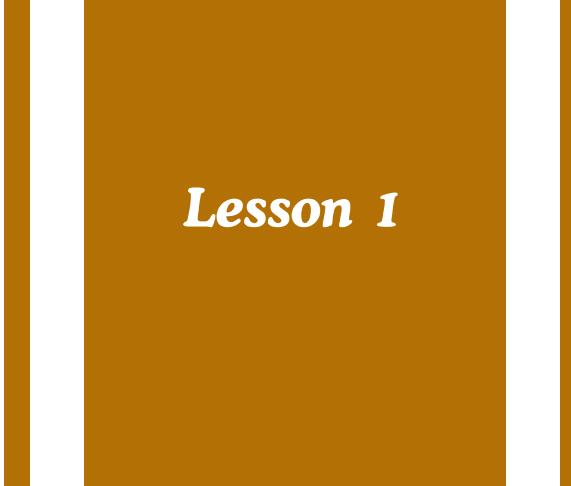


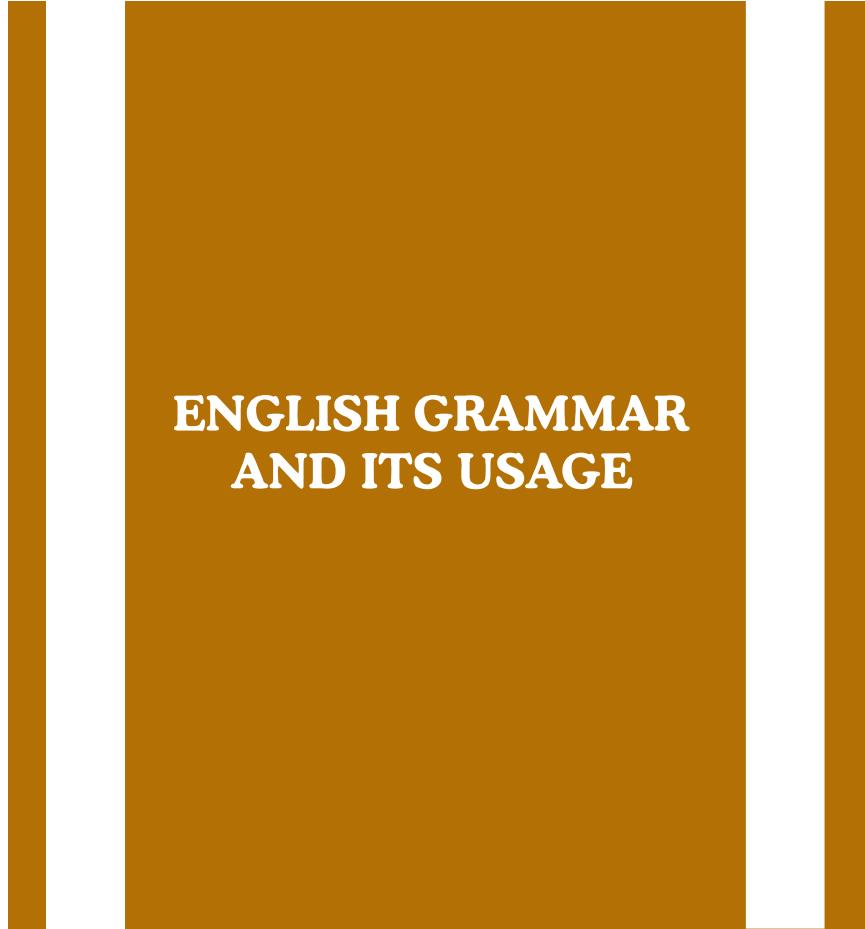
# BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

## *Chapter*

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***Lesson 1***



**ENGLISH GRAMMAR  
AND ITS USAGE**

### Grammar and its Usage

English language follows a set of rules like all other languages. Broadly speaking, the part of Grammar concerned with changes in the form of words by internal modification or by affixation is known as **accidence** and the manner in which these words are arranged in the form of a sentence is called **syntax**. For example, the root word ‘contradiction’ is a noun. It can be changed into different parts of speech. If you say ‘contradict’, it becomes a verb and if you say ‘contradictory’ it becomes an adjective.

Good dictionaries give all the changes that a root word can undergo.

#### **Good to Know!!!**

Some words may be used as different parts of speech without any change in their form.

For example, the word *beat* remains unchanged in the following sentences; though it is a different part of speech in each sentence :

- The angry mob was beating the thief mercilessly. (verb).
- The beat of the drum sent people into frenzy (noun)
- The beat generation (young people with unconventional dress and behaviour as expression of social philosophy) has its own ethics. (Adjective)

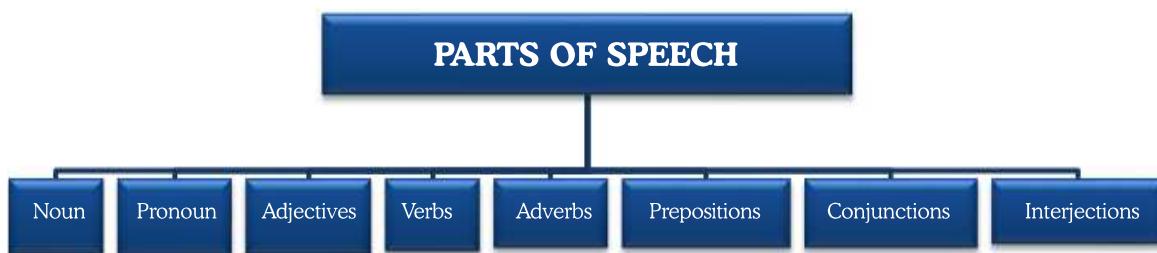
Sometimes it is possible to use the same word, with a slight modification, as a different part of speech:

For example, the root word *confirm* is used here as a noun in the first, as a verb in the second and as an adjective in the third sentence.

- We received confirmation of the order in writing yesterday. (Noun)
- The party confirmed the receipt of the consignment. (Verb)
- He is a confirmed defaulter. (Adjective)

### Parts of Speech in English

Words are divided into eight classes according to the work they do in a sentence. They are as follows:



These word classes are called Part of Speech.

They are explained below:

### Nouns

A noun is “naming word”. It names somebody or something.

Rahul took the dog to park.

The car makes a lot of noise.

Look at the example above. A noun is the name of a person (Rahul), animal (dog), place (park), thing (car) or idea (noise).

### Kinds of Nouns

Nouns may be divided into (a) common nouns and (b) proper nouns.

*Common nouns* are the names given in common to all persons, places or things of the same class. For example, bank, shop, market, etc.

*Collective noun* : Common nouns include another class known as collective nouns. A collective noun names a group of people, animals or things regarded as a whole., e.g., batch, company, university, crowd, flock, etc.

*Proper nouns* are the names of particular persons, places or things. For example, India, Larsen and Tubro, Delhi, January, etc.

### Pronouns

Pronouns are used in place of nouns. Pronouns may be Personal and Relative.

*Personal Pronouns* : To represent person or things., e.g., I, we, you, she, he, it him, us, them, etc.

*Relative Pronouns* : The most common relative pronouns are whom, which and that.

A relative pronoun acts as a pronoun and as a conjunction at the same time.

This is the boy who save my life.

*Possessive Pronouns* : These show possession, e.g., mine, ours, yours their, its and hers.

### Adjectives

A word used to describe or point out, a person, animal, place or thing which the noun names, or to tell the number and quantity, is called an Adjective.

Rani is a clever girl (Girl of what kind?)

He gave me six books (How many book?)

Two or more words can be joined with a hyphen to form a compound Adjective, e.g., *government-financed project*.

## Verbs

A verb is a word that tells or asserts something about a person or thing. Verb comes from Latin Verbum, meaning a word. It is so called because it is the most important word in the sentence.

A verb may tell us :

1. What a person or thing does; as

Rohit *runs*.

The bell *rings*.

2. What is done to a person or thing; as

Ram is *beaten*.

The door is *broken*.

3. What a person or thing is, as

The boy is *hurt*.

The chair is *broken*

I feel *sad*.

Hence, a verb is a word used to tell or assert something about some person or thing.

## Adverb

While **Adjectives qualify** or add to the meaning of nouns, **adverbs modify** the meaning not only of verbs, but also of adjectives, prepositions, conjunctions, etc.

The following sentences illustrate the varied use of adverbs:

Small investors find it very difficult to invest *wisely*.

(The first adverb *very* modifies the adjective *difficult*, and the second adverb *wisely* modifies the verb *invest*).

The CEO is an *exceptionally* sharp manager.

(The adverb *exceptionally* modifies the adjective *sharp*).

The cash counter is *right* behind you.

(The adverb *right* modifies the preposition *behind*).

We have given this book to you only because you are a good reviewer. (The adverb *only* modifies the conjunction *because*).

## Preposition

A **Preposition**, by definition is placed before a noun or its equivalent in order to show its relationship in terms of time, place, etc.:

The space *above* the room houses the conference facility.

(The preposition *above* explains the relationship between the room and the conference facility).

There are hardly any rules governing the use of prepositions, some people feel that it is inelegant to put them at the end of a sentence since they are basically used as link-words. However, as Fowler points out, "Almost all our great writers have allowed themselves to end a sentence or a clause with a preposition." *The thumb-rule is that the sentence should read well.*

It is largely the usage that determines the choice of a preposition. Americans tend to drop them but it is largely colloquial. A wrong preposition certainly changes the intended meaning. Therefore, we have to learn the use of prepositions carefully. All standard dictionaries list the root word along with different prepositions or adverbial phrases and also show the difference in meaning.

For example:

The root word *get* conveys italicised meanings when used with:

- ...**about**, move or spread
- ...**across**, be understood
- ...**ahead**, make progress
- ...**along**, manage
- ...**at**, gain access to
- ...**away**, escape
- ...**over**, forget
- ...**round**, persuade

## Conjunction

**Conjunctions** join words or even sentences conveying related ideas. Two commonly used conjunctions are:

- *and*
- *but*.

We received your letter and telegram but regret our inability to attend the meeting.

Conjunctions may also be used in pairs, e.g. *neither-nor*, *either-or*, *not only-but also*, *both-and*, *whether-or* etc.

Such conjunctions are known as **Correlative Conjunctions**.

### Interjection

**Interjections** are words which are used in a sentence to express strong emotion or feeling. They may not form a part of its grammatical structure. Some of the common interjections are: *Hi !, Alas !, Oh !, etc.*

### Types of Voices

As a general rule, we should use **Active Voice** in our sentences. Such sentences are shorter, direct and emphatic.

*For example*

Please place the order within sixty days of the receipt of the quotation.

An exception is however made when sending out negative messages or fixing responsibility.

For example, out of the two responses given below, the latter is likely to be received better:

You have failed to place the order in time.

Unfortunately the order has been delayed.

**Passive Voice** is also found more suitable while drafting legal formulations as no identifiable subject can be mentioned.

*For example:*

Follow the traffic rules, while driving. (Active Voice)

The traffic rules should be followed while driving. (Passive Voice)

### Articles

The words a or an and the are called Articles. They come before nouns. 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 car, an apple, a table.

The definite article is used before singular countable nouns, plural countable nouns and uncountable nouns, e.g., The pen, the pens, the milk, the idea.

The article 'an' is used when the noun to which it is attached begins with a vowel sound (a, e, i, o and u). It is the vowel sound and not the vowels that determines the use of 'a' or 'an'. Vowels with consonant sound take 'a' and not 'an'. For example,

Bring me an apple.

He walks like an Egyptian.

She has planted a eucalyptus tree.

He is an honest man.

He has joined a union.

I have lost a one-rupee note.

### Usage

Usage implies the manner in which the native speakers of a language use it. The “body of conventions governing the use of a language especially those aspects not governed by grammatical rules”, “habitual or customary use” often lays down new standards of acceptance.

For example, ‘It is me’ is generally accepted on grounds of usage even though ‘It is I’ is considered grammatically correct.

Usage may be learnt by reading standard texts and listening to educated speakers of a language.

### Tenses

“In Grammar – a set of forms taken by a verb to indicate the time (and sometimes the continuance or completeness) of the action in relation to the time of the utterance”; is the meaning that the Concise Oxford Dictionary assigns to the word ‘Tense’. The word tense comes from Latin word tempus, meaning time.

Read the following sentences.

1. I write this letter to my mother
2. I wrote the letter yesterday.
3. I shall write another letter tomorrow.

In sentence 1, the verb write refers to present time. Hence a verb that refers to present time is said to be in the Present Tense.

In sentence 2, the verb wrote refers to past time. Hence it is said to be in Past Tense.

In sentence 3, the verb shall write refers to future time. Therefore, it is said to be in the Future Tense.

Read these sentences :

1. I read a book. (simple present)
2. I am reading a book. (Present continuous)
3. I have read a book. (Present Perfect)
4. I have been reading a book. (Present Perfect Continuous)

The verbs in all of these sentences refer to the present time, and are therefore said to be in the present tense.

In sentence 1, however, the verb shows that the action is mentioned simply, without anything being said about the completeness or incompleteness of the action.

In sentence 2, the verb shows that the action is mentioned as incomplete or continuous, that is, as still going on.

In sentence 3, the verb shows that the action is mentioned as finished, complete or perfect, at the time of speaking.

The tense of the verb in sentence 4 is said to be Present Perfect Continuous, because the verb shows that the action is going on continuously, and not completed at this present moment.

Thus we see that the tense of a verb shows not only the time of an action or event, but also the state of an action referred to.

Just as Present Tense has four forms, the Past Tense also has the following four forms :

1. I jumped from the window. (Simple Past)
2. I was jumping from the window. (Past Continuous)
3. I had jumped from the window. (Past Perfect)
4. I had been jumping from the window. (Past Perfect continuous)

Similarly, the Future Tense has the following four forms :

1. I shall/will jump (Simple Future)
2. I shall/will be jumping. (Future Continuous)
3. I shall/will have jumped. (Future Perfect)
4. I shall/will have been jumping. (Future Perfect Continuous)

Hence, we may define Tense as that form of a verb which shows the time and the state of an action or event.

## Sentence Construction

### Various Purposes of a Sentence

A group of words, which makes complete sense, is called a sentence.

Grammar also lays down rules for arranging words in a certain order to form meaningful sentences. Sentences may be formed to:

- Make a statement : The government has decided to disinvest its stake in Air-India.
- Pose a question : Would this step enable them to turn this PSU around?

- Give a command : Bring about a change of ownership.
- Make an exclamation: What a way to bridge the fiscal deficit!

A sentence consists of two parts:

**Subject** : The part which names the person or thing we are speaking about is called the subject of the sentence.

**Predicate** : The part which tells something about the subject is called predicate.

A **Phrase** is a group of words, which neither has a finite verb nor makes any sense by itself. Depending on its place in the sentence, it may be a:

- Noun
- Adjectival or
- Adverbial Phrase.

Examine the following pair of sentences.

- (i) Raj is a wealthy man.
- (ii) Raj is a man of *great wealth*.

In the first sentence the word *wealthy* described the noun *Raj*.

In the second sentence of *great wealth* also tells us what sort of man *Raj* is. It qualifies the noun just as an Adjective does. Hence, it is called an *Adjective Phrase*.

### **Adverb Phrases**

Just as the work of an Adjective is often done by a group of words called an Adjective Phrase, so the work of an Adverb is often done by a group of words. Examine the following pair of sentences.

- (i) He answered rudely. (How?)
- (ii) He answered in a very rude manner. (How?)

Since the phrase *very rude manner* does the work of an Adverb, it is called an *Adverb Trial Phrase*.

### **Noun Phrase**

A Noun Phrase is a group of words that does the work of a Noun. For example,

- (i) *My demat account* has been closed.
- (ii) *To win a prize* is my ambition.

In the above sentences italicized phrases are noun phrases because they are doing the work of a noun.

### Types of Sentences

The basic knowledge of grammar helps us understand different sentence structures or patterns so that we can communicate in a clear, concise and correct manner.

A group of words that form a part of a sentence, and has a subject and a predicate of its own, is called a *clause*.

The clause that makes good sense by itself, and hence could stand by itself, as a separate sentence is called a *Principal or Main Clause*.

A clause which cannot stand by itself and makes good sense but not complete sense are called a *Dependent or Subordinate Clause*.

A sentence which has only one finite verb and one independent clause is called Simple sentence. *For example,*

This courage won him honour.

A compound sentence is made up of two or more independent clauses. For example, Night come on and rain fell heavily and we all got very wet.

A complex sentence has an independent clause and atleast one dependent clause.

*For example,*

The human brain never stops working until you stand up to speak in public.

### Sentence Construction

Sentences can be constructed using different structures or patterns. The simplest sentence may have:

- a noun or a pronoun in the beginning,
- a verb in the middle,
- another noun or its equivalent in the end.

*For example*

The budget affects the stock market.

This sentence structure may also be shown as:

Subject + verb + object

The structure of an imperative sentence is different. Here the subject is understood.

*For example,*

Mail this letter, is the shorter form of (You) mail this letter.

**It is important to use varying sentences structures in your writing so that the interest of the reader is not lost.**

**Sentence Construction is based on the kind of writing in question.**

Sentences are also constructed on the basis of complexity of writing.

**Loose sentences** are suited to simple style of letter writing and are closer to the spoken form. They begin with the main statement and develop it to its logical conclusion.

*For example*

The Reserve Bank of India intervened in the forex market as there were strong rumours about an intense speculative activity caused by the spurt in imports.

**Periodic Sentences** are decorous and emphatic but more difficult to write. The order is reversed and the main statement is made at the end.

*For example*

As there were strong rumours about an intense speculative activity caused by the spurt in imports, the Reserve Bank of India intervened in the forex market.

**Sentence Construction on the basis of Length**

The length of a sentence is also an important factor in sentence construction.

**Shorter Sentences** are easier to write as well as understand. But a long sequence of short sentences may not make a very pleasant reading:

Thank you for the order. The goods will be sent soon. The duplicate copy of bill is enclosed. The payment must be made early.

**Longer Sentences** are prone to grammatical errors and need careful thought and planning. Such efforts at constructing marathon sentences should be avoided.

It may be a good idea to mix the shorter and longer sentences to sustain the interest of the reader.

*For example*

The conference opens on the tenth of June in Simla. More than two hundred company secretaries will take part. The purpose is to deliberate on the merits of the new Companies Act, 2013 and propose amendments. The discussions are likely to go on for three days.

**Paragraph Construction**

The construction of a paragraph is equally important. If a good sentence should focus on a single thought, a good paragraph should restrict itself to a single topic or idea. The topic sentence of a paragraph sums up its central idea and develops it further. It is usually in the beginning or the end of the sentence; though, in some cases, it can be written somewhere in the middle too. Shorter paragraphs should be preferred because they enable the reader to follow the writer's plan.

### Prefixes and Suffixes

An affix “is an addition to the base form or stem of a word in order to modify its meaning or create a new word”.

(The Concise Oxford Dictionary, Tenth Edition).

#### Prefix

If the affix or addition to the root word comes at the beginning, it is called a prefix.

The word ‘prefix’ in itself is an apt example of a prefix as it is made up of the root word ‘fix’ - ‘to join or fix’, with the affix ‘pre’- meaning ‘before’, added to it.

#### Groups of Prefixes

Prefixes fall into a number of distinct groups such as:

### Groups of Prefixes

Supportive Prefixes

Opposing Prefixes

Negative Prefixes

Reversative Prefixes

Derivative Prefixes

Place Prefixes

Size Prefixes

Time Prefixes

Number Prefixes

Class Changing Prefixes

Miscellaneous

**Supportive Prefixes** are prefixes that support or are for the root word.

\*Pro is used with the meaning favouring/supporting as the prefix. Pro, as a prefix has other meanings too, such as 'in substitute of' or 'before in time, pace or order'.

Examples of Pro as a supportive prefix are Pro-choice, Pro-market, Pro-life.

**Opposing Prefixes** are prefixes that are opposed to the action denoted by the root word.

Anti (against) - antibody, antibacterial, antibiotic, anticlockwise, antidote, anti inflammatory, antioxidant, etc.

(Spurious) - antihero, antiChrist, antiself (affected person)

Contra (against) - contraception, contraindicate, contravene, contramundum

(Contrasting) - contraflow, contra-active, contradict, contradistinction

Counter (opposition/retaliation) - counteract, counter-example, counter- attack, counterblast, counterbalance, counterclaim, counterculture, counter-in-surgency, countermeasure, counterproductive, etc.

**Negative Prefixes** are prefixes that denote the absence of distinguishing features of the root word.

(The prefixes marked with \* can convey different meaning besides those specified herein.)

\*a (not, without) - amoral, ahistorical, atheist, asymmetric

\*an (not, lacking) - anaesthetic, anaemic, anaerobic

\*dis (not) - disloyal, disable, disarm, dishonest, distrust, disadvantage

\*in (not) - injustice, inactive, inconsiderate, inconsonant, incomprehensible, incomplete, incompetent, inconsécutive

\*il (this is another variation of the prefix 'in' and is used before a word beginning with 'I') - illegal, illiterate, illegible, illegitimate

\*im (this is a variation of the prefix 'in' which is used before a word beginning with 'b', 'm' or 'p') - imbalance, immaterial, immeasurable, immobile, immovable, impassable, impatient, impossible, imperfect

\*ir (this too is a variation of the prefix 'in' which is used before a word beginning with 'r') - irreplaceable, irregular, irresistible, irrational, irrecoverable, irreconcilable, irredeemable, irreducible

non (not) - non-aggressive, non-interference, nonconformist, nonentity, nonsense, nontoxic, non-stop (notregarded as) - non-person, non-event

\* These prefixes also have other meanings in which they can be used in, besides those specified herein.

un (not) - unproductive, unacademic, unselfish, unavoidable, unaware, unbearable, unbroken, unburnt

**Reversative Prefixes** are prefixes that denote the act of undoing the previous act that the root word denotes as being done.

- de\* (reverses the meaning) - decriminalise, dehumidify, deselect, decontaminate
- dis\* (reverses the meaning) - disqualify, dishonest, disinvite
- un\* (reverses the meaning) - untie, unscramble, unlock

**Derivative Prefixes** are those that denote the meaning of removing something or depriving something or someone.

- de (remove something)-debug, defrost
- de (depart from) - deplane, detrain, decamp
- dis (remove something) - disarm, disillusion, disambiguate
- un (remove something) - unleaded, unmark, unhouse, uncap, uncover

**Pejorative Prefixes** are those that express contempt, disapproval, bad or wrong.

- mis (badly/wrongly) - miscalculate, misgovern, misspell, mismanage, misalign, misapply, misbelief

**Place Prefixes** are prefixes that indicate place or placing of things, situation, etc.

- ante (before) - antecedent, antechamber, anteroom
- circum (around) - circumvent, circumnavigate, circumlocution, circumbulate, circumlunar
- cis (on this side) - cisalpine, cisatlantice, cislunar
- extra (outside/beyond) - extracurricular, extrasensory, extraordinary, extraterrestrial
- fore (front/before) - forefinger, forecourt, forearm, forebear, forebrain, forecheck, forefront, foregather
- in, il, im, ir (in) - indoors, in-patient, inside, indebt
- inter (between) - interbreed, interfere, interject, interracial, international, interdisciplinary, internet
- intra (inside/within) - intravenous, intramural, intranet
- intro (inwards) - introvert, introspect
- post (after/behind) - post meridiem (P.M.) postpone, postgraduate, posthoc, postscript
- pre (before)-prearrange, preface, precaution, prefabrication, preamble
- out (outside)-outdoor, out-patient, outhouse
- (surpass)-outrun, outdistance, outbid, outnumber
- over (outer/above)-overthrow, overshadow, overcoat

retro (backwards)-retrograde, retrospection, retrospect  
sub (below)-subway, subsoil, subconscious, submerge  
(secondary)-sub-inspector, sub-editor, sub-committee, subtitle, sublet  
(below the norm)-substandard, subhuman  
super (above)-superstructure, superimpose  
(beyond the norm)-superhuman, superstar, superpower  
(excessive)-superconfident, supersensitive, supernatural  
supra (above)- suprasegmental, supranational  
sur (above)-surcharge, surtitle, surtax  
trans (across)-transatlantic, transnational, transcontinental  
ultra (beyond/extreme)-ultraviolet, ultra-thin, ultra-modern, ultramarine, ultramicroscopic,  
ultrasonic, ultra vires.  
under (below/too little/subordinate)-underground, undercharge, underpay, undercook,  
undersecretary,  
underclass, underrepresent, undersell, undersigned

**Size Prefixes** denote size. They are

mega (very large)-megaphone, megastar, megalith, megawatt  
midi (medium)-midi-computer, midibus  
mini (small)-minibus, miniseries, minicab, minimarket

**Time Prefixes** denote time. They are

ante (before)-antenatal, antedate  
ex (former)-ex-wife, ex-president, ex-student  
fore (before)-forenoon, foresee, foretell, forecast  
neo (new, recent)-neo-conservative, neoplasia, neophyte  
post (after)-post-war, post-modernism, postdate  
pre (before)-prepay, pre-existing, predate, preschool  
re (again)-reprint, reapply, replay, renew

**Number Prefixes** are those that denote number. They are

mono (one/single)-monorail, monochrome, monopoly

uni (one)-unidirectional, unilateral, unicycle, unity  
 bi (twice/double)-bicycle, bilateral, bilingual  
 di (two, twice)-dioxide, dichromatic  
 duo/du (two)-duologue, duplex  
 tri (three)-triangle, triplicate, tripartite  
 quadri/quadr (four)-quadrilateral, quadrangle  
 tetra/tera (four)-tetrachloride, terameter  
 penta/pent (five)-pentagon, pentacle  
 sex (six)-sextant, sextile, sextuple  
 hexa/hex (six)-hexapod, hexagram  
 hepta/hept (seven) heptagon, heptameter  
 octo/oct (eight)-octopus, octuple  
 deca/dec (ten)-decade, decalogue,  
 decinaldeci (a tenth)-decibel, decimal  
 demi (a half)-demigod, demitasse  
 hemi (half)-hemisphere, hemistock  
 semi (half)-semiconductor, semidetached  
 hecto/hect (hundred)-hectogram, hectare  
 kilo (thousand)-kilogram  
 milli (thousand)-millisecond, millipede  
 mega (a thousand)-megahertz, megabuck, megabit  
 poly (many)-polytechnic, polygon

**Status prefixes** are those that denote a status.

co (joint)-copartner, coauthor, cofounder  
 pro (deputy)-proconsul, pro-vice chancellor  
 vice (deputy)-vice president, vice admiral, vice chancellor

**Class Changing Prefixes** have the effect of changing the word class, like making transitive verbs from nouns, adjectives, intensifying force of the verbs used, etc.

be-besiege, bewitch, besmear, bewail, belittle, befoul, beribboned

en/em-encode, endanger, ensure, enlist, enroll, embark, embitter, enrich

**Miscellaneous :** Some of the common prefixes that do not fall into the above categories are

eco (abbreviation of ecology)- eco-friendly, ecosystem

Euro (abbreviation of European)- Eurorail, Eurocurrencies

para (ancillary)- paramilitary, paralegal, paramedic

para (beyond)- paranormal

quasi (like)- quasi-intellectual, quasi-judicial

self- self-motivating, self-denial, self-satisfaction.

### Suffix

It is a morpheme (minimal meaningful language unit) added at the end of a word to form a derivative. In other words an addition to the end of a word to form a derivative of the root word is a suffix.

**Groups of Suffix :** Suffixes fall into the following categories:

- Noun Suffixes – Adjective Suffixes
- Verb Suffixes – Adverb Suffixes

**Noun Suffixes** are as follows:

acy (indicates a quality and state of being)-audacity, capacity

ant (denoting attribution of an action or state)-appellant, informant, arrogant, (denoting an agent)-deodorant, oxidant

al (verbal action)-betrayal, dismissal, deferral

age (denoting an action or its result/function/state or condition/set of place or abode/aggregate number of)leverage, spillage, homage, bondage, baggage, postage, vicarage, mileage

ation/ion (denoting an action or its result)-collaboration, exploration, evolution, exaltation, inhalation, communion, oblivion, objection

cle, cule, ule (indicates small size)-minuscule, particle, molecule, capsuleic-lyric, mechanic

ist (denotes a member of a profession, who uses something, etc.)-dentist, flautist, novelist, atheist

ity (quality/condition/degree of)-responsibility, technicality, publicity, humility

ling (smallness or lesser stature)-duckling, seeding, hireling

ment (means or result of an action)-arrangement, embarrassment, curtailment, bewilderment

ness (a state or condition)-usefulness, carelessness, willingness, kindness, wilderness  
 ship (quality or condition, status, tenure, skill, etc.)-scholarship, companionship, citizenship, workmanship, membership  
 tude (indicates condition or state of being)-exactitude, longitude

**Verb Suffixes** are as follows:

fy/ify (indicates or becoming)-beautify, purify, gratify, electrify, pacify, personify  
 ise, ize (quality, state or function)-capitalise, modernise, popularise, terrorise, expertise

**Adjective Suffixes** - Some of them are as follows:

able/ible (inclined to, capable of, causing)-audible, uncountable, readable, reliable, terrible, peaceable, profitable  
 al/ial (kind of)-tidal, accidental, managerial, musical  
 ed (having, affected by)-cultured, heavy handed, talented  
 ful (having the qualities of)-sorrowful, powerful, careful, resentful, fretful, forgetful  
 ic-Arabic, aristocratic, dramatic  
 less (free from, without)-careless, harmless, restless, flavourless  
 oid (resemblance)-ovoid, humanoid  
 some (a tendency)-meddlesome, awesome  
 y (having quality of/inclined to)-messy, funny, sleepy, choosy

**Adverb Suffixes** : Some of them are as follows:

ly (forms adverbs from adjectives)-amiably, candidly, surprisingly, greatly  
 wise (of manner or respect or direction)-clockwise, notewise, taxwise, anticlockwise.

**Combination Words**

These are word elements or combining forms that can be combined with other words that already exist to form new words. These combining forms have a singular form and a clear and consistent meaning, which is probably because they are of fairly recent origin. Many of them are also technical and therefore their meanings are less susceptible to change. Most combining forms are of Greek or Latin origin. Some of them are:

arch (chief)-archbishop, arch-rival  
 auto (self)-autograph, autopilot  
 bio (life)-bio-diversity, biology, biography  
 crypto (concealed)-crypto-fareast, cryptogram, cryptocrystalline, cryptonym

mal (improper/inadequate/faulty)-malpractice, malnutrition, malpractice, maladminister, maladjusted,  
maladaptive, malfunction, maltreat  
macro (large)-macro-organism, macroeconomics  
micro (small/minute)-micro-organism, micro-computer, microsurgery, microgram, microscope  
mid (middle)-midfield, midair, midway, midsection, mid-afternoon, midwinter, midnight  
tele (at a distance)-telescope, television, telephone, telephoto, telecommunications.

### Punctuations

The marks, such as full stop, comma, inverted commas, hyphen and brackets are used in writing to separate sentences and their elements and to clarify meaning, are called punctuation marks.

The importance of punctuation in writing can be compared to the importance of pause, intonation and emphasis used in the spoken word.

Therefore, one can state that the chief purpose of using punctuation is to make the meaning of a written passage clear. The punctuation marks remove ambiguities, if any.

Punctuation can also serve other purposes such as:

- introducing delicate effects in style.
- altering the flow of a sentence.
- highlighting certain words.
- bringing about modulations in sentence.

Some aspects of punctuations are rule-governed, i.e., those that you have to follow, but usage of some becomes a matter of choice and judgment.

The various punctuations used in the English language are:

- capital letters	- colon	- underline	- space
- full stop	- dash	- quotation marks	- italics
- hyphens	- stroke	- bold emphasis	- apostrophe
- asterisk	- ellipsis	- question mark	- semicolon
- paragraph	- comma	- abbreviations	- numbers
- brackets	- exclamation mark		

### **Uses of Punctuation Marks**

Let us see how some of these punctuation marks are used.

**Space** is the most basic form of punctuation which separates words, sentences, paragraphs and chapters.

Usually one alphabet space is used between words and punctuation, and also after sentences, unless it is the last sentence of a paragraph, when the rest of the space on that line is left blank.

Space of one line or more is left between paragraphs to distinguish them and at times a slight indentation is also used on the first line to distinguish the beginning of a new paragraph.

The amount of spacing used would depend on individual style and taste or a pattern followed in an organisation or the type of writing, e.g., letter, a presentation, a book, etc.

**The Full Stop (.)** also known as a stop, point or period (in American English) is used to end a declarative sentence, a sentence which is not a question or an exclamation.

Full stops are also used to end a request politely framed as a question such as:

Would you kindly fix an appointment with Mr. Sharma.

A full stop may also be used after initials or after a shortened form of a word to indicate an abbreviation.

*For example*

Mr.	Prof.	Etc.
B.A.	Fig.	
a.m.	A.P.J. Abdul Kalam	

However, increasingly the full stop after initials of names is being done away with, though both usages are correct.

A full stop is also used at times to denote abbreviated numerals, such as a date or a number, though at times full stop, slash or hyphen is also used to denote date, such as:

10.11.19, 10-11-19, 10/11/19

However this can be interpreted in two ways as 10th November 2019 by the Britishers and 11th October 2019 by the Americans. Therefore, it is advisable to always write the month and the date in words, e.g. 10th November 2019 or 10 November 2019

Full stop is also used before decimal and between units of money:

10.50 per cent; Rs. 33.50

### Omission of Full Stop

In the following cases the full stop is omitted:

- after addresses that head letters and on the envelopes
- after dates
- after name that ends letters
- after title of books, newspaper headlines, chapter headings, sub-headings, page numbers
- after acronyms which are pronounced as one word. For example:

AIDS (Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome)

GST (Goods and Services Tax)

- in between alphabets of the abbreviations that are a series of letters. For example:

WTO (World Trade Organisation)

GMT (Greenwich Mean Time)

BBC (British Broadcasting Corporation)

- in shortening of words where the first and last alphabets of the word are present.

Mr., Mrs., Dr., Rd., Ltd.

though it is correct to use a period after these words, the general practice today is to omit the full stop.

- space is used for the initials of personal names instead of a full stop.  
A K Singh, D S RAJAN
- abbreviations for measures, chemicals elements, etc. are used without a full stop.  
Kg (Kilogram), s (Second), Hz (Hertz)  
Sq (Square), km (Kilometer), m (minute)  
amp (ampere), O (oxygen), H (Hydrogen)
- If a sentence ends with an exclamation mark, question mark, or an abbreviation that is followed by a period for the abbreviation the full stop is not used.

**Comma(,)** is easily the most important punctuation mark within a sentence. Commas separate or enclose subordinate clauses and phrases in sentences. Its most typical use is to separate two main clauses that are linked by a conjunction. Here the comma mark appears just before the conjunction.

The house was almost in ruins, but the tree studded avenue was lovely.

He is not rich yet he is very generous.

### **Uses of Comma**

Some other uses of comma are as follows:

- To separate main clauses even when they are not linked by a conjunction:

The higher the price, the better the quality of goods.

- Before tags/questions and comments:

You were late for the meeting, weren't you? (tag)

I was just joking, you see. (comment)

- To denote words left out:

Romeo loved Juliet; Majnu, Laila. (Here the comma denotes the word loved.)

- Enclose additional thoughts, qualification or information. Here the commas are used in pairs and they separate parenthetical elements in a sentence.

My son, Ajith, is the head boy of the school.

The movie was, I believe, well picturised.

- To set off direct speech:

To quote Confucius, "He who learns but does not think, is lost. He who thinks but does not learn is in great danger".

- "I'm tired", he replied, "However, I will complete the work before leaving". -

- To set off comparative or contrasting statements.

The more he kept repeating that he did not steal the chain, the less the police believed him.

- To separate adjectives, numbers into units, names, and title or honour, or degree, day, month and year in a date, etc:

- He is a smart, reliable, sincere and hard working student.
- 1,25,000.
- Angelina Thomas, B.A., M.A., Ph.D.
- Shri Ram Nath Kovind, The President of India.

**Hyphen (-)** is used between words to clarify meaning. It also links words to form a compound word.

The use of hyphen varies in different places; therefore there are no complete set of rules that can be applied to the use of hyphen.

Therefore, only some general guidance on use of hyphens is given here. It is advisable to consult

a good dictionary when one is in doubt to find out whether the word to be used should be hyphenated or not. A hyphen is usually used in these cases:

- After a few prefixes or other word elements.  
ex-partner, half-truth, quasi-judicial, semi-government, self-appointed. (We have already read about prefixes).
- Before a few suffixes where the last alphabet of the first word and the first alphabet of the second word are the same, in order to avoid an unattractive sequence.  
Bull-like, get-together, profit-taking, self-financing, water-resistant.
- When the main part of a word begins with a capital letter.  
un-American, neo-Darwinism, neo-Nazism, anti-Indian.
- When the prefix is repeated.  
Sub-subcommittee.
- When a noun and a verb are combined to form a word.  
hand-operated, hand-pick, hand-held.
- When an adjective and a noun are combined to form a word.  
blue-pencil, loose-leaf, long-grained open-air, simple-minded, middle-aged, community-oriented, high-fibre.
- When two adjectives are combined to form a word.  
old-fashioned, short-sighted, red-blooded.
- When compound words express an ‘and’ relation.  
bitter-sweet, deaf-mute, socio-economic, secretary-treasurer.
- When compound numbers between 21-99 are spelt out. This practice is gradually fading.  
fifty-five(55), six hundred and thirty-one(631).
- It is also used to link the starting and ending point of a series.  
The Delhi-Jaipur Highway.
- When a word has to be broken at the end of a line of print or writing.
- To avoid confusion or ambiguity.  
an Indian-history teacher/an Indian history-teacher.
- To prevent confusion between a new formation and a conventional word with the same prefix.  
re-creation (recreation), re-formed (reformed).

**Semi colon (;**) is used to separate two or more independant clauses that are placed together and which are of equal importance in the sentence. The use of semicolon emphasises or adds weight to the second clause.

To err is human; to forgive divine.

Semi colons are also used to:

- join words, group of words, sentences.
- separate word groups that already contain commas:

Those present at the function included Mr. and Mrs. Jain, their children Usha, Amit and Raghu; Paul and Joe Thomas; Raj and Ravi Malhotra; Colonel and Mrs. James, and their children Jyotsna, Julie and James Junior; etc.

- To provide pauses before certain adverbs such as none the less, however, etc.  
He worked very hard; however, he did not succeed in his endeavour.
- To emphasise contrasts:

It is a superb car; however, it is very expensive to maintain.

**Colon (:**) is a punctuation mark that has three major functions:

- to introduce some kind of explanation.

They did not sleep last night: they must be tired.

- To introduce examples.

Today they face another threat to their survival: starvation.

- To introduce quotations or direct speech.

### **Functions of Colon**

Some of the other functions of the colon are:

- To point the reader's attention forward.

This function can be best explained through the words of the grammarian Henry Fowler. He says that the function of a colon is "that of delivering the goods that have been invoiced in the preceding words". Whathe meant by goods here might be a conclusion, summary, a list or a contracting statement.

- To introduce a number of items listed separately.

The conference hall facility has everything: furniture, mikes, amplifier, projector, screen, generator backup, catering, dining hall and even a huge parking lot.

- To present a conclusion.

After sixty years in the business, Mr. Rajan realised that there was only one certainty in life: the inevitability of change.

- To introduce a question.

They all agreed that the essential issue was simply this: Will making an investment in Sweatland Limited be a mistake or not?

- To link contrasting statements.

Man proposes: God disposes.

- To substitute a conjunction.

Another Monday morning: and it is pouring.

- After headings in correspondence.

Subject:

Reference:

- To introduce subtitles.

Credit cards: Power of Plastic; Past Promises: Failure to deliver.

- In bibliographical references, colon can be used after the place of publication.

(Delhi: 2010).

### **An Apostrophe (') is used**

- (i) to denote possession and other kinds of relationship.

This is Walter's book.

- (ii) contractions of words.

It was the court's order.

Isn't (is not) it a great day?

Can't (cannot) you come today?

O'er (over) the hills.

### **Possession and other kinds of relationship**

When apostrophe is used to denote possession and other relationships, the basic rules to remember are:

- The apostrophe comes before the 's' if the noun is singular.

The girl's dresses (dresses belonging to one girl).

- The apostrophe comes after the 's' if the noun is plural.

Girls' dresses (dresses belonging to many girls).

However, possessive personal pronouns ending in 's', e.g. its, ones, theirs, etc. do not take on an apostrophe.

- Indefinite pronouns, except for 'each' take on an apostrophe, anyone's, either's, one's, someone's nobody's, etc., when denoting possession or some relationship.
- In contractions of words, the use of apostrophe is required. Though words are generally contracted in informal writing and speech, it should be avoided in formal writing.
- The apostrophe takes the place of the missing letter or letters.  
is not-isn't (o is the missing letter)

The apostrophe is also found in the contraction of some single words.

- 'of' is sometimes contracted especially in certain phrases:  
will-o'-the-wisp, seven o'clock
- certain words that are in common use:  
ma'am (madam)
- The apostrophe is at times used to denote omission of part of some number:  
the swinging '60s(1960s).

Generally nowadays the use of apostrophe in these cases is omitted.

- To denote certain names especially of Celtic origin:  
O'Connor, O'Sullivan.

It comes from the Irish O'-which means a grandson or descendant.

Mc'Donald.

Here again Mc is the contraction of Mac which means 'son of.'

- It is important to remember that 'its' and 'it's' are differently used.  
'Its' is a personal pronoun and does not need an apostrophe. Whereas 'it's' is a contraction of either 'it is' or 'it has' and therefore it takes an apostrophe.

The child wants its (personal pronouns) toy.

It's (it has) been a wonderful day.

**Quotation Marks (" " / ' ' )** also known as quotes or inverted commas are used to enclose material that is introduced into a text from outside it, such as quotations or words used by other people.

*For example*

The motto of the market was "Let the buyer beware"; now it is "Customer is king."

There are two types of quotation marks single and double.

One can use either single or double quotation marks in enclosing introduced material. However, if you begin the quotation using double quotation marks, you have to close it also with the same and vice versa.

Both quotation marks are used in a single sentence when another quotation is inserted in the main quotation.

*For example*

She asked, “Did he say ‘diseased’ or ‘deceased’?”

Some of the other functions of quotation marks are:

- to enclose cited words or expressions:

What is the difference between an “order” and a “decree”?

- to enclose expressions that the author does not take responsibility for:

In ‘good old days’ the women in this village walked several kilometers to fetch drinking water.

Brackets also known as parentheses are of two kinds:-

- Crescent shaped ()
- Square shaped [ ].

Brackets are used to enclose certain contents, which the writer sets out apart so that the flow of the sentence is not interrupted.

The contents set apart may be in the form of added information, like an explanation, an after thought, a clarification, a comment, an illustration, or an expression of doubt, etc. For all these only round or crescent shaped brackets are used.

A number of (unsuitable) candidates had sent in their applications.

On the basis of their usage, brackets have been divided into three types. They are:

### **Crescent brackets**

Crescent brackets are used in the following:

- to enclose an abbreviation that is be subsequently used in the text, e.g.

The Department of Company Affairs (DCA) issued a circular on the matter.

- to enclose a translation or equivalent expression, e.g.

The agreement was void ab initio (from the beginning).

- to enclose references from other topics in a text, e.g.

*Example*

As depicted in (Fig. 1.1) it is obvious that the process of communication is quite complex.

- To enclose bibliographical references (square brackets can also be sometimes used in such cases).

**Square Brackets** are used to enclose words that are not usually intended to be the part of a sentence, but only as an editorial or authorial interjection. They are also used at times to enclose parentheses within another parentheses.

*For example*

I appreciate it [the honour], but I must refuse.

We have not received [Sic] your letter (editorial interjection).

Sarah and Tanisha [Sarah's sister (as mentioned earlier)], went for a movie.

**Other Brackets** : The other types of brackets are:

\**Brace brackets { }* Example: Select your animal {goat, sheep, cow, horse} and come to the market.

\**Angle brackets < >* Example: I found it on Games.com <<http://www.games.com./>>.

These brackets are used only in specialised texts, mathematics and technical works.

**Summary of Punctuations**

Full Stop	(.)
Comma	(,)
Hyphen	(-)
Semi colon	(;)
Colon	(:)
Apostrophe	(')
Quotation Marks	(" "/ ' ')
Crescent brackets	( )
Square Brackets	[ ]
Brace brackets	{ }
Angle brackets	<>

## Sample Questions

### Exercise

Choose the correct options out of the four choices

1. Give an example pertinent \_\_\_\_\_ the case.
  - (a) with
  - (b) on
  - (c) for
  - (d) to**
2. The reward was not commensurate \_\_\_\_\_ the work done by us.
  - (a) for
  - (b) on
  - (c) with**
  - (d) order
3. Supposedly, digital voice discs, or DVDs as they are called, are \_\_\_\_\_ resistant to scratching  
\_\_\_\_\_ records
  - (a) much / than
  - (b) so / as
  - (c) such / that
  - (d) far more / than**
4. English is today the third \_\_\_\_\_ native language worldwide after Chinese and Hindi, with some 380 million speakers.
  - (a) the most spoken
  - (b) the more spoken
  - (c) most spoken**
  - (d) the least spoken