

ENG-AE-1014



# **GAUHATI UNIVERSITY**

## **Institute of Distance and Open Learning**

**B.A. First Semester**  
*(Regular Course)*

# **ENGLISH COMMUNICATION**

**Paper: ENG-AE-1014**

# **English Language Proficiency**

ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

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**ENGLISH COMMUNICATION**

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**ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY**



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**Unit 1 : English Reading and Vocabulary**

**Unit 2 : Writing and Grammar**

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## Unit : 1

### ENGLISH READING AND VOCABULARY

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#### 1.0 Introduction:

*Reading* is defined a very complex mental process in which a speaker of a language decodes a set of symbols in order to derive meaning. If you are able to read these lines (which are in the English language), it means that you have a certain skill set pertaining to your language:

- You have *acquired* English at some point in your life

- If you hear these lines, instead of reading them, then you can *understand* the same.
- You can also *speak* the words you are reading and in turn can communicate with others who also know the language.
- You can *decodethe symbols* that are used to write this language – i.e. if you consider the word ‘introduction’ you just read, you know it is a combination of certain symbols (alphabet) of the English language
- You know that each symbol or alphabet combines in certain ways with others to form units of language called *words* which have *meaning*. In this case, ‘Introduction’ is a combination of twelve symbols or letters of the English alphabet which is turn can be divided into ‘consonants’ and ‘vowels’.

Given all the above facts, reading can be termed as a form of *language processing* and is considered to be one of the four essential language skills which are: *listening, speaking, reading* and *writing*. Symbols which facilitate reading are typically visual – they are written or printed but in the case of *Sign Language* or *Braille*, symbols are read different: through visual gestures in the case of former and embossed symbols which are read tactilely.

**Stop to Consider:**

How does a musician ‘read’ a musical note? Is it different from the way you are reading this text?

*Vocabulary* means the set of words of a particular language that a person is familiar with. A person’s vocabulary is usually a subset of all the words available in a language which comprise its *lexicon*. You can improve your vocabulary through extensive reading.

**1.1 Objectives:**

This unit introduces you to technical aspects of reading and vocabulary. After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- *read* a text for its main idea and context

- *develop* your overall comprehension skills through making predictions; relating to life experiences and identifying key terms of a text
- *understand* meaning of words in context and through semantic association
- *understand* collocations and make sense of phrasal verbs and idioms

## 1.2 Reading:

The moment you have started reading this line, you know a few things: this line starts at a particular point (“*The moment...*”); it will develop in a certain way (leading you to read on) and it will end at a particular point (in written words, this is typically signaled by a ‘full stop’ – “.”). You also know that this line is linked to the line or title or sections that precede it and is also linked to the line or title or sections that follow it. Imagine all the things you *know* about reading even before you have started reading!

What you know beforehand while starting to read something forms its *context* and what follows it is typically how you make sense while reading anything. Be it this unit you are currently reading or a newspaper article or any other written piece that you are trying to make sense of, context is important.

Let us try to see this graphically for this unit:

IMMEDIATE PRECEDING CONTEXT	MAIN REFERENCE LINE (SECTION 1.3)	LINKING/ FOLLOWING LINE	OVERALL CONTEXT
1.1 Objectives	"The moment you have started reading this line... typically signaled by a full stop"	"You also know that this line..."	ENG-AE-1014 English Reading and Vocabulary (Course offered by GUIDOL)

The **main reference line** above is linked to the **immediate context that precedes it** and also to the lines that precede and follow it in **an overall context**. The line in reference that we are discussing here (i.e. the first line in section 1.3) is thus *linked* to the previous Sections 1.1 (“Introduction”) and 1.2 (“Objectives”) and also to the rest of the sections that trail it. In other words, you not only know the individual words that you are reading, you also know in the back of your mind that the overall context in which this

line occurs is the **English Reading and Vocabulary** unit of the ENG-AE-1014 course offered by Gauhati University IDOL!

### 1.2.1 Context and Reading:

Let us come to a few definitions now:

A *context* is any background information or premise based on which you read any text.

Contexts can be nonlinguistic— for example, if you see a huge hoarding with the picture of a car and the words “Absolutely stunning!” written across the hoarding, you will realize that the two words you just read are given a context by the *picture* of the car. The overall context that you are aware of is that it is an *advertisement* for a car. Further, any written word in a text is typically linked to others via linkages which can be *backward referencing* or *forward referencing*. Words that ‘go back’ to a previous line for contextualizing meaning are typically called **anaphoric** words whereas words that ‘look forward’ to the next sentence for **elucidation** are typically called **cataphoric** words.

#### Stop to Consider:

To put it in slightly more technical terms now, **anaphora** is the use of an expression that depends upon an **antecedent expression**. Cataphora, on the other hand, is the use of an expression that depends upon a **postcedent** expression. Both anaphoric and cataphoric expressions are essential in reading as they help you to make sense of what you are reading through linkages.

#### Self Asking Question:

Read the following sentences and identify anaphoric and cataphoric references: i. I saw Ram yesterday. He was on way to the market. ii. When I cut it, I was amazed because the cake had various kinds of fruit inside each of which tasted amazing.

### 1.2.2 Connectors in Reading: Cohesive Devices:

Anaphoric and Cataphoric reference are examples of *referencing* which are a type of *Cohesive Device*. There are other devices that you can identify while reading which will help you may sense of a text easily.

*Space for Learner's Notes*

#### Stop to Consider:

**Cohesive Devices** are words that show how different parts of a text fit together – they cue the reader about linkages between words in a text and thus contribute to the overall *coherence* in reading. Without these cohesive devices, reading would be a tedious exercise!

Halliday and Hasan (1976) argued that there are six major types of cohesive markers:

**a. Pronouns:** These are words that pick up their reference from another word/ phrase in the sentence. Although pronouns are typically anaphoric (they refer back to something that was identified earlier), they can be cataphoric too.

our sentence (i) above, you can see that the pronoun *he* is anaphoric since it refers back to Ram while *it* in ii) is cataphoric since it 'looks forward' to the phrase *the cake* for its elucidation.



i) I saw **Ram** yesterday. **He** was on way ...

ii) When I cut **it**, I was amazed because **the cake** had....

**a. Determiners and quantifiers:** Determiners are words like a/an/the which signal whether a piece of information is old or new. These help the reader pay attention to new information – in ii) above *the cake* implies that there is some reference of the thing (*it*) earlier.

**Quantifiers:** Quantifiers are words that indicate parts or measures of words occurring in a text. *Each* in line (ii) is a quantifier for 'fruit'. Similarly, *many, more, most, every, all* etc. are examples of quantifiers.

**b. Substitution:** Substitution allows for one word or set of words to be replaced by another. It allows a speaker or writer *not* to repeat information and also to indicate to the reader that there is linkage between the substituting and the substituted element. In (ii) above, *each of which* substitutes for *fruit*.

**c. Ellipsis:** An ellipsis indicates a left out element in a sentence. Consider the following example:

(iii) I always ask Rita to prepare for her exams in advance but she never does.

In (iii) above, you feel as if some part of the sentence is left out after *does* – this is because you can add the entire underlined segment above after the sentence and it would still make sense. An ellipsis, like *does* in this case, reconstructs information by considering the preceding sentence or context and thus minimizes the processing load for a reader.

iv) I always ask Rita to prepare for her exams in advance but she never does (prepare for her exams in advance).

**d. Lexical cohesion:** Cohesive devices which link two words or phrases through being semantically related are said to exemplify lexical cohesion. In other words, such lexical items are related through meaning associations with other items.

(v) The teacher knew that most of her pupils would submit the assignment on time but she also knew that some of her students would give excuses for not submitting.

In the above example, the word *pupils* is semantically related to the words *students*.

**e. Conjunctions:** Conjunctions typically link sentences through addition, association, contrast, dissociation etc.

In the above sentence (v), the word *but* is a conjunction that links two simple sentences (“*The teacher knew....on time*” and “*she also knew....submitting*”).

**Stop to Consider:**

What are the other cohesive devices that you can identify in v) above which help in your reading?

**Self Assessment Question:**

Take up a passage from newspaper or magazine article. Identify as many Cohesive Devices as you possibly can and group them under various types as shown above. Write a note on how these devices help you, as a reader, to understand the passage.

**1.2.3 More Examples: Logical Cohesive Devices:**

You will find cohesive devices liberally splattered across any written text that you read. A few more of these are given in Table 1 below to help you identify these devices when you read a text:

Type of Logical Devices	Type	Example in text
Addition	<i>Moreover, again, further, also, and, in addition to...</i>	"This house is very sunny. <u>Moreover</u> , it has a great view of the hills."
Comparison	<i>Similarly, compared with/to, in the same way</i>	" <u>Compared to</u> my old college, this one is cool."
Contrast and Concession	<i>Besides, but, however, instead, on the contrary, on the other hand, nevertheless, while</i>	"Aditya is otherwise a cool guy <u>but</u> he has this bad habit of smoking."
Enumeration	<i>First(ly), second(ly), finally, last (but not the least), to begin with</i>	"The IDOL courses of Gauhati University are really nice; <u>firstly</u> the units are written in simple English. <u>Secondly</u> , the units have lots of examples."
Exemplification	<i>For example, for instance, let us (take...), thus</i>	"The people of Japan are really hard working. <u>Thus</u> the country is doing so well economically."
Inference	<i>If not, in that case, otherwise, then</i>	"You must reach the airport on time. <u>If not</u> , they may deny you a boarding pass."

Summary	<i>In sum, in all, in short, in conclusion, to sum up, on the whole</i>	" <u>On the whole</u> , it was an awesome experience."
Time	<i>After, before, since, meanwhile, finally, at first, in the end</i>	"He tried to pry open the lock. <u>In the end</u> , he broke it."
Result	<i>Therefore, for the reason, accordingly, consequently, as a result.</i>	"It has rained continuously for five days. <u>As a result</u> , the Brahmaputra is flowing over the danger mark."
Reformulation	<i>In other words, that is (to say), to put it more simply/differently...</i>	"Aditi loves football and never misses any match. <u>In other words</u> , she is just crazy about the game."
Transition	<i>As far as...is concerned, incidentally, with reference to</i>	" <u>As far as</u> Rohit is concerned, I can vouch for his integrity."

Cohesive and logical devices are essential to the whole reading enterprise. Without these, you would find it difficult to understand a piece of written text.

#### 1.2.4 Types of Reading: Skimming, Scanning, Intensive, Extensive

There may be various types of reading styles depending on the sort of reading task you have at hand and the type of text you are dealing with. By and large, there are four major reading techniques:

- a) Skimming
- b) Scanning
- c) Intensive Reading
- d) Extensive Reading

Of these, *skimming* is best suited when you have to do what is known as *gist reading* – this sort of reading helps you know what the text is about at the most basic level. *Scanning* is useful when you are looking for specific information – in such type of reading, you quickly scan through the written maze of words looking for words that convey the specific information you

are looking for. When you go to have a meal at a restaurant for example, you quickly scan the menu to zero in on the type of food you want (unless of course you are really particular about the dish and read through its description meticulously!). *Intensive reading* is a type of reading that is much more time consuming than skimming or scanning – this type of reading helps the reader understand meanings of words in context and to increase vocabulary (See Section 1.4 on Vocabulary). Intensive reading helps with retention of information for longer duration of time and requires a high level of focus and deliberate effort. Finally, *extensive reading* involves reading for pleasure – it is, simply put, reading as much as possible without the reader worrying about the minutia of meaning.

### 1.2.5 Reading through Prediction or for Main Idea: Skimming

Suppose you are given a passage to read which begins like this:

#### **Killer Diseases of the World**

Malaria has been one of the most potent killer diseases in the world. However, it is nothing compared to cancer today. ....

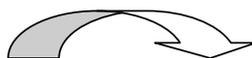
What is your guess – what is the rest of the passage about? Is it really about “killer diseases?” or about “malaria” or about “cancer”?

#### **Stop to Consider:**

Read the two lines of the passage carefully again and answer the following questions before you read further.

- What is the overall context of the passage?
- What is the immediate context?
- What are the key terms in the title and the initial two lines of the passage?
- What are the anaphoric and cataphoric references within the text?
- Are there other components that sort of glue the lines together? What, for example, is the role of the word *nothing* in the second line?

The moment you read the title – “Killer Diseases of the World” – you should know that the passage will be about diseases that have killed (people). How do you know that this pertains to humans rather than diseases in the animal world or the plant world? It should be surprising to you that you have assumed this information – it proves that reading is a complex process which is socially and culturally determined. Your assumption that the passage will be about *killer diseases in humans* is a big part of what is called your *presupposition*: there is nothing in the title that proclaims that the passage is related to human diseases – you have simply assumed it! Of course the first line seems to confirm your presupposition (even though malaria afflicts animals too). If you take the first line of the passage (written as a) below) at face value, it would seem that the rest of the passage *will* be about malaria. However, there are hints in this line itself to say that the passage will be about more than just malaria:



a) Malaria **has been** one of the **most potent killer diseases** in the world.

The use of the present continuous tense positions malaria as *one* of many killer diseases – the word *one* is a quantifier that forward references to ‘most potent killer diseases’.

Further, the following line (reproduced as b) below) completely shifts the focus from malaria to another disease: cancer. Significantly, the contrastive disease (cancer) occurs nearly at the end of the second line in order to **focus** this information.

When you skim through the text, you are liable to pay attention to this aspect and hence can safely expect that the rest of the passage will be about cancer in the larger context of killer diseases of the world.

b) **However, it** is nothing compared to **cancer today**.

If you look at how the words in b) relate to a), you will be surprised at the number of associations and cross references that aid your reading:

- i. The word *However* sets you up for a **contrastive focus** and signals to you (the reader) that something else will follow that will subvert the claim in a). Indeed, it does follow that instead of malaria, cancer gets the focus as a killer disease.
- ii. *It* is an anaphoric reference that links back and substitutes for malaria in a)
- iii. *Nothing* helps to contextualize and sharpen the contrasts – as a reader, you will be subconsciously aware that *nothing* in some way relates to ‘most potent killer disease’.
- iv. The appearance of a new content word *cancer* in b) helps the reader to shift focus.
- v. Finally, another content word *today*, **accentuates** the time dimension implied in the two lines – it helps to foreground *today* in b) as opposed to *has been* in a).

#### Check Your Progress (1):

Did point v above match all the bulleted points in the immediately preceding ‘Stop to Consider’ segment of this section? Are there any aspects of reading that were not covered in these points according to you? What are the new phrases/ definitions introduced in i-v above? If you have read carefully, you should be able to identify these.

#### 1.2.6 Reading for Specific Information: Scanning

Scanning is a reading technique to quickly locate specific information in a text. When you look for your roll number in a result sheet, or try to find the meaning of word in a dictionary, you are scanning a text.

#### Alert!

You will find an assignment for scanning very soon in this unit – brace yourself!

### 1.2.7 Reading for Main Idea/ Gist through Experience:

One of the main ways in which you can quickly get to the main gist of a text is to break up the text – apart from individually identifiable words (comprising of individually identifiable symbols), a written prose text is often divided into identifiable sentences which forms paragraphs. Each paragraph generally develops the content through similar identifiable segments: usually, you can expect any text to have an *introduction*, *main body* and *conclusion*. The introduction typically introduces the idea; the main body develops it and the conclusion finishes the written piece. All three occur within an overall structure and usually have a *frame of reference*. For example, in our two line passage, the title introduces the main idea within a certain frame (“killer diseases”) and the main body would comprise the two lines a) and b) that hints through the contrast (“however”) that the passage would be about cancer. There is no identifiable conclusion in this two line passage in the absence of which the gist would align cancer as the most potent killer disease in the world.

#### **Killer Diseases of the World**

Malaria has been one of the most potent killer diseases in the world. However, it is nothing compared to cancer today.

Effective reading for gist involves identification of central ideas/ themes of each natural segment of the text – in prose, this could be paragraphs and in poetry this could be stanzas. Reading for meaning or gist could pose a problem when you are given a different text format: it is here that you should rely on your experience and existing body of knowledge to unravel the meaning of a particular text. Consider the first five lines of Shakespeare's sonnet below:

#### **XCIX.**

*The forward violet thus did I chide:  
Sweet thief, whence didst thou steal thy sweet that smells,  
If not from my love's breath? The purple pride  
Which on thy soft cheek for complexion dwells  
In my love's veins thou hast too grossly dyed.*  
(William Shakespeare)

**Stop to Consider:**

What are the immediate problems you faced in understanding this poem?  
Jot these down straight away before you read further.

*Space for Learner's Notes*

For a person who is *not* from an English literature background – say your friend in the Department of Chemistry – reading this text poses challenges at multiple levels. First, poetry as a genre would be unfamiliar to her. Secondly, there are unfamiliar words in the text which belong to archaic English – such as *whence, didst, thou, thy*. Thirdly, even familiar words are used in quaint manner – what for example is the meaning of the phrase ‘forward violet’ or ‘thy sweet’? Still, even your friend with a different background has enough *worldknowledge* to decode the above lines from one of Shakespeare’s sonnets. S/he might not know that it is a sonnet, but still s/he would be able to read the lines and derive some semblance of meaning. For a person like you familiar with English literature, these may not be too insurmountable problems. But then, if you don’t know higher Roman numerals, you may be struggling with the very first symbols – XCIX – wondering what these mean! (Try and find out if you don’t know!).

**Self Assessment Question:**

Before you proceed, go to Question viii of the Question and Answer Section where the full text of Shakespeare’s Sonnet XCIX is given. Now read the poem many times and prepare a short summary. Be conscious of the *reading technique* by which you are reading the sonnet and then arriving at a meaning. Once you have finished your summary, check online for other interpretations of the Sonnet and see how close you were in terms of making out the meaning from the context.

**1.2.8 Type of Text and Reading:**

To a large extent, the reading technique you employ will depend on the type of text that you are dealing with. Generally four types of texts are distinguished which are presented in Table 2 below:

Table 2

Text type	Function	Examples
i. Descriptive	To describe; focuses on description of character/ place/ event	Descriptive passages in fiction, poetry, journals
ii. Expository	To explain; usually subject oriented with facts and figures	Textbooks, articles, business/ technical/ scientific writing
iii. Narrative	To tell a story; has characters/ situations/ dialogues	Novels, short stories, biographies, plays
iv. Argumentative or Persuasive	To convince; contains opinions, reasons, justifications	Opinion and editorial newspaper pieces, reviews, advertisements

### 1.3 Vocabulary:

*Vocabulary* comprises that word stock that you have in a particular language. It is an adage that the more number of words you know in a language, the greater are your language skills! There are times when vocabulary helps elevate a piece of writing while at others it seems to form a roadblock in understanding.

Look at the following examples:

- vi. Jyoti has a *liking* for a particular kind of red flowers.
- vii. Jyoti has a *predilection* for a particular kind of red flowers.

In spoken form, vi) may be more expected but in the written form vii) lends a certain distinction to the statement above all owing to a single lexical term: *predilection*. This particular word in line vii) may seem to somehow 'elevate' a normal sounding line to a different level. It lends a/an:

- certain *formality*,
- certain level of *complexity* and
- overall *impression* to the sentence

Essentially, the meaning of *liking* in vi) and *predilection* in vii) are the same but you can say that using a different word somehow establishes the latter sentence as being an important one! All manner of formal writing (business writing, technical reports, thesis writing etc.) employ such distinct vocabulary to a greater or lesser extent. Too much of it, however, will make it difficult to even comprehend a sentence and too technical words would render any line or text incomprehensible. We will deal with these problems of reading in the next section.

### 1.3.1 Vocabulary: Unknown and Technical words

Consider viii-xii below:

- viii) “Do not mollycoddle me!”
- ix) “Your floccinaucinihilipilification is simply exasperating!”
- x) “Pneumonoultramicroscopicsilicovolcanoconiosis was one of the top issues discussed at the Youth Select Committee in UK a few years back.”
- xi) “We are trying to assess if this was non-ST segment elevation myocardial infarction or ST segment elevation myocardial infarction”
- xii) “Any sesquipedalian would love some of the above words – the rest of us are simply hippopotomonstrosesquipedaliophobic!”

Contextually, you could try to make sense of *mollycoddle* in viii) as meaning some kind of ‘looking down or indulging’ but understanding gets impossibly difficult with the long words in ix-x. You can make sense of these long words only if you know what they mean in their technical sense. Yet, your *life world experience* could assist you in understanding that xi) deals with something medical (a heart attack) while xii) possibly pertains to ‘loving or not loving long sentences’. You can decipher xii) because the previous lines give you enough context regarding its interpretation. If you think about it, you have enough understanding of these impossibly long words contextually!

As a fun exercise, try and find out the meanings of the long words in viii-xii. You would have enriched your vocabulary for sure!

### 1.3.2 Vocabulary Scanning and Linkages:

When you read sentence, for example vi) above, there is another thing that you do to arrive at the gist – you *scan* through the sentence in a way that highlights certain words and *not* others. The way you possibly do it is highlighted in bold below:

**vi. Jyoti has a liking for a particular kind of red flowers**

The words which are highlighted above are what are called **content words** while the others are called **function words**. While both content words and function words serve important tasks in a sentence, when you scan a sentence for its basic information, you are essentially focusing on the content words and that is how you derive meaning quickly. Let us discuss these concepts further:

### Content Words and Function Words

Content words, sometimes also called *lexical* words, belong to the major Parts of Speech viz. **Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives and Adverbs**. These words are essential to the central meaning component and are *open categories* in the sense that each category has a large number of different words in them. Languages readily add new members to these categories through borrowing from other languages or invention/extension of new words.

Eg: a) Just **google** it!

Chances are, your parents' generation never used a verb like *google* in a) above when they were young simply because Google had not been invented then. This extended use of the term Google is now acceptable at least in everyday speech to mean something like "Just look it up in the Internet search engine Google".

The word Google started out as a service in the first case – and belonged to the category of Nouns as regards Parts of Speech. Now however, the use has been extended to imply the action associated with the service and hence the use of 'google' in a) is like that of a Verb! So a language invents lexical items sometimes and these add to the vocabulary of that particular language. Speakers then extend the use of that term to further adapt the use of that term.

**Function Words**, sometimes also referred to as *grammatical* words, belong to smaller categories

Which are said to be *closed categories* in the sense that each such category has relatively few members and languages usually resist borrowing or inventing new words as function words. Examples of such categories are:

- a) Determiners/ articles and deictics: a/an/ the; this/ that/ these/those
- b) Pronouns: she/her; his/him/ it; herself/himself/itself
- c) Prepositions: in/on/ to/ of
- e) Quantifiers: some/ many/ all/ none

In sum, function words elucidate how content words relate to each other in a phrase, clause or sentence or how bits and pieces of information fit into the overall ongoing communication: in our earlier example, even if you remove the function words, the sentence would convey its essential meaning to you and that is what scanning is all about.

vi. Jyoti has... liking... particular kind...red flowers.

Essentially, when you read something, *you scan for content words in the vocabulary*. You then link these content words to arrive at the gist of the text.

*Space for Learner's Notes*

### Check Your Progress (2)

In order to challenge yourself, you could select longer texts and then set up a stopwatch before you start reading it. See how long it takes you to understand the passage. Such an exercise will help you in your course as well as in competitive exams that have Reading and Comprehension Sections!

### 1.3.3 Word Maps and New Vocabulary

There are places where the meaning of sentence cannot be gleaned from its context – for example, in the sentence ‘Jyoti has a predilection for a particular kind of red flowers’, if you did not know the meaning of *predilection*, the sentence may seem incomprehensible to you. *Predilection* is a content word and in a sense, the pivot for the entire sense. The sentence will give off a completely different meaning if you understand the word *prediction* contextually as ‘dislike’ or ‘allergy’.

i. Jyoti has a *repugnance* for a particular kind of red flowers.

### Stop to Consider:

Check out these words below – they have all occurred in this very text. As part of your reading challenged to which you were alerted earlier, quickly scan through the above passages to locate these words and then write down their meanings contextually:

*presupposition*

*elucidation*

*accentuatessubvert*

*insurmountable*

Of the above words, which were the ones that you did not know earlier? Try and see if you can break them into still smaller parts. If a word is divisible

into recognizable smaller units, then each of these segments is called a **morpheme**. The word *stars*, for example, has two morphemes – a **free morpheme** which can stand on its own (*star*) and a **bound morpheme** (the plural marker ‘-s’) which attaches to free morpheme to form another independent word and morpheme: *stars*. Most of the time, bigger words are built from smaller identifiable free and bound morphemes. Of the five words listed in table 3, the first can be broken into smaller components like:

*Presupposition* pre+suppose+ition

While *suppose* is the free morpheme, the other two bound morphemes combine to form another free morpheme (and word) *Presupposition*.

When you encounter vocabulary which is unfamiliar, you can thus understand meaning either from a) the context b) breaking up of words into smaller components c) through your own life experiences. In this last section, we shall briefly look at some other features of language that may pose a challenge to reading skills.

### 1.3.4 Collocations / Idioms and Phrases

**Collocations** are words that typically go together: ‘Happy New Year/ Merry Christmas’. All languages exhibit this feature in that certain words belong with each other. Collocations can be combinations of any parts of speech as given in Table 4 below:

**Table 4**

adverb + adjective	Utterly stupid/ fully aware
adjective + noun	regular exercise/ maiden voyage
verb + noun	Committed suicide/
noun + noun	Ceasefire agreement/ memorandum of understanding

**Idioms** are a collection of words or phrases which have a figurative meaning. Since these collections of words are well established and known, they cannot be taken at face value.

Example: Please don't *beat around the bush*

Your grades are falling – it is time you *pulled up your socks*

I visit my ancestral home *once in a blue moon*

Your exams are over – so go and *have a blast*.

**Phrases** are groups of content and function words that act like a unit; they are really units of a sentence like:

Noun Phrase: *The pretty young girl* went home

Verb Phrase: The children *are playing*

Preposition Phrase: The cup was *on the table*

While reading any text, you should pay attention to the collocations, phrases and idioms as they are crucial to the understanding of the text. The more extensive reading you undertake, the more your vocabulary will improve with regard to these features of language.

#### 1.4 Summing Up:

In this section you have been introduced to reading; its contexts; cohesive and lexical devices that aid reading; types and techniques of reading; reading for main gist and types of reading texts. You have also been introduced to vocabulary; how to make sense of unknown or technical vocabulary, scanning and linkages, content and function words; word maps and new vocabulary.

Hope this unit has been useful to you. Try and cultivate reading habits and improve your vocabulary in as many languages as possible because they will stand you in good stead in life.

#### 1.5 References and Suggested Readings:

Butler, L. (2002). *Password 1: A Reading and Vocabulary Text*, Longman, 2002

Halliday, M.A.K; and Ruqayia Hasan (1976): *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman.

McCarthy M. and O'Dell, F. (1994). *English Vocabulary in Use*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

Shakespeare, W. *Sonnet XCIX*. <http://www.shakespeares-sonnets.com/Archive/allsonn.htm>

(DOA 14.8.2019)

#### Online resources for further reading

<https://www.pdfdrive.com/vocabulary-books.html>

<https://www.pdfdrive.com/reading-comprehension-books.html>

### 1.6 Model Questions:

- i. What is reading and what are the other language skills associated with it? Do you think there is any hierarchy or linearity between these skills – which do you think came first and why?
- ii. What is the difference between 'vocabulary' and 'lexicon'? Explain with your own examples.
- iii. Write a note on Cohesive Devices
- iv. What is a reading technique? Why is a technique required when you read a text?
- v. Define the following terms: *deictic terms, lexicon, anaphoric and cataphoric reference,*
- vi. What are open and closed categories of words? Explain with a few examples.
- vii. What kind of reading technique are you most likely to employ when you are:
  - a) Looking for a word in a dictionary or thesaurus?
  - b) Reading a comprehensive passage in an exam?
  - c) Reading the headlines of a newspaper?
  - d) Reading novels by different authors?
  - e) Reading a research report?
  - f) Reading a letter or an email?

- viii. Read the following Sonnet and then prepare a short summary

#### **XCIX**

*The forward violet thus did I chide:*

*Sweet thief, whence didst thou steal thy sweet that smells,*

*If not from my love's breath? The purple pride*

*Which on thy soft cheek for complexion dwells*

*In my love's veins thou hast too grossly dyed.*

*The lily I condemned for thy hand,*

*And buds of marjoram had stol'n thy hair:*

*The roses fearfully on thorns did stand,*

*One blushing shame, another white despair;*

*A third, nor red nor white, had stol'n of both*

*And to his robbery had annex'd thy breath;*

*But, for his theft, in pride of all his growth  
A vengeful canker eat him up to death.  
More flowers I noted, yet I none could see  
But sweet or colour it had stol'n from thee.*  
(William Shakespeare)

- ix. Look at the types of texts included in Table 2. Now map reading techniques best suited for each kind of text.
- x. What are free and bound morphemes? Explain with your own examples how they can aid reading.

**1.7 Answer to Check Your Progress:**

The answer to 'Check Your Progress' (1) is that the new concept is *content word* explained in 1.4.2.

====x====

*Space for Learner's Notes*



## **Unit: 2**

### **WRITING AND GRAMMAR**

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##### **2.2.4 Use of Tenses**

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##### **2.2.7 Questions and Question Types**

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##### **2.3.6 Writing Expanded Definitions**

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##### **2.3.8 Writing a Summary**

##### **2.3.9 Writing about Differences**

##### **2.3.10 Writing about Changes**

#### **2.4 Summing Up**

#### **2.5 References and Suggested Readings**

#### **2.6 Model Questions**

#### **2.7 Answers to Check Your Progress**

## 2.0 Introduction:

The conventional definition of grammar describes it, as a set of rules and regulations, which help us to understand, speak and write a language properly. If 'proper' means sticking to rules and regulations, then the definition needs to be changed, since in this era of globalisation and knowledge boom, code-switching and code-mixing have brought in many changes in almost all the languages. Studies have revealed that most of the languages are getting enriched with borrowings from different languages. There is nothing wrong or shocking in that, since borrowing happens to be an eternal process in the making of any language.

There is another dimension to look at things related to a language- grammar is not a pre-condition of learning a language. Here comes the context of learning and acquisition. Mother-tongue or first language is acquired from general communication within the family situation with very little effort. In fact, mother-tongue comes to us spontaneously. On the other hand, in case of second language, third language or consecutive numbers, it has to be learnt. Language learning is an arbitrary process happening through repetition. It entails four consecutive processes together called- LSRW viz. Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing. After listening carefully to a language spoken around, one tries to repeat and reproduce those expressions, and this leads to the art of speaking. Here comes the more useful and complex process of language learning i.e. reading. Reading helps building vocabulary, identifying dark areas of a language and tackling the usage. The more you read, the more effectively you can write and for writing, grammar is a necessity. At present, grammar is being neglected due to the increasing use of monosyllabic and 'only sense-carrying' conversational sentences. Informal conversations in different social media have also kept aside grammatical norms. However, to learn a language with all its dark areas, complexes, prosody and rhetoric, having a sound knowledge of grammar is a precondition.

## 2.1 Objectives:

This unit is an endeavour to throw some light on particular areas of English Grammar and to see how they help in writing correct English. After reading this unit students will be able to-

- *Learn* the most important elements of grammar of English which are very necessary to communicate.

- *Understand* the usage of these elements in particular situations with necessary exceptions.
- *Analyse* how these elements work as a precondition of writing.
- *Apply* their knowledge in writing.

*Space for Learner's Notes*

## **2.2 Grammar:**

Huddleston and Pullum, in the Preface to *A Student's Introduction to English Grammar*, opine that “Although a knowledge of grammar will not on its own create writing skills, there is good reason to think that understanding the structure of sentences helps to increase sensitivity to some of the important factors that distinguish good writing from bad.” (Huddleston and Pullum 2005: vii) At present, there is no profession, in which writing good English is not a must. To make oneself more pertinent and indispensable in his own domain or profession, one needs to have sound knowledge of grammar and better writing skills. Until and unless one cannot express his views in proper terms confidently, he will not be given his due rights and respect. Therefore, the popular viewpoint should not be that, writing correct English is a necessity only for those who study English language and literature.

### **Stop to Consider**

Suppose, you are in an interview in which the selection will be done on the basis of writing what your vision will be when you join the service. You are very passionate regarding the nature of the job and hypothetically you have the best vision amongst all the interviewees, but you cannot express it in proper terms because you have deficiency in your writing. You are going to lose the opportunity.

The more and more you know and practise, the more confident you become.

### **2.2.1 Determiners:**

Generally, determiners qualify noun and therefore they always sit before nouns. But they cannot be called adjectives because function-wise they are different from each other. Determiners are placed before nouns, to

demonstrate a wide range of meaning and differences, viz. possession, number and so on.

Determiners can be categorised under certain classes-

- a. Articles: a, an, the
- b. Demonstratives: this, that, these, those
- c. Possessives: my, our, your, his, her, their, its
- d. Quantifiers: some, many, much, any, one, two, three
- e. Ordinals: first, second, last
- f. Wh-determiners: what, which, whose
- g. Pre-determiners: half, both, all

#### a. ARTICLES:

There are two types of articles in English- **Indefinite** and **Definite**. 'A' and 'an' are indefinite articles since they do not refer to any specific object, whereas 'the' is definite article only because it identifies particular object/s.

On the other hand, 'a' sits before words starting with consonant sounds and 'an' sits before words starting with vowel sounds. For example, a mango, a task, an apple, an umbrella.

But there are certain exceptions. For example,

**A European:** there are certain words in English, which starts with either /j/ or /w/ sound. They sound like the processed form of two vowels. Such kinds of word take 'A' as article, though they start with a vowel. Some other examples are, a union, a unique attempt, a one rupee etc.

**An hour:** though the word 'hour' starts with a consonant, it is taking 'an' as article because 'h' is silent here. Some other examples are, an honest man, an honorarium etc.

**An MLA:** MLA is the abbreviated form of Member of Legislative Assembly. Here the abbreviated form MLA starts with a vowel sound and that's why it takes 'an' as article. Some other examples are, an RRL graduate, an ST candidate, an MP etc.

Ultimately, sound or pronunciation matters in case of indefinite articles.

#### Use of the Definite Article 'the':

1. When a particular person or object is referred to, then 'the' is used.  
e.g. Please stop *the* bus.  
*The* person you called is known to me.

2. Generally, material nouns like gold, iron, water, do not take an article. But to refer to one specific case, 'the' is used.  
e.g. *The* gold having hallmark is pure.  
(the same applies to *lunch, dinner, books, apples, cotton etc.*)
3. A nation/community takes 'the' as article, but language does not.  
e.g. Assamese is spoken by *the* Assamese.
4. From the point of view of existence, when something is singular, that takes 'the'.  
e.g. *The* Nile is a big river.  
*The* Titanic is a famous ship.
5. Name of a person never takes an article. But when a name is used with special reference to something, then 'the' is used.  
e.g. Shakespeare is *the* Kalidasa of England.  
*The* Mr. Boruah, who came to you yesterday, is my colleague.
6. Superlative degree of any adjective takes 'the' as article.  
e.g. China is *the* most populous country in the world.
7. To refer to the whole class of something, 'the' article is used.  
e.g. *The* rich are not always happy.  
*The* horse is a fast runner.

**b. DEMONSTRATIVES:**

As the name goes, demonstratives demonstrate or show something. It also refers to numbers, whether it is singular or plural.

- e.g. I like *this* photograph.  
*That* bicycle is mine.  
He bought *these* books.  
*Those* sarees are beautiful.

**c. POSSESSIVES:**

Possessive determiners refer to someone's possessions or belongings. When one asks the question 'Whose?' the answer is possessive determiner.

- e.g. This is *my* house.

He lost *his* wallet in the gathering.

Tina broke her hand in the accident.

**d. QUANTIFIERS:**

Quantifier refers to the quantity or amount of something. These may be vague uncountable words or specific countable words. Some grammarians make a separate category for Numbers. But this can be included in quantifier category too.

e.g. She did not taste *any* dishes.

There is *some* rice in the sack.

*Many* students came to me in the morning.

There isn't *much* sugar in the pot.

The king killed *seventy* tigers.

*Every* member visited the diseased president.

Neither method is proper.

**e. ORDINALS:**

Ordinal refers to order or sequence. It refers to a particular position, particularly what comes after what.

e.g. It was the *first* time I visited England.

He is the *last* man to book a seat.

'You' are in the *second* group.

**f. WH-DETERMINERS:**

Wh-words very commonly refer to questions. After using one wh-word, we definitely get an answer. Therefore, though these are questioning words, they happen to be determiners.

e.g. *Which* flavour do you prefer the most?

*What* factor can make you so desperate?

**g. PRE-DETERMINERS:**

Pre-determiners sit on the left edge of a noun phrase. They sit even before the determiner. Therefore, these are called pre-determiners.

e.g. He died immediately after publishing *his* first novel.

*Both* his sons became drunkard.

*The* diseased old man needs to be taken care of.

*All* his plans went in vain.

**Check Your Progress**

**Question 1.** What matters in case of indefinite articles?

**Question 2.** What does 'ordinal' refer to?

**Question 3.** What do you understand by 'pre-determiner'?

**2.2.2 Verbs:**

Verb is a word used to describe an action, a state or an occurrence of something. In simple terms, it is an action word. To make any statement we normally use a clause or a sentence. The first part consisting of the noun or noun phrase is called subject. The next part that operates on the action of the whole sentence is called predicate. The very word that refers to the particular action is called a 'verb'. Here, we will throw light on verbs and verb phrases.

Depending on their nature, verbs are divided into different groups.

- (a) Regular verbs and irregular verbs,
- (b) Main verbs and auxiliary/helping verbs,
- (c) Transitive verbs and intransitive verbs

Verbs always have three forms- a. Present or v1, b. Past or v2 and c. Past Participle or v3.

**Regular verbs** always take '-ed' after it to turn into Past and Past Participle. e.g.

lift-lifted-lifted      play-played-played      capture-captured-captured

**Irregular verbs** however, do not follow this rule. Their pattern differs from word to word. e.g. Say-said-said, speak-spoke, spoken, see-saw-seen, begin-began-begun, cut-cut-cut, put-put-put, hit-hit-hit etc.

On the other hand, **Main verbs** are plainly action verbs. They refer to certain action and occurrence. e.g. work, play, sing, swim etc. **Auxiliary verbs** cannot work independently. They help main verbs to give a particular meaning by creating a verb phrase or verb cluster. e.g. is singing, be done, used to play etc.

English auxiliary verbs are of two types: **Primary Auxiliary** and **Modal Auxiliary**. Primary auxiliary verbs are- am, is, are, was, were, have, has, had, do, does and did. Modal auxiliary verbs are- shall, should, will, would, can, could, may, might, must, used to, ought to, need and dare.

**Use of Primary Auxiliary verbs:**

- 1. I *am* writing a letter.
  - 2. We *are* singing a carol.
  - 3. Raghu *is* calling his sister
  - 4. She *was* living in this house.
  - 5. You *were* preparing for the feast.
- } "Be" verb

- 1. We *have* written an application.
  - 2. She *has* cleared C-TET.
  - 3. They *had* killed the Mohan Man Eater.
- "Have" verb

- 1. I *do* not like coffee.
  - 2. He *does* not show anger.
  - 3. *Did* you have any friend with you in the meeting?
- "Do" verb

All these verbs sometimes also work like lexical or main verbs. For example,

- \*Please *do* the work.
- \*He *is* Mr. Gogoi.
- \*They *are* African delegates.
- \*I *have* ten books on Gandhi.

**Modal Verbs:**

A modal verb is a type of auxiliary used to refer to certain states and situations like- ability, permission, possibility or obligation. As we have already mentioned the modal auxiliaries in the previous part, here we are

going to talk about different qualifications of modal verbs. Modal verbs do not have *-s* forms, *-ing* forms, or *-ed* forms. Some modal auxiliaries like *shall*, *will*, *can* and *may*, have the past forms: *should*, *would*, *could* and *might*. The remaining modal verbs (*must*, *need*, *dare*, *ought to*, *used to*) do not have such forms.

### Use of Modal Verbs:

#### Can-could:

1. *Can* is used in case of looking for or giving permission. e.g. "Can I borrow your book?" *Could* is also used to ask for or give permission, but in a more polite sense. "Could I borrow your lantern for some days?"
2. *Can* and *could* are used to refer to ability too. e.g. "She could make everybody laugh." "She can speak English fluently."
3. To refer to possibility, sometimes *can* is used. e.g. "Accidents can take place anytime."

#### May-might:

1. For permission, *may* and *might* are used. *Might* is more polite. e.g. "May I come in?" "You may leave now." "Might I go back home?" But here, it is less permission and more suggestion.
2. For possibility, *may* is used. For strong possibility, *might* is used. e.g. "He may come tomorrow." "It might rain very soon." In the second sentence, the speaker is almost sure about the upcoming rain.
3. To refer to wish or blessing, *may* is used. e.g. "May God bless you."
4. To refer to a light complaint or irritation, *might* is used. e.g. "You might have studied harder for the examination."

#### Shall-should-will-would:

1. For future time references, *shall* and *will* are used. e.g. "I shall cook soon." "They will go there."
2. For requesting, *will* is used. e.g. "Will you help me out?" For more polite request, *would* is used. e.g. "Would you mind clicking a photo?"

3. To express interest or wish, *shall* is used. e.g. "Shall I make coffee for you?"
4. To give advice, suggestion or to refer to duty, *should* is used. e.g. "We should respect our national anthem."
5. To refer to strong determination, *would* is used. e.g. "I would never do that."
6. To refer to past habit, *would* is used. e.g. "He would go there for singing practice."

**Must:**

To refer to a strong necessity, compulsion or emphatic advice and strong assumption, *must* is used. e.g. "We must unite to defeat them." "You must study hard." "He must be sick."

**Ought to:**

A necessity or requirement always takes *ought to*. Its use is almost same as *should*, but a bit stronger in degree. e.g. "You ought to be terrified at his behaviour."

**Dare-need:**

These two verbs are different from other modal verbs because they have '–s' and '–ed' forms. Need- needs and needed, dare- dares and dared. These words have their own independent lexical meanings. But when we use these two as auxiliaries, the consecutive main verb creates an emphasis. e.g. "Dare not show me your face." "He needs to be careful in this matter."

**Used to:**

It refers to a past habit. It does not have any present counterpart. e.g. "I used to play football in this field when I was a kid."

If someone makes it 'use to' by omitting the past tense marker to use it in present tense, it will be a big blunder.

**Transitive verbs** and **Intransitive verbs** are two categories of verbs divided on the basis of use of objects. A transitive verb completes its sense only if it operates on an object. Transitive means 'to affect something else' i.e. the object. On the other hand, intransitive verbs do not require an object to make sense. But there are some verbs which can be used both ways.

e.g. Please *bring* some flowers. (Here 'bring' is a transitive verb. Without the object the sense of the sentence is incomplete. 'Please bring' does not mean anything. If you remove the object, there will always be a question-Bring what, or who?)

The dog *ran*. They *shouted*. (In these two sentences, the sense is complete. No question will arise asking- Ran what, or shouted what or who? These sentences are complete even in the absence of objectives. These are called Intransitives.)

There are certain verbs, which suit both the categories. For example, "She sang". The listener may be content with the statement, because very obviously singing always refers to 'a song'. Nobody sings a drama or an essay. But if somebody insists on learning what she sang, there too may be answers- she sang a carol, or she sang our National Anthem. Therefore, either way it is correct. 'To sing' is both transitive and intransitive. 'To leave', 'to read' are some other verbs of this type.

### **Phrasal Verbs:**

In English, there is a particular category of verbs called Phrasal verbs which combines two or more words from different grammatical categories: verbs, particles and prepositions. They do not have word-wise individual meanings, but a meaning emanating from a multi-word verb. For example,

Bring up (m. To raise): Surdas was *brought up* by two weavers.

Dress down (m. To wear informal clothes): Why do you always *dress down*?

Look forward to (m. To wait for): We are *looking forward to* the Prime Minister's arrival.

### **Idioms:**

An idiom is a group of words established by constant and continuous usage and its meaning cannot be deduced from individual words used. These are certain artistic terms in different languages. Literal meaning is missing in these terms. They have metaphorical meaning and hence, preserve the beauty of a language.

In English too, there are so many idiomatic expressions. A few specimens are given below:

**The ABC of something (basics):** We have learnt only *the ABC of Yoga*.

**The Apple of the Eye (dearly loved person):** Sankardeva was the *apple of his grandmother's eye*.

**Beat about the bush (discuss a matter without coming to the point):** I've given you only five minutes to throw light on the matter. So stop beating about the bush.

**Bring to book (to punish):** The High court *brought* the miscreants *to book*.

**Crying need (an urgency):** Optimum employment is the *crying need* of India.

**As dry as dust (tedious):** The collector's speeches are *as dry as dust*.

**Eat humble pie (too much humble):** The shopkeeper *ate humble pie* to attract more customers.

**Fall flat (not to have the desired effect):** All his endeavours to accomplish the mission *fell flat*.

**Give way (to break):** The old bridge *gave way* due to heavy floods last year.

**Hang around (wait in a place doing nothing):** She was hanging around the park when I saw her.

**Know something backwards (to know well):** The MLA claims to *know the constitution backwards*.

**Leaps and bounds (very much):** Our generation has seen the country's growth *by leaps and bounds*.

**Man of letters (a literary man):** My father is a *man of letters*.

**Null and void (not valid):** This notification is now considered *null and void*.

**Once in a blue moon (very rarely):** Blooming of bamboo flowers happens *once in a blue moon*.

**Part and parcel (an integral part):** He has become a *part and parcel* of the organisation.

**A red letter day (special day):** The 26<sup>th</sup> of January is *a red letter day* for India.

**Sail under false colours (to pretend to have certain character):** People finally realised that the representative was *sailing under false colours*.

**Take heart (to be happy):** A teacher always *takes heart* when his students succeed.

**Ugly Customer (harmful people):** We need to recognise the *ugly customers* amidst us.

**Washed out (too tired):** After the tiresome audit, everyone felt completely *washed out*.

#### Check Your Progress

**Question 4.** In what aspect are modal auxiliaries different from primary auxiliaries?

**Question 5.** Amongst modals, which verb refers to a past habit?

**Question 6.** What does 'transitive' mean?

#### Self Asking Questions

Do you think it is more important to memorise exceptions of grammatical rules?

#### 2.2.3 Contracted Forms:

Contracted words or contractions are words formed out of two or more words. It is a grammatical process in which certain letters from both the words are omitted, and they are replaced by an apostrophe. There are two types of contractions in English. They are-

- a. Noun/pronoun etc. + auxiliary verb (e.g. I + am = I'm, he + has = he's)
- b. Auxiliary verb + not (e.g. are + not = aren't, will + not = won't)

*Space for Learner's Notes*

Contracted forms of the verb ***to be***

I am	I'm
We are	We're
You are	You're
He is	He's
She is	She's
It is	It's
They are	They're
There is	There's
Is not	Isn't
Are not	Aren't
Was not	Wasn't
Were not	Weren't

Contracted forms of the verb ***to have***:

I have	I've
We have	We've
You have	You've
He has	He's
She has	She's
It has	It's
They have	They've
There has	There's
I had	I'd
We had	We'd
You had	You'd
He had	He'd
She had	She'd
It had	It'd
They had	They'd
There had	There'd
Has not	Hasn't
Have not	Haven't
Had not	Hadn't

Contracted forms of modal auxiliary **will**:

I will	I'll
We will	We'll
You will	You'll
He will	He will
She will	She'll
It will	It'll
They will	They'll
There will	There'll

Contracted forms of the modal verb **would**:

I would	I'd
We would	We'd
You would	You'd
He would	He'd
She would	She'd
It would	It'd
They would	They'd
There would	There'd

Contracted forms of other Modal Verbs:

Can not	Can't
Could not	Couldn't
Dare not	Daren't
Might not	Mightn't
Must not	Mustn't
Need not	Needn't
Ought not	Oughtn't
Shall not	Shan't
Should not	Shouldn't
Will not	Won't
Would not	Wouldn't

*Space for Learner's Notes*

**Check Your Progress**

**Question 7:** What is a Contracted word?

**Question 8:** What is the contracted form of 'shall not'?

### Self Asking Questions

What is the difference between *its* and *it's*?

#### 2.2.4 Use of Tenses:

Tense refers to time. The idea of time has been divided into different zones- Past, Present and Future. Though we divide tenses into three types, very little water-tight distinctions are there. Many a times they overlap. There are again certain specifications within each tense zone. From the point of view of span and nature, these three tenses are again divided into four types. They are: Indefinite, Continuous, Perfect and Perfect Continuous. These types are identical among all the tenses. Although there are particular distinctions, Past Indefinite and Present Perfect overlap; again, Future Indefinite and Present Continuous overlap. In all these tenses, three aspects can be found. They are Progressive, Perfective and Certainty. Those will be discussed below.

#### Stop to Consider

Past Indefinite and Present Perfect both refer to a work that is finished. Both inferences are in past. So it is a matter of concern that up to what point Present Perfect covers and from what point the area of Past Indefinite starts.

#### Simple forms of Tenses:

As we have already talked about v1, v2 and v3, we are familiar with the present and past forms of verbs. Simple forms of tenses take those forms to create a sense. Simple Present or Present Indefinite takes v1 and Simple Past or Past Indefinite takes v2. Then what about Simple Future? Let us take some examples:

I *play* football.- Simple Present (Here, *play* is the present form or v1 of the verb 'play')

I *played* football.- Simple Past (Here, *played* is the past form or v2 of the verb 'play')

I *shall/will play* football. (Here, *play* is the root/base form of the verb 'play'. In simple future, the root form of the verb cannot work alone. It takes the help of future marking auxiliary-*shall/will*)

**Root/Base/Plain form of a verb:** Each and every verb has its root or base or plain form which is evident only in Simple Future sentences. Very often, people make mistakes by considering root form of a verb to be the present tense form. It is because most of the verbs have same roots and Present tense forms. But in case of 'be' and 'have' verbs only, it can be noticed. e.g.

Simple Present	Simple Past	Simple Future
He ( <i>is</i> ) an actor.	He ( <i>was</i> ) an actor.	He <i>will (be)</i> an actor.
He ( <i>has</i> ) a big building.	He ( <i>had</i> ) a big building.	He <i>will (have)</i> a big building.
They ( <i>eat</i> ) rice.	They ( <i>ate</i> ) rice.	They <i>will (eat)</i> rice.

From the above chart, we see the difference between root form and present tense forms of different verbs.

Root/Base/Plain Form	Present/Plain Present/v1	Past or v2	Past Participle or v3
Be	Am, is, are	Was, were	Been
Have	Have, has	Had	Had
Catch	Catch	Caught	Caught
Watch	Watch	Watched	Watched

Simple Present tense is used to refer to universal truth, habitual work and so on. Sometimes, simple present is not invariably used for referring to present time. For example, "The book fair opens next week." This sentence is referring to an incident which is going to happen sometime in the next week. Thus verbs sometimes show discrepancies.

Simple Past and Past Participle forms of a verb always take inflections, if it is not an irregular verb. For example, put – put – put, come – came – come etc. These are irregular verbs and therefore, inflection discrepancies can be seen. Examples of some regular verbs: kill – killed – killed, want – wanted – wanted etc.

### **Progressive aspect of Tenses:**

The name itself refers to some work which is in progress, which is ongoing. Suppose, I am writing a story, I am inside. I've already started it but not yet finished. The progressive aspect of a tense makes the sentence formation in the following manner:

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Subject + 'be' verb + 'ing' form of main verb + Object (optional)

With the change of tense, the progressive or continuous form of the verb i.e. the 'ing' form does not change. Since 'be' verb shows what tense the sentence is in, it gets changed. It can be best understood from the following diagram.

In Past tense, the work you are talking about was ongoing at a particular point of time. In Present, it is in progress. And in future, at the point of time you are referring to, the work will be going on.

Perfect continuous form of any tense also has the quality of progressive aspect since it also talks about something that is ongoing, but some more requirements are there in it. Therefore, it is called perfect progressive.

#### **Check Your Progress**

**Question 9:** What are the other terms available to refer to root form of a verb?

**Question 10:** What is an irregular verb?

#### **Future and degrees of Certainty:**

Certainty is not possible in regard to future. We are sure about past because we have seen or experienced it. We can be sure about present because it is happening. But future is something that we cannot foresee or foretell, what we can do is assume. But particular degrees of certainty are there and they decide the structure of the sentence.

In case of future time with certainty, we mostly use four expressions- will, going to, present continuous and simple present.

#### **Will:**

1. When there is no prior plan or decision what to do, we use 'will' for instant decision. For example, "I *will* see what I can do for her."
2. Very often we use the future marker 'will' with the verb 'to think'. For example, "I think I *'ll* pass this time."

3. We use 'will' to predict something. For example, "The scar will go away."

### **Going to:**

1. Before expressing, when we have a particular intention to do something, we use the term 'going to'. For example, "I am *going to* start my assignment today." Its colloquial form is also there. "I'm *gonna* help her in this regard."
2. Sometimes we use 'going to' to predict something. Here we are very sure about the happening because it is based on evidence and observation. For example, "The weather is very cloudy. It's *going to* rain soon."

### **Present Continuous:**

1. By using future expressions like 'tomorrow', 'next week' etc. We can turn a present continuous sentence into a future time referral. From this, we come to know that a plan exists before we speak. For example, "I *am attending* the Film Festival tomorrow."

### **Simple Present:**

1. When an event is scheduled or timetable is set, simple present is used. here too, we usually use a future term, 'next hour', 'tomorrow', 'at 6 AM' etc. For example, "The shopping mall *opens* next week." Only a few limited verbs are used in this way. They are- open, close, end, start, return, be, begin, finish, arrive, come, leave.

'Will' does not refer to any plan, which is why the expression has very less degree of certainty. The expression 'Going to' talks about an intention and that is why its degree of certainty is more than 'will'. Present continuous form talks about a particular plan and therefore, it is more certain than the first two expressions. When we use simple present tense to refer to future time, we know that it is scheduled already and we are almost sure of the happening. Thus, simple present expression for future time carries the maximum degree of certainty.

### **Special Uses of the Past:**

Past tense has four different forms like Present and Future and they are used only to refer to past time expressions. For example,

- a. I ate. (Simple Past)
- b. I was eating. (Past Continuous)
- c. I had eaten. (Past Perfect)
- d. I had been eating. (Past Perfect Continuous)

These are normal uses of past tense. Whereas, special uses are there too. These are discussed below:

1. We use simple past to refer to present or future in **hypotheses**. For example, "Suppose we *got* hurt."
2. Simple past is a common occurrence in case of **wishes**. For example, "I wish he *wasn't* so sick."
3. In case of **conditions**:
  - a. He could come first if he *studied* hard.
  - b. If Paul *was studying*, they would not disturb.
  - c. *Had* he *called*, I would have gone there.
4. Past Perfect is used for **hypotheses and wishes in the past**.
  - a. What if you *had* unknowingly *killed* him?
  - b. I wish he *had'nt* *scolded* her too much.
5. Different forms of past are used to refer to **polite expressions**:
  - a. I *was wondering* if the ENT doctor sat here.
  - b. I just *hoped* you would be able to provide me some more flavours

### Check Your Progress

**Question 11:** What does 'gonna' stand for?

#### 2.2.5 Conditional Sentences:

Conditional sentences show the relation between hypothetical statements and their probable consequences. Complete conditional sentences consist of a conditional clause or If-clause, and their consequences. Conditional sentences normally talk about causality, the relation between cause and effect.

Conditional sentences are of four types. They are: Zero Conditional, First Conditional, Second Conditional and Third conditional.

**Zero Conditionals** are general truths. It generally talks about what condition leads to a particular happening. It does not talk about any particular context,

but states a fact. Here, present indefinite tense is used in both the clauses. In the 'if-clause', both 'if' and 'when' can be interchangeably used.

For example, "If/when you *go* against laws, you *draw* punishment.

**First Conditionals** refer to likely outcomes. If some situations like this occur, then in future the result will be like this- this is the way first conditionals work. Here, present indefinite is used in the 'if-clause' and simple future or future indefinite is used in the main or consequence clause.

For example, "If you *study* hard, you *will pass* with flying colours."

**Second Conditional** sentences refer to a situation and its unrealistic outcomes. It is not likely to happen in future. Here, the if-clause takes simple past and the main clause takes a modal auxiliary verb (e.g. could, should, would, might) + plain form of the main verb.

For example, "If I *were* a king, I *would abolish* poverty from my country. {In conditional sentences, mostly in case of unreal conditions, the subject always takes 'were' as the past tense of 'be' verb.}

**Third Conditionals** refer to a situation in which present consequences would be different, if something particular happened in the past. This type of sentence gives a condition which did not happen in the past. If that happened, present result would be something else. Here, in the if-clause, past perfect is used and in the main clause, 'modal auxiliary (would, could, should etc.) + have + past participle of the main verb' - this formula is used.

For example, "If I *had booked* my tickets on time, I *could have travelled* to Europe now.

Or, *Had* I booked my tickets on time, I could have travelled to Europe now.

But in case of all these conditionals, one thing should be kept in mind. When the if-clause precedes the main clause, punctuation mark comma (,) should be used after the if-clause. But no punctuation mark is necessary when the main clause precedes the if-clause.

For example, "If you get wet in the rain, you will fall ill."

"You will fall ill if you get wet in the rain."

### Check Your Progress

**Question 12:** What does Zero Conditional refer to?

### 2.2.6 Comparatives and Superlatives:

Adjectives and adverbs are not absolute. There can be changes in their degrees. When we compare two things in regard to their qualities, it is called comparative degree. Again, when we compare more than two or, to be more specific, all units available, the form of adjective or adverb is called superlative.

The root form of the adjective or adverb is called positive. It is turned into comparative and superlative with the help of suffixes- 'er' and 'est'. Though we are generalising things, there are certain rules and regulations-

1. We use -er and -est after monosyllabic words (both adjectives and adverbs) to make them comparative and superlative respectively.

*For example:*

<b>Positive</b>	<b>Comparative</b>	<b>Superlative</b>
Tall	taller	tallest
Hot	hotter	hottest
Brave	braver	bravest
Soon	sooner	soonest
Fast	faster	fastest

(Words ending with a single vowel and a consonant after it double the last consonant. Words ending with 'e' take only -r and -st in consecutive degrees.)

2. If a word ends with 'y', in comparative and superlative degrees 'i' takes the place of 'y' and adds 'er' and 'est' to turn into consecutive degrees.

*For example:*

<b>Positive</b>	<b>Comparative</b>	<b>Superlative</b>
Dry	Drier	driest
Happy	happier	happiest

3. Words having two or more syllables always take 'more' and 'most' before the root word to show consecutive degrees.

*For example:*

<b>Positive</b>	<b>Comparative</b>	<b>Superlative</b>
Beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
Competent	more competent	most competent
Quickly	more quickly	most quickly

4. There are certain adjectives and adverbs which do not fall under any category.

<b>For example: Positive</b>	<b>Comparative</b>	<b>Superlative</b>
Good/well	better	best
Bad	worse	worst
Fore	former	foremost/first
Little	less	least
Much/many	more	most

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### **Check Your Progress**

**Question 13:** After what type of words are the suffixes ‘-er’ and ‘-est’ used?

### **2.2.7 Questions and Question Types:**

In English questions are called Interrogative sentences. The sentences, which are used to know something or enquire about something, are called Interrogative sentences. For example, “Where do you live?” It always looks for an answer. So, a question can be called an invoking sentence.

There are different types of question. They are-

- (a) Yes-no type questions
- (b) Wh-type questions
- (c) Tag questions
- (d) Intonation question
- (e) Alternative question and
- (f) Echo question.

**Yes-no type questions** normally start with an auxiliary. This question demands the answer in either ‘yes’ or ‘no’. For example, “Has the bus arrived?” “Will you marry me?” etc. On the other hand, when we turn a declarative sentence having no auxiliary verb to a question, then it takes the help of ‘to do’ verb. For example, “He hates this sweet.” This is only a statement. But when we turn it into a question, it becomes- “Does he hate this sweet?” This time the answer will not simply be the abovementioned line, but it’ll be like- “Yes, he hates this sweet.”

**Wh-type questions** start with ‘wh-’ question words like- who, which, whom, what, whose, when, where and why. Its answer cannot be given with ‘yes’ or ‘no’. And in these sentences, the ‘wh-’ word is followed by an

auxiliary. For example, "Who are you?" "Why does he behave like this?" Again, using certain nouns after the word -what, some questions regarding measurement can be asked. For example, "What height is your house?" Again, placing certain adjectives after 'how', questions can be made. E.g. "How big is your quarter?" If some prepositions are to be placed in a questioning sentence with 'what', the preposition goes to the end. E.g. "What are you running after?"

**Tag questions** unite one full-fledged sentence and an ornamental question tag. It is a repetitive yes-no type question used looking for an affirmation. E.g. "He is busy, isn't he?" "She does not play, does she?" From these two sentences we saw that a positive statement always takes the same auxiliary that has been used in the statement with a negative tag and vice-versa. But sentences, which possess main verbs rather than auxiliary verbs, take 'to do' verb. E.g. "He killed a tiger, didn't he?" If we use a noun in the statement, then we use the pronoun that stands for it in the question tag. "Rita helps everybody. Doesn't she?"

Some questions are simply statements from the point of view of their structure, but from the point of view of their intonation, they are questions. These questions are called **Intonation questions**. For example, "You haven't done the homework?"

**Alternative Questions** give us answers in the question itself. E.g. "Shall we come by bus or on foot?"

**Echo questions** are part of a statement. When somebody gives a statement, the listener wants repetition or assertion from his side. And to get that, some questions are asked that are called echo questions. For example,

Speaker A: "I hated the recipe."

B: "You hated it?"

C: "I like his attitude."

D: "You like what?"

#### Check Your Progress

**Question 14:** What does yes-no type question start with?

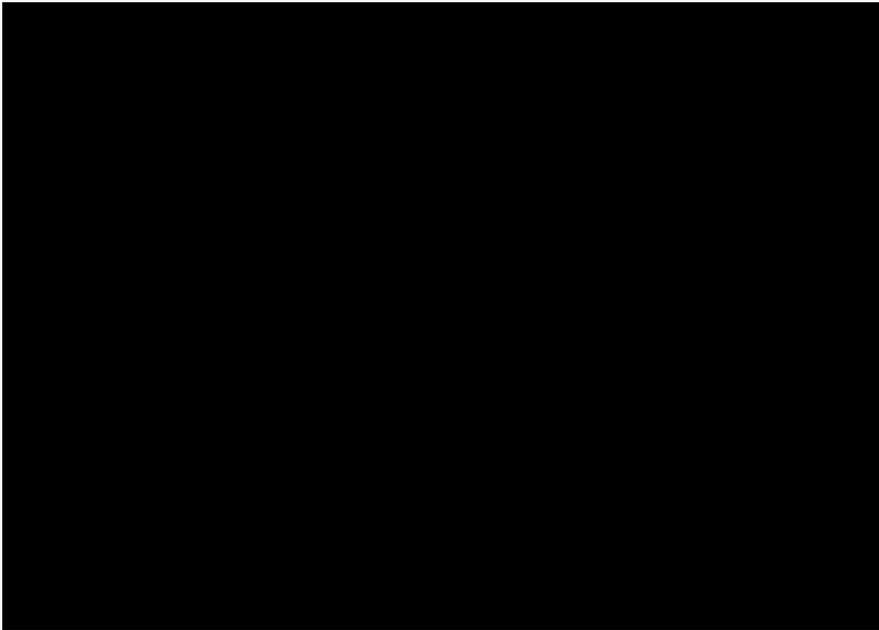
**Question 15:** Which type of question has the nature of a statement?

#### Self Asking Questions

What does echo-question echo?

### 2.2.8 Active and Passive Voice:

Voice in English describes the relationship between the action that has taken place as described by the verb and the participants. When the agent is active or the doer is the subject of the sentence, it is called an active voice. Sentences in which the agent undergoes an action or what happened is more important, is called a passive voice. For four different tense subtypes, a formulae table to turn an active voice into passive voice is prepared below:



(\*S= Subject, O= Object, v1= simple present form of a verb, v3= past participle form of a verb, Prep. = Preposition, M.V. = Main Verb, ‘-ing’ form of a verb is sometimes called a present participle and sometimes gerund. Therefore, it would be safer for us to call it simply the ‘-ing’ form.)

These laws go same with all three tenses. To change the tense, one needs to change the ‘be’ verb form and the formula will automatically fit into every tense.

For example:

Simple Present: Rice *is* eaten by me.

Simple Past: Rice *was* eaten by me.

Simple Future: Rice *will be* eaten by me.

The same goes with all the subtypes.

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Here, we have seen examples for assertive or declarative sentences. We need to take examples from other sentence types too.

**Interrogative sentence:**

*Why does your sister draw abstract paintings?*

We will go step by step to understand it. First of all, we will transform this sentence into a simple statement: *Your sister draws abstract paintings.*

Now this sentence is in S+V+O formula, which can be changed very easily: *Abstract paintings are drawn by your sister.*

Now turn this into an interrogative sentence using the Wh-word which was there in the first sentence.

➔ *Why are abstract paintings drawn by your sister?*

**Imperative sentence:**

*Close the door. Do the sum. Please help me.*

The formula to turn this type of sentence from active to passive is-

“let + O + be + v3 of M.V.” (Here, we always assume that there is a subject and that is ‘you’)

For example, “(You) Close the door.” (S+V+O)

In Passive voice- “Let the door be closed.”

**Optative Sentence:**

*May God help you.*

Another formula we need to grow here. Leave the auxiliary aside and the following part will automatically take the shape of S+V+O. *(May) God help you.* If we turn this into passive, it will be: *You are helped by God.* The process is not yet over, because we have left the auxiliary behind. After bringing in the auxiliary, the sentence will be like:

➔ *May you be helped by God.*

You may ask- why not ‘are’ but ‘be’? It is because, in the presence of an auxiliary, only the root form of the verb used. ‘Be’ is the plain or root form of ‘are’.

### Check Your Progress

**Question 16:** In imperative sentence, something remains ‘invisible’? What is it?

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#### 2.2.9 Indirect and Direct Speech:

While narrating another person's version, if we can quote it as it is, then it is called Direct speech. On the other hand, if we cannot put it the way that the person said and put it in our own words, then it becomes Indirect speech. In direct speech we use quotation marks or inverted commas; whereas in indirect speech, we do not.

For example, *He said, "I eat rice."* (Direct speech)

*He said that he ate rice.* (Indirect speech)

(The part of the sentence that draws our attention to what is said is called the ‘reporting clause’. On the other hand, exactly what is being said or the essence of saying is called the ‘reported clause’. In both the sentences given above, the part ‘He said’ is reporting clause and the part that follows is reported clause.)

Certain rules are there while changing the narration.

1. The gender of the noun in the reporting clause determines the gender of the pronoun in the reported clause:

<b>Direct</b>	<b>Indirect</b>
I	He/she
We	They
My	His/her
This	That
Our	Their
Us	Them
Me	Him/her
These	Those

2. If the reporting verb is in present tense, then the tense in reported verb in the indirect speech too will be present tense only.

3. Changes in time expressions also occur with the change of speech:

<b>Direct</b>	<b>Indirect</b>
Now	Then
Today	That day
Tomorrow	The next day, the following day
Yesterday	The previous day, the day before
Last night	The previous night, the night before
Ago	Before
Next Monday	The following Monday
Tonight	That night
The day after tomorrow	In two day's time

4. There are certain changes in place and some other expressions too.

<b>Direct</b>	<b>Indirect</b>
Here	There
Hence	Thence
Hither	Thither
This	That
These	Those
Thus	In that way

We will see sentence type-wise changes when we change the narration. At the same time, we will continue talking about rules:

### 1. Assertive/Declarative Sentence:

<b>Direct Speech</b>	<b>Indirect Speech</b>
Raghu said, "Only I will win."	Raghu said that only he would win.

- a. When the reporting clause is in past tense, the reported clause also turns into past counterparts of present indefinite, continuous and perfect. Shall and will directly change into should and would. But if the reported clause is in past indefinite, then it turns into past perfect.

For example:

1. He said, "She loves me."  
→ He said that she *loved* him.
2. He said, "She loved me."  
→ He said that she *had loved* him.

b. Reporting verb 'say' turns into 'tell' in the indirect speech.

For example:

1. Ram said, "I am not worried."  
→ Ram told that he was not worried.

## 2. Imperative Sentence:

**Direct:** The officer said to his assistant, "Please bring me the yellow file."

**Indirect:** The officer asked his assistant to bring him the yellow file.

- a. Looking at the intention of the speaker, the reporting verb is changed into- order, advise, tell, ask, request, suggest, command and so on.

**Direct:** He said, "let us go for a walk."

**Indirect:** He *suggested* that we should go for a walk. (When a sentence starts with 'let', the reporting verb turns into 'suggest' or 'propose'.)

- b. The main verb in the reported clause takes a 'to' before it.

**Direct:** The teacher said to me, "Do not tell a lie."

**Indirect:** The teacher advised me not *to tell* a lie.

## 3. Interrogative Sentence:

- a. The verb in reporting clause turns into 'ask' or 'enquire'
- b. In case of 'yes-no' type questions, two clauses are joined with 'if' or 'whether'.
- c. In case of 'wh-questions', two clauses are joined with the wh-question word itself.

**Direct:** Rohan said to me, "Do you need any help?"

Indirect: Rohan enquired if I needed any help.

Direct: Masum said to his mother, "When will father come back?"

Indirect: Masum asked his mother when his father will come back.

#### 4. Exclamatory Sentence:

- a. The verb in reporting clause turns into- exclaim, confess, praise, pray etc. In indirect speech.
- b. Depending on the expression in the reported clause, the reporting clause takes the help of some other nouns- joy, happiness, sorrow, wonder etc.

Direct: The man said, "How glad to meet you again!"

Indirect: The man exclaimed that it was glad to meet him again.

Direct: Akhyajit said, "Oh, the man died a premature death!"

Indirect: Akhyajit exclaimed with sorrow that the man had died a premature death.

#### Stop to Consider

Grammatical units are interlinked to one another. One part cannot be taken away from another part. While discussing one part, we need to give references to another topic. Therefore, there is always a problem what to place first in our discussion.

#### Check Your Progress

**Question 17:** What is the indirect form of 'tonight'?

#### Self Asking Questions

Why do we need to quote?

#### 2.3 Writing:

Writing is a medium alongside speaking, which helps us communicate our emotions and feelings and express our thought. It is the last step of the LSRW process of language learning. After going through Listening, Speaking

and Reading, the learner finally achieves the capability of writing to record his thinking. When this ability is acquired, a person becomes confident enough to communicate in a language. The skill of writing incorporates many things, which we are going to study under different heads.

### **2.3.1 Making/Building Sentences:**

Words are the building-blocks of a language. Words, arranged according to set rules, turn to be meaningful and become sentences. In English, there is a particular set of rules to make sentences. It is given below with examples:

SV= the cow moos. (Subject + Verb)

SVA= the bag is on the bed. (Subject + Verb + Adjunct)

SVC= he is a doctor. (Subject + Verb + Complement)

SVO= he killed a tiger. (Subject + Verb + Object)

SVOA= he kept the coins in the box. (Subject + Verb + Object + Adjunct)

SVOC= his behaviour made her angry. (Subject + Verb + Object + Complement)

SVOO= he gave me a pen. (Subject + Verb + Object + Object)

These are underlying structures of sentences in English. Bringing in superficial changes, sentence types are changed. There are four different types of sentences. Their structures are given below:

**Declarative sentence:** All above mentioned examples are declarative sentences. It is a straightforward way of using the language to give a statement. S+V in the beginning is a must.

**Imperative sentence:** the essence of an imperative sentence is either a request or a command. Normally in imperative sentences, the subject remains invisible. E.g. (You) shut the door, (You) please help me. Though S is invisible, the S+V structure is still there.

**Interrogative sentence:** it is used to ask or enquire about something. E.g. Will you help me? Here too the basic structure remains the same. From the verb cluster only, the auxiliary is brought to the beginning. (Aux.+S+V+...) In wh-questions too, the auxiliary is placed immediately after the wh-word. E.g. Why do you want me to go?

Exclamatory sentence: formation of exclamatory sentence is different from others. Let us take some examples:

How beautiful the rose is!

Hurrah, I passed civil services!

How stupid you are!

In all these examples, the S+V structure is there, but at different places.

There are three other types of sentences: simple, compound and complex. Simple sentences are like declarative sentence which carries only one finite verb. E.g. Mr. Boruah is an English teacher. Compound sentence is a compound of two independent simple sentences. They are juxtaposed with the help of a coordinating conjunction. E.g. Ilora teaches chemistry *and* I teach mathematics. In complex sentences, there is a subordinate or dependent clause along with the principal or main clause. E.g. [The train started moving] [as soon as we entered the carriage.] Here, in this sentence, the second part is dependent on the first part.

Thus, following the rules mentioned above, different types of sentence can be made.

#### Stop to Consider

To write a language one needs to know the basic sentence structures. It's an arbitrary process that comes from practice. On the other hand, we need the vocabulary too to use the appropriate word at the right time. With our mother-tongue, it is not a problem since the already inbuilt mental lexicon is there. But in case of second or third language, there is a problem with vocabulary. The reason is- mother-tongue is acquired, but other languages are learnt.

#### 2.3.2 Generating Ideas:

Generating ideas is the first step before writing. After reading a particular document or text, one needs to have a clear idea about the essence or the concept. After generating the idea only, one can further his project. In case of shorter tasks, the first step is called 'gathering'. Here, 'gathering' refers to gathering information or knowledge about something or a bit of research. Generating ideas always incorporates imagination because knowledge is

limited and hence, happens to be the content. Imagination encircles the content and helps the thinker to put it in letters.

To generate ideas, four primary methods are there.

- a. **Brainstorming** is brooding or meditating. Try to extract as many ideas as you can from your thinking regarding the topic you are going to write on. Jot down every point that comes to your mind. No matter whether it is silly or grave, what you need to do is write words and phrases regarding the topic without being worried about spelling and grammar. After doing this at least for thirty minutes, you can organise it.
- b. Ray Bradbury once said, “Don’t think; just write!” **Free writing** is such a step for generating ideas. Regarding a particular topic, whatever comes to your mind, just write in sentences and paragraphs. Don’t be overburdened with the worry of spelling and grammatical mistakes or inappropriate words. While writing if suddenly the idea or appropriate words stop coming to your mind, don’t stop writing. Keep repeating the phrase where you got stuck and you will see that things will come to you again. Even then, if a particular word is not coming to your mind, write the vernacular counterpart there, but do not overdo. After doing this for again 20-30 minutes, you will feel that you have enough materials to start your work.
- c. **Idea Map** is another method to generate ideas. In a blank paper write your topic at the centre and make a circle around it. Now draw certain lines from circle. At the end of those lines write the major points you can think of. Repeat the same process with the major points too: draw a circle around them and then try to make other sub-points in the surrounding. Go on repeating the same process until you exhaust yourself and then you will see that you have enough materials to start your project.

**Moodling** is the most productive way, but at the cost of time. After you have tried all other methods and completed the first draft of your work, take some time, sit with a pencil in your hand, in your room, by the table, and in front of the window. Be calm and quiet and then you will see, gradually the world is unravelling its mysteries to you and you will find the key to all odd ideas that came to you after brainstorming, freewriting and idea mapping. Just do it for an hour and things will automatically be directed towards you.

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### Check Your Progress

**Question 18:** What does brainstorming simply mean?

#### 2.3.3 Paragraph Building:

Paragraphs are a part either of fictional or non-fictional prose that focuses on a particular topic or theme at a time. To mark the change of a paragraph, earlier people used to indent the first line of the paragraph. But nowadays, to show the change from one paragraph to another, a particular gap is maintained. The space between two lines is increased. There are certain steps to develop a paragraph. They are discussed below:

- a. A good topic sentence is required to start a paragraph. It clearly gives the preview what the writer is going to talk about in the paragraph.
- b. **Unity, Coherence and Relevance** are three things that need to be taken care of while developing the supporting sentences. Some paragraphs take only one standalone sentence. But in long paragraphs, unity of what you are saying and thinking is important. One sentence is rationally followed by the next sentence and thus it maintains the coherence. Above all, the inputs must be relevant to the topic.
- c. The concluding sentence should be extracted from what has been discussed in the paragraph. It gives an overview of the topic. Or if we are writing a passage, then the concluding line of a paragraph marks the initiation or logical flow to the next paragraph.

Paragraphs can be of different types: **descriptive** (gives description about something), **narrative** (mostly stories) and **reflective** (understood with the help of reflection and emotion). To develop them, the abovementioned steps are very important.

**Listing paragraph** is another type that contains different ideas which are connected to one central idea. To put it in simple terms, a listing paragraph can be called the “firstly”, “secondly”, “thirdly...” paragraph. While developing a listing paragraph, one should consider the following:

- a. The writer has a series of connected ideas of different types (factors, reasons, instances etc.) that relate to the dominant idea.
- b. All ideas should be equally relevant. And it becomes easier than explaining everything if you can properly list things.

- c. The topic sentence should be simple and comprehensible to the readers. There should be some flagship terms like, 'a variety of reasons', 'a number of different ways', 'at least three reasons' etc.
- d. Listing language must be used. for example,  
*Firstly, Secondly, Thirdly, Finally* etc.  
(the 'comma' we have used in the examples are very important along with the words)

### Check Your Progress

**Question 19:** What are the three things that need to be taken care of while developing supporting sentences?

**Question 20:** What does narrative paragraph talk about?

#### 2.3.4 Punctuation:

The word 'punctuation' reminds us of punctuality, the sense of time. Of course it is a matter of time. While speaking, we stop at some points and again resume, and all the time we use intonation. To mark these pauses, stops, gaps or silences in writing, we need certain marks from time to time. Punctuation marks are some signs or symbols which carry some meanings and the reader reads accordingly and makes out the meaning. Thus punctuation marks are of great use to make our writing meaningful.

**Full stop [.]**: To bring an end to a declarative sentence, full stop is used. To write abbreviated forms, full stop is used. When we leave something unsaid somewhere in the sentence, three consecutive full stops are used. For example,

He is playing alone(.)

*H.R.* Bhatia is a renowned businessman.

It is the time we took a pledge(...)

**Question mark [?]**: This is used to ask something or to enquire about something. For example,

Where are you coming from?

**Exclamation mark [!]**: In case of exclamation, interjection or sharp command, this mark is used. For example,

How sweet!

Hand the files over!

**Comma [,]:** To make a list of certain things, comma is used. Sometimes, to separate two phrases or clauses, comma is used. For example,

Ram, Rahim, Sita and Amina will come.

If he comes on time, I will go.

**Semi-colon [;]:** To separate two different lists in the same sentence, semi colon is used. Again, to separate two coordinate phrases in the same sentence, semi-colon is used. For example,

To err is human; to forgive, divine.

**Colon [:]:** While starting a list, or quoting a line, colon is used. For example,

They carried the following things: a pall, a bamboo pole and ropes.

Arnold said: "Poetry is the criticism of life."

To bring an abrupt gap between two independent clauses, colon is used. Sometimes, to bring in an explanatory clause too, colon is used. For example,

Man proposes: God disposes.

We did not get success: our preparation was not good at all.

**Apostrophe [']:** To show the possessive case, apostrophe is used. Number-wise it changes its place. For example,

I am wearing my brother's coat.

They are my sisters' friends.

If the plural number does not end with 's', the apostrophe again changes the place.

The women's football tournament is going on.

Proper nouns that end with 's' take apostrophe after it.

Keats' poems are very appealing.

In contracted forms too, apostrophe is used.

Can+not= can't, will+not= won't, it+is= it's

**Inverted commas [']['“”]:** In direct speech, inverted commas are used. Single inverted commas are used for comparatively shorter terms, phrases,

words etc. To write the names of an article, a story, a poem, a film etc., inverted commas are used. For example,

Raman said, "I know him."

Amit said, "Where did Shakespeare say, 'All is well that ends well.'?"

Rima Das is the director of 'Village Rockstars'.

**Dash [-]:** To change the pace of expression, dash is used. For example, She has –you won't believe it –done it herself.

**Hyphen [-]:** Hyphen is normally used in compound words. For example, Sister-in-law, self-control etc.

**Round brackets [()]:** To give additional information or for clearance, round brackets are used. For example,

Dr. Sarmah (1985-2017) died of cancer.

Though she is an atheist (someone who does not believe in God), she is taking part in the *pooja*.

There are many more punctuation marks in English. But many of them are used very rarely, which is why we are not discussing them here. The above-mentioned are some frequently used items.

#### Self Asking Question

Punctuation marks are very useful when used in the appropriate place. But when misplaced, they can be disastrous. What if a dumb prisoner writes "Mercy not, hang" instead of "Mercy, not hang"?

#### 2.3.5 Capitalization:

When we use the uppercase for the initial letter of a word and lowercase for the remaining letters, the whole process is called 'Capitalization'. But certain rules are there which determine whether to use capital letters or not. They are listed below:

- a. All English sentences start with capitalised words. E.g. "Do you like mangoes?" "Mangoes taste sweet."
- b. Proper nouns and the adjectives derived from proper nouns are capitalised:

The Mighty Brahmaputra, the Golden Temple etc.

- c. Brand names, companies, days of the week and months of the year, historical episodes, periods, holidays, institutions, manmade structures, natural and manmade landmarks, planets, races, religions and tribes etc. are capitalised. For example, Berger Ltd., Peter England, Monday, July, the Puritan Era, Republic day, Oxford University, the Titanic, the Tajmahal, Saturn, Imdian, Hinduism, Nagas etc.
- d. Out of respect, some high ranks are capitalised. E.g. The President presided over the annual convention.
- e. When titles replace someone's first name, it is capitalised. E.g. Here arrives Doctor Faustus.
- f. When somebody is directly addressed in a formal conversation, it is capitalised. E.g. Will you tell me the date of the exam, Professor?
- g. Relatives' family names (kinship names) are capitalised if they are used in place of a personal name. E.g. You look better today, Grandpa.
- h. Specific geographical locations are capitalised (but not compass directions). E.g. They are honourable guests from the Southwest.
- i. The first word of a quotation should always be capitalised, though it starts midsentence. E.g. Mama said, "He has no sense of duty."
- j. Specific course titles should be capitalised, but not disciplines. E.g. In mathematics, I have opted for Algebra 101.
- k. Names of art movements should be capitalised. E.g. I like Expressionism.
- l. Capitalise all important words in a title. Do not capitalise articles, conjunctions and the preposition 'to' until and unless these are at first position or at last. E.g. "Journey to the End of the Earth", "A Fascinating Letter to the Stars".

#### **Check Your Progress**

**Question 21:** Which case should we use while writing the name of a discipline- uppercase or lowercase?

#### **2.3.6 Writing Expanded Definitions:**

Definitions are terms or sentences which define or describe the characteristics of something. Definitions provide the meaning of the word, phrase or term.

When the understanding is made clear through longer explanations, occurrences or examples, it is called expanded definition. To describe a term, if the parts of speech and certain characteristics are only given, then it is called a formal definition. Informal definition gives one or two known words or examples for explaining an unknown term. Expanded definitions are more loaded than these two. In academic texts, this definition is of more importance for better understanding of the students. An example from H.S. 1<sup>st</sup> Year Alternative English text (Chinar) is given below:

“**Metaphor:** Metaphor is an expression which describes a person or object in a literary way by referring to something that is considered to possess similar characteristics to the person or object you are describing. In the ‘Seven Ages of Man’, Shakespeare compares reputation to an ephemeral bubble:

*Jealous in honour, sudden and quick in quarrel,*

*Seeking the bubble reputation*

*Even in the cannon's mouth.” (06)*

### Check Your Progress

**Question 22:** What do you mean by a definition?

#### 2.3.7 Note Taking:

Note taking is a very simple process of jotting down points while somebody is delivering a lecture or conducting a discussion. It is an act of self-discipline, in which many of our senses are at work- our ears, eyes, hand and our brain. While taking notes one need not elaborately write everything as it was delivered. Main points, necessary details and some important examples should be written down for future elaboration. Certain points should be kept in mind while taking notes.

- a. Always come prepared with all your note taking materials. For example, pen with sufficient ink and paper, fully charged laptops, palmtops, mobile phones etc.
- b. To keep track with the source, you need to come prepared with the background. For example, if it is a continuous lecture series, you need to know what did the lecturer said in the last class. If you go to

a seminar or conference, then read the brochure before going to the lecture hall so that at least you know what the major areas of discussion are. **“By failing to prepare, you are preparing to fail.”**

- c. One needs to be an active listener to have a grasp over the topic. In the obsession of writing down every word, a person forgets to keep track with what is being said or what is intended.
- d. Writing by hand is a better way of note taking rather than using laptops. Studies have shown that people using hand to take notes retain information for longer time.
- e. If you find something difficult or confusing, don't be afraid to ask frankly. But don't ask the question hastily in the middle of a talk. Find the right time to ask the question.
- f. Along with all these, one needs to focus on the key words and concepts the speaker has uttered. Write down the very important information in a precise manner. Eliminate the filler words and if possible write important words too in a shortened (use shorthand) but comprehensible way.
- g. Write your notes legibly. At the same time, leave sufficient space at the margins so that you can add some more information later.
- h. One can take notes from textbooks too and supplement the previously written document. To take notes from a text, two times reading is a must. In the earlier chapter, we have already talked about different reading skills. While taking notes from a written text, we use another way of writing:

-> TITLE (An umbrella title for the whole passage)

1. Title (Theme or topic of the first paragraph)

1.a Main point (a major point in the paragraph)

1.a.i Sub point (any sub-point under the main point)

2. Title (Second paragraph)

2.a Main point

2.b Main point

2.b.i Sub point

2.b.ii sub point

(This pattern will continue in consecutive paragraphs according to the main point and sub-points they have.)

After taking the note, the next step is writing a summary out of the notes. The length of this summary should not be more than 1/4 of the passage. The full forms of abbreviated words should be written below.

*Space for Learner's Notes*

### **Check Your Progress**

**Question 23:** What is the ideal length of a summary written from notes?

### **Self Asking Question**

What do you understand by the expression, “By failing to prepare, you are preparing to fail.”?

### **2.3.8 Writing a Summary:**

A summary is a brief statement or account of a document, a speech, a thesis and many more. It takes into account all important points of the work. All these points are assembled in such a manner that it does not lose the coherence. In a summary the precise and simplified gist is written avoiding all rhetorical and ornamental language. It also avoids using examples. Paraphrasing of sentences can be done, but restatement is strictly avoided. If something is very necessary to restate and the writer feels that all paraphrasing will be insufficient to carry the exact meaning, he can use quotations giving due acknowledgement. There are certain rules to be followed while writing a summary.

- a. Thorough reading of the article to be summarised is very important. The writer must have a clear understanding of the text.
- b. After reading, the important and major points should be outlined.
- c. Without looking at the text, the writer should try to write the first draft of it.
- d. Don't copy even a single line, but paraphrase. Quotation is permissible.
- e. Try to make it shorter to the extent of 1/4.

- f. Write the indispensable background information like- the type of work, title, author and so on.
- g. Check the outlines once again to see if you have covered all the major points.
- h. Don't put your own ideas, beliefs or judgement in it. Stick to the points given in the original.
- i. Summarising hallmarks are important so that you can remind the reader that he is reading a summary only from time to time. Such phrases are- this article claims, the writer opines etc.

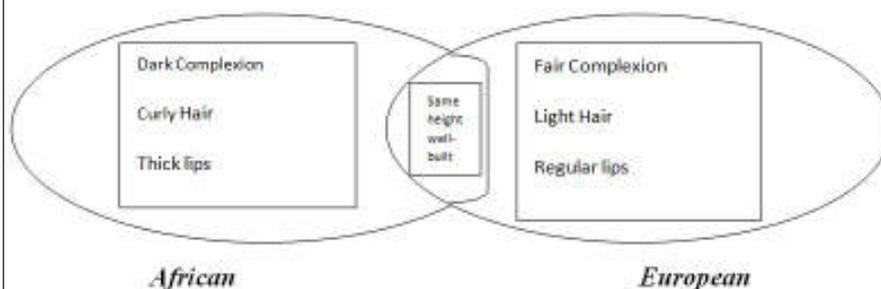
### Check Your Progress

**Question 24:** What is a summary?

#### 2.3.9 Writing about Differences:

While talking about two things, we always see the commonalities and differences. Things which are common in some contexts happen to be different in some other contexts. Differences show us what is fundamental in something, what is the unique quality in something. When we reflect on similarities and differences between two things, we gain a deeper knowledge of the situation. Knowing commonalities and differences is a precondition while preparing an argument. It is not an official requirement.

Making a Venn diagram will help us to find out the differences. Draw two overlapping circles and write the commonalities in the overlapped area and differences in the areas which do not overlap. Thus, like the process of brainstorming, write some random points, place them in their own places and then compare and contrast. You will immediately find the difference.



In this Venn diagram, we have tried to see the commonalities between two races- Africans and Europeans. They have almost same height and well-built physique. The overlapped areas of both the circles show the commonalities or the qualities they share. On the other hand, areas which have not overlapped are individual areas with individual characteristics. Africans are usually dark-skinned, curly haired and they have thick lips. Whereas, a European is fair skinned, light and brown haired and having regular lips. Thus from this comparison, we have known the differences they have and thus come to know their individual characteristics.

The same can be done through charts too. First identify the areas where to focus on and then put the points in the given box of the chart. After looking at the presence and absence of those particular points or areas, you will come to know the differences. It will help you find out the unique characteristics of something. Comparative analysis is a dominant study method at present, and through this method we can compare and contrast two or more different bodies of knowledge.

The process of finding the difference can be understood in the following way:

Place both things alongside one another



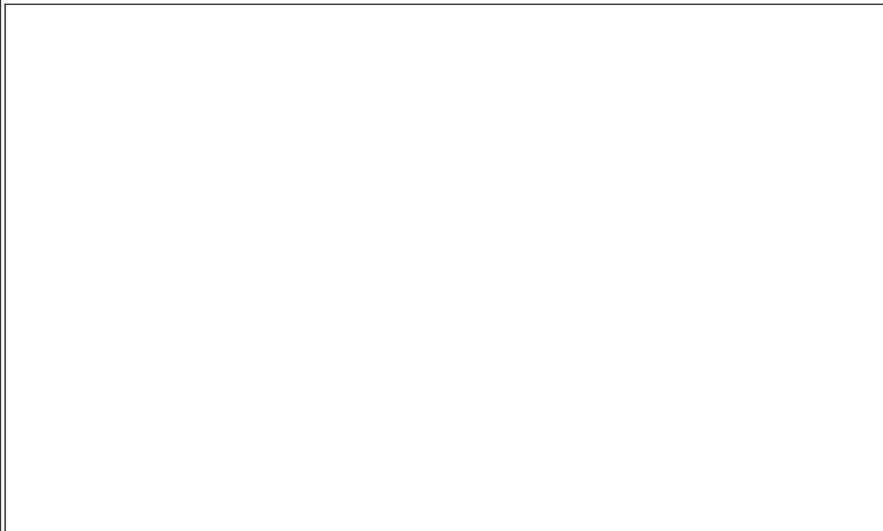
Compare and find out the commonalities

Eliminate the commonalities

Contrast and find out the differences

From differences, find out individual characteristics

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### **Check Your Progress**

**Question 25:** What does difference show us?

#### **2.3.10 Writing about Changes:**

Change is the unchangeable law of nature. Except change, everything keeps on changing, keeps on moving. The world is moving in a rapid pace. This movement can be seen in every field of study. Through minute observation, one can identify the changes that have been occurring consistently. Writing about changes is very crucial to identify the new developments in a particular field of knowledge. It helps us also to keep ourselves updated with recent developments.

In the field of language, history has experienced lots of changes from time immemorial. English came in touch with many languages in the course of history, and all these languages left their impact upon the language. We can trace back to Celtic influence, Latin influence, French influence and Scandinavian influence for reference. English has borrowed a lot of words from all these languages and enriched itself. The receptive quality of English is very good, and it has been open to all the changes around.

Besides, while passing from generation to generation, English has changed a lot: from Old English to Medieval English, from Medieval to Modern

English. It is called the process of evolution in language. In this context, we can talk about different processes of transformation.

**Generalisation** is a process of language change. 'Box' earlier meant a particular type of tree and wood from it. It was used to make caskets to keep money or jewellery. People started calling it box and at present it means a tool to keep things safe. It may be a tin box, a plastic box and any of those sorts.

**Specialisation** is another important process of language change. For example, in Old English, the word 'wife' meant any woman, but now it refers to woman of a particular status, the female counterpart of man.

**Polysemy** or **radiation** is another process by which a word acquires a wide range of meanings. Head, for example, is the most essential part of our body. With the concept of 'most essential', a lot of terminologies have been created- head of an institution, head of the pole, head of the pin etc.

**Vulgarisation** is another process that shows us the changes. Some terms were respectful earlier, but today they carry an essence of contempt or repulsion. For example, 'lust' earlier meant desire and now it means sensual desire.

**Elevation**, a way of changing, earlier gave a contemptuous meaning; but at present it is incorporated with a respectful meaning, a transition from a plain talk (neither good nor bad) to 'good repute'.

**Euphemism** is the use of less offensive term instead of real terms. Due to continuous usage words have started restricting their meaning. For example, 'pass away' is used unofficially to refer to death in a less offensive way.

Thus we can refer to different processes of change in a given language. These are just a few examples only.

Some other changes happening in the word-level can also be noticed. Earlier there were feminine terms like- mistress, headmistress, poetess etc. These terms are rarely used now, since all masculine terms (e.g. headmaster, poet etc.) are being used as unisex terms. Another instance is that, at present the first line indention for changing the paragraph has not been in use. Today people use extra space instead of indention.

With the advent of computer and technology, everything is changing in a rapid manner. Writing about these changes will create an archive for future generations. Apart from that, it will also help us to keep ourselves updated. Thus, writing about changes helps keep track with changes in writing.

### Stop to Consider

Science and technology has brought in so many changes in our day to day life. Nowadays, we are more into the use of informal writing of language with the emergence of different social networking sites. This has brought in a new change in our formal writings too.

### Check Your Progress

**Question 26:** Is there any unchangeable law of nature?

### Self Asking Questions

What are the changes that you have noticed in the field of writing due to the advent of science and technology?

### 2.4 Summing Up:

Speaking is an automatic process. Nobody plans that today he will learn all grammatical rules and from tomorrow onwards he will be speaking in English. It never works. Speaking is the result of practice only. On the other hand, writing is very different. Consistent use of spoken language enables one to write conversational language, that too not in a correct manner. Only the knowledge of grammar of a language helps us understand the nuances, beauty and dark areas of it. Grammatical rules with all their exceptions should be remembered, only then will correct and effective writing be possible.

### 2.5 References and Suggested Readings:

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[www.pinterest.com](http://www.pinterest.com)

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## **2.6 Model Questions:**

- a. What is LSRW?
- b. Grammar can be considered as a precondition to writing. Discuss.
- c. Which tense can be considered more real than others?
- d. Tag question has the quality of a declarative sentence. How?
- e. What is brainstorming?
- f. Write short notes on: freewriting and mindmapping.
- g. What is the best possible way of finding out differences?
- h. Estimate different changes that are taking place in the field of English writing?

## **2.7 Answers to Check Your Progress:**

Ans to Q no 1: Sound or pronunciation.

Ans to Q no 2: Order or sequence.

Ans to Q no 3: Pre-determiners sit on the left edge of a noun phrase. They sit even before the determiner. Therefore, these are called pre-determiners.

Ans to Q no 4: Modal verbs do not have *-s* forms, *-ing* forms, or *-ed* forms.

Ans to Q no 5: Used to.

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Ans to Q no 6: Transitive means 'to affect something else'.

Ans to Q no 7: Contracted words or contractions are words formed out of two or more words.

Ans to Q no 8: Shan't.

Ans to Q no 9: Plain form or base form.

Ans to Q no 10: Irregular verbs do not take inflections.

Ans to Q no 11: Going to.

Ans to Q no 12: General truth.

Ans to Q no 13: Monosyllabic words.

Ans to Q no 14: Auxiliary verbs.

Ans to Q no 15: Intonation questions.

Ans to Q no 16: Subject.

Ans to Q no 17: That night.

Ans to Q no 18: Brainstorming simply means brooding or meditating.

Ans to Q no 19: Unity, coherence and relevance.

Ans to Q no 20: Stories

Ans to Q no 21: Lowercase.

Ans to Q no 22: Definitions are terms or sentences which define or describe the characteristics of something.

Ans to Q no 23: 1/4<sup>th</sup> of the whole passage.

Ans to Q no 24: A summary is a brief statement or account of a document, a speech, a thesis and many more.

Ans to Q no 25: Unique characteristics of something.

Ans to Q no 26: Yes, change is the unchangeable law of nature.

====x====

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