



The **LEARNER'S** Communication Skills

BS Hons
(Semester System)

Concise Edition

Semesters

1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th



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BOOK-1 (First Semester)
Functional English (Basics of Grammar)

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SYLLABUS

1- Functional English 1st Semester

Part-1: Grammar in context

- * Basics of Grammar
- * Parts of Speech and use of articles
- * Sentence Structure, Active and Passive Voice
- * Practice in Unified Sentence (Synthesis)
- * Analysis of Phrase, Clause and Sentence Structure
- * Transformation, Inversion of Sentences
- * Analysis of Complex Sentences
- * Subject, Predicate, Complements, Direct & Indirect Objects
- * Direct and Indirect Speech

Part-2 — Functional English in Use

- | | |
|------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. Making Introductions | 2. Expressing Requests and Enquiries |
| 3. Greetings | 4. Gratitude |
| 5. Invitations | 6. Regrets |
| 7. Following and Giving Directions | 8. Sharing Narratives |
| 9. Sharing Unique Experiences | |

II- English Comprehension and Composition 2nd Semester

A. Reading Comprehension Skills

- * Identifying Main Idea / Topic Sentences
- * Find Specific Information quickly
- * Distinguishing between relevant and irrelevant information according to purpose for reading.
- * Recognizing and Interpreting Cohesive Devices
- * Distinguishing between Fact and Opinion

B: Reading Techniques - applying Skimming, Scanning, SQ3R, SPRE

C. Vocabulary Building Skills

- * Guessing the meanings of unfamiliar words using context clues
- * Using Word Formation Rules for Enhancing Vocabulary
- * Using the Dictionary for Finding out meanings and use of unfamiliar words

D. Pre-writing Techniques - Brain Storming, Making a List, Mind Mapping

E. Writing Techniques:

- * Plan writing, Identify Audience, Purpose and Message

BOOK-1

First Semester

Functional English (1st Semester)

Basics of Grammar

PARTS OF SPEECH

Words are divided into different classes according to their use or according to the work they do in the sentence. These classes of words are called Parts of Speech.

The Parts of Speech are eight in number:

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

1- Noun: A Noun is a word used for naming some person, place or thing. For example: Abid, man, class, cow, Faisalabad, gold, honesty, love

2- Pronoun: A pronoun is a word used in place of a noun. Pronoun = Pro (in place of) + noun

For example: He, she, It, We, They, You, etc.

1. Tahir is a student. He is going to the office.

2. I am a student. You are a doctor.

3. She is a girl. They are players.

3- Adjective: An Adjective is a word used for qualifying (or adding something to) the meaning of a Noun or Pronoun.

For example: 1. Arslan is a good boy. 2. He is blind.

3. Our cow gives much milk. 4. Give me three pens and five pencils

4- Verb: A verb is a word that states something about a person or thing. A verb is a word used to say something about some person, place or thing. For example:

1. The child weeps. 2. The dogs bark. 3. I am sorry.

4. I have a sharp knife. 5. He is playing hockey

5- Adverb: An Adverb is a word used to qualify (add something to) the meaning of a Verb, an Adjective or other Adverbs. For example,

1. Rabia goes slowly. 2. The child walks very slowly.

3. The bird flew exactly over our head. 4. She is very beautiful.

6- Preposition: A Preposition is a word which is placed before a noun or a pronoun to show its relation with other noun, pronoun or thing. For example,

1. The book is on the table. 2. The fish is in the pond.

3. The dog is behind you. 4. What do you say about her?

5. The beggar is sitting under the tree.

7- Conjunction: A Conjunction is a word used to join words, clauses and sentences. For example,

1. Lubna and Abida are good girls. 2. He is sad but hopeful.

3. Learn your lesson or leave the class.

8- Interjection: An Interjection is a word which expresses some sudden feeling of the mind. For example,

1. Hurrah! Today is a holiday.

2. Alas! I have lost my car.

3. Oh! What a nice view.

4. Well! You are a liar.

5. Bravo! You have done well.

NOUN AND ITS KINDS

NOUN: Noun is a naming word.

Kinds of Noun: There are five kinds of Nouns.

- 1- Proper Noun 2- Common Noun 3- Collective Noun 4- Material Noun
- 5- Abstract Noun

1- Proper Noun: A Proper Noun is the name of some particular person, place or thing.
For example,

G.M. Shahid, Faisalabad, The Learner's English Grammars, Pakistan.

2- Common Noun: A Common Noun is a name given in common to every person, place or thing of the same class or kind. For example,
King, Man, Boy, Girl, Book, City, Table, Room, Teacher

3- Collective Noun: A Collective Noun denotes a group or collection of similar persons or things considered as one complete whole. For example,
Army, Crowd, Class, fleet, Nation, Police, Jury, Committee, Congregation, Parliament.

4- Material Noun: A Material Noun is the name of material or matter or substance of which the things are made. For example,
Gold, Wood, Water, Milk, Cotton, Iron, Silver.

5- Abstract Noun: An Abstract Noun is the name of qualities, states or action which cannot be seen or touched. For example,
Honesty, Beauty, Kindness, Laughter, Boyhood, Youth, Courage, Love, Slavery

Countable and Uncountable Nouns

In Modern English Grammar Nouns are broadly divided into two categories —

(a) Countable Noun (b) Uncountable Noun or Mass Noun

Countable Nouns are those which can be counted.

Uncountable Nouns are those which cannot be counted.

Note: Countable Nouns can have a/an or a numeral word (one, two etc. before them or can be used in the plural). Uncountable Nouns are not used with a/an or a numeral word or in the plural.

1. We have got three children, two cows and a dog.
2. Air and water are essential to human life.

In the first sentence, children, cows and dog are Countable Nouns, whereas, in the second sentence, air and water are Uncountable.

PRONOUN

A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun or noun-equivalent.

Kinds of Pronoun: (1) Personal Pronoun (2) Impersonal Pronoun (3) Possessive Pronoun (4) Interrogative Pronoun (5) Demonstrative Pronoun (6) Indefinite Pronoun (7) Relative Pronoun (8) Distributive Pronoun (9) Reflexive and Emphatic Pronoun (10) Reciprocal Pronoun

(1) Personal Pronoun:

When a Pronoun is used instead of a person, it is called a Personal Pronoun.

Personal Pronoun In Different Persons and Cases

| Person | Number | Subject (Nominative) | Object (O)bjective | Possessive |
|--------------|----------|-------------------------|-----------------------|----------------|
| First Person | Singular | I | me | my, mine |
| | Plural | We | us | our, ours |
| 2nd Person | Singular | You | you | your, yours |
| | Plural | You | you | your; yours |
| 3rd Person | Singular | He, She | him, her | his, her, hers |
| | Plural | They | them | their, theirs |

Note: Though basically Pronouns, my, our, your, his, her and their are Possessive Adjectives for their function.

(2) Impersonal Pronoun:

There is another type of Pronoun called Impersonal Pronoun (e.g. It). It is used for non-living things, lower animals, etc. For example,

1. It is a pen.
2. The horse fell and broke its leg.
3. Here is a book; take it.
4. When I saw the child, it was crying.

(3) Possessive Pronoun:

A Pronoun is called Possessive Pronoun when it denotes possession.

Such Possessive Pronouns are: my, mine, our, ours, your, yours, his, her, hers, their, theirs, its.

But in Modern English: my, our, your, his, her, their — when used attributively before nouns — are classed as Possessive Adjectives.

For example: my pen, our home, your book, his house, her letter etc.

The alternative forms mine, ours, yours, hers, theirs are used as Possessive Pronouns. For example,

This book is mine. That horse is yours.

However, "his" may be used both as Possessive Adjective and as a Possessive Pronoun. For example,

This is his book. This book is his.

(4) Interrogative Pronouns:

They are pronouns which are used for asking questions. They are used in place of the noun which we get in answer to the question. For example,

What is this? It is a book.

The following are the Interrogative Pronouns:

Who, Whom, Whose, Which, What

(i) Who, Whom and Whose are used for indicating persons:

1. Who are you?
2. Whom do you like? / Who do you like?
3. Whose is this book? [But Whose book is this? = Modern usage)
(Here Whose is Interroative Adjective)]

Note: "Today "Who" is more usual than "Whom", especially in spoken English.

ii) "Which" is used for selecting a person or a thing!

Which is your book? Which is your friend?

iii) What is used in general sense of asking:

What is he? What is your name? What are you doing?

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In the following examples Which and What are not Interrogative Pronouns but Adjectives:

- What book do you want? Which book is he reading? Which way leads to the post-office?

(5) Demonstrative Pronouns:

These pronouns are used in place of nouns to which they point. In other words we use Demonstrative Pronouns to point out the Objects to which they refer. This, That, These, Those are the Demonstrative Pronouns.

1. This is a gift from my elder brother.
2. These are merely excuses.
3. She may buy That.
4. Those are my books.

(6) Indefinite Pronouns:

"Indefinite Pronouns" are those which refer to persons or things in general (not in particular).

Some, few, many, all, much, none, one, any, little, others, enough, less etc. are the Indefinite Pronouns.

1. Anybody can do this easy task.
2. One must do one's duty.
3. Many of them were injured but a few escaped unhurt.
4. What is everybody's business is nobody's business.

(7) Relative Pronouns:

"Relative Pronouns" are also called "Linking Pronouns". A Relative Pronoun is one that refers to a Noun or Pronoun and joins two sentences. It serves the purpose of both a Pronoun and a Conjunction.

1. I know the boy. The boy came from Faisalabad.
= I know the boy who came from Faisalabad.
2. This is the book. This book belongs to my father.
= This is the book which belongs to my father.
3. This is the rat. It was caught by a cat.
= This is the rat that was caught by a cat.

Antecedent: The Noun or Pronoun to which the Relative Pronoun refers is called its,

Antecedent. In other words, the Nouns or Pronouns immediately before the Relative Pronouns are called the Antecedents. In the above examples, "boy", "book" and "rat" are Antecedents.

(8) Distributive Pronouns:

We use **Distributive Pronouns** in order to refer to persons or things one at a time. For this reason they are always singular.

Each, Either, Neither are called Distributive Pronouns.

Each of the boys is healthy. Either of the roads leads to the market

Neither of the students was late

(9) Reflexive and Emphatic Pronouns:

| Singular | Plural |
|----------------|-------------------|
| I — myself | We — ourselves |
| You — yourself | You — yourselves |
| He — himself | They — themselves |
| She — herself | |
| It — itself | |

1. We use Reflexive Pronouns when the Subject and Object refer to the same person or thing.
 1. I cut myself.
 2. She blamed herself.
 3. Naila is looking at herself
 4. You have hurt yourself.
 5. You have enjoyed yourselves.
 6. The prisoner hanged himself.
 9. They gave themselves much trouble.

NOTE: A Reflexive Pronoun is used as the Object of Verb or of a Preposition. Hence it comes after a Verb or a Preposition. Sometimes, Reflexive Pronoun is used emphatically. Such as Emphatic Pronoun comes after the Subject or after the Object.

We use a Reflexive Pronoun when an action turns back upon the Subject.

We use an Emphatic Pronoun to give emphasis on the Subject or Object.

- 1- Emphatic Pronouns are used to emphasise that the action is done by no one else.

1. I myself saw him (to) do it.
2. He himself said so.
3. She herself has cooked the meal.
4. I will do it myself.

NOTE: Reflexive and Emphatic Pronouns have the same self-form. However, all the Self Pronouns are broadly called Reflexive Pronouns.

(10) Reciprocal Pronouns:

"Each other" and "one another" are called Reciprocal Pronouns. We use Reciprocal Pronouns in order to refer to reciprocal relation.

1. The two boys hate each other.
2. They loved one another.
3. The brothers quarreled with each other.
4. They stood against one another.

ADJECTIVE

An Adjective is a word that qualifies a Noun or Pronoun

Kinds of Adjectives: There are eight kinds of Adjectives.

(1) Adjectives of Quality:

These show the quality, condition or state of a person or a thing. Examples: good, bad, wise, noble, rich, poor, great, hot, cold, warm etc.

1. Faisalabad is a large city.
2. Rizwan is a wise boy.
3. Tayyab is a good student.
4. My teacher is a noble person.

(2) Adjectives of Quantity:

These show the quantity of a thing. Adjectives of Quantity tell how much of a thing is meant. Examples: much, huge, some, all, a little, any, half, full, whole, enough, sufficient etc.

1. I took some milk.
2. The whole sum was expended.
3. A few boys are sitting in the room.
4. I cannot give you any milk.

(3) Numeral Adjectives:

These Adjectives tell how many persons or things are meant and in what order a person or thing stands.

Definite Numeral Adjectives: These show exact number or serial order of persons

or things.

Cardinals: One, two, three, etc.

Ordinals: First, Second, Third etc.

Examples: (1) I have two pens. (2) Sunday is the third day of the week.

(3) Zeeshan got second division in the examination.

Indefinite Numeral Adjectives: These do not show an exact number.

For example: all, some, many, certain, several etc.

1. There are several mistakes in your essay.

2. All the boys attended the party. 3. Here are some ripe mangoes.

(4) Demonstrative Adjectives:

These are the Adjectives that show which or what thing or person is meant.

Examples: this, that, these, those, such, etc.

1. This box is very heavy. 2. These boys are very hard-working.

3. That person is my uncle.

4. Those leaders have always betrayed their nation.

5. I dislike such an attitude.

(5) Distributive Adjectives:

These are the Adjectives which denote a person or a thing separately.

Examples: Each, every, either, neither

1. Each pen is of good quality. 2. Every boy was given some sweets.

3. Either Aslam or Akram will have to do it.

4. Neither accusation is true.

(6) Interrogative Adjectives:

These are the Adjectives that are used before a noun for asking a question.

Examples: What, Which, Whose

1. What places will you visit in Lahore?

2. Which course of action will he choose?

3. Whose house is this?

(7) Possessive Adjectives:

These are the Adjectives that show possession. **Examples:** my, our, your, his, her, their, its.

1. This is my car. 2. It is your pen.

3. These are our houses. 4. This tree sheds its leaves in autumn.

(8) Proper Adjectives:

These Adjectives are formed from Proper Nouns. **Examples:** Pakistani, Asian, Chinese, French, Punjabi, Persian, English, etc.

1. We deal in Persian rugs. 2. He is an English man.

3. He is a Pakistani player. 4. I like Chinese dishes.

VERB

A Verb is a word that tells something about a person or a thing. The verb is the most important word in a sentence, as there can be no sentence without it.

Parts of Verbs:

Transitive Verb:

A Verb is Transitive if the action does not stop with the agent, but passes from the

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agent to something else. For example:

1. We eat rice. 2. He does his home work 3. He kills a snake.

(2) Intransitive Verb:

A verb is Interansitive when the action stops with the agent, and does not pass from the agent to something else. For example;

1. Rivers flow. 2. Winds blow. 3. Birds fly. 4. Animals die.

(3) Auxiliary or Helping Verb:

An Auxiliary Verb is one which helps a Principal verb to form a tense or mood or voice. Hence it is also called a Helping Verb. For example;

1. She is writing a letter. 2. I have come to college.
3. He does not go to school. 4. She will sing a song.

Note: Helping Verbs are of two categories.

- (a) To be (is, are, am, was, were, has, have, had)
(b) Do, does, did, shall, should, will, would, can, could, may, might, must, ought.

(4) Linking Verb:

A verb such as "be" or "become" that connects a subject with the adjective or noun (called the complement) that describes it. For example; She became angry. In this sentence the verb "became" is a **Linking Verb**.

The Linking Verbs can be called "**Copulas**" or "**Copular Verbs**".

Common Linking Verbs are: be, seem, appear, look, sound, smell, taste, feel, become, get.

1. The weather is horrible. 2. That car looks fast.
3. It's getting late. 4. The stew smells good.
5. I do feel a fool.

Modal Auxiliaries

Modal Auxiliaries are given below:

can, could, shall, should, will, would; may, might, must, need, dare, used (to), ought(to)

Modal Auxiliaries are those helping verbs which help to express the mode or manner in which the action is done.

The Modals are different from other Auxiliaries "have", "be"; and "do" in three ways:

i) They do not have - s forms, ing forms, -ed forms or -en forms: do - does, did; have - having - had; be, being, been. But not may - maying or mayed.

ii). **Modals take only the base form of Principal Verbs after them:**

1. I can do the work alone. 2. He may not come here today.
3. You must abide by the rules.

iii) **Modals modify the meaning of the Main Verbs:**

Does he play hockey?

("Does" not to modify the main verb "play", but to form a mere question)

(But) He can play football. ("can" modifies the main verb "play" expressing ability)

Now see the Modals:

| Modals | Functions | Examples |
|------------|-------------------------------------|--|
| Will | asking | Will you help me? |
| Would | requesting | Would you give me your dictionary? |
| Shall | asking | Shall I do the work? |
| Should | suggestion | You should work hard. |
| Can | ability | He can drive a car. |
| Could | ability requesting | He could do the sum. Could you help me to do the sum? |
| May | possibility permission Prayer | He may come here today. May I come in? May you live long! |
| Might | possibility suggestion | His statement might be true. You might go to Lahore for training. |
| Must | certainty obligation | It must be good. You mustn't do this. You must obey your teachers. |
| Mustn't | prohibition | You must not (mustn't run in the sun). |
| Need | necessity | He need not go there (not "needs not") |
| Needn't | negation | I need not (needn't) want a book now. |
| Dare | bold assertion daring courage | I dare say you are a fool. He dares to stand alone. |
| Daren't | afraid to do | I dare not (daren't) follow you. He dare not (daren't) do it. ("dares not" is incorrect) |
| Ought (to) | moral obligation suggestion | We ought to love our neighbours. This is really a good film; you ought to see it. |
| Used (to) | habit | He used to walk early in the morning. |

ADVERB

An Adverb is a word which modifies the meaning of a Verb, an Adjective or another Adverb. An Adverb is a word used to modify any Part of Speech (except Noun or Pronoun) or a whole sentence. For example:

1. The fox runs quickly.
2. Saba is a very beautiful girl.
3. She sings extremely well.
4. The bird flew exactly over our head.
5. He has hardly any friend.
6. The machine is completely out of order.
7. I dislike him simply because he is a liar.
8. Unfortunately, he could not continue his studies.

Kinds of Adverbs: There are three kinds of Adverbs:

(1) Simple Adverbs (2) Relative or Conjunctive Adverbs (3) Interrogative Adverbs.

1- Simple Adverb

Simple Adverbs are of seven kinds:

(1) Adverbs of Place:

They tell us of the place where some action is being done. For example; stand here.
Go there. Come in.
List: here, there, hence, thence, far, out, down, aside, forward, above, below, ahead, overhead, etc.

(2) Adverbs of Time:

Words or group of words which tell us of the time of an action is called Adverbs of Adverbials of Time. For example,

1. The train arrived late.
2. He came here yesterday.
3. He seldom plays cricket.
4. Abid frequently goes to Lahore.

List: Now, then, before, since, ago, always, already, often, seldom, once, twice, thrice, again, late, afterwards, today, yesterday, tomorrow, daily, early, frequently, presently, immediately etc.

(3) Adverbs of Manner:

They tell us of the way or manner in which an action is done. For example;

1. Rizwan reads clearly.
2. The child slept soundly.
3. The soldiers fought bravely.
4. The boy has been treated badly.

List: Clarly, closely, correctively, bravely, badly, sadly, softly, steadily, slowly, soundly, simply, suddenly, carefully, easily, possibly, luckily, fortunately, unfortunately, naturally, wrongly, well, etc.

(4) Adverbs of Degree:

They tell us how much, to what extent or in what degree, an action is done. For example;

1. He is fully prepared.
2. He is good enough for his duties.
3. She is quite happy.
4. The fruit is almost ripe.
5. He was too careless to be mentioned.
6. He runs very fast.

List: Almost, quite, very, much, fully, partly, wholly, completely, totally, strongly, entirely, greatly, poorly, half, enough, somewhat, altogether, too, little, a little, rather etc.

(5) Adverbs of Number or Frequency:

They tell us how often or how many times or how frequently an action is done. For example:

1. I have read the book thrice.
2. I always speak the truth.
3. He never comes late.

(6) Adverbs of Negation and Affirmation:

They tell us that some action is done or not done. For example:

1. It is not my book.
2. Perhaps you are right.
3. I will certainly help you.

List: not, no, yes, indeed, perhaps, certainly etc.

(7) Adverbs of Reason:

They tell us why some action was done or not done. For example:

1. He is ill, so he cannot go to the college.
2. He, therefore, left the school.
3. He works hard so that he can succeed.

List: hence, therefore, so, so that, etc.

2- Relative or Conjunctive Adverbs

The Relative Adverb joins two sentences together and shows its relation to its antecedent expressed or understood.

when, how, why, where, what etc. are the Relative Adverbs. For example:

1. Show me the house where he was born.
2. I do not know why he disobeyed me.
3. You may go where you like.
4. We do not know how it is done.
5. We shall go when he comes.

NOTE: "The" as a Relative Adverb:

"The" is sometimes used as a Relative Adverb which is always followed by another Adverb of Comparative degree.

1. The sooner, the better.
2. The more they have, the more they want.

3- Interrogative Adverbs

When Adverbs are used in asking questions, they are called Interrogative Adverbs.

List: when, where; why, how, how many, how much, how often, how far, how long, how high, etc.

- 1- Interrogative Adverb of Place:
- 2- Interrogative Adverb of Time:
- 3- Interrogative Adverb of Reason:
- 4- Interrogative Adverb of Manner:
- 5- Interrogative Adverb of Number:
- 6- Interrogative Adverb of Quantity:
- 7- Interrogative Adverb of Frequency:
- 8- Interrogative Adverb of Degree:

- Where is Abid?
- When did he come?
- Why are you late?
- How did he do this?
- How many students are there?
- How much milk would you take?
- How often are the pups born?
- How far was the report true?

PREPOSITION

A Preposition is a word placed before a noun or a pronoun to show its relation to any other word of the sentence. The noun or pronoun or the noun-equivalent is called its object. For example:

1. Abid is coming with Zeeshan.
3. What do you think of him?
5. You should stand by him.
2. She is skilled in swimming.
4. The cows are in the field.
6. The sky is above our head.

Kinds of Prepositions:

Prepositions may be arranged in the following classes:

(1) Simple Prepositions:

at, in, on, by, of, for, over, under, up, to, from, out, with etc.

(2) Double Prepositions:

into, onto, within, without, from among, towards etc.

(3) Compound Prepositions:

These are formed usually prefixing a Preposition to a Noun, an Adjective or an Adverb.

Across (= on + cross),
behind (= by + hind),

along (= on + long)
beneath (= by + neath)

beside (= by + side), underneath (= under + neath)
(a = on; be = by in such cases.)

(4) Prepositional Phrases or Phrase Prepositions:

Groups of words used with the force of a single Preposition are called Prepositional Phrases or Phrase Prepositions. For example:

1. He succeeded by dint of merit.
2. Please give me a pen instead of a pencil.
3. In course of time he found his mistake.

(5) Participle Prepositions:

Some Present or Past Participles are used as Prepositions: For example:

1. What do you know regarding this proposal?
2. Considering the quality, the price is not high.
3. The river flows past the village.

CONJUNCTIONS

A Conjunction is a word that joins together words, sentences and clauses. For example:

1. Rizwan and Arslan are two friends.
2. They are sad but hopeful.
3. He is so weak that he cannot walk.
4. My father says that this book is mine.
5. She walks slowly lest she should fall down.

Kinds of Conjunctions:

(1) Co-ordinating Conjunctions:

Which join together clauses of equal rank. The chief conjunctions of this class are: And, but, for, or, nor, also, etc.

Co-ordinating Conjunctions are of four types:

- a) **Cumulative** — and, both and, as well as, etc.
- b) **Alternative** — or, either or, neither nor, etc.
- c) **Adversative** — but, yet, still, etc.
- d) **Illative** — so, therefore, etc.

(2) Subordinating Conjunctions:

Which join together a principal clause with its dependent or subordinate clause or clauses. The chief conjunctions of this group are: After, because, if, that, though, although, till, before, as, unless, where, when, while, since, except, than, until, etc.

(3) Correlative Conjunctions / Correlatives

There are some Conjunctions that go in pairs. They are called Correlatives:

Both — and; either — or; neither — nor; not only — but also; so — that; such — that; no sooner — than; hardly — when, scarcely — when; else — than; rather — than; else — but; as — as;

1. He is both a fool and a knave.
2. He is as busy as a bee.
3. He is not only wise but also good.
4. He must either work or go.
5. He would rather die than beg.
6. He behaved neither wisely nor kindly.

INTERJECTIONS

An Interjection is a word which expresses some sudden feeling. Read the following sentences:

Hello, Saima! How do you do?

Alas! I have lost my purse.

Hurrah! Today is a holiday.

Oh! What a nice view.

Fie! You are a liar.

Bravo! You have done well.

Interjections may express:

- a) Joy: Hurrah! How! (How nice to meet you!)
- b) Grief: Alas! (Alas! The man is dead.)
- c) Surprise: Ah! Ha! What! How!
- d) Encouragement: Bravo!

Certain groups of words are also used to express some sudden feeling or emotion; Ah me! For shame! Well done! Good gracious! Good heavens! etc.

EXERCISES

1- Classify the following words according to the Parts of Speech:

father, mother, brother, sister, boy, girl, you, we, his, she, they, hot, cold, beautiful, ugly, kind, cruel, red, white, break, burn, ask, keep, learn, teach, stand, sleep, swim, dance, write, weave, again, ago, early, often, never, always, surely, openly.

2- Point out the different Parts of Speech in the following:

(1) Amin and Saleem are brothers. (2) The clothes have been washed with soap. (3) The girl has a sweet voice. (4) Columbus discovered America. (5) Solmon was famous for his wisdom. (6) He treats his children with great kindness (7) The people who live in Pakistan are called Pakistani. (8) Parents must do their duty to their children. (9) The stars shine through the branches of the tree. (10) The days in all places are hotter than the nights.

2- THE ARTICLES

"A" or "An" and "the" are called the Articles.

They are really Demonstrative Adjectives

Indefinite Article:

"A" or "An" is called the Indefinite Article, because it is used when we do not speak of any definite or particular person or thing; as,
"A man, an ass, a house, an ox.

Definite Article:

"The" is called Definite Article, because it is used when we speak of a definite or particular object; as,

1. The house has caught fire. 2. The accused was not found guilty.
 3. The teacher has come. 4. The watchman is sleeping.
 5. He saw the doctor (meaning some particular doctor)
- ★ The Indefinite article is used before singular countable nouns, e.g.,
A book, an orange, a girl.

- ☆ The Definite Article is used before singular countable nouns, plural countable nouns and uncountable nouns, e.g.,
The book, the books, the milk.

Uses of A or An

Rule-1: The choice between a or an is determined by sound. Before a word beginning with a vowel sound an is used; as,

An ass, an enemy, an inkstand, an orange, an umbrella, an hour, an honest, an heir, an apple, an eye, an ox.

It will be noticed that the words hour, honest, heir begin with a vowel sound, as the initial h is not pronounced.

Rule-2: Before a word beginning with a consonant sound a is used; as,

A boy, a dear, a woman, a yard, a horse, a hole, a university, a union, a European, a ewe, a unicorn, a useful article.

because these words (university, union, etc.) begin with a consonant sound, that of y.

Similarly we say,

A one-rupee note, such a one, a one-eyed man.

because one begins with the consonant sound of w.

NOTE: Some native speakers use an before words beginning with h if the first syllable is not stressed.

An hotel (More common: a hotel).

an historical novel (More common: a historical novel)

Uses of the Definite Article

Rule-1: "The" is used when we talk about a particular person or thing or one already referred to (that is, when it is clear from the context which one we mean); as,

1. Let us go to the school. (i.e. the school with which we are connected).
2. Call the man standing at the door.
3. The house I have just rented is a commodious one.
4. He has gone to the post-office. (i.e. the post office of our town).

Rule-2: The is used before a Common Noun in the singular number to represent a whole class; as,

1. The horse is a useful animal.
2. The bee collects honey from flowers.
3. The rose is a sweet-scented flower.
4. The cat loves comfort.

Rule-3: (a) The is used before the names of nations.

the English, the Japanese, the Pakistanis, the French

(b) The is used before the descriptive names of some provinces.
the Punjab, the Deccan, the United States.

(c) The is used before a very few names of countries, which include words like republic and kingdom.

the Irish Republic, the United Kingdom, the Ukraine, the Netherlands (and its seat of government the Hague)

(d) The is used before the names of newspapers and magazines.

The News, The Tribune, The Jang, The Nawa-e-Waqat, The Mag, The Herald,

Dawn.

- (e) **The** is used before the names of sacred books.
The Holy Quran, the Bible.
- (f) **The** is used before the names of groups of islands.
the West Indies, the East Indies, the British Isles, the Andamans
- (g) **The** is used before the names of mountain ranges, but not single mountains.
the Himalays, the Alps, the Suleiman Range
- (h) **The** is used before the names of canals, rivers, seas, oceans, gulfs, passes, straits and deserts.
the Suez Canal, the Chenab, the Ravi, the Satlaj, the Indus, the Red Sea, the Arabian Sea, the Pacific Ocean, the Atlantic Sea, the Atlantic Ocean, the Bay of Bengal, the Persian Gulf, the Straits of Gibraltar, the Khyber Pass, the Sahara.
- (i) **The** is used with Proper nouns preceded by defining adjectives, or titles of honour or rank.
the Great Alexander, the Emperor Napoleon, the Late Prof. G.S. Dogar.

Rule-4: **The** is used before nouns denoting some unique objects.

The sun, the sky, the earth, the moon, the sea, the ocean, the world, the East, the North, the right, the left.

Rule-5: **The** is used before a proper noun when it is qualified by an Adjective or a defining adjectival clause; as,

The great Caesar, the immortal Shakespeare, The Mr. Roy whom you met last night is my uncle.

Rule-6: **The** is used with Superlative degree;

1. It is the hottest day of the month.
2. The darkest cloud has a silver lining.
3. This is the best book on English grammar.

Rule-7: **The** is used with ordinals; as,

1. He was the first man to arrive.
2. The ninth chapter of the book is very interesting.

Rule-8: **The** is used before musical instruments.

He can play the flute.

Rule-9: **The** is used as an Adverb with Comparatives; as,

1. The more; the merrier.
2. The more they get, the more they want.

Rule-10: **The** is used before an Adjective used as a noun.

The poor, the rich, the blind, the brave, the living, the good, the beautiful.

OMISSION OF THE ARTICLE -OR- ZERO ARTICLE

The Article is omitted:

1- Before names of substances and abstract nouns (i.e. uncountable nouns) used in a general sense.

1. Sugar is bad for your teeth.
2. Gold is a precious metal.
3. Wisdom is the gift of heaven.
4. Honesty is the best policy.
5. Virtue is its own reward.

NOTE: Uncountable nouns take **the** when used in a particular sense (especially when

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qualified by an adjective or adjectival phrase or clause); as,
1. Would you pass me the sugar? (= the sugar on the table).

2. The wisdom of Solomon is great.
3. I cannot forget the kindness with which he treated me.
- 2- Before plural countable nouns used in a general sense; as,

1. Children like chocolates.
2. Computers are used in many offices.

Note that such nouns take the when used with a particular meaning; as,
Where are the children? (= our children).

- 3- Before most proper nouns (except those referred to earlier), namely, names of people (e.g. Aslam, Rizwan, Abid) names of continents, countries, cities (e.g. Europe, Pakistan, Faisalabad), names of individual mountains (e.g. Mount Everest), individual island, lakes, hills, etc.
- 4- Before names of meals (used in general sense); as,

1. What time do you have lunch?
2. Dinner is ready.

NOTE: We use a when there is an adjective before breakfast, lunch, dinner, etc. We use the when we specify.

1. I had a late lunch today.
2. The dinner we had at the Tourist Hotel was very nice.

- 5- Before languages; as,

1. We are studying English.
2. They speak Punjabi at home.

- 6- Before school, college, church, bed, table, hospital, market, prison, when these places are visited or used for their primary purpose; as,

1. I learnt English at school.
2. We go to church on Sundays.
3. He stays in bed till nine every morning.
4. My uncle is still in hospital.

NOTE: The is used with these words when we refer to them as a definite place, building or object rather than the normal activity that goes on there; as,

1. The school is very near my home. 2. I met him at the church,
3. The bed is broken. 4. I went to the hospital to see my uncle.
- 7- Before names of relations like father, mother, aunt, uncle and also cook and nurse meaning "our cook", "our nurse", as,

1. Father has returned.
3. Cook has given notice.
2. Aunt wants you to see her.

- 8- Before predicative nouns denoting a unique position, i.e., a position that is normally held at one time by one person only; as,

1. He was elected Chairman of the Board.
2. Mr. G.M. Shahid became Principal of the College in 2015.

3- SENTENCE STRUCTURE

- Sentence:** A Sentence is a group of words that makes a complete sense. For example:
1. Zeeshan writes a letter.
 2. Birds fly
 3. Dogs bark
 4. She sings well.

Parts of Sentence:**1- Subject:**

A person or thing about which something is said is called the Subject.

2- Predicate:

The part which tells something about the Subject is called the Predicate of the sentence.

Subject or Noun Part:

The Subject part of the sentence consists of Nouns, Pronouns or Adjectives.

Predicate or Verb Part:

The Predicate part of the sentence consists of Finite Verbs, Objects / Complements, Adverbials and Modifiers.

| Subject | Predicate |
|------------------------|---|
| 1- The boy | got the prize |
| 2- The intelligent boy | got the prize for standing first in the examination |
| 3- The birds | fly |

1. COMPLEMENTS

The word 'Complement' is used in a wider sense. We often need to add something to a verb, noun or adjective to complete its meaning. If somebody says 'I want', we expect to hear what he or she wants; the words 'the need' obviously don't make sense alone; after hearing 'I am interested' we may need to be told what the speaker is interested in. Words and expressions which 'complete' the meaning of a verb, noun or adjective are called '*complements*'.

1. I want a cup of tea, and then *I want to go home*.
2. Does she understand the *need for secrecy*?
3. I am *interested in learning to fly*.

2. LINKING VERBS (Copula, Copular Verbs)

A linking verb is followed by a word or word group that indicates, describes or classifies the subject:

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. Whales <i>are</i> mammals. | 2. Caterpillars <i>become</i> butterflies. |
| 3. Qateel Shaffai <i>is</i> a songwriter. | 4. Aruba <i>felt</i> sleepy. |
| 5. Asprin <i>tastes</i> bitter. | 6. The alligator <i>looked</i> hungry. |

The most widely used linking verb is a form of 'be' such as *is, are, was or were*.

Other linking verbs include *seem, become, feel sound, and taste*.

A word or phrase that follows a linking verb is called a Subject Complement

A word or phrase that follows a linking verb is called a Subject Complement because it completes the meaning initiated by the subject and the linking verb. If the subject complement is a noun, such as *mammals* or *butterflies*, it is called a Predicate Noun. If the subject complement is an adjective, such as *sleepy* or *bitter*, it is called a Predicate Adjective.

| Subject | Verb | Complement |
|---------|---------|-------------------|
| Shahid | is | a teacher. |
| He | appears | very competent. |
| He | seems | in a great hurry. |
| He | is | downstairs. |

3. DIRECT AND INDIRECT OBJECTS

Sometimes the Verb in the Predicate is a Transitive Verb. It requires an object to complete its sense. Thus in 'Rizwan killed snakes' 'snakes' is the Object of the Verb 'killed'.

Some Transitive Verbs take two objects after them, one of which is usually the name of some *thing* and the other of some *person or animal*.

The thing named is called the *Direct object*; the person or animal named is called the *Indirect Object*.

| Subject | Verb | Indirect Object | Direct Object |
|------------|---------|-----------------|----------------------|
| 1. The sun | gives | us | light. |
| 2. They | played | him | a trick. |
| 3. Zeeshan | brought | Aruba | a bunch of flowers |
| 4. They | made | him | captain of the team. |

An indirect is one which can be preceded by 'to' or 'for'. For example,

1. Zeeshan brought (for) Aruba a bunch of flowers.
2. The sun gave (to) us light.

4. RULES FOR STRUCTURING SENTENCES

(1) **The ideas, which are not closely connected must be expressed in separate sentences: For example.**

Wrong: The seating arrangement was good but the question paper was ambiguous and difficult.

Right: The seating arrangement was good. However, the question paper was ambiguous and difficult.

(2) **If there are short sentences which are closely connected to one another, write them in one sentence. For example.**

Wrong: Abid wanted a college education. He was a good student. His family was poor. The college gave him a scholarship.

Right: The college gave Abid a scholarship because he needed money, wanted education, and was an intelligent student.

(3) **Place modifiers, adjectives and adverbs near the word they modify. For example.**

1. **Wrong:** He broke his leg almost playing football.

Right: He almost broke his leg playing football.

2. **Wrong:** He gave a book to his father bound in leather.

Right: He gave a book bound in leather to his father.

(4) **Make clear, the reference or connection of every participle and Pronoun. For example:**

1. **Wrong:** Entering the room, a book was found lying on the floor.

Right: Entering the room, I found a book lying on the floor.

2. **Wrong:** I saw a goldfinch riding my bike through the park yesterday.

Right: Riding my bike through the park yesterday, I saw a goldfinch.

3. **Wrong:** When Abid met Riaz in the cave, he ran for his life.

Right: When Abid met Riaz in the cave, Abid ran for his life.

4. **Wrong:** Saima loves horseback riding, although she almost fell off it once.

Right: Saima loves horseback riding, although she almost fell off her horse once.

- (5) *Be consistent. Keep the same tense, voice and form throughout the sentence.* For example:

1. **Wrong:** He hated prejudice; and the people of all races were considered equal by him.

Right: He hated prejudice and considered the people of all races equal.

2. **Wrong:** Playing Table Tennis is delightful but to box is barbaric.

Right: Playing Table Tennis is delightful but boxing is barbaric.

3. **Wrong:** I like swimming, skiing and to play hockey.

Right: I like swimming, skiing and playing hockey. -OR I like to swim, ski and play hockey

THE PHRASE

A combination of words that makes sense, but not a complete sense, is called a Phrase.
In the east. In a corner. On the river. Through thick and thin. A brid in hand.

KINDS OF PHRASES

Read the following sentences:-

1. He was lad *of great promise*. 2. Nelson fell *on this spot*. 3. Promise *to come again*.

In sentence (1) the group of words '*of great promise*' qualifies the noun '*lad*' and therefore does the work of an adjective. Such a group of words is called an *Adjective Phrase*.

In sentence (2) the group of words '*on this spot*' tells us where Nelson fell. It modifies the verb *fell*. Such a group of words is called an *Adverb Phrase*.

In sentence (3) the group of words '*to come again*' is the object of the verb *promise*, and does the work of a noun. Such a group of words is called a *Noun Phrase*.

So there are three kinds of phrases, viz:-

1. The Adjective Phrase. 2. The Adverb Phrase. 3. The Noun Phrase.

Besides these there are Verb Phrases, Conjunctional phrases and prepositional Phrases.

Certain phrases can be used both as Adjective and Adverb phrases in different sentences. If the phrase qualifies a noun, we have an Adjective phrase; if it modifies a verb we have an Adverb phrase: as,

The crowd *in the hall* was clamorous. (Adjective phrase, qualifying the noun *crowd*).

The clamorous crowd stood *in the hall*. (Adverb phrase, modifying the verb *stood*)

THE CLAUSE

A sentence which is a part of a larger sentence is called a Clause. It contains a *Subject* and a *Predicate*. For example.

1. This is the house / where we live. 2. She has a chain / which is made of gold.

In the first sentence "**Where we live**" is a sentence because it has a subject "**we**" and a predicate "**live**". Similarly, "This is the house" is a sentence having "**this**" for its subject and "**is**" for its predicate. But both are parts of a larger sentence and hence each of them is called **a clause**.

Read the following sentence:-

We should live *where the climate* is good.

The above sentence consists of two parts:-

1. We should live.

2. Where the climate is good.

Each part contains a Subject and a Predicate of its own. Each part is, therefore, a Clause.

The Clause '*we should live*' makes good sense by itself, and hence may stand by itself as a complete sentence. It is, therefore, called the *Principal or Main Clause*.

The Clause "*where the climate is good*" cannot stand by itself and make good sense. It is *Dependent or Subordinate Clause*.

SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

They are of three kinds, according to their function:-

(1) A subordinate Clause which does the work of an Adjective is an Adjective Clause; as,
Blessed are those *whose cares are few*.

I have lost the book *that he gave me*.

(2) A subordinate Clause which does the work of an Adverb is an Adverb Clause; as,
Go *where you please*. Return *as soon as it is ten*.

(3) A subordinate Clause which does the work of a Noun is a Noun Clause; as,
That he is going to get the job is certain

I do not know *how he did it*.

THE CO-ORDINATE CLAUSE

Examine the following sentence:-

He is very poor but he does not beg.

This sentence consists of two parts:-

1. He is very poor.
2. He does not beg.

These two parts are joined by the Co-ordinative Conjunction *but*.

Each part contains a Subject and a Predicate of its own, and is therefore a Clause.

Each Clause makes good sense and may stand by itself. Each Clause is, therefore, *independent* of the other, or, in other words, is of *equal rank or order*, and is called a Co-ordinate Clause.

Note— Clauses joined by Co-ordinative Conjunctions are called Co-ordinate Clauses.

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES

(on the basis of their meanings or functions)

Sentences may be classified either (1) on the basis of their meaning or (2) on the basis of their construction or structure.

1. Assertive or Declarative Sentences

Sentences which simply tell us that some action or event has taken place or not are called assertive or declarative sentences.

1. Riaz is a hard working boy.
2. Robina is not writing a letter.
3. They do not agree to your proposal.

2. Interrogative Sentences

Interrogative sentences are sentences which ask questions.

1. Where are you going?
2. Is it raining outside?
3. What is the time by your watch?
4. How are you?

3. Imperative Sentences

Imperative sentences are sentences which express some *request or order* or

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advice. In these sentences the subject 'you' is understood.

1. Polish my shoes. (Order)
2. Please give me your pen. (request)
3. Do not waste your time. (advice)

4. Exclamatory Sentences

Exclamatory sentences express some strong feelings of mind as joy, sorrow, surprise or wonder. The mark of exclamation (!) is always used at the end of these sentences or words.

1. Hurrah! we have won the match.
2. Alas! He is dead. (Sorrow)
3. What a beautiful bird! (wonder)

5. Optative Sentences

Optative sentences express some wish.

1. May you succeed in the examination!
2. Would that he were rich!
3. May you live long!

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES

(On the basis of their construction)

On the basis of their structure or construction, sentences may be classified as,

1. SIMPLE SENTENCE:

A simple sentence is a sentence which has only one *predicate or 'finite verb'*. For example.

1. Aslam killed a snake.
2. His courage won him honour.
3. Rizwan is going to help his friend.

2. COMPOUND SENTENCES:

A compound sentence consists of two or more clauses of equal rank joined together by some co-ordinating conjunction. These clauses are independant of each other. They have simply been joined together. For example:

Night came on and rain fell heavily and we all got very wet.

The sentence has three clauses of equal rank:

(a) Night came on (b) Rain fell heavily. (c) We all got very wet.

These clauses are independent of each other i.e. each of them can make a complete sense without the other. Hence the sentence is compound.

Note: The term **Double** is now used for sentence which contains two co-ordinate clauses, and the term **Multiple** for a sentence which consists of more than two Co-ordinate clauses; as,

1. I loved him but he hated me (**Double sentence**)
2. He was a mere boy but he offered to fight the dragon, and slew him. (**Multiple sentence**)

COMPLEX SENTENCE

A sentence which contains one main or principal clause and one or more dependent or subordinate clauses is called a **Complex Sentence**. The principal clause stands by itself and makes a complete sense. Subordinate clauses cannot stand by themselves but are dependent on the principal clause. They are joined together by some sub-ordinating

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conjunction. For example:

1. They rested when evening came.
 - (i) They rested. (Principal clause)
 - (ii) When evening came, (Subordinate clause)

The clause "**When evening came**" cannot stand by itself and make good sense. It is dependent on the clause "**they rested**". It is, therefore, called a Dependent or Subordinate Clause. Such a sentence is called a Complex Sentence.

2. As the boxers advanced into the ring, the people said they would not allow them to fight.

This sentence consists of three Clauses:-

- (i) The people said. (Main Clause)
- (ii) As the boxers advanced into the ring. (Subordinate Adverb Clause)
- (iii) They would not allow them to fight. (Subordinate Noun Clause)

It is also called a Complex Sentence.

3. They waited till the tiger came to the place where the goat stood.

- (i) They waited (Main Clause)
- (ii) Till the tiger came (Subordinate Clause)
- (iii) Where the goat stood (Subordinate Clause).

Note:- A complex Sentence consists of one Main Clause and one or more Subordinate Clauses.

Transformation of Sentences / Inversion of Sentences

To transform a sentence means to change it from one grammatical form to another without altering its meaning.

The language changes but the sense remains the same. The conversion or transformation of sentences is an excellent exercise as it teaches variety of expression in writing English. However, effective transformation requires constant practice and intensive drill in grammar.

1- Sentences Containing the Adverb "too"

We can change the form of sentence containing the adverb **"too"** as shown below:

1. He is **too** honest to steal.

He is **so** honest that he cannot steal.

2. You are **too** weak to walk.

You are **so** weak that you cannot walk.

3. The news is **too** good to be true.

The news is **so** good that it cannot be true.

2- Transformation by Changing the Degrees of Comparison

Degree of Comparison of an Adjective or an Adverb in a sentence can be changed as follows without changing the meaning of the sentence.

- 1- **Positive:** No other city of Pakistan is as large as Karachi.

Comparative: Karachi is larger than any other city of Pakistan.

Superlative: Karachi is the largest city of Pakistan.

- 2- **Positive:** I am not so great as he.

Comparative: He is greater than I.

| | |
|-----|------|
| 3- | Posi |
| 4- | Posi |
| 5- | Sup |
| 6- | Pos |
| 7- | Co |
| 8- | Po |
| 9- | Co |
| 10- | su |
| 1- | A |
| 2- | F |
| 3- | A |
| 4- | R |
| 5- | I |
| 6- | C |
| 7- | E |
| 8- | S |
| 9- | T |
| 10- | o |
| 4- | o |
| 1- | o |

- 3- **Positive:** I am as brave as he.
Comparative: He is not braver than I.
- 4- **Positive:** No other metal is as useful as iron.
Comparative: Iron is more useful than any other metal.
Superlative: Iron is the most useful of all metals.
- 5- **Superlative:** Gold is the costliest of all metals.
Comparative: Gold is costlier than any other metal.
Positive: No other metal is as costly as gold.
- 6- **Positive:** I am as strong as he.
Comparative: He is not stronger than I.
- 7- **Positive:** This razor is not as sharp as that one.
Comparative: That razor is sharper than this one.
- 8- **Positive:** Ayesha is not so clever as some other girls of the class.
Comparative: Some girls of the class are cleverer than Ayesha.
Superlative: Ayesha is not one of the cleverest girls of the class.

3- Change of Voice (Active and Passive)

A sentence in the Active Voice can be changed into the Passive Voice and Passive Voice into Active Voice.

- 1- **Active:** Aslam killed a snake.
Passive: A snake was killed by Aslam.
- 2- **Active:** Brutus stabbed Caesar.
Passive: Caesar was stabbed by Brutus.
- 3- **Active:** The people will make him King.
Passive: He will be made King by the people.
- 4- **Active:** Shut the door.
Passive: Let the door be shut.
- 5- **Active:** Who taught you English?
Passive: By whom were you taught English?
- 6- **Passive:** The crop has been sown.
Active: The farmer has sown the crop.
- 7- **Passive:** I shall be compelled to go.
Active: Circumstances will compell me to go.
- 8- **Passive:** Let promises be kept.
Active: A man should keep his promises.
- 9- **Passive:** By whom was the cup broken?
Active: Who broke the cup?
- 10- **Passive:** My pocket has been picked.
Active: Someone has picked my pocket.

4- Interchange of Affirmative and Negative Sentences:

Study the following examples:

- 1- **Affirmative:** Amin loved Sadia.
Negative: Amin was not without love for Sadia.

- 2- **Affirmative:** Every rose has a thorn.
Negative: There is no rose without a thorn.
- 3- **Affirmative:** He is greater than I.
Negative: I am not so great as he.
- 4- **Affirmative:** You are a dull boy.
Negative: You are not an intelligent boy.
- 5- **Affirmative:** I was doubtful whether it was you.
Negative: I was not sure that it was you.
- 6- **Affirmative:** Old fools surpass all other fools in folly.
Negative: There is no fool like an old fool.

5- Interchange of Interrogative and Assertive Sentences:

Study the following examples:

- 1- **Interrogative:** Who can change the colour of his skin?
Assertive: None can change the colour of his skin.
- 2- **Interrogative:** Does every person not love his country?
Assertive: Every person loves his country.
- 3- **Interrogative:** Is there anything better than a busy life?
Assertive: There is nothing better than a busy life.
- 4- **Interrogative:** Who does not like to have money?
Assertive: Every one likes to have money.
- 5- **Interrogative:** Is it not useless to offer bread to a man who is dying of thirst?
Assertive: It is useless to offer bread to a man who is dying of thirst.
- 6- **Interrogative:** How can man die better than facing fearful odds?
Assertive: Man cannot die better than facing fearful odds.
- 7- **Interrogative:** Was he not a villain to do such a deed?
Assertive: He was a villain to do such a deed.
- 8- **Interrogative:** What though we happen to be late?
Assertive: It does not much matter though we happen to be late.

6- Interchange of Exclamatory and Assertive Sentences:

Study the following examples:

- 1- **Exclamatory:** How beautiful is the night!
Assertive: The night is very beautiful.
- 2- **Exclamatory:** O' that I were young again!
Assertive: I wish to be young again.
- 3- **Exclamatory:** What a horrible sight it is!
Assertive: It is a horrible sight.
- 4- **Exclamatory:** What a fool you are!
Assertive: You are a great fool.
- 5- **Exclamatory:** Had I but a friend to support me!
Assertive: I wish I had a friend to support me.
- 6- **Exclamatory:** He leads a most unhappy life.
Assertive: What an unhappy life he leads!

- 7- **Exclamatory:** Alas! Our beloved leader is dead!
Assertive: It is very sad that our beloved leader is dead.
- 8- **Exclamatory:** Hurrah! My friend is coming.
Assertive: I rejoice that my friend is coming.

7- Interchange of one Part of Speech for Another:

Study the following examples:

1. Such jokes do not amuse me.
 Such jokes do not give me any amusement.
2. He has disgraced his family.
 He is a disgrace to his family.
3. He examined the question carefully.
 He examined the question with care.
4. He fought bravely.
 He put up a brave fight.
5. Though the ant is small, it has as much intelligence as an elephant.
 Though the ant is small, it is as intelligent as an elephant.
6. He has dressed poorly and meanly.
 His dress was poor and mean.
7. I see him every day.
 I see him daily.

8- Conversion of Simple Sentences to Compound (Double) Sentences:

A Simple Sentence can be transformed into a Compound Sentence by enlarging a word or a phrase into a clause and joining it to the Principal or Main Clause by using some Co-ordinating Conjunction. For example,

- 1- **Simple:** He must work very hard to win the first prize.
Compound: He must work very hard or he will not win the first prize.
- 2- **Simple:** Besides robbing the poor child, he also murdered it.
Compound: He not only robbed the poor child, but also murdered it.
- 3- **Simple:** The teacher punished the boy for disobedience.
Compound: The boy was disobedient and so the teacher punished him.
- 4- **Simple:** He must not attempt to escape, on pain of death.
Compound: He must not attempt to escape, or he will be put to death.
- 5- **Simple:** Notwithstanding his hard work, he did not succeed.
Compound: He worked hard, yet did not succeed.

9- Conversion of Compound (Double) Sentences to Simple Sentences:

Study the following examples:

- 1- **Compound:** He finished his exercise and put away his books.
Simple: Having finished his exercise, he put away his books.
- 2- **Compound:** He was a mere boy but he offered to fight the giant.
Simple: In spite of his being a mere boy, he offered to fight the giant.
- 3- **Compound:** No only did his father give him money but his mother also
Simple: Besides his father giving him money, his mother also did the same.
- 4- **Compound:** We must eat or we cannot live.
Simple: We must eat to live.

10- Conversion of Simple Sentences to Complex Sentences:

A Simple Sentence can be converted to a Complex Sentence by expanding a word or phrase into a Subordinate Clause. This clause may be a Noun, Adjective or Adverb Clause.

- 1- **Simple:** He declared his innocence.
Complex: He said that he was not innocent.
- 2- **Simple:** He confessed his crime.
Complex: He confessed that he was guilty.
- 3- **Simple:** Hard working people are always successful.
Complex: People who hard work are always successful.
- 4- **Simple:** He died in his native village.
Complex: He died in the village where he was born.
- 5- **Simple:** In the absence of the cat the mice play.
Complex: When the cat is away, the mice play.

11- Conversion of Compound Sentences to Complex Sentences:

- 1- **Compound:** Waste not, want not.
Complex: If you do not waste, you will not want.
- 2- **Compound:** He wishes to pass the examination, therefore, he is working hard.
Complex: He is working hard that he may pass the examination.

12- Conversion of Complex Sentences to Compound Sentences:

- 1- **Complex:** I am certain that you have made a mistake.
Compound: You have made a mistake, and of this I am certain.
- 2- **Complex:** If he is at home, I shall see him.
Compound: He may be at home, and in that case I shall see him.
- 3- **Complex:** If you run, you will be in time.
Compound: You must run, or you will not be in time.

ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX SENTENCES

What is a Complex Sentence?

A Complex Sentence consists of one Main or Principal Clause and one or more Subordinate Clauses. For example:

They rested when evening came.

- i) They rested. (Main clause)
- ii) When evening came. (Subordinate or dependent clause)

Each part contains a Subject and a Predicate of its own, and forms part of a large sentence. Each part is therefore a clause.

1. We further notice that the Clause, **They rested**, makes good sense by itself and hence can stand by itself as a complete sentence.
It is, therefore, called the **Participle or Main Clause**.
2. The Clause, **when evening came**, cannot stand by itself and make good sense. It is dependent on the Clause, **They rested**. It is, therefore, called a **Dependent or Subordinate Clause**. Therefore, it is a **Complex Sentence**.

Study the following examples of the Analysis of Complex Sentences:

1. **The town in which I live is very large.**
 - (i) The town is very large. (Main Clause)
 - (ii) in which I live. (Subordinate Adjective Clause)
2. **I went because I was invited.**
 - (i) I want (Main Clause)
 - (ii) because I was invited (Subordinate Adverb Clause)
3. **He came oftener than we expected.**
 - (i) He came oftener (Main Clause)
 - (ii) than we expected (Subordinate Adverb Clause)
4. **My heart leaps up when I behold a rainbow in the sky.**
 - (i) My heart leaps up (Main Clause)
 - (ii) when I behold a rainbow in the sky (Subordinate Adverb Clause)
5. **Whenever he heard the question, the old man who lived in that house, answered that the earth is flat.**
 - (i) The old man ... answered (Principal clause)
 - (ii) Whenever he heard the question (Adverb Clause of time, modifying "answered" in 1)
 - (iii) Who lived in that house. (Adjective clause, qualifying man in 1)
 - (iv) that the earth is flat. (Noun clause, object of answered in 1)
6. **I think that he destroyed the letter which you sent there.**
 - (i) I think (Principal Clause)
 - (ii) that he destroyed the letter. (Noun clause, Object of "think" in 1)
 - (iii) which you sent there. (Adjective Clause, subordinate to 2, qualifying "letter")
7. **I know the man who said that this would happen.**
 - (i) I know the man (Principal Clause)
 - (ii) Who said (Adjective Clause qualifying "man" in 1)
 - (iii) That this would happen (Noun Clause subordinate to 2, object of said)
8. **I knew a man who believed that, if a man were permitted to make the ballads, he need not care who made the laws of nation.**
 - (i) I knew a man (Principal Clause)
 - (ii) who believed (Adjective Clause, qualifying a "man" in 1)
 - (iii) that he need not care. (Noun clause, subordinate to 2, object of "believe")
 - (iv) who made the laws of nation (Noun clause, subordinate to 2, object of "care")
 - (v) If a man were permitted to make the ballads (Adverb Clause of condition, subordinate to 3, modifying "need not care".)

Synthesis of Sentences

Synthesis is the opposite of Analysis. Analysis means breaking into parts; Synthesis means joining together of separate parts into a single whole.

Two or more separate sentences may be combined into a single sentence, Complex

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 or Compound, so as to impart greater force and lucidity to the narrative. The following
are the chief ways of combining two or more Simple sentences into one Simple
 sentence:

1. By using a Participle:

1. He went to the field. He worked hard.
 Reaching the field, he worked hard.
2. He jumped up. He ran away.
 Jumping up he ran away.
3. He hurt his foot. He stopped.
 Having hurt his foot, he stopped.

2. By using a Noun or a Phrase in Apposition:

1. There is my friend. His name is Nasir.
 This is my friend, Nasir.
2. This town was once prosperous. It was a sea-port.
 This town was once a prosperous sea-port.
3. The cow provides milk. Milk is a valuable food.
 The cow provides milk, a valuable food.

3. By using a Preposition with a Noun or Gerund.

1. The sun set. The farmers stopped their work.
 On the setting of the sun, the farmers stopped their work.
2. He has failed many times. He still hopes to succeed.
 In spite of many failures, he still hopes to succeed.
3. The moon rose. Their journey was not ended.
 The moon rose before the end of their journey.
4. Her husband died. She heard the news. She fainted.
 On hearing the news of her husband's death she fainted.

4. By using the Nominative Absolute Construction

1. The soldiers arrived. The mob dispersed.
 The soldiers having arrived, the mob dispersed.
2. It was a rainy day, we stayed within doors.
 It being a rainy day, we stayed within doors.
3. My friend arrived. He was very pleased.
 My friend having arrived, he was very pleased.

5. By using an Infinitive.

1. He is very honest. He cannot steal.
 He is too honest to steal.
2. He wanted to educate his son. He sent him to England.
 He sent his son to England to get education.
3. I have some duties. I must perform them.

I have some duties to perform.

4. We must finish this exercise. There are still five sentences.

We have still five sentences of this exercise to finish.

6. By using an Adverb or Adverbial Phrase.

1. He deserved to succeed. He failed.

He failed undeservedly.

2. He was obstinate. He refused to listen to advice.

He obstinately refused to listen to advice.

3. The sun set. The boys had not finished the game.

The boys had not finished the game by sunset..

Combination of two or more Simple Sentences into a Compound Sentence:

Two or more Simple Sentences may be combined into a Compound Sentence by the use of Co-ordinating Conjunctions. These are of four kinds — Cumulative, Adversative, Alternative and Illative.

1. He is a fool. He is a rogue.

He is a fool and a rogue. OR He is a fool as well as a rogue. OR He is not only a fool but also a rogue. OR He is both a fool and a rogue.

2. He is slow. He is sure.

He is slow but he is sure.

3. Make haste. You will be late.

Make haste or you will be late.

4. He was obstinate. He was punished.

He was obstinate; therefore, he was punished.

Combination of two or more Simple Sentences into a Single Complex Sentence

(a) By the use of a Noun Clause

1. He is wise. We know that.

We know that he is wise.

2. He has not come. It is certain.

It is certain that he has not come.

3. He may be innocent. I do not know.

I do not know whether he is innocent.

4. He is rather weak. Otherwise he is fit for the post.

Except that he is weak, he is fit for the post.

(b) By the use of a Adjective Clause

1. A farmer and his wife had a hen. The hen laid an egg every day. The egg was golden.

A farmer and his wife had a hen which laid a golden egg every day.

2. A fox once met a lion. The fox had never seen a lion before.

A fox who had never seen a lion before met him one day.

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(c) By the use of Adverb Clause

1. You are strong. I am equally strong.
I am as strong as you are.
2. Do not eat too much. You will be ill.
If you eat too much, you will be ill.
3. You do not work hard. You will fail.
Unless you work hard, you will fail.
4. A gentleman may come. Please ask him to wait.
If a gentleman comes, please ask him to wait.

ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE

Voice:

In English there are two Voices, namely the Active Voice and the Passive Voice.

1- Active Voice:

When the subject of verb acts, the verb is said to be in the Active Voice: as,
I read a book. They write letters.

2- Passive Voice:

When the subject of a verb is acted upon, the verb is said to be in the Passive Voice: as,
Voice: as,
A book was read by me. Letters are written by them.

3- The Passive Voice is Formed:

- (a) By making the Object of the verb in the Active Voice the subject of the sentence and the subject in the Active Voice the object of some preposition.
- (b) By using the Past Participle form of the verb given in the sentence, preceded by the same tense form of the verb to be as the verb in the Active Voice; e.g., is writing is changed into is being written.

NOTE: Only Transitive Verbs can be used in the Passive Voice because an Intransitive Verb has no object.

4- If the Active Verb has two objects, one direct and the other indirect, either of them becomes the subject of the Passive Verb, and the other remains as a Retained Object in the Passive Voice; as,

Active: I gave her a book.

Passive: A book was given to her by me. -OR- She was given a book by me.

"Her" in the first sentence and "book" in the second sentence are the Retained Objects.

1. Present Indefinite Tense

Passive Voice formula

New subject + is/are/am + Past Participle + by + New Object

| Active Voice | Passive Voice |
|------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1- She sings a song. | A song is sung by her. |
| 2- She does not sing a song. | A song is not sung by her. |

| | |
|------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 3- Does she sing a song? | Is a song sung by her? |
| 3- Does she not sing a song? | Is a song not sung by her? |
| 4- Who sings the song? | By whom is the song sung? |

2. Past Indefinite Tense

Passive Voice formula:

New Subject + was / were + Past Participle+ by + New Object

| Active Voice | Passive Voice |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1- She sang a song. | A song was sung by her. |
| 2- She did not sing a song. | A song was not sung by her. |
| 3- Did she sing a song? | Was a song sung by her? |
| 4- Did she not sing a song? | Was a song not sung by her? |
| 5- Who sang a song? | By whom was the song sung? |

3. Future Indefinite Tense

Passive Voice formula:

New Subject + shall/will + be + Past Participle+ by + New Object

| Active Voice | Passive Voice |
|------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1- She will sing a song. | A song will be sung by her. |
| 2- She will not sing a song. | A song will not be sung by her. |
| 3- Will she sing a song? | Will a song be sung by her? |
| 4- Will she not sing a song? | Will a song not be sung by her? |
| 5- Who will sing a song? | By whom will a song be sung? |

4. Present Continuous Tense

Passive Voice formula:

New Subject + Is/are/am + being + Past Participle+ by + New Object

| Active Voice | Passive Voice |
|-------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1- She is singing a song. | A song is being sung by her. |
| 2- She is not singing a song. | A song is not being sung by her. |
| 3- Is she singing a song? | Is a song being sung by her? |
| 4- Is she not singing a song? | Is a song not being sung by her? |
| 5- Who is singing a song? | By whom is a song being sung? |

5. Past Continuous Tense

Passive Voice formula:

New Subject + was/were + being + Past Participle+ by + New Object

| Active Voice | Passive Voice |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1- She was singing a song. | A song was being sung by her. |
| 2- She was not singing a song. | A song was not being sung by her. |
| 3- Was she singing a song? | Was a song being sung by her? |
| 4- Was she not singing a song? | Was a song not being sung by her? |
| 5- Who was singing a song? | By whom was a song being sung? |

6. Present Perfect Tense

Passive Voice formula:

New Subject + has / have + been + Past Participle+ by + New Object

| Active Voice | Passive Voice |
|-----------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1- She has sung a song. | A song has been sung by her. |
| 2- She has not sung a song. | A song has not been sung by her. |
| 3- Has she sung a song? | Has a song been sung by her? |
| 4- Has she not sung a song? | Has a song not been sung by her? |
| 5- Who has sung a song? | By whom has a song been sung? |

7. Past Perfect Tense

Passive Voice formula:

New Subject + had + been + Past Participle+ by + New Object

| Active Voice | Passive Voice |
|-----------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1- She had sung a song. | A song had been sung by her. |
| 2- She had not sung a song. | A song had not been sung by her. |
| 3- Had she sung a song? | Had a song been sung by her? |
| 4- Had she not sung a song? | Had a song not been sung by her? |
| 5- Who had sung a song? | By whom had a song been sung? |

8. Future Perfect Tense

Passive Voice formula:

New Subject + shall / will + have + been + Past Participle+ by + New Object

| Active Voice | Passive Voice |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| 1- She will have sung a song. | A song will have been sung by her. |
| 2- She will not have sung a song. | A song will not have been sung by her. |
| 3- Will she have sung a song? | Will a song have been sung by her? |
| 4- Will she not have sung a song? | Will a song not have been sung by her? |
| 5- Who will have sung a song? | By whom will a song have been sung? |

EXERCISES

(1) Change the following Active Voice sentences to Passive Voice.

- (1) The cat killed the mouse. (2) The boy teased the dog. (3) Father will write a letter
- (4) I will conquer him (5) He has bought a new car. (6) People will soon forget it. (7) The boys are learning grammar. (8) The labourers had dug a well. (9) Shahid teaches us English. (10) Who taught you English? (11) Have you sold your house?

(2) Put the Verbs in the brackets in a suitable Passive form:

- (1) He _____ by all. (love)
- (2) A cat _____ by the dog. (chase)
- (3) The books _____ yesterday. (buy)
- (4) The letter _____ by her just now. (receive)
- (5) By whom was the bell _____? (ring)

EXERCISES

NOUN: Point out the Nouns in the following sentences and say whether they are Common, Proper, Collective, Material or Abstract:

- (1) Solomon was famous for his wisdom.
- (2) Our class consists of forty pupils.
- (3) The elephant has great strength.
- (4) The soldiers were rewarded for their bravery.
- (5) Honey is sweeter than milk.
- (6) Cleanliness is next to godliness.
- (7) Without health there is no happiness.

PRONOUN: Use Pronouns as Object to a Verb or a Preposition:

1. Can you pass _____ the salt? (I)
2. Please send the letter to _____. (she)
3. His mother made shirt for _____. (he)
4. Have you bought tickets for _____? (they)
5. Would you like to come with _____? (we)

(3) Find out the Pronouns and Classify them.

They have lost their books. Which is your book? Which books are yours? I gave him a pen but he did not return it. Any of the boys can do it. Somebody will take it. I lost myself. He hurt himself. Who are you? What do you want? Each of the girls has gone home. Either of them can do it. Ahmad and Rahim love each other.

(4) Choose the appropriate Pronouns from the brackets and complete.

1. _____ went to Colle. (me, mine, I)
2. _____ am walking with _____ friends. (my, me, I, mine)
3. Can you run as fast as _____? (he, his, him)
4. The boys are taking _____ prizes. (our, their, your)
5. Ayesha is sitting in _____ room. (his, her, their)
6. Tell _____ about _____ health. (me, our, your)

(5) Find out the Relative Pronouns in the following sentences.

1. The pen that you gave me is a very good one.
2. The answer which you gave is not right.
3. I know the woman whose child was burnt.
4. This is the boy whom I want.
5. This is the house that Shahid built.

(6) Fill in the blanks with appropriate Relative Pronouns.

1. We always like those boys _____ speak the truth.
2. He _____ does his best shall be praised.
3. We saw the dog _____ worried the cat.
4. I knew _____ you mean.
5. No man can lose _____ he never had.

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(7) Pick out the Adjectives in the following sentences:

- (1) Every man has his duties. (2) Do not say the same thing twice. (3) The way was long, the wind was cool. (4) She was absent last week. (5) He died a glorious death. (6) The old man was both deaf and dumb. (7) A small leak may sink a large ship. (8) Neither party is quite in the right. (10) Which pen do you prefer?

(8) Choose the correct alternative from the Auxiliaries.

1. I don't think I (shall, should, can) be able to go.
2. You (should, would, ought) be punctual.
3. He (shall, will, dare) not pay unless he is compelled.
4. You (should, would, ought) to pay your debts.
5. She (can, will, used to) play badminton before her marriage.
6. You (needn't, mustn't, won't) light a match; the room is full of gas.

(9) Name the Verbs in the following sentences and say in each case whether the Verb is Auxiliary or Principal.

1. The hunter killed a tiger.
2. Do you know the fact?
3. He did a remarkable deed.
4. She has passed the examination.
5. He is an intelligent boy.
6. Don't laugh at the poor.

(10) Name the Verbs in the following sentences and say in each case whether the Verb is Transitive or Intransitive. If the Verb is Transitive, name the Object.

- (1) The sun shines brightly.
- (2) The fire burns dimly.
- (3) The policeman blew the whistle.
- (4) The wind is blowing hard.
- (5) An old beggar stood by the gate.
- (6) Her new watch does not keep correct time.
- (7) I shall bring my camera with me.
- (8) She has won a reward for her act of bravery.
- (9) She easily lifted the heavy weight.
- (10) Sometimes a child can speak two languages fluently.

(11) Fill in the blanks with the correct form of tense of the Verbs given in brackets:

1. The earth _____ (move) round the sun and the sun _____ (give) us light.
2. He always _____ (buy) lottery tickets but never _____ (win) any prize.
3. Are you _____ (go) to college now?
4. Have you _____ (do) your homework?
5. I _____ (get) your letter yesterday.
6. He _____ (come) here last Sunday.
7. I _____ (wash) my hands when the telephone rang.

(12) Pick out the Adverbs in the following sentences:

1. Each boy broke the stick easily.
2. Read the story quickly.
3. The boys did not quarrel again.
4. The king looked at the garden carefully.
5. The servants usually looked after them.
6. They seldom saw their father.

7. He must have been a truly absent-minded professor.
8. The servants would go out and stay away for hours.
9. The other students sometimes failed to answer correctly, but the boy's answers were always correct.

(13) Pick out the Prepositions in the following sentences:

1. Come here before 6 o'clock.
2. I'll wait for you.
3. The books are on the table by the door.
4. She takes exercise in the morning.
5. He killed a snake with a stick.
6. The apple fell from the tree.

(14) Fill in the blanks with suitable prepositions:

1. Where did you come _____? 2. Please give him a chair to sit _____.
3. What are you afraid _____? 4. Please give me a pen to write _____.
5. He got the first prize _____ hard work. 6. The police arrived _____ time.
7. She usually comes _____ Sundays. 8. Divide the mangoes _____ the boys.
9. You must be back _____ four o'clock. 10. I live _____ Faisalabad _____ Pakistan.

(15) Pick out the Conjunctions in the following sentences:

1. You and I are friends.
2. He is poor but honest in his dealings.
3. Was it true or was it false?
4. I wish to read but I dislike the trouble of reading.
5. You must go on working till the sun goes down.
6. As soon as the sun goes down, you may stop work.
7. You will miss the train unless you make haste.
8. I have never heard whether you missed the first train.
9. Although the sun is very hot today, you may go out for half an hour, provided you take an umbrella and wear a hat of some kind.
10. I must punish both of you and your brother for being absent, as neither of you asked for leave.

(16) Insert appropriate Conjunctions in the blanks:

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. Wait here _____ I return. | 2. Take care _____ you should fall. |
| 3. He must _____ work _____ go. | 4. Many years have passed _____ I saw you last. |
| 5. Who sweeps the rooms, washes the clothes _____ cooks the meals? | |
| 6. You may go _____ you like. | 7. He came _____ I was there. |
| 8. I shall fall _____ you help me. | 9. Make haste _____ the sun shines. |
| 10. He cannot go out _____ he is ill. | |

(17) Change the Voice of the following sentences:

1. I am writing a letter.
3. Mangoes were bought by him.
5. Polish my shoes.
7. I told him an interesting story.

2. Who is knocking at the door?
4. The teacher punishes the naughty students.
6. The car is being washed by the servant.

(18) Fill in the blanks with suitable Articles:

1. It is ____ useful article.
3. This is ____ one-way road.
5. He is ____ B.A., but his brother is ____ M.A.
6. It is ____ unanimous decision.
8. Allama Iqbal is ____ Shakespeare of Pakistan.
9. ____ Ravi flows near Lahore.
2. I read ____ Holy Quran daily.
4. Sri Lanka is ____ island.
7. Murree is ____ Switzerland of Pakistan.
10. ____ sun is shining in ____ sky.

(19) Put articles where it is required and put a cross (X) where it is not required.

Her sister is ____ musician. She plays ____ sitar and ____ guitar. But her brother has no interest in ____ music. He is ____ good sportsman. He plays ____ football and hockey.



Direct and Indirect Speech

We may report the words of a speaker in two ways:

i) Direct Speech or Report:

We may quote his actual words. This is called Direct Speech. For example:

Rizwan said, "I am very busy now."

Reporter Reporting verb Reported Speech

- (a) The speaker is called the Reporter.
- (b) The verb which reports the words of the speaker is called the Reporting verb; here this verb is "said".
- (c) The words of the speaker within inverted commas, (" ") are called Reported speech.

II) Indirect Speech or Report:

We may report what he said without quoting his exact words. This is called Indirect (or Reported) Speech. The exact words of the speaker are not repeated, but only the substance of his speech is given.

Inverted commas are not used before the reported speech, as

Rizwan said that he was busy then.

Reporter Reporting verb Reported Speech

NOTE: In Indirect Speech the inverted commas (" ") are never used. "that" or some other suitable conjunction is used instead.

It should be remembered that in Direct Narration the Reported Speech is,

- (a) always placed within inverted commas.
- (b) always separated from the Reporting verb by using a comma.
- (c) always begun with a capital letter, and that
- (d) in changing a speech from Direct to Indirect, no change is ever made in the tense of the Reporting Verb.

Rules for Changing Direct Speech into Indirect

1- Sequence of Tenses in Indirect Speech

- (a) If the Reporting Verb is in the Present or the Future Tense, no change is ever made in the tense of the Reported Speech. For example,

Direct: Arslan says, "I am busy."

Indirect: Arslan says that he is busy.

Direct: Arslan will say, "I am busy."

Indirect: Arslan will say that he is busy.

- (b) If the Reporting verb is in the Past tense, and Direct Speech is in the Present or the Future Tense, then the verb of the Direct Speech must be changed as follows:

I) Present simple into Past simple

Direct: He said, "Naila sings very well."

Indirect: He said that Naila sang very well.

Direct: He said, "I am unwell."

Indirect: He said that he was unwell.

ii) Present Continuous into Past Continuous

Direct: He said, "Abid is writing a letter."

Indirect: He said that Abid was writing a letter.

iii) Present Perfect into Past Perfect

Direct: He said, "I have bought a new car."

Indirect: He said that he had bought a new car.

iv) Present Perfect Continuous into Past Perfect Continuous

Direct: He said, "The birds have been chirping since morning."

Indirect: He said that the birds had been chirping since morning.

Exceptions: The tense of the Reported Speech is not changed into the past, if it tells of some universal truth or habitual fact. As,

Direct: He said, "The earth moves round the sun."

Indirect: He said that the earth moves round the sun.

(c) If the Direct or Reported verb is in the future tense, it is changed as follows in the indirect.

i) Words showing future time (will, shall) are changed into their past forms:

1. He said, "Abid will see you again."

He said that Abid would see him again.

2. He said, "I shall return the money in a month."

He said that he would return the money in a month.

ii) Modal auxiliaries are changed into their past forms:

He said, "I can do it myself."

He said that he could do it himself.

(d) **If both the Reporting Verb and the Direct or reported speech are in the past tense, the tense of Direct speech is changed as follows:**

i) In case of some historical truth, the simple past remains unchanged:

He said, "Quaid-e-Azam died in 1948."

He said that Quaid-e-Azam died in 1948.

ii) The simple past also remains unchanged, if only a single action is reported in the direct.

He said, "I lived many years in England."

He said that he lived many years in England.

iii) If two connected actions taking place in the past at the same time are reported in the direct speech; then also there is no change in the tense of the direct speech.

He said, "When the game began, it started raining."

He said that when the game began it started raining.

iv) Sometimes the simple past is changed into past perfect.

He said, "The horse died in the night."

He said that the horse had died in the night.

v) Past perfect and past perfect continuous are not changed.

Present Tense is changed into Past Tense**When the Reporting Verb is in the Past Tense**

| | | |
|---------------------------|--------------|-----------------------------|
| Is, are, am | changed into | was, were |
| Go | changed into | went |
| did not write | changed into | did not write |
| Has, have | changed into | had |
| has been / have been | changed into | had been |
| can write | changed into | could write |
| shall / will write | changed into | should / would write |
| May write | changed into | might write |
| Can have written | changed into | could have written |
| shall / will have written | changed into | should / would have written |
| May have written | changed into | might have written |

Past Tense is changed into Past Perfect**When the Reporting Verb is in the Past Tense**

| | | |
|----------------|--------------|-----------------|
| was, were | changed into | had been |
| wrote | changed into | had written |
| did not write | changed into | had not written |
| had been | changed into | had been |
| would / should | changed into | would / should |
| might / could | changed into | might / could |

Examples:

1. She said to me, "I was not making a noise."
She told me that she had not been making a noise.
2. He said to me, "I wrote a letter to my friend."
He told me that he had written a letter to his friend.
3. The boy said, "I did not break the toys."
The boy said that he had not broken the toys.

- 2- When the present tense of the Direct Speech is changed into the past, the words expressing nearness (Demonstrations, Adverbials of time and place etc.) are changed into words expressing distance:

| | | |
|------------|-----------------|---------------------------------------|
| Now | is changed into | then |
| This | is changed into | that |
| These | is changed into | those |
| Here | is changed into | there |
| Ago | is changed into | before |
| Today | is changed into | that day |
| Tomorrow | is changed into | the next day |
| Yesterday | is changed into | the day before / the previous day |
| Last Night | is changed into | the night before / the previous night |

| | | |
|-----------|--|------------|
| Thus | is changed into | so |
| Tonight | is changed into | that night |
| Direct: | He said, "I am glad to be here this evening." | |
| Indirect: | He said that he was glad to be there that evening. | |

3- Change in Pronouns

In changing from the Direct to the Indirect the pronouns are changed as follows:

a) The pronouns of the first person are changed according to the person of the speaker. For example,

- i) I said, "I am ill." I said that I was ill.
- ii) He said, "I am ill." He said that he was ill.
- iii) You said, "I am ill." You said that you were ill.
- iv) Amin said, "I am ill." Amin said that he was ill.

(If the speaker is a noun, it is supposed to be in the third person).

b) The pronouns of the second person are changed according to the person of the object, i.e. the person spoken to, as

- i) Usman said to me, "You are ill." Usman said to me that I was ill.
- ii) Usman said to him, "You are ill." Usman said to him that he was ill.
- iii) Usman said to you, "You are ill." Usman said to you that you were ill.

c) The pronouns of the third person remain unchanged, as,

- i) I said, "He was ill." I said that he was ill.
- ii) You said, "They are ill." You said that they were ill.

4- Interrogative Sentences

(A) "Yes" or "No" Questions

- a) The reporting-verb is changed into "asked", "enquired", "demanded" etc.
- b) The question form is changed into assertive i.e. the verb is placed after the subject.
- c) "that" is never used in place of the inverted commas ("").
- d) "if" or "whether" is used in place of inverted commas. For example,

1) The doctor said to the youngman, "Do you smoke?"

The doctor asked the youngman if he smoked.

2) He said to them, "Will you listen to me?"

He asked them if they would listen to him.

NOTE: In indirect speech question mark (?) is not used at the end of the sentence.

(B) Question-word Questions

If the question begins with a question-word (who, whom, whose, what, where, why, when, which, How) no conjunction (that, if, whether) is used and the speech begins in the indirect with these very Question-words.

1. He said to me, "What are you doing?"

He asked me what I was doing.

2. He said to me, "Where do you live?"

He asked me where I lived.

3. He said to me, "Who has knocked at the door?"
 He asked me who had knocked at the door.

5- Imperative Sentences

Reporting of Commands, Requests, Advice

- a) The Reporting verb is changed into some suitable verb as "order", "command", "request", "entreat", "beg", "advise", etc.
 - b) Verb in the direct speech is changed into an Infinitive.
 - c) No Conjunction "that", "if", "whether", etc. is used in place of the inverted commas.
 - d) The words "please", "Sir", etc., in the Direct are changed into "kindly", "respectfully", etc. and used with the Reporting verb. For example,
1. The master said to his servant, "Go to the market and bring some vegetables."
 The master ordered his servant to go to the market and bring some vegetables.
 2. The student said to the teacher, "Sir, allow me to go out of the class."
 The student requested the teacher respectfully to allow him to go out of the class.
 3. He said to me, "Please give me a glass of water."
 He requested me to give him a glass of water.
 4. He said to his master, "Sir, pardon me, as it is my first fault."
 He entreated his master respectfully to pardon him as it was his first fault.
 5. The teacher said to the boys, "Do not write on both sides of your answerbooks."
 The teacher ordered the boys not to write on both sides of their answerbooks.
 6. The captain said to the soldiers, "Don't let the enemy pass."
 The captain ordered the soldiers not to let the enemy pass.

6- Exclamatory and Optative Sentences

- a) The reporting verb is changed into "exclaim", "cry out", "praise", "regret", "wish", "pray", etc., as suited to the sense.
 - b) The conjunction "that" is used.
 - c) The sign of interjection is removed and the verb is placed after the subject.
 - d) Interjections as "Hurrah", "Oh", "Alas", "Bravo", etc., are not used and their sense is expressed by the Reporting verb (see "a" above), or by the use of "very", "great", etc.
- For example,
1. He said, "Alas! I am undone."
 He exclaimed with sorrow that he was undone.
 2. She said, "How clever I am!"
 She exclaimed that she was very clever.
 3. He said, "Hurrah! We have won the match."
 He exclaimed with joy that they had won the match.
 4. He said, "Bravo! You have done well."
 He applauded him saying that he had done well.
 5. The father said, "May you live long, my son!"
 The father prayed that his son might live long.
 6. I said to her, "May you succeed in your life!"
 I wished her that she might succeed in her life.

7- Use of "Let"

- a) When "let" is used in the sense of "suggestion" or "proposal", change the Reporting verb into "suggest", or "propose".
- b) Use "that" in place of inverted commas.
- c) Change "let" into "should" and use first form of the verb after it.
 1. I said, "Let us go for a walk."
I suggested that we should go for a walk.
 2. He said, "Let us play hockey."
He proposed that they should play hockey.

Exercise-1

Change the following Assertive Sentences into Indirect Speech.

1. He said, "I love my country."
2. He said to me, "I do not believe you."
3. Ayesha said, "Zeeshan broke the glass."
4. The old man said, "Union is strength."
5. He will say to me, "I am your sincere friend."
6. She says, "I pray for your success."

Exercise-2

Change the following Interrogative Sentences into Indirect Speech.

1. He said to me, "Are you going to the market?"
2. I said to him, "Do you smoke?"
3. He said to the doctor, "May I show you my tongue?"
4. He said to me, "Why do you laugh at the poor?"
5. I said to him, "Where do you live?"
6. I said to her, "How have you found my house?"

Exercise-3

Change the following Imperative Sentences into Indirect Speech.

1. He said to the boys, "Do not make a noise."
2. The mother said, "Never tell a lie."
3. He said, "Good morning."
4. He said, "Please lend me your umbrella."
5. I said to my servant, "Polish my shoes."
6. The old man said to the boys, "Respect your parents and teachers."
7. He said, "Arslan, do not drive so fast."

Exercise-4

Change the following Exclamatory and Optative Sentences into Indirect Speech.

1. He said, "How clever she is!"
2. He said, "What a lovely flower it is!"
3. He said, "Alas! I have lost my purse."
4. She said, "Hurrah! we have won the match."
5. He said, "May you live long!"
6. She said, "May Allah help you!"
7. He said to me, "Would that you were happy!"

BOOK-IV (4th Semester)

1- TECHNICAL WRITING

When professionals, such as doctors, engineers, scientists, and technocrats, write for their organization, not only do they require technical expertise but also good writing skills. It is an art to explain technical subjects to both technical and non-technical audiences.

One must not confuse formal communication with technical writing; however, technical writing is a subset of formal communication that requires in-depth technical knowledge. Its significance lies in the fact that it presents highly technical information to the audience in a very comprehensible form. This is a very challenging task, as technical descriptions require to be accurate and precise, and there is great scope for misinterpretation in such writing, which would defeat the very purpose of technical writing. If we are not able to clearly put across the results of our important research or study, due to poor technical report writing skills, it would all be a wasted effort.

It has been observed that non-native users of the English language struggle when it comes to technical writing, mainly because they consider the expression in their mother tongue while writing it in English. Some examples of such poor writing which can be misinterpreted are as follows:

Beware of our brand. (instead of 'buy only our brand.')

A flexible computer (instead of a *versatile computer*)

Tender light (instead of *soft light*)

Big speed (instead of *high speed*).

Technical writings include manuals, online help, instructions, reports, proposals, and various forms of letters. A technical writer need not always be an expert in the subject. However, possessing technical knowledge on the particular subject is an added advantage. It is like being a driver who also knows the mechanics of the vehicle. **Technical writers accumulate information from technical experts, organize the data, and use their expertise of writing to put across the information to the readers.** Hence, they require good command of the language, an effective writing style, and an understanding of the techniques of communication.

Importance

A basic understanding of technical writing might prove valuable when we update a website, write a resume, present a report, sign a memorandum of understanding, etc. **Technical writing skills are required for the following purposes:**

- To present information comprehensively
- To present information in the appropriate format
- To organize details with conciseness and appropriateness
- To use jargons sparingly and after an audience analysis
- To showcase the industry and organization's achievements in the desired light
- To accurately record the activities of an organization

Characteristics of Technical Writing

As mentioned earlier, **the main purpose of technical writing is to present the process, methods, and ideas in the most suitable and understandable format for the target audience.** Hence, the language used to present the content should be clear,

Clarity

Before we conceptualize the idea to develop a manuscript, the primary requirement is to understand the concepts and the ideas clearly ourselves and then present it in a manner that offers clarity to the reader. Sometimes, although the writer has a clear understanding of the content, the same is not conveyed to the reader. This is often due to the audience's perspective. Therefore, it is essential to understand the subject from meaningless. Words such as 'may be' and 'probably' not only confuse the reader but also reflect lack of clarity on the writer's part. Therefore, use unequivocal and straightforward representations in order to achieve clarity.

Accuracy

Accuracy is one of the key parameters of technical writing, as even slight variations or discrepancies in the facts or figures may lead to a loss of meaning or significance. Especially when presenting figures of sales or experimental values, check the content meticulously for an exact representation. Also, it must be presented in a form appropriate for the target audience. Never underestimate the audience, as even slight discrepancies in figures and facts can lead to a loss of significance.

Correctness

If we are accurate in our presentation, we should also be able to achieve correctness. As mentioned earlier, using unequivocal sentences will add clarity. Information should be organized into proper headings and subheadings so that the reader's time is not wasted in trying to figure out the details. For example, it is very important to exercise care and caution while entering information into the user manual, as seemingly small errors can result in greatly altered interpretations.

Descriptiveness

The term "descriptiveness" here does not refer to the detail and length of a document. Descriptiveness means to cover each aspect of the object being described. For instance, while writing a manual for a fire extinguisher, details about troubleshooting and precautions should not be omitted. Descriptive language need not be overly flowery or wordy, but it should be thoughtfully placed to give purpose and description to the image it is trying to create in the reader's mind. It serves the purpose of clearly describing an object or concept, such that a person who has never even observed this object or concept in action is able to visualize what the writer is describing.

THE BASIC PRINCIPLES OF TECHNICAL WRITING STYLE

Well-written and accurate documentation plays a major role in any company's customer support strategy because it helps to reduce support costs. Technical writing plays a big part in the support equation.

Technical writing is much more than just technical jargon, and structured, concise instructions. As the intended audience for the technical writing could be both technical and non-technical people, it must convey its message clearly and comprehensively so that both sets of people may understand it.

The Learner's Communication Skills

The main purpose of technical writers when approaching a new technical writing project is to ensure that they maintain focus on what they are writing about. The information they are producing has to be organized and structured within the laid down style that is appropriate for the intended audience. By sticking to the basic principles of technical writing the technical writer is ensuring that the documentation is clearly understood by the reader.

The following are the six basic principles of technical writing that a technical writer has to take in to consideration.

1- Content

There are five basic questions technical writers have to ask themselves when starting a new project – who, why, what, how and when. Answering these questions will allow the technical writers to be able to develop the content for any type of technical documentation. For example, let's say the technical writers have to create a user guide for a new video recorder. Before creating the user guide, they will have to plan the content of the user guide by applying following key questions to the situation:

1. Who will read the user guide?
2. Why do you need to create the user guide?
3. What is this user guide going to offer its intended audience?
4. How is the user guide going to be delivered?
5. When is the user guide be ready (publishing date)?

2- The Audience and Purpose of the Documentation

Before beginning any new writing project, the technical writer has to analyze the intended audience and identify the purpose for the document. The technical writer will need to ask the following questions about the audience:

1. Who will read the documentation?
2. What are their biases?
3. What responsibilities does the technical writer have when communicating the information to the audience?

With regard to the purpose of the documentation, technical writer will need to know what the documentation will accomplish and also what it should do.

3- Styleguide

Technical writers will more than likely use a company styleguide (if there is one) to ensure that their documentation has a structured and organized pattern so that it gives consistency to their writing. A styleguide will provide the document with continuity so that the audience can comprehend the information. For example, technical writers need to organise their ideas in a specific chronological format because without a specific layout and structure to the documentation it will be very confusing for the reader to understand.

4- Writing Style

Technical writers will need to change their writing style depending on the audience and situation they are writing about. If they are writing technical documentation, it needs to be formal and devoid of any emotion as you get with creative writing. Whereas, if say they

were an email to one of the senior managers involved in the project, their approach would be more casual than formal.

5- Accessing the Information

Accessibility applies to the ease at which the intended audience can gain access to the information they need from the technical documentation. A technical document must at least contain a table of contents, headers and footers, list of illustrations/tables, page numbers, etc.

Also a technical document must adhere to a specific heading and sub heading structure to break down the information into relevant areas that the reader can access easily.

6- Grammar

A technical writer must adhere to all the rules of conventional grammar. Also it is the responsibility of the technical writers to proofread and edit their documentation to detect and correct any errors in the writing, graphics, typography and layout.

In summarising, technical writers must ensure that they incorporate the above mentioned principles into their everyday writing style. This will go a long way to make them not only better writers but also their technical documentation will be appreciated both by their peers and readers alike.

Skills Required for a Technical Writer

1- Technical Skills:

Technical skills are the abilities and knowledge needed to perform specific tasks. They are practical and often relate to mechanical, information technology, mathematical or scientific tasks. Some examples include knowledge of programming languages, mechanical equipment or tools.

While technical skills are often most important for job related to information technology (IT) and other fields in the sciences, many other industries also want employees with at least technical skills.

2- Tools Skills:

A technical writer must be well-versed in using computer systems because these systems are used to produce documentation in a variety of formats. Specific tool knowledge such as Adobe Frame Maker, MS Word, Mad Cap Flare, Robo Help and Page Maker and Quark really depend on the tools the organization has come to rely on in order to produce its technical documentation.

3- Design Skills:

Appreciation for the visuals can be an important part of the skill set of a technical writer. Even the earliest technical documents did not consist of just the written word. The technical writer needs an appreciation for graphics and formatting and illustration skills. Depending on the needs of the organization, these skills may only need to be rudimentary (Primary) or they may need to be highly advanced.

4- Usability and Testing Skills:

A technical writer may be asked to take an active role in usability and testing. Even if

The Learner's Communication Skills

not asked to take a role, the technical writer knows that validation of the documentation is important — the confirmation that the product works the way it is documented to work. In some organizations, the technical writer is an important part of the User Experience Team.

In short, the skill sets of a technical writer vary widely depending on the experience and educational background of a technical writer.

PURPOSES AND USES OF TECHNICAL WRITING

The first task for writing effectively is to identify the purpose of the technical writing or communication. There are four main purposes of technical writing:

1- To Inform:

When the writer seeks to provide and explain information, the writing is called informative writing. It is also called expository writing because it expounds on or expresses ideas and facts. The focus of informative writing is the subject or the matter under discussion. Informative writing is found in accounts of facts, scientific data, statistics and technical and business reports.

Informative writing presents information not opinions. Its purpose is to educate and not to persuade. It is, therefore, written with maximum objectivity.

2- To Persuade:

Persuasive writing aims at convincing the reader about a matter that is debatable; it expresses opinion rather than facts. The writing is also called argumentative as it supports and argues for a certain viewpoint or position. The matter at hand generally has two or more sides to it. The writer seeks to influence and convince the reader to accept the position he or she has put forth.

3- To Instruct:

Instructional writing aims at teaching something. It shows the facts, usually in descending order from the most important to the least important. The purpose is to teach or equip the reader to do something following the given instructions.

4- To Reference:

Reference writing is done to explain something. It is a guide that is structured and easy to follow. It allows the readers to find whatever it is they are looking for. An example of this is the Index or Glossary. These items are written to help the readers in finding items throughout the work.

5- PLAGIARISM AND CITATION

What is Plagiarism?

Plagiarism means to copy another person's ideas, words or work and pretend that they are your own.

Plagiarism is considered an intellectually dishonest and highly unprofessional act. It could at instances result from ignorance rather than the intent to duplicate others' work. For example, in a hurry to meet the deadline, we may overlook to cite the sources from where we have taken the information. However, whatever the intention of the writer, plagiarism is a punishable offence. A technical writer, therefore, has to be aware of the rules for citing direct quotes and acknowledge all the sources referred to while developing the document.

Plagiarism includes the theft of unwritten ideas or concepts and the written texts, notes, computer programmes, designs etc. Plagiarism is an intellectual theft. Paraphrasing another person's texts by replacing a few words by synonyms or interchanging some sentences is also plagiarism. Even reproducing of any other person's reasoning or analysis in your own words is still plagiarism if you do not add any content of your own; in doing so, you create the impression that you have invented the argumentation yourself while the case is otherwise.

Examples of Plagiarism

1. A student borrows an essay from his friend to get some ideas for his own paper. With the permission of his friend he copies some parts of it. However, he takes care to cite all the sources his friend has included in his essay.
2. A student finds useful information on a website which is not under copyright. He downloads and incorporates some parts of this website into his paper, but he does not cite it since it is in the public domain.
3. A student derives some important ideas from a book for his paper. Since the student neither quotes anything directly from this book, nor provides any footnotes. However, he mentions the book in his bibliography.
4. A student modifies the original text by replacing some words, omitting some examples and rearranging the order of the material. Since he is not using the exact words of the original sources, he does not include footnotes.

Explanation:

1. All the four examples are of plagiarism. In the first example, the issue is not whether the student has got permission from his friend or not. Since the student is submitting the work done by another as his own, it is plagiarism. Citing the sources that his friend has used does not waive the charge of plagiarism.
2. In the second example, the fact that the student has used the material which is not protected by copyright is irrelevant. He is guilty of plagiarism because he has submitted that words of another person as his own.
3. Since the definition of plagiarism encompasses not only the use of someone else's words but also his ideas, you must always acknowledge the source of your ideas in a footnote even if you specifically include the text in your bibliography. If you do not do so, it is still plagiarism.

4. In the fourth example, replacing some words, reorganizing the material or leaving out some example or material or phrases does not constitute a genuine paraphrase; moreover, even an effective paraphrase requires a footnote.

Types of Plagiarism

Any person who has written or graded a paper knows that plagiarism is not always a black and white issue. The boundary between plagiarism and research is often not clear. Learning to recognize the different forms of plagiarism, particularly the more ambiguous or unclear ones, is an important step to prevent plagiarism. It is of two types which are discussed as under:

1. Sources Not Cited or Referred:

1. **The Ghost Writer:** The writer turns in another's work, word for word, as his own.
2. **The Photocopy:** The writer copies some important parts of text straight from a single source without making any changes.
3. **The Putluck Paper:** The writer tries to hide/disguise plagiarism by copying from several different sources, changing the sentences to adjust them together while retaining most of the original words or phrases.
4. **The Poor Disguise:** Although the writer has retained the essential contents of the sources consulted, he has altered the appearance of the paper slightly by replacing by words and phrases.
5. **The Labour of Laziness:** The writer takes time to paraphrase most of the paper from other sources and makes it all fit together, instead of spending the same effort on original work.
6. **The Self Stealer:** The writer borrows generously from his previous work, violating the policies concerning the expectation of originality adopted by most academic institutions.

2. Sources Cited but Still Plagiarised

1. **The Forgotten Footnote:** The writer mentions an author's name as a source but neglects to include specific information on the location of the material referenced. This practice often marks other forms of plagiarism by obscuring source locations.
2. **The Misinformer:** The writer gives inaccurate information regarding the sources, making it impossible to find them.
3. **The Too-Perfect Paraphrase:** The writer properly cites a source but neglects putting quotation marks to show the text that has been copied word-for-word or close to it. By attributing the basic ideas to the source, the writer falsely claims original presentation and interpretation of the information.
4. **The Resourceful Citer:** The writer properly cites all sources, paraphrasing and using quotations appropriately. The paper contains almost no original work. It is sometimes difficult to spot form of plagiarism because it looks like any other well-researched document.
5. **The Perfect Crime:** We all know that crime is never perfect. So it does not exist anywhere. In this case the writer properly quotes and cites sources at some places

but goes on to paraphrase other arguments from those sources without citation. The way the writer tries to pass off the paraphrased material as his own analysis of the cited material.

How to Avoid Plagiarism

Plagiarism may be avoided if we follow the steps given below:

1. Whenever you print out material from the internet, always make it sure that you get the full source so that you may cite it later. If you use note cards while reading books and journal articles, list the full source including page number on the passage that you copy.
2. Do not misinterpret, pretend or claim that ideas are yours when actually they are not yours.
3. Whenever you cut and paste from the Internet into a document that you are creating, highlight it in another colour so that it becomes easily noticeable. Later, when you are polishing your draft you can decide if you have too many direct quotations and can view the sections you have highlighted to see if some can be paraphrased.
4. Do not assume that there is some magical number of words or sentences that you can borrow without being caught or accused of plagiarism. Sometimes, it is not the length of a passage but a clever phrasing that sticks out and gets embedded in one's memory. For instance, in 1989 a writer by the name of Maeder for an article of the **Atlantic Monthly** used the phrase the "wounded healer" to discuss his thesis that many of those entering the helping professions may be attracted to careers in psychotherapy, nursing, the ministry and so forth because of less than healthy family functioning while they were children. If you use just those two words, wounded healer, and pretend that they are original with you, you have committed plagiarism. Students are often attracted to such terms and expressions that have a verbal punch or are expressed so eloquently that anyone would be glad to take credit for using such terms.
5. When you use material verbatim (word for word), use quotation marks and cite the source.
6. When you copy material, say, three paragraphs, from an original source, indicate at the end of the third paragraph with a footnote that the material was borrowed. The reader must know at the beginning of the first sentence of the first paragraph that you are not the author of the next three paragraphs.
7. Before submitting your paper or even a draft to your instructor, make sure that any outside material you have inserted, has been properly edited and that direct quotes contain quotation marks around them. Remember that the borrowed material like graphs, tables, figures, formulae and other visual representations etc. must be identified regarding their source. Proofread to make your document error-free.

CITATION

Whether you collect data from primary or secondary sources, the data must be documented; that is, you must indicate where the data originated. Citing references

enables readers to pursue a topic further and make use of the information themselves. Acknowledging your sources keeps you honest. Cite the work/works of those persons whose ideas, theories or research have directly influenced your work. You must give credit to all those persons whose ideas you have used in your paper. If you do not do so, you are committing plagiarism.

Different Styles to Cite Others' Work

A style manual is a set of rules or standards for writing a document that can be used for both general use and any publication purpose. Style manuals are very beneficial for publication purpose as they provide uniformity in style and formatting a document. They set rules for appropriate formatting in terms of spelling, italics and punctuation. Some style manuals such as those of the **American Psychological Association (APA)**, **Institute of Electronics and Electrical Engineering (IEEE)** and the **Modern Language Association (MCA)** are common for the scholars of different disciplines such as languages, medicine, law, engineering, business, etc. In **APA** style, the uses in a document are listed alphabetically on a separate page headed "References". It follows the final page of the text and is numbered. Entries appear in an alphabetical order according to the last name of the author; two or more works by the same author appear in chronological order by the date of publication. When there are two or more books or articles, the name of the author is repeated in each entry.

Citing Works Within the Text

To cite sources, the author's name, year of publication, and the page number of the source are usually cited in parentheses at the end of the sentence, before the final period:

"Thus acquiring skills in composition enhances one's proficiency in language".

(Thomas 1997, 101, 102)

If author's name is used in the sentence, only page number can be mentioned.

As Thomas (1997, 101, 102) observes, "Thus acquiring skills in composition enhances one's proficiency in language".

If the whole work is referred rather than a specific section, any reference in parentheses can be omitted.

According to Thomas, acquiring skills in composition enhances one's language proficiency.

Apart from the author-date-page number style, references can be cited in the form of footnotes or parenthetical numbers.

Single-Author Book

Alverez, A. (1970). *The savage God: A study of suicide*. New York: Random House.

Book with more than one author

Natarajan, R, Chaturvedi, R. (1983). *Geology of the Indian ocean*. Hartford, CT: University of Hartford Press.

Hesen, J., Carpenter, K., Moriber, H., Milsop, A. (1983). *Computers in the business word*. Hartford, CT: Capital Press.

The abbreviation of et al. (for "and others") is not used in the reference list.

regardless of the number of authors. In the next citation within parentheses, all the authors should be cited in its first occurrence for a source with three to five authors, and then only the first author followed by "et al." in its subsequent occurrences. However, for a source with six or more authors, "et al." can be used from the first occurrence itself.

Edition other than first

Creech, P.J. (1975). *Radiology and technology of the absurd* (3rd ed.). Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

An Edited Volume

Stanton, D.C. (Ed.). (1987). *The female autobiography; Theory and practice of autobiography*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Book without Author or Editor listed

Webster's new Collegiate dictionary. (1961) Springfield, MA: G. & C. Merriam.

Multi-author Article in a multi-author volume

Pepin, R.E., Darling, C.W., & Villa, V. (1997). *Poe and the French symbolistes*. In P. Wursthosn, Jr., J. Daulig, & J. Brother (Eds.), *The era of decadence* (PP. 100-145). Hartford, CT: Woodland Press.

Dissertation or Dissertation Abstract

When an abstract of a dissertation found on microfilm in Dissertation Abstracts International (DAI) is used:

Darling, C.W. (1976). *Give of due regard: The poetry of Richard Wilbur*.

Dissertation Abstracts International, 44(02), 221A. (University Microfilms No.AAD 44-8794).

Journals / Periodicals

Use inclusive page numbers. Do not use the abbreviations 'p.' or 'pp.'

Bekerian, D.A. (1993). *In search of the typical eyewitness*. *American Psychologist*, 48, 574-576 (Journal article) Posner, M.I. (1993, October 29). *Seeing the mind*. *Science* 262, 673-674. (Magazine)

Newspaper Articles

If the article is 'signed' (i.e., the author's name is known), begin with that author's name. (Note the discontinuous pages.) Poirot, C. (1998, March 17). *HIV prevention pill goes beyond "morning after"*. The Hartford Courant, pp. FR, F6.

If the author's name is not available, begin the reference with the headline or title in place of the author's name.

New exam for doctor of future. (1989), March 15). The New York times, p.B10.

7- Analysis and Synthesis in Academic Writing

Analysis:

When you analyse something, you try to understand it. In your context, to fulfil a task you need to understand the task itself and probably a given text or images to be processed. You need to understand what problem/topic/subject the text discusses, what it finds in it and in other's opinions on it, how the author treats evidence and what arguments are used. This will allow you to understand the problem and agree or disagree with its treatment in the text given to you. That's analysis, taking to pieces the original material - like in chemical analysis when you analyse a substance to see what it is made of.

Analysis, is the opposite of synthesis. Now you start with the 'big pizza' and have to analyze all the parts.

Example: You read a new 'big government proposal' on gun regulation (the big pizza). It includes lots of different changes. So your assignment is to **analyze** this proposal (identify and discuss the parts). So may be the parts include, who can own a gun, licensing changes, safety and training requirements, fee structure, ammunition restrictions, etc, etc.

Synthesis:

Synthesis is the opposite of analysis or next stage. Using the pieces from your analysis, you prepare your own text on the same topic or on the topic of how the author before you looked at the problem. **Putting pieces together to form a new thing, joining your arguments into a logical text of your own is synthesis.** Like in chemical synthesis whose task is production of a substance, you produce a written discourse on your subject— from what you know and what you learnt in the given text.

Synthesis means "bringing many parts together" (like making a pizza!). So when you read your textbook you use all the facts and information (parts) to form a main idea/theme/concept/opinion (the big pizza)

Example: You research all the facts and figures about gun laws, gun deaths and violence (all the parts). Then may be you have to write an essay about 'the pros and cons of gun control' OR "your opinion about gun control". That is when you synthesize the information/research to form the 'pizza.'

PART-2: FUNCTIONAL ENGLISH IN USE

1- MAKING INTRODUCTIONS

1) The Purpose of Introducing People:

The art of introduction is the cornerstone (the most important part) of bringing people together. Once you have mastered, this art, you automatically assume the role of a host wherever you go. But remember, great hosting comes with great responsibility.

We introduce people with a view to providing them a chance to know one another. The person who makes introduction not only states the names of the two persons or parties but he is often obliged to establish acquaintance and help both the parties to start a conversation.

2) The Art of Making Introductions:

The basic protocol of introductions demands introducing the 'lesser-ranking' (socially, professionally, by age or seniority) to the 'higher-ranking person'. There are four steps which may be followed while introducing people:

1. First, state the name of the person to whom you are introducing. This is the "high-ranking" person.
2. Second, you may say the expressions like the following:- "I would like to introduce" OR "Please meet Mr./Mrs. ABC" OR "This is," etc.
3. Third, state the name of the person who is being introduced. This is the 'low-ranking' person.
4. Finally, provide some necessary details about each, as appropriate. You may add a piece of information about a topic of common interest between the two parties. Do not elaborate. This will help them connect and continue a conversation.

The foremost principle of etiquette for making introductions lies in understanding reverence and respect. Here are some guidelines:

| High Ranking Persons | Low Ranking Persons | Introduce low ranking person to higher-ranking person |
|------------------------------|------------------------|---|
| 1- An old person | A young person | "Grandfather, this is my neighbour, Abid" |
| 2- A senior professional | A junior Professional | "Mrs. President, this is Mr. Analyst" |
| 3- A customer | A team of employees | "Mr. Customer, this is my sales team" |
| 4- A guest | A host | "Ms. Rabia, this is my daughter, Sarah" |
| 5- Peer from another company | Peer from your company | "Mr. M. Riaz, this is Ms. Nabeela Shah" |

Note: When you introduce people of equal rank or status or seniority, you may introduce either person to the other.

3) Introducing Others:

When you are with two or more people who are alien to each other, the proper thing is to introduce them. Here is a four-part formula for making correct introductions. If the people you are introducing are:

4) Same age range, same gender:

1. **Same age range, same gender:** — It does not matter whose name you say first.
2. **Same age range, different gender:** — say the female's name first. For example;
"Rehana, this is my co-worker, Riaz. Riaz, this is Rehana."
3. **Different age range:** — say the older person's name first. For example;
"Uncle Rafiq, this is my friend, Abid. Abid, this is my uncle..Rafiq."
4. **If one person is VIP** — the VIP's name is spoken first.
VIP = Guest of honour, Military officers, judges, elected officials. For example;
"Mayor Rashid, I would like to introduce Hafeez. Hafeez, this is our Mayor, Rashid."

5) Introducing Relatives:

While introducing relatives, give their full names. Your friends would not call your parents "Mom" or "Dad" but they would not have any other option unless you tell their names.

In business and more formal occasions, use first and last names when introducing people. It is always helpful to give a little more information about the people you are introducing. For example;

"Saleem, this is Zahid. He enjoys horseback riding too." In this way you have just given Saleem a terrific conversation starter, for which he will be grateful.

Do not be afraid of asking for someone's name. There will be a time when you do not know someone's name but you need to introduce him to someone else. Offer your name, ask for his name and then quickly move to the introduction. You can say something like, "**I remember meeting you last year, but I can't recall your name. I am Amin and this is my cousin, Saleem.**"

If the person has good manners, he will tell his name at this very moment. If he does not you can say, "I am sorry, but I didn't catch your name."

6) When you are being introduced:

When you are being introduced to someone you do not know, follow the following tips:

Stand and face the person. This will take you at eye level and make it easier to shake hands and encourage conversation. If someone is unable to stand, lean down to his/her level.

Smile and establish eye contact with the person you are meeting to show that you are a friendly person. A warm, friendly smile wins people over every time. Shake the person's hand. Offer a firm but not crushing handshake. Do not hold on the person's hand after the shakehand. Offer a pleasant greeting. For example: "**I am glad / excited / pleased to see you, Mr. Akram.**"

7) First Impression:

It is true that first impression is last impression. It is the first impression that lasts forever. It means that you don't get a second invitation to change the mindset of a person for good or bad because he has already made up his/her image about the concerned person. First impressions have the ability to make or break a business, and a positive

experience can create long-lasting business relationships. Making a good first impression is particularly important when it comes to meeting customers, pitching to potential clients or during interviews. Therefore, first impressions are of great importance. Your impressions should be friendly and pleasant.

8) Useful First Impression Tips:

1. Make eye-contact. Avoiding eye contact makes you appear untrustworthy, weak or unconfident.
2. Give a nice and warm smile.
3. Return the handshake. It is rude not to accept someone's handshake.
4. Open with a sincere, friendly greeting. Say something pleasant. You may compliment the person, comment on the weather or say something nice about the person making the introduction.
5. Pay attention to the customer, not to the product your stock or a colleague. Be courteous and attentive.

9) Introductions in Casual Settings:

When you are in a casual setting, there is no need of formal introduction. However, you may follow the basic way of presenting the younger person to the older one. Eye contact, a warm smile and a friendly impression might be more appropriate and less awkward if there are a couple of people sitting in the bleachers (cheap seats at a sports ground) between you.

Making Effective Self and Peer Introductions

1) What is Self-Introduction?

Self-introduction is when you tell people who you are, what you do, what your interests are, where you are from, what you have done in your life. In simple words, self-introduction is to tell other person or persons about your name and other activities of your life. Sometimes, you are required to introduce yourself. For example, in interviews, first day in the class, first day at your workplace and before making a speech etc.

2) Important Tips about Self Introductions

Keep the following tips while making self-introductions:

1. Have a smile on your face to create a pleasant impression. You must be confident.
2. After greeting, give details about your name and place.
3. Add details about your family if you deem it necessary.
4. Mention your educational qualifications.
5. Express why you want to do job.
6. Tell briefly about your project.
7. Name the person who inspired you a lot.
8. Tell your areas of interests and hobbies.
9. Tell about your skills.
10. Tell how you spend your leisure hours.
11. Express your thanks to the listener.

An Example:

Good Morning Sir / Madam. I am Amin Rasheed. I was born and brought up in Lahore. I did my graduation from Govt. College Lahore which is affiliated to University of the Punjab, Lahore. I secured 79% marks in aggregate. I passed my Intermediate from the same college and got 805 marks. I did my matric by securing 85% marks from Divisional Public School, Lahore. I live with my mother, father two brothers and a sister. My mother is a Headmistress in a High School while my father is a doctor. My younger brothers are working as engineers and my younger sister is the student of BS English. I am an optimistic person. I try to look at the bright aspects of things and be positive in every situation. I am not emotional but a tolerant person. I am sympathetic towards human beings in general and my friends and relatives in particular. It is impossible for me to say "No" if someone requests me to do him / her favour. I usually spend my leisure time in using the internet and reading books and interacting with people. My short term goal is to create special identity of myself in your prestigious firm and my long term goal is to be a successful person in my field of work and the society as well. Thank you very much for giving me an opportunity to speak and listening to me.

Positive and Negative Traits

In both the cases, the hiring manager is trying to determine what qualities you have that will help you succeed in job, if you are hired and what are the other aspects which could be problematic. In both the cases, it is important to present information in a way that makes you seem good. It is important to put a positive spin on your traits / attributes when responding to others.

1- My Strengths:

Strength is a quality or an ability that a person or thing has that gives them an advantage.

My strengths are:

- 1.. Self-confidence and positive attitude.
2. I am a good team worker and dedicated to my work.
3. I can easily adapt myself to my situation.
4. I am a good listener.
5. I am friendly to all the people and eager to help them.
6. I can work in a pressure condition and delivers.

2- My Weaknesses are:

1. I am not ashamed of asking questions from others.
2. Sometimes I get annoyed when work does not go according to my plan.
3. I trust people very easily.
4. I cannot cram things, I can learn only through practical approach.

3- Peer Group:

Peer group is a group of people of the same age or social status. A peer group is both a social and a primary group of people who have similar interests, background, age

and social status. The members of this group are likely to influence the beliefs and behaviour of a person. Peer groups contain hierarchies and distinct patterns of behaviour. Eighteen years old persons are not in a peer group of fourteen years old persons even though they may be in school together. Just as teachers do not share students as a peer group.

We are likely to be influenced by the life style of our peers. Their thinking, their choices and their behaviours influence us. We feel compelled to follow them. That is peer pressure. It is beneficial to a certain extent but its negative effects are more apparent. **Peer pressure can be of two types, negative and positive.** The section of society which is most vulnerable to the effects of peer pressure is of teenagers. Adolescents are also a party to peer pressure. In adolescence peer pressure leads to smoking, drinking, using drugs and many other unlawful and health-affecting things.

4- Positive Traits of Peer Group

1. Adopting good habits.
2. Exposure to the world.
3. Giving up bad habits.
4. Helping each other in very problem.
5. Giving valuable pieces of advice and suggestions as and when required.
6. Stand by each other for all types of fights to pounce upon.

2- EXPRESSING REQUESTS AND ENQUIRIES

1) What is a Requests?

A request is the act of asking someone to do something.

2) What is an Enquiry?

An enquiry is the act of asking for information.

3) Making Request:

The following are the common ways of making requests:

1. "Could you open the door for me, please?"
2. "Could I borrow some money from you, please?"
3. Would you mind opening the door for me, please?"
4. "Would you mind if I turned up the heating?"
5. "Do you mind if I turn up the heating?"
6. "Can you open the door for me, please?"
7. "Can I use your computer, please?"

Note: "Could" is more polite than "can".

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- evening activities?
2. I would like some information about room availability. How much is for a double room?
 3. I saw your brochure about adventure holidays and I would like some more information. Do you have a brochure you can send me?
 4. I would like to ask about your prices. Is breakfast included in the price?
 5. Do you provide airport transfers?
 6. I would like to book a single room for the week of 1-7 June. Can you confirm availability and the cost per night including breakfast?
 7. Do you provide wi-fi and airport transfers?

5) Responding to Enquiries:

Give them the right response and your sales inquiry will be converted into a sale.

1. Respond quickly but make sure that your message has everything the client is looking for.
2. Address their concerns and offer your services as the best alternative to other problems they may hint at.
3. Be as direct as possible in your reply.

6) Requests Versus Commands:

As verbs, the difference between '**request**' and '**command**' is that '**request**' is to express the need or desire for something while '**command**' is to order, give orders; to compel or direct with authority. Request means asking someone if they can help.

Example; Can you get up and help me clean the room.

A command is someone telling you to do something.

Example; Your parents telling you to go clean up.

Another way of remembering the difference is usually a friend asks for a request while your boss makes a command.

1. "Please speak quietly" (Request)
2. "Speak quietly!" (Command)
3. "Please help me in solving this problem." (Request)
4. "Leave the room and shut the door." (Command)

3- GREETINGS

Greeting is an act of communication in which human-beings make their presence known to each other, to show attention to and to suggest a type of relationship (usually cordial) or social status (formal or informal) between individuals or groups of people coming in contact with each other. Sometimes, greetings are used just prior to a conversation or to greet in passing, such as on a sidewalk or trail (path). **Greeting customs are culture-specific and situation-specific and they may change within a culture depending on social status and relationship and they exist in all known human cultures.** Greetings can be expressed both audibly and physically and often involve a combination of the two. A greeting or salutation can also be expressed in written communication such as letters and e-mails.

Greeting the fellow human-beings is a common practice in every civilized society. The speakers of every language do it in their own traditional and cultural styles. For example, we being Muslims at the time of meeting, formal or informal, greet each other saying "Assalam-o-Alaikum" and in response we say "Wa-alakum-salam".

Likewise when English people meet, they greet each other say "Good morning", "Good afternoon" and "Good evening", depending on the time they meet. "Good Night" is used only at the time of parting; it is a farewell phrase. English speaking people usually greet each other in an informal way. These common conversational greetings can be used for friends, family or people we meet in casual settings.

SOME COMMON ENGLISH GREETINGS AND EXPRESSIONS

1) Hey, Heyman, or Hi:

Instead of saying "Hello", you can use "hey" and "hi" to greet someone. Both are particularly popular with young people. While "hi" is appropriate to use in any casual situation, "hey" is for people who have already met. If you say "hey" to a stranger, it might be confusing for that person because he/she will try to remember when you met before. You can also add "man" to the end of "hey" when greeting male members. Some people also use "hey man" to greet younger women casually, but do this only if you know the woman very well. Remember that "hey" does not always mean "hello". "Hey" can also be used to call for someone's attention.

2) How's it going? OR How are you doing?

These are casual ways of asking "how are you?". If you are trying to be particularly polite, stick with "how are you?". You can use these expressions to greet almost anyone. The word "going" is usually shortened so it sounds more like "go-in". You can answer with "it's going well" or "I'm doing well" depending on the question. Although it is not grammatically correct, most people just answer "good" — and you can too. Like, when responding to "how are you?" You can also follow your answer by asking "and you?".

3) What's up? What's new? What's going on?

These are some other informal ways of asking "how are you?" which are typically used to casually greet someone you have met before. Most people answer with "nothing" or "not much". If you feel right to make small talk, you can also briefly describe anything new or interesting that's going on in your life, before asking "what about you?" to continue the conversation.

4) How's everything? How are things? OR How's life?

These are also some other ways of asking "how are you?". These expressions can be used to greet anyone casually but most often they are used to greet someone you already know. To these, you can answer "good" or "not bad". Again if small talk is appropriate, you can also briefly share any interesting news about your life, and then ask the person "what about you?" or another greeting question.

5) How's your day? OR How's your day going?

These questions mean "how are you?" not just right now but how you've been all day. You would use these greetings later in the day and with someone you see regularly. For example, you might ask a co-worker one of these questions in the afternoon or a cashier that you see at the grocery store every evening. "It's going well" is the grammatically correct response but many people simply answer with "fine", "good" or "alright". By the way, notice that "good", "fine" or "not bad" are perfect answers to almost any greeting question.

6) Good to see you OR Nice to see you:

These casual greetings are used with friends, co-workers or members of family that you have seen in a while. It is common for close friends to hug when they greet each other, particularly if they have not seen each other in some time, so you might use this greeting along with a hug or handshake depending on your relationship with the person.

7) Long time no see or It's been a while:

These casual greetings are used when you haven't seen someone in a long time, particularly if you meet that person unexpectedly. How much is a long time? It depends on how often you normally see that person. For example, you could use one of these greetings if you normally see the person every week, but don't see them for a few months or more. Usually, these phrases are followed with a question like "how are you?" or "how have you been?" or "what's new?"

BUSINESS AND FORMAL GREETINGS

It is best to begin by using formal greetings in most business situations and then listen to how your co-workers or business partners greet you. It's a good idea to wait until someone speaks casually with you before you speak casually with them. You may find that people will begin to use casual greetings with you over time, as you get to know each other better. Formal greetings are also used when you meet older people.

1) Formal Greetings at the time of Arrival:

1. Good morning, Good afternoon, Good evening.
2. Hellow Aslam, How are you?
3. Good day Sir/Ma'am (very formal approach)

2) Informal Greetings while Arriving:

Hi / Hello, How are you?

What's up? (very informal)

How are you doing?

3) Formal Greetings at the time of Departure:

Good Bye / Bye.

See you (later)

Later

4) Informal Greetings at the time of Departure:

It was a pleasure seeing you.

Good Bye

Note: After 8. P.M, Good Night

5) It's nice to meet you OR Pleased to meet you.

These greetings are formal and polite. If you say this to someone when you meet him/her for the first time, it will make you seem courteous. Remember to use these greetings only the first time you meet someone. Next time when you see the person you can show that you remember him/her by saying "It's nice to see you again."

6) How have you been?

This greeting question is asked only by the people who have already met. If someone asks you "how have you been?" they want to know if you have been well since last time both of you met.

7) How do you do?

It is an old-fashioned expression. It is used as a formal greeting when you meet someone for the first time. The usual reply is also "How do you do?"

4- GRATITUDE

Expressing appreciation and gratitude are positive interactions that are at the heart of good relationships between parents, couples, siblings, co-workers and successful businesses. **Expressing thanks, appreciation and gratitude is a key to building satisfying relationships with people around us.** Express appreciation and gratitude whenever you think it is due and you would realize that it will strengthen your relationship with people around you.

When someone does us a small favour, shows us kindness or helps us out, even if it is expected, we, as civilized people, express our gratitude. Gratitude can be considered an attitude. People do expect appreciation. When we are helped out, responsive gratitude is obligatory in civilized societies. In fact, saying "**Thank you**" has power. When we express our feelings of gratitude, it gives us a positive outlook. Expression of thankfulness or gratitude is a very good gesture that makes our relations strong and sweetens our life. The Holy Prophet (SAW) says "**One who is not thankful to human-beings, is not thankful to Allah.**" Therefore, it is obligatory on every person that he should be grateful to the person who helps or favours him in any way.

We can express our gratitude in different ways.

- | | |
|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| ☆ Thank you | ☆ Thanks |
| ☆ Thank you so much | ☆ Thanks so much |
| ☆ Thanks a lot | ☆ Thanks a ton |
| ☆ Thanks a bunch | ☆ Thanks a million |
| ☆ All I can say, is thanks. | ☆ All I can say is Thank you. |
| ☆ I am highly grateful to you. | ☆ I appreciate it. |
| ☆ I really appreciate your help. | |

Such variety of expressions shows flexibility in English. In different situations, we may alter our style to say thanks. When a colleague gets you a cup of coffee, you may say: "**Thanks so much. I really need it right now. You are so great for thinking of me.**"

On surprise arrangement of a cake and a gift by your companions at your birthday, instead of using simply "**Thanks**", you may say: "**I can't believe you did this! You**

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shouldn't have. But thank you so much. This is very kind of you". "What a thoughtful and valuable gift! I really appreciate it".

A stranger on the street just gave you a compliment. Say:

"I don't know what to say. Thank you".

"That's very kind of you Thank you".

Your friend at work stayed late to help you finish a project.

"You are the best. I wouldn't have finished this in time without you".

"I really owe you one. Thanks for staying late. Next time you need help. I've got it".

Gratitude and appreciation are wonderful emotions and can be expressed in many ways, such as:

1. I am so very grateful for
2. I have so much appreciation for
3. My heartfelt expressions of appreciation
4. Thank you for your help and support 5. With gratitude for

5- INVITATIONS

Formal invitation is an invitation which follows a dignified form, tone or style in keeping with the established norms, customs or values. Sending a formal invitation, whether on paper or electronically, is one of the most important steps in planning a formal event. It sets the general tone for the event and lets your guests know what to expect. Choosing the appropriate invitation wording for your event and then properly addressing the invitation can make your invitations look great and impress your guests.

An invitation is a written or verbal request inviting someone to go somewhere or to do something. An invitation is a request, a solicitation or an attempt to get another person to join you at a specific event. When you ask people to attend a party, visit your house, or witness your marriage, you invite them by giving them an invitation. It can be in the form of an invitation card which is generally considered as formal invitation or it may be in the letter format which is more informal.

1) Format of Invitation:

The format will include:

1. Name of the host
2. Standard expression (e.g., request the pleasure of your company, solicit your gracious presence).
3. Purpose of invitation. 4. Name of the honouree
5. Day, date and time of the event. Dates must be written in letters and abbreviations should not used.
6. Name of the place, location with complete address. Enter the address, the venue of the party or event.
7. RSVP (Respond if it pleases you). An RSVP is essential at parties where you need to know exactly who will come, so you can organize things accordingly on the basis of their convenience.
8. Telephone or mobile number or address of the host.

2) Formal Invitation to Lunch

Mr. and Mrs. Rizwan Shahid
Request the pleasure of the company of
Mr. and Mrs. Abid Hussain at
Lunch
On Monday, August 16, 2020 at 12:30 P.M.
at H.No. 55-B, Peoples Colony,
Faisalabad.

Acceptance:

Mr. and Mrs. Abid Hussain
Accept with great pleasure
Mr. and Mrs. Rizwan Shahid's kind invitation
to lunch on August 16, 2020

55-B, Peoples Colony,
Faisalabad
August 13, 2020

Regret:

Mr. and Mrs. Abid Hussain
Regret owing to a prior engagement
they are unable to accept
Mr. and Mrs. Rizwan Shahid's kind invitation
to lunch on August 16, 2020

55-B, Peoples Colony,
Faisalabad
August 13, 2020

3) Formal Invitation to Dinner

Dear Mr. Zafar Ahmad,

Can you give us the pleasure of your company at dinner on Monday, August 16, 2020 at 8 O'clock? I have invited a few other common friends. I hope you will be able to come.

Yours sincerely,
S.A. Zaidi

Acceptance:

Dear Mr. Zaidi,
Thank you very much for your invitation to dinner. I will be pleased to have

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dinner with you on Monday, August 16, 2020.

I am looking forward to meeting you.

Yours sincerely,
S.A. Zaidi

Regret:

Dear Mr. Zaidi,

I am sorry I cannot come to dinner on August 16, 2020. I have a prior engagement which prevents me from accepting your kind invitation.

Thanks so much for asking me. I know what a wonderful evening I am going to miss.

Yours sincerely,
S.A. Zaidi

6- REGRETS

Regret means to feel sorry about something you have done or about something that you have not been able to do. It is used to say in a polite or formal way that you are sorry or sad about a situation. Regret means to feel bad, sad or sorry about your behaviour or actions in the past. We can feel regret about things we did and things we did not do.

- ☆ I regret going to the party. It was not fun.
- ☆ I regret not going to the party. I heard it was fun.

Every person experiences regret. Some of us feel regret on a regular basis, so it is important to know how to express regret in English. Before we learn how to express regret, remember that we can have big regrets and small regrets. We use these sentences for major things as well as trivial things.

Some examples of major regrets could be:

- ☆ I regret not marrying her.
- ☆ I should have quit smoking a long time ago.

Some examples of trivial regrets could be:

- ☆ I should have ordered burger like you. This salad is not delicious.
- ☆ I regret eating that cookie. I'm going to gain weight.

Now let us see some different ways that we can express regret. All of these are very common in spoken and written English.

1. I should have + Past Participle / I shouldn't have + Past Participle

- ☆ I should have called you. I am sorry.
- ☆ I should have gone to bed earlier last night. I am so tired today.
- ☆ We shouldn't have bought this house. It is too big for us.
- ☆ I shouldn't have said that. I am sorry.

Note: This only expresses regret when used with the subjects "I" or "we". With other subjects, this sentence pattern shows that the speaker thinks the other person made a mistake. For example, "He shouldn't have quit his job. Why did he do that?"

2. I wish (that) I had + Past Participle / I wish (that) I hadn't + Past Participle

- ★ I wish I had arrived Pacific Beach earlier. It's packed.
- ★ I wish I had videotaped the incredible fireworks show. Incredible.
- ★ I wish I hadn't forgotten sunscreen. I had to borrow some all day.
- ★ He wishes I had married her.
- ★ I wish that I hadn't bought this stock.
- ★ We wish that we hadn't moved to Los Angeles. We miss New York.

3. I regret + gerund / I regret not + gerund.

- ★ I regret ordering this.
- ★ He regrets opening a bookshop.
- ★ They regret not practising hard.
- ★ We regret not telling you the truth.

If a person no longer feels regret, then we could use "regret" in the past tense.

- ★ He regretted buying the shirt, but he likes it.

- ★ At first, we regretted moving to Los Angeles, but it is growing on me (I start liking it).

4. If only I had + Past Participle / If only I hadn't + Past Participle

- ★ If only I had listened to my father's advice.
- ★ If only we hadn't invited him, the party would have been perfect.

Note: This only expresses regret when used with the subjects. "I" or "We".

With other subjects, this sentence pattern shows that the speaker thinks the other person made a mistake. For example:

"If only he had married her, his life would be so much better".

Saying Sorry and Accepting Apologies

Following are given different expressions to make and accept an apology in English:

- | | |
|--|---|
| ★ Excuse me for | ★ I apologize for |
| ★ I beg your pardon / Pardon / Sorry.. | ★ I do apologize for |
| ★ I must apologize for | ★ I shouldn't have said that. Don't be mad at me. |
| ★ I shouldn't have | ★ I was wrong. Can you forgive me? |
| ★ I am afraid | ★ I'd like to apologize for..... |
| ★ I am sorry for..... | ★ I am terribly sorry for..... |
| ★ It is my fault. | ★ My apologies for |
| ★ Pardon me for being so rude. | ★ Please accept my apology for |
| ★ Please excuse my | ★ Please excuse me for |

Accepting an Apology

- | | |
|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| ★ Don't worry, you are forgiven. | ★ No need to apologize, it's OK. |
| ★ That is all right. | ★ Never mind. |
| ★ Don't apologize. | ★ Don't worry about it. |
| ★ Don't mention it. | ★ That's OK. |
| ★ I quite understand. | ★ You couldn't help it. |
| ★ Forget about it. | ★ No harm done. |
| ★ No worries. | ★ It's fine. |

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- ★ Please don't let it happen again.
- ★ No problem.
- ★ It's not important.
- ★ It's all fine.

- ★ You should be, but I forgive you.
- ★ Think nothing of it.
- ★ That's all right.
- ★ I understand.

7- FOLLOWING AND GIVING DIRECTIONS

When we are living in a big city or we are in a foreign city or country, we spend a lot of time in finding our way around. So, we find ourselves asking for or being asked for directions in English. For example, you want to go to a grocery store, or some bank or some popular museum etc., you may need to ask others how to get there. The following are given some common expressions to ask for directions in English:

1. How do I get to the police station?
2. What's the best way to get to the supermarket?
3. Where is the Faisal Masjid?
4. Could you tell me where the shoe store is?
5. Do you know where the post office is?
6. Where can I find the nearest bakery?
7. Is there a shop around here?

1) Giving Directions in English: Examples:

1. The bank is on the main street.
2. The hospital is around the corner.
3. Go North for two blocks.
4. The supermarket is on the main avenue.
5. Walk straight for two kilometers.
6. Drive for three kilometers.
7. The school is between the park and the bank.
8. The hotel is in front of the school.

Apart from these directions, we may give short answers by using the following expressions:

| | |
|---------------------|----------------------------------|
| Go straight on | Turn back |
| It is this way | It is that way |
| Go under the bridge | Go over the bridge |
| Go back | Turn left |
| Turn right | Go along |
| Cross | Take the first road on the right |
| Opposite | Take the second road on the left |
| Next to | Between |
| At the end | Behind |
| In front of | Just around the corner |

- A. Go straight on. Then take the first left. Walk past the library and it's the building next to the library on the left.

- B. Go straight on. Go past the traffic lights. You will see a shop on the right. Go past that and it's on the right next to the shop.
- C. Go straight on. Go past the traffic lights and go straight on until you get to the roundabout. At the roundabout turn left. Go past the theatre. It's the building next to the theatre, opposite the hospital.

8- SHARING NARRATIVES

Narrative is a description of events. Narrative is the act, process or skill of telling a story. In other words Narrative is a story telling. It is a way of ordering events and thoughts or ideas in a coherent and logical sequence that makes them interesting to listen to. It has a strong oral heritage. The sequence does not have to be strictly chronological, though it can be; it can include digressions and flashbacks and foreshadowings, just as a story recounted around a campfire can. As a narrative is powered by events, its goal is not essentially analytical or critical — though like many stories (especially in traditional genres— folktales, fairy tales) it can contain substantial moral lessons.

Narrative skills are developed through book reading, story telling, performing arts, and fine arts, as well as children's creation of oral, visual, written and multimedia stories.

Narratives are a popular genre for students and teachers as it provides the writers an opportunity to share their imagination, creativity, skill and understanding of nearly all elements of writing. On occasions, we refer to a narrative as "creative writing" or story writing.

The purpose of a narrative is simple, to tell the audience a story. It can be written to motivate, educate or most commonly to entertain the readers or listeners. Narratives can both be fact or fiction. The challenge in writing a good narrative is to captivate the audience and keep them engaged as the story is told. Sharing narratives involves reading short stories, excerpts (a short piece of writing, music, film etc., taken from a longer whole), comic strips (a series of drawings inside boxes that tell a story and are often printed in newspapers) interviews and other common texts.

Essential Ingredients / elements of a Successful Narrative

An Introduction — This includes "Who, What, Where" information. Who is in the story? What is happening? Where is the story set?

A Complication — Narratives usually have some kind of problem for the main characters.

A Series of Events — Several events happen in the story as the main characters attempt to solve the problem.

A resolution — The complication is involved.

A conclusion — The narrative finishes with a concluding paragraph to sum up the story for the characters.

A moral — Sometimes, the characters in the narrative learn a lesson, or a moral about life.

9- SHARING UNIQUE EXPERIENCES

Experiences lead to knowledge and knowledge in turn leads to enlightenment in any form. Sharing personal experiences with other people is a common phenomenon that we all engage in. This sharing of experience is probably of importance since it corroborates (to provide evidence or information that supports a statement) others' as well as one's own experiences and contributes to a sense of belonging. Therefore, sharing experiences becomes particularly important when experiences like suffering, pain, and other experiences that are not immediately shared threaten the inter subjectivity of our relations.

1) Summarizing and Narrating True Stories:

It is an art to share narratives with others. It needs special skill on the part of the narrator. The narrator has to be efficient while sharing his/her narrative. The narrator cannot narrate the whole story as it takes long to describe. So he/she has to summarize the story so that it may become interesting. However, while summarizing, the narrator must not miss the important points to make his/her narrative comprehensive and comprehensible.

2) Solving Word Puzzles to Develop Language Awareness:

Word games are interesting and enjoyable because they are simple. There is a variety of word games. You can find words within a massive jumble of letters, unscramble (to arrange something that is confused or in the wrong order in a clear, correct way) anagrams (a word or phrase that is made by arranging the letters of another word or phrase in a different orders: An anagram of "elvis" is "lives".) or fill in crossword puzzles. You can find all of these experiences along with some rather unique ones on mobile. There are quite a few options. However, many of them are copies of one another. We try our best to sift through and find the best ones.

3) Reading Short Stories and Completing Exercises to Test Comprehension:

Reading short stories is defined as the level of understanding of a text. This understanding comes from the interaction between the words that are written. Human beings are thought to have a set reserve, an established threshold for attention and absorption of information, commonly referred to as processing capacity. It is generally believed that proficient reading depends on the ability to recognize words quickly and effortlessly. If word recognition is difficult, the students use too much of their processing capacity to read individual words, and this interferes with their ability to comprehend what is read. This practice also helps in sharing various narratives. After the learner had read the story, he/she can be assigned a task to complete a cloze test of the read story.

4) Converting an Event Into a Short Story:

It is a technique to convert an event into a short story and this practice helps the learners both in speaking and writing. In this activity, the learner takes any event or incident and converts it into a short story but he must keep it in mind that he must not miss any essential points or details.

5) Using Pictures as Stimuli for Narrative Creation:

Pictures can also be used to develop narrative creation. Show a picture to the learner and ask him/her to create a story from his observations of that picture. The story can be written or it can be narrated orally. The learner should be assisted with certain guidelines so that he/she may be able to accomplish the given task of narrative creation.



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