



BASIC SKILLS FOR COMMUNICATION

[HERE WE MEET BOTH THE DEMANDS OF LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION WITHIN THIS COURSE]

Prepared and compiled by
Rajeswari Gangadharan
Assistant Professor
Department of Applied Science

CENTRE FOR CONTINUING EDUCATION

**VIDYA ACADEMY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
TECHNICAL CAMPUS**

Kilimanoor, Thiruvananthapuram - 695602

Preface

English grammar is the set of structural rules of the English language. This includes the structure of words, phrases, clauses, sentences, and whole texts.

This article describes a generalized, present-day Standard English – a form of speech and writing used in public discourse, including broadcasting, education, entertainment, government, and news, over a range of registers, from formal to informal. Divergences from the grammar described here occur in some historical, social, cultural, and regional varieties of English, although these are more minor than differences in pronunciation and vocabulary.

Modern English has largely abandoned the inflectional case system of Indo-European in favor of analytic constructions. The personal pronouns retain morphological case more strongly than any other word class (a remnant of the more extensive Germanic case system of Old English). For other pronouns, and all nouns, adjectives, and articles, grammatical function is indicated only by word order, by prepositions, and by the "Saxon genitive or English possessive".

Eight "word classes" or "parts of speech" are commonly distinguished in English: nouns, determiners, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions. Nouns form the largest word class, and verbs the second-largest. Unlike nouns in almost all other Indo-European languages, English nouns do not have grammatical gender.

History of English Grammar

The first published English grammar was a *Pamphlet for Grammar* of 1586, written by William Bullokar with the stated goal of demonstrating that English was just as rule-based as Latin. Bullokar's grammar was faithfully modeled on William Lily's Latin grammar, *Rudimenta Grammatices* (1534), used in English schools at that time, having been "prescribed" for them in 1542 by Henry VIII. Bullokar wrote his grammar in English and used a "reformed spelling system" of his own invention; but much English grammar, for much of the century after Bullokar's effort, was written in Latin, especially by authors who were aiming to be scholarly. John Wallis's *Grammatica Linguae Anglicanae* (1685) was the last English grammar written in Latin.

Even as late as the early 19th century, Lindley Murray, the author of one of the most widely used grammars of the day, was having to cite "grammatical authorities" to bolster the claim that grammatical cases in English are different from those in Ancient Greek or Latin.

English parts of speech are based on Latin and Greek parts of speech.[39] Some English grammar rules were adopted from Latin, for example John Dryden is thought to have created the rule no sentences can end in a preposition because Latin cannot end sentences in prepositions. The rule of no split infinitives was adopted from Latin because Latin has no split infinitives.

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MODULE I

BASICS

1. Noun

What is a noun?

A noun is a word that names something, such as a person, place, thing, or idea. In a sentence, nouns can play the role of subject, direct object, indirect object, subject complement, object complement, appositive, or adjective.

Types of nouns

Nouns form a large proportion of English vocabulary and they come in a wide variety of types. Nouns can name a person:

Albert Einstein
the president
my mother
a girl

Nouns can also name a place:

Mount Vesuvius
Disneyland
my bedroom

Nouns can also name things, although sometimes they might be intangible things, such as concepts, activities, or processes. Some might even be hypothetical or imaginary things.

shoe
faucet
freedom
The Elder Wand
basketball

Proper nouns vs. common nouns

One important distinction to be made is whether a noun is a proper noun or a common noun. A proper noun is a specific name of a person, place, or thing, and is always capitalized.

Does Tina have much homework to do this evening?

Tina is the name of a specific person.

I would like to visit Old Faithful.

Old Faithful is the specific name of a geological phenomenon.

The opposite of a proper noun is a common noun, sometimes known as a generic noun. A common noun is the generic name of an item in a class or group and is not capitalized unless appearing at the beginning of a sentence or in a title.

The girl crossed the river.

Girl is a common noun; we do not learn the identity of the girl by reading this sentence, though we know the action she takes. River is also a common noun in this sentence.

Types of common nouns

Common or generic nouns can be broken down into three subtypes: concrete nouns, abstract nouns, and collective nouns. A concrete noun is something that is perceived by the senses; something that is physical or real.

I heard the doorbell.

My keyboard is sticky.

Doorbell and keyboard are real things that can be sensed.

Conversely, an abstract noun is something that cannot be perceived by the senses.

We can't imagine the courage it took to do that.

Courage is an abstract noun. Courage can't be seen, heard, or sensed in any other way, but we know it exists.

A collective noun denotes a group or collection of people or things.

That pack of lies is disgraceful.

Pack of lies as used here is a collective noun. Collective nouns take a singular verb as if they are one entity – in this case, the singular verb is.

A pride of lions roamed the savanna.

Pride of lions is also a collective noun.

Nouns as subjects

Every sentence must have a subject, and that subject will always be a noun. The subject of a sentence is the person, place, or thing that is doing or being the verb in that sentence.

Maria is happy.

Maria is the subject of this sentence and the corresponding verb is a form of to be (is).

Nouns as objects

Nouns can also be objects of a verb in a sentence. An object can be either a direct object (a noun that receives the action performed by the subject) or an indirect object (a noun that is the recipient of a direct object).

Give the books to her.

Books is a direct object (what is being given) and her is the indirect object (who the books are being given to).

Nouns as subject and object complements

Another type of noun use is called a subject complement. In this example, the noun teacher is used as a subject complement.

Mary is a teacher.

Subject complements normally follow linking verbs like to be, become, or seem. A teacher is what Mary is.

A related usage of nouns is called an object complement.

I now pronounce you husband and wife.

Husband and wife are nouns used as object complements in this sentence. Verbs that denote making, naming, or creating are often followed by object complements.

Appositive nouns and nouns as modifiers

An appositive noun is a noun that immediately follows another noun in order to further define or identify it.

My brother, Michael, is six years old.

Michael is an appositive here, further identifying the subject of the sentence, my brother.

Sometimes, nouns can be used adjectivally as well.

He is a speed demon.

Speed is a normally a noun, but here it is acting as an adjective to modify demon.

Plural nouns

Plural nouns, unlike collective nouns, require plural verbs. Many English plural nouns can be formed by adding -s or -es to the singular form, although there are many exceptions.

cat—cats

These two cats are both black.

Note the plural verb are.

tax—taxes

house—houses

Countable nouns vs. uncountable nouns

Countable nouns are nouns which can be counted, even if the number might be extraordinarily high (like counting all the people in the world). Countable nouns can be used with *a/an*, *the*, *some*, *any*, *a few*, and *many*.

Here is a cat.

Cat is singular and—obviously—countable.

Here are a few cats.

Here are some cats.

Uncountable nouns are nouns that come in a state or quantity which is impossible to count; liquids are uncountable, as are things that act like liquids (sand, air). They are always considered to be singular, and can be used with *some*, *any*, *a little*, and *much*.

An I.Q. test measures intelligence.

Intelligence is an uncountable noun.

Students don't seem to have much homework these days.

This example refers to an unspecified, unidentifiable amount of homework, so homework is an uncountable noun.

Possessive nouns

Possessive nouns are nouns which possess something; i.e., they have something. You can identify a possessive noun by the apostrophe; most nouns show the possessive with an apostrophe and an *s*.

The cat's toy was missing.

The cat possesses the toy, and we denote this by use of *'s* at the end of cat.

When a singular noun ends in the letter *s* or *z*, the same format often applies. This is a matter of style, however, and some style guides suggest leaving off the extra *s*.

I have been invited to the boss's house for dinner.

Mrs. Sanchez's coat is still hanging on the back of her chair.

Plural nouns ending in *s* take only an apostrophe to form a possessive.

My nieces' prom dresses were exquisite.

2. Pronouns

You use pronouns every day. In fact, even if you don't know what pronouns are, you use them—and in this sentence alone, we've now used pronouns four times.

Pronouns are the words you substitute for other nouns when your reader or listener already knows which nouns you're referring to. For example, you might say, "I have a dog. He's brown and white." There's no need to clarify that you're describing your dog in the second sentence because you already mentioned him in the first. But following up "I have a dog" with "brown and white" is grammatically incorrect . . . so with the pronoun "he's," you turn the phrase "brown and white" into a full sentence: He's brown and white.

Pronouns do a whole lot more than turn phrases into sentences. They provide context, make your sentences' meanings clearer, and shape how we perceive people and things. Read on to learn about the different ways we use pronouns and how to use them to construct sentences. There's a lot to understand about pronouns, and even if you already understand a lot of it subliminally, reading a comprehensive guide to pronouns' uses and purposes (complete with examples!) can strengthen your grasp of English grammar and make you a stronger writer.

What is a pronoun?

Pronouns are short words we swap in for other nouns to make our writing and speech faster and more varied. They're words like:

- *They*
- *I*
- *You*
- *Who*
- *Themselves*
- *Each other*

Pronouns make up a small subcategory of nouns. The distinguishing characteristic of pronouns is that they can be substituted for other nouns. For instance, if you're telling a story about your sister Sarah, the story will begin to sound repetitive if you keep repeating "Sarah" over and over again. For example:

- *Sarah has always loved fashion. Sarah announced that Sarah wants to go to fashion school.*

You could try to mix it up by sometimes referring to Sarah as "my sister," but then it sounds like you're referring to two different people:

- *Sarah has always loved fashion. My sister announced that Sarah wants to go to fashion school.*

Instead, you can use the pronouns she and her to refer to Sarah:

- *Sarah has always loved fashion. She announced that she wants to go to fashion school.*

Pronouns can replace both proper and common nouns. Certain pronouns have specific rules about when they can be used, such as how *it* should never be used to refer to a human being. We explain all of the different types and their associated rules below.

Personal pronouns

When you think of pronouns, you most likely think of personal pronouns. Personal pronouns are pronouns that refer to specific individuals and groups. Personal pronouns include:

- *I/me*
- *She/her*
- *He/him*
- *They/them*
- *We/us*
- *You*

Here are a few examples of personal pronouns in italics, with the nouns they're referring to bolded:

- ***The new student** will arrive today. They will need a seating assignment and a name tag.*
- ***My family** loves nachos. We make them every Friday for movie night.*

In the second example sentence, notice that **nachos** (a noun) and **them** (a pronoun) aren't emphasized. That's because in this sentence, **them** isn't a personal pronoun because it isn't replacing a proper noun, but rather **we** is.

Antecedents

Remember how we mentioned that in order to use a pronoun, you need to introduce the noun first? That noun has a name: an antecedent.

Antecedents are necessary because pronouns are versatile. Think about it - "it" can refer to a bike, a tree, a car, or a city, and we just used it to refer to something else entirely: pronouns' versatility. Take a look at these examples to see how antecedents and pronouns work together:

- *My family tests my patience, but I love **them**.*
- *The sign was too far away for Jorge to read **it**.*
- *Danita said **she** is almost finished with the application.*

Antecedents aren't necessary when the reader/listener knows who or what you're discussing. Generally, you don't need an antecedent for pronouns like *I*, *you*, *we*, *our*, and *me*. But because there are no absolutes in grammar, sometimes you **do** need an antecedent in this kind of situation—like when you're giving a speech where you introduce yourself and your credentials before discussing your achievements.

There are also circumstances where you might not introduce the noun first and instead reveal it after using only pronouns to refer to your subject. You might do this for dramatic or poetic effect in a piece of creative writing.

Relative pronouns

Relative pronouns are another class of pronouns. They connect relative clauses to independent clauses. Often, they introduce additional information about something mentioned in the sentence. Relative pronouns include these words:

- *that*
- *what*
- *which*
- *who*
- *whom*

Traditionally, **who** refers to people, and **which** and **that** refer to animals or things. Here are a few examples of relative pronouns at work:

- *The woman **who** called earlier didn't leave a message.*
- *All the *dogs* **that** got adopted today will be loved.*
- *My *car*, **which** is nearly twenty years old, still runs well.*

Who vs. whom—subject and object pronouns

Knowing when to use **who** and when to use **whom** trips a lot of writers up. The difference is actually pretty simple: **Who** is for the subject of a sentence, and **whom** is for the object of a verb or preposition. Here's a quick example:

- *Who mailed this package?*
- *To whom was this package sent?*

See the difference? **Who** is a subject pronoun. It's in the same category as *I*, *he*, *she*, *they*, and *we*. **Whom** is an object pronoun, which puts it in the same category as *me*, *him*, *her*, *them*, and *us*. An easy way to determine whether you should use *who* or *whom* in a sentence is to answer the sentence's question by substituting another pronoun. With the new pronoun in place, determine if the sentence still makes sense. For example:

- *He mailed this package.*
- *The package was sent to him.*

Figuring out when to use **whom** can be more difficult than knowing when to use **who** because it typically comes before the sentence's verb—notice how the example object pronoun sentence changed more dramatically than the subject pronoun sentence.

Demonstrative pronouns

That, *this*, *these*, and *those* are demonstrative pronouns. They take the place of a noun or noun phrase that has already been mentioned or is clear through context, either in written or verbal communication.

This is used for singular items that are nearby. *These* is used for multiple items that are nearby. The distance can be physical or metaphorical. Take a look at these examples:

- *Here is a letter with no return address. Who could have sent **this**?*

- *What a fantastic idea! **This** is the best thing I've heard all day.*
- *If you think gardenias smell nice, try smelling **these**.*

That is used for singular items that are far away. *Those* is used for multiple items that are far away. Again, the distance can be physical or metaphorical. Here are a few examples of these pronouns in action:

- *A house like **that** would be a nice place to live.*
- *Some new flavors of soda came in last week. Why don't you try some of **those**?*
- ***Those** aren't swans, they're geese.*

Indefinite pronouns

Indefinite pronouns are used when you need to refer to a person or thing that doesn't need to be specifically identified. Some common indefinite pronouns are *one*, *other*, *none*, *some*, *anybody*, *everybody*, and *no one*.

Here are a few examples of indefinite pronouns in sentences:

- ***Everybody** was late to work because of the traffic jam.*
- *It matters more to **some** than others.*
- ***Nobody** knows the trouble I've seen.*

When indefinite pronouns function as subjects of a sentence or clause, they usually take singular verbs.

Reflexive pronouns

Reflexive pronouns end in **-self** or **-selves**:

- *Myself*
- *Yourself*
- *Himself*
- *Herself*
- *Itself*
- *Oneself*
- *Ourselves*
- *Yourselves*
- *Themselves*

Use a reflexive pronoun when both the subject and object of a verb refer to the same person or thing. Here are a few examples:

- ***She** checked **herself** out of the hotel thirty minutes before check-out time.*
- *Take care of **yourselves**.*

Using **myself** when you mean **me** is a common mistake writers and speakers make. Reflexive pronouns are only correct **when the subject and object of a sentence are the same**.

Intensive pronouns

Intensive pronouns look the same as reflexive pronouns, but their purpose is different. Intensive pronouns add emphasis. Conceptualizing the difference between them and reflexive pronouns can be challenging because the emphasis isn't always obvious. Take a look at these examples of intensive pronouns and examine how they're different from the examples in the previous section:

- *I told them I could do it **myself**.*
- ***We** asked **ourselves**, is this business really worth saving?*

If you can remove a pronoun from a sentence and it loses emphasis but its meaning stays the same, it's most likely an intensive pronoun. Compare these two sentences:

- *I built this house.*
- *I built this house **myself**.*

See how the second one emphasizes that the builder had no outside help? Intensive pronouns can help you express pride, shock, disbelief, credulousness (or in-credulousness), or any other strong emotion. Here are a few more examples:

- *They hiked the entire Appalachian Trail **themselves**?*
- *Did you, **yourself**, see Loretta spill the coffee?*

Possessive pronouns

Possessive pronouns are pronouns that show possession. They include the following:

- *My*
- *Your*
- *Our*
- *Their*
- *His*
- *Her*
- *Its*

These can also be called possessive adjectives if they modify a noun in a sentence. Take a look at these examples of possessive adjectives in action:

- *I crashed **my** bike into a telephone pole.*
- ***Your** house is always decorated so nicely.*

This category also includes independent versions of possessive pronouns. These include:

- *Mine*
- *Yours*
- *Ours*
- *His*
- *Hers*
- *Theirs*
- *Its*

When you use an independent possessive pronoun, you drop the noun it's referring to. Here are a few examples:

- *She forgot her jacket, so I gave her **mine**.*
- *I had no idea whose bid won the auction, then my cousins told me **theirs** did.*

Interrogative pronouns

Interrogative pronouns are used in questions. The interrogative pronouns are *who*, *what*, *which*, and *whose*. Here are a few examples of interrogative pronouns at play:

- ***Who** wants a bag of jelly beans?*
- ***What** is your name?*
- ***Which** movie do you want to watch?*
- ***Whose** jacket is this?*

Reciprocal pronouns

There are only two reciprocal pronouns:

- *Each other*
- *One another*

These pronouns refer to two or more people who are **both** the subject of the sentence. Take a look at these examples:

- *Javier and Priya, the two top salespeople on our team, are competing with **each other** for Salesperson of the Year.*
- *All my siblings are blaming **one another** for letting the boa constrictor out last Thanksgiving.*

Distributive pronouns

Distributive pronouns refer to people, animals, and objects as individuals within larger groups. They enable you to single out individuals while acknowledging that they're part of a larger group. Distributive pronouns include the following:

- *Either*
- *Each*
- *Neither*
- *Any*
- *None*

Here are a few examples of distributive pronouns in sentences:

- *All of my friends entered the costume contest and **none** of them won.*
- *Cookies and muffins are available for dessert. **Neither** is appealing to me.*

Pronoun examples

As you can see, pronouns do **a lot**. And there are a lot of them. And to make them even more complicated, many pronouns change forms when they're used in different positions within a sentence or different tenses.

Take a look at the different types of pronouns and their forms at a glance:

Type	Pronouns in this category	Example sentences
Personal	I/me, they/them, he/him, she/her, it, we/us, you	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I brought all the snacks. We weren't planning on staying over.
Relative	That, what, which, who, whom	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> My car, which is twenty years old, doesn't connect to Bluetooth. The professor who ran the meeting ended it promptly
Demonstrative	That, this, these, those	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> You've seen clear quartz and smoky quartz, but have you seen these stones? I ordered Hawaiian pizza. I like that a lot.
Indefinite	One, other, some, none, everybody, anybody, no one, nobody, both	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> We need cashiers up front. Anybody who's available, please report to the front end. "Why can't we fix this?" I asked nobody in particular.
Reflexive	Myself, yourself/yourselves, himself/himself, herself, oneself, itself, ourselves	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The car began to swerve, then corrected itself. He made himself a sandwich.
Intensive	Myself, yourself/yourselves, himself/himself, herself, oneself, itself, ourselves	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> You did all of this yourself? She did the entire group project by herself.
Possessive	My, your, his, her, their, our, its,	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> We're lounging out by our

	whose	pool. • His car is green.
Interrogative	Who, what, which, whose	• Whose bike is this? • What is the answer?
Reciprocal	Each other, one another	• We ran into each other on the subway. • They've been fighting with one another for decades.
Distributive	Either, each, neither, any, none	• Peanut butter or chocolate? I'm good with either. • There were four cats, and none had long hair.

Pronouns and gender identity

You might have noticed pronouns listed in some of your colleagues' and friends' email signatures or social media profiles. You might have even been prompted to list your pronouns in your own. While traditionally the personal pronouns *he/him/his* and *she/her/hers* were used for individuals based strictly on their sex, pronoun usage is broader and more descriptive today.

Many people use gender-neutral pronouns like *they/them/theirs* and *zie/hir/hirs* because they feel these pronouns express their gender identity more accurately than *she* or *he*. The most common gender-neutral pronoun is the singular *they*. Today, it's not uncommon to see the singular *they* as the default neutral pronoun. It's what we use on the Grammarly blog, and for writers across the internet, it's a concise catch-all pronoun that can fit just about any sentence. However, language is constantly evolving, and new types of singular third-person pronouns have emerged that refer to people entirely without reference to gender, such as noun-self pronouns.

3. Verb

Definition & Types

A **verb** is a word or a combination of words that indicates action or a state of being or condition. A verb is the part of a sentence that tells us what the subject performs. Verbs are the hearts of English sentences.

Examples:

- *Jacob walks in the morning. (A usual action)*
- *Mike is going to school. (A condition of action)*

- *Albert does not like to walk. (A negative action)*
- *Anna is a good girl. (A state of being)*

Verbs are related to a lot of other factors like the *subject, person, number, tense, mood, voice*, etc.

Basic Forms of Verbs

There are **six basic** forms of verbs. These forms are as follows:

- **Base form:** Children play in the field.
- **Infinitive:** Tell them not to play
- **Past tense:** They played football yesterday.
- **Past participle:** I have eaten a burger.
- **Present participle:** I saw them playing with him today.
- **Gerund:** Swimming is the best exercise.

Different Types of Verbs

- Main/Base Verb
- Regular/Weak Verb
- Irregular/Strong Verb
- Transitive Verb
- Intransitive Verb
- Weak Verb
- Strong Verb
- Finite Verbs
- Non-finite Verbs
- Action Verbs
- Linking Verb
- Auxiliary Verbs
- Modal Verbs
- Reflexive Verb
- Ergative Verb
- Phrasal Verb
- Lexical Verb
- Delexical Verb
- Stative/Being Verb
- Dynamic Verb
- Non-continuous Verb
- Participle
- Gerund
- Infinitive

Base Verb

The **base verb** is the form of a verb where it has no ending (-ing, -ed, -en) added to it. It is also called the Root Verb since it is the very root form of a verb.

Examples:

- *I **go** to school every day.*

- *You **run** a mile every morning.*
- ***Do** your homework.*

Regular Verb

The Verbs that follow the most usual conjugations are considered **Regular Verbs**. It is regular since it abides by most if not all of the regular grammar rules there are.

Examples:

- *Rehan **plays** cricket.*
- *Tam **called** out my name.*
- *You really **walked** all the way back?*

Irregular Verb

The Verbs that have irregularities in terms of following grammar rules are Irregular Verbs, in general.

Examples:

- ***Do** the dishes.*
- *I hardly ever **drink** enough water in a day.*
- *She **drove** all the way back.*

Transitive Verb

The Main Verb that takes a direct object sitting right after it would be a Transitive Verb. They usually construct the most straightforward of sentences.

Examples:

- *She **went** to the fair.*
- *We do not **like** being called out loud in crowds.*
- *I **love** visiting my village home.*

Intransitive Verb

The main Verb that does not take a direct object specified right afterward and rather there is an indirect one mentioned somewhere along the line is called an Intransitive Verb. These verbs often make the corresponding sentences incomplete.

Example:

- *I **laughed**.*
- *John **ran**.*
- *A ghaat of cold wind **blew**.*

Weak Verb

Verbs that end with “-d” and “-t” in their Past Indefinite and Past Participle form are Weak Verbs. There is a tendency to associate Weak Verbs with Regular Verbs but not all Weak Verbs are Regular Verbs in the English language.

Examples:

Present Indefinite Past Indefinite

Spend	Spent
Walk	Walked
Book	Booked
Learn	Learnt
Want	Wanted

Strong Verb

Strong Verbs are those in which the vowels in the verb stem changes from “i” to “a” to “u” in the Present Indefinite to Past Indefinite to Past Participle form of Verbs.

Examples:

Present Indefinite	Past Indefinite	Past Participle
Ring	Rang	Rung
Drink	Drank	Drunk
Cling	Clang	Clung
Swim	Swam	Swum
Sing	Sang	Sung
Wring	Wrang	Wrung

Finite Verbs

Finite verbs are the actual verbs that are called the roots of sentences. It is a form of a verb that is performed by or refers to a subject and uses one of the twelve forms of tense and changes according to the number/person of the subject.

Example:

- *Alex went to school. (Subject – Alex – performed the action in the past. This information is evident only by the verb ‘went’.)*
- *Robert plays hockey.*
- *He is playing for Australia.*
- *He is one of the best players. (Here, the verb ‘is’ directly refers to the subject itself.)*

Non-finite Verbs

Non-finite Verbs are not actual verbs. They do not work as verbs in the sentence rather they work as nouns, adjectives, adverbs, etc. Non-finite verbs do not change according to the number/person

of the subject because these verbs, also called **verbals**, do not have any direct relation to the subject. Sometimes they become the subject themselves.

The forms of non-finite verbs are – infinitive, gerund, and participle (participles become finite verbs when they take auxiliary verbs.)

Example:

- *Alex went abroad to play (Infinitives)*
- *Playing cricket is his only job. (Present participle)*
- *I have a broken bat. (Past participle)*
- *Walking is a good habit. (Gerund)*

Action Verbs

Action verbs indicate what the subject of a sentence performs. Action verbs can make the listener/reader feel emotions, see scenes more vividly and accurately.

Action verbs can be *transitive* or *intransitive*.

Transitive verbs must have a direct object. A transitive verb demands something/someone to be acted upon.

Example:

- *I painted the car. (The verb 'paint' demands an object to be painted)*
- *She is reading the newspaper. (The verb 'read' asks the question "what is she reading?" – the answer is the object)*

Intransitive verbs do not act upon anything. They may be followed by an adjective, adverb, preposition, or another part of speech.

Example:

- *She smiled. (The verb 'smile' cannot have any object since the action of 'smiling' does not fall upon anything/anyone)*
- *I wake up at 6 AM. (No object is needed for this verb)*

Note: {Subject + Intransitive verb} is sufficient to make a complete sentence but {Subject + Transitive verb} is not sufficient because transitive verbs demand a direct object.

Linking Verb

A linking verb adds details about the subject of a sentence. In its simplest form, it connects the subject and the complement — that is, the words that follow the linking verb. It creates a link between them instead of showing action.

Often, what is on each side of a linking verb is equivalent; the complement redefines or restates the subject.

Generally, linking verbs are called '*be*' verbs which are - *am, is, are, was, were*. However, there are some other verbs that can work as linking verbs. Those verbs are:

Act, feel, remain, appear, become, seem, smell, sound, grow, look, prove, stay, taste, turn.

Some verbs in this list can also be action verbs. To figure out if they are linking verbs, you should try replacing them with forms of the *be* verbs. If the changed sentence makes sense, that verb is a linking verb.

Example:

- *She appears ready for the game. (She is ready for the game.)*
- *The food seemed delicious. (The food was delicious.)*
- *You look happy. (You are happy.)*

Auxiliary Verbs

Auxiliary verbs are also called *helping verbs*. An **auxiliary verb** extends the main verb by helping to show time, tense, and possibility. The auxiliary verbs are – *be* verbs, *have*, and *do*.

They are used in the continuous (progressive) and perfect tenses.

Linking verbs work as main verbs in the sentence, but auxiliary verbs help main verbs.

Do is an auxiliary verb that is used to ask questions, to express negation, to provide emphasis, and more.

Example:

- *Alex is going to school.*
- *They are walking in the park.*
- *I have seen a movie.*
- *Do you drink tea?*
- *Don't waste your time.*
- *Please, do submit your assignments.*

Modal Verbs

A **modal verb** is a kind of auxiliary verb. It assists the main verb to indicate possibility, potentiality, ability, permission, expectation, and obligation.

The modal verbs are *can, could, must, may, might, ought to, shall, should, will, would*.

Example:

- *I may want to talk to you again.*
- *They must play their best game to win.*
- *She should call him.*
- *I will go there.*

Reflexive Verb

When the Subject and the Object are the same and the Verb reflects on the Subject, that is the Reflexive Verb. These Verbs are often used with Reflexive Pronouns like - myself, himself, herself, itself etc.

Examples:

- *He has done it himself.*
- *I'll watch it myself.*

Ergative Verb

Ergative Verbs can be used as Transitive and Intransitive Verb. They are also called Labile Verb in English.

Examples:

Intransitive Verbs

*The door **opens**.*

*The bell **rang**.*

*The light is **fused**.*

*The whistle **blew**.*

Transitive Verbs

*I **opened** the door.*

*She **rang** the bell.*

*They **fused** the lights.*

*Tom **blew** the whistle.*

Phrasal Verb

An idiomatic phrase consisting of a Verb and another element, most likely an Adverb or a Preposition is called a Phrasal Verb.

Examples:

- *She **broke down** in tears.*
- *Don't **look down upon** the poor.*
- *I'll **see to** it.*

Lexical Verb

Lexical Verb is the main or principal verb of a sentence which typically takes the major responsibility of a Verb that represents the action of the Noun or Pronoun.

Examples:

- *He **ran** to his father.*
- *I **laughed** out loud.*
- *Rina **tried** her best.*

DE-Lexical Verb

Delexical Verbs lack importance when it comes to meaning since these Verbs hardly have meanings of their own when used individually. The meaning is taken out of the Verbs and put into the Noun. Take, have, make, give etc. are Delexical Verbs.

Examples:

- *He **took** a shower.*
- *I **had** a cold drink.*
- *She **made** some arrangements.*

Stative Verb

The Verbs that describe the state of being are called Stative or Being Verbs.

Examples:

- *I **need** some boxes.*
- *You **belong** to the pomp and power.*
- *He **smells** danger.*
- *They **remember** what happened that day.*

Dynamic Verb

The Verbs that entail continuous or progressive action of the Subject are called Dynamic or Fientive Verbs. They express the Subject's state of being on the move.

Examples:

- *He's **running** fast.*
- *Keep **hitting** the ball hard.*
- *The dog goes for a **walk** every afternoon.*

Non-continuous Verb

The Verbs that are usually never used in their continuous forms are called Non-continuous Verbs.

Examples:

I **like** to swim.

~~I'm liking to swim.~~

I **love** to do the chords.

~~I'm loving to do the chords.~~

He does not **hate** you.

~~He's hating you.~~

She just **feels** a bit dizzy, no need to worry.

~~She's just feeling a bit dizzy.~~

Intensive Verb

The Verbs that focus intensely on just the Subject are called Intensive Verbs. Intensive Verbs are also called Linking or Copular Verbs.

Examples:

- *You **seem** happy.*
- *It **appears** to be just perfect.*
- *She **looks** stunning.*
- *He's **become** rather irritable.*

Extensive Verb

All the Verbs that do not focus intensively on just the Subject (as the Intensive Verbs) of the sentence are Extensive Verbs.

Examples:

- *He **loves** her.*
- *She **runs** too fast.*
- *Ron **sells** fish.*

4. Participle

A participle is a Verb form where they retain some of the characteristics and functions of both Verbs and adopt those of the Adjectives.

Examples:**Present Participle (Verb + -ing)**

- *Have I **become** a laughing stock?*
- *Cycling is a well-rounded exercise.*

Past Participle

- *I have **taken** a hint.*
- *Have you **given** it enough thought?*

Perfect Participle (Having + Past Participle)

- ***Having said** that, I was quite worried.*
- ***Having stepped** out of my comfort zone, I saw a whole new world.*

5. Gerund

The Verbs having -ing endings that function like Nouns in sentences are called Gerunds.

Examples:

- **Smoking** is injurious to health.
- **Walking** is good for health.
- I love **swimming**.

6. Infinitive

The 'to + Verb' forms where the Verbs are at their base or stem forms while they function as Nouns, Adjectives or Adverbs instead of Verbs.

Examples:

- I wanted **to help** you out.
- Are you trying **to go** there?
- I just love **to flaunt** my new Ferarri.

7. Adjective

What is an Adjective?

adjective (noun): a part-of-speech that modifies or describes a noun or a pronoun

An adjective is one of the nine parts of speech.

An *adjective* is a word that tells us more about a *noun*. It "describes" or "modifies" a *noun* (The **big** dog was **hungry**). In these examples, the adjective is in **bold** and the noun that it modifies is in *italics*.

An adjective often comes BEFORE a noun:

- a **green** *car*
- a **dark** *sky*
- an **interesting** *story*

And sometimes an adjective comes AFTER a verb:

- My *car* is **green**.
- The *sky* became **dark**.
- His *story* seemed **interesting**.

But adjectives can also modify *pronouns* (*She* is **beautiful**). Look at these examples:

- *They* were **empty**.
- I thought *it* seemed **strange**.
- *Those* are not **expensive**.

Note that we can often use two or more adjectives together (a **beautiful young French** lady / *it* is **black** and **white**).

The adjective is the enemy of the noun
This is sometimes said because, very often, if we use the precise noun we don't need an adjective. For example, instead of saying "a large, impressive house" (2 adjectives + 1 noun) we could simply say "a mansion" (1 noun).

Adjective Form

Some adjectives have particular endings, for example:

- -able/-ible: *washable, credible*
- -ish/-like: *childish, childlike*
- -ful/-less: *careful, careless*
- -ous: *dangerous, harmonious*
- -y: *dirty, pretty*

However, many adjectives have no obvious form.

Comparative, Superlative

Most adjectives can be comparative or superlative, for example:

- *big, bigger, biggest*
- *good, better, best*
- *beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful*

8. Adverb

What is an adverb?

An adverb is a word that modifies (describes) a verb (he sings loudly), an adjective (very tall), another adverb (ended too quickly), or even a whole sentence (Fortunately, I had brought an umbrella). Adverbs often end in -ly, but some (such as fast) look exactly the same as their adjective counterparts.

Tom Longboat did not run **badly**.

Tom is **very** tall.

The race finished **too** quickly.

Fortunately, Lucy recorded Tom's win.

It's easy to identify adverbs in these sentences.

Adverbs and verbs

Adverbs often modify verbs. This means that they describe the way an action is happening.

Phillip sings **loudly** in the shower.

My cat waits **impatiently** for his food.

I will **seriously** consider your suggestion.

The adverbs in each of the sentences above answer the question *in what manner?* How does Phillip sing? Loudly. How does my cat wait? Impatiently. How will I consider your suggestion? Seriously.

Adverbs can answer other types of questions about how an action was performed. They can also tell you *when* (We arrived *early*) and *where* (Turn *here*).

However, there is one type of verb that doesn't mix well with adverbs. **Linking verbs**, such as *feel*, *smell*, *sound*, *seem*, and *appear*, typically need adjectives, not adverbs. A very common example of this type of mixup is

I feel **badly** about what happened.

Because “feel” is a verb, it seems to call for an adverb rather than an adjective. But “feel” isn't just any verb; it's a linking verb. An adverb would describe *how* you perform the action of feeling—an adjective describes *what* you feel. “I feel badly” means that you are bad at feeling things. If you're trying to read Braille through thick leather gloves, then it might make sense for you to say “I feel badly.” But if you're trying to say that you are experiencing negative emotions, “I feel bad” is the phrase you want.

Adverbs and adjectives

Adverbs can also modify adjectives and other adverbs. Often, the purpose of the adverb is to add a degree of intensity to the adjective.

The woman is **quite** pretty.

This book is **more** interesting than the last one.

The weather report is **almost always** right.

The adverb *almost* is modifying the adverb *always*, and they're both modifying *right*.

“Is my singing **too** loud?” asked Phillip.

My cat is **incredibly** happy to have his dinner.

We will be **slightly** late to the meeting.

This bridesmaid dress is a **very** unflattering shade of puce.

Adverbs and other adverbs

You can use an adverb to describe another adverb. In fact, if you wanted to, you could use several.

Phillip sings **rather enormously too loudly**.

The problem is that it often produces weak and clunky sentences like the one above, so be careful not to overdo it.

Adverbs and sentences

Some adverbs can modify entire sentences—unsurprisingly, these are called **sentence adverbs**. Common ones include *generally*, *fortunately*, *interestingly*, and *accordingly*. Sentence adverbs

don't describe one particular thing in the sentence—instead, they describe a general feeling about all of the information in the sentence.

Fortunately, we got there in time.

Interestingly, no one at the auction seemed interested in bidding on the antique spoon collection.

At one time, the use of the word *hopefully* as a sentence adverb (e.g., *Hopefully, I'll get this job*) was condemned. People continued to use it though, and many style guides and dictionaries now accept it. There are still plenty of readers out there who hate it though, so it's a good idea to avoid using it in formal writing.

Degrees of comparison

Like adjectives, adverbs can show degrees of comparison, although it's slightly less common to use them this way. With certain “flat adverbs” (adverbs that look exactly the same as their adjective counterparts), the comparative and superlative forms look the same as the adjective comparative and superlative forms. It's usually better to use stronger adverbs (or stronger adjectives and verbs) rather than relying on comparative and superlative adverbs.

An absolute adverb describes something in its own right:

He smiled **warmly**

A **hastily** written note

To make the comparative form of an adverb that ends in -ly, add the word *more*:

He smiled **more warmly** than the others.

The **more hastily** written note contained the clue.

To make the superlative form of an adverb that ends in -ly, add the word *most*:

He smiled **most warmly** of them all.

The **most hastily** written note on the desk was overlooked.

Placement of adverbs

Place adverbs as close as possible to the words they are supposed to modify. Putting the adverb in the wrong spot can produce an awkward sentence at best and completely change the meaning at worst. Be especially careful about the word *only*, which is one of the most often misplaced modifiers. Consider the difference between these two sentences:

Phillip only fed the cat.

Phillip fed only the cat.

The first sentence means that all Phillip did was feed the cat. He didn't pet the cat or pick it up or anything else. The second sentence means that Phillip fed the cat, but he didn't feed the dog, the bird, or anyone else who might have been around.

When an adverb is modifying a verb phrase, the most natural place for the adverb is usually the middle of the phrase.

We are **quickly** approaching the deadline.

Phillip has **always** loved singing.

I will **happily** assist you.

When to avoid adverbs

Ernest Hemingway is often held up as an example of a great writer who detested adverbs and advised other writers to avoid them. In reality, it's impossible to avoid adverbs altogether. Sometimes we need them, and all writers (even Hemingway) use them occasionally. The trick is to avoid *unnecessary* adverbs. When your verb or adjective doesn't seem powerful or precise enough, instead of reaching for an adverb to add more color, try reaching for a stronger verb or adjective instead. Most of the time, you'll come up with a better word and your writing will be stronger for it.

9. Prepositions

- Prepositions indicate relationships between other words in a sentence.
- Many prepositions tell you where something is or when something happened.
- Most prepositions have several definitions, so the meaning changes quite a bit in different contexts.
- Ending a sentence with a preposition is not a grammatical error.

What Is a Preposition?

"Vampires! Zombies! Werewolves!"

"Where?!"

"Behind you!"

Thank goodness for prepositions. Imagine not knowing where the danger lay....

Prepositions tell us where or when something is in relation to something else. When monsters are approaching, it's good to have these special words to tell us where those monsters are. Are they **behind** us or **in front of** us? Will they be arriving **in** three seconds or **at** midnight?

Prepositions often tell us where one noun is in relation to another (e.g., *The coffee is **on** the table **beside** you*). But they can also indicate more abstract ideas, such as purpose or contrast (e.g., *We went **for** a walk **despite** the rain*).

Types of Prepositions

Prepositions indicate direction, time, location, and spatial relationships, as well as other abstract types of relationships.

Direction: Look *to* the left and you'll see our destination.

Time: We've been working *since* this morning.

Location: We saw a movie *at* the theater.

Space: The dog hid *under* the table.

Preposition Examples

Unfortunately, there's no reliable formula for determining which preposition to use with a particular combination of words. The best way to learn which prepositions go with which words is to read as much high-quality writing as you can and pay attention to which combinations sound right. Here are a few examples of the most common prepositions used in sentences.

I should rewrite the introduction of my essay.

Sam left his jacket in the car.

Did you send that letter to your mother?

We're cooking for ten guests tonight.

Dan ate lunch with his boss.

You can also use tools like Google Ngrams to see which prepositions most commonly occur with particular words—but remember, this tool can't explain the difference in meaning between different prepositional phrases like “pay for” (to purchase) and “pay off” (to bribe). For that, you may want to refer to a list of prepositions that includes the meanings of common combinations.

Ending a Sentence with a Preposition

The old claim that it's wrong to end a sentence with a preposition has been utterly debunked. It's not true and it never was true. Writers who always insist that a preposition can't end a sentence often end up with stilted and unnatural sentences:

There's no one else to hide behind . (Grammatically correct and natural)

There's no one else behind whom to hide. (Grammatically correct, but unnatural)

Where did you come from ? (Grammatically correct and natural)

From where did you come? (Grammatically correct, but unnatural)

That said, it is sometimes more elegant to move a preposition to an earlier spot in a sentence, especially in very serious and formal writing. But if you do move the preposition, remember to delete it from the end.

This is something we must meditate on .

This is something on which we must meditate.

This is something on which we must meditate on .

Unnecessary Prepositions

One of the most common preposition mistakes is adding an unnecessary *at* to the end of a question.

Where is your brother *at*?

Although this is common in some English dialects, it's considered an error in writing. You can fix the problem by simply deleting the *at*.

Where is your brother?

On the bright side, if you're not sure which preposition to use, sometimes you can just get rid of it altogether. In fact, you should always get rid of unnecessary prepositional phrases. Too many prepositions can be a sign of flabby writing. Look at how many prepositions appear in the sentence below:

For many people, the reality of an entry into a new area of employment is cause for a host of anxieties.

Getting rid of the prepositions forces you to tighten up the sentence. The result is shorter, more direct, and easier to understand:

Changing careers makes many people anxious.

Here's another example:

Alex hit the baseball *up over* the fence.

Get rid of the *up*. You don't need it:

Alex hit the baseball over the fence.

10. Conjunctions

What Are Conjunctions?

Conjunctions are words that link other words, phrases, or clauses together.

I like cooking and eating, but I don't like washing dishes afterward. Sophie is clearly exhausted, yet she insists on dancing till dawn.

Conjunctions allow you to form complex, elegant sentences and avoid the chopiness of multiple short sentences. Make sure that the phrases joined by conjunctions are parallel (share the same structure).

I work quickly and careful.

I work quickly and carefully.

Coordinating Conjunctions

Coordinating conjunctions allow you to join words, phrases, and clauses of equal grammatical rank in a sentence. The most common coordinating conjunctions are **for, and, nor, but, or, yet, and so**; you can remember them by using the mnemonic device FANBOYS.

I'd like pizza or a salad for lunch. We needed a place to concentrate, so we packed up our things and went to the library. Jesse didn't have much money, but she got by.

Notice the use of the comma when a coordinating conjunction is joining two independent clauses.

Correlative Conjunctions

Correlative conjunctions are pairs of conjunctions that work together. Some examples are *either/or*, *neither/nor*, and *not only/but also*.

Not only am I finished studying for English, but I'm also finished writing my history essay. I am finished with both my English essay and my history essay.

Subordinating Conjunctions

Subordinating conjunctions join independent and dependent clauses. A subordinating conjunction can signal a cause-and-effect relationship, a contrast, or some other kind of relationship between the clauses. Common subordinating conjunctions are *because, since, as, although, though, while, and whereas*. Sometimes an adverb, such as *until, after, or before* can function as a conjunction.

I can stay out until the clock strikes twelve.

Here, the adverb *until* functions as a subordinating conjunction to connect two ideas: *I can stay out* (the independent clause) and *the clock strikes twelve* (the dependent clause). The independent clause could stand alone as a sentence; the dependent clause depends on the independent clause to make sense.

The subordinating conjunction doesn't need to go in the middle of the sentence. It has to be part of the dependent clause, but the dependent clause can come before the independent clause.

Before he leaves, make sure his room is clean.

If the dependent clause comes first, use a comma before the independent clause.

I drank a glass of water because I was thirsty. Because I was thirsty, I drank a glass of water.

Starting a Sentence with a Conjunction

Many of us were taught in school that it is an error to begin a sentence with a conjunction, but that rule is a myth. As mentioned above, a subordinating conjunction can begin a sentence if the dependent clause comes before the independent clause. It's also correct to begin a sentence with a coordinating conjunction. Often, it's a good way to add emphasis. Beginning too many sentences with conjunctions will cause the device to lose its force, however, so use this technique sparingly.

Have a safe trip. And don't forget to call when you get home. Gertie flung open the door. But there was no one on the other side.

List of Conjunctions

Coordinating Conjunctions

for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so

Correlative Conjunctions

both/and, either/or, neither/nor, not only/but, whether/or

Some Subordinating Conjunctions

after, although, as, as if, as long as, as much as, as soon as, as though, because, before, by the time, even if, even though, if, in order that, in case, in the event that, lest, now that, once, only, only if, provided that, since, so, supposing, that, than, though, till, unless, until, when, whenever, where, whereas, wherever, whether or not, while

11. Interjections

Interjection is a big name for a little word. Interjections are short exclamations like **Oh!**, **Um** or **Ah!** They have no real grammatical value but we use them quite often, usually more in speaking than in writing.

When interjections are inserted into a sentence, they have no grammatical connection to the sentence.

An interjection is sometimes followed by an exclamation mark (!) when written.

Here is a list of interjections with implied meanings and example sentences.

Interjections like **er** and **um** are also known as "hesitation devices". They are extremely common in English. People use them when they don't know what to say, or to indicate that they are thinking about what to say. You should learn to recognize them when you hear them and realize that they have no real meaning.

What is an Interjection?

interjection (noun): a part-of-speech that expresses emotion

An interjection is one of the 9 parts of speech.

An interjection is a short word or phrase that shows emotion. It often stands alone, unconnected to a sentence.

Typical interjections are:

- *Ah! Er. Hey. Ouch! Umm.*
- *My God! Bloody hell!*

And here are some interjections in context:

- **Hey!** Don't be so lazy!
- **Well,** let's think about it.
- **Ouch!** That hurts!
- Lima is the capital of...**er**...Peru.

Interjections are not normally used in formal writing, but they are common in speech (and therefore informal and fiction writing), where they show emotions such as anger, surprise and interest as well as convey hesitation.

Interjections are frequently followed by an exclamation mark (!), which itself is used to express emotion.

12. Articles

What Are Articles?

Articles are words that define a noun as specific or unspecific. Consider the following examples:

After the long day, the cup of tea tasted particularly good.

By using the article *the*, we've shown that it was one specific day that was long and one specific cup of tea that tasted good.

After a long day, a cup of tea tastes particularly good.

By using the article *a*, we've created a general statement, implying that any cup of tea would taste good after any long day.

English has two types of articles: definite and indefinite. Let's discuss them now in more detail.

The Definite Article

The definite article is the word *the*. It limits the meaning of a noun to one particular thing. For example, your friend might ask, "Are you going to **the** party this weekend?" The definite article tells you that your friend is referring to a specific party that both of you know about. The definite article can be used with singular, plural, or uncountable nouns. Below are some examples of the definite article *the* used in context:

Please give me the hammer.

Please give me the red hammer; the blue one is too small.

Please give me the nail.

Please give me the large nail; it's the only one strong enough to hold this painting.

Please give me the hammer and the nail.

The Indefinite Article

The indefinite article takes two forms. It's the word *a* when it precedes a word that begins with a consonant. It's the word *an* when it precedes a word that begins with a vowel. The indefinite article indicates that a noun refers to a general idea rather than a particular thing. For example, you might ask your friend, "Should I bring *a* gift to the party?" Your friend will understand that you are not asking about a specific type of gift or a specific item. "I am going to bring *an* apple pie," your friend tells you. Again, the indefinite article indicates that she is not talking about a specific apple pie. Your friend probably doesn't even have any pie yet. The indefinite article only appears with singular nouns. Consider the following examples of indefinite articles used in context:

Please hand me a book; any book will do.

Please hand me an autobiography; any autobiography will do.

Exceptions: Choosing A or An

There are a few exceptions to the general rule of using *a* before words that start with consonants and *an* before words that begin with vowels. The first letter of the word *honor*, for example, is a consonant, but it's unpronounced. In spite of its spelling, the word *honor* begins with a vowel sound. Therefore, we use *an*. Consider the example sentence below for an illustration of this concept.

My mother is a honest woman.

My mother is an honest woman.

Similarly, when the first letter of a word is a vowel but is pronounced with a consonant sound, use *a*, as in the sample sentence below:

She is an United States senator.

She is a United States senator.

This holds true with acronyms and initialisms, too: **an** LCD display, **a** UK-based company, **an** HR department, **a** URL.

Article Before an Adjective

Sometimes an article modifies a noun that is also modified by an adjective. The usual word order is article + adjective + noun. If the article is indefinite, choose *a* or *an* based on the word that immediately follows it. Consider the following examples for reference:

Eliza will bring a small gift to Sophie's party.

I heard an interesting story yesterday.

Indefinite Articles with Uncountable Nouns

Uncountable nouns are nouns that are either difficult or impossible to count. Uncountable nouns include intangible things (e.g., information, air), liquids (e.g., milk, wine), and things that are too large or numerous to count (e.g., equipment, sand, wood). Because these things can't be counted, you should never use **a** or **an** with them—remember, the indefinite article is only for singular nouns. Uncountable nouns can be modified by words like *some*, however. Consider the examples below for reference:

Please give me a water.

Water is an uncountable noun and should not be used with the indefinite article.

Please give me some water.

However, if you describe the water in terms of countable units (like bottles), you can use the indefinite article.

Please give me a bottle of water.

Please give me an ice.

Please give me an ice cube.
Please give me some ice .

Note that depending on the context, some nouns can be countable or uncountable (e.g., hair, noise, time):

We need a light in this room.
We need some light in this room.

Using Articles with Pronouns

Possessive pronouns can help identify whether you're talking about specific or nonspecific items. As we've seen, articles also indicate specificity. But if you use both a possessive pronoun and an article at the same time, readers will become confused. Possessive pronouns are words like *his*, *my*, *our*, *its*, *her*, and *their*. Articles should not be used with pronouns. Consider the examples below.

Why are you reading the my book?

The and *my* should not be used together since they are both meant to modify the same noun. Instead, you should use one or the other, depending on the intended meaning:

Why are you reading the book?
Why are you reading my book?

Omission of Articles

Occasionally, articles are omitted altogether before certain nouns. In these cases, the article is implied but not actually present. This implied article is sometimes called a “zero article.” Often, the article is omitted before nouns that refer to abstract ideas. Look at the following examples:

Let's go out for a dinner tonight.
Let's go out for dinner tonight.
The creativity is a valuable quality in children.
Creativity is a valuable quality in children.

Many languages and nationalities are not preceded by an article. Consider the example below:

I studied the French in high school for four years.
I studied French in high school for four years.

Sports and academic subjects do not require articles. See the sentences below for reference:

I like to play the baseball.
I like to play baseball.
My sister was always good at the math.
My sister was always good at math.

13. Sentences

4 Types of Sentence Structures

In the English language, there are four different types of sentence structures: simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex.

1. **Simple sentences:** A [simple sentence](#) contains a subject (a person or thing performing an action) and a predicate (a verb or verbal phrase that describes the action) and expresses a complete thought as an independent clause. Simple sentences do not contain dependent or subordinate clauses.
2. **Compound sentences:** A [compound sentence](#) is a sentence that contains two or more independent clauses joined by either a linking word, such as a conjunction, or a semicolon. Put simply, a compound sentence links together two simple sentences, which are sentences with one independent clause.
3. **Complex sentences:** A [complex sentence](#) is a sentence with one independent clause, also known as the main clause, and one or more dependent clauses, known as subordinate clauses. When the dependent clause is first in the sentence, a comma will connect the clauses. Other complex sentences link the independent and dependent clauses with subordinating conjunctions like “when,” “how,” and “if.”
4. **Compound-complex sentences:** A [compound-complex sentence](#) contains at least three clauses—two independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses—which equates to three sets of subjects and verbs. This type of sentence is a combination of a compound sentence with a complex sentence. Compound-complex sentences will typically be joined together with a coordinating conjunction as you would use in a compound sentence, with the comma placed immediately before the coordinating conjunction.

The 4 English Sentence Types

There are four types of English sentence, classified by their purpose:

- **declarative sentence** (statement)
- **interrogative sentence** (question)
- **imperative sentence** (command)
- **exclamative sentence** (exclamation)

Sentence types are sometimes called **clause types**.

form

function

example sentence (clause)

**final
punctuation**

- | | | | | |
|---|----------------------|---|--------------------------------|--------|
| 1 | declarative | statement: It tells us something | John likes Mary. | . |
| 2 | interrogative | question: It asks us something | Does Mary like John? | ? |
| 3 | imperative | command: It tells us to do something | Stop!
Close the door. | ! or . |
| 4 | exclamative | exclamation: It expresses surprise | What a funny story he told us! | ! |

(form = structure / function = job)

1. Declarative Sentence (statement)

Declarative sentences make a **statement**. They tell us something. They give us information, and they normally end with a full-stop/period.

The usual word order for the declarative sentence is:

- subject + verb...

Declarative sentences can be positive or negative. Look at these examples:

positive	negative
<i>I like coffee.</i>	<i>I do not like coffee.</i>
<i>We watched TV last night. We did not watch TV last night.</i>	

Declarative sentences are the most common type of sentence.

2. Interrogative Sentence (question)

Interrogative sentences ask a **question**. They ask us something. They want information, and they always end with a question mark.

The usual word order for the interrogative sentence is:

- (*wh-word* +) auxiliary + subject + verb...

Interrogative sentences can be positive or negative. Look at these examples:

positive	negative
<i>Do you like coffee? Don't you like coffee?</i>	
<i>Why did you go? Why didn't you go?</i>	

3. Imperative Sentence (command)

Imperative sentences give a **command**. They tell us to do something, and they end with a full-stop/period (.) or exclamation mark/point (!).

The usual word order for the imperative sentence is:

- base verb...

Note that there is usually no subject—because the subject is understood, it is *YOU*.

Imperative sentences can be positive or negative. Look at these examples:

positive

negative

Stop!

Do not stop!

Give her coffee. Don't give her coffee.

4. Exclamative Sentence (exclamation)

Exclamative sentences express strong emotion/surprise—an **exclamation**—and they always end with an exclamation mark/point (!).

The usual word order for the exclamative sentence is:

- *What* (+ adjective) + noun + subject + verb
- *How* (+ adjective/adverb) + subject + verb

Look at these examples:

- *What a liar he is!*
- *What an exciting movie it was!*
- *How he lied!*
- *How exciting the movie was!*

Note the form and function of the above four types. In general, we use the declarative form to make a statement. We use the interrogative form to ask a question. We use the imperative form to issue a command. We use the exclamative form to make an exclamation.

But function and form do not always coincide, especially with a change in intonation. For example, we can use the declarative form to give a command—*You will now start the exam.* Or we can use the interrogative form to make an exclamation—*Wow, can Jo play the piano!* We can even ask a question with the declarative form—*Bangkok is in Thailand?* So it is important to recognize this and not be confused when the function does not always match the form.

Tag Questions

A tag question is a special construction in English. It is a statement followed by a mini-question. We use tag questions to ask for confirmation. They mean something like: "Is that right?" or "Do you agree?" They are very common in English.

The basic structure of a tag question is:

positive statement

Snow is white,

negative tag

isn't it?

negative statement

positive tag

You don't like me, do you?

Notice that the tag repeats the auxiliary verb (or main verb when *be*) from the statement and changes it to negative or positive.

Positive Statement Tag Questions

Look at these examples with **positive statements**. You will see that most of the time, the auxiliary verb from the positive statement is repeated in the tag and changed to negative.

(+) positive statement

(-) negative tag

subject	auxiliary	main verb		auxiliary	not	personal pronoun same as subject
You	are	coming,		are	n't	you?
We	have	finished,		have	n't	we?
You	do	like	coffee,	do	n't	you?
You		like	coffee,	do	n't	you?
They	will	help,		wo	n't	they?
I	can	come,		can	't	I?
We	must	go,		must	n't	we?
He	should	try	harder,	should	n't	he?
You		are	English,	are	n't	you?
John		was	there,	was	n't	he?

Notice:

- the use of *do* in the two coffee questions. Remember that in Present Simple, *do* is optional in positive statements (*You like coffee/You do like coffee*). But the *do* must appear in the tag. The same applies to Past Simple *did*.
- in last two questions, no auxiliary for main verb *be* in Present Simple and Past Simple. The tag repeats the main verb.

Negative Statement Tag Questions

Look at these examples with **negative statements**. Notice that the negative verb in the original statement is changed to positive in the tag.

subject	auxiliary	main verb		auxiliary	personal pronoun same as subject
It	is	n't	raining,	is	it?

We	have	never	seen	that,	have	we?
You	do	n't	like	coffee,	do	you?
They	will	not	help,		will	they?
They	wo	n't	report	us,	will	they?
I	can	never	do	it right,	can	I?
We	must	n't	tell	her,	must	we?
He	should	n't	drive	so fast,	should	he?
You	wo	n't	be	late,	will	you?
You			are	n't	English	are you?
					,	
John			was	not	there,	was he?

Notice:

- *won't* is the contracted form of *will not*
- the tag repeats the auxiliary verb, not the main verb. Except, of course, for the verb *be* in Present Simple and Past Simple.

Answering Tag Questions

How do we answer a tag question? Often, we just say *Yes* or *No*. Sometimes we may repeat the tag and reverse it (They don't live here, *do they?* Yes, *they do*). Be very careful about answering tag questions. In some languages, an opposite system of answering is used, and non-native English speakers sometimes answer in the wrong way. This can lead to a lot of confusion!

Answer a tag question according to the **truth** of the situation. Your answer reflects the real facts, not (necessarily) the question.

For example, everyone knows that snow is white. Look at these questions, and the correct answers:

tag question	correct answer	notes
Snow is white, isn't it?	Yes (it is).	Answer is same in both cases
Snow isn't white, is it?	Yes it is!	- because snow <i>is white!</i>
Snow is black, isn't it?	No it isn't!	But notice change of stress when answerer does not agree with questioner.
Snow isn't black, is it?	No (it isn't).	Answer is same in both cases (it - because snow <i>is not black!</i>)

In some languages, people answer a question like "Snow isn't black, is it?" with "Yes" (meaning "Yes, I agree with you"). This is the **wrong answer** in English!

Here are some more examples, with correct answers:

- The moon goes round the earth, doesn't it? Yes, it does.
- The earth is bigger than the moon, isn't it? Yes.
- The earth is bigger than the sun, isn't it? **No**, it **isn't**!
- Asian people don't like rice, do they? **Yes**, they **do**!
- Elephants live in Europe, don't they? **No**, they **don't**!
- Men don't have babies, do they? No.
- The English alphabet doesn't have 40 letters, does it? No, it doesn't.

Tag Question Special Cases

Negative adverbs

The adverbs *never*, *rarely*, *seldom*, *hardly*, *barely* and *scarcely* have a negative sense. Even though they may be in a positive statement, the feeling of the statement is negative. We treat statements with these words like negative statements, so the question tag is normally positive. Look at these examples:

positive statement

treated as *negative statement*

He **never** came again,

She can **rarely** come these days,

You **hardly** ever came late,

I **barely** know you,

You would **scarcely** expect her to know that, would you?

positive tag

did he?

can she?

did you?

do I?

Intonation

We can change the *meaning* of a tag question with the musical pitch of our voice. With rising intonation, it sounds like a real question. But if our intonation falls, it sounds more like a statement that doesn't require a real answer:

intonation

You don't know where my wallet is, do you? / rising real question

It's a beautiful view, isn't it? \ falling not a real question

Imperatives

Sometimes we use question tags with imperatives (invitations, orders), but the sentence remains an imperative and does not require a direct answer. We use *won't* for invitations. We use *can*, *can't*, *will*, *would* for orders.

imperative + question tag *notes*

Take a seat, won't you? polite invitation

Help me, can you? quite friendly

Help me, can't you? quite friendly (some irritation?)

Close the door, would you? quite polite

Do it now, will you. less polite

Don't forget, will you. with negative imperatives only *will* is possible

Same-way tag questions

Although the basic structure of tag questions is positive-negative or negative-positive, it is sometimes possible to use a positive-positive or negative-negative structure. We use same-way tag questions to express interest, surprise, anger etc, and not to make real questions.

Look at these positive-positive tag questions:

- So you're having a baby, are you? That's wonderful!
- She wants to marry him, does she? Some chance!
- So you think that's funny, do you? Think again.

Negative-negative tag questions usually sound rather hostile:

- So you don't like my looks, don't you? (British English)

Asking for information or help

Notice that we often use tag questions to ask for information or help, starting with a negative statement. This is quite a friendly/polite way of making a request. For example, instead of saying "Where is the police station?" (not very polite), or "Do you know where the police station is?" (slightly more polite), we could say: "You wouldn't know where the police station is, would you?" Here are some more examples:

- You don't know of any good jobs, do you?
- You couldn't help me with my homework, could you?
- You haven't got \$10 to lend me, have you?

Some more special cases

example	notes
I am right, aren't I?	aren't I (<i>not amn't</i> I)
You have to go, don't you?	you (do) have to go...
I have been answering, haven't I?	use first auxiliary
Nothing came in the post, did it?	treat statements with <i>nothing, nobody etc</i> like negative statements
Let's go, shall we?	<i>let's = let us</i>
He'd better do it, hadn't he?	he had better (no auxiliary)

Mixed Examples of Tag Questions

Here is a list of examples of tag questions in different contexts. Notice that some are "normal" and others seem to break all the rules:

- But you don't really love her, do you?
- This'll work, won't it?

- Oh you think so, do you?
- Well, I couldn't help it, could I?
- But you'll tell me if she calls, won't you?
- We'd never have known, would we?
- Oh you do, do you?
- The weather's bad, isn't it?
- You won't be late, will you?
- Nobody knows, do they?
- You never come on time, do you?
- You couldn't help me, could you?
- You think you're clever, do you?
- So you don't think I can do it, don't you? (British English)
- Shut up, will you!
- She can hardly love him after all that, can she?
- Nothing will happen, will it?

Subject-Verb Agreement

NOTE

We will use the standard of underlining subjects once and verbs twice.

Being able to find the right subject and verb will help you correct errors of subject-verb agreement.

Basic Rule. A singular subject (*she, Bill, car*) takes a singular verb (*is, goes, shines*), whereas a plural subject takes a plural verb.

Example: *The list of items is/are on the desk.*

If you know that *list* is the subject, then you will choose *is* for the verb.

Exceptions to the Basic rule:

a. The first person pronoun *I* takes a plural verb (*I go, I drive*).

b. The basic form of the verb is used after certain main verbs such as *watch, see, hear, feel, help, let, and make*. (*He watched Ronaldo score the winning goal*).

Rule 1. A subject will come before a phrase beginning with *of*. This is a key rule for understanding subjects. The word *of* is the culprit in many, perhaps most, subject-verb mistakes.

Hasty writers, speakers, readers, and listeners might miss the all-too-common mistake in the following sentence:

Incorrect: A bouquet of yellow roses lend color and fragrance to the room.

Correct: A bouquet of yellow roses lends . . . (bouquet lends, not roses lend)

Rule 2. Two singular subjects connected by *or*, *either/or*, or *neither/nor* require a singular verb.

Examples:

My aunt or my uncle is arriving by train today.

Neither Juan nor Carmen is available.

Either Kiana or Casey is helping today with stage decorations.

Rule 3. The verb in an *or*, *either/or*, or *neither/nor* sentence agrees with the noun or pronoun closest to it.

Examples:

Neither the plates nor the serving bowl goes on that shelf.

Neither the serving bowl nor the plates go on that shelf.

This rule can lead to bumps in the road. For example, if *I* is one of two (or more) subjects, it could lead to this odd sentence:

Awkward: Neither she, my friends, nor I am going to the festival.

If possible, it's best to reword such grammatically correct but awkward sentences.

Better:

Neither she, I, nor my friends are going to the festival.

OR

She, my friends, and I are not going to the festival.

Rule 4. As a general rule, use a plural verb with two or more subjects when they are connected by *and*.

Example: *A car and a bike are my means of transportation.*

But note these exceptions:

Exceptions:

Breaking and entering is against the law.

The bed and breakfast was charming.

In those sentences, *breaking and entering* and *bed and breakfast* are compound nouns.

NOTE

Some think it is incorrect to place a personal pronoun first in a multi-subject sentence.

Examples:

I, my dad, and my step-mom are going to the movies.

She and Orville bought a dog.

While not grammatically incorrect per se, it is a courtesy to place the pronoun last, except when awkward to do so as shown under *Rule 3* above.

Rule 5a. Sometimes the subject is separated from the verb by such words as *along with*, *as well as*, *besides*, *not*, etc. These words and phrases are not part of the subject. Ignore them and use a singular verb when the subject is singular.

Examples:

The politician, along with the newsmen, is expected shortly.

Excitement, as well as nervousness, is the cause of her shaking.

Rule 5b Parentheses are not part of the subject.

Example: *Joe (and his trusty mutt) was always welcome.*

If this seems awkward, try rewriting the sentence.

Rule 6. In sentences beginning with *here* or *there*, the true subject follows the verb.

Examples:

There are four hurdles to jump.

There is a high hurdle to jump.

Here are the keys.

NOTE:

The word *there's*, a contraction of *there is*, leads to bad habits in informal sentences like *There's a lot of people here today*, because it's easier to say "there's" than "there are." Take care never to use *there's* with a plural subject.

Rule 7. Use a singular verb with distances, periods of time, sums of money, etc., when considered as a unit.

Examples:

*Three miles **is** too far to walk.*

*Five years **is** the maximum sentence for that offense.*

*Ten dollars **is** a high price to pay.*

BUT

*Ten dollars (i.e., dollar bills) **were** scattered on the floor.*

Rule 8a. With words that indicate portions—e.g., *a lot*, *a majority*, *some*, *all*—Rule 1 given earlier in this section is reversed, and we are guided by the noun after *of*. If the noun after *of* is singular, use a singular verb. If it is plural, use a plural verb.

Examples:

*A lot of the **pie** has disappeared.*

*A lot of the **pies** have disappeared.*

*Fifty percent of the **pie** has disappeared.*

*Fifty percent of the **pies** have disappeared.*

*A third of the **city** is unemployed.*

*A third of the **people** are unemployed.*

*All of the **pie** is gone.*

*All of the **pies** are gone.*

*Some of the **pie** is missing.*
*Some of the **pies** are missing.*

NOTE

Some teachers, editors, and the SAT testing service, perhaps for convenience, have considered *none* to be strictly singular. However, authorities agree that *none* has been both singular and plural since Old English and still is. If in context it seems like a singular to you, use a singular verb; if it seems like a plural, use a plural verb. When *none* is clearly intended to mean "not one," it is followed by a singular verb.

Rule 8b. With **collective nouns** such as *group, jury, family, audience, population*, the verb might be singular or plural, depending on the writer's intent.

Examples:

*All of my **family** has arrived OR have arrived.*

*Most of the **jury** is here OR are here.*

*A third of the **population** was not in favor OR were not in favor of the bill.*

NOTE

Anyone who uses a plural verb with a collective noun must take care to be accurate—and also consistent. It must not be done carelessly. The following is the sort of flawed sentence one sees and hears a lot these days:

The staff is deciding how they want to vote.

Careful speakers and writers would avoid assigning the singular *is* and the plural *they* to *staff* in the same sentence.

*Consistent: The staff **are** deciding how **they** want to vote.*

Rewriting such sentences is recommended whenever possible. The preceding sentence would read even better as:

The staff members are deciding how they want to vote.

Rule 9. The word *were* replaces *was* in sentences that express a wish or are contrary to fact:

*Example: If Joe **were** here, you'd be sorry.*

Shouldn't *Joe* be followed by *was*, not *were*, given that *Joe* is singular? But *Joe* isn't actually here, so we say *were*, not *was*. The sentence demonstrates the subjunctive mood, which is used to express a hypothetical, wishful, imaginary, or factually contradictory thought. The subjunctive mood pairs singular subjects with what we usually think of as plural verbs.

Examples:

*I wish it **were** Friday.*

*She requested that he **raise** his hand.*

*The foreman demanded that Joe **wear** safety goggles.*

In the first example, a wishful statement, not a fact, is being expressed; therefore, *were*, which

we usually think of as a plural verb, is used with the singular *it*. (Technically, *it* is the singular subject of the object clause in the subjunctive mood: *it were Friday*.)

Normally, *he raise* would sound terrible to us. However, in the second example, where a request is being expressed, the subjunctive mood is correct.

Note: The subjunctive mood is losing ground in spoken English but should still be used in formal speech and writing.

14. Voice

"Voice" is a grammatical category that applies to verbs. Voice in English expresses the relationship of the subject to the action. Voice has two values:

- **active:** the subject does the action
- **passive:** the subject receives the action

The **active voice** is the "normal" voice - the one that we use most of the time. In the active voice, the **object** receives the action of the verb:

	subject	verb	object
active		→	
	Cats	eat	mice.

The **passive voice** is less common. In the passive voice, the **subject** receives the action of the verb:

	subject	verb	object
passive	←		
	Mice	are eaten	by cats.

See how the **object** of the active verb becomes the **subject** of the passive verb:

	subject	verb	object
active	Everybody	drinks	water.
passive	Water	is drunk	by everybody.

Active Voice

Cats eat mice.

The active voice is the "normal" voice of an English sentence. Intransitive verbs (verbs with no direct object) are always in the active voice. Transitive verbs are usually in the active voice:

subject	verb	
Johnny	laughed.	
Anton	got up	late.
People	drink	water.

In the active voice, the subject is the person or thing responsible for the action of the verb.

All tenses are possible in the active voice, as well as all sentence types, positive, negative or question.

Use of active

The active voice is the "default" voice in English. All intransitive verbs can only be in the active voice, and all transitive verbs usually are active voice - unless we deliberately make them passive.

In spoken English, we almost always use active voice. It is the natural choice, more precise and generally shorter.

In written English, active voice is usually easier and more interesting for the reader. Passive voice can sound dull and bureaucratic, and is typical of official writing. In the interests of "plain English" that the average person can understand, many governments now encourage civil servants to write in the active voice.

The active voice is:

- direct and specific
- uses fewer words - always a good thing
- dynamic

Except on occasions when the passive voice is actually useful, the active voice is the voice of choice.

Passive Voice

Mice are eaten by cats.

Although the passive voice is less common than the active voice, there are several good reasons to sometimes use the passive. On this page we look at how to construct the passive voice and when and why to use it.

How do we make the passive?

The basic structure of a **passive** clause is very simple:

subject + $\begin{matrix} \text{auxiliary verb} \\ be \end{matrix}$ + $\begin{matrix} \text{main verb} \\ \text{past participle} \end{matrix}$ + *by* + agent
optional

The auxiliary *be* is conjugated in all tenses. The main verb is always the past participle. The agent is the original "doer" of the action.

Look at some examples:

subject	auxiliary verb <i>be</i>	main verb <i>past participle</i>	by
I	am	employed	by Apple.
You	will be	woken	at 6.
It	will have been	finished	by then.
We	have been	notified	by Head Office.
You	are being	transferred	next week.
They	will be	paid.	

Notice above↑:

- auxiliary *be* can be conjugated for all persons and tenses
- main verb is invariable: *past participle*
- if there is an agent (*Apple, Head Office*), it is introduced by *by*

Agentless passive

The subject of an active sentence "does" the action. In a passive sentence, we express the doer (or agent) through a *by* phrase (the long passive) or, very often, we remove it completely (the short passive). In the following example, the agent is "the Allies":

active		The Allies firebombed Dresden.
passive	long	Dresden was firebombed by the Allies.
	short	Dresden was firebombed.

The short passive is also known as the "agentless passive". Soon you will see how useful it can be.

Negatives and questions

The table below shows examples of the passive with negative sentences, question sentences and negative-question sentences:

		subject		auxiliary verb <i>be</i>		main verb <i>past participle</i>	
-		You		are	not	paid	To watch YouTube.
		They	will never	be		employed	by us.
	Are	they				cleaned	regularly?
?	Has	your wallet		been		stolen?	
	Is	he			not	notified	immediately?
-?	Will	they	not	be		dismissed?	

subject	auxiliary verb <i>be</i>	main verb <i>past participle</i>
Haven't they	been	forgotten?

Notice above↑:

- position of auxiliary *be* or first auxiliary for questions
- possible positions of *not*, *n't*, *never* to create negation

Use of the passive

When and why do we use passive voice?

There are several times when the passive voice is useful, and usually the decision has to do with the "doer" (agent) or the "receiver" of the action. For example, we use the passive when:

1. we want to emphasize the receiver of the action:

- *President Kennedy was killed by Lee Harvey Oswald.*
cf: *Lee Harvey Oswald killed President Kennedy.*

2. we don't know who did the action (the agent):

- *My wallet has been stolen.*
cf: *Somebody has stolen my wallet.*

3. we think the agent is not important or interesting:

- *Our house is being painted.*
cf: *XYZ Company is painting our house.*

4. the agent is obvious:

- *I am paid weekly.*
cf: *My company pays me weekly.*

5. we are making general statements or announcements:

- *Passengers are reminded to fasten their seatbelts.*
cf: *The Captain reminds passengers to fasten their seatbelts.*

6. the agent is everyone:

- *The emergency services can be called by dialling 999.*
cf: *The public can call the emergency services by dialling 999.*

7. we are writing formal or scientific texts:

- *Potassium was added and mixed in. The solution was heated to 80°C and then allowed to cool.*

cf: *The technician added potassium and mixed it in. The technician heated the solution to 80°C and then allowed it to cool.*

8. we want to avoid responsibility for our own actions (typically found in government reports):

- *Mistakes were made and unfortunately never rectified.*
cf: *The Prime Minister made mistakes and unfortunately never rectified them.*

Look at this sentence:

- He was killed **with** a gun.

Normally we use **by** to introduce the agent. But the gun is not the original doer of the action. The gun did not kill him. He was killed **by** somebody **with** a gun. In the active voice, it would be: *Somebody killed him with a gun.* Somebody is the agent. The gun is the instrument.

The *get*-passive

Although we normally construct the passive with *be* + *past participle*, it is also possible (in informal language) to use *get* + *past participle*. So if France beat England at football, we could turn this to passive and say "England were beaten by France" (*be*-passive) or "England got beaten by France" (*get*-passive). And we might also add: "But France will get thrashed by Russia."

For formal English and exams you should use the *be*-passive, but in informal language people sometimes use the *get*-passive.

Forms of passive

The passive voice is not a tense itself. But for transitive verbs each tense, as well as other verb forms such as infinitives and participles, can be produced in the passive voice. Some of the more complicated tenses (mostly perfect continuous) are rarely used in the passive, but they are possible.

Here are some examples of the passive voice with many of the possible forms using the verb *sing*:

infinitive	to be sung
perfect infinitive	to have been sung
participle	sung
perfect participle	having been sung
gerund	being sung

	Simple	Continuous	Perfect
Present	am, are, is sung	am, are, is being sung	have, has been sung
Past	was, were sung	was, were being sung	had been sung
Future	will be sung	will be being sung	will have been sung

Active and Passive Examples

The table below shows example sentences in active and passive voice for the basic tenses as well as various other verb forms, including infinitives and participles.

active

passive

Present Simple

How does one *pronounce* his name? How *is* his name *pronounced*?

Present Continuous

Ati's *helping* Tara.

Tara's *being helped* by Ati.

Present Perfect

Kid *has served* dinner.

Dinner *has been served*.

Present Perfect Continuous

The police *have been watching* that house for weeks. That house *has been being watched* for weeks.

Past Simple

They *didn't fix* my phone yesterday. My phone *wasn't fixed* yesterday.

Past Continuous

They *were interrogating* him when I called. He *was being interrogated* when I called.

Past Perfect

I wondered why they *hadn't invited* me. I wondered why I *hadn't been invited*.

Past Perfect Continuous

She wasn't sure how long they'd *been following* her. She wasn't sure how long she'd *been being followed*.*

Future Simple

They *will hang* him at dawn. He *will be hanged* at dawn.

Future Continuous

They *won't be questioning* him when you get there. He *won't be being questioned* when you get there.

Future Perfect

They *will have repaired* your car by 7pm. Your car *will have been repaired* by 7pm.

Future Perfect Continuous

They'll *have been treating* her for exactly three months tomorrow. She'll *have been being treated* for exactly three months tomorrow.*

infinitive

I don't want anyone *to disturb* me. I don't want *to be disturbed*.

perfect infinitive

They seem *to have taken* it. It seems *to have been taken*.

participle

I saw the cat *eating* it.

I saw it *being eaten* by the cat.

perfect participle

Having finished my work, I went home. My work *having been finished*, I went home.

gerund

I insisted on them *paying* me.

I insisted on *being paid*.

going to

Is he going *to sing* Thriller at the party? Is Thriller going *to be sung* at the party?

used to

Ram *used to take care of* everything. Everything *used to be taken care of* by Ram.

can

They can *question* him for six hours. He can *be questioned* for six hours.

could

It could *have badly hurt* you.

You could *have been badly hurt*.

may

The papers say they may *release* him. The papers say he may *be released*.

might

Somebody might *buy* it.

It might *be bought*.

must

Passengers must *wear* seat belts.

Seat belts must *be worn*.

should

You should *have told* me.

I should *have been told*.

ought to

They ought *to forgive* him.

He ought *to be forgiven*.

*possible but rather awkward and therefore rare

15. Narration

What Is Narration?

When we express someone's words in our own words, it is called – “**Indirect Speech**” and when we express someone's words as it is, it is called – “**Direct Speech**”.

Example: They said, “We will be partying tonight.” (Direct Speech)

They said that they would be partying that night. (Indirect Speech)

Some of the rules for changing “Direct Speech” into “Indirect Speech” are:

1. Reporting verb is changed according to the form and sense of the sentence.
2. Inverted commas are removed in the indirect-speech.
3. Connective word is used in the beginning of the reported speech.
4. Verb of the reported speech is changed according to the form and sense of the sentence.
5. Persons & Helping Verbs of the reported speech are changed.

Rules of change of Pronouns

Nominative Possessive Objective Reflexive

I	My	Me	Myself
We	Our	Us	Ourselves
You	Yours	You	Yourself
He	His	Him	Himself
She	Her	Her	Herself
They	Their	Them	Themselves

Pronouns are changed as per the **SON rule** where **SON** refers to:

- **S** stands for **Subject**
- **O** stands for **Object**
- **N** stands for **No change**.

1. Here, First person changes to subject of Reporting Verb
2. Second person changes to Object of Reporting Verb

3. There is no change if it is a Third person.

Rule No 1.

1st Person of pronoun of Reported speech is changed according to the Subject of Reporting verb of the sentence.

Direct: He says, "I am in ninth class."

Indirect: He says that she is in ninth class.

Rule No 2.

2nd Person of pronoun of Reported speech is changed according to Object of Reporting verb in the sentence.

Direct: He says to me, "you have done your work"

Indirect: He tells me that I have done my work.

Rule No 3.

3rd Person of Pronoun of Reported speech is not changed.

Direct: She says, "He does not work hard"

Indirect: She says that he does not work hard.

Rules of change of verb or Tense

Rule No.1

When reporting verb is given **in Present or Future** tense then there will be **no change** in the verb or tense of Reported speech in the sentence.

Direct: The teacher says, "Ram performs on the stage"

Indirect: The teacher says that Ram performs on the stage.

Direct: The teacher is saying, "Ram performs on the stage"

Indirect: The teacher is saying that Ram performs on the stage.

Rule No.2

When the reporting verb is given **in Past** tense then the tense of the verb of Reported Speech will change into corresponding **Past tense**.

Direct: The teacher said, "I am suffering from cancer."

Indirect: The teacher said that she was suffering from cancer.

Changes from past form in **an indirect speech** from the **verb in Reported speech**.

1. **Simple present** changes to **Simple Past**
2. **Present Continuous** changes to **Past Continuous**
3. **Present Perfect** changes to **Past Perfect**
4. **Present Perfect Continuous** changes to **Past Perfect Continuous**
5. **Simple Past** changes to **Past Perfect**
6. **Past Continuous** changes to **Past Perfect Continuous**

7. **In Future Tense will/Shall** changes to **would**
8. **Can** changes to **Could**
9. **May** changes to **Might**

Exceptional cases of Rule 2

Exception 1:

When the Reporting speech has **Universal Truth** or **Habitual fact** then there is no change in the Tense.

Direct: Our teacher said, "The Mars is round"

Indirect: Our teacher said that the mars is round.(Universal Truth)

Exception 2:

When the reporting speech has **Past Historical Fact** then there is no change in the Tense.

Exception 3:

When the Reporting speech has **two actions to be happening at a time when** there is no change in the Tense.

Direct: He said "My sister was making lunch when I was studying"

Indirect: He said that his sister was making lunch when she was studying.

Exception 4:

When Reporting speech has some **Imagined Condition** then there is no change in the Tense.

Direct: He said, "If I were rich, I would help him."

Indirect: He said that if he were rich he would help him.

Some other changes that take place when we change Direct Speech to Indirect Speech.

Here	Changes to There
Now	Changes to Then
This	Changes to That
These	Changes to Those
Today	Changes to That day
To-night	Changes to That night
Yesterday	Changes to The previous day
Last night	Changes to The previous night
Last week	Changes to The previous week
Tomorrow	Changes to The next day
Next Week	Changes to The following week
Ago	Changes to Before
Thus	Changes to so
Hence	Changes to Thence
Hither	Changes to Thither

Come Changes to Go

Note:-In an indirect speech we talk about such incidents that have happened after the time of reporting and had happened away from the place of reporting therefore the words that show nearness has to be replaced by the words that show distance.

Exception in these changes

1. **Come** is changed to **go** if there is some word given after **come** that shows nearness.
2. When **this, here** and **now** points to such a thing, place or time that is in front of the speaker then no change takes place in Indirect Narration.

Rules for Change in Narration of different type of sentences

Assertive Sentences

Rule 1

- When there is no object in the subject after Reporting verb there it should not be changed.
- When there is some object in a sentence after Reporting verb then **say** is changed to **tell, says to tells** and **said to told**.
- As per the context **said to** can be replaced by replied, informed, stated, added, remarked, asserted, assured, pleaded, reminded, reported or complained etc.

Rule 2

- We put conjunction that in place of “ ”.
- We generally Change the pronouns of the Reported speech as enlisted earlier.

Examples –

Direct: He said to me, “I shall sleep now”

Indirect: He told me that he would play then.

Interrogative Sentences

Rule 1

- When an interrogative sentence is meant to ask questions, then reporting verb **said/said to** is changed to **asked**.
- We change **Said to** into **enquired** or **demand**

Rule 2

- When a question is formed with the help of any of the helping verbs like is/are/am, was/were, has/have, do/does, will/would etc then “___” are to be replaced by **if** or **whether**
- When the question is formed with the help of words starting with “Wh” like who, whose, what, whom, when etc (also known as W family) or How then to replace “___” **no conjunction** is used.

Rule 3

- In such sentences **question form** of the sentence is removed and **full-stop** is put at the end of the sentence.
- The Helping verb is /are/am, was/were etc should be put after the subject in a sentence.
- When the interrogative sentence is expressing positive feeling then do/does of the Direct speech is removed while converting it into Indirect speech in a sentence.
- When the interrogative sentence is expressing negative feeling then do/does of the Direct speech is changed into did while converting it into Indirect speech in a sentence.

Module II

1. Commonly Mis-Spelt Words

This is a list of hard to spell words, showing their correct spelling with spelling advice and common misspellings. These spellings are consistent for British and American English.

correct spelling	notes	misspelling
absence	-s-, -nce	absense, abseence
accommodate, accommodation	-cc-, -mm-	accomodate, accomodation
achieve	i before e	acheive
across	one c	accross
aggressive	-gg-	agressive
apparently	-ent-	apparantly
appearance	-ance	appearence
argument	no e after u	arguement
assassination	-ss-, -ss-	assasination
basically	-ally	basicly
beginning	-nn-	begining
believe	i before e	beleive, belive
business	busi-	buisness
calendar	-ar	calender
Caribbean	-r-, -bb-	Carribean
category	e in middle	catagory
cemetery	-ery	cemetary
colleague	-ea-	collegue
coming	one m	comming
committee	-mm-, -tt-, -ee-	commitee
completely	-ely	completly
conscience	-sc-	conciience
conscious	-sc-	conciious
copyright	-right	copywrite

correct spelling	notes	misspelling
curiosity	-os-	euriosity
definitely	-ite- not -ate-	definatly
disappear	-s-, -pp-	dissapear
disappoint	-s-, -pp-	dissapoint
ecstasy	-sy	ecstaey
embarrass	-rr-, -ss	embarass
environment	-nm-	enviroment
existence	-ence	existancee
familiar	-iar	familar
finally	-ll-	finaly
fluorescent	fluor-	florescent
foreign	e before i	foriegn
forty	for-	fourty
forward	for-	foward
friend	i before e	freind
further	fur-	futher
glamorous	-mor-	glamourous
government	-nm-	goverment
grammar	-ar	grammer
gauge	-au-	guage
grateful	grat-	greatful
guard	gua-	gaurd
happened	-ened	happend
harass, harassment	-r-, -ss	harrass, harrassment
honorary	-nor-	honourary
humorous	-mor-	humourous
immediately	-ely	immediatly
incidentally	-ally	incidently

correct spelling	notes	misspelling
independent	-ent	independant
interrupt	-rr-	interupt
irresistible	-ible	irresistable

2. Idioms

What exactly is an idiom?

An idiom is a statement or expression whose meaning differs from the literal meaning of its words. "Idioms mean something different than individual words," to put it another way.

E.g. 'I have a skeleton in my closet.' This Idiom does not mean that you have a dead body or skeleton in your cupboard. It means that you have something to hide, a secret that might cause embarrassment.

List of 20 Idioms with their Meanings And Idioms Sentences

1- Idiom: Apple of someone's eyes

- **Meaning:** a person or thing that someone loves very much
- **Sentence:** His youngest daughter is the **apple of his eye** as she is his firstborn.

2- Idiom: A left-handed compliment

- **Meaning:** An insult in the pretense of expression of appreciation.
- **Sentence:** She said she liked my hair, but it turned out to be a **left-handed compliment** when she asked how long I'd been dyeing it.

3- Idiom: A sight for sore eyes

- **Meaning:** a person or thing that one is extremely pleased or relieved to see.
- **Sentence:** After being away from home for so long, my friends and family were a **sight for my sore eyes**.

4- Idiom: Bread and Butter

- **Meaning:** someone's livelihood
- **Sentence:** Coaching football and basketball to young boys and girls is her **bread and butter**.

5- Idiom: Back to Square one

- **Meaning:** Having to start all over again; start working on a plan from the beginning because your previous attempt failed completely
- **Sentence:** After days of working hard on the college project, because of the computer failure we are **back to square one**.

6- **Idiom:** Call a spade a spade

- **Meaning:** Speak frankly and directly
- **Sentence:** After hours of discussion and meetings, I believe it's time to **call a spade a spade**.

7- **Idiom:** Down to earth

- **Meaning:** simple, decent, realistic; practical, and straightforward.
- **Sentence:** She is very **down to earth**, not at all attracted by the glamour world.

8- **Idiom:** Empty vessels make the most noise

- **Meaning:** Those who know or have little knowledge often shout the loudest
- **Sentence:** Ram tells as if he's an expert on everything, but empty vessels make the most noise.

9- **Idiom:** Flesh and blood

- **Meaning:** Human nature, a normal human being
- **Sentence:** This baby is his mother's flesh and blood

10- **Idiom:** Good Samaritan

- **Meaning:** A person who unselfishly helps others,
- **Sentence:** He's such a **good samaritan** that he helped the accident victim reach the hospital.

11- **Idiom:** Hit the bull's eye

- **Meaning:** get something exactly right, or be on target.
- **Sentence:** The finance minister's speech on attracting new investments **hit the bull's eye** as can be seen by increasing FDI.

12- **Idiom:** In the good books

- **Meaning:** be in somebody's favor or good opinion.
- **Sentence:** The fact that he always managed to be **in the good books** of the bosses surprised one and all.

13- **Idiom:** Jam on the brakes

- **Meaning:** to press the brakes suddenly and in a hard way.
- **Sentence:** I had to **jam on the brakes** because a kid suddenly appeared from nowhere and crossed the road.

14- **Idiom:** Let the cat out of the bag

- **Meaning:** To share a secret that wasn't supposed to be shared.
- **Sentence:** Ramesh **let the cat out of the bag** about my surprise birthday party.

15- **Idiom:** Make a beeline for

- **Meaning:** To hurry directly toward someone or something
- **Sentence:** When ram enters a party, he always **makes a beeline for** the dessert section.

16- **Idiom:** Notch up

- **Meaning:** to achieve something like a win or a record
- **Sentence:** Rafael Nadal **notched up** another win this week, so he's now won six matches in a row.

17- **Idiom:** Once bitten, twice shy

- **Meaning:** Afraid of doing a thing again
- **Sentence:** After he left her she refused to go out with anyone else for a long time - once bitten, twice shy, I suppose.

18- **Idiom:** Put the cart before the horse

- **Meaning:** To put a thing in the wrong order.
- **Sentence:** Mohit always puts the cart before the horse, when he practices maths.

19- **Idiom:** A slap on the wrist

- **Meaning:** A small punishment
- **Sentence:** Samar got away with a slap on the wrist after defacing the school property.

20- **Idiom:** Set one's teeth on edge

- **Meaning:** to induce an unpleasant sensation, to repel, irritate
- **Sentence:** The noise of the machine in the next room set my teeth on edge.

3. One Word Substitution

One-word substitution is the use of one word in place of a wordy phrase in order to make the sentence structure clearer. The meaning, with the replacement of the phrase remains identical while the sentence becomes shorter.

One Word Substitution Example:

My friend drives me in a car around town. Using one-word substitution in this sentence would give something like this – My friend chauffeurs me around town.

One Word Substitution	Generic terms
An act of abdicating or renouncing the throne	Abdication
An annual calendar containing important dates and statistical information such as astronomical data and tide tables	Almanac

A cold-blooded vertebrate animal that is born in water and breathes with gills	Amphibian
A story, poem, or picture that can be interpreted to reveal a hidden meaning, typically a moral or political one	Allegory
A statement or proposition on which an abstractly defined structure is based	Axiom
A nation or person engaged in war or conflict, as recognized by international law	Belligerent
An examination of tissue removed from a living body to discover the presence, cause or extent of a disease	Biopsy
The action or offence of speaking sacrilegiously about God or sacred things; profane talk	Blasphemy
The arrangement of events or dates in the order of their occurrence	Chronology
A vigorous campaign for political, social, or religious change	Crusade
Lasting for a very short time	Ephemeral
Spoken or done without preparation	Extempore
Release someone from a duty or obligation	Exonerate
Fond of company	Gregarious
Making marks that cannot be removed	Indelible
Incapable of making mistakes or being wrong	Infallible
Certain to happen	Inevitable
A sentimental longing or wistful affection for a period in the past	Nostalgia
A solution or remedy for all difficulties or diseases	Panacea
A doctrine which identifies God with the universe	Pantheism
Excessively concerned with minor details or rules	Pedantic
The practice of taking someone else's work or ideas and passing them off as one's own	Plagiarism
Safe to drink	Potable
The emblems or insignia of royalty	Regalia
Violation or misuse of what is regarded as sacred	Sacrilege
A position requiring little or no work but giving the holder status or financial benefit	Sinecure
A thing that is kept as a reminder of a person, place, or event	Souvenir
An imaginary ideal society free of poverty and suffering	Utopia
Denoting a sin that is not regarded as depriving the soul of divine grace	Venial
In exactly the same words as were used originally	Verbatim
One Word Substitutes	Government/System
A state of disorder due to absence or non-recognition of authority or other controlling systems	Anarchy
A form of government in which power is held by the nobility	Aristocracy
A system of government by one person with absolute power	Autocracy
A self-governing country or region	Autonomy

A system of government in which most of the important decisions are taken by state officials rather than by elected representatives	Bureaucracy
A system of government by the whole population or all the eligible members of a state, typically through elected representatives	Democracy
A state, society, or group governed by old people	Gerontocracy
A state or country run by the worst, least qualified, or most unscrupulous citizens	Kakistocracy
Government by new or inexperienced hands	Neocracy
Government by the populace	Ochlocracy
A small group of people having control of a country or organization	Oligarchy
Government by the wealthy	Plutocracy
Government not connected with religious or spiritual matters	Secular
A form of government with a monarch at the head	Monarchy
A political system based on the government of men by God	Thearchy

One Word Substitution For Venue Or Spot

List of One Word Substitutions	Venue/Spot
A collection of historical documents or records providing information about a place, institution, or group of people	Archives
A large cage, building, or enclosure to keep birds	Aviary
A building where animals are butchered	Abattoir
A place where bees are kept; a collection of beehives	Apiary
A building containing tanks of live fish of different species	Aquarium
A place or scene of activity, debate, or conflict	Arena
A collection of weapons and military equipment	Arsenal
An institution for the care of people who are mentally ill	Asylum
A hole or tunnel dug by a small animal, especially a rabbit, as a dwelling	Burrow
A collection of items of the same type stored in a hidden or inaccessible place	Cache
A public room or building where gambling games are played	Casino
A large burial ground, especially one not in a churchyard	Cemetery
A room in a public building where outdoor clothes or luggage may be left	Cloakroom
A place where a dead person's body is cremated	Crematorium
A Christian community of nuns living together under monastic vows	Convent
Nursery where babies and young children are cared for during the working day	Creche
A stoppered glass container into which wine or spirit is decanted	Decanter
A large bedroom for a number of people in a school or institution	Dormitory
The nest of a squirrel, typically in the form of a mass of twigs in a tree	Drey
A room or building equipped for gymnastics, games, and other physical exercise	Gymnasium

A storehouse for threshed grain	Granary
A large building with an extensive floor area, typically for housing aircraft	Hangar
A box or cage, typically with a wire mesh front, for keeping rabbits or other small domesticated animals	Hutch
A place in a large institution for the care of those who are ill	Infirmary
A small shelter for a dog	Kennel
A place where wild animal live	Lair
A place where coins, medals, or tokens are made	Mint
A collection of wild animals kept in captivity for exhibition	Menagerie
A building or buildings occupied by a community of monks living under religious vows	Monastery
A place where bodies are kept for identification	Morgue
A piece of enclosed land planted with fruit trees	Orchard
A large natural or artificial lake used as a source of water supply	Reservoir
A small kitchen or room at the back of a house used for washing dishes and another dirty household work	Scullery
A close-fitting cover for the blade of a knife or sword	Sheath
A room or building for sick children in a boarding school	Sanatorium
A place where animal hides are tanned	Tannery
A large, tall cupboard in which clothes may be hung or stored	Wardrobe

One Word Substitution for Group/Collection

One Word Substitution	Group/Collection
A group of guns or missile launchers operated together at one place	Battery
A large bundle bound for storage or transport	Bale
A large gathering of people of a particular type	Bevy
An arrangement of flowers that is usually given as a present	Bouquet
A family of young animals	Brood
A group of things that have been hidden in a secret place	Cache
A group of people, typically with vehicles or animals travelling together	Caravan
A closed political meeting	Caucus
An exclusive circle of people with a common purpose	Clique
A group of followers hired to applaud at a performance	Claque
A series of stars	Constellation
A funeral procession	Cortege
A group of worshippers	Congregation
A herd or flock of animals being driven in a body	Drove
A small fleet of ships or boats	Flotilla
A small growth of trees without underbrush	Grove
A community of people smaller than a village	Hamlet

A group of cattle or sheep or other domestic mammals	Herd
A large group of people	Horde
A temporary police force	Posse
A large number of fish swimming together	Shoal
A strong and fast-moving stream of water or other liquid	Torrent

One Word Substitution List for a Person Or People

One Word Substitution	Person/People
One who is not sure about God's existence	Agnostic
A person who deliberately sets fire to a building	Arsonist
One who does a thing for pleasure and not as a profession	Amateur
One who can use either hand with ease	Ambidextrous
One who makes an official examination of accounts	Auditor
A person who believes in or tries to bring about a state of lawlessness	Anarchist
A person who has changed his faith	Apostate
One who does not believe in the existence of God	Atheist
A person appointed by two parties to solve a dispute	Arbitrator
One who leads an austere life	Ascetic
An unconventional style of living	Bohemian
One who is bad in spellings	Cacographer
One who feeds on human flesh	Cannibal
A person who is blindly devoted to an idea/ a person displaying aggressive or exaggerated patriotism	Chauvinist
A critical judge of any art and craft	Connoisseur
Persons living at the same time	Contemporaries
One who is recovering health after illness	Convalescent
A girl/woman who flirts with a man	Coquette
A person who regards the whole world as his country	Cosmopolitan
One who is a centre of attraction	Cynosure
One who sneers at the beliefs of others	Cynic
A leader or orator who espouses the cause of the common people	Demagogue
A person having a sophisticated charm	Debonair
A leader who sways his followers by his oratory	Demagogue
A dabbler (not serious) in art, science and literature	Dilettante
One who is for pleasure of eating and drinking	Epicure
One who often talks of his achievements	Egotist
Someone who leaves one country to settle in another	Emigrant
A man who is womanish in his habits	Effeminate
One who is hard to please (very selective in his habits)	Fastidious

One who runs away from justice	Fugitive
One who is filled with excessive enthusiasm in religious matters	Fanatic
One who believes in fate	Fatalist
A lover of good food	Gourmand
Conferred as an honour	Honorary
A person who acts against religion	Heretic
A person of intellectual or erudite tastes	Highbrow
A patient with imaginary symptoms and ailments	Hypochondriac
A person who is controlled by wife	Henpeck
One who shows sustained enthusiastic action with unflagging vitality	Indefatigable
Someone who attacks cherished ideas or traditional institutions	Iconoclast
One who does not express himself freely	Introvert
Who behaves without moral principles	Immoral
A person who is incapable of being tampered with	Impregnable
One who is unable to pay his debts	Insolvent
A person who is mentally ill	Lunatic
A person who dislikes humankind and avoids human society	Misanthrope
A person who is primarily concerned with making money at the expense of ethics	Mercenary
Someone in love with himself	Narcissist
One who collect coins as hobby	Numismatist
A person who likes or admires women	Philogynist
A lover of mankind	Philanthropist
A person who speaks more than one language	Polyglot
One who lives in solitude	Recluse
Someone who walks in sleep	Somnambulist
A person who is indifferent to the pains and pleasures of life	Stoic
A scolding nagging bad-tempered woman	Termagant
A person who shows a great or excessive fondness for one's wife	Uxorious
One who possesses outstanding technical ability in a particular art or field	Virtuoso

List of One Word Substitutes For Profession/Research

One Word Substitution	Profession/Research
The medieval forerunner of chemistry	Alchemy
A person who presents a radio/television programme	Anchor
One who studies the evolution of mankind	Anthropologist
A person who is trained to travel in a spacecraft	Astronaut
The scientific study of the physiology, structure, genetics, ecology, distribution, classification and economic importance of plants	Botany

A person who draws or produces maps	Cartographer
A person who writes beautiful writing	Calligrapher
A person who composes the sequence of steps and moves for a performance of dance	Choreographer
A person employed to drive a private or hired car	Chauffeur
A person who introduces the performers or contestants in a variety show	Compere
A keeper or custodian of a museum or other collection	Curator
The branch of biology concerned with cyclical physiological phenomena	Chronobiology
A secret or disguised way of writing	Cypher
The study of statistics	Demography
The use of the fingers and hands to communicate and convey ideas	Dactylology
A person who sells and arranges cut flowers	Florist
A line of descent traced continuously from an ancestor	Genealogy
The therapeutic use of sunlight	Heliotherapy
The art or practise of garden cultivation and management	Horticulture
One who supervises in the examination hall	Invigilator
The theory or philosophy of law	Jurisprudence
A person who compiles dictionaries	Lexicographer
The scientific study of the structure and diseases of teeth	Odontology
One who presents a radio programme	Radio Jockey
The art of effective or persuasive speaking or writing	Rhetoric
The branch of science concerned with the origin, structure and composition of rocks	Petrology
One who studies the elections and trends in voting	Psephologist
An artist who makes sculptures.	Sculptor
The scientific study of the behaviour, structure, physiology, classification and distribution of animals	Zoology

One Word Substitution For Sound

One Word Substitution	Sound
The branch of physics concerned with the properties of sound	Acoustics
The sound of Alligators	Bellow
The sound of Deers	Bell
The sound of Crows	Caw
The sound of Geese	Cackle
The sound of Hens	Cluck
The sound of Dolphins	Click
The sound of Frogs	Croak
The sound of Crickets	Creak

The sound of Monkeys	Gibber
The sound of Camels	Grunt
The sound of Owls	Hoot
The sound of Penguins	Honk
The sound of Cattle	Moo
The sound of Horses	Neigh
The sound of Nightingales	Pipe
The sound of Ducks	Quack
The sound of Parrots	Screech
The sound of Rats	Squeak
The sound of Birds	Twitter
The sound of Elephants	Trumpet
The sound of Mosquitoes	Whine

4. Synonym

A **synonym** is a word that means exactly the same as, or **very nearly the same as**, another word in the same language. For example, "close" is a synonym of "shut".

Note that a synonym may share an identical meaning with another word, but the two words are not necessarily interchangeable. For example, "blow up" and "explode" have the same meaning, but "blow up" is informal (used more in speech) and "explode" is more formal (used more in writing and careful speech).

Here are some more examples of synonyms:

synonyms			part of speech
close	shut		verb
blow up	explode		verb
blow up	inflate		verb
shallow	superficial		adjective
eager	earnest	keen	adjective
spontaneous	impromptu	unplanned	adjective

5. Antonym:

An antonym is **a word that has the opposite meaning of another word**. For example, the word small means of limited size, while big means of large size. Happy, a feeling of gladness, is an antonym of sad, a feeling of sorrow. Nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs can all have antonyms, though not all do.

prefix	antonyms		part of speech
	good	bad	adjective
	small	big	adjective
	easy	hard difficult	adjective
	soft	hard	adjective
	male	female	adjective noun
	up	down	preposition adverb
	go	come	verb
	able	unable	adjective
made by adding prefix un-	selfish	unselfish	adjective
	do	undo	verb
	decent	indecent	adjective
made by adding prefix in-	tolerant	intolerant	adjective
	human	inhuman	adjective
	conformist	nonconformist	adjective noun
made by adding prefix non-	essential	nonessential	adjective noun
	sense	nonsense	noun

6. Phrasal verbs

Phrasal verbs are **a group of words that combine a verb with an adverb or a preposition**. Together, these words act as a single verb and take on a whole new meaning that's independent from the meanings of the individual words.

Types of phrasal verbs

To better understand phrasal verbs, it helps to organize them into two pairs: transitive and intransitive; separable and inseparable. A phrasal verb can belong to only one of each pair (although *all* separable phrasal verbs are transitive).

Transitive phrasal verbs

Transitive phrasal verbs use a direct object, just like normal transitive verbs.

Charlie couldn't put up with the meowing cats any longer.

Intransitive phrasal verbs

Likewise, intransitive phrasal verbs do *not* use an object.

The regional director was late, so the sales team went ahead without her.

Separable phrasal verbs

With transitive phrasal verbs, you can sometimes put the direct object in between the words, for example, "pick *you* up." There are, however, a few rules to follow with separable phrasal verbs, so pay attention to our next section about word order.

He forgot to shut the lights off before he left.

Inseparable phrasal verbs

Inseparable phrasal verbs cannot be split up and must be used together.

The wayward son carried on without his father.

Word order with phrasal verbs

Most of the time, the words in a phrasal verb stay together. For intransitive and inseparable phrasal verbs, the verb and the participle *must* go next to each other and should never be split up.

Separable phrasal verbs follow different rules, however. For starters, separable phrasal verbs are always transitive, so they always have a direct object. **You can put the direct object in the middle of separable phrasal verbs**, in between the verb and the participle:

Augustus would never let Hazel down.

This is also true for noun phrases; place all words in a noun phrase in between the verb and the participle of a phrasal verb:

You would never let any of your friends down.

Some separable verbs require you to put the direct object in the middle *every* time. For example, let's look at the phrasal verb *get down*.

[INCORRECT] *The beginning of the movie Up gets down everyone.*

[CORRECT] *The beginning of the movie Up gets everyone down.*

On the other hand, sometimes it doesn't matter whether the direct object comes in the middle or at the end of a phrasal verb. Both options are acceptable. Unfortunately, there's no method for knowing whether or not you have to separate a phrasal verb; you just have to study and practice until it comes naturally.

[CORRECT] *Pick the box up and carry it to the kitchen.*

[CORRECT] *Pick up the box and carry it to the kitchen.*

However, pronouns follow a special rule when it comes to separable phrasal verbs: **If the object is a pronoun, it must be placed in the middle of a phrasal verb.** Pronoun direct objects cannot go at the end.

[INCORRECT] *Pick up it and carry it to the kitchen.*

[CORRECT] *Pick it up and carry it to the kitchen.*

Remember that **not all transitive phrasal verbs are separable**. Transitive phrasal verbs can be either separable or inseparable, so be careful of where you put your object. For example, the transitive phrasal verbs *get through*, *come between*, and *go against* are all inseparable, so the direct object comes after them every time.

[INCORRECT] *Nothing comes us between.*

[CORRECT] *Nothing comes between us.*

Common phrasal verbs (with meanings and examples)

back [x] up

support or defend someone

When the class was making fun of me, only the teacher backed me up.

break down

stop working, especially when referring to machines

The ice cream machine at McDonalds is always breaking down.

call around

contact multiple people

Roy called around to find a nearby mechanic.

calm down

relax after an energetic or irritated state

I need a few minutes to calm down after that match.

call [x] off

cancel

We called the party off. / We called off the party.

check [x] out

verify a person or thing (can sometimes be flirtatious when used in reference to a person)

I'll check the contract out. / I'll check out the contract.

clean up

be extremely successful in an endeavor, such as business, sports, or gambling

Our hockey team cleaned up at the tournament and went home undefeated.

stop questionable behavior, such as consuming drugs or alcohol

Her boss said she had to either clean up or find a new job.

clean [x] up

clean a general area

John cleaned the living room up. / John cleaned up the living room.

cheer [x] up

make someone happy, especially if they were previously sad

Reading always cheers me up on a rainy day.

come around

change an opinion or see a new point of view

I never liked seafood, but came around after trying fried calamari.

come between

disturb a relationship

After more than fifty years of marriage, nothing could come between them.

come down on

attack or punish harshly

Ever since last month's accident, police have been coming down on drunk driving.

come down with

become sick

After sitting in the rain for hours, Chandra came down with a nasty cold.

come out of

happen as a consequence of another event

We missed a day of school, so at least some good came out of our boring class trip.

come up

become the topic of discussion or receive attention

Everyone talked about how much they enjoyed the movie, but the run time never came up in the conversation.

approach or come near

While walking outside the fence, a cow came up right next to me and licked my face.

happen or occur, as with an event or situation

Don't worry about a problem until after it comes up.

come up with

think of an idea, especially as the first person to do so, or to produce a solution

Sahar comes up with her best story ideas at night, so she writes them down before she forgets them.

count on

rely or depend on

If I'm ever making a mistake, I can count on my friends to warn me.

dive into

occupy oneself with something; to pore over quickly or reach into quickly

I'll dive into that new TV show later tonight.

dress up

wear nice clothes or put forth in the best light

Abed dressed up for the award ceremony.

end up

eventually reach some conclusion or destination

After thinking for a day, he ended up taking the job.

fall apart

break into pieces

My new dress completely fell apart after just two washes.

suffer from mental or emotional distress

He endured all kinds of harassment at work without flinching, but completely fell apart when his cat got sick.

fill [x] up

fill something completely

Bruce filled his wine glass up to the brim. / Bruce filled up his wine glass to the brim.

find out

discover or learn

We'll have to wait until the next TV episode to find out who the killer is.

get [x] across

communicate or explain something clearly

The professor spoke for hours, but didn't get anything across to the students.

get ahead

succeed or progress

You'll never get ahead at this company unless you follow the rules.

get around

travel from place to place

It's impossible to get around this city without a car.

get around to [x]

do something eventually

I'll get around to fixing the table after the playoffs.

get away with

escape punishment or some other unpleasantness

Shirley thought she got away with cheating until the teacher asked her to stay after class.

get along with

be friendly with

My dog gets along with everyone as long as they're not a cat.

get at

reach

There's an itch on my back that I can't get at.

attempt to prove or explain

What these graphs are getting at is that we'll be bankrupt by next week.

get away

escape or depart from

Lucio liked to go to the lake every weekend, just to get away from the city.

get away with

escape punishment for a crime or misdeed

The boss's nephew gets away with much more than any of the other employees.

get [x] back

have something returned

Rodger got his pencil back from Greta. / Rodger got back his pencil from Greta.

get back at

have revenge on someone

Laila promised herself that she would get back at whomever started the rumor.

get by

survive or manage at the bare minimum

When Sheila lost her job, the family had to get by with only their savings.

get down

enjoy oneself without inhibitions, especially with music or dancing

Vicente may be overly formal at work, but he sure knows how to get down to hip-hop.

get [x] down

depress or discourage someone

Kima always gets everyone down with her stories from the hospital.

record or write something down

The President spoke quickly at the press conference, and reporters were struggling to get all of his comments down.

get down to

begin or start

Once everyone arrives, we'll get down to picking teams.

get in on

join an activity

After Bitcoin started going up, everyone wanted to get in on cryptocurrency.

get into

discuss something thoroughly

I don't want to get into our finances now; we'll talk after our guests leave.

get [x] out of

receive a benefit from something

Babysitting the Cohles was a nightmare, but at least Janelle got some money out of it.

get over

recover or overcome

Drinking a lot of water helps in getting over an illness.

get through

complete or endure an unpleasant task

Alessandra can't get through a morning without coffee.

get to

annoy or bother someone

People who don't clean up after their dogs really get to me.

get together

have a social event

The volleyball team is getting together for dinner after practice.

give [x] away

donate something or give something for free

Mindy gave her prized doll collection away. / Mindy gave away her prized doll collection.

give up

accept defeat, quit, or surrender

Carin felt like giving up every time she saw the scoreboard.

give [x] up

stop consuming or doing something, often a habit

Minh gave chocolate up for his diet. / Minh gave up chocolate for his diet.

go against

contradict, oppose, or fight against

A group of students went against the school dress code yesterday and wore ripped jeans.

go ahead

proceed or move forward

Because of the snow, we can't go ahead with the festival.

go along with

agree with or pretend to agree with

Even though Cedric hated weight lifting, he went along with it because his coach suggested it.

go for

try or attempt to achieve something

Carlos trains so hard because he is going for an Olympic gold medal.

go on

continue doing something (see *keep [x] up*)

The boys will go on digging until they hit a water pipe.

go over

review or look at again

Marie went over the study guide one last time before the test.

hand in

submit (especially an assignment)

The teacher wants us to hand in our essays through email.

hold [x] back

prevent someone from doing something

I wanted to become an architect, but my bad grades held me back.

keep [x] up

continue doing something (see *go on*)

Keep this pace up and you'll set a new record!

leave [x] out

omit or disregard

Orna left the graph out of the presentation. / Orna left out the graph from the presentation.

let [x] down

disappoint

Kamal let Marco down when he arrived late. / Kamal let down Marco when he arrived late.

let go of

release or free

Don't let go of the rope until I'm safe.

let [x] in

allow to enter

Close the door or you'll let the flies in!

let [x] know

tell someone something

Let me know as soon as Leslie texts back.

look after

take care of someone or something

Thank you for looking after me when I was sick.

look up to [x]

admire or idolize someone

I looked up to this YouTuber until I read about their scandal.

mix up

confuse something with something else

It's easy to mix up Chris Pine and Chris Pratt.

pull [x] up

retrieve or bring something nearer

Eugene pulled the document up on his computer. / Eugene pulled up the document on his computer.

put [x] on

wear or add something to your person or an object

I always put my backpack on before leaving the house. / I always put on my backpack before leaving the house.

put up with

tolerate or condone

Somewhat Paz could put up with Janice's cynical attitude.

run out of

use all of or drain the supply of something

Isabella ran out of toilet paper at the worst possible time.

see to

make sure something is done

I'll see to watering the plants while you're gone.

set [x] up

arrange or organize

Since no one invited me to join their study group, I set one up myself.

show off

deliberately display abilities or accomplishments in order to impress people

Panya didn't need to shoot so many three-pointers; she was just showing off.

shut [x] off

turn off, especially a machine

Don't forget to shut the water off after your shower. / Don't forget to shut off the water after your shower.

take after

resemble, especially with parents and their children

Li takes after his father when it comes to politics.

take [x] out

move something outside

Please take the garbage out before dinner. / Please take out the garbage before dinner.

think [x] over

consider something

When his parents suggested selling his Pokemon cards, Yosef thought it over.

throw [x] away

dispose of something

Could you throw that old burrito away? / Could you throw away that old burrito?

turn [x] down

reject or say “no”

My crush turned me down after I asked them out.

top off

fill something to the top; to complete something in a special or spectacular way

May I top off your beverage?

wait on

serve, especially at a restaurant

Billie eagerly waited on the new table of customers, hoping for a big tip.

Module III

1. Reading Comprehension:

Reading comprehension can be challenging for lots of reasons. Whatever the cause, knowing the skills involved, and which ones your child struggles with, can help you get the right support.

Here are six essential skills needed for

, and tips on what can help kids improve this skill.

1. Decoding

Decoding is a vital step in the reading process. Kids use this skill to sound out words they've heard before but haven't seen written out. The ability to do that is the foundation for other reading skills.

Decoding relies on an early language skill called phonemic awareness. (This skill is part of an even broader skill called *phonological awareness*.) Phonemic awareness lets kids hear individual sounds in words (known as *phonemes*). It also allows them to “play” with sounds at the word and syllable level.

Decoding also relies on connecting individual sounds to letters. For instance, to read the word *sun*, kids must know that the letter *s* makes the /s/ sound. Grasping the connection between a letter (or group of letters) and the sounds they typically make is an important step toward “sounding out” words.

What can help: Most kids pick up the broad skill of phonological awareness naturally, by being exposed to books, songs, and rhymes. But some kids don't. In fact, one of the early signs of reading difficulties is trouble with rhyming, counting syllables, or identifying the first sound in a word.

The best way to help kids with these skills is through specific instruction and practice. Kids have to be taught how to identify and work with sounds. You can also build phonological awareness at home through activities like word games and reading to your child.

2. Fluency

To read fluently, kids need to instantly recognize words, including words they can't sound out. Fluency speeds up the rate at which they can read and understand text. It's also important when kids encounter irregular words, like *of* and *the*, which can't be sounded out.

Sounding out or decoding every word can take a lot of effort. *Word recognition* is the ability to recognize whole words instantly by sight, without sounding them out.

When kids can read quickly and without making too many errors, they are “fluent” readers.

Fluent readers read smoothly at a good pace. They group words together to help with meaning, and they use the proper tone in their voice when reading aloud. Reading fluency is essential for good reading comprehension.

What can help: Word recognition can be a big obstacle for struggling readers. Average readers need to see a word four to 14 times before it becomes a “sight word” they automatically recognize. Kids with dyslexia, for instance, may need to see it up to 40 times.

Lots of kids struggle with reading fluency. As with other reading skills, kids need lots of specific instruction and practice to improve word recognition.

The main way to help build fluency is through practice reading books. It’s important to pick out books that are at the right level of difficulty for kids.

3. Vocabulary

To understand what you’re reading, you need to understand most of the words in the text. Having a strong vocabulary is a key component of reading comprehension. Students can learn vocabulary through instruction. But they typically learn the meaning of words through everyday experience and also by reading.

What can help: The more words kids are exposed to, the richer their vocabulary becomes. You can help build your child’s vocabulary by having frequent conversations on a variety of topics. Try to include new words and ideas. Telling jokes and playing word games is a fun way to build this skill.

Reading together every day also helps improve vocabulary. When reading aloud, stop at new words and define them. But also encourage your child to read alone. Even without hearing a definition of a new word, your child can use context to help figure it out.

Teachers can help, too. They can carefully choose interesting words to teach and then give explicit instruction (instruction that is specialized and direct). They can engage students in conversation. And they can make learning vocabulary fun by playing word games in class.

For more ideas, watch as an expert explains how to help struggling readers build their vocabulary.

4. Sentence construction and cohesion

Understanding how sentences are built might seem like a writing skill. So might connecting ideas within and between sentences, which is called *cohesion*. But these skills are important for reading comprehension as well.

Knowing how ideas link up at the sentence level helps kids get meaning from passages and entire texts. It also leads to something called *coherence*, or the ability to connect ideas to other ideas in an overall piece of writing.

What can help: Explicit instruction can teach kids the basics of sentence construction. For example, teachers can work with students on connecting two or more thoughts, through both writing and reading.

5. Reasoning and background knowledge

Most readers relate what they’ve read to what they know. So it’s important for kids to have background or prior knowledge about the world when they read. They also need to be able to “read between the lines” and pull out meaning even when it’s not literally spelled out.

Take this example: A child is reading a story about a poor family in the 1930s. Having knowledge about the Great Depression can provide insight into what's happening in the story. The child can use that background knowledge to make inferences and draw conclusions.

What can help: Your child can build knowledge through reading, conversations, movies and TV shows, and art. Life experience and hands-on activities also build knowledge.

Expose your child to as much as possible, and talk about what you've learned from experiences you've had together and separately. Help your child make connections between new knowledge and existing knowledge. And ask open-ended questions that require thinking and explanations.

You can also read a teacher tip on using animated videos to help your child make inferences.

6. Working memory and attention

These two skills are both part of a group of abilities known as executive function. They're different but closely related.

When kids read, attention allows them to take in information from the text. Working memory allows them to hold on to that information and use it to gain meaning and build knowledge from what they're reading.

The ability to self-monitor while reading is also tied to that. Kids need to be able to recognize when they don't understand something. Then they need to stop, go back, and re-read to clear up any confusion they may have.

What can help: There are many ways you can help improve your child's working memory. Skillbuilders don't have to feel like work, either. There are a number of games and everyday activities that can build working memory without kids even knowing it.

To help increase your child's attention, look for reading material that's interesting or motivating. For example, some kids may like graphic novels. Encourage your child to stop and re-read when something isn't clear. And demonstrate how you "think aloud" when you read to make sure what you're reading makes sense.

Key takeaways

- Decoding, fluency, and vocabulary skills are key to reading comprehension.
- Being able to connect ideas within and between sentences helps kids understand the whole text.
- Reading aloud and talking about experiences can help kids build reading skills.

2. Cloze Test

A cloze test (also cloze deletion test or occlusion test) is an exercise, test, or assessment consisting of a portion of language with certain items, words, or signs removed (cloze text), where the participant is asked to replace the missing language item.

Cloze tests require students to understand context and vocabulary to identify the correct words that belong in the deleted passages of a text. EXAMPLE:

3. Parajumbles

Para-Jumble refers to a paragraph wherein the sentences forming it are jumbled. So, what are we supposed to do here? We are required to arrange the sentences in a proper manner such that they link and form a coherent paragraph.

The sentences given in each question, when properly sequenced, form a coherent paragraph. Each sentence is labeled with a letter. Choose the most logical order of sentences from among the given choices to construct a coherent paragraph.

A. On Monday the secretary of state is due to hold a day of meetings with high-level political, military and business figures to further a "strategic dialogue" aimed at further expansion of US trade in India.

B. US secretary of state Hillary Clinton arrived in India on Sunday for strategic talks aimed at bolstering bilateral ties and securing firmer support for the war in Afghanistan.

C. Clinton arrived by plane in Delhi before noon, according to a reporter travelling with her, ahead of expected talks with Prime Minister Manmohan Singh and President Pratibha Patel in the evening.

1. BAC

2. BCA

3. CBA

4. CAB

This is a fairly easy question and hope each one of you was able to identify Option 2, BCA, as the correct answer.

The key points for identifying the correct answer in this case are:

- Statement B forms the perfect starting sentence, providing us with the ideal introduction for what is to follow.
- Statements C and A take forward the paragraph in the chronological order in which the events are scheduled, with first the explanation for the evening being provided and then for the next day.

Different types of Para jumbles:

1. In the first type, in the question simply 4 or 5 sentences are given, which need to be rearranged into a paragraph.

For example:

A. Group Banking is the system in which two or more independently incorporated banks are brought under the control of a holding company.

B. Under group banking, the individual banks may be unit banks, or banks operating branches or a combination of the two.

C. That is, each bank in the group has got a separate entity.

D. Participating banks retain their own boards of directors which are responsible to the supervising and regulatory authority and depositors for the proper operation of the bank.

E. The holding company may or may not be a banking company.

1. CDBAE

2. EADCB

3. AEBDC

4. ECBDA

2. In the second type, the opening sentence and closing sentence are already fixed.

For example:

1. India is not deemed to be a respectable nation when it comes to sports.

A. The prime reason for poor performances is corruption & political interference.

B. Even though, huge amount is spent on training and grooming of the players we still have not been able to achieve the desired results.

C. Due to this many times a good player is left out.

D. As a result of that no good players get entries into some important sports competitions and to prove their worth take escape through doping.

6. Doping is a way to enhance the performance by the means of drugs and steroids.

1. ABCD

2. CBDA

3. BDCA

4. BACD

3. In the third type, questions are asked after the jumbled sentences. This type usually only comes in banking exams.

For example:

A. But this does not mean that death was the Egyptians' only preoccupation.

B. Even papyri come mainly from the pyramids.

C. Most of our traditional sources of information about the Old Kingdom are monuments of the rich like pyramids and tombs.

D. Houses in which ordinary Egyptians lived have not been preserved, and when most people died they were buried in simple graves.

E. We know infinitely more about the wealthy people of Egypt than we do about the ordinary people, as most monuments were made for the rich.

F. Customs of any culture can be a reliable source to know about the people of that culture but status of people can bring in differences.

Which sentence will be first after the rearrangement?

1. E

2. B

3. F

4. C

Module IV

1. Introduction to phonetics

Phonetics is the branch of linguistics that examines sounds in a language. Phonetics describes these sounds using the symbols of the **International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)**.

The **IPA** uses a single symbol to describe each sound in a language. If a letter in a word is silent, there will be no **IPA** symbol used in the transcription.

The **IPA** can be helpful for studying a language, especially languages that use letters that are silent or have multiple pronunciations. Languages like Arabic and Spanish are consistent in their spelling and pronunciation – each letter represents a single sound which rarely varies. English is different. It has many letters with two or more sounds and many letters that are silent.

An example of phonetics is **how the letter "b" in the word "bed" is spoken** - you start out with your lips together. Then, air from your lungs is forced over your vocal chords, which begin to vibrate and make noise. The air then escapes through your lips as they part suddenly, which results in a "b" sound.

Received pronunciation

Received pronunciation, commonly abbreviated as *RP*, is a once prestigious variety of British English spoken without an identifiable regional dialect. It is also known as *British Received Pronunciation*, *BBC English*, *the Queen's English*, and *posh accent*. Standard British English is sometimes used as a synonym. The term *received pronunciation* was introduced and described by phonetician Alexander Ellis in his book "Early English Pronunciation" (1869).

Characteristics of RP

Not every dialect in Britain has a pronounced h sound, which is one difference between them, among differences in vowels. "The prestige British accent known as 'received pronunciation' (RP) pronounces *h* at the beginning of words, as in *hurt*, and avoids it in such words as *arm*. Cockney speakers do the reverse; *I 'urt my harm*," explained David Crystal. "Most English accents around the world pronounce words like *car* and *heart* with an audible *r*; RP is one of the few accents which does not. In RP, words like *bath* are pronounced with a 'long *a*' ('bahth'); up north in England it is a 'short a.' Dialect variations mainly affect the vowels of a language." ("Think on My Words: Exploring Shakespeare's Language." Cambridge University Press, 2008).

vowels and consonants

The alphabet is made up of 26 letters, 5 of which are **vowels** (a, e, i, o, u) and the rest of which are **consonants**.

A vowel is a sound that is made by allowing breath to flow out of the mouth, without closing any part of the mouth or throat.

A consonant is a sound that is made by blocking air from flowing out of the mouth with the teeth, tongue, lips or palate ('b' is made by putting your lips together, 'l' is made by touching your palate with your tongue).

1. One word has only one stress. (One word cannot have two stresses. If you hear two stresses, you hear two words. Two stresses cannot be one word. It is true that there can be a "secondary" stress in some words. But a secondary stress is much smaller than the main [primary] stress, and is only used in long words.)
2. We can only stress vowels, not consonants.

Here are some more, rather complicated, rules that can help you understand where to put the stress. But do not rely on them too much, because there are many exceptions. It is better to try to "feel" the music of the language and to add the stress naturally.

A. Stress on first syllable

rule	examples
Most 2-syllable nouns	PRESent
	EXport
	CHIna
	TABle
Most 2-syllable adjectives	PRESent
	SLENDER
	CLEVer
	HAPpy

She gave her friend a lovely present. (noun) PREsent

The students will present their speeches on Monday. (verb) preSENT

Rule 2. Prefixes and Suffixes are not usually stressed

Examples:

Walk+ing WALKing

Un+clear unCLEAR

Thought+ful THOUGHTful

Help+less HELPless

Im+poss+ible imPOSSible

Rule 3. Words with some suffixes are usually stressed on the syllable just before the suffix.

These suffixes include:

-tion -cian -sion -ic -ity -ical -ify -ogy -graphy

Examples

examinAtion techNItion disCUSSION eLECTric

elecTRICity geoLOGical geOgraphy

Identify the stressed syllable

1. In-for-ma-tion

2. Ti-re-some

3. Re-spon-si-ble

4. Ex-ci-ted-ly

5. O-be-di-ence

6. In-stru-ment

7. Com-mu-ni-cate

8. Re-mark-a-ble

9. De-cid-ed-ly

10. Trans-por-ta-tion

Word Stress Rules

There are two very simple rules about word stress:

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Most 2-syllable adjectives	PRESent
	SLENDER
	CLEVer
	HAPpy

B. Stress on last syllable

rule	examples
Most 2-syllable verbs	preSENT
	exPORT
	deCIDE
	beGIN

There are many two-syllable words in English whose meaning and class change with a change in stress. The word **present**, for example is a two-syllable word. If we stress the first syllable, it is a noun (gift) or an adjective (opposite of absent). But if we stress the second syllable, it becomes a verb (to offer). More examples: the words **export**, **import**, **contract** and **object** can all be nouns or verbs depending on whether the stress is on the first or second syllable.

C. Stress on penultimate syllable (penultimate = second from end)

rule	examples
Words ending in -ic	GRAPHic geoGRAPHic geoLOGic
Words ending in -sion and -tion	teleVIsion reveLAtion

For a few words, native English speakers don't always "agree" on where to put the stress. For example, some people say **teleVIsion** and others say **TELevision**. Another example is: **CONtroversy** and **conTROversy**.

D. Stress on ante-penultimate syllable (ante-penultimate = third from end)

rule	examples
Words ending in -cy , -ty , -phy and -gy	deMOcracy dependaBility phoTOgraphy geOLogy
Words ending in -al	CRItical geoLOGical

E. Compound words (words with two parts)

rule	examples
For compound nouns , the stress is on the first part	BLACKbird GREENhouse
For compound adjectives , the stress is on the second part	bad-TEMpered old-FASHioned
For compound verbs , the stress is on the second part	underSTAND overFLOW

Module V

ENGLISH FOR COMMUNICATION

1. Language and Communication

Language and communication are different from each other yet one needs the other and at the same time exists separately. The Collins Dictionary defines language as a communication system made up of a group of written and sound symbols that people of a region or country use for writing or talking. On the other hand, sending as well as receiving messages, either by verbal or non-verbal methods, equates to communication.

In communication, people exchange information or messages through various means. It could be verbally, non-verbal actions, graphical and written representations like maps, charts, drawings or infographics, or through signals and signs.

Language, on the other hand, plays an essential role in the communication process. People around the world use a specific language to communicate, exhibiting the fact that language and communication are intertwined, which is a reason why some people fail to see the difference between the two.

Creatures living on earth developed their own way of imparting their thoughts and emotions to other creatures. However, only human beings enjoy the ability to utilize language and words to provide particular meanings. This is what separates humans from animals.

Elements of communication

For communication to happen there should be someone to send and another person to receive a particular message. The sender, as well as the receiver, has to interpret the message to extract its meaning. Messages are conveyed back and forth through feedback. Feedback can be through words or through non-verbal actions like various gestures, sighing, looking away or nodding.

Other factors are considered when communicating. The sender or the receiver of the message has to consider the message's context, where the message is given and the possible intervention when the message is sent or received.

Situations are different if a person can see or hear the sender of the message because the receiver can immediately hear the response or see the reactions to the message through emotions, emphasis or tone of voice of the sender.

In written communication, consideration is given on how the specific characteristics of the text interact with the cognitive facility of the reader to receive the information comprehensively and coherently. Likewise, the interaction of the language with a person's motivation and emotional makeup to persuade or move the reader should be looked into.

Communication is a complex process and involves several variables like situations, different genre, medium and method of delivery. Language, on the other hand, is affected by personal, cultural, institution and organizational aims.

For linguists, it is essential to know how the use of language is affected by social context and how culturally diverse people communicate.

Differences in language and communication

There is a fine line that differentiates language and communication and some people fail to recognize this. When you refer to language, it means the communication system that depends on verbal and non-verbal methods so information can be transferred. Communication is the way two people or a group exchange information or messages. You can say that language is a tool while communication is the process of using that tool. Language focuses on words, symbols or signs while communication is centered on the message.

What is language?

In the process of showing the differences between language and communication, it is essential to have a more comprehensive definition of language and communication.

Essentially, language is a tool that aids in the expression and conveyance of thought and feelings of two individuals. The expression of feelings and thoughts can be sent through sounds, symbols, such as written or spoken words, posture, gesture or signs, wherein the receiver interprets a specific meaning.

For humans, the prime communication medium to convey or exchange emotions, opinion, views or ideas, is language. It gives order, meaning and coherence to abstract and complicated thoughts. Different people living in different communities or localities use distinctly separate languages for communication.

What is communication?

Communication involves action. It's a process of exchanging ideas, message or information from one individual (the speaker) to another (the receiver) through signs or words (language) that are comprehensible between the two parties. Communication is essential for a community or organization so that their members will be able to work in concert. Communication can flow horizontally, diagonally, downward or upward.

In every type and level of a community or organization, communication is needed. It involves a two-way process that has different elements, namely:

1. The sender
2. Encoding process
3. Message
4. Channel
5. The receiver
6. Decoding process
7. Feedback

In today's scenario, several communication channels are accessible to people. They can have conversations face-to-face, exchange phone calls, send and receive text messages, send emails or use social media platforms. Reports, signs, fliers and leaflets, brochures, advertisements, letters, television and radio are also communication channels.

Feedback is vital to the communication process and is as important as the delivery of the message. Without the feedback, the act of communication is not complete. Communication can either be formal or informal and may be verbal, oral, non-verbal or written. In a formal setting, such as within an organization, giving positive feedback is an incredibly powerful and effective tool that should be a part of every manager's toolkit.

Before written words were invented, language was mainly using the auditory means of transmission, through grunts, whistles or drumbeats. In some cases, it was tactile or visual, such as drawings, hand signals, fire or smoke signals. Communication only has one channel – sensory. Language is dynamic because there could be daily changes as its dictionary can add new words daily. The basic steps in communication remain unchanged, therefore, communication is considered static.

In the study of language in the field of communication, several factors are explored. One is the language's origin. Also studied are phonology, phonetics, syntax, pragmatics, semantics, along with language acquisition, and the connections of language with relationships, diversity and culture.

Language and its connections

The origin of language is something that will perhaps remain obscure forever. It has been the subject of many debates but no one has come up with a specific answer of where language came from. This is vastly different from the study of the origin of the different languages, so you must not confuse the former with the latter. Language forms different connections that determine its use.

1. Culture and language

It is often said the language and culture are closely related. But linguists are still debating whether culture is responsible for shaping language or if it is the other way around. What remains a fact is that the use of a language is definitely culture-related. Some linguists believe that an individual's way of thinking is formed by language. The effect the language exerts on an individual can even put a limit on the ideas and thoughts of people and even their conduct.

2. Diversity and language

Linguistic markers can have an effect on the perception of people, according to communication scholars. Linguistic markers are speech features that may be used to indicate the social identity of a person. As an example, there are studies regarding the how women speak. Some markers may be for uncertainty, saying that most women end their speech with tag questions.

Women, they say are fond of using qualifiers such as perhaps and maybe, and often include disclaimers when they speak. They are also fond of using a variety of colors while speaking such as lilac or aqua or baby pink, instead of using standard color words like blue or yellow or orange.

Linguistics professor Robin Lakoff of the University of California, Berkeley says that such characteristics of women's speech lead people to think that women are powerless compared to men when speaking. Her study is not conclusive and there are other studies and research done to find out whether women and men speak differently, but the results vary. Most people say that it is due to stereotyping and prejudice. What is definite is that today, many people consciously use gender-neutral language to veer away from the bias towards a person's gender or profession.

Although there are subtle differences between language and communication, it cannot be denied that they are enlaced. Specifically, communication is the means of exchanging messages and

information through writing, speaking and other means, whereas language is a tool to facilitate communication.

English as a Global Language

When it comes to languages, one can make a strong argument that a strong link exists between dominance and cultural power. Furthermore, the main factor that the languages become popular is due to a powerful power-base, whether economic or political or military.

The derivation of the English language took place from languages like French, Latin, German, and other European languages. This can be a reason why many Europeans don't find English a difficult language to learn. Furthermore, linguists argue whether the simplicity of the English language is the main reason for it becoming a global language.

The Latin script of the English language appears less complicated for people to recognize and learn. Also, the pronunciation of the English language is not as complex as other languages like Korean or Turkish for example.

Generally, the difficulty level of a language varies from person to person and it also depends on the culture to which one may belong. For example, a Korean person would find less difficulty in mastering the Japanese language in comparison to a German person. This is because of the close proximity of the Korean and Japanese cultures.

Due to the massive British colonial conquests, no culture is in complete oblivion of the English language or words. As such, English is a language that should not appear as too alien or strange to any community. Consequently, learning English is not such big of a deal for most people as they can find a certain level of familiarity with the language.

The Effectiveness of the English Language

English is a very effective language and this is evident due to the presence of various native and non-native speakers on a global scale. Furthermore, according to statistics, one-fourth of the world is either fluent in the English language or content with it. While it's true that the number of native Mandarin speakers is the greatest in the world, Mandarin is not the global language due to its complex spellings, grammar, and letter system.

The English language, on the other hand, does not suffer from such complexity problems. Furthermore, the English language has a lot of words and synonyms to express something. As such, any word or its meaning can be expressed with a high level of accuracy.

English is certainly the most widely spoken language in the world by far. On a global scale, English has the most number of speakers, who speak English either as a first or second language. Without a doubt, no other language in the world can come close to English in terms of its immense popularity.

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