion or description are obligatory. In very short reports even a separate title page is not necessary, all he needs to do is to write the title on the top of the first page and start with the introduction. In practice, only long formal reports are likely to contain all the elements. The primary consideration for including an element should be its usefulness.

- **Front Matter**

1. **Cover**

A cover is usually made of white or some soft, neutral-colored card. It protects the manuscript from damage and gives the report a neat appearance. Some organizations have covers with the title of the report, its number, the date, the classification if any. These items of information help identify the report when it is in circulation or filed. Sometimes the name of the author and the authority for whom the report is written are also mentioned. The cover gives the first impression and should therefore, not crowd it with information. Too many items are likely to distract the reader's attention and mar the attractiveness of its layout.

2. **Frontispiece**

A frontispiece generally appears in bound reports which are meant for wide circulation. It is a sort of window display that ignites the curiosity of the reader. The forms most often used for the purposes are photographs, maps and artistic drawings.

3. **Title Page**

Usually the title page is the first right-hand page of the report. In addition to all the information given on the cover it may contain the following information:

1. Sub-title
2. Name of the author
3. Name of the authority for whom the report was written
4. Contract, project or job number
5. Approvals

4. **Distribution list**

Sometimes the report should be approved by some other officer before submission, when this needs to be done the name and designation of the approving officer on the title page should be mentioned. Similarly if the report is meant for circulation to officers other than the primary recipient, their names and official titles should be indicated. A separate page for the purpose if the lists of approvals and circulation are long should be used.

5. **Forwarding Letter**

There are two types of forwarding letters: 'covering', and 'introductory'. While both

are written for the primary recipient of the report, the first type serves simply as a record of transmission of the report. It is not bound with the report as it does not contain any important information. The 'introductory' letter performs almost the same function which a preface or an introduction does for a book and its characteristics are those of a good business letter. Through it, one should establish rapport with the reader and put him into the proper receptive mood. Besides mentioning the title, important points and also the scope, contents and purpose of the report briefly should be repeated. Make a reference to the authorization under which he did the work and acknowledge any assistance received from persons and organizations in carrying out the work. Also, the report's limitations and the need for further work, if any, should be mentioned, and close the letter by expressing the hope that it would be found satisfactory.

6. Preface

The preface introduces the report (not the subject-matter of the report) and offers it to the reader. It contains almost all information which is given in the 'introductory' type of letter of transmittal. The preface should not be confused with the forward. Whereas the former is written by the author himself, the latter is customarily written by an authority or expert in the field commending the work done.

7. Acknowledgement

Unless one has given credit elsewhere, mention diligently the names of persons and organizations that have helped him in the production of the report. When one includes published material and the list of sources is very long, a separate page should be used for the purpose. Permission has been taken for the reproduction of copyright material if any should be clearly indicated.

8. Table of Contents

If the report is long, more than ten pages, the table of contents is essential. Its function is to give the reader an overall view of the report and help him locate a particular topic or subsidiary topic easily. He will feel more at ease using the report the way he wants if he knows what to expect from it and where. The contents are compiled from the headings and sub-headings of the report. Sub-headings beyond the third order are generally excluded.

9. List of Illustrations

A separate list of illustrations is given immediately after the table of contents if there are a large number of tables and figures. Its layout is the same as that of the table of contents and it gives information about the number, title and page references of each illustration.

10. Abstract and Summary

Most reports contain a synopsis which is called an abstract or a summary. The question whether it should be included in a report depends upon two factors, firstly the length of the report and secondly the requirement of the primary recipient. In the case of short reports running into two or three pages, there is no need for either. The reader can quickly skim through the report and get an idea of what is being talked about.

13.4.1 Main Body

1. Introduction

An introduction provides a starting point to the reader who is not familiar with the subject of a report. The main function of the introduction is to say what the report is about, what work has already been done on the subject and what new grounds are covered in the study. In specific terms the items of information that may be included in it are:

1. Historical and technical background

2. Scope of study, specifying its limitations and qualifications
3. Methods of collecting data and their sources
4. Authorization for the report and terms of reference
5. Organization of the material
6. Definitions of special terms and symbols, if their number is small.
7. Since the introduction sets the scene and prepares the reader for what is to follow, take utmost care in writing it. It states in a forthright manner what one is going to discuss and does not admit

2. Discussion or Description

This section discusses or describes the main business of the report. It fills most of the report and contains almost all the illustrations. Usually, it has several sections group under different headings and sub-headings. The main function of this part is to present data in an organized form, discuss their significance and analyse the results that flow therefrom. Sometimes the whole of this process is gone into for each topic or sub-topic and an inference is drawn at the end of each.

3. Conclusion

It is generally used to describe remarks at the end of a piece of writing. The function of such a conclusion is to bring the discussion or description to a close and to signal to the reader gracefully that he has reached the end. But as an element of the report, this term to the body of logical inferences drawn and the judgments formed on the basis of analysis of data presented in the report or to the findings of the investigation made.

4. Recommendations

In some reports conclusions and recommendations are combined on the plea that they are closely associated. One should not do so unless the report is very short or one is required to combine them. Conclusion embody the inferences and findings whereas the function of recommendations is to suggest the future course of action. The terms of reference would usually indicate whether recommendations are required. In real life situations one will often be asked to investigate a problem, discuss the results and report the conclusions and on the basis of these materials action will be recommended by someone else. In this part more than anywhere else there is a need for paying special attention to the kind of reader and our relationship with him.

As in the case of conclusions, you should list recommendations in the descending order of their importance. If their number is very large, they may be grouped under different subheadings.

13.4.2 Back Matter

1. Appendices

An appendix contains material which is needed to support the main body of the report but is too detailed/voluminous to be included in the text. It should be such that the reader can safely omit reading it without any loss of understanding of the contents of the report. But if he wishes to examine in detail the supporting or related evidence and documents he should be able to find it in the appendix. Thus in deciding which material should be relegated to the appendix, the following two factors should be borne in mind:

1. Whether the material sustains the theme and forms an essential and integral part of the report
2. Whether it would interrupt the train of the reader's thought if included in the main body.

All appendices should be referred to in the text and their significance or meaning

pointed out. If their number is more than one, they should be designated as Appendix A, Appendix B and so on.

Generally the kind of materials included in the appendix are questionnaires, statistical data, samples of forms or data sheets used in the investigation, detailed calculations, derivations of questions, illustrative materials, worked-out examples, sample documents, specimens, tables of definitions and symbols, correspondence, summaries of results achieved by other organizations, views of others on similar topics and other materials which must be included for record.

2. List of References

It is not only customary but also essential to give credit to the works (published or unpublished) which is used or quoted in the report. This is done by citing such works in the text and listing them in alphabetical order at the end of the report. If their number is small, they may be mentioned in the footnotes at the bottom of the page on which they are cited. The attention of the reader is drawn to the footnotes either by putting a printer's mark or by writing a number at suitable places in the text.

3. Bibliography

A bibliography is a serially numbered list of published and unpublished works which are consulted before or during the preparation of a report. It is distinct from the list of References in several respects:

- i) The bibliography lists the works which the author has read and to which he is indebted for ideas or information in general terms, whereas, the purpose of the list of references is to point out the specific location of an idea or a piece of information in the original source.
- ii) It may contain works recommended for further study, whereas, the reference does not perform any such function.
- iii) It may be annotated, it may be indicated briefly the content and usefulness of the works cited, whereas, the references indicate only the sources. When some authors give more details in the latter they may term it as 'Notes and References'.
- iv) The bibliography may be 'select' or 'selected' including only the more relevant of the works consulted, whereas, the references are always complete.
- v) The entries in the bibliography are in alphabetical order, whereas, the references may sometimes be recorded in the sequence in which they have been cited in the text.
- vi) The author often prepares the bibliography before writing the report to remember the work he intends to consult. The list of references, on the other hand, is more conveniently prepared while the report is being written. Final shape to both is, however, given at the end.

While preparing the bibliography, the following points should be kept in mind:

1. The order of writing the names and surnames of authors
2. The sequence of details
3. The punctuation marks
4. **The layout.**

The order in which the various elements appear in it and list of references is as follows: the last part of the name of the author or editor, the other parts of the name, year of publication, title of the book, place of publication, and the name of the publisher. In case of an edited book, the abbreviated form 'Ed' is added after the name of the editor. The number of the relevant edition such as 'second edition', 'third edition', 'third edition' etc is also mentioned after the title of the book. In the

case of articles or other works, additional or somewhat different information is included.

5. Technical Report

Technical Report such as pathology test or x-ray reports are normally written on given format. Where a technical person fills up the findings of his observations in the given cells of tables (normally in tabular structure having columns and rows is given). Such a report is then included in the full descriptive report. These reports require minimal writing. But there are full descriptive reports, which require good presentation and writing skills and proper understanding of the subject matter.

i) It should be written in a formal and reserved manner

A report should never follow a conversational style of writing. A person writing the report should never try to impose his views on the given subject. The job of the report writer is to present facts related with the subject in truthful and actual manner. Sometimes the person writing the report may not personally agree with the decisions taken. In those cases the report writer must not try to modify the facts suiting to his views on the subject.

ii) Never use emotionally charged language

While writing a report one is expected to be objective and very close to the truth. Use of emotionally charged language may give wrong impression to the reader of the report and may undermine the writer or report's credibility.

iii) Conclusions must be drawn on concrete evidences

Sometimes text alone is not enough to present the facts, rather some evidences to exhibit that what the report has recorded as truth. It is also important to show clearly how one arrived at the conclusions in a report. It is also necessary for the report writer to explain how he made a particular decision or reached to a conclusion.

iv) Be specific, tactful and qualify assertions

The report writer must be specific about the decisions taken. The writer must be specific about the decisions taken. If the writer reports some unpleasant decisions, he must explain the circumstances in which such decision was taken. It has to be done according to the certain set of rule of law pertaining for the procedure. Otherwise employees may have resentment and it may cause discontentment among employees. Therefore, in such situations the reporter must state facts accurately and he must be tactful. He must explain the circumstance leading to the decision. He must qualify assertions. This means that what is asserted in the conclusions of the report must be properly explained.

6. Writing Technical and Scientific Reports

Technical material usually related to a particular field of knowledge. The word 'Technical' means specialization in a subject, art or craft. He is an expert in his chosen field of knowledge or in other words he has technical expertise in that subject. Knowledge and expertise in any particular field can be termed as technical knowledge. It is not true that only basic science or engineering subjects can be termed as being technical. An expert in the field has technical knowledge in that particular field. He has learnt and gained knowledge in that particular field.

7. Difference between Technical and Non-Technical Report

Usually a non-technical or general report is for all kinds of readers whether technical or non-technical. Technical reports are to be read and understood by experts of the field only.

A medical record of patient, containing all details of a patient's illnesses, will be understood by any medical professional. But to a lay person it will not make any sense, as he does not understand the medical terminology. But if he reads an

operation manual on how to operate a microwave-oven or any other home appliance, he will be able to understand it easily. This is because it is written in simple English and purposely written in a style that is easy to understand and follow the instructions by a lay man. Technical jargon will not be usually used in such operation manuals. If they are used the general interpretation is always given beside it.

Technical material on the other hand is not meant for a general reader. It is used by those who have thorough knowledge of the subject and is meant as a means of communication between such professionals. In most cases, the author writes under the assumption that the reader is familiar with basic aspects of the subject. Therefore he/she does not waste the readers' time trying to explain the jargon, abbreviations and scientific terms are usually in full use in such books/journals/materials.

8. Styles in Technical Writing

Different styles will be used by different authors/writers. The styles are usually determined by the subject matter. A writer in mathematics or physics will have a great deal of numbers and formulae in his works. An engineer will write differently, talking about mechanical or electrical components. Or a medical doctor will write about the pathology of diseases, symptoms and curative effects of drugs. But a musician may talk about musical notes, sonatas, fugues while a professor of literature may write a critical evaluation of 'Shakespeare's tragedies' or the 'Hellenic influence in the works of the Romantic poets'. Each style is therefore unique and determined by the subject in hand.

When one is writing a report it should be made sure that his article is well informed, that he has the right data to back up the findings and that his style is readable, concise and logical.

9. Usage of Abbreviations

Many well-written papers are often marred by the usage of too many abbreviations. It is permissible to use them as long as one gives the expanded form in a footnote at the beginning or end of the article. All abbreviations when used for the first time have to expand in full, with the abbreviations in parenthesis, later they may be used to replace the full words.

10. Illustrations and Tables

Tables and Illustrations often contain all evidence on which a technical paper is based and readers usually examine them closely. Captions and legends for these tables and illustrations must form a separate unit, independent of the text and fully self-explanatory. No reader enjoys going back and forth between text by concentrating on a visually appealing and accurate set of tables and illustrations. These often get the message across in a few minutes and are easier to understand. One can attach them to the materials and methods section or use them as an appendix.

A legend, by the way, consists of an informative title, together with any necessary explanation of the tables or illustrations or the letters or symbols included in it.

13.5 SUMMARY

A report is a formal statement of facts or information or an account of something. Hence it needs to be documented in a conventional form and carefully drafting all the essential information.

Reports may be oral or written. Normally they are classified as Informational and Interpretive another classification of reports is use specific for eg laboratory reports, Routine reports, Inspection reports etc.

The Layout of a report is comprises of the main body and the back matter. The main body has the introduction, discussion and conclusion which back matter constitutes appendices, references and bibliography.

Reports can also be classified as Technical and non technical reports. Technical

reports are those like pathology tests while non-technical involves those which do not contain technical jargons.

Styles in writing -different styles are used by different author, use of abbreviations, illustrations and tables should also be used as and where necessary.

Source : <http://books.google.co.in> (Google book)

13.6 QUESTIONS FOR SELF - STUDY

1. Define a report and give its characteristics
2. Why is report writing so important?
3. Summarize the types of reports with the help of a tree diagram.
4. Considering the layout of report, draft the following -
 1. Progress report of a research project on which you are working.
 2. Laboratory report on experiment carried out to test the pH of water.
 3. List of reference books for your project report.
5. Give the aspects of as technical report.

13.7 SUGGESTED READINGS

1. *Organised Writing Book* by Saraswati V.
2. Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English - Douglas Biber, Stig Johansson, Geoffrey Leech, Susan Conrad, Edward Finegan.



Precis and Essay Writing

14.0	Objectives
14.1	Introduction
14.2	Characteristics of Precis writing
14.3	Method of precis writing
14.4	Essay writing
14.5	Classification of essay
14.6	Summary
14.7	Questions for Self - Study
14.8	Suggested Readings

14.0 OBJECTIVES

Friends! Another aspect of writing is precis and essay writing. Precis is an exercise which improves your reading as well as writing skills. Writing the original passage in a brief representation requires analytical skills essay requires good knowledge of the subject you are writing about. Thus we will be able to explain -

1. Essential skills for precis and essay writing.
2. Method of writing precis & essay.
3. Various types of essays.
4. Certain things which should be avoided in essay writing.

14.1 INTRODUCTION

Precis is summarizing Precis writing is an art of compression. It is the main theme of a passage reproduced in as less words as possible. Yet it should be a complete re-presentation of the original passage. It must include all important points of the original passage so that one is able to grasp the main idea of the passage. Precis writing requires certain basic skills and lot of practice as well.

In case of an essay, we have the topic on which we have to frame the information in an interesting framework. Knowledge and understanding of the subject is the basic prerequisites for writing an essay.

14.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF PRECIS WRITING

A précis is a summarizing. Precis writinless is an art of compression. It is the main theme of a passage reproduced in as words as possible. It should be brief but complete re-presentation of the original passage in less number of words. It must include all-important points of the original passage so that one may be able to grasp the main idea and the general effect of the passage summarized.

◆ Uses of Precis Writing

Precis writing is a very fine exercise in reading. Most people read carelessly and retain only a vague idea of what they have read. Nothing provides a stronger corrective to such a habit than the practice of putting down briefly the substance of what has been just read. Precis-writing forces one to pay attention to what one has just read, for no one can write a summary of any passage unless he has read it attentively and grasped its meaning. Thus summarizing is an excellent training in concentration. It teaches one to read with the mind, as well as the eye.

- ◆ **Writing**

Precis-writing is also a very good exercise in writing. It teaches one to express one's thoughts clearly, concisely and effectively. Habits of vague and disorderly thinking and loose and diffuse writing are only too common amongst students, and nothing can eradicate such habits better than the practice of summarizing passages. A student by précis writing learn to choose his words carefully, to construct his sentences completely and briefly and put matter in a strictly logical order.

- ◆ **Use of précis writing in practical life**

Practice in précis writing is of great value in practical life. It teaches us to express our thoughts in as few words as possible, and to express them clearly and effectively. Words are like leaves and where they most abound much fruit of sense beneath is rarely found. Let thy words be few is a good advice and by practice in compression one learns to economize words and therefore, to be precise.

- ◆ **Essentials of a good précis**

We can put down one by one all the features essential to any précis that aims at being perfect:

A good précis should give the leading thoughts and the general impression of the passage summarized. A précis that gives only the leading points without giving the general impression of the passage epitomized is not useful. It cannot be called perfect.

A good précis should be a continuous piece of prose. It should not leave an impression on the reader that it is merely a series of disjointed sentences. As far as possible, one should not use in the précis even a single sentence of the original. There is every temptation for one to borrow those sentences that are expressive.

A précis should be clear. It must present the substance of the original in own language expressed as distinctly as possible, so as to leave no doubt as to the import of any part of the original.

A précis should be precise and brief. All irrelevancies must be left out, omit all digressions and remove all unimportant details. The main idea should be expressed in as few words as possible. But being brief at the expense of intelligibility should be avoided. Brevity is useful only so far as it is compatible with completeness and clearness. A précis must be not only brief but also exact.

It should not be sketchy, it should be complete in every way. It should contain all that is important in the original. If it is not learnt how to summarize the important thoughts of a great writer, in appropriate language, he will never learn to express own thoughts in effective language.

Finally, it should be learnt to distinguish between what is essential to the development of a writer's thought, and what is not essential to it. In other words, you should know how to separate the important thought from the mass of details in which it is embedded.

14.3 METHOD OF WRITING A PRÉCIS

Rules should be followed while writing a précis

- ◆ **Reading**

First the passage is to be read thoroughly but not too slowly to get a general idea of its meaning. Generally, one reading will not be sufficient for this purpose, read the passage carefully at least three times to obtain a thorough grasp of its exact meaning. The more it is read it the more familiar will it become and the clearer will be its subject and what is said about that subject.

- ◆ **How to find the Title**

Usually one is asked to give the title for a précis. While reading the original passage, think of some word, phrase, or short sentence, that will sum up the main subject of the passage. Sometimes this is given by what we may call the key sentence. This key sentence is usually found either at the beginning or at the end of the passage. Detailed reading is necessary to ensure that one understands the details of the passage as well as the main purport. It should be read sentence-by-sentence, and word-by-word. If one does not understand any difficult work or phrase, the meaning should be looked into. A detailed study of this kind is necessary, because a phrase, a sentence, or even a single word, may be of prime importance, and the misunderstanding of it may cause you to miss the main point of the passage.

◆ **Selection**

One should decide which parts of the passage are essential and which unessential. The latter can be safely omitted. This process of selection is very important. It should not be selected in a haphazard or mechanical way. The best guide, of course, is the subject, or main theme, of the passage. Some like to underline sentences and phrases in the original. Though this is generally not a bad plan, one will be able to do better if one has a clear and correct idea of the passage. The conclusions in brief notes should be jotted down, the title should be written and also the subject and the essential points.

◆ **Writing**

A brief statement on paper of the main ideas should be made. This is a first draft of the précis, and at this stage the lines between the ideas need not be inserted. It is not likely that the first attempt will be a complete success. The draft will probably be too long. In fact one may have to write out several drafts before one gets the right one. It is a good plan to write the first draft in own words without using the words of the original passage.

Some important hints and directions that must be kept in mind:

- i) Write down, in order, all the important points in the passage, so as to form a framework for your epitome.
- ii) Then write out the epitome, having a general idea of the whole extract in mind, and the framework drawn up before him. Write as simple, clearly, briefly and effectively, as can be seen. The parts of the epitome bear the same balance and proportion in relation to one another, as the parts of the original. Otherwise the epitome will distort the effect.
- iii) The object of a précis is to give a true summary of the original. Nothing should be added to your epitome, which is not in the original and omit nothing, which is important.
- iv) It will usually be advisable to follow the order of the original. But this is by no means essential, it is permissible to rearrange the ideas, in any order you please, if doing so one can improve their logical sequence.
- v) The précis should be of approximately the length prescribed. If one is asked to make a précis in 100 words, for instance, it cannot be made in 150. Where the limit of words is not given, about a third of the length of the original is usually expected.
- vi) The précis must be a connected whole. It may be divided into sections or paragraphs, according to changes in the subject matter. These must not appear as separate points but must be joined together.
- vii) The précis must be in simple, direct, natural and idiomatic English.

◆ **Main points to be considered**

As a rule a précis should be written in Indirect Speech, after a 'verb of saying' in the past tense. Great care must be taken to avoid lapsing into direct speech – a very

common fault.

Personal

The summary should be in the third person. If the matter read or heard, is a speech, of letter, the pronouns 'I', 'we', 'you' often occur. These may be altered to he, they, she, according to the sense. Note that the second person plural pronoun 'you' has become 'they' and the first person singular pronoun 'me' has become third person singular, ie., 'him' the number and the case do not change.

◆ **The Art of Compression**

There are several useful phrases to remember in reducing the number of words. Adverbial phrases can usually be reduced to their equivalent adverbs, verbs followed by a preposition can usually be replaced by verbs that do not require a preposition, and a long list of nouns in apposition can usually be omitted. We may omit mere repetitions, illustrations, and examples, change figures of speech into literal expressions, compress wordy sentences, and alter phrases to words.

14.4 ESSAY WRITING

1. How to Write an Essay

There is not much to be said on the point of writing an essay, very often we have only Hobson's Choice, that is say, we have to take what is given to us, and have no choice at all. But if we have a choice, let us choose the subject about which we really know most, for it is easier to write a good essay from knowledge than from guesswork. We should devote at least fifteen minutes to understanding the subject, to thinking it out. It is most important to realize the scope of the essay and to plan it out. That will save us a good deal of trouble.

Outline

Having chosen out a subject we should proceed to make an outline. An outline is helpful in many ways, they are:

1. Arrangement
2. Proportion
3. Keeping to the Point

Thus there will be unity of design in an essay. 'Art lies in the concealment of art', and we should write an essay in such a manner that the reader should not be able to detect the design that underlies our effort.

2. Material for Ideas

Having chalked out an outline, we should collect material to fit out ideas and fill up out outline. We should gather ideas continuously, systematically and carefully, for the first condition of good writing is definite, exact knowledge. Next we should observe a sense of proportion in the time and the space we devote to the development of our ideas.

w Style

Style must suit the subject. We should be simple as well as sincere in what we write clear as well as concise, interesting as well as to the point. We should not write what we are not aware of ourselves. We should try to make the essay as lively and readable as possible. Style is the result of sincerity. If we have something to say and our mind is full of it we will be able to say it well. If however, we merely try to be clever, to show off, style will betray it and we shall write a worse essay.

3. The Beginning and the End

The two most important parts of an essay are the beginning and the end. The beginning must be bright, striking and attractive so as to arrest the reader's attention

at once. It must form a fitting introduction to the main body of the essay. The following points should be noticed:

- i) We should set about the main theme as quickly as we can without wasting time on preliminary statements.
- ii) We should avoid stiff, stereotyped introductions.
- iii) If the title is vague or obscure, we should begin by defining or elucidating it. But we must be careful to give a full definition.
- iv) Often an apt quotation forms a good beginning.

We should take care not to distort our essay by a weak or commonplace ending. When we have begun it well it is our responsibility also to end it well. If there is an abrupt or a feeble conclusion the impression left on the reader's mind is very poor indeed. Therefore, the end should not be forced, we should make it as natural as possible. The following are the effective methods of ending an essay:

1. A brief summary of previous arguments or statements with reflections and conclusions.
2. Simple reflections upon conclusions drawn from the subject matter of the essay.
3. A single striking sentence
4. An authoritative quotation bearing upon the subject
5. A climax.

There are few things which should be avoided while writing an essay:

1. Bad Style
2. Incongruous and confused constructions
3. Careless sentences
4. Misplaced correlatives and Adverbs
5. Ambiguity
6. Inexact Phraseology
7. Tautology
8. Pleonasms or redundancies of expression
9. Repetition in a sentence, of the same word or expression
10. Verbosity i.e., the use of many words where a few are sufficient for the purpose
11. Fine Writing i.e. fondness for high-flown expressions
12. Colloquialisms
13. Slang, cant, vulgar expressions and puns
14. Foreign words and phrases. Coined and far-fetched words.
15. Archaisms
16. Bad spelling and punctuation.

We should take the subject seriously and treat it with care. We should avoid a tone of false superiority, and not try to moralize or preach. Abbreviations, Handwriting etc, we should try to avoid the use of abbreviations or symbols such as, etc. It is needless to point out that a good handwriting is a great boon and that a neat, legible handwriting pays much in the University Examination. We should leave a margin about an inch, on the left side, the first line of a paragraph. Attention should be paid to the use of brackets and to division of the essay into paragraphs.

4. Use of Past Tense in Narration

In narrating anything we should not use the historic present, but keep to the past tense throughout, otherwise there is likely to be confusion of tenses. If our narrative is a story or incident drawn from our own experience, we employ the personal pronoun 'I'. But in an essay its use must be scrupulously avoided. An essay should be in general as impersonal as possible. The worth of a personal impression depends upon the worth of the personality that records it.

14.5 CLASSIFICATION OF ESSAYS

Essay may be divided roughly into four classes:

- ◆ Narrative Essays
- ◆ Narrative Essays are those that consist of the narration of some event. Such events may be
 - ◆ Historical or legendary occurrences
 - ◆ Stories either true or imaginary
 - ◆ Biographical sketches of well-known persons
- ◆ Descriptive Essays

They are those that consist of the description of some place or thing,

Countries, islands, mountains, seas, rivers

Aspects and phenomena of nature

Towns and buildings

Reflective Essays

They are those that consist of reflections upon some topic, which is generally of an abstract nature. These may be:

Habits, qualities

Social, political and domestic affairs

Expository or Argumentative Essays

These consist of the exposition or explanation of a saying or a thesis

6. General rules for drawing up an outline

A writer has given the following rules for drawing up an outline of an essay on a given topic:

- i) First set down the principal ideas that suggest themselves (these are the 'main topics') and denote them by numbers.
- ii) Set down under each main topic the subordinate ideas that follow from them (these are the 'sub-topics') and denote them by letters.
- iii) Arrange both the main topics and sub-topics in their natural order
- iv) Care should be taken that the ideas contained in the sub-topics are in keeping with the ideas contained in the main topics.
- v) All the topics are worded as briefly and compactly as possible.

14.6 SUMMARY

Precis writing is a fine exercise in reading as well as writing. The process forces one to pay attention to what one has read for without that, a summary cannot be written.

In practical life, precis helps us to express our ideas in as few words as possible.

The method for writing precis can be summarized as reading - selecting suitable title - selecting suitable content - writing.

Similarly essay writing is also as skill. In this type, the writer is assigned a topic and has no choice but to write on it.

Essay can be written easily if the writer has some prior knowledge about the topic. Essay can also be systematic if the outline is properly designed.

The beginning and concluding part of the essay should be impressive and should catch the attention of the reader. The matter of the essay should be authentic and written in a simple, lucid style.

Essays can be classified into four classes. Narrative, Descriptive, Reflective, and Argumentative essays.

14.7 QUESTIONS FOR SELF - STUDY

1. Give the uses of precis writing.
2. Describe in detail, the method of precis writing.
3. Describe the outline of an essay.
4. Give the characteristics of the beginning and end of a good essay.
5. How are essays classified?
6. Which things should be avoided while writing an essay?

14.8 SUGGESTED READINGS

1. *High School English Grammar and Composition* - P. C. Wren, H. Martin (Edited by N.D.V. Prasada Rao)
2. Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English - Douglas Biber, Stig Johansson, Geoffrey Leech, Susan Conrad, Edward Finegan



APPENDIX

Common Errors in Grammar

- * The Agreement of the verb with its Subject
A verb must agree with its Subject in number & person.

Often, by what is called the Error of proximity", the verb is made to agree in number as with a noun near it instead of with its proper Subject. This should be avoided as shown in the following examples.
 - The quality of the mangoes was not good.
 - His knowledge of Indian vernaculars is for beyond the common?
 - If it were possible to get near when one of the volcanic eruptions takes place we should see a grand sight.
- * Two or more singular nouns or pronouns joined by and require a plural verb: as
 - Gold and Silver are precious metals.
 - Fire and water do not agree
 - In 'him, were centered their love and their ambition
 - He and I were playing
- * If the nouns suggest one idea to the mind or refer to the same person or thing, the verb is singular as,
 - Time and tide waits for no man
 - The horse and carriage is at the door
 - Bread and butter is his only food
 - The novelist and poet is dead.
- * When' the subjects joined by or, OR nor, are of different persons, the verb agrees with the nearer; as,
 - Either you or I am mistaken.
 - Either you or he is mistaken.
 - Neither you nor he is to blame.
 - Neither my friend nor I am to blame.
- * But it is better to avoid these constructions and to use the following.
 - He is mistaken or else I am.
 - You are mistaken or else he is.
 - He is not to blame, nor are you.
 - My friend is not to blame nor am I.

EXERCISE:

In each of the following sentences supply a verb in agreement with its subject.

- To take pay and then not do work _____ dishonest.
- The cost of all these articles _____ risen.