

ENG-301
English Comprehension & Composition
Computer Science
BSCS
Handouts
By
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Week 1 (Lecture 1&2)

Learning Outcomes:

By the end of this week students will be able to:

- Get thorough overview of the course
- Understand the objectives and outcomes of the course
- Know the content and assessment criteria
- Introduce themselves confidently

Table of Content

- Introduction to English Composition and Comprehension
- Course objectives
- Learning outcomes
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Introduction to English Composition and Comprehension

This particular course is typically taught as a foundation subject as a good command of English is often required for academic study and career progression. The command over written and spoken English is now considered a necessity for the graduates. It equips them with necessary skills and aptitude to deal successfully with the complex and challenging situations, arising out of inter-personal, and organizational dealings. This subject inevitably demands a systematic and comprehensive study of the related topics. In today's dynamic workplace, with high peer pressure, it is essential for oneself to express one's views and ideas in proper and correct form of the language. Flawless usage of the English Language helps to develop interpersonal relationship at work and enhances a person's capability to understand and resolve difficult problems. The main focus of this course is to improve students' vocabulary, grammar, and reading and writing skills through in-class learning activities and self-study. In order to reach this goal, students will be engaged in a variety of activities including drills and practices, discussions, oral presentation, etc. The other

important part of this class is the self-study component. Students are required to study textbooks of grammar and vocabulary on their own, do the online courseware in the self-study center, and do listening, speaking, reading, and writing exercises on Internet.

Objectives

This course will help students in developing the competencies to understand English and express themselves effectively in the same language both in writing and speaking. This course is designed to improve students' abilities to paraphrase, summarize, and synthesize, and to correctly and effectively express them in English language. Students learn to write more effectively through a variety of assignments that highlight the writing and revision process, effective sentence formation, paragraph development, and the format of essays. This course emphasizes the use of correct grammar, spelling, punctuation, and mechanics. Students will be required to apply these skills to all writing assignments.

Learning Outcomes

By the end of this course students are expected to be able to do the following:-

- 1. Critical thinking skills:**
 - ✓ Recognize personal attitudes and preferences
 - ✓ Evaluate and classify information in a text
 - ✓ Identify the advantages and disadvantages of things
 - ✓ Interpret cartoons, graphs, pictures, maps
 - ✓ Infer word meaning from context
 - ✓ Draw conclusions
 - ✓ Propose solutions
 - ✓ Distinguish between opinion and fact

- 2. Listening tasks:**
 - ✓ Listen for main ideas and details
 - ✓ Interpret speaker's tone and attitude
 - ✓ Relate listening to personal experience
 - ✓ Synthesize information from two listening texts
 - ✓ Listen and take notes on details using an outline/ chart
 - ✓ Compare and contrast information from two listening texts

- 3. Speaking tasks:**
 - ✓ Express and defend opinions
 - ✓ Act out a conversation
 - ✓ Presentations
 - ✓ Interview people on various topics

4. Reading tasks:

- ✓ Read for main ideas
- ✓ Scan for details
- ✓ Make guesses
- ✓ Relate personal experience to the text
- ✓ Synthesize information from two texts
- ✓ Summarize information in a text using (graphic organizer)

6. Writing tasks:

- ✓ Compose a paragraph to describe something (person, place and object).
- ✓ Form basic sentences with correct word order.
- ✓ Combine simple sentences to make compound sentences.
- ✓ Write complete sentences.
- ✓ Use basic punctuation.
- ✓ Spell common words.
- ✓ Use basic lexis appropriately.
- ✓ Distinguish between informal/formal register

7. Vocabulary:

- ✓ Demonstrate knowledge of word definitions, synonyms, antonyms, prefixes, association, dictionary work, appropriate usage

8. Grammar:

- ✓ Recognize the simple present tense.
- ✓ Recognize the present progressive tense.
- ✓ Demonstrate understanding of the simple past tense.
- ✓ Recognize the future tenses will and going to.
- ✓ Use subject pronouns.
- ✓ Identify basic parts of speech.
- ✓ Use prepositions of place and time.
- ✓ Use basic adjectives.

- ✓ Use the simple past tense.
- ✓ Use the simple present tense and present progressive tense.
- ✓ Use the simple future tense.

Course content:

- Course Introduction
- Why is English Language important in the contemporary world?
- How to give Impressive introduction?
- Parts of speech
 - Noun & kinds of noun
 - Pronouns and cases
 - Adjectives
 - Verbs& kinds of verbs
 - Adverbs
 - Conjunctions
 - Interjection
 - Preposition
- Use of Article
- Parts of Sentences
- Phrase, clause, sentence
- Parts of Sentences
- Phrase, clause, sentence
- Capitalization
- Punctuation
- Use of Modal Auxiliary Verbs
- Tenses: Past, Present & future
- Subject verb agreement rules
- Pre-writing Skills

- Paragraph writing
- Essay writing
- Reading Skills
- Reading Comprehension
- Idioms
- Suffixes and prefixes
- Precise writing
 - Presentation Strategies
 - Discussion on Presentation skills & rules

Assessment Criteria

Class Assignments, Projects and quizzes	Mid Term	Final Term	Total Marks
40	25	35	100

Reference Books

- ✓ Exploring the World of English by Sayyed Saadat Ali Shah
- ✓ Warriner's English Grammar and Composition. By John E. Warriner
- ✓ English Grammar and Composition by Wren & Martin
- ✓ Advanced Reading Power by Beatrice S. Mikulecky Linda Jeffries

Class room Ethics

Notice:

Kindly make sure the work you are assigned with is done within the bounds of time. As due to the lack of time, there will be no makeup of presentations, viva and quiz.

The Department Policy on Writing. In all courses, student's written work is evaluated for effectiveness, as well as content. The writing must express ideas clearly, logically, and maturely, using Standard English sentence structure, grammar, and spelling. Students must acknowledge all sources of information by following a standard citation format.

Student's Conduct. Students are reminded that they should not disrupt or obstruct teaching and learning. Nonetheless, if a student or group of students is found disturbing the class in any way will be expelled from the class and will not be allowed until authorized by the Dean.

Academic Integrity. All students are expected to behave with academic honesty. It is not academically honest to misrepresent another person's work as your own, to take credit for someone else's words or ideas, to accept help on a test or assignment when you are expected to work independently, to obtain advanced information on confidential test materials, or to act in a way that might harm another student's chance for academic success. Please check the college catalog for more information.

Cell Phones. Please turn off cell phones during class.

Lecture 2

Learning Outcomes:

By the end of this lecture students will be able to give impressive self-introduction in different settings

Practice source:

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QgjkjsqAzvo&t=501s>

Impressive Self Introduction

A good introduction will help new acquaintances learn the essential details about who you are. When you don't have a third party to provide an introduction, you must offer an informative self-introduction that's engaging and memorable. The right introduction can solidify your name and purpose for the person you're speaking to, so you can make a positive impression. This article will help you create a powerful self-introduction that includes all the essential information you need to convey.

What is a self-introduction?

A self-introduction explains who you are, what you do and what others need to know about you. You should provide a self-introduction any time you meet someone new and don't have a third party to introduce you. Offer a self-introduction when you are:

- Beginning an interview
- Attending a hiring event
- Networking with new connections
- Giving a presentation
- Meeting people at a trade show

A self-introduction should include your name and occupation (or desired occupation) and key facts that will help you make an impression on the person you're speaking to. In a few sentences, cover the most important things that others need to know about you.

How to introduce?

Whether you plan to deliver your self-introduction verbally or in writing, it's helpful to draft a sample of what you want to say in advance. Preparing and practicing a verbal introduction will solidify the key points in your mind so you don't forget any important details. Crafting a written

self-introduction will give you a template that you can turn to quickly when you need to send an email regarding a job posting or sales opportunity that you've found.

These steps will help you write an effective self-introduction.

1. Summarize your professional standing
2. Elaborate on your experiences and achievements
3. Conclude with a lead-in to the next part of the conversation

1. Summarize your professional standing

The first sentence of your self-introduction should include your name and job title or experience. If you're unemployed and seeking a job, you might mention your educational degree, certification level or current place in your job search. For example:

- "My name is Muhammad Akram, and I'm a recent computer science graduate from Stanford University."
- "I'm Maryam Aslam, and I'm seeking an entry-level warehousing job that will use my organization, attention to detail and time management skills."
- "My name is Ahsan Khan, and I'm chief engineer for Jacobs and Associates."

2. Elaborate on your experiences and achievements

Customize this part of the introduction to highlight the details most relevant to the person you're speaking to. If you're in a job interview, discuss your professional skills and accomplishments. If you're giving a presentation, offer information that supports your authority in the area you're speaking on. When you're introducing yourself to a potential client, mention your products and services.

3. Conclude with a lead-in to the next part of the conversation

Keep your introduction short and conclude it by leading into what you'd like to happen next. For a presentation, you would summarize what you plan to discuss. In an interview, mention why you're the best person for the job. A self-introduction to a new client or colleague should end with a call to action. This could be a meeting, sale or further correspondence.

Here are four ways you can introduce yourself professionally:

1. State your purpose

Many people introduce themselves by stating their name and current job title, but you should also try to add information your new contact can't find on your business card. If you are at a networking event, consider starting with your name, then stating what your passion is. You could also mention what your goal is for the encounter, such as finding someone to collaborate with on a new idea you have.

Quickly summarize who you are and why you are there when you interview for a job. Your interviewers already know what position you are applying for, so have your professional introduction explain your purpose in a few sentences. You should include your name and why you are a good candidate for the job position.

Keep in mind that you should start your introduction in a way that is appropriate for the context. For example, if you're at a networking event you might simply start by shaking a new connection's hand and giving them your first and last name. Then begin a conversation by asking and answering questions about their background and your own.

2. Control your body language

Both your words and your body language make an impact on first impressions. Controlling your body language is essential to staying poised and professional in a new introduction. For example, when you approach a new coworker in your department, start with a strong handshake, and maintain eye contact during the conversation. Doing this shows the other party you are engaged in your interaction.

When you introduce yourself to someone, you can demonstrate confidence by speaking in a clear and audible voice. During your conversation, maintain natural body language with relaxed shoulders and open arms by your side. If you are seated, stand to greet someone who walks in the room, such as during an interview.

3. Explain why you are valuable

Employers might schedule multiple interviews throughout the day or week for a job opening. Your professional introduction should convey your unique experience and qualifications so you stand out from other candidates. Hearing an introduction that sounds different from previous ones directs your new contact's attention toward you and tends to make it more memorable. During an interview introduction, for example, you should let your interviewer know why you would make a valuable contribution to the team.

4. Understand the culture

Consider researching the company before an interview or meeting to understand their culture. Before an introduction with a computer programming company, for example, review their website or social media pages to see what the culture is like. If the company seems more casual, it may be appropriate to include humor in your introduction. For a more formal position or meeting with a potential client, keeping a more professional demeanor could make you more likely to be hired or gain the client's business.

Here are some of the Do's and Don'ts which you can follow while introducing yourself

Don'ts of Self Introduction

Avoid reflexive pronoun

When you start, never start with a reflexive pronoun.

Example- Usage of Myself so and so is wrong. Instead, use I am so and so.

Don't drag

Do not drag your introduction into a long recital and overload the interviewer with information. Try to contain the introduction to well under 2 minutes and not bore the interviewer. Also, if you have to tell about your hobbies, do not ramble about them. Just a mention of them would suffice.

Avoid talking about parents/ Family background

This is one of the most common mistakes that many candidates do. The interviewer wants to know about you and it is not appreciated to hear about your parents or your family background. Hence it would be better if you avoid talking about your parents or your family background.

Avoid negative talk

Never talk anything negative. It usually makes a weak first impression. Don't be too candid always maintain a formal tone throughout. Make sure you don't state your goal which deviates from the job profile. Chances are that the interviewer may not perceive you as potential who will be with the company in the long run.

Do not copy

Do not copy an introduction from others or google it, because everybody's story is different and the best story.

Week 2 (Lecture 3& 4)

Learning Outcomes:

By the end of this week students will be able to:

- Identify classification of words of language
- Group the words according to their functions
- Appropriately use/understand words in written/spoken language

Table of Content

- Parts of Speech
 - Noun
 - Pronoun
 - Verb
 - Adjective
 - Adverb
 - Preposition
 - Conjunction
 - Interjection

Class Activity: Identification of parts of speech

The Eight Parts of Speech

There are eight parts of speech in the English language: noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction, and interjection. The part of speech indicates how the word functions in meaning as well as grammatically within the sentence. An individual word can function as more than one part of speech when used in different circumstances. Understanding parts of speech is essential for determining the correct definition of a word when using the dictionary.

1. Noun

A noun is the name of a person, place, thing, or idea.

man... Butte College... house... happiness

A noun is a word for a person, place, thing, or idea. Nouns are often used with an article (the, a, an), but not always. Proper nouns always start with a capital letter; common nouns do not. Nouns can be singular or plural, concrete or abstract. Nouns show possession by adding 's. Nouns can function in different roles within a sentence; for example, a noun can be a subject, direct object, indirect object, subject complement, or object of a preposition.

Nouns can be subjects or objects

- A subject noun names the person, place, thing or idea that is doing the action or is being talked about. Our family loved spending afternoons in the park.
- An object noun is used as the direct object, indirect object, or object of the preposition. We would often eat our lunch there.
- A predicate noun
Follows a linking verb or a form of the be verb and repeats/renames the subject.
Our favorite game was football

Here are several different types of noun, as follows:

Common noun

A common noun is a noun that refers to people or things in general, e.g. boy, country, bridge, city, birth, day, happiness.

Proper noun

A proper noun is a name that identifies a particular person, place, or thing, e.g. Steven, Africa, London, and Monday. In written English, proper nouns begin with capital letters.

Concrete noun

A concrete noun is a noun which refers to people and to things that exist physically and can be seen, touched, smelled, heard, or tasted. Examples include dog, building, coffee, tree, rain, beach, and tune.

Abstract noun

An abstract noun is a noun which refers to ideas, qualities, and conditions - things that cannot be seen or touched and things which have no physical reality, e.g. truth, danger, happiness, time, friendship, humor.

Collective nouns

Collective nouns refer to groups of people or things, e.g. audience, family, government, team, jury. In American English, most collective nouns are treated as singular, with a singular verb:

The whole family was at the table.

In British English, the preceding sentence would be correct, but it would also be correct to treat the collective noun as a plural, with a plural verb:

A noun may belong to more than one category. For example, happiness is both a common noun and an abstract noun, while Mount Everest is both a concrete noun and a proper noun.

Count and mass nouns

Nouns can be either countable or uncountable. Countable nouns (or count nouns) are those that refer to something that can be counted. Uncountable nouns (or mass nouns) do not typically refer to things that can be counted and so they do not regularly have a plural form.

2. Pronoun

A pronoun is a word used in place of a noun.

She... we... they... it

A pronoun is a word used in place of a noun. A pronoun is usually substituted for a specific noun, which is called its antecedent. In the sentence above, the antecedent for the pronoun she is the girl. Pronouns are further defined by type: personal pronouns refer to specific persons or things; possessive pronouns indicate ownership; reflexive pronouns are used to emphasize another noun or pronoun; relative pronouns introduce a subordinate clause; and demonstrative pronouns identify, point to, or refer to nouns

Personal pronouns: Personal pronouns take the place of people or things. They can be either singular or plural, depending whether they refer to one or multiple nouns. Examples include me, we, us, and you.

Possessive pronouns: Possessive pronouns are personal pronouns that also indicate possession of something. They have singular forms (like my), and plural forms (like our). These pronouns often appear before the possessed item, but not always. For example, both “my car” and “the car is mine” both indicate who owns the car.

Reflexive pronouns: When a subject performs an action on itself, the sentence uses a reflexive pronoun after the verb. Reflexive pronouns include myself, himself, themselves, and herself. An example of a reflexive pronoun is the common expression “I kicked myself.”

Relative pronouns: A relative pronoun starts a clause (a group of words that refer to a noun). Who, that, and which are all relative pronouns. They can also serve as other types of pronouns, depending on the sentence. For example, in “I saw the dog that you own,” the relative pronoun that is the beginning of the clause that you own, which describes the dog.

Demonstrative pronouns: Demonstrative pronouns point out or modify a person or thing. There are four demonstrative pronouns: this and that (for singular words), and these and those (for plural words).

Interrogative pronouns: Interrogative pronouns begin questions. For example, in “Who are you?” the interrogative pronoun who starts the question. There are five interrogative pronouns: who, whom, and whose (for questions that involve people), and which and what (for questions that involve things).

Cases of Pronouns

Subjective	Possessive	Objective
I	MY/MINE	ME
WE	OUR/OURS	US
YOU	YOUR/YOURS	YOU
HE	HIS	HIM
SHE	HER	HER
IT	ITS	IT
THEY	THEIR	THEM

Week 3 (Lecture 5&6)

3. Verb

A verb expresses action or being.

jump... is... write... become

The verb in a sentence expresses action or being. There is a main verb and sometimes one or more helping verbs. ("She can sing." Sing is the main verb; can is the helping verb.) A verb must agree with its subject in number (both are singular or both are plural). Verbs also take different forms to express tense.

- Janie __(verb)__ five miles.
- You/He/She/They/We __(intransitive verb)__ often.
- I/You/It __(linking verb)__ happy.
- Let's __(transitive verb)__ it.

Main Verbs: express mental or physical action. Walk, Talk, go, run, play, study

- **Auxiliary Verbs:** Auxiliary verbs are also called helping verbs which help us to form a tense or mood. Two types of Auxiliary verbs:

» **Primary Auxiliary Verbs**

» **Modal Auxiliary Verbs**

Primary Auxiliary verb make a statement by connecting the subject with a word that describes or explains it.

1. Be, is, am, are, was, were, being and been
2. Do, does and did
3. Has, have and had

A Modal Auxiliary verbs: used to indicate modality – that is, likelihood, ability, permission, and obligation. *can/could, may/might, must, will/would, and shall/should, ought to and have to, used to*

Transitive verbs pass the action on to a receiver (person, place, or thing)/object

The receiver is the object I threw the pen.

HINT: if there are questions left (who, where, what), it's probably transitive

Intransitive verbs don't pass the action on to a receiver.

Verb Phrases consist of a main verb and a helping verb

Helping verbs = can, could, did, do, does, had, has, have, may, might, must, shall, should, will,

Would

She had always been thinking of her future.

4. Adjective

An adjective modifies or describes a noun or pronoun.

Pretty... old... blue... smart

An adjective is a word used to modify or describe a noun or a pronoun. It usually answers the question of which one, what kind, or how many. (Articles [a, an, the] are usually classified as adjectives.)

5. Adverb

An adverb modifies or describes a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

Gently... extremely... carefully... well

An adverb describes or modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb, but never a noun. It usually answers the questions of when, where, how, why, under what conditions, or to what degree. Adverbs often end in -ly.

6. Preposition

A preposition is a word placed before a noun or pronoun to form a phrase modifying another word in the sentence.

by... with.... about... until

(by the tree, with our friends, about the book, until tomorrow)

A preposition is a word placed before a noun or pronoun to form a phrase modifying another word in the sentence. Therefore a preposition is always part of a prepositional phrase. The prepositional phrase almost always functions as an adjective or as an adverb.

7. Conjunction

A conjunction joins words, phrases, or clauses.

And... But... or... while... because

A conjunction joins words, phrases, or clauses, and indicates the relationship between the elements joined. Coordinating conjunctions connect grammatically equal elements: and, but, or, nor, for, so, yet. Subordinating conjunctions connect clauses that are not equal: because, although, while, since, etc. There are other types of conjunctions as well.

8. Interjection

An interjection is a word used to express emotion.

Oh! Wow! Oops!

An interjection is a word used to express emotion. It is often followed by an exclamation point.

Class Activity

Identify parts of speech from the following sentences

1. Some answers on this test are about electricity.
2. Can you please drive more slowly?
3. After the rain, the electrician checked the box.
4. The end of the afternoon arrived quickly.
5. This group is very funny.
6. My doctor and my orthodontist are neighbors.
7. In the evening, Sana likes to go boating.
8. Unfortunately, he had a rash and an allergy.
9. He hurt himself during gym class.

10. Can you and they finish the cleaning by three o'clock?
11. Who is the person with her?
12. Hurrah! We have won the match.
13. The police chased the man, who was thief.
14. Ours is older than theirs.
15. Neither of them is the clear winner of the race as of now.
16. Will she watch someone while Sarah goes shopping?
17. The sun shines brightly.
18. All were drowned.
19. I forgot my jacket, which was given by my father, in the music room.
20. They easily recalled the unforgettable incident.

Week 4 (Lecture 7&8)

Use of Articles

The words **a** or **an** and **the** are called Articles. They come before nouns.

There are two Articles - a (or an) and the.

A or an is called the Indefinite Article, because it usually leaves indefinite the Person or thing spoken of; as, A doctor; that is, any doctor. The is called the Definite Article, because it normally points out some particular person or thing; as,

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.

A or An

The choice between a and an is determined by sound. Before a word beginning with a vowel sound an is used; as,

An ass, an enemy, an ink-pad, an orange, an umbrella, an hour, an honest man, an heir.

- It will be noticed that the words hour, honest, heir begin with a vowel sound, as the initial consonant h is not pronounced,
- Before a word beginning with a consonant sound a is used; as,

A boy, a reindeer, a woman, a yard, a horse, a hole, also 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 yu. Similarly we say, A one-rupee note, such a one, a one-eyed man. because one begins with the consonant sound of w.

- 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).

Use of the Definite Article

The Definite Article the is used-

1. 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 already referred to (that is, when it is clear from the context which one we mean); as,
The book you want is out of print. (Which book? The one you want.)
Let's go to the park. (= the park in this town)
The girl cried, (the girl = the girl already talked about)
2. When a singular noun is meant to represent a whole class; as, The cow is a useful animal.
[Or we may say, "Cows are useful animals."] The horse is a noble animal. The cat loves comfort. The rose is the sweetest of all flowers. The banyan is a kind of fig tree. [Do not say, "a kind of a fig tree". This is a common error.]

The two nouns man and woman can be used in a general sense without either article. Man is the only animal that uses fire. Woman is man's mate.

But in present-day English a man and a woman (or men and women) are more usual. A woman is more sensitive than a man.

3. Before some proper names, viz., these kinds of place-names:
 - a. oceans and seas, e.g. the Pacific, the black Sea
 - b. rivers, e.g. the Ganga, the Nile
 - c. canals, e.g. the Suez Canal
 - d. deserts, e.g. the Sahara
 - e. groups of islands, e.g. the West Indies

- f. mountain-ranges, e.g. the Himalayas, the Alps
 - g. a very few names of countries, which include words like republic and kingdom (e.g. the Irish Republic, the United Kingdom) also: the Ukraine, the Netherlands (and its seat of government the Hague).
4. Before the names of certain books; as,
The Holy Quran, the Puranas, the Iliad, the Ramayana.
But we say Homer's Iliad, Valmiki's Ramayana.
 5. Before names of things unique of their kind; as, The sun, the sky, the ocean, the sea, the earth. [Note-Sometimes the is placed before a Common noun to give it the meaning of an Abstract noun; as, At last the valor (the warlike or martial spirit) in him was thoroughly aroused.]
 6. 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.
 7. With Superlatives; as, The darkest cloud has a silver lining. This is the best book of elementary chemistry.
 8. With ordinals; as, He was the first man to arrive.
 9. Before musical instruments; as, He can play the flute.
 10. Before an adjective when the noun is understood; as, The poor are always with us.
 11. Before a noun (with emphasis) to give the force of a Superlative; as, The Verb is the word (= the chief word) in a sentence.

Use of the Indefinite Article

The Indefinite Article is used-

1. In its original numerical sense of one; as, Twelve inches make a foot. Not a word was said. A word to the wise is sufficient. A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.
2. In the vague sense of a certain; as, A Kishore Kumar (= a certain person named Kishore Kumar) is suspected by the police. One evening a beggar came to my door.
3. In the sense of any, to single out an individual as the representative of a class; as, A pupil should obey his teacher. A cow is a useful animal.

4. To make a common noun of a proper noun; as, A Daniel comes to judgement! (A Daniel = a very wise man)

Omission of the Article

The Article is omitted-

1. Before names of substances and abstract nouns (i.e. uncountable nouns) used in a general sense; as,
 - Sugar is bad for your teeth.
 - Gold is a precious metal.
 - Wisdom is the gift of heaven.
 - Honesty is the best policy.
 - Virtue is its own reward.

Note:- Uncountable nouns take the when used in a particular sense (especially when qualified by an adjective or adjectival phrase or clause); as,

- Would you pass me the sugar? (= the sugar on the table)
- The Wisdom of Solomon is great.

I can't forget the kindness with which he treated me.

2. Before plural countable nouns used in a general sense; as,
 - Children like chocolates.
 - Computers are used in many offices.
3. Before most proper nouns (except those referred to earlier), namely, names of people (e.g. Gopal, Rahim), names of continents, countries, cities, etc. (e.g. Europe, Pakistan, Nagpur), names of individual mountains (e.g. Mount Everest), individual islands, lakes, hills, etc.
4. Before names of meals (used in a general sense); as, What time do you have lunch? Dinner is ready.

5. Note: We use a when there is an adjective before breakfast, lunch, dinner, etc. We use the when we specify. I had a late lunch today. The dinner we had at the Tourist Hotel was very nice
6. Before languages; as, We are studying English. They speak Punjabi at home.
7. Before school, college, university, church, bed, hospital, prison, when these places are
 - visited or used for their primary purpose; as,
 - I learnt French at school.
 - We go to church on Sundays.
 - He stays in bed till nine every morning.
 - My uncle is still in hospital.
8. Before names of relations, like father, mother, aunt, uncle, and also cook and nurse, meaning 'our cook', 'our nurse', as, Father has returned. Aunt wants you to see her. Cook has given notice.
9. Before predicative nouns denoting a unique position, i.e., a position that is normally held at one time by one person only; as, He was elected chairman of the Board. Mr. Banerji became Principal of the College in 1995.
10. In certain phrases consisting of a transitive verb followed by its object; as, to catch fire, to take breath, to give battle, to cast anchor, to send word, to bring word, to give ear, to lay siege, to set sail, to lose heart, to set foot, to leave home, to strike root, to take offence.

Exercise

Complete the following sentences by filling in a or an or the as may be suitable:-

1. Copper is --- useful metal.
2. He is not --- honorable man.
3. --- able man has not always a distinguished look.
4. --- reindeer is a native of Norway.

5. Honest men speak --- truth.
6. Rustum is ---.
7. Do you see --- blue sky?
8. Varanasi is --- holy city.
9. Aladdin had --- wonderful lamp.
10. The world is --- happy place.
11. He returned after --- hour.
12. --- school will shortly close for the Puja holidays.
13. --- sun shines brightly.
14. I first met him --- year ago.
15. Yesterday --- European called at my office.
16. Sanskrit is --- difficult language.
17. --- Ganga is --- sacred river.
18. --- lion is --- king of beasts.
19. You are --- fool to say that.
20. French is --- easy language.
21. Who is --- girl sitting there?

22. Which is --- longest river in India?
23. Rama has come without --- umbrella.
24. Mumbai is --- very dear place to live in.
25. She is --- untidy girl.
26. The children found --- egg in the nest.
27. I bought horse, ox, and --- buffalo.
28. If you see him, give him --- message.
29. English is language of --- people of England.
30. The guide knows --- way.
31. Sri Lanka is --- island.
32. Let us discuss --- matter seriously.
33. John got --- best present.
34. Man, thou art --- animal.
35. India is one of --- most industrial countries in Asia.
36. He looks as stupid as --- owl.
37. He is --- honour to this profession.

Week 5 (Lecture 9&10)

The Sentence

When we speak or write we use words. We generally use these words in groups; as, Little Jack Homer sat in a corner. A group of words like this, which makes complete sense, is called a Sentence.

Kinds of Sentences

Sentences are of four kinds: (1) Those which make statements or assertions; as, Humpty Dumpty sat on a wall. (2) Those which ask questions; as Where do you live? (3) Those which express commands, requests, or entreaties; as, Be quiet. Have mercy upon us. (4) Those which express strong feelings; as, How cold the night is! What a shame!

A sentence that makes a statement or assertion is called a Declarative or Assertive sentence. A sentence that asks a question is called an Interrogative sentence. A sentence that expresses a command or an entreaty is called an Imperative sentence. A sentence that expresses strong feeling is called an Exclamatory sentence.

Subject and predicate

When we make a sentence:

- We name some person or thing; and
- Say something about that person or thing.

In other words, we must have a subject to speak about and we must say or predicate something about that subject.

Hence every sentence has two parts:

- The part which names the person or thing we are speaking about. This is called the Subject of the sentence.
 - The part which tells something about the Subject. This is called the Predicate of the sentence.
5. The Subject of a sentence usually comes first, but occasionally it is put after the Predicate; as, Here comes the bus.
Sweet are the uses of adversity.
6. In Imperative sentences the Subject is left out; as,
Sit down. [Here the Subject You is understood].
Thank him. [Here too the Subject You is understood.]

Exercise

In the following sentences separate the Subject and the Predicate:

1. The cackling of geese saved Rome.
2. The boy stood on the burning deck.
3. Tubal Cain was a man of might.
4. Stone walls do not make a prison.
5. The singing of the birds delights us.
6. Miss Kitty was rude at the table one day
7. He has a good memory.
8. Bad habits grow unconsciously.
9. The earth revolves round the sun.

10. Nature is the best physician.
11. Edison invented the phonograph.
12. The sea hath many thousand sands.
13. We cannot pump the ocean dry.
14. Borrowed garments never fit well.
15. The early bird catches the worm.
16. All matter is indestructible.
17. Islamabad is the capital of Pakistan.
18. We should profit by experience.
19. All roads lead to Rome.
20. A guilty conscience needs no excuse.
21. The beautiful rainbow soon faded away.
22. No man can serve two masters.
23. A sick room should be well aired.
24. The dewdrops glitter in the sunshine.
25. I shot an arrow into the air.
26. A barking sound the shepherd hears.

The Phrase and Clause

Examine the group of words “in a corner”. It makes sense, but not complete sense. Such a group of words, which makes sense, but not complete sense, is called a Phrase. In the following sentences, the groups of words in italics are Phrases:

- The sun rises *in the east*.
- Humpty Dumpty sat *on a wall*.
- There came a giant *to my door*.

Examine the groups of words in italics in the following sentences:

- He has a chain of gold.
- He has a chain which is made of gold.

We recognize the first group of words as a Phrase.

The second group of words, unlike the Phrase of gold, contains a Subject (which) and a Predicate (is made of gold).

Such a group of words which forms part of a sentence, and contains a Subject and a Predicate, is called a Clause.

Use of Auxiliaries and Modal Verbs

The verbs be (am, is, was, etc), have and do, when used with ordinary verbs to make tenses, passive forms, questions and negatives, are called auxiliary verbs or auxiliaries. (Auxiliary = helping)

The verbs can, could, may, might, will, would, shall, should, must and ought are called modal verbs or modals. They are used before ordinary verbs and express meanings such as permission, possibility, certainty and necessity. Need and dare can sometimes be used like modal verbs.

Modals are often included in the group of auxiliaries. In some grammars they are called “modal auxiliaries”.

The modals can, could, may, might, shall, should, will, would, must and ought are termed Defective Verbs, because some parts are wanting in them. They have no -s in the third person singular; they have no infinitive and ing forms. Be

The auxiliary be is used

1. In the formation of the continuous tenses; as,

He is working. I was writing

2. In the formation of the passive; as,

The gate was opened.

Be followed by the infinitive is used to indicate a plan, arrangement, or agreement; as,

I am to see him tomorrow. We are to be married next month.

Have

The auxiliary have is used in the formation of the perfect tenses; as, He has worked. He has been working. Have to is used with the infinitive to indicate obligation; as,

- I have to be there by five o'clock.
- He has to move the furniture himself.

The past form had to is used to express obligation in the past.

- I had to be there by five o'clock.
- He had to move the furniture himself.

In negatives and questions, have to and had to are used with do, does, did; as,

- They have to go -- They don't have to go. Do they have to go?
- He has to go. -- He doesn't have to go. Does he have to go?
- He had to go. -- He didn't have to go. Did he have to go?

Do

The auxiliary do is used

To form the negative and interrogative of the simple present and simple past tenses of ordinary verbs; as,

- He doesn't work.
- He didn't work.
- Does he work?
- Did he work?

To avoid repetition of a previous ordinary verb; as, Do you know him? Yes, I do. She sings well. Yes, she does. You met him, didn't you? He eats fish and so do you.

Do is also used to emphasize the affirmative nature of a statement; as, You do look pale. I told him not to go, but he did go.

In the imperative, do make a request or invitation more persuasive; as, Do be quiet,

- Oh, do come! It's going to be such fun.
- In such cases do is strongly stressed.

Can, Could, May, Might

Can usually expresses ability or capacity; as,

- I can swim across the river.
- He can work this sum.

- Can you lift this box?

Can and May are used to express permission. May is rather formal.

- You can/may go now.
- Can/May I borrow your umbrella?

May is used to express possibility in affirmative sentences.

Can is used in the corresponding interrogative and negative sentences.

- It may rain tomorrow.
- He may be at home.
- Can this be true?
- It cannot be true.

In very formal English, may is used to express a wish; as,

- May you live happily and long!
- May success attend you!

Could and might are used as the past equivalents of can and May; as,

- I could swim across the river when I was young. (Ability)
- He said I might/could go. (Permission)
- I thought he might be at home. (Possibility)
- She wondered whether it could be true. (Possibility)

Could, as in the first example above, expresses only ability to do an act, but not the performance of an act. We should use was/were able to for ability +action in the past. When the boat was upset, we were able to (or managed to) swim to the bank, (not: we could swim to the bank) In negative statements, however, either could or was/were able to may be used. I couldn't (or: wasn't able to) solve the puzzle. It was too difficult.

In present-time contexts could and might are used as less positive versions of can and May; as, I could attend the party. (Less positive and more hesitant than I can attend the party.) Might/Could

I borrow your bicycle? (A diffident way of saying May/Can I.....') It might rain tomorrow.
(Less positive than 'It may rain.....')

Could you pass me the salt? (Polite request);

Might is also used to express a degree of dissatisfaction or reproach; as, You might pay a little more attention to your appearance.

Note the use of can, could, may and might with the perfect infinitive:

He is not there. Where can he have gone? (= Where is it possible that he has gone? - May expresses annoyance.) You could have accepted the offer. (= Why didn't you accept the offer?) Fatima may/might have gone with Sara. (= Possibly Fatima has gone/ went with Sara.) Why did you drive so carelessly? You might have run into the lamppost. (= It is fortunate that you didn't run into the lamppost.).

Shall, Should, Will, Would

Shall is used in the first person and will in all persons to express pure future. Today

- I/we shall is less common than I/we will.
- I shall/will be twenty-five next birthday.
- We will need the money on 15th.
- When shall we see you again?
- Tomorrow will be Sunday.
- You will see that I am right.

In present-day English, however, there is a growing tendency to use will in all persons. Shall is sometimes used in the second and third persons to express a command, a promise, or threat; as,

- He shall not enter my house again. (Command)
- You shall have a holiday tomorrow. (Promise)
- You shall be punished for this. (Threat)

Note that these uses of shall are old-fashioned and formal and generally avoided in modern English.

Questions with shall I/we are used to ask the will of the person addressed; as,

- Shall I open the door? (i.e., Do you want me to open it?)
- Which pen shall I buy? (i.e., what is your advice?)
- Where shall we go? (What is your suggestion?)

Will is used to express

(1) Volition; as,

- I will (=am willing to) carry your books.
- I will (=promise to) try to do better next time.
- I will (=am determined to) succeed or die in the attempt.
- In the last example above, will is strong-stressed.

(2) Characteristic habit; as,

- He will talk about nothing but films.
- She will sit for hours listening to the wireless.

(3) Assumption or probability; as,

- This will be the book you want, I suppose.
- That will be the postman, I think.

Will you? indicates an invitation or a request; as,

- Will you have tea?
- Will you lend me your scooter?

Should and would are used as the past equivalents of shall and will – as

- I expected that I should (more often: would) get a first class.
- He said he would be twenty-five next birthday.
- She said she would carry my books.
- She would sit for hours listening to the wireless, (Past habit)

Should is used in all persons to express duty or obligation; as,

- We should obey the laws.
- You should keep your promise.
- Children should obey their parents.

In clauses of condition, should is used to express a supposition that may not be true.

- If it should rain, they will not come.
- If he should see me here, he will be annoyed.

Should and would are also used as in the examples below.

(i) I should (or: would) like you to help her. ('should/would like' is a polite form of 'want').

(ii) Would you lend me your scooter, please? ('Would you?' is more polite than 'Will you?')

(iii) You should have been more careful. (Should + perfect infinitive indicates a past obligation that was not fulfilled).

(iv) He should be in the library now. (Expresses probability)

(v) I wish you would not chatter so much. (Would after wish expresses "a strong desire").

Must, Ought to

Must is used to express necessity or obligation.

- You must improve your spelling.
- We must get up early.

Must refers to the present or the near future. To talk about the past we use had to (the past form of have to); must has no past form.

- Yesterday we had to get up early.

Must is often used when the obligation comes from the speaker. When the obligation comes from somewhere else, have to is often used. Compare:

- I must be on a diet. (It is my own idea.)
- I have to be on a diet. (The doctor has told me to be on a diet.)

Must can also express logical certainty.

- Living in such crowded conditions must be difficult. (=I am sure it is difficult.)
- She must have left already. (I am sure she has left already).

Ought (to) expresses moral obligation or desirability; as,

- We ought to love our neighbors.
- We ought to help him.
- You ought to know better.

Ought (to) can also be used to express probability.

- Prices ought to come down soon.
- This book ought to be very useful.

Exercise

Choose the correct alternative:

1. I don't think I (shall, should, can) be able to go.
2. He (shall, will, dare) not pay unless he is compelled.
3. You (should, would, ought) be punctual.
4. I wish you (should, would, must) tell me earlier.
5. (Shall, Will, Would) I assist you?

6. (Shall, should would) you please help me with this?
7. You (ought, should, must) to pay your debts.
8. He said T (can, might, should) use his telephone at any time.
9. If you (shall, should, would) see him, give him my regards.
10. He (need, dare, would) not ask for a rise, for fear of losing his job.
11. I (needn't to see, needn't have seen, didn't need to see) him, so I sent a letter.
12. (Shall, Might, Could) you show me the way to the station?
13. To save my life, I ran fast, and (would, could, was able to) reach safely.
14. I (would, used, ought) to be an atheist but now I believe in God.
15. You (needn't, mustn't, won't) light a match; the room is full of gas.
16. The Prime Minister (would, need, is to) make a statement tomorrow.
17. You (couldn't wait, didn't need to wait, need't have waited) for me; I could have found the way all right.
18. I was afraid that if I asked him again he (can, may, might) refuse.
19. She (shall, will, dare) sit outside her garden gate for hours at a time, looking at the passing traffic.
20. (Should, Would, Shall) you like another cup of coffee?
21. I wish he (should, will, would) not play his wireles so loudly.

22. I (am to leave, would leave, was to have left) on Thursday. But on Thursday I had a terrible cold, so I decided to wait till Saturday.

23. He (used, is used, was used) to play cricket before his marriage.

24. (Shall, Will, Would) I carry the box into the house for you?

25. He (will, can, might) come, but I should be surprised.

Week6 (11& 12)

Basic Punctuation and Capitalization Rules

Punctuation (derived from the Latin punctum, a point) means the right use of putting in Points or Stops in writing. The following are the principal stops:-

(1) Full Stop or Period (.)

(2) Comma (,)

(3) Semicolon (;)

(4) Colon (:)

(5) Question Mark (?)

(6) Exclamation Mark (!)

Other marks in common use are the Dash:- Parentheses (); Inverted Commas or Quotation Marks " ".

The Full Stop represents the greatest pause and separation. It is used to mark the end of a declarative or an imperative sentence; as,

Dear, patient, gentle, noble Nell was dead.

The Full stop can be used in abbreviations, but they are often omitted in modern style.

M.A. or MA

M.P. or MP

U.N.O. or UNO

Note that in current English Mr and Mrs occur without a full stop, as these have come to be regarded as the full spellings.

The Comma represents the shortest pause, and is used :-

(1) To separate a series of words in the same construction; as,

England, France and Italy formed an alliance.

He lost lands, money, reputation and friends.

It was a long, dull and wearisome journey.

He wrote his exercise neatly, quickly and correctly.

Note:- A comma is generally not placed before the word preceded by and.

(2) To separate each pair of words connected by and; as,

We should be devout and humble, cheerful and serene.

High and low, rich and poor, wise and foolish, must all die.

The **Semicolon** represents a pause of greater importance than that shown by the comma. It is used :-

(1) To separate the clauses of Compound sentence, when they contain a comma; as,

He was a brave, large-hearted man; and we all honoured him.

(2) To separate a series of loosely related clauses; as,

Her court was pure; her life serene;

God gave her peace; her land reposed.

Today we love what tomorrow we hate; today we seek what tomorrow we shun; today we desire what tomorrow we fear.

The **Colon** marks a still more complete pause than that expressed by the Semicolon.

It is used (sometimes with a dash after it): -

(1) To introduce a quotation; as,

Bacon says:- “Reading makes a full man, writing an exact man, speaking a ready man.”

(2) Before enumeration, examples, etc; as,

The principal parts of a verb in English are: the present tense, the past tense, and the past participle.

The limitation of armaments, the acceptance of arbitration as the natural solvent of international disputes, the relegation of wars of ambition and aggression to the categories of obsolete follies: these will be milestones which mark the stages of the road.

(3) Between sentences grammatically independent but closely connected in sense; as,

Study to acquire a habit of thinking: no study is more important.

The Question Mark is used, instead of the Full Stop, after a direct question; as,

Have you written your exercise?

If you prick us, do we not bleed? If you trickle us, do we not laugh? If you poison us, do we not die? And if you wrong us, shall we not have revenge?

But the Question Mark is not used after an indirect question; as

He asked me whether I had written my exercise.

The Exclamation Mark is used after Interjections and after Phrases and Sentences expressing sudden emotion or wish; as,

Alas! -- Oh dear!

What a terrible fire this is!

O, what a fall were there, my countrymen! -- Long live the King!

Note: - When the interjection O is placed before the Nominative of Address, the

Exclamation Mark, if employed at all, comes after the? Noun; or it may be placed at the end of the sentence; as,

O father! I hear the sound of guns.

O Hamlet, speak no more!

Inverted Commas are used to enclose the exact words of a speaker, or a quotation; as,

"I would rather die," he exclaimed, "than join the oppressors of my country."

Babar is said by Elphinstone to have been "the most admirable prince that ever reigned in Asia."

If a quotation occurs within a quotation, it is marked by single inverted commas; as,

"You might as well say," added the March Hare, "that 'I like what I get' is the same thing as 'I get what I like,'" The Dash is used:-

(1) To indicate an abrupt stop or change of thought; as,

If my husband were alive – but why lament the past?

(2) To resume a scattered subject; as,.

Friends, companions, relatives - all deserted him.

The Hyphen - a shorter line than the Dash - is used to connect the parts of a compound word; as,

Passer-by, man-of-war, jack-of-all-trades.

It is also used to connect parts of a word divided at the end of a line.

Parentheses or Double Dashes are used to separate from the main part of the sentence a phrase or clause which does not grammatically belong to it; as,

He gained from Heaven (it was all he wished) a friend.

A remarkable instance of this kind of courage - call it, if you please, resolute will - is given in the history of Babar,

The Apostrophe is used:-

(1) To show the omission of a letter or letters; as, don't, we're, I've.

(2) In the Genitive Case of Nouns.

(3) To form the plural of letters and figures.

Dot your i's and cross your t's.

Add two 5's and four 2's.

Capital Letters

Capitals are used:-

(1) To begin a sentence.

(2) To begin each fresh line of poetry.

(3) To begin all Proper Nouns and Adjectives derived from them: as,

Delhi, Rama, Africa, African, Shakespeare, Shakespearian.

(4) For all nouns and pronouns which indicate the Deity; as, The Lord, He is the God.

(5) To write the pronoun / and the interjection O.

Exercise

Punctuate the following:-

1. As Caesar loved me I wept for him as he was fortunate I rejoice at it as he was valiant I honour him but as he was ambitious I slew him.
2. The shepherd finding his flock destroyed exclaimed I have been rightly served why I trusted my sheep to a wolf.
3. However strange however grotesque may be the appearance which Dante undertakes to describe he never shrinks from describing it he gives us the shape the colour the sound the smell the taste.
4. Perhaps cried he there may be such monsters as you describe.
5. Sancho ran as fast as his ass could go to help his master whom he found lying and not able to stir such a blow he and Rozinante had received mercy on me cried Sancho did I not give your worship fair warning did I not tell you they were windmills and that nobody could think otherwise unless he had also windmills in his head.
6. Modern ideas of government date back to the 1960s when for the first time people began to question a king's right to rule once through to be God given.

Week 7 (Lecture 13&14)

Writing Paragraph

At the heart of the English curriculum is being able to clearly and succinctly express oneself in a written format. Contrary to belief, no one is a 'naturally gifted' or 'born writer'; it is a skill that is learned through process and practice. Like a muscle, the more you properly exercise your writing abilities, the stronger they will become. So if you need to exercise your writing muscles, where do you start?

- Good writers are also readers: by exposing yourself to the well written work of others in novels, stories, and articles will help you learn new ways to express your own ideas.
- Plan before you write anything important – sometimes just 5 minutes will help you plan and organize your ideas and result in stronger results.
- Complete you're written assignments early so that you can put them aside to come back the next day to correct and proof them. When writing anything, make sure that you stress that the idea/topic/theme is important to the reader/world: essentially, answer the question 'why do we care about what you are writing?'

Prewriting

The prewriting stage is when you think carefully and organize your ideas for your paragraph before you begin writing.

Six Prewriting Steps:

1. Think carefully about what you are going to write. Ask yourself: What question am I going to answer in this paragraph or essay? How can I best answer this question? What is the most important part of my answer? How can I make an introductory sentence (or thesis statement) from the most important part of my answer? What facts or ideas can I use to support my introductory sentence? How can I make this paragraph or essay interesting? Do I need more facts on this topic? Where can I find more facts on this topic?
2. Open your notebook. Write out your answers to the above questions. You do not need to spend a lot of time doing this; just write enough to help you remember why and how you are going to write your paragraph or essay.
3. Collect facts related to your paragraph or essay topic. Look for and write down facts that will help you to answer your question. Timesaving hint: make sure the facts you are writing are related to the exact question you are going to answer in your paragraph or essay.

4. Write down your own ideas. Ask yourself: What else do I want to say about this topic? Why should people be interested in this topic? Why is this topic important?

5. Find the main idea of your paragraph or essay. Choose the most important point you are going to present. If you cannot decide which point is the most important, just choose one point and stick to it throughout your paragraph or essay.

6. Organize your facts and ideas in a way that develops your main idea. Once you have chosen the most important point of your paragraph or essay, you must find the best way to tell your reader about it. Look at the facts you have written. Look at your own ideas on the topic. Decide which facts and ideas will best support the main idea of your paragraph. Once you have chosen the facts and ideas you plan to use, ask yourself which order to put them in the paragraph. Write down your own note set that you can use as you write your paragraph or essay.

Writing Paragraphs

The five step writing stage is when you turn your ideas into sentences.

1. Open your notebook and word processor.
2. Write the topic sentence, supporting sentences, and closing sentence.
3. Write clear and simple sentences to express your meaning.
4. Focus on the main idea of your paragraph.
5. Use the dictionary to help you find additional words to express your ideas.

Title

1. What is the title?

This is the personal title that you choose for your piece of writing that is NOT the name of the assignment (which should be instead put in the header).

2. What does it do?

It is designed to attract and pique the reader's interest in your writing.

3. How do I write one?

Many writers think they must title their piece at the start: instead of writing it at the beginning, you can wait until you have finished your writing and choose a few interesting words from your conclusion instead.

Once you know your thesis, you can use the 'main idea' to help generate a few words that encapsulate that main point.

Example: The Best Place to Live

Attention Getter

1. What is the attention getter?

This is the opening sentence to your paragraph that precedes your thesis or topic sentence and is connected to the main idea but generalized.

2. What does it do?

It is designed to attract and pique the reader's interest in your writing.

3. How do I write one?

- Relate a dramatic anecdote.
- Expose a commonly held belief.

- Present surprising facts and statistics.
- Use a fitting quotation.
- Ask a provocative question.
- Tell a vivid anecdote.
- Define a key term.
- Present an interesting observation.
- Create a unique scenario.

Example: **The Best Place to Live**

If an extraterrestrial were to land on Earth, it would have its choice of over 190 countries in which to live. It would be a difficult decision, but one country is certainly a better choice than most of the others.

Topic/Thesis Sentence

1. What is the topic/thesis sentence?

The topic/thesis sentence is the core sentence in a paragraph and occurs after the attention getter.

2. What does it do?

It introduces the main idea of the paragraph and provides an indication of the points/ideas that will be used to prove the topic/thesis statement.

. How do I write one?

Summarize the main idea of your paragraph. Indicate to the reader what your paragraph will be about.

Example: **The Best Place To Live**

If an extraterrestrial were to land on Earth, it would have its choice of over 190 countries in which to live. It would be a difficult decision, but one country is certainly a better choice than most of the others. Canada is one of the best countries in the world due to its health care system, standard of education, and its urban centers.

Supporting Details

1. What are supporting sentences?

They come after the topic sentence, making up the body of a paragraph.

2. What do they do?

They give details to develop and support the main idea of the paragraph.

3. How do I write them?

You should give supporting facts, details, quotations, and examples that are thoroughly explained. In senior level English classes, quotations and direct reference information is required (whether it is from online references or quotes from literature – you must support your ideas).

The Best Place to Live

If an extraterrestrial were to land on Earth, it would have its choice of over 190 countries in which to live. It would be a difficult decision, but one country is certainly a better choice than most of the others. Canada is one of the best countries in the world due to its health care system, standard of education, and its urban centers. **First, Canada has a universal health care system which “comprehensive coverage for medically necessary hospital and physician services” (Health Canada). This allows all Canadians to have access to medical services regardless of their income or geographical location in the country. Second, Canada has a high standard of education that is also publically funded by all levels of government from kindergarten to secondary levels and has resulted in a 99% national literacy rate (“Education in Canada”). Finally, Canada's cities are clean and efficiently managed with both Calgary, Alberta and**

Ottawa, Ontario ranking first and fourth on the Sierra Club's cleanest cities in the world ("Cleanest Cities").

Closing Sentence

1. What is the closing sentence?

The closing sentence is the last sentence in a paragraph.

2. What does it do?

It restates the main idea of your paragraph and also tries to have a lasting impact or epiphany.

3. How do I write one?

Restate the main idea of the paragraph using different words.

Example: The Best Place to Live

If an extraterrestrial were to land on Earth, it would have its choice of over 190 countries in which to live. It would be a difficult decision, but one country is certainly a better choice than most of the others. Canada is one of the best countries in the world due to its health care system, standard of education, and its urban centres. First, Canada has a universal health care system which "comprehensive coverage for medically necessary hospital and physician services". This allows all Canadians to have access to medical services regardless of their income or geographical location in the country. Second, Canada has a high standard of education that is also publicly funded by all levels of government from kindergarten to secondary levels and has resulted in a 99% national literacy rate. Finally, Canada's cities are clean and efficiently managed with both Calgary, Alberta and Ottawa, Ontario ranking first and fourth on the Sierra Club's cleanest cities in the world. Overall, Canada has more to offer with its health care, education, and cities that would be a wonderful for anyone anywhere on the planet or in orbit above it.

Editing Paragraphs

The editing stage is when you check your paragraph for mistakes and correct them.

Grammar and Spelling

1. Check your spelling.
2. Check your grammar.
3. Read your essay again.
4. Make sure each sentence has a subject.
5. See if your subjects and verbs agree with each other.
6. Check the verb tenses of each sentence.
7. Make sure that each sentence makes sense.

Style and Organization

1. Make sure your paragraph has a topic sentence.
2. Make sure your supporting sentences focus on the main idea.
3. Make sure you have a closing sentence.
4. Check that all your sentences focus on the main idea.
5. See if your paragraph is interesting.

Week 8 (Lecture 15&16)

Reading Skills

The development of reading skills plays a big role in learning English. Tasks to check the formation of this skill are included in various exams developed to obtain the certificate of proficiency in English.

Most often, the understanding of the main content of what is read, the extraction of the necessary information from the text and a complete understanding of what has been read are checked at such exams.

Reading modes

There are different reading modes and each of them has its own peculiarities. Those are scanning, skimming eyes, extensive reading and intensive reading. Also, reading modes are classified by the degree of involvement — active and passive.

Scanning

This reading mode is aimed only at finding the necessary information in the text. It does not mean a complete immersion in the text and a deep comprehension of the facts, analysis of grammatical constructions. Often in this mode, the text is viewed for the presence of unfamiliar words, so that after their translation it will be more easy to read the text fully. This type of reading is also called «diagonal reading».

Skimming

This reading mode is used to get to know and understand if this information is useful to you (you are viewing a book in a store or a magazine on the shelf before buying it). In this case, the text is also viewed quickly, but not as carefully as in the previous case. The goal is not to search for specific facts, but to evaluate the text for complexity, interest and a general storyline.

Extensive reading

The purpose of this type of reading is to get acquainted with new information. In this mode, people read art or scientific literature, without being distracted by new, unfamiliar words, if their meaning can be approximately understood from the context.

This type of reading implies the mastering of the general image and the receipt of new, unfamiliar information. It will be necessary to form and express your opinion about what you read or answer the questions.

Intensive reading

Typically, this type of reading is used in the study of English in order to intensively parse the proposed short, teaching text. With this type of reading, grammatical constructions, unfamiliar words and phrases are intensively examined.

Why should you give time to each of the reading modes mentioned above?

Because each of them provides different involvement in the text, different ways of perception and different time you spend thinking about what you have read. However, they all contribute to the improved understanding of written speech.

In addition, mastering all types of reading, you expand your vocabulary, learn grammatical constructions better and practice your spelling with the help of visual memorization.

Reading Comprehension

A comprehension exercise consists of a passage, upon which questions are set to test the student's ability to understand the content of the given text and to infer information and meanings from it. Reading comprehension means to comprehend (understand) the reading passage fully. A comprehension exercise consists of a passage, upon which questions are set to test the student's ability to understand the content of the given text and to infer information and meaning from it. The purpose of exercise in comprehension is to ensure that the given passage has been thoroughly understood. Usually students are asked to answer (based on their understanding) the set of questions given at the end.

Here are a few hints:-

- Read the passage fairly quickly to get the general idea.
- Read again, a little slowly, so as to know the details.
- Study the questions thoroughly. Turn to the relevant portions of the passage, read them again, and then rewrite them in your own words, neatly and precisely
- Use complete sentences.
- If you are asked to give the meaning of any words or phrases, you should express the idea as clearly as possible in your own words. Certain words require the kind of definition that is given in a dictionary. Take care to frame the definition in conformity with the part of speech.

Tips for Answering the Questions

- Read the question and turn to the relevant portions of the passage.
- Read them again and rewrite them in your own words as far as possible.
- Avoid reproducing parts of the given passage.
- Write down the answers neatly and precisely.
- All answers to questions on comprehension should be clear and concise.
- Use simple language to express your ideas.
- Follow the rules of grammar and syntax properly.
- Try to understand the idioms, metaphors, similes and other figure of speech.
- Use complete sentences, and avoid bullets.
- If you are asked to give the meaning of any words or phrases, you should express the idea as clearly as possible in your own words. Certainly words require the kind of definition that is given in a dictionary. Take care to frame the definition in conformity with the part of speech. Define in complete sentences.

Tips for MCQs

- These are tricky questions that provide choices which are:
 - not stated in the passage;
 - stated, but are not relevant;
 - stated but could refer to a different topic; and
 - opposite of the passage has stated.

- Skim the passage
- Skim the questions
- Identify (underline) key words to target for scanning
- Scan for the target words
- Once you locate the target words, read carefully around the target word to find your answer.
- Be wary (cautious) of distracters.
- Don't spend too much time on a particular item. Skip, but make it a point to go back to the item/s skipped if you still have time.
- Cross-out the choices that you have identified as incorrect.

Activity

Reading Passage

Socrates had many **disciples**, and the greatest of these was Plato. Plato wrote many books which have come down to us, and it is from these books that we know a great deal of his master, Socrates. Evidently governments do not like people who are always trying to find out things; they do not like the search for truth. The Athenian Government - this was just after the time of Pericles – did not like the method of Socrates, and they held a **trial** and condemned him to death. They told him that if he promised to give up his discussion with people and changed his ways; they would let him off. But he refused to do so, and preferred the cup of poison, which brought death, to giving up what he considered his duty. When on the point of death, he addressed his **accusers** and judges and said: “If you propose to **acquitt** me on condition that I **abandon** my search for truth, I will say: ‘ I thank you, O Athenians, but I will obey God, who, as I believe, set me this task, rather than you; and as long as I have breath and strength I will never cease from my occupation with philosophy. I will continue the practice of accosting whomever I meet and saving to him. ‘ are you not ashamed of setting your heart on wealth and honor while you have no care for wisdom and truth and making your soul better?’ I know not what death is – it may be good thing, and I am not afraid of it. But I do know what it is a bad thing to desert one’s post, and I prefer what may be good to what I know to be bad.”

1. **Why was Socrates condemned to death by his government?**
2. **On what condition was the government willing to let him go?**
3. **What was Socrates' reaction to that offer?**
4. **What did Socrates consider his duty to the people?**
5. **Write down the meaning of the underlined words.**

Week 9 (Lecture 17&18)

Subject Verb Agreement Rules

A Verb must agree with its Subject in Number and Person.

Often, by what is called the “Error of Proximity”, the verb is made to agree in number with a noun near it instead of with its proper subject. This should be avoided as shown in the following examples:-

The quality of the mangoes was not good.

The introduction of tea and coffee and such other beverages has not been without some effect.

The state of his affairs was such as to cause anxiety to his creditors.

If it were possible to get near when one of the volcanic eruptions takes place, we should see a grand sight.

The results of the recognition of this fact are seen in the gradual improvement of the diet of the poor.

Two or more singular nouns or pronouns joined by and require a plural verb; as,

Gold and silver are precious metals.

Fire and water do not agree.

Knowledge and wisdom have oft-times no connection.

Are your father and mother at home?

In him were centred their love and their ambition.

He and I were playing.

But if the nouns suggest one idea to the mind, or refer to the same person or thing, the verb is singular; as,

Time and tide waits for no man.

The horse and carriage is at the door.

Bread and butter is his only food.

Honour and glory is his reward.

The rise and fall of the tide is, due to lunar influence.

My friend and benefactor has come.

The novelist and poet is dead.

Words joined to a singular subject by with, as well as, etc., are parenthetical. The verb should therefore be put in the singular; as,

- The house, with its contents, was insured. The Mayor, with his councillors, is to be present.
- The ship, with its crew, was lost.
- Silver, as well as cotton, has fallen in price.
- Sanskrit, as well as Arabic, was taught there.
- Justice, as well as mercy, allows it.
- The guidance, as well as the love of a mother, was wanting.

Two or more singular subjects connected by or or nor require a singular verb; as.

No nook or corner was left unexplored.

Our happiness or our sorrow is largely due to our own actions.

Either the cat or the dog has been here.

Neither food nor water was to be found there.

Neither praise nor blame seems to affect him.

But when one of the subjects joined by or or nor is plural, the verb must be plural, and the plural subject should be placed nearest the verb; as,

Neither the Chairman nor the directors are present.

When the subjects joined by or or nor are of different persons, the verb agrees with the nearer; as,

Either he or I am mistaken.

Either you or he is mistaken.

Neither you nor he is to blame.

Neither my friend nor I am to blame.

But it is better to avoid these constructions, and to write:-

He is mistaken, or else I am.

You are mistaken, or else he is.

He is not to blame, nor are you.

My friend is not to blame, nor am I.

Either, neither, each, everyone, many a, must be followed by a singular verb; as,

He asked me whether either of the applicants was suitable.

Neither of the two men was very strong.

Each of these substances is found in India.

Every one of the prisons is full.

Every one of the boys loves to ride.

Many a man has done so.

Many a man does not know his own good deeds.

Many a man has succumbed to this temptation.

Two nouns qualified by each or every, even though connected by and, require a singular verb; as,

Every boy and every girl was given a packet of sweets.

Some nouns which are plural in form, but singular in meaning, take a singular verb; as,

The news is true.

Politics was with him the business of his life.

The wages of sin is death.

Mathematics is a branch of study in every school.

Pains and means take either the singular or the plural verb, but the construction must be consistent; as,

Great pains have been taken.

Much pains has been taken.

All possible means have been tried.

The means employed by you is sufficient.

In the sense of income, the word means always takes a plural verb; as,

My means were much reduced owing to that heavy loss.

His means are ample.

Some nouns which are singular in form, but plural in meaning take a plural verb; as,

According to the present market rate twelve dozen cost one hundred rupees.

None, though properly singular, commonly takes a plural verb (see § 132); as,

None are so deaf as those who will not hear.

Cows are amongst the gentlest of breathing creatures; none show more passionate tenderness to their young.

A Collective noun takes a singular verb when the collection is thought of as one whole; plural verb when the individuals of which it is composed are thought of; as,

The Committee has issued its report.

The Committee are divided on one minor point.

But we must be consistent. Thus, we should say:

The Committee has appended a note to its (not their) report.

When the plural noun is a proper name for some single object or some collective unit, it must be followed by a singular verb; as,

- The Arabian Nights is still a great favourite.
- The United States has a big navy.
- Plutarch's Lives is an interesting book.

- Gulliver's Travels was written by Swift.

When a plural noun denotes some specific quantity or amount considered as a whole, the verb is generally singular; as,

Fifteen minutes is allowed to each speaker.

Ten kilometers is a long walk.

Fifty thousand rupees is a large sum.

Three parts of the business is left for me to do.

Exercise

In each of the following sentences supply a Verb in agreement with its Subject:-

1. To take pay and then not to do work --- dishonest.
2. The cost of all these articles --- risen.
3. The jury --- divided in their opinions.
4. That night every one of the boat's crew --- down with fever.
5. One or the other of those fellows --- stolen the watch.
6. The strain of all the difficulties and vexations and anxieties --- more than he could bear.
7. No news --- good news.
8. The accountant and the cashier --- absconded.

9. A good man and useful citizen --- passed away.
10. The famous juggler and conjurer --- too unwell to perform.
11. The Three Musketeers --- written by Dumas.
12. Each of the suspected men --- arrested.
13. The ebb and flow of the tides --- explained by Newton.
14. Ninety rupees --- too much for this bag.
15. The cow as well as the horse --- grass.
16. Neither his father nor his mother --- alive.

Essay Writing

The word Essay is defined in "The Concise Oxford Dictionary" as "a literary composition (usually prose and short) on any subject." Properly speaking, it is a written composition giving expression to one's own personal ideas or opinions on some topic; but the term usually covers also any written composition, whether it expresses personal opinions, or gives information on any given subject, or details of a narrative or description. In fact the word "Essay" is somewhat loosely applied to a variety of compositions, from Bacon's compressed "Essays" on the one hand, to those so called "Essays" of Macaulay, some of which are lengthy articles, almost as big as small books, on the other. [Addison's Essays are good models for Indian students, because of their brevity and simple directness of style.] So far as we are concerned here, an essay is an exercise in composition; and it is well to remember that the word essay means, literally, an attempt. (Compare the verb "to essay", with the accent on the second syllable, meaning to attempt or try.).

Characteristics of a Good Essay

1. Unity. An essay must be a unity, developing one theme with a definite purpose. The subject must be clearly defined in the mind and kept in view throughout. Nothing that is not relevant to it should be admitted to the essay. At the same time, the subject may be treated in a variety of ways and from different points of view.

2. Order, The essay should follow a certain ordered line of thought and come to a definite conclusion. It should not consist of haphazard reflections put down anyhow. There should be not only unity of subject but also unity of treatment. Hence, the necessity for thinking out a line of thought before beginning to write.

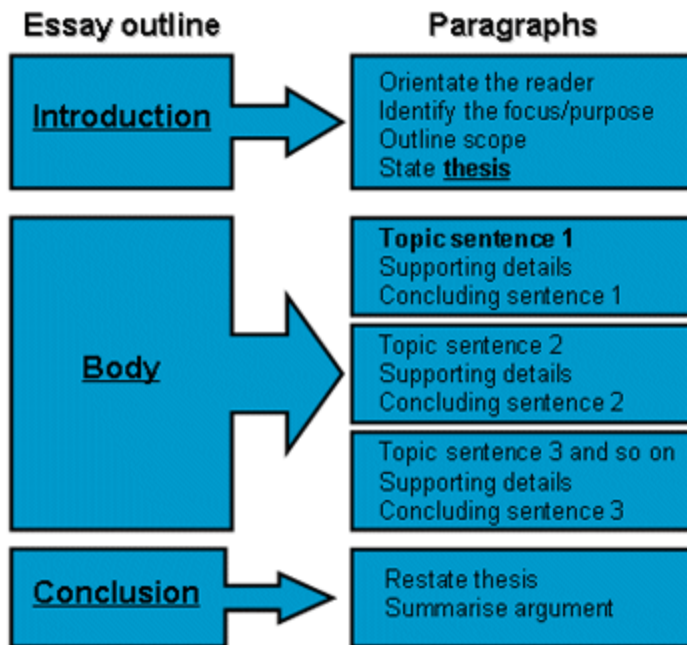
3. Brevity. School essays should not be long. The limit should be about three hundred words; though, of course, there can be no strict rule as to length, which will depend a good deal on the nature of the subject. But an essay should be a brief exercise, concisely expressed.

4. Style. In friendly letters, the style should be conversational - easy, natural and familiar; and in writing such letters we may use colloquial terms which would be out of place in a book. But the style of an essay must be more dignified and literary. Slang, colloquial terms and free and easy constructions are not proper in an essay. At the same time it is a mistake to attempt any flights of fine writing. The language and sentence construction should be simple, direct and natural. The secret of clear writing is clear thinking. "If you clearly understand all about your matter, you will never want thoughts, and thoughts instantly become words." This was said by Cobbett, a writer whose style is a model of clearness, simplicity and directness.

5. The Personal Touch. An essay should reveal the personal feelings and opinions of the writer. It should have his individuality in it. Strictly speaking, as has been already said, an essay is a written composition giving expression to one's personal ideas or opinions on a subject; and this personal touch should not be lost, or the essay will be colourless and devoid of individuality. So do not be afraid to express in your essays your own views, and do not be content with repeating the opinions of others. Let there be a note of sincerity in all that you write.

To sum up: - An essay must be a unity, treating in an orderly manner of one subject; it should be concisely written and not too long, and the style should be simple, direct and clear; and it should have an individuality, or show the personal touch of the writer. Three features are necessary in a good essay - suitable subject-matter, proper arrangement, and adequate power of expression. Where all these three are presents, the essay will be success.

Structure of Essay



A basic essay consists of three main parts: introduction, body, and conclusion. Following this format will help you write and organize an essay. However, flexibility is important. While keeping this basic essay format in mind, let the topic and specific assignment guide the writing and organization.

Parts of an Essay

Introduction The introduction guides your reader into the paper by introducing the topic. It should begin with a **hook** that catches the reader's interest. This hook could be a quote, an analogy, a question, etc. After getting the reader's attention, the introduction should give some background information on the topic. The ideas within the introduction should be general enough for the reader to understand the main claim and gradually become more specific to lead into the thesis statement.

Thesis Statement

The thesis statement concisely states the main idea or argument of the essay, sets limits on the topic, and can indicate the organization of the essay. The thesis works as a road map for the entire essay, showing the readers what you have to say and which main points you will use to support your ideas.

Body

The body of the essay supports the main points presented in the thesis. Each point is developed by one or more paragraphs and supported with specific details. These details can include support from research and experiences, depending on the assignment. In addition to this support, the author's own analysis and discussion of the topic ties ideas together and draws conclusions that support the thesis. Refer to "Parts of a Paragraph" below for further information on writing effective body paragraphs.

Transitions

Transitions connect paragraphs to each other and to the thesis. They are used within and between paragraphs to help the paper flow from one topic to the next. These transitions can be one or two words ("first," "next," "in addition," etc.) or one or two sentences that bring the reader to the next main point. The topic sentence of a paragraph often serves as a transition.

Conclusion

The conclusion brings together all the main points of the essay. It refers back to the thesis statement and leaves readers with a final thought and sense of closure by resolving any ideas brought up in the essay. It may also address the implications of the argument. In the conclusion, new topics or ideas that were not developed in the paper should not be introduced.

Citations

If your paper incorporates research, be sure to give credit to each source using in-text citations and a Works Cited/References/Bibliography page. Refer to the MLA Format, APA Format.

Parts of a Paragraph in Essay

In an essay, a paragraph discusses one idea in detail that supports the thesis of the essay. Each paragraph in the body of the paper should include a topic sentence, supporting details to support the topic sentence, and a concluding sentence. The paragraph's purpose and scope will determine its length, but most paragraphs contain at least two complete sentences. For more information on this topic, see the Basic Paragraph Format handout.

Topic Sentence

The main idea of each paragraph is stated in a topic sentence that shows how the idea relates to the thesis. Generally, the topic sentence is placed at the beginning of a paragraph, but the location and placement may vary according to individual organization and audience expectation. Topic sentences often serve as transitions between paragraphs.

Supporting Details

Supporting details elaborate upon the topic sentences and thesis. Supporting details should be drawn from a variety of sources determined by the assignment guidelines and genre, and should include the writer's own analysis.

- Expert Opinion
- Facts and Statistics
- Personal Experiences
- Others' Experiences
- Brief Stories
- Research Studies

- Your Own Analysis
- Interviews

Concluding Sentence

Each paragraph should end with a final statement that brings together the ideas brought up in the paragraph. Sometimes, it can serve as a transition to the next paragraph.

Example:

(Topic sentence)The root cause of childhood Attention Deficit Disorder (ADD) is difficult to determine, since many biological, genetic, and environmental factors may contribute. **(Supporting detail 1)**While genetics can help explain the prevalence of ADD in children and families, they do not necessarily explain its cause (Winger, 2012). Environmental **(Supporting detail2)** factors such as social interaction, attachment, and other factors can also play a huge role in the development of ADD but are not necessarily its root, according to Graymond (2011, p. 33). Research suggests that genetic and environmental interactions may both be important in conditioning the risk of ADD as well as its severity and progression.**(Concluding sentence)** In the classic question of “nature v. nurture,” in this case, the answer appears to be both.

Unity and Coherence

Proper essay and paragraph format not only helps to achieve unity and coherence but also enhances the reader’s understanding. Well-worded topic sentences and concluding sentences will also help maintain unity throughout the essay.

- Unity is the continuity of a single idea (the thesis) throughout the essay. Each detail and example should develop logically and refer back to the original focus.
- Coherence means that each point should be linked to the previous and following points to help the essay flow and progress logically and clearly. An easy way to link paragraphs together is through transitions in each paragraph’s topic sentence.

Week 11(Lecture 21&22)

Classification of Essays

Essays may be classified as Narrative Essays, Descriptive Essays, Expository Essays, Reflective Essays and Imaginative Essays. The classification is useful, so long as it is remembered that these classes are not mutually exclusive, and that some essays may partake of the peculiarities of more than one class. For example, a narrative essay may contain a good deal of description; and essays of all classes should be more or less reflective, for the original idea of this form of composition is an expression of the writer's own feelings and opinions about a given subject. For this reason, let us begin with:-

1. Reflective Essays

A reflection is a thought on some subject-on an idea arising in the mind. So a reflective essay consists of reflections or thoughts on some topic, which is generally of an abstract nature; for example; (a) habits, qualities, etc., such as truthfulness, thrift, temperance, cowardice, heroism, patriotism, industry, etc., (b) social, political and domestic topics, such as riches and poverty, caste, democracy, liberty, government, family life, education, marriage, business, etc., (c) philosophical subjects, such as right and wrong, reality, consciousness, the meaning of the universe, etc.; or (d) religious and theological topics. In treating such themes, you should try (i) to explain, for example, the importance or advantages of possessing good habits and qualities, and the risks and disadvantages of lacking them; and quote stories, fables, or historical or literary references in support of your statements; (ii) discuss the importance of social institutions etc.; (iii) expound and discuss philosophical and theological theories. You should reason and support your statements with arguments and facts.

2. Narrative Essays:-

A narrative essay consists mainly in the narration of some event, or series of events. I say "mainly" because a narrative essay must not be confused with a short story or bits of history. The narrative it relates should be treated as a subject for thought and comment, and so the essay should be more or less reflective. Narrative essays may treat of- (a) historical stories or legends (e.g., the reign of Akbar, the story of Rama and Sita); (b) biographies (e.g., life of Shivajee, or of Babar); (c) incidents (e.g., a street quarrel, a festival, a marriage); (d) an accident or natural disaster (e.g., a flood, a fire, a ship-wreck, an earthquake); (e) a journey or voyage; (f) a story (real or imaginary).

3. Descriptive Essays:-

A descriptive essay consists of a description of some place or thing; e.g., (a) animals, plants, minerals (such as the elephant, the pipal tree, coal); (b) towns, countries, buildings, etc., (e.g., Mumbai, Italy, the Taj Mahal); (c) aspects and phenomena of nature (such as volcanoes, the

monsoon, sunlight, organic life); and (d) manufactured articles (such as motor-cars, steam-engines, silk, paper, etc.).

4. Expository Essays:-

An expository (or explanatory) essay consists of an exposition or explanation of some subject; e.g. : (a) institutions, industries, occupations {e.g., parliament, the press, silk weaving, farming, etc.}; (b) scientific topics (such as gravitation, evolution, astronomy, etc.); (c) literary topics (such as the nature of poetry, prose styles, the genius of Shakespeare, the novels of Scott, history of fiction, etc.).

5. Imaginative Essays:-

Essays on subjects such as the feelings and experiences of the sailor wrecked on a desert island may be called imaginative Essays. In such the writer is called to place himself in imagination in a position of which he has had no actual experience. Such subjects as

"If I were a king," or "The autobiography of a horse," would call for imaginative essays.

What Is an Argumentative Essay?

An argumentative essay is a piece of writing that takes a stance on an issue. In a good argumentative essay, a writer attempts to persuade readers to understand and support their point of view about a topic by stating their reasoning and providing evidence to back it up.

How To Outline an Argumentative Essay in 4 Steps

Argumentative essays should have a straightforward structure so they are easy for readers to follow. The goal of an argumentative essay is to clearly outline a point of view, reasoning, and evidence. A good argumentative essay should follow this structure:

Introductory paragraph

The first paragraph of your essay should outline the topic, provide background information necessary to understand your argument, outline the evidence you will present and states your thesis.

The thesis statement

This is part of your first paragraph. It is a concise, one-sentence summary of your main point and claim.

Body paragraphs. A typical argumentative essay comprises three or more paragraphs that explain the reasons why you support your thesis. Each body paragraph should cover a different idea or piece of evidence and contain a topic sentence that clearly and concisely explains why the reader should agree with your position. Body paragraphs are where you back up your claims with examples, research, statistics, studies, and text citations. Address opposing points of view and disprove them or explain why you disagree with them. Presenting facts and considering a topic from every angle adds credibility and will help you gain a reader's trust.

Conclusion

One paragraph that restates your thesis and summarizes all of the arguments made in your body paragraphs. Rather than introducing new facts or more arguments, a good conclusion will appeal to a reader's emotions. In some cases, writers will use a personal anecdote explaining how the topic personally affects them.

How to Write a Thesis Statement in 3 Steps

Your thesis statement is only one sentence long, but it's the most important part of your argumentative essay. The thesis appears in your introductory paragraph, summarizes what your argumentative essay will be about, and primes the reader for what's to come. These steps will help you get your point across clearly and concisely:

Turn the topic into a question and answer it. Set up a big question in the title of your essay or within the first few sentences. Then, build up to answering that question in your thesis statement. For example, in your title or introduction, you could pose the question, “What is the best type of sandwich?” And then answer with your thesis statement: “The best type of sandwich is peanut butter and jelly.” This method is effective because intriguing questions draw readers in and encourage them to keep reading to find the answer.

State an argument—and then refute it. Introduce an idea that contrasts with your belief, and immediately explain why you disagree with it. For example: “While some people believe peanut butter and jelly sandwiches are too simple, they’re versatile sandwiches that you can easily turn into a gourmet meal.” This method is effective because it uses evidence and immediately demonstrates your credibility.

Briefly outline your main points. Introduce your main point and explain how you’ll back it up. For example: “You can turn a peanut butter and jelly sandwich into a gourmet meal by using artisanal bread, toasting the bread, and adding additional toppings.” This method is effective because it gives readers a clear idea of everything you’ll discuss in your essay. It also serves as a roadmap to help keep you organized and on track.

5 Types of Argument Claims

Once you decide what you’re arguing and know your thesis statement, consider how you’ll present your argument. There are five types of argument claims that can drive your essay:

Fact: whether the statement is true or false.

Definition: the dictionary definition of what you’re arguing, plus your own personal interpretation of it.

Value: the importance of what you’re arguing.

Cause and effect: what causes the problem in your essay and what effects it has?

Policy: why the reader should care and what they should do about it after reading.

3 Main Types of Arguments and How to Use Them

There are three main ways to structure an argumentative essay. Choose one of the following or combine them to write your persuasive paper:

Classical. Present the main argument, state your opinion, and do your best to convince the reader why your stance is the right one. Also called Aristotelian, this is the most popular strategy for making an argument because it's the most simple line of thinking to follow. It's effective when your audience doesn't have a lot of information or a strong opinion about your topic, as it outlines the facts clearly and concisely.

Rogerian. Present the problem, acknowledge the opposing side of the argument, state your point of view, and explain why yours is the most beneficial to the reader. This type of argument is effective for polarizing topics, as it acknowledges both sides and presents the middle ground.

Toulmin. Present your claim, present grounds to back up that claim, and then justify that the grounds are linked to the claim. This type of argument is also effective for polarizing topics, but rather than present both sides, it presents one, hinging particularly on facts presented in a way that makes the claim difficult to argue with.

Precis Writing

A precis (A French word (pronounced pressee) connected with the English word Precise) is a summary, and precis-writing means summarizing. Precis-writing is an exercise in compression. A precis is the gist or main theme of a passage expressed in as few words as possible. It should be lucid, succinct, and full (i.e. including all essential points), so that anyone on reading it may be able to grasp the main points and general effect of the passage summarized.

Precis-writing must not be confused with paraphrasing. A paraphrase should reproduce not only the substance of a passage, but also all its details. It will therefore be at least as long as, and probably longer than, the original. But a precis must always be much shorter than the original; for it is meant to express only the main theme, shorn of all unimportant details, and that as tersely as possible. As the styles of writers differ, some being concise and some diffuse, no rigid rule can be laid down for the length of a precis; but so much may be said, that a precis should not contain more than a third of the number of words in the original passage.

I. Uses of Precis Writing

1. Precis-writing is a very fine exercise in reading. Most people read carelessly, and retain only a vague idea of what they have read. You can easily test the value of your reading. Read in your usual way a chapter, or even a page, of a book; and then, having closed the book try to put down briefly the substance of what you have just read. You will probably find that your memory of it is hazy and muddled. Is this because your memory is weak? No; it is because your attention was not fully centered on the passage while you were reading it. The memory cannot retain what was never given it to hold; you did not remember the passage properly because you did not properly grasp it as you read it. Now precis-writing forces you to pay attention to what you read; for no one can write a summary of any passage unless he has clearly grasped its meaning. So summarizing is an excellent training in concentration of attention. It teaches one to read with the mind, as well as with the eye, on the page.

2. Precis-writing is also a very good exercise in writing a composition. It teaches one how to express one's thoughts clearly, concisely and effectively. It is a splendid corrective of the-

common tendency to vague and disorderly thinking and loose and diffuse writing. Have you noticed how an uneducated person tells a story? He repeats himself, brings in a lot of irrelevant matter, omits from its proper place what is essential and drags it in later as an after-thought, and takes twenty minutes to say what a trained thinker would express in five. The whole effect is muddled and tedious. In a precis you have to work within strict limits. You must express a certain meaning in a fixed number of words. So you learn to choose your words carefully, to construct your sentences with an eye to fullness combined with brevity, and to put your matter in a strictly logical order.

3. So practice in precis-writing is of great value for practical life. In any position of life the ability to grasp quickly and accurately what is read, or heard, and to reproduce it clearly and concisely, is of the utmost value. For lawyers, businessmen, and government officials it is essential.

1. First carefully read the passage, if necessary, several times, apprehends clearly its main theme or general meaning.

2. Examine the passage in detail, to make sure of the meaning of each sentence, phrase and word.

3. Supply a short title which will express the subject.

4. Select and note down the important points essential to the expression of the main theme.

5. Note the length of number of words prescribed for the precis, and write out a first draft.

6. in doing this remember that you are to express the gist of the passage in your own words, and not in quotations from the passage; that you should condense by remodeling than by mere omission; and that your precis must be self-contained and a connected whole. Add nothing; make no comment; correct no facts.

7. Revise your draft Compare it carefully with the original to see that you have included all the important points. If it is too long, still further compress it by omitting unnecessary words and phrases or by remodelling sentences. Correct all mistakes in spelling, grammar and idiom, and see that it is properly punctuated. Let the language be simple and direct.

8. Write out neatly the fair copy under the heading you have selected.

Specimen

One great defect of our civilization is that it does not know what to do with its knowledge. Science, as we have seen, .has given us powers fit for the gods, yet we use them like small children. For example:- we do not know how to manage our machines. Machines were made to be man's servants; yet he has grown so dependent on them that they are in a fair way to become his masters. Already most men spend most of their lives looking after and waiting upon machines. And the machines are very stern masters. They must be fed with coal, and given petrol to drink, and oil to wash with, and must be kept at the right temperature. And if they do not get their meals when they expect them, they grow sulky and refuse to work, or burst with rage, and blow up, and spread ruin and destruction all round them, So we have to wait upon them very attentively and do all that we can to keep them In a good temper. Already we find it difficult either to work or play without the machines, and a time may come when they will rule us altogether, just as we rule the animals.

Men and Machines

We do not know what to do with our knowledge. Science has given us superhuman powers, which we do not use properly. For example, we are unable to manage our machines. Machines should be fed promptly and waited upon attentively; otherwise they refuse to work or cause destruction. We already find it difficult to do without machines. In the course of time they may rule over us altogether.

Exercise (Class Activity)

Make Precis of the given Passage and give suitable title

Write summaries of the following passages of about one-third of the original length:-

1. In every country people imagine that they are the best and the cleverest and the others are not as good as they are. The Englishman thinks that he and his country are the best; the Frenchman is very proud of France and everything French. The Germans and Italians think no less of their countries and many Indians imagine that India is in many ways the greatest country in the world. This is wrong. Everybody wants to think well of himself and his country. But really there is no person who has not got some good and some bad qualities. In the same way, there is no country which is not partly good and partly bad. We must take the good wherever we find it and try to remove the bad wherever it may be. We are, of course, most concerned with our own country, India. Unfortunately, it is in a bad way today. Many of our people are poor and unhappy. They have no joy in their lives. We have to find out how we can make them happier. We have to see what is good in our ways and customs and try to keep it, and whatever is bad we have to throw away. If we find anything good in other countries, we should certainly take it.

2. There are hundreds of superstitions which survive in various parts of the country, and the study of them is rather amusing. We are told, for example, that it is unlucky to point to the new moon or to look at it through glass, but if we bow nine times to it we shall have a lucky month. Now suppose you tell a scientist that you believe in a certain superstition - let us say that the howling of a dog is a sign of death. The scientist will immediately require evidence before he can accept your belief. He will want figures to prove it. It will be useless to quote two or three cases; he will want hundreds. He will want also to know (a) if it ever happens that the howling of dogs is not followed by a death, (b) if ever a person's death is predicted by the howling of dogs. The answer to the former question is in the affirmative, and to the latter in the negative. Your superstition will not bear investigation. It may impress an ignorant person; but it cannot face the light of facts. Your case would not carry conviction in a court of law. Apart from this process of testing by results, any intelligent man will want to know the "reason why". What connection can there be between a howling dog and an approaching death? Can it be cause and effect? Can it be

that the dog has a gift of foreseeing such events? Or is the dog the instrument employed by some uncanny power that moves invisibly in our midst?

3. Over-eating is one of the most wonderful practices among those who think that they can afford it. In fact, authorities say that nearly all who can get as much as they desire, over-eat to their disadvantage. This class of people could save a great more food than they can save by missing one meal per week and at the same time they could improve their health. A heavy meal at night, the so-called “dinner”, is the fashion with many and often it is taken shortly before retiring. It is unnecessary and could be forgone, not only once a week but daily without loss of strength. From three to five hours are needed to digest food. While sleeping, this food not being required to give energy for work is in many cases converted into excess fat, giving rise to overweight. The evening meal should be light, taken three or four hours before retiring. This prevents over-eating, conserves energy and reduces the cost of food.

4. Trees give shade for the benefit of others and while they themselves stand in the sun and endure scorching heat, they produce the fruit by which others profit. The character of good men is like that of trees. What is the use of this perishable body, if no use of it is made for the benefit of mankind? Sandalwood - the more it is rubbed the more scent does it yield. Sugarcane - the more it is peeled and cut into pieces, the more juice does it produce. Gold - the more it is burnt, the more brightly does it shine? The men who are noble at heart do not lose these qualities even in losing their lives. What does it matter whether men praise them or not? What difference does it make whether riches abide with them or not? What does it signify whether they die at this moment or whether their lives are prolonged? Happen what may, those who tread in the right path will not set foot in any other. Life itself is unprofitable to a man who does not live for others. To live for the mere sake of living one's life is to live the life of dogs and cows. Those who lay down their lives for the sake of a friend, or even for the sake of a stranger, will assuredly dwell forever in a world of bliss.

5. We must insist that free oratory is only the beginning of free speech; it is not the end, but a means to an end. The end is to find the truth. The practical justification of civil liberty is not that the examination of opinion is one of the necessities of man.

Week 13 (Lecture 25&26)

A hot potato

Speak of an issue (mostly current) which many people are talking about and which is usually disputed

A penny for your thoughts

A way of asking what someone is thinking

Actions speak louder than words

People's intentions can be judged better by what they do than what they say.

Add insult to injury

To further a loss with mockery or indignity; to worsen an unfavorable situation.

At the drop of a hat

Meaning: without any hesitation; instantly.

Back to the drawing board

When an attempt fails and it's time to start all over.

Ball is in your court

It is up to you to make the next decision or step

Barking up the wrong tree

Looking in the wrong place. Accusing the wrong person

Be glad to see the back of

Be happy when a person leaves.

Beat around the bush

Avoiding the main topic. Not speaking directly about the issue.

Best of both worlds

Meaning: All the advantages.

Best thing since sliced bread

A good invention or innovation. A good idea or plan.

Bite off more than you can chew

To take on a task that is way too big.

Blessing in disguise

Something good that isn't recognized at first.

Burn the midnight oil

To work late into the night, alluding to the time before electric lighting.

Can't judge a book by its cover

Cannot judge something primarily on appearance.

Caught between two stools

When someone finds it difficult to choose between two alternatives.

Costs an arm and a leg

This idiom is used when something is very expensive.

Cross that bridge when you come to it

Deal with a problem if and when it becomes necessary, not before.

Cry over spilt milk

When you complain about a loss from the past.

Curiosity killed the cat

Being Inquisitive can lead you into an unpleasant situation.

Cut corners

When something is done badly to save money.

Cut the mustard [possibly derived from "cut the muster"]

To succeed; to come up to expectations; adequate enough to compete or participate

Devil's Advocate

To present a counter argument

Don't count your chickens before the eggs have hatched

This idiom is used to express "Don't make plans for something that might not happen".

Don't give up the day job

You are not very good at something. You could definitely not do it professionally.

Don't put all your eggs in one basket

Do not put all your resources in one possibility.

Drastic times call for drastic measures

When you are extremely desperate you need to take drastic actions.

Elvis has left the building

The show has come to an end. It's all over.

Every cloud has a silver lining

Be optimistic, even difficult times will lead to better days.

Far cry from

Very different from.

Feel a bit under the weather

Meaning: Feeling slightly ill.

Give the benefit of the doubt

Believe someone's statement, without proof.

Hear it on the grapevine

This idiom means 'to hear rumors' about something or someone.

Hit the nail on the head

Do or say something exactly right

Hit the sack / sheets / hay

To go to bed.

In the heat of the moment

Overwhelmed by what is happening in the moment.

It takes two to tango

Actions or communications need more than one person

Jump on the bandwagon

Join a popular trend or activity.

Keep something at bay

Keep something away.

Kill two birds with one stone

This idiom means, to accomplish two different things at the same time.

Last straw

The final problem in a series of problems.

Let the cat out of the bag

To share information that was previously concealed

Make a long story short

Come to the point - leave out details

Ethod to my madness

An assertion that, despite one's approach seeming random, there actually is structure to it.

Miss the boat

This idiom is used to say that someone missed his or her chance

Not a spark of decency

Meaning: No manners

Not playing with a full deck

Someone who lacks intelligence.

Off one's rocker

Crazy, demented, out of one's mind, in a confused or befuddled state of mind, senile.

On the ball

When someone understands the situation well.

Once in a blue moon

Meaning: Happens very rarely.

Picture paints a thousand words

A visual presentation is far more descriptive than words.

Piece of cake

A job, task or other activity that is easy or simple.

Put wool over other people's eyes

This means to deceive someone into thinking well of them.

See eye to eye

This idiom is used to say that two (or more people) agree on something.

Sit on the fence

This is used when someone does not want to choose or make a decision.

Speak of the devil!

This expression is used when the person you have just been talking about arrives.

Steal someone's thunder

To take the credit for something someone else did.

Take with a grain of salt

This means not to take what someone says too seriously.

Taste of your own medicine

Means that something happens to you, or is done to you, that you have done to someone else

To hear something straight from the horse's mouth

To hear something from the authoritative source.

Whole nine yards

Everything. All of it.

Wouldn't be caught dead

Would never like to do something

Your guess is as good as mine

To have no idea, do not know the answer to a question

Week 14 (Lecture 27&28)

Word Formation

When you are reading, you will come across unfamiliar words. It is often possible to guess the meanings of these words if you understand the way words are generally formed in English. Learning the use and meaning of words in English can be made easier, and even enjoyable, if you understand something about the way in which many English words are formed.

An English word can be divided into three parts:

- Prefix
- Stem
- Suffix.

Prefix

Pre-means 'before' and therefore, is what comes before the stem.

Example

Consider as an example, the prefix de-(meaning ‘reduce’ or ‘reverse’) in a word like demagnetize (‘to deprive of magnetism’).

Suffix

A suffix is what is attached to the end of the stem.

Example

Consider as an example the suffix -er (meaning (‘someone who’) in programmer (‘the person who programs’).

Both prefixes and suffixes are referred to as affixes.

Stem

The stem of a word is its basic form, the fundamental element which is common to all the other forms of the word. A prefix is a form which is fixed to the beginning of a stem; a suffix is a form which is fixed to the end of a stem.

Example

Stem = measure

Suffix= measurable

Prefix =immeasurable

A prefix usually changes the meaning of a word while a suffix usually changes its part of speech. E.g. the suffix -able changes verbs into adjectives (breakable, enjoyable). The prefix im- changes the meaning to the opposite: measurable means capable of being measured; immeasurable means “not capable of being measured.”

By learning only a few prefixes and suffixes, you will be able to recognise or guess the meaning of hundreds of English words.

The English language makes frequent use of this method of word formation. Notice the numerous words formed on the stem act.

Prefix+ act	act+ suffix	prefix+ act +suffix
re+act	act+ion	re+act+ion
enact	active	enactment
reenact	actively	reenactment
interact	actionless	reactor
transact	actable	reactive
	activity	reactivate
	activate	reactivation
	activation	interaction
	actor	transaction
	actress	inactive
		inaction

AFFIXES

PREFIXES

(STEM)

SUFFIXES

Both prefixes and suffixes are referred to as Affixes

Suffixes and their meanings :

Let us now consider some suffixes and their usual meanings.

Suffixes

Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives	Adverb
-ance	-ize	-able	-ly
-ence	-ate	-ible	
-or	-fy	-less	
-er	-en	-ic	
-ist	-ify	-ical	
-ness		-ish	

Study these tables and try to find additional examples. Use your dictionary if necessary.

Noun-forming suffixes:

Suffix	Meaning	Examples
-ance	state	performance
ence	quality of	independence
-er, -or	a person who a thing which	programmer, operator compiler, accumulator
-ation	the act of	execution
-tion		
-ist	a person who	analyst, typist
-yst		
-ness	condition of	cleanliness
-ion	action/state	conversion
-ing	activity	multiplexing
-ment	state, action	measurement
-ity	state, quality	electricity
-ian	pertaining to	electrician
-ism	condition/state	magnetism

-dom	domain/condition	freedom
-ship	condition/state	relationship, partnership
-ary		binary

Verb-forming suffixes:

Suffix	Meaning	Examples
-ize		computerize
ate		automate, activate, calculate
-fy	to make	simplify
-en		harden, widen

Adverb-forming suffixes:

Suffix	Meaning	Examples
-ly	in the manner of	electronically, logically
	comparably, helpfully	

Adjective-forming suffixes:

Suffix	Meaning	Examples
-al		computational, logical
-ar	have the quality of	circular
-ic		magnetic, automatic
-ical		electrical
-able	capable of being	comparable
-ible		divisible
-ous	like, full of	dangerous
-ious		religious
-ful	characterized by	helpful
-less	without	careless
-ish	like	yellowish
-ed	having	computed, punched
-ive	quality of	interactive
-ing	to make or do	programming, coding processing, multiplexing

Locating Base Words

It is sometimes difficult to locate base word, because their spellings frequently change when suffixes are added to them.

1. If a base word ends in e, the e may be dropped when a suffix is added to it.
Mature +it y=maturity
2. If a base word ends in y, the y may be changed to i ,when a suffix is added to it:
Harmony +ous=harmonious
3. Base words may undergo other spelling changes when suffixes are added to them:
reclaim+ation=reclamation (the l in reclaim is dropped)

Exercise1

Locate the base words in the boldface words and write them on the given lines.

1. We established the authenticity of our antique chair.
We have an ----- antique chair.
2. We enjoy the collegiate athletic games.
We enjoy the athletic games at -----.
3. The automobile left her comatose.
The accident left her in a -----.
4. We had comparative good luck
If you ----- our luck with that of others, our luck was good.
5. Can you differentiate between them?
Can you see how they -----?
6. His knowledge of China is not experiential.
His knowledge of China is not based on actual -----?
7. She has expertise in mathematics.
She is an ----- in mathematics.
8. She gave her answer with finality.
We knew her answer was -----.
9. They have servile attitudes.
They have attitudes of those who -----.
10. The numbers are in tabular form.
The numbers are in a -----.
11. We enjoyed her commentary on the news.
We enjoyed her -----s about the news.
12. Who were the disputants?
Who engaged in the -----?
13. This machine has a multiplicity of parts.
It has ----- parts.

Exercise 2

Read the following sentences and underline all the suffixes. Then try to find out what parts of speech the words are.

1. The systems analyst provides the programmer with the details of the data processing problems.
2. CRT terminals are very useful interactive devices for use in offices because of their speed and quietness.
3. The new microcomputer we purchased does not have a Fortran compiler. It is programmable in Basic only.
4. A computer is a machine with an intricate network of electronic circuits that operate switches or magnetize tiny metal cores.
5. In very large and modern installations, the computer operator sits in front of a screen that shows an up-to-date summary of the computer jobs as they are being processed.
6. The introduction of terminals and screens has partly replaced the use of punched cards.
7. Binary arithmetic is based on two digits: 0 and 1.
8. Multiplexing is when many electrical signals are combined and carried on only one optical link.
9. Computers are machines designed to process electronically specially prepared pieces of information.
10. The computed results were printed in tables.

Exercise 3

Fill in each blank with the appropriate form of the words.

- 1.operation, operate, operator, operational, operationally, operating
 - a. A computer can perform mathematical operations very quickly.
 - b. One of the first persons to note that the computer is malfunctioning is the computer operator.
 - c. The job of a computer operator is to operate the various machines in a computer installation.
 - d. The new machines in the computer installation are not yet operating/operational.
2. Acceptance, accept, accepted, acceptable, acceptably
 - a. A computer is a device which accepts processes and gives out information.

- b. The students are still waiting for their acceptance into the Computer Sciences program.
- c. It is acceptable to work without a template if the flowcharts are not kept on the file.

3. Solution, solve, solvable, solver

- a. It may take a lot of time to find a solution to a complex problem in programming.
- b. A computer can solve a problem faster than any human being.
- c. A computer has often been referred to as a problem solver.

4. Remark, remarkable, remarkably, remarked

- a. Today's computers are remarkably faster than their predecessors.
- b. System analysts will often make remarks about existing programs so as to help make the operations more efficient.
- c. There have been remarkable developments in the field of computer science in the last decade.

5. Communication, communicate, communicable, communicative, communicably

- a. A computer must be able to communicate with the user.
- b. Fiber optics is a new development in the field of communication.
- c. Some people working in computer installations aren't very communicative because they are shy.

6. Calculation, calculate, calculating, calculated, calculator, calculable, calculus

- a. A computer can do many kinds of calculations quickly and accurately.
- b. Calculus is a branch of mathematics for making calculations without the use of calculating machine.
- c. A computer can calculate numbers much faster than a manual calculator.
- d. Some problems aren't calculable without logarithm tables.

7. Mechanic, mechanism, mechanize, mechanical, mechanically, mechanistic, mechanics, mechanization, mechanized

- a. Today's computers are less mechanized than they used.
 - b. The mechanical devices in a computer system operate more slowly than the electromagnetic devices.
 - c. The mechanism of the brain is very complicated but unlike a computer it isn't mechanical.
8. Necessity, necessitate, necessary, necessarily, necessities, need, needed
- a. Because it is expensive to set up a computer department it is necessary to budget well for the basic necessities of the installations.
 - b. A good programmer isn't necessarily going to be a good systems analyst.
 - c. Students' lack of understanding of the basic concepts in computer science may necessitate the instructor to restructure the course.
9. Dependence, depend on, dependable, dependably, dependent, dependency, depending
- a. The length of time a programmer takes to make a program will vary depending on the complexity of the problem and his ability and experience.
 - b. One can always depend on a computer to obtain accurate answers because it's probably the most dependable machine in the world today.
10. Technology, technological, technologically, technologist
- a. Computer technology is a fast growing discipline.
 - b. The technological improvements of computers are reducing man's workload.

Let us recap:

An English word can be divided into three parts: a prefix, a stem and a suffix. Prefix is what comes before the stem. A suffix is what is attached to the end of the stem. A stem is the root of the word. Both prefixes and suffixes are referred to as Affixes. An English word can be divided into three parts:

Week 15 (Lecture 29&30)

Word Formation- Prefixes

We have already learned how words can be formed by looking at suffixes. In this lesson, we will look at some other ways, beginning with prefixes and stem words, followed by synonyms and antonyms as a means of enhancing your vocabulary.

A **prefix** is a letter or group of letters that is added to the beginning of a stem/ base word e.g. in *untrue* the prefix is *un-* and the stem/base word is *true*. Words that are unfamiliar to you may sometimes consist of a stem word you know and an added prefix, for instance:

We were shocked to learn of the *illimitability* of the dictator's power.

Illimitability is a word that does not often appear in print. It may be unfamiliar to you. However, you can locate its stem word, *limit*, which means 'to restrict'. If you also know that the prefix *il-* (as in *illegal*) means 'not', you should be able to determine that *illimitability* refers to which has no limits or restriction. The sentence means 'we were shocked to learn that there is no limit to the dictator's power.

Now you will look at a list of words in which adapt is the stem/ base word. If this word is preceded by a prefix you can make twenty -four additional words.

Ptation	nonadaptational	readaptation
pted	nonadaptive	readaptive
ptive	nonadapter	readaptiveness
ptation	preadapt	unadapttable
ptability	preadapttable	unadaptableness
ptable	preadaptation	unadaptive
ptation	readapttable	unadaptiveness
pting	readaptability	unadaptively

7

Prefix	Meaning	Example
1. un-	not; no	unhappy means not happy
2. non-	not; no	nonliving means not living
3. dis-	not; no	to distrust is not to trust

4. in-	not; no	indirect means not direct
5. Im-	Not; no	imperfect means not perfect
6. Ir-	not; no	irrational means not rational
7. Il-	not; no	illegal means not legal
8. a-	not;	
	without	atypical means not typical
9. pre-	before	prewar means before a war
10. post-	after	postwar means after a war
11. anti-	oppos(ing)	antiwar means opposing war
12. pro-	favour(ing)	prowar means favoring war
13. inter-	between	interstate means between states
14. hyper-	excessive(ly)	hyperactive mean excessively active
15. mal-	bad(ly)	malnutrition is bad nutrition
16. mis-	incorrect(ly)	to misspell is to spell incorrectly
17. pseudo-	false (ly)	a pseudoscience is a false science
18. semi-	partly	semipublic means partly

Defining Words with Prefixes

Make sentences by writing the base/stem words and the meanings of the prefixes in the boldface words on the lines provided.

1. Hermits are **asocial** people

They are _____ people.

2. The child's **hyperactivity** is alarming.

The child is _____

3. Outer space is **illimitable**

There is _____ to outer space.

4. The castle was **Impenetrable** to ancient armies.

Ancient armies could _____ the castle.

5. We took an **intercontinental** flight.

We took a flight _____.

6. The fire did **irreparable** damage to the house.

They could _____ the damage to the house.

7. Did he make **maladjustment** to marriage?

Did he _____ to marriage? 14

8. The story is **pseudo biographical**.

It is a _____.

9. The patient is **semiconscious**.

The patient is _____.

10. Some thoughts are **unutterable**.

Some thoughts one can _____.

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If you know that *adapt* means 'to make suitable' and you also know the meanings of the prefixes *mal-*, *non-*, *pre-*, *re-*, and *un-* you know the essential meanings of these twenty four words, even if you have not seen them in the print before. You will now look at nineteen prefixes and by understanding the most useful meanings of these common English prefixes you will increase your vocabulary by hundreds or even thousands of words in a very short time.

Word Formation - Prefixes

Let us now consider some more prefixes, their usual meanings, and how they change the meanings of English words. These prefixes will make words related to computers.

PREFIXES

NEGATIVE/ SIZE LOCATION TIME AND NUMBER

POSITIVE

ORDER

un-	semi-	inter-	pre-	mono-
non-	mini-	super-	ante-	bi-
in-	micro-	trans-	fore-	hex-

dis-	ex-	post-	oct-
re-	extra-		multi-
	mid-		

Study these tables and try to find additional examples. Use your dictionary if necessary.

Negative and positive prefixes

PREFIX	MEANING	EXAMPLES
un-		unmagnetized, unpunched
im-	not good enough	impossible
il-		illegal
non-	not connected with	non-programmable, non-impact
mis-	bad, wrong	mispronounce
dis-	opposite feeling	disagree
	opposite action	disconnect
anti-	against	antisocial
de-	reduce, reverse	demagnetize, decode
under-	too little	underestimate

Positive prefixes

re-	do again	reorganize
over-	too much	overheat

Prefixes of Size

PREFIX	MEANING	EXAMPLES
semi-	half, partly	semiconductor

equi-	equal	equidistant
maxi-	big	maxicomputer
micro-	small	microcomputer
mini-	little	minicomputer
macro-	large	macroeconomics
mega-	megabyte	

Prefixes of Location

PREFIX	MEANING	EXAMPLES
inter-	between/among,	interface, interactive
super-	over	supersonic
trans	across	transmit, transfer
ex-	out	exclude, extrinsic
extra-	beyond	extraordinary
sub-	under	subschemata
infra-	below	infra-red
peri-	around	peripheral

Prefixes of Time and Order

PREFIX	MEANING	EXAMPLES
ante-	before	antecedent
pre-		prefix
prime-	first	primary, primitive
post-	after	postdated
retro-	backward	retroactive

Prefixes of Numbers

PREFIX	MEANING	EXAMPLES
semi-	half	semicircle
mono-	one	monochromatic
bi-	two	binary
tri-	three	triangle
quad-	four	quadruple
penta-	five	pentagon
hex-	six	hexadecimal
septem-	seven	september
oct-	eight	octal
dec-	ten	decimal
multi-	many	multiprogramming, multiplexor

Other Prefixes

PREFIX	MEANING	EXAMPLES
pro-	for	program
auto-	self	automatic
co-	together	coordinate
neo-	new	neoclassical
pan-	all	pan-Islamic

Exercise 2

Read the following sentences and underline all the prefixes. Then try to find out what the prefixes mean by referring back to the tables you have just completed.

1. Non-impact printers are inexpensive and silent.
2. Tape-marks are unmagnetized reflective strips stuck onto the tape.
3. The octal and the hexadecimal systems are number systems used as a form of shorthand in reading groups of four binary digits.
4. The internal storage locations of a computer are called its primary memory. 28
5. Multiprogramming is when more than one program can be present at different storage locations of the memory at the same time.
6. Peripheral devices can be either input devices (such as card readers) or output devices (Such as printers).
7. The decoder (a component of the control unit) takes the coded instruction and breaks it down into the individual commands necessary to carry it out.
8. Microcomputers are becoming very important in small business applications.
9. A tape drive transmits the electromagnetic impulses to the memory of the computer.
10. Semiconductor materials are used in the making of transistors.

Exercise 3

Fill in the blanks with the correct prefix from the following list. Use the glossary at the end of the reading package.

**multi deci- sub- inter semi- mono- mega- auto mini- de-
inter- prim –**

1. ...Mega... byte means one million bytes.
2. ...Multi... plexing is when many electrical signals are combined and carried on only one optical link. 34
3. Blocks are separated from each other by marks called ...inter.... block gaps.
4. The number system we use in everyday life is the deci....mal system which has a base of 10.
5. CRT terminals are very useful...inter..active devices for use in airline reservations.
6. Some screens are ...mono... chromatic whereas others produce multicolor pictorial graphics.

7. The complete description of the logical structure of data is called the schema and the description of the parts, the ...sub..... schema.
8. The main storage locations of a computer are called its ...prim.... ary storage.
9. The small ferrite rings called cores have two states: they can be either magnetized or...de....magnetized.
10. The introduction of chips or ...semi..... conductor memories made it possible to reduce the size of the computer.

Exercise 4

Read the following paragraph and underline the prefixes then complete the table that follows it.

Computers may have a short history but prior to their development, there were many other ways of doing calculations. These calculations were done using devices that are still used today; the slide rule being a perfect example, not to mention the ten fingers of the hands. These machines, unlike computers, were not electronic and were replaced by faster calculating devices. It wasn't until the mid-1940s that the first digital computer was built. The post-war industrial boom saw the development of computers take shape.

By the 1960s, computers were faster than their predecessors and semiconductors had replaced vacuum tubes by tiny integrated circuit boards. Due to microminiaturization in the 1970s, these circuits were etched onto wafer thin rectangular pieces of silicon. This integrated circuitry is known as a chip and is used in microcomputers of all kinds. It has been forecasted, by the end of this decade, exceptionally faster and smaller computers will replace those in use today and complete the table.

Exercise 5: Review of Suffixes

Read the following paragraph and underline the suffixes.

A computer can solve a series of problems and make hundreds, even thousands, of logical decisions without becoming tired or bored. It can find the solution of a problem in a fraction of time than it takes a human being to do the job. A computer can replace people in dull, routine tasks, but it has no originality; it works according to the instructions given to it and cannot exercise any valuable judgment. There are times when a computer seems to operate like a mechanical 'brain', but its achievements are limited by the minds of human beings. A computer cannot do anything unless a person tells it what to do and gives it the appropriate information; but as electric pulses can move at the speed of light, a computer can carry out vast numbers of arithmetic-logical operations almost instantaneously. A person can do everything a computer can do, but in many cases that person would be dead long before the job was finished. Beings. A computer cannot do anything unless

Having dealt with the roots of words and how suffixes and prefixes work, let us look at another way of enhancing your vocabulary:

Synonyms are words that have the same or nearly the same meaning. For example: big large, huge, enormous monumental, gigantic, immense, and colossal are synonyms. Synonyms have two characteristics that you must understand in order to use them appropriately.

First Characteristic:

Most synonyms have similar meanings in only one of their senses.e.g *appropriate* and apt are synonyms when they are used to indicate that something is 'fit' for a specific purpose.

He made an *appropriate* remark

He made an *apt* remark

Appropriate and *apt* may be used interchangeably to mean “fit” but they have other meanings that they do not share. For instance *apt* may mean “likely”, but *appropriate* does not have this meaning.

When he is nervous he is *apt* to laugh.

Here *appropriate* may not be used interchangeably with *apt*.

Second Characteristic:

Synonyms often have shades of meaning in addition to the meaning they share.

For instance *blame* and *denounce* are synonyms that refer to the act of making an unfavourable judgement. However, to blame is to fix the responsibility for an error whereas to denounce is to state intense disapproval in public. If you receive a letter in your letterbox that should have been delivered to a neighbour, you may blame your postman, but you are not likely to publicly denounce the postal employee for such a trivial mistake.

On the other hand, if elected officials are found guilty of stealing taxpayers’ money, they are denounced; they are severely criticised in public, and in some cases thrown out of the office.

Blame does not convey the kind of unfavourable judgement that elected officials receive when they betray the trust of those who elected them.

Final Mastery

Selecting Word Meanings

In each of the following groups, encircle the word or expression that is most nearly **the same** in meaning as the word in **boldface type** in the introductory phrase.

1. **Admonish** the child

- a. dress b. teach c. praise d. warn

2. **Efface** a wrong

- a. discover b. wipe out c. hide d. apologize for

3. A **perennial** favorite

a. old-fashioned b. recent c. temporary d. enduring

4. **Subjugate** the enemy

a. torture b. release c. kill d. defeat 56

5. **Dissolute** behavior

a. unsuccessful b. stylish c. immoral d. modest

6. **Jeer at** our efforts

a. examine b. reject c. criticize d. ridicule

7. A firm **adherent**

a. enemy b. outside c. supporter d. student

8. A **semblance** of order

a. appearance b. lack c. result d. opposite

9. An **irate** guest

a. sociable b. welcome c. talkative d. angry

10. A brief **altercation**

a. shower b. argument c. relief d. statement

11. An **intrepid** camper

a. tireless b. strong c. fearless d. skilled

12. **Reville** the driver

a. adore b. train c. pay d. abuse

13. Made a **trite** remark

a. stale b. witty c. original d. in bad taste

14. **Rectify** an impression

a. explain b. make c. correct d. confirm

15. **Daunted** by their treats

a. encouraged b. ridiculed c. destroyed d. intimidated

16. A child's **prattle**

a. clothing b. outlook c. play d. talk

17. **brazen** conduct

a. shameless b. modest c. deadly d. acceptable

18. a major **exodus**

a. entrance b. discussion c. departure d. battle

19. an **impoverished** neighbor

a. learned b. poor c. beloved d. unfriendly

20. a **lucid** explanation

a. clear b. inadequate c. learned d. foolish

Recap:

We have dealt with Vocabulary Building in this lesson by focussing on **Affixes** and Suffixes.

Week 16 (Lecture 31&32)

Presentation Skills

Introduction

Well-developed presentation skills enable you to communicate clearly, precisely and effectively in a variety of modes or registers and settings. It should be pointed out that they are rated as one of the most important soft skills. The ability of communicating with the audience and giving

presentations should be seen as a mandatory prerequisite for both the effective learning process and the successful working life.

Thus, it is imperative to gradually increase and enhance your presentation skills through a continuous training that will help you to become more competent, confident and competitive.

The purpose of this chapter which is based on the best Western practices is to help to develop your presentation skills. It first introduces the basic premises of giving a presentation by examining in details its preparation, structure, timing, form of delivery and language, equipment and facilities, visual aids and material for distribution.

The subsequent sections cover more specific topics including verbal (voice, intonation, appropriate language) and non-verbal communication (eye-contact, body language, hand gestures) communication, interacting with audience and answering questions, handling your nerves during the presentation. The chapter concludes by focusing on rehearsal activities and different forms of feedback which will enhance your presentation skills.

Objectives:

- To develop your skills to communicate clearly, effectively and confidently with a range of audiences in a range of different contexts;
- To improve your research and design skills, and strengthen your delivery techniques;
- To enhance your use of different support electronic and other visual tools;
- To reinforce your performance skills (verbal and non-verbal);
- To increase your confidence level in interacting with audience and control your nervousness;
- To promote critical and reflective thinking by dealing with feedback on your presentation skills.

Definition

Three types of presentation might be identified:

1. Information-giving. This is predominantly descriptive, giving or summarizing information. You may be asked to do this as part of a mini-teaching session, sharing theoretical or factual information. Here the point is to see what you have understood and how you have extracted the

main facts from your reading and to relay these to the group. You will need to make decisions about what information to include.

2. Discursive. Here you will need to debate the strengths and limitations of an approach or develop an argument, exploring and weighing up different perspectives, challenging your audience to accept a different viewpoint.

For this, you will need to decide your ‘angle’ – are you for or against it, weight pro and cons? Pull your audience in, challenge and confidently debate.

3. Demonstrative. This type of presentation tends to be used in the context of training: for example, when demonstrating your ability to illustrate your understanding of a technique or teaching a practical skill to others. (Craig, C., 2009)

Presentations are key activities and might include:

- Group and individual presentations for a given topic as part of a module assessment.
 - Seminar presentations giving a paper to an academic or your peers for the purpose of teaching or showing evidence of your understanding of the topic.
 - Providing an overview of some research carried out by you or your group.
 - Demonstrating the use of a piece of equipment or software such as PowerPoint to show that you have developed the essential skills to use it appropriately.
 - Dissertation-related presentations and Vivas to demonstrate your ability to manage a research project.
 - A job interview where you have been asked to present for several minutes on a given topic.
- (Chivers B., Shoolbred M., 2007)

Preparation

Usually, the majority feel nervous when presenting something. It is mainly due to the fact that in a live presentation there is no second chance. Plus, you should be aware that the way in which information or ideas are delivered strongly affects how they are understood by the audience. Even tiny inaccuracies in presentation can make it hard to follow. Thus, for communication to take place effectively presented information has to be received as intended by the speaker – and not misinterpreted.

Though some of you might be better suited to giving a presentation than your colleagues, actually this is not a skill which you either have or do not have at birth and anyone can be good at presentations. You can master these skills like many others, but it requires rigorous preparation, constant rehearsal, deep reflective practice and constructive feedback.

The crucial elements of any presentation are the information that you have to deliver and the audience that have to receive it. The best presentations are focused with a precise aim and the supplied information is appropriate and addresses the clear-cut, unambiguous question. Poorly prepared presentations are those which include just a bit of everything.

Thus, before you start working on the presentation, answer the following questions:

- What is the main aim of the presentation and what message you want to deliver to the audience in the time limit set?
- What is the current knowledge level of the audience and what new knowledge or awareness do you want the audience to have gained from your presentation?
- What is the most effective way to communicate this knowledge?

You should remember that planning a presentation can be even more demanding than working on a written assignment. The main challenge is to try to fit all gathered information that you usually consider relevant into the time that is allocated.

Some people solve this issue by planning and writing a lengthy piece which can be later reduced to key points.

The advantage of this approach is that you will be well prepared with very detailed information which you can freely use during the presentation particularly if questions are asked. Otherwise, some people compile a set of headings, and based on these headings prepare a short paragraph for each point of their presentation.

This is your personal decision which approach to use, but it would be more advantageous and safe to prepare a detailed paper and then reduce rather than creating a brief set of headings and trying later to add more information. At any rate it would be propitious to have a set of notes to use as a guide during the presentation.

It should be pointed out your presentation has to be brief, clear and precise, and provide backup for more complex ideas. You should remember that overloading the audience with a very

detailed, scrupulous information will not automatically make your presentation better. A potentially good presentation might be weakened by packing it with excessive details and losing a sense of key ideas and conclusions you want to communicate to the audience.

Thus, it would be useful to write down the aims of your presentation. Focus particularly on what new knowledge or awareness you want the audience to have gained – what will the audience know, understand, or be able to do by the end of the session that they did not know, or understand

You might plan the body of the presentation;

- prepare the first draft of the presentation;
- prepare the first set of prompts;
- put the presentation aside for a while
- review, revise and edit first draft – decide on a ‘good enough’ draft of the presentation;
- decide on the audio-visual aids that will be useful;
- prepare the ‘good enough’ set of prompts (Pritchard, A., 2008) (Burns, T., Sinfield, S., 2004) (Barker, A., 2011).

Structure

Whether the audience can understand what you are trying to communicate will be determined by how you structure your presentation. You should focus on the development of a clear structure that will help to map out and guide you in your preparations and in your final delivery.

Some authors are quite prescriptive in their approach and suggest that you should: ‘limit your thinking to the rule of three: a simple technique where you are never allowed to use more than three main points’ (Richard

Hall 2007: 320). This can be helpful in focusing your ideas and ensuring that you are clear in what you are arguing. The best approach is to decide your ‘bottom line’ – the key message that you want your audience to take away – and then work backwards from this so that everything you include leads to this conclusion.

(Craig, C., 2009)

As a very general principle, the rule of three is offered.

1. Tell them what you are going to tell them.
2. Tell them.
3. Tell them what you have told them.

You need to think about how to build your presentation by dividing the material into sections, each one dealing with one important point. Structure your ideas so that you move seamlessly from one point to another. The structure of your presentation will depend on the topic that you are dealing with, but in general there should include:

- An introduction, outlining the aim of your presentation and the areas your talk will focus on
- The main body, containing the substance of your talk and developing the ideas outlined in the introduction
- A conclusion, drawing together the main points and containing the ‘take home message’ for the audience

(Craig, C., 2009)

Introduction

It is of key importance to get a good beginning. Apart from introducing yourself and subject of your presentation, you should plan carefully about what point of entry will stimulate your audience and at the same time, form a springboard into the main topics of your delivery. When thinking about your openings, keep your audience and their ‘needs’ very firmly in mind. A good beginning can make the presentation; a poor, inappropriate one can seriously undermine it. Many people tend to fail to have a proper introduction that contextualizes the topic.

Main Presentation

This will be influenced by the general context and aim of your presentation and the expected audience. You may need to decide between a big picture approach and one that selects a smaller area with more detail. As you develop your knowledge of the topic, you will feel more confident about what to include and what to exclude. Identify the key messages. Three or four main points are normally sufficient for a presentation of up to a half hour. For a longer presentation, do not exceed seven main points in order to avoid overloading your audience. Remember, less is almost always more. You should also decide what is best covered through speech, text, images and what could be given in a handout rather than used as presentation content. Support your key ideas by

choosing clarifying examples. Because it is usually difficult to follow a spoken argument, you need to make sure that it is relevant, accurate and interesting to the audience; your audience will find it easier to maintain concentration and to stay with your argument. You should choose carefully examples to provide interest and improve understanding and think where to place them in the structure of the content. Use such things as examples, stories, statistics, quotes from expert sources, or research findings. (Cameron S., 2010).

Conclusion

Because of the relief of having made it through, otherwise excellent presentations often suffer from an uninspiring, hurried ending. Do not let the pace and energy of your presentation drop at the end. This is the ‘tell them what you have said’ section. You need to summarize your points, again using visual aids to reinforce them if possible. Always leave your audience with something memorable, say a powerful visual or a convincing conclusion, with a key idea, a central theme to take away and want to reflect on later. It is also good practice to thank the audience for their patience and to invite questions or discussion. (Cameron S., 2010), (Ellis, R., 2010)

Timing

In most presentations, it is usually better to deliver less content at a reasonable pace, than too much content at a faster pace that may leave the audience feeling overwhelmed and confused. You should fit the topic into the allotted time and plan time for breaks, asides, questions. This means you should think clearly about what to include and exclude from the final version of your presentation. Inexperienced presenters will find difficult to fit into time allocated. On the one hand they have prepared too much material and then have to jump to their conclusion, rushing over key points and running the risk of leaving their audience confused. On the other hand they have under-prepared and have to face one of the most embarrassing of all public speaking experiences – running out after ten minutes with your audience expecting the full half hour. Where the presentation timing is preset, it is important that the pace of the verbal and image presentation are in a correct sequence. In five minutes your message must be to the point with little by way of illustration. Twenty minutes, on the other hand, will enable you to make an impact both verbally and visually. Ensure that you are not trying to squeeze too much

information into the allocated time. Enough is enough; no one wants to hear you rushing through the material in the hope of getting to the end. Rehearsal will help you to set realistic timing and adjust your pace of delivery to accommodate pauses and changes of voice tone for emphasis. You will then be able to edit the content, perhaps deciding what facts you need to discuss and what can be covered in the handouts or visual aids. (Malthouse, R., Roffey-Barentsen, J., 2010), (Ellis, R., 2010). (Craig, C., 2009), (Van Emden J., Becker L., 2004)

Form of Language

It is important to recognize and respond to the difference between formal written language and spoken language. When giving a presentation it is not obligatory to use complicated language constructions, to use long words, or to speak in nested and convoluted sentences. If you choose to speak in a way that does not necessarily come naturally to you, or is in some way made more complicated than it needs to be, you will in all probability not communicate effectively. This does not mean that you should not use correct vocabulary, especially when dealing with technical terms, which clearly form an important element of the content. There is a case for giving an explanation, or simple definition, of technical terms as they arise for the first time, particularly if you are dealing with an area of your subject which is new to the audience. Use correct language and proofread (words used appropriately; correct spelling and punctuation). It is essential to check your work for errors. Also follow general principles: avoid gender stereotyping; avoid racist and racism stereotyping; avoid being aggressive, swearing or obscenities; use the language that can include everybody (Pritchard, A., 2008), (Drew, S., Bingham, R., (2010)

Tips for Power point Presentation

1. Avoid clutter slides at all costs
2. Select a clear font such as Arial or Helvetica.
3. Use bold rather than underline and avoid italics;
4. A dark background (deep blue or black) and light coloured text (white or yellow) for contrast will make your words stand out (Use of colour that detracts from the main content of the slide, or that makes reading the text difficult.)
5. Use a font size of 20 or over: use a 36 point for titles and a 28 point for body text

6. Spelling and /or grammar mistakes
 7. Use pictures and icons and beware of the special effects, e.g. spinning words or sound effects
 8. Keep the presentation consistent, e.g. background and style. Do not suddenly switch fonts half way through. You may not notice but your audience will
 9. Less than 30 words per slide, 5–6 words for headings a maximum of five bullet points per slide
 10. Keep the number of slides down to one per minute or even one per 40 seconds
- (Malthouse, R., Roffey-Barentsen, J., 2010), (Craig, C., 2009)

Verbal Delivery

However, it is not possible to use images for everything in your presentation. But be aware that up to 38% of what is taken in by those present is through the spoken word, which highlights the clear need for what you say to be audible and very much to the point. You should remember that your voice is an incredible tool. On average 7% of what the audience understands comes from the words that are used within the verbal interactions, compared with 38% of information resulting in tone of voice and 55% being dependent on non-verbal cues. Use this to your advantage. Presentations are greatly enhanced by varying the tone of voice to emphasize aspects of the content. Make sure you project your voice to the back of the room.

Try to vary the tone of your voice and the speed or pace of delivery to give emphasis to different parts of what you say. Use silence to your advantage. A short pause can give emphasis to a point you are making. One of the ways in which inexperienced presenters betray their lack of skill is that they fade in volume. They may begin their talk with reasonable audibility but this decreases as they forget to project their voices in accordance with the size of the audience (the more bodies, the more the sound is absorbed) and the acoustics of the room.

Good projection should not be a matter of straining but of being aware of where the voice is going, and making effective use of breathing to support the voice. Presenters who fail to project are usually too busy peering at their notes and being worried by what is coming next. Another concern for those giving presentations is that of speaking too quickly. When speaking to an audience of any size it is advisable to speak more slowly than your normal speed, and to leave

pauses occasionally. Speaking more slowly and pausing is even more important if you want the audience to pay attention to words, diagrams or pictures on a screen at the same time. Speaking slowly is not the same as speaking hesitantly, and although being nervous might lead to hesitation, it is a good idea to work towards eliminating this. Be enthusiastic about what you have to say. If you fail to show any interest, there is little chance that your audience will be attentive and engaged. Nothing is as boring as a monotonous voice reciting a presentation that has obviously been memorized and delivered on many occasions or, even worse, reading from notes. To keep your presentation alive there needs to be an element of spontaneity. This can be achieved by varying the pitch and tone of your voice in relation to the subject matter.

Speeding up your delivery is another technique that will keep the audience's attention. Sometimes this is followed by a moment of silence (just for effect) and then a calmer, more measured approach follows. Experiment with this during your rehearsal to ensure that you do not come over as being a little manic. (Craig,C.,2009), (Malthouse, R., Roffey-Barentsen, J.,2010), (Pritchard,A.,2008) (Ellis, R., 2010) (Mehrabian, 1981).

Nonverbal Delivery

Eye contact

Eyes are one of your best tools for involving the audience in what you are saying. Good posture, movement and gestures will be of little use if you fail to support them with appropriate eye contact. Great presenters understand that eye contact is critical to building trust, credibility, and rapport. Far too many have a habit of looking at everything but the audience. One way of spotting inexperienced presenters is to see how they focus on a small group, usually in front of them and usually those giving off positive expressions of interest or encouragement. This focusing has the effect of rather embarrassing those people while, at the same time, losing contact with others in the audience. Those who started with rather negative feelings towards the speaker will be unlikely to have such feelings ameliorated if they are never looked at, seemingly never included in the occasion. It is advisable to maintain eye contact with your audience at least 90% of the time. It is appropriate to glance at your notes or slides from time to time, but only as a reminder of where to go next. You are speaking for the benefit of your audience. Speak to them, not the slides. If you are an inexperienced presenter, you might find it very difficult to look

any member of the audience in the eye. A useful technique is to try to focus between and slightly above the eyes; the audience will feel that they are being looked at and involved, unless you are extremely close. The size of the audience will determine the appropriate level of eye contact but here are two important guidelines to follow, regardless of audience size.

- Never hold one person's gaze for more than five seconds maximum.
- Never appear to be 'watching tennis', swinging your eyes (and head) from one side of the audience to the other.

Body language

You will also need to think how you communicate using body language. Body language can distract people from what you are saying or even irritate. People can bite their nails, twiddle with things and sniff and so on. If you have distracting habits, find a way of controlling them. Hold your hands behind your back or hold a sheet of paper so you can't fiddle. Body language can encourage people to listen to what you are saying. These things can engage other people: smiling (it is appropriate to smile but not like a Cheshire cat); leaning towards them; standing up to do a presentation (it gives your authorities and helps project your voice); moving in a natural way (standing totally still is distracting).

Hand gestures and facial expressions can be used to your advantage to emphasize particular points. However, treat these with caution because inappropriate gestures can also interfere with your presentation and detract from what you say. The way that you stand will have a huge impact on the way that you breathe. The way that you breathe will have a huge impact on how you sound. Think about whether you will be sitting or standing during the presentation and which will be most appropriate for the event. Avoid standing frozen like a statue, try not to pace about like a caged animal, but aim to move naturally and appropriately.

Gestures

Using your hands can help in the same way that whole body movements can: to relax, stimulate and illustrate. If you find it hard to use your hands naturally, then the best policy is to hold them by your sides. Try not to:

- clasp hands behind the back. This looks much too formal.
- fold them in front. This is usually interpreted as a very defensive posture.
- keep them stuck in your pockets throughout the presentation. This can look either casual or nervous.

- scratch, poke or stroke yourself. As you have probably observed, this is quite a common nervous reaction amongst stressed presenters.
- wring your hands together. This can look dishonest or slightly peculiar.
- fiddle with keys, pens, pencils, coins, lucky charms, worry beads, etc. You will just look nervous.

While developing presentation skills, you can tend to focus on yourself as the speaker and forget about the audience. This is a mistake. You should be interactive. If you begin positively and catch the audience's attention by establishing a rapport, you are more likely to keep it. You should stand up straight and speak directly to your audience, making eye contact and smiling, though not inanely. If you can do this, you will let them know that you are confident and you have something to say that is worth listening to. Ask the audience questions and give them an activity (make a list; vote on something) Check if they understood and see if they need something to clarify. Make sure that you include everybody. Have an attention-grabbing opening and other statement. Check with them that you are on the right lines: 'Was that point clear?', 'Can you all see this slide?', 'Am I going too fast? Do not be afraid to admit that you had not thought of a particular angle if someone springs a surprise question on you, but rather use it as an opportunity to stimulate further discussion You may have heard advice about making a joke, and the use of humour in general, and this can work very much to a presenter's advantage in some situations. If you want to start discussion: ask people to discuss in 2s or 3s for a minute, then share with the group; make discussion points or activities clear; have a prepared list of question to ask them.

Handling questions If you provide time at the end and stimulate a question-and-answer session sometime during your presentation it can really help you to ensure that you cover or clarify areas that you simply did not know required clarification. If it is a formal meeting, always check with the organizer before you start your presentation about the ground rules for questions, and any time limits you need to be aware of. If members of your audience ask you questions, then it means that they have found something of interest, something to challenge or a point that requires further expansion. The interactive time during a presentation is often the most animated, intellectually stimulating and engaging part of the experience. However, too many speakers make little or no effort to prepare themselves for questions. This is dangerous, because the inexperienced presenter can flounder here. As you prepare your material, take into consideration

probable. The longer and more complex the presentation the more your audience may appreciate the chance of asking you questions at certain intervals rather than having to wait until the end. However, until you are fairly experienced, and feel confident that you can handle questions during your talk, it is safer to take substantive questions at the end. Otherwise, you risk being completely sidetracked from your main argument or disconcerted by challenges to what you are saying before you have completed your presentation. Make it clear at the beginning that during your presentation you will deal only with requests for clarification and that there will be time for questions at the end. Be sure to announce that there will time for one/two more questions and stick to that limit. When you do accept a question, your listening skills will be important. It is hard to listen carefully when you are nervous, particularly if someone is asking a complex multiple questions. If this happens, write down the key parts of the question, otherwise it is easy to answer the first part and forget all the rest. If you are at all uncertain what the question means, clarify this with the questioner.

You should be aware that people ask questions for many reasons. There will be some who are trying to make an impression on the audience or they may simply like being the center of attention. Where questions are clearly being asked in the questioner's personal interest, it is simplest to thank them for raising their point, agree with as much of the point as you can, perhaps suggest a discussion outside the meeting and move on to the next question. If questions reveal a genuine weakness in your presentation, it is usually better to accept this and ask for suggestions from the questioner and the audience for ways around the difficulty. You may find that someone can suggest a way forward. If, however, the difficulty seems to you to be much less significant than the questioner is suggesting, you will need to make sure that the audience does not end up devaluing the bulk of what you have said. If you do receive a rude, hostile or discourteous question that appears to be an attack on you, then do try and stay calm. The audience will be very much on your side if you can stay calm and not be provoked. It is very tempting to retaliate and bite back. This will play directly into the hands of the questioner. Stay calm and respond on the lines of: 'I think it is best for us to discuss this later'. 'You're fully entitled to your opinion. Can I respond to the general point you've made'.... (Thus ignoring the personal attack)

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