

Word and Image 1

**Communicative English Handbook
For I Semester BA Communicative English**



**Editor
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**PRASARANGA
BENGALURU CENTRAL UNIVERSITY (BCU)
Bengaluru**

Word and Image 1: Communicative English Handbook for I Semester BA Communicative English under Faculty of Arts is prepared by the Members of the Text Book Committee, Bengaluru Central University (BCU).

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FOREWORD

Word and Image 1 Communicative English Hand Book for I Semester BA under Faculty of Arts, Bengaluru Central University (BCU) has been designed to equip students with spoken and written skills, that will enable them to communicate effectively. This book has been designed to hone students' grammar and pronunciation. This is the first Communicative English Hand Book for undergraduate students of BCU, Bengaluru, prepared by the Members of the Text Book Committee.

I congratulate the Text Book Committee on its efforts in the preparation of the material, which includes - Basics of Grammar and Phonetics. I thank the Director of Bengaluru Central University Press and their personnel for bringing out the Text Book neatly and on time.

I hope the text will motivate the teachers and the students to make the best use of it.

Prof. S. Japhet
Vice-Chancellor
Bengaluru Central University
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PREFACE

The Communicative English Handbook for I Semester Communicative English, WORD AND IMAGE, introduces undergraduate students to the fundamentals of communication. The 'Image' in the title refers to the Communicative English Course as a whole in which writing for and on the visual media forms an integral part of the syllabus.

Semester I spans 2 papers: the first paper re-orientes students to the basics of English grammar and is geared towards equipping students with better communication skills and the best use of English in everyday situations; the second paper has its focus on Phonetics and Spoken English and aspires to help students acquire quality pronunciation and excellent speaking skills.

I would like to thank the Chairperson and her team of teachers who have meticulously put together a meaningful syllabus, and a textbook which spells out specificities that frame the norms of effective speech and writing. I wish to thank the Vice Chancellor and the Registrar of BCU for their consistent support. I also thank the publisher, who helped us bring out the book on time.

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Introduction And Note to the Facilitator

Word and Image 1 is a book prescribed for the students of Communicative English, of the newly formed Bengaluru Central University. Communicative English is a subject in which students are trained in the fundamentals of communication with an emphasis towards writing for the media. The course aims to develop the student's proficiency in English and develop their communication skills.

This book has been designed to hone students' grammar and pronunciation. The book is divided into two sections, each focusing on the two papers prescribed by Bengaluru Central University. The first semester has two papers: Paper 1: Introduction to Basics of Grammar and Paper 2: Phonetics and Spoken English. The first part of the book attempts to develop the students' communication skills by enhancing their grammatical competence. The second part aims to help students develop effective spoken and listening skills.

Objectives of Paper 1- Introduction to Basics of Grammar

- To develop Communicative English competence in under graduate students.
- To identify and avoid common errors in using the Parts of Speech.
- To frame appropriate sentences.
- To comprehend written/spoken communication.
- To speak and write effectively.
- To identify errors in the use of tenses. Create an awareness of errors in subject-verb agreement.
- To enhance competence in the contextual use of English.
- To hone language skills.
- To enrich the student's vocabulary.

Learning Outcomes

- Identify and understand the different parts of speech in English.
- Identify and use different prepositions correctly in speech or writing.
- Talk about the past, present and future using suitable expressions and structures.
- Communicate effectively in different social situations.
- Use appropriate reporting verbs.
- Convert dialogue to narrative and vice versa.
- Identify and use homonyms, homophones, idioms, phrases.

Objectives of Paper 2 - Phonetics and Spoken English

- To develop proper pronunciation.
- To understand the relation between sounds and symbols in English.
- To enable students to be fluent in their speech.
- To focus on Received Pronunciation.
- To understand the process and structure of pronunciation.
- To learn basic transcription.
- To minimize pronunciation errors.
- To improve listening skills.
- To boost students' confidence.

Learning Outcomes

- Hone pronunciation and appropriate use of English.
- Enhance spoken skills in social interaction.
- Differentiate between consonants and vowels.
- Use accurate/ standard pronunciation.
- Speak with confidence.
- Speak fluently.
- Speak with the right intonation and stress.
- Avoid mother tongue influence.
- Differentiate between Indian English and RP.

Teaching and learning will be fruitful only when the practical sessions are conducted in an effective manner.

- Teachers should use audio CDs/ clips to make learning interesting and effective.
- Teachers are to use audio CDs with RP pronunciation.
- Use role play activities for Functional English.

The material in this book has been drawn from various sources. We acknowledge the inputs given by the Board of Studies. We thank Prof. M Shiva Prasad, Vivekananda Degree College, Bengaluru for entrusting us with designing the syllabus and contents. We are grateful to Prof. Rekha Rai, MES College, Bengaluru , Dr Sheela, MES College, Bengaluru and Dr Kavita Shastri, Vijaya College, Jayanagar, Bengaluru for reviewing the contents of the handbook.

Text Book Committee

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Module 1

“Grammar, which knows how to control even kings.” Molière

Parts Of Speech

Words in the English language are grouped under different classes called Parts of Speech. The parts of speech are considered the building blocks of the language. They are classified according to their function. There are Eight Parts of Speech in English.

NOUN:

Names a person (*girl, Ms. Amrita*), place (*Imphal, city*), animal (*cow, tiger*), thing (*pen, box*) or idea (*love, hate*).

PRONOUN:

Is used in place of a noun (*he, she them, him, someone, anything*).

VERB:

The verb is the action word in the sentence. It defines the action (*stand, went, seen*).

ADJECTIVE:

Modifies a noun or a pronoun (*yellow, cute, hard, the exam, a vacation*).

ADVERB:

Modifies a verb (*walk quietly*), adjective (*quite tall*), or another adverb (*walk very quietly*).

CONJUNCTION:

Joins together two or more words, phrases, or clauses (*and, but, or, because, since*).

PREPOSITION:

Word relating a noun or pronoun to another word in the sentence (*man on the roof*).

INTERJECTION:

Brief and abrupt pauses in speech, word/words used for expressing emotions. An exclamatory mark is used after the expression (*No! Ouch!*).

Exercise 1

Name the Parts of Speech of the underlined words:

1. Columbus discovered America.
2. He was a brave man.
3. The boys jumped happily in the snow.
4. The swift river flowed calmly.
5. The Royal Challengers are always an exciting group of players.
6. Someone brought delicious apples and pears for the dessert.
7. During the storm the other day, several windows cracked.
8. On my desk was a long yellow pencil.
9. Close the door very quietly.
10. You can never succeed by crooked methods.
11. The crowd shouted its approval of his speech.
12. "Hurrah!" shouted the boys. "We won!"
13. The hammer and saw belonged to the carpenter.
14. Nonsense! It is not impossible to do that.
15. Henry and his brother won the contest.

Noun

A noun is a name of a person, place, animal, thing, feeling or idea. Nouns can be used as a subject, a direct object or an indirect object of a verb; as an object of a preposition; and as an adjective in sentences. Nouns can also show possession.

Nouns can be:

Subject: The company was established in the year 2000.

Direct Object: I found my book.

Indirect Object: Amita gave Sunil a chocolate.

Object of Preposition: She hid under the bed.

Used as an Adjective: Children love cheese burgers.

Possession: Nouns can also indicate ownership and these nouns are called possessive nouns and is indicated by an apostrophe and the letter -s.

Her brother's dog is very ferocious.

Kinds of Nouns

Proper Noun

Proper nouns are nouns that refer to a specific person, place, object or period of time. Proper nouns begin with capital letters.

Examples: Mr.Rai, Bangladesh, Dharwad, Mauryan Empire, Taj Mahal etc.

Common Noun

Common nouns are nouns that refer to people or things in general. A common noun does not begin with a capital letter unless it appears at the start of a sentence.

Examples: dog, doctor, institution, tiger, woman, lamp etc.

Collective Noun

Collective nouns are nouns that refer to a group or collection of similar people, animals or things. Collective nouns are used when you want to refer to a whole group of people or objects.

Examples: Army, jury, team, choir, etc.

Abstract Noun

Abstract nouns are nouns which exist only in our mind. These nouns cannot be seen or touched and things which have no physical reality. It includes qualities, relationships, conditions, ideas and states of being.

Examples: Happiness, strength, sorrow, beauty, hatred etc.

Material Noun

Material nouns are nouns that name materials. They do not have plural forms.

Examples: gold, wood, steel, copper etc.

Nouns are further classified into two types depending on whether they can be counted or not.

Countable Nouns

Countable nouns refer to things that exist as separate and distinct individual units. Countable nouns are those that refer to something that can be counted. They have both singular and plural forms (e.g. dog/dogs; man/men; country/countries). In the singular form, they can be preceded by a or an.

Examples: table, finger, girl, candidate etc.

Non-countable Nouns/ Mass Nouns

Non-countable nouns refer to things that cannot be counted because they are thought of as wholes that cannot be cut into parts. They do not have a plural form. They often refer to abstractions and occasionally have a collective meaning (for example, furniture).

Examples: milk, flour, coffee, sand etc.

Using Articles with Countable and Non-countable Nouns

A countable noun always takes either the indefinite (*a, an*) or definite (*the*) article when it is *singular*.

When *plural*, it takes the definite article if it refers to a definite, specific group and does not take an article if it is used in a *general sense*.

- The guest of honour arrived late.
- You are welcome as a guest in our home.
- The guests at your party yesterday made a lot of noise.
- Guests are welcome here anytime.

Non-countable nouns never take the indefinite article (*a* or *an*), but they do take singular verbs. *The* is sometimes used with uncountable nouns in the same way as it is used with plural countable nouns, that is, to refer to a specific object, group, or idea.

Examples:

- Information is a precious commodity in our computerized world.
- The information in your files is correct.
- Sugar has become expensive.
- Please pass me *the sugar*.

Exercises

I Tick the boxes that contain nouns:

Pencil	Wipro	Slow	Hard	Paper	write	Elephant
Different	Doctor	Beautiful	Raymond	Armenia	sorrow	Team
Football	Play	Butter	graceful	Happy	happiness	Excellent

II Fill in the blanks using the correct form of the nouns given in brackets:

1. I had a very happy _____ (child).
2. I forgot to renew my _____ (member) in the sailing club.
3. We formed a deep and lasting _____ (friend).
4. He hopes to take over the _____ (leader) of the party.
5. There are lots of nice people in the _____ (neighbor).

III Fill in the blanks with the right word.

litter, gang, colony, choir, army, fleet, bouquet, pride, cluster

1. an _____ of soldiers
2. a _____ of ants
3. a _____ of flowers
4. a _____ of thieves
5. a _____ of lions

IV Fill in the blanks with suitable collective nouns.

1. A _____ of birds flew high in the sky.
2. They saw a _____ of lions at the zoo.
3. The farmer has a _____ of cattle on his farm.
4. He ate a _____ of grapes today.
5. Our friend showed us his _____ of cars.

V Use the correct noun forms of the underlined words.

1. I admire so many things about her; her generousness, intelligentness, and above all her humbleness.
2. Weightlifting not only increases your strongness but also improves your general fitfulness.
3. I don't think you have understood the complexness of the problem.
4. The humidness in the air is making us sweat.
5. Swiss trains are well known for their punctualness.

VI Correct the sentences where necessary.

1. The company bought new machineries.
2. The car's window is broken.
3. My aunt gave me many advices.
4. I have five sister-in-laws.
5. Anil studied in a boy's college.

Pronoun

A pronoun is a word that is used instead of a noun. Pronouns are words like: I, she, you, ours, themselves, some, each... If we didn't have pronouns, we would have to repeat a lot of nouns. We would have to say things like:

Do you like the actor? I don't like the actor. The actor is very pompous.

With pronouns, we can say:

Do you like the actor? I don't like him. He is very pompous.

Pronouns are divided into the following categories:

Personal Pronouns

I, we, you, he, she, it, they, me, us, you, him, her, and them.

Demonstrative Pronouns

this, that, these, those

Possessive Pronouns

mine, yours, his, hers, ours, yours and theirs

Interrogative Pronouns

what, which, who, whom, and whose.

Reflexive Pronouns

myself, ourselves, yourself, himself, herself, itself and themselves

Reciprocal Pronouns

each other, one another

Empathetic Pronouns

myself, ourselves, yourself, himself, herself, itself and themselves

Indefinite Pronouns

someone, somebody, anyone, anybody

Distributive Pronouns

Everyone, everybody, each, either, neither, one, none

Relative Pronouns

who, that, what, which, those

Personal Pronouns

Personal pronouns represent specific people or things. We use them depending on:

- number: singular (I) or plural (we)
- person: 1st person (I), 2nd person (you) or 3rd person (he)
- gender: male (he), female (she) or neuter (it)
- case: subject (we) or object (us)

Number	Person	Gender	Personal Pronouns	
			Subject	Object
Singular	1 st	male/female	I	Me
	2 nd	male/female	You	You
	3 rd	male	He	Him
		female	She	Her
		neuter	It	It
Plural	1 st	male/female	We	Us
	2 nd	male/female	You	You
	3 rd	male/female/neuter	They	Them

Demonstrative Pronouns

A demonstrative pronoun represents a thing or things:

- near in distance or time (this , these)
- far in distance or time (that , those)

	Near	Far
Singular	This	That
Plural	These	Those

Examples:

1. This tastes good.
2. Have you seen this?
3. These are bad times.
4. Do you like these?
5. That is beautiful.

Possessive Pronouns

We use possessive pronouns to refer to a specific person/people or thing/things (the “antecedent”) belonging to a person/people (and sometimes belonging to an animal/animals or thing/things).

We use possessive pronouns depending on:

- number: singular (mine) or plural (ours)
- person: 1st person (mine), 2nd person (yours) or 3rd person (his)
- gender: male (his), female (hers)

Below are the possessive pronouns, followed by some examples. Notice that each possessive pronoun can:

- be subject *or* object
- refer to a singular *or* plural antecedent

Possessive pronouns: mine, yours, his, hers, ours, yours, theirs

Examples:

1. Look at these paintings. Mine is the big one. (subject = My painting)
2. I like your bag. Do you like mine? (object = my bag)
3. I looked everywhere for your key. I found John’s key but I couldn’t find yours. (object = your key)
4. My flowers are dying. Yours are lovely. (subject = Your flowers)
5. All the essays were good but his was the best. (subject = his essay)

Reflexive Pronouns

We use a reflexive pronoun when we want to refer back to the subject of the sentence or clause. Reflexive pronouns end in “-self” (singular) or “-selves” (plural).

There are eight reflexive pronouns:

Reflexive Pronoun	
Singular	myself yourself himself, herself, itself
Plural	ourselves yourselves themselves

The <u>underlined</u> words do not refer to the same object	The <u>underlined</u> words refer to the same person/thing
<u>John</u> saw <u>me</u> .	<u>I</u> saw <u>myself</u> in the mirror.
Why does <u>he</u> blame <u>you</u> ?	Why do <u>you</u> blame <u>yourself</u> ?
<u>David</u> sent <u>him</u> a copy.	<u>John</u> sent <u>himself</u> a copy.
<u>My</u> dog hurt <u>the</u> <u>cat</u> .	<u>My</u> dog hurt <u>itself</u> .
<u>We</u> blame <u>you</u> .	<u>We</u> blame <u>ourselves</u> .
Can <u>you</u> help <u>my</u> <u>children</u> ?	Can <u>you</u> help <u>yourselves</u> ?
<u>They</u> cannot look after <u>the</u> <u>babies</u> .	<u>They</u> cannot look after <u>themselves</u> .

Emphatic Pronouns

Notice that all the above reflexive pronouns can also act as emphatic pronouns, but the functions and usages are different. An intensive pronoun emphasizes its antecedent.

Examples:

1. I made it myself. *OR* I myself made it.
2. Have you yourself seen it? *OR* Have you seen it yourself?
3. The President himself promised to stop the war.
4. She spoke to me herself. *OR* She herself spoke to me.
5. The exam itself wasn't difficult, but exam room was horrible.
6. Never mind. We'll do it ourselves.
7. You yourselves asked us to do it.
8. They recommend this book even though they themselves have never read it. *OR* They recommend this book even though they have never read it themselves.

Indefinite Pronouns

An indefinite pronoun does not refer to any specific person, thing or amount. It is vague and “not definite”. Some typical indefinite pronouns are:

- all, another, any, anybody/anyone, anything, each, everybody/everyone, everything, few, many, nobody, none, one, several, some, somebody/someone.

Most indefinite pronouns are either singular or plural. However, some of them can be singular in one context and plural in another. The most common indefinite pronouns are listed below, with examples, as singular, plural or singular/plural. Notice that a singular pronoun takes a *singular verb* and that any personal pronoun should also *agree* (in number and gender). Look at these examples:

1. Each of the players *has* a doctor.
2. I met two girls. One *has* given me *her* phone number.

Similarly, plural pronouns need plural *agreement*:

Many *have* expressed *their* views.

Reciprocal Pronouns

Reciprocal pronouns are used when two or more subjects act in the same way towards the other. For example, Aarav is talking to Sanjana, and Sanjana is talking to Aarav. So we say:

Aarav and Sanjana are talking to each other. The action is “reciprocated”.

There are only two reciprocal pronouns, and they are both two words:

- each other (usually used to refer to two persons or things)
- one another (usually used to refer to more than two persons or things)

These reciprocal pronouns are used in the following contexts:

- there must be two or more people, things or groups involved (so we cannot use reciprocal pronouns with I, you [singular], he/she/it), and
- they must be doing the same thing.

Examples:

1. The ten prisoners were all blaming one another.
2. Both teams played hard against each other.
3. We gave each other gifts.
4. Why don't you believe each other?
5. The gangsters were fighting one another.

Relative Pronouns

A relative pronoun is a pronoun that introduces a relative clause. It is called a “relative” pronoun because it “relates” to the word that it modifies. Here is an example:

- The person who phoned me last night is my teacher.
In the above example, “who”:
relates to “person”, which it modifies.
- introduces the relative clause “who phoned me last night”.

There are five relative pronouns: *who*, *whom*, *whose*, *which*, *that*. *Who* (subject) and *whom* (object) are used for people, *Whose* is for possession, *Which* is for things, *That* can be used for people and things and as subject and object in defining relative clauses (clauses that are essential to the sentence and do not simply add extra information).

Interrogative Pronouns

Interrogative pronouns are used to ask questions. The interrogative pronoun represents the thing that we don't know (what we are asking the question about).

There are four main interrogative pronouns: *who*, *whom*, *what*, *which*

Look at these example questions. In the answers, the noun that the interrogative pronoun represents is shown in bold.

Question	Answer	
Who told you?	Sunayna told me.	Subject
Whom did you tell?	I told Sunayna .	Object
What's happened?	An accident's happened.	Subject
What do you want?	I want coffee .	Object

Exercises

I Fill in the blanks with suitable pronouns:

1. Does _____ know that _____ was absent?
2. Tell _____ (he, him) _____ (I, me) have obtained a degree in Chemistry.
3. I remember that _____ bought the fruits from _____.
4. Please don't tell _____ about _____.
5. _____ can swim because _____ has webbed feet.
6. I met Alice yesterday. _____ invited _____ to her house.
7. Jane has a cat; _____ likes to play with _____.
8. When the dog chased John, _____ ran as fast as _____ could.
9. My uncle works in a factory. _____ says _____ is a noisy place.
10. The teacher said to the class, "When _____ finished your work, please pass _____ up to me."

II Complete the following with suitable possessive or personal pronouns:

1. Mary has _____ exams next week; so _____ is working hard for _____.
2. Jim went out to get _____ car from the garage; however, _____ came home disappointed, as _____ was not yet ready.
3. The students had to complete _____ projects by Monday.
4. His house is bigger than _____.
5. Here, let me carry _____ bag; _____ looks heavy.
6. Tom painted _____ house white; but the Jones decided to paint _____ cream!

III Correct the errors in the following:

1. Myself Richard.
2. Her hair is longer than me.
3. This book is mines.
4. The dog wagged it's tail.
5. This book is your's.

IV Fill in the blanks with ‘which’, ‘who’, ‘whom’ or ‘whose’.

1. The boy, _____ father is a doctor, is my best friend.
2. This is not something _____ we like to do.
3. That man, _____ left leg was amputated, suffers from diabetes.
4. The thief, _____ they caught, was sent to the prison.
5. Our friends, _____ we invited to the party, arrived rather early.

Verb

The verb is king in English. A sentence cannot be constructed without a verb. You can make a one-word sentence with a verb, for example: “Stop!” You cannot make a one-word sentence with any other part of speech.

Verbs are sometimes described as “action words”. Many verbs give the idea of action, of “doing” something. For example, words like *run*, *fight*, *do* and *work* convey action.

But some verbs do not give the idea of action; they give the idea of existence, of state, of “being”. For example, verbs like *be*, *exist*, *seem* and *belong* convey state.

A verb always has a subject. (In the sentence “John speaks English”, *John* is the subject and *speaks* is the verb.) In simple terms, therefore, we can say that verbs are words that tell us what a subject does or is; they describe:

- action (Ram plays football.)
- state (Anthony seems kind.)

Kinds of Verbs

Transitive verbs

Some verbs do not convey complete meaning by themselves; they require nouns or pronouns to complete their meaning. The verb denotes an action which passes over from the doer or subject to an object.

1. My mother loves chocolates.
2. We heard a loud noise.
3. The girl kicked the football.
4. Shankar plays the guitar.
5. Joe drank a cup of coffee.

Intransitive verbs

Some verbs do not require an object to make sense but make good sense by themselves. The verb denotes an action which does not pass over to an object.

1. The train was late.
2. The birds flew away.
3. The babies are sleeping.
4. She smiled.
5. Her grandfather sneezed loudly.

Finite verbs

These verbs change their forms when there is a change in the number or person of the subject. These are the actual verbs in a sentence.

Non-finite verbs

These verbs do not change according to the number/person of the subject. These are called verbals. They work as nouns, adjectives, adverbs.

There are mainly three types of non-finite verbs: infinitives, gerunds and participles.

An **infinitive** is a verbal consisting of the word 'to' plus a verb and functions as a noun, adjective or adverb.

1. *To err* is human.
2. She wants *to meet* me.
3. I want *to sit* on the chair.

A **gerund** is a verbal that ends in '-ing' and functions as a noun. It is also called a verbal noun.

1. *Jogging* is good for health.
2. Hari quit *smoking* a year ago.
3. Her son hates *swimming*.

A **participle** is a verbal that is used as an adjective and most often ends in -ing or -ed. It is called a verbal adjective.

1. I touched a *burning* burner.
2. He likes *fried* potatoes.
3. A *broken* pot is lying on the floor.

Main verbs

Sometimes there is more than one kind of verb in a sentence. These are auxiliary verbs, modal verbs, and main verbs (sometimes called full or non-auxiliary verbs).

The main verb expresses the main action or state of being of the subject in the sentence and changes form according to the subject (singular, plural, 1st person, 2nd person, 3rd person).

Most statements in speech and writing have a main verb.

The main verb changes its form according to the noun number and tense form.
Examples:

1. Dogs usually chase cats.
2. But my cat chases my dog.
3. My cat is chasing my dog.
4. My dog has sometimes chased my cat.
5. But, only because my cat ate my dog's dinner.
6. My cat has been eating my dog's dinner.

Auxiliary verbs are used together with a main verb to give grammatical information and therefore add extra meaning to a sentence, which is not given by the main verb.

Auxiliary Verbs or Helping Verbs

- Auxiliary verbs (sometimes known as helping verbs) are verbs that are used to assist the verb.
- Auxiliary verbs cannot be used with modal verbs.
- Auxiliary verbs are used to make sentences negative.
- Auxiliary verbs are used to ask questions.
- Auxiliary verbs are used in the sentence structure of the verb sentence.

Be forms	Am	Is	Are	Was	Were	Been	being
Have forms	Has	Have	Had	Having			
Do forms	Do	Does	Did	Done	Doing		

Modals: A modal is a type of auxiliary (helping) verb that is used to express: ability, possibility, permission, advice, prohibition or obligation. Modal verbs do not change their form. The main verb is always in its base form when used with a verb.

The following modal verbs are used to with the present/future verb tense:

- can, will, shall, ought to, must, need, may

The following modal verbs are used in the past tense:

- would, should, could, might

Modal verbs are used to answer questions in the short form

- Yes, I can.

Exercises

I Fill in the blanks with 'is' or 'are'.

1. The rose _____ a beautiful flower.
2. His two sons _____ still small.
3. My brother _____ doing his degree at that university.
4. Dogs _____ the most faithful animals.
5. There _____ a lot of ants on the tree.

II Fill in the blanks with 'do' or 'does'

1. He _____ his work promptly.
2. They _____ everything possible to help others.
3. Richard and Harry _____ not want an extension.
4. The client _____ his best to please his vendors.
5. The company _____ not insist on regular timings.

III Fill in the blanks with 'has' or 'have'

1. They _____ a busy schedule.
2. He _____ completed his work on time.
3. Gabrielle and Freddy _____ a lovely home.
4. Julia Roberts _____ a wonderful smile.
5. The company _____ its own policies.

IV. Complete the following sentences with the appropriate modal verb from those again.

1. The latest government crisis _____ affect the outcome of talks today which British dairy farmers are hoping _____ determine that Britain _____ not be required to accept further reductions in dairy exports to the EEC. (dare, will, could, should, must)
2. If the war continues, do we have a referendum to decide if people _____ accept the conscription of 18 year olds? (will, must, dare, should)
3. We _____ have to wait and see if the election _____ change the way people feel, but we _____ not expect too much too soon. (will, shall, should, would, ought to)
4. There _____ be no doubt that Europeans _____ soon be enjoying the best economical climate for years. (might, can, will, shall)
5. The minister _____ have realized the policy was unlikely to succeed, and done something to rectify the situation before it _____ get any worse. (oughtn't to, could, should, won't)

Adjective

An adjective is a word that tells us more about a noun/pronoun/noun phrases. An adjective “qualifies” or “modifies” a *noun* (a big *dog*).

Adjectives can be used before a noun (I like Chinese *food*) or after certain verbs (*It* is hard).

Adjectives tell the reader how much—or how many—of something you’re talking about, which thing you want passed to you, or which kind of something you want.

Kinds of Adjectives

Determiners

the, a/an, this, some, any

Demonstrative Adjectives are used to indicate or demonstrate specific people, animals, or things. These, those, this and that are demonstrative adjectives.

1. These books belong to her.
2. This movie is my favorite.
3. Please put those cookies on the blue plate.

Descriptive adjectives are words which describe nouns and pronouns. Most of the adjectives belong to this type. These adjectives provide information and attribute to the nouns/pronouns they modify or describe. Descriptive adjectives are also called qualitative adjectives.

1. Julia Roberts has *beautiful* eyes.
2. Rapunzel had *long* hair.
3. She drives a *fast* car.

Quantitative Adjectives: These adjectives provide information about the quantity of the nouns/pronouns. This type belongs to the question category of ‘how much’ and ‘how many’.

1. The cap seller sold *twenty* caps.
2. There was *a little* water in the bottle.
3. *A few* people are waiting to meet the cricketer.

Possessive Adjectives: These adjectives indicate possession or ownership. It suggests the belongingness of something to someone/something.

1. Raunak has borrowed *my* book.
2. Sudhakar has given *his* car to his brother.
3. Ashwini has sold *her* car.

Interrogative Adjectives: These adjectives ask a question. An interrogative adjective must be followed by a noun or a pronoun. These words will not be considered as adjectives if a noun does not follow right after them.

1. *Whose* book do you want?
2. *What* product did you order from Amazon?
3. *Which* song is Brian listening to?

Degrees of Comparison

There are three degrees of adjectives: **Positive, comparative, superlative**. These degrees are applicable only for the descriptive adjectives.

Positive degree

Positive degree is used when we speak about only one person or thing.

1. Ramita is a *good* girl.
2. Bangalore is a *big* city.
3. This article has *important* information.

Comparative degree

Comparative degree is used when two persons or two things are compared with each other.

1. Prema's house is bigger than Sheela's house.
2. Hari is the taller of the two boys.
3. This book has more information than that book.

Superlative degree

Superlative degree is used when we compare more than two persons or things with one another.

1. Yesterday's match was the *most interesting* match.
2. Harish is the *tallest* boy in the class.
3. The cheetah is the *fastest* animal.

Positive form	Comparative form	Superlative form
Clean	Cleaner	(the) cleanest

Quantifiers

Some/Any:

Both “some” and “any” can modify countable and uncountable nouns.

1. “There is *some* water on the floor.”
2. “There are *some* Mexicans here.”
3. “Do you have *any* food?”
4. “Do you have *any* apples?”

Much/Many:

“Much” modifies only uncountable nouns.

1. “There isn’t *much* water in the well.”
2. “How *much* money do you have in your wallet?”

“Many” modifies only countable nouns.

1. “*Many* Americans travel to Europe.”
2. “I collected *many* sources for my paper.”

Little/Few:

“Little” modifies only uncountable nouns.

1. “He had *little* food in the house.”
2. “When I was in college, there was *little* money to spare.”

“Few” modifies only countable nouns.

1. “There are *a few* doctors in town.”
2. “He had *few* reasons for his opinion.

Exercises

I Write the Adjective forms of the following Nouns/Verbs:

Noun	Strength	Power	Beauty	Happiness	satisfaction
Adjective					

II Supply 3 suitable Adjectives to add more meaning to the Nouns:

Nouns	Girl	Movie	Book	River	Mountain	Job
Adjective						

III Write about your most memorable holiday/vacation. (Use relevant adjectives)

IV Who is your role model? List at least 5 qualities you admire in that person.

V Read the following sentences and choose the adjective from the list that conveys the opposite meaning.

Quiet slow generous energetic pretty brave rich weak

1. Leo is such a cowardly dog. He's scared of everything!
2. This is a very fast car. It goes nearly 200mph.
3. Susan is a mean girl. She never gives me anything.
4. In the morning, I'm so lazy. I just want to sleep.
5. That building is so ugly. Gray and ugly!
6. The party is too noisy. The police are coming!
7. My country is very poor. It doesn't have a lot of money.
8. That bull is very strong. Look at his muscles.

VI Complete each sentence by choosing the correct word.

1. There is so (many, much) smoke coming out of the chimney.
2. There are (plenty of, a large amount of) fish in the pond.
3. (A little, A few) minutes is all it takes for him to shave.
4. The postman put (a great deal of, a lot of) letters into the bag.
5. He threw (a little, some) nuts to the monkeys.

Adverb

The principal job of an adverb is to modify (give more information about) verbs, adjectives and other adverbs. In the following examples, the adverb is in bold and the word that it modifies is in *italics*.

- Modifies a verb:
John speaks ***loudly***. (How does John speak?)
Mary lives ***locally***. (Where does Mary live?)
She ***never*** smokes. (When does she smoke?)
- Modifies an adjective:
He is ***really*** handsome.
- Modifies another adverb:
- She drives ***incredibly*** slowly.

But adverbs have other functions, too. They can:

- Modify a whole sentence:
- ***Obviously***, I can't know everything.
- Modify a prepositional phrase:
- It's ***immediately*** inside the door.

Many adverbs end in -ly. We form such adverbs by adding -ly to the adjective. Here are some examples:

- quickly, softly, strongly, honestly, interestingly

But not all words that end in -ly are adverbs. "Friendly", for example, is an adjective.

Some adverbs have no particular form, for example:

- well, fast, very, never, always, often, still

Kinds of Adverbs

Adverbs of Manner

1. She moved slowly and spoke quietly.
2. They lived happily.
3. Malini ate the piece of cake greedily.

Adverbs of Place

1. She has lived on the island all her life.
2. She still lives there now.
3. Why don't you run backwards.

Adverbs of Frequency

1. She takes the boat to the mainland every day.
2. She often goes by herself.
3. They never go to films.

Adverbs of Time

1. She tries to get back before dark.
2. It's starting to get dark now.
3. She finished her tea at 5 o'clock.

Adverbs of Degree

1. We have eaten enough.
2. I am feeling much better.
3. He is a very good singer.

Positions of Adverbs

Adverbs can modify adjectives, but an adjective cannot modify an adverb. Thus we would say that “the students showed a really wonderful attitude” and that “the students showed a wonderfully casual attitude” and that “my professor is really tall, but not “He ran real fast.”

Like adjectives, adverbs can have comparative and superlative forms to show degree.

- Walk faster if you want to keep up with me.
- The student who reads fastest will finish first.

We often use more and most, less and least to show degree with adverbs:

- With sneakers on, she could move more quickly among the patients.
- The flowers were the most beautifully arranged creations I've ever seen.

Adverbs often function as intensifiers, conveying a greater or lesser emphasis to something. Intensifiers are said to have three different functions: they can emphasize, amplify, or down tone. Here are some examples:

Emphasizers:

1. I really don't believe him.
2. He literally wrecked his mother's car.
3. She simply ignored me.

Amplifiers:

1. The teacher completely rejected her proposal.
2. I absolutely refuse to attend any more faculty meetings.
3. They heartily endorsed the new restaurant.

Downtoners:

1. I kind of like this college.
2. Joe sort of felt betrayed by his sister.
3. His mother mildly disapproved his actions.

Exercises

I Choose the most suitable adverb to fill each blank:

angrily, enough, never, outside, yesterday, down, last week, often, quickly, rarely

1. She left _____ for the university where she is doing a degree course.
2. We are standing _____ his house waiting for him.
3. He told us _____ not to walk on the grass. He told us angrily not to walk on the grass.
4. I am not strong _____ to help him carry that box. I am not strong enough to help him carry that box.
5. She will _____ be happy in that job.

II Place the given adverbs or adverb phrases appropriately in the following sentences:

1. There was a huge crowd, which waited for tickets (yesterday, in front of the new cinema, patiently).

2. The crowd began to get restless and threw stones (at the windows, after half an hour, as fast as they could).

3. The owner of the cinema 'phoned the Collector, and he asked the Superintendent of Police to disperse the crowd (at once, firmly, but not roughly).

4. The rescue operation, the Superintendent got together about forty policemen (Very quickly, at his office).

5. When the policemen arrived on the scene, the crowd was ordered to disperse (at once, peacefully).

III Choose the correct form from each pair of words.

Dear Natasha,

Well, here I am in England. Thank you for your _____ (kind/kindly) letter. You asked me what it's like here. I must say, it's pretty _____ (good/well)! The language school is very _____ (efficient/efficiently) organized. On the first morning we had to do a test, which I found rather _____ (hard/hardly.) However I got a _____ (surprising/surprisingly) good mark, so I'm in the second class. I didn't talk much at first, because I couldn't think of the words _____ (quick/quickly) enough, but _____ (late/lately) I've become much more _____ (fluent/fluently). I'm staying with a family who live _____ (near/nearly) the school. They are quite _____ (pleasant/pleasantly), although I don't see much of them because I'm always so _____ (busy/busily) with my friends from school. I was surprised how _____ (easy/easily) I made new friends here. They come from _____ (different/differently) parts of the world and we have some _____ (absolute/absolutely) fascinating discussions. I do hope you will be able to join me here next term. I'm sure we'd have _____ (good/well) fun together.

All the best

Misha

Preposition

Preposition is a word used to show the relation between a noun or a pronoun and the remaining words in a sentence.

The prepositions OFF, TO, and IN are among the ten most frequently used words in the English language.

The most frequently used prepositions are:

about	above	across	after	against	along	behind	below	beneath	beside
besides	between	down	during	except	for	from	in	off	on
onto	opposite	out	outside	till	to	toward	under	underneath	Until

Exercises

I Complete the following using Prepositions

- John made some mistakes ____ work and he got arrested ____ stealing.
- My brother is ____ prison.
- I think I will stay ____ bed all day.
- I saw him getting ____ a taxi.
- I have lived in Bangalore ____ 25 years.
- John made some mistakes ____ work and he got arrested ____ stealing.
- My brother is ____ prison.
- I think I will stay ____ bed all day.
- I saw him getting ____ a taxi.
- I have lived in Bangalore ____ 25 years.

Conjunction

Conjunctions are used to join clauses, phrases and words together to construct sentences.

Coordinating Conjunctions	Subordinating Conjunctions
and, but, or, nor, for, yet, so	although, because, since, unless

We can consider conjunctions from three aspects.

Conjunctions have three basic forms:

- **Single Word**
for example: and, but, because, although
- **Compound** (often ending with *as* or *that*)
for example: provided that, as long as, in order that
- **Correlative** (surrounding an adverb or adjective)
for example: so...that

Functions

Conjunctions have two basic functions or “jobs”:

- **Coordinating conjunctions** are used to join two parts of a sentence that are grammatically equal. The two parts may be single words or clauses, for example:
 - *Jack and Jill* went up the hill.
 - *The water was warm, but I didn't go swimming.*
- **Subordinating conjunctions** are used to join a subordinate dependent clause to a main clause, for example:
 - *I went swimming although it was cold.*

Position

- Coordinating conjunctions always come between the words or clauses that they join.
- Subordinating conjunctions usually come at the beginning of the subordinate clause.

Coordinating Conjunctions

- The 7 coordinating conjunctions are short, simple words. They have only two or three letters. There's an easy way to remember them - their initials spell:

F A N B O Y S

For And Nor But OR Yet So

A coordinating conjunction joins parts of a sentence (for example words or independent clauses) that are grammatically equal or similar. A coordinating conjunction shows that the elements it joins are similar in importance and structure:

Look at these examples - the two elements that the coordinating conjunction joins are shown in square brackets []:

- I like [tea] and [coffee].
- [Ram likes tea], but [Anthony likes coffee].

Coordinating conjunctions always come between the words or clauses that they join.

When a coordinating conjunction joins independent clauses, it is always correct to place a comma before the conjunction:

- I want to work as an interpreter in the future, so I am studying Russian at the university.
- She is kind so she helps people.

When “and” is used with the last word of a list, a comma is optional:

- He drinks beer, whisky, wine, and rum.
- He drinks beer, whisky, wine and rum.

Correlative Conjunctions

They are paired conjunctions that are generally used together. These are used to link words, clauses or phrases into a complex sentence.

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

Exercises

I Complete the following using Conjunctions.

1. The sessions are between 10 a.m _____ 6 p.m.
2. I can do it _____you'll help me.
3. You can have a Pizza _____ a burger.
4. _____ I tried my best, I lost the prize.
5. They were tired; _____ they rested a while.
6. Could you keep an eye on her _____ I get back please.
7. I hope she gets here _____ the train leaves.
8. I came _____ I was unwilling.
9. The shirt fitted Harry well, _____ the trousers had to be shortened.
10. He likes tea _____ coffee.

II Join the following sentences to make one complete sentence without using *and*, *but* or *so* .

1. The suspect may hide anywhere. The police will find him.
2. We went to the market. We bought some sweets.
3. I have completed my studies. I am looking for a job.
4. What happened at the match? Nobody has an idea.
5. She forgot her car keys. That was careless of her.

Interjection

An interjection is a word used to express strong, sudden feelings. Emotions such as fear, surprise, anger, love, and joy can all be expressed with an interjection.

Interjections usually have an exclamation point (!) after it.

Examples: “Ah! there he comes” and “Alas! what shall I do?”

The word ‘ah’ expresses surprise, and the word ‘alas’ expresses distress.

They have no real grammatical value but we use them quite often, usually more in speaking than in writing. Nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs become interjections when they are uttered as exclamations.

Examples of interjections: nonsense! strange! hail! away!

Exercises

I Begin the following sentences with suitable Interjections:

1. We won the match.
2. It hurts.
3. She’s stunningly beautiful.
4. I missed the train.
5. I lost my uncle in an accident.

II Choose the correct reply to the following:

1. Do you mind holding this for a while?
 - Not at all
 - Indeed yes
 - Oh no!
2. Did you have a good flight?
 - Terrible
 - Not at all
 - Of course not

3. Would you be interested in this proposal?
 - Seems interesting
 - Terrible
 - My pleasure
4. Did you remember to lock the door?
 - Darn! I forgot.
 - Of course not
 - My pleasure
5. I think I shall visit you this summer.
 - Splendid!
 - Terrible
 - Of course not

Articles

An article is an adjective. Like adjectives, articles modify nouns. The articles in English are: a, an and the.

- The is used to refer to specific or particular nouns;
- a/an is used to modify non-specific or non-particular nouns.

the = definite article

a and an = indefinite articles

For example, “Let’s read the book,” means a *specific* book. “Let’s read a book,” means *any* book rather than a specific book.

Here’s another way to explain it: ‘The’ is used to refer to a *specific* or *particular* member of a group. For example, “I just saw the most popular movie of the year.” There are many movies, but only one particular movie is the most popular. Therefore, we use the.

‘A/an’ is used to refer to a *non-specific* or *non-particular* member of the group.

Example, “I would like to go see a movie.”

We’re not talking about a *specific* movie. We’re talking about *any* movie. There are many movies, and I want to see *any* movie. I don’t have a specific one in mind.

Indefinite Articles: a and an

‘A’ and ‘an’ signal that the noun modified is indefinite, referring to *any* member of a group. For example:

- “My daughter really wants a dog for Christmas.” This refers to *any* dog. We don’t know which dog because we haven’t found the dog yet.
- “Somebody call a policeman!” This refers to *any* policeman. We don’t need a specific policeman; we need any policeman who is available.
- “When I was at the zoo, I saw an elephant!” Here, we’re talking about a single, non-specific thing, in this case an elephant. There are probably several elephants at the zoo, but there’s only *one* we’re talking about here.

Remember, using a or an, depends on the sound that begins the next word.

- a + singular noun beginning with a consonant: *a boy, a car, a bike, a zoo, a dog.*
- an + singular noun beginning with a vowel sounding word: *an elephant, an egg, an apple, an idiot, an orphan, an hour, an RJ, an MP, an honest person.*
- a + singular noun beginning with a consonant sound: *a user* (sounds like ‘yoo-zer,’ i.e. begins with a consonant ‘y’ sound, so ‘a’ is used) *a university, a unicycle.*

If the noun is modified by an adjective, the choice between a and an depends on the initial sound of the adjective that immediately follows the article:

- a broken egg
- an unusual problem
- a European country (sounds like ‘yer-o-pi-an,’ i.e. begins with consonant ‘y’ sound)

Remember, too, that in English, the indefinite articles are used to indicate membership in a group:

- I am a teacher. (I am a member of a large group known as teachers.)
- Brian is an Irishman. (Brian is a member of the people known as Irish.)
- Seiko is a practicing Buddhist. (Seiko is a member of the group of people known as Buddhists)

Definite Article: the

The definite article is used before singular and plural nouns when the noun is specific or particular. The signals that the noun is definite, that it refers to a particular member of a group. For example:

“The dog that bit me ran away.” Here, we’re talking about a *specific* dog, the dog that bit me.

“I was happy to see the policeman who saved my cat!” Here, we’re talking about a *particular* policeman. Even if we don’t know the policeman’s name, it’s still a particular policeman because it is the one who saved the cat.

“I saw the elephant at the zoo.” Here, we’re talking about a *specific* noun. Probably there is only one elephant at the zoo.

The can be used with noncount nouns, or the article can be omitted entirely.

- “I love to sail over the water” (some specific body of water) or “I love to sail over water” (any water).
- “He spilled the milk all over the floor” (some specific milk, perhaps the milk you bought earlier that day) or “He spilled milk all over the floor” (any milk).

“A/an” can be used only with count nouns.

- “I need a bottle of water.”
- “I need a new glass of milk.”

Most of the time, you can’t say, “She wants a water,” unless you’re implying, say, a bottle of water.

There are some specific rules for using ‘the’ with geographical nouns.

Do not use ‘the’ before:

- names of most countries/territories: *Italy, Mexico, Bolivia*; however, *the Netherlands, the Dominican Republic, the Philippines, the United States*.
- names of cities, towns, or states: *Seoul, Manitoba, Miami* .
- names of streets: *Washington Blvd., Main St.*
- names of lakes and bays: *Lake Titicaca, Lake Erie* except with a group of lakes like *the Great Lakes*
- names of mountains: *Mount Everest, Mount Fuji* except with mountain ranges like *the Andes* or *the Rockies* or *the Nilgiris* .
- names of continents (Asia, Europe)
- names of islands (Easter Island, Maui, Key West) except with island chains like *the Aleutians, the Hebrides, or the Canary Islands*.

Use ‘the’ before:

- names of rivers, oceans and seas: *the Nile, the Pacific*
- points on the globe: *the Equator, the North Pole*
- geographical areas: *the Middle East, the West*
- deserts, forests, gulfs, and peninsulas: *the Sahara, the Persian Gulf, the Black Forest, the Iberian Peninsula*
- musical instruments: the guitar, the flute

Omission of Articles

Some common types of nouns that don't take an article are:

- Names of languages and nationalities: *Chinese, English, Spanish, Russian*
- Names of sports: *volleyball, hockey, baseball*

Names of academic subjects: *mathematics, biology, history, computer science*

Exercises

I Complete the following using a, an, the

- There were many dogs in the park. One dog was ____ Dalmatian
- Pandas and ____ tigers are both endangered animals.
- She is wearing ____ blue dress with red earrings.
- Hawaii is ____ island in the Pacific Ocean.
- Christmas comes once ____ year.
- ____ ant is ____ insect.
- The Nile is ____ river.
- I went to the shop to get ____ bread.
- He broke ____ glass when he was washing dishes.
- You should take ____ umbrella.

II Use a/an/ the, where necessary:

- My brother is _____ artist.
- I'm staying with _____ friends.
- She's a writer. She writes _____ books
- I need to buy _____ new trousers. I'm getting fat!
- Sue and Vaughan are _____ good writers.
- I like all animals but _____ cats are my favourites.
- I've seen _____ good films recently. "The Insider" was great
- _____ people would like to talk to you, if you have the time.
- I've got _____ idea.
- It's the last question. What _____ relief!

III Insert a/an/the wherever required.

Wallet, or purse for some, is precious item in which most people carry things more essential than money towards everyday life. If some people were to lose that portable safe, they may be upset for rest of that day. The person without that wallet could be cranky or depressed for while. Maybe something of great sentimental value was in that wallet. This person could stay hold these feelings for long time, until they find their belongings by which case they are filled with joy. I, personally, keep anything I may have interest in knowing where it is, in my wallet. I am very good about always having my wallet and never losing it... until recently.

Module 2

CONCORD

A verb must agree with its subject:

- In number
- In person

SINGULAR VERB	PLURAL VERB
Is/am/are/was/has	Are/were/have
Takes 's' form: Ex: She waits/writes	Takes root form: Ex: They wait/write

(Singular subject agrees with singular verb & plural subject agrees with plural verb)

Rule 1: *A plural verb is used when two or more subjects are combined by 'and'.*

1. She and her sister **are** identical.
2. Govind and Arun **were** friends.
3. Radha and Ramani **have** secured the same rank.

There are **two exceptions** in using **and**

- When two singular subjects refer to the same person or thing a singular verb should be used.
 1. A good Statesman and Scientist **was** Abdul Kalam. (Referring to one Person)
 2. My mother and guide **has** helped me. (Here mother is also the guide referring to one person)

NOTE: In the first sentence article 'A' is used only once denoting it as the same person, if the article is used behind each subject like:

A good Statesman and a good Scientist – this refers to two different people hence a plural verb will be used.

- When two subjects represent one idea or concept a singular verb should be used.
 1. Idli and Chutney **is** a nutritious breakfast.
 2. Time and tide waits for none.

Rule 2: Words such as ‘each’ or ‘every’ is used before two singular subjects – singular verb should be used:

When two or more singular subjects are combined with or, nor, but, none, neither nor, either, or a singular verb is used.

1. Every man and woman **works** hard to feed the family.
Each bird and beast **tries** to protect its young ones.
2. John or Abraham **has** to compromise.
3. Not only his friend but even his brother **finds** him selfish.
Neither Suresh nor Mahesh **is** at fault.
4. Either Malini or Sohan **has** the property in their names.

Rule 3: A singular collective noun (a crowd, a gang, a team, jury) takes a singular verb.

- Class names or classified categories (Footwear, Crockery, Stationery) take singular verb.
- Names of branches of Science or diseases (Mathematics, Physics, Ethics) take singular verb.

There are two exceptions

A **dozen** takes a **plural verb** since it denotes a plural number. There **are** a dozen cups in the tray.

A dozen bananas **are** cheaper compared to one apple.

A **pair of** when applied to things (such as: Scissors, Shoes, Trousers) which are two components always together, takes a **singular verb**.

However if **we omit a pair of** and use the plural words then it must agree with **the plural verb**.

1. There **is** a pair of trousers in the cupboard.
2. There **is** new pair of shoes in the box.
3. There **are** scissors in the drawer.
4. His socks **were** torn and worn out.

In short they take:

SINGULAR VERB	PLURAL VERB
Much (quantity)	Many (number)
Collective Noun	A number of, several
Class names/ title of the book	A dozen
One of / none/neither/ either	Some of(number)/ half of
Each/ every/ anybody	People/ cattle

Rule 4 Words like *with, together with, along with, besides, as well as, including, in addition to, etc.* do not affect the number of the verb. If the subject is singular, a singular verb is required; if plural, a plural verb.

1. The television, **along with** the cabinet, is to be sold.
2. Mrs Paul, **with** her son and daughter, is going to the theatre this evening.
3. Our chief competitor, as well as ourselves, is obliged to increase prices.
4. The decoration of the rooms, **including** the carpets and furniture, is most pleasing.

Rule 5 If the subject is made up of both singular and plural words connected by *or, nor, either... or; neither ... nor, not only ... but also*, the verb agrees with the nearer part of the subject.

1. Neither the quality nor the *prices have* changed.
2. Neither the prices nor the *quality has* changed.
3. Not only the headmaster but also the *teachers are* in favour of the expansion of the school.
4. Not only the teachers but also the *headmaster is* in favour of the expansion of the school.
5. Neither the salesmen nor the *buyer is* in favour of the system.
6. Neither the buyer nor the *salesmen are* in favour of the system.

Rule 6 If the subject consists of two singular words connected by *or, neither... nor, or either... or*, the subject is singular and requires a singular verb.

1. Neither our Accounts Department nor our Head Office *has* a record of the transaction.
2. Sunita or Neetu *has* the swimming suit.
3. Either October or November *is* a good vacation month.
4. Neither the radio nor the television *was* in working order.

Rule 7 Plural verbs are required for many nouns that have no singular form, such as *proceeds, goods, ashes, remains, credentials, premises, etc.*

Examples:

1. *The proceeds* of the magic show *are* to be given to the fund for soldiers' welfare.
2. The goods *are* being dispatched today by goods train.

Rule 8 When the group acts as a unit, the verb should be singular.

1. The *committee has* agreed to submit its report on Friday.
2. The *Board* of Directors *meets* once in a month.
3. *The firm is* one of the most reputed in the country.
4. The *majority has* made its decision.

Rule 9 When the members of the group are thought of as acting separately, the verb should be plural.

1. The *team are* arguing over who should be the captain, (individual members in the team are arguing)
2. The *committee were* not in agreement on the action to be taken. The *audience were* cheering and laughing; even crying.

Rule 10 Company names may be either singular or plural, according to their meaning. The plural form emphasizes the individual personnel making up the company.

1. Mudra and Corporation *have* retained the goodwill of *their* customers.
2. The Oil Corporation *is* located at Nariman Point, Mumbai,

Exercises

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct form of the verbs given in brackets.

1. Kamala and Vimala_____twins. (is/are)
2. John and Mary_____not come home (has/have)
3. Two and two_____four (make/makes)
4. Three –fourths of the house_____constructed (was/were)
5. Bread and butter_____a wholesome food (is/are).

II. Fill in the blanks with the correct form of the verbs given in brackets.

1. Everyone of the group_____participated in the activity. (has/have)
2. Each child in the class_____written the composition. (has/have)
3. None but the brave_____given a medal (is/are)
4. Neither his mother nor his father_____the game (play/plays)
5. Neither parent_____proud of her achievements. (is/are).

III. Fill in the blanks with the correct form of the verbs given in brackets.

1. A bouquet of flowers_____been given to the elderly. (has/have)
2. A mob_____attacked the office. (has/have)
3. A new pair of shoes_____given to him as a gift. (is/are)
4. The trousers he has worn_____bought from the famous mall. (is/are)
5. The stationery_____very old in the office. (is/are).

IV. Fill in the blanks with the correct form of the verbs given in brackets.

1. Fifty grams of Tea_____forty rupees. (cost/costs)
2. Ten Thousand Rupees_____a lot of money. (is/are)
3. Thirty years_____a very long time. (is/are)
4. Ten tons_____a heavy load. (is/are)
5. Forty hours_____the regular work per week. (is/are)

V. Fill in the blanks with the correct form of the verbs given in brackets.

1. There _____ two errors in the sentence. (Was/were)
2. Which of those books _____ yours? (is/ are)
3. Famous writer and music composer _____ Hamsalekha lives in Bangalore. (is/are)
4. The music CDs borrowed from the library _____ on my table. (is/are)
5. The boss, as well as his colleagues _____ gone on a trip. (has/have)

VI. Underline the correct verb form in the following sentences:

1. The quality of the shoes *is/are* not good.
2. Neither of the applicants *is/are* fully qualified.
3. His knowledge of many languages *was/were* really remarkable.
4. Few men *is/are* able to do cooking.
5. Either of these students *was/were* allowed to write the exam.
6. The 'Arabian Nights' *is/are* still a favourite book among children.
7. People in our village *do/does* not have electricity.
8. Not only his writing but also his speech *was/were* confusing.
9. One of the girls in the class *own/ owns* this book.
10. Many of the flowers *has/have* no smell.

VII. Correct the following sentences:

1. The pen and the paper is on the desk.
2. Every one of the students have practiced very hard.
3. The skills of understanding personal communications is crucial to good business.
4. Not many people know the truth about the lifestyles of the rich and famous.
5. The number of people who are mobile phone owners rise every year.
6. It used to be thought that learning languages waste time.
7. She is taking the test twice because she believe it is best to have a trial run.
8. In the '50s, the comedy team of Abbott and Costello were world famous.
9. Every day there is another driver who lose his driving license due to speed.
10. Neither of the debates were successful.

Module 3

TENSES

Tenses are modified forms of verbs used to indicate the time and state of an action/event; to specify when an event or action took place, whether it is complete or in continuation. Tenses can be classified into three categories:

Present

Past

Future

Each of the types of tenses has four different forms:

- a) Simple Tense
- b) Continuous Tense
- c) Perfect Tense
- d) Perfect Continuous Tense

Present Tense

Present tense is used to refer to an action that occurs in the present.

A. Present Simple Tense:

We use Present Simple Tense to:

I. Talk about things in general

Examples:

1. She is a teacher.
2. Arun plays tennis.
3. Akshatha speaks three languages.
4. I like chocolates.
5. He knows the cricketer.

II. State facts/universal truths

Examples:

1. The sun rises in the East.

2. Water boils at hundred degree Celsius.
3. The earth revolves around the sun.
4. The moon orbits the earth.
5. Plants give us oxygen.

III. Express habitual actions/events (things that happen regularly/repeatedly)

Examples:

1. She goes to school.
2. We drink coffee in the morning.
3. The shop closes at 9 pm.
4. I visit my grandparents every week.
5. The train arrives at 8 am.

IV. Express feelings

Examples:

1. She loves kids.
2. He hates milk.
3. They enjoy travelling.
4. Amritha dislikes coffee.
5. Surya abhors the way people throw trash on the roads.

*Some of the common **present time expressions** are usually, always, often, sometimes, on Sundays, at weekends, regularly, rarely, every week etc.

Structure of Sentence

Subject+ Main Verb + Object

Note: If the subject is third person singular (he/she/it/singular noun), then “s” or “es” is added to the main verb.

Examples:

1. She goes to office every day.

2. He plays cricket every evening.
3. Ramya works in a bank.
4. She goes to the market on Sundays.
5. Amitha watches all the soaps on Netflix.

Negative Sentences

Structure of Sentence

Subject+ Auxiliary Verb+ Not+ Verb

Negative sentences are constructed by using “do/does/did/are/is etc.” followed by “not”. If the subject is third person singular, “does not” is used; if the subject is plural, “do not” is used.

Examples:

1. Children do not like vegetables.
2. He does not drive.
3. They do not have a car.
4. You are not a good singer.
5. Yash is not a good playwright.

Questions

Structure of Sentence

Auxiliary Verb + Subject + Main Verb + Object

If the subject is third person singular, the sentence starts with the auxiliary verb “does”. If the subject is plural, the sentence starts with the auxiliary verb “do”.

Examples:

1. Do you have a pen?
2. Does he like music?
3. Do they score good marks?
4. Does Teju play the guitar?
5. Do you know to play the piano?

B. Present Continuous Tense:

It is also called present progressive tense. It is used to describe actions happening in the present; these actions are happening at the time of speaking.

Structure of Sentence

Subject + Auxiliary Verb + Present Participle (base form of the verb + ing)

Examples:

1. I am riding a bicycle.
2. He is having lunch.
3. Keerthi is reading a book.
4. Maya is playing cricket.
5. The baby is crying.

Negative Sentences

Structure of Sentence

Subject + Auxiliary Verb + Not + Present Participle (base form of the verb+ ing)

Examples:

1. She is not preparing food.
2. Madhu is not participating in the competition.
3. They are not playing today.
4. He is not walking in the park.
5. Roshini is not baking cookies.

Questions

Structure of Sentence

Auxiliary Verb + Subject + Present Participle (base form of the verb + ing)

Or

Question Word+ Subject+ Auxiliary Verb+ Present Participle (base form of the verb + ing)

Examples:

1. Are you singing at the event?
2. Is she driving the car?
3. Are you listening to me?
4. Is he playing football?
5. Which book are you reading?

C. Present Perfect Tense

It is used to describe actions that began in the past and continue in the present or have just been completed. (Refers to actions completed in the recent past)

Structure of Sentence

Subject+Have/Has+Past Participle+Object

Examples:

1. She has lived in Mumbai all her life.
2. I have finished my work.
3. They have bought a new house.
4. Anil has gone home.
5. Ashwini has won a prize.

Note: We use present perfect with adverbials such as recently, just, only etc.

1. She has never seen a giraffe.
2. They have just completed the project.

Negative Sentences

Structure of Sentence

Subject + Auxiliary Verb + NOT + Past Participle + Object

1. You have not done your homework.
2. He has not applied for a job.
3. I have not watched the film.
4. Jane has not read a play.
5. They have not listened to jazz music.

Questions

Structure of Sentence

Auxiliary Verb + Subject + Past Participle + Object

Or

Question Word+ Subject+ Auxiliary Verb+ Past Participle

Example:

1. Have you sent the mail?
2. Has he bought a new bike?
3. Have the players practiced for the match?
4. What books have you read?
5. Which movie have you watched?

D. Present Perfect Continuous Tense

It is used to refer to actions that began in the past and continue at the present time; it also shows when the action started in the past or for how long it continued.

Structure of Sentence

Subject + Auxiliary Verb (has been/have been) + Present Participle (basic form of the verb) + ing + Time reference

Note: The words “since” and “for” are generally used to show the time and duration of the action. “Since” is used to indicate point of time (when exactly the action started in the past) and “for” is used to specify period of time (the duration).

Examples:

1. It has been raining since three days.
2. I have been working all day.
3. Nita has been trying to contact you since morning.
4. Rupa has been cleaning the kitchen since 10 am.
5. The players have been practising from the morning.

Negative Sentences

Structure of Sentence

Subject + Auxiliary Verb (has not been/have not been) + Present 3

Participle (basic form of the verb + ing + Time-reference

Examples:

1. He has not been singing since 2009.
2. I have not been talking to him for days.
3. They have not been working since five years.
4. Hari has not been playing the guitar since Friday.
5. It has been raining incessantly in Mumbai.

Questions

Structure of Sentence

**Auxiliary Verb (has/have) + Subject + Been + Present Participle (verb+ing)
+ Time-reference**

Or

Question Word+ Subject+ Auxiliary Verb+ Present Participle (verb + ing)

Examples:

1. Have you been attending classes since the beginning of the semester?
2. Have they been submitting the annual reports?
3. Has he been working in this office for long?
4. Has she been helping track of the events?
5. What have you been doing since I left?

Past Tense

It is used to refer to actions that occurred in the past. Past tense is further divided into:

A. Past Simple is used to:

I. Describes actions that happened in the past.

Examples:

1. I went to the nearby market.
2. She baked a cake.
3. I drank tea.
4. Sweety lived in Mysore.
5. Aarana danced in yesterday's program.

II. Actions that occurred regularly in the past.

Examples:

1. She used to play badminton in college.
2. He worked at a mall.
3. They travelled to work by train.
4. Chetan went to school on a bicycle.
5. Wendy fought a lot with her friends.

Structure of Sentence

Subject + Verb in the Past form + Object / Adverb of Time

Examples:

1. They laughed at the joke.
2. I met a friend at the airport.
3. The children enjoyed the picnic.
4. She went out yesterday.
5. Anila had an exam on Monday.

Negative Sentences

Structure of Sentence

Subject + Auxiliary Verb (did) + NOT + Basic form of the Verb + Object

Examples:

1. She did not meet the guests.
2. They did not like the food.
3. I did not write the letter.
4. My dog did not come home last night.
5. Heena did not bring her book to class.

Questions

Structure of Sentence

Question word/Auxiliary Verb (did) + Subject+ Basic form of the Verb + Object

Examples:

1. Did you watch the match?
2. Did the teacher engage the class?
3. Did he report the theft?
4. When did you buy the car?
5. Why didn't you come yesterday?

B. Past Continuous:

It is also called past progressive tense. It indicates on-going actions of the past. It describes:

I. Action going on at some point in the past.

Examples:

1. He was making tea.
2. She was looking for something.

3. The students were preparing for the test.
4. I was sitting in the garden.
5. Rachita was watching television.

II. Something that happened before and after another action.

Examples:

1. She was talking over the phone when someone rang the doorbell.
2. I was working at my laptop when my mother called me.
3. They were shopping when I saw them.
4. I was making salad when she arrived.
5. Radha was watching a movie when I called her.

Structure of Sentence

Subject + Auxiliary Verb (was/were) + Present Participle + Object

Examples:

1. I was waiting in the car.
2. The children were riding bicycles.
3. The dog was playing with a ball.
4. The lion was roaring.
5. Susan was singing in the living room.

Negative Sentences

Structure of Sentence

Subject + Auxiliary Verb (was/were) + Not + Present Participle + Object

1. I was not listening to him.
2. The kids were not cleaning their room.
3. We were not running in the street.
4. They were not playing on the field.
5. Ann was not doing her work.

Questions

Structure of Sentence

Auxiliary Verb (was/were) + Subject + Present Participle (Basis form of the verb+ing) + Object

OR

Question Word+ Auxiliary Verb (was/were) + Subject + Present Participle (Basis form of the verb+ing) + Object/ time Adverbial

Examples:

1. Were you learning your lesson?
2. Was he helping his mother?
3. Were they playing music loudly?
4. Who was he talking to?
5. How many hours **was** she working last night?

C. Past Perfect is used to

I. Describe two kinds of actions that have taken place in the past, usually one before the other.

Examples:

1. The train had left the station before we reached.
2. They had already eaten when I invited them for lunch.
3. Amy had cooked lunch before we got up.
4. The patient had died when the doctor arrived.
5. When I reached Tarun's house, he had left for work.

II. Refer to an event that happened a long time ago.

1. They had visited us several years ago.
2. She had met with an accident in her childhood.
3. Suma had gone Mysore when she was a year old.
4. He had visited his friends in Delhi in 2010.
5. She had seen a bear when she was a child.

Structure of Sentence

Subject + Had + Past Participle (base Verb+ed/en) + Object

Examples:

1. They had saved some money.
2. She had gone to London.
3. She had acted in a few movies.
4. Hari had written a few poems.
5. We had finished the work by sunset.

Negative Sentence

Structure of Sentence

Subject + Had + Not + Past Participle (base Verb+ed/en) + Object

Examples:

1. I had not booked the tickets for the match.
2. The candidates had not prepared for the interview.
3. He had not told us the truth.
4. Sunil had not done his work.
5. Razia had not come for the party.

Questions

Structure of Sentence

Auxiliary Verb (had) + Subject + Past Participle (verb + ed/en) + Object

Examples:

1. Had he submitted his project?
2. Had you received the news?
3. Had you known her?
4. Had you studied French before you came to Bangalore?
5. Had she visited Australia before 2015?

D. Past Perfect Continuous Tense

It is also called past perfect progressive tense. It is used to describe an on-going action that started in the past and continued for some time in the past. “Since” is usually used to show when the action started in the past and “for” is used to specify for how long the action lasted.

Structure of Sentence

Subject + Auxiliary Verb (had been) + Present Participle (base form of the verb + ing) + Object + Time-reference

Examples:

1. She had been speaking for two hours.
2. He had been working with us since ten years.
3. I had been learning computers for one year.
4. She was very tired. She had been writing all day.
5. Swamy had been reading every morning for a month

Negative Sentences

Structure of Sentence

Subject + Auxiliary Verb (had Not been) + Present Participle + Object + Time-reference

Examples:

1. He had not been taking care of his health for some time.
2. She had not been working since 2015.
3. Children had not been playing in the field since two months.
4. You had not done your homework.
5. Leena had not been sleeping.

Questions

Structure of Sentence

Had + subject + been + Present Participle + Object + Time-reference

Examples:

1. Had they been playing regularly?
2. Had he been paying his rent since one year?
3. Had she been lecturing since 2006?
4. Had you been eating?
5. Had you been waiting there for more than four hours when she finally arrived?

Future Time

It is used to express actions that will happen in the future. It is classified into

A. Future Simple

It is used to describe an action that will happen in the near or far future.

Note: Auxiliary verb “Will/Shall” is used to indicate future

Structure of Sentence

Subject + Auxiliary Verb (will/shall) + Base form of the verb + Object

Examples:

1. I will see you next week.
2. He will make the announcement in the meeting tomorrow.
3. The group will perform at the show after two days.
4. I hope she will get the job she has applied for.
5. We shall go out in the evening.

Negative Sentences

Structure of Sentence

Subject + Auxiliary Verb (will) + Not + Base form of the verb + Object

Examples:

1. He will not go to school.
2. I will not play cricket.
3. They will not help us.
4. Sundar will not get his book from me.
5. She will not come with us tomorrow.

Questions

Structure of Sentence

Auxiliary Verb (will) + Subject + Base form of the verb + Object

OR

Question Word+ Auxiliary Verb (will) + Subject + Base form of the verb + Object

Examples:

1. Will you marry me?
2. Will they buy a new house?
3. Will he complete the work?
4. Will he come tomorrow?
5. Who will win the match on Sunday?

B. Future Continuous

It is used for actions that will be in progress in the near or distant future.

Structure of Sentence

Subject + Auxiliary Verb (will be) + Present Participle Object

Examples:

1. I will be speaking at the program tomorrow.
2. She will be performing at an event next month.
3. They will be shifting to a new home by the end of this month.
4. We will be spending the summer in Pune.
5. By this time tomorrow, I will be writing my exam.

Negative Sentences

Structure of Sentence

Subject + Auxiliary Verb (will Not be) + Present Participle (+ Object)

Examples:

1. He will not be working with us.
2. I will not be travelling with them.
3. She will not be enjoying her vacation.
4. Amy will not be running the marathon next week.
5. They will not be visiting us.

Questions

Structure of Sentence

Will + Subject + Be + Present Participle + Object

OR

Question Word+ Will + Subject + Be + Present Participle + Object

Examples:

1. Will you be appearing for the interview?
2. Will he be attending the conference?
3. When will you be meeting the doctor?
4. When will he be coming to see you?
5. Will Sam be writing the exam?

C. Future Perfect

It is used when the speaker assumes that some action will be completed or happened by a particular time in future.

Structure of Sentence

Subject + Auxiliary Verb (will have) + Past Participle (base form of the verb+ed/en) + Object

Examples:

1. The students will have completed the course in three years.
2. He will have learnt English by the end of this year.
3. I will have joined a university in two years.
4. Suma will have retired by the year 2025.
5. They will have signed documents by next week.

Negative Sentences

Structure of Sentence

Subject + Auxiliary Verb (will Not have) + Past Participle (base form of the verb+ed/en) + Object

Note: “won’t” can be used instead of “will not”

Examples:

1. He will not have enjoyed the party.
2. They will not have started a new business.
3. She will not have learnt dancing.
4. Sowmya will not have cooked the dinner?
5. They will not have left Jaipur.

Questions

Structure of Sentence

Will + Subject + Have + Past Participle + Object

Or

Question Word + Will + Subject + Have + Past Participle + Object

Examples:

1. Will he have found a house?
2. Will they have bought a car?
3. Will they have obtained permission from the authorities?
4. When will they have quit their jobs?
5. When will she have been here three weeks?

D. Future Perfect Continuous

It is used to describe on-going actions that will be completed in the future. “Since” is usually used to show when the action will start in the future and “for” is used to specify for how long the action would continue.

Structure of Sentence

Subject + Auxiliary Verb (will have been) + Present Participle+ Object + Time-reference

Examples:

1. I will have been working in this organization for ten years by 2020.
2. He will have been reading since eight am.
3. She will have been writing her next novel by this time next year.
4. By this time next year, I will have been working on this project for a year.
5. They will have been using my phone for three weeks.

Negative Sentences

Structure of Sentence

Subject + Auxiliary Verb (will NOT have been) + Present Participle (base verb + ing) + object + Time-reference

Examples:

1. He will not have been playing for the team in a few years.
2. The company will not have been hiring for five years by 2021.
3. She will not have been living here for two years.
4. I will not have been waiting for you for seven hours.
5. I will not have been attending the wedding before I finish this job.

Note: “won’t” can be used instead of “will not”

Questions

Structure of Sentence

Will + Subject + Have been + Present Participle (base verb + ing) + Object
OR

Question Word+ Will + Subject + Have been + Present Participle (base verb + ing) + Object

Examples:

1. Will he have been working on this project?
2. Will she have been looking for a job for three years?
3. Will you have been working in the organisation long before you quit?
4. Who will they have been training before the conference?
5. Will they have been waiting a long time for us?

Note: Present simple tense and present continuous tense are also used to indicate future.

Examples:

1. The college starts next week.
2. The plane takes off at 6 am tomorrow.
3. The museum opens at 10 tomorrow.
4. I am playing in the upcoming series.
5. We are celebrating Diwali in October.

Tenses at a Glance

Tense	Use	Affirmative/Negative/Question
Simple Present	<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ action in the present taking place regularly, never or several times▪ facts▪ actions taking place one after another▪ action set by a timetable or schedule	A: He speaks. N: He does not speak. Q: Does he speak?
Present Progressive	<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ action taking place in the moment of speaking▪ action taking place only for a limited period of time▪ action arranged for the future	A: He is speaking. N: He is not speaking. Q: Is he speaking?

Simple Past	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ action in the past taking place once, never or several times ▪ actions taking place one after another ▪ action taking place in the middle of another action 	A: He spoke. N: He did not speak. Q: Did he speak?
Past Progressive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ action going on at a certain time in the past ▪ actions taking place at the same time ▪ action in the past that is interrupted by another action 	A: He was speaking. N: He was not speaking. Q: Was he speaking?
Present Perfect Simple	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ putting emphasis on the result ▪ action that is still going on ▪ action that stopped recently ▪ finished action that has an influence on the present ▪ action that has taken place once, never or several times before the moment of speaking 	A: He has spoken. N: He has not spoken. Q: Has he spoken?

Present Perfect Progressive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ putting emphasis on the course or duration (not the result) ▪ action that recently stopped or is still going on ▪ finished action that influenced the present 	A: He has been speaking. N: He has not been speaking. Q: Has he been speaking?
Past Perfect Simple	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ action taking place before a certain time in the past ▪ sometimes interchangeable with past perfect progressive ▪ putting emphasis only on the fact (not the duration) 	A: He had spoken. N: He had not spoken. Q: Had he spoken?
Past Perfect Progressive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ action taking place before a certain time in the past ▪ sometimes interchangeable with past perfect simple ▪ putting emphasis on the duration or course of an action 	A: He had been speaking. N: He had not been speaking. Q: Had he been speaking?

Future Simple	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ action in the future that cannot be influenced ▪ spontaneous decision ▪ assumption with regard to the future 	A: He will speak. N: He will not speak. Q: Will he speak?
Future Simple (going to)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ decision made for the future ▪ conclusion with regard to the future 	A: He is going to speak. N: He is not going to speak. Q: Is he going to speak?
Future Progressive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ action that is going on at a certain time in the future ▪ action that is sure to happen in the near future 	A: He will be speaking. N: He will not be speaking. Q: Will he be speaking?
Future Perfect	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ action that will be finished at a certain time in the future 	A: He will have spoken. N: He will not have spoken. Q: Will he have spoken?
Future Perfect Progressive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ action taking place before a certain time in the future ▪ putting emphasis on the course of an action 	A: He will have been speaking. N: He will not have been speaking. Q: Will he have been speaking?

Exercises

I Complete the following sentences with the correct verb form (s):

1. Yesterday I (see) _____ the professor who (help) _____ me with my survey results.
2. In my life I (live) _____ in many places, but I (think) _____ the city lifestyle is best.
3. Last year, the amount of waste (increase) _____ dramatically from 10% to over 35.5%.
4. It (be) _____ previously important for a family to _____ (own) _____ their own home.
5. I believe governments should always be willing to (compromise) _____ with those who (not want) _____ the environment to be further damaged.

II. Choose the correct words or phrases that are missing in the following sentences, paying attention to the correct tense required.

- a. Nobody believes that investment in telecommunications
lose money.
 - i. has ever
 - ii. will ever
 - iii. would ever
 - iv. had ever
- b. After her lunch, the teacher began marking the essays.
 - i. finished
 - ii. had finished
 - iii. finishing
 - iv. having finished

- c. The student very well in her first practical examination.
- did
 - had done
 - has done
 - all of the above
- d. It is hard to know why undergraduates help with their assignments.
- fail to seek
 - are not seeking
 - will not seek
 - all of the above
- e. Most of the general public to see a live theatrical performance.
- have ever been
 - are never wanting
 - have never been
 - all of the above

III Complete the following sentences with the correct verb form(s).

- a. Yesterday, I (see) the professor who (help) me with my survey results.
- b. In my life I (live) in many places, but I (think) the city lifestyle is best.
- c. The worst aspect of corporation policy (be) the disregard for the environment.
- d. It (be) previously important for a family to (own) their own home.
- e. In the 1990s, the government (introduce) special policies to (provide) funding for environmentalists to (continue) their work.

IV Supply the Present Prefect Tense or the Present Prefect Continuous Tense

- a. I (bring) all your letters. Please take them.
- b. Abha (type) your letters since morning and she is only halfway through.
- c. I (collect) stamps ever since I joined this school.
- d. Now I (gather) so many stamps that I do not know where to put them.
- e. My towel is wet. Someone (use) it.
- f. I (use) all the milk; nothing is left for you.
- g. The old man (stand) at the bus stop for an hour. Tell him that the last bus (go) already.
- h. I (work) since morning and I cannot go home until late in the evening.
- i. He (finish) his work and he is going home now.
- j. Sheetal (write) for three hours and soon she will have to stop.

V Fill in the blanks with the correct tense forms of the verbs in the brackets.

1. It _____ (rain) since last night, and it _____ (look) as if it may rain for the rest of the day.
2. My school _____ (hold) a food-and-fun fair next month to raise money for the school building-fund.
3. Look! Those bees _____ (buzz) round the flowers. The bees _____ not only _____ (collect) honey, but they _____ (pollinate) the flowers as well.
4. Mary told him what _____ (happen) to his dog, so he _____ (run) home to see how it _____ (be).
5. It _____ (be) a fine morning today. The birds _____ (sing) in the trees, and there _____ (be) not a cloud in the sky.

VI Fill each of the numbered blanks with the correct form of the word given in brackets.

Chandi Prasad Bhatt1.... (launch) a public campaign,2.... (know) as the ‘Chipko’ Movement, to protect the trees against the axe. In this movement, village women played an active role. They took up their positions with each3.... (hug) a tree by enveloping the trunk in their arms. This4.... (do) to warn the contractors that if they wanted5.... (cut) down a tree, they would have to attack the protestors first. Bhatt himself6.... (surprise) at the success of the movement and at the protectors’ positive participation to prevent the felling of trees. This unusual movement was successful as it7.... (base) on the principle of non-violence and8.... (focus) on the sentimental feelings of the inhabitants who treated trees as their family members.

VII Rewrite the following passage correcting all the errors related to verbs.

Leonardo da Vinci’s “Mona Lisa” is one of the most famous portraits in the history of painting. Leonardo took four years to complete the painting: he begun work in 1503 and finish in 1507. Mona (or Madonna Lisa Gherardini) was from a noble family in Naples, and Leonardo may have paint her on commission from her husband. Leonardo is said to have entertain Mona Lisa with six musicians. He install a musical fountain where the water play on small glass spheres, and he give Mona a puppy and a white Persian cat to play with. Leonardo did what he could to keep Mona smiling during the long hours she sit for him. But it is not only Mona’s mysterious smile that has impress anyone who has ever view the portrait: the background landscape is just as mysterious and beautiful. The portrait can be seen today in the Louvre Museum in Paris.

Module 4

Preposition

A preposition is a word that is placed before a noun or a pronoun which shows relationship or position with other words in the sentence. The relationships may include direction, place, and time.

Note:

- A preposition may have two or more objects.

[A noun or pronoun which is used with a preposition is called its object]

E.g. There are few disagreements between **you and me**.

The road runs over **hills and plains**.

- Some are called appropriate prepositions because only they can be used with certain verbs or words.

E.g. addicted to, believe in, aware of, care for etc.

(There are different types of prepositions used in English Language that not only add detail but make a sentence complete).

Kinds of Preposition:

1. Simple prepositions: Simple prepositions are words like **at, on, for, in, off, with, till, to, up** etc. These can be used to describe location, time or place. Example sentences:
 - He sat *on* the chair.
 - There is some milk *in* the fridge.
 - He looked *at* the watch.
 - We waited *till* the end.
 - The cat jumped *off* the table.

2. Double prepositions: Double prepositions are two simple prepositions used together often indicating direction. Words like into, upon, onto, out of, within etc. are used as double prepositions. Example sentences:
 - Once upon a time, there was a King.
 - He jumped *onto* the wall.
 - It is *up to* us to find the solution.
 - We are required to think *out of* the box.
 - We must find happiness *within* ourselves.
3. Compound prepositions: They are generally formed by the addition of a prefix as in the following; to a noun, an adjective or an adverb. E.g. beside, below, behind, before, inside, beneath etc. Example sentences:
 - The dog ran *across* the road.
 - I sat *beside* my friend.
 - She stood *before* the judge.
 - There is a man hiding *behind* the tree.
4. Phrase preposition: They occur in the form of phrases which are supposed to be used as a single preposition. Words like according to, in place of, along with, in favour of, away from, in case of etc. Example sentences:
 - There is a pillar *in front of* the temple.
 - Contact us *in case of* emergency.
 - The decision was *in favour of* the batsman.
 - He persevered *in spite of* difficulties.
5. Participle prepositions: These prepositions usually end with –ing. During, including, regarding, considering etc. Example sentences:
 - He works one job *during* the day and another at night.

- The teacher was asking questions *regarding* his behaviour.
- *Considering* his age, he did a great job.
- All the neighbours were there *including* the new one.

Exercise

I. Choose the best preposition for each sentence and underline them.

- 1) She has been married **to/for** him for more than two decades.
- 2) Indians are very proud **of/in** their culture.
- 3) He is interested **at/in** supernatural.
- 4) I am pleased **with/about** your promotion.
- 5) Kiran was angry **on/with** me for revealing his secret.
- 6) Ram is getting anxious **about/for** his mother's health.
- 7) You can't be independent **from/of** your parents until you find a job.
- 8) Why can't you be polite **to/at** him?
- 9) Both parents are responsible **for/about** raising a child.
- 10) I feel really sorry **for/at** him.

II. Choose the appropriate prepositions from the words given below and fill in the blanks.

(through, among, along, into, out, about, before, of, at, to, on, upon)

Suddenly she came _____ a little three-legged table, all made of solid glass; there was nothing _____ it except a tiny golden key, and Alice's first thought was that it might belong _____ one of the doors of the hall; but, alas! Either the locks were too large, or the key was too small, but at any rate it would not open any _____ them. However, on the second time round, she came upon a low curtain she had not noticed _____, and behind it was a little door _____ fifteen inches high: she tried the little golden key in the lock, and to her great delight it fitted!

Alice opened the door and found that it led ____ a small passage, not much larger than a rat-hole: she knelt down and looked ____ the passage into the loveliest garden you ever saw. How she longed to get out of the dark hall and wander about ____ those beds of bright flowers and those cool fountains, but she could not even get her head through the doorway; ‘and even if my head would go _____,’ thought poor Alice, ‘it would be of very little use without my shoulders.’

[An excerpt from “Alice’s Adventures in Wonderland” by Lewis Carroll]

III. Underline the correct or most appropriate word(s) in each sentence.

1. The mist was so thick; it was like walking across/over/along/through a cloud.
2. John Fairfax was the first man to row solo over/along/through/across the Atlantic.
3. He leapt along/through/across/over the wall and made his escape.
4. Rita only had time to dress and run a comb through/across/over/along her hair before the taxi arrived.
5. Hanuman made his way up the hill across/over/along/through a narrow path.
6. There was so much traffic, I was fortunate enough to get over/along/through/across the road without being knocked over.
7. There were plastic bags and bottles along/through/across/over the entire length of the beach.
8. The road goes through/across/over/along the forest.
9. The picture was hung across/over/along/through the fire place.
10. They walked over/along/through/across the footpath until they came to a small bridge.

IV. Correct the prepositions (above, over, below, under) wherever necessary.

1. He was unhurt apart from a small cut above his eye.
2. Rani looked out from her balcony. Twenty feet under her, in the garden, was a cow.
3. The path runs high over the river and the view is wonderful.
4. She swept the dust under the mat.
5. He pulled his muffler above his ears and went out into the cold.
6. There was a crack in the wall over the window.
7. A little girl sat under the tree.
8. Your shoes are below the bed.
9. She put her hands above her eyes and began to cry.
10. The castle sat in the mountains over the town.

V. Add appropriate prepositions wherever necessary in the passage given below.

Ladies and gentlemen. Here my right are the proposers the motion ‘Science has brought more evil than good to mankind.’ On my left are those debating against the motion. Each team has come prepared lots ‘ammunition’ to ‘fire’ their opponents. I think we are going have an exciting time this evening because both teams have made it to the finals losing a single debate along the way. I have been told they are Mark Anthony and Brutus, two historical figures such stature that they could sway crowds with their oratory, passion and logic. So let us give our finalists here all our attention.

VI. Choose appropriate phrase prepositions from the brackets and fill in the blanks.

(in favour of, in accordance with, instead of, along with, in order to, in course of, for the sake of, in spite of, by virtue of, owing to, in consequence of)

1. He could not attend the meeting _____ ill health.
2. Raj has prepared the report _____ the instructions.
3. He secured the job _____ of his intelligence.
4. _____ repeated warnings he was not careful while riding his bike.
5. _____ time even enemies become friends.
6. She did all the hard work _____ help her husband.
7. Manoj went to Madras _____ his mother.
8. He failed in the examination _____ of his laziness.
9. He died _____ his principles.
10. Malik gave up his claim on the post _____ his friend.

Module 5

Common Errors by Non- Native Speakers

Do learners of English make particular mistakes in grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary depending on their mother tongue? It makes intuitive sense that some mistakes are more likely to be made by speakers of certain languages. One well-known example is that speakers of Slavic languages, such as Polish, often miss out articles (**she bought new car*) while speakers of Roman languages, such as Italian, occasionally use too many articles (*I love the my sister!*). These kinds of mistakes reflect the nature of the students' mother tongues, and are arguably fairly minor, but other kinds – such as the greater tendency among speakers of certain Asian languages (like Khmer or Japanese) to mix up *he* and *she* – may lead to real communication difficulties.

Linguistic quirks (rather than mistakes) also vary between cultures. In my experience from teaching in several different countries, Italian learners of English tend to overuse the word *nice* (for anything and everything, including a *nice* horror film); Cambodians love to throw a *small party*; Indian speakers describe a lot of things as being *a huge problem*; and Japanese students frequently dream of *beautiful views*.

However, there are some mistakes that crop up across cultures and greet me wherever I go, like old friends. The English language have – sorry, *has* – plenty of idiosyncrasies, such as the third person subject verb agreement in the present tense. The latter is just one example of a mistake that, on closer inspection, is a perfectly rational one.

Here are some of the most common mistakes from learners of English across the globe.

1.) Subject-verb agreement: *My sister like One Direction.*

English verbs are relatively easy, as long as you remember to change them slightly in the present tense for *he*, *she*, and *it*, usually by adding *-s*.

1. *My sister likes One Direction.* [My sister=she]
2. *Gautham really loves swimming.* [Gautham=he]
3. *That restaurant serves Italian food.* [That restaurant=it]

2.) Pronunciation of *th*: *Yes, I sink so/Yes, I tink so/Yes, I fink so* for *Yes, I think so*.

The *th* sound, which is so common in English, is one of the most difficult for non-native speakers to pronounce.

3.) *Please!* in the wrong context (when giving or offering someone something)

This is typical of students who translate from their own language where the equivalent of *please* is often used on its own in these contexts. In English, we typically use *please* to soften a request or an acceptance:

1. *Would you pass me the water, please?*
2. *Please come this way.*
3. *More coffee? – Yes, please!*

In other situations, we tend to use specific phrases. For example, when giving someone something, we'd say something like *There you are!*; when showing customers to their seats in a cafe, we'd probably say *Please have a seat*; and when presenting food to guests, we'd say *Enjoy your meal!*

4) Problems with prepositions, particularly: *My sister loves listening music and I am angry on you.*

Prepositions almost always catch students out, as they usually differ from language to language. Dropping the '*to*' from *listen to* is one of the commonest mistakes made by English learners everywhere. In English we always *listen to something or someone* (while we would *read a book* without a preposition). Angry *with* a person

1. *My sister loves listening to music.*
2. *I am angry with you.*

5) Using *-ing* instead of *-ed*: *I was very boring!*

In some contexts this sentence would be perfectly correct, but the chances are that students usually mean:

I was very bored!

Mixing up *-ing* and *-ed* participles is a huge source of confusion: those ending in *-ed* describe how people feel, and those ending in *-ing* describe the things (or people) that cause those feelings. One rule of thumb for trying to remember the difference is:

Edward is bored. (people)

Ironing is boring. (thing)

6) Missing out articles: *Woman goes to school.*

Many languages don't use articles at all, and since the intricacies of the definite and indefinite article in English are notoriously complex, even advanced students can struggle with getting these right. Did the student mean *The woman goes to school*, *A woman goes to the school*, or another subtly different sentence?

7.) Mixing up the present perfect and past simple: *Last year we have been to Thailand.*

The present perfect is used differently in English from the way it's used in other languages. English speakers use the present perfect to speak about something that took place at an unspecified time. Present perfect tense is used when the emphasis is in the action and not on when/time the action happened. However, if we mention a completed period of time, such as *this morning*, *last year*, or *in the 1990s*, we should generally use the past simple:

Last year we went to Thailand.

8.) Forming questions incorrectly, particularly: *How long you stay?*

Asking questions can pose problems because, unlike some other languages, English usually requires the word order to be inverted (the statement *You are Punjabi* becomes *Are you Punjabi?*) or, for yes/no questions, an auxiliary verb is needed (*You like chocolate* becomes *Do you like chocolate?*)

On its own, *How long you stay?* could be ambiguous – does the student mean: *How long are you staying (here for)?* (i.e. looking into the future)

Or

How long have you been here? (i.e. looking into the past)?

9.) Not using the present perfect continuous: *She works here for three years.*

This is a perfectly logical translation from many languages, but English requires the present perfect continuous to describe actions that began in the past and are still continuing (if this is what the student means):

She has been working here for three years.

10) Using *since* instead of *for*: **I've been living in Tokyo since two months.*

Students always seem to opt for *since* by default. In practice, *since* is used when talking about specific points in time:

Since

- 1 o'clock
- yesterday
- my birthday

and

for is used when talking about periods of time

for

- two weeks
- twenty days

1) Cope Up vs. Cope With

Using prepositions with verbs loosely is one of the common mistakes Indians make.

Incorrect: *How do you cope up?*

Correct: *How do you cope?*

Incorrect: *I was stuck up in the traffic.*

Correct: *I was stuck in traffic.*

This tendency to use “up” indiscriminately with common verbs may have been influenced by common phrasal verbs such as break up, take up, wrap up.

Incorrect: You should learn how to cope up.

Correct: You should learn how to cope.

The verb 'cope' usually collocates with the 'with' preposition.

12) Isn't It? A Universal Question Tag

Question tags are some of the most confusing parts of learning English for many Indians.

Questions tags are tag questions which are added to the end of declarative statements. For example, "You're John, aren't you?"

Question Tags follow a specific grammar pattern. They usually depend on the verb or auxiliary verb in a sentence.

Examples:

It's going to take a long time, isn't it?

She has done really well in this test, hasn't she?

They're very excited about the new project, aren't they?

13) Going by its definition in dictionaries, "**Revert**" essentially means restoring something/someone to its previous/original state.

After leaving the rehab, he reverted to his old drinking habits.

Moreover, "Revert" is an intransitive verb, meaning it doesn't require a direct object to complete its meaning.

Since "Revert" means "Going Back" to a previous state/condition, you don't have to add "back" while using the word "Revert".

14) Past tense questions. Double past tense forms are used.

If the tense of the auxiliary verb is changed from present to past then the tense of the main verb should be in the present tense.

Incorrect: *Why did you not brought your pen?*

Correct: *Why did you not bring your pen?*

Module 6

Active and Passive Voice

Active and passive voices are forms of sentences.

Voice is a *form of verb* showing whether subject acts or has acted to it i.e. sentences are in either active or passive voice.

Active Voice

In active form, subject acts.

Active Voice is a sentence in which the verb shows that the subject does an action.

Characteristics of Active Voice

- The subject of the sentence in active voice is at the starting of the sentence.
- The subject is followed by a verb and object.
- A sentence in Active Voice tells clearly about who has done the action.

Use:

Active Voice can largely be used in subjective or opinion related writings where the doer of the action is given importance.

Sentence Pattern

Subject + Verb + Object

Examples

1. The storm damaged the roof.
2. Monica taught Sushma German.
3. He may have cooked the food.
4. The men were cutting the trees.
5. They must listen to her voice.

Passive Voice

In Passive Voice, action is done.

Passive Voice is the sentence in which the form of verb shows that an action is done to the subject.

Characteristics of Passive Voice:

- When we change the sentence from active to passive voice, the object becomes the subject.
- We can use sentences only with *transitive verbs* in passive voice i.e. we can change the sentences that have an object in to this voice. *Intransitive verbs do not take passive forms.*

Examples:

1. I went to Delhi yesterday.
 2. The ship slowly disappeared from view.
- This form may or may not tell clearly about who has done the action.
 - ‘By’ is to be used to make clear who performed the action.

Uses:

- Passive voice is often used in objective writing where the focus is mainly on the action.
- It is widely used in formal, professional, legal writings and scientific research papers.
- Is used to make an impersonal statement.
- It is used to eliminate the mention of the agent.

Sentence Pattern

Subject + ‘be’ form + past participle + by + object

Examples:

1. The roof was damaged by the storm.
2. The work can be done by Sam.
3. It is hoped that the petrol prices will fall.
4. The food is being cooked by him.
5. They have been invited to the party.

Exercise

I. Rewrite the sentences in Passive Voice:

1. The guide took the visitors on a tour of the Mysuru palace.
2. Some burglars broke into our house last night.
3. The news surprised me.
4. Are they meeting him at the station?
5. She handed me the plate.
6. Someone threw a life jacket at me.
7. You should handle these boxes with care.
8. The doctors are treating her mother.
9. People are destroying large areas of forests every day.
10. I conducted the test in the school library.

II. Fill in the blanks with the correct Active or Passive forms of the verbs in the brackets.

1. Our work _____ (complete) last night so we can relax this morning.
2. Arjun _____ (smell) the dish cooking as soon as he entered the house.
3. The fury of the cyclone _____ (feel) all along the coastal areas last week.
4. The village folk usually _____ (launch) the festival with traditional music and dancing.
5. The site for the new airport terminal _____ (decided) soon.
6. The automobile plant _____ (employ) more than a thousand workers at present.
7. The Chinnaswamy _____ (pack) with people who are eagerly waiting for the match to begin.

8. The city Mayor _____ (declare) open the new Performing Arts Complex next week.
9. A lot of our time _____ (take up) yesterday by the listing of items for the festival.
10. They _____ (put off) plans for the building of the highway due to shortage of funds.

III. Correct the sentences below and rewrite them.

1. Ravi was agreed with us that our football team needed more training.
2. The café was crowding with so many people that we couldn't find a place to sit.
3. The construction worker was strike by a falling beam while he was building the attic.
4. The marines made to do difficult manoeuvres while they are in training with the navy.
5. Our plans for the evening was forgot when unexpected visitors arrived.

IV. Rewrite the following passages in the passive voice.

Passage-1

Machines crush wood into small pieces. They mix the pieces with water and chemicals to produce pulp. Other machines spin the resulting pulp into fine sheets of paper. When we recycle paper, we repeat the process. We use different chemical processes to produce the various required grades of paper.

Wood is crushed into small pieces by machines. _____

Passage-2

Everyone is busy now. We are preparing the stage for our play on Saturday night. Mani and Charan are setting up the sound system. Harish and Riya are testing the lights to ensure they are working. Poorna, our stage coordinator, is putting up the backdrop. Padma and her team completed all the props just two days ago. Now, we are checking everything to make sure there will be no last-minute problems on the opening night.

Everyone is busy now. The stage is being prepared for our play on Saturday night. _____

V. Rewrite the following passage changing the voice wherever necessary

Last summer our house was painted by me. The job took about two weeks. First, the exterior was washed using warm water and a mild detergent. Then all the chinks and pores in the walls were sealed with putty. After the putty had had a chance to dry, the exterior could be painted. A latex paint was used because it is easy to apply and cleans up with water. A whole week was needed to finish this part of the job. I was very careful to apply the paint evenly because I did not want to have to apply two coats. A color was used that was very close to the original color. Our house is a two-storey house, which meant that a tall ladder was needed to do the second storey. The paint can had to be balanced on the top rung of the ladder while I worked. When the job was finished, a great deal of satisfaction was felt by me. I had to pat myself on the back. Even my dad said that a good job was done.

Module 7

DIALOGUE TO NARRATIVE

Narration is to narrate or present an account or a story. However one can narrate in the words of the speaker himself/herself as in direct speech or through one's own words as in indirect speech.

1. The teacher said, "Why are you late?"
2. The teacher asked why I was late.

Sentence 1 uses the exact words of the teacher and hence it is direct speech whereas sentence 2 conveys the same message in the words of the narrator and hence it is in Indirect/ Reported Speech.

RULE 1- Pronouns should be changed

First person pronouns should be changed to third person except when the speaker is reporting his own words.

Ex - She said "Prerana is **my** daughter".

In the above sentence the first person pronoun 'My' should be changed to third person 'her'

She said that Prerana is **her** daughter.

Consider the below table.

DIRECT SPEECH	REPORTED SPEECH
I	He/She
Me	Him/ Her
We	They
My	His/ Her
Mine	His/Hers
Our	Their
This/These	It, They/Them

Second person pronoun is changed according to the object of the reporting verb.

Direct: She says to **me**, "You have done your best"

Reported: She said to me **I** had done my best.

Third person pronoun is not changed.

Direct: She says "He does not work hard"

Reported: She says he does not work hard.

Rule 2- Adjectives should be changed

Demonstrative adjectives such as **this/that/these** should be changed

A. **This** used as time expression becomes **That**.

Direct: She said “She is coming this week”.

Reported: She said she was coming that week.

B. **This** and **that** used as adjectives usually change to **The**

Direct: He said “I bought this bike for my brother”.

Reported: He said he had bought the bike for his brother.

RULE 3- Expressions of Time and Place

Adverb and adverbial phrases of time changes as follows.

DIRECT SPEECH	REPORTED SPEECH
Today Ex- I said, “I will be buying a car today”.	That day I said I would be buying a car that day.
Yesterday Ex- I said, “I bought a car yesterday”.	The previous day/ The day before I said I had bought a car the previous day
The day before yesterday Ex- I said, “I bought a car day before yesterday”.	Two days before I said I had bought a car two days before.
Tomorrow Ex- I said, “I will buy a car tomorrow”.	The next day/ the following day I said I would be buy a car the next day.
The day after tomorrow Ex- I said, “I will buy a car the day after tomorrow”.	Two days later/ in two days’ time I said I would buy a car two days later.
Next week/Year Ex- I said, “I am planning to buy a car next year”.	The following week/year I said I was planning to buy a car the following year.
Last week/year Ex- He said, “It rained heavily last week”.	The previous week/year He said it had rained heavily the previous week.
A year ago Ex- “A year ago I would do anything to get money” he said,	A year before/ previous year He said he would do anything to get money the previous year.

RULE 4- Tense Should be changed

Usually when we change direct to reported speech, Present tense changes to past and past tense changes to past perfect.

Direct: She says "I walked all the way from home".

Reported: She said she had walked all the way from home.

Consider the below table.

DIRECT SPEECH	REPORTED SPEECH
Simple Present Ex- "He said "I play football".	Simple Past He said he played football.
Present Continuous Ex- "I am waiting for the cab", she said.	Past Continuous She said she was waiting for the cab.
Present Perfect Ex- "I have found a flat", Karthik said.	Past perfect Karthik said he had found a flat.
Present Perfect Continuous Ex- Radha said, "I have been waiting for Krishna".	Past Perfect Continuous Radha said she had been waiting for Krishna.
Simple Past Ex- "I worked hard", said Shyam.	Past Perfect Shyam said he had worked hard.
Past Continuous Ex- He said, "I was going to school every day"	Past Perfect Continuous He said he had been going to school every day.
Past Perfect Ex- She said "The bread had gone stale".	Past Perfect She said the bread had gone stale
Past Perfect Continuous Ex- The Principal said, "Simran had been teaching in the school since 15 years".	Past Perfect Continuous The Principal said Simran had been teaching in the school since 15 years.
Future Ex- He said "He will be in Paris on Monday".	Conditional He said he would be in Paris on Monday.
Future Continuous Ex- She said, "She will be driving the car by herself in a week".	Conditional Continuous Ex- She said she'd been driving the car by herself in a week.
Conditional Ex- I said, "I would like to see it."	Conditional I said I would like to see it.

Modal verbs may also have to be changed in reported speech.

Consider the below table.

DIRECT SPEECH	REPORTED SPEECH
Can	Could
May	Might
Might	Might
Must	Had to
Have	Had
Should	Should
Ought to	Ought to

Exceptions:

1. If the direct speech indicates a universal truth or habitual fact then there is no change in Tense.
Direct: Our teacher said, "The earth is round".
Reported: Our teacher said that the earth is round.
2. If the sentence in direct speech is a historical fact then there is no change in tense.
Direct: The article said, "Ashoka left war after the conquest of Kalinga".
Reported: The article said that Ashoka left war after the conquest of Kalinga.
3. If the sentence in direct speech has two events happening simultaneously then there is no change in tense.
Direct: She said, "The students were talking when the teacher was taking the class".
Reported: She said that the students were talking when the teacher was taking the class.
4. If the sentence in direct speech has some imagined condition then there is no change in tense.
Direct: She said, "If I were rich, I would help him".
Reported: She said that if she was rich she would help him

5. If the sentence contains to-infinitive or would/could/should/ought , then the tense does not change.

Direct: She said to me, “You should obey your elders”.

Reported: She told me that I should obey my elders.

When we turn direct question into an indirect question the following points are to be considered:

- Tenses, pronoun, demonstrative adjectives and adverb of time and place change as in statements.
- The interrogative form of the verb changes to affirmative form.
- The question mark is omitted.
- If the introductory verb is **say**, it must be changed into verb of inquiry like **ask/wonder**.

Direct Question: He **said**, “Where **is** she going?”

Indirect Question: He **asked** where she **was** going.

- If the direct question starts with a question word as in when/where/why/who/ how/what, the question word is retained in the indirect question.

Direct Question: He **said**, “**What** do you want?”

Indirect Question: He **asked her what** he wanted.

- If there is yes/no question word, **If/whether** must be added.

Direct question: “Is anyone there?” I asked.

Indirect question: I asked **if/whether** anyone was there.

6. Exclamatory sentences become statements in reported speech.

- Exclamations beginning What/ How can be reported by exclaim/say that:

Direct exclamation: He said, “**What** a dreadful idea!”

Reported Exclamation: He **exclaimed** that **it was** a dreadful idea

- If the exclamation is followed by an action we can use the construction with an exclamation of delight/disgust etc. + subject + verb.

Direct exclamation: “Ugh!” she exclaimed, and turned off the programme.

Indirect exclamation: With an exclamation/expression of disgust she turned the programme off.

7. Reporting Verbs

Reporting verbs are used in Indirect Speech to convey language functions like offering, suggesting, expressing sympathy.

Direct “Shall I bring you some tea?” He asked.

Reported: He **offered** me some tea.

Direct: “Shall we meet at 2pm?” she said.

Reported: She **suggested** meeting at 2pm.

DIRECT SPEECH	REPORTED SPEECH
Sorry/ Pardon Ex- “ I am sorry” , she said.	Apologised. She apologised for her mistake.
Thank You Ex- He said “ thank you”	Expressed gratitude/ Thanked. He expressed gratitude/ He thanked me
Good morning/afternoon etc. Ex- “Good morning sir”, she said.	Greeted. She greeted the Principal.
Congratulations Ex- “Congratulations!” I said.	Congratulated I congratulated her.
Yes/of course/ okay Ex- “Okay! I will do it”, I said.	Agreed I agreed to do it.
No/ Cannot/ not at all Ex- “No! I can’t do it”, she said.	Disagreed/Denied She disagreed.

Exercises

I. Rewrite the following in Reported Speech

“I saw her today”, he said.

“I don’t like this film”, she said.

She said, "We went swimming today."

"I met her three months ago", he said.

"I'll see Mary on Sunday", she said.

"Pete and Sue are getting married tomorrow", she said.

"Stephen is bringing some records to the party tomorrow", she said.

"I really like this furniture", she said.

"My parents are arriving tomorrow", she said.

"We visited her this morning" they said.

"We'll see her next summer" they said.

"They were here three months ago", he said.

"I'm meeting them at four o'clock today", he said.

"I can see you tomorrow", she said.

II. Read the following conversation and complete the passage.

1. Anand : I want to order a big pineapple cake for my birthday.

Confectioner : When is your birthday?

Anand : It is tomorrow.

Confectioner: You can collect it tomorrow.

Anand told a confectioner _____ a big birthday cake for his birthday. The confectioner asked _____. Anand replied it was the following day. The confectioner told him _____ the _____.

2. Shilpa: Can I borrow your English textbook?

Jaya: Sure you can. But when will you return it?

Shilpa: I will return it to you after two days from today.

Jaya: Please do as I have to prepare for the exams.

Shilpa asked Jaya _____. Jaya replied that _____ and asked her _____. Shilpa said she _____. Jaya urged her _____ since she _____.

3. Rahul : Do you know that Ranjit met with an accident and is in hospital ?

Sukrit : Oh! I don't. Is he badly hurt? Which hospital is he in?

Rahul : The doctors say that there is nothing to worry. He is admitted to Beach Hospital

Rahul asked Sukrit _____ that Ranjit had met with an accident and was hospitalized. Sukrit expressed his ignorance and enquired _____. He also asked _____. Rahul told him that according to the doctors _____ and said that he was admitted to the Beach Hospital.

III. Report the following conversation

1. Monu: Hi Sonu! Where are you going?

Sonu: I am going to the library to get these books reissued.

Monu: Are you a member in this library?

Sonu: Yes, for the past four years.

2. Student: May I come in sir?

Principal: Yes.

Student: Good morning sir. I am Radha. I year BA student

Principal: What can I do for you?

Student: Sir I am here to invite you for the Teachers' Day celebration tomorrow at 10am.

Principal: Oh! Sorry. I have a meeting tomorrow.

Student: That's okay sir. Thank you.

IV Rewrite the following passage in reported speech:

Veer says to me, "Madam I have to go home now. Today my brother is returning from the U.S. He is a professor. He will bring a lot of gifts for me. He has promised to get me an Xbox".

V Rewrite the following passage in Indirect Speech:

The Soldier said, "What is the cost of all these birds?"

Bird seller said, "It is 500 for all the birds"

The Soldier bought the birds and set it free. The Bird Seller said, "Why did you let them free?"

The Soldier said, "I was a prisoner of war and I know the suffering of being caged."

Module 8

Communicative Functions

The word ‘Communication’ is derived from two Latin words ‘communis’ (noun) and ‘communicare’ (verb). It means to share, communicate, impart, inform. Communication is an exchange of ideas, facts, information, opinion, knowledge or emotions between or among people.

Communication has been defined as:

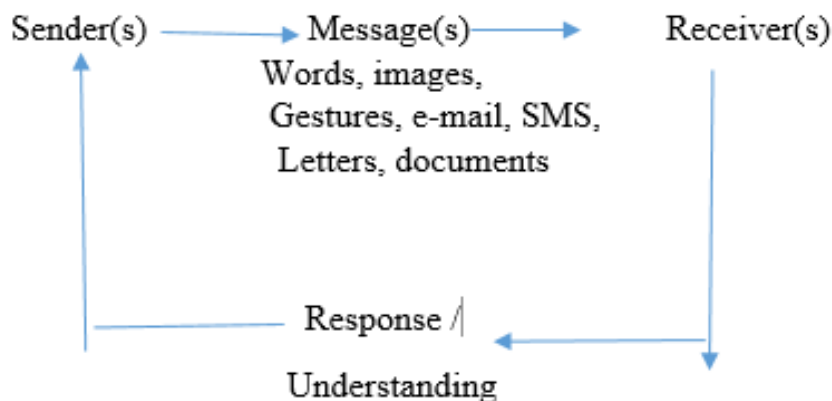
1. “The process by which information is transmitted between individuals and/or organizations so that an understandable response results.” Peter Little in *Communication in Business*
2. “Communication is an exchange of facts, ideas, opinions or emotions by two or more persons.” W.H. Newman and C.F. Summers Jr.
3. “The transfer of information from a sender to a receiver, with the information being understood by the receiver.” Koontz and Weihrich
4. “Communication is interchange of thoughts, opinions or information by speech, writing or signs.” Robert Anderson in *Professional Selling*
5. “Communication is the sum of all things one person does when he wants to create understanding in the mind of another; it involves a systematic and continuous process of telling, listening, and understanding.” Allen Louis

Importance of Communication

- Communication has been an integral part of the human world.
- It’s a fundamental and vital part of our life
- The organization of the world is based on communication
- Can’t imagine a world without communication/the world as we know it cannot function without communication

- Usually understood/defined as the exchange of ideas, thoughts, emotions, knowledge, information, opinions...
- Today technology is advanced
- Communication has become fast, effective and easy
- Intelligibility is the key to communication
- If one gets the (desired) result/response from the person one is communicating with, communication is successful
- Consciously/unconsciously we convey our feelings, attitude, emotions and thoughts through body language, etiquette, gestures and tone
- Communication skills are the key to success in any field
- Employers prefer people with good communication skills

Process of Communication



Purpose/Significance

- Transfer of ideas and information
- Coordination between people
- Smooth running of business and various transactions
- Foster relations – personal, professional and social

- Persuasion
- Resolves conflict

Types of Communication

Verbal Communication

It involves the use of language. It can be spoken or written.

It can be further classified into:

Oral Communication: It is the use of the spoken word. It includes face-to-face conversation, phone conversation, video calls/conference etc. It is the most basic and effective form of communication.

- Speaker gets instant response/feedback
- Clarity
- Listeners can discuss, make comments, and raise questions
- Builds relationships

Written Communication: It is the use of the written word. It includes letters, documents, reports, books, e-mails, SMS, posters, flyers etc. It is a creative activity and needs to be practised.

- It is formal
- It is a creative activity and needs to be practised
- Wider reach
- It is permanent/lasts longer
- Easy to retrieve information

Non-Verbal Communication It is communication without the use of words. It includes, gestures, signs and facial expressions and body language. The message is conveyed through posture, stance, gaze, tone, voice modulation,

eye contact, signboards and images. Recent studies have shown that 55% of the total communication is constituted of Non-Verbal Communication. It is spontaneous, subtle and intuitive.

Note: Another important form of communication is **paralanguage**. Paralanguage is the art of reading between the lines/ understanding implications. It constitutes about 38% of the communication. It includes tone, style, stress and intonation.

Formal and Informal Communication

Formal Communication

- Made through official channels
- To share information within an organization and between organizations
- Two types – vertical and horizontal
- Follow set procedures, guidelines, rules and regulations
- Generally in written form
- Happens in business and workplace

Informal Communication

- Communication made without following any official channels
- No set rules
- To maintain relations – personal and professional
- Generally oral
- Not reliable
- Happens more frequently outside workplace (with friends and family)
- Involves the use of colloquial speech (slang)
- Faster than formal communication

Core Communication Skills

Listening

Speaking

Reading

Writing

They are commonly known as LSRW. They are used in this order as we learn them in the same order. LSRW are crucial to success in any profession.

Listening

Also called receptive/passive skill

Primary/basic skill

Listener needs to be patient and attentive

Listener should not interrupt the speaker

Listener learns to comprehend speeches and integrate information

Listener acquire language skills – pronunciation, intonation

Builds interpersonal relations

Speaking

Productive skill

Fundamental and most essential communicative skill

Enables one to express oneself clearly

Persuasion

Acquire leadership qualities

Paralinguistic aspects play a key role – voice quality, tone, body language and expressions

Reading

Receptive skill

Essential skill

Helps in understanding written/printed word

Enhances comprehension and fluency

Knowledge

Improves language skills – vocabulary and writing

Writing

Creative

Involves creative use of language

Requires knowledge of grammar and structure

Requires practice

Boosts career

Clarity is important

BARRIERS OF COMMUNICATION

Communication plays a major role in developing a relationship. It can also affect the relationship among family members or management in any institute. More specifically, communication influences the effectiveness of instruction, performance evaluation, and the handling of discipline problems.

Communication should be straightforward. What can make it complex, difficult, and frustrating are the barriers. Some barriers of communication are the following.

Physiological Barrier

Physiological barriers to communication are related with the limitations of the human body and the human mind (memory, attention, and perception). Physiological barriers may result from individuals' personal discomfort, caused by ill-health, poor eye sight, or hearing difficulties.

Poor Listening Skills

Listening to others is considered a difficult task. A typical speaker says about 125 words per minute. The typical listener can receive 400–600 words per minute. Thus, about three-fourth of listening time is free time. The free time often sidetracks the listener. The solution is to be an active rather than passive listener. A listener's premature frown, shaking of the head, or bored look can easily convince the other person/speaker that there is no reason to elaborate or try again to communicate his/her excellent idea.

Information Overload

People are surrounded with a pool of information. It is essential to control the flow of the information, else the information is likely to be misinterpreted or forgotten or overlooked. As a result, communication may get distorted.

Inattention

At times, we just do not listen but only hear. For example, your boss is immersed in his/her very important paper work surrounded by so many files on the table and you are explaining him/her about an urgent office problem. In this situation, due to the inattention, the boss will not listen to you (he/she will only hear you); hence, he/she may not get what you are saying and it may lead to disappointment.

Emotions

The emotional state of a person at a particular point of time affects his/her communication with others as it has an impact on the body language (nonverbal communication). If the receiver feels that the sender is angry (emotional state), he/she can easily infer that the information being obtained will be very terrible. Emotional state causes some physiological changes in our body that may affect the pronunciation, pressure of the speech, and tone of the voice of the sender as well as the perception, thinking process, and information interpretation of the receiver during verbal communication.

Poor Retention

Human memory cannot function beyond a limit. One cannot always retain all the facts/information about what is being told to him/her especially if he/she is not interested or not attentive. This leads to a communication breakdown.

Physical and Environmental Distractions

Physical distractions are the physical things that get in the way of communication. Examples of such things include the telephone, an uncomfortable meeting place, and noise. These physical distractions are common in the hospital setting. If the telephone rings, the usual human tendency will be to answer it even if the caller is interrupting a very important or even delicate conversation. Distractions such as background noise, poor lighting, uncomfortable sitting, unhygienic room, or an environment that is too hot or cold can affect people's morale and concentration, which in turn interfere with effective communication.

Psychological Barrier

Psychological factors such as misperception, filtering, distrust, unhappy emotions, and people's state of mind can jeopardize the process of communication. We all tend to feel happier and more receptive to information when the sun shines. Similarly, if someone has personal problems such as worries and stress about a chronic illness, it may impinge his/her communication with others.

Social Barriers

Social barriers to communication include the social psychological phenomenon of conformity, a process in which the norms, values, and behaviors of an individual begin to follow those of the wider group. Social factors such as

age, gender, socioeconomic status, and marital status may act as a barrier to communication in certain situations.

Cultural Barriers

Culture shapes the way we think and behave. It can be seen as both shaping and being shaped by our established patterns of communication. Cultural barrier to communication often arises when individuals in one social group have developed different norms, values, or behaviors to individuals associated with another group. Cultural difference leads to difference in interest, knowledge, value, and tradition. Therefore, people of different cultures will experience these culture factors as a barrier to communicate with each other.

Semantic Barrier

Language, jargon, slang, etc., are some of the semantic barriers. Different languages across different regions represent a national barrier to communication, which is particularly important for migrating nurses. Use of jargon and slang also act as barrier to communication. For example, while delivering health education to a cardiac patient, if a cardiac nurse uses jargons such as “coronary artery disease,” “anticoagulants,” and “homocysteine and C-reactive proteins,” the patient will listen attentively as he/she cannot understand these medical jargons. Therefore, she is required to use simple words “heart ki nadi ki bimari,” “khoon patla karne ki dawai,” and “certain chemicals in our body” so that the patient can understand what the nurse is supposed to communicate with him/her.

Linguistic Barriers

Individual linguistic ability may sometimes become a barrier to communication. The use of difficult or inappropriate words in communication can prevent the people from understanding the message. Poorly explained or misunderstood messages can also result in confusion. The linguistic differences between the people can also lead to communication breakdown. The same word may mean differently to different individuals. For example, consider a word “face.”

- He is facing a problem.
- What is the face value of this share bond?
- Your face is oval shape.

“Face” means differently in different sentences. Communication breakdown occurs if there is wrong perception of the meaning of the message by the receiver.

Past Experience

If someone has awful experiences in the past related to some particular situation, then he/she will try to avoid communication in that situation. For example, a staff nurse who, while providing detailed information regarding the patient at the time of routine clinical rounds to her boss, is always facing negative body language and discouraging words from her boss will ultimately limit her communication to the boss at that time.

Organizational Barriers

Unclear planning, structure, information overload, timing, technology, and status difference are the organizational factors that may act as barriers to communication.

Technological Failure

Message not delivered due to technical failure (e.g., receiver was not in mobile network area and the sender has not activated delivery report in message setting).

Unclear Messages

Effective communication starts with a clear message. Unclear messages in terms of meaning, grammar, and words may act as a barrier to communication because the receiver may not be able to intercept the actual meaning of the message.

Stereotypes

Stereotypes are beliefs or generalizations about characteristics or qualities that are felt to be typical of a particular group. Stereotyping is a barrier to communication because people with stereotype thoughts either will not read the message completely or will not read it at all because of their thinking that they already know everything.

Communication plays a vital role in building relationships. Relationships are based on trust and mutual respect. Therefore networking and socializing

are important activities. Below are a few common situations where communication can be made effective by the use of appropriate vocabulary.

1 - Greeting and Introduction

Note

- First impression is the best impression.
- Be brief and clear when you introduce yourself.
- Give your first name alone in informal situations and your full name in formal ones.
- Say where you work or give your other background information without sounding boastful.
- Do not use a title like 'Mr' before your name.
- We usually greet friends and acquaintances with Hello/Hi
- In formal situations we use Good morning/Good evening
- Use first name while greeting friends or acquaintances and surname with title (Ms/Mr) for older or senior to you.

A. Below are a few formal expressions used in greeting people and taking leave of them.

- a. Good morning, how are you?
- b. I'm very well, thank you, what about you?
- c. I'm fine, thanks.
- d. We haven't met for quite some time, have we?
- e. It's a pleasure to see you.
- f. It was nice meeting you, but I'm afraid I have to go now.
- g. I must leave. I hope you'll excuse me.
- h. That's quite all right. I hope we can meet again soon.
- i. Yes, we must.
- j. Yes, I hope so too.
- k. Yes, please do come over.
- l. Bye, bye!

B. The following informal expressions can be used to greet people and taking leave of them.

- a. Hello! What a lovely/pleasant/big surprise!
- b. Good to see you after so long.
- c. Hi! It's great to see you too.
- d. How are you and where have you been?
- e. Just fine, thanks. How're things with you?
- f. Hmm, everything is going good.
- g. We must meet and catch up on what's happening.
- h. Yes, let's do that. /We must do that.
- i. Wish I could have stayed longer, but I must run.
- j. Sure, see you sometime. Bye, bye!
- k. See you.
- l. Catch you later. Bye!
- m. Sure, see you sometime. Bye, bye!

Exercise

I. Fill in the blanks with the most appropriate word for these formal and informal greetings.

1. Sunil: "I'd like to _____ you to Maya. Maya this is Hasini."
Hasini: "How do you _____."
 • point...do
 • introduce...do
 • show...go
 • give...be
2. Hasini: "It's _____ to meet you." Maya: "It's my _____."
 • nice...pleasure
 • good...pleasure
 • great...pleasure
 • All of the answers are correct

3. Rohan: "I'm going home now. See you _____. " Pavitra: "_____!"
- tomorrow...later
 - later...later
 - soon...sounds good!
 - All of the answers are correct
4. Rohini: "Hey Sushma. What's _____?" Rohini: "Not much. I'm _____ watching TV."
- on...trying
 - home...sitting
 - going...not
 - up...just
5. Hey there, Kavita, What's _____?
- going on
 - in the way
 - on

2- Seeking/Granting/Refusing Permission

A Below are a few expressions used in formal and informal situations to seek permission.

- a. Could I have your permission to...? (formal)
- b. We'd like your permission to ..., please, (formal)
- c. Could we..., (please)?
- d. Can I... please? (less formal than Could I...)
- e. May I..., (please)? (formal)
- f. Might I/we... ? (formal)
- g. I wonder if I could ... ? (formal)
- h. Would you mind if I... ?
- i. Would you mind my... ?

- j. Do you mind if I...?
- k. Mind if I... ? (informal)
- l. Would it be okay if I... ?
- m. Is it all right if...? (informal)

B Communication will be effective if the following expressions are used in formal and informal situations to grant permission.

- a. Yes, you may. (formal)
- b. All right.
- c. Of course.
- d. Sure.
- e. Yeah. Sure, (informal)
- f. Fine.
- g. Certainly./Most certainly, (formal)
- h. Please do so by all means, (formal)
- i. Okay, (informal)
- j. No. Not at all./No, of course not. (in response to the question)

C The following expressions can be used in formal and informal situations to refuse permission in a diplomatic manner.

- a. No, I don't think so.
- b. I'm sorry, but that would be difficult.
- c. Sorry, but I can't permit you to do that.
- d. I don't think that's a good idea.
- e. I'd rather you didn't.
- f. I'm sorry, but I don't see how that's possible.
- g. Do you really have to?

Exercises

I Fill in the blanks with appropriate responses.

No.	Ask	Permission for	Response
1	Your friend	listening to music on his/her iPod	<i>Can I listen to music on your iPod?</i>
2	Your friend	borrowing a book	
3	A stranger in the bus stop	using his/her cell phone	
4	Your neighbor	borrowing his/her two-wheeler for a day	
5	Your teacher	borrowing some money	
6	An old friend	calling her later	
7	Your teacher	leaving half an hour early	
8	Your principal	paying the fee a month later	
9	Receptionist at an office	smoking in the lobby	
10	Father/mother	going on a trip to Sikkim	

**II. Turn each of the following into polite requests as shown in the example.
Write your requests on the lines given.**

Example: Turn off the fan.
Can you turn off the fan?

1. Open the door. (To a stranger in the train)

2. Send me a mail on this. (To a junior colleague at work)

3. Lend me your camera for a day. (To your neighbor whom you don't know very well)

4. Give us some notes on this paper. (To your teacher)

5. Bye me a drink. (To your friend)

3 Asking and Giving Directions

NOTE:

- When you ask someone for directions, you are making a request for information. Therefore, use the formal and informal expressions you learned in the previous section.
- There is not much difference in the kind of language you will use to give directions whether you are talking to strangers or to people whom you know.
- Use short, simple sentences and clear instructions to give directions. After you finish, check whether your directions have been understood.

A The following words and phrases can be used to Give Directions:

- a. Take a right/left
- b. Got it
- c. I understand
- d. Do you understand?
- e. Go straight
- f. Opposite
- g. Take the first / second / third / right
- h. Go right / left / straight at the light / corner / stop sign
- i. Continue straight on

- j. Turn right / left at the light / corner / stop sign
- k. Get on the bus / main road / Avenue Road
- l. Follow the signs for the theatre / exhibition center / exit

B Common questions to be asked when Asking for Directions.

- a. Is it far? / Is it close?
- b. How far is it? / How close is it?
- c. Could you please give me directions?
- d. Where is the nearest bank / supermarket / petrol bunk?
- e. Where can I find a bookshop / restaurant / bus stop / restroom?
- f. Is there a hospital / bank / grocery store near by?

C Questions asked when Seeking Directions to go somewhere.

- a. Where is the chemist?
- b. Can you give me directions to the nearest bus stop?
- c. How do you get to the metro station?
- d. Where can I find the nearest bakery?
- e. How do I get to park?
- f. Is there a mall near here?
- g. Is there a sports shop around here?
- h. Can you tell me how to get to library from here?
- i. What's the best way to get to the computer store from here?
- j. What's the quickest way to get to a book store from here?
- k. What's the easiest way to get to the nearest Mc Donalds from here?

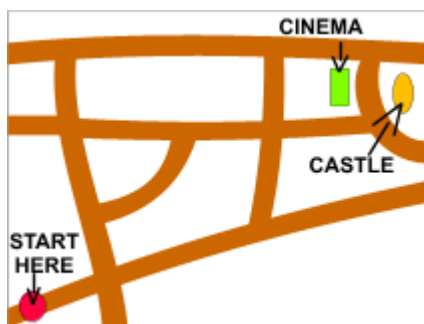
Asking for and giving directions with examples

Excuse me sir. Is there a bank around here?	Yes, there is one right across the street next to Library.
Can you give me directions to the petrol station?	Of course I will, just follow this road until you come to the main road. Turn right and then continue for about 100 meters. You will see the petrol station on the left.
Can you tell me how to get to Rangashankara?	Am sorry I can't help you as am not from around this area.
Where's the nearest bus station?	It's on the corner of 10 th main and 11 th main Jayanagar. Near the shopping complex.
How do you get to the mall?	You have to go straight along this road for about 200 meters. Turn right when you see a temple. Carry on straight ahead till you see a Food world supermarket. The mall is opposite the supermarket.

Exercises

I. Fill in the blanks with the words below. (Use the map for orientation)

continue, end, excuse, get, left, next, opposite, right, second, straight on, thank, turn, welcome



- _____ me, how do I _____ to the cinema?
- Go _____
- Turn _____ at the corner.
- Then take the _____ road on your _____
- _____ to the _____ of the road.
- _____ left there.
- The cinema is on your _____, _____ the castle.
- _____ you very much.

II Give directions to go the bus station from the point X



4 Interrupting a Conversation

NOTE:

- Interrupt or try to get someone's attention only when you really have to. Otherwise wait for the person to finish what he or she is doing.
- Using polite language when you need to get people's attention or interrupt them while they are talking or doing something tells people that you have concern for them.
- Wait until the person whose attention you want to get looks at you before you start speaking.
- Beginning with an apology, for example 'I'm sorry but . . .', is one way of making sure you do not annoy the person whom you are interrupting.
- Respond politely when someone interrupts you or tries to get your attention with expressions such as 'No problem.'
- When asking for clarifications, it is polite to begin with words such as 'Sorry' and end with 'Thanks/Thank you.'
- To make someone who asks you for a clarification feel that he or she has not offended you, use expressions such as 'Okay' or 'Of course'.
- After you clarify something, make sure you have done it satisfactorily by asking questions such as 'Is that clear now?' and 'Right?'.

5 Accepting/ Declining Invitations

Note:

- When you invite someone to an event, give the time first, then the date and finally the venue.
- Whether you accept or decline an invitation, it is polite to thank the person who invites you.

- When someone accepts or declines your invitation, respond by telling them either that you are happy they have accepted it or that you feel sorry they have declined it. But in the latter case, show the person that you understand and are not offended by saying, for example, ‘What a pity! But never mind—maybe we can go out for a meal some other time.’

A Some expressions used in formal and informal situations to invite, and accept or decline invitations.

- We’re having a...
- I’ll be happy if you...
- Would you like to come...
- We’d like you to join us... at/on/on the/in ...
- Would you like to join us?
- We’d love to have you over for...
- We’d be happy if you can come,
- We look forward to seeing you.
- Are you free...? (informal)
- Can you make it? (informal)
- How about coming over for.. .?/How would you like to join us...? / Can you make it? (informal)
- Thank you for inviting me/for the invitation.
- I’d love to. What time? (informal)
- Thanks. I’ll be there.
- We’d be very happy to come.
- Sure, I’d love to./ Great./I’ll be there, (informal)
- I would’ve been glad to come, but I’m sorry I can’t.
- I’d love to, but I have another engagement.
- I’d really like to, but unfortunately I’m busy then.
- I’m afraid I have to go out of town./I’m going to be out of town.
- I wish I could ... but I’m sorry I can’t. Thanks all the same.
- Sorry, but I don’t think I can make it. / Sorry, but I don’t think I am free. (informal)
- Oh, that’s bad. I already have plans.

6 Making/Responding to Complaints

Some common expressions used in formal and informal situations to make complaints and to respond to them.

- a. I'm sorry to bother you but...
- b. I'm sorry to have to say this but...
- c. I don't know how to say this but...
- d. I'd like to make/register a complaint about...
- e. I'm afraid I have a serious complaint to make.
- f. I can't tell you how sorry I am.
- g. I'm sorry about that.
- h. I apologise for...
- i. Please accept my apologies.
- j. I'm awfully/terribly/really/so sorry but...
- k. It won't happen again.

Sample Conversation

- | | | |
|-----------|---|---|
| Executive | : | Good morning sir. How can I help you? |
| Sunil | : | I'd like to make a complaint about this month's bill. |
| Executive | : | May I know what the problem is, sir? Perhaps I can sort it out for you. |
| Sunil | : | Take a look at the number of international calls you have billed me for. The fact is that I don't have an international calling facility, so there is no way I could have made these calls. |
| Executive | : | Yes, sir. I understand the problem. It looks like an error on the part of our billing department. |
| Sunil | : | Please do something about it then. I'm certainly not going to pay for calls that I haven't made. |
| Executive | : | Don't worry, sir. I'll get on to the job right away, and you will receive a duplicate bill in a couple of days. |
| Sunil | : | Thank you. |

7 Congratulating

Note :

- Say 'Congratulations on ...', not 'Congratulations *for* ...'.
- You can also congratulate people without using the words 'Congratulations/ Congrats', for example 'Your new house looks beautiful!'.
- You can add words such as 'I'm happy for you' when congratulating someone.

Frequently used expressions to congratulate people.

- a. Congratulations / Congrats!
- b. Well done.
- c. May we congratulate you on...? (formal)
- d. We'd like to congratulate ... (formal)
- e. Congratulations on your remarkable/wonderful performance.
- f. Congratulations/Congrats. I knew you'd do it/We're happy for you / I'm proud of you.

8. Sympathizing

NOTE :

- The words you use to express sympathy can be followed by offers of help, for example 'Can I do something to help?'.
- It is polite to thank people when they express sympathy, for example 'Thanks for understanding my problem.'

Some expressions used to express sympathy. Complete the expressions in your own words.

- a. I'm sorry/really sorry/very sorry/sad/upset.
- b. It's sad/unfortunate that...

- c. Can I do something to help?/If there's anything I can do to help, please let me know./Is there anything I can do?
- d. Do let me know if you need help,
- e. Count on me if you need help,
- f. Don't worry. Everything is going to be fine,
- g. How unfortunate!
- h. I'm sure the situation will improve,
- i. You mustn't let this depress you.
- j. I feel sad that this had to happen to you.
- k. I hope everything works out for you.
- l. I felt sorry to hear the bad news.
- m. I'm unhappy/grieved to hear the sad news.
- n. This is a terrible/great loss.
- o. I can imagine what a blow this must be to you.
- p. We understand what you must be going through.
- q. I have no words to express how I feel at the moment/to comfort you.
- r. Thanks for your support.
- s. Thank you for being so caring.
- t. Thank you for being with *me*.

Module 9

Vocabulary

Words are important. If you cannot say what you mean, you will never mean what you say. And you should always mean what you say. Paraphrased from the film, The Last Emperor written by Mark Peploe & Bernardo Bertolucci English language has a rich vocabulary. English is not an indigenous language, it has words from Latin, French, German etc.

A Phrasal Verbs

A phrasal verb is a phrase that indicates action. Phrasal verb consists of a verb and an adverb or preposition. These adverbs and prepositions are often called particles when they are used in a phrasal verb.

Eg. Take off= Take(V) + off (prep)

Phrasal verbs sometimes have meanings that you can easily guess. For eg. **sit down**. However, in most cases their meanings are quite different from the meanings of the verb they are formed from. For eg. **Hold up** can mean ‘to cause a delay’ while the original meaning of **Hold** no longer applies.

Below are a few commonly used phrasal verbs.

Phrasal Verb	Meaning	Sentence
blow up	Explode	The terrorists tried to <u>blow up</u> the railroad station.
bring up	mention a topic	My sister <u>brought up</u> that matter of my not clearing the exams.
call off	Cancel	They <u>called off</u> the strike yesterday.
fill up	fill to capacity	She <u>filled up</u> the bags with fruit.
find out	Discover	My sister <u>found out</u> that we had been planning a surprise party for her.
give away	give something to someone else for free	The NGO was <u>giving away</u> free books.
give back	return an object	Amita borrowed my car. I have a feeling she's not going to <u>give it back</u> in the evening.
hand in	submit something (assignment)	The students <u>handed in</u> their assignments and left the room.

hang up	put something on hook or receiver	She <u>hung up</u> the phone as soon as she heard the news.
hold up	Delay	I hate to <u>hold up</u> the meeting, but I have to attend a meeting in my child's school.
leave out	Omit	You <u>left out</u> the part about the police chase down Asylum Avenue.
look over	examine, check	The lawyers <u>looked over</u> the papers carefully before questioning the witness.
look up	search in a list	You've misspelled this word again. You'd better <u>look it up</u> .
make up	invent a story or lie	She knew she was in trouble, so she <u>made up</u> a story about going to a picnic with her cousins.
pick out	Choose	There were three women in the line-up. She <u>picked out</u> the woman she thought had stolen her purse.
pick up	lift something off something else	The crane <u>picked up</u> the entire house.
put away	save or store	We <u>put away</u> money for our retirement. She <u>put away</u> the cereal boxes.
put off	Postpone	Please <u>put it off</u> for another day.
put on	put clothing on the body	I <u>put on</u> a blue sweatshirt.
put out	Extinguish	The firefighters <u>put out</u> the house fire before it could spread.
take down	make a written note	These are your instructions. <u>Write them down</u> before you forget.
take off	remove clothing	It was so hot that I had to <u>take off</u> my coat.

Exercise:

1. Her grandfather always taught her not to _____ deprived people. (look up to / look down on)
2. Stop cribbing and _____ your work! (get on with / get over)
3. The manager wants you to _____ your data for this month. (hand out / hand in)
4. We're going to have to _____ our trip to Lakshdweep until Feburary. (put up/ put off)
5. I _____ Rounak today at the theatre. It was great to see him. (ran out of / ran into)

6. I'm so tired of Sonu _____ her new phone all the time. (showing off, showing up)
7. The government will not _____ to the terrorist's demands. (give up/ give in)
8. I thought I would _____ for a cup of tea. Is that okay? (drop off/ drop in)
9. Have you ever _____ such a nonchalant person? (come forward/come across)
10. It's important to _____ on time. (show up / show off)

B IDIOMS

An idiom is an expression where the meaning is different from the meaning of the individual words. For example, to have your **feet on the ground** is an idiom meaning 'to be sensible' as in:

"Tara is an intelligent girl who has **her feet firmly on the ground**."

Idioms are usually formed using phrasal verbs. For example: After he left me, it took me a long time to **pick up** the pieces = It took me a long time to return to a normal life.

Many idioms are colloquial, which means that they are used in informal conversation rather than in writing or formal language.

IDIOMS	MEANING
Ahead of the curve	Ahead of current curve/trends: Ex- Rakesh is smart: he is ahead of the curve
Back to square one	Back to the beginning Ex- Since the project failed, we are back to square one.
Catch off guard	To make someone surprised Ex- The question caught her off guard.
Get the ball rolling	To start something Ex- We need to get the ball rolling on our project.
Go the extra mile	To go beyond one's expectations Ex- Our manager goes the extra mile to satisfy our customers.

Have deep pockets	To be very rich Ex- My uncle has a deep pocket.
Steal someone's thunder	To take the credit for something someone else did Ex- She stole my thunder!!!
Pinch pennies	To be frugal Ex- As I have lost my job, I need to pinch pennies.
Sweep under the rug	To hide something embarrassing Ex- The President is trying to sweep this scandal under the rug.
Hang in there	Don't give up Ex- I asked him to hang in there.
Up in arms	To protest angrily Ex- The employees were up in arms against the change in the leave rules in the company.
Let someone off the hook	To not hold someone responsible for something Ex- You are innocent. You are off the hook.
Let someone off the hook	To not hold someone responsible for something Ex- You are innocent. You are off the hook.
Once in blue moon	Something that happens very rarely Ex- I go to cinema once in blue moon.
A piece of cake	Something that is very easy Ex- The exam was a piece of cake.
You know the drill	You are familiar with something Ex- You are late and you know the drill.
Ball is in your court	It is up to you to make the decision. Ex- I have surrendered. The ball is in your court
On cloud nine	Extremely happy Ex- Team England is on cloud nine as they won the 2019 World Cup.
Beat around the bush	Avoiding speaking on something Ex- The Chairman was beating around the bush as he was not sure about the proceedings.
All and sundry	Everyone Ex- Government distributed free books to all and sundry.

Apple of one's eyes	A favorite person Ex- She is the apple of my eye.
---------------------	--

Exercises:

I. Choose the correct meaning of the given idiom.

1. Plain speaking
 - a) Steaming hot b) Dreaming hot c) Rancour d) Extreme anger
2. To be at the zenith of
 - (a) to die in an accident (b) To be succumbed to, one's flattery
 - (c) face difficulty boldly (d) be at the peak of
3. Face the music
 - (a) get finished (b) get reprimanded
 - (c) feel sorry (d) listen to music
4. Bandy words with
 - (a) argue (b) oratory
 - (c) speech enthusiast (d) linguist acumen
5. Back up
 - (a) Step aside (b) pack up
 - (c) support (d) withdraw from

II Fill in the blanks with a suitable idiom given below.

sad figure, red handed, made a dash, plays fast and loose, get on my nerves

1. We _____ to the cricket stadium to see Rohit Sharma.
2. Please do not _____, I am already in a crisis.
3. An honest person never _____ with his friends.
4. She cut a _____ in her first performance on the stage.
5. The thief was caught _____.

One Word Substitution

I. Out of the four alternatives choose the one that can be substituted for the given words/sentences in the following questions:

1. One who sacrifices his life for a cause
(a) Patriot (c) Soldier
(b) Martyr (d) R1 evolutionary
2. A person interested in reading books and nothing else
(a) Book-keeper (c) Bookworm
(b) Scholar (d) Student
4. Yearly celebration of a date or an event
(a) Birthday (c) Jubilee
(b) Anniversary (d) Centenary
5. Talking disrespectfully of sacred things is called
(a) blasphemy (c) atheism
(b) heresy (d) apostasy
6. A person who studies the formation of the earth
(a) Meteorologist (c) Geologist
(b) Anthropologist (d) Seismologist

II. In the following questions, out of the four alternatives choose the one that can be substituted for the given words/phrase:

1. The people in a theatre or cinema
(a) assembly (c) audience
(b) crowd (d) Spectators
2. A man who operates on sick people
(a) operator (c) physician
(b) surgeon (d) physiotherapist

3. A book containing summarized information on all branches of knowledge
 - (a) dictionary
 - (b) encyclopedia
 - (c) anthology
 - (d) directory
4. An instrument for viewing objects at a distance
 - (a) telescope
 - (b) microscope
 - (c) periscope
 - (d) kaleidoscope
5. A hater of learning and knowledge
 - (a) illiterate
 - (b) bibliophile
 - (c) misologist
 - (d) misogynist
6. A person who hates women
 - (a) intolerant
 - (b) misogynist
 - (c) bigamist
 - (d) gullible
7. Destruction of unborn baby in mother's womb
 - (a) feticide
 - (b) infanticide
 - (c) abortion
 - (d) regicide
8. A speech delivered without preparation
 - (a) straightforward
 - (b) extempore
 - (c) verbose
 - (d) maiden
9. To kill someone for political reasons
 - (a) homicide
 - (b) murder
 - (c) assassination
 - (d) genocide
10. One who has a compulsive desire to steal
 - (a) pilferer
 - (b) poacher
 - (c) plagiarist
 - (d) kleptomania

III. In the following questions, out of the four alternatives choose the one that can be substituted for the given words/phrase:

1. One who feels at home in every country
 - (a) metropolitan
 - (b) cosmopolitan
 - (c) citizen
 - (d) denizen
2. A statement that is absolutely clear
 - (a) clean
 - (b) confused
 - (c) ambiguous
 - (d) unequivocal
3. The murder of a human being
 - (a) homicide
 - (b) regicide
 - (c) suicide
 - (d) infanticide
4. Incapable of being explained
 - (a) nondescript
 - (b) untold
 - (c) unconquerable
 - (d) inexplicable
5. Handwriting that cannot be read
 - (a) illegible
 - (b) unreadable
 - (c) dim
 - (d) dull
6. A hard nut to crack is
 - (a) a person who is very obstinate
 - (b) any dry fruit like walnut
 - (c) a difficult child
 - (d) a problem which cannot be solved easily
7. A cock and bull story means
 - (a) an unbelievable gossip
 - (b) a children's fable
 - (c) a quarrelsome dialogue
 - (d) a competition between unequal people

8. The gift of the gab means
 - (a) an unexpected gain
 - (b) fluency of speech
 - (c) thought provoking oration
 - (d) a gift from Santa Claus
9. A fool's paradise means
 - (a) a foolish idea
 - (b) an imaginary idea
 - (c) an unexpected gain for foolish man
 - (d) false hopes
10. A man of spirit is
 - (a) a very talented man
 - (b) a spiritual person
 - (c) a very courageous man
 - (d) a unique person
11. A person very hard to please
 - (a) obstinate
 - (b) unexplained
 - (c) fastidious
 - (d) invincible
12. A funny imitation of a poem
 - (a) dialogue
 - (b) sonnet
 - (c) caricature
 - (d) parody

Synonyms

A. In the following questions a word is given in capital letters followed by four alternative words marked a-d. Select, from the alternatives, the word that conveys the same meaning as the word given in capital letters:

1. ABASH

- (a) acquit
- (b) confuse

- (c) blush
- (d) condemn

2. ACCOMPLICE

- (a) friend
- (b) abetter

- (c) criminal
- (d) thief

3. ALLEGIANCE

- (a) disaffection
- (b) satisfactory

- (c) loyalty
- (d) enmity

4. BIASED

- (a) careful
- (b) partial

- (c) expert
- (d) unskilled

5. INTENSIFY

- (a) boiling
- (b) satisfy

- (c) aggravate
- (d) destroyed

6. REPULSIVE

- (a) frustrating
- (b) repellent

- (c) admirable
- (d) pleasant

7. PROHIBIT

- (a) banish
- (b) punish

- (c) forbid
- (d) exhibit

8. CALLOUS
(a) large (c) thick
(b) hardened in feeling (d) dangerous
9. COLLOSSAL
(a) dangerous (c) fatal
(b) gigantic (d) honorable
10. DELUSION
(a) actuality (c) clarity
(b) illusion (d) emulating
11. AMICABLE
(a) poisonous (c) satisfying
(b) friendly (d) heartening
12. BRUTAL
(a) humane (c) ruthless
(b) adamant (d) criminal
13. EXQUISITE
(a) clumsy (c) graceful
(b) rough (d) unrefined
14. CONCISENESS
(a) correctness (c) brevity
(b) frankness (d) refines
15. CANDID
(a) sweet (c) frank
(b) pleasing (d) dishonest
16. BOISTEROUS
(a) boiling (c) noisy
(b) hot (d) dangerous

17. EXTEMPORE

- | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------|
| (a) praiseworthy | (c) extraordinary |
| (b) without preparation | (d) essential |

18. ACUMEN

- | | |
|----------------|--------------|
| (a) beauty | (c) insight |
| (b) appearance | (d) distaste |

19. ABSTAIN

- | | |
|---------------|------------|
| (a) influence | (c) retain |
| (b) refrain | (d) retard |

20. ABASE

- | | |
|--------------|------------|
| (a) low | (c) humble |
| (b) peaceful | (d) cruel |

B. In each of the following sentences one word has been italicized. Under each sentence four alternative words, marked a-d, are given. Select, from these alternatives, the word which conveys more or less the same meaning as the italicized word in the sentence:

- The use of bullock carts is a *superannuated* mode of transportation.

(a) cheaper	(c) quicker
(b) obsolete	(d) rural
- It was a *scurrilous* attack on him.

(a) serious	(c) insulting
(b) unjustified	(d) justified
- Both parties were *amenable* to a peaceful settlement of the land dispute.

(a) agreeable	(c) unwilling
(b) responsive	(d) doubtful
- Unilateral* action may not be acceptable to them.

(a) under pressure	(c) strong
(b) one-sided	(d) harmful

5. The *nexus* between the Punjab militants and the J&K terrorists has been
(a) fight (c) connection
(b) rivalry (d) internal fighting
6. His *fidelity* to the ideals of Mahatma Gandhi was exemplary.
(a) criticism (c) loyalty
(b) acceptance (d) strong opposition
7. We have sanctioned his leave on *compassionate* grounds.
(a) as an exception (c) merciful
(b) legal (d) deserving
8. Jogging is considered an *antidote* to mental stress.
(a) poisonous (c) equivalent
(b) remedy (d) dangerous
9. Bengalis are *innate* poets.
(a) excellent (c) dull
(b) romantic (d) inborn
10. They *connived* to alert the police to the possibility of a bomb blast.
(a) helped (c) forced
(b) to conspire (d) to try

Antonyms

Each of the following questions consists of a word in capital letters, followed by four words or phrases. Select the word or phrase that is most closely opposite in meaning to the capitalized word.

1. TIMID
(a) fearful (c) bold
(b) tasteless (d) busy

2. ANCIENT
 - (a) latent
 - (b) raw
 - (c) recent
 - (d) historical
3. IDLE
 - (a) hardly working
 - (b) efficient
 - (c) untrained
 - (d) quick
4. ADMONITION
 - (a) warning
 - (b) threat
 - (c) fear
 - (d) request
5. SANCTITY
 - (a) sacred
 - (b) obsequious
 - (c) unlawfulness
 - (d) eagerness
6. DISASTROUS
 - (a) constructive
 - (b) demolishing
 - (c) positive
 - (d) none
7. CONSISTENCY
 - (a) stability
 - (b) harmony
 - (c) defective
 - (d) inconsistency
8. SLUGGISHNESS
 - (a) promptness
 - (b) keenness
 - (c) simplicity
 - (d) boldness
9. ACCOMPLISHED
 - (a) over
 - (b) done
 - (c) difficult
 - (d) unfinished
10. CONFIDENT
 - (a) reserved
 - (b) shy
 - (c) timid
 - (d) diffident

11. EXTERIOR

- (a) inward
- (b) interior

- (c) inner
- (d) internal

12. DULL

- (a) clever
- (b) coloured

- (c) bright
- (d) youthful

13. RELIGIOUS

- (a) secular
- (b) sinful

- (c) immoral
- (d) atheistic

14. ACQUITTAL

- (a) warrant
- (b) condemnation

- (c) punishment
- (d) castigation

15. SAGE

- (a) snob
- (b) egoist

- (c) fool
- (d) rogue

16. MOIST

- (a) crisp
- (b) hard

- (c) dry
- (d) parched

17. MASK

- (a) hit
- (b) expose

- (c) injure
- (d) deface

18. CALLOUS

- (a) capable
- (b) hardened

- (c) sentimental
- (d) confidence

19. BEGUILE

- (a) deceive
- (b) charm

- (c) cheat
- (d) persuade

20. VIRTUE

- | | |
|--------------|-----------|
| (a) clime | (c) smile |
| (b) goodness | (d) vice |

HOMONYMS are the words that share the same spelling and pronunciation but have different meanings.

Ex: Lie (untruth)

Lie (sleep/ lie down)

Fair (reasonable)

Fair (village festival/ complexion)

Exercise

I. Frame two sentences using the following homonyms to show the difference in meanings:

- | | |
|-----------|-----------|
| 1. Bear | 7. Right |
| 2. Bank | 8. Close |
| 3. Board | 9. Light |
| 4. Desert | 10. Lift |
| 5. Bow | 11. Coach |
| 6. Left | 12. Train |

Homophones are a type of homonyms that are pronounced alike but have different meanings and have different spellings.

Example:

- Stationary: (Stood in one place)
- Stationery: (Writing tools)
- Bare: (Naked)
- Bear: (Endure/ Wild animal)

II. Fill in the blanks with the appropriate words given in the brackets:

1. The doctor gives right _____ (advice/ advise) to the patient.
2. The young prince was the next _____ (air/heir) of the conquered kingdom.
3. The _____ (aisle / isle) in the crowded hall was narrow to walk through.
4. God was placed on high _____ (altar / alter).
5. A _____ of robbers were _____ from entering the village. (band/ banned)
6. The cracks in the _____ were completely renovated by _____ it with cement. (sealing/ ceiling)
7. The boy had to _____ the poem; in the open _____ though he did not have _____. (site / sight/cite)
8. The _____ cloth became the subject of the _____ for the fashion designing students. (coarse / course)
9. They lost the _____ in the river but managed to reach the mining _____. (ores/ oars)
10. The mountaineers just had a _____ of the mountain _____. (peek /peak)

III Frame sentences using the following homophones so as to bring out the difference between them.

1. Fourth and Forth
2. Cell and Sell
3. Feat and Feet
4. Lessen and Lesson
5. Loan and Lone
6. Rap and Wrap
7. Scene and Scene
8. Soar and Sore
9. Waist and Waste
10. Toe and Tow

IV Fill in the blanks with the suitable words given in the brackets:

1. The _____ of a snow clad mountain is exciting.

A. site B. cite C. sight D. none of these

2. I _____ him very well.

A. now B. no C. know D. none

3. His legal _____ is Sheela.

A. heir B. hare C. hair D. here

4. Naipaul was _____ by the English King.

A. nighted B. nighed C. knighted D. knitted

5. The king died _____.

A. hareless B. heirless C. hairless D. a hierer

V Answer the following questions as per the given instructions.**Question 1**

For the little boy, a lolly was tangible, whereas a promise was not.

The word 'tangible' in this sentence means:

A: basic B: untouchable C: actual D: edible E: none of these

Question 2

Please read the following sentence.

Once Jane lifted her pen and made a start, writing the essay became easy.

If we change the start of the sentence to:

Writing the essay became easy.....

What will the ending be?

A: after starting.

B: after lifting her pen.

C: once Jane lifted her pen and made a start.

D: once she lifted her pen and made a start.

E: None of these.

Question 3

The boy's incorrigible behaviour puzzled his sister.
The word 'incorrigible' in this sentence means:

A: appalling B: reformed C: incurable D: frustrated E: none of these

Question 4

What does this sentence suggest?

A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.

- A: Your own possessions are always worth more to you.
- B: Birds are hard to catch, so hang on to one if you catch it.
- C: To have something is better than having nothing at all.
- D: A trained bird is twice the value of an untrained one.
- E: There is no point in being envious.

Question 5

He was a morose man, so people tended to avoid him.

The word 'morose' in this sentence means:

A: large B: cheerful C: idiotic D: sullen E: none of these

Question 6

Far from being upright and moral, his behaviour showed him to be fallible.
The word 'fallible' in this sentence means:

- A: capable of falling over
- B: weak-kneed
- C: capable of error
- D: immoral
- E: None of these

VI Choose the meaning of the underlined word/words.

1. A pistol is a lethal weapon.

(1) deadly (2) short (3) dear (4) legal

2. Children are vulnerable to abuse. They are practically defenceless.

(1) blackmailed by (2) attracted to (3) injured by (4) unprotected from

3. My grandfather cannot read or write because he has never been to school.

(1) is ineligible (2) is inedible (3) is illegible (4) is illiterate

4. Lisa went to the place for keeping government records and documents to do research.

(1) auditorium (2) college (3) archives (4) museum

5. When we went to Hawaii, we were given a warm welcome by the local inhabitants.

(1) natives (2) hosts (3) guests (4) immigrants

Allotment of Marks and Practical Component

Marks Allotment per Semester

Theory	:	70 Marks
Internal Assessment	:	30 Marks
Practicals	:	35 Marks
Practicals Internal Assessment	:	15 Marks

Practicals for Paper 1

Practicals	:	50 Marks (35+15)
Practical Exam	:	35 Marks
Internal Assessment	:	15 Marks

Components to be tested

- Error Identification in Listening Comprehension
- Error Identification in Reading Comprehension

Question Paper Pattern

Paper 1: Introduction to Basics of Grammar

Max Marks: 70

Time: 3 Hours

Section A

1. Questions on Basics of Communication. 2x4=8
2. Listed below in the following sentence are a few words. Depending on their usage in the sentence, identify the part of speech to which they belong. 05
3. Fill in the blank with an appropriate word. 05
4. Fill in the blanks with the correct form of the word given in brackets (verbs). 06
5. Join the following sentences to make one complete sentence without using and, but or so. 05
6. Rewrite the sentences according to the given instructions. 05
7. Identify the errors in the following sentences. 05
8. Select the correct alternative from the given choices. 05

Section B

Vocabulary (Synonyms, Antonyms, Idioms etc. context based) 10

Section C

1. To be tested on voice. 05
2. To be tested on reported speech. 05
3. On module 8. 06

Question Paper Pattern for Practicals

- Error Identification in Listening Comprehension
- Listening and correcting the errors (Audio) 10
- Reading Comprehension (Audio) 15
- Editing a paragraph. 10

Model Question Paper

Paper 1: Introduction to Basics of Grammar

Max Marks: 70

Time: 3 Hours

Section – A

1. Answer the following questions in about two sentences each. **2x4=8**
 - a. What is communication?
 - b. What is non-verbal communication?
 - c. What are the barriers of communication?
 - d. What are the types of communication?
2. Listed below in the following sentence are a few words. Depending on their usage in the sentence, identify the parts of speech to which they belong. **05**
 - a) I like English club, it's a website.
 - b) My dog eats quickly when he is hungry.
 - c) She is an intelligent girl.
 - d) John and Ravi came together.
 - e) Kodagu is beautiful at this time of the year.
3. Fill in the blank with an appropriate word. **05**
 - a) I like this house _____ the river.
 - b) Put the books _____ the table, please.
 - c) Where do you come _____?
 - d) We borrowed the bikes _____ our uncle.
 - e) Priya is a student _____ Central University.
4. Fill in the blanks with the correct form of the word given in brackets. **06**

The world's most famous clock, Big Ben, _____(stand) next to the Houses of Parliament in London. Big Ben is the name of the bell which _____(chime) every hour. The clock has four faces and _____(keep) accurate time. The bell _____(name) after Sir Benjamin Hall, the man who (give) the task of _____(haul) the bell up the clock tower.

5. Join the following sentences to make one complete sentence without using and, but or so. **05**

- a) She cannot read English. She cannot write English.
- b) We should obey our parents. We should honor them.
- c) The old man is very rich. He is not proud of his wealth.
- d) He had left the country. His letter came late.
- e) The old man was bitten by a snake. He fainted.

6. Rewrite the sentences according to the given instructions. Make necessary changes without changing the meaning of the sentences. **05**

- a) Both her sons never help her in the morning. (begin with-neither)
- b) Both Arun and I walked out of the meeting. (begin with-Arun walked)
- c) My cousin is short, yet he is good basket – ball player. (begin with-in spite of)
- d) The government will raise the oil prices soon. (begin with-the oil prices)
- e) He said, ‘I have not done that.’ (begin with-he denied)

7. Identify the errors in the following sentences. **05**

- a) Everyone have problems.
- b) The police has arrested three suspects.
- c) Both of my brothers is older than me.
- d) Cats and dogs does not get along.
- e) The committee debate these questions carefully.

8. Select the correct alternative from the given choices. **05**

- a) She worked hard/hardly to pass the exam.
- b) He was extremely/extreme impolite.
- c) She is very good/well at German.
- d) She is a very friendlier/friendly person.
- e) They play soccer rather badly/bad.

Section B

1. Answer the following questions. (Multiple choice for a and b)

10

Give synonyms for the following:

- i. Biased
- ii. Repulsive
- iii. Prohibit

a) Give antonyms for the following:

- i. Exterior
- ii. Moist
- iii. Virtue

b) Frame sentences using the following homophones so as to bring out the differences in them.

- i. Hole – whole
- ii. One – won
- iii. Reel – real
- iv. Sail – sale

Section C

1. Rewrite the following passage changing the voice **wherever** necessary. 05

Last year a hurricane was experienced by my family and me for the first time. It was hurricane Ellen, and much damage to our property and neighbourhood was caused by its fierce winds of 200 miles per hour and its heavy rains. The old oak tree in our backyard uprooted and hurled across the roof of our house, creating a large hole through which the rain poured in. Our living room has flooded by the water, which rose to a height of three feet. When we began to think that the worst of the storm was over, we heard a loud crash and looked out the window to see that our car had been hit by our neighbour's fallen tree, caving in the roof and breaking all the windows.

2. Rewrite the following passage in reported speech:

05

One Summer some elephants were very much distressed by the heat, and said to their leader: “We are absolutely perishing, for want of water. The smaller animals have bathing-places but we have none. What are we to do? Where are we to go?”

3. a) Imagine yourself in the following situations. Write a sentence or two using the appropriate phrases/expression you would use in the given situation. **2x2=4**

i. You want to make an urgent call and you do not have your phone. Ask a stranger for his/her phone.

ii. You are in a party and you meet a popular cricketer/actor. Introduce yourself. **2**

b) Ask directions to go to a post office nearby.

Model Paper
Practical Examination
Paper 1- Introduction to Basics of Grammar

Max Marks: 35

Time: 2 Hrs

Instructions:

- Read through the question paper
- Listen to the audio clips
- Each audio clip will be played twice
- Answer all the questions

1. Listen to the first track. Pick five errors and correct them. (5)
2. Listen to the second track. Pick 2 present progressive words. (2)
3. Listen to the third track and identify one proper noun, an adjective, an adverb. (3)
4. Listen to the fourth track and answer the questions. (5)

1. Does Chris like his job?
2. What is Karen's job?
3. Why was Karen sad?
4. Where was the boss when Chris arrived?
5. Why was the dog in the office?

5. Listen to the audio clip and fill in the blanks. (10)

Barbara couldn't take it ____1____. Her upstairs neighbor was blasting his stereo again. She had asked him ____2____ already to turn the volume down. The first time she asked, he was surprised. He said he didn't know that she could hear his stereo.

"Yes," she said. "It's just like your stereo was in my living room. I can hear every ____3____!"

He said he would keep it down. She hoped that he was telling the ____4____. Of course, he wasn't. The very next day, he blasted his stereo. She ____5____ upstairs to remind him of his promise. He said the volume was so low that he ____6____ could barely hear it. She asked him to turn it lower. He said he would try. Barbara could ____7____ that when she re-entered her apartment, the music was louder than when she had walked upstairs.

So, this was the third time. She took her baseball ____8____ upstairs with her. She knocked very loudly on his door. When he opened the door, she screamed at him like a crazy person. She told him she would kill him if he didn't turn the music down and keep it down. His eyes got ____9____. She went back downstairs. She couldn't hear a note.

I can't believe I said that, she told ____10____.

6. Edit the given paragraph.(grammar, spelling, sentence structure) (10)

(A paragraph with the above mentioned errors is to be given.)

Paper 2

Phonetics and Spoken English

Contents

Paper 2: Phonetics and Spoken English

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Module -1

Introduction

English is spoken as a first or second language by a large number of people throughout the world. English is a native language in countries like the United Kingdom, the United States of America, Canada and Australia. In some Commonwealth countries like India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Nigeria and Tanzania English is spoken as a non-native or second language. In these countries, where English is used as a second language it is used for various purposes: official, educational, social and interpersonal. In some countries like Russia, Japan, Germany, France and Italy, English is used as a foreign language. A **second language** is one which is used for various purposes within the country while a **foreign language** is used for mainly for international communication.

Language Skills

LISTENING, SPEAKING, READING, and WRITING are essential components for communication. In a native or first language situation children learn from a very early age to respond to sounds and tunes which they are used to. In due course with the need to communicate they begin to imitate recurrent sound patterns with which they become familiar. In other words, the children begin to make use of speech. This natural acquisition of language is lacking in a non- native situation.

Spoken Language

In a first language learning situation the child's constant exposure to the spoken form of his/her language leads to a rapid acquisition of the framework of the spoken language. But the learning of the second language, often in classroom involves a lot of conscious effort. Hence pronunciation of sounds/words is to be taught carefully. The conscious teaching of pronunciation becomes necessary as a second language is generally learnt later in life, as the second language is learnt after the child has mastered the first language. The learning of the second language is influenced by the first language.

Of the four skills of language we mentioned earlier we are going to concentrate on two skills i.e., listening and speaking, as they are dependent. That is to say your ability to speak well depends on your ability to listen well.

Language Variety

There is usually a standard form of written English all over the world. But even in countries where English is spoken as a native language there are variations in speech. For example, in the UK there are variations between the speech of England, Scotland, Wales and Ireland and again within each of these areas there will be a variety of accents (i.e. ways of pronunciation). Similarly, in India where English is spoken as a second language it has developed a variety of accents. For example, the speech of a Bengali speaker of English will differ markedly from that of a Punjabi or Tamil or Gujarati speaker.

Accent

As there is such a wide range of variation in accent (both native and non-native), it is essential that for teaching spoken English, we follow a standard. One native regional accent that has gained wide acceptance is the Received Pronunciation of England (R.P.). It is the pronunciation of the South-East of England and is used by English speakers. R.P. today is generally equated with the “correct” pronunciation of English.

In many non-English-speaking countries R.P. is chosen as a model. Many dictionaries and English language books use R.P. R.P. is generally used by BBC news readers and serves as a model for Indian news readers too.

The teaching and learning of pronunciation concern the following:

- The sound system (i.e. the segmental features- consonants and vowels)
 - Word accent
 - Rhythm, and
 - Intonation
- } (i.e. the supra-segmental features)

What is Phonetics?

Linguistics is the scientific study of language. It studies speech sounds, grammatical structures, and their meanings. The word *Phonetics* is derived from the Greek word *phone* which means sound/voice.

The following are the branches of linguistics:

- a) Phonetics - the study of speech sounds in their physical aspects
- b) Phonology - the study of speech sounds in their cognitive aspects
- c) Morphology - the study of the formation of words
- d) Syntax - the study of the formation of sentences
- e) Semantics - the study of meaning
- f) Pragmatics - the study of language use

Our study focuses only on Phonetics. Phonetics is a branch of linguistics that focuses on the production and classification of speech sounds. Speech sounds are produced by the interaction of different organs of speech - the hard palate, the lips, tongue and teeth etc.

Speech is the result of a complicated series of events. When we frame a sentence for example, It is raining in Bangalore a number of processes take place. First, you formulate the concept at a linguistic level i.e. in the brain: this stage is said to be *psychological*. Then the nervous system transmits this message to “the organs of speech” which make certain movements and produce particular patterns of sounds: this stage can be called *articulatory or physiological*. The movement of organs of speech creates disturbances in the air: this stage can be described as being physical or acoustic. Since communication generally involves a speaker and a listener, at the listening end the processes involved are *auditing* (i.e., perception of sounds by the listener) and *cognition* (i.e. the decoding of sounds).

The Speech Mechanism

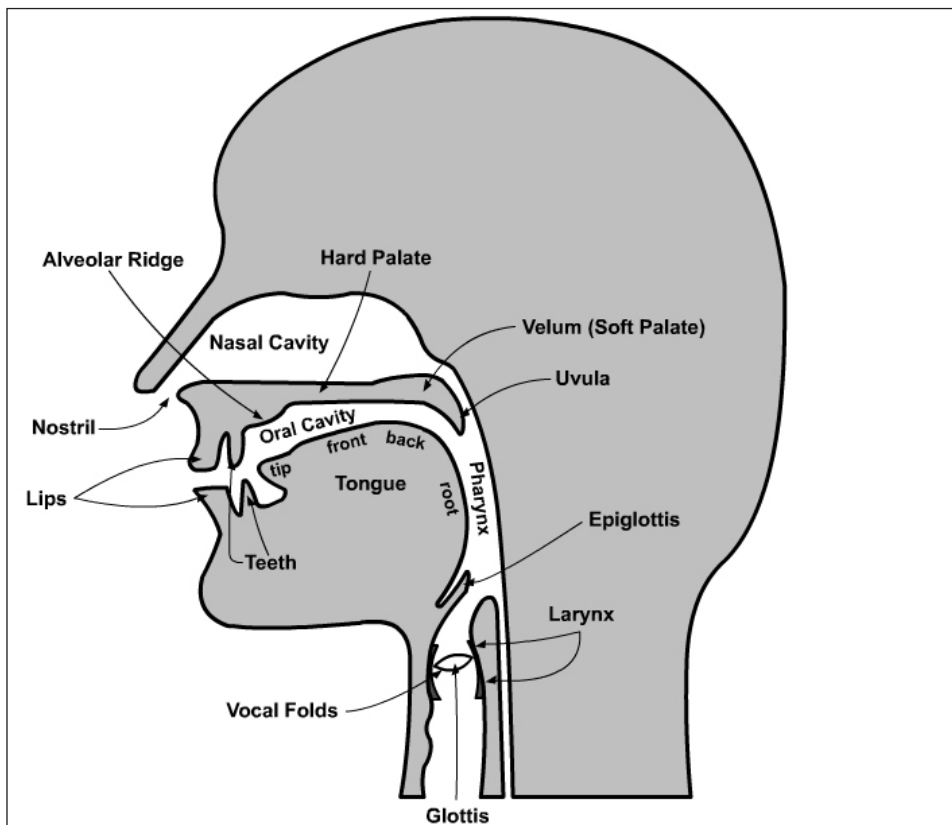
Human beings possess the ability to produce sounds by using certain mechanisms. These mechanisms have other functions to perform such as

breathing/smelling, chewing and swallowing; and these are the primary functions of the organs used for speech. Speech is one such function.

Our body from the head to the abdomen is needed for the production of spoken language. There are three groups of bodily organs which are used: one group lies in the trunk, one in the throat and one in the head. These are:

1. The Respiratory system,
2. The Phonatory
3. The Articulatory system.

These three systems, with very different functions, work together as a unified whole to produce speech (see Figure 1)



Lips.

Teeth.

Alveolar-ridge/Teeth Ridge convex part of the roof of the mouth immediately behind the upper teeth.

Hard palate: the concave part of the roof of the mouth behind the teeth ridge.

Soft palate: the flexible part at the back of the roof of the mouth. The soft palate-can be raised or lowered. The continuous line shows the soft palate in its raised position and the broken line shows the soft palate in its lowered position.

Uvula: the end of the soft palate.

Pharynx: space between the back of the tongue and the back wall of the throat.

Blade of the tongue, including tip: the part which lies opposite the teeth-range when the tongue is in a position of rest.

Front of the tongue: the part which lies opposite the hard palate when the tongue is in a position of rest.

Back of the tongue the part which lies opposite the soft palate when the tongue is a position of rest.

Root of the tongue.

Epiglottis.

Glottis.

Larynx: situated at the top of the windpipe and containing vocal cord.

Vocal cords/folds: a pair of lips placed front to back horizontally in the larynx. Space between the vocal cords.

The Respiratory System

The respiratory system comprises the ***lungs***, the ***bronchial tubes*** and the ***wind pipe*** or ***trachea***. The most usual source of energy for our vocal activity is provided by an air-stream expelled from the lungs. There are languages which have sounds not requiring lung (**pulmonic**) air for their articulation, but all the essential sounds of English need pulmonic air for their production.

The Phonatory System

The phonatory system is formed by the *larynx* or *voice-box*, the front part of which can be seen in adult males as the Adam's apple. The larynx contains the *vocal cords*. The opening between the vocal cords is known as glottis.

The Articulatory System

The articulatory system consists of the *nose*, the *lips*, and the *mouth* including specially the *teeth* and the *tongue*. Although the ear is not part of the speech producing mechanism, we must include it among the vocal organs, because speech is not just produced, it also has to be received - and the main organ of reception is the ear.

The Air-Stream Mechanisms

Three main types of air-stream mechanisms are used in human speech and each mechanism has a different *initiator*. All three mechanisms may be used to push air out (when the air-stream is called *egressive*) or to pull it in (when the air-stream is called *ingressive*).

The *pulmonic* air-stream mechanism is the one which we should consider first. It consists of the lungs and the respiratory muscles. The latter move the walls of the lungs which form the initiator, so that air is either drawn into the lungs or pushed out of them. For the sounds of English and most Indian languages, it is the pulmonic egressive air-stream that is used.

The second of the three air-stream mechanisms is called the *glottalic*. The larynx itself, with the glottis firmly closed, is the initiator. Sounds produced by an ingressive or egressive glottalic air-stream are found in many languages.

We can now consider the third and last of the air-stream mechanisms i.e. the *velaric* air-stream mechanism. Its initiator is the back part of the tongue which can be lifted up so that it comes firmly into contact with the *velum* (soft palate). Certain languages spoken in Africa such as Zulu, use the ingressive velaric air-stream.

The Larynx/Glottis

The pulmonic air-stream mechanism is the mechanism generally used for the production of the sounds of English and most Indian languages. The pulmonic air-stream on its way into or out from the lungs has to pass through the windpipe or trachea, at the top of which is the larynx. Inside the larynx from back to front are the vocal cords, two folds of ligament and elastic tissue which may be brought together or parted. The opening between the vocal cords is known as the glottis. The vocal cords can by their action bring about a number of different states of the glottis. It is enough at this point to distinguish four states. These four states of the glottis are:

- a. open glottis (breath/voiceless state)
- b. glottis in. vibration (voice state)
- c. closed glottis (a state in which a glottal stop is produced)
- d. narrowed glottis (whisper state).

For our purposes in the analysis of English the most important of the four activities are those which result in the production of voiceless or voiced sounds and that which produces the glottal stop.

(a) Open glottis. When we say-that the glottis is open we mean that the vocal cords are drawn wide apart so that an air-stream can pass through them quite freely. This is the state of the glottis for normal breathing. Any segment of speech which is produced with the glottis open is said to be voiceless or breathed (see Figure 2a).

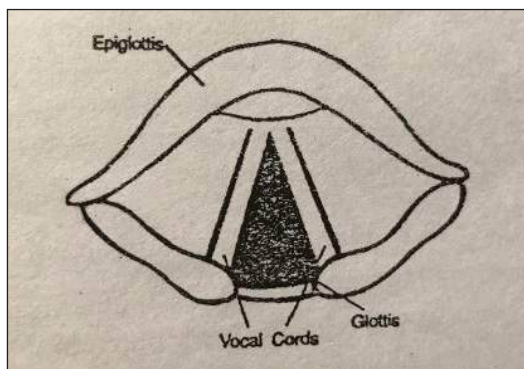


Figure 2(a)

Vocal cords wide apart—position for breath and during the production of voiceless sounds.

The initial phoneme in the following English words: pear, tamarind, kite, children, fall, thick, seat, shine and hit for example, [p, t, k, tʃ, f, θ, s, ʃ, h] are voiceless sounds.

(b) **Glottis in vibration.** The glottis may be in vibration i.e., the vocal cords are alternately brought into contact and blown apart by the force of the pulmonic air-stream flowing through the glottis. The vocal cords open and close regularly many times a second. This vibration of the vocal cords produces *voiced* sounds and constitutes the process called *phonation* (see Figure 2b).

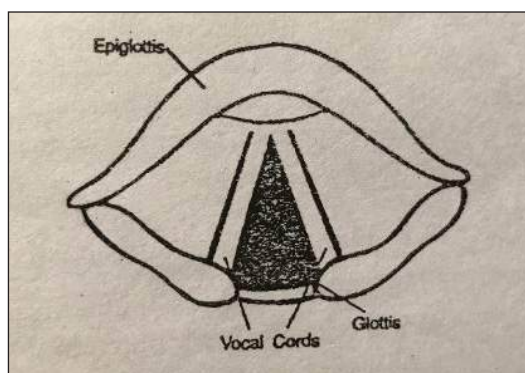


Figure 2(b)

Vocal cords loosely held together and vibrating—position during the production of voiced sounds.

For example, all vowel sounds and the consonants [b, d, g, dʒ, v, ð, z, ʒ, m, n, ŋ, l, r, j, w] as in the English words bat, dog, goat, jack, vase, that, zoo, treasure, mat, note, sing, leaf, rose, yes and wet are voiced sounds.

The distinction between voiceless and voiced sounds is very important in the description of speech.

(c) **Closed glottis.** The glottis may be entirely closed i.e. the vocal cords are brought together with sufficient firmness to prevent the air-stream from forcing them apart. The glottis momentarily assumes this position for coughs, hiccups and for the **glottal stop** [ʔ]

(d) **Narrowed glottis.** The glottis may be narrowed i.e. the vocal cords are brought close together, but not so close that they are set into vibration. The air-stream is impeded by this narrowing as it passes through the glottis. This cuts down the force of the air-stream and produces a soft hissing noise called a **whisper**.

The Soft Palate (Velum)

It is convenient for our descriptive purposes to divide the roof of the mouth into three parts: moving backwards from the upper teeth, first, the **alveolar or teeth ridge**, second, the bony arch which forms the **hard palate** and finally the **soft palate or velum** at the extremity of which is the **uvula**.

The soft palate can be raised or lowered. In normal breathing the soft palate is lowered so that the air can escape through the nose and the mouth. This is the position taken up by the soft palate in the production of **nasalised** sounds (see Figure 3b).

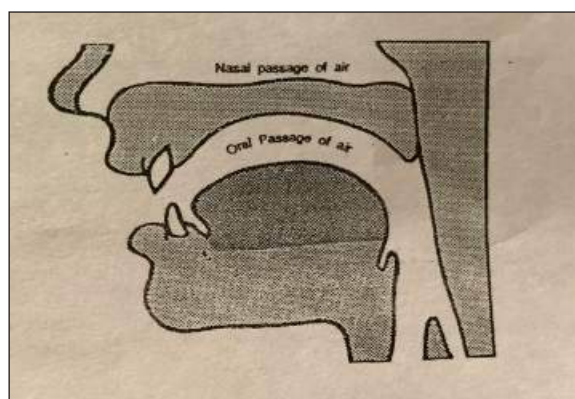


Figure 3(a)

Oral Sounds

The velum is lowered thereby opening the nasal passage of air. Note also that there is no blockage of the oral passage of air. The air escapes simultaneously through the mouth and the nose.

The soft palate may be *lowered* so that the nasal passage is open. At the same time there is a complete obstruction at some point in the mouth so that there is no oral escape of air. This is the position taken up by the soft palate in

the production of nasal sounds (see Figure 3b). For example [m, n, ŋ] as in the English words rum, ran and sing are nasal sounds.

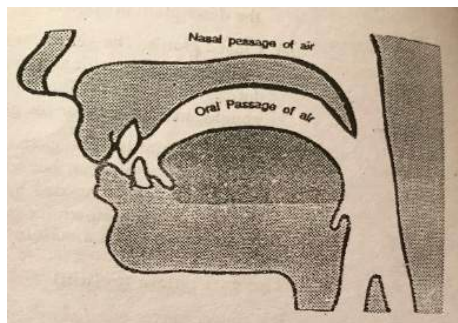


Figure 3(b)

Nasal Sounds

Soft palate (or velum) lowered for the production of nasal sounds. Note that the oral passage of air is blocked by closing the lips. This figure represents the articulation of [m]. There is an alveolar closure (i.e. the tip of the tongue making a firm contact against the teeth-ridge, thus blocking the oral passage of air) during the articulation of [n], and a velar closure (i.e. the back of the tongue making a firm contact against the soft palate, thus blocking the oral passage of air) .

When the soft palate is raised the nasal passage is shut, and what we have is a velic closure. The air then escapes solely through the mouth and sounds produced in this way are called **oral** sounds (Figure 3c). All English sounds with the exception of the nasal consonants mentioned above have this oral escape of air.

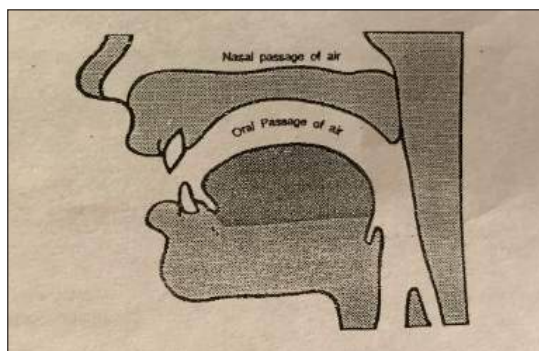


Figure 3(c)

Soft palate (or velum) raised during the production of oral sounds. Note that the nasal passage of air is blocked.

The Tongue

The tongue can assume a large number of different positions for the articulation of different vowel and consonant sounds. For purposes of description it can be divided into: *the tip* or point; *the blade* (which is just behind the point, and lies when the tongue is at rest, lies below the hard palate) and the back (which lies below the velum).

The Lips

The lips play their part in the articulation of certain consonants and vowels. They can assume different shapes i.e. they may be shut or held apart in various ways. When they are held tightly shut, they form a complete obstruction of the stream which may momentarily be prevented from escaping as in the initial sounds of pan and boat. If the lips are held apart the position, they assume may be summarised under headings such as the spread lip position, neutral position, open position, close rounded position and open rounded position.

I Answer the following questions:

1. How are sounds produced?
2. Are sounds of English produced by inhaling air into the lungs or by exhaling air out of the lungs?
3. Name the air-stream mechanism used for producing English sounds.
4. What is the state of the glottis in the production of voiced sounds?
5. Describe the organs of speech and air stream mechanism.
6. Draw organs of speech and label correctly.
7. Describe pulmonic egressive air-stream mechanism.
8. Distinguish between voiced and voiceless sounds. With examples
9. What kind of sounds are produced when the glottis is open?

II Fill in the blanks with the appropriate word or phrase:

1. The organs of speech are divided into _____ system, _____ system and _____ system.
2. The soft palate is also known as _____.
3. When the soft palate is lowered we get _____ sounds.
4. Voiceless sounds are also called _____.
5. The teeth ridge is also called _____.
6. Voiceless sounds are also called _____.
7. Velic closure is caused by raising the _____.
8. The _____ of the tongue lies opposite the hard palate when the organs of speech are at rest.
9. During the production of _____ sounds the oral passage remains closed.
10. Vibration of _____ results in the production of voiced sounds.

Module 2

Description and Classification of Consonants

There are twenty four consonants in English. When consonants are produced there is either a closure or narrowing of the air passage in the mouth. Consonants can be voiceless or voiced, depending upon whether the vocal cords are held wide apart or are in vibration.

IPA symbols for consonants

p	pencil	s	son
b	balloon	z	zero
t	table	ʃ	ship
d	dark	ʒ	pleasure
k	kite	h	help
g	go	m	mango
tʃ	church	n	neat
dʒ	judge	ŋ	ring
f	fan	l	lamp
v	velvet	r	rain
θ	think	j	yesterday
ð	this	w	wet

Consonants are described on the basis of

- a) the state of the glottis.
- b) place of articulation
- c) manner of articulation

State of the Glottis: Sounds produced with the vocal cords wide open i.e. the glottis is open, these sounds are called **Voiceless Sounds**. Sounds produced when the vocal cords are loosely held together and the pressure of the air from the lungs makes the vocal cords open and close rapidly(vibrate) are called **Voiced Sounds**.

Voiceless Consonants: The voiceless consonants in English are /p/, /t/, /k/, /f/, /θ/, /s/, /ʃ/, /h/ and /tʃ/

Voiced consonants: /b/, /d/, /dʒ/, /g/, /v/, /ð/, /m/, /n/, /ŋ/, /z/, /ʒ/, /r/, /l/, /j/ and /w/

Place of Articulation:

Articulators

Articulators are the organs that alter the shape and character of the airstream by modifying it. Two articulators are involved in the production of the consonants. Some articulators move towards the other articulator during the production of speech sounds, these are called active articulators. Those articulators that the active articulator moves towards are called the passive articulators. The passive articulators are the upper lip, the upper teeth, and the roof of the mouth and the back wall of the throat or pharynx. The active articulators are the lower lip and the tongue.

The place of articulation simply involves the active and passive articulators used in the production of a particular consonant. There are several types of consonants depending on the place of articulation. The label used is an adjective derived from the name of the passive articulator.

1. **Bilabial:** the two lips are the articulators. /p, /b/, /m/, /w/
2. **Labiodental:** The lower lip and upper front teeth are the articulators. /f/, /v/
3. **Dental:** The tongue and the upper front teeth are the articulators. /θ/, /ð/

4. **Alveolar:** The tip/blade of the tongue and the teeth ridge are the articulators. /t/, /d/, /s/, /z/, /n/, /l/
5. **Post Alveolar:** The tip of the tongue and the part of the roof of the mouth immediately behind the teeth ridge are the articulators. /r/
6. **Palato- Alveolar:** The tip of the tongue or the tip and blade of the tongue and the teeth ridge are the articulators. /tʃ/, /dʒ/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/
7. **Palatal:** The front of the tongue and the hard palate are the articulators. /j/
8. **Velar:** The back of the tongue and the soft palate are the articulators. /k/, /g/, /ŋ/
9. **Glottal:** The vocal cords are the articulators. Sound produced in the glottis. /h/

Manner of Production of Sound/ Articulation:

The manner of articulation refers to the type of stricture involved in the production of a consonant.

Stricture refers to the way in which the passage of air is restricted by the various organs of speech.

Consonants in English are divided into six groups based on their manner of production.

1) Plosives / Stop Consonants

The stricture may be one of complete closure, i.e. the active and passive articulators make a firm contact with each other, thus preventing the passage of air between them. With a complete closure of both the oral and nasal passages, the air is blocked and when released the air escapes with a slight explosive sound. For example in the production of /p/ as in pot and /b/ as in bamboo, the lips make a complete closure. In the production of /t/ as in time and /d/ as in doll the tip and rims of the tongue make a complete closure with the teeth-ridge and the side teeth.

English /k/ as in kite and /g/ as in gold are also articulated with a stricture of complete closure, the back of the tongue makes a firm contact against the soft palate, In all these cases, the soft palate is in its raised position and so there is no possibility of the air escaping through the nose.

There are three pairs of plosives in RP:

/p, b/ Bilabial

/t, d/ Alveolar

/k, g/ Velar

/p, t, k/ are **Voiceless** and /b, d, g/ are **Voiced**.

1) Bilabial Plosives /p/ /b/

The two lips are closed and thus the air passage in the mouth is shut off completely. The soft palate is raised, thereby blocking the nasal passage also. When the lips are separated the air escapes with an explosive sound. The vocal cords are held apart during the articulation of /p/ but they vibrate during the articulation of /b/. Thus /p/ is a voiceless bilabial plosive and /b/ is a voiced bilabial plosive.

/p/ and /b/ can occur initially, medially and finally in words as in pail, spoon, tap and beautiful, rubber, tub.

2) Alveolar Plosives /t/ /d/

The oral closure is made by placing the tip and blade of the tongue firmly against the alveolar ridge. The soft palate is raised, thereby blocking the nasal passage. The air from the lungs is compressed. When the mouth closure is released, the air escapes with an explosive sound. The vocal cords are held apart for /t/ and they vibrate for /d/. Thus /t/ is a voiceless alveolar plosive and /d/ is a voiced alveolar plosive.

/t/ and /d/ occur initially, medially and finally as in tomb, stop, pat and door, sudden, bed.

/t/ and / d / are inflexional suffixes. The inflexional suffixes (i.e. suffixes used for making past and participle forms of verbs) are pronounced / -t/, / -d / and / -id / (though these suffixes are always represented by the letter –d or the letters –ed). The different pronunciations of these suffixes are governed by the following rules.

- a) The suffixes are pronounced /- t / after voiceless consonants other than /t/.
Examples: kicked, laughed, locked, pushed, stopped.
- b) They are pronounced /- d / after voiced sounds (voiced sounds include vowels) other than /d /.
Examples: begged, called, loved, played, robbed.
- c) They are pronounced /- id / when the root verb ends in / t / and / d /.
Examples: handed, hunted, lamented, landed, wanted

3) **Velar Plosives / k / / g /**

The back of the tongue is firmly held against the soft palate, which is raised to shut off the nasal passage of air. The air that is compressed by pressure from the lungs escapes with an explosive sound when the back of the tongue is removed from the soft palate. The vocal cords are held apart for / k / and they vibrate for / g /, / k / is thus a voiceless velar plosive and / g / a voiced velar plosive.

/ k / and / g / occur initially, medially and finally as in keep, skip, ask and God, beggar, mug.

2) **Fricatives**

The stricture may be one of close approximation, i.e. the two articulators are brought very close to each other so that the space between them is very narrow. The air passes between them with audible friction. /f/ as in fill, /v/ as in velvet, /θ/ as in think, /ð/ as in this, /s/ as in small, and /z/ as in zoo are some examples of sounds produced with a stricture of close approximation.

The air escapes through this narrow passage with audible friction.
There are nine fricatives in RP.

They are:

/f/	/v/	Labio-dental
/θ/	/ð/	Dental
/s/	/z/	Alveolar
/ʃ/	/ʒ/	Palato-alveolar
/h/		Glottal

a) Labio-dental fricatives /f/ /v/

During the articulation of /f/ and /v/ the lower lip is brought very close to the edge of the upper teeth making a light contact with them. The soft palate is raised, thereby shutting off the nasal passage of air. The air passes through the narrow space between the lower lip and the upper teeth with audible friction. The vocal cords are held apart during the articulation of /f/ and they vibrate during the articulation of /v/. /f/ is thus a voiceless labio-dental fricative while /v/ is a voiced labio-dental fricative.

/f/ and /v/ can occur initially, medially, and finally, as in fine, left, life and vet, ravishing, leave.

b) Dental fricatives /θ/ /ð/

During the articulation of /θ/ and /ð/ the tip of the tongue makes a light contact with the upper front teeth. The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage of air. The air from the lungs escapes through the narrow space between the tip of the tongue and the upper front teeth, causing audible friction. The vocal cords are held apart during the articulation of /θ/ whereas they vibrate during the articulation of /ð/. Thus /θ/ is a voiceless dental fricative and /ð/ is a voiced dental fricative.

Both /θ/ and /ð/ can occur initially, medially and finally in a word as in thin paths, bath and then, rather, bathe.

c) Alveolar fricatives /s/ /z/

/s/ and /z/ the tip and blade of the tongue are brought very close to the alveolar ridge so that the space between them is very narrow. The soft palate is

raised so as to shut off the nasal passage of air. The air from the lungs escapes through the narrow passage between the tip and blade of the tongue and the alveolar ridge, causing audible friction. The vocal cords are wide apart during the articulation of /s/ while they vibrate during the articulation of /z/ /s/ is thus a voiceless alveolar fricative and /z/ is a voiced alveolar fricative.

/s/ and /z/ can occur initially, medially and finally as in sin, assist, rice and zip, raised, eggs, zebra

/s/ and /z/ in inflexional suffixes:

The inflexional suffixes (i.e. suffixes used for making plurals and possessives of nouns and simple present tense third person singular forms of verbs) are pronounced /-s / /-z / and /-iz / (though these suffixes are always represented by the letter –s or the letters –es). The different pronunciations of these suffixes are governed by the following rules.

1) These suffixes are pronounced /s/ after voiceless consonants other than /s / /ʃ / and /tʃ/

Examples: caps, cots, coughs, cakes, months

2) They are pronounced / z / after voiced sounds (remember, voiced sounds include vowels) other than /z / /ʒ/ and / dʒ /

Example: buns, bombs, boards, calls, cities, goes, cows, bears, toes, loathes, loves, plays, cubs sons

3) They are pronounced / -iz/ when the root (i.e. singular noun or the infinitive form of the verb) ends in /s / / z / / ʒ / / dʒ / / ʃ / / tʃ /

Examples: judges, bushes, cages, catches, edges, garages, roses

3) **Lateral**

The stricture of a complete closure in the centre of the vocal tract but with the air passing along the sides of the tongue without any friction (lateral passage). This is what happens when you articulate the English /l/ as in love , lamp, all.

During the articulation of / l/ the tip of the tongue makes firm contact with the alveolar ridge. The soft palate is raised so as to shut off the nasal passage of air. The vocal cords vibrate, thus / l / is a voiced .

/l/ can occur initially, medially and finally as in lamb, along, till.

4) Approximants

The stricture may be one of open approximation, i.e. the two articulators are brought close to each other but the space between them is wide enough for the air to escape without friction. All vowels and the English Sounds /j/ as in *yam* and /w/ as in *wet* and /r/ as in *rain* are produced this way.

During the articulation of /j/ the lips are neutral or spread. The soft palate is raised so as to shut off the nasal passage of air. The front of the tongue assumes a position of a vowel between close and half-close and quickly glides to the position of the following vowel. The vocal cords vibrate, producing a voiced consonant.

/j/ occurs initially and medially as in *yes, yellow, yet student*. It does not occur finally in a word.

/w/

The soft palate is raised so that the nasal passage of air is shut off completely. The back of the tongue is raised in the direction of the soft palate and the lips are rounded. Then there is a quick movement of the tongue and the lips to the position for the next vowel. The vocal cords vibrate, producing voice.

/w/ occurs initially and medially as in *wet, water, watch language*. It does not occur finally in a word.

/r/

The tip of the tongue is raised in the direction of the hinder part of the teeth-ridge. The soft palate is raised so as to shut off the nasal passage of air. The air from the lungs comes out of the space between the tip of the tongue and the post-alveolar region without any friction. Sounds that are produced with the tip of the tongue curled backwards are called Retroflex sounds. The vocal cords vibrate producing the sound. /r/ is thus a voiced palatal alveolar approximant.

In RP /r/ occurs initially and medially, (as in *red, sorry*) but only before a vowel sound. /r/ does not occur finally in a word in RP except when a word with a final *r* in spelling is immediately followed by another word beginning with a vowel. Thus, the word *butter* is pronounced /ə/ in isolation.

The sounds /w/ and /j/ are also called semi vowels, as these sounds have phonetic similarities to the vowels /ʊ/ and /i/.

- All the three approximants are Voiced.

5) Affricates

The stricture involved in the production of these sounds is of complete closure and slow release. These sounds begin as plosives but end as fricatives. The active articulator is removed slowly from the passive articulator, thereby friction will be heard. /tʃ/ as in church and /dʒ/ as in judge are the affricates.

The air passage in the mouth is completely closed by a firm contact between the tip and blade of the tongue and the alveolar ridge. The front of the tongue is raised in the direction of the hard palate. The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage of air. The tip and blade of the tongue are removed from the alveolar ridge slowly so the air from the lungs escapes with friction. The vocal cords are held apart during the articulation of /tʃ/ and they vibrate during the articulation of /dʒ/.

Both /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ can occur initially, medially and finally as in chair, actually, teach and jam, suggest, badge.

6) Nasals

The stricture involved is complete oral closure. The active and passive articulators are in firm contact with each other thus blocking the oral passage of air. The soft palate is lowered so that the air comes out of the nose. There are three nasal consonants in English: /m/ as in make /n/ as in nest and /ŋ/ sing.

a) Bilabial nasal/ m /

During the articulation of /m/ the two lips are brought together and thus the oral passage is blocked completely. The soft palate is lowered and the air escapes through the nose. The vocal cords vibrate, producing voice. Thus / m / is a voiced bilabial nasal.

/ m / occurs initially, medially and finally as in moon , summer, tomb.

b) Alveolar nasal / n /

The tip of the tongue makes a firm contact with the alveolar ridge, thereby blocking the oral passage of air. The soft palate is lowered and the air escapes through the nose. The vocal cords vibrate. Thus / n / is a voiced alveolar nasal.

/ n / can occur initially, medially and finally as in name, manner, man.

Velar nasal /ŋ/

The back of the tongue makes a firm contact against the soft palate, thereby blocking the oral passage of air. The soft palate is lowered and the air escapes through the nose. The vocal cords vibrate. Thus / ŋ / is a voiced velar nasal.

/ ŋ / occurs medially and finally as in singing, sing. It does not occur initially in a word.

In RP word-final ng is pronounced / ŋ / (that is, the final letter g is not pronounced as / ing /) . Thus sing is pronounced / sɪŋ / and king is pronounced / kɪŋ /.

Some consonant sounds have been described in terms of the points listed above. For the production of all English sounds and of most of the sounds in most Indian languages a pulmonic egressive air-stream mechanism is used.

1. [P] in the English word pot.
 2. The vocal cords are held apart and the sound is voiceless.
 - i. The soft palate is raised and the nasal passage is closed.
 - ii. The active articulator is the lower lip.
 - iii. The passive articulator is the upper lip
 - iv. There is a stricture of complete closure and sudden release.
3. [d] in the English word deep.
 - i. The vocal cords vibrate, and the sound is voiced.
 - ii. The soft palate is raised and the nasal passage is closed.
 - iii. The active articulator is the tip of the tongue.

- iv. The passive articulator is the teeth-ridge.
- v. There is a stricture of complete closure (the tip of the tongue makes a firm contact with the teeth-ridge) and sudden release.

4. [k] in the English word cold.

- i. The vocal cords are held apart and the sound is voiceless.
- ii. The soft palate is raised and the nasal passage is closed.
- iii. The active articulator is the back of the tongue.
- iv. The passive articulator is the soft palate
- v. There is a stricture of complete closure (the back of the tongue makes a complete closure with the soft palate).

5. [m] in the English word map.

- i. The vocal cords vibrate and the sound is voiced.
- ii. The soft palate is lowered and the nasal passage is open.
- iii. The active articulator is the lower lip.
- iv. The passive articulator is the upper lip.
- v. There is a stricture of complete oral closure.

6. [f] in the English word fish.

- i. The vocal cords are held apart and the sound is voiceless.
- ii. The soft palate is raised and the nasal passage is closed.
- iii. The active articulator is the lower lip.
- iv. The passive articulators are the upper front teeth.
- v. The stricture is one of close approximation. The lower lip is brought very near the upper front teeth. The air passes between them with audible friction.

7. [z] in the English word zip.

- i. The vocal cords vibrate and the sound is voiced
- ii. The soft palate is raised and the nasal passage is closed.

- iii. The active articulator is the front of the tongue.
- iv. The passive articulator is the hard palate.
- v. There is a stricture of open approximation.

8. [j] in the English word yes.

- i. The vocal cords vibrate and the sound is voiced.
- ii. The soft palate is raised and the nasal passage is closed.
- iii. The active articulator is the front of the tongue.
- iv. The passive articulator is the hard palate.
- v. There is a stricture of open approximation.

Three-term label: A consonant can be described by using a three-term label:

/p/ in police is a voiceless, bilabial plosive.

/m/ in matron is a voiced bilabial nasal.

/ŋ/ in ring is a voiced velar nasal.

/z/ in zebra is a voiced alveolar fricative.

Classification of English Consonants

Place of Articulation	Bilabial	Labio dental	Dental	Alveolar	Palato-Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Manner of Articulation								
Plosive								
Voiceless	/p/			/t/			/k/	
Voiced	/b/			/d/			/g/	
Fricative								
Voiceless		/f/	/θ/	/s/	/ʃ/			/h/
Voiced		/v/	/ð/	/z/	/ʒ/			
Affricate								
Voiceless					/tʃ/			
Voiced					/dʒ/			

Nasal <i>Voiced</i>	/m/			/n/			/ɳ/	
Lateral <i>Voiced</i>				/l/				
Approximant <i>Voiced</i>	/w/				/r/	/j/		

Exercises:

I Transcribe the following sentence and describe all the consonants in terms of

- the state of the glottis,
- the position of the soft palate (velum),
- the active articulator,
- the passive articulator, and
- the stricture involved.

Communicative English is my favorite subject.

If a consonant sound occurs more than once, do not repeat your description

1. []
-
 -
 -
 -
 -

2. []
-
 -
 -
 -
 -

3. []
-
 -
 -
 -
 -

4. []
-
 -
 -

- iv.
v.

5. [] i.
ii.
iii.
iv.
v.

6. [] i.
ii.
iii.
iv.
v.

7. [] i.
ii.
iii.
iv.
v.

II Give the three-term label for the following consonant sounds:

1. /z/ _____
2. /h/ _____
3. /l/ _____
4. /ʒ/ _____
5. /θ/ _____
6. /m/ _____
7. /ð/ _____
8. /k/ _____

9. /v/ _____
10. /d/ _____

III Give phonetic symbols to match the following descriptions of consonant sounds:

1. voiced post-alveolar frictionless continuant
2. voiceless palato-alveolar affricate
3. voiced alveolar nasal
4. voiced labio-velar semi-vowel
5. voiceless alveolar fricative
6. voiced velar plosive
7. voiceless dental fricative
8. voiced bilabial plosive
9. voiceless labio-dental fricative
10. voiced palato-alveolar fricative

IV Read the following passage and answer the questions given below:

The person who has had a huge impact on my life is the former President of India, Dr. APJ Abdul Kalam. From Rameshwaram to Rashtrapati Bhawan, his life is literally a story of success attained through sheer hard work and determination. Born to an obscure middle-class family, in the remote island town of Rameshwaram in southern India, he rose to occupy the highest position in the country, i.e., the President of India. Kalam's father owned boats, which he used to rent out to local fishermen. In order to support his studies, Kalam used to sell newspapers. But the hardships did not deter him. He progressed in sure and steady steps through childhood and through scholarships into his first foray into professional life. He did his graduation from St. Joseph's, Tiruchi and specialised in aero-engineering from the Madras Institute of Technology. He worked in the Department of Defence Research and Development Organisation

(DRDO) in 1958 and joined ISRO in 1963. At DRDO, he took charge of the Integrated Guided Missile Development Programme and made significant contribution to India's missile programme. This earned him the title, 'Missile Man of India'.

He became the 11th President of India in July 2002. During his tenure as President, he strongly advocated an action plan to develop India into a knowledge superpower and into a developed nation by 2020. People loved and respected him so much during his tenure as President that he was popularly called the 'People's President'. After relinquishing his office as President, Dr. Kalam has taken up the mission to ignite the young minds for national development.

A. Give the phonetic symbol & three term label of the initial phoneme in the following words.

- | | |
|---------------|------------|
| 1. person | 6. title |
| 2. life | 7. man |
| 3. Kalam | 8. country |
| 4. deter | 9. first |
| 5. graduation | 10. was |

B. From the passage pick out a word ending with each of the sounds described below.

- Voiced bilabial nasal
- Voiceless palato alveolar affricate
- Voiced post alveolar lateral approximate
- Voiceless alveolar plosive
- Voiceless velar plosive
- Voiced alveolar lateral
- Voiceless alveolar fricative
- Voiced velar nasal
- Voiceless bilabial plosive
- Voiceless alveolar plosive

Description and Classification of Vowels

Vowels are produced with an open approximation of the articulators, i.e. the active articulator which is always the tongue (the front, the back or the center of the tongue) is raised towards the passive articulator (which in the case of vowels is either the hard palate, or the soft palate or the meeting point of the hard and the soft palates) in such a way that there is sufficient gap between the two for the air to escape through the vocal tract without any friction. Therefore all vowels are voiced. The size and the shape of the oral cavity change in different ways for different vowels. Vowels differ from each other in terms of the way the size and the shape of the oral cavity change during their production.

Phonetic symbols (IPA)

Short vowels

/i/	sit
/e/	end
/ʊ/	pull
/æ/	apple
/ʌ/	mutton
/ɒ/	cot
/ə/	about

Long vowels

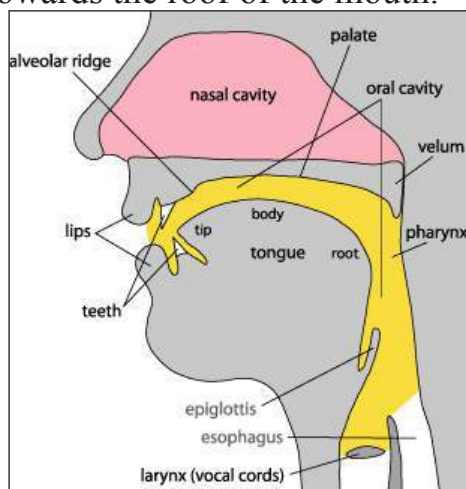
/ɑ:/	car
/i:/	bee
/ɔ:/	caught
/u:/	pool
/ɜ:/	girl

Vowels are described on the basis of:

- The part of the tongue raised highest- front, centre or back.
- The vertical difference between the tongue and the roof of the mouth (the height to which it is raised) - open, half open, close and half-close.
- The shape of the lips- rounded or unrounded.

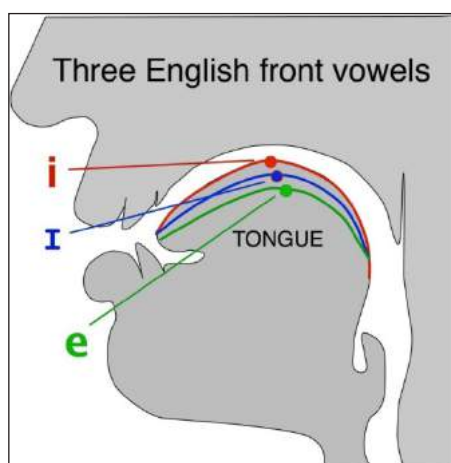
Position of the tongue

The tongue can assume a large number of different positions to produce different vowel sounds, but the upper surface of the main body of the tongue is usually convex. This is because some part of the tongue (the front, the centre of the back) is raised towards the roof of the mouth.



Organs of Speech

In the articulation of vowel sounds the active articulator is the front, the center, or the back of the tongue. If it is the **front** part of the tongue is raised in the direction of the hard palate, then the vowels produced are called **Front vowels**. The vowels in the English words see, sit, bed and bat are examples of front vowels.



Front Vowels

During the production of some vowels, the **back** of the tongue is raised in the direction of the soft palate. These vowels are called **Back vowels**. The vowels in the English words car, cot, caught, look, shoe are examples of back vowels.

Some vowels are produced by raising that part of the tongue which is **between the front and the back (we call this part the Center of the tongue)** towards that part of the roof of the mouth which lies at the meeting point of the hard palate and the soft palate. These vowels are called **Central vowels**. The vowels in the English words bird, cup and in the first syllable of ago are examples of central vowels.

Thus we classify vowels into three categories taking into account the part of the tongue raised. **These are front vowels, back vowels and central vowels.**

The height to which it is raised

When we utter a vowel sound we move our tongue at different levels from. For example to utter some vowels we have to raise our tongue close to the palate and at times the tongue remains far from the palate. From this we can say whether the vowel uttered is open or close. There are eight main categories of vowels according to height of the tongue. They are called Cardinal Vowels and they are:

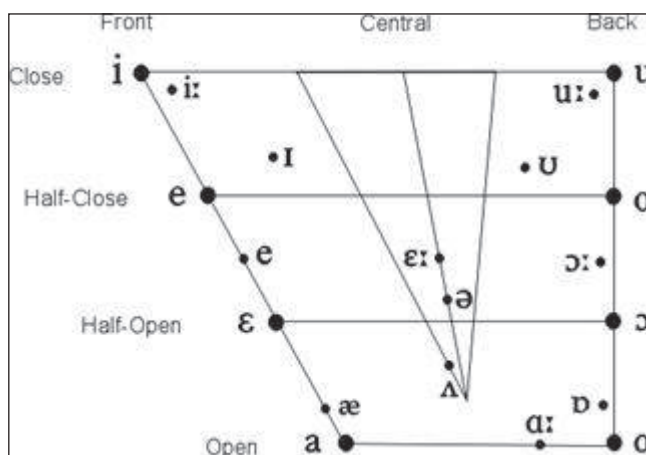
1. Front Close Vowel 2. Front Half Close vowel 3. Front Half Open Vowel 4. Front Open Vowel 5. Back Open Vowel 6. Back Half Open Vowel 7. Back Half Close Vowel 8. Back Close Vowel.

a) Close vowel: Is produced when the tongue is raised so high that the surface of the tongue is very close to the roof of the mouth. Example beat, shoe.

b) Half Close vowel: Is produced when the tongue is between the close and open positions, but closer to the close position than to the open position.

c) Open vowel: Is produced when the tongue is not raised high and there is a great distance between the surface of the tongue and the roof of the mouth. Example: cart, part.

d) Half Open position: Is produced when the tongue is between the close and open positions, but closer to the open position than to the close position.



Position of the lips

A third criterion for the classification of vowels is the position of the lips. A simple classification is based on two categories—rounded (lips brought forward as for the vowel in the word *shoe*) and unrounded or spread (corners of lips pulled back as for the vowel in the word *see*).

Thus we describe a vowel in terms of the following:

- Part of the tongue raised (front, center and back)
- The height to which the tongue is raised (close, half -close, open, half-open)
- The position of the lips (unrounded or rounded)

We can describe a vowel using a three-term label—the term to indicate which part of the tongue is raised, the second to indicate the height of the tongue and the third to indicate the position of the lips. The vowel in the word *see* is a front close unrounded vowel; and the vowel in the word *card* is a back open unrounded vowel.

Description of pure vowels

/ə/	a central, half-open, unrounded vowel
/ɑ:/	A back, open, unrounded vowel
/ɪ/	A centralized front, just above half-close, unrounded vowel
/i:/	A front, close, unrounded vowel
/ʊ/	A centralized, back, rounded vowel, just above half-close position
/u:/	A back, close, rounded vowel
/e/	A front, unrounded vowel between half-close and half-open
/æ/	A front, unrounded vowel just below the half-open position
/ʌ/	A central, unrounded vowel between open and half open
/ɜ:/	A central, unrounded vowel between half-close and half-open
/ɒ/	A back, open, rounded-vowel
/ɔ:/	A back, rounded vowel between half-open and half-close

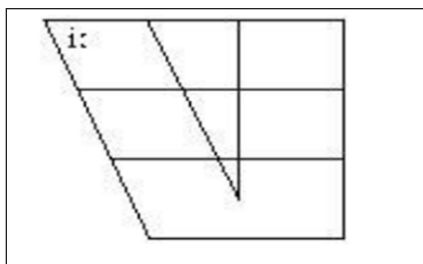
Look at the vowel diagram given below with appropriate labels.



Figure 4 Vowel quadrilateral

Front vowels / i: i e æ/

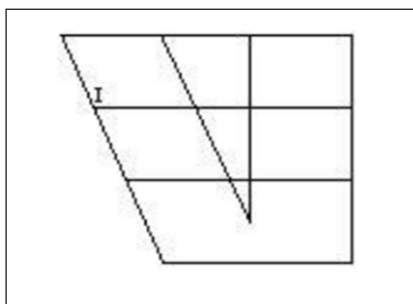
/i:/



In the articulation of this vowel, the front of the tongue is raised in the direction of the hard palate to an almost close position. The lips are spread. The tongue is tense. The vowel is comparatively long. We may describe it as a Front *Close Unrounded* vowel.

The vowel / i: / occurs initially, medially and finally as in eat / i:t / , meat / mi:t / and tea /ti:/.

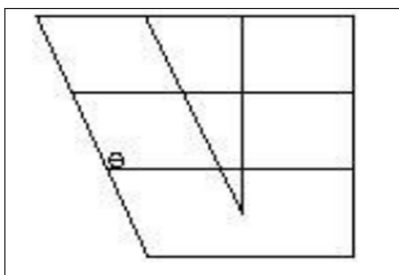
/i/



During the articulation of this vowel the rear part of the front of the tongue is raised in the direction of the hard palate, to a position between close and half-close nearer half-close than close. The lips are loosely spread. The vowel / i/ can thus be described as a Front Unrounded Vowel between Close and Half-Close.

/i/ can occur initially, medially and finally as in it /it/, sit / sit/, city / siti/

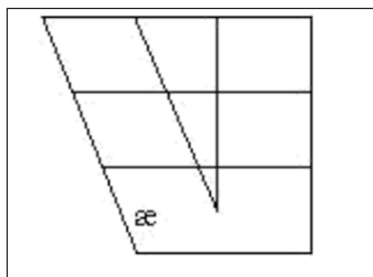
/e/



During the articulation of this vowel the front of the tongue is raised in the direction of the hard palate to a position between half-close and half-open. The lips are loosely spread or neutral. /e/ can therefore be described as a Front Unrounded Vowel between Half-Close and Half-Open.

The vowel /e/ occurs initially and medially as in ate /et/, bet /bet/. It does not occur finally.

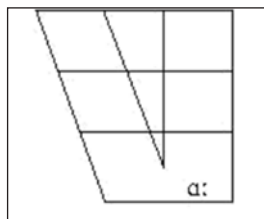
/æ/



During the articulation of this vowel the front of the tongue is raised to a position slightly below the half-open position. The lips are neutral. /æ/ is thus a Front Unrounded Vowel just below the Half-Open position.

The vowel /æ/ occurs initially and medially as in as /æ/, man /mæn/. It does not occur finally in a word.

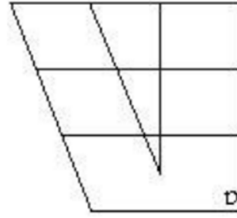
Back Vowels



During the articulation of /a:/ the back of the tongue is in the fully open position. The lips are neutral. /a:/ is thus a Back Open Unrounded vowel.

The vowel /a:/ occurs initially, medially and finally as in art /a:rt/, heart /ha:rt/, far /fa:/.

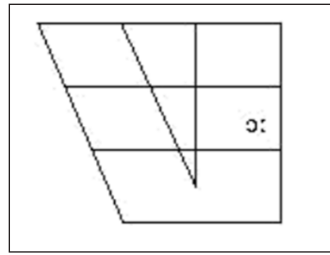
/ɒ/



During the articulation of this vowel the back of the tongue is raised in the direction of the soft palate and it is in the fully open position. The lips are rounded. Thus /ɒ / can be described as a Back Open Rounded vowel.

The vowel /ɒ/ occurs initially and medially as in on / ɒn /, what / wɒt /. It does not occur finally in a word.

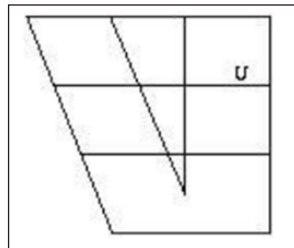
/ɔ:/



During the articulation of this vowel, the back of the tongue is raised in the direction of the soft palate, to a height between half-close and half-open. The lips are rounded. It is a long vowel. /ɔ:/ is thus a Back Rounded Vowel between Half-Close and Half-Open.

The vowel / ɔ:/occurs initially, medially and finally as in order /ɔ:də /, bought / bɔ:t/ law / lɔ: /

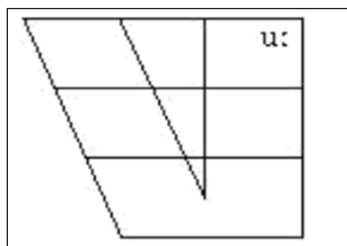
/u/



During the articulation of this vowel the back of the tongue is raised to a position between close and half-close. The lips are loosely rounded. /ʊ/ is thus a centralised Back Rounded Vowel between Close and Half-Close.

The vowel / ʊ / does not occur initially. It occurs medially as in look/ lʊk /. In the word-final position it occurs only in the weak forms of words like to /tʊ/, do /dʊ/

/ u: /

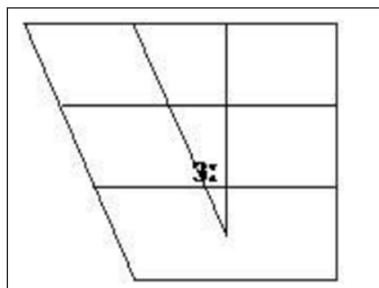


During the articulation of this vowel the back of the tongue is raised in the direction of the soft palate, almost to a close position. The lips are closely rounded. /u:/ is thus a Back Close Rounded Vowel.

The vowel /u:/ occurs initially, medially and finally as in ooz /u:z/, stool /stu:l /, shoe /ʃu:/.

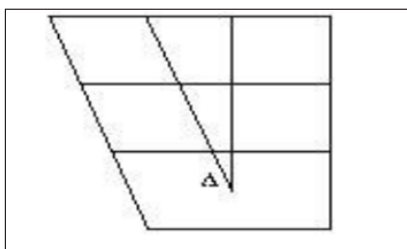
Central Vowels /ɜ: ʌ ə/

/ ɜ: /



During the articulation of /ɜ:/ the center of the tongue is raised in the direction of the roof of the mouth where the hard and soft palates meet to a position between half-close and half-open. The lips are neutral. It is a central vowel. RP / ɜ: / is thus a Central Unrounded Vowel between Half-Close and Half-Open. The vowel / ɜ: / occurs initially, medially and finally as in earth / ɜ:θ /, turn / tɜ:n/, fur /fɜ:/

/ ʌ /



During the articulation of this vowel, the center of the tongue (i.e. the part of the tongue between the front and the back) is raised to a position between open and half-open. The lips are neutral. / ʌ / is thus a Central Unrounded Vowel between Open and Half-Open.

The vowel / ʌ / occurs initially and medially as in up / ʌp / mutton / mʌtn /. It does not occur finally.

/ ə /

During the articulation of / ə / (when it occurs in non-final positions) the center of the tongue is raised to a position between half-close and half-open. The lips are neutral. Non-final / ə / is thus a Central Unrounded Vowel between Half-Close and Half-Open.

If the vowel occurs in the word-final position, the center of the tongue is raised to the half-open position. The lips are neutral. Final / ə / is thus a Central Half-Open Unrounded vowel.

The vowel / ə / occurs initially, medially and finally as in the first syllable of aloud / ə /, the second syllable of purpose / ə /, the last syllable of father / ə /.

In RP / ə / is a very frequently occurring vowel, but it occurs only in unstressed syllables.

Diphthongs

‘Diphthongs’ are vowel glides within one syllable. They may be said to have a first element (the starting point) and a second element (the point in the direction of which the glide is made).

The R.P. diphthongs have as their first element sounds in the general region of /ɪ, e, a, ə, ʊ/ and for their second element /ɪ, ʊ, ə/. These elements may be treated as separate phonemic entities.

The following generalizations apply to all the R.P. diphthongs:

1. Most of the length and stress associated with the glide is concentrated on the first

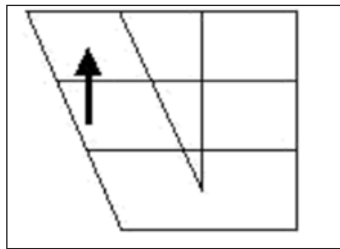
element, the second element being only lightly sounded.

2. They are equal in length to the long vowels and are subject to the same variations of quality, e.g. plays /pleɪz /, place /pleɪs/. The reduced forms show considerable shortening of the first element.

There are five closing diphthongs they are /eɪ, aɪ, ɔɪ, əʊ, aʊ /

We shall now look the description for each one of them.

eɪ/

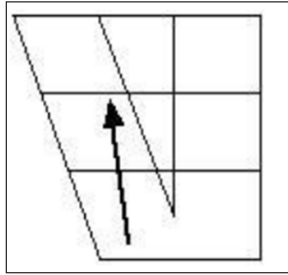


1. /eɪ/ as in ‘day- The glide begins slightly below the half-close front position and moves in the direction of R.P. /ɪ/, there being a slight closing movement of the lower jaw; the lips are spread. The starting point is therefore somewhat closer than R.P. /e/ of ‘bet’.

Spellings

- a) a ape, late, make, lady, waste, bass.
- b) ai, ay day, may, waist, rail, aim, rain.
- c) ei, ey eight, veil, weigh, rein, they, whey.
- d) ea great, steak, break.

/aɪ/

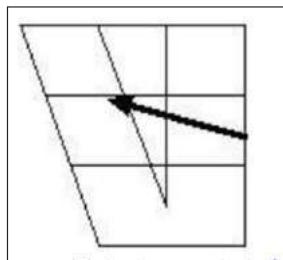


2. The glide of R.P. /aɪ/ begins at a point slightly behind the front open position and moves in the direction of the position associated with R.P. /ɪ/. The glide is much more extensive than that of /eɪ/, the closing movement of the lower jaw being obvious. The starting point may be similar to the articulation used in the advanced R.P. type of /ʌ/. The lips change from a neutral to a loosely spread position.

Spellings

- a.) I y time, write, bite, climb, cry, dry, by.
- b) igh eight, high, light, fight, might, height.
- c) ie ye die, lie, pie, tried, dye.
- d) ei ai either, aisle.

/ɔɪ/



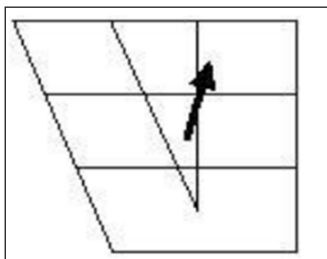
3. For /ɔɪ/ the tongue glide begins at a point between the back half-open and open positions and moves in the direction of /ɪ/. The tongue movement extends from back to centralized front, but the range of closing in the glide is not as great as for /aɪ/; the jaw movement, though considerable, may not be as marked as in the case of /aɪ/. The lips are open-rounded for the first element, changing to neutral for the second.

Spelling

a. oi, oy boy, toy, noise, voice, boil, point.

This diphthong does not present very great difficulties to the foreign learners, provided that, in addition to the appropriate variations of quantity, the quality of the first element lies between the sounds of R.P. /ɔ:/ and /ɒ/. The glide does not extend beyond the half-close front level

/əʊ/ as in 'home'

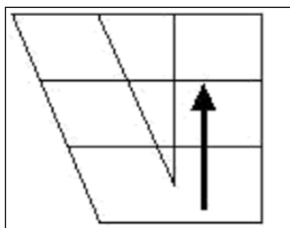


4. The glide of R.P. /əʊ/ begins at a central position between half-close and half-open and moves in the direction of R.P. /ʊ/, there being a slight closing movement of the lower jaw; the lips are neutral for the first element, but have a tendency to round on the second element.

Spellings

- a) o so, old, home, both, folk.
- b) oa oak, road, foal, toast, soap.
- c) oe toe, doe, sloe, foe, hoe.
- d) ou ow soul, though, shoulder, snow, blow.

/aʊ/



5. The glide of R.P. /aʊ/ begins at a point between the back and front open positions, slightly more fronted than the position for R.P. /a:/ and moves in the direction of R.P. /ʊ/, though the tongue may not be raised higher than the half-close level. The glide is much more extensive than that used for /əʊ/ and is symmetrically opposed to the front glide of /aɪ/. The lips change from a neutrally open to a weakly rounded position.

Spellings

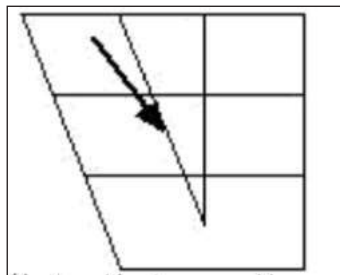
- a) ou, ow house, sound, cow, allow
- b) Long in how, loud, town, cows.
- c) Reduced in 'shout, about, mouse, mouth.'
- d) /ɪ/ following in 'cowl, fowl, owls.'

Diphthongs + /ə/

All the preceding diphthongal glides /eɪ, aɪ, ɔɪ, ʊɪ, aʊ/ are falling (i.e. with length and stress on the first element) and closing (i.e. gliding from a more open to a closer position); three of them /aɪ, ɔɪ, aʊ/ require an extensive movement of the tongue. All may be followed by /ə/ within the word, either as an inseparable part of the word as in 'fire, choir, iron, hire, society, sour, tower' etc., or as a suffix appended to the root as in 'grayer, player, slower, mower, higher, drier, employer' such cases a third vocalic element /ə/ may be added to the two elements of the diphthongal glide.

Centering Diphthongs: /ɪə, eə, ʊə/

- a. /ɪə/

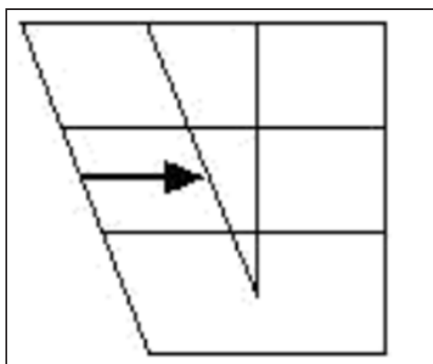


6. The glide of R.P. /ɪə/ begins with a tongue position approximately that used for /ɪ/, i.e., centralized front half-close and moves in the direction of the more open variety of /ə/ when /ɪə/ is final in the word; in non-final positions as in 'beard, fierce' the glide may not be so extensive, the quality of the /ə/ element being of a mid-type. The lips are neutral throughout, with a slight movement from spread to open.

Spellings

- a) eer ear, ere deer, dear, tear.
- b) eir ier ir weird, fierce, fakir.
- c) ea ia eu eo idea, Ian, museum, theological

/eə/

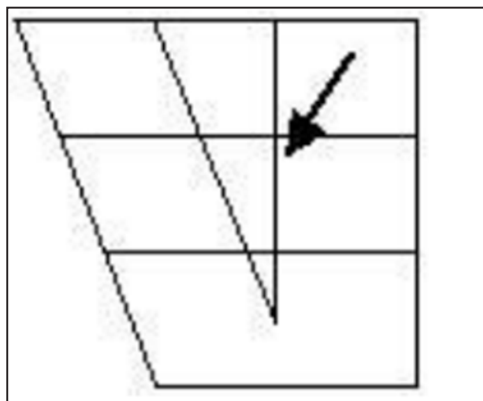


7. The glide of R.P. /eə/ begins in the half open front position and moves in the direction of the more open variety of /ə/, especially when the diphthong is final where it occurs in a syllable closed by a consonant the /ə/ element tends to be of a mid-type. The lips are neutrally open throughout.

Spellings

- a) are care, rare, share, mare.
- b) air air, fair, pair, chair.
- c) ear bear, pear, wear, tear.

/ʊə/



8. RP /ʊə/- glides from a tongue position similar to that used for /ʊ/ towards the more open type of /ə/, which forms the end-point of all three centering diphthongs with a somewhat closer variety of /ə/ when the diphthong occurs in a closed syllable. The lips are weakly rounded at the beginning of the glide, becoming neutrally spread as the glide progresses.

Spellings

- a) oor poor, moor.
- b) ure pure, endure, cure, sure.
- c) ur curious, spurious, during, security.
- d) ewer sewer.
- e) our tour, dour, gourd.

It also occurs in words like jewel, fluent, Care should be taken to use the first element of a half-close kind rather than a quality resembling that of /u:/. In addition, the spelling 'r' should not be pronounced, except when a /r/ link is made before a following vowel, either occurring initially in the next word as in 'poor old man' or in the following syllable of the same word as in 'tour, touring' etc.

Description of diphthongs

/eɪ/	A glide from a front, unrounded vowel just below half-close to a centralized, front, unrounded vowel just above half-close
/aɪ/	A glide from a front, open, unrounded vowel to a centralized, front, unrounded vowel just above half-close
/ɔɪ/	A glide from a back, rounded vowel between open and half-open position to a front, unrounded vowel just above half-close position
/ɪə/	A glide from a centralized front unrounded vowel just above half-close to a central, unrounded vowel between a half-close and half-open
/eə/	A glide from a front, half-open unrounded vowel to a central, unrounded vowel between a half-close and half-open
/ʊə/	A glide from a centralized, back rounded vowel just above half-close to a central, unrounded vowel between a half-close and half-open
/aʊ/	A glide from back ,open, unrounded position to a centralized, back, rounded vowel just above the half-close position
/əʊ/	A glide from a central, unrounded vowel between half-close and half-open to a centralized, back rounded vowel just above the half-close position.

Exercises

Read the following passage and answer the questions given below:

Dinosaurs were the dominant terrestrial vertebrates for over 160 million years, from the late Triassic period (about 230 million years ago) until the end of the Cretaceous period (about 65 million years ago). They were one of the several kinds of prehistoric reptiles that lived during the Mesozoic Era, ‘the Age of Reptiles’. These fascinating groups of reptiles were of different sizes and types. Some walked on two legs (bipedal), some walked on four (quadrupedal) and some could do both. Some walked speedily like Velociraptor and some walked

slowly like Ankylosaurus. Some were armour-plated; some had horns, crests, spikes or frills. Some had thick, bumpy skin and some even had primitive feathers. These dinosaurs developed from the reptiles who emerged on the dry land from the swampy waters which covered the earth. There were tiny as well as giant dinosaurs. The largest dinosaurs were over 100 feet long and upto 50 feet tall like Argentinosaurus and Seismosaurus. The smallest dinosaurs were about the size of chickens.

Earlier the scientists believed that dinosaurs were sluggish, unintelligent and cold-blooded animals. But the research conducted in the 1970s confirmed that the dinosaurs were active animals, who could make numerous adaptations for social interactions. Scientists believe that some of them lived in families where adults took care of the young

1. Give the phonetic symbol and three term label / description for the initial phoneme in the following words.

- | | |
|-----------|------------------|
| 1. Over | 6. Earth |
| 2. Age | 7. Unintelligent |
| 3. on | 8. As |
| 4. Armour | 9. Upto |
| 5. Even | 10. Of |

2. From the passage given pick out a word with each of the sounds described below.

1. A back open unrounded vowel.
2. A central unrounded vowel between half close and half open.
3. The diphthong /ai/
4. A front, close unrounded vowel.
5. A centralized front unrounded vowel just above half close.
6. A central unrounded vowel between open and half open.
7. A back, close, rounded vowel.
8. A back rounded vowel between half open and half close.
9. The diphthong /au/
10. A central half open unrounded.

Module 3

Minimal Pairs

Minimal pairs are pairs of words whose pronunciation differ at only one segment (in a single sound). This segment can be either a vowel or a consonant sound.

The following are a few minimal pairs.

1.	/ɪ /	/i:/	Let	lit
	Ship	sheep		
	Sit	seat		
	It	ease		
2.	/æ /	/a:/	7.	/æ /
	Hat	heart		/ʌ /
	Cat	cart		hat
	Bad	bard		hut
3.	/ʌ /	/a:/		bat
	Cut	cart		but
	Hut	heart		lack
	Much	march		luck
4.	/ʊ /	/u:/	8.	/eɪ /
	Should	shooed		/e/
	Would	wooded		Late
	Full	fool		let
5.	/æ /	/e/		Wait
	Had	head		wet
	Dad	dead		Mate
	Bad	bed		met
6.	/e/	/ɪ /	9.	/eə /
	Pen	pin		/ɪə /
	Den	din		Mare
				mere
				Bare
				beer
				Hare
				hear
			10.	/eɪ /
				/eə /
				Day
				dare
				Hay
				hare
				Hey
				hair
			11.	/a:/
				/ɜ:/
				Hard
				heard
				Bard
				bird
				Card
				curd
			12.	/ɒ /
				/əʊ /
				Cot
				coat
				Got
				goat

	Not	note		Set	said
13.	/ ɒ /	/ ʌ /		Tip	dip
	Cot	cut	19.	/ tʃ /	/ dʒ /
	Not	nut		Chug	jug
	Pot	putt		Chin	gin
14.	/ ʌ /	/ 3:/		Cheap	jeep
	Cut	curt	20.	/ f/	/v /
	Hut	hurt		Fan	van
	Luck	lurk		Leaf	leave
15.	/p /	/ b/		Few	view
	Pin	bin	21.	/ v/	/w /
	Peak	beak		Vine	wine
	Pill	bill		Vest	west
16.	/ s/	/ z/		Vow	wow
	seal	zeal	22.	/ k/	/ g/
	ice	eyes		Came	game
	sip	zip		Cap	gap
17.	/ ʃ /	/ s/		Back	bag
	Shine	sign	23.	/r/	/l/
	Shave	save		Rip	lip
	She	see		Rake	lake
18.	/ t/	/ d/		Ramp	lamp
	Ten	den			

Exercises:

- I From the jumbled group of words given below identify minimal pairs:
Eg. hit - heat river, back shave, nut, liver, curd, chain, bag, Jane, save, not, card, lunch, hard, heard, punch.
- II From the jumbled group of words given below identify minimal pairs:
but, sad, lack, heart, den, luck, their, din, said, thief, should, had, part, shooed, that.

Module 4

Native Language Influence on English

English is a language that has no one-to-one correspondence between the spelling and sounds. This creates a problem for many non-native speakers. The non-native speakers are also influenced by their native language and speak with a slight regional language accent. At times this is not understood and could lead to ineffective/unintelligible communication. Some Indian languages have nasalized sounds as such the speakers convert all English voiceless sounds to voiced sounds. Example /ʌŋkl/ is pronounced as /ʌŋkul/.

The following are a few commonly mispronounced words:

Word	Mispronounced	Correct Pronunciation
Vest	/west/	/vest/
paint	/pent/	/peɪnt/
Assistant	/əsɪstənt/	/ə'sɪstənt/
Peas	/pi:s/	/pi:z/
Knees	/ni:s/	/ni:z/
Lord	/la:d/	/lɔ:d/
Paper	/pæpər/	/ˈpeɪpə/
Child	/cheild/	/tʃaɪld/
Apple	/a:pəl/	/æpl/
Breakfast	/breaka:st/	brekfəst/
Onion	/ʊnjən/	/ˈʌnjən/
Cough	/kʌf/	/kɒf/
Plumber	/plʌbər/	/ˈplʌmə/
Lion	/lɔɪn/	/laɪən/
Doctor	/da:ktər/	/ˈdɒktə/
Leisure	/legər/	/ˈleɪʒə/
People	/pi:pəl/	/ˈpi:pl/
Biscuit	/bɪskt/	/ˈbɪskɪt/
Lawyer	/laɪr/	/ˈlɔ:jə/

Care is to be taken while pronouncing some words where some letters are Silent. Below is a list of such words:

1. In the spelling sequence ‘**dj**’, ‘**d**’ is silent.

Spelling	Pronunciation
adjective	/ædʒɪktɪv/
adjust	/ədʒʌst /

2. The letter ‘**h**’ is silent in the sequence ‘**gh**’ and in the word final position.

Spelling	Pronunciation
ghost	/gəʊst/
ghastly	/ gɑːstli/

3. The letter ‘**b**’ is always silent in the sequences ‘**mb**’ and ‘**bt**’ in word final position.

Spelling	Pronunciation
Limb	/lim/
Lamb	/læm/
Doubt	/daʊt/
Debt	/det/
Plumber	/plʌmə/
Subtle	/sʌtl/

4. The letter ‘**t**’ is silent when it occurs between ‘**s**’ and ‘**l**’ or ‘**s**’ and ‘**en**’.

Spelling	Pronunciation
castle	/kɑːs(ə)l/
whistle	/ wɪs(ə)l/
fasten	/fɑːs(ə)n/
listen	/lɪs(ə)n/

5. The letter 'k' is silent in the sequence 'kn' when this comes in the initial position in words.

Spelling

knee

know

Pronunciation

/ni:/

/nəʊ/

6. When the sequence of letters 'lk' and 'lm' come at the end of a word, the letter 't' is silent.

Spelling

talk

walk

balm

calm

Pronunciation

/tɔ:k/

/wɔ:k/

/bɑ:m/

/kɑ:m/

7. The letter 'n' is silent in the word-final sequence 'mn'.

Spelling

autumn

column

Pronunciation

/ɔ:təm/

/kɒləm/

8. The letter 'g' is silent in the spelling sequence 'gm' or 'gn'.

Spelling

phlegm

paradigm

gnaw

sign

Pronunciation

/flem/

/pærədaim/

/nɔ:/

/saɪn/

9. The letter 'w' is silent in the final position in words.

Spelling

claw

blow

Pronunciation

/klɔ:/

/bləʊ/

10. The letter 'w' is silent in the following 'wh' word-initial sequences.

Spelling

who

whom

whose

whole

Pronunciation

/hu:/

/hu:m/

/hu:z/

/həʊl/

PRONUNCIATION OF THE LETTER SEQUENCE 'NG'

- a. The letters 'ng' are pronounced /ŋ/ in the word-final position. For example:
 bring running
 song hitting

- b. In the middle of words, 'ng' is pronounced /ŋ/ in words formed from other words ending in /ŋ/. For example:
 singer things
 hanger ringing
 brings fillings

- c. In all other cases, 'ng' is pronounced /ŋg/. For example:
 finger hunger anger

Exercise

1. In each of the following sets, circle the words in which a letter (s) are not pronounced and underline the letters.
 - a. milk talk whole half yolk
 - b. foreign signature reign benign resignation
 - c. heir herb exhaust exhibition white
 - d. numb plumber tumble dumb thumb
 - e. swan answer sword swear wrist
 - f. psalm psychology receipt pneumonia concept
 - g. hasten ballet bullet thistle ballot
 - h. subtle butcher Wednesday edge

Module 5

THE SYLLABLE

A syllable comes after a phoneme in the hierarchy of speech sounds. A unit of human speech that is interpreted by the listener as a single sound, although syllables usually consist of one or more vowel sounds, either alone or combined with the sound of one or more consonants; a word consists of one or more syllables (Oxford Dictionary).

Examples: The word *Dog* /dɒg/ has one syllable

The word *English* /ɪŋɡlɪʃ/ has two syllables; the syllables are /ɪŋg/ and /lɪʃ/

Words like cat, book and toy are made up of one syllable and are called monosyllabic words; words like paper, pencil and bottle are made up of two syllables; words like computer, important and remember have three syllables; a word like intonation has four syllables; a word like examination has five syllables.

Syllable division is usually marked with a hyphen, examples: pa-per, com-pu-ter, in-to-na-tion and e-xa-mi-na-tion. It is always not possible to mark syllable division in the spelling form therefore the words are to be transcribed to facilitate syllable division. the transcription indicates the actual way in which the word is pronounced For example, the syllable division in following words is marked as: *phonetics* /fə - 'ne - tɪks/ *linguistics* /lɪŋ - 'ɡwɪs - tɪks/ and *grammar* /'græ - mə/

Syllable Structure

A syllable can be analysed in terms of its segments i.e. consonants and vowels. A consonant functions as a marginal element. If the consonant occurs at the beginning of a syllable it is called as a **releasing consonant** and the one that occurs at the end of a syllable is called as an **arresting consonant**. The vowel is the **nucleus** or the central part of a syllable. When the structure of a syllable is described, the symbol C is used to represent a consonant and V to represent a vowel. For example, the word look /lɒk/ has the structure CVC (i.e, it is made up of one consonant, one vowel and one consonant). The structure of the syllable /lɒk/ can be shown thus:

C	V	C
l	u	k
releasing consonant	nucleus	arresting consonant

The word *eye* /aɪ/ is made up of just one speech sound, the diphthong /aɪ/. This is the nucleus of the syllable and it has no consonant before or after it. Thus the structure of the syllable is V. Let's take two other words which have the syllable structure CV and VC respectively. *She* /ʃi:/ has the structure CV and *ill* /il/ has the structure VC.

A syllable which is arrested by a consonant (ends in a consonant) is called a **closed syllable**, for example, *is* /iz/. A syllable which has no arresting consonant (ends in a vowel) is called an **open syllable**, for example, *you* /ju:/.

The syllable has three positions- onset (open), centre (peak) and termination (coda) examples next, treat, means etc.

Here a few more examples of the syllable structures discussed above:

Monosyllabic Words (words with one syllable):

a) CVC	b) V
Hat /hæt/	I /aɪ/
Phone /fəʊn/	air /eə/
Cut /kʌt/	a /eɪ/
Boys /bɔɪz/	oh /əʊ/
3) CV	4) VC
Day /deɪ/	all /ɔ:l/
Who /hʊ:/	in /ɪn/
Law /lɔ:/	oil /ɔɪl/
Know /nəʊ/	us /ʌs/

Disyllabic Words (words of two syllables each)

About /ə'baʊt/	V-CVC
Letter /'le-tə/	CV-CV
Allow /ə-'laʊ/	V-CV
Expert /'eks-pɜ:t/	VCC-CVC

Trisyllabic Words (words of three syllables each)

Episode /'e-pɪ-səʊd/	V-CV-CVC
Develop /dɪ-'ve-ləp/	CV-CV-CVC
Refreshment /rɪ-'freʃ-mənt/	CV-CCVC-CVCC
Usually /'ju:-ʒʊə-li/	CV-CV-CV

Words of more than three syllable each

Photographic /,fəʊ-tə-'græ-fɪk/	CV-CV-CCV-CVC
Neurology /njʊ-'rɒ-lə-dʒi/	CCV-CV-CV-CV

Types of syllables:

a) Some syllables have a nucleus and an arresting consonant VC:

at	/æt/
am	/æm/

b) Some syllables have a releasing consonant and a vowel and no arresting consonant CV:

go	/gəʊ/
she	/ʃi:/

c) Some syllables have a releasing consonant, a vowel and an arresting consonant CVC:

cat	/kæt/
toad	/təʊd/

d) Some syllables have two releasing consonant and a vowel CCV:

fry /fraɪ/

slow /sləʊ/

e) Some syllables have two releasing consonant, a vowel and an arresting consonant CCVC:

school /sku:l/

prize /praɪz/

f) Some syllables have three releasing consonant, a vowel and an arresting consonant CCCVC:

screen /skri:n/

spread /spred/

g) Some syllables have three releasing consonants, a vowel and two arresting consonants CCCVCC:

strange /streɪndʒ/

script /skript/

h) Some syllables have a releasing consonant, a vowel and three arresting consonants CVCCC:

bands /bændz/

text /tekst/

i) Some syllables have a releasing consonant, a vowel and four arresting consonants CVCCCC:

Tempts /tempt/

Twelfths /twelfθs/

English allows up to three consonants to begin a syllable and up to four consonants to end a syllable. A sequence of two or more consonants occurring at the beginning or end of a syllable is called as a **consonant cluster** eg. paint, allows. When the consonants occur together in a word but are in different syllables they are called as **abutting consonants** eg. content, example.

Exercises:

I Indicate the syllable division in the following words.

application, intonation, engineering, propaganda, legislation, compensation, fundamental, mathematics, understanding, population ,potato, subtle, consider, element, approximation, silky, captain, blue, twinkle, human

II Indicate the syllable division in the following words

delight, reciprocate, linguistics, father, barbaric, calculate consonant, smaller, agriculture, tailor, dip.

III From the words below, pick out the ones with a CVCC structure.

laughed, charged, wrist, seems, brunch, turns, switch, debts, slipped, lambs, frank, first start, hold, shift.

IV From the words given below pick out the ones with a CCCV structure:

screw, spray, splay, square, splint, straw, sliced, ,splash, string, screech, strong, steel, street , straight

V From the group of words given below, pick out the words that match the remarks that follow and write against each remark.

Music, stress, absent, combat, iceage, member, little, schools, are, develop, spin, lapse, twelfths, Iceland

- a) A disyllabic word with a releasing consonant cluster of two consonants in the second syllable.
- b) A monosyllabic word with an initial consonant cluster of three consonants.
- c) A monosyllabic word with a cluster of two consonants at the coda.
- d) A word of one syllable with an arresting consonant cluster of four consonants.

- e) A word of two syllables with diphthongs in both the syllables and without any consonant cluster.
- f) A disyllabic word with an abutting consonant.
- g) A disyllabic word with a syllabic consonant.
- h) A word that has a releasing and an arresting consonant cluster of two consonants each.
- i) A word with no consonant phoneme.
- j) A trisyllabic word that has neither consonant cluster nor abutting consonant.

VI From the words given below, pick out the words that match the remarks that follow and write against each remark.

estrane, sulked, heart, few, beetle, homeboy, blushed, spender, go, shine, praise, mixed, strange, awe, cigarette, cattle, prompts.

- a) A word of two syllables with diphthongs in both the syllables.
- b) A word that has no consonant phoneme.
- c) A word with only one vowel but two syllables.
- d) A monosyllabic word with a releasing consonant cluster of two consonants but has no arresting consonant.
- e) Has a releasing consonant cluster of three consonant.
- f) A word with a final consonant cluster of four consonants.
- g) A three-syllable word with neither consonant cluster nor abutting consonants.
- h) A word that has an arresting and releasing consonant cluster of two consonants each.
- i) A word of one syllable with an arresting consonant cluster of three consonants.

Consonant Cluster

A syllable can have up to three consonants before the nucleus and up to four consonants after the nucleus. Such sequences of two or more consonants at the beginning or at the end of a syllable are called consonant clusters or consonant sequences.

Here are a few examples:

scheme / ski:m /

cream / kri:rn

scream / skri:m /

necks / neks

next / nekst /

texts / teksts

Notice that these consonant sequences are in a single syllable. If they are in different syllables, they cannot be called consonant clusters. For example, /s/ and /k/ in the word scheme, and /k/ /s/ /t/ and /s/ in the word texts form consonant-clusters because they occur in the same syllable. But /m/ and /p/ in the word dimple and /n/ and /k/ in the word uncle do not form consonant clusters as they occur in different syllables:

dimple /'dɪm-pl/

uncle /'ʌŋ-kl/

When two or three consonants occur at the beginning of a syllable the sequence is called an initial consonant cluster, for example, /pl-/ in the word play and /str-/ in the word strike. When two, three, or four consonants occur at the end of a syllable the sequence is called a final consonant cluster, for example, /-st/ in the word test, /-mpt/ in the word tempt and /-ksθs/ in the word sixths.

Here are a few examples of common English consonant clusters.

2.1 Initial Clusters

/p/ as the first member of the cluster

/ pl- / place, play

/ pr- / pray, 'private

/ pj- / 'pupil, pure

/b/ as the first member of the cluster

/ bl- / blade, blind

/ br- / bright, bring

/ bj- / 'beauty

/t/ as the first member of the cluster

/ tr- / tray, try

/ tw- / 'twenty, 'twinkle

/ tj- / tutor, tune

/d/ as the first member of the cluster

/ dr- / draw, dry

/ dw- / dwell

/ dj- / 'during, 'duty

/k/ as the first member of the cluster

/ kl- / class, clay

/ kr- / cross, cry

/ kw- / quick

/ kj- / cure

/g/ as the first member of the cluster

/ gl- / glad, glass, 'glory

/ gr- / grain, green, grind

/f/ as the first member of the cluster

/ fl- / floor, flow, fly

/ fr- / frame, free, friend

/ fj- / few, 'funeral, 'future

/v/ as the first member
of the cluster

/ vj- / view

/ θ / as the first member
of the cluster

/ s / as the first member
of the cluster
(two consonants)

k

(three. consonants)

Note: If there is a
cluster of three
consonants initially
in a syllable, the
first consonant is

always / s /

/ h / as the first member
of the cluster

/ m / as the first member
of the cluster

/ n / as the first member
of the cluster

/ θr- / three, throw

/ sp - / space, speak, spoon

/ st- / staff, state, stay

/sk- / scale, school, sky

/ sm- / small, smell, smooth

/ sn- / snake, sneer, snow

/ sl- / slave, sleep, slow

/ sw- / swallow, swear, sweet

/ spl- / splash, split

/ str- / straight, strength

/ spr- / sprain, spread, spring

/ stj- / 'student, 'stupid

/ skr- / scream, screen

/ skw- / square

/ hj- / hue, huge

/ mj- / music

/ nj- / new, numerous

2.2 Final clusters

/p/ as the final element
of the cluster

(two consonants)

/ -mp / pump, stamp

/ -lp / help, pulp

/t/ as the final element
of the cluster

(two consonants)

/ -pt / a'dopt, ex'cept

/ -kt / act, fact

/ -tʃt / at'tached, reached

/ -ft / coughed, laughed

/ -st / first, test, thirst

/ -ʃt / crushed, pushed

/ -nt / ant, tent

/ -lt / bolt, tilt

(three consonants)

/ -dst / midst

/ -kst / fixed, next

/ -skt / asked

/ -mpt / at'tempt, tempt

/ -ntʃt / lunched

/ -nst / against, danced

/ -ŋkt / thanked

/ -ŋst / a'mongst

/ -lpt / helped

/ -lkt / milked

/ -lst / whilst

/ d / as the final element
of the cluster
(two consonants)

/ - bd / robbed, sobbed
/ - gd / begged
/ - dʒd / judged
/ - vd / loved, proved
/ - ɒd / breathed
/ zd / con'fused
/ - md / blamed
/ - nd / band, hand
/ -ŋd / banged
/ -ld / bold, cold
/ -ndʒd / changed
/ -lvd / re'solved

(three consonants)

/ k / as the final element
of the cluster

/ -sk / ask, task
/ -ŋk / tank, thank
/ -lk / bulk, milk

/ tʃ / as the _final element
of the cluster

/ -ntʃ / branch, lunch

/ dʒ / as the final element
of the cluster

/ -ndʒ / change, 'orange

/ f / as the final element
of the cluster

/ -lf / self

/ v / as the final element
of the cluster

/ -lv / e'volve, solve

/ θ / as the final element

/ -pθ / depth

of the cluster	/ -tθ / eighth
(two consonants)	/ -dθ / width
	/ -fθ / fifth
	/ -mθ / warmth
	/ -nθ / month
	/ -ŋθ / strength
	/ -lə / health
(three consonants)	/ -ks / sixth
	/ -lfθ / twelfth
/ s / as the final element	/ -ps / caps
of the cluster	/ -ts / cats
(two consonants)	/ -ks / box
	/ -fs / laughs
	/ -θs / fourths
	/ -ns / chance, dance
	/ -ls / false
(three consonants)	/ -pts / a'dopts
	/ -pθs / depths
	/ -tθs / eighths
	/ -kts / acts
	/ -fts / lifts
	/ -fθs / fifths
	/ -sps / clasps
	/ -sts / beasts

	/ -sks / tasks
	/ -mps / lamps
	/ -nts / ants
	/ -nθs / tenths
	/ -ŋks / banks
	/ -lps / helps
	/ -lks / silks
(four consonants)	/ -mpts / at'tempts
	/ -lfθs / twelfths
/z/ as the final element of the cluster	/-bz / rubs
(two consonants)	/-dz / heads
	/-gz / dogs
	/ -vz / lives
	/ - ðz/ breathes
	/-mz / names
	/ -nz / fans
	/- ɱz/ hangs
	/-Iz / balls
(three consonants)	/ -ndz / hands
	/ -Idz builds
	/ -lvz / solves

Module 6

Stress

We've already seen that the 44 sounds of English are known as the segmental features. We also have the supra-segmental or paralinguistic features. Of these features stress and intonation are the most important ones. Without these, pronunciation would lack its communicative force. These features are integrated with the way an utterance is made and they are not easily identified as discrete segments or entities. These features affect communication by extending across segments (individual sounds or words) in a sentence to change meaning. These mechanisms convey the attitude or emotion of the speaker in the form of such verbal cues as stress, intonation, pitch, pause, loudness, etc. In written language, to some extent, they might take the form of punctuation marks, underlining, bold print, or italicizing. Because these mechanisms extend across several sounds or words (linguistic segments), they are called supra-segmental devices. They are 'para' linguistic and not fully linguistic because they lack the possibility of signaling meaning through sequential arrangement into structures, which is a criteria of linguistic communication.

When we speak English, we do not articulate all the syllables in the same way. In a word of more than two syllables one of the syllables is pronounced with greater prominence than the other/others i.e. some syllables are said with greater breath force than the others.. The feature of certain syllables having greater breath force than the others is referred to as stress. For example, when we say ex-a-mi'na-tion, we stress the penultimate (last but one) syllable, i.e. 'na' In polysyllabic words, one syllable is made to stand out more than the other(s), by saying that syllable slightly louder, holding the vowel a little longer and pronouncing the consonants very clearly. These features combine to give that syllable prominence or stress. Stress placement depends on a) the number of syllables in a word b) the sequence of consonants and vowels that make up the syllables c) the grammatical category that the word belongs to(noun, adjective, verb, reflexive pronoun) d) the morphological structure of the word (simple, complex (prefixes, suffixes), compound words)

There are two degrees of stress: a) Primary/Strong stress and Secondary/Weak stress. Primary stress is marked with a vertical bar above and in front of the syllable and secondary stress is marked with a vertical bar below and in front of the syllable that receives the stress.

Examples:

Examples of Disyllabic words:

First syllable stress Second syllable stress (because of weak prefix in 1st syllable)

‘useful	a’mount
‘yellow	ma’chine
‘Sunday	be’long
‘civil	de’mise
‘wisdom	in’tense

Examples of Trisyllabic words:

First syllable Stress	Second Syllable Stress	Third Syllable Stress
‘beautiful	ef’ficient	after’noon
‘tabulate	re’member	introduce
‘innocent	at’tendance	under’stand
‘hospital	ex’perience	maga’zine
‘property	pre’ve’ntion	absen’tee

Here are a few rules which will help us to stress correctly.

1. Stress in disyllabic words may change depending upon the function, i.e., whether the word is used as a noun/adjective or as a verb. When used as a noun/adjective, the word carries a stress on the first syllable, whereas the stress is shifted to the second syllable when the word is used as a verb. A few examples are given below.

Nouns / Adjectives	Verbs
‘absent	ab’sent
‘conflict	con’flict
‘convert	con’ve’rt
‘extract	ex’t’ract
‘import	im’port
‘object	ob’ject

1. Disyllabic words with weak prefixes are accented on the root (a-, be- and re-).

a'rise	be'low	re'duce
a'lone	be'come	re'tire

1. Disyllabic words beginning with the prefix dis- are stressed on the last syllable.

dis'may, dis'grace, dis'pel, dis'close, dis'count

2. Disyllabic verbs ending in –ate, -ise, -ize and –ct are stressed on the last syllable.

-ate	-ise/-ize	-ct
nar'rate	chas'tise	at'tract
mi'grate	com'prise	con'nect
de'bate	cap'size	de'pict

3. When verbs ending in –ate, -ise/-ize and –ify have more than two syllables, the stress is on the third syllable from the end. –ate, -ise/ize, -ify

'complicate	'colonise	'justify
'separate	'brutalise	'classify
educate	'patronise	'beautify

4. Numbers ending in -teen, take the stress on the last syllable.

thir'teen, seven'teen

5. Some words ending in the suffix –ion have the stress on the penultimate syllable.

at'tention, culti'vation, intro'duction, infor'mation, 'mansion

6. Some words ending in –ity that have the accent on the third syllable from the end.

a'bility, ac'tivity, e'quality, gene'rosity

7. Some words ending in the suffixes –ic, –ical, –ically, –ial, –ially, –ian that have the accent on the syllable before the suffix.

–ic

apolo'getic

patri'otic

scien'tific

–ically

apolo'getically

sympa'thetically

scien'tifically

–ian

elec'trician

mu'sician

tech'nician

8. Listen to some words ending in –ious, –eous that have the stress on the syllable preceding the suffix.

–ioux

–eous

'anxious

'piteous

'fractious

cou'rageous

in'dustrious

'gorgeous

–ious

–eous

in'jurious

'hideous

la'borious

'righteous

re'bellious

simul'taneous

9. Words ending in 'cracy, 'crat that have the stress on the antepenultimate (third from the last) syllable

–cracy

au'tocracy

de'mocracy

tech'nocracy

–crat

'autocrat

'democrat

'technocrat

10. Words ending in 'graph, –graphy, –meter, –logy that have the stress on the antepenultimate syllable.

-graph	-graphy	-meter	-logy
‘autograph	pho’tography	ther’mometer	psy’chology
‘paragraph	spec’trography	lac’tometer	bi’ology
‘photograph	bi’ography	di’iameter	zo’ology

11. When a compound word conveys a meaning different from that of its individual components, it is the first element that is stressed.

‘blacksmith

‘blackbird

12. Words ending in –self, –selves that have primary accent on the suffix itself.

My’self, him’self, her’self, your’self, you’selves, our’selves.

13. Usually Prefixes and Suffixes are unstressed. im’possible, a ‘moral, re’turnable, can’tonment

16. Though suffixes and prefixes are generally unstressed, these are exceptions. Disyllabic words beginning with a prefix which has no distinct meaning of its own are sometimes stressed on the prefix itself. Most of these words are either nouns or adjectives. (When they are verbs, stress is on the second syllable.)

e.g. Nouns and adjectives: ‘adverb, ‘insult, ‘prefix, ‘pronoun, etc.

Verbs : in’sult, di’gest, de’crease, trans’fer etc.

17. Di-and tri-syllabic words without any easily recognizable prefix usually take the stress on the first syllable.

e.g. ‘captain, ‘father, ‘freedom, etc.

18. In longer words of four or more syllables, the general tendency is to have the stress on the antepenultimate syllable (the third syllable from the end)

a-nni-’ver-sa-ry, cur’riculum, sig’nificant, etc.

(Exceptions are adjectives ending in -able, e.g. ‘comfortable, con’siderable, etc. Other exceptions are ‘accuracy, administrative, etc.)

19. Most compound words take their stress on the first of the two words forming the compound,

e.g. ‘class room, ‘ice cream, ‘black board, ‘dancing doll, ‘black bird, ‘hand writing, ‘book self, ‘post office, ‘fountain pen, ‘tape recorder, etc.

(There are exceptions like bare ‘footed, down’stairs, short’sighted, hot ‘tempered, etc.)

Compound nouns generally take the stress on the first word: e.g. ‘thoroughfare, ‘bookshop.

Compound verbs usually take the stress on the second word: e.g. under’sand, over’take

Stress shift:

Stress shift could be of the following types:-

a) Functional stress: Certain syllabic words are used both as noun and adjective on the one hand and as verb on the other. The stress falls on the first syllable when such a word is used as a noun/adjective and on the second syllable when it is use as a verb. As stress falls either on the first or second syllable depending on the grammatical function, this feature is known as functional stress. When the noun/adjective is used as a verb, the stress shifts to the second syllable.

Noun/Adj.	Verb	Noun/Adj.	Verb	Noun/Adj.	Verb
‘object	ob’ject	‘conduct	con’duct	‘content	con’tent
‘present	pre’sent	‘increase	in’crease	‘decrease	de’crease
‘refuse	re’fuse	‘insult	in’sult	‘desert	de’sert
‘import	im’port	‘export	ex’port	‘subject	sub’ject
‘produce	pro’duce	‘progress	pro’gress	‘record	re’cord
‘absent	ab’sent	‘content	con’tent	‘suspect	sus’pect
‘digest	di’gest	‘project	pro’ject	‘rebel	re’bel
‘contest	con’test	‘perfect	per’fect	‘frequent	fre’quent

(There are exceptions to this, e.g. ‘promise, ‘contact. There is no stress shift here. It remains the same, whether it is a noun/adjective or a verb)

Sentence Stress:-

Apart from Word stress we also have Sentence/Utterance Stress. All words are not stressed in a sentence. Now, look at this sentence-

I want you to take the dog for a walk in the park.

Out of the 13 words in this sentence only the 5 italicized words are stressed. Stressed syllables are marked with a vertical bar in front of the syllable.

I 'want you to 'take the 'dog for a 'walk in the 'park.

The other 8 are not stressed. If we stress all the words in this sentence, it would result in an unnatural rhythm.

Which words take stress and which don't, in a sentence?

Content words are stressed.

Structural words are not stressed.

Content words: Nouns (e.g. house, girl), Verbs (e.g. walk, go), Adjectives (e.g. beautiful, good, long) Adverbs (e.g. today, usually), Demonstratives (e.g. those, this) and Interrogatives (e.g. who, what).

Structural words: Articles (a, an, the), Prepositions (e.g. on, in), Personal Pronouns (e.g. I, him, se, it), Possessives (e.g. my, your, his, her), Relative pronouns (e.g. who, that, which), Conjunctions (e.g. and, but, so, that), Auxiliaries (e.g. be, have, do, will, shall, may, might) and 'One', when used as a noun substitute (e.g. the black pen and the blue 'one').

Apart from this, depending on the meaning we want to convey, we can stress the words. In the sentence, 'I want you to take the dog for a walk in the park', if the speaker wants to stress the point that it is the hearer and no one else, 'you' could be stressed and given extra emphasis. Similarly, can be stressed to emphasise the fact that the speaker and no one else is giving the instruction. (This is known as the semantic stress shift. Depending on the meaning to be conveyed, at times even structural words take stress). If we want to say it in a neutral way, without giving any special emphasis to convey a particular meaning, then we stress the content or lexical words and leave the grammatical or structural words unstressed.

Rhythm

Unlike most Indian languages which are syllable-timed, English is a stress-timed language. In stress-timed languages, certain syllables get greater prominence. When words are combined into sentences in English, you need to determine the words that are to be stressed in each sentence. In English, content words like nouns, adjectives, adverbs and main verbs which convey the main meaning of a sentence are generally accented, whereas structure words like articles, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions and auxiliaries, which indicate grammatical relationships between the content words, are generally not accented.

As English is a stress-timed language the stressed syllables tend to occur at regular intervals. This is to say that the time taken by each foot (a foot consists of a stressed syllable plus unstressed syllables between the two stressed syllables) is the same. Thus spoken English shows a contrast between its stressed (strong) and unstressed (weak) syllables, a fact which largely accounts for its characteristic rhythmic patterns.

Look at the sentence below in which the content words same (adj), message (noun) and forwarded (main verb) are accented and the structure words the (article) and has been (aux.verb) are not accented.

The ‘same ‘message has been ‘forwarded.

In the above sentence, the first foot (consisting of a stressed syllable but no unstressed syllable) occupies exactly the same amount of time as the second foot (consisting of a stressed syllable plus three unstressed syllables) and the third foot (consisting of a stressed syllable plus two unstressed syllables).

As the number of intervening unstressed syllables goes on increasing, the native speaker achieves the effect of regularity of occurrence of stressed syllables by slurring over, squeezing the unstressed syllables, or moving over them very quickly. This often gives the impression to a foreign language learner that the native speaker ‘swallows his syllables’. Native speakers make use of ‘weak forms’ and ‘contracted forms’ in order to reduce the vowel length in the unstressed syllables. They also make use of weak vowels in unstressed syllables, unstressed prefixes and inflectional suffixes.

Module 7

Intonation

Language is used to convey emotions, feelings, convey information.

Pitch

The pitch of the voice is determined by the frequency of the vibration of the vocal cords, i.e., the number of times they open and close in a second. The patterns of variation of the pitch of the voice (i.e., the fall or the rise) constitute the intonation of a language. If you say put it down! The pitch of your voice will move from a high level to a low level. This is called the falling tone. It can be illustrated thus:

Put it

d
o
w
n!

If you say the same sentence with a rising tone the pitch of your voice will move from low to high, as shown below:

n!
w
o
d

Put it

Tune/tone Shapes

The shape of the tune (tone) is decided by the number of important words in a word group and by the attitude you wish to express. By important words we mean the words which carry most of the meaning in a group. For example: In answer to the question “How was Shiela”? ,you say “She was in an appallingly bad temper”—the first four words are not especially helpful to the meaning, i.e.,they are not important. But the last three words are important: each of them adds to the picture you are giving of Shiela. Let`s see how it might be said.

She was in Appailingly bad

t

e

m

p

e

r.

So the most important word in this group is temper and this decides the shape of the tone.

Before we talk about the speakers' attitude(s) let's see what tunes you must learn to use while speaking English. We cannot teach you all the tunes that English speakers use, but we will describe the ones that we feel you must know.

The Falling Tone

The falling tone is sometimes referred to as the glide-down. It consists of a fall in the pitch of the voice from a high level to low level. It is marked [`].

The falling tone is normally used in:

1. Ordinary statements made without any implications, e.g.:
 - a. I 'liked it 'very `much
 - b. It was 'quite `good
2. Questions beginning with a question- word such as what, how, where, why etc., when said in a neutral way, eg:
 - a. 'Who were you `talking to?
 - b. 'What's the `matter?
3. Commands, e.g.:
 - a. 'Go and 'open the `window.
 - b. 'Take it a`way.

4. Exclamations, e.g.:
 - a. `Splendid
 - b. 'How extra `ordinary!
5. Question tags: When the speaker expects the listener to agree with him, e.g.:
 - a. It's `pleasant today, `isn't it?
 - b. It was 'good `film, `wasn't it?
6. Rhetorical questions, e.g.:
 - a. 'Isn't that `kind of her?
 - b. 'Wasn't that a `difficult exam?

Note: [`] before a syllable indicates that the following, syllable is stressed.

The Rising Tone

The rising tone is sometimes referred to as the glide-up. It consists of a rise in the pitch of the voice from a low level to a high level. It is marked (')

The rising tone is normally used in:

1. Incomplete statements, e.g.
 - a. It's 'seven o, clock (and she hasn't got up yet.)
 - b. I'll 'buy you a dress (if I go there)
2. Polarity type questions which demand a yes/no answer, e.g.:
 - a. 'Are they, coming?
 - b. 'Will you, do it?
3. Non-polarity (wh-type) questions when said in warm and friendly way,
 - a. 'How's your, daughter?
 - b. 'What the, matter?

4. Polite requests, e.g.:
 - a. 'Go and 'open the, window,
 - b. 'Take it away.
5. Question tags: When the speaker gives his/her listener the opinion to disagree with him/her, e.g:
 - a. You're a 'gardener, aren't you?
 - b. It was a 'good 'film, ,wasn't it?
6. Repetition question, e.g.:
 - a. (John told me to do it.)
Who told you?
7. Expected reponses, e.g:
,Thank you.

(If you wish to express real gratitude, you should say thank you with a falling tune. A rising tune shows a rather casual acknowledgement of the something not very important.)
8. Alternative questions, e.g.:
 - a. Do you like, tea ,coffee or 'coke?
 - b. 'Shall we ,drive or go by'train?
9. Enumeration, e.g.:
One, two, three, four, 'five
10. Afterthought, doubt, hesitation, e.g.:
 - a. I'd 'buy a 'new one, if I could af,ford it.
 - b. In 'spring it 'rains a 'lot , generally.

11. Greetings, partings, apologies, encouragement, e.g.:

- a. Hel,lo
- b. `Good, bye.
- c. I'm so .sorry.
- d. You ought to keep on , trying.

The Falling-rising tone

The last of the tones is the falling-rising tone. This tone is sometimes referred to as the dive. It consists of a fall from high to low and then a rise to the middle of the voice. This tone can be used either on one syllable or different syllables of a word or sentence. It can be illustrated thus:

1. That was n c e
i
2. There were s e v e n y of them
t
3. T e
h c
a i
t n
was

If the fall is on one syllable and the rise begins on a later syllable it is referred to as a divided fall-rise. Sentence 3 is an example of this.

The fall-rise can be marked in two ways. If the tone is used on one syllable it is marked [˘]

e.g., That was ˘seventy .

If the tone is used on different syllables of a word it is marked [˘ ˈ]

e.g., ˈseventy.

If the fall-rise is used on two different words in a sentence it is marked as in the following example:

ˈthat was , nice

The falling-rising tone is normally used for special implications not verbally expressed. For example if you say

She's ˈbeautiful

With a falling tone you mean precisely that. But if you say the same sentence with a falling-rising tone

She's ˘beautiful

You imply something – perhaps that she is beautiful, but not intelligent.

Consider the following examples in which falling-rising tone is used to convey special implications, e.g.:

- a. I am ˘waiting (so do hurry up)
- b. I haven't much appetite (but I'll join you to be polite)
- c. The houses are ˘nice(but perhaps the people are not)

This tune can also be used for correcting what someone has said and as a warning, e.g.,

- a. (He's forty-five). Forty˘- six
- b. ˘please be ˘careful.
- c. You'll be ˘ late
- d. Thank˘you(used mainly to express one's displeasure).

Module 8

Transcription

When we are dealing with a language like English, we have to remember that there is no one-to-one relationship between the letters of the alphabet and, the sounds they represent. As said earlier, there are 26 letters of the alphabet and these letters represent 44 sounds in the RP. For example the letter string 'ough' can be pronounced in 8 different ways as in bough, bought, cough, dough, hiccough, rough, thoroughbred, and through. On the other hand, there are languages like Hindi which are written as they are pronounced.

As there is no one-to-one correspondence between the sounds and the letters of the alphabet, a different notation in which one symbol represents only one sound is indispensable. Of the many notations available, the symbols of the International Phonetic Association (IPA) are the one that are used the most. These symbols are known as the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA).

The advantages of phonetic transcription are: a) it is scientific and precise b) is a convenient device to indicate the way in which the words of a language are pronounced. Example the letters *ch* in words like school, character, machine and church will have different symbols, as *ch* is pronounced differently in each of these words.

Given below are the symbols that are used to transcribe in English (RP).

IPA symbols for Consonants

p	proper	v	velvet
b	ball	θ	think
t	tap	ð	this
d	doll	s	son
k	kitten	z	zero
g	go	ʃ	ship
tʃ	chair	ʒ	pleasure
dʒ	judicious	h	help
f	fan	m	mango

n neat
 ŋ ring
 l lamp
 r rain
 j yesterday
 w wet

IPA symbols for Vowels

/i/ sit
 /e/ end
 /ʊ/ pull
 /æ/ apple
 /ʌ/ mutton
 /ɒ/ cot
 /ə/ about

/ɑ:/ car
 /i:/ bee
 /ɔ:/ caught
 /u:/ pool
 /ɜ:/ girl_

IPA symbols for Diphthong

/eɪ/
 /aɪ/
 /ɔɪ/
 /ɪə/
 /eə/
 /ʊə/
 /aʊ/
 /əʊ/

Transcribe the following words

Word

about
 alphabet
 apart
 beauty
 behind
 breathing
 break
 choice
 country

Your transcription

courtesy
daughters
English
fluent
luxury
machine
many
museum
pleasure
Pretty
Quality
Question
Scarce
Shoulder
Thanks
Woman
Well

Transcribe and mark the primary stress in the underlined words in the sentences given below.

- a) Make sure that our sales don't decrease.
- b) The GDP statistics show a decrease in the sales of consumer goods
- c) The increase in food production is encouraging.
- d) She is good at pronunciation, she has been trained to pronounce in RP.
- e) We appreciate your contribution, and we have placed on record our appreciation of your services.
- g) The letter is a confidential one, is the peon a confidant.

Allotment of Marks and Practical Component

Marks Allotment per Semester

Theory:	70 Marks
Internal Assessment:	30 Marks
Practicals:	35 Marks
Practicals Internal Assessment:	15 Marks

Practicals for Paper 2

Practicals –	50 Marks (35+15)
Practical Exam:	35 Marks
Internal Assessment:	15 Marks

Components to be tested

- Transcription
- Listening Comprehension
- Fluency Reading
- Speaking

Question Paper Pattern
I Semester
Paper 2: Phonetics and Spoken English

Time: 3 Hours

Max. Marks: 70

- | | |
|---|---------------|
| I. Write short notes on the following. | 2x5=10 |
| II. Answer the following in 100-150 words. | 5X3=15 |
| III. Give three term label for the following underlined vowels and diphthongs. | 05 |
| IV. Give three term label for the following underlined consonants. | 05 |
| V. Syllabify and state how many syllables are there in each word | 05 |
| VI. Mark primary stress in the following words. | 05 |
| VII. Mark appropriate tone/ intonation on the following sentences. | 05 |
| VIII. Find minimal pair from the words given below | 05 |
| IX. Match the following words with correct prefixes and suffixes. | 05 |
| X. Fill in the blanks | 05 |
| XI. True or False | 05 |

Question Paper Pattern for Practicals

- | | |
|---|----------|
| 1. Transcription (primary stress and tone marking) | 15 marks |
| 2. Fluency Reading | 10 marks |
| 3. Speaking | 10 Marks |

Model Question Paper

Paper 2 Phonetics and Spoken English

Time: 3Hours

Max.Marks:70

I. Write short notes on the following **2x5=10**

1. Distinguish between phonetics and phonology.
2. What are the different organs of speech.
3. What are Monophthongs?
4. What is a syllable? Give examples.
5. What are content words and grammatical words?
6. Define stress/word accent with examples.
7. What are consonant clusters? Give two examples.

II. Answer the following in 100-150 words. **5X3=15**

1. Write a note on classification and distribution of vowel sounds.
2. Describe in detail classification of consonants in English.
3. Define Intonation and elaborate on different tone groups.
4. What are diphthongs? How are they different from pure vowels?
Discuss giving examples.
5. What are Fricatives? Describe the fricatives of English.

III. Give three term label for the following underlined vowels and diphthongs. **05**

- a) slang b) often c) intuitive d) changes e) letter.

IV. Give three term label for the following underlined consonants. **05**

- a) Yellow, watch, computer, bushes, pleasure

V. Syllabify and state how many syllables are there in each word **05**

- a) examination b) linguistics c) psychology d) mathematics e) dictionary

VI. Mark primary stress in the following words. 05

- a) politics b) music c) account d) beautiful e) brother

VII. Mark appropriate tone/ intonation on the following sentences. 05

- a) You're a `gardener, aren't you?
 b) How extra `ordinary!.
 c) It's `pleasant today, `isn't it?
 d) The `houses are nice.
 e) He went to the market to get come cheese, bread, butter and chicken.

VIII. Find minimal pair from the words given below 05

river, back shave, nut, liver, curd, chain, bag, Jane, save, not, card, lunch, hard, heard, punch.

IX. Match the following words with correct prefixes and suffixes. 05

Words

Code

Agree

Possible

Fiction

Comfort

Friend

prefixes/suffixes

de

dis

im

non

able

less

X. Fill in the blanks 05

- a) There are _____ cardinal vowels
 b) The initial sound in BUS is a _____
 c) The way sounds influence each other by the sounds that precede or succeed it is referred to as _____ (Assimilation/ Elision)
 d) The teeth ridge is also called _____
 e) _____ is a glottal sound.

XI. True or False

5 Marks

- a All vowel sounds are produced with a stricture of open approximation.
- b All vowel sounds are voiceless.
- c In the production of a front vowel the front of the tongue is raised towards the soft palate.
- d A back vowels are produced by raising the back of the tongue towards the soft palate.
- e Cardinal vowels one to four are front vowels.

Model Question Paper
Practical Examination
Paper 2 - Phonetics and Spoken English

Time: 2 Hours

Marks: 35

Instructions: a) Answer all the questions.

- I. Transcribe the following words: (5)
- a) Laughed
 - b) Examination
 - c) Park
 - d) Traffic
 - e) Provident
 - f) Bushes
 - g) Talked
 - h) Transcribe
 - i) Book
 - j) Beautiful
- II. Transcribe and mark the primary stress in the underlined words in the sentences given below. (10)
- a) Phonetics is a branch of Linguistics dealing with the production, transmission and reception of the sounds.
 - b) I distrust the politicians and not politics.
 - c) She has produced various works on economics, including political economy for the beginners.
 - d) The definition of scientific is something relating to science, natural study done very systematically.
 - e) Nationality is the state of being part of a larger Nation, whether by birth or naturalisation.
- III. **Reading:** Read the given passage with the right pronunciation, intonation and stress. (10)
- IV. **Speaking:** Speak on the given topic for about 3 minutes. (10)