

HS 8151
Communicative English
UNIT I – NOTES

Part - A

WH QUESTIONS

Question words are also called wh questions because they include the letters 'W' and 'H'.

Question words	Meaning	Examples
who	person	Who's that? That's Nancy.
where	place	Where do you live? In Boston
why	reason	Why do you sleep early? Because I've got to get up early
when	time	When do you go to work? At 7:00
how	manner	How do you go? By car
what	object, idea or action	What do you do? I am an engineer
which	choice	Which one do you prefer? The red one.
whose	possession	Whose is this book? It's Alan's.
whom	object of the verb	Whom did you meet? I met the manager.
what kind	description	What kind of music do you like? I like quiet songs
what time	time	What time did you come home?
how many	quantity (countable)	How many students are there? There are twenty.
how much	amount, price (uncountable)	How much time have we got? Ten minutes
how long	duration, length	How long did you stay in that hotel? For two weeks.
how often	frequency	How often do you go to the gym? Twice a week.
how far	distance	How far is your school? It's one mile far.
how old	age	How old are you? I'm 16.
how come	reason	How come I didn't see you at the party?

In English there are seven ‘Wh...’ questions. Here’s what they are and how they are used:

What is used for a thing.

'What is it?'

Who is used for a person. Whose has the same meaning but it is always followed by a noun.

'Who were you talking to?'

'Whose car is that?'

Why is used for a reason.

'Why were you late?'

When is used for a time or date

'When did you start working here?'

Which is used for a choice.

'Which do you prefer, tea or coffee?'

Where is used for a place.

'Where do you live?'

How is used for an amount or the way.

'How much does it cost?'

'How do I get to the station?'

1.If you ask about the subject of the sentence, simply add the question word at the beginning:

Example:

James writes good poems. — **Who** writes good poems?

2.If you ask about the predicate of the sentence (the part of a sentence which contains the verb and gives information about the subject), there are three options:

- If there is a helping (auxiliary) verb that precedes the main verb (for example: can, is, are, was, were, will, would...), add the question word and invert the subject and the helping (auxiliary) verb.

Examples:

He can speak **Chinese**. — **What** can he speak?

They are leaving **tonight**. — **When** are they leaving?

- If you ask about the predicate and there is no helping (auxiliary) verb and the verb is "to be", simply add the question word and invert the subject and the verb.

Example:

The play was **interesting**. — **How** was the play?

- If there is no helping (auxiliary) verb in the the predicate and the main verb is not "to be", add the auxiliary "do" in the appropriate form.

Examples:

They go to **the movies** every Saturday. — **Where** do they go every Saturday?

He wakes up **early**. — **When** does he wake up?

They sent **a letter**. — **What** did they send?

2. PARTS OF SPEECH

What is a Part of Speech?

A **part of speech** is a group of words that are used in a certain way. For example, "run," "jump," and "be" are all used to describe actions/states. Therefore they belong to the VERBS group.

In other words, all words in the English language are divided into eight different categories. Each category has a different role/function in the sentence.

The English parts of speech are:

Nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections.

A **noun** is a word that names a person, a place or a thing.

Examples:

Sarah, lady, cat, New York, Canada, room, school, football, reading.

Example sentences:

People like to go to the **beach**.

Emma passed the **test**.

My **parents** are traveling to **Japan** next **month**.

The word "noun" comes from the Latin word *nomen*, which means "name," and nouns are indeed how we name people, places and things.

Abstract Nouns

An abstract noun is a noun that names an idea, not a physical thing.

Examples:

Hope, interest, love, peace, ability, success, knowledge, trouble.

Concrete Nouns

A concrete noun is a noun that names a physical thing.

Examples:

Boy, table, floor, coffee, beach, king, rain, children, professor.

Common Nouns

A common noun is a noun that names a general thing, not a specific thing.

Examples:

Boy, girl, city, country, company, planet, location, war.

Proper Nouns

A proper noun is a noun that indicates the specific name of a thing. It begins with a capital letter.

Examples:

Robin, Alice, London, Sweden, Google, Earth, Eiffel Tower, Civil War.

(Compare these examples to ones in the "Common nouns" section to see the difference.)

Countable Nouns

A countable noun is a noun that indicates something you could actually count.

For example, you could count **pigs**: one pig, two pigs, three pigs...

However, you couldn't count **water**: one water, two water – no, it doesn't work...

A countable noun has both a singular and a plural form, and it can be used with the indefinite articles (a/an).

Examples:

Window, teacher, tree, lion, eye, cloud, pencil, heart, movie.

Uncountable Nouns

An uncountable noun is a noun that indicates something you cannot count.

For example, you could count **pigs**: one pig, two pigs, three pigs...

However, you couldn't count **water**: one water, two water – no, it doesn't work...

An uncountable noun has only one form (no plural), and it cannot be used with the indefinite articles (a/an).

Examples:

Furniture, advice, mail, news, equipment, luggage, work, coffee, information.

PRONOUN

A **pronoun** is a word that is used instead of a noun. For example, you could say, "Lisa is a nice girl."

Then you could replace the noun "Lisa" with the word "She" and get the following sentence:

"She is a nice girl."

"She" is a **pronoun**.

Examples:

I, he, it, we, them, us, mine, itself.

Example sentences:

He doesn't want to go with **them**.

Would **they** help **us**?

His house is bigger than **ours**.

Who is **she**?

The word "pronoun" comes from "pro" (in the meaning of "substitute") + "noun."

Personal Pronouns

Personal pronouns represent people or things. The personal pronouns are: I, you, he, she, it, we, they, me, him, her, us, them.

Demonstrative Pronouns

"Demonstrative" means "showing, making something clear."

Demonstrative pronouns point to things. The demonstrative pronouns are: this, that, these, those.

Use "this" and "these" to talk about things that are near in space or in time.

Use "that" and "those" to talk about things that are farther away in space or time.

Example sentences:

This cannot go on.

That was beautiful!

He wanted **those**, but decided to compromise on **these**.

Interrogative Pronouns

"Interrogative" means "used in questions."

Interrogative pronouns are used to ask questions. The interrogative pronouns are: who, whom, which, what, whoever, whatever, etc.

Use "who" and "whom" to talk about people.

Use "which" and "what" to talk about animals and things.

Example sentences:

Who is your father?

Whom did you speak to?

Which bag did you buy?

What are my choices?

Possessive Pronouns

"Possessive" means "showing ownership."

Possessive pronouns indicate that something belongs to somebody/something. The possessive pronouns are: my, your, his, her, its, our, their, mine, yours, his, hers, ours, theirs.

Example sentences:

I've lost **my** wallet.

He married **his** girlfriend.

This place is **theirs**.

Is that cat **yours**?

My car is slow. **Hers** is much faster.

Relative Pronouns

"Relative" means "connected with something."

Relative pronouns are pronouns that link different parts of a sentence.

The relative pronouns are: who, whom, which, that, whoever, etc.

Examples sentences:

The girl **who** called yesterday came to see you.
The teacher **whom** you wrote has answered your questions.
She lives in Kiev, **which** is the capital city of Ukraine.
I really liked the book **that** you gave me.

Reflexive Pronouns

"Reflexive" means "going back to itself."

Reflexive pronouns show that the action affects the person who performs the action. Reflexive pronouns end in "-self" (singular) or "-selves" (plural). The reflexive pronouns are: myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, themselves.

Example sentences:

He cut **himself** while shaving.
I sent **myself** to bed.
He could hurt **himself**!
We must help **ourselves**.
She trusts **herself**.

Intensive Pronouns

"Intensive" means "giving force or emphasis."

An intensive pronoun is a pronoun used for emphasis. In other words, intensive pronouns emphasize the subject of the sentence. They are written exactly the same way as the reflexive pronouns, but their function is different.

I **myself** baked the cake.
The queen **herself** recommended this restaurant.
Have you **yourself** been there?
The project **itself** wasn't difficult.
We will do it **ourselves**.

Reciprocal Pronouns

Reciprocal means that two people or groups do the same thing to each other. They treat each other in the same way.

For example, Joe loves Kate, and Kate loves Joe. So we can say, "Kate and Joe love each other."

Another example: Mike helps Lucy, and Lucy helps Mike. So we can say, "Mike and Lucy help

each other."

There are two reciprocal pronouns in English:

Each other and **one another**.

The cat and the dog like **each other**.

The two politicians hate **each other**.

We must stop fighting **one another**.

They gave **each other** Christmas presents.

They can't hear **one another**.

Indefinite Pronouns

"Indefinite" means "not exact, not limited."

Indefinite pronouns are pronouns that do not refer to any specific person or thing.

Examples:

Anything, everybody, another, each, few, many, none, some.

Example sentences:

Many have died during the war.

Can **anyone** call her?

Everybody wants to see you.

Something can be done to help.

ADJECTIVES

An adjective is a word that describes a person or thing.

Examples:

Big, pretty, expensive, green, round, French, loud, quick, fat.

Example sentences:

He has **big blue** eyes.

The **new** car broke down.

The **old** lady was talking in a **quiet** voice.

The word "adjective" comes from the Latin word *jacere*, which means "to throw."

Different Types of adjectives

Adjectives can be divided into several types:

Opinion

Nice, pretty, stupid, original, expensive, etc.

Size

Big, small, large, tiny, enormous, little, etc.

Age

Young, old, new, ancient, antique, etc.

Shape

Round, square, flat, straight, etc.

Color

Blue, red, white, black, dark, bright, yellowish, etc.

Origin

Italian, British, Mexican, western, southern, etc.

Material

Metal, wooden, plastic, golden, etc.

Determiners

A determiner is a word that comes before a noun to show which person or thing you are talking about.

Examples:

A, an, the, my, your, **some**, any, several, enough, any.

Example sentences:

I have **a** red hat.

Please give me **my** bag.

Some people decided to leave.

She doesn't want **any** money.

They watched **several** movies.

Some people consider **determiners** to be a type of **adjective**. What's special about determiners is that you usually can use only one determiner at a time.

Incorrect: He has the my ticket.

Correct: He has my ticket / He has the ticket.

Nouns that act like adjectives

Sometimes nouns function as adjectives. In other words, they come before another noun and describe it.

Examples:

Sports car

Orange juice

Television station

Coffee shop

Book cover

The order of adjectives

A noun can have several adjectives describing it.

Examples:

"She bought a new red Italian table."

"He is a great, successful father."

There are certain rules on the correct order of those adjectives.

This is the order you should generally follow:

**Determiner -> opinion -> size -> age -> shape -> color
-> origin -> material -> a word describing purpose/function**

Examples:

A nice little coffee shop

(Determiner -> opinion -> size -> purpose/function word)

My huge new swimming pool

(Determiner -> size -> age -> purpose/function word)

Several Chinese plastic cups

(Determiner -> origin -> material)

The round yellow ball

(Determiner -> shape -> color)

Adjectives of the same type:

When you have several adjectives of the same type, you should separate them with commas or a conjunction (and, but).

Examples:

A cheap, good meal

A happy, smart man

The beautiful, original painting

My nice and sweet cat

An expensive but important trip

Comparative adjectives

"Comparative" means "comparing something to something else."

Comparative adjective show us which thing is better, worse, stronger, weaker, and so forth.

Examples:

Better, worse, bigger, smaller, nicer, fatter, thinner, more dangerous.

Example sentences:

She is a **better** student than her brothers.

The test was **worse** than I'd expected.

You are **stronger** than me.

He seems **healthier**.

You are **more beautiful** than her.

Superlative adjectives

"Superlative" means "of the highest degree."

Superlative adjectives show us which thing is the best, the strongest, and so forth.

Examples:

Best, worst, strongest, smallest, cheapest, most expensive.

Example sentences:

You are my **best** friend.

This is the **worst** day of my life.

Even the **smallest** donation helps.

This is the **most expensive** restaurant I've ever heard of.

VERBS

A verb is a word or group of words that express an action or a state.

Examples:

Go, jump, sleep, eat, think, be, change, become, drive, complete.

Example sentences:

We **had** a nice lunch.

I **think** that he is right.

He **drove** for hours.

The word "verb" comes for the Latin word *verbum*, which means "word."

Auxiliary Verbs (also called "helping verbs")

Click here for the complete illustrated page on main verbs, auxiliary verbs (helping verbs) and compound verbs.

Auxiliary verbs are verbs that are used together with the main verb of the sentence to express the action or state.

Main verb + auxiliary verb = complete idea

The main auxiliary verbs are:

be, am, is, are, was, were, do, did, have, has, had.

Example sentences (the auxiliary verb is in bold, and the main verb is underlined):

They **are** jogging.

She **was** sitting.

We **were** waiting for hours.

Is she sleeping?

He **didn't** know the answer.

We **have** gone a long way.

Has she received any of my letters?

Do you smoke?

Will she help?

Compound Verbs

A **compound verb** = auxiliary verb + main verb.

Examples:

was playing, has eaten, doesn't want.

They **were discussing** their future.

He **didn't tell** us the truth.

I **have finished** my homework.

She **will meet** us there.

Stative Verbs

Click [here](#) for the complete illustrated page on stative verbs and dynamic verbs.

Stative verbs are verbs that express a state rather than an action.

Examples:

be, seem, love, own, want, sound, have, know, understand.

Examples sentences:

She **is** a great wife.

He **seems** rather strange.

He **wanted** to see you.

That **sounds** awesome!

We **have** enough things to do.

Stative verbs are usually not used in the progressive tenses.

Examples:

Incorrect: He is wanting to see you.

Correct: He wants to see you.

Incorrect: I am knowing what to do.

Correct: I know what to do.

Incorrect: They are seeming nice.

Correct: They seem nice.

However, if the same verb is used to describe an actual action (not a state), then it can be used in the progressive tenses.

Example:

When the verb "have" means "own" – it is a state. So we do not use it in the progressive tenses.

Incorrect: I am having a laptop.

Correct: I have a laptop.

When the verb "have" means "eat" – it is an actual action. So we can use it in the progressive tenses.

Correct: I am having lunch with Kate.

Correct: I have lunch with Kate.

Dynamic Verbs

Dynamic verbs are the opposite of stative verbs. They express a real action.

Examples:

Jump, swim, catch, write, call, sleep, hit, open, speak.

Example sentences:

They **swam** to the other side.

She **hit** me on the head!

Open the window, please.

The dynamic verbs can be used in the progressive tenses.

Correct: He is drinking water.

Correct: He drinks water.

Regular Verbs

Regular verbs are verbs that follow this rule:

Past form of the verb = present form of the verb + ed / d.

Examples:

Past form of "check" = check + ed = checked.

Past form of "open" = open + ed = opened.

Past form of "bake" = bake + d = baked.

There are certain rules to adding "d" or "ed" to a verb. Read about them in the Regular Verbs and Irregular Verbs section.

Irregular Verbs

Irregular verbs are verbs that do not follow the above rule, and there are quite a lot of them!

Examples:

Past form of "drink" = drank.

Past form of "sleep" = slept.

Past form of "bring" = brought.

Phrasal Verbs

Click here for the complete illustrated page on English phrasal verbs.

A phrasal verb is a verb that is combined with an adverb or a preposition. The combination creates a new meaning.

Examples:

Run = to move very quickly with your legs. ("She can run fast!")

Into = in the direction of something. ("He looked into my eyes.")

Run into = to meet someone by accident. ("I ran into Joe yesterday.")

Make = to create or do something. ("He made a lot of noise.")

Up = to a higher point. ("Look up!")

Make up = invent (a story, an excuse). ("It never happened. He made the whole thing up!")

Put = to place something somewhere. ("Could you put this upstairs?")

Up = to a higher point. ("Look up!")

With = concerning ("She is happy with her workplace.")

Put up with = to tolerate. ("I cannot put up with his behavior any more!")

ADVERBS

An adverb is a word that describes or gives more information about a verb, an adjective, another adverb, or even the entire sentence.

Adverbs usually answer the following questions:

Where? **Home.** ("I went home.")

When? **Yesterday.** ("We met yesterday.")

How? **Slowly.** ("The turtle moves slowly.")

How often? **Sometimes.** ("Sometimes it stops responding.")

How long? **Temporarily.** ("She is staying with us temporarily.")

How likely? **Surely.** ("Our team will surely win!")

To what degree? **Very**. ("She was very pleased.")

An adverb can describe a verb:

She runs **quickly**.

An adverb can describe an adjective:

She is **so** beautiful.

An adverb can describe another adverb:

She smokes **very** rarely.

An adverb can describe an entire sentence:

Naturally, you don't have to come.

The word "adverb" comes from the Latin *ad-* (in addition) and *verbum* (word).

In many cases (but not always!) adverbs have the following form:

Adjective + "-ly"

Examples:

Quick + ly = **quickly**

Strange + ly = **strangely**

Dead + ly = **deadly**

Sudden + ly = **suddenly**

Clever + ly = **cleverly**

Brave + ly = **bravely**

Real + ly = **really**

When an adjective ends with "y" replace the "y" with an "i":

Heavy + ly = heav*i* + ly = **heavily**

Happy + ly = happ*i* + ly = **happily**

When the adjective ends with an "e" drop the "e":

True + ly = tru + ly = **truly**

However, there are many adverbs that do not end in "-ly":

Fast, very, hard, home, just, too, well, never, sometimes, and so forth.

We can divide English adverbs into several categories:

Adverbs of degree, adverbs of manner, adverbs of place,
adverbs of time, adverbs of frequency, adverbs of duration,
adverbs of probability, comparative adverbs and superlative adverbs.

Adverbs of degree

Adverbs of degree show us the strength or degree of the action or state. They answer the following questions:

How much? To what degree?

Examples:

Very, highly, totally, perfectly, partially, almost.

Example sentences:

He is **very** concerned with you.

You are **totally** right.

We **almost** made it to the train.

Adverbs of manner

Adverbs of manner show us the way the action is done. They answer the following question:
How?

Examples:

Well, badly, nicely, slowly, loudly, quietly, happily, sadly, secretly, weakly.

Example sentences:

He handled the situation **well**.

She listened **secretly** to their conversation.

The children ran **happily** to their father.

Adverbs of place

Adverbs of place show us the location of the action or state. They answer the following question:
Where?

Examples:

Home, here, there, outside, inside, away, around, anywhere, abroad, up, down, out.

Example sentences:

We are **here**.

He went **home**.

We found him **outside**.

She looked **up**.

Adverbs of time

Adverbs of time show us the time of the action or state. They answer the following question:
When?

Examples:

Now, soon, later, yesterday, tomorrow, early, before, lately, recently.

Example sentences:

Let's talk **now**.

I will do it **later**.

He promised to write back **soon**.

What are you doing **tomorrow**?

We haven't met **before**.

Adverbs of frequency

Adverbs of frequency show us the frequency of the action or state. They answer the following question:
How often?

Examples:

Always, never, sometimes, often, rarely, usually, occasionally.

Example sentences:

I **always** brush my teeth after a meal.

We **often** meet and chat.

He is **usually** here on time.

Adverbs of duration

Adverbs of duration show us the length of the action or state.
They answer the following question:
For how long?

Examples:

Forever, constantly, temporarily, briefly.

Example sentences:

He is working there **temporarily**.

We spoke **briefly**.

I will be **forever** grateful.

Adverbs of probability

Adverbs of probability show us the chances for the action or state to happen. They answer the following question:

How likely?

Examples:

Certainly, maybe, probably, possibly, surely.

Example sentences:

She will **certainly** forget about it.

Maybe we'll come after all.

It will **probably** not work.

Surely you are not serious!

Comparative adverbs

"Comparative" means "comparing something to something else."

Comparative adverbs show us which action or state is better, worse, stronger, weaker, and so forth.

Examples:

more, less, better, worse, faster, slower, farther, closer.

Example sentences:

Maggie works out **more** seriously than Donna.

She eats **less** than her friends.

You are **better** than this.

We couldn't go **slower** even if we wanted to.

Let's get **closer**.

Superlative adverbs

"Superlative" means "of the highest degree."

Superlative adverbs show us which action or state is the best, the strongest, and so forth.

Examples:

Best, most, least, worst, strongest, fastest, slowest.

Example sentences:

He knows **best**.

It was the **most** boring experience.

He shouted the **loudest** so he won.

He ran the **slowest** so he lost.

PREPOSITIONS

A preposition is a word that is used before a noun or a pronoun to connect it to another word in the sentence. It is usually used to show location, direction, time, and so forth.

Examples:

On, in, at, by, under, above, beside, to, out, from, for.

Example sentences:

I sat **on** the floor.

Let's go **into** the house.

We will meet **at** four o'clock.

Have a look **under** the couch.

He went **to** school.

This letter is **for** you.

The word "preposition" comes from the Latin word *praeponere* (put before). So prepositions usually come **before** the noun/pronoun.

CONJUNCTIONS

A conjunction is a word that joins parts of a sentence together.

Examples:

And, but, or, because, so.

Example sentences:

I want to come, **but** I can't.

She is smart **and** beautiful.

Would you like a cat **or** a dog?

He didn't pass the test **because** he didn't understand the subject.

We were hungry, **so** we ordered pizza.

The word "conjunction" comes from the Latin word *conjungere* (join together).

INTERJECTIONS

An interjection is a short sound, word or phrase used to express the speaker's emotion.

Examples:

Oh! Look out! Ow! Hey! Wow! Ah! Um...

Example sentences:

Wow, that's amazing!

Ah, that was a good meal.

Um... I'm not sure what to say.

Oh dear! What happened?

Hello! How are you doing?

Well, that's an option too.

The word "interjection" comes from the Latin word *interjicere* (throw between).

Parts of Speech Table

This is a summary of the 8 parts of speech.

part of speech	function or "job"	example words	example sentences
Verb	action or state	(to) be, have, do, like, work, sing, can, must	EnglishClub is a web site. I like EnglishClub.
Noun	thing or person	pen, dog, work, music, town, London, teacher, John	This is my dog . He lives in my house . We live in London .
Adjective	describes a noun	good, big, red, well, interesting	My dogs are big . I like big dogs.
Adverb	describes a verb, adjective or adverb	quickly, silently, well, badly, very, really	My dog eats quickly . When he is very hungry, he eats really quickly.

part of speech	function or "job"	example words	example sentences
Pronoun	replaces a noun	I, you, he, she, some	Tara is Indian. She is beautiful.
Preposition	links a noun to another word	to, at, after, on, but	We went to school on Monday.
Conjunction	joins clauses or sentences or words	and, but, when	I like dogs and I like cats. I like cats and dogs. I like dogs but I don't like cats.
Interjection	short exclamation, sometimes inserted into a sentence	oh!, ouch!, hi!, well	Ouch! That hurts! Hi! How are you? Well , I don't know.

PREFIX AND SUFFIX

Prefixes & suffixes

Prefixes

Prefixs are added to the beginning of a word to make a new word, eg mis+take. Some common prefixes are 'mis', 'dis', 're', 'for', 'anti', 'ante', 'sub', 'un' and 'in'. New words are made by placing a prefix in front of a word. It is helpful to know the meanings of prefixes. Prefix '**re**' means **again**, therefore **reappear** means to appear **again**.

Common prefix meanings

pre - before

mis - bad(ly)

sub - under

inter - between

semi - half

The following prefixes of 'im', 'ir', 'il', 'in' and 'un' can be added to the beginning of words to make them into a negative.

Examples

im + possible = impossible

ir + responsible = irresponsible

il + legal = illegal

in + active = inactive

un + happy = unhappy

Suffixes

Letters added to the end of a main word are called suffixes. Common suffixes are: 'ed', 'ful', 'ly', 'ing', 'able', 'ance', 'ence', 'ness'.

Example

harm + less = harmless

When 'full' is added to a word you drop the final 'l'. If you add 'ly' to any word ending with 'ful' you keep the existing 'l'.

Example

hand + full = handful

rest + full = restful

restful + ly = restfully

Prefix definition: an affix attached to the beginning of a word to modify its meaning.

Suffix definition: a particle attached to the end of a word to modify its meaning or change it into a different word class.

What is the Difference Between Prefixes and Suffixes?

In the English language, we often place prefixes and suffixes at the beginning and end, respectively, of a word in order to modify it.

The original word does have meaning in itself, but by adding a prefix or suffix to it, we change the word.

What is a prefix? Prefixes are placed at the beginning of a word in order to alter its meaning.

- Janet resubmitted her application after she was initially denied a loan.

Resubmitted includes the prefix *re* which means again.

What is a suffix? Suffixes are placed at the end of a word in order to alter its meaning or change the classification of the word.

- We work hard in order to ensure our children's happiness.

Happiness includes the state of being suffix *ness*. By adding the suffix, we have changed our word from an adjective to a noun in order for it to fit grammatically in our sentence.

What are Prefixes?

What does prefix mean? A prefix can be a letter or group of letters that may be added to the beginning of a word in order to modify its meaning.

Prefix Examples:

- a-, an- = without; *amoral, anemic*
- ante- = before; *antecedent*
- co- = with; *co-worker*
- de- = off, remove; *de-ice*
- ex = out of, former; *ex-boyfriend*
- il = not; *illegal*
- inter = between; *intergalactic*
- post = after; *postpone*
- super = above; *supersede*
- un = not; *unnatural*

Let's try using a prefix in a sentence.

- Craig was *dissatisfied* with the customer service he received at the store.
 - Prefix = *dis* = negative

When to Hyphenate Prefixes

Do you hyphenate prefixes? At times, you will want to add a hyphen in between your prefix and word.

Proper nouns: when adding a prefix to a proper noun, you must add a hyphen:

- Not liking apple pie may be seen as *un-American*.

Same vowel: If the last letter of your prefix is the same as the first letter in the word, you need to add a hyphen:

- In order to be allowed *re-entry* to the amusement park, patrons must obtain a stamped ticket.

Special prefixes: Always use a hyphen when you use *ex-* and *self-*.

- Lisa was self-conscious about her body after having a baby.
- The ex-student body president trained the current officer on how to organize prom.

Clarification: Use a hyphen when a word may cause confusion or look odd in the sentence.

- The mother reminder the children to re-cover the sandbox after they were done playing.

We need the hyphen, so that readers don't confuse *re-cover* with the word *recover*, which means to reinstate health or regain a lost possession.

What are Suffixes?

What does suffix mean? Suffixes are used at the end of words in order to change the word to fit grammatically within your sentence.

Suffix Examples:

- -al = having characteristics of; *remedial, denial*
- -ed = past-tense verbs; *traveled, talked*
- -en = made of, consisting of; *wooden, golden*
- -er, -est = comparative; *stronger, strongest*
- -tion, -ion = state of being, condition; *completion, relation*
- -ity = quality of; *humility, enormity*
- -less = without; *hopeless, homeless*
- -ly = characteristic of; *brotherly, lovely*
- -s, -es = more than one; *apples, trenches*

Let's look at an example of a suffix used in a sentence:

- In government class, students will research the current election.
 - Suffix = ion = act, process

When to Hyphenate Suffixes

Do you hyphenate suffixes? We rarely hyphenate suffixes, but here are some instances in which you may add one.

Cumbersome words: an optional hyphen can be used when a word seems lengthy without one.

- *community-wide*

Exception words: -like, -type, -elect,

- *scholarly-like*

When last letter is same as first letter:

- *graffiti-ism, past-tense*

Summary

Define prefix: the definition of prefix is *an element placed at the beginning of a word to alter or qualify its meaning.*

Define suffix: the definition of suffix is *a particle placed at the end of a word to alter its meaning or adjust its grammatical sense.*

In summary,

- Prefixes and suffixes are added to words to change them.
- Prefixes are added to change the meaning of the root word.
- Suffixes are added so that the word will make grammatical sense in a sentence.

Here are a couple of final examples of how we use prefixes and suffixes.

- Many science fiction books include an *intergalactic* war.
 - Prefix = inter = between
- The employee *rushed* to his car after work on Friday.
 - Suffix = ed = past-tense verb

Here is a list of the most common prefixes:

PREFIX	MEANING	EXAMPLES
ante-	before	antenatal, anteroom, antedate
anti-	against, opposing	antibiotic, antidepressant, antidote
circum-	around	circumstance, circumvent, circumnavigate
co-	with	co-worker, co-pilot, co-operation
de-	off, down, away from	devalue, defrost, derail, demotivate
dis-	opposite of, not	disagree, disappear, disintegrate, disapprove
em-, en-	cause to, put into	embrace, encode, embed, enclose, engulf
epi-	upon, close to, after	epicentre, episcopate, epidermis
ex-	former, out of	ex-president, ex-boyfriend, exterminate
extra-	beyond, more than	extracurricular, extraordinary, extra-terrestrial
fore-	before	forecast, forehead, foresee, foreword, foremost
homo-	same	homosexual, homonuclear, homoplastic

hyper-	over, above	hyperactive, hyperventilate
il-, im-, in-, ir-	not	impossible, illegal, irresponsible, indefinite
im-, in-	into	insert, import, inside
infra-	beneath, below	infrastructure, infrared, infrasonic, infraspecific
inter-, intra-	between	interact, intermediate, intergalactic, intranet
macro-	large	macroeconomics, macromolecule
micro-	small	microscope, microbiology, microfilm, microwave
mid-	middle	midfielder, midway, midsummer
mis-	wrongly	misinterpret, misfire, mistake, misunderstand
mono-	one, singular	monotone, monobrow, monolithic
non-	not, without	nonsense, nonentity, nondescript
omni-	all, every	omnibus, omnivore, omnipotent
para-	beside	parachute, paramedic, paradox
post-	after	post-mortem, postpone, post-natal
pre-	before	prefix, predetermine, pre-intermediate
re-	again	return, rediscover, reiterate, reunite
semi-	half	semicircle, semi-final, semiconscious
sub-	under	submerge, submarine, sub-category, subtitle
super-	above, over	superfood, superstar, supernatural, superimpose
therm-	heat	thermometer, thermostat, thermodynamic
trans-	across, beyond	transport, transnational, transatlantic
tri-	three	triangle, tripod, tricycle
un-	not	unfinished, unfriendly, undone, unknown
uni-	one	unicycle, universal, unilateral, unanimous

SUFFIX

MEANING

EXAMPLE

NOUN SUFFIXES

-acy	state or quality	democracy, accuracy, lunacy
-al	the action or process of	remedial, denial, trial, criminal
-ance, -ence	state or quality of	nuisance, ambience, tolerance
-dom	place or state of being	freedom, stardom, boredom
-er, -or	person or object that does a specified action	reader, creator, interpreter, inventor, collaborator, teacher
-ism	doctrine, belief	Judaism, scepticism, escapism
-ist	person or object that does a specified action	Geologist, protagonist, sexist, scientist, theorist, communist
-ity, -ty	quality of	extremity, validity, enormity
-ment	condition	enchantment, argument
-ness	state of being	heaviness, highness, sickness
-ship	position held	friendship, hardship, internship

-sion, -tion	state of being	position, promotion, cohesion
VERB SUFFIXES		
-ate	become	mediate, collaborate, create
-en	become	sharpen, strengthen, loosen
-ify, -fy	make or become	justify, simplify, magnify, satisfy
-ise, -ize	become	publicise, synthesise, hypnotise
ADJECTIVE SUFFIXES		
-able, -ible	capable of being	edible, fallible, incredible, audible
-al	having the form or character of	fiscal, thermal, herbal, colonial
-esque	in a manner of or resembling	picturesque, burlesque, grotesque
-ful	notable for	handful, playful, hopeful, skilful
-ic, -ical	having the form or character of	psychological, hypocritical, methodical, nonsensical, musical
-ious, -ous	characterised by	pious, jealous, religious, ridiculous
-ish	having the quality of	squeamish, sheepish, childish
-ive	having the nature of	inquisitive, informative, attentive
-less	without	meaningless, hopeless, homeless
-y	characterised by	dainty, beauty, airy, jealousy
ADVERB SUFFIXES		
-ly	related to or quality	softly, slowly, happily, crazily, madly
-ward, -wards	direction	towards, afterwards, backwards, inward
-wise	in relation to	otherwise, likewise, clockwise

Fixed expressions

To children, non-native English speakers, and anyone who confronts a fixed expression for the first time, they can be baffling. A fixed expression is a little like a secret code that allows access to a club that not everyone can enter. It's a phrase that has a very specific meaning that can't be expressed any other way and also can't be deduced just by considering the sum of its parts. Some fixed expressions, like "ready, aim, fire" are used so often that the opportunity to turn them into a joke creates another fixed expression. Others, such as "before you know it" or "to tell you the truth" have been around for so long that they function almost as a single word.

Unlike idioms, fixed expressions typically offer neither folk wisdom nor an image. "Two heads are better than one" creates a bizarre, yet effective, visual idea of one body that operates with two heads, while the idiom's meaning is that two people working on a problem have a better chance of solving it than just a single thinker. Fixed expressions are more often a collection of words with individual meaning that really have nothing to do with one another.

“All of a sudden” is a perfect example. “All” means a totality, a location or moment in time in which everything is included. “Of a” is really just a grammatical phrase with no internal meaning of its own. “Sudden” refers to something completely unexpected; it is only the final word in this expression that contributes meaning to the fixed expression, which is simply another way of saying “suddenly.”

For example:

To be in no mood for jokes. To not be so important.

To top it all off.

Just so you know.

Therefore, for that reason.

For the first time.

On the other hand

Just in case.

Of course.

Apparently.

At least.

Idioms

An **idiom** is a phrase where the words together have a meaning that is different from the dictionary definitions of the individual words, which can make idioms hard for ESL students and learners to understand. Here, we provide a dictionary of **3,782 English idiomatic expressions** with definitions.

For example:

Fight like Kilkenny cats

Jump off the page

Like collecting frogs in a bucket

Leading edge

when the pigs fly!

Not for nothing

Bleed dry

Let the dust settle

Take root

It takes all kinds to make a world

Bring home

Brush with death

MODAL VERBS

What are modal verbs?

Modals (also called **modal verbs**, **modal auxiliary verbs**, **modal auxiliaries**) are special verbs which behave irregularly in English. They are different from normal verbs like "work, play, visit..." They give additional information about the **function** of the main verb that follows it. They have a great variety of **communicative functions**.

Here are some characteristics of modal verbs:

- They never change their form. You can't add "s", "ed", "ing"...
- They are always followed by an infinitive without "to" (e.i. the bare infinitive.)
- They are used to indicate modality allow speakers to express certainty, possibility, willingness, obligation, necessity, ability

List of modal verbs

Here is a list of modal verbs:

can, could, may, might, will, would, shall, should, must

The verbs or expressions ***dare, ought to, had better***, and ***need not*** behave like modal auxiliaries to a large extent and may be added to the above list

Use of modal verbs:

Modal verbs are used to express functions such as:

1. Permission
2. Ability
3. Obligation
4. Prohibition
5. Lack of necessity
6. Advice
7. possibility
8. probability

Examples of modal verbs

Here is a list of modals with examples:

Modal Verb	Expressing	Example
must	Strong obligation	You must stop when the traffic lights turn red.

	logical conclusion / Certainty	He must be very tired. He's been working all day long.
must not	prohibition	You must not smoke in the hospital.
can	ability	I can swim.
	permission	Can I use your phone please?
	possibility	Smoking can cause cancer.
could	ability in the past	When I was younger I could run fast.
	polite permission	Excuse me, could I just say something?
	possibility	It could rain tomorrow!
may	permission	May I use your phone please?
	possibility, probability	It may rain tomorrow!
might	polite permission	Might I suggest an idea?
	possibility, probability	I might go on holiday to Australia next year.
need not	lack of necessity/absence of obligation	I need not buy tomatoes. There are plenty of tomatoes in the fridge.
should/ought to	50 % obligation	I should / ought to see a doctor. I have a terrible headache.
	advice	You should / ought to revise your lessons
	logical conclusion	He should / ought to be very tired. He's been working all day long.
had better	advice	You 'd better revise your lessons

Remember

Modal verbs are followed by an infinitive without "to", also called the bare infinitive.

Examples:

- You **must** stop when the traffic lights turn red.
- You **should** see to the doctor.
- There are a lot of tomatoes in the fridge. You **need not** buy any.

PART – B

1. HINTS DEVELOPING

Develop the following hints into a suitable passage and give a appropriate title

A bee – falls into a tank – a dove flies past – drops a large leaf into the water – the bee climbs on the leaf – flies away – a boy takes aim at the dove – the bee stings – the dove is saved.

MUTUAL HELP

Once a bee went to a tank to quench its thirst. Unexpectedly, it fell into the tank. It almost drowned. A dove was passing that way. It saw the sinking bee. The dove desired to help the bee. It hurriedly flew to the nearby tree, plucked off a leaf and dropped it in to the water before the bee. The bee moved on to the leaf, dried its wings and flew away. The bee was full of gratitude to the dove that had saved its life. A few days later the bee was returning to its home at the end of the day. It saw a boy taking aim at a dove sitting upon the branch of a tree. The bee realized it was the dove that saved its life. At once the bee flew down and stung the boy in his wrist. The boy lost his aim and shouted in pain. The dove realized the danger it had been in and flew away. Thus the bee showed its gratitude for the dove that saved its life.

Moral : A friend in need is a friend indeed .

2. write a short passage on “Auctions”

There are basically two types of auctions: ascending-bid auctions and descending-bid auctions. Ascending-bid auctions start out with a low bid for an object. The price of the object is gradually raised until only one bidder remains. By contrast, descending-bid auctions start out with a high bid and the price is progressively lowered until a customer expresses a willingness to purchase the object. Both procedures have a number of variants. For example, in some types of auctions a professional auctioneer declares the suggested bids. In other types of auctions, however, the customers make their own bids. Another variant, used at places such as eBay or Yahoo Auction, is called a "buyout option". A high price for an item is declared. Anyone willing to pay that price is guaranteed a purchase. This variant seems to appeal consumers who dislike uncertainty: for a fixed price they are guaranteed an object. "Buyout options" are most commonly used if the seller has a stock of several copies of the same item.

Both ascending-bid and descending-bid auctions can be conducted in either open or closed formats. In open formats, all participants know what exactly how much an object is going for. For example, at many Japanese fish markets, wholesalers gather around the fish to be purchased and raise their hands as the auctioneer names progressively higher prices. In closed auctions, participants are unaware of how much other participants are willing to pay for an object. For example, a case in which participants used sealed envelopes to place their bids on a piece of real estate represents this type of auction. Though open auctions generally yield higher prices, closed formats are sometimes preferred in situations in which the privacy of the prospective buyers is considered paramount or the need to document precisely how much each party bid is high.

3. Narrative writing

A **Narrative Paragraph** must:

- Have a topic sentence that grabs the reader's attention
 - Be built around one main event, adventure, scene or happening
 - Be written in time order. This means you must write about the event in the order the events occurred.
 - Contain plenty of interesting details. (Remember your hamburger?)
-

Here is an example of a narrative paragraph:

This past weekend I had the time of my life. First, Friday night, I had my best friend over and we made a delicious, mouth-watering pizza. After we ate, we had a friendly video game competition. On Saturday, my dad took us out on the boat. The weather was perfect and the water was warm. It was a great day to go for a swim. Later that night, we went to the movies. We saw an action packed thriller and ate a lot of popcorn. Finally, on Sunday, we rode our bikes all over town. By the end of the day, my legs were very tired. I only hope that next weekend can be as fun as this one.

2. Write a passage on the "Hercules the Valiant"

This Short Story **Hercules** is quite interesting to all the people. Enjoy reading this story.

Hercules was a strong and brave man. He lived in Greece. The King was jealous of Hercules. People might make Hercules the King. Therefore he wanted to get rid of Hercules. He set difficult tasks for Hercules to keep him away from the country so that he would not be a possible threat to him (the King).

Once he asked Hercules to get three golden apples. Some trees were said to bear golden apples. These trees were said to be in a place called Hesperides. But no one knew the way to Hesperides. So the King thought of Hesperides. Hercules would be away for a longer period.

Hercules set out on the journey. At first he met three maidens during the journey. Hercules asked them the way to Hesperides. They told him to ask the old man of the sea. But they also warned him, "Hold the old man of the sea tightly. Otherwise he will escape. No one else knows the way."

Hercules saw the old man. He was sleeping on the shore. He was looking strange. He had long hair and a beard. Hercules walked to him without making any noise. Then he seized him very firmly.

The old man of the sea opened his eyes. He was surprised. He changed himself into a stag. He tried to free himself from the grip of Hercules. But Hercules held him tight. Then the old man changed himself into a sea-bird and then to other animal forms. But he could not free himself from the clutches of Hercules, because Hercules was making his clutches tighter and tighter. Finally the old man said to Hercules, "Who are you? What do you want from me?"

Hercules replied, "I am Hercules. Tell me the way to Hesperides."

The old man said, "It is an island. Go along the sea-shore. You will meet a giant. He will show you the way to Hesperides."

Hercules continued his journey. He met the giant. The giant was very huge and strong. He was sleeping on the shore. Hercules woke him up. The giant was angry. He struck Hercules with a club. Hercules charged at the giant. He lifted the giant and threw him down. But the giant got up immediately. He had become ten times stronger. Hercules threw him down again and again. But each time the giant rose up much stronger. Then Hercules lifted the giant high up in the air. But he did not throw him down. The giant slowly lost all his strength. He now pleaded with Hercules to put him down on the earth. Hercules asked him to tell the way to Hesperides. The giant asked Hercules to meet Atlas. He told him the way to the place where Atlas was.

Hercules continued his journey. He, at last, met Atlas.

"Why do you want the golden apples?" asked Atlas.

"My King has ordered me to get him these three golden apples," said Hercules.

"It is a long way from here to that place. Only I can go there. Hold this sky for me. I shall get them for you," said Atlas.

Hercules agreed. He held the sky on his shoulders. Atlas walked away. He was back in a short time. He put down the three golden apples at the foot of Hercules. Hercules thanked Atlas. He requested Atlas to take back the sky from him.

"Take back the sky!" said Atlas cunningly. "I have held it for a thousand years. I shall come back after another thousand years!"

Hercules was astonished at what Atlas told him. But he did not express his astonishment. He recovered his senses and replied, "Oh! In that case, will you please hold the sky for a little while? I shall make a pad for my shoulders to support the sky. Then I shall take back the sky from you." Thus Hercules talked very quietly.

Atlas agreed. Atlas took back the sky from Hercules. Hercules immediately collected the three golden apples. He bid Atlas goodbye with a mischievous smile on his face. Then he walked away towards Greece leaving Atlas speechless and surprised.

Hercules reached his homeland Greece after many days of travel. He gave the three golden apples to the King. The King was surprised to have got the golden apples from Hercules. He was happy. But he pretended not to have been satisfied. But he secretly, he was planning to send away Hercules away on another perilous adventure.

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Communicative English

UNIT II – NOTES

ARTICLES

An **article** is a word used to modify a noun. It is a kind of adjective that is always used with a noun and gives information about a noun. There are two different types of articles that we use in writing such as definite and indefinite articles.

The definite article is '**the**' and it's remains same in any sentence, whether singular or plural, it indicates a specific thing. The indefinite article is '**a**' or '**an**'. We use an when the next word begins with a vowel - *a, e, i, o, u* because the noun it works with is indefinite or common.

The noun may be the next word as in (the woman or the man) or there may be adjectives and possibly adverbs between the article and the noun as in (the very smart, young woman or man.)

Example:

- the freckles on his face
- the alligator in the pond
- the breakfast wrap on my plate
- a Mercedes from the parking lot
- an event in history

Types of Articles

Articles are mainly of two types

1. Indefinite Articles
2. Definite Articles

Indefinite articles

Indefinite articles are the words 'a' and 'an', these articles are used to refer to a noun, but the noun being mentioned to is not particularly a specific person, place, object or idea. It can be any noun from a group of nouns.

‘A’ is used before a word beginning with a consonant sound. Consonant letters such as B,C,D,F,G,H,J,K,L,M,N,P,Q,R,S,T,V,W,X,Y,Z. or before words starting in u and eu when they sound like you.

For example: a boy, a dog, a fight, a gym, a horse, a joke, a kite, a lion, a mirror, a pin, a quilt, a bottle, a pen, a ring, a doll, a woman, a tree etc.

‘An’ is used before a word beginning with a vowel sound. Vowel letters such as A, E, I, O, U. or with a mute H.

For example: an hour, an honest lady, an apple, an elephant, an orange, an umbrella, an idiot, an orphan, an egg, an engineer etc.

The indefinite article is used to refer to a particular member in the group or to refer something for the first time. Such as:

Use 'a' to refer to something for the first time.

Example:

- Would you like a drink?
- I've finally got a good job.
- An elephant and a rat fell in love.

Use 'a' with names of jobs.

Example:

- Jamie is a doctor.
- Marina is training to be an architect.
- He wants to be a dancer.

Use 'a' with nationalities and religions in the singular.

Example:

- Jonathan is an Englishman.
- Maria is a Catholic.
- Loic is a French Trainer.

Use 'a' with the names of days of the week when not referring to any particular day.

Example:

- I was born on a Thursday.
- Could I come over on a Friday sometime?

Use 'a' to refer to an example of something.

Example:

- The mouse had a tiny nose .
- The giraffe had a long neck.
- It was a very strange house.

Use 'a' with singular nouns after the words 'what' and 'such'.

Example:

- What a shame !
- She's such a beautiful girl .
- What a lovely day !

Use 'a' meaning 'one', referring to a single object or person, or a single unit of measure. This adds emphasis to the number, and contrast with other numbers.

Example:

- I'd like an orange and two lemons please.
- I can think of a hundred reasons not to come.
- You can't run a mile in 5 minutes!

Definite Articles

This article is the word 'the', and it is used before a singular and plural directly referring to a specific noun or groups of nouns. Each noun or group of nouns being referred to is direct and specific. Nouns in English are led by the definite article.

When the speaker trusts that the listener already knows what he is referring to we use the Definite articles.

We also use Definite articles in cases such as:

Use 'the' to refer to something which has already been mentioned.

Examples:

- There's a position available in my office. *The job* will involve some international travel.
- On Wednesday, an unarmed man stole \$5,000 from the grocery shop. *The thief* hasn't been caught yet.
- I was walking past Denny's Eatery when I decided to go into *the eatery* to get some fresh juice.

Use 'the' when you assume there is just one of something in that place, even if it has not been mentioned before.

Examples:

- We went on a walk in *the woods* yesterday.
- Turn left and go to number 57. Our house is across from *the Italian restaurant*.
- Where is *the restroom*?

Use 'the' in sentences or clauses where you define or identify a particular person or object.

Examples:

- *The man* who wrote this book is famous.
- He is *the dentist* I came to see.
- I live in *the small house* with a blue door.

Use the to refer to people or objects that are unique.

Examples:

- *The sun* rose at 6:10 this morning.
- You can go anywhere in *the world*.
- Clouds drifted across *the sky*.
- *The president* will be speaking on TV tonight.

Use 'the' before superlatives and ordinal numbers.

Examples:

- She read *the last chapter* of her new book first.
- This is *the highest* building in London.
- This is *the third time* I have called you today.

Use 'the' with adjectives, to refer to a whole group of people.

Examples:

- *The elderly* require special attention.
- *The French* enjoy cheese.
- She has given a lot of money to *the poor*.

Use 'the' with decades.

Examples:

- This is a painting from *the 1720's*.
- He was born in *the seventies*.

Use 'the' with clauses introduced by only

Examples:

- *The only tea* I like is iced tea.
- This is *the only day* we've had sunshine all week.
- You are *the only person* he will listen to.

Uses of Articles

One can also use 'the' in cases such as:

1. Use 'the' with the names of restaurants & hotels, unless these are named after a person.
2. Use 'the' with countries that have plural names.
3. Use 'the' with names of geographical areas, groups of islands, rivers, canals, mountain ranges and oceans.
4. Use 'the' with countries that include the words "republic", "kingdom", or "states" in their names.
5. Use 'the' with the names of families, but not with the names of individuals.
6. Use 'the' with the names of famous buildings, museums, works of art or monuments.
7. Use 'the' with newspaper names.

When not to use 'the'

1. Do not use 'the' with names of countries.
2. Do not use 'the' with the names of meals.
3. Do not use 'the' with names of shops.
4. Do not use 'the' with people's names.
5. Do not use 'the' with professions.
6. Do not use 'the' with titles when combined with names.
7. Do not use 'the' with the names of languages.

8. Do not use 'the' after the 's possessive case.
9. Do not use 'the' with uncountable nouns.
10. Do not use 'the' with years.
11. Do not use 'the' when referring to points on the globe.
12. Do not use 'the' with most names of towns, stations, streets and airports.
13. Do not use 'the' with the names of individual mountains, lakes and islands

Exclusion of Articles

We most often exclude the use of articles, some common types of nouns that don't take an article are:

- Names of languages and nationalities: Chinese, English, Russian, Spanish (unless you are referring to the population of the nation: "The Russian are known for their warmth.")
- Names of sports: volleyball, hockey, baseball
- Names of academic subjects: mathematics, biology, history, computer science

Preposition

What is a preposition?

A preposition is a word used to link nouns, pronouns, or phrases to other words within a sentence. Prepositions are usually short words, and they are normally placed directly in front of nouns. In some cases, you'll find prepositions in front of gerund verbs.

There are two very important rules to remember when using prepositions. Because they are somewhat vague, learning about prepositions and using them correctly in sentences takes practice. Because 1:1 translation is often impossible when dealing with prepositions, even the most advanced English students have some difficulty at first.

- The first rule is that certain prepositions must be used to make the relationships between words in a sentence clear. Most prepositions are interchangeable but only to a certain extent.
- The second rule for using prepositions is that these words must be followed by nouns.

There are more than 100 prepositions in the English language. In addition, there are endless possibilities for creating prepositional phrases. In the following sections, you will find examples of prepositions, types of prepositions, a comprehensive list of prepositions, and some helpful preposition exercises.

PREPOSITIONS

Preposition	Meaning	Examples
above	higher than, or over	The sun is above the clouds.
across	from one side to the other	It's dangerous to run across the road.
after	- following something - later than	- The boy ran after the ball. - I'll phone you after lunch.
against	- in opposition to - in contact with	- Stealing is against the law. - The sofa is against the wall.
along	from one end to the other	They are walking along the street.
among	surrounded by	Peter was among the spectators.
around	- in a circle - near, approximately	- He walked around the table. - It costs around 50 euros.
before	- earlier than - in front of	- The day before yesterday. - He bowed before the king.
behind	at the back of	Passengers sit behind the driver.
below	lower than	His shorts are below his knees.
beneath	under	The pen was beneath the books.
beside	next to	The bank is beside the cinema.
between	in the space separating two things	Mary sat between Tom and Jane.
by	near, at the side of	The restaurant is by the river.
close to	near	The school is near the church.
down	from higher to lower	She pulled down the blind.
for	what is intended	I bought this book for you.

from	where something starts or originates	The wind is blowing from the north.
in	at a point within an area	The pen is in the drawer.
in front of	directly before	The child ran out in front of the bus.
inside	on the inner part of	The bird is inside the cage.
into	enter a closed space	He went into the shop.
near	close to	The school is near the church.
next to	beside	The bank is next to the cinema.
off	down or away from	He fell off the horse.
on	in a position touching a surface	The plate is on the table.
onto	move to a position on a surface	The cat jumped onto the roof of the car.
opposite	facing, on the other side	Eva sat opposite Tom at the table.
out of	- move from a closed space - without	- He got out of the taxi. - She's out of work.
outside	opposite of inside, on the outer side	The garden is outside the house.
over	- above/across - on the surface of	- The plane flew over the Atlantic. - She put a sheet over the furniture.
past	beyond	She drove past the supermarket.
round	in a circular movement	The earth moves round the sun.
through	from one side to the other	The Seine flows through Paris.
throughout	in every part of	The virus spread throughout the country.
to	in the direct of / towards	On the way to the station.

towards	in the direction of	The child ran towards her father.
under	beneath, below	Water flows under the bridge.
underneath	beneath	There was dust underneath the rug.
up	towards or in a higher position	She walked up the stairs.

Conjunction: Definition and Examples

The conjunction is the part of speech used as a “joiner” for words, phrases, or clauses in a particular sentence. It links these words or groups of words together, in such a way that certain relationships among these different parts of the sentence will be established, and the thoughts that all of these convey will be connected.

What are the Different Types of Conjunctions?

In the English language, conjunctions come in three basic types: the **coordinating conjunctions**, the **subordinating conjunctions**, and the **correlative conjunctions**.

1. Coordinating Conjunction

Among the three types of conjunctions, this is probably the most common one. The main function of coordinating conjunctions is to join words, phrases, and clauses together, which are usually grammatically equal. Aside from that, this type of conjunctions is placed in between the words or groups of words that it links together, and not at the beginning or at the end.

Examples:

- Pizza and burgers are my favorite snacks.

In the sample sentence above, the underlined word serves as a coordinating conjunction that links two words together (pizza + burgers).

- The treasure was hidden in the cave or in the underground lagoon.

The example above shows how coordinating conjunctions can join together two (or more) phrases. The coordinating conjunction “or” in the sentence above links “in the cave” and “in the underground lagoon.”

- What those girls say and what they actually do are completely different.

In this sentence, you'll see how the same coordinating conjunction "and" from the first sample sentence can be used to link clauses together ("*what those girls say*" and "*what they actually do*"), instead of just single words.

How to Punctuate Coordinating Conjunctions

- In joining two words, phrases, or dependent clauses together, a comma is not required before the coordinating conjunction. Examples:
 - *aliens and predators*
 - *by the beach or on the hill*
 - *what you see and what you get*
- If, on the other hand, you are linking more than two words, phrases, and dependent clauses together, a series of commas must be placed in between the distinct elements.

Examples:

- *spiders, snakes, and scorpions*
- *in the bedroom, in the garage, or at the garden*
- Lastly, for joining together two independent clauses, a comma must be used before placing the coordinating conjunction.

Examples:

- *Cassandra fell asleep, so Joaquin just went home.*
- *I don't really like spaghetti, but I can eat lasagna any day.*

For you to easily recall the different coordinating conjunctions that you can use, you can just remember the word "FANBOYS," which stands for:

2. Subordinating Conjunction

This type of conjunctions is used in linking two clauses together. Aside from the fact that they introduce a dependent clause, subordinating conjunctions also describe the relationship between the dependent clause and the independent clause in the sentence.

List of Common Subordinating Conjunctions:

- | | |
|-----------------|------------|
| • while | • when |
| • as soon as | • until |
| • although | • after |
| • before | • as if |
| • even if | • how |
| • because | • if |
| • no matter how | • provided |
| • whether | • in that |
| • wherever | • once |

- supposing
- while
- unless
- in case
- as far as
-
- now that
- as
- so that
- though
- since

Sample Sentences:

- It is so cold outside, so I brought you a jacket.
- Because it is so cold outside, I brought you a jacket.

By looking at the sentences above, you will easily notice that a subordinating conjunction can be found either at the beginning of the sentence or between the clauses that it links together. Aside from that, a comma should also be placed in between the two clauses (independent clause and dependent clause) of the sentence.

3. Correlative Conjunction

The correlative conjunctions are simply pairs of conjunctions which are used to join equal sentence elements together.

List of Common Correlative Conjunctions:

- either... or
- neither... nor
- not only... but also
- both... and
- whether... or
- so... as

Sample Sentences:

- Both my brother and my father are lawyers.
- I can't decide whether I'll take Chemical Engineering or take Medical Technology in college.

What is a Conjunctive Adverb?

Although a conjunctive adverb is not a real conjunction, this kind of words functions as conjunctions in a sentence. Some examples of conjunctive adverbs are:

- in addition
- for example
- however
- therefore
- on the contrary
- hence
- in fact
- otherwise
- as a result
- indeed
- still
- thus

- on the other hand
- furthermore
- instead
- incidentally
- after all
- finally
- likewise
- meanwhile
- consequently

Final Thoughts

Conjunctions are very essential in speech and in writing. They improve the cohesion between the different parts of the text and enable you to construct long sentences without sounding awkward. Although the concept of conjunctions may seem too simple, you should still take time and make sure that you place the punctuations properly, choose the appropriate conjunctions, and see to it that you adhere to the standard rules of grammar.

Gerunds and Infinitives Part 1

1. A gerund is a noun made from a verb by adding "-ing." The gerund form of the verb "read" is "reading." You can use a gerund as the subject, the complement, or the object of a sentence.

Examples:

- **Reading** helps you learn English. *subject of sentence*
- Her favorite hobby is **reading**. *complement of sentence*
- I enjoy **reading**. *object of sentence*

Gerunds can be made negative by adding "not."

Examples:

- He enjoys **not working**.
- The best thing for your health is **not smoking**.

2. Infinitives are the "to" form of the verb. The infinitive form of "learn" is "to learn." You can also use an infinitive as the subject, the complement, or the object of a sentence.

Examples:

- **To learn** is important. *subject of sentence*
- The most important thing is **to learn**. *complement of sentence*
- He wants **to learn**. *object of sentence*

Infinitives can be made negative by adding "not."

Examples:

- I decided **not to go**.
- The most important thing is **not to give up**.

3. Both gerunds and infinitives can be used as the subject or the complement of a sentence. However, as subjects or complements, gerunds usually sound more like normal, spoken English, whereas infinitives sound more abstract. In the following sentences, gerunds sound more natural and would be more common in everyday English. Infinitives emphasize the possibility or potential for something and sound more philosophical. If this sounds confusing, just remember that 90% of the time, you will use a gerund as the subject or complement of a sentence.

Examples:

- **Learning** is important. *normal subject*
- **To learn** is important. *abstract subject - less common*
- The most important thing is **learning**. *normal complement*
- The most important thing is **to learn**. *abstract complement - less common*

4. As the object of a sentence, it is more difficult to choose between a gerund or an infinitive. In such situations, gerunds and infinitives are not normally interchangeable. Usually, the main verb in the sentence determines whether you use a gerund or an infinitive.

Examples:

- He **enjoys swimming**. *"Enjoy" requires a gerund.*
- He **wants to swim**. *"Want" requires an infinitive.*

5. Some verbs are followed by gerunds as objects. List of Verbs Followed by Gerunds

Examples:

- She **suggested going** to a movie.
- Mary **keeps talking** about her problems.

6. Some verbs are followed by infinitives. List of Verbs Followed by Infinitives

Examples:

- She **wants to go** to a movie.
- Mary **needs to talk** about her problems.

Connotation

Definition of Connotation

The connotation of a word refers to the emotional or cultural association with that word rather than its dictionary definition. The connotation definition is therefore not the explicit meaning of the word, but rather the meaning that the word implies.

Connotation comes from the Latin word “connotare,” which means, “to mark in addition.”

In some cases, connotation can also be similar to symbolism as it hinges on culturally-accepted meanings. For example, the connotation of a red rose is love and passion, and if an author were to refer to a red rose while talking about a relationship, the reader would understand that this connotation and symbolism was at play. However, there are many cases of connotation that don't use symbolism, as shown below in the “Examples of Connotation in Common Speech” section.

Examples of Connotation in Common Speech

There are many words that can be understood as synonyms with the same definition, yet their connotations are notably different. For example:

- “House” versus “Home”: Both words refer to the structure in which a person lives, yet “home” connotes more warmth and comfort, whereas “house” sounds colder and more distant.
- “Cheap” versus “Affordable”: While both words mean that something does not cost a lot, “cheap” can also connote something that is not well-made or of low value, while “affordable” can refer to a quality item or service that happens to be well-priced.
- “Riots” versus “Protests”: The difference between these two words is that “riots” connotes a violent gathering of people who are not necessarily in the right, while “protests” can have a more peaceful connotation and is often used when there is sympathy with the protesters.

The connotations of words can also change drastically from one culture to the next. For example, to call someone “fat” in some cultures is a huge insult, whereas in others, it connotes that the person is healthy and well-fed.

Significance of Connotation in Literature

Connotation plays a role in almost every type of communication, as it adds nuance and more subtle meaning. Authors use connotation to allow the readers to infer more meaning than there is explicitly written on the page, making the readers more active parts of the interpretive process.

Examples of Connotation in Literature

Example #1

My mistress' eyes are nothing like the sun;
Coral is far more red than her lips' red;

If snow be white, why then her breasts are dun;
If hairs be wires, black wires grow on her head.

(“[Sonnet 130](#)” by William Shakespeare)

In this famous sonnet, Shakespeare compares his lover unfavorably to many wonderful things. Shakespeare uses the sun, the coral, and the snow to connote beauty, love, and purity. By saying that his lover is not like any of these things, she carries none of their connotations. Therefore, she is not beautiful and certainly not pure or innocent.

PART – B

READING COMPREHENSION

The Ring at Casterbridge was merely the local name of one of the finest Roman amphitheatres, if not the very finest remaining in Britain.

Casterbridge announced old Rome in every street, alley,
5 and precinct. It looked Roman, bespoke the art of Rome, concealed dead men of Rome. It was impossible to dig more than a foot or two deep about the town fields and gardens without coming upon some tall soldier or other of the Empire, who had laid there in his silent unobtrusive rest for a space of fifteen
10 hundred years. He was mostly found lying on his side, in an oval scoop in the chalk, like a chicken in its shell; his knees drawn up to his chest; sometimes with the remains of his spear against his arm; a brooch of bronze on his breast or forehead; an urn at his knees, a jar at his throat, a bottle at his mouth; and mystified
15 conjecture pouring down upon him from the eyes of Casterbridge street boys, who had turned a moment to gaze at the familiar spectacle as they passed by.

Imaginative inhabitants, who would have felt an unpleasantness at the discovery of a comparatively modern
20 skeleton in their gardens, were quite unmoved by these hoary shapes. They had lived so long ago, their time was so unlike the present, their hopes and motives were so widely removed from ours, that between them and the living there seemed to stretch a gulf too wide for even a spirit to pass.

25 The Amphitheatre was a huge circular enclosure, with a notch at opposite extremities of its diameter north and south. It was to Casterbridge what the ruined Coliseum is to modern

Rome, and was nearly of the same magnitude. The dusk of evening was the proper hour at which a true impression of this suggestive place could be received. Standing in the middle of the arena at that time there by degrees became apparent its real vastness, which a cursory view from the summit at noon-day was apt to obscure. Melancholy, impressive, lonely, yet accessible from every part of the town, the historic circle was the frequent spot for appointments of a furtive kind. Intrigues were arranged there; tentative meetings were there experimented after divisions and feuds. But one kind of appointment - in itself the most common of any - seldom had place in the Amphitheatre: that of happy lovers.

Why, seeing that it was pre-eminently an airy, accessible, and sequestered spot for interviews, the cheerfulness of those occurrences never took kindly to the soil of the ruin, would be a curious inquiry. Perhaps it was because its associations had about them something sinister. Its history proved that. Apart from the sanguinary nature of the games originally played therein, such incidents attached to its past as these: that for scores of years the town-gallows had stood at one corner; that in 1705 a woman who had murdered her husband was half-strangled and then burnt there in the presence of ten thousand spectators. Tradition reports that at a certain stage of the burning her heart burst and leapt out of her body, to the terror of them all, and that not one of those ten thousand people ever cared particularly for hot roast after that. In addition to these old tragedies, pugilistic encounters almost to the death had come off down to recent dates in that secluded arena, entirely invisible to the outside world save by climbing to the top of the enclosure, which few townspeople in the daily round of their lives ever took the trouble to do. So that, though close to the turnpike-road, crimes might be perpetrated there unseen at mid-day.

Some boys had latterly tried to impart gaiety to the ruin by using the central arena as a cricket-ground. But the game usually languished for the aforesaid reason - the dismal privacy which the earthen circle enforced, shutting out every appreciative passer's vision, every commendatory remark from outsiders - everything, except the sky; and to play at games in such circumstances was like acting to an empty house. Possibly, too, the boys were timid, for some old people said that at certain moments in the summer time, in broad daylight, persons sitting with a book or dozing in the arena had, on lifting their eyes, beheld the slopes lined with a gazing legion of Hadrian's soldiery as if watching the gladiatorial combat; and had heard the roar of

their excited voices; that the scene would remain but a moment, like a lightning flash, and then disappear.

Henchard had chosen this spot as being the safest from
75 observation which he could think of for meeting his long-lost wife, and at the same time as one easily to be found by a stranger after nightfall. As Mayor of the town, with a reputation to keep up, he could not invite her to come to his house till some definite course had been decided on.

Adapted from: *The Mayor of Casterbridge*, Thomas Hardy (1886)

1. The amphitheatre is described as a ◆suggestive◆(line 30) place because

- ☐ A. its real size could not be appreciated at a glance.
- ☐ B. it was full of historical associations
- ☐ C. mysterious meetings took place there
- ☐ D. it was lonely yet accessible
- ☐ E. it was best appreciated in the evening.

2. The word ◆hoary◆ (line 20) is closest in meaning to

- ☐ A. unimaginative
- ☐ B. buried
- ☐ C. curled up
- ☐ D. mummified
- ☐ E. ancient

3. The ◆curious enquiry◆(line 43) refers to finding out

- ☐ A. why happy lovers never met there
- ☐ B. why interviews never took place there
- ☐ C. what historical events took place there
- ☐ D. how the amphitheatre came to have sinister associations
- ☐ E. why the amphitheatre lay in ruins

4. The word ◆round◆ (line 57) most nearly means

- ☐ A. route
- ☐ B. routine
- ☐ C. meanderings
- ☐ D. circle
- ☐ E. journey

5. The boys had given up cricket in the Amphitheatre in part because

- ☐ A. it was too dark
- ☐ B. crimes commonly took place there
- ☐ C. there were no spectators or passers-by to applaud their efforts
- ☐ D. they were afraid of being caught
- ☐ E. it was too exposed to the weather

6. The author's primary purpose is to

- ☐ A. justify his opinion of the Ring
- ☐ B. attempt to account for the atmosphere of a place
- ☐ C. chronicle the development of the Amphitheatre
- ☐ D. describe the location of a Roman relic
- ☐ E. explain the uses to which historical sites are put

7. The attitude of the local residents to the unearthed remains of dead Romans was one of

- ☐ A. total apathy
- ☐ B. confusion and unease
- ☐ C. trepidation
- ☐ D. momentary interest
- ☐ E. revulsion

8. The incident of the woman who was burnt is mentioned in order to

- ☐ A. horrify the reader
- ☐ B. illustrate one reason for the unsavoury reputation of the place
- ☐ C. show the bloodthirsty nature of former occupants

- ☐ D. add realistic details to an imaginary plot
- ☐ E. show the magnitude of the gulf between the past and the present

9. All of the following are said to have taken place at the Ring except

- ☐ A. ghostly apparitions
- ☐ B. boxing matches
- ☐ C. hangings
- ☐ D. secret assignations
- ☐ E. theatrical performances

10. It can be inferred from the last paragraph that Henchard

- ☐ A. is afraid of his wife
- ☐ B. has something to hide from the townspeople
- ☐ C. is a stranger to the Ring
- ☐ D. is about to commit a crime
- ☐ E. is an infamous resident of Casterbridge

11. The ring was ◆safest from observation◆ (lines 74-75) because

- ☐ A. no one inside could be seen from outside the arena
- ☐ B. it was far from the main road
- ☐ C. people found it a pleasant place only in Summer
- ☐ D. no one except lovers ever went there after dark
- ☐ E. it was too inaccessible

12. It appears that in general the attitude of Casterbridge residents to the Roman past suggests that they

- ☐ A. appreciated the art of the Romans
- ☐ B. feared the ghosts of the buried Roman soldiers
- ☐ C. felt far removed from the concerns of the Romans
- ☐ D. were awe-struck by their civilization
- ☐ E. were proud of their heritage

3. FREE WRITING SAMPLE

The free movement of goods across national borders has long been a controversial issue. Some people argue that it is necessary for economic growth, while others claim that it damages local industries.

Discuss both views and give your own opinion. You should write at least 250 words.

One of the most debatable issues of the last century has been the extent to which international trade benefits or harms national economies. Many arguments have been made for and against free trade between nations. In this essay, I will discuss both views and state my own position.

Those who support the expansion of global free trade claim that economies grow faster when they can specialise in just a few industries in which they have a strong advantage. As a result, each region or country produces something of value to the world economy. For example, East Asia manufactures electronic goods, the Middle East exports energy, and the EU produces luxury items. Free trade proponents claim that dependence on global trade helps to strengthen international cooperation and prevent wars.

Meanwhile, opponents of free trade—sometimes called ‘protectionists’—claim that the unrestricted movement of goods and services causes damage to local communities. This is because jobs are lost when it becomes cheaper to import a product than to produce it domestically. They also argue that the vast distances travelled by food, oil, and consumer goods is harming the environment and making our lives unsustainable. Protectionists are in favour of tighter controls on the movement of goods and services in order to protect jobs and livelihoods.

In conclusion, while there are convincing arguments on both sides of the debate, a return to protectionist policies would surely be a mistake. I believe that global trade is inevitable and should not be restricted. It is no longer realistic for nations to source all of their energy, food, and manufactured goods within their own borders.

3. PARAGRAPH WRITING SAMPLE

Several languages die every year. Many people feel this is a positive trend and that a world with fewer languages promotes harmony and understanding between people. Analyze both sides of this argument and provide your opinion.

You should write at least 250 words.

Model Answer

Many languages around the world die every year, often replaced with more widely spoken dialects. Opinions as to whether this is a positive or negative trend are mixed. On one hand, people feel sharing a common language may help to encourage economical development in the

world. However on the other hand, many feel the losing of languages is a negative trend that makes it increasingly difficult to trace humanity's heritage. Both of these accounts will be examined before a conclusion is reached.

As many attest, the global adoption of a single language can do a lot in promoting economical development. For example, all export companies in China hire English speaking people to help them communicate with foreign buyers. The growth in trade that comes as a result of this effort to speak the world's language does a lot to create jobs and industries around the world. Thus it can be understood why many people support this point of view.

However, other people would argue that the rapid reduction of the world's languages is making it increasingly hard to trace where and how people evolved. For example, during colonial times many lesser spoken African languages were replaced with English, French and Dutch. This phenomenon has understandably caused major problems for modern day historians, as these old and forgotten languages render many of the recovered historical records and artifacts indecipherable.

After analyzing both sides of this argument, it is felt that more good comes from the global adoption of a single language than the preservation and practice of older languages. Thus, it is hope the world continues to move towards a single, standardized linguistic system.

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UNIT III

Comparative Adjectives

In grammar, the **comparative** is the form of an adjective which denotes the degree or grade by which a person, thing, or other entity has a property or quality greater or less in extent than that of another, and is used in this context with a subordinating conjunction, such as *than*, *as...as*, etc. If three or more items are being compared, the corresponding superlative needs to be used instead.

The structure of a comparative in English consists normally of the **Positive form of the adjective Plus the Suffix -er**. If the adjective ends with 'Y' we remove 'Y' and add -ier. If the adjective ends with a consonant preceded by a vowel the consonant is doubled before adding -er. In the case of polysyllabic adjectives the modifier *more* (or *less/fewer*) is added before the adjective. If the adjective ends with -e only 'r' is added. There are certain irregular comparative forms

- Adjectives have three forms: **positive**, **comparative**, and **superlative**.
- The simplest form of the adjective is its *positive* form. When two objects or persons are being compared, the *comparative* form of the adjective is used. When three or more things are being compared, we use the adjective's *superlative* form.
- A few adjectives, like **good** and **bad** form their comparatives with different words:
- That is a *good* book. This is a *better* book. Which of the three is the *best* book?
- He made a *bad* choice. She made a *worse* choice. They made the *worst* choice of all.
- The comparative forms of most adjectives, however, are formed by adding the suffixes **-er** and **-est**, or by placing the words **more** and **most** in front of the positive form.

RULES FOR FORMING COMPARATIVES:

1. One syllable words form the comparative by adding -er and -est:

brave, braver, bravest
small, smaller, smallest
dark, darker, darkest.

2. Two-syllable words that end in -y, -le, and -er form the comparative by adding -er and -est:

pretty, prettier, prettiest
happy, happier, happiest
noble, nobler, noblest
clever, cleverer, cleverest

3. Words of more than two syllables form the comparative with *more* and *most*:

beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful.
resonant, more resonant, most resonant

4. Past participles used as adjectives form the comparative with *more* and *most*:

crooked, broken, damaged, defeated, etc.

5. Predicate adjectives (adjectives used to describe the subject of a sentence) form the comparative

with *more* and *most*:

afraid, mute, certain, alone, silent, etc.

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Adjective Types	Positive form	Comparative form
Adjectives with one Syllable	Rich	Richer
Adjectives ending in 'e'	Safe	Safer
Adjectives ending with a consonant preceded by a vowel	Big	Bigger
Adjectives ending with 'y'	Happy	Happier
Polysyllabic adjectives	Important	More Important
Irregular Comparative forms	Good Bad/evil	Better Worse

Solved Example:

1. Energy Conservation is **cheaper** (cheap) than extra energy production.
2. Today making investments in landed properties is **wiser** (wise) than investing in articles of gold.
3. Madhya Pradesh is **bigger** (big) than other Indian states.
4. Lead is **heavier** (heavy) than aluminum
5. The tiger is **more ferocious** (ferocious) than other animals.
6. A wise enemy is **better** (good) than a foolish friend.

REFERENCE WORDS

Reference words are a type of **rhetorical** device that allow a writer to create cohesion throughout a text by reintroducing, manipulating, or anticipating information continually and in interesting ways. Reference words can be almost any part of speech, but most of them are pronouns and noun phrases.

Example:

New Zealand is becoming an increasingly popular destination for overseas visitors. **It** attracts tourists and people on business, but the vast majority come as students. Mostly from Asian countries, **they** stay for anything from a few weeks to a few years or more, studying at language schools, colleges and universities. New Zealand can offer good homestay accommodation, a clean and beautiful environment and a reasonable cost of tuition. **These factors** attract an ever-increasing number of overseas students, accounting for millions of dollars in revenue for New Zealand.

DISCOURSE MARKERS

A **discourse marker** is a word or phrase that plays a role in managing the flow and structure of discourse.

Examples of discourse markers include the particles "oh", "well", "now", "then", "you know", and "I mean", and the 'discourse connectives', "so", "because", "and", "but", and "or".

ADDING and also as well as moreover too furthermore additionally	SEQUENCING first, second, third... finally next meanwhile after then subsequently	ILLUSTRATING for example such as for instance in the case of as revealed by... illustrated by	CAUSE and EFFECT because so therefore thus consequently hence
COMPARING similarly likewise as with like equally in the same way..	QUALIFYING but however although unless except apart from as long as if	CONTRASTING whereas instead of alternatively otherwise unlike on the other hand... conversely	EMPHASISING above all in particular especially significantly indeed notably

Pronouns

What is a Pronoun?

In grammar, a pronoun is defined as a word or phrase that may be substituted for a noun or noun phrase, which once replaced, is known as the pronoun's antecedent. How is this possible? In a nutshell, it's because pronouns can do everything that nouns can do. A pronoun can act as a subject, direct object, indirect object, object of the preposition, and more.

Without pronouns, we'd have to keep on repeating nouns, and that would make our speech and writing repetitive, not to mention cumbersome. Most pronouns are very short words. Examples include:

- He
- She
- They
- It
- We
- Who

As mentioned, pronouns are usually used to replace nouns, however they can also stand in for certain adverbs, adjectives, and other pronouns. Anytime you want to talk about a person, animal, place or thing, you can use pronouns to make your speech or writing flow better.

Types of Pronouns

Pronouns can be divided into numerous categories including:

- Indefinite pronouns – those referring to one or more unspecified objects, beings, or places
- Personal pronouns – those associated with a certain person, thing, or group; all except you have distinct forms that indicate singular or plural number
- Reflexive pronouns – those preceded by the adverb, adjective, pronoun, or noun to which they refer, and ending in *-self* or *-selves*

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- Demonstrative pronouns – those used to point to something specific within a sentence
- Possessive pronouns – those designating possession or ownership
- Relative pronouns – those which refer to nouns mentioned previously, acting to introduce an adjective (relative) clause
- Interrogative pronouns – those which introduce a question
- Reciprocal pronouns – those expressing mutual actions or relationship; i.e. one another
- Intensive pronouns – those ending in *–self* or *–selves* and that serve to emphasize their antecedents

Pronoun Rules

There are a few important rules for using pronouns. As you read through these rules and the examples in the next section, notice how the pronoun rules are followed. Soon you'll see that pronouns are easy to work with.

- Subject pronouns may be used to begin sentences. For example: We did a great job.
- Subject pronouns may also be used to rename the subject. For example: It was she who decided we should go to Hawaii.
- Indefinite pronouns don't have antecedents. They are capable of standing on their own. For example: No one likes the sound of fingernails on a chalkboard.
- Object pronouns are used as direct objects, indirect objects, and objects of prepositions. These include: you, me, him, her, us, them, and it. For example: David talked to her about the mistake.
- Possessive pronouns show ownership. They do not need apostrophes. For example: The cat washed *its* whiskers.

Examples of Pronouns

In the following examples, the pronouns are italicized.

1. *We* are going on vacation.
2. Don't tell *me* that *you* can't go with *us*.
3. *Anybody* who says *it* won't be fun has no clue *what they* are talking about.
4. *These* are terribly steep stairs.
5. *We* ran into *each other* at the mall.
6. I'm not sure *which* is worse: rain or snow.
7. *It* is one of the *nicest* Italian restaurants in town.
8. Richard stared at *himself* in the mirror.
9. The laundry isn't going to do *itself*.
10. *Someone* spilled orange juice all over the countertop!

Pronoun Exercises

The following exercises will help you gain greater understanding about how pronouns work. Choose the best answer to complete each sentence.

1. This is _____ speaking.
A. John
B. He
C. He john
D. Am

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2. Greg is as smart as _____ is.
 - A. I
 - B. me
 - C. she
 - D. we
3. The dog chewed on _____ favorite toy.
 - A. it's
 - B. it is
 - C. its'
 - D. its
4. It could have been _____.
 - A. Jerry
 - B. anyone
 - C. better
 - D. more difficult
5. Terry is taller than _____ am.
 - A. I
 - B. me
 - C. she
 - D. we

Answers

1. B. This is he speaking.
2. C. Greg is as smart as she is.
3. D. The dog chewed on its favorite toy.
4. B. It could have been anyone.
5. A. Terry is taller than I am.

List of Pronouns

As you read through this list of pronouns, remember that each one of these pronouns is a word that can be used to take the place of a noun. Think about ways to use the pronouns on this list in sentences, as this will increase your understanding.

I	Him	Whose	Anybody	Nobody
We	They	Whichever	Anyone	Neither
Me	Them	Whoever	Anything	No one
Us	It	Whomever	Each	Nothing
You	That	This	Either	Somebody
She	Which	These	Everyone	One
He	Who	That	Everybody	Someone
Her	Whom	Those	Everything	Something

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Few

Many

Both

Several

Any

All

Some

Most

None

Myself

Yourself

Ourselves

Yourselves

Herself

Himself

Themselves

Itself

Who

What

Which

Whose

Whom

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UNIT III ADVERBS

Adverbs are words that describe **how, where and when** an action took place.

I am standing *here*. The students wrote the test *actively*.

I met my friend *yesterday*.

Adverbs are mostly formed by adding the suffix -ly to an adjective.

quick- quickly neat- neatly most- mostly

There are certain adjectives which have a different form for adverbs.

good- well

Adverbs can be placed in different places in a sentence.

Gopi **always** comes first to the class. (before the verb)

Always Gopi comes first to the class. (at the beginning of a sentence)

Gopi comes first to the class **always**. (at the end of a sentence)

There are different kinds of adverbs:

1. Adverbs of manner: they answer the question how the action happened.

Shyam sang *beautifully*. (How did she sing?)

The professor explained the concept *clearly*.

I *eagerly* read the article.

2. Adverbs of place: they answer the question where the action happened.

She is waiting *down*.

I didn't go *there*.

We do not use plastic *here*.

3. Adverbs of time: they answer the question when the action happened.

I am going to meet my friend *today*.

Harish did not get any reply *yet*.

4. Adverbs of frequency: they answer the question how often the action happened.

I go to the library *everyday*.

Prashaanth *never* eats meat.

Praveen goes for swimming *occasionally*.

5. Adverbs of degree: they answer the question how well/ badly the action happened.

I wrote the exam *quite* well.

I could *hardly* hear you.

Examples:**Manner:** bravely, fast, happily, hard, quickly, well**Place:** by, down, here, near, there, up**Time:** now, soon, still, then, today, yet**Frequency:** always, never, often, occasionally, often, twice**Degree:** fairly, hardly, rather, quite, too, very**One Word Substitution for Sentences**

"One word substitutes" as the phrase indicates itself are the words that replace group of words or a full sentence effectively without creating any kind of ambiguity in the meaning of the sentences. Like the word "Autobiography" can be used in place of the sentence "The life story of a man written by himself". It is very important to write precisely and speak in a single word. Generally, we speak or write in a garrulous way. But, it is seen that precise words are always understood easily by all. At times we become verbose which is not required and we are required to talk or speak precisely. This not only makes the language easily comprehensible but also makes it beautiful. The other way, we can say that these words are used to bring an effect of compression in any kind of writing, for example in business communication there are instances when we have to write a lot with in limitation of time and space, there these kind of words can prove quite handy. In English language there are a lots of single words for a group of words that can be used effectively to make the writing to the point that too without losing the meaning of the context.

EXAMPLES:

Philanthropist	Someone who makes charitable donations for the welfare of humanity, Lover of mankind.
Pioneer	A person who is the first to lead, explore or develop something new.
Posthumous	Something occurring or awarded after the death of the originator.
Purist	One who has very strong ideas about what is acceptable.
Referendum	Direct decision by a general vote on the single question.
Retrospective	Which takes effect from some earlier date, Looking back and dealing with past events and situations.
Sanctuary	A place of refuge recognized as secure.
Smuggler	A person who imports or exports goods into or from a country secretly because they are illegal or in order to avoid paying duty on them
Teetotaler	One who does not take alcoholic drinks
Tripod	Having three legs.
Universal	Belonging to all parts of the world.
Ventriloquist	A person who can make his voice appear to come from somewhere else.
Weather-cock	A cock-shaped indicator on the building top to show the direction of air.

JUMBLED SENTENCES

When sentences in jumbled order are given, one has to look for the sequence/ connecting word or discourse marker. As a paragraph constitutes a topic sentence and supporting sentences to substantiate it, one has to look for a logical thought process.

Example:

- a. Engineering is the use of scientific principles to achieve a desired result.
- b. The distinctions between sciences, engineering and technology are not always clear.
- c. Generally science is the reasoned investigation or study of nature aimed at discovering enduring relationships among elements of the world.
- d. In this sense, scientists and engineers may both be considered technologies, but scientist less so. Such as semiconductors, computers and other forms of advanced technology.
- e. However, technology broadly involves the uses and application of knowledge both formally and informally, to achieve some practical result.
- f. It generally employs formal technique, i.e. some set of established rules of procedure such as the scientific method.
- g. This knowledge then may be used by engineers to create artifacts, such as semiconductors, computers and other forms of advanced technology.
- h. For example, science might study the flow of electron in electrical conductors.

Answer:

- 1. The distinctions between sciences, engineering and technology are not always clear.
- 2. Generally science is the reasoned investigation or study of nature aimed at discovering enduring relationships among elements of the world.
- 3. This knowledge then may be used by engineers to create artefacts, such as semiconductors, computers and other forms of advanced technology.
- 4. Engineering is the use of scientific principles to achieve a desired result.
- 5. It generally employs formal technique, i.e. some set of established rules of procedure such as the scientific method.

6. In this sense, scientists and engineers may both be considered technologies, but scientist less so.

Such as

semiconductors, computers and other forms of advanced technology.

7. For example, science might study the flow of electron in electrical conductors.

8. However, technology broadly involves the uses and application of knowledge both formally and informally,

to achieve some practical result.

E-Mail Writing

Points to remember while writing an e-mail

Don'ts

1. Do not include vague or nonexistent subject line.
2. Do not Change the topic without changing the subject.
3. Do not include multiple subjects in one note.
4. Avoid sending the mail before thinking twice about the content.
5. Do not inadvertently reply to all.
6. Do not omit the context of a reply.
7. Do not Display the addresses of recipients who are strangers to each other.
8. Do not confuse between Replying and forwarding.

Do's

Addressing

- Limit to who really needs to know.
- Make it clear in text who has action and who is info addressee.
- Use BCC to protect Email addresses unless everyone knows each other.
- Watch Reply All.
- Use address book with mail groups & validate often.
- Make sure forward does not embarrass sender.
- Fill in addresses last to avoid sending an incomplete Email by mistake.

Message Text

- Keep the message focused and readable.
- Keep it short.
- Break into paragraphs; skip lines between.
- Use short sentences and active voice.
- Use plain text editor.
- Avoid HTML.
- Avoid fancy typefaces.

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- Write in standard professional English with Capitalization and correct spelling.

Sample e-mail format

From:	<input type="text"/>
To:	<input type="text"/>
	Add Cc Add Bcc Add Reply-to
Subject:	<input type="text"/>

Dear Mr. Miller,

As your business associate, it gives me great pleasure in informing you about the new offer we are giving on the Latest Office Furniture Series.

As our customer of many years, you can avail of this offer at a Special Discount of 20%. This offer is only valid for special customers like you and not across the board.

It gives us great pleasure to inform you that this latest series has been designed by our team keeping in mind comfort, style, and durability. You can visit our website www.greatfurniture.com to see for yourself, the wide range we are offering.

We request you to kindly order at the earliest, so that you can avail of the fabulous discount and also get an additional special gift from us.

Thanking You,
Sam Vincent

Your teacher asks you to write a paragraph on the advantages of e-mail communication and he advises you to send it through e-mail. Prepare a paragraph and send it to your teacher's e-mail ID.

To: prof.abcd@gmail.com

CC:

BCC:

Sub: Advantages of e-mail communication

Ans: Email communication has many advantages such as emails it the most wide used application on the internet. Email proves time stamped proof of an interaction. Email is easy to archive for future recall. Email

contains details of correspondence. Email lower the risk of embarrassing comments. Email is not expensive. Email is speedy transfer. Email is a secured feature on the internet. Email is an effective marketing tool for

consumers. Email is able to decrease managerial layers. Email is the communication for transferring

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information quickly. Email is a nice nonverbal tool. Email is the most used tool in the place of business.

Email has a linked permanency factor. Email is used upon millions of people to communicate verses using the telephone. Email is used in place of mailing a letter. Email is easy to use. Email has changed the way

companies do business and most important advantage is Email is easy.

PRODUCT DESCRIPTION

Whether your products have a specific function, like a camera, or a personal purpose, like fashion, all products exist to enhance or improve the purchaser's quality of life in one way or another. As the shopper browses, they instinctively imagine having each product in hand, using it and enjoying it.

The more powerful the customer's fantasy of owning the product, the more likely they are to buy it. Therefore, I like to think of product descriptions as storytelling and psychology, incorporating the elements of both prose writing and journalism. A "good" product description will not do. Competition is getting too fierce. It must be great!

Journalists utilize the Who, What, Where, When, Why and How method for getting across the facts of their stories, and following this process is the first step in crafting a compelling product description:

- **Who is this product for?** The target audience can be a gender (women or men), an age group (college kids, retirees), a lifestyle demographic (new mothers, car enthusiasts) or some other defined group of people.
- **What are the product's basic details?** This includes attributes such as dimensions, materials, product features and functions.
- **Where would someone use this product?** Is it meant for indoor or outdoor use, for your car or your home?
- **When should someone use the product?** Is it meant to be used during a certain time of day, seasonally or for a specific type of occasion? Just as important is pointing out if a product can or should be used every day or year-round, as that will speak to its long-term value.
- **Why is this product useful or better than its competitors?** This can be anything from quality to value to features — really think about the benefits that will speak to customers. Also consider how images can complement your product copy.
- **How does the product work?** This may not be necessary for every product, but if you are selling anything with moving parts or electronics, it's a must-have.

Use those questions as your product description template when you want to accurately describe your best items.

The next step is determining the best format for the above information. Since some shoppers only scan text on websites, it's a good idea to have a list of bullet points that cover the most important product details. Bullet points should generally be used for specs (like dimensions) or short phrases (like features) so that they are quick and easy to read.

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Unfortunately, bullet points aren't the best way to tell a product's story and convince shoppers that they're looking at a great deal. They look cold and clinical on the page instead of engaging the shopper's emotions or imagination. This is a job for prose! By writing a paragraph (three or more sentences) or two about the product, you can set the scene and help the shopper realize why their life up to this point has been incomplete without it. It may seem daunting, but after some practice, it will become second nature and even (gasp!) fun.

This is your opportunity to be a little creative and establish a voice (personality and tone) for your brand — whether that be serious, casual or even irreverent. Just imagine you're at a party, telling someone you've just met about the product. How would you describe it so that they'd understand how great it truly is?

This voice permeates every aspect of your online marketing: social media, SEO, paid search — every customer touchpoint. Unique, compelling copy makes your products more relevant for search engines and other marketing mediums that value original content.

In fact, following this simple formula below is a great way to writing compelling product descriptions:

“But this is going to take a long time,” you might be thinking, especially if you rely on product descriptions from your distributors or manufacturers. And you're right, this isn't a quick process. But, if you can commit to writing a dozen or so product descriptions a day using the formula above, you'll begin to see a variety of benefits:

- **An increase in conversion rate:** Shoppers will be more confident in their purchase
- **A decrease in cart abandonment:** Again, increased confidence in purchase
- **A lower return rate:** Shopper expectations of products are more likely to be met
- **Fewer calls from shoppers:** They'll have fewer questions about your products
- **Better organic search rankings:** More unique and original text content on your website

Now let's take a look at how eight real online stores sell more with product description perfection, with tidbits you can take from their expertise to increase your own conversions.

Be Short & Sweet to be Effective

Onzie is a great example of just how well the basic formula can work. Their product pages combine conversational paragraph-long descriptions that engage their fans, as well as quick bullet-points on need-to-know specs for any shoppers just scanning the page.

EXAMPLE:

Write a paragraph of about 100 words describing Heart water bottle

Description: Our most popular bottle, available in a variety of colors to help brighten up anybody's gear. The large opening on our wide-mouth bottles easily accommodates ice cubes, fits most water purifiers and filters, and makes hand washing a breeze. The attached loop-top never gets lost and screws on and off easily. Printed graduations let keep track of your hydration. Dishwasher safe (Please make sure the top does not touch the heating element, or it will melt).

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TENSES

Definition

Tense is used to show the relation between the action or state described by the verb and the time, which is reflected in the form of the verb. There are two basic tenses in English; the present tense and the past tense. The present is like the base form, although the third person singular adds **-s**. Regular verbs add **-ed** or **-d** to show the past tense, while irregular verbs change in many different ways, or not at all in some cases.

Simple present

In Simple Present, the action is simply mentioned and there is nothing being said about its completeness. It is used to talk about an action which happens on a regular basis.

i) The **present tense** designates action occurring at the time of speaking or writing:

Ex: She **lives** in Toronto.

ii) It is used to indicate habitual actions:

Ex: I **exercise** every morning

iii) It is also used to express general truth

Ex: Sun rises in the east

iv) It is used to indicate scientific knowledge

Ex: Light **travels** faster than sound

v) It is used to indicate for professional activities

Ex: the teacher **moulds** the students.

vi) It is used to express ownership

Ex: that car **belongs** to me.

Present tense also has some special uses:

a) to indicate future time when used with time expressions:

Ex: We travel to Italy next week.

Ex: Michael returns in the morning

b) to describe works of literature and the arts:

Ex: Hamlet avoids avenging his father's death for one reason.

Present Continuous

We use the present continuous tense to show we are in the middle of an activity that is in progress at this moment. The activity started in the past and will go on in the future.

Example: I am reading / I'm writing.

So when we use the present continuous tense we are talking about something that is still not yet finished or complete at the time of speaking. The present continuous tense of any verb is formed with the simple present tense of the verb to be (=am, is, are) and the present participle of the main verb (verb + ing)

Usage :

Example:

(i) I am eating a pie for lunch.

We use the present continuous tense:

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for an action that is still happening at the time of speaking.

ii) for an action that is still going on about this time but not necessary at the time of speaking.

Example: Jack is teaching at a secondary boys' school.

(He is not actually teaching now. He may be watching television or playing with his cat at the moment of speaking.)

(iii) to talk about an action that has been planned or arranged to take place at a particular time in the immediate or distant future.

Example: We are performing magic tricks on stage in two weeks.

(iv) to describe a situation that is temporary and does not happen as usual.

Example: He is usually the hero of the film, but he is playing the role of a villain.

v) for a changing or evolving situation.

Example: Pollution is causing global warming.'

vi) to describe a repeated action that the speaker finds irritating.

Example: He is forever making unfavorable comments about his mother-in-law.

vii) with 'always', 'very often', 'forever', 'constantly' to describe an action that happens many times or frequently.

Example: My old car is always breaking down.

Example: I very often go to my mum's for tea or coffee.

Example: He told her that their love would last forever.

Example: She is constantly reminding me to pay back the money I owe her.

Note: with time expressions such as now, at this moment, at present, in a minute, just now, today, tonight, tomorrow, nowadays, this week, next week, these days, this year

Present Perfect

An aspect of the verb expressing an action that began in the past and which has recently been completed or continues into the present.

The present perfect is formed by combining *has* or *have* with a past participle (usually a verb ending in *-d*, *-ed*, or *-n*).

Ex: I **have been** to France.

Types

(i) to denote actions just completed

Ex: I have written the letter.

(ii) Actions that began in the past and still continuing in the present.

Ex: I have worked here for eight years.

(iii) Completed actions which have current relevance.

Ex: I have written four novels.

(iv) Activity in the past.

Ex: I have been to Goa several times.

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Present Perfect Continuous

We use the present continuous tense to show we are in the middle of an activity that is in progress at this moment. The activity started in the past and will go on in the future.

Examples: I am reading / I'm writing.

So when we use the present continuous tense we are talking about something that is still not yet finished or complete at the time of speaking.

The present continuous tense of any verb is formed with the simple present tense of the verb to be (=am, is, are) and the present participle of the main verb (verb + ing)

Ex: I am eating a pie for lunch.

Ex: Mike is walking out after a row with his girlfriend.

Ex: Police are looking through a pile of papers and still haven't found what they want.

Usage

i) Indicates the duration of an action that began in the past and continues in the present.

Ex: My friend has been doing this work for two hours.

ii) An action that began in the past and has just recently ended.

Ex: Have you been doing this work alone?

Simple Past

A verb tense (the second principal part of a verb) indicating action that occurred in the past and which does not extend into the present.

ex: I played football

Usage

(i) To express actions that began and ended at a particular time in the past.

Ex: We went to Goa last year.

(ii) An action started and completed in the past.

Ex: She worked in GH for ten years.

(iii) An action that took place regularly in the past.

Ex: She went to temple every morning.

(iv) When interrogating about past actions.

Ex: Where did you have your studies?

Past Continuous

The past continuous tense is an important tense in English. We use it to say that somebody was in the middle of doing something at a certain time. The action or situation had already started before this time but had not finished:

Ex: I was camping when I got stung by a bee.

Usage

i) An interrupted action.

Ex: I was reading the novel when Ram came.

ii) A continuous actions in the past

Ex: I was having many friends at college.

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Past Perfect

An aspect of the verb that designates an action which has been completed before another past action.

I wasn't hungry. I **had** just **eaten**.

USAGE:

(i) An action that just occurred before another action in the past.

Ex: John had just when I arrived at the party.

(ii) An action that was expected to occur in the past.

Ex: I had longed to get news from my boss before today.

(iii) To report of an action completed before a point of time in the past. Ex: Tom was 14 years. he had set a world record by then.

Simple Future

A verb tense indicating action that has not yet begun.

Ex: I will come tomorrow

USAGE:

(i) Predicting actions likely to happen in future

Ex: You will pass in the test.

(ii) To express willingness to do something.

Ex: I will help you.

(iii) TO express a decision made at the time of speaking.

Ex: I will call on you in a short while.

(iv) Used in question tags.

Ex: Lets leave this place, shall we?

Future Continuous

The future continuous is used to talk about an activity that will be in progress at a specific point in time in the future.

ex: *We'll be having lunch on the beach this time next week.*

Usage

i) To express continuity of action at a particular time in the future.

Ex: Next year, this time, I will be preparing to go aboard.

Future perfect

A verb form that expresses action, completed by a specified time in the future.

The future perfect is formed by combining *will have* or *shall have* with a past participle.

ex: We *will have broken* for lunch by 12:30.

Usage

i) An action that will be completed before a particular time in future.

ex: By this time next month I will have finished my examination.

Future perfect continuous

A verb construction (made up of *will/shall + have been +* a present participle) that points to an ongoing future activity which occurs before another activity.

ex: The party *will have been going* for ages by the time we arrive.

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Usage

i) to express duration of time that occurred before a specific point of time in future.

ex: by next November I will have been working in this company for 6 years.

PHRASAL VERBS

A phrasal verb is a verb followed by a preposition or an adverb; the combination creates a meaning different from the original verb alone. Example :	
To get = to obtain	I need to get a new battery for my camera.
To get together = to meet	Why don't we all get together for lunch one day?

Phrasal verbs are part of a large group of verbs called "multi-part" or "multi-word" verbs. The preposition or adverb that follows the verb is sometimes called a *particle*. Phrasal verbs and other multi-word verbs are an important part of the English language. However, they are mainly used in spoken English and informal texts. They should be avoided in academic writing where it is preferable to use a formal verb such as "to postpone" rather than "to put off".

Transitive and intransitive phrasal verbs :

Some phrasal verbs are **transitive**. (A transitive verb always has an object.)

Example :

I **made up** an excuse. ('Excuse' is the object of the verb.)

Some phrasal verbs are **intransitive**. (An intransitive verb does not have an object.)

Example : My car **broke down**.

Separable or inseparable phrasal verbs :

Some transitive phrasal verbs are **separable**. (The object is *between the verb and the preposition*.)

Example : I **looked** the word **up** in the dictionary.

Some transitive phrasal verbs are **inseparable**. (The object is placed *after the preposition*.)

Example : I will **look into** the matter as soon as possible.

Some transitive phrasal verbs **can take an object in both places**.

Example : I **picked up** the book.

I **picked** the book **up**.

However, if the object is a **pronoun**, it *must be placed between the verb and the preposition*.

Example : I picked **it up**.

Alphabetical lists of Phrasal Verbs

abide by → avail (oneself) of
back away → butt in (on)
call back → cut out
deal with → drown out
ease off → focus on
get along (with) → grow up

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hand back → hurry up
iron out → knock out
lay off → look up to
make fun of → note down

Phrasal verbs are mainly used in spoken English and informal texts. (The more formal a conversation or text, the less phrasal verbs are found.)

Phrasal verbs consist of a verb plus a particle (preposition, adverb). The particle can change the meaning of the verb completely,

e.g.:

look up – consult a reference book (look a word up in a dictionary)

look for – seek (look for her ring)

look forward – anticipate with pleasure (look forward to meeting someone)

Same Word Used As Noun and Verb

The work that a word does in a sentence determines what part of speech it is in that sentences: a noun names a person, place, or thing; a pronoun takes the place of a noun; a word that modifies a noun is an adjective; the word which expresses an action is a verb; that which modifies a verb is an adverb; a preposition shows the relationship between a following noun or pronoun and some other word; an interjection expresses sudden emotion and a conjunction joins two equal words and word groups. The same word may be used as different parts of speech.

Ex:

1. Picture

He drew a **picture** of the sea. (Noun) Can you **picture** me as an acrobat? (Verb)

2. Play

Shakespeare **Plays** are very interesting. (Noun) They **play** well. (Verb)

REPORTED SPEECH

We use a 'reporting verb' like 'say' or 'tell' If this verb is in the present tense, We just put 'she says' and then the sentence:

Direct speech: "I like ice cream"

Reported speech: She **says** she **likes** ice cream

We don't need to change the tense, though probably we do need to change the 'person' from 'I' to 'she', for example.

We also may need to change words like 'my' and 'your'.

But, if the reporting verb is in the past tense, then usually we change the tenses in the reported speech:

Direct speech: "I like ice cream"

Reported speech: She **said** she **liked** ice cream

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Tense	Direct Speech	Reported Speech
present simple	"I like ice cream"	She said (that) she liked ice cream.
present continuous	"I am living in London"	She said she was living in London.
past simple	"I bought a car"	She said she had bought a car OR She said she bought a car.
past continuous	"I was walking along the street"	She said she had been walking along the street.
present perfect	"I haven't seen Julie"	She said she hadn't seen Julie.
past perfect*	"I had taken English lessons before"	She said she had taken English lessons before.
will	"I'll see you later"	She said she would see me later.
would*	"I would help, but.."	She said she would help but...
can	"I can speak perfect English"	She said she could speak perfect English.
could*	"I could swim when I was four"	She said she could swim when she was four.
shall	"I shall come later"	She said she would come later.
should*	"I should call my mother"	She said she should call her mother
might*	"I might be late"	She said she might be late
must	"I must study at the weekend"	She said she must study at the weekend OR She said she had to study at the weekend

* doesn't change

Occasionally, we don't need to change the present tense into the past if the information in direct speech is still true (but this is only for things which are general facts, and even then usually we like to change the tense):

Direct speech: "The sky is blue"

Reported speech: She said that the sky **is/was** blue

Reported Questions

Direct speech: "Where do you live?"

How can we make the reported speech here?

In fact, it's not so different from reported statements. The tense changes are the same, and we keep the question word. The very important thing though is that, once we tell the question to someone else, it isn't a question any more. So we need to change the grammar to a normal positive sentence. Confusing? Sorry, maybe this example will help:

Direct speech: "Where do you live?"

Reported speech: She asked me where I lived

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Do you see how I made it? The direct question is in the present simple tense. We make a present simple question with 'do' or 'does' so I need to take that away. Then I need to change the verb to the past simple.

Another example:

Direct speech: "where is Julie?"

Reported speech: She asked me where Julie was.

The direct question is the present simple of 'be'. We make the question form of the present simple of be by inverting (changing the position of) the subject and verb. So, we need to change them back before putting the verb into the past simple.

Here are some more examples:

Direct Question

"Where is the Post Office, please?"

"What are you doing?"

"Who was that fantastic man?"

Reported Question

She asked me where the Post Office was.

She asked me what I was doing.

She asked me who that fantastic man had been.

So much for 'wh' questions. But, what if you need to report a 'yes / no' question? We don't have any question words to help us. Instead, we use 'if':

Direct speech: "Do you like chocolate?"

Reported speech: She asked me **if** I liked chocolate.

No problem? Here are a few more examples:

Direct Question

"Do you love me?"

"Have you ever been to Mexico?"

"Are you living here?"

Reported Question

He asked me if I loved him.

She asked me if I had ever been to Mexico.

She asked me if I was living here.

Reported Requests

There's more! What if someone asks you to do something (in a polite way)? For example:

Direct speech: "Close the window, please"

Or: "Could you close the window please?"

Or: "Would you mind closing the window please?"

All of these requests mean the same thing, so we don't need to report every word when we tell another person about it. We simply use '**ask me + to + infinitive**':

Reported speech: She asked me to close the window.

Here are a few more examples:

Direct Request

"Please help me".

"Please don't smoke".

"Could you bring my book tonight?"

She asked me to pass the milk.

"Would you mind coming early tomorrow?"

Reported Request

She asked me to help her.

She asked me not to smoke please?"

She asked me to bring her book that night

Could you pass the milk,

She asked me to come early the next day.

To report a negative request, use 'not':

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Direct speech: "Please don't be late."

Reported speech: She asked us **not** to be late.

Here's a table of some possible conversions:

now then / at that time

today yesterday / that day / Tuesday / the 27th of June

yesterday the day before yesterday / the day before / Wednesday / the 5th of December

last night the night before, Thursday night

last week the week before / the previous week

tomorrow today / the next day / the following day / Friday

PART-B

The writing topics will ask you to consider the relationship between two things, for example, your hometown (that is, the town where you were born or grew up) and your university town. Such topics may allow you to organize your essay either around the *similarities* between these two *subtopics* (for example, between your hometown and your university town) or around the *differences* between them. If you write about the similarities, the essay will be a **comparison** essay. On the other hand, if you want to write about the differences, your essay will be a **contrast** essay.

This lesson will show you some ways in which you can structure sentences to write a comparison or contrast paragraph. We will first look at comparison paragraphs and then briefly look at contrast paragraphs.

Comparison Paragraphs Organized by Similar Points

Consider the following paragraph:

My hometown and my college town have several things in common. First, both are small rural communities. For example, my hometown, Gridlock, has a population of only about 10,000 people. Similarly, my college town, Subnormal, consists of about 11,000 local residents. This population swells to 15,000 people when the college students are attending classes. A second way in which these two towns are similar is that they are both located in rural areas. Gridlock is surrounded by many acres of farmland which is devoted mainly to growing corn and soybeans. In the same way, Subnormal lies in the center of farmland which is used to raise hogs and cattle

(**Note:** The four dots [. . . .] at the end of this paragraph mean that the paragraph contains more sentences that are not shown here.)

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The passage above is from a **comparison** paragraph. that is, a paragraph which discusses the similarities between two subtopics. Notice how the ideas in this paragraph are organized. As usual, the **topic sentence** is at the beginning of the paragraph. (For more about topic sentences, click [here](#).) After that, the paragraph continues by discussing one point of similarity between the towns of Gridlock and Subnormal, namely, their small population. **Specific details** are given to support the statment that "both are small rural communities." (For more about supporting details, click [here](#).) Following this, the paragraph briefly discusses a second point of similarity between the two towns, that is, their geographic surroundings. Here, the paragraph also gives supporting details to illustrate their similarity, namely, that they are "both located in rural areas."

As you can see, therefore, this comparison paragraph is structured (organized) according to the **points of similarity** between the two towns. This particular paragraph discusses only two points of similarity, but of course we can imagine a paragraph that gives three, four, or even more points of similarity. This paragraph, for example, might continue in this way:

. . . Thirdly, both of these towns are similar in that both contain college campuses. Gridlock, for example, is home to Neutron College, which is famous for its Agricultural Economics program as well as for its annual Corn-Watching Festival. Likewise, the town of Subnormal boasts the beautiful campus of Quark College, which is well known for its Agricultural Engineering department and also for its yearly Hog-Calling Contest.

(**Note:** The three dots [. . .] at the beginning of the above paragraph indicate that the paragraph contains previous sentences that are not shown here.)

PART B

LETTER WRITING

Letter Writing is an art. It is one of the medium of communication. In the present scenario, e- mail and SMS or the modern versions of technologies are replacing letters in communication. Still it is found that the letters are the medium of communication for official and government purposes. Letters also serve as the record of history because the series of conversation between two organizations has been recorded. It will help in future to trace the history of relationship between the organizations or Persons. Letters are very useful in sharing the thoughts with others

Generally, Letters are classified into two types. They are:

I. Formal (or) Official Letters

II. Informal (or) Friendly Letters

INFORMAL LETTER

Informal letter are easier to write in terms of format, language and tone. These Letters are sometimes called social or friendly letters. When we write letters to People who are dear to us, such as Family Members, Friends and Relatives, we do not follow many rules.

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Parts of the Informal letter:

- ☐ Sender's Address
- ☐ Date
- ☐ Greetings
- ☐ Body of the letter

- ☐ Subscription
- ☐ Address on the envelope [Receiver's address]

Write a Letter of appreciation to your friend for the success in the University exams.

No-2, Nehru Street, G.H. Colony, Chennai- 28.

Date: 27-10-17

I'm writing this letter because I am really very happy to know that you have got University tenth rank and I am very sure it is purely because of your dedication and hardwork. I am very happy that at last your hard work has paid off and you have got what you deserved. I am waiting to meet you and hope its going to be very soon. till then take care.

With regards

Yours lovingly

John

DIALOGUE WRITING

Writing good dialogue takes practice and patience. Here are ten tips for you to improve how you write your dialogue so your conversations crackle on the page.

- ☐ Read dialogue aloud. It's meant to be heard, after all. This will help you to listen to the voices of your characters, noticing the flow and movement of their words.
- ☐ Don't use dialogue to convey large chunks of information (exposition). People don't sound like this:
—Since we arrived here at four, to watch for Martin Good fellow, the murderer, I've felt hungry. It's okay if readers don't know exactly what's happening at all times – trust them to understand the story because they are intrigued by the voices of your characters.
- ☐ Dialogue should sound real, but that doesn't mean dialogue on the page is exactly like snippets of dialogue you overhear. You don't need all the Hellos, Goodbyes and boring small talk of daily life. Cut it out.
- ☐ Good dialogue should move the story forward, convey character and feel full of life.

The best place to see great dialogue is by attending (or reading) plays, watching movies or even just switching on the TV.

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☐ Learn how to write the correct punctuation for speech. It'll be a useful tool for you as a writer, making it easier for you to write the dialogue you want, and it'll help your work look professional when publishers read it.

Another technical dialogue tip: he said and she said read just fine. Don't worry about repetition, most readers glide over he said/she said as if those words were punctuation. Too many of these: exclaimed, gasped, screeched, postulated, reasoned, argued, pondered, mouthed, etc... and your dialogue will be overwhelmed by the words around it.

☐ Have people argue with people, or have people saying surprising, contrary things. If everyone is agreeing with each other, your story will feel flat.

☐ Think about how each of your characters sounds. Make each voice distinct – this can be subtle or dramatic. Perhaps one character likes to use a certain word or short phrase, so make sure the other characters don't use that same word or phrase. It's a small distinction, but useful. More dramatic distinctions are up to you!

☐ People don't have to answer each other directly. Sometimes what's not said has huge meaning.

☐ A dialogue should reveal all of these:

☐ Good dialogue is not weighed down by exposition: when the dialogue is carrying exposition and trying to tell the reader too much, characters end up saying a lot of very unnatural and unwieldy things. You'll see things like: So much of this dialogue would already be already apparent to the characters. They'd know how they met without having to talk about it, they'd know they're in 6th grade without having to talk about it, they'd know the science project is due without talking about it. So it's very clear to the reader that they're not talking to each other: they're really talking to the reader. Exposition and dialogue only really mesh when one character genuinely doesn't know what the other character is telling them and it's natural for them to explain at the

☐ Moment they're explaining it. Otherwise, if you're just trying to smash in info, your reader is going to spot it a mile away.

Good dialogue has a purpose and builds toward something. Sometimes you'll see characters in novels bantering back and forth in a way that is meant to reveal character or fill space. Unless it's just so insanely unbelievably clever that the writer makes it work, usually this feels hollow and, well, boring. A good conversation is an escalation. The dialogue is about something and builds toward something. If things stay even and neutral, the dialogue just feels empty. Characters in a novel never just talk. There's always more to it.

☐ Good dialogue goes easy on the exclamations and exhortations. When a character overuses "Ughs" and "Blechs" they can easily sound petulant. When they overuse exclamations, they can exhaust the reader with their excitability. When they overuse verbal tics and crutches, they can drive the reader crazy. Interjections and grunts are kind of like carpet cleaning concentrate. They must be diluted or you'll burn a hole in the floor.

☐ Good dialogue is boosted by dialogue tags, gestures, and action, so the reader can easily follow who is saying what. Poor maligned dialogue tags!!! Out there on the Internet it has lately become trendy for people to advocate stripping books of dialogue tags so that the person who is speaking is solely apparent through gestures and

☐ Good dialogue is unexpected. There's nothing worse than reading a stretch of dialogue where the characters are saying precisely what we think they're going to say.

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Aravind had been shortlisted for an interview by a multi-national company in Chennai. What are the questions likely to be asked by the Placement Officer and how he would repond to them. Make a minimum of eight exchanges . (16 sentences) The first is done for you.(APRIL / MAY 2015)

P.O : Hello Aravind, Can you tell us why you had applied to this company?

Aravind : It had been my dream to work in a multi-national company like yours.

Ans:

P.O : Good.If you are interested to work in MNC, explain your own project.

Aravind : My project is typical one and it was about Ecocriticism and natural disasters. It compare and contrast the human lives and animals.

P.O : You are interested to describe the human lives and their values in the society.

Aravind : Yes. Of Course it is the human values that makes the society.

P.O : What made you to take up this topic?

Aravind : It was my mother who motivatd me to take up this topic.

P.O : Is she working in any other organization?

Aravind : Yes she works for the Womens Welfare Organisations.She is such a dynamic lady to organize NGOs