



MAEG-01

Vardhaman Mahaveer Open University, Kota

English Language Usage & Communication Skills

Course Development Committee

Chairman

Prof. (Dr.) Naresh Dadhich

Vice Chancellor

Vardhaman Mahaveer Open University, Kota

Convenor

Prof. (Dr.) Rajul Bhargava
HOD Dept. of English
Rajasthan University, Jaipur

Coordinator

Dr. Kshamata Chaudhary
Convenor, Dept. of English
VMOU, Kota

Members

- | | | |
|---|--|---|
| 1. Dr. Joya Chakravarty
Associate Professor (English)
University of Rajasthan, Jaipur | 2. Dr. Rajesh Shukla
Lecturer (English)
Govt. College, Dausa | 3. Dr. Suresh Agarwal
Associate Professor (English)
JRNRV University, Udaipur |
| 4. Dr. S.P. Singh
Lecturer (English)
Agarwal P.G. College, Jaipur | 5. Dr. Sarita Bang
Lecturer, Dept. of English
Vedic Kanya PG College, Jaipur | |

Editor and Course Writers

Editor

Dr. Hemendra Chandeliya
Associate Prof. Dept. Of English
Rajasthan Vidhyapeeth, Udaipur

Unit Writer	Unit Number	Unit Writer	Unit Number
1. Dr. Sanjay Arora Lecturer (English) Govt. College, Dausa	(1,2,3,4)	2. Prof. Rajul Bhargava HOD, Dept. of English Univ. of Rajasthan, Jaipur	(7,8,9)
3. Dr. Kshamata Chaudhary Asst. Professor (English) VMOU, Kota	(5,6)	4. Dr. Rajesh Lidiya Sr. Lecturer (English) Raj. Technical University, Kota	(11,12,13)
5. Dr. Sunita Agarwal Asst. Prof. (English) University of Rajasthan, Jaipur	(10)	6. Dr. Suresh Agarwal Associate Prof. (English) JRNRV University, Udaipur	(14,15,16,17)
		7. Dr. Madhulika Nathani Lecturer (English) LBS College, Jaipur	(18)

Course Supervision and Production

Director (Academic)

Prof. (Dr.) Anam Jaitly
Vardhaman Mahaveer Open University, Kota

Director (Material Production & Distribution)

Prof. (Dr.) P.K. Sharma
Vardhaman Mahaveer Open University, Kota

Production: October 2007

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced in any form by mimeograph or any other means, without permission in writing from the V.M. Open University, Kota. Printed and published on behalf of V.M. Open University, Kota by Director (Academic).

Academic and Administrative Arrangement

Prof. (Dr.) Vinay Kumar Phatak Vice-Chancellor Vardhaman Mahaveer Open University, Kota	Prof. Leela Ram Gurjar Director Academic	Prof. Pawan kumar Sharma Director, RSD Vardhaman Mahaveer Open University Kota
---	--	--

Course Production

Yogendra Goyal
Assistant Production Officer
Vardhaman Mahaveer Open University, Kota

Reproduction: December 2013 ISBN.13/978-81-8496-153-9

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced in any form by mimeograph or any other means, without permission in writing form the V.M.Open University, Kota

Printed by. The Pooja Kota - Qty. 2000

**Block I**

Unit I	1-21
<u>Elements of A Sentence</u>	
Unit II	22-42
<u>Basic Verb Patterns</u>	
Unit III	43-63
<u>Phrase Structures</u>	
Unit IV	64-83
<u>Clause Structures</u>	
Unit V	84-102
<u>Concord and Agreement</u>	
Unit VI	103-119
<u>Notions and Concepts</u>	
Unit VII	120-130
<u>Morphology</u>	
Unit VIII	131-150
<u>Troublespots</u>	
Unit IX	151-168
<u>Reading Comprehension</u>	
Unit X	169-180
<u>Listening Comprehension</u>	
Unit XI	181-187
<u>Summerizing and Precis Writing</u>	
Unit XII	188-196
<u>Note Making</u>	
Unit XIII	197-207
<u>Report and Review Writing</u>	
Unit XIV	208-213
<u>Theme Writing and Elaboration</u>	
Unit XV	214-220
<u>Business Communication</u>	
Unit XVI	221-228
<u>Electronic Communication</u>	
Unit XVII	229-233
<u>Non-Verbal Communication</u>	
Unit XVIII	234-245
<u>Research Methodology</u>	

English Language Usage & Communication Skills

Block Introduction

This block has been conceived and produced for the students of M.A. (Previous) who need to study and use English for written and spoken discourse.

The book concentrates on those areas of grammar which these students need to use but often find difficult like word classes, phrases, clauses, tenses, prepositions etc. Grammar rules have been given very sparingly, not in a traditional manner but presented in a contextualised web to make the whole exercise a meaningful and true-to-life activity.

The whole text is oriented in such a way as to raise the students' awareness for language acquisition and practising it in human behaviour, communicatively. There are plenty of examples in meaningful contexts to raise students' curiosity to know about the patterns and rules and in the turn, generate students' involvement, active participation and confidence in mastering this language. Each unit has plenty of varied activities or exercises which have been carefully devised to give focussed oral practice in use of items and arrangements presented.

A separate section titled 'Answers to Exercise' in each unit has been provided and it is given at the end so that the students may practise them on their own, with confidence.

UNIT-1

ELEMENTS OF A SENTENCE

Structure

- 1.0 Objectives
- 1.1 Comprehension of the Language Topic
 - 1.1.1 Study Guide
 - 1.1.2 Elements of a Sentence
 - 1.1.3 Examples
- 1.2 Self Assessment Questions
- 1.3 Answers to SAQs
- 1.4 Let Us Sum Up
- 1.5 Review Questions
- 1.6 Bibliography

1.0 Objectives

In this unit our aim is to make you comprehend the topic elements of a sentence and give some examples to ensure that you start understanding, using and identifying their structure, their syntactic and semantic uses. There are also exhaustive exercises on clauses which will enable you to test and rate yourself after checking your answers and comparing them with those given at the end of the unit.

After completing this unit you should be able to:

- understand what elements are
- distinguish between the syntactic and semantic functions of clause elements
- practice and master the topic elements of a sentence

1.1 Comprehension of the Language Topic

1.1.1 Study Guide

Read the theory of the topic 'Elements of a sentence' given below which is presented through different examples and try to understand it.

After you have read and understood the topic, go through the examples given thereafter and attempt solving the exercises given to test you. You should then check your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

1.1.2 Elements of a Sentence

A sentence is a group of words, usually containing a subject and a verb, which expresses a

statement, order, question, instruction or exclamation.

1. Ajay is trying for a transfer to a convenient place. (Statement)
2. Stop that at once. (Order)
3. Where are you up to? (Question)
4. Never tell a lie. (Instruction)
5. What a beauty! (Exclamation)

A sentence is made up of different words which combine together to form the elements of a sentence. A sentence mainly has five elements, viz,

Subject (S)

Verb (V)

Object (O)

Complement (C)

Adverbial (A)

In a sentence they can be given as:

6. We have considered her clever till now.
 S V O C A

In a simple sentence, the clause elements syntactically defined are as follows:

A Subject

- (a) is normally a noun phrase or a clause with nominal function.
- (b) occurs before the verb phrase in declarative clauses, and immediately after the operator in questions
- (c) has number and person concord, where applicable with the verb phrase, e.g.:

7. Such people dislike talking to strangers.
 S (Plural) V

Noun phrase

8. All such people who are ambitious want a house of their own.
 S (Singular) Clause with nominal function V (Plural)

In place of nouns/ noun phrases we can also use personal pronouns (I, we, he, she, they) in subject position. Not only this, we can also use a prepositional phrase as subject, as:

9. In the hall are twenty students.

which means

10. There are twenty students in the hall.

In orders and instructions, the Subject *you* is implied, so the sentence starts with the infinitive form of the verb (as in 2 above). Interrogatives start with an auxiliary + subject + main verb or Wh- word + auxiliary + subject + (auxiliary) + main verb (as in 3 above). Exclamatory sentences start with an exclamatory word or the whole sentence is in the form of an exclamation (as in 5 above).

B. Verb

- (a) is mainly a finite verb phrase like plays, play, is playing, am playing, are playing, has played, have played, has been playing, have been playing, played, was playing, were playing, had played, had been playing, will play, shall play etc.
- (b) has different types, corresponding to the different types of object and complement. Those sentences which have subject complements [S V C] have intensive verbs and all other sentences [S V O (monotransitive verb), S V Oi Od (ditransitive verb), S V O C, S V O A (complex transitive)] have extensive verbs

C. Object (direct or indirect)

- (a) like a subject, is a noun phrase or clause with nominal function;
- (b) normally follows the subject and the verb phrase
- (c) by the passive transformation, assumes the status of subject

An Indirect Object, where both objects are present, precedes the Direct Object and is semantically equivalent to a prepositional phrase. The Object is very closely connected to the predicate in terms of meaning, and denotes the person or thing most intimately affected by the action or state, etc. denoted by the Verb. Object is a detached entity from the Subject.

D. Complement (subject or object)

- (a) is a noun phrase, an adjective phrase, or a clause with nominal function, having a co-referential relation with the subject (or object);
- (b) follows the subject, verb phrase, and (if one is present) object
- (c) does not become subject through the passive transformation.

The Complement is an attached entity. It can look superficially like an object because both (O and C) can be NPs, but in terms of meaning it provides a definition or characterization of the S or O. Objects and complements normally follow the Verb, eg:

11. She has posted the letter.

S V O

12. This is a miracle.

S V C

Verbs which take complements after them are: go, be, seem, look, feel, become, get, tired, appear, lie, remain, stay, smell, round, taste, turn, run, fall, grow etc.

E. Adverbial

- (a) is an adverb phrase, adverbial clause, noun phrase, or prepositional phrase.
- (b) is generally mobile, i.e. is capable of occurring in more than one position in the clause.
- (c) is generally optional, i.e. may be added to or removed from a sentence without affecting its acceptability, but it can be obligatory adverbial.

Adverbials add extra information of various kinds, ranging from time and location to manner, reason, duration etc. They are optional elements in a clause. They are also quite mobile. They can be used before the subject, after the subject and before the verb, in the middle of the verb phrase, in this manner:

13. Usually, he is free on Sundays.

Adv before the S

14. He often studies till late at night.

Adv after the S and before the V

15. He is always worrying about you.

Between the operator and the main verb

16. They come here every year.

Noun phrase as A

17. Aekta has done her MBA from a very reputed institution.

Prepositional phrase as A

18. They jumped up in excitement when they saw a lion in a circus.

Finite clause as A

19. Sensing danger, he ran away from the site.

Non-finite clause as A

Adverbials have no fixed number. They are more like modifiers in the NP. The common adverbial types are listed in the table below.

Table 1.1

Type of Adverbial	Eliciting question	Example
Time	When?	after some time
Place	Where?	at the meeting
Manner	How?	with a lot of effort
Direction	Where from/to?	from/to Goa
Duration	How long?	since Wednesday

Agency	By whom?	by some of them
Goal	For/two whom?	to his father, for you
Reason	Why?	due to his fault
Degree	How far? How much?	entirely
Condition	In what circumstances?	if they can wait
Conjunct (Sentence Adv) expresses attitude		Consequently, in fact

S V O C A, the five clause elements form the nucleus of a clause as also a sentence. Adverbials and peripheral elements like conjunctions, interjections and vocatives are optional parts of the clause. For example:

20. But, Raj, she must be calling you, dear.

The sentence has the structure [conjunction, interjection, Vocative, SVO and Vocative]. But in this unit we have mostly used a main clause in the declarative mood, in the active voice and with the unmarked (most neutral) word order for the purpose of clarity. In a sentence S and V are always obligatory, but O, C, and A may or may not be obligatory depending on the main verb. For example, in the sentence:

21. She sings songs at musical concerts.

the structure is [SVOA] but [O and A] are optional elements. But in the following sentence:

22. He bought a packet of chocolates.

Where the structure is [SVO], O is not optional, it is obligatory. In the same manner, Adverb is obligatory with only a few verbs such as put, as exceptions to it eg:

23. They have put the books back in the racks.

The most common sentence patterns for English are given below together with examples:

a. [S V]

- i) She misbehaves.
- ii) He is running.
- iii) Bhavya plays.
- iv) Anshika works.
- v) Some children misbehave.

Some verbs used in this pattern are: eat, look, behave, walk, die, work, run, come, sleep, dream etc.

b. [S V O]

- i) She has told me.
- ii) The servants served them.
- iii) All of them have told the truth.

- iv) She is serving them.

Some verbs used in this pattern are tell, serve etc.

c. [S V O]

- i) The doctor has examined the patients.
- ii) He will meet her.
- iii) We all like her.
- iv) The children have understood the problem sums.
- v) I want a glass of water.

Some verbs used in this pattern are: run, dream, eat, behave, look, hit, find, catch, kiss, work, pull etc.

d. [S V Oi Od]

- i) She bought me a book.
- ii) They gifted him a bike.
- iii) We have made him a cup of coffee.
- iv) I have sent her a bouquet

Some verbs used in this pattern are: make, send, give, tell, buy, sell etc.

e. [S V C]

- i) You seem sad.
- ii) She is sharp.
- iii) They are disturbed.
- iv) Priety looks naughty.
- v) My uncle has become negative.

Some verbs used in this pattern are: be, seem, look, become, appear etc.

f. [S V Od C]

- i) They called him Don.
- ii) Abhi considers everybody foolish.
- iii) I will prove you wrong.
- iv) He has made me strong.

Some verbs used in this pattern are: think, call, make, prove etc

g. [S V A]

- i) She is in deep trouble.

- ii) We know in advance.
- iii) You are thinking in the right direction.
- iv) They reside in one of the poshest colonies of the city.
- v) We have been living here for the past thirty years.

Some verbs used in this pattern are: grieve, think, reside, lean, be, stand, live, know, talk, worry etc.

h. [S V Od A]

- i) They have put it on the table.
- ii) She has informed me in advance.
- iii) The police has placed him under suspicion.
- iv) Ajay has kept the keys in the drawer.
- v) We did not worry you at that odd hour.

Some verbs used in this pattern are: inform, keep, put, place, tell, worry etc

Among the verbs cited above and even some others, verbs can occur in more than one pattern, usually with a significant change in meaning. The verb *keep* for example occurs in all the patterns:

- 24. They *keep* talking. [S V Od]
- 25. They have *kept* me. [S V Oi]
- 26. They have *kept* a maid. [S V Od]
- 27. They have *kept* her a maid. [S V Oi Od]
- 28. They *keep* smiling. [S V C]
- 29. They *kept* him informed. [S V O C]
- 30. They *kept* indoors. [S V A]
- 31. They *kept* the pet indoors. [S V O A]

Some complex structures

The verb in a sentence is always a finite or non-finite verb phrase. It can be a complicated non-finite phrase functioning as S, O or A, eg:

- 32. To be (non-finite verb) a good person is difficult.

S

- 33. Cautiously eying the ball, Sachin hit it over the boundary for a six.

A

- 34. Radhika wanted to be (non-finite verb) a student (O) at the university (A)

Od

The subject can be a clause:

35. That God punishes the guilty is a fact.

S

It can be a long complex noun phrase like:

36. The (determiner) new (adjective) book (noun) on (preposition) language (noun) which I gave you last month (relative clause) is out of stock.

S

Some ways of identifying elements

One of the ways of identifying the various clause types is by transforming the sentence. Those clauses which have a noun phrase as object can be converted into passive clauses and the subject appears as an optional by-phrase which in the passive acts as an adverbial eg:

37. Rajesh has invited me.

S O O

38. I have been invited by Rajesh.

S V A

This rule of transformation can also apply on complex transitive sentences, some of which are given below:

39. We considered you wise. (S V O C)

40. You were considered wise by us. (S V_{pass} Cs [A])

41. She must have informed the police by now. (S V O_d A)

42. The police must have been informed by her by now. (S V_{pass} A [A])

43. Radha gave me a valuable piece of advice (S V O_i O_d)

44. I was given a valuable piece of advice by Radha (S V_{pass} O_d [A])

45. A valuable piece of advice was given to me by Radha. (S V_{pass} O_i [A])

A clause/ sentence with a diatransitive verb (SVOO) has two objects and therefore two passive forms, as shown above – one is in which the direct object becomes subject, and another in which the indirect object becomes subject.

There is sometimes equivalence between Types SV, SVC and SVA when the adjective is formed from the verb as is shown below:

SV

SVC_s

46. The dog is sleeping

The dog is asleep.

47. Five rupees will suffice

Five rupees will be sufficient

SV

SVC

48. She slowed down. She went slowly.

S V C_s S V A

49. He is worthless He is without any worth.

Intensive verb relation

A clause with SVOC structure is equivalent to an infinitive or that-clause

They imagined the new boss to be strict

50. They imagined the new boss strict

They imagined that the new boss was strict

This equivalence shows that the O and the C are in the same relation to one another as the S and C of an SVC clause. The relation is expressed by an intensive verb.

The concept of intensive relationship can be extended to the relation of subject to adverbial and object to the adverbial in SVA and SVOA patterns also, eg:

51. I met her in the park. (SVOA)

Here the O is related to the A.

In an SVOO structure we can transform it into an SVOA by substituting a prepositional phrase for the indirect object in the following manner:

52. The Prime Minister has sent CPI a strict message.

53. The Prime Minister has sent a strict message to CPI.

54. The boss has left his PA an urgent message.

55. The boss has left an urgent message for his PA.

Apart from *to* and *for*, other prepositions like *with* and *of* are also occasionally found:

56. She asked me a favour

57. She asked a favour of me.

1.1.3 Examples

I Underline the elements in the following sentences and label them accordingly:

1. That god punishes the guilty is true.

That god punishes the guilty is true.

S V C

2. The moon shines at night.

The moon shines at night.

S V A

3. Why are you late today?
Why are you late today?
 V S C A
4. We like oranges.
We like oranges.
 S V O
5. He got me the house of my choice.
He got me the house of my choice.
 S V Oi Od
6. They have dug a deep ditch at the back of my garden.
They have dug a deep ditch at the back of my garden.
 S V O A
7. The college remained open yesterday.
The college remained open yesterday.
 S V C A
8. They nominated him president.
They nominated him president.
 S V O C
9. The publisher wants this book completed within a month.
The publisher wants this book completed within a month.
 S V O C A
10. That book is interesting.
That book is interesting.
 S V C

II Give five examples of each:

1. clause as subject
 - a) What she does is not my concern now.
 - b) When he reaches here is still uncertain.
 - c) How you overpowered the devil is unbelievable.
 - d) That girls are emotional is true.
 - e) Why he keeps gaping at you is yet to be probed.

2. clause as object
 - a) She does whatever she feels like.
 - b) They call whosoever is available.
 - c) I have attained what you could not.
 - d) They want what their parents deny.
 - e) We play whatever he is comfortable with.
3. clause as complement
 - a) God is where peace prevails.
 - b) They are what they were ten years back.
 - c) I am whatever you call me.
 - d) The book is where it was last night.
 - e) Even in their childhood they were what they are today.
4. noun phrase as complement
 - a) There was a king.
 - b) He is a good samaritan.
 - c) Hemant is a good boy.
 - d) One of the best boys in our neighbourhood is Ravi.
 - e) Mr. Sharma continues the chairman
5. noun phrase as object
 - a) I read novels of adventure.
 - b) We like all such things.
 - c) He has cut the tree.
 - d) They have dug a deep ditch.
 - e) He sells all trash stuff.

III Use the following phrases as subject, object and complement in the blanks below:

1. the girls in the red T-shirts

S: The girls in the red T-shirts are my students.

O: I like the girls in the red T-shirts.

C: Here are the girls in the red T-shirts.
2. The dog in my neighbourhood

S: The dog in my neighbourhood barks rarely.

O: Ravi hates the dog in my neighbourhood.

C: Here is the dog in my neighbourhood.

3. A good excuse

S: A good excuse saves us from a number of botherations.

O: He gave a good excuse.

C: This is a good excuse.

4. A simple sum

S: A simple sum does not take much time to solve.

O: Give me a simple sum.

C: This is a simple sum.

5. A tough fight

S: A tough fight doubles the joy of watching a match.

O: India gave a tough fight.

C: The next match is a tough fight

IV Frame five sentences each on the given pattern:

1. SVO

- a) I like you.
- b) She hates him.
- c) We play chess.
- d) Shyam helps me.
- e) They can drive a car.

2. SVC

- a) I am thirsty.
- b) Dev is my friend.
- c) They are feeling happy.
- d) Aishwarya looks pretty.
- e) It has got dark.

3. SVOIOD

- a) She gave me a good suggestion.
- b) We gifted her a wrist watch.
- c) She has sent her friend a splendid present.

- d) The mother sang the baby a lullaby.
- e) I wrote her a letter.
- 4. SVOC
 - a) He considers himself superior.
 - b) Children called Pandit Nehru Chacha.
 - c) We consider her a genius.
 - d) We made the room a stage.
 - e) They thought him a fool.
- 5. SVOA
 - a) She pushed him out of the room.
 - b) The boys flew kites in the evening.
 - c) Anil has called him in the morning.
 - d) Aekta completed the work in an hour.
 - e) Mauli sang a song at his birthday party.

1.2 Self Assessment Questions

Exercise 1 Underline the elements in the following sentences and label them accordingly:

1. This means that you have got this project.

2. What he did is beyond my power of comprehension.

3. She annoyed me yesterday.

4. We can find the world's best stones in the Jaipur stone market.

5. He is always worrying his parents.

6. Musharraf has almost got trapped in his own net.

7. Aekta is a dynamic person.

8. My aunt is very kind to all.

9. He is living a very tense life these days.

10. We still do not know the name of the chief guest.

11. Everyone considered Diana the most beautiful woman.

12. In anger he slammed the door shut.

13. Very few people admire the poetry of Eliot.

14. I sent my uncle a set of cassettes yesterday through courier.

15. It is getting brighter now.

16. She stitched herself a new suit.

17. Are you happy in such circumstances?

18. It was pleasant in the evening today.

19. Daksh is lost in the thoughts of the past.

20. Radhika has gone quite pale in the past few months.

Exercise 2 Give ten examples of each:

1. noun phrase as subject

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____
- e. _____
- f. _____
- g. _____
- h. _____
- i. _____
- j. _____

2. noun phrase as object

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____
- e. _____
- f. _____
- g. _____
- h. _____
- i. _____
- j. _____

3. noun phrase as complement

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____

- e. _____
- f. _____
- g. _____
- h. _____
- i. _____
- j. _____
- 4. adjective as complement
 - a. _____
 - b. _____
 - c. _____
 - d. _____
 - e. _____
 - f. _____
 - g. _____
 - h. _____
 - i. _____
 - j. _____
- 5. clause as subject
 - a. _____
 - b. _____
 - c. _____
 - d. _____
 - e. _____
 - f. _____
 - g. _____
 - h. _____
 - i. _____
 - j. _____
- 6. clause as object
 - a. _____
 - b. _____

- c. _____
- d. _____
- e. _____
- f. _____
- g. _____
- h. _____
- i. _____
- j. _____

Exercise 3 Use the following phrases as subject, object and complement in the blanks below:

1. an abode of peace

S: _____

O: _____

C: _____

2. a person of tremendous patience

S: _____

O: _____

C: _____

3. a beautiful present

S: _____

O: _____

C: _____

4. an effective marketing strategy

S: _____

O: _____

C: _____

5. a cheap book

S: _____

O: _____

C: _____

Exercise 4 Frame ten sentences each on the given pattern:

1. VO

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____
- e. _____
- f. _____
- g. _____
- h. _____
- i. _____
- j. _____

2. SVA

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____
- e. _____
- f. _____
- g. _____
- h. _____
- i. _____
- j. _____

3. SVO

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____
- e. _____
- f. _____
- g. _____
- h. _____

- i. _____
- j. _____
4. SVC
- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____
- e. _____
- f. _____
- g. _____
- h. _____
- i. _____
- j. _____
5. SVOIOD
- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____
- e. _____
- f. _____
- g. _____
- h. _____
- i. _____
- j. _____

1.3 Answers to SAQs

Exercise 1

1. This means that you have got this project.
S V O
2. What he did is beyond my power of comprehension.
S V A

3. She annoyed me yesterday.
S V O A
4. We can find the world's best stones in the Jaipur stone market.
S V O A
5. He is always worrying his parents.
S V A V O
6. Musharraf has almost got trapped in his own net.
S V A V C A
7. Aekta is a dynamic person.
S V C
8. My aunt is very kind to all.
S V C
9. He is living a very tense life these days.
S V O A
10. We still do not know the name of the chief guest.
S A V O
11. Everyone considered Diana the most beautiful woman.
S V O C
12. In anger he slammed the door shut.
A S V O C
13. Very few people admire the poetry of Eliot.
S V O
14. I sent my uncle a set of cassettes yesterday through courier.
S V Oi Od A A
15. It is getting brighter now.
S V C A
16. She stitched herself a new suit.
S V Oi Od
17. Are you happy in such circumstances?
V S C A

18. It was pleasant in the evening today.
S V C A
19. Daksh is lost in the thoughts of the past.
S V C A
20. Radhika has gone quite pale in the past few months.
S V C A

Exercise 2

1. noun phrase as subject
 - a. The news was quite pleasing
 - b. All the copies of the book have been sold.
 - c. The match lasted three hours.
 - d. The victims of the accident were rushed to the hospital.
 - e. The goods in this shop are cheap.
 - f. The nuclear treaty is under a scanner.
 - g. The boys are working hard.
 - h. My children are busy with their exams.
 - i. The dogs in the street are barking at the monkeys.
 - j. My tenant seems to be a decent person.
2. noun phrase as object
 - a. I have written the letter.
 - b. The birds have built their nests.
 - c. She is cooking a Chinese dish.
 - d. He has written a rhyming poem.
 - e. We met the secretary yesterday.
 - f. She has a lot of confidence.
 - g. They have planned the whole thing.
 - h. I have never seen such a dull programme.
 - i. Every person has some secrets.
 - j. We have invited all our friends.
3. noun phrase as complement
 - a. Dr Tolani is a famous urologist.

- b. You look a perfect teacher.
- c. Every person considers you a balanced person.
- d. He proved us our friend.
- e. Dev calls her Ursula.
- f. Dilip is a gem of a person.
- g. People call Gandhi Bapu.
- h. His son is a reporter.
- i. My uncle is a bank manager.
- j. I am an admirer of beauty.

4. adjective as complement

- a. She is happy.
- b. They are sad.
- c. We are puzzled.
- d. Shyam was confused.
- e. The painter painted the door red.
- f. We hammered the box open.
- g. They seem confident.
- h. Sangita is intelligent.
- i. Your explanation sounds crazy.
- j. All the students are attentive.

5. clause as subject

- a. The house we are living in is very lucky.
- b. The dog that you sold last month has died.
- c. All those who come here go back satisfied.
- d. Those that bark seldom bite.
- e. The gang that struck in the colony last night is notorious.
- f. Candidates who come here for exam are given refreshment after the exam.
- g. The present that I bought for you is not too expensive.
- h. Those who come here never go disappointed.
- i. The business that he started last year has picked up speed this year.
- j. The thief who pulled your chain is behind bars.

6. clause as object
- a. I know the boy who has topped the merit list.
 - b. We appreciated those who work honestly.
 - c. Hari has returned the book he borrowed from me last week.
 - d. They have understood the problem which you were trying to explain.
 - e. She met Sanjiv who was your classmate once.
 - f. I recognize the person who came here in the morning.
 - g. Bring me the book which is lying on the table.
 - h. She has completed the poem which she was writing last night.
 - i. She understands the problems that you are facing these days.
 - j. He gave me the same seat which I asked for.

Exercise 3

- 1. an abode of peace
 - S: An abode of peace is always one's home.
 - O: He wants an abode of peace.
 - C: Home is an abode of peace.
- 2. a person of tremendous patience
 - S: A person of tremendous patience can never be defeated.
 - O: I met a person of tremendous patience yesterday.
 - C: Joginder is a person of tremendous patience.
- 3. a beautiful present
 - S: A beautiful present can easily please the most annoyed ones even.
 - O: She gave me a beautiful present.
 - C: It is a beautiful present.
- 4. an effective marketing strategy
 - S: An effective marketing strategy always wins customers satisfaction.
 - O: The agent explained him an effective marketing strategy.
 - C: This is an effective marketing strategy.
- 5. a cheap book
 - S: A cheap book at times is better than an expensive one.

O: I want a cheap book.

C: This is a cheap book.

Exercise 4

1. VO

- a. Unload the truck
- b. Stop this nonsense.
- c. Play your natural game.
- d. Sing the best of your songs.
- e. Understand the problem.
- f. Fulfil your promise.
- g. Turn the table.
- h. Write the letter.
- i. Call all of them.
- j. Invite the major parties.

2. SVA

- a. The sun rises in the east.
- b. The sun sets in the west.
- c. The earth moves round the sun.
- d. He is sleeping on the sofa.
- e. The book is lying on the table.
- f. He stood on the table.
- g. She married at an early age.
- h. Much water has flowed down the Ganges since then.
- i. He is in his room.
- j. They are on top of the world.

3. SVO

- a. The doctor has examined all the patients.
- b. I like it.
- c. We play cricket.
- d. She drinks Vodka.
- e. They don't like coffee.

- f. Anshika likes detective stories.
- g. Nobody has informed us.
- h. They have shut the door.
- i. We have decided it.
- j. She has convinced them.

4. SVC

- a. It seems a pity.
- b. The candle burnt low.
- c. It looks like summer.
- d. He remained unmarried.
- e. He became a doctor.
- f. He has turned mad.
- g. The situation has gone worse.
- h. He appears a dolt.
- i. He got angry.
- j. My dream has come true.

5. SVOiOd

- a. Ram gave me a book.
- b. He wrote me a letter.
- c. I owe him my success.
- d. He bought me a pen.
- e. I asked a question of him.
- f. He bought me a transistor.
- g. He got me a job.
- h. He found me a house.
- i. He left me a fat bank balance.
- j. She made me tea.

1.4 Let Us Sum Up

In this unit we have given you practice in

- i) identifying elements of a sentence

- ii) using the elements in the proper sequence in sentences

1.5 Review Questions

1. Define the give elements of a sentence giving examples.
2. Distinguish between a phrase and a clause with examples.

1.6 Bibliography

1. Leech, Geoffrey et al. English Grammar for Today. London: Macmullan Education Ltd, 1989.
2. Sinclair, John. Collins Cobuild English Grammar. New Delhi: Indus, 1993.
3. Quirk, Randolph and Greenbaum, Sidney. A University Grammar of English. Essex: Longman Group UK Ltd, 1990.

UNIT-2

BASIC VERB PATTERNS

Structure

- 2.0 Objectives
- 2.1 Comprehension of the Language Topic
 - 2.1.1 Study Guide
 - 2.1.2 Basic Verb Patterns
 - 2.1.3 Examples
- 2.2 Self Assessment Questions
- 2.3 Answers to SAQs
- 2.4 Let Us Sum Up
- 2.5 Review Questions
- 2.6 Bibliography

2.0 Objectives

In this unit our aim is to make you comprehend the topic (i) basic verb patterns (ii) give some examples and ensure that you start using and identifying them. There are also exhaustive exercises on basic verb patterns which will enable you to test and rate yourself after checking your answers and comparing them with those given at the end of the unit.

After completing this unit you should be able to:

- understand what basic verb patterns are
- distinguish between different verb patterns which seem to be similar
- practice and master the topic of basic verb patterns

2.1 Comprehension of the Language Topic

2.1.1 Study Guide

Read the theory of the topic 'Basic verb patterns given below which is presented through different examples and try to understand it.

After you have read and understood the topic, go through the examples given thereafter and attempt solving the exercises given to test you. You should then check your answers with those given by us at the end of the unit.

2.1.2 Basic Verb Patterns

Verbs can be divided as finites and non-finites. Finite verbs are limited by change of

person and number whereas non-finites remain unaffected by any such change. The non-finites are the infinitive, the present and past participles and the gerund. The non-finites of the verb take are: (to) take, (to) have taken, taking, and taken, and the finite forms are take, took and taken. Apart from this there are also auxiliaries (helping verbs) which also include modal auxiliaries. These auxiliaries when used in their finite form are termed as anomalous finite. Verbs like must, will, shall, can, may and ought which do not have any infinitive and participle form are called defective verbs. Those verbs which do not have the suffix ed for the past and the past participle form (e.g. drink, drank, drunk) are called irregular verbs. These verbs have different functions but they do not form a part of the present discussion So we now move on to basic verb patterns.

There is a list of verb patterns provided below which is on the basis of those revised patterns cited by AS Hornby in *Guide to Patterns and Usage*. Though the total number of patterns are 53 (as the sub-divisions are conveyed through A, B, C, D etc) yet broadly there are 25 verb patterns which will form a part of our present discussion.

Patterns 1 to 5 are intransitive verb patterns and those from 6 to 25 are transitive verb patterns

Abbreviations used : S — subject; vi = intransitive verb; vt transitive verb; Od direct object; Oi indirect object

[VP1]	S + BE + subject complement adjunct
[VP2A]	S + vi
[VP2B]	S + vi + (for) adverbial adjunct
[VP2C]	S + vi + adverbial adjunct
[VP2D]	S + vi + adjective/noun/pronoun
[VP2E]	S + vi + present participle
IVP3A]	S + vi + preposition + noun + pronoun
[VP3B]	S + vi + preposition (+it) + clause
[VP4A]	S + vi + to-infinitive
[VP4B]	S + SEEM/APPEAR + (to be) + adjective/noun
[VP4C]	S + SEEM/APPEAR + to-infinitive
[VP4D]	S + BE + to-infinitive
[VP5]	S + anomalous finite + infinitive
[VP6A]	S + vt + noun/pronoun
[VP6B]	S + Vt + gerund
[VP6C]	S + Vt + gerund
[VP6E]	S + NEED/WANT/BEAR + gerund (passive meaning)
[VP7A]	S + Vt + (not) + to-infinitive

[VP7B]	S + HAVE/UGHT + (not) + to-infinitive
[VP8]	S + vi + interrogative pronoun/adverb + to-infinitive
[VP9]	S + vt ± that-clause
[VP10]	S + vt + dependent clause/question
[VP11]	S + vt + noun/pronoun + that-clause
[VP12A]	S + vt + noun/pronoun (Oi) + noun/pronoun (Od)
[VP13A]	S + Vt + noun/pronoun (Od) + to + noun/pronoun
[VP13B]	S + Vt + noun/pronoun (Od) for + noun/pronoun
[VP 14]	S + Vt + noun/pronoun (Od) + preposition + noun/pronoun
[VP15A]	S + Vt + noun/pronoun (Od) + adverbial phrase
[VP15B]	S + Vt + noun/pronoun (Od) + adverbial particle
[VP15C]	S + Vt + adverbial particle + noun/pronoun (Od)
[VP16A]	S + Vt + noun/pronoun (Od) + to-infinitive
[VP16B]	S + Vt + noun/pronoun (Od) + as/like/as if + noun/clause
[VP17A]	S + Vt + noun/pronoun + (not) + to-infinitive
[VP17B]	S + Vt + noun/pronoun + (not) + to-infinitive
[VP18A]	S + Vt + noun/pronoun + infinitive
[VP18B]	S + HAVE + noun/pronoun + infinitive
[VP19A]	S + vt + noun/pronoun + present participle
[VP19B]	S + Vt + noun/pronoun + possessive + -ing form of the verb
[VP20]	S + Vt + noun/pronoun + interrogative + to-infinitive
[VP21]	S + Vt + noun/pronoun + dependent clause-question
[VP22]	S + Vt + noun/pronoun (Od) + adjective
[VP23A]	S + Vt + noun/pronoun (Od) + noun (object complement)
[VP23B]	S + Vt + noun/pronoun (Qi) + noun (subject complement)
[VP24A]	S + Vt + noun/pronoun (Od) + past participle
[VP24B]	S + HAVE + noun/pronoun (Od) + past participle
[VP24C]	S + HAVE/GET + noun/pronoun (d o) + past participle
[VP25]	S + vt + noun/pronoun (Od) + (to be) + adjective/ioun

Verb Patterns from 1 to 5 have the use of intransitive verbs (vi), i.e. such verbs that do not take an object.

Verb Pattern 1

The pattern below mainly uses the verb 'be'. The predicate may be a noun, a pronoun, a possessive, an adjective, an adverb or adverbial phrase, a prepositional group, an infinitive or infinitive phrase, or a clause. The pattern varies with introductory 'there' and 'it.'

The table gives examples in which the predicate (or the Cs) is a noun or pronoun (including the gerund), and, in questions, interrogative pronouns.

Table 1

subject + be	noun/pronoun
1. That is	a mobile
2 Her house is	a palace
3 The boys were	twelve
4 Radhika is	about the height of Aishwarya
5 This is	yours
interrogative	be + subject
6 Who	is this?
7 What colour	is your car?
8 What age	is your father?

The next table gives examples in which the predicate (or Cs) is an adjective. The adjective may be participle

Table 2

subject + be	adjective (phrase)
1 She was	sad.
2 It was	cloudy
3 We were	elated
4 Pritie is	cute

In the table below there are prepositional groups which are equivalents to adjective

Table 3

subject + be	prepositional groups
1. My mother is	in a bad mood.
2 Old people's memory is	at fault (faulty).
3 The athlete was	out of breath (= breathless).
4 You all are	at liberty (= free).
5 The question of reservation is	of great importance (important)

In table 4 below there is an adverbial adjunct (those words which are in some way integrated into the meaning of the sentence) as predicate.

Table 4

subject + be	adverbial adjunct
1 They were	there
2 She is	here
3 The guests are	in the hall
4 The list is	out.
5 Your time is	over

This table illustrates the verb 'be' with introductory 'there' without a complement. Compare VP2A. in which there is no complement (c g Fishes swim). Instead of 'No wind was' we have 'There was no wind.'

Table 5

there + be	subject
1 There was	a loud noise..
2 There will be	a lot of time.
3 There's	no doubt about it.
4 There was	every reason for him to be satisfied.
5 There are still	a lot many things to celebrate.
6 There can be	very little doubt about his guilt
7 There can't have been	much traffic so late at night.

This table illustrates the use of 'be' with introductory 'there' and an adverbial adjunct.

Table 6

There + be	subject	adverbial adjunct
1. There are	some students	in the classroom.
2 There was	a bang	early morning.
3 There is	some hope	in this world.

Construction with introductory 'it' is preferred when the subject is an infinitive, or an infinitive phrase.

Table 7

It +be	adjective /noun	to-infinitive (phrase)
1. It's	so difficult	to convince mothers.

2	It is	a pity	to be in such a condition
3	It would be	a great blunder	to take such a decision

This sentences in Table 7 have been converted into exclamatory style with how and what. It is (was, etc) is optional.

Table 8

	how/what	Adjective/noun	(it+BE)	to-infinitive (phrase)
1	How	beautiful	(it is)	to be in such a pleasant land!
2	What	a surprise	(it was)	to see her after such a long time!

When the subject is a gerund or a gerundial phrase Introductory 'it' is used.

Table 9

	It + BE	adjective /noun	gerund (phrase)
1	It's	a pleasure	talking to her.
2	It's	no good	expecting mercy from such stone hearted people.
3	It was	wonderful	bathing in the rain.

Table 10

The subject complement of the sentence may be a clause.

	subject + be	clause
1.	The problem is	(that) all the employees in the accounts are corrupt.
2	Is that	what you were asking for?
3	Things were	as we had expected.

Introductory 'it' is used when a clause is the subject of a sentence. The examples have nouns and adjectives as the nominal parts of the predicate.

Table 11

	It + be	noun/adjective	clause
1	It was	a pity	(that) she couldn't score well
2	It has been	a long time	(that) we met her.
3	It's	strange	that you are behaving like this..

The verb 'be' may be followed by an infinitive or an infinitive phrase (active or passive) as the nominal part of the predicate.

Table 12

	subject + be	to-infinitive (phrase)
1	You are	to inform us.

- 2 His purpose was to discourage me.
- 3 Who is to account for the losses?

We use Introductory 'it' when the subject is for + noun/pronoun + to-infinitive construction.

Table 13

	it + be	adjective/noun	for+noun/pronoun	to-infinitive (phrase)
1.	It was	difficult	for us	to convince the teacher
2	It is	quite easy	for an ordinary man	to meet the CM.
3	It was	unusual	for a woman	to take up the job of a driver.

Verb Pattern 2

In this pattern we basically talk about verbs which may be used without a complement or adjunct.

But in the table below, there are no adjuncts in the sentences, they are optional.

Table 14

	subject	vi
1	She	was weeping.
2	The stars	shine.
3	The boat	sank.

When the subject is a long noun phrase, there is inversion of subject and finite verb after introductory there.

Table 15

	there + vi	Subject
1	There followed	a period of unrest in Pakistan after Nawaz Sharif
2	There comes	a time when we have to surrender before God.
3	There went	the plane in thr air.

Introductory 'it' is used when the subject is a clause or an infinitive phrase.

Table 16

	it + vi	Subject (clause/to-infinitive phrase)
1.	How does it matter	who begins first.
2	It does not matter	whether you take it or leave it.
3	It only remains	to see you married.

With introductory 'it' that-clause occurs after seem, appear, happen, chance and follow. It seems/seemed/appears appear may have end position or mid position.

Table 17

	it + vi	Subject (that-clause)
1	It seems	(that) the house is deserted.
2	It appears	(that) he has been scolded.
3	It so happened	(that) she fell in love with her teacher.

In the table below, the verb is used with an adverbial adjunct of distance, duration, weight, price, etc.

Table 18

	subject + vi	(for) + adverbial adjunct
1	We have come	a long way.
2	She jumped	three metres
3	The rain lasted	six hours

Table 19 provides examples of intransitive verbs used with adverbial adjuncts, including adverbial clauses.

Table 19

	subject + vi	adverbial adjunct
1	Get	out
2	Please squeeze	in
3	They were playing	in the garden

Verbs with an adjective as complement or predicative of result are used in this pattern.

Table 20

	subject + vi	adjective
1	You are going	going pale.
2	Don't get	disheartened.
3	The milk has turned	sour.

In this pattern we have the use of the verbs of senses (smell, taste, feel).

Table 21

	subject + vi	adjective
1	You seem	happy
2	This dish smells	obnoxious
3	The curd tasted	sour
4	Nutan kept	quiet

5 The pet broke loose

The sentences in this table mark the use of past participles as adjectives.

Table 22

subject + vi	adjectival past participle
1 She seemed	excited.
2 Radha seemed	disturbed
3 My mother appeared	annoyed .

The inchoative verbs ‘fall’, ‘become’ and ‘turn’ are used in the pattern below, where the predicate is a noun or a reflexive pronoun..

Table 23

subject + vi	noun/reflective pronoun
1 He died	a spendthrift.
2 She hurt	herself.
3 After doing his masters he became	an IAS

In this table there is use of present participle (phrases) as predicative adjuncts.

Table 24

subject + vi	present participle (phrase)
1 The bowler came	running to the wicket
2 The baby came	weeping to his mother
3 They lay	commenting on the passersby.

Verb Pattern 3

In this pattern we will discuss verbs which are used with prepositions and combined together they form a unit. Such verbs are called prepositional verbs. The verb ‘failed’ for example is used with ‘in.’ Likewise ‘send’ is used with the preposition ‘for.’ In the table below, the preposition is followed by a noun, a pronoun. or a gerund.

Table 25

subject + vi	preposition	noun & pronoun/gerund
1 We can depend	on	her
2 You must look	for	somebody sensible
3 They failed	in	convincing the American delegation

The pattern above can even be extended. An infinitive complement can also follow the noun or pronoun.

Table 26

	subject + vi	preposition	noun/pronoun	to-infinitive (phrase)
1	They sent	for	a servant	to receive the guests.
2	Children longed	for	the rain	to set in.
3	Radhika pleaded	with	me	to talk to her for a while.

In some cases a that-clause may substitute the preposition in the pattern above and the pattern could be somewhat like this:

Table 27

	subject + vi	(preposition)	(+it)clause
1	The visitor	complained	that the room was too small.
2	The government is worried	(about)	how the Left will react to the bill
3	He hesitated	(about)	whether to confess his love or not.

Verb Pattern 4

Intransitive verbs are also used with at infinitive

The infinitive in the table below is one of purpose, outcome, or result.

Table 28

	Subject+vi	to-infinitive (phrase)
1	All of them ran	to congratulate me.
2	My grandmother hoped	to see me married
3	I need	to know her.
4	Anshika hesitated	to tell me the truth.
5	Hinglish has come	to stay

When the subject is an infinitive or gerundial phrase, a clause, etc. we use introductory 'it' which is used with 'seem' and 'appear.'

Table 29

	It + seems/appears	adjective/noun	to-infinitive (phrase)/ gerund (phrase)/ clause
1	It seems	difficult	to get it cancelled
2	It seems	easy	to convince them
3	It seems	wise	to be silent

The verbs seem, appear, happen and chance can be used with a to-infinitive with regular subjects even.

Table 30

subject + seem/appear/happen/chance	to infinitive (phrase)
1 Anshika seems	to be drawing a scenery
2 Anshoo appears	to be watching TV.
3 Khushboo appears	to have grown taller.

The finite form of 'be' is used with a 'to-infinitive' to indicate an arrangement either by agreement or as the result of a request or an order.

Table 31

subject + be	to-infinitive (phrase)
1. The new mall is	to be exclusively for women's wear.
2 Am I	to follow the policy of tit-for-tat ?
3 They are	to pay me in advance

Verb Pattern 5

In this pattern the finite verbs are will/would/shall/should can/could; may/might, must, dare, need and do/does/did for the interrogative and negative forms and the emphatic affirmative. The phrases had better, had/would/rather and would sooner are also used in this pattern.

Table 32

subject + anomalous finite	infinitive (phrase)
1 She can	write to the higher authorities
2 They may	complain now
3 You had better	take leave

The patterns that now follow are for transitive verbs (Vt).

Verb Pattern 6

In this pattern the verb has a noun or pronoun, or a gerund as direct object.

Table 33

subject + vt	noun/pronoun/gerund
1 They all blamed	me
2 The patient ate	very little
3 Her cold response shocked	me
4 Behave	yourself
5 The instructor nodded	approval

6	Shyam loves	spending on clothes
7	The machine needs	oiling

Verb Pattern 7

The verb in this pattern is followed by a 'to-infinitive' which may be preceded by 'not.'

Table 34

	subject + vt.	(not) + to-infinitive (phrase)
1	They prefer	(not) to tell the patient his problem.
2	The doctor agreed	(not) to tell the patient his problem.
3	I hope	to arrive soon.
4	I do not intend	to return.

Verb Pattern 8

In this pattern the object of the verb is an interrogative pronoun or adverb, followed by a 'to-infinitive'

Table 35

	subject + vi.	Interrogative pronoun/adverb + to-infinitive (phrase)
1	You must understand	how to tackle your clients.
2	None of them knows	where to find him.
3	We cannot think	what to gift her

Verb Pattern 9

In this pattern 'that-clause' is the object of the verb which is often omitted after verbs like, wish, hope, think, expect and believe.

	subject + Vt.	that-clause
1	She supposed	(that) I would agree.
2	I wish	I had asked her.
3	I suggest	(that) we maintain our cool.

Verb Pattern 10

In this pattern a dependent clause or question, introduced by a relative pronoun or adverb (what or whether), is the object of the verb.

Table 37

	Subject+vt	dependent clause/question
1	They know	whom they should approach.
2	I wonder	why she turned so cold towards Abhi.

3 Such tactics show how clever he is.

The patterns from here are of transitive verbs used with a complement or with an indirect object.

Verb Pattern II

The verb in this pattern is followed by a noun or pronoun and a ‘that-clause.’

Table 38

subject + vt	noun/pronoun	that-clause
1 He told	us	that the road was blocked.
2 We reminded	him	that he had to get the tickets.
3 She has assured	us	that she will help us.

Verb Pattern 12

In this pattern verbs are followed by a noun or pronoun as the indirect object and the direct object. The indirect object is animate.

Table 39

subject + vt	noun/pronoun	noun/pronoun (phrase) (Od)
1 Have you given	him	his book?
2 She lent	me	her mobile.
3 We wished	him	luck.
4 Is he going to tell	me	something?
5 She gave	me	her consent.
6 Give	him	a chance.
7 She saved	me	the botheration of going there

Verb Pattern 13

In this pattern verbs are followed by a noun or pronoun and a prepositional group with ‘to’ or ‘for.’ The object of the preposition is animate.

Table 40

subject + Vt	noun/pronoun (DO)	to/for + noun/pronoun (phrase)
1 They gave	the bag of money	to the police.
2 Keki read	his poems	to the gathering.
3 They gave	the prize	to the most undeserving.
4 Could you save	some money	for us?
5 He has brought	the book	for you.

Verb Pattern 14

In this pattern the verb is followed by the direct object (a noun or a pronoun) and a prepositional phrase. Here the object of the preposition cannot be replaced by an indirect object. Also the prepositional phrase in this pattern is variable. It may be a phrase indicating position or direction or there may be an adverb such as there, here, up etc

Table 41

subject + Vt	noun/pronoun (Od) + preposition + noun/pronoun (phrase)	
1 She congratulated	me	on my success.
2 They blamed	him	for their failure.
3 Such discouraging one		from participating in
attitude prevents		academic activities.

In the pattern below in table 42, the prepositional phrases precede the direct object which is a that-clause/noun phrase.

Table 42

subject + vt	Preposition+ noun/pronoun	Noun phrase/clause (Od)
1 He said	to himself	that he needed peace of mind
2 She explained	to me	the reason of her inability to take my call.
3 Some people spend	on clothes	much more than they spend on books.

This table gives examples with introductory 'it,' and dependent clause, an infinitive phrase. etc as the direct object.

Table 43

Subject + vt	it	Preposition + to-infinitive phrase./ that-noun/pronoun clause etc.
1 They must leave	it to us	to decide the price.
2 I brought	it to his notice	that I was too occupied to take up the assignment
3 She did not take	it upon her	to arrange for the cinema tickets.

Verb Pattern 15

The verbs in this pattern are used with an adverb or an adverbial phrase. The adverbials (prepositional phrases) are freely formed.

Table 44

subject+vt	noun/pronoun (Od)	adverb (phrase)
1 We found	the baby	in the study.

- 2 Never put them into this mess.
- 3 Please ask Navin to put these chairs in the lawn.

In this table (Table 45) prepositions that are used as adverbial particles are taken towards the end.

Table 45

subject + vt	noun/pronoun (Od)	adverbial particle
1 Put	the fan	off
2 The mob pulled	the structure	down
3 Throw	these old utensils	away

The adverbial particle may precede the direct object when this object is a noun or a short noun phrase.

Table 46

subject + vt	adverbial particle	noun/pronoun (Od)
1 Put	off	the fan.
2 The mob pulled	down	the structure.
3 Throw	away	these old utensils.

The adverbial particle normally precedes the direct object and it is long.

Table 47

subject + vt	adverbial particle	noun/pronoun (Od)
1 The Municipal Authorities have cleared	away	all the rubble that was lying on the road
2 Bring	in	the chairs that are lying out in the garden
3 She has put	on	that green T-shirt that you bought for her yesterday

Verb Pattern 16

In this pattern the direct object is followed by an adverbial adjunct. In the table below (Table 48), this adjunct is a to-infinitive phrase, an adjunct of purpose or intended result

Table 48

subject + Vt	noun/pronoun (Od)	to-infinitive (phrase)
1 Radhika brought	her fiancé	to meet me.
2 We are starting	a journal	to give all writers a platform.
3 They hosted	a party	to celebrate their achievement

The direct object in the pattern below is followed by like, as, for, or a clause introduced by ‘as’ though or ‘as if’

Table 49

	Subject+vt	noun/pronoun (Od)	as/like/for + noun phrase/clause
1	We have kept	him	as our adviser.
2	Amitabh began	his career	as an executive.
3	Arrange	the books	as she is doing.

Verb Pattern 17

The verb in this pattern is followed by a noun or pronoun and a to-infinitive where a passive conversion is possible.

Table 50

	subject+vt	noun/pronoun	(not) + to-infinitive (phrase)
1	She led	him	to believe that she did not love him.
2	I persuaded	them	to stay back.
3	They asked	me	not to switch on the TV.

The conversions to the passive are as follows:

- 1 He was led to believe that she did not love him.
- 2 They were persuaded by me to stay back.
- 3 I was asked not to put on the TV.

Table 51

	subject + vt	noun/pronoun	(not) + to-infinitive (phrase)
1	They don't want	anyone	to know about the reality.
2	I like	my children	to behave respectfully to all.
3	She helped	me	to complete the entries.

Verb Pattern 18

The verb in this pattern is used with a noun or pronoun and a bare infinitive. A to-infinitive is used in passive constructions

Table 52

	Subject + vt	noun/pronoun/gerund	Infinitive (phrase)
1	I saw	him	post the letter
2	We have heard	her	sing.
3	They felt	the earth	sink.

4	I've seen	her	lose her temper.
5	She makes	anchoring	look like child's play.

In this pattern 'have' is used when it means 'wish', 'experience' or 'cause'

Table 53

	Subject + have	noun/pronoun	Infinitive (phrase)
1	He had	me	repaint the door.
2	I had	her	write it again.
3	They like to have	the children	do all the work.

Verb Pattern 19

The verb in this pattern is followed by a noun or pronoun and the —ing form of a verb together forming the direct object.

Table 54

	Subject + vt	noun/pronoun	present participle (phrase)
1	I saw	her	waving at me.
2	We can smell	something	burning.
3	I felt	his heart	beating fast.
4	I found	Bhavya	playing with Rakesh.
5	They saw	them	kissing each other.
6	Mrs Bhargava's call sent	me	rushing to Titu.
7	India has	Osama's threat	hanging over it.
8	We'll have	you all	speaking English within a year
9	She can't have	you	suffering this way.
10	I can't bear	him	wasting money in this way
11	We cannot imagine	anybody	being so selfish.

Verb Pattern 20

The verbs in this pattern are followed by a noun or pronoun, and an interrogative pronoun or adverb, or 'whether,' before a 'to-infinitive.'

Table 55

	Subject + vt	noun/pronoun	interrogative + to infinitive (phrase)
1	Kindly ask	him	how to unlock the door.
2	Could you suggest	me	what to gift her on her birthday?
3	They told	us	where to find good books.

Verb Pattern 21

In this pattern the interrogative introduces a dependent clause or question in place of the infinitive phrase.

Table 56

	Subject + vt	noun/pronoun	dependent clause/question
1	He told	me	what his intentions were.
2	I have informed	them	how much it costs.
3	Ask	them	when they will return home

Verb Pattern 22

The verb in this pattern is used with a noun, pronoun or gerund followed by an adjective that indicates result or manner.

Table 57

	Subject+ vt	noun/pronoun/gerund (Od)	adjective/noun
1	Radha has proved	me	correct.
2	Have I made	it	clear?
3	Some girls have dyed	their hair	brown.

Verb Pattern 23

The noun or pronoun following the verb in this pattern has either an object complement (Co), as is evident in Table 56 or a subject complement (Cs), as in Table 57, in the form of a noun or a noun phrase.

Table 58

	Subject + vt	noun/pronoun/gerund (Od)	Noun (phrase) (object complement)
1	We appointed	Sunil	Secretary of the Society.
2	The explorers found	India	a prosperous land.
3	Your presence has made	the show	a success.

Table 59

	Subject+vt	noun/pronoun (Oi)	noun (phrase) (subject complement)
1	Your presence will make	him	a better performer.
2	Ash will make	Abhi	a lucky partner.

Verb Pattern 24

The verbs in this pattern are followed by a noun or pronoun and a past participle.

Table 60

Subject + vt	noun/pronoun/gerund (Od)	past participle (phrase)
1 They will see	you	sacked.
2 We want	the house	painted by the weekend.
3 She found	herself	trapped in a net.

In this pattern 'have' is used to indicate what the subject of the sentence experiences or undergoes.

Table 61

Subject + have	noun/ pronoun/gerund (Od)	past participle (phrase)
1. We have	no patience	left.
2 They had	my bag	prepared.
3 The policeman	had my licence	checked.

'have' and 'get' are used in the table below as causative verbs to mean 'cause to be'.

Table 62

Subject + have/get	noun/pronoun/gerund (Od)	past participle (phrase)
1 She got	the letter	typed.
2 They have got	the papers	examined.

Verb Pattern 25

The verbs used in this pattern mostly indicate an opinion, judgment, belief, supposition, declaration or mental perception. They are followed by a noun or pronoun, 'to be' and an adjective or a noun sometimes to be is omitted.

Table 63

Subject + vt	noun/pronoun (Od)	(to be) + adjective/noun (phrase)
1 We knew	him	to be disloyal.
2 Tom declared	himself	to be the leader of the group.
3 I consider	Radhe	to be the most sensible of all.

Introductory 'it' is used, if instead of a noun or pronoun, the direct object is an infinitive, a gerundial phrase or a that-clause, or the construction for/of + noun/pronoun + to-infinitive.

Table 64

Subject + vt	it	adjective/noun clause/phrase
1 Do people consider	it strange	that she is braving all odds.

- 2 The Americans think it odd that India has backed out of the nuclear treaty.
- 3 Don't you think it foolish to ask for the hike after you've agreed on that amount?
-

2.1.3 Examples

I Point out the verb pattern in the sentences given below:

1. She was not familiar with that.
Ans. Subject + be + adjective phrase
2. There are some mistakes in this article.
Ans. There + be + subject + adverbial adjunct.
3. It does not mean that he is wrong.
Ans. It + vi + subject (that-clause)
4. It looks like summer.
Ans. Subject + Vi + adverbial adjunct
5. She fell a victim of his greed.
Ans. Subject + vi + noun phrase
6. The burglar failed in his first attempt.
Ans. Subject + vi + preposition + noun phrase
7. He has come to seek my help.
Ans. Subject + vi + to-infinitive phrase
8. They have done it.
Ans. Subject + vt + pronoun
9. He knows whom to contact
Ans. Subject + Vt + interrogative pronoun + to-infinitive phrase
10. I know who you are.
Ans. Subject + vt + dependent clause/question
11. Has she given you your book?
Ans. Subject + vt + pronoun (Oi) + noun (Od)
12. Fate has played a trick on him.
Ans. Subject + vt + noun (Od) + preposition - noun/pronoun
13. She opened the cage to let the parrots fly a ay.

Ans. Subject + vt + noun (Od) + to-infinitive phrase

14. I heard her weep.

Ans. Subject + vt + pronoun + infinitive phrase

15. Will she tell me when to talk to her.

Ans. Subject + vt + noun/pronoun + interrogative + to-infinitive phrase

II Frame one sentence on each pattern given below:

1. Subject + vt + noun/pronoun/gerund (Od) + adjective

Ans. Speak it loud.

2. Subject + vt + noun/pronoun (Od) + noun phrase (Co)

Ans. They have elected me their leader.

3. Subject + vt + noun/pronoun (Od) + past participle phrase

Ans. They want all the units completed.

4. Subject + vt + noun/pronoun (Od) + (to be) + adjective/noun (phrase)

Ans. Musharraf declared himself the President of Pakistan.

5. Subject + vt + noun/pronoun + dependent clause/question

Ans. Show me what you have made.

6. Subject + vt + noun/pronoun + interrogative + to-infinitive (phrase)

Ans. Tell me how to find the missing books.

7. Subject + vt + noun/pronoun + present participle (phrase)

Ans. We saw them being taken away hurriedly.

8. Subject + vt + noun/pronoun + infinitive (phrase)

Ans. We heard him speak.

9. Subject + vt + noun/pronoun + (not) + to-infinitive (phrase)

Ans. She warned me not to tread that risky path.

10. Subject + be + noun/pronoun

Ans. Those are oranges.

11. Subject+vi

Ans. It was drizzling.

12. Subject + vi + preposition + noun/pronoun + to-infinitive (phrase)

Ans. She wished for me to be relaxed.

13. Subject + vi + to-infinitive (phrase)

Ans. She stopped to take rest.

14. Subject + anomalous finite + infinitive (phrase)

Ans. She may need your help.

15. Subject + vt + noun/pronoun

Ans. The children had great fun.

2.2 Self Assessment Questions

Exercise 1

Point out the verb pattern in the sentences given below:

1 She was a great poet.

2 How nice it is to bask in the sun.

3 It matters when they begin the work.

4 The jacket is wearing thin.

5 Dhoni came running to meet the bowler.

6 Virendra has advertised for a tutor to teach his son.

7. He seems to be indifferent.

8 I prefer to wake up early.

9. I suppose he will help me.

10. She told me that she was drunk.

11. Send my poems to Poetry Review.

12 Kindly keep your mobile in your bag.

13 I like my wife to dress soberly.

14 We saw him hurrying away to college.

15. Show me where you threw the coin.

Exercise 2

Frame one sentence on each pattern given below:

1. Subject + Vt + noun/pronoun/gerund (Od) + adjective

2. Subject + Vt + noun/pronoun (Od) + noun phrase (Co)

3. Subject + Vt + noun/pronoun (Od) + past participle phrase.

4. Subject + vt + noun/pronoun (Od) + (to be) + adjective/noun (phrase)

5. Subject + Vt + noun/pronoun + dependent clause/question

6. Subject + Vt + noun/pronoun + interrogative + to-infinitive (phrase)

7. Subject + Vt + noun/pronoun + present participle (phrase)

8. Subject + Vt + noun/pronoun + infinitive (phrase)

9. Subject vt + noun/pronoun + (not) + to-infinitive (phrase)

10. Subject + be + noun/pronoun

11. Subject + vi

12. Subject + vi + preposition + noun/pronoun + to-infinitive (phrase)

13. Subject + vi + to-infinitive (phrase)

14. Subject + anomalous finite + infinitive (phrase)

15. Subject + vt + noun/pronoun

2.3 Answers to SAQs

Ex.1

1. S+be+Sub complement.
2. How/What+adj./noun+(it+be) + to infinitive.
3. It + Vi + sub (clause/to-infinitive)
4. Sub + Vi + Adjective.
5. Sub + Vi + Present Participle.
6. Sub + Vi + preposition + noun/pronoun + To-infinitive.
7. Sub + seem/appear + to-infinitive.
8. Sub + Vi + to-infinitive.
9. Sub + Vt + that-clause.
10. Sub + Vt + noun/pronoun + that-clause.
11. Sub + Vt + noun/pronoun(DO) +to/for + noun/pronoun (phrase)
12. Sub + Vt + noun/pronoun (DO) + adverb (phrase)
13. Sub + Vt + noun/pronoun + to infinitive (phrase)
14. Sub + Vt + noun/pronoun + present participle (phrase)
15. Sub + Vt + noun/pronoun + dependent clause (question)

Ex.2

1. I found him guilty.
2. They named the child Abhishek.
3. I found the chair broken.
4. They found the candidate to be intelligent.
5. He showed her how clever he was.

6. The teacher taught her how to solve the sum.
7. I found him sleeping under a tree.
8. I want you to know everything.
9. The gardener told them not to pluck the flowers.
10. He is the chairman.
11. Birds fly.
12. The situation calls for an expert to resolve the issue.
13. He came to conquer.
14. He had to reach on time.
15. She wrote a letter.

2.4 Let Us Sum Up

In this unit we have given you practice in

- i) Identifying the basic verb patterns
- ii) Bringing in variety in your writing by using various verb patterns in our own sentences

2.5 Review Questions

1. Write any five verb patterns having intransitive verbs giving examples.
2. Write one verb pattern each having gerund, present participle, past participle to infinitive, bare infinitive giving examples.

2.6 Bibliography

1. Hornby, AS. Guide to Patterns and Usage in English. New Delhi: Oxford University Press, 2005.
2. Bhatnagar RP and Bhargava. Rajul. An Approach to University Level English. Jaipur, Jain Pustak Mandir, 1991

UNIT-3

PHRASES STRUCTURE

Structure

- 3.0 Objectives
- 3.1 Comprehension of the Language Topic
 - 3.1.1 Study Guide
 - 3.1.2 Phrases Structure
 - 3.1.3 Examples
- 3.2 Self Assessment Questions
- 3.3 Answers to SAQs
- 3.4 Let Us Sum Up
- 3.5 Review Questions
- 3.6 Bibliography

3.0 Objectives

In this unit our aim is to make you comprehend the topic (i) phrases (ii) give some examples of the same separately and ensure that you start using and identifying them. There are also exhaustive exercises on phrases which will enable you to test and rate yourself after checking your answers and comparing them with those given at the end of the unit.

After completing this unit you should be able to:

- understand what phrases are
- distinguish between some phrases which seem to be similar
- practice and master the topic of phrases

3.1 Comprehension of the Language Topic

3.1.1 Study Guide

Read the explanation of the topic 'Phrases' given below which is presented through different examples and try to understand it.

After you have read and understood the topic, go through the examples given thereafter and attempt solving the exercises given to test you. You should then check your answers with those given by us at the end of the unit.

3.1.2 Phrases

A phrase is a group of words forming a descriptive expression and a particular meaning,

forming a part of a sentence. A phrase can have two function classes, viz. the head word (H) and the modifier (M). Modifiers can come before or after the head word. Those that come before are called premodifiers and those coming after as postmodifiers. Some such examples have been given below:

Table 3.1

Phrase type	Premodifier (Pr M)	Head word (H)	Postmodifier (Po M)
Noun phrase	his such quaint the the	house ideas house log	next door afloat
Adjective phrase	more much more extremely	happy stable wealthy beautiful	
Adverb phrase	very too	then slowly quickly	

Modifiers are optional but the head word is a compulsory element. Unlike the noun phrase, adjective phrase and the adverb phrase, the verb phrases do not have any modifiers. Rather they have the auxiliaries used before them in different tenses, eg:

Table 3.2

Phrase type	Auxiliaries	Main Verb
Verb phrase	is has has been	am playing done styding

Apart from the verb phrases, we can even have prepositional phrases, which mainly act as noun phrases. In such phrases, there is a preposition at the initial position, eg

Table 3.3

Phrase type	Preposition	Modifiers	Head word
Prepositional phrase	on in after in within	a short some the a few	time span years bush minutes

Prepositions and determiners play an important role in phrase formation.

Classes of phrase

Noun phrases, adjective phrases and adverb phrases are identical in the sense that they have the same basic structure of pre and post modifiers and the head word. The number of modifiers is not fixed. There can be one or more than one modifier, eg

- 1 the girls
- 2 all the girls
- 3 all the girls standing in the corner
- 4 some of those girls in the red dress

Of the remaining three types of phrase, both prepositional phrase and genitive phrase (showing possession) can be considered a part of the noun phrase, eg

5. the chamber of the attorney general
PrM H PoM (prepositional phrase)
6. the attorney general's chamber
PrM H
(genitive phrase)

The difference between the two phrases is that the preposition is added to the front of the prepositional phrase, whereas the genitive marker ('s) is added to the end of the genitive phrase.

The verb phrase has a rather different structure from those of other phrases, and has a significant role in the clause.

Main phrase

A main phrase is that which is not a part of another phrase and is a direct constituent of a clause, eg

- 7 He came in the morning.
Main phrase
8. All that stuff is trash.
Main phrase

Subordinate phrase

Subordinate phrases are those which are part of other phrases. When a unit contains as its elements units of the same, or of a higher rank and it is not directly divisible into units of the next lower rank, it is called subordinate phrase. This allows us to increase the complexity in a sentence, eg

9. (The house) (of the mayor) ...

Main P Subordinate P

In the example above, *The house of the mayor* is a phrase and it contains another phrase *of the mayor* as a postmodifier within it. We can represent these cases of subordination in terms of bracketing as follows:

10. [(The mayor's house) (must be) (in the city)].

Wherever we have two sets of round brackets like these, one within the other, the inner brackets enclose a subordinate phrase. In case of a main phrase, the round brackets are placed immediately within the square brackets of the clause.

All that stuff in the example above is here functioning as the subject. It is therefore a main phrase. We can tell this at a glance, because the round brackets are immediately within the square brackets of the clause. In simple bracketing notation, the main and subordinate phrases can be indicated through brackets in the following manner:

Main phrase Subordinate phrase

[...(Ph)...] (...(Ph)...)

A subordinate phrase, is always, directly or indirectly a part of a main phrase.

Here, *of the mayor* is a subordinate phrase and *the house of the mayor* is the main phrase which includes it.

The complexity in the phrase can be increased by adding further subordinate phrases and so on.

11. (his article (on History of Advertising (from the 14th century)))

12. (my review (of his article (on Advertising History (from the 14th century))))

This network of phrases is one of the chief sources of complexity in noun phrases in grammar.

Noun phrases and related phrase classes

Similar to words, phrases can be classified according to their function and form. In a phrase composed of head and modifiers, premodifiers are usually single words and postmodifiers are usually phrases or clauses although, the genitive phrase is an important exception.

The noun phrases (NP)

Noun phrases can **function** as subject, as object or as complement and sometimes even as adverbials in a clause, in the following manner.

13. I like that style.

NP as Object

14. All art films have a serious message.

NP as Subject

NP as Object

15. He must be the lucky one.

NP as Complement

16. She returned late last night.

NP as Adverbial

Subordinate NPs can also modify other NPs in this manner:

17. Amitabh, the actor

Head Modifier

18. Khushwant, the critic

Head Modifier

19. seasoned campaigner, Javed Jaffery

Modifier Head Modifier

The examples above are cases of apposition, as one NP is defined by another.

The **structures** of NPs are diversified. Here are some of the main elements:

The **head word in a noun phrase** can be:

- i) a pronoun, eg
he, she, it, myself, someone, everyone etc
- ii) a noun, eg
Abhishek, table, honesty, liquid, dog etc
- iii) an adjective, eg
the rich, the poor, the needy etc
- iv) a genitive phrase, eg
Reliance's, Amit's etc
- v) an enumerator, eg
all twenty, all sixteen etc

The **premodifiers of an NP** can be:

- i) nouns, eg
country wine, a gold necklace, a tennis ball etc
- ii) adjectives, eg
pleasant day, black trousers, beautiful clothes etc
- iii) determiners, eg
that pen, this morning, such excuses, much hue and cry etc
- iv) genitive phrases, eg

everybody's concern, Anshika's Abacus, Bhavya's bag etc

- v) adverbs (mainly in initial position), eg

quite a few, quite a fortune etc

Apart from these, there are some miscellaneous type of premodifiers, that are not being dealt with here for the purpose of maintaining clarity on the explanation given above and to avoid confusion.

The following can act as **postmodifiers in an NP**:

- i) relative clauses, eg

the book which I bought last year, the person who gave us this information etc

- ii) prepositional phrases, eg

the worst period of my life, the best part of the day etc

- iii) adverbs, eg

the furore within, the boy outside etc

- iv) adjectives, eg

something important, something sinister etc

- v) NP in apposition, eg

Mumbai, the city of dreams; Sachin, the power battery etc

In premodification there is no limit to the length of the NPs.

Pronoun (pn) and determiners (d)

Pronouns and determiners belong to those closed word classes in the NP which have the same subdivisions.

Pronouns function as Head (H)

- i) Personal pronoun: I, we, you, he, she, it, they, me, us, them, myself, yourself, himself, herself, etc.

- ii) Demonstrative pronouns: this, that, these, those eg This is my house.

- iii) Quantifier pronouns:

(a)General: all, some, any, none, several etc.

(b)Compound: everybody, someone, anything, nobody etc.

(c)Gradable: many, much, more, most, few, fewer, little, least, etc.

- iv) Wh- pronouns: who, whom, whose, what, which, whichever, etc.

Determiners function as Modifiers (M)

- i) Article: the, a/an

- ii) Demonstrative determiners: this, that, these, those etc eg This house is mine.
- iii) Quantifier determiners:
 - (a) General: all, some, any, no, every, etc.
 - (b) Gradable: many, much, most, more, fewer, few, little, least etc
- iv) Wh- Determiners: what, which, whatever, whichever.

Although the demonstratives and the gradable quantifiers are the same for both pronouns and determiners yet they shall be treated as separate word classes. The difference is that words from these classes which function as heads are pronouns, and those which function as modifiers are determiners. The only exception to this rule is that possessive adjectives (my, your, their, whose, etc.) occur as modifiers, as in my book, your father etc. But these are cases of subordination where the possessive adjectives acts as head of a genitive phrase:

Your house is far away from here.

Prepositional phrases (PP)

The **function of prepositional phrase** in the clause is that of adverbial (A)

20. By next week they will have arrived in America.

Adverbial (when)

Adverbial (where)

21. The guide explained all the details in a nice manner.

Adverbial (how)

To put it briefly, an adverbial may be an answer to when, where or how, ie it tells us about time, place or manner of action. In most of the cases prepositional phrases act as postmodifiers.

Prepositional phrases have exactly the same structures as NPs, with the only difference that they are introduced by a preposition. Normally prepositions are inseparable from the head (and modifiers) which follow them. There are, however, various circumstances in which a preposition can be separated from its following NP.

We can here compare the following phrases:

22. pencils with which you need to write your answers

23. pencils which you need to write your answers with

In 22 *with which* is a prepositional phrase, but in 23 the preposition has been shifted at the end of the clause, and the pronoun *which* which follows it in 22 has turned itself into a separate NP.

Prepositions may separate themselves from NPs and used in idioms like look at, look for, approve of, deal with, etc. We may compare two apparently similar sentences:

24. I live in a poor part of the city

Where?

25. Radha indulges in wild parties.

Indulge in what?

In 24 the PP clearly has an adverbial function but in 25 *in* seems more closely connected with indulges, because of which *indulges in* can be almost regarded as an idiomatic verb compound. Thus while the clause structure of 24 is S V A, that of 25 might be transcribed as S V O, the preposition being a part of the verb phrase.

Idioms like look at, care for, indulge in, etc. are sometimes called prepositional verbs, and the NPs which follow them prepositional objects. Likewise, phrasal verbs are also very common but the prepositions in these act more like adverb and not as prepositions.

The genitive phrase (GP)

GPs function either as premodifiers (PrM) or as heads (H) in NPs, eg:

Ram's house, at Christie's

PrM H

The **structure of GPs** is just like NPs except that they end with the particle 's ('). Some possessive pronouns are irregular, as they function as GPs, but do not end in 's – e.g. my, mine, his her etc.

The adjective phrase and the adverb phrases

Compared with NPs, AdjPs and AvPs have a simple structure. Although they too consist of premodifier (PrM), head word (H) and postmodifier (PoM). In practice they often consist of only one head, and it is unusual for them to have more than one premodifier and one postmodifier. Their use has already been discussed with examples above.

The adjective phrase (AjP)

AdjPs function as complement (C) in a clause.

26. I would like to have something hot.

Postmodifier of NP

27. We met someone special that day.

Postmodifier of NP

AdjPs can function as premodifiers in NPs as:

28. It is a very difficult question.

Premodifier of NP

In terms of structure, the head of an adjective phrase is an adjective, which may be simple (tall), comparative (taller), or superlative (tallest).

Premodifiers of adjectives are always adverbs. Some of the most common ones are adverbs of degree (*extremely, rather, too, very*). Some adverbs, especially *very* and *too*, can be reduplicated (very very very heavy) to heighten the effect. Postmodifiers can be either adverbs (indeed, enough) or prepositional phrases:

Good enough, very beautiful indeed, rather too difficult

At times certain kind of clauses act as postmodifiers: wiser [than we imagined], too cold [for me to move out] etc.

The adverb phrase (AvP)

AdvPs function as adverbials (A) in the clause.

In structure, the head of an adverb phrase is an adverb (Adv.). Otherwise the structure of AdvPs is the same as that of AdjPs.

Premodifiers of adjectives are always adverbs. Some of the most common ones are adverbs of degree (*extremely, rather, too, very*). Some adverbs, especially *very* and *too*, can be reduplicated (very very very quickly) to heighten the effect. Postmodifiers can be either adverbs (indeed) or prepositional phrases:

slowly indeed

The verb phrase (VP)

The **VP** always **functions** as predicator (P) in the clause. Here we are only concerned with finite clauses, and the finite verb phrase.

The **structures of the VP** in terms of the main verb (*Mv*) and auxiliaries (*Aux.*). The auxiliaries are optional, and precede the main verb. At the most general level the structure of the VP is: {Aux} {Aux} {Aux} {Aux} Mv, eg *will have been being beaten*. In practice one can distinguish sixteen different kinds of VP, and four different functions performed by the auxiliaries themselves

We have replaced the general label Aux by some more specific function labels: *Mod, Perf, Prog and Pass*. *Mod* is always filled by one of the modals (m). *Perf* is always filled by the primary verb *be*; similarly, the *Pass* position is always filled either by a full verb (V), or by one of the primary verbs (*be, have, do*). the structures of the VP has been explained in more details as {*Mod*} {*Perf*} {*Prog*} {*Pass*} Mv) in table 3.4 below

The elements of the VP can only occur in a strict order; for example, *could have done* and *had been sleeping* are grammatical combinations but disturbing this order will distort the VP and become ungrammatical. Each auxiliary determines the form of the verb which follows it, e.g. *has manipulated* is acceptable, but *has manipulating* is not. The description of verb forms will make it clearer.

Table 3.4

Subject Verb (Predicate)

NP VP

M	H	Modality	Perfect	Progressive	Passive	Main	
d	N	Mod	Aspect	Aspect	Voice	verb	
		m	Perf	Prog	Pass	Mv	
			hv	be	be	V	

the baby	might	had	was	was	drank	1
					drink	2
					drunk	3
					drinking	4
	might	have	be	was	drunk	5
					drunk	6
					drinking	7
	might	had	been	be	drunk	8
					drinking	9
	might	had		been	drunk	10
			was	being	drunk	11
		have	been		drinking	12
		have		been	drunk	13
			be	being	drunk	14
		had	been	being	drunk	15
		have	been	being	drunk	16

Verb forms

While discussing about verb forms, it is important to make a distinction here between finite and non-finite forms. In the finite verb phrase, the first word is always a finite verb form. Finite verbs are those that are limited by change of person and number, eg

29. He plays cricket.

30. They play cricket.

31. We are playing chess.

32. She is playing chess.

33. I am playing chess.

This change in verb due to change of person and number is what limits the verbs because of which it has to change. On the other hand, those verbs which do not undergo any change in their form and remain unaffected by change of person or number are termed as non-finite verbs, eg

34. I want to sing.

35. She wants to sing.

36. They wanted to sing.

Here, despite the change in the finite verb, the non-finite verb *to sing*, remains unaffected. Table 2.5 below clearly states the difference between finite and no-finite forms:

Table 3.5

		Finite Forms			Non-finite forms		
		Tense			Infinitive	Particiklples	
		Present		Past		Past	Present
		3rd person singh Vs	Other Vo	Ved	Vi	Ven	Ving
Full Verb	Regular	plays	play	played	play	played	playing
	Irregular	sings	sing	sang	sing	sung	singing
		sees	see	saw	sees	seen	seeing
		takes	take	took	take	taken	taking
Operator verbs	Primary verbs	does	do	did	do	done	doing
	(do, hv., be)	has is	have a/are	had was/ were	have be	had been	having being
	Modals (m)	can may (must)		could might (used to)			

The operator do

The role of the auxiliary *do* is very important and for this reason needs to be discussed in detail. In most of the sentences which have an operator, the negative sentence or the interrogative can be formed using the same auxiliary in the following manner:

37. She can sing.

38. She can not sing. (She can't sing)

39. She is singing.

40. She is not singing. (She isn't singing)

41. It has been sung.

42. It has not been sung. (It hasn't been sung)

To form the negative, we simply add the particle not (or its contracted form n't) after the first word of the VP, which is a finite operator. But in the following cases we cannot do so:

43. She sang.

44. She sings.

There is no operator-verb in these sentences. It is here that we need the dummy operator *do*:

45. She did not sing.

46. She does not sing.

In certain other cases, the verb *be* acts as an operator even when it functions as a *Mv*.

Radhika is my friend.

Radhika is not my friend.

This rule applies, in some varieties of English, to have as main verb:

She hasn't any feelings.

But people frequently use the operator *do* in such cases nowadays:

She doesn't have any feelings.

To sum up we can say that the formal structures of the phrase type are six in number, viz:

1. Noun phrases
2. Prepositional phrases
3. Genitive phrases
4. Adjective phrases
5. Adverb phrases
6. Verb phrases

3.1.3 Examples

I Underline the phrases in the following sentences and point out the phrase type:

1. Some of my friend from Delhi are coming to meet me.

<u>Some of my friends from Delhi</u>	<u>are coming</u>	<u>to meet</u> me.
NP	VP	Infinitive

2. Such people do not have any morals.

<u>Such people</u>	<u>do not have</u>	<u>any morals</u> .
NP	VP	NP

3. The department of English in the UOR has a very good name.

<u>The department of English in the UOR</u>	<u>has</u>	<u>a very good name</u> .
NP	VP	NP

<u>All of them</u>	<u>are going</u>	<u>to the States</u>	<u>next week.</u>
NP	VP	AdvP	NP as Adv

My mother would rather be at home.

NP VP AdvP

They will get back their books very soon.
VP NP AdvP

This exercise is a waste of time and energy.
NP NP

<u>Only very selected few</u> know	<u>the mysteries of the universe.</u>
NP	NP

All his brothers are in the administrative services.

NP PrepP

Some girls like to flirt.
NP Infinitive

Sania Mirza will make it to the top ten.
NP VP PreP

One of my friends is busy on the phone most of the time.

NP PrepP Advp

<u>The government</u>	<u>is planning</u>	<u>to open up</u>	<u>the security sector</u>	<u>for the</u>
NP	VP	Infinitive	NP	Prep P
private players.				

14. The very first lash of rains in the city left it completely flooded.

The very first lash of rains in the city left it completely flooded.

NP

AdjP

15. All the guests will leave by this weekend.

All the guests will leave by this weekend.

NP

VP

PrepP

II Give five examples of each:

1. Noun phrases

- a) a handsome package
- b) a beautiful handbag
- c) that thick bulky dictionary
- d) some of these books
- e) the same old tricks

2. Prepositional phrases

- a) in a few seconds
- b) within half an hour
- c) after some time
- d) before sun set
- e) among the chosen few

3. Genitive phrases

- a) Raj's office
- b) Anil's house
- c) Mr Sharma's car
- d) Vikas' style
- e) Daksh's fame

4. Adjective phrases

- a) very big
- b) too heavy
- c) very happy
- d) rather impossible
- e) extremely difficult

5. Adverb phrases

- a) very quickly
- b) too cleverly
- c) very nicely
- d) more comfortably
- e) very often

6. Verb phrases

- a) has done
- b) is playing
- c) have been waiting
- d) was singing
- e) might have forgotten

III Point out the subordinate and main verb phrases in the sentences below:

1. Jack and Jill went up the hill.

Main phrase(s): Jack and Jill, up the hill

Subordinate phrase(s): Nil

2. They fetched a pail of water.

Main phrase(s): a pail of water

Subordinate phrase(s): Nil

3. Jack broke his crown.

Main phrase(s): his crown

Subordinate phrase(s): Nil

4. The children enjoyed the fall.

Main phrase(s): the children, the fall

Subordinate phrase(s): Nil

5. The blazing sun is gone.

Main phrase(s): the blazing sun

Subordinate phrase(s): Nil

6. The stars high up show their dim light.

Main phrase(s): the stars high up, their dim light

Subordinate phrase(s): high up

7. The sight is very pleasing.

Main phrase(s): the sight, very pleasing

Subordinate phrase(s): Nil

8. The boys over there are feeling very helpless.

Main phrase(s): the boys over there, very helpless

Subordinate phrase(s): over there

IV Use the following noun phrases (NPs) as subject, object and complement in the blanks below:

1. an ugly person

S: An ugly person is not liked by anybody

O: I met an ugly person yesterday

C: He is an ugly person

2. a quick decision

S: A quick decision sometimes pays.

O: She took a quick decision.

C: That is a quick decision

3. a good teacher

S: A good teacher never gets irritated at student's mistakes.

O: I got a good teacher to guide me.

C: He is a good teacher.

4. a true account

S: A true account is essential in this case.

O: Give me a true account.

C: This is a true account

5. a systematic development

S: A systematic development reflects proper planning.

O: The city underwent a systematic development.

C: We can consider it a systematic development.

V Exercise 5

Supply the blanks in the sentences given below with a suitable phrase:

1. They are inviting _____

They are inviting all their friends.

2. She always wears _____

She always wears branded items.

3. They have posted _____

They have posted all the letters.

4. _____ are in business.

All my friends are in business.

5. We might ask them _____

We might ask them to help us in our need.

3.2 Self Assessment Questions

Exercise 1

Underline the phrases in the following sentences and point out the phrase type:

1. Some of my colleagues are waiting to meet you.

2. Some actors are very arrogant.

3. The Tata group of industries observes all business ethics.

4. Many of us are leaving for the concert.

5. Most of the girls like gaudy colours.

6. They will get back their books very soon.

7. Within a few hours he will be flying to New York.

8. Animals in the zoo are given all kinds of facilities.

9. She came out emotionally charged after the movie.

10. Mayawati has started her shenanigans once again.

11. Shy students sit at the back.

12. All the visitors appreciated the paintings in the gallery.

13. Incomplete lines at times convey complete meaning.

14. Life in a foreign land is entirely different.

15. The nymphs have departed this dry unholy land.

Exercise 2

Give five examples of each:

1. Noun phrases

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____
- e. _____

2. Prepositional phrases

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____
- e. _____

3. Genitive phrases

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____
- e. _____

4. Adjective phrases

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____

- d. _____
- e. _____

5. Adverb phrases

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____
- e. _____

6. Verb phrases

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____
- e. _____

Exercise 3

Point out the subordinate and main verb phrases in the sentences below:

1. The boy in that room is a fresher

Main phrase(s):

Subordinate phrase(s):

2. The girl with a pup in her hand was my student once.

Main phrase(s):

Subordinate phrase(s):

3. Most of the employees in this mall are graduates.

Main phrase(s):

Subordinate phrase(s):

4. Manmohan Singh's meeting with George Bush in New York is very significant.

Main phrase(s):

Subordinate phrase(s):

5. All those meetings of the committee in the afternoon last month proved futile.

Main phrase(s):

Subordinate phrase(s):

6. I have got fed up of my hectic social life in Jaipur

Main phrase(s):

Subordinate phrase(s):

7. Such a sight is very rare.

Main phrase(s):

Subordinate phrase(s):

8. He is a father of six children with a criminal record.

Main phrase(s):

Subordinate phrase(s):

Exercise 4

Supply the blanks in the sentences given below with a suitable phrase:

1. We are spending _____
2. He uses _____
3. You should take care of _____
4. My uncle would often work _____
5. They might have a look _____
6. You should learn _____
7. There must be _____
8. _____ must not be removed from the reading room.
9. Start _____
10. They're throwing _____
11. Raj jumped _____

Exercise 5

Use the following noun phrases (NPs) as subject, object and complement in the blanks below:

1. an honest person

2. a beautiful girl

3. an ordinary piece of glass

4. some of the best things in the world

5. a handsome salary package

6. a healthy baby

7. an understanding mother

8. an old house

9. a quick look

10. the best in the film industry

3.3 Answers to SAQs

Exercise 1

- | | | | | |
|-----|-------------------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. | <u>Some of my colleagues,</u> | <u>are coming</u> | <u>to meet</u> | you. |
| | NP | VP | Non-finite VP | |
| 2. | <u>Some actors</u> | <u>are</u> | <u>very arrogant.</u> | |
| | NP | VP | AdjP | |
| 3. | <u>The Tata group of industries</u> | <u>observes</u> | <u>all business ethics.</u> | |
| | NP | VP | NP | |
| 4. | <u>Many of us</u> | <u>are leaving</u> | <u>for the concert.</u> | |
| | NP | VP | PrepP | |
| 5. | <u>Most of the girls</u> | <u>like</u> | <u>gaudy colours.</u> | |
| | NP | VP | NP | |
| 6. | <u>They will get back</u> | <u>their books</u> | <u>very soon.</u> | |
| | VP | NP | AdvP | |
| 7. | <u>Within a few hours</u> | he | <u>will be flying</u> | <u>to New York.</u> |
| | PrepP | | VP | PrepP |
| 8. | <u>Animals in the zoo</u> | <u>are given</u> | <u>all kinds of facilities.</u> | |
| | NP | VP | NP | |
| 9. | <u>She came out</u> | <u>emotionally charged</u> | <u>after the movie.</u> | |
| | NP VP | AdjP | PrepP | |
| 10. | <u>Mayawati has started</u> | <u>her shenanigans</u> | <u>once again.</u> | |
| | NP VP | NP | AdvP | |
| 11. | <u>Shy students</u> | sit | <u>at the back.</u> | |
| | NP | | PrepP | |
| 12. | <u>All the visitors</u> | <u>appreciated</u> | <u>the paintings in the gallery.</u> | |
| | NP | VP | NP | |
| 13. | <u>Incomplete lines</u> | <u>at times</u> | <u>convey</u> | <u>complete meaning.</u> |
| | NP | PrepP | VP | NP |
| 14. | <u>Life in a foreign land</u> | is | <u>entirely different.</u> | |
| | NP | | AdjP | |
| 15. | <u>The nymphs</u> | <u>have departed</u> | <u>this dry unholy land.</u> | |

NP

VP

NP

Exercise 2

1. Noun phrases
 - a. a good salary
 - b. an undisciplined student
 - c. some quick gains
 - d. all the girls
 - e. simple tricks
2. Prepositional phrases
 - a. in a jiffy
 - b. after an hour
 - c. between sunrise and sunset
 - d. within a few days
 - e. for better prospects
3. Genitive phrases
 - a. Ajay's help
 - b. Raj's selfishness
 - c. Mrs Walia's dog
 - d. Nehal's smile
 - e. Shrey's naughty deeds
4. Adjective phrases
 - a. very difficult
 - b. too simple
 - c. very sad
 - d. rather unhappy
 - e. extremely self-centred
5. Adverb phrases
 - a. very hurriedly
 - b. too quickly
 - c. very neatly
 - d. more easily

- e. very rarely
- 6. Verb phrases
 - a. has been cooking
 - b. is talking
 - c. have misunderstood
 - d. were enjoying
 - e. must have played

Exercise 3

1. Main phrase(s): the boy in that room, a fresher
Subordinate phrase(s): in that room
2. Main phrase(s): the girl with a pup in her hand, my student
Subordinate phrase(s): with a pup, in her hand
3. Main phrase(s): most of the employees in this mall
Subordinate phrase(s): in this mall
4. Main phrase(s): Manmohan Singh's meeting with George Bush in New York, very significant
Subordinate phrase(s): with George Bush, in New York
5. Main phrase(s): All those meetings of the committee in the afternoon last month
Subordinate phrase(s): of the committee, in the afternoon, last month
6. Main phrase(s): my hectic social life in Jaipur
Subordinate phrase(s): in Jaipur
7. Main phrase(s): such a sight, very rare
Subordinate phrase(s): Nil
8. Main phrase(s): a father of six children with a criminal record
Subordinate phrase(s): of six children, with a criminal record

Exercise 4

1. We are spending our vacations in Kashmir.
2. He uses local transport
3. You should take care of your ailing mother.
4. My uncle would often work in the fields for hours.
5. They might have a look at this book.

6. You should learn all the tricks of the trade.
7. There must be some misunderstanding between the two of them.
8. Good reference books must not be removed from the reading room.
9. Start the work on time.
10. They're throwing a party next weekend/ all the garbage in the street.
11. Raj jumped into the pool in order to swim.

Exercise 5

1. an honest person

S: An honest person is always rewarded.

O: I like an honest person.

C: Raj is an honest person.

2. a beautiful girl

S: A beautiful girl came to meet you yesterday.

O: I saw a beautiful girl leave your house just now.

C: Aishwarya is a beautiful girl.

3. an ordinary piece of glass

S: An ordinary piece of glass breaks easily.

O: He has fixed up an ordinary piece of glass.

C: That is an ordinary piece of glass.

4. some of the best things in the world

S: Some of the best things in the world are fairly cheap.

O: At Christie's, they sell some of the best things in the world.

C: These are some of the best things in the world.

5. a handsome salary package

S: A handsome salary package attracts the youngsters these days.

O: They are demanding a handsome salary package.

C: 10 lakh is a handsome salary package.

6. a healthy baby

S: A healthy baby is always jovial.

O: She delivered a healthy baby.

C: She is a healthy baby

7. an understanding mother

S: An understanding father can sense the needs of his children.

O: I have an understanding mother

C: She is an understanding mother

8. an old house

S: An old house is there towards the end of this street.

O: The agent showed me an old house.

C: That is an old house.

9. a quick look

S: A quick look is required to set the things in order.

O: Please give a quick look to set the things in order.

C: It is a quick look that I will do the magic.

10. the best in the film industry

S: The best in the film industry are also at times marginalized.

O: Shahrukh is considered the best in the film industry.

C: Amitabh is still the best in the film industry.

3.4 Let Us Sum Up

In this unit we have given you practice in

i) identifying notions and concepts

ii) expressing different notions and concepts through sentences

3.5 Review Questions

1. Write the six formal structures of the phrase type giving examples.
2. What do you understand by modification of the Head Word. Give examples.

3.6 Bibliography

1. Leech, Geoffrey et al. English Grammar for Today. London: Macmillan Education Ltd, 1989.
2. Sinclair, John. Collins Cobuild English Grammar. New Delhi: Indus, 1993.

UNIT-4

CLAUSE STRUCTURE

Structure

- 4.0 Objectives
- 4.1 Comprehension of the Language Topic
 - 4.1.1 Study Guide
 - 4.1.2 Clause Structure
 - 4.1.3 Examples
- 4.2 Self Assessment Questions
- 4.3 Answers to SAQs
- 4.4 Let Us Sum Up
- 4.5 Review Questions
- 4.6 Bibliography

4.0 Objectives

In this unit our aim is to make you comprehend the topic (i) clauses (ii) give some examples separately and ensure that you start using and identifying them. There are also exhaustive exercises on clauses which will enable you to test and rate yourself after checking your answers and comparing them with those given at the end of the unit.

After completing this unit you should be able to:

- understand what clauses are
- distinguish between different kinds of clauses
- practice and master the topic of clauses

4.1 Comprehension of the Language Topic

4.1.1 Study Guide

Read the theory of the topic 'clauses' given below which is presented through different examples and try to understand it.

After you have read and understood the topic, go through the examples given thereafter and attempt solving the exercises given to test you. You should then check your answers with those given by us at the end of the unit.

4.1.2 Clauses

A phrase as pointed earlier in the previous unit, is a group of words forming a descriptive

expression and a particular meaning, forming a part of a sentence. A clause on the other hand is a group of words consisting of a subject and a finite form of a verb. It may or may not be sentence. Broadly clauses can be divided into main/ independent and subordinate/ dependent clause. Main clause exists as a separate sentence whereas a subordinate clause does not exist as a separate sentence and is not equal to the main part of the sentence.

A clause mainly has five elements, viz,

Subject (S)

Verb (V)

Object (O)

Complement (C)

Adverbial (A)

In a sentence they can be given as:

- | | | | | | |
|----|------------|---------------|------------|---------------|----------------------|
| 1. | <u>She</u> | <u>called</u> | <u>him</u> | <u>a fool</u> | <u>at the party.</u> |
| | S | V | O | C | A |

The Verb is mainly a verb phrase. The Subject precedes the verb in a statement or an affirmative sentence, and there is agreement between the subject and verb as regards number and person, eg:

- | | | |
|----|--------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 2. | <u>Some people</u> | <u>prefer</u> drinking hot coffee. |
| | S (Plural) | V |
| 3. | <u>This person</u> | <u>prefers</u> drinking hot coffee. |
| | S (Singular) | V |

In place of nouns/ noun phrases we can also use personal pronouns (I, we, he, she, they) in subject position. Not only this, we can also use a prepositional phrase as subject, as:

4. In the cage are four parrots, which means
5. There are four parrots in the cage.

Tests of concord and pronoun substitution can be taken up to help identify S and O.

The Object is very closely connected to the predicator in terms of meaning, and typically denotes the person or thing most intimately affected by the action or state, etc. denoted by the Verb. Object is detached from the Subject. The Complement can look superficially like an object because both (O and C) can be NPs, but in terms of meaning it provides a definition or characterization of the S or O. Objects and complements normally follow the Verb, eg:

- | | | | |
|----|-------------|-------------|---------------------|
| 6. | <u>He</u> | <u>sang</u> | <u>a folk song.</u> |
| | S | V | O |
| 7. | <u>This</u> | <u>is</u> | <u>a folk song.</u> |
| | S | V | C |

Adverbials add extra information of various kinds, ranging from time and location to the manner, reason, duration etc. They are the least closely integrated elements. Adverbials are optional elements in a clause. They are also quite mobile. They can be used before the subject, after the subject and before the verb, in the middle of the verb phrase, eg:

8. Actually, he is busy with some guests.

(Adv before the S)

9. He rarely comes on time.

(Adv after the S and before the V)

10. Some people are sometimes willing to pay extra for getting a special mobile number (Adv. between the operator and the main verb)

Adverbials have no fixed number. They are more like modifiers in the NP. The common adverbial types are listed in table below together with typical questions which elicit them followed by examples.

Table 4.1

Type of Adverbial	Eliciting question	Example
Time	When ?	within a month
Place	Where ?	in the hall
Manner	How ?	with great dexterity
Direction	Where from/to ?	from/to Delhi
Duration	How long ?	for a week
Agency	By whom ?	by all the boys
Goal	For/To whom?	to Raj./ for Abha
Reason	Why ?	because of his inability
Degree	How far ? How much ?	partially/ to some extent
Condition	In what circumstances?	if you come on time
Conjunct (Sentence Adv)	expresses attitude	Consequently/ in fact

Complex sentences

The discussion above focused on a single, ie a simple sentence. But most of the sentences in English in texts are Complex sentences. They contain two or more than two clauses joined by subordinators, eg:

- 11 While we were returning home we saw an unusual sight.

Subordinator Subordinate clause Main clause

Additional clauses can also occur in a complex sentence. Two or more clause can be Coordinated, ie they can be linked as units of equal status with the help of coordinators, eg

12. She kept talking and her mother kept silent.

Coordinate clause Coordinator Coordinate clause

A subordinate clause is either an element in another clause:

13. If you do my work, I'll help you.

It can even be a postmodifier in a phrase within a clause:

14. The boy whose bag was stolen has lodged an FIR.

Complex sentences can also be formed from a combination of coordination and subordination of clause, for example:

15. That she is in love but she cannot express it is a fact.

Coordinate clauses as part of the subordination

Subordination and coordination will not be dealt with in detail here. In this unit we are concerned primarily with classes of main clause.

Finite and non-finite clauses

Our discussion so far has been confined to finite verb phrases, which comprise an operator and a main verb showing tense and subject verb agreement. But there are also many non-finite phrases, which do not contain any finite verb. The table below will clarify the difference between finite and non-finite verb phrases:

Table 4.2

Finite verb phrase	Non-finite verb phrase
do	doing
does	to do
is doing	be done
are doing	having been done
am doing	
has done	
have done	
has been doing	
have been doing	
did	
was done	
were done	
had done	
had been doing	
will / shall do	
will / shall be doing	
will / shall have done	

The clauses that have been discussed so far are Finite clauses, in which the verb has been a finite VP. But there are also many Non-finite clauses in which the verb is a non-finite VP. Some examples of finite and non-finite subordinate clauses are given below:

- ## Declarative, interrogative and imperative clauses

20. She will come back very soon.
21. We have spent the extra amount.

The interrogative mood is used to ask questions:

- Finally, the imperative mood is most commonly used to give orders, suggestions, advice or make requests.

- There are **two kinds of interrogatives**. The **Yes-No interrogative**, e.g.(22) above, asks for a positive or negative answer. It is always through finite operator that we frame such questions which have a strong negation or a strong, positive affirmation.

- 84

To form yes-no interrogatives the finite operator (auxiliary) in the declarative is used before the subject. Where there is no operator in the declarative sentence, the interrogative uses the auxiliary *do*, followed by an infinitive, eg:

30. They have completed their assignment.
31. Have they not completed their assignment?
32. She comes here everyday.
33. Does she come here everyday?
34. He played well.
35. Did he play well?

The verb *do* is finite, and expresses present and past tense. In the interrogative, the verb phrase is split into two parts. In addition, there is a split when an adverbial is shifted into it, eg:

36. She is always speaking to him on the phone.

Adv causing the split

37. Are they really improving?

Adv causing the split

The second kind of interrogative is the **Wh - interrogative**, which seeks information about one of the clause elements S, O, C, or A using any of the Wh-words given below:

Wh-determiners : what, which

Wh-pronouns : whose, whom who, which, what

Wh-adverbs : when, where, why, how

The finite operator in a wh- interrogative is normally placed before S, preceded by the wh-word because it is the focus of attention:

- | | | | |
|-----|--------------|-------------|--------------------------|
| 38. | <u>Why</u> | <u>did</u> | <u>you</u> go there? |
| | Wh-word | Operator | S |
| 39. | <u>Where</u> | <u>has</u> | <u>he</u> kept my books? |
| | Wh-word | Operator | S |
| 40. | <u>How</u> | <u>will</u> | <u>they</u> complete it? |
| | Wh-word | Operator | S |

The **imperative sentence** begins with the non-finite V and has no S, in contrast to the declarative and interrogative both of which have an S. An imperative is derived from a declarative by deletion of S *you* (as it is implied) and of the VP operator *will*:

In the imperative, if the first verb in the VP is the verb form *be*, it is a Vi, eg:

41. Be silent!

42. Be happy!

If there is an object after the Vo, the V is finite.

So a good test for the fitness of a VP is that in finite verbs there is subject verb concord and an alternation in tense between Vo/Vs and Ved, while if it is non-finite there is no such change.

Active and passive clauses

The active voice is the basic, unmarked form of the clause with an O, eg:

43. She has understood the problem. (Active)

S V O

44. The problem has been understood by her. (Passive)

S V PrepP

45. We are inviting all the guests. (Active)

S V O

46. All the guests are being invited by us. (Passive)

S V PrepP

The passive voice is the marked form of the clause in which the S corresponds in meaning to an O of a corresponding active clause. So parallel to active, we have the corresponding passives. The S of the corresponding active becomes an optional A in the passive which is nearly always a PrepP marked with the preposition *by*.

There are two kinds of object (O), direct and indirect object. A direct object (Od) comes after the verb and an indirect object (Oi) comes between the verb and the direct object. The (Oi) is optional, and can be replaced by an A element, a PrepP introduced by *to* or *for*, eg:

47. Sangita gave me a book.

Oi Od

48. Sangita gave a book to me.

Od PrepP

Likewise, there are two kinds of complement, Subject complement (Co) and Object complement (Cs). The subject complement describes or talks about the subject, whereas the object complement describes the direct object, eg:

49. Girls call him dude.

Od Co

50. He is a dude.

Cs

The difference between the two subclasses can be usually recognized by their position,

as well as by their meaning, The Cs normally follows V (which typically contains the contains the copula verb to be) and the Co normally follows Od. A clause normally contains only one complement, either Cs or Co.

There are also some ‘peripheral’ elements that may occur in a clause. In this class we have closed classes words like conjunctions and interjections, eg:

51. Aha! What a fine weather!

Interjection

52. And then came the final call.

Conjunction

Then an NP may occur as a phrase which identifies the person addressed (vocative) in the following manner:

53. Put in your heart and soul, Raj.

Vocative

54. Dearest Radha, we all miss you a lot.

Vocative

Vocatives are more like adverbials because they are optional and mobile. They are different from imperative clauses, and the subject in declarative clauses too because only the vocative can be omitted or moved to the end of the clause and not the subject in the declarative or the implied subject *you* in the imperative.

55. Daksh, come here everyday.

It implies:

Daksh, you come here everyday.

56. Daksh comes here everyday.

This implies:

57. It is Daksh’s habit to come here everyday.

Pattern of clauses

S V O C A, the five clause elements which have been discussed in Unit 1 (Elements of a sentence), form the nucleus of a clause. Adverbials and peripheral elements like conjunctions, interjections and vocatives are optional parts of the clause. For example:

But, Riya, he must be lying, sweetie.

The clause has the structure [conjunction, interjection, Vocative, SVO and Vocative]. Dispensing off the optional elements, we are left with the clause pattern [SVO] at the nucleus. For the purpose of clarity we have used a main clause in the declarative mood, in the active voice and with the unmarked (most neutral) word order. In a clause where S and V are always obligatory, O, C, and A may or may not be obligatory. This mainly depends on the main verb. For example, in the sentence:

58. He plays cricket in the evening.

The structure is [SVOA] but [O and A] are optional elements. But in the following sentence:

59. I like chocolate cake

where the structure is [SVO], O is not optional, it is obligatory. In the same manner, Adverb is obligatory with only a few verbs such as *put*, eg:

60. He has put all the mangoes on the table.

The most common clause pattern for English that have been discussed in greater detail in Unit 1, are given below together with examples:

1. [S V]

- i) She misbehaves.
- ii) They run.

Some verbs used in this pattern: *eat, look, behave, walk, die, work, run, come, sleep dream* etc.

2. [S V Oi]

- i) They told me.
- ii) The waiter served him.

Some verbs used in this pattern: *tell, serve* etc.

3. [S V Od]

- i) The policeman stopped the car driver.
- ii) He kissed her.

Some verbs used in this pattern: *run, dream, eat, behave, look, hit, find, catch, kiss, work, pull* etc.

4. [S V Oi Od]

- i) I bought Anshika a new pen.
- ii) We gifted her a fancy wrist watch.

Some verbs used in this pattern: *make, send, give, tell, buy, sell* etc

5. [S V C]

- i) Dev looks dejected.
- ii) She is quite different.

Some verbs used in this pattern: *be, seem, look, become, appear* etc.

6. [S V Od C]

- i) Children called Nehru *Chacha*.

- ii) Her friends made her a scapegoat.

Some verbs used in this pattern: *think, call, make, prove* etc

7. [S V A]

- i) They are in a fix.
ii) I reside in Raja Park.

Some verbs used in this pattern: *grieve, think, reside, lean, be, stand, live, know, talk, worry* etc.

8. [S V Od A]

- i) The servant kept the bag near the sofa.
ii) They have told me about the incident.

Some verbs used in this pattern: *inform, keep, put, place, tell, worry* etc

There is an overlap in the use of verbs. Among the verbs cited above and even some others, verbs can occur in more than one pattern, usually with a noticeable change in meaning. The verb *keep* for example occurs in all the patterns.

A clause pattern with an object can be changed into a **passive clause pattern**, with the same main verb, in which the object takes the place of a subject. Thus each such clause which fits into the following patterns can be converted into a passive pattern:

- | | | | | |
|-----|------------------|----------------------|--------------------|---------------------------------|
| 61. | <u>I</u> | <u>like</u> | <u>grapes.</u> | (Active) |
| | S | V | O | |
| | <u>Grapes</u> | <u>are liked</u> | <u>(by me).</u> | (Passive) |
| | S (O) | V | PrepP | |
| 62. | <u>Meenakshi</u> | <u>gifted</u> | <u>me</u> | <u>a diary.</u> (Active) |
| | S | V | Oi | Od |
| | <u>I</u> | <u>was gifted</u> | <u>a diary</u> | <u>by Meenakshi.</u> (Passive) |
| | S(Oi) | V | Od | PrepP |
| | <u>A diary</u> | <u>was gifted</u> | <u>to me</u> | <u>by Meenakshi.</u> (Passive) |
| | S(Od) | V | Oi | PrepP |
| 63. | <u>Dev</u> | <u>considers</u> | <u>Rajesh</u> | <u>foolish.</u> (Active) |
| | S | V | Od | C |
| | <u>Rajesh</u> | <u>is considered</u> | <u>foolish</u> | <u>by Dev.</u> (Passive) |
| | S(Od) | V | C | PrepP |
| 64. | <u>She</u> | <u>gave</u> | <u>the message</u> | <u>in the evening.</u> (Active) |
| | S | V | Od | A |

The message was given by her in the evening. (Passive)

S(Od) V PrepP A

The PrepP in all the passive patterns is optional.

The three **non-finite forms of the verb** (Vi, Ving, Ven) correspond with the three types of clause called

i) Infinitive clause

65. To tell you the truth, noone is injured..

ii)- ing clause and

66. His playing the underdog, helped him quite a bit.

iii)- en clause respectively.

67. The door painted, the painters sat for a smoke.

These constructions are analyzed as clause, because they can function like an S, O, C, A, etc. just like finite clauses and have the same structural possibilities.

There are some significant features which distinguish the non-finite from finite clauses. In infinitive clauses, for example, *for* as a conjunction normally precedes the VP, eg:

68. For you to behave in such a manner is quite unreasonable.

In – ing clauses, the subject is often a genitive form, like:

69. Raj's getting the tender is no surprise.

Another point about non-finite clauses is that the S is frequently omitted:

70. Founded in 1907, this institution completes 100 years by this year end.

– en clause

71. Having affected manners is the hallmark of the hollow.

– ing clause

72. The most ideal pastime is to read a fiction.

Infinitive clause

4.1.3 Examples

I Underline the finite and the non-finite clauses in the following sentences and label them accordingly:

1. It is great that they are going to meet the prime minister.

It is great that they are going to meet the prime minister.

Finite Cl Finite Cl Non-finite Cl

2. It was quite surprising for him to discover that the sun shines rarely in England.

It was quite surprising for him to discover that the sun shines rarely in England.

Finite Cl Non-finite Cl Non-finite Cl Finite Cl

- 3 The Left Front deplored this fact that the government is compromising on the nuclear stand.

The Left Front deplored this fact that the government is compromising on the

Finite Cl Finite Cl

nuclear stand.

4. Dejected, he snapped all links with his girl friend.

Dejected, he snapped all links with his girl friend.

Non-finite Cl Finite Cl

5. Having deposited the money in the bank, he became tension-free.

Having deposited the money in the bank, he became tension-

Non-finite Cl Finite Cl

free.

6. Being ignorant of the traffic rules is no excuse for breaking the law.

Being ignorant of the traffic rules is no excuse for breaking the law.

Non-finite Cl Finite Cl Non-finite Cl

7. Their knowing the truth does not matter to him at all.

Their knowing the truth does not matter to him at all.

Non-finite Cl Finite Cl

8. I fail to understand how she reconciles the two things so well.

I fail to understand how she reconciles the two things so well

Finite Cl Non-finite Cl Finite Cl

9. Sarita refused to believe what I said.

Sarita refused to believe what I said.

Finite Cl Non-finite Cl Finite Cl

10. The parents were of the view that the child should be sent to a day-boarding school.

The parents were of the view that the child should be sent to a day-

Finite Cl Finite Cl

boarding school.

II Give five examples of each:

1. declarative clauses
 - a) All of them are playing cricket.
 - b) India is a land of unity in diversity
 - c) You'd better take care of your belongings.
 - d) Some of them arrived late
 - e) Children at times like to have a change of taste.
2. imperative clauses
 - a) Shut the door at once.
 - b) Post this letter for me, please.
 - c) Kindly bring me a glass of water.
 - d) Don't utter a word now.
 - e) Never tell a lie.
3. interrogative clauses
 - a) Has she called back?
 - b) What else do you want?
 - c) Where have you hidden my mobile?
 - d) Does she still come here?
 - e) Are they busy?
4. active and passive clauses
 - a) A: I bought a new book yesterday.
P: A new book was bought by me yesterday.
 - b) A: She has cast a spell on Abhi.
P: A spell has been cast by her on Abhi.
 - c) A: The doctor diagnosed his disease well in time.
P: His disease was diagnosed well in time.
 - d) A: The postman had delivered the parcel before my arrival.
P: The parcel had been delivered before my arrival.
 - e) A: She gives us useful tips.
P: We are given useful tips by her.
Useful tips are given to us by her.

5. clause with vocative phrases
 - a) Abha, keep an eye on the activities of your son.
 - b) I would like you to accompany us, Ajay.
 - c) Abhay, your friends are waiting for you.
 - d) Dear Shrey, I want you to learn the tables upto 10.
 - e) You can go away, Sneh.
6. non-finite clauses
 - a) To understand the mysteries of the universe ...
 - b) Having settled the dispute ...
 - c) The house vacated ...
 - d) The sun having risen ...
 - e) Being unable to get connected ...

III Point out the subordinate and main clauses in the sentences below:

1. When we requested her, she recited one of her composition.
 Main clause(s): she recited one of her composition
 Subordinate clause(s): when we requested her
2. She sang so sweetly that tears rolled down our cheek.
 Main clause(s): she sang
 Subordinate clause(s): so sweetly that tears rolled down our cheek
3. I still fail to comprehend why she behaved so rudely.
 Main clause(s): I still fail to comprehend
 Subordinate clause(s): why she behaved so rudely
4. I cannot imagine why Sanjay Dutt bought a gun illegally.
 Main clause(s): I cannot imagine
 Subordinate clause(s): why Sanjay Dutt a gun illegally.
5. People say that Africans are voracious eaters.
 Main clause(s): people say
 Subordinate clause(s): that Africans are voracious eaters

IV Use the following clauses as subject, object and complement in the blanks below:

1. the man who has a scar on his face
 S: The man who has a scar on his face is the thief

- O: I saw the man who has a scar on his face yesterday
- C: He is the man who has a scar on his face
2. the spot where the accident took place
- S: The spot where the accident took place has been cordoned off by the police.
- O: I'll show you the spot where the accident took place.
- C: That is the spot where the accident took place
3. how the game is won
- S: How the game is won is still a difficult task for me.
- O: I know how the game is won.
- C: This is how the game is won.
4. why she bought that T-shirt
- S: Why she bought that T-shirt has to do with her feelings for you.
- O: I know why she bought that T-shirt.
- C: This is why she bought that T-shirt.
5. the place where we can go in times of stress
- S: The place where we can go in times of stress is a cinema hall.
- O: She knows the place where we can go in times of stress.
- C: A cinema hall is the place where we can go in times of stress.

V Supply the blanks in the sentences given below with a suitable clause:

1. We are planning _____
We are planning to start a big project.
2. They usually like _____
They usually like those who praise them.
3. We have written _____
We have written all the letters you asked us to write.
4. _____ are minting gold.
All those who took big risks
5. I have so many things _____
I have so many things that I want to share with you.
- _____

4.2 Self Assessment Questions

Exercise 1 Underline the finite and the non-finite clauses in the following sentences and label them accordingly:

1. Your having accepted this package means that you are desperate for a job.

2. What Yuvi says in private is entirely different from what he does in public.

3. The fact that he did not even apologize for keeping me waiting annoyed me.

4. Nature sings when it rains.

5. Educated in a village, he is always under an inferiority complex.

6. It is known to all that Musharraf has sinister plans in mind.

7. It is clear to everyone that Aekloveya is destined for a brilliant career in the corporate world.

8. It is my opinion that children should not be given too much pocket money.

9. It is for sure that Aekta will get a good match.

10. It is still not known when we are to start the project.

Exercise 2 Give five examples of each:

1. declarative clauses

a.

b.

c.

d.

e.

2. imperative clauses

a.

b.

c.

d.

e.

3. imperative clauses

a.

b.

c.

d.

e.

4. active and passive clauses

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____
- e. _____

5. Clause with vocative phrases

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____
- e. _____

6. Non-finite clauses

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____
- e. _____

Exercise 3 Point out the subordinate and main clauses in the sentences below:

1. The person who stole your bag has been caught.

Main clause(s): _____

Subordinate clause(s): _____

2. The final match that India won against the West Indies is still fresh in my mind.

Main clause(s): _____

Subordinate clause(s): _____

3. She later apologized for hurting my feelings.

Main clause(s): _____

Subordinate clause(s): _____

4. It is easy to advise people.

Main clause(s): _____

Subordinate clause(s): _____

5. I like him because he is always focused.
Main clause(s): _____
Subordinate clause(s): _____
6. I clearly remember the time when you met me the first time.
Main clause(s): _____
Subordinate clause(s):. _____
7. By the time we reached there they had left.
Main clause(s): _____
Subordinate clause(s): _____
8. Feel free to call me up anytime you like.
Main clause(s): _____
Subordinate clause(s): _____
9. They tell me that she is a spinster.
Main clause(s): _____
Subordinate clause(s): _____
10. If you want to succeed you have to compromise with a lot many things.
Main clause(s): _____
Subordinate clause(s): _____

Exercise 4 Use the following clauses as subject, object and complement in the blanks below:

1. the place where seeds of character are sown
S: _____
O: _____
C: _____
2. a person who is liked by all
S: _____
O: _____
C: _____
3. a book that is the talk of the town
S: _____
O: _____

- C: _____
4. to understand
- S: _____
- O: _____
- C: _____
5. a government which is stable
- S: _____
- O: _____
- C: _____

Exercise 5 Supply the blanks in the sentences given below with a suitable clause:

1. _____ that I caused you offence.
2. Always do _____
3. Call me _____
4. _____ I was caught in the downpour.
5. When life becomes tough _____

4.3 Answers to SAQs

Exercise 1

1. Your having accepted this package means that you are desperate for a job.
Your having accepted this package means that you are desperate
 Non-finite Cl Finite Cl Finite Cl
for a job.
2. What Yuvi says in private is entirely different from what he does in public.
What Yuvi says in private is entirely different from what he does in
 Finite Cl Finite Cl Finite Cl
public.
3. The fact that he did not even apologize for keeping me waiting annoyed me.
 The fact that he did not even apologize for keeping me waiting
 Finite Cl Non-finite Cl Non-finite Cl
annoyed me.
 Finite Cl

4. Nature sings when it rains.

Nature sings when it rains.

Finite Cl Finite Cl

5. Educated in a village, he is always under an inferiority complex.

Educated in a village, he is always under an inferiority complex.

Non-finite Cl Finite Cl

6. It is known to all that Musharraf has sinister plans in mind.

It is known to all that Musharraf has sinister plans in mind.

Finite Cl Finite Cl

7. It is clear to everyone that Aekloveya is destined for a brilliant career in the corporate world.

It is clear to everyone that Aekloveya is destined for a brilliant career in

Finite Cl Finite Cl

the corporate world.

8. It is my opinion that children should not be given too much pocket money.

It is my opinion that children should not be given too much pocket money.

Finite Cl Finite Cl

9. It is for sure that Aekta will get a good match.

It is for sure that Aekta will get a good match.

Finite Cl Finite Cl

10. It is still not known when we are to start the project.

It is still not known when we are to start the project.

Finite Cl Finite Cl Non-finite Cl

Exercise 2

1. declarative clauses

- Kite flying is a sport that originated from China.
- Doctors have become very commercial these days.
- The private companies are giving the public companies a run for their money.
- My daughters consider me their ideal.
- Barking dogs seldom bite.

2. imperative clauses

- a. Always be on time.
 - b. Call them here at once.
 - c. Please forgive me.
 - d. Do not spread rumours.
 - e. Start playing.
3. interrogative clauses
- a. What has he done?
 - b. Why is she arguing?
 - c. How long will it take you to complete the work?
 - d. Did you inform the head about it?
 - e. Has something materialized?
4. active and passive clauses
- a. A: Bhavya likes musical programmes.
P: Musical programmes are like by Bhavya.
 - b. A: Nehal is reading the newspaper.
P: Newspaper is being read by Nehal.
 - c. A: Stop all that nonsense.
P: Let all that nonsense be stopped.
You are ordered to stop that nonsense.
 - d. A: I encourage the shy students to answer.
P: The shy students are encouraged to answer by me.
 - e. A: My father loved me a lot.
P: I was loved a lot by my father.
5. clause with vocative phrases
- a. Darling, pay heed to what the teacher says.
 - b. Shreya, call me up whenever you are free.
 - c. Stay tuned, viewers.
 - d. Don't go away, dear son.
 - e. Dearest Pooja, someone is waiting for you to give your acceptance to the proposal.
6. non-finite clauses
- a. To solve such problems ...

- b. Having realized the gravity of the situation ...
- c. Dejected, ...
- d. After informing the police, ...
- e. Being at an advantageous position ...

Exercise 3

1. The person who stole your bag has been caught.
Main clause(s): the person has been caught
Subordinate clause(s): who stole your bag
2. The final match that India won against the West Indies is still fresh in my mind.
Main clause(s): the final match is still fresh in my mind
Subordinate clause(s): that India won against the West Indies
3. She later apologized for hurting my feelings.
Main clause(s): she later apologized
Subordinate clause(s): for hurting my feelings
4. It is easy to advise people.
Main clause(s): It is easy
Subordinate clause(s): to advise people
5. I like him because he is always focused.
Main clause(s): I like him
Subordinate clause(s): because he is always focused
6. I clearly remember the time when you met me the first time.
Main clause(s): I clearly remember the time
Subordinate clause(s): when you met me the first time.
7. By the time we reached there they had left.
Main clause(s): they had left
Subordinate clause(s): by the time we reached there
8. Feel free to call me up anytime you like.
Main clause(s): feel free,
Subordinate clause(s): to call up anytime you like
9. They tell me that she is a spinster.
Main clause(s): they tell me

Subordinate clause(s): that she is a spinster

10. If you want to succeed you have to compromise with a lot many things.

Main clause(s): you have to compromise with a lot many things

Subordinate clause(s): if you want to succeed

Exercise 4

1. the place where seeds of character are sown

S: The place where seeds of character are sown is the house.

O: We all know the place where seeds of character are sown.

C: Home is the place where seeds of character are sown

2. a person who is liked by all

S: A person who is liked by all is at the same time envied the most.

O: I know a person who is liked by all

C: Anshika is the person who is liked by all

3. a book that is the talk of the town

S: A book that is the talk of the town must be explosive.

O: We have bought the book that is the talk of the town

C: Campus is the book that is the talk of the town

4. to understand

S: To understand girls is difficult.

O: They want to understand the intricacies of this machine.

C: It is difficult to understand girls

5. a government which is stable

S: A government which is stable can take bold decisions.

O: We have appointed a government which is stable.

C: NDA is a government which is stable

Exercise 5

1. _____ that I caused you offence.

I am very sorry that I caused you offence.

2. Always do _____

Always do what your heart tells.

3. Call me _____

Call me whenever you like.

4. _____ I was caught in the downpour.

While I was returning home I was caught in the downpour.

5. When life becomes tough _____

When life becomes tough, the tough get going.

4.4 Let Us Sum Up

In this unit we have given you practice in

- i) identifying notions and concepts
- ii) expressing different notions and concepts through sentences

4.5 Review Questions

- 1. What do you understand by finite clauses and non-finite clauses. Give examples.
- 2. What are the three major forms of main clauses. Give examples.

4.6 Bibliography

- 1 Leech, Geoffrey et al. English Grammar for Today. London: Macmillan Education Ltd, 1989.
- 2 Sinclair, John. Collins Cobuild English Grammar. New Delhi: Indus, 1993.

UNIT-5

AGREEMENT OF VERB WITH THE SUBJECT/CONCORD

Structure

- 5.0 Objectives
- 5.1 Comprehension of the Language Topic
 - 5.1.1 Study Guide
 - 5.1.2 Agreement of Verb with the Subject/ Concord
 - 5.1.3 Examples
- 5.2 Self Assesment Questions
- 5.3 Answers to SAQs
- 5.4 Let Us Sum Up
- 5.5 Review Questions
- 5.6 Bibliography

5.0 Objectives

In this unit our aim is to make you comprehend the topic (i) agreement of verb with the subject Concord (ii) give some examples of the same separately and ensure that you start conforming to subject and verb concord. There are also exhaustive exercises on agreement of verb with the subject concord which will enable you to test and rate yourself after checking your answers and comparing them with those given at the end of the unit.

After completing this unit you should be able to:

- Understand how a verb agrees with the subject
- Practise and master the topic of agreement of verb with the subject

5.1 Comprehension of the Topic

5.1.1 Study Guide

Read the theory of the topic ‘Agreement of Verb with the Subject Concord’ given below and try to understand it.

After you have read and understood the topic, go through the examples given thereafter and attempt solving the exercises given to test you. You should then check your answers with those given by us at the end of the unit.

5.1.2 Agreement of the verb with the Subject / Concord

Agreement means the syntactic (grammatical) relationship between words and phrases

which are compatible in a given construction, by virtue of inflections carried by at least one of them. Read the following sentences:

- (i) This is a book.
- (ii) These are books.

In the sentences above the verb changes from 'is' to 'are' with the change in the demonstrative pronoun 'this' (used for singular entities) to 'these' (used for plural entities) from the first to the second sentence. As agreement is here determined solely by the grammatical properties of the words, it is termed as grammatical agreement.

Some other examples of grammatical agreement are as follows:

- 1. Raj is telling a story.
- 2. My uncle never tells a lie.
- 3. He likes oranges but I do not.
- 4. The players are resting.
- 5. Children were shouting.
- 6. They have not understood the problem.
- 7. He speaks to her on the phone for hours.
- 8. You have not played well.
- 9. I am sure to succeed.

In the above sentence, the verbs have changed according to the persons of the subjects. Thus we know that the Verb agrees with the Subject in Number and Person.

I We use 'is' and 'was' when the subject is 'he' 'she' or 'it'; 'am' and 'was' when the subject is 'I' while 'are' and 'were' when the subject is 'we', 'you' or 'they'. In all other tenses we use a Plural Verb with 'I' and 'you', eg:

- 1. She/He is happy.
- 2. It was very pleasant yesterday.
- 3. I am also willing to accompany you.
- 4. You are badly mistaken.
- 5. Were they invited?
- 6. I am doubtful about his arrival.
- 7. Does he like you?

II When two or more singular subjects are joined by 'and' they take a plural verb as:

- 1. Amit and Ajit are brothers.
- 2. Abhi and Aadi make a pleasant couple.

3. My brother and I play together.

III Contrary to this, we have notional agreement. For example, if we say The jury have agreed, the subject is grammatically singular and it may grammatically take 'has' as the verb but just because it refers to several members, the use of 'have' shows notional agreement.

The subject of the sentence has a close relationship with the verb. It is the singular or plural noun/ pronoun used as the subject which determines the verb. Noun phrases and clauses too can act as the subject. A clause as subject counts as singular for purposes of concord. It even applies to prepositional phrases acting as subjects. The example below clarify the point further:

1. How she convinces them is beyond my understanding.

Clause as subject-Singular Verb

2. What he said is time

Clause as subject Singular Verb

3. That they will come is certain

Clause as subject-Singular Verb

But this does not apply to nominal relative clauses because they are very much like noun phrases. So they can take a singular as well as plural concord, eg:

1. What was once a taboo is today a fashion.

Relative Clause as subject-Singular Verb

2. What were once slums are today mini localities.

Relative Clause as subject-Plural Verb

IV When two subjects are joined by 'as well as' the verb agrees with the first subject; as-

1. He as well as you is to blame.

2. His friends as well as their parents are doctors.

V When two or more singular subjects are connected by 'or', 'nor', 'either-or', 'neither-nor', they take a verb in singular, as:

1. Either you or he has told him the truth.

2. Neither he nor his friends have been invited.

But when two subjects of different persons are joined by 'Neither-nor' or 'Either-or' the rule of proximity applies and the verb agrees in person with the subject nearest to it, as:

1. Either he or his relatives were involved.

2. Either she or her parents are to be informed.

This rule even applies when we have notional concord in sentences where it is the idea of number and not the presence of grammatical marker for that idea, as:

1. The government have not been able to fulfil their promises.
 2. No one except the members of his family consider him to be innocent.
 3. One in ten take wine.
- VI Either, neither, each, every and everyone are followed by a singular verb, as:
1. Either of the two friends is to marry her.
 2. Neither of these two books assists in finding out the background to the topic.
 3. Each of them is guilty.
 4. Every person in our neighborhood is a responsible citizen.
 5. Every one of the girls likes to be admired.
- VII When two singular nouns refer to the same person or thing, the verb is singular and the article/Determiner is not repeated, as:
1. The poet and politician is dead.
 2. My friend and colleague has helped me.
- But when two singular nouns refer to two different persons or things, the verb is plural and the article/Determiner is repeated, as:
1. The poet and the politician are dead.
 2. My friend and my colleague have helped me.
- VIII If plural nouns and phrases as subjects together express one idea, the verb may be in the singular, as-
1. Slow and steady wins the race.
 2. Bread and butter is my favourite snack.
 3. The horse and carriage is at the door.
- IX When a plural noun expresses some specific quantity or amount considered as a whole, the verb is in singular, as-
1. Two thousand rupees is a petty amount.
 2. Fifty kilometers is not a long distance.
- X When two or more singular subjects are connected by 'with', 'together with', 'and not', 'besides', 'no less than' etc. the verbs is in singular, as
1. The suitcase with all its contents was stolen.
 2. Kamal, together with her sisters, is present.
 3. He, and not you, is to blame.
 4. No one besides the nurse knows this secret.
 5. He no less than you is guilty.

XI The verb after introductory ‘There.....’ is usually governed by the noun/ pronoun coming after it, as:

1. There is not a single leaf on the tree.
2. There are a lot of things to be discussed between the two of us.
3. There was chaos and confusion at the party.
4. There were a number of non-vegetarian dishes at the party.
5. There is just one boy in this class.
6. There are a few girls in the classroom.
7. There were a lot many things to discuss with her.

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

1. Mathematics is a scoring subject.
2. Economics has a good scope.
3. This news is good.
4. The wages of sin is death.
5. Billiards is a game for the aristocratic and the rich.

Conversely plural nouns which lack the inflection (‘s/s) take a plural verb, as:

1. The cattle are grazing in the field.
2. The landed gentry are a restless class.
5. Vermin are a common sight in every household.
4. The police are investigating the murder case.
5. The old folk in our locality are planning to start an NGO.

XIII A plural noun which is the name of a country or province (which shows unification of rivers, states etc. in the name itself, quotation or the title of a book, is followed by a singular verb, as:

1. The Union of Soviet Socialist Republic has disintegrated.
2. The Gulliver’s Travels is an interesting book.
5. Great Expectations is one of the best novels.
4. ‘High rise buildings’ means those buildings which are above 100 feet.
5. Crime and Punishment is one of the best novels.

XIV A collective noun generally takes a singular verb when the subject stands for the collection as a whole and a plural verb when the subject stands for individuals of which it is composed, as:

1. The whole class is absconding.
2. The mob has got violent.
3. The jury comprises five retired judges.
4. The jury have divided opinions.
5. The crew were rescued.
6. The public are fed up of promises made by the politicians.
7. The audience were appreciative of the magicians tricks.

XV A relative pronoun agrees with its antecedent in gender, number and person, as:

1. It is you who are to blame.
2. It is she who is to tell her parents about it.
3. It is I who am to bear it all.
4. He has done that exercise which is easy.

XVI When two or more noun phrases act as subject and are coordinated by ‘and’, they take the verb in the plural because they are treated as implied reduction of two clauses, eg:

1. Abhishek and Radha are now ready to get married.

The implied reduction is:

Abhishek is now ready to get married.

Radha is now ready to get married.

In a coordinate phrase/Clause, where there is a mutual relationship, the verb is plural, eg:

1. Your mobile and mine are similar.
2. His house and hers are alike.

But if the coordinate phrase/Clause refers to the same thing, the verb used is singular, as:

1. This temple of glory and memorial of mass awakening was constructed during the time of Babur.
2. That book of quotations and a document of wisdom is a real treasure.

XVII In some noun phrases there is ambiguity because of which the verb can either be singular or plural, as:

1. My friend and the director of the institute is/are very enterprising.
2. Your uncle and the editor of the newspaper is/are in trouble.

In the case of the abstract nouns also, it is difficult to decide whether they represent one quality or two, so used as subjects with a coordination they can take both singular and plural verbs:

1. Her fairness and impartiality has/have impressed all.
2. Your honesty and simplicity has/have got you this job.

XVIII When the subject is a coordinate clause, the verb is plural, eg:

1. What they do and mean are not your concern.
2. What he writes and says are quite in harmony.

The above clauses when put in the following manner take a singular verb:

1. That which they do and mean is not your concern.
2. That which he writes and says is quite in harmony.

XIX In the use of 'more than', the use of the verb depends upon the number used in the head word. If it is singular, the verb is singular and if it is plural, the verb is plural, eg:

1. More than a thousand people were injured in the recent agitation.
2. More than one person has approached him for job.

XX In the use of indefinite and negative expressions of amount, the verb can be either singular or plural, eg:

1. They have invited all the dignitaries, but none has/ have arrived so far.
2. None has/ have understood the problem so far.

XXI When the reflexive pronoun is used in a sentence as object or prepositional complement, the subject — object concord has to be maintained, eg:

1. She hurt herself while boarding the bus.
2. You should do your work yourself.
3. They are buying a car for themselves.
4. The policemen congratulated themselves on solving the murder mystery.

XXII In order to avoid the dilemma of a 'he or 'she' after indefinite pronouns like 'everyone', 'everybody', 'someone', 'somebody', 'anyone', 'anybody', 'no one', 'nobody' etc., 'they' is often used informally, as there is no sex-neutral third person singular pronoun in English. The examples below clarify the point:

1. Everyone thinks they are the boss.
2. Has anybody parked their car outside the main gate?
3. No one will consider themselves worthy of the job.

XXIII The verb with singular nouns/ pronouns as subject is in the singular. But in hypothetical situation the verb is plural with singular subjects, eg:

1. If I were you, I would forgive him.
2. If he were here, he would create a lot of fuss.

XXIV A person or thing, especially when they are part of a group takes a singular verb, eg:

1. One of my friends is now in the US.
2. One of those books is imported.

XXV The verb agrees with the noun/ pronoun closest to it in 'not only ... but also', eg:

1. Not only he but all his companions were taken into custody.
2. Not only you but also I am to bear the brunt.

5.1.3 Examples

I Common errors in concord

1.	Incorrect	Correct
1	Six hundred pounds are a good sum	Six hundred pounds is a good sum
2	The politician and poet are here	The politician and poet is here
3	The father with his sons were present there	The father with his sons was present there
4	He as well as his parents are illiterate	He as well as his parents is illiterate
5	Bread and butter are a wholesome food.	Bread and butter is a wholesome food.
6	Either you or your friend have done this.	Either you or your friend has done this.
7	Either of these two boys are guilty.	Either of these two boys is guilty.
8	The members of the committee is from all walks of life.	The members of the committee are from all walks of life.
9	The Arabian Nights are an interesting book.	The Arabian Nights is an interesting book.
10	Neither you came here nor your brother did	Neither you came here nor did your brother
11	A large number of people was present at the inauguration.	A large number of people were present at the inauguration
12.	Majority of the applicants is girls.	Majority of the applicants are girls.
13.	The news from the war front are not encouraging	The news from the war front is not encouraging
14.	None of them are deserving	None of them is deserving.
15.	What I say and do is none of his business.	What I say and do are none of his business.

II. Do you think there is violation of the rule of concord in the sentences given below? Answer in 'Yes' or 'No'. Make necessary correction where your answer is 'No'.

1. What would you do if your father was here at this time?

No

What would you-do if your father were here at this time?

2. None of them is at fault.

Yes

3. Everybody these days considers himself as god.

No

Everybody these days considers themselves as god.

4. They got themselves imprisoned to save themselves from the mafia.

Yes

5. More than thirty people have applied for this job.

Yes

6. It was the days of eighteenth century.

No

It were the days of eighteenth century.

7. He and his sister are working in the same company.

Yes

8. The committee was divided in their opinion.

No

The committee were divided in their opinion.

9. What they do do not concern us.

No

What they do does not concern us.

10. To find faults in others is easy.

Yes

11. What was once a palace is today a hotel.

Yes

12. He as well as his friends were drunk.

No

He as well as his friends was drunk.

13. Either he or your friends has told him the truth.

No

Either he or your friends have told him the truth.

14. Neither she nor her friends have ever met him.

Yes

15. The government has not stuck to his word.

No

The government have not stuck to their word.

5.2 Self Assessment Questions

Exercise 1

Do you think there is violation of the rule of concord in the sentences given below? Answer in 'Yes' or 'No'. Make necessary correction where your answer is 'No'.

1. None except his parents knows about this.

2. One in thousand forgives and forgets.

3. Each of them are to be rewarded.

4. The dramatist and social worker are dead.

5. Rice and curry are my favourite dish.

6. A salary of one lakh rupees per month are enough to lead a comfortable life.

7. The bag with all the valuables were recovered.

8. They, and not I, am responsible for this loss.

9. Radhika together with her friends is doing to Clerks Amer for dinner.

10. None besides the faculty members knows the truth.

11. The father no less than the daughter are to be blamed.

12. There is a lot many things to be considered.

13. Where is the scissors?

14. These news are based on second hand information.

15. There isn't anybody to look after her.

16. The gentry is expected to turn up for the show.

17. The USA is a powerful country.

18. It is you who is to take the initiative.

19. What you say and write do not have any impact on the masses.

20. His house and mine has been designed by the same architect.

21. Neither films were suitable for children. Neither film was suitable for children.

22. Every one of the responses were incorrect. Every one of the response was incorrect.

23. Each of the ten regional parties were represented in the Lok Sabha. Each of the ten regional parties was represented in the Lok Sabha.

24. What happen to water when you add HCl to it? What happens to water when you add HCl to it?

25. Tutorials is an important part of learning. Tutorials are an important part of learning.

26. An example of these substances are coal. An example of these substances is coal.

27. The crux of English speaking and writing are a thorough knowledge of the language mechanism.

28. It is always the weakest students who was asked to answer.

29. Some students do not have enough books to read, which result into their remaining

ignorant about many important facts.

30. Among his achievements are getting Fullbright scholarship.

31. For most writers, a laptop or a word processor are indispensable.

32. In the drawing room, there were a table and six chairs.

Exercise 2

Fill in the blanks with one of the two words given in blanks:

1. Politicsnot everybody's cup of tea.
(is/ are)
2. No news expected from that end.
(is/ are)
3. Neither you nor Iinvited.
(am/is)
4. The master of these shopsvery rich.
(are/is)
5. Fire and waternot agree.
(do/does)
6. All the girls of this classabsent.
(is/ are)

7. The clothes of this beggartorn.
(is/ are)
8. The United Nationsthe only hope in these days of cold wars
(is/are)
9. Either he or theymistaken.
(is/ are)
10. Time and tidefor none.
(wait/ waits)
11. The quality of the orangesnot good.
(is/ are)
12. All work and no playjack a dull boy.
(make/makes)
15. The poet and dramatistdead.
(is/ are)
14. The poet and the dramatistdead.
(is/ are)
15. One of the boys in the campfallen ill.
(has/ have)
16. Slow and steadythe race.
(win/wins)
17. Neither of the governmentswilling to give up Kashmir.
(is/ are)
18. Neither the teacher nor the studentsthe new principal.
(like! likes)

Exercise 3

Correct the following sentences:

1. He and not you deserve this favour.

2. The principal with all the members of his staff have come.

3. One of these mangoes are sour.

4. Many a student have failed in this test.

5. The horse and the carriage are at the gate.

6. My spectacles is very costly.

7. Rice and curry are not agreeable to me.

8. None of them are right.

9. Our only guide were the stars.

10. Neither of these two boys have stolen the pen.

11. It is you who is to blame for this.

12. Asha, and not you, deserve the prize.

13. Two thirds of this book are easy.

14. Many people lives in slums.

15. A pair of shoes are lying under the table.

16. A large number are expected at the match.

17. III news spread fast.

18. One of my friend have not come.

19. The quality of the mangoes were not good.

20. Not only he but all his companions was arrested.

21. Not only you but also I are to blame.

Exercise 4

Conforming to the rule of concord, use the following in sentences of your own:

1. as well as

2. along with

3. together with

4. Use 'one of my friends' as subject

5. Not only...but also

6. Either. . . or

7. Neither. . . nor

8. each

9. every

10. everybody

11. nobody

12. none

13. Sentence beginning with It is Raj who ...‘

14. Sentence beginning with ‘There was ...‘

15. no less than

16. and not

17. either

18. no one

19. neither

20. besides

21. Use ‘trousers’ as subject

22. Use a collective noun as subject

-
23. Use two coordinate clauses as subject
 24. Begin the sentence using 'More than...'
 25. Use reflexive pronoun as object in accordance with the subject
 26. Use a singular noun! pronoun as subject in a sentence expressing hypothetical condition
 27. Use a noun which are plural in form but singular in meaning as subject
 28. Use the name of a country which shows unification province as subject
 29. Use a quotation with a plural noun phrase as subject
 30. Use a coordinate noun phrase referring to the same thing as subject
-

5.3 Answers to SAQs

Exercise 1

Do you think there is violation of the rule of concord in the sentences given below? Answer in 'Yes' or 'No'. Make necessary correction where your answer is 'No'.

1. No
None except his parents know about this.
2. No
One in thousand forgive and forget.
3. No
Each of them is to be rewarded.
4. No
The dramatist and social worker is dead.
5. No
Rice and curry is my favourite dish.

6. No
A salary of one lakh rupees per month is enough to lead a comfortable life.
7. No
The bag with all the valuables was recovered.
8. No
They, and not I, are responsible for this loss.
9. Yes
10. Yes
11. No
The father no less than the daughter is to be blamed.
12. No
There are a lot many things to be considered.
13. No
Where are the scissors?
14. No
This news is based on second hand information.
15. Yes
16. No
The gentry are expected to turn up for the show.
17. Yes
18. No
It is you who are to take the initiative.
19. Yes
20. No
His house and mine have been designed by the same architect.
21. No
Neither film was suitable for children.
22. No
Every one of the response was incorrect.
25. No
Each of the ten regional parties was represented in the Lok Sabha.

24. No
What happens to water when you add HCl to it?
25. No
Tutorials are an important part of learning.
26. No
An example of these substances is coal.
27. No
The crux of English speaking and writing is a thorough knowledge of the language mechanism.
28. No
It is always the weakest students who were asked to answer.
29. No
Some students do not have enough books to read, which result into their remaining ignorant about many important facts.
30. No
Among his achievements are getting Fullbright scholarship.
31. No
For most writers, a laptop or a word processor are indispensable.
32. No
In the drawing room, there were a table and six chairs.

Exercise 2

1. is
2. is
3. am
4. is
5. do
6. are
7. are
8. is
9. are
10. wait
11. is

12. makes
13. is
14. are
15. has
16. wins
17. is
18. like

Exercise 3

1. He and not you deserves this favour.
2. The principal with all the members of his staff has come.
5. One of these mangoes is sour.
4. Many a student has failed in this test.
5. The horse and the carriage is at the gate.
6. My spectacles are very costly.
7. Rice and curry is not agreeable to me.
8. None of them is right.
9. Our only guide was the stars.
10. Neither of these two boys has stolen the pen.
11. It is you who are to blame for this.
12. Asha, and not you, deserves the prize.
13. Two thirds of this book is easy.
14. Many people live in slums.
15. A pair of shoes is lying under the table.
16. A large number is expected at the match.
17. Ill news spreads fast.
18. One of my friends has not come.
19. The quality of the mangoes was not good.
20. Not only he but all his companions were arrested.
21. Not only you but also I am to blame.

Exercise 4

1. He as well as his colleagues was arrested.

2. The along with the articles is on sale.
5. Ankur together with his friends was present at the party.
4. One of my friends is now a computer wizard.
5. Not only Meenakshi but also her classmates are intelligent.
6. Either Abha or her neighbours have seen the robber
7. Neither my uncle nor my relatives have helped me ever.
8. Each one of them needs to be rewarded.
9. Every action has a reaction.
10. Has everybody done their homework?
11. Nobody has submitted their assignment so far.
12. None of them is to be blamed for the losses.
15. It is Raj who has worked hard to get this project.
14. There was no one to receive him at the station.
15. Shiv no less than Vijay and Karan is to be blamed for the loss.
16. They, and not their father, have worked hard to make the company rise upto this level.
17. Either of them has stolen the gem.
18. No one except his friends consider him a gentleman.
19. Neither of us is going to the function
20. No one besides Raji knows the real truth.
21. My trousers are loose on my waist.
22. The committee has recommended the case to the higher authorities.
25. My views and your are quite similar.
24. More than one lakh people assembled at the common meet to show their unity.
25. Do you work yourself if you really want to learn.
26. If I were in her place I would not lose hope.
27. Physics is a tough subject.
28. The USSR was once a powerful country.
29. 'Low priced books' means those books which are fairly cheap.
30. This book on grammar and a handy usage guide is fairly cheap.

5.4 Let Us Sum Up

In this unit we have given you practice in

- i) identifying notions and concepts
- ii) expressing different notions and concepts through sentences

5.5 Review Questions

1. Mention any five rules of concord with examples.
2. Mention the various rules of inflections for making plural nouns and plural verbs.

5.6 Bibliography

1. Close, RA. English as a Foreign Language. Great Britain: ELBS, 1981.
 2. Hornby, AS. Guide to Patterns and Usage in English. New Delhi: Oxford University Press, 2005.
-

UNIT-6

NOTIONS AND CONCEPTS

Structure

- 6.0 Objectives
- 6.1 Comprehension of the Language Topic
 - 6.1.1 Study Guide
 - 6.1.2 Notions and Concepts,
 - 6.1.3 Examples
- 6.2 Self Assessment Questions
- 6.3 Answers to SAQs
- 6.4 Let Us Sum Up
- 6.5 Review Questions
- 6.6 Bibliography

6.0 Objectives

In this unit our aim is to make you comprehend the topic (i) notions and concepts (ii) give some examples of the same separately and ensure that you start using and identifying them. There are also exhaustive exercises on notions and concepts which will enable you to test and rate yourself after checking your answers and comparing them with those given towards the end of the unit.

After completing this unit you should be able to:

- understand different notions and concepts in English; distinguish between some notions which seem to be similar
- practise and master the idea of notions and concepts

6.1 Comprehension of the Language Topic

6.1.1 Study Guide

Read the theory of the topic 'Notions and Concepts' given below which is given in the form of different examples and try to understand it.

After you have read and understood the topic, go through the examples given thereafter and attempt solving the exercises given to test you. You should then check your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

6.1.2 Notions and Concepts

Notion means an idea or a belief and concept is an idea or a principle which is connected

with abstract things, such as 'permission'. Notions are usually expressed through abstract nouns or verbs. It is important to know the different ways of expressing advice, apology, blame, command, congratulations, denial, insistence, suggestion, warning etc. for the purpose of variety in writing and effectiveness in communication. The need to express the same notion differently is also felt due to circumstances, varying from formality to informality, personal to impersonal and so on. Here are some of the common ways of expressing certain concepts and notions for second language learners of English and there may be many more if we take into consideration the first language user of English. But the following will suffice for the former:

1. Ability

- (a) Raj has the ability to do much better.
- (b) Aadi can also speak German quite well
- (c) Anshika will be able to speak English fluently in a month.
- (d) Jawahar could walk for miles at a stretch.
- (e) I was able to pass my driving test the first attempt.
- (f) She could have topped if she had appeared for all the five papers.
- (g) They have been unable to solve the problem.

2. Acknowledgment

- (a) Thank you for your valuable advice.
- (b) I acknowledge receipt of the payment of Rs 20000 in cash.
- (c) I am grateful to you for your assistance in preparing the bibliography.
- (d) We are indebted to Radhika for enabling us to see life in a different way.

3. Advice

- (a) Be cautious. Don't be rash.
- (b) Slow down the pace of work till you receive the payment.
- (c) You should (or ought to) stop drinking.
- (d) I would concentrate on my work if I were you.
- (e) I think you must consult a doctor for you seem to be suffering from insomnia.
- (f) They would advise you to consult a lawyer.

6 Agreement

- (a) Yes, I agree (You are right / All right).
- (b) I entirely agree with what you say.
- (c) Benazir and Mussharraf have failed to reach complete agreement on the division of power so far.
- (d) She agreed to help me but she didn't.

5. Cause and Effect
 - (a) This reservation makes me sick. It gives me the feeling that we are still those old barbaric tribes.
 - (b) Vikas' decision shocked me. It rather made me speech-less.
 - (c) The prices escalated due to the agitation.
6. Certainty
 - (a) It is certain to rain
 - (b) Abhi and Rads are sure to win.
 - (c) We are confident of getting through.
 - (d) All must be fine, surely.
7. Commands or Orders
 - (a) Get out at once.
 - (b) She must wipe it again. It is not neatly done.
 - (c) Will you hold your tongue and let me talk?
 - (d) Get up, will you.?
 - (e) You will not turn the page. Is that clear?
 - (f) She is to tell me everything by tomorrow.
 - (g) They ordered me to shut the door.
8. Comparisons
 - (a) Pretie is as beautiful as Ashwaria.
 - (b) Abhishek is not as handsome as Vijay.
 - (c) She is wiser than me.
 - (d) Houses in Malviya Nagar are far more expensive than those in Raja Park.
 - (e) Anshika's handwriting is much better than that of Bhavya.
 - (f) She likes me more than I like her.
9. Concession
 - (a) She may be richer I agree but she is compassionate.
 - (b) Although the distances between them have increased yet they are at talking terms.
 - (c) However fast you may run, you are bound to miss the bus.
 - (d) Though he is poor, he has self-respect.
 - (e) He has not been able to earn much money. He has earned a name for himself,

though.

- (f) Whatever faults she may have, she is clear at heart.
- (g) Come what may, we will face the odds boldly.
- (h) No matter what he does, he does not get the credit.
- (i) Rich as Abhishek is, I don't envy him.
- (j) For all the riches of the world, a rich person is never at peace and ease.

10. Consequence

- (a) Write in a neat hand or marks will be deducted for illegible handwriting.
- (b) You left the door open and the mouse came in.
- (c) If they remain in touch for a few months they will understand each other better.
- (d) None of the leaders is willing to compromise, so the talks have failed.
- (e) Democratic set up became weak in Pakistan. Consequently, the military general took up power in his hands

11. Determination

- (a) I will make it up this time.
- (b) I'm going to keep trying till I succeed.
- (c) The Gurjars are determined on continuing their agitation till their demands are acceded to.

12. Habit

- (a) I always get up at six in the morning.
- (b) She used to talk to me for hours.
- (c) My uncle is always worrying about us.
- (d) She will keep roaming with her dog the whole evening.
- (e) Mr Tiwari would never be late for the class. (past habit).

13. Hesitation

- (a) Excuse me, but might I use your pen?
- (b) I was wondering whether she would bother to call me back.
- (c) They are thinking of shifting to some new colony.

14. Impossibility

- (a) She cannot score so low marks, surely.
- (b) There's no other way of solving this problem.

15. Intention

- (a) I will meet him to discuss the matter.
- (b) She is going to stay indoors.

16. Invitation

- (a) Will you proceed to the dining hall?
- (b) Do come to the party, won't you?
- (c) Would you like to ease yourself out?
- (d) Would you join us for a cup of coffee?
- (e) Mr and Mrs Raj Kumar Jain request the pleasure of your company on the occasion of the marriage of their daughter.

17. Probability (Likelihood)

- (a) We'll probably meet them at Steam.
- (b) It's quite likely that the weather may be rough very shortly.
- (c) I daresay he is wrong. It's quite probable.
- (d) It looks like rain.
- (e) Tread the paths of love cautiously. You'll slip if you're not careful.

18. Manner

- (a) She speaks as if she were your boss.
- (b) Jai speaks exactly like you.
- (e) She behaves as if she were ignorant.

19. Necessity

- (a) You must work hard in order to attain good marks.
- (b) You will have to practise extensively if you want to score well in Mathematics.
- (c) Adverse situations compelled him to quit his job.
- (d) It is not necessary for them to come daily.
- (e) You needn't repaint the door.

20. Obligation

- (a) We have to manage the things properly.
- (b) You must take care of your ailing parents.
- (c) Clear instructions are to be given to the examinees.
- (d) You are not obliged to react.
- (e) It is your duty to pay attention to what your elders say.

21. Offer

- (a) Will you have Vodka?
 - (b) What will you prefer?
 - (c) Would you like to have coffee?
 - (d) Please let me get you a chair to sit on.
 - (e) Can /May I offer you something to drink?
 - (f) Would you like to use my mobile?
22. Permission
- (a) You can leave.
 - (b) You may take my pen provided you return it.
 - (c) The teacher said that I might take that chart.
 - (d) Members are allowed to visit the shrine.
 - (e) Tenants are permitted to arrange for their personal security.
23. Possibility
- (a) Perhaps they are going to watch a film at EP.
 - (b) She may not come today even.
 - (c) She might be out of town as her mobile is out of network coverage area.
 - (d) His father may have come to know about the truth by now.
 - (e) It can rain today.
26. Predictions
- (a) Gandhi Jayanti will be on a Sunday this time. (certain).
 - (b) Vasundhara is going to chair the session (certain).
 - (e) India might win the next world cup (uncertain).
 - (d) Summers here may be be pleasant here this time (uncertain)
 - (e) Sania is bound to win the Wimbeldon soon (uncertain)
25. Preference
- (a) What would you like, pizza or burger?
 - (b) I'd rather have tea.
 - (c) I would prefer playing an indoor game than watching TV.
 - (d) I would rather go for an outing.
26. Prohibition
- (a) Keep off the wires.

- (b) No Parking.
 - (c) No trespassers.
 - (d) Smoking prohibited.
 - (e) I'm sorry, but smoking is not permitted inside the plane, sir.
 - (f) Don't step on flowerbeds.
27. Promise
- (a) I'll take you for a movie on Saturday.
 - (b) I'll make you meet my friends very soon.
 - (c) You shall get back your book as soon as I have read it.
 - (d) You will be rewarded if you work with complete sincerity.
28. Proposal
- (a) I move/ propose that a middle path be adopted.
 - (b) Will you marry me, sweet heart?
29. Purpose
- (a) The Governor went to Delhi to discuss the possibility of president rule in the state.
 - (b) The teacher waits for the students to pick up pace.
 - (c) He performed unusual feats so as to ensure that his name is entered in the Guinness Book of World Records.
 - (d) UOR has come out with open vacancies in order to comply with the orders of the court.
 - (e) He is working hard so that he can get through.
 - (f) Did you do that to irritate me?
 - (g) Old people want someone to take care of them.
 - (h) What do you use a pen knife for?
 - (i) They called me in for signing the papers.
30. Reason
- (a) She is weeping because she has lost her purse.
 - (b) You cannot reach Delhi since the highway is blocked.
 - (c) We have started locking the main gate for keeping trespassers away.
 - (d) As she was rich, she played with his sentiments.
 - (e) Being unable to get a taxi, he started walking down the road.

- (f) The reason for the delay was the disruption of postal services.
31. Regret
- (a) We are sorry to have hurt your feelings.
- (b) I regret seeking his help.
- (c) Oh, I so much wanted to read a paper at that international conference.
32. Request
- (a) Can /Could you bring me a glass of water please?
- (b) Where is my bag, please?
- (c) Can / Could you guide me to a cyber cafe? Please.
- (d) Excuse me, will you guide me to the university?
- (e) Excuse me, am I on the right road to the university?
- (f) What is the time please?
- (g) How do you solve such difficult sums, sir?
- (h) Can /Could /May/Might I have your mobile number, please?
- (i) Can /Could /May/Might I borrow your book for a few days?
- (j) Lend me your ears, countrymen!
- (k) Will you lend me some money?
- (l) Lend me some money, will you?
- (m) Would you mind lending me your car for a day?
- (n) Might I bother you to post this letter for me?
- (o) Come here, will you?
- (p) What is the time please?
- (q) Can (Could) you tell me the time please?
- (r) Where is the Department of English, please?
- (s) Excuse me, where is the washroom, please?
- (t) Can (Could) you tell me how to get to the railway station? Please.
- (u) How do you pronounce 'pizza', sir.
- (v) Can (Could/ May/ Might) I have some of those oranges, please?
- (w) Can (Could! May! Might) I borrow your book for a week?
- (x) Will you lie down?
- (y) Will you take a seat?

- (z) Lie down, will you?
 - (aa) Take a seat, will you?
 - (bb) Would you mind switching the TV off?
 - (cc) Might I trouble you to help me with this log of wood?
32. Suggestion
- (a) Let's party tonight, shall we?
 - (b) Shall we go for an outing next weekend?
 - (c) I think it would be a good idea to consult a specialist, don't you?
 - (d) I suggest you to get rid of smoking.
33. Sympathy
- (a) We are sorry. What bad luck! You really deserved the award.
 - (b) I'm sorry to see you in this condition. But there is no cause to worry. You'll recover soon.
 - (c) I'm sorry to hear about your father's demise.
 - (d) I'm very, very sorry to hear about your sister.
 - (e) Please accept our heartfelt condolence.
 - (f) Please accept our deepest sympathy in your sad loss.
36. Thankfulness
- (a) Thank you very much for your cooperation.
 - (b) Thank you so much for making the evening delightful.
 - (c) We are most grateful to you for donating generously.
 - (d) I should be thankful if you would do this work for me.
 - (e) I would be obliged if you consider my application.
35. Warning
- (a) Be cautious.
 - (b) Danger ahead.
 - (c) Stop and make sure the lane is clear.
 - (d) Be very careful round the corner of the street.
 - (e) Poison. Keep out of reach of children.
 - (f) Beware of pickpockets.
36. Wishes/ Wish

- (a) When I was in school, I always had an urge to go to Connaught Place alone.
- (b) If only I could convince them about the truth of the matter!
- (c) Best wishes for the New Year!
- (d) Good wishes to all!
- (e) Long live the king!
- (f) May you be prosperous!
- (g) God bless you!
- (h) Enjoy yourselves!
- (i) Have a nice time!
- (j) I wish I knew the key to success.
- (k) If only I had a solution!

37. Plans and arrangement

- (a) They are planning/arranging to go to Las Vegas for their honeymoon.
- (b) They are going there next month.
- (c) We are meeting the foreign delegation in the evening.
- (d) Will she be coming to the party?
- (e) The PM leaves for Tokyo tomorrow.
- (f) When do your schools reopen?
- (g) Is it tomorrow morning that we have an appointment with the CM?
- (h) Mr Kasliwal is to reach Jaipur on the 10th of June.

38.. Threat

- (a) Maya has threatened to punish the guilty.
- (b) I'll thrash you if you do not follow my instructions.
- (d) If they misbehaved they should go to bed without supper.

39. Condition

- (a) If the agitation continues, prices of goods will escalate.
- (b) I would help you if I had time.
- (c) Had she informed me earlier I would have been better prepared.
- (d) If you have enough money to spare, why don't you help the poor.
- (e) If she has been studying all night, she needs to sleep for a few hours.
- (f) If the letter was couriered yesterday, it is likely to reach the destination today.

- (g) If I were you, I would not react that way.
 - (h) Were I you, I would teach him a lesson.
 - (i) Supposing he comes late, what should I do?
 - (j) The farmers will reap a bumper crop provided the weather does not betray them.
40. Congratulations
- (a) Well done. That was superb.
 - (b) Congratulations on your brilliant success.
 - (c) I offer you my sincere congratulations on your appointment.
 - (d) I take this opportunity to congratulate you on this excellent performance.
41. Contrast
- (a) Karanveer was completely different from Kashyap.
 - (b) Whereas Sanjay was patient and always thoughtful of others, Vikas was hasty and inconsiderate.
 - (c) Dhoni is a balanced player and (in contrast) Sehwag is a rash player.
42. Insistence
- (a) I will ask him to resign.
 - (b) I will go on my bike.
 - (c) You must stay for supper I insist.
 - (d) We insist that you must complete your dissertation within the stipulated time.
43. Recommendations
- (a) If you want to reduce your weight, control your diet and also do exercise daily.
 - (b) Why don't you discuss your case with a competent lawyer?
 - (c) Mr Punjani recommended me to keep applying for vacancies abroad.
 - (d) I recommend you to practise playing badminton daily.
44. Refusal
- (a) No, I'm sorry but I can't allow you to sleep in my room.
 - (b) No, you may not leave early today.
 - (c) We regret that we will be unable to attend your function.
 - (d) Have you gone crazy to think that I'll marry you?
45. Regret

- (a) I'm very sorry I said that.
- (b) It was very foolish of me to have behaved that way.
- (c) I regret saying that.
- (d) We regret having said that.
- (e) Oh, but I so much wanted to be a part of that training programme.
- (f) I regret to say that none of you has been able to impress the judges.

46. Willingness

- (a) A Can I bring you some sugar?
B Yes please, if you will.
- (b) A Will anyone go with me for a long drive?
B We all will.
- (c) A Will you drop me to the airport tomorrow?
B I will, gladly.

6.1.3 Examples

I. Point out the notion/concept expressed through the sentences give below:

- 1. Suppose your father gets to know that you are not attending your classes, what would be his reaction?
Condition.
- 2. No matter what I did to please him, he remained unaffected.
Concession
- 3. Your department is better than ours.
Comparison.
- 4. We are going out for an outing as we have got fed up of this routine life.
Reason
- 5. My mother would rather stay at home than go out.
Preference
- 6. You shall have your books back very soon.
Promise
- 7. Have a good time!
Wish
- 8. If only we had know all the mysteries of the universe.

Wish

9. We'll punish them if they disobey.

Threat

10. They'll do as they like.

Determination

11. You ought to start the work at once.

Moral obligation/ Duty

12. You don't need to hurry.

Necessity

13. We are to leave by the month end.

Plan

16. The government is going to open up the postal services for the private sector.

Intention

15. It might rain today.

Possibility

16. He is likely to leave tomorrow.

Likelihood

17. Would you mind shutting the door?

Suggestion

18. Could you bring me a glass of water?

Request

19. No noise.

Prohibition

20. Stop smoking.

Command

21. I can speak five languages.

Ability

II Convey the following notions/concepts through a sentence of your own:

1. Ability

You will be able to do all the work on your own within a week.

2. Acceptance

Thank you for the invitation. I will surely come.

3. Acknowledgment

We acknowledge the receipt of your cheque.

4. Advice

I would avoid talking to strangers if I were you.

5. Agreement

She agreed to post the letter.

6. Apology

I apologise for being late.

7. Arrangements

They are leaving for Paris.

8. Cause

All this confusion was caused by your phone call.

9. Certainty

They are sure to win.

10. Comparison

Amitabh is still more popular than Shahrukh.

11. Concession

Although he is sick, he will do whatever best possible he can.

12. Congratulations

I congratulate you for your brave effort.

13. Consequence

If you keep complaining, you will be sidetracked.

14. Contrast

Raj was rich whereas Rajesh was poor.

15. Determination

I will do the way I feel like.

16. Habit (past)

He would imitate all the teachers.

17. Habit (present)

He always comes late.

18. Impossibility

There is no way of getting rid of him now.

19. Intention

We will meet them tomorrow.

20. Invitation

Would you spare some time for dining with us?

21. Probability

It is likely to be chilly in Kashmir at this time of the year.

22. Manner

She behaves as if she never knew me.

23. Necessity

They will have to be more lenient if they want their students to grow.

26. Obligation

We have to wind up with our work by evening today.

25. Offer

Would you like to have some more tea?

26 Plans

The work of the over bridge is to start by next month.

27. Possibility

Aekloveya might be home late today.

28. Prediction

It is going to be a pleasant summer this year.

29. Preference

I would rather starve than beg.

30. Prohibition

Don't make a noise here.

31. Promise

You shall get back you money very soon.

32. Proposal

I propose to accept sealed tenders only.

33. Purpose

They have shut the door so that no one is able to disturb them.

36. Reason

As your license got expired last year, you'll have to get a new one made.

35. Recommendation

You should go to some watering place for a change.

36. Refusal

We are sorry, we cannot allow you to stay here.

37. Regret

I regret telling you this bad news.

38. Request

Can you guide me to the main market?

39. Suggestion

How about having dinner at EP today?

60. Thankfulness

Thank you for all that you have done.

61. Wish

Oh that my darling were here now!

6.2 Self Assessment Questions

Exercise 1

Point out the notion/concept expressed through the sentences given below:

1. I'll be there to help.

2. Well, have a good time.

3. Take this magazine to read along the journey.

6. We are spending our vacations in Kashmir.

5. He often uses local transport, although he has a car.

6. Won't you stay a little longer?

-
7. I dare say she's feeling sleepy.
-
8. You should be by your ailing mother.
-
9. Shall we go out for a change?
-
10. You mustn't tease dogs.
-
11. My grandfather would often remain in the fields for hours.
-
12. They didn't need to huffy.
-
13. It is going to rain heavily today.
-
16. You might have a look at this book.
-
15. Had I been in your company, I would have learnt all the tricks of the trade.
-
16. This way, please. Request
-
17. I can recommend this soap.
-
18. They are getting married soon.
-
19. There must be some misunderstanding between the two of them.
-
20. I wonder if we could go to see a movie.
-
21. She would rather stay indoors.
-

22. She is going to buy a scooter.

23. Have a glass of juice, won't you?

26. I wish you would be quiet.

25. Reference books must not be removed from the reading room.

26. I dare say you are tired.

27. They needn't have hurried.

28. Do that and I'll tell your teacher.

29. There must be some mistake.

30. Accidents will happen.

31. She departs from here for Mumbai.

32. You'd better begin the work on time.

33. I wish you would go away soon.

36. They're throwing a party next weekend.

35. How about doing this work together.

36. My doctor won't let me get up yet.

37. I have come here to meet you.

38. Although they are brothers, they never talk to each other.

39. You might make a little less noise.

60. If only the train would stop!

62. Raj jumped into the pool in order to swim.

63. You needn't have hurried.

Exercise 2

Convey the following notion/concept through a sentence of your own in the blanks below:

1. Ability

2. Acceptance

3. Acknowledgement

6. Advice

5. Agreement

6. Apology

7. Arrangements

8. Cause

9. Command/ Order

10. Comparison

11. Concession

12. Congratulations

13. Consequence

16. Contrast

15. Determination

16. Habit (past)

17. Habit (present)

18. Impossibility

19. Intention

20. Invitation

21. Probability

22. Manner

23. Necessity

26. Obligation

25. Offer
-
26. Plans
-
27. Possibility
-
28. Prediction
-
29. Preference
-
30. Prohibition
-
31. Promise
-
32. Proposal
-
33. Purpose
-
36. Reason
-
35. Recommendation
-
36. Refusal
-
37. Regret
-
38. Request
-
39. Suggestion
-
60. Thankfulness
-

61. Willingness

62. Wish

6.3 Answers to SAQs

Exercise 1

1. Promise
2. Wish
3. Suggestion
6. Plan/ Intention
5. Concession
6. Request
7. Probability
8. Advice
9. Suggestion
10. Prohibition
11. Past habit
12. Necessity/ Suggestion
13. Probability
16. Permission
15. Condition
16. Request
17. Ability
18. Plan/ Intention
19. Certainty
20. Request
21. Preference
22. Intention
23. Request
26. Request

- 25. Prohibition
- 26. Probability
- 27. Necessity/ Suggestion
- 28. Threat
- 29. Certainty
- 30. Possibility
- 31. Intention! Plan
- 32. Advice
- 33. Request
- 36. Plan
- 35. Suggestion
- 36. Prohibition
- 37. Purpose
- 38. Concession
- 39. Request
- 60. Wish
- 62. Purpose
- 63. Obligation/Necessity

Exercise 2

Convey the following notion/concept through a sentence of your own:

- 1. Radha has the ability to impress people.
- 2. We would be delighted to go with you to the party.
- 3. Thank you for obliging us by accepting our offer
- 6. You'd better drive slowly.
- 5. I quite agree with what you say./ You are right/ Yes, I think it is so.
- 6. I am sorry for being rude.
- 7. She has arranged to go to Delhi next week.
- 8. The cause of the delay in the letter is the disruption of postal services
- 9. Stand up, will you!! Go away at once
- 10. Anuja is not as charismatic as Aditi.
- 11. Although she tried hard to convince him yet she failed.

12. Well done. Keep it up./Congratulations on your scoring a first.
13. Stop making excuses or you will be punished.
16. Ajay is hardworking and (in contrast) Vijay is
15. We won't give it up.
16. She used to message me very often then.
17. I always get up early.
18. He can't be so careless, surely.
19. We are going to watch the match today.
20. Would you like to see the monuments?
21. I daresay she'll come. It is quite probable.
22. She spoke so loudly, as if I were deaf.
23. You must study in order to make your life meaningful.
26. We have to submit this assignment by next week.
25. Will you have juice?
26. They have arranged to go to Goa this time.
27. They may be late in reaching here.
28. A ruby in the index finger of your right hand will change your life significantly.
29. We'd rather have pizza.
30. Don't utter a word in the corridor.
31. I'll buy you a Skoda for your birthday.
32. I move that we should consider innovative projects.
33. Put on the air conditioner to beat the heat.
36. He is limping because he has hurt himself.
35. You ought to consult a physiotherapist for that backache.
36. I'm sorry I can't help you in doing this work.
37. I'm sorry I hurt you by saying that.
38. Would you mind lending me your laptop for a day?
39. Let's begin our work afresh, shall we?
60. We are grateful for your very valuable suggestions.
61. I will take you to the doctor.
62. Oh that I were in New York!

6.4 Let Us Sum Up

In this unit we have given you practice in

- i) identifying notions and concepts
- ii) expressing different notions and concepts through sentences

6.5 Review Questions

- 1. Mention ant five notions/concepts giving examples of each.
- 2. Distinguish between some notions in English which seem to be similar.

6.6 Bibliography

- 1 Close, RA. English as a Foreign Language. Great Britain: ELBS, 1981.
- 2. Hornby, AS. Guide to Patterns and Usage in English. New Delhi: Oxford University Press, 2005.

UNIT-7

MORPHOLOGY

Structure

- 7.0 Objective
- 7.1 Introduction
- 7.2 Prefixes and suffixes
- 7.3 Word Formation
- 7.4 Compounding
- 7.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 7.6 Review Questions
- 7.7 Bibliography

7.0 Objective

In this unit our aim is to make you comprehend the topic Morphology and give some examples of the same separately and ensure that you start using and identifying them. There are also exhaustive exercises on Morphology which will enable you to test and rate yourself after checking your answers and comparing them with those given at the end of the unit.

7.1 Introduction

Morphology is the study of words — the forms of words, their contours, their inflections and derivations. Let us look at the dictionary definition of word :

Morphology is the branch of linguistics that studies patterns of word formation within and across languages, and attempts to formulate rules that model the knowledge of the speakers of those languages. It is the identification, analysis and description of the structure of morphemes and other units of meaning in a language like words, affixes and parts of speech and intonation/stress, implied context.

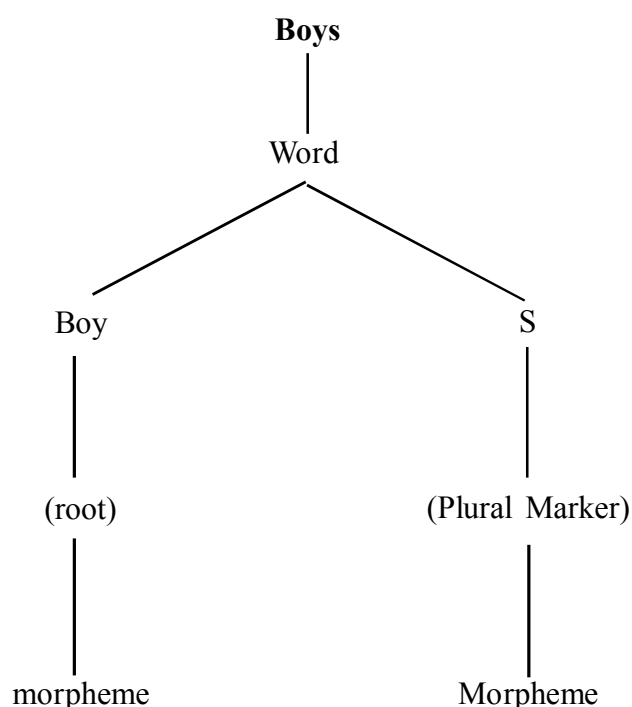
Morphology constitutes the study of words. Since a word can either be a sound or a sequence of sounds, that makes one kind of word: let's call it **the phonological word** and represent it by writing it in phonetic transcription. We may also use 'word' to refer to the written, or orthographic, representation of the phonological word, so that gives us **the orthographic word**, which we shall represent by writing it in small letters. We can try and explore the relationships between these two kinds of words. The orthographic representation of a phonological word is never a straightforward, one-to-one, representation. Sometimes two or more phonological words are represented by the same orthographic word, e.g., the orthographic word **read** represents the two phonological words /ri:d/ and /red/; **lead** represents /li:d/ and /led/. Such cases are known as **homographs**. Sometimes one phonological word (e.g. /mi:t/, /kɜ:s/ may be represented by two or more orthographic words **meet** and **meat**; **coarse** and **course** such cases are called

homophones.

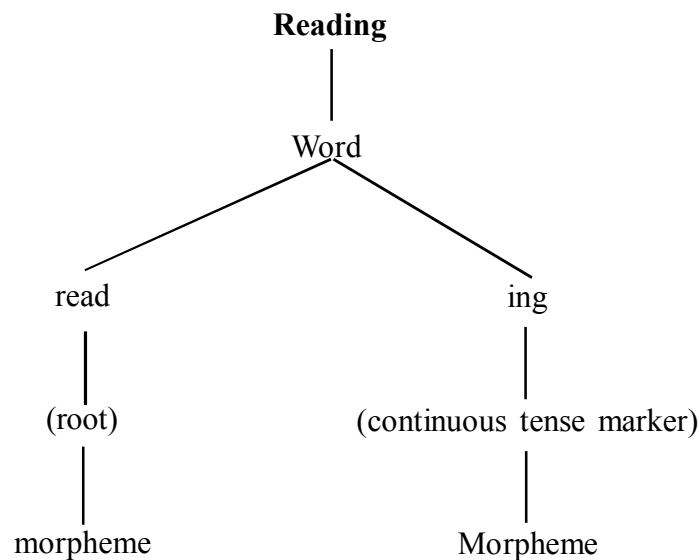
The smallest unit of language is the *morpheme*. It is the smallest unit of meaning as well as grammatical function.

Certain morphemes in English are such that they are realized at the word level into independently occurring forms, while others are realized only in combination with other morphemes into merged forms where their separate identity may not always be represented by phonological or orthographic means. Thus, **boy**, **book**, **read**, etc. occur at the word level as free, (ie independently occurring) forms, so do **boyish**, **bookish** and **reading**. The last three are however morpheme combinations and they contain two morphemes each. The first two words contain the morpheme **–ish** while the last word contains **–ing**. The morphemes occur only in combination with other morphemes (like boy and book) and are not realized as independent word forms. **–ING** is actually the morpheme **continuous aspect**. Its convenient representation as **–ing** here is based on the fact that it is orthographically realized as the suffix **–ing**, but this convenience is not available to us in all cases. For example, the morpheme **PAST**, WHEN COMBINED WITH THE MORPHEME **READ**, gives us the homographic form **read** and the phonological form /red/, neither of which presents us with a convenient handle on the morpheme. Hence morphemes like **–ish** and **continuous aspect** can only be treated as abstract entities. Since we cannot regard some morphemes as abstract and others as concrete, all morphemes are treated as abstract. This, however, does not affect the division of morphemes into **free** and **bound**. Morphemes like **–ISH** and **CONTINUOUS ASPECT**, which are not realized as independently occurring words, are bound morphemes.

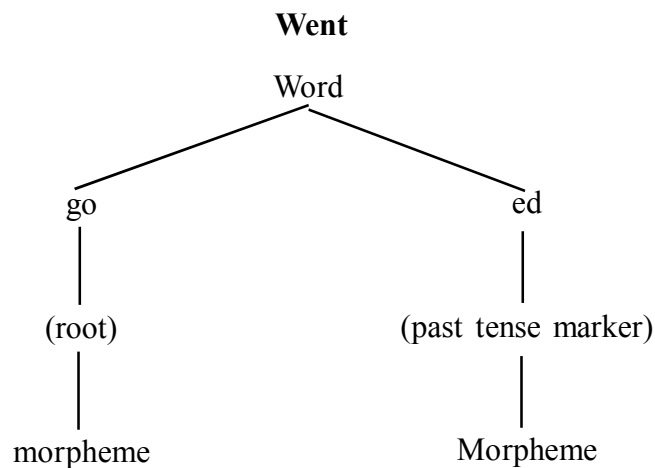
e.g.: i)



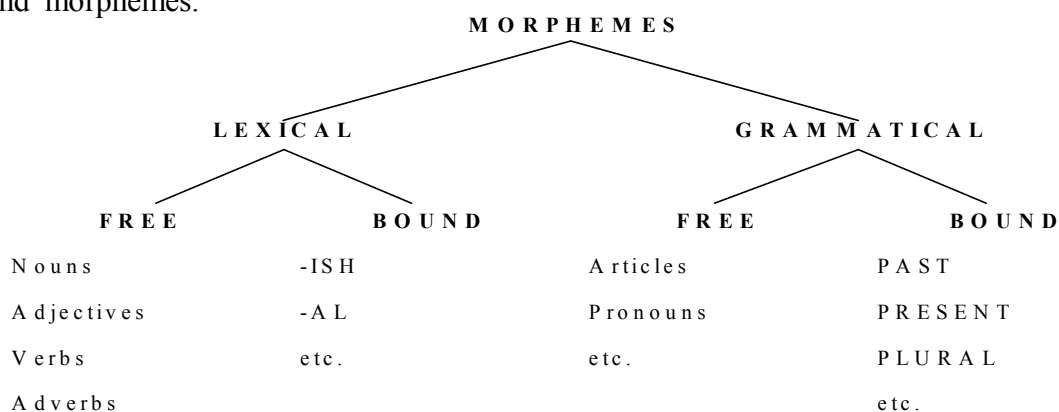
ii)



ii)



Articles, pronouns, etc. (i.e. function words) are examples of free grammatical morphemes, since they are realized as freely occurring forms. But morphemes like **plural, present, past, continuous, past perfect, present perfect**. etc. are not realized as free-occurring forms but as modifications on other free-occurring forms; hence they are bound morphemes in English. Similarly, nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs, which are all realized as free-occurring lexical words, are free morphemes, while morphemes like **-ish, -al -able, -ness**, etc., which are not independently realized into words but must be combined with free lexical morphemes to be so realized, are bound morphemes.



In the majority of cases of complex and compound words, the (free and bound) morphemes in combination that are realized as words can be identified as separate elements (called **morphs**) in the phonological and orthographic representations. This makes it easier to refer to the morphemes when talking about the rules which govern their occurrence. Morphology, or the branch of linguistics that deals with the internal ('morphic') structure of words, has a set of terms to describe the various categories into which these morpheme elements (or **morphs**) can be separated. The three basic category-terms are **affixes** (divided into **prefixes** and **suffixes**), **stems** and **roots**.

A complex word, as stated above, realizes the combination of (1) one free morpheme and one or more than one bound morphemes, or (2) two or more bound morphemes. Here are some examples of such combinations:

'impenetrable'	=	IM + PENETR + ABLE
'declassify'	=	DE + CLASS + FY
'recharge'	=	RE + CHARGE
'hopeless'	=	HOPE + LESS
hopelessly'	=	HOPE + LESS + LY
'deindustrializing'	=	DE + INDUSTRY + IAL + IZ (E) + ING

Inflection refers to the ways in which bound grammatical morphemes combine with stems to be realized as grammatical words. **Derivation**, on the other hand, describes the ways in which bound lexical morphemes combine with stems to be realized as lexical words.

Examples of inflectional affixes in English are the suffix *-s/-es* on plural nouns, the suffix *-s/-es* on third person, singular number verbs, the suffix *'s* on possessive nouns, the suffix *-d/-ed* on past participle forms of verbs, and so on.

Examples of derivational affixes in English include all those prefixes and suffixes we have called bound lexical morphemes, e.g. *de-*, *re-*, *-ize* *-ation*, etc.

Root	Industry
Deriv.	Industry (i) + al
Deriv.	(industry (i) + al) +ize
Deriv.	De + {(industry (i) +al) +ize}
Infl.	{de+ {industry (i) + al) + ize}} +ing

Inflection of Nouns

Rule I	SINGULAR	PLURAL
	COUNT NOUN+SINGULAR	COUNT NOUN+PLURAL

CAT+SINGULAR	= cat /kæt/	CAT + PLURAL	= cats /kæts/
DOG+SINGULAR	= dog /dɒg/	DOG+SING+POSS	= dog /dɒgz/
HOUSE+SINGULAR	= house /haʊs/	horse + PLURAL	= horses /haʊsɪz/

Rule II	Common Case	Possessive Case
	COUNT NOUN+COMMON	COUNT NOUN+POSSESSIVE
	CAT+COMMON = cat /kæt/	CAT+POSSESSIVE = cat's /kæts/
	DOG+COMMON = dog /dɒg/	DOG+POSSESSIVE = dog /dɒgz/
	HORSE+COMMON = horse /hɔ:rs/	HORSE+POSSESSIVE=horses /hɔ:siz/

Rule I&II (Apply in that order)

Singular Number + Common Case	Singular Number + Possessive Case
CAT+SING+COMMON =cat /kæt/	CAT+SING+POSS cat's /kæts/
DOG+SING+COMMON =dog /dɒg/	DOG+SING+POSS dog's /dɒgz/
HORSE+SING+COMMON =horse /hɔ:s	HORSE+SING+POSS horse /hɔ:s/
Plural Number+Common Case	Plural Number+Possessive Case
CAT+PLU+COMMON = cats /kæts/	CAT+PLU+POSS = cats /kæts/
DOG+SING+COMMON= dog /dɒgz/	DOG+PLU+POSS = dogs /dɒgz/
DOG+PLU+COMMON = horse /hɔ:s/	HORSE+PLU+POSS = horses /hɔ:sz/

Where the same grammatical morpheme may be realized by two or more different phonological shapes, morphology has set up the concept of the **allomorph**. As mentioned above, any physical shape that realizes as morpheme (grammatical or lexical) is called a **morph**. If two or more morphs realize the same morpheme they are said to be **allomorphs** of that morpheme. Thus, /s/ /z/ **and** /ɪz/ are all **allomorphs** of the plural morpheme in the number paradigm of the English count noun.

The allomorphs of a morpheme are mostly phonetically conditioned, ie the reason for the existence of the different phonological realizations of the same morpheme lies in the phonetic context of the given word. In our example, the reason why the plural morpheme is realized as the voiceless suffix /s/ with **cat** is the voicelessness of /t/, the immediately preceding sound.

7.2 Prefixes and Suffixes

Types of Prefixes

- (a) **Negative Prefixes:** The notion of negation is restricted to the word. It is not sentential.

un -	unbearable, uncommon, unkind, unwise, unending, unexpected
in -	illegal, illegible, irregular, irreligious, impossible, imbalance, immoveable, incomplete, inevitable, inability, injustice, inequality, infirm
dis-	dissimilar, disbelieve, disbelief, disunity
non-	non-violence, non-existent, non-co-operation, nonsmoker
un -	undo, untie, unlock, unpack
de -	decode, decontrol, decentralize, denationalize, dethrone

dis- disconnect, disinfect, disown, disquify, dissatisfy

(b) Pejorative Prefixes

mal- malnutrition, maltreat

mis- mislead, mishandle, misbehave, mismanage

(c) Numerical Prefixes

bi/di- bicycle, bilingual, bigamy, dioxide, diode

mono/uni - monolingual, uniform, unilateral

semi - semi-circle, semi automatic

tri - tricycle, tripod

poly/multi - polygamy, polytechnic, polygot, multipurpose, multimillionaire

(d) Prefixes of Degree, Rank, Size etc

arch - archbishop, archangel, arch-enemy

co - co-author, co-operate

extra - extra-large, extra-long, extra-martial, extra-ordinary

micro - micro-computer, micro-organism

mini - mini-computer, minibus

sub - sub-inspector

out - outlive, outrun, outnumber

over - overeat, overripe

sub - substandard, subhuman

super - superman, super power, super market

(e) Prefixes of Time and Order are self-explanatory in nature

ex - ex-president, ex-minister

fore - foretell, fore thought

post - post-war, post-independence

pre - pre-war, pre-colonial

re - rebuild, reuse, regain, reappear

(f) Prefixes showing Location

fore - forearm, foreground

inter - international, interuniversity

sub - submerge, subsoil, subnormal

super - super structure

trans - transport, transcontinental, transcribe

(g) Prefixes Showing Attitude and Orientation

anti - anti oxidant, anti Indian

counter - counter attack, counter-act

pro - pro-Indian, pro-VC, pro-muslim

(h) Prefixes which Change the Part of Speech of the Stem

a - ablaze, asleep, ahead

be - befriend, becalm, bemoan

en/em - enslave, endanger, empower, imperil, embitter

Derivational Suffixes of English

(a) Noun Suffixes

- age eg. baggage, bandage, postage, breakage, wastage

- dom eg. kingdom, stardom, freedom, serfdom

- ery/-ry eg. jewellery, slavery

- ful eg. glassful, handful, fistful

- hood eg. boyhood, widowhood, falsehood

- ing eg. advertising, shirting

- ism eg. heroism, Hinduism, fanaticism

- ship eg. membership, fellowship, courtship

- eer eg. engineer, mountaineer, profiteer, silencer

- ess eg. lioness, tigress, waitress, actress

- let eg. booklet, piglet, droplet

- ling eg. duckling, seedling, darkling

- ty eg. regularity, sanity

- ness eg. darkness, bitterness, usefulness

- th eg. breadth, depth, length, warmth

- al eg. arrival, refusal, survival

- ation eg. alteration, exploitation, starvation

- ment eg. appointment, development, astonishment

- ure eg. failure, exposure, closure

- ant eg. contestant, lubricant, defendant

- ee eg. employee, trainee, payee

(b) Adjective Suffixes

- al/ -ial/ -ical eg. accidental, cultural, educational, environmental, editorial, presidential, philosophical

- ed eg. three-legged, odd shaped

- ful eg. delightful, useful, beautiful, forgetful

- ic eg. atomic, heroic, patriotic

- ish eg. childish, foolish, Turkish, greenish

- less eg. childless, harmless, countless, homeless, painless

- ly eg. womanly, motherly

- ous/ ious eg. dangerous, desirous, ceremonious, courteous, pious

- y eg. filthy, hairy, sleepy

- able eg. controllable, unbelievable, unthinkable

- ant/ent eg. different, dependent, pleasant

- atory eg. confidatory, affidatory

- ive/ative eg. talkative, digestive, affidative

(c) Noun/ Adjective Suffixes

- ese eg. Chinese, Japanese

- ian eg. Indian, Canadian

- ist eg. Socialist, loyalist, pianist

(d) Verb Suffixes

- ify/ fy eg. beautify, clarify, simplify, electrify, identify, falsify

- ize eg. hospitalize, terrorize, modernize

- en eg. shorten, widen, ripen

(e) Adverb Suffixes

- word/wards eg. homeward, downwards, upwards

- wise eg. clockwise, lengthwise

- ly eg. angrily, unexpectedly, completely, highly.

7.3 Word Formation

Words like *afternoon*, *pick pocket*, *raincoat* are made up of two morphemes like *after* and

noon, pick and *pocket, rain* and *coat*. The two morphemes have been joined together to make compounds. This is called **compounding** which is a process of forming new roots. These new roots are called **compound root**. Inflectional and derivational affixes can be attached to these new forms like *pickpocketed, afternoons* etc. These complex forms will be called **compound-complex words**. Some compounds are written with a hyphen (-) between them and some are written as two words. eg. *brother-in-law* and *rock garden*. It must be noted that the meaning of a compound is not the sum of the meanings of its constituent parts. Its meaning is idiomatic i.e. the meaning of a compound word is different from the meaning of its parts. eg. ‘*bedclothes*’ does not mean clothes of a bed but clothes worn by a person going to bed.

Derivational affixes produce new stems by changing the form of word eg. the noun ‘*class*’ can be changed into a verb ‘*classify*’ and again into a noun as ‘*classification*.’ However sometimes the part of speech of a word can be changed without any affix eg. *work* can be used as noun and as verb. This is called **zero affix**.

7.4 Compounding

Compounding is the process of creating compound words, which are made up of two or more free morphemes. The compound as a single word has an independent identity. Neither its meaning nor its phonological shape is completely predictable from the meaning and phonology of the words that make it up. Compounding is a highly productive process. It is not possible for any dictionary to list all the possible compounds. However there are certain well defined approaches through which compounds can be produced. Let us examine some approaches to compounding.

8.7.1 The Syntactic Approach

Compounds can be conveniently classified according to their syntactic (grammatical) category into noun, verb and adjective compounds. We thus get the following types of compounds:-

1. Noun Compounds

(a) Noun + noun eg.: *boy friend, ice cream, writing desk, working stick, inking pad, railway, windmill, blotting paper, cooking apples*

(In the last example the structure is gerund + noun but the gerund functions as a noun)

(b) Verb + noun eg.: *pickpocket, kill joy, breakfast, cut throat, spoilsport, know nothing, breast feeding, back stabbing, wardrobe*

(c) Noun + verb eg.: *sunshine, daydream, birth control*

(d) Adjective + noun eg.: *darkroom, blackboard, old age*

(e) Verb + particle eg.: *dropout, drawback*

(f) Particle + verb eg.: *income, outlet, output*

(g) Particle + noun eg.: *overdose, insight, oversight, underage*

2. Adjective Compound

(a) Noun + Adjective eg.: *waterproof, man made, heartfelt*

- (b) Adjective + adjective eg.: *red hot, icy cold*
- (c) Adverb + adjective eg.: *long awaited, over confident*
- (d) Adjective + noun eg.: *white collar, green house*

3. Verb Compound

- (a) Noun + verb eg.: *brainwash, proof read*
- (b) Adjective + Noun eg.: *blacklist, coldshoulder*
- (c) Particle + verb eg.: *overflow, underestimate*
- (d) Adjective + verb eg.: *dryclean, fine time*

The notion of grammatical head of a compound is not very useful for classification purpose and it fails to tell us why some words can combine into compounds while others can't. We can have 'ice cream' but no 'creamice' there can be a 'dark room' but no 'bright room.' Thus the system of description based on the syntactic category of the compound and of its constituent words does not tell us anything about such cases.

8.7.2 The Semantic Approach

This is an approach that describes the formation of compounds in terms of the relationships between the meanings of the words combined. Only those word combinations produce a compound which when brought together, are capable of producing a signification, which is more than the sum of the signification of the two words independently. For example 'ice cream' is not simply a mixture of ice and cream together; a 'dark room' is not any room which is dark' a 'black board' is not any black board. Thus a compound is a new word, with full and independent signification. No doubt the meanings of the constituents do play a role but there is still an additional element which is typical of the compound. 'Ice' and 'cream' are among the various ingredients that go to make 'ice cream' but they have been picked up as the most suggestive ones of the final product.

The semantic distinction between a compound and a phrase is reinforced by a phonological distinction. In a compound, the first constituent carries the primary stress while in a phrase the primary stress falls on the second constituent.

Example

a 'black board a black 'board

a 'dark room a dark 'room

'White house a white 'house

The placement of the stress on the first constituent in a compound indicates a kind of cementing of the two elements into a new entity and de-emphasises their separateness.

However we must remember that the 'additional meaning element' in most of the compounds is unpredictable. Most of the compounds assume an arbitrary nature of the relationship between the constituent elements. The relationship is not constant even among compounds which look grammatically identical on the surface. For example, the compounds *cleaning woman* and *walking stick* are grammatically similar. However we see that *a cleaning woman* is a woman who cleans

while a *walking stick* is not a stick that walks. Here is a sample of the various kinds of relations that compounds assume between their constituents:

1. cleaning woman = a woman who cleans
2. down pour = rain pours down
3. high chair = the chair is high
4. maid servant = the servant is a maid
5. cowshed = the shed is for cows

In these examples the head (the second word) represents the ‘centre’ (both syntactically and semantically) of the compound. The compounds of this type are called endocentric compounds or compounds that have their centre within them.

On the other hand, there are quite a large number of frequently used compound in which the constituent words provide no clue at all to the meaning of the compound. For example:

1. hot dog : hot sausage served in a soft bread roll with onions and mustard.
2. tall boy : tall chest with a drawer for clothes
3. block head : a foolish person
4. egghead : an intellectual
5. headhunter : a company that recruits top executives for its client companies.

Compounds of this type seem to have little to do with their constituents syntactically or semantically ie. in grammar or in meaning. The compound does not share the meaning of the second constituent at all: a *turn coat* is not a type of coat just as *red tape* is not a type of tape. Such compounds are called exocentric compounds. They show that we cannot have a meaning based account of English compounds.

8.7.3 The Generative Approach

This approach means that grammar must be able to formulate a set of rules which can generate all the possible compounds of the English language. The approach believes that the set of possible compounds in English is also infinite. Every English speaker produces new compounds, some of which become popular while others don't. According to this approach compounds are generated freely from sentential structures and therefore do not need to be listed in the dictionary. The same rules that restrict the combination of words in sentential structures also restrict it in compounds. No separate rules are needed. Here are some examples:

1. the woman cleans - cleaning woman
2. the man sells books - book seller
3. the man-tells fortunes - fortune teller
4. It's so cold that it will freeze you - freezing cold
5. It's so hot that it will burn you - burning hot

However this approach fails to explain compounds like white collar, hot dog, tall boy, dark room, girl friend etc.

8.7.4 Some Minor Compound Types

There are four minor compound types:

1. **Co-ordinate compounds:** Compounds whose meaning can be described only by joining the constituents by 'and' such as *producer director, audio visual, author publisher*
2. **Combining for Compounds:** Compounds in which one of the constituents take a special form, which occurs only when it is combined with another element in a compound such as: *biological* becomes *bio* in *biotechnology*, *social* becomes *socio* in *socio economic, socio-political*
3. **The Reduplicative compounds:** Compounds in which the two constituents are identical in form or differ only slightly such as: *helter-skelter, zig-zag, ding-dong, Humpty-Dumpty, dilly-dally, sing-song, Ping-Pong*
4. **The Phrase compound:** Compounds consisting of more than two constituents such as: *brother-in-law, prisoner-of-war, Jackin-the box, Every-tom, Dick and Harry, offi cer-in-charge, a buynow-pay-later scheme*

7.5 Let Us Sum Up

Morphology is the scientific study of the smallest grammatical units of language and the formation of words; including inflexion, derivation and composition. It is the study of words pattern. It is not only the the synchronate study of words forms but is the study of the history and development of word forms.

7.6 Review Questions

1. **Show the structure of the following words with the help of multiple brackets. Follow the example given.**

Example

Decentralization : (de + (centre+al) + ize) + ation)

1. denationalization
 2. dercognized
 3. inability
 4. insecurity
 5. miscalculations
2. **State whether the underlined affixes in the follwoing sentences are inflectional or derivational:**
 1. He refused the offer.
 2. The arrangement was fi ne.

3. She is sleeping inside.
4. They dethroned the king.
5. They may disagree with you.
3. **Analyse the nature of morphemes (bound/ free) in the following words:**
understand overdone outshine understanding outsourcing overcoat
4. **Identify the affixes in the following words in terms of suffixes and affixes:**
unwarranted mismanagement manliness unwanted dissatisfaction
5. **Identify the root, suffix, prefix and stem in the following words:**
musical porous impolite possibility incompetent
6. **What do the following compounds mean? Can you suggest any relationship between the meaning of the compound and the meanings of the constituent words?**
 1. book worm
 2. bootlicker
 3. jail bird
 4. tell-tale
 5. scare crow
 6. hold fast
 7. kickback

7.7 Bibliography

1. Mathews, P.H. Recent Developments in Morphology, and article in New Horizons in Linguistics Published, 1970
2. Lehman Winfred P. Historical Linguistics: An Introduction University of Texas, Oxford and I.B.H. Publishing Co. Calcutts, Bombay, New Delhi, 1962, 1966
3. Bazell, Charles. E Linguistic Form Istambul: Istambul Press 1953
4. Halle, M. Phonology in a generative Grammer, 1962
5. Hall, Robert A. Introductor Linguistics Philadelphia: Chilton, 1964

UNIT -8

TROUBLESPOTS

Structure

- 8.0 Objective
- 8.1 Basic Sentence Structure
- 8.2 Connecting Sentences with Coordinating Conjunctions and Transitions
- 8.3 Combining Sentences with Subordinating Conjunctions
- 8.4 Punctuation
- 8.5 Verb Tenses: Tense and Time
- 8.6 Agreement
- 8.7 Active and Passive Voice
- 8.8 Modal Auxiliaries
- 8.9 Let Us Sum Up
- 8.10 Review Questions
- 8.11 Bibliography

8.0 Objective

In this unit our aim is to make you comprehend the topic Troublespot. Several basic topics of grammar that need special attention have been dealt with in this unit. There are also exhaustive exercises which will enable you to test and rate yourself.

8.1 Basic Sentence Structure

Subject and Predicate

In the following short sentence

Babies cry.

We find elements common to all sentences. The sentence has a topic: The *topic* is *babies*. Frequently, the topic of the sentence is the grammatical *subject* of the sentence. The sentence makes a *comment* about the topic: We learn that babies (our topic) *cry*. This comment forms the *predicate* of the sentence.

Some more examples follow:

Subject

Babies

The babies next door

Predicate

cry.

cry a lot

Her baby	does not cry much
My brother	likes ice cream
Some big towels	are lying on the sand
The tree on the beach	is very big.
Crowds	can spoil a vacation resort
The two people walking on the beach	look very happy
I	have never been to the Caribbean.

Exercise

Divide the following sentences into subject and predicate.

1. We lived in Shin-Ying.
2. The front door of the house faced the front gate of the elementary school.
3. My mother taught at the school
4. Cleaning up the fallen leaves was my job.
5. My family sat around under the grapevine.

Avoiding Sentence Fragments

A sentence fragment is an incomplete sentence. It can occur when a subject is missing, when there is not a complete verb.

Exercise

Some of the following student writing samples contain a group of words that is *not* a sentence, even though it has a capital letter and an end punctuation. It is only part of a sentence (that is, a *sentence fragment*). Determine which groups of words are fragments. Then decide how you could turn the fragment into a complete sentence or include it in another sentence.

1. (a) The dark scenery could frighten us. (b) Because there are many trees.
2. (a) He is working at the gas pumps. (b) To try to fix what is wrong.
3. (a) The soft crashing waves and the shade cast by a tall palm tree make this an attractive spot. (b) One that we would really like to return to.
4. (a) People are lying on the beach and getting a suntan. (b) Because it is a holiday, the beach is packed.
5. (a) On that peaceful beach, two young people strolling along the water's edge. (b) They look happy.

Word Order

Every language has its own conventions for word order. The normal word order in an

English sentence is

S	V	O/C
subject	verb	object or complement (after linking verbs like be, feel, look)
Children	like	cookies.
She	eats	a lot of candy.
My old boss	has bought	a new car.
He	is	a teacher.
They	look	happy.

Do not separate verb and object S (V-O)

He bought a new car yesterday.

OR Yesterday he bought a new car.

NOT *He bought yesterday a new car.

Put time expressions (T) first or last in the sentence:

T, S V O

OR S V O T

Almost every day, she drinks five glasses of water.

OR She drinks five glasses of water almost every day.

NOT *She drinks almost every day five glasses of water.

Direct and Indirect Objects

Note the word order for direct and indirect objects:

<i>S</i>	<i>V</i>	<i>Direct O</i>	<i>to/for + Indirect O</i>
She	gave	her tape recorder	to her aunt.
<i>S</i>	<i>V</i>	<i>Indirect O</i>	<i>Direct O</i>
She	gave	her aunt	her tape recorder.

When the indirect object is a pronoun, only the second alternative can be used:

<i>S</i>	<i>V</i>	<i>Indirect O</i>	<i>Direct O</i>
She	gave	me	a plant.

Inverted Word Order : V + S

The usual word order is S + V + O/C. However, the verb comes before the subject

in instances like the following:

1. In direct questions

Do you like chocolate ice cream? *Have you* ever eaten lobster?

2. In coordinate tags

She likes swimming and so *do I*.

3. For emphasis after *never* or *not only* at the beginning of a sentence:

Never have I seen such a lot of waste!

Never will that happen!

Not only did she arrive late, but she also forgot to bring some food.

Not only will he repair the computer, but he will also do it without charge.

4. When *if* is omitted

Had I the time, I would paint my room.

Parallel Structures

Structures that fill the same position in a sentence must be parallel in form. The word and connects similar structures:

NOT They want to feel cool and happily.

BUT I want to go to Italy and spend a week in Venice.

8.2 Connecting Sentences with Coordinating Conjunctions and Transitions

Ways to Connect Sentences

There are several ways to connect sentences to form a coordinate sentence that contains two or more core ideas (that is, independent clauses of equal importance). Which way you choose will depend on what best fits the content and context of your piece of writing. So consider all the options, in context before you decide. The options are explained here.

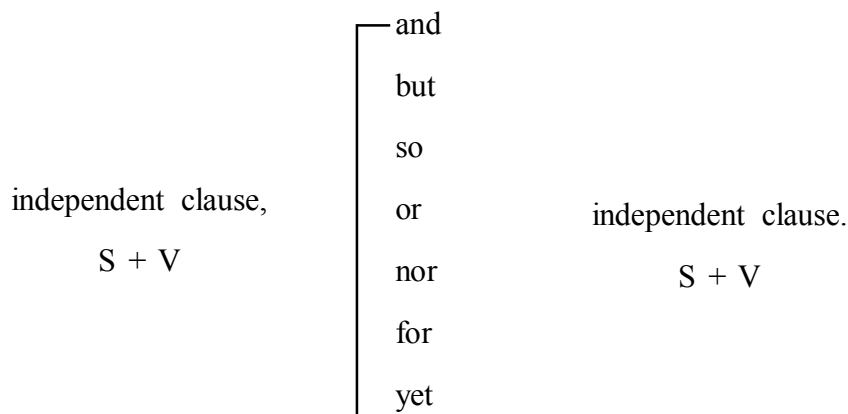
1. When sentences are closely connected and their structure is similar, connect them by using a semicolon:

S + V; S + V.

The man bought a new car; his son borrowed it immediately.

My mother took care of the housework; my father earned the money.

2. You can also indicate how two independent clauses are related in meaning within a sentence if you coordinate the two clauses by using a comma followed by one of the following connecting words or *coordinating conjunctions*:



The man bought a new car, *but* his wife didn't know about it.

He bought the gas, *and* his son paid for the repairs.

Note that the structures on either side of the conjunction are parallel in form.

3. Two independent clauses with the same subject can also be condensed into one sentence:

The man bought a new car.

The man sold his old one.

The man bought a new car and sold his old one.

No comma separates the two verbs when they have the same subject.

Transitions

There are also many linking expressions, called *transitions*, that help point out how sentences are joined according to meaning. Even if you use one of these expressions, you still need to separate your sentences with a period or a semicolon at the end of the first independent clause.

S + V; (transition), S + V.

The little girl had always hated spiders. *In fact*, she was terrified of them.

The little girl had always hated spiders; *in fact*, she was terrified of them.

TRANSITIONS	
<i>Writer's Purpose</i>	<i>Transitional words and Phrases</i>
To add an idea	in addition, furthermore, moreover, also
To show time or sequence	meanwhile, first, second, then, next, later, finally
To contrast	however, nevertheless, though, in contrast, on the other hand
To show result	therefore, thus, consequently, as a result.
To emphasize	in fact, of course, indeed, certainly
To provide an example	for example, for instance
To generalize or summarize	in general, overall, in short
To contradict	on the contrary

Transitions can also move around in the sentence:

The little girl had always hated spiders. She was, *in fact*, terrified of them.

The little girl had always hated spiders. She was terrified of them, *in fact*.

Transitions are set off from the rest of the sentence by commas. Some of the most frequently used transitional expressions are shown in the accompanying box. The expressions are not necessarily interchangeable. The context determines which is appropriate. If you want to use a transition but are not sure which one to use, ask your instructor.

Exercise

The following passages are from the article "The Changing Family in International Perspective" . Examine the use of transitions throughout the passages. List them and write the author's purpose in employing them. What kind of meaning do they signal between two ideas? Use the "Transitions" box to help you.

1. Household composition patterns over the past several decades have been away from the traditional nuclear family ... and towards more single_parent households, more persons living alone, and more couples living together out of wedlock. Indeed, the "consensual union" has become a more visible and accepted family type in several countries.
2. Scandinavian countries have been the pacesetters in the development of many of the nontraditional forms of family living, especially births outside of wedlock and cohabitation outside of legal marriage. Women in these societies also have the highest rates of labor force participation. However, in at least two aspects, the United States is setting the pace.
3. Japan is the most traditional society of those studied, with very low rates of divorce and births out of wedlock and the highest proportion of married-couple households. In fact, Japan is the only country studied in which the share of such households has increased since 1960.
4. A trend toward fewer marriages is plain in all of the countries studied, although the timing of this decline differs from country to country. In Scandinavia and Germany, for example, the downward trend in the marriage rate was already evident in the 1960's.
5. Divorce laws were loosened in most European countries beginning in the 1970's, with further liberalization taking place in the 1980's. Consequently, divorce rates are rising rapidly in many European countries.

Exercise

Connect the following pairs of sentences by using punctuation only, coordinating conjunctions, or transitions. You need to determine the relationship between the two sentences before you can choose a conjunction or a transition. Write your new combined sentences in your notebook.

1. Hemingway had some peculiarities as a writer. He always wrote standing up.
2. Hemingway was a gifted journalist, novelist, and short-story writer. He was an active sportsman.
3. Hemingway did most of his writing in pencil on onionskin typewriter paper. He shifted

- to his typewriter when the writing was easy for him, as when writing dialogue.
4. Hemingway's room looked untidy at first glance. He was a neat person at heart.
 5. Hemingway was a sentimental man, keeping his possessions all around him. He hardly ever threw anything away.
 6. Hemingway always did a surprising amount of rewriting of his novels. He rewrote the ending of a *Farewell to Arms* 39 times.
 7. Hemingway wrote his short story "The Killers" in one morning. After lunch, he wrote "Today Is Friday" and "Ten Indians."
 8. Hemingway often wrote all through the afternoon and evening without stopping. His landlady worried that he wasn't eating enough.

8.3 Combining Sentences with Subordinating Conjunctions

Coordination and Subordination

You can combine two simple sentences by using coordinating conjunctions or transitions; the result is two independent clauses. You also have the option of making one of your independent ideas subordinate one idea to the other: make the most important idea the independent clause and make the less important idea a *condensed phrase*, attaching it to the core idea. The following examples include condensed phrases:

Hemingway, a *sentimental man*, hardly ever threw anything away. *Being sentimental*, Hemingway hardly ever threw anything away. *For sentimental reasons*, Hemingway hardly ever threw anything away.

The two clauses can also be combined by keeping them as full clauses - (subject + verb) and (subject + verb) - but making one of them subordinate to the other by introducing it with a *subordinating conjunction*; for example:

Hemingway, *who was a sentimental man*, hardly ever threw anything away.

The dependent clause in this sentence is in italics. Note that it cannot stand alone. It has been made subordinate to the independent clause and is now dependent on it for meaning.

Avoiding Fragments with Subordinate Clauses

A subordinate clause cannot stand alone. The following excerpts from student writing are ungrammatical:

I went home early. Because I had a lot of work to do.

Although he arrived late for the interview. He got the job.

He bought a new car. Which was bright red.

A subordinate clause must be connected to an independent clause. When you begin a sentence with a subordinating conjunction like *because*, *if*, *although*, or *when*, look for the following pattern:

Subordinating

conjunction S + V, S + V.

Although he arrived late, he got the job

Clauses with Although

To show concession or unexpected result, use a subordinating conjunction like *although*, a coordinating conjunction like *but*, or a transition like *however*. Use only one of these.

	DEPENDENT CLAUSES
<i>Type of clause</i>	<i>Examples of subordinating conjunctions</i>
Relative	that, who, whom, which, whose (<i>that, whom which</i> are sometimes omitted as the object of the clause) The man <i>who</i> won the lottery bought a new car.
Time	When, before, after, until, since, as soon as <i>When</i> he won the money, he decided to buy a car.
Place	where, wherever She drove <i>wherever</i> she wanted.
Cause	because, as, since She got a parking ticket <i>because</i> she parked illegally.
Purpose	so that, in order that He drove so fast, <i>that</i> he got a speeding ticket.
Condition	if, unless <i>If</i> she hadn't won the lottery, she would have been very unhappy.
Concession (unexpected result)	although, even though <i>Although</i> she thought she was a good driver, she got a log of tickets for speeding.
Included statement or question	that (sometimes omitted), what, why, how, where, when, who, whom which, whose, whether, if He knows <i>why</i> he gets so many tickets He knows (that) his business will be successful.

8.4 Punctuation

Semicolon

There are two main uses of the semicolon.

1. To signal the end of a sentence, in place of a period, when the meaning of the two

sentences is very closely connected.

He likes dogs a lot; he even has four in his small apartment.

2. To separate items in a list when commas are used elsewhere in the sentence.

They bought a big ham, big enough to feed 12 people; a turkey, which they had to wheel home in a shopping cart; and 10 pounds of vegetables.

Compare this with

They bought a ham, a turkey, and some vegetables.

Comma

There are five main uses of commas:

1. To set off a phrase or clause before the subject

While she was cooking, her friends arrived.

2. To separate items in a list when no other internal commas are used.

They bought lamps, chairs, and wastebaskets.

Sometimes the last comma before *and* is omitted:

They bought lamps, chairs and wastebaskets.

3. To indicate inserted material

Harold, my boss, gave me a raise.

Note that commas appear on both sides of the inserted material. Dashes (-) and parentheses () also signal inserted material, telling the reader that the information is not essential but a kind of aside.

4. To introduce or end a quotation

He said, "You've deserved it."

"You've deserved it," he said.

5. To separate independent clauses joined with a coordinating conjunction.

I was grateful, so I sent him a birthday gift.

Note that a comma is not used before a clause introduced by the subordinator *that*:

He said that she should not worry.

The book that you gave me is very interesting.

Exercise

Examine all the uses of commas in the following passage from "Mr. Doherty Builds His Dream Life". Try to fit each comma into one of the five categories.

Example:

I'm not in E.B. White's class as a writer or in my neighbours' league as a farmer, but I'm getting by.

The comma separates independent clauses joined with a conjunction.

And after years of frustration with city and suburban living, my wife Sandy and I have finally found contentment here in the country.

It's a self-reliant sort of life. We grow nearly all of our fruits and vegetables. Our hens keep us in eggs, with several dozen left over to sell each week. Our bees provide us with honey, and we cut enough wood to just about make it through the heating season.

It's a satisfying life too. In the summer we canoe on the river, go pinicking in the woods and take long bicycle rides. In the winter we ski and skate. We get excited about sunsets.

But the good life can get pretty tough. Three months ago when it was 30 below, we spent two miserable days hauling firewood up the river on a toboggan. Three months from now, it will be 95 above and we will be cultivating corn weeding strawberries and killing chickens. Recently, Sandy and I had to reshingle the back roof. Soon Jim, 16, and Emily, 13, the youngest of our four children, will help me make some long-overdue improvements.

Colon.

A colon introduces explanatory and listed items.

I need two new pieces of furniture: a dining table and a coffee table.

A colon often follows the phrase as follows. It is not used after *such as*

A colon can also be used to introduce a direct quotation:

I heard his angry words: "Get out!"

Apostrophe

An apostrophe is used in contracted forms, such as the followig:

can't, won't, didn't he's, she'd, they're, let's

However, these contractions are not usually used in formal academic writing. An apostrophe is also used to signal possession or ownership. Add's to signal possession. If the noun is a plural form ending in-s, add only an apostrophe.

her son's room (one son)

her daughters' room (two daughters, one room)

the teachers' reports (more than one teacher: plural-s)

the children's books (more than one child, but no -s for plural form)

However, apostrophes are not used with the names of buildings, objects, or pieces of furniture (the hotel pool, the car door, the table leg) or with possessive adjectives (its, yours, hers). The form it's is a contraction for *it is* or *it has*.

Exercise

Rewrite the following phrases, using an apostrophe.

the bone belonging to the dog

the dog's bone

1. the toys belonging to the baby
2. the toys belonging to the babies.
3. the problems of the teachers
4. the decision made by my family
5. the plans made by the women
6. the proposals offered by the politicians
7. the desk belonging to the secretary
8. the home belonging to the couple
9. the park belonging to the people
10. the ball belonging to the little boy

Exercise

Punctuation marks have been removed from the following passage from "The Analysts Who Came to Dinner". Add punctuation where it is appropriate.

The study also offers a clue to why middle children often seem to have a harder time in life than their siblings Lewis found that in families with three or four children dinner conversation tends to center on the oldest child who has the most to talk about and the youngest who needs the most attention Middle children are invisible says Lewis When you see someone get up from the table and walk around during dinner chances are it's the middle child There is however one great equalizer that stops all conversation and deprives everyone of attention When the TV is on Lewis says dinner is a non-event.

Despite the feminist movement Lewis's study indicates that preparing dinner continues to be regarded as women's work even when both spouses have jobs. Some men do help out but for most husbands dinnertime remains a relaxing hour.

8.5 Verb Tenses: Tense and Time

Simple Tenses

The simple tenses refer to a specific time in the past, a repeated action or a general truth in the present, and a specific time in the future.

Time Relationship Expressed: Simple

<i>Past</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Future</i>
wrote	writes/write	will write
did _____ write ?	does/do _____ write?	am/is/are going to write

Example:

She *wrote* a story yesterday. (completed in definite and known past time: for example, last week, a month ago, in 1990)

She *writes* every day. (repeated action or habit in present time: once a week, whenever she can, often)

She *writes* for a living. (general truth)

She *will write* to you next week. (future time stated; definite statement or promise)

She's *going to write* an article about child rearing. (implied future time; a plan)

Note: In clause beginning with *when*, *before*, *after*, *until*, or *as soon as*, use the present and not the future tense for simple time:

When she *arrives*, we'll begin the meeting.

Progressive Tenses

Progressive tenses refer to an action that is in progress at a specified time. The *-ing* form of the main verb occurs with an auxiliary or auxiliaries (helping verbs like *was* and *will be*). The *-ing* form alone is not a complete verb.

Time Relationship Expressed: Progressive (In Progress at a Known Time)

<i>Past</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Future</i>
was/were writing	am/is/are writing	will be writing

Example:

She *was writing* when I called her at 8 O'clock last night. (happening and continuing at a known or stated time in the past: I interrupted her; she probably continued afterward)

She *was writing* all day yesterday. (happening continuously over a long period of time in the past)

She *is writing* at this moment. (activity in present: now, right now)

She *will be writing* when you call her at 8 o'clock tonight. (happening at a known or stated time in the future: and she will probably continue writing after you call).

Note: The *-ing* form is not used for verbs expressing states of mind (such as *believe*, *know*, *understand*, *want*, *hate*, *seem*, *need*), senses (*taste*, *smell*), or possession (*have*, *own*). The simple forms are used instead.

Perfect Tenses

The perfect tenses indicate that an action has been completed, or perfected, before a known time or event. They are formed with the participle form of the main verb (often called the *past participle*, even though it does not always indicate past time).

Time Relationship Expressed: Perfect (Completed Before a Known Time or Event)

<i>Past</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Future</i>
had written	has/have written	will have written

Example:

She *had* (already) *written* one story when she went to high school. (two past events indicated - an activity was completed by a stated time in the past: she wrote the story when she was 12, started high school when she was 14)

She *has* (already, just) *written* two stories. (activity completed some time before the present - the main point is not when she actually wrote them but that she has *written* them at some time in the past, with the effect being relative to present time)

She *will* (already) *have written* three stories when she graduates from high school next year. (two future events indicated - an activity will be completed by a stated time in the future: first she will write the stories, then she will graduate)

Perfect Progressive Tenses

These tenses are used to express how long an action or event continues and when it ends. Both the length of action and the time of its ending are stated or implied. Time expressions with *since* and *for* are frequently found with these tenses. The *ing* form of the main verb is used.

Time Relationship Expressed: In Progress for a Stated Length of Time and up to a Known or Specific Time or Event.		
<i>Past</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Future</i>
had been writing	has/have been writing	will have been writing

Example:

She *had been writing* for four hours before all the light went out. (one event interrupted by the other; both the length of time and the end of the action in the past must be stated).

She *has been writing* a novel since 1987. (length of time stated or implied and continues until the present: she will probably continue; she has not finished the novel yet).

She *will have been writing* for six hours by the time the party starts at 8 o'clock tonight. (an event in the future interrupts or indicates the end of the action; both length of time and final event must be stated or clear from the context).

Consistency of Tenses

Consistency of tenses is important. Usually, the verb tenses a writer uses in a passage will fit consistently into one of two time clusters: past or present-future. The table below summarizes the four tense-time relationships and divides them into two time clusters of verb forms that can occur in a piece of writing with no switch in time reference.

Tense-time Relationships

<i>Time relationship</i>	<i>Past cluster</i>	<i>Present-future cluster</i>	
Simple	wrote	writes/write	will write
Progressive	was/were writing	am/is/are writing	will be writing
Perfect	had written	has/have written	will have written
Perfect Progressive	had been writing	has/have been writing	will have been writing

If the verb itself does not indicate the time cluster, the first auxiliary verb of the verb phrase will.

Note that whereas modal forms like ‘will’ and ‘can’ are used only to indicate present-future time, forms like *would* and *could* can be used, in different contexts and with different meanings, in both time clusters.

8.6 Agreement

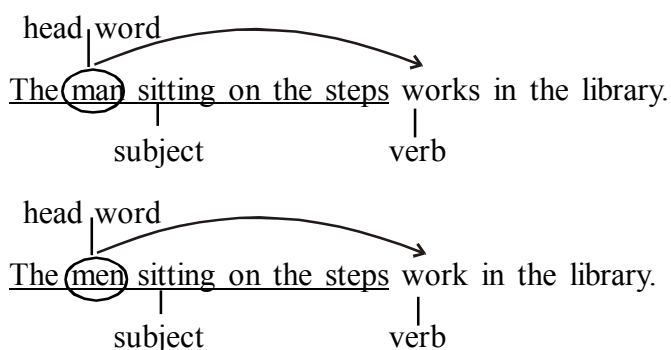
Singular or Plural?

Determining singular or plural endings can be confusing because an -s ending on a noun indicates plural (the *they* form), whereas an -s ending on a verb indicates singular (the *he/she/it*) form.

The dog barks every night. (Dog = *it*, so the verb is singular.)

The dogs bark every night. (Dogs = *they*, so the verb is plural.)

Once again, the core of a sentence, S+V, is crucial for successful editing. In a clause or a sentence in the present tense, the verb has to agree in number with its subject—specifically with the head word (the most important word) of its subject, even if plural nouns occur in a phrase between the head word and the verb:



If the head word is a *he/she/it* form, use the third person singular form (-s ending) of the verb. If the head word is a *they* form, use the plural form of the verb (the simple form with no -s ending). If a subject is followed by more than one present tense verb, all forms must be parallel, and all must show agreement.

She bakes bread, takes music lessons, and does research.

They work hard and earn enough money.

Exercise

Read the following excerpt from "Mr. Doherty Builds His Dream Life".

Sandy, meanwhile, pursues her own hectic rounds. Besides the usual household routine, she oversees the garden and beehives, bakes bread, cans and freezes, chauffeurs the kids to their music lessons, practices with them, takes organ lessons on her own, does research and typing for me, writes an article herself now and then, tends the flower beds, stacks a little wood and delivers the eggs.

Underline all the verbs. How would the passage change if the writer were telling us not just about Sandy but about Sandy and her sister? Begin with "Sandy and her sister, meanwhile, pursue ... " and write the new version.

Verbs That Show Agreement

Agreement in number occurs with verbs used without auxiliaries in the present simple tense and with the following auxiliaries: *am/is/are; was/were; do/does; has/have*.

Look at the following sentences:

The river was thawing.

The rivers have dried up.

Acid rain causes many problems

Those people don't work here anymore.

Does his wife want to go?

My brother and I want to live together.

Auxiliaries like *will, would, can, could, shall, should, may, might, and must* do not change. In addition, they are always, whatever the subject, followed by the simple form of the verb:

The river might freeze.

The streams will probably freeze, too.

Subjects with Singular Verbs

Some words that regularly require a singular verb are troublesome to second-language students: *each, every, everyone, everybody, someone, somebody, anyone, anybody, no one, nobody, something*. In addition, the following words are singular: *-ing* forms; some nouns ending in *-s*, such as *news, physics, measles, politics, and series*; and subject clauses beginning with *what*.

Everyone wants to be liked.

Somebody who is standing over there wants to speak next.

Driving on icy roads is dangerous.

Politics interests me a lot.

What they want to do is start their own business.

Look for examples of these when you read, and note the verb form used.

Agreement with 'There' in Subject Position

When a sentence starts with *There* plus a form of *be*, the verb agrees with the head word of the phrase that follows the verb.

There is one bottle on the table.

There are two bottles on the table.

There is some wine on the table.

There is vase of flowers on the table.

You need to determine if the head word is singular or plural. Uncountable nouns are singular.

There are a lot of *people* in the room.

There is a lot of *money* in my bag.

Exercise

Decide whether to use *is* or *are* in the following sentences.

1. There _____ some apples in the bowl on the table.
2. There _____ some money in my wallet.
3. There _____ a carton of milk in the refrigerator.
4. There _____ a box of books in the basement.
5. There _____ a lot of voters in rural regions.
6. There _____ a lot of food on the shelves.
7. There _____ a few coffee cups in the dishwasher.
8. There _____ no knives in the drawer.
9. There _____ no furniture in the room.
10. There _____ many serious problems that the voters in this district have to face.

Compound Subjects

When a sentence has a compound subject (more than one subject), the verb must be plural in form.

My sister *visits* me every year. (subject: sister)

My aunt and my sister *visit* me every year. (compound subject: aunt and sister).

When the subject is formed with either ... *or* or *neither* *nor*, the verb agrees with the phrase closest to it.

Either her brothers or her father *has* the money.

Neither her mother nor her sisters *have* the money.

Agreement in Relative Clauses

When you write a relative clause beginning with *who*, *which*, or *that*, look for its *referent* - the word that *who*, *which*, or *that* refers to. The referent determines whether the verb should be singular or plural.

The *people* in my class *who are* studying English do a lot of extra reading

The *student* in my class *who is* sitting in the corner usually does a lot of extra reading.

One Of

Beware! *One of* is followed by a plural noun and a singular verb, agreeing with the head word *one*.

One of her sons helps on the farm.

Some, Most, Any, All, None

Quantity words like *some*, *most*, *any*, *all* and *none* are used in the following pattern, using a plural verb form with plural countable nouns and a singular verb form with uncountable nouns.

Most of the *students are* studying English.

Most of the *furniture is* very old.

With *none*, however, usage varies, and the following forms can both be found:

None of the books she took out of the library *was* interesting.

None of the books she took out of the library *were* interesting.

Exercise

Insert the correct form of the given verb in the following sentences.

1. One of the students in my class (come) _____ from Bangladesh.
2. The people who have invited me to the opening of the exhibition (want) _____ me to write an article about it afterward.
3. Almost everyone in my class (have) _____ a part-time job.
4. Writing essays (require) _____ a lot of skill.
5. neither his wife nor his children (know) _____ that he has lost his job.
6. Every book that is assigned for this course (cost) _____ more than \$ 20.
7. The president and his wife (have) _____ agreed to attend the ceremony.
8. My sister always (try) _____ her hardest.
9. Today's news (be) _____ surprising.
10. The bunch of flowers that she (want) _____ to buy (be) _____ very expensive.

8.7 Active and Passive Voice

The following sentence contains a verb in the active voice:

Ernest Hemingway wrote that novel

subject verb object

We can change the emphasis by rewriting the sentence like this:

That novel was written by Ernest Hemingway.

Not what we have done.

We have reversed the order of the subject and object of the original sentence.

We have changed the verb form to a form of be followed by the participle

We have added *by* before the original subject.

Uses of the Passive

Sometimes writers overuse the passive voice, which makes their writing flat and dull. But there are times when the passive is necessary to convey your meaning. Use the passive when it is not important to emphasize or even mention the doer of the action (sometimes called the agent).

Good! The garbage *has been collected*.

He *was promoted* to vice-president a month ago.

When gold *was discovered* in the area, new towns sprang up overnight.

Her performance is *being watched* very closely.

These tomatoes *were grown* in New Jersey.

I *was told* to send the form to you. (The writer doesn't want to say who did the telling).

If the agent is important, the active voice is usually preferable.

Two prospectors discovered gold in the area.

NOT *Gold was discovered in the area by two prospectors.

The passive voice occurs frequently in the following instances:

1. In scientific writing
The experiment was performed in 1983.
2. In journalism, or other writing, when the writer cannot or does not want to identify the agent.
Jewelry worth \$500,000 was stolen from the Hotel Eldorado late last night.
3. When the action is more important than who did it.
In the 1980s, a lot of tall buildings were built in the middle of the city.

4. In a sentence with the same subject as the previous clause, when the flow of the sentences makes the passive acceptable.

In the 1980s, a lot of tall buildings appeared in the city. They were built to provide more office space.

She stared at the chair. That old wooden rocking chair had been made by her father.

Forms of the Passive

The form and sequence of passive verbs is often a problem for students writing in a second language. Look at the examples on the following list.

Active

Passive

They paint the house every three years	The house is painted every three years.
They painted the house last year	The house <i>was painted</i> last year.
They will paint the house next year.	The house will be painted next year.
They are painting the house now	The house is being painted now
They were painting the house all last week	The house was being painted all last week
They have just painted the house.	The house has just been painted.
They had just painted the house when the roof collapsed	The house had just been painted when the roof collapsed.
They will have painted the house by next Tuesday.	The house will have been painted by next Tuesday.

Note that in all the passive sentences, we use a form of 'be' plus a participle. In addition, a be form can be preceded by modal auxiliaries.

The house *should be painted*.

The house *might have been painted* last year; I'm not sure if it was.

Language learners sometimes get confused with the forms *been* and *being* because both are used in passive verbs and because pronunciation can blur a clear distinction. Remember the following:

Note the patterns:

(be)	+	being	+	participle	(passive)
(have)	+	been	+	-ing	(active)
			+	participle	(passive)

He *is being questioned* now. (He's being questioned.)

He *has been working* hard all day. (He's been working.)

He *has been taken* to the hospital. (He's been taken.)

E. Passive Idioms with 'Get' and 'Have'

Passives are sometimes formed with *get*.

She *got fired* last week.

This is informal usage; it is not appropriate for formal academic writing. Use "She was fired" instead.

Get and *have* are also used in a causative sense. The sentence

He washed the car.

does not mean the same as

He had the car washed.

OR He got the car washed.

In the first sentence, he did the washing himself. In the other two sentences, he paid or asked somebody to do it for him.

Exercise

Read the following passages, and write down all the verbs used as complete verb forms in independent and dependent clauses. Then indicate which verbs are active and which are passive.

1. If the nations of the world take immediate action, the destruction of the global environment can be slowed substantially. But ... even if fossil-fuel emissions are cut drastically, the overall level of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere will still increase - along with the likelihood of global warming. Even if toxic dumping is banned outright and that ban is strictly enforced, some lakes and aquifers will be tainted by poisons that have already been released.
2. They were taught to keep their elbows close to their sides while cutting meat, and to hold the utensils in the tips of their fingers. They resisted the temptation to sop up the gravy with a piece of bread, and they made sure to leave a little of everything.

8.8 Modal Auxiliaries

Modal Auxiliaries: Form and Meaning

Be, have, and do are the auxiliaries used to form the various verb tenses of active and passive verbs, but other auxiliaries can also be used to supply additional meaning, such as that of ability (can, could), advisability (should) and necessity (must/has to/have to/had to).

The features of modal auxiliaries are these:

1. They are followed by the simple form of the verb.
2. When the following simple form is 'be' or 'have,' an appropriate verb form follows.

He might be sleeping. (active)

They should be reprimanded. (passive)

He should have gone. (active)

3. They have only one form to indicate present time. They never add the-s ending.

He can swim.

They can swim.

This troublespot provides examples of the most common modal auxiliaries.

The Uses of Would

The table given below the next page shows the uses of the modal auxiliary *would*.

Uses of Would

<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Present-future</i>
Polite question or statement		Would you help me? I would like your help.
Permission	Would you have minded if I had left?	Would you mind if I left now?
Past action, repeated	Whenever I saw him, I would cry.	
Preference	I would rather have gone to the theater	I would rather go to the movies than the theater. I'd rather not see that play.
Hypothetical condition	I would have won if ...	I would win if ...

Exercise

In these sentence, state a preference using *would rather*

Example:

play tennis/go bowling

I'd rather play tennis than go bowling because I like to be outdoors.

1. work for myself/work for a big company
2. read a mystery story/read a biography
3. spend money on a vacation / pay to have my apartment painted
4. Watch sports / play a game
5. go to the movies / have a picnic in the park.

Expressing Ability and Permission

The table below shows examples of modal auxiliaries that express ideas of ability and

permission. Both past and present-future clusters are shown where they exist, and forms closely related to the modals in meaning are also included.

Modal Auxiliaries: Ability and Permission

Meaning	Past	Present-future
Ability	<p>He knew he could win.</p> <p>She couldn't solve the problem.</p> <p>She was able to convince her boss to promote her.</p> <p>We could have won (if)</p> <p>(But we didn't).</p>	<p>She can speak French.</p> <p>She will be able to get a job in Paris next year</p> <p>We could begin (if) ...</p>
Permission	<p>She said I could join the class</p> <p>She said we were allowed to join the class</p>	<p>May I join this class?</p> <p>You may/may not leave.</p> <p>Can I join this class? (less formal than <i>may</i>)</p> <p>Would you mind if I joined this class? (polite)</p> <p>Would you mind my joining this class? (polite and formal)</p> <p>Are we permitted to join this class?</p>

Expressing Advisability

The following table shows modal auxiliaries that express the idea of advisability.

Modal Auxiliaries: Advisability

Meaning	<i>past</i>	<i>Present-future</i>
Advisability	<p>Advisable action didn't occur</p> <p>We should have sent some flowers. (But we didn't.)</p> <p>We shouldn't have sent wine. (But we did.)</p> <p>We ought to have sent chocolates, too</p> <p>Advisable action might have occurred</p> <p>We'd better not have made a mistake (will be bad otheriwse.)</p>	<p>We should send some flower.</p> <p>we shouldn't send wine</p> <p>We ought to send chocolates, too.</p> <p>We had better be careful. (The result</p> <p>We had better not make a mistake.</p>

Note the form *should have* + Participle:

should have gone

should have seen

should have taken

In speech, this is often abbreviated to *should've*:

We should've left earlier.

Exercise

Work with a partner. Each of you will write a letter stating a problem and asking for advice, ending with "What should I do?" or "What should I have done?" Exchange letters, and write a reply to each other, giving advice and using modal auxiliaries.

Modal Auxiliaries: Necessity, No Necessity, and Prohibition

<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Present-future</i>
Necessity	The information had to make sense	The information must make sense.
		The information has to make sense.
		The information will have to make sense.
		I have got to leave now. (informal)
	Last year, we were obliged to work every weekend	I've got to leave now. (informal; pronounced "I've gotta" or "I gotta")
		We are obliged to work on week ends.
No necessity	You didn't have to leave so early.	You don't have to leave yet. It's still early
		You won't have to leave early.
		You need not leave so early.
Prohibition	You weren't allowed to go in there!	You must not leave yet. There's still a lot of work to do.
		You're not allowed to leave yet.
		You won't be allowed to leave early.

Expressing Necessity, No Necessity, and Prohibition

The table on shows the forms that we use to express the ideas of necessity, absence of

necessity, and prohibition.

Note the following distinction:

They *may* be leaving soon. (modal + simple form)

May be they are on their way. (maybe = perhaps)

Expressing Expectation, Possibility, and Logical Deduction

<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Present-future</i>
Expectation	We should have/ought to have received the package by now. (But we have not yet received it.)	We should/ought to receive the package today.
	He was supposed to make a speech last night.	He is supposed to make a speech at the banquet tomorrow.
Possibility	They may have/might have changed the test date	They may/might increase tuition charges.
Logical deduction (more certain than <i>now.might</i>)	They must have changed the date.	There's no answer. He must be out.

Exercise

Write a paragraph in which you speculate about what your life might be like 20 years from now. Tell your readers what you think is possible and what your expectations are.

Exercise

Identify the difference in meaning among the sentences in the following groups. Suggest a situation in which each sentence might be used.

Example:

She had to go to the dentist. (It was necessary; she had a very severe toothache.)

- You mustn't use the computer.
 - You don't have to use the computer.
- You should send in a photograph.
 - You have to send in a photograph.
- His experimental results might be challenged.
 - His experimental results must be challenged.
 - His experimental results should be challenged.

- (d) His experimental results should have been challenged.
4. (a) She should have saved a lot of money.
(b) She might have saved a lot of money.
(c) She must have saved a lot of money.
(d) She didn't have to save a lot of money
(e) She had to save a lot of money.
5. (a) She had to see a therapist.
(b) She had better see a therapist.
(c) She didn't have to see a psychiatrist.

8.9 Let Us Sum Up

We have given you some general ideas on some of the basic topics of grammar that create trouble. While speaking or writing in English. The ample practice exercises must certainly have strengthened your language acquisition.

8.10 Review Questions

1. Passivize the following sentences if possible-

1. The UIT is pulling down unauthorized constructions.
2. You must not hammer nails into the walls without permission.
3. Why didn't they mend the roof before it fell in?
4. It is high time someone told him to stop behaving like a child.
5. Compare clothes which we have washed with clothes which any other laundry has washed.
6. They recommended opening new factories in Jhalawar.
7. He hasn't slept in his bed.
8. Her story didn't take them in.
9. People often take him for his brother.
10. He likes people to call him 'Sir'.
11. It is impossible to do this. (use can't)
12. We have to pick the fruit very early in the morning; otherwise we can't get it to the market in time.

13. They won't bring letters to the houses; we shall have to collect them from the post office.
14. We added up the money and found that it was correct.
15. Someone saw him pick up the gun.
16. Nobody has answered my question.
17. The legend tells us how the castle received its name.
18. I am not talking about you.
19. I can't make her accept this proposal.
20. Give me the money I need.

II. Use modal auxiliaries by rubbing of the underlined portions in the following sentences.

- A. Zaved has the capacity to run ten kilometers an hour.
- B. Mamta knows how to cook fish with many flavours.
- C. You are permitted to sit in the adjoining room.
- D. Raghunath is going to break journey at Mumbai.
- E. You are advised to watch the patient carefully.

8.11 Bibliography

1. Bursill-Hall, Geoffrey, Medieval Grammatical Theories, CTL, 1963
2. Chomsky, Noam, Syntactic Structures, The Hague:Mouton, 1957
3. Fries, C.C. The Structure of English: An Introduction to the Construction of English Sentences, New York:Harcourt Brace, 1952 and London: Longman, 1957
4. Lees, robert B. The Grammar of English Nominalizations Bloomington, Ind., 1960
5. Allen, W.S. Living english Structure, Longman Group Ltd. Longman House, Burnt Mill, Harlow, Essex 1947, 1973

UNIT-9

READING COMPREHENSION

Structure

9.0	Objectives	
9.1	Introduction	
9.2	Comprehension Passages	
9.2.1	Passage	1
9.2.2	Passage	2
9.2.3	Passage	3
9.2.4	Passage	4
9.2.5	Passage	5
9.2.6	Passage	6
9.2.7	Passage	7
9.2.8	Passage	8
9.2.9	Passage	9
9.2.10	Passage	10
9.2.11	Passage	11
9.2.12	Passage	12
9.3	Let Us Sum Up	
9.4	Review Questions	
9.5	Bibliography	

9.0 Objectives

After reading this unit, the students will be able:

- to understand comprehension passages in a better way.
- to know what is critical reading.
- to give answers to comprehension questions.
- to practise reading comprehension passages and to answer questions.
- to know what a precis is.
- to know different aspects regarding precis writing.
- to know how an effective precis can be written.

9.1 Introduction

However good a piece of writing may be, it has little or no significance unless it is read and comprehended by someone. And for any writing to really make a mark, not only do we need a good, expressive writer but also a good, sensitive reader or else the very purpose of writing shall remain futile.

In today's highly competitive and rapidly changing world, all of us need to assimilate reams of written material in the form of newspapers, magazines, journals, text-books, project and annual reports, simply to keep abreast of all that is constantly happening around us. It's a luxury to find the time to read all that we need to even once; the idea of reading anything a second time for lack of comprehension in the first round is truly preposterous if not practically impossible. In other words, in our first reading itself we need to be able to read at a reasonably good speed, focus our complete attention on what we are reading as well as comprehend it, store away all the relevant information for later use, and - here is the catch - accomplish all these seemingly effortlessly, and without losing out on the sheer pleasure of reading. There are some very basic tips that can effectively improve your reading and comprehension skills.

- (a) **Define the purpose of your reading.** Before you sit down to read anything at all the purpose behind the reading should be clear in your mind. You should have a clarity as to whether you are reading to simply kill time, to appear for an examination, to increase your knowledge, or to collect data etc. The time and the attention you devote to the text would be largely determined by this. For instance, if you are preparing for an examination, not only do you have to understand all that you read you also have to retain it and recall it when you are writing your paper.
- (b) **Improve your vocabulary.** To be an efficient reader it is essential to have a good vocabulary. If your knowledge of words and their usage is limited, firstly you shall have difficulty in comprehension, and secondly, if you have to constantly resort to a dictionary the flow of reading shall be repeatedly interrupted, not only resulting in wastage of precious time but also making a fair appreciation of the text virtually impossible.
- (c) **Read at a fairly good speed.** Remember, effective reading is not necessarily slow reading. Of course, rapid reading is never recommended for good comprehension, but reading slower than a particular speed would shift your focus from the totality of the text to analysis of each word. Excessively slow readers often lose track of what the writer is trying to say as they take far too long to reach the conclusion and in the tedium of the process, lose the larger perspective.

Reading Comprehension

While appearing for aptitude tests or entrance examinations you may often find yourself being tested for your reading and comprehension skills. It is of extreme importance to be proficient at both as in academic life as well as in our professional careers most of the time we are reading and analyzing. Slow readers and those poor at comprehension are, sooner or later, bound to stagnate at lower levels of performance. So as to learn to read a passage critically and then answer questions related to it, it may be useful to follow the following tips.

- (a) **Previewing.** Research shows that it is easier to understand what you are reading if you

begin with a general idea of what the passage is about. Previewing helps you form a general idea of the topic in your mind. To preview, read the first sentence of each paragraph and the last sentence of the passage. You should do this as quickly as possible. Remember, you are not reading for specific information but for an impression of the topic.

- (b) **Reading for main ideas.** By previewing, you can form a general idea of what a reading passage is about, i.e., you identify the topic. By reading for main ideas, you identify the point of view of the author, i.e., what the author's thesis is. In other words, what does the author propose to write about the topic. If you could compress the reading to a single sentence, what would it be?

Questions about the main idea can be worded in many ways.

For instance all the following questions are basically asking the same thing.

1. What is the main idea?
2. What is the subject?
3. What is the topic?
4. What would be a good title?

- (c) **Using contexts for vocabulary.** A context is the combination of vocabulary and grammar that surrounds that word. Context can be a sentence, paragraph or a passage and helps you make a general prediction about meaning. If you know the general meaning of a sentence, you also know the general meaning of the words in the sentence.

Making predictions from the context comes in useful when you are stuck in an unenviable situation of not knowing the meaning of certain word or words as a result of your limited vocabulary and have no access to a dictionary. By predicting the meaning of a word by its context you could get out of this undesirable situation.

- (d) **Making inferences.** Sometimes, in a reading passage, you will find a direct statement of fact. This is called evidence. But at other times, you will not find a direct statement and it is then that you will need to use the evidence you have to make an inference. An inference is a logical conclusion based on evidence. It can be about the passage itself or about the author's viewpoint.
- (e) **Scanning for details.** If you are expected to answer questions on the passage, first read them and then look for the important content words. These are usually nouns, verbs or adjectives and are called content words because they contain the content or meaning of a sentence. When you quickly go over the passage looking for content words or their synonyms the exercise is called scanning. By scanning, therefore, you can find the answer you are looking for in the reading passage.
- (f) **Identifying exceptions.** After reading a passage you may be asked to select from four possible answers the one that is NOT mentioned in the reading. You can use your scanning skills to locate related words and phrases in the passage and answer the questions.
- (g) **Locating references.** After reading a passage you may be asked to find the antecedent

of a pronoun. An antecedent is a word or phrase to which a pronoun refers. Usually, you may be given a pronoun such as 'it', 'its', 'them', and you will be asked to locate the reference word or phrase in the passage.

9.2 Comprehension Passages

9.2.1. Passage - 1

Fertilizer is any substance that can be added to the soil to provide chemical elements essential for plant nutrition. Natural substances such as animal dropping and straw have been used as fertilizers for thousands of years, and lime has been used since the Romans introduced it during the Empire. It was not until the nineteenth century, in fact, that chemical fertilizers became popular. Today, both natural and synthetic fertilizers are available in a variety of forms.

A complete fertilizer is usually marked with a formula consisting of three numbers, such as 4-8-2 or 3-6-4, which designate the percentage content of nitrogen, phosphoric acid, and potash in the order stated.

Synthetic fertilizers are available in either solid or liquid form. Solids, in the shape of chemical granules are popular because they are easy to store and apply. Recently, liquids have shown an increase in popularity, accounting for about 20 percent of the nitrogen fertilizer used throughout the worlds. Formerly, powders were also used, but these were found to be less convenient than either solids or liquids.

Fertilizers have no harmful effects on the soil, the crop, or the consumer as long as they are used according to recommendations based on the results of local research.

Occasionally, however, farmers may use more fertilizer than necessary, damaging not only the crop but also the animals or humans that eat it. Accumulations of fertilizer in the water supply accelerate the growth of algae and, consequently, may disturb the natural cycle of life, contributing to the death of fish. Too much fertilizer on grass can cause digestive disorders in cattle and in infants who drink cow's milk.

1. With which of the following topics is the passage primarily concerned?
 - (A) Local research and harmful effects of fertilizer
 - (B) Advantages and disadvantages of liquid fertilizer.
 - (C) A formula for the production of fertilizer
 - (D) Content, form, and effects of fertilizer.
2. In the formula 3-6-4
 - (A) the content of nitrogen is greater than that of potash.
 - (B) the content of potash is greater than that of phosphoric acid
 - (C) the content of phosphoric acid is less than that of phosphoric acid.
3. Which of the following has the smallest percentage content in the formula 4-8-2?

- (A) Nitrogen (B) Phosphorus
(C) Acid(D) Potash
4. What is the percentage of nitrogen in a 5-8-7 formula fertilizer?
(A) 3 percent (B) 5 percent
(C) 7 percent (D) 8 percent
5. The word "designate" in line 8 could be replaced by
(A) modify (B) specify
(C) limit(D) increase
6. The word "essential" in line 2 could best be replaced by which of the following?
(A) limited (B) preferred
(C) anticipated (D) required
7. Which of the following statements about fertilizer is true?
(A) Powders are more popular than ever.
(B) Solids are difficult to store
(C) Liquids are increasing in popularity
(D) Chemical granules are difficult to apply.
8. The word "these" in line 14 refers to
(A) Powders (B) Solids
(C) liquids (D) fertilizer
9. The word "convenient" in line 14 is closest in meaning to
(A) effective (B) plentiful
(C) easy to use (D) cheap to produce
10. What happens when too much fertilizer is used?
(A) Local research teams provide recommendations
(B) Algae in the water supplies begin to die.
(C) Animals and humans may become ill.
(D) Crops have no harmful effects.

Answer:-

Question Exercise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
9.2.1	D	D	D	B	B	D	C	A	C	C

9.2.2 Passage-2

The development of the horse has been recorded from the beginning through all of its evolutionary stages to the modern form. It is, in fact, one of the most complete and well-documented chapters in paleontological history. Fossil finds provide us not only with detailed information about the horse itself, but also with valuable insights into the migration of herds and even evidence for speculation about the climatic conditions that could have instigated such migratory behaviour.

It has been documented that, almost twelve million years ago at the beginning of the Pliocene age, a horse, about midway through its evolutionary development, crossed a land bridge where the Bering Straits are now located, from Alaska into the grasslands of Europe. The horse was the hipparion, about the size of a modern-day pony with three toes and specialized cheek teeth for grazing. In Europe the hipparion encountered another less advanced horse called the anchitheres, which had previously invaded Europe by the same route, probably during the Miocene Period. Less developed and smaller than the hipparion, the anchitheres was completely replaced by it. By the end of the Pleistocene Age both the anchitheres and the hipparion had become extinct in North America, where they had originated. In Europe they had evolved into an animal very similar to the horse as we know it today. It was the descendant of this horse that was brought by the European colonists to the Americas.

1. What is this passage mainly about?
 - (A) the evolution of the horse
 - (B) the migration of horses
 - (C) the modern-day pony
 - (D) the replacement of the anchitheres by the hipparion.
2. According to the author, fossils are considered valuable for all of the following reasons EXCEPT.
 - (A) they suggest how the climate may have been.
 - (B) they provide information about migration.
 - (C) they document the evolution of the horse
 - (D) they maintain a record of life prior to the Miocene Age.
3. The word "instigated" in line 6 could best be replaced by
 - (A) explained
 - (B) caused
 - (C) improved
 - (D) influenced
4. The author suggests that the hipparion and the anchitheres migrated to Europe.
 - (A) by means of a land route that is now nonexistent
 - (B) on the ships of European colonists
 - (C) because of a very cold climate in North America

- (D) during the miocene Period.
5. Both the hipparion and the anchitheres
- (A) were the size of a modern pony
- (B) were native to North America
- (C) migrated to Europe in the Pliocene Period
- (D) had unspecialized teeth.
6. Which of the following conclusions may be made on the basis of information in the passage?
- (A) the hipparions migrated to Europe to feed in developing grasslands.
- (B) there are no fossil remains of either the anchitheres or the hipparion.
- (C) there were horses in North America when the first European colonists arrived.
- (D) very little is known about the evolution of the horse.
7. According to this passage, the hipparions were.
- (A) five-toed animals
- (B) not as highly developed as the anchitheres
- (C) larger than the anchitheres
- (D) about the size of a small dog.
8. The word "it" in line 15 refers to
- (A) anchitheres (B) hipparion
- (C) Miocene Period (D) Route
9. The word "extinct" in line 16 is closest in meaning to
- (A) familiar (B) widespread
- (C) nonexistent (D) tame
10. It can be concluded from this passage that the
- (A) Miocene Period was prior to the Pliocene
- (B) Pleistocene Period was prior to the Miocene
- (C) Pleistocene Period was prior to the Pliocene
- (D) Pliocene Period was prior to the Miocene.

Answer:-

Question Exercise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
9.2.1	A	D	B	A	B	A	C	B	C	A

9.2.3 Passage-3

It was the first photograph that I had ever seen, and it fascinated me. I can remember holding it at every angle in order to catch the flickering light from the old lamp on the dresser. The man in the photograph was unsmiling, but his eyes were kind. I had never met him, but I felt that I knew him. One evening when I was looking at the photograph, as I always did before I went to sleep, I noticed a shadow across the man's thin face. I moved the photograph so that the shadow lay perfectly around his hollow cheeks. How different he looked!

That night I could not sleep, thinking about the letter that I would write. First, I would tell him that I was eleven years old, and that if he had a little girl my age, she could write to me instead of him. I knew that he was a very busy man. Then I would explain to him the real purpose of my letter. I would tell him how wonderful he looked with the shadow that I had seen across his photograph, and I would most carefully suggest that he grow whiskers.

Four months later when I met him at the train station near my home in Westfield, New York, he was wearing a full beard. He was so much taller than I had imagined from my tiny photograph.

"Ladies and gentlemen," he said, "I have no speech to make and no time to make it in. I appear before you that I may see you that I may see you and that you may see me." Then he picked me right up and kissed me on both cheeks. The whiskers scratched. "Do you think I look better, my little friend?" he asked me.

My name is Grace Bedell, and the man in the photograph was Abraham Lincoln.

1. The word "flickering" in line 2 is closest in meaning to
 - (A) burning constantly
 - (B) burning unsteadily
 - (C) burning very dimly
 - (D) burning brightly
2. The little girl could not sleep because she was
 - (A) She was lonely.
 - (B) She wanted his daughter to write to her.
 - (C) She wanted him to grow a beard.
 - (D) She wanted him to visit her.
3. The man in the photograph
 - (A) was smiling
 - (B) had a beard
 - (C) had a round, fat face
 - (D) looked kind
4. What did Grace Bedell do every night before she went to sleep?
 - (A) She wrote letters
 - (B) She looked at the photograph
 - (C) She made shadow figures on the wall

- (D) She read stories.
5. The word "fascinated" in line 1 could best be replaced by
- (A) interested (B) frightened
(C) confused (D) disgusted
6. The word "it" in line 20 refers to
- (A) time (B) speech
(C) photograph (D) station
7. From this passage, it may be inferred that
- (A) Grace Bedell was the only one at the train station when Lincoln stopped at Westfield.
(B) There were many people waiting for Lincoln to arrive on the train.
(C) Lincoln made a long speech at the station in Westfield.
(D) Lincoln was offended by the letter.
8. Why did the author wait until the last line to reveal the identity of the man in the photograph?
- (A) The author did not know it
(B) The author wanted to make the reader feel foolish.
(C) The author wanted to build the interest and curiosity of the reader
(D) The author was just a little girl.

Answer :-

Question Exercise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
9.2.3	B	B	D	B	B	B	C	C	-	-

9.2.4 Passage-4

Precipitation, commonly referred to as rainfall, is a measure of the quantity of water in the form of either rain, hail, or snow which reaches the ground. The average annual precipitation over the whole of the United States is thirty - six inches. It should be understood however, that a foot of snow is not equal to a foot of precipitation. A general formula for computing the precipitation of snowfall is that ten inches of snow is equal to one inch of precipitation. In New York State, for example, twenty inches of snow in one year would be recorded as only two inches of precipitation. Forty inches of rain would be recorded as forty - two inches.

The amount of precipitation is a combined result of several factors, including location, altitude, proximity to the sea, and the direction of prevailing winds. Most of the precipitation in the United States is brought originally by prevailing winds from the Pacific Ocean, the Gulf of

Mexico, the Atlantic Ocean, and the Great Lakes. Because these prevailing winds generally come from the West, the Pacific Coast receives more annual precipitation than the Atlantic Coast. Along the Pacific Coast itself, however, altitude causes some diversity in rainfall. The mountain ranges of the United States, especially the Rocky Mountain Range and the Appalachian Mountain Range, influence the amount of precipitation in their areas. East of the Rocky Mountains, the annual precipitation decreases substantially from the west of the Rocky Mountain. The precipitation north of the Appalachian Mountains is about 40 percent less than that of south of the Appalachian Mountains.

1. What does this passage mainly discuss?
(A) Precipitation (B) Snowfall
(C) New York State (D) A general formula
2. Which of the following is another word that is often used in place of precipitation?
(A) Humidity (B) Wetness
(C) Rainfall (D) Rain-snow
3. What is the average annual rainfall in inches in the United States?
(A) Thirty-six inches (B) Thirty-eight inches
(C) Forty inches (D) Forty-two inches
4. If a state has 40 inches of snow in a year, by how much does this increase the annual precipitation?
(A) By two feet (B) By four inches
(C) By four feet (D) By 40 inches.
5. The phrase "proximity to" in line 11 is closest in meaning to
(A) communication with (B) dependence on
(C) nearness to (D) similarity to
6. The term precipitation includes
(A) only rainfall (B) rain, hail, and snow
(C) rain, snow, and humidity (D) rain, hail, and humidity
7. Where is the annual precipitation highest?
(A) The Atlantic Coast (B) The Great Lakes
(C) The Gulf of Mexico (D) The Pacific Coast
8. Which of the following was NOT mentioned as a factor in determining the amount of precipitation that an area will receive?
(A) Mountains (B) Latitude
(C) The sea (D) Wind

9. The word "substantially" in line 20 could best be replaced by
- (A) fundamentally (B) slightly
- (C) completely (D) apparently
10. The word "that" in line 21 refers to
- (A) deceases (B) precipitation
- (C) areas (D) mountain ranges

Answer :-

Question Exercise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
9.2.4	A	C	A	B	C	B	D	B	A	B

9.2.5 Passage-5

Although each baby has an individual schedule of development, general patterns of growth have been observed. Three periods of development have been identified, including early infancy, which extends from the first to the sixth month; middle infancy, from the sixth to the ninth month; and late infancy, from other ninth to the fifteenth month. Whereas the newborn is concerned with his or her inner world and responds primarily to hunger and pain, in early infancy the baby is already aware of the surrounding world. During the second month, many infants are awake more and can raise their heads to look at things. They also begin to smile at people. By four months, the bay is searching for things but not yet grasping them with its hands. It is also beginning to be wary of strangers and may scream when a visiting relative tries to pick it up. By five months, the baby is grabbing objects and putting them into its month. Some babies are trying to feed themselves with their hands.

In Middle infancy, the baby contentrates on practicing a great many speech sounds. It loves to imitate actions and examine interesting objects. At about seven months, it begins to crawl, a skill that it masters at the end of middle infancy.

In late infacny, the baby takes an interest in games, songs, and even books. Progress towards walking moves through standing, balancing, bouncing in place, and walking with others. As soon as the baby walks well alone, it has passed from infancy into the active toddler stage.

1. What does this passage mainly discuss?
- (A) Precipitation ☐
- (B) Snowfall ☐
- (C) New York State ☐
- (D) A general formula ☒
2. The word "primarily" in line 6 could best be replaced by
- (A) often ☐

- (B) naturally ☐
- (C) for the most part ☒
- (D) in a loud way ☐
3. According to this reading passage, what would a six-month-old baby like to do?
- (A) Smile at people ☐
- (B) Crawl on the floor ☐
- (C) Imitate actions ☒
- (D) Play simple games ☐
4. A baby in late infancy would be able to do all of the following EXCEPT
- (A) make any speech sounds ☐
- (B) walk well alone ☒
- (C) show interest in games ☐
- (D) Imitate actions ☐

9.2.6 Passage-6

Alfred Bernhard Nobel, a Swedish inventor and philanthropist, bequeathed most of his vast fortune in trust as a fund from which annual prizes could be awarded to individuals and organizations who had achieved the greatest benefit to humanity in a particular year. Originally, there were six classifications for outstanding contributions designated in Nobel's will including chemistry, physics, physiology or medicine, literature and international peace.

The prizes are administered by the Nobel Foundation in Stockholm. In 1969, a prize for economics endowed by the Central Bank of Sweden was added. Candidates for the prizes must be nominated in writing by a qualified authority in the field of competition. Recipients in physics, chemistry, and economics are selected by the Royal Swedish Academy of Sciences; in physiology or medicine by the Caroline Institute; in literature by the Swedish Academy; and in peace by the Norwegian Nobel Committee appointed by Norway's parliament. The prizes are usually presented in Stockholm on December 10, with the King of Sweden officiating an appropriate tribute to Alfred Nobel on the anniversary of his death. Each one includes a gold medal, a diploma, and a cash award of about one million dollars.

1. What does this passage mainly discuss?
- (A) Alfred Bernhard Nobel
- (B) The Nobel Prizes
- (C) Great contributions to mankind
- (D) Swedish Philanthropy
2. Why were the prizes named for Alfred Bernhard Nobel?

- (A) He left money in his will to establish a fund for the prizes.
 - (B) He won the first Nobel prize for his work in philanthropy.
 - (C) He is now living in Sweden
 - (D) He serves as chairman of the committee to choose the recipients of the prizes.
3. How often are the Nobel prizes awarded?
- (A) Five times a year (B) Once a year
 - (C) Twice a year (D) Once every two years
4. The word "outstanding" in line 4 could best be replaced by
- (A) Five times a year (B) unusual
 - (C) established (D) exceptional
5. The word "will" in line 5 refers to
- (A) Nobel's wishes (B) a legal document
 - (C) a future intention (D) a free choice
6. The word "one" in line 16 refers to
- (A) tribute (B) anniversary
 - (C) prize (D) candidate
7. Which individual or organization serves as administrator for the trust?
- (A) The King of Sweden (B) The Nobel Foundation
 - (C) The Central Bank of Sweden
 - (D) Swedish and Norwegian academies and institutes
8. The word "appropriate" in line 15 is closest in meaning to
- (A) Prestigious (B) customary
 - (C) suitable (D) transitory
9. Why are the awards presented on December 10?
- (A) It is a tribute to the King of Sweden
 - (B) Alfred Bernhard Nobel died on that day.
 - (C) That date was established in Alfred Nobel's will
 - (D) The Central Bank of Sweden administers the trust.
10. A Nobel prize would NOT be given to
- (A) an author who wrote a novel
 - (B) a doctor who discovered a vaccine

(C) a composer who wrote a symphony

(D) a diplomat who negotiated a peace settlement.

Answer :-

Question Exercise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
9.2.6	A	C	A	B	C	B	D	B	A	B

9.2.7 Passage-7

Although stage plays have been set to music since the era of the ancient Greeks, when the dramas of Sophocles and Aeschylus were accompanied by lyres and flutes, the usually accepted date for the beginning of opera as we know it is 1600. As part of the celebration of the marriage of King Henry IV of France to the Italian aristocrat Maria de Medici, the Florentine composer Jacopo Peri produced his famous Euridice, generally considered to be the first opera.

Following his example, a group of Italian musicians, poets, and noblemen called the Camerata began to revive the style of musical story that had been used in Greek tragedy. The Camerata took most of the plots for their operas from Greek and Roman history and mythology, writing librettos or dramas for music. They called their compositions opera in music or musical works. It is from this phrase that the word "opera" is borrowed.

For several years, the center of opera was Florence, but gradually, during the baroque period, its spread throughout Italy. By the late 1600s, operas were being written and performed in Europe, especially in England, France and Germany. But, for many years, the Italian, opera was considered the ideal, and many non-Italian composers continued to use Italian librettos. The European form de-emphasized the dramatic aspect. New orchestral effects and even ballet were introduced under the guise of opera. Composers gave in to the demands of singers, writing many operas that were nothing more than a succession of brilliant tricks for the voice. Complicated arias, recitatives, and duets evolved. The aria, which is a long solo, may be compared to a song in which the characters express their thoughts and feelings. The recitative, which is also a solo, is a recitation set to music whose purpose is to continue the story line. The duet is a musical piece written for two voices which may serve the function of either an aria or a recitative.

1. This passage is a summary of
 - (A) opera in Italy
 - (B) the Camerata
 - (C) the development of opera
 - (D) Euridice
2. According to this passage, when did modern opera begin?
 - (A) In the time of the ancient Greeks
 - (B) In the fifteenth century
 - (C) At the beginning of the sixteenth century
 - (D) At the beginning of the seventeenth century.

3. The word "it" in line 3 refers to
 (A) Opera (B) date
 (C) era (D) music
4. What was the Camerata?
 (A) A group of Greek musicians
 (B) Musicians who developed a new musical drama based upon Greek drama
 (C) A style of music not know in Italy
 (D) The name given to the court of King Henry IV.
5. The word "revive" in line 8 could best be replaced by
 (A) appreciate (B) resume
 (C) modify (D) investigate
6. The word "plots" in line 9 is closest in meaning to
 (A) locations (B) instruments
 (C) stories (D) inspiration
7. According to the author, what did Jacopo Peri write?
 (A) Greek tragedy (B) The first opera
 (C) The first opera (D) The opera The Camerata
8. The author suggests that Euridice was produced
 (A) in France (B) originally by Sophocles and Aeschylus
 (C) without much success (D) for the wedding of King Henry IV
9. From what did the term "opera" derive?
 (A) Greek and Roman history and mythology
 (B) Non-Italian composers
 (C) The Italian phrase that means "musical works".
 (D) The ideas of composer Jacopo Peri
10. Which of the following is an example of a solo?
 (A) A recitative (B) A duet
 (C) An opera (D) A lyre

Answer :-

Question Exercise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
9.2.7	C	D	A	B	B	C	B	D	C	A

9.2.8 Passage-8

According to the controversial sunspot theory, great storms on the surface of the sun hurl streams of solar particles into the atmosphere, causing a shift in the weather on earth.

A typical sunspot consists of a dark central umbra surrounded by a lighter penumbra of light and dark threads extending out from the center like the spokes of a wheel. Actually, the sunspots are cooler than the rest of the photosphere, which may account for their colour. Typically, the temperature in a sunspot umbra is about 4000 K, whereas the temperature in a penumbra registers 5500 K, and the granules outside the spot are 6000 K.

Sunspots have been observed in arrangements of one to more than one hundred spots, but they tend to occur in pairs. There is also a marked tendency for the two spots of a pair to have opposite magnetic polarities. Furthermore, the strength of the magnetic field associated with any given sunspot is closely related to the spot's size.

Although there is no theory that completely explains the nature and function of sunspots, several models attempt to relate the phenomenon to magnetic fields along the lines of longitude from the north and south poles of the sun.

1. What is the author's main purpose in the passage?
 - (A) To propose a theory to explain sunspots
 - (B) To describe the nature of sunspots
 - (C) To compare the umbra and the penumbra in sunspots.
 - (D) To argue for the existence of magnetic fields in sunspots.
2. The word "controversial" in line 1 is closest in meaning to
 - (A) Widely accepted
 - (B) Open to debate
 - (C) Just introduced
 - (D) Very complicated
3. Solar particles are hurled into space by
 - (A) undetermined causes
 - (B) disturbances of wind
 - (C) small rivers on the surface of the sun
 - (D) changes in the earth's atmosphere
4. The word "particles" in line 2 refers to
 - (A) gas explosions in the atmosphere
 - (B) light rays from the sun
 - (C) liquid streams on other sun

- (D) small pieces of matter from the
5. How can we describe matter from the sun that enters the earth's atmosphere?
 - (A) Very small
 - (B) Very hot
 - (C) Very bright
 - (D) Very hard
 6. The word "they" in line 11 refers to
 - (A) structures
 - (B) spots
 - (C) miles
 - (D) granules
 7. In which configuration do sunspots usually occur?
 - (A) In one spot of varying size
 - (B) In a configuration of two spots
 - (C) In arrangements of one hundred or more spots.
 - (D) In groups of several thousand spots.
 8. How are sunspots explained?
 - (A) Sunspots appear to be related to magnetic fields on the earth
 - (B) Sunspots may be related to magnetic fields that follow longitudinal lines on the sun.
 - (C) Sunspots are explained by storms that occur on the earth.
 - (D) Sunspot have no theory or model to explain them.
 9. The sunspot theory is
 - (A) widely accepted
 - (B) non considered very important
 - (C) relatively new
 - (D) Subject to disagreement

Answer :-

Question Exercise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
9.2.8	B	B	B	D	A	B	B	B	C	-

9.2.9 Passage - 9

Do birds know how to come back home after a long flight? Bird scientists, known as ornithologists, say that birds know exactly where they are and where their nests are. Even the young ones can fly hundreds of nautical miles without losing their way. How do they do it? God has given them a tremendous sense of direction; possibly they have a compass of sorts in their brain. Every year, we can see birds from north India fly to the south. In India we have several bird sanctuaries where birds from both parts of the globe come, spend a few months and return when the climatic conditions in their home land are more favourable. When it is winter in the northern hemisphere, it is summer in the southern hemisphere. The birds which cannot stand the

cold climate fly to the warmer regions. They are called migratory birds. They can fly non-stop up to twenty hours or so in one stretch and cover a few hundred miles in one stop. The migratory birds always fly in groups.

Questions

1. Who is an ornithologist?
2. Why do we call some birds migratory birds?
3. Are the seasons the same in both hemispheres?
4. Do the migratory birds fly in groups?
5. How long can migratory birds fly?

Answers :-

1. An ornithologist is a bird scientist who has studied the habits of birds.
2. We call some birds migratory birds because they move from their homelands during summer and winter seasons.
3. No; they are always the opposite.
4. They fly in groups.
5. They can fly up to twenty hours at a stretch.

9.2.10 Passage-10

If you are not in the grip of avarice, you will choose a trade or profession that appeals to you as the means of self-expression and social service, even if you cannot earn much money by it. Your daily duty is not merely money-making drudgery; it is your contribution to social progress and the path of personal development. How sad must be the lot of the man or woman who must do uncongenial work simply for the sake of more money? I know a younger professor who loved literature passionately and taught it admirably; but his salary was small, and he became a lawyer in order to secure a larger income. I tell you that man was guilty of a crime, and he will not be happy as a lawyer, though he may be a little more comfortable, a little better fed and dressed and lodged. A musician who is born a violinist can never be personally happy or socially useful as a prosperous merchant or stock-broker, as he will miss the violin all the time. Avarice puts round men in square jobs and square men in round jobs. At present many persons in all classes, rich and poor, are unhappy and restless because their daily work is not interesting. It does not provide an outlet for the creative impulse and the insistent urge of personality. Therefore, don't ask in youth, 'How can I earn the biggest salary?' Ask rather, 'How can I be truly happy and do most good to society?' Then you may have less money, but you will have more of life and joy.

Questions

1. When can a man choose a profession through which he can express himself and serve others?
2. Why does the author consider the lawyer known to him guilty of a crime?
3. Why are most of the people unhappy at present?

4. When will a violinist be unhappy?
5. Who are the misplaced persons according to the writer?
6. What is the advice of the writer to the rough?

Answers :

1. If one has to choose a profession to serve others, or to express his personality as a human being, he must have no undue attraction towards money even if the profession can provide it.
2. The lawyer was guilty as he left his real profession of a lecturer in which he had real interest - a passion for teaching - simply to earn a little more for material comforts. He sold his happiness for a few pieces of gold.
3. One should take up a profession in which he has real involvement, in which he can create something, where he can express his personality. Most people do not choose such a profession. They choose one which gives them more money. Thus they are better off but never happy.
4. The violinist will always be unhappy if he becomes a busy businessman because his real interest is in violin. His love is for violin. He will miss it. If one loses his love he can never be happy.
5. The persons who take up a job in which they are not primarily interested are misplaced persons. They put themselves in such situations to earn more at the cost of their personality and real interests.
6. Young people should find ways to earn money, but should also devote themselves to the cause of society. This will give them real happiness and make them more active too.

9.2.11 Passage-11

When I go into a stranger's library I wander round the bookshelves to learn what sort of person the stranger is, and when he comes in I feel that I know the key to his mind and the range of his interests. A house without books is a characterless house, no matter how rich the Persian rugs. These only tell you whether he has a lot of money, but the books tell you whether he has got a mind as well. It is not a question of money that we do not buy books. I repeat that the books are the cheapest as well as the best part of the equipment of a few dollars. Nearly all the best literature in the world is at your command at two dollars a volume. For 100 dollars you can get a library of fifty books. Even if you do not read them yourself, they are a priceless investment for your children. What delight is there like the revelation of books-the sudden impact of a master-spirit, the sense of a window flung wide open to the universe? It is the adventures of the mind, the joy of which does not pass away, that give the adventure of life itself beauty and fragrance.

Questions

1. Why does the adventure of mind not pass away?
2. Why does the writer wander round the bookshelves when he goes to a stranger's house?
3. What delight does a good book provide?

4. What can books tell you about a stranger?
 - (a) That he is a rich man
 - (b) That he believes in priceless investment
 - (c) That he has good mental faculties
5. When one reads good book, one is delighted because
 - (a) one finds the windows of the library opened
 - (b) one feels the influence of a great writer
 - (c) one knows much about the universe
6. The words 'master-spirit' in the passage mean
 - (a) a prominent writer
 - (b) the spiritual effect of a master
 - (c) one who has a control over the spirit of a man

Answers :-

1. The adventures of the mind permeate one's own life, filling it with happiness that never goes away.
2. The writer wanders round the bookshelves to learn about the mind of the owner.
3. A good book delights us as it reveals the mind of a great man.
4. c 5. b 6. b

9.2.12 Passage-12

Our society is built with money for mortar; money is present in every joint of circumstance. It might be named the social atmosphere, since in society, it is by that alone that men continue to live, and only through that can they reach or affect one another. Money gives us food, shelter, and privacy; it permits us to be clean in person, opens for us the doors of the theatre, gains us books for study or pleasure, enables us to help the distresses of others, and puts us above necessity so that we can choose the best of life. If we have scruples, it gives us an opportunity to be honest; if we have any bright designs, here is what will smooth the way to their accomplishment. Penury is the worst slavery and will soon lead to death. But money is only a means, it pre-supposes a man to use it. The rich man can go where he pleases, but perhaps pleases himself nowhere. He can buy a library or visit the whole world but has neither patience to read nor intelligence to see. The table may be loaded and the appetite wanting; the purse may be loaded and the heart empty. He may have gained the world and lost himself, with all his wealth around him in a great house. Without an appetite, without an aspiration, void of appreciation, bankrupt of desire and hope, there in his great house, let him sit and look at his finger. It is perhaps more fortunate to have a taste for collecting shells than to be born a millionaire. Although neither is to despised, it is always a better policy to learn an interest than to make a thousand pounds, for the money will soon be spent or perhaps you may feel no joy in spending it, but interest remains imperishable and ever new.

Questions

1. Why does the writer give preference to collecting shells than to be born a very rich man?
2. What is the source of mutual relations in the world?
3. How does money give us the opportunity to choose the best of life?
4. Why does the writer consider poverty as the worst slavery?
5. Why is it not possible for a rich man to enjoy his riches?
6. Explain the idea of the word 'appetite' in the passage.
7. Do you agree with the statement that 'money is only a means'? What is the 'end' of life hidden in the passage?

Answer :-

1. Collecting shells is a permanent interest. One may have any other such interest. Money may not remain with us permanently. One may not derive real pleasure through it. Thus it is better to learn an interest than to be a rich man.
2. Money is the source of mutual relations in the world. We can reach others and create an effect on them through money.
3. Money frees us from tension about the necessities of life. Freed from this worry, we get time and opportunity to help others, and to acquire knowledge. So we can choose the best of life, to follow our dreams, to be honest, and to create conveniences for others.
4. Poverty does not allow a man freedom. A poor man always depends upon others. Thus it is the worst slavery.
5. A man cannot enjoy the best of food if he has no appetite. Money is only a means to an end. A rich man cannot enjoy his riches if he is simply interested in accumulating wealth and has no other desires or interests to pursue.
6. 'Appetite', in the passage, means desire or interest in enjoying and deriving emotional pleasure from something.
7. Money is indeed a means of accomplishing the aims of one's life. A man who only makes money for its own sake could be intellectually and emotionally bankrupt. The goal of life is to develop all of one's faculties to the fullest and be of service to others.

9.3 Let Us Sum Up

With the help of ample exercises in reading comprehension you must have internalized the basic tips that go into improving your reading and comprehension skills effectively.

9.4 Review Questions

Read the passage and answer the questions that follow:

We have been brought you to fear insects. We regard them as unnecessary creatures that do more harm than good. Man continually wages war on them, for they contaminate his food, carry diseases or devour his crop. They sting or bite without provocation: they fly uninvited into our rooms on summer nights or beat against our lighted windows. We live in dread not only of unpleasant insects like spiders or wasps, but of quite harmless ones like moths. reading about them in-

creases our understanding without dispelling our fears. Knowing that the industrious ant lives in a highly organised society does nothing to prevent us from being filled with revulsion when we find hordes of them crawling over a carefully prepared picnic lunch.

No matter how much we like honey, or how much we have read about the uncanny sense of direction which bees possess, we have a horror of being stung. Most of our fears are unreasonable, but they are strangely fascinating. We enjoy reading about them, especially horrible lives. We enjoy starting at them, entranced as they go about their business, unaware (we hope) of our presence. Who has not stood in awe at the sight of a spider pouncing on a fly, or a column of ants triumphantly bearing home an enormous dead beetle?

Last summer, I spent days in the garden watching thousands of ants crawling up the trunk of my prize peach tree. The tree has grown against a warm wall on a sheltered side of the house. I am especially proud of it, not only because it has survived several winters, but because it occasionally produces delicious peaches, during the summer I notice that the leaves of the tree were beginning to wither. Clusters of tiny insects called aphids were to be found on the underside of the leaves. They were visitors by a large colony of ants which, obtaining a sort of honey from them. I immediately embarked on an experiment which, even though it failed to get rid of the ants, kept me fascinated for twenty-four hours. I bound the base of the tree with a sticky tape, making it impossible for the ants to reach the aphids. The tape was so watched them scurrying around the base of the tree in bewilderment. I even went out at midnight with a torch and noted with satisfaction (and surprise) that the ants were still swarming around the sticky tape without being able to do anything about it. I got up in despair. Indeed, I saw that they had discovered a new route. They were climbing up the wall of the house and then on to the leaves of the tree. I realized sadly that I had been completely defeated by their ingenuity. The ants had been quick to find an answer to my thoroughly unscientific method!

Answers the following questions in your own words as far as possible:

1. What is your attitude to insects?
2. Why does man try to exterminate insects?
3. Why does the writer say that knowing about the insects does not help man to change his attitude to insects?
4. Do you think that the attitude of man to insects as described herein is right? Why not?
5. What did you think the writer wanted to prove by the experiment he conducted on ants.
6. Select words from the above passage which convey the similar meaning as the following:
(a) drive away (ii) sudden attack (iii) cleverness

9.5 Bibliography

1. Meenaxi Raman and Sangeeta Sharma: Technical Communication, Oxford University Press.
2. B.G. Tandon and Loveena Tandon: A to Z of English, Ane Publication.
3. R.P. Sinha: Current English Grammar and usage with Composition, Oxford University Press.

UNIT-10

LISTENING COMPREHENSION

Structure

- 10.0 Objectives
- 10.1 Introduction
- 10.2 Listening: A Process
- 10.3 Recognizing Lecture Structure
- 10.4 Understanding Reference
- 10.5 Progression of Learning Activities
- 10.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 10.7 Review Questions
- 10.8 Bibliography

10.0 Objectives

The objectives of this unit are

- to enable one to comprehend spoken English
- to develop ability to take notes
- to enable one to participate in communicative activities.

10.1 Introduction

Being able to listen well is an important part of communication for everyone. For our students, guided practice by a teacher is one of the best ways to improve this skill. A student with good listening comprehension skills will be able to participate more effectively in communicative situations. For second language learners, developing the skill of listening comprehension is extremely important. Students with good listening comprehension skills are better able to participate effectively in class (Brown, 2001). What follows is an exploration of areas that language teachers may find useful in their classroom and when preparing listening materials.

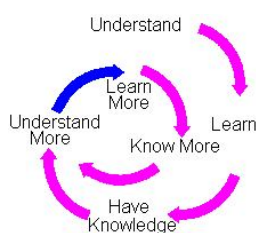
Academic listening usually involves trying to follow a lecture or discussion in English and writing adequate notes on it. If a student has difficulties in doing this, he may not be sure whether the problems are listening problems or language problems. In any case, much listening to lectures or similar texts is essential. There is also a need to be aware of the way lectures are organized, the particular kind of language that is used in lectures (Lynch, 1983) and making sure you know the language, particularly the pronunciation of familiar words, of your own subject. The most important skill is to learn to recognize the structure of lectures - the main points and subsidiary points.

For this a student need to practise:

- Learning how to take notes.
- Recognizing lecture structure: understanding relationships in the lecture - reference; understanding relations within the sentence/complex sentences; importance markers, signposts.
- Deducing the meaning of unfamiliar words and word groups - guessing.
- Recognizing implications: information not explicitly stated; recognizing the speaker's attitude. Evaluating the importance of information - selecting information.
- Understanding intonation, voice emphasis etc.
- Listening skills: skimming - listening to obtain gist; scanning - listening to obtain specific information; selective extraction of relevant points to summarize text.

Besides this a student can improve listening quickly if he hears English often - so make sure you do - films, television, anything. Any kind of comprehension is also part of a circle:

understand à learn à have knowledge à understand more à learn more à have more knowledge à understand more etc.



So read around the topic before the lecture - or read the newspaper if you want to understand the news on the radio.

10.2 Listening: A Process

(1) Purposeful

Listening is purposeful. The way you listen to something will depend on your purpose. You listen to different texts in different ways. In everyday life, you usually know why you are listening. You have a question and you read to find the answer. You usually know how the news programmes on the radio are organised - usually a quick headline followed by details. You know the sports results follow the main news items, so if you want to know the sports results, you wait until it is time. You do not listen to every word of the news items. When you read a story or a play, it is different. You start at the beginning and listen to the end. In academic listening, you need to be flexible when you listen - you may need to listen carefully at the beginning to find out what is going to come, then listen less carefully until you hear what you want to know. General efficient listening strategies such as scanning to find the correct part of the lecture, skimming to get the gist and careful listening of important passages are necessary as well as learning about how texts are structured in your subject.

(i) The Purpose Should Be Made Clear to the Students

When the learning objective of a language class is explained to students, they can better focus on specific vocabulary acquisition, grammar practice, listening for different purposes, and so on. This clear explanation by the teacher of a lesson's pedagogic goals will help learners to further develop specific objectives in a shorter amount of time. For instance, by informing students that the lesson will be about giving directions, they can consciously focus on remembering the vocabulary used in that activity.

(2) Interactive

Listening is an interactive process - it is a two-way process. As a listener you are not passive but active. This means you have to work at constructing the meaning from the sounds heard by your ears, which you use as necessary. You construct the meaning using your knowledge of the language, your subject and the world, continually predicting and assessing. You need to be active all the time when you are listening. It is useful, therefore, before you start listening to try to actively remember what you know, and do not know, about the subject and as you are listening to, to formulate questions based on the information you have. Title, sub-titles and section heading can help you formulate question to keep you interacting.

Useful skills are:

- Distinguishing the main ideas from supporting detail, and extracting salient points to summarize.
- Taking notes

The lecture will be organized around several different points. It is important to notice when the lecturer moves from one point to the next. Listen for these signals.

That's all I want to say about X. OK Now All right	
Having looked at ..., I'd now like to consider I'd like now to move on to Turning now to So let's turn to Moving on now to I now want to turn to The next point is Another interesting point is The next aspect I'd like to consider is I'd now like to turn to Let's now look at If we could now move on to	...

Progression of Listening Comprehension Activities

This progression of activities allows the learner to use what they know, to go from being a passive learner, to an active learner.

1. warm-up activity
2. listening comprehension activity
3. controlled practice
4. open-ended listening/speaking activity

10.3 Recognizing Lecture Structure

Several studies (e.g. Chaudron & Richards, 1986; DeCarrico & Nattinger, 1988) have suggested that explicit signals of text structure are important in lecture comprehension. Listening for these signals can therefore help you understand the lecture.

Signals

The tables below show some of the most common signals used in lectures to indicate structure (Leech & Svartvik, 1975). Listen for them in your lectures.

1. Introducing
2. Giving background information
3. Defining
4. Enumerating/Listing
5. Giving examples
6. Showing importance/Emphasizing
7. Clarifying/Explaining/Putting it in other words
8. Moving on/Changing direction
9. Giving further information
10. Giving contrasting information
11. Classifying
12. Digressing
13. Referring to visuals
14. Concluding

(1) Introducing

At the beginning of a lecture, or a section of a lecture, the lecturer will give you some idea about the structure of the lecture. Listen for these signals as it will help you understand what the lecturer is saying.

What I intend to say is	
What I'd like to do is to discuss	
What I intend to do is to explain	
In my talk today,	
My topic today is	
Today, I'm going to talk about	
I'm going to talk to you about
My colleagues and I are going to give a short presentation on	
Today I want to consider	
In this talk, I would like to concentrate on	
The subject of this talk is	
The purpose of this talk is to	
This talk is designed to	

(2) Giving background information

Before the new information is given, the lecturer will often summarize what you are expected to know about the subject to be covered. This could refer back to a previous lecture or to some background reading you should have done.

As we know	
As we have already seen	
As we have all read	
It's clear that	
It goes without saying
We all understand	
It is understood	
You'll remember	

(3) Defining

In a lecture, it is often necessary to define the terms that will be used. This is important as familiar words can have specific meanings in different subjects.

	is
	is called
X	is known as
	may be defined as
	is a type of Y that/which ...
By X, I mean	
This term is used generally to mean	
In the field of Y, the term refers to	
A type of Y which ... is X.	

(4) Enumerating/Listing

The lecturer will often be explicit about the order in which new points will be mentioned. To make the order clear we use various links and connectives.

Firstly Secondly Next Then Thirdly Lastly Finally		
First of all In the first place For one thing To begin with In the second place For another thing		
The	first second next last	point I'd like to make is

(5) Giving examples

In lectures, it is common to make generalisations. These generalisations are often supported with examples. These signals can help you to understand which generalisations the examples refer to.

This ...	is	shown exemplified illustrated	by ...	
For example, ... For instance, You only have to think of Remember,				
A key experiment		shows exemplifies illustrates	this	

This is shown by the following examples: The following are examples of this: The following is a case in point: Let me give you a couple of examples:		...
X is a case in point.		
Take	X	for example for instance
...	such as	...

6. Showing importance/Emphasising

When you are taking notes, you cannot write down every word. You need to distinguish between important and less important information. The lecturer can use these signals to draw your attention to the important points.

I want to stress	
I want to highlight	
I'd like to emphasise	
I'd like to put emphasis on	
It's important to remember	
that
We should bear in mind that	
Don't forget that	
The crucial point is	
The essential point is	
The fundamental point is	...
Furthermore,	
What's more,	
This supports my argument that,
It follows, therefore, that	
What (in effect) we are saying is	

7. Clarifying/Explaining/Putting it in other words

The lecturer will try to explain the meaning of difficult concepts. To do this he or she may repeat the information using different words. It is important for you to recognise that this is the same information expressed differently and not new information.

In other words,
Or rather,
That is to say,
Basically
To put it another way,
If we put that another way,
By which I mean

Or you could say The point I'm making is That is to say, That is, Namely, i.e.		
That means ...		
What I	'm suggesting 'm trying to say meant to say should have said	is
Let me put it another way.		

8. Moving on/Changing direction

The lecture will be organised around several different points. It is important to notice when the lecturer moves from one point to the next. Listen for these signals.

That's all I want to say about X. OK Now All right Having looked at ..., I'd now like to consider I'd like now to move on to Turning now to So let's turn to Moving on now to I now want to turn to The next point is Another interesting point is The next aspect I'd like to consider is I'd now like to turn to Let's now look at If we could now move on to	...
--	-----

9. Giving further information

These signals show that the lecturer is proceeding in the same direction and giving more information.

Furthermore, An additional point Another point A further point A similar point In addition Moreover	
---	--

Similarly Apart from, Not only ..., but We can add I could add that Further As well as, Besides
--	------

...	also. too. as well.
-----	---------------------------

10. Giving contrasting information

These signals show that the lecturer is proceeding in a different direction and giving unexpected or contrasting information. It is important to listen to this.

Although However On the other hand Whereas Despite Nevertheless But Alternatively
--	-------

11. Classifying

When we classify, we arrange members of a group. The lecturer may use the following signals to show that a classification is being made.

There are	. types	.	: Y and Z.
	kinds	.	. These are Y and Z.
	N classes	of X	
	categories		
The	sorts		are Y and Z.
	varities		

		categories	
	consists of	classes	
X	comprises	N kinds	.These are Y and Z.
	can be divided into	types	: Y and Z
		varities	

Y and Z are	classes	of X.
	kinds	
	types	
	categories	
	varieties	

X	according to	on the basis of	...
	may be classified		
	depending on		

12. Digressing

Sometimes the lecturer may leave the main subject of the lecture for a while and then come back to it.

Incidentally	...
By the way	
While I remember	
Before I forget	

13. Referring to visuals

The following signals can be used to refer to a handout or an OHT or PowerPoint slide.

On this graph, Take a look at this. Let's have a look at this. I'd like you to look at this. I'd like to draw your attention to Here we can see The ... shows The graph illustrates The horizontal axis represents The vertical axis represents As you can see, If you look closely, you'll see	...
--	-----

14. Concluding

The lecture should end with a summary of the main points made. The following signals will help you to identify this.

So, We've seen that First we looked at ... and we saw that Then we considered ... and I argued that In short, To sum up In conclusion, I'd like to emphasise that	...
---	-----

That completes my lecture.

...	also. too. as well.
-----	---------------------------

10.4 Understanding References

To understand a lecture or talk, it is not enough just to understand the important information in each sentence. It is also necessary to understand how the sentences are related to each other. Every text has a structure. It is not just a random collection of sentences. The parts that make up the text are related in a meaningful way to each other. Recognising the way in which a text has been organised will help you to understand it better. In order to understand the text, it is necessary to understand how the sentences are related. Words like “it”, “this”, “that”, “here”, “there” etc. refer to other parts of the text. You need to understand these connections or links.

Look at the following text:

1. The implications of - er - von Neumann’s concept of the computer were, first of all, that one needed a large internal memory. Erm - you had to store data that you weren’t actually operating on. You’d got to staticize it and keep it in a store.

The highlighted “it”, in this case, refers to “data”.

There are four main types of links used in academic texts: reference, ellipsis and substitution, conjunction and lexical cohesion (Halliday and Hasan, 1976).

(1) Reference

Certain items of language in English have the property of reference. That is, they do not have meaning themselves, but they refer to something else for their meaning.

In this country, unemployment benefit is provided through the state. In Sweden and a number of other European countries it’s provided either by the state in conjunction with the Trade Unions, or through the Trade Unions, elsewhere employers’ associations play a different role.

In this text “it” refers to “unemployment benefit”. In order to understand the text, you need to know what these words refer to in the text.

Other words used in this way are “he”, “him”, “it”, “this”, “that”, “these”, “those”, “here”, “there” etc.

(2) Substitution and ellipsis

Substitution is the replacement of one item by another and ellipsis is the omission of the item. If speakers wish to avoid repeating a word, they can use substitution or ellipsis.

But essentially in a digital computer, we do things serially, one operation at a time. And the original reason for that was very much a reliability-based one.

Here, “one” means “reason”. The speaker has substituted “reason” with “one”. Other words that can be used are “one”, “ones”, “do”, “so”, “not”..

Ellipsis is substitution by zero.

The laws he formulated are now known as Newton's Laws of Motion. There are three laws. The first is that every body - a body is a material object of any sort in this term - every body continues in a state of rest, or of uniform motion in a straight line, unless it is acted upon by a force.

"The first" means "The first law".

Similarly,

(3) Conjunction

Conjunction shows meaningful relationships between clauses. It shows how what follows is connected to what has gone before.

And in 1929, the American physiologist Cannon coined the term, 'homeostasis'. 'Stasis', as in static, 'homeo', the same, and therefore it really means 'remaining the same'. Homeostasis. Now what Cannon actually wrote was this. Erm, 'The constant conditions', 'The constant conditions which are maintained in the body might be termed 'equilibria'.' So, in other words, this constancy you could call 'equilibria'.' 'That word, however, has come to have fairly exact meaning as applied to relatively simple physico-chemical states. In closed systems, where no forces are balanced.' So in other words, he's saying that you could use the term equilibrium, but really equilibrium tends to be concerned with such things as chemical equations, chemical reactions, and he wants to use another term which perhaps has less overtones to it.

The words "therefore" and "so" are used to show that the lecturer is giving reasons. The word "however" shows that this statement is opposite to the ideas that have come before. Other words used are "for example", "as a consequence of this", "firstly", "furthermore", "in spite of this", etc.

(4) Lexical cohesion

This is a way of achieving a cohesive effect by the use of particular vocabulary items. You can refer to the same idea by using the same or different words.

If you've done any biology at all, of course, you'll realize that every living organism is a machine. Some such machines, such as unicellular plants and unicellular animals, such as amoeba, are very simple. On the other hand, you've only to consider the functioning of, say, an insect, or a mammal, or a flowering plant, to realize that it is extremely complex.

For cohesion to occur, it is not necessary for each word to refer to exactly the same item or even be grammatically equivalent. All the words related to computers contribute to the cohesion.

Erm - one change which one doesn't normally think of is in things like domestic applications of computers. Erm - you tend to think of that as a kind of low technology area. The one really vital thing in any home equipment, domestic equipment, is reliability, because whereas in, if you're going into industry, you can have service mechanics around, you can actually have a piece of equipment that does need a continuous attendance, if you're selling into a domestic market, low cost doesn't just mean low cost of the thing you originally sell, it means continuing low cost of servicing it. You want the kind of thing that is reliable enough, that it lasts long enough for people to throw it away when it finally breaks down. And so it's only been recently

that both cost and reliability have got to the kind of level where people are now talking of - erm - computers in the home, game-playing systems, putting them into television sets, putting them into washing machines and so on. We're getting down to a kind of level of use which is obviously remarkably different from a, a big central machine doing payroll work. There's an enormous spectrum of applications of computers.

Other forms of lexical cohesion commonly used are "repetition", "synonyms" and "near synonyms", "collocations", "super/sub-ordinate relationships" (e.g. fruit/apple, animal/cat) etc.

10.5 Progression of Learning Activities

If the objective of student is to understand speech at different rates of delivery and the topic is daily life, here are some ideas for the suggested progression of learning activities.

1. **Warm-up Activity:** Talk with your friends and ask them, "What do you do every day?"
2. **Listening Comprehension Activity:** The teacher could follow with a listening comprehension activity, such as two people having a conversation about their daily life. Students must answer true or false questions based on the previous listening activity.
3. **Controlled Practice:** Following this, an example of a controlled practice activity could be a drill activity that models the same structure or vocabulary.
4. **Open-ended Listening/Speaking Activity:** After this, an open-ended activity could follow that allows students to have the freedom to practice listening comprehension and speaking, such as interviewing other members in the class about their daily life and asking for further information. This is an example of activities that build on each other and share the same objective. Communication and listening comprehension should begin with what students already know so that they can build on their existing knowledge and skills with activities designed on the same principle.

5. Long Listening Activities

Another technique that can be used in a long listening activity is to assign students different comprehension questions. After listening to the activity and taking notes to answer questions, students then swap information to complete the "whole class chart," correlating what each student has heard to arrive at the big picture. If there are any questions that remain unanswered during the first or second hearing, and following the information swap activity, the whole class can listen to the tape again. The students will then try to find the answer to the questions that have not been previously understood, rather than the teacher providing the answers straight away. These techniques involve group work and problem solving. They also instigate further communication and facilitate listening comprehension development.

6 The Use of Authentic Listening Materials

Linguists like Porter & Porter (1987), Brown (2001), and Mangubhai (2002) recommend the use of authentic text to help students further develop their communicative skills. The use of authentic listening materials is an important factor to take into consideration when designing listening comprehension materials. By using such listening materials, the learner is given the chance to develop the skills needed to comprehend and to use language that

is commonly found in real situations.

With the use of authentic listening materials, students learn to comprehend double meanings, predict meaning, make allowances for performance errors committed by other speakers, deal with interruptions, and so on. It is important, therefore, to take the opportunity wherever possible to expose students to examples of real language usage to help them become more communicatively competent.

The use of authentic materials stimulates and motivates learners to comprehend the content of an oral text because the practical benefits of understanding such authentic language material are obvious. Some examples of authentic listening materials are listening to a telephone message for the purpose of understanding a cancelled appointment, or listening to songs to learn more about well-known bands that sing in English. Such material is relevant to the students' life and areas of personal interest. By using authentic listening materials, students are motivated to improve their level of comprehension as they feel that they can achieve a level of proficiency that has meaning and adds value to their life when speaking English as a second language

10.6 Let Us Sum Up

It is important to maintain an interactive and communicative approach for teaching and learning English as a Foreign or Second Language. However, it is also important to vary the students' learning focus by concentrating on the skills needed to become proficient in a second language.

When designing lessons and teaching materials to further develop listening comprehension skills, students need to be motivated and stay motivated. This is best accomplished by determining the suitability of the listening materials, the techniques used in classroom teaching, and the use of authentic materials.

10.7 Review Questions

1. Suggest some listening activities.
2. Discuss the four types of links used in academic texts.
3. List some common signals used in lectures to indicate structure.

10.8 Bibliography

1. Brown, D. (2001). Teaching by principle—an interactive approach to language pedagogy. Addison Wesley Longman: New York.
2. Mangubhai, F. (2002). Methodology in teaching a second language—study book. University of Southern Queensland: Toowoomba.
3. Porter, D. & Roberts, J. (1987). Authentic listening activities In Long, H. &
4. Richards, J. (Eds.) Methodology in TESOL—A book of readings. Newbury House: New York. (pp.177-190)

UNIT-11

SUMMARIZING & PRECIS WRITING

Structure

- 11.0 Objectives
- 11.1 Introduction
- 11.2 Summarizing
 - 11.2.1 Overall organization
 - 11.2.2 Internal Organization
 - 11.2.3 Development
 - 11.2.4 Style
 - 11.2.5 Length
 - 11.2.6 Tips for Writing a Good and Effective Summary
 - 11.2.7 What you must not do
 - 11.2.8 Practice Exercise
- 11.3 Precis Writing
- 11.4 Let Us Sum Up
- 11.5 Review Questions
- 11.6 Bibliography

11.0 Objectives

After going through this unit, you will be able:

- to understand the meaning of summarizing
- to know the internal as well as overall organization of summary
- to know how the summary is to be developed
- to know the tips for writing a good and effective summary
- to understand the meaning of Precis writing
- to know how a precis should be written.

11.1 Introduction

The dictionary meaning of the word summary is 'brief account giving the main points of some thing'. In practical terms, therefore, summarizing implies stating briefly and clearly the main content of any given piece of writing by a conscious process of elimination of all details that maybe superfluous or digressive to the central topic. The basic purpose of summarizing is

to inform the reader.- in very concise form - of the content of the passage. The exercise of summarizing is sometimes also referred to as precis writing. The two words, summary and precis, are almost synonymous, and there are, whether one is writing a summary or a precis, the rules to be kept in mind remain the same. A summary can be of a passage, a poem, a book or a speech.

11.2 Summarizing

Abstracting implies a short account. Note-making, summarizing and abstracting are closely connected with each other as all three are to do with short-listing the prominent points and sifting out of all unnecessary details. However, they do have finer distinctions. Note-making, for instance, is usually a personal activity as the notes made are for one's own use and convenience. Abstraction, on the other hand, is a representation of relevant information written down for a pre-determined purpose. It, therefore, ignores all information that is irrelevant to the given purpose, but may well be otherwise significant. A summary or a precis, is simply a projection of all important facts and is a condensed form of the text in question.

A well-constructed summary, though much shorter than the original material being summarized, highlights the author's important points. Although the summary will not cover every fact in the original, after reading the summary you should have a clear overview of the original's main ideas.

11.2.1 Overall Organization

As with any good writing, a summary contains an introduction, a discussion, and a conclusion.

Introduction: Begin with a topic sentence. This sentence will present the primary focus of the original source and list the two or three major points to be discussed. You must also tell your reader what source you are summarizing.

Discussion : In this section, briefly summarize the main points covered in the original material. To convey the author's ideas, you can paraphrase, using your own words to restate the author's point of view.

Conclusion: To conclude your summary, you can either reiterate the focus statement, reminding the reader of the author's key ideas; highlight the author's conclusions regarding his or her topic; or state the author's recommendations for future activity.

11.2.2 Internal Organization

Since a summary is meant to be objective, you should present not only what the author says but also how he organizes the information. For example, if the author has developed his ideas according to a problem/ solution format, your summary's discussion should also be organized as a problem/ solution. This would give the readers the author's content and method of presentation. Similarly if the author's article is organized according to cause/effect, comparison/contrast, or analysis, this would determine how you would organize your summary.

11.2.3 Development

To develop your summary, you will need to focus on the following:

- Most important points: Since a summary is a shortened version of the original, you can't include all that the author says. Thus, you should include only the two or three key ideas within the article. Omit irrelevant details, examples, explanations, or descriptions.
- Major conclusions reached: Once you have summarized the author's key ideas, then state how these points are significant. Show their value or impact.
- Recommendations: Finally, after summarizing the author's major points and conclusions, you will want to tell your audience if the author recommends a future course of actions to solve a problem or to avoid potential problems.

11.2.4 Style

The summary must be clear, concise, accurate, and accessible. Watch out for long words and sentences. Avoid all jargon. Most importantly, be sure that your summary truly reflects the author's content. Your summary must be an unbiased presentation of what the author states and include none of your opinions.

11.2.5 Length

The summary will be approximately 5 to 15 percent the length of the original material. To achieve this desired length, omit references to the author (after the initial reference in the works cited or topic sentence). You also probably need to omit some types of material like past histories, definitions, complex concepts, statistics, tables and figures, tangential information like anecdotes and minor refutations, lengthy examples and biographical information.

11.2.6 Tips for Writing a Good and Effective Summary

There are several points to be kept in mind while writing a good summary:

What you must do:

1. First of all, read the given text carefully and repeat the exercise till you have absorbed its meaning clearly and completely.
2. Comprehend the central idea or the main theme and then note it down.
3. Short list the prominent points leaving out irrelevant portions.
4. Long sentences must be shortened and certain phrases can be replaced with one-word substitutes.
5. Do not let unfamiliar words fluster you. The dictionary is always there to explain their meaning. If you do not have access to one you can infer the meaning by making an assessment of the context in which the word has appeared.
6. Prepare a rough draft of your summary.
7. Arrange your ideas in a systematic and a logical manner before finalizing the summary. Remember, a summary too, must have a body as in an essay, i.e., a beginning, a middle and an end.
8. A good summary must represent the main ideas of the text as well as retain its spirit as

closely as possible, without necessarily imitating the original style.

9. It must be concise and to the point with no superfluous words or sentences. Avoid flowery language and write simply.
10. A good summary must read as an organic whole and should be readable on its own without the reader having to refer to the original text for clarifications.

11.2.7 What you must not do:

1. Do not copy down entire sentences from the text. Avoid using the same phrases and words as they appear in the text.
2. Do not start with 'The Writer says'.
3. Do not divide the summary into paragraphs.
4. Do not write in direct speech. Even if the passage is in the first person, transcode the summary into third person or a narrative in an indirect form.
5. Do not put forth your own views or ideas, however strongly you may feel about certain issues discussed in the passage.
6. Do not write a summary that is either too long or too short if a word limit is prescribed.
7. Do not use abbreviations and symbols in a summary.
8. Do not give examples to illustrate a point.
9. Do not use long sentences or difficult sounding words. A good summary is one that is easy and quick to read.
10. Do not write a piece that is incoherent and replete with jumbled up ideas.

11.2.8 Practice Exercise

Write a Summary of the following text:

Religious Intolerance

Religious intolerance has been a curse to society since very old times. The great tragedy is that it is still continuing while we boast of our scientific advancement. A very large number of innocent people still suffer because they belong to a particular religion or race. The rising scourge of religious fanaticism and sectarianism is turning men into creatures worse than wild beasts.

The malady arises from the priests working at the grass root level in all religions. Ignoring the high ideals enshrined in their religions or rather in all religions they misguide their co-religionists by misrepresenting their scriptures and traditional faiths. In addition to this, selfish politicians also incite the people of their own community against other religious communities so as to broaden and strengthen their vote banks. They sometimes purposefully plan communal riots.

Common people should be aware of such elements. Right type of education can help a

lot in this direction. All religions consist of essential and non-essential elements. The irony is that self-styled protectors of different religions ignore the essentials and fight over the non-essentials and cause bloodshed. They do not stop to think that all religions are similar in their basic tenets. In fact all the great prophets and saints were great lovers of humanity. They saw great injustice, cruelty and malpractices in their own communities and raised their voices against it. But what happened? The selfish elements and vested interests did not want any reform; they turned against them and almost all the prophets, saints and reformers had to suffer one way or another.

Prophet Mohammed raised his voice against idolatry and other malpractices amongst the Arab tribes and had to leave Mecca and flee to Medina. The innocent saintly Jesus was mercilessly crucified on the cross because the priestly class of his own Jewish community did not like his reformist zeal. His only fault was that he wanted his people to lead a truly virtuous life and not to care for non-essentials in their religion. The well-trenched priests thought it to be a challenge to their authority and self-interest and therefore incited the Roman ruler of the region to condemn him to death. Jesus was presented by them as someone who incited rebellion against the Roman empire—the greatest crime in the eyes of the Romans.

In the beginning all religions were pure; they aimed at improving the social and spiritual life of man. But by and by non-essential rituals overpowered the basic tenets of religions and spoiled them. That is why Kabir, the great poet-saint of medieval India condemned in his verses the useless rituals in both Islam and Hinduism. Let religion disseminate the ideal of universal brotherhood and create in man a desire for social justice.

Summary

Religious Intolerance

Religious intolerance has been a bane since older times but still continues to turn man against man. The priests working at grass root level and the politicians for their vested interests encourage religious intolerance. Awareness should be brought about amongst the masses and education should be provided on this issue. Great preachers like Prophet Mohammed and Jesus had to suffer because of their reformist zeal. Religion aims at improving the social and spiritual life of man. Kabir condemned useless rituals in Islam and Hinduism and preached brotherhood and spiritual growth of man.

11.3 Precis Writing

Precis is a French word meaning ‘short’. It is also connected with the English word ‘precise’. It is evident that precis writing involves stripping the original writing of its ornaments, irrelevance, repetitions and illustrations. Precis writing is a condensation in our own words keeping the essence intact. The main theme is expressed in the fewest possible words. The precis should be clear, concise and complete. All the main points of the original passage should be included. The idea is that anyone reading the precis should not need to go back to the original for understanding. When we say ‘main points’ it does not mean that a precis is a disjointed list of the main points of the given passage. It is a continuous piece of writing having an entity of its own.

There is a great need in modern times to be clear, lucid and brief. This is no ordinary task. We have to cull pertinent information from an amass of available facts and statistics. We need to

be brief and pithy or our audience may lose interest if we go into great details.

Thus, a precis is a shortened form of the main points of a speech or written text. Precis writing is the art of compressing an idea into a few words, so it is a very useful method of developing one's capacity of understanding the meaning of a passage and restating it in as few words as possible.

Aspects : Precis writing has three main aspects:

(i) Meaning (ii) Language (iii) Length

(i) Meaning:

1. Read the passage carefully and patiently even if you do not understand the meaning of a few words or expressions. Try to grasp the central theme of the passage as a whole, not in parts.
2. Give the passage a title. If you can do so it would mean that you have understood the meaning of the passage. But if you can't, go through it again to find a word or phrase that will serve as a suitable title.
3. Then pick out the main points and leave out details. A paragraph normally contains only one idea in the topic sentence. The central idea is one that is related to the title. The rest in the form of an example or explanation is mere detail. So, that can be left out. This process is very much like sifting the grain from the chaff.
4. If you have to make a precis of more than one paragraph the main points contained in each paragraph should be picked up and arranged in proper order. If you make a catalogue of points it would not be a piece of composition. So the main points must be so arranged as to have a logical sequence and coherence. A few sentences do not make a precis.

(ii) Language:

1. A precis should be made in your own words. Picking out a few sentences from the passage itself is a poor reproduction, not a precis. A precis expresses only the central theme, so words and expressions used in the passage are usually avoided.
2. It is written in full sentences, so telegraphic language has to be avoided.
3. It is written in the indirect speech, so conversation or direct speech is always put into indirect speech.
4. It is written in the third person (he/she/it/they).
5. Use the same tense as in the passage.
6. Avoid expressions like in my opinion/I think / I believe etc. In a precis you do not express your personal views, so expressions like these are irrelevant.
7. Avoid quotations from the passage.

(iii) Length:

Precis writing aims at compression, not expansion, so it is made in about one third of the length of the passage, i.e., in one-third of the number of words, and not in one-third of the

number of sentences. A mere reproduction of one-third of the sentences must always be avoided.

How to reduce length?

1. Avoid all illustrations / examples.
2. Avoid all exclamations/expletives/comment clauses/parenthesis like these: well, you see, you know, to tell you frankly etc.
3. Avoid explanation or expansion. A precis is the exact opposite of expansion.
4. Avoid your comments on the view or opinion of the writer. Nothing is put into a precis that is not in the passage.
5. Avoid quotations.
6. Avoid emphatic sentences.
7. Avoid repetitions like this:
He is an extremely old man of ninety years. (9 words)
He is ninety (3 words)
8. Avoid figures of speech and use simple English instead:
A. He is as brave as a lion. (7 words)
He is brave (3 words)
B. His soul left for its heavenly abode. (7 words)
He died (2 words)
9. Use the method of transformation/substitution
A. This is a chair that has not got any anus. (10 words)
This is a chair without anus. (6 words)
B. It is likely that it will rain tonight. (8 words)
It may rain tonight. (4 words)
10. Use a single word for a group of words:
A. He is a person who looks at the bright side of a thing. (13 words)
He is an optimist. (4 words)
B. We want a government of the people, for the people and by the people. (14 words)
We want democracy. (3 words)

Sample Exercise

Write a precis of the following text:

Without a knowledge of grammar it is impossible for you to write correctly; and, it is by mere accident if you speak correctly. And pray, hear in mind that all well-informed persons judge of a man's mind (until they have other means of judging) by his writing or speaking. The labour necessary to acquire this knowledge is indeed not trifling. Grammar is not like Arithmetic, a

science consisting of several 'distinct departments, some of which may be dispensed with. It is a whole, and the whole must be learned, or no part is learned. The subject is abstruse; it demands much reflection and much patience but, when once the task is performed, it is performed for life, and in every day of that life it will be found to be a source of pleasure or of profit or both together. And, what is the labour? It consists of nobodily exertion; it exposes the student to no cold, no hunger, no suffering of any sort. The study need subtract from the hours of no business, nor, indeed, from the hours of necessary exercise. The hours usually spent in the tea and coffee shops and in the mere gossip which accompany them-these wasted hours, of only one year, employed in the study of English grammar would make you a correct speaker and writer for the rest of your life.

Solution:

Title: The Study of Grammar

Precis:

A knowledge of grammar is necessary for correct writing and speaking, by which a person is usually judged. Grammar is a difficult subject and needs to be studied as a whole and not in parts. But once it is mastered, it is a gain for life. And the labour it requires can be managed out of the time used in gossip over tea and coffee for one year. It need not drain from working time or from the time for exercise.

11.4 Let Us Sum Up

Summarizing and precis writing are two terms for condensation of a piece of writing in our own words, keeping the essence intact. They are not disjointed lists of the main points of a passage. A summary or a precis is a continuous piece of writing having an entity of its own.

11.5 Review Questions

1. What is the meaning of summarization?
2. How do we write a summary?
3. What do you know about the organization in summary writing?
4. What are the important points for preparing an effective summary?
5. What do you understand by precis writing?
6. Take any passage of your choice and try to write the summary and precis of it.

11.6 Bibliography

1. Meenakshi Raman and Sangeeta Sharma : Technical communication, Oxford University Press.
2. B.G. Tandon and Loveena Tandon : A to Z of English, Ane Publication.
3. R.P. Sinha: Current English grammar and usage with composition, Oxford University Press.

UNIT-12

NOTE-MAKING

Structure

- 12.0 Objectives
- 12.1 Introduction
- 12.2 Various Methods for Note-Making
- 12.3 The ABC of good Notes
- 12.4 Sub - dividing your notes
- 12.5 Sample Exercise I
- 12.6 Sample Exercise II
- 12.7 Sample Exercise III
- 12.8 Let Us Sum Up
- 12.9 Review Questions
- 12.10 Bibliography

12.0 Objective

After reading this unit, you will be able.

- To know the importance of note-making.
- To understand various methods of note-making.
- To know how good notes can be prepared.
- To know how the notes can be sub-divided.

12.1 Introduction

Almost every one of us involved in academics often finds himself in situations where he needs to take notes. You may want to do so while attending a seminar, listening to a talk or a speech, or simply during the daily ritual of attending classes. Note-making is an extremely useful practice that enables the reader/listener to preserve information for his future use. However attentive we maybe and however much we may concentrate, it is often difficult to retain and retrieve all that we hear, read or see. Notes are usually jotted down for personal use but you must make an effort to write clearly and legibly so as to be able to decipher your handiwork even after a long gap of time by when memory of the original text may have been reduced to being a hazy imprint in your mind.

12.2 Various Methods For Note-making

There could be several reasons for taking down notes. Firstly, to maintain a record of the

speaker's or writer's ideas. Secondly, to assist one's memory while revising the same at a later date or thirdly, for better absorption of the said ideas by putting them in black and white. Just as there could be varied reasons for taking notes similarly there are several methods of note-making. These can broadly be categorized as under:

1. Notes taken while listening.
2. Notes taken while reading.
3. Notes from memory
4. Shorthand notes.
5. Tape recording
6. Photocopying
7. Underlining highlighting, marking etc.

Which of these methods you adopt would depend on what you wish to make notes of, the situation you are in at the given time, and of course what method you feel most comfortable with. Let us briefly look at the advantages and disadvantages of each.

1. **While listening :** Results in tangible and very positive notes and is certainly a very good way of assimilating fresh information. The chances, however, of missing out some important points while trying to simultaneously listen and write are rather high.
2. **While reading:** Note-making while reading can help increase concentration and contribute towards a better analysis. However, this may make reading passive, mechanical process thereby depriving you of the pleasure of reading and forcing you, every now and then, to break away from the writer's train of thought.
3. **From memory:** The advantage of writing notes from memory is that it allows you to focus fully on the speaker/writer. You can even enjoy the luxury of studying the speaker's body language or read between the lines as the case maybe. The disadvantage here is that you may not be able to retain all that you hear or see and may ultimately end up losing out on a lot of finer details. In case of reading, of course, you have the advantage of referring back to the text at your will.
4. **Shorthand:** This is the surest way of recording almost everything that you wish to. However, you can do so only if your writing speed is good and for that you need to put in long hours of practice.
5. **Tape-recording:** Needless to say, while adopting this method everything is recorded for your future use leaving you free to concentrate fully on the speaker. However, retrieval of information can at times be tedious and time-consuming as it entails listening to be of any real use to you. Being in possession of a tape-recorder may also turn you into a passive, complacent listener.
6. **Photocopying:** Saves a lot of time and energy, enabling quick and easy retrieval and duplication. Unfortunately, owing to the ease with which it can be accomplished, photocopying often results in sizeable wastage of paper. It also empowers you only with

physical possession of information-you may or may not have really studied and initialized the information. Photocopying may also add up to being an expensive way of retaining information.

7. **Underlining, highlighting, etc.:** If you wish to make a note of certain parts of a text this may be the quickest way of going about it-it is also perhaps the most popular. But you can do this only with your own copy of the material. It would certainly not be possible with borrowed books or papers as it results in permanent disfiguration of the same.

12.3 The ABC Of Good Notes

So what then is the secret of making good notes?

Whichever of the above methods you may use, the basics of good note-making remain constant.

Appropriacy: Make a note of only what is relevant and appropriate to the purpose for which you are taking down the information.

Brevity: It is of extreme importance that you be brief while making notes. Excessive elaboration on a few points would invariably result in your missing out completely on some others.

Clarity: Even though you may be making notes for you own use, it is useful to avoid ambiguity. Vague or illegible writing may later result in poor recall or, worse still, a misinterpretation of facts and figures.

12.4 Sub-dividing Your Notes

There are several ways of listing and numbering your work. No rigid rules as to how you should divide and sub-divide your notes are to be followed here. Given below are the ones most commonly used.

Capital letters: A, B, C, D, E, etc.

Small letters (usually used in brackets) : (a), (b), (c), (d), (e), etc.

Arabic numerals: 1, 2, 3,4, etc.

Decimal system : 1.1, 2.1, 3.1, 4.1, etc.

Large Roman numerals: 1, 11, III, IV, V, etc.

Small Roman numerals: (usually in small brackets): (i), (ii), (iii), (iv), (v), etc.

With the exception of the decimal system, the rest can be used in combination, e.g., ‘Al’, ‘(a) ii’, ‘S5’, or ‘11(h)’, etc.

Read the following passage carefully and prepare notes from it giving the passage a suitable title.

Acupuncture is a system of treatment of diseases which has been practiced in China for nearly 5000 years. It involves rapid insertion of fine steel needles, about 6 centimeters long, that the doctor twirls between his thumb and forefinger. There are hundreds of acupuncture points on

the body. When a puncture is made on a particular spot on the body, energy flows from there along lines known as meridians to the diseased organs. This flow of energy helps restore balance of the system and thus correct the disorder. The points of treatment may be far from the seat of the disease. For example, to cure a toothache, the acupuncturist may insert a needle on the palm of the patient.

Although China is considered to be the country where acupuncture originated, some forms of treatment resembling it have been reported from other parts of the world by anthropologists. Among some ancient tribes, stones and arrows were used to prick the skin. In another form of treatment, the skin on particular spots of the body was burnt to bring about a cure for certain diseases. Whether these kinds of treatment can rightly be classed with acupuncture can be known only after further research.

For long, acupuncture was dismissed by the West as a form of superstition like witch craft and magic cure. In China itself, admiration for the western system of medicine was so great that the native systems of treatment were neglected or mistrusted. Moreover, the theoretical basis for acupuncture that was propounded in China was a mixture of spirituality, philosophy and physiology. This stood in the way of its acceptance by Chinese scientists.

During the 1960's acupuncture came to the notice of western scientists, who viewed it with skepticism as well as curiosity. Doctors from Europe went to China to make a first hand study of this strange form of treatment. They were convinced by what they saw; that acupuncture worked. Not only were diseases cured, but operations too were performed after administering anaesthesia by acupuncture. The patient of such an operation could see and know what was being done, but felt no pain.

After the operation he could get up and walk away. Doctors in other parts of the world took acupuncture seriously and some of them trained themselves and set up practice in their countries. In China itself the status of acupuncture rose when Chairman Mao officially ranked acupuncturists with other physicians.

Solution & procedure of note-making

Title: ACUPUNCTURE GAINS RECOGNITION

- A. Chinese acupuncture described
- B. Acupuncture in other societies
- C. Why acupuncture was not recognized.
- D. Recent acceptance of acupuncture

This gives you a skeleton or a framework for your notes. The next step is to read the passage carefully and add the details to this framework. Your notes will then have the following form.

Title: ACUPUNCTURE GAINS RECOGNITION

A. Acupuncture explained

1. 5000 years old in China.

2. Applying fine needle and twirling it.
3. Diseased organ connected to this point. Flow of energy to point of disease; once restored.

B. Acupuncture in ancient societies.

1. Stones and arrows used.
2. Burning the skin.

C. Why it was not recognized.

1. Considered superstitious.
2. China's admiration for the West; hence neglected.
3. Theoretical basis not sound.

D. Acupuncture gains acceptance

1. Western doctors investigate
2. Evidence of its success.
3. Operations successful
4. Mao recognizes acupuncturists.

When you make notes on a longer passage with several paragraphs, the procedure is essentially the same. You may find that each main heading covers a whole paragraph or sometimes many paragraphs. Subheadings will have to be given under the main headings, and under the subheadings there may be several divisions. Look at the numbering in the following frame:

- A.
1.
 - (a)
 - (b)
 - (i)
 - (ii)
 2.
 - (a)
 - (i)
 - (ii)
 - (b)
- B.

Another system of notation, known as the decimal notation, uses only the A metal shown below:

1.
- 1.1
- 1.2
- 1.2.1
- 1.2.2
- 1.3

12.6 Sample Exercise II

Using sub-headings make notes of the following text.

Soil - Its Formation and Erosion

Soil forms but a thin layer at the surface of the earth, a few centimeters to several meters in thickness. It is this thin layer of soil which produces the bulk of man's food supply. This layer upon which agriculture depends has required hundreds of years for its development, but if it is sad it can be destroyed within a few years.

Soil is the product of two forces: the decomposition of rock and the decay of plant and animal life. The processes of physical and chemical weathering are responsible for breaking in the rock into fragments. These rock fragments provide the original material from which soils are formed. This mineral (rock) material is first colonized by plants such as mosses and lichens. By the partial decay of these organisms, humus begins to accumulate. Ferns and grasses now begin to take root, and thereafter shrubs and trees can find a footing. The small roots of plants work downwards, the burrowing animals bring up inorganic matter, and thus the growing mass, becomes porous and sponge-like. The earth matter thus formed can retain water and permit the passage of air.

Both plants and animals influence soil development. Dead plants provide the humus content of the soil. The humus content provides nitrogen and other elements such as phosphorus, calcium, and potassium which are broken down from decaying plant tissue by bacteria.

The influence of animals on the soil is also substantial. Earthworms are of particular importance as they change the texture and chemical composition of the soil as it passes through digestive systems. Ants and burrowing animals also disturb and rearrange the soil.

This soil which is formed in a very long period by various agencies of nature is also very easily eroded by some other forces of nature. Wind and running water are the major agents which remove soil. In a natural undisturbed environment, dense cover of vegetation with the soil exposed to the full force of the elements, erosion is likely to become extremely rapid.

In tropical countries where rainfall tends to be torrential in nature erosion by running water is widespread. Erosion by wind is of particular importance in arid areas. Where the plant cover has been removed, and the dry soil is exposed to strong winds, the lighter particles of the

soil may be picked up and carried away.

Man is largely responsible for the removal of the soil's protective cover of vegetation. One of the most common causes of soil erosion is the cultivation of steeply sloping land, without the use of adequate measures to check the rapid run-off of surface water. In many parts of the world, the pressure of population on limited land resources has led peasant farmers to clear the forest from steeply sloping hillsides to grow crops on them. Heavy rainfall on the exposed slopes often results in much of the valuable topsoil being washed down into the valley below.

Another major cause of soil erosion is 'over-stocking' in some of the grassland areas of the world. Pastoral people often try to keep more livestock than the available pasture can adequately support. In their efforts to obtain food, the animals nibble the grass right down to its roots, thus exposing the topsoil and making it readily available for removal by wind and water.

SOIL - ITS FORMATION AND EROSION

(a) SOIL:

- (i) forms thin layer at surface of earth
- (ii) a few centimeters to several meters in thickness
- (iii) Produces bulk of main food supply.
- (iv) Required hundreds of years for development
- (v) if misused can be destroyed in a few years.

(b) SOIL-PRODUCT OF TWO FORCES:

- (i) Decomposition of rock.
- (ii) Decay of plant or animal life.

(c) PROCESS OF SOIL FORMATION

- (i) Physical and chemical weathering or rock break it into fragments.
- (ii) These provide original matter for soil formation.
- (iii) Mineral matter is colonized by plants.
- (iv) Humus begins to accumulate
- (v) Burrowing animals bring up organic matter.
- (vi) Soil becomes porous and spongy and can retain water.

(d) NATURAL SOURCES OF SOIL EROSION:

- (i) Wind
- (ii) Running water
- (iii) Rainfall

(e) MAN-RESPONSIBLE FOR SOIL EROSION:

- (i) Over population-lack of natural resources.
- (ii) Cultivation of steeply sloping lands.
- (iii) Overstocking in certain grassland areas.

12.7 Sample Exercise III

Read the following text carefully and prepare notes from it. Use appropriate subheadings for your notes.

Religious Intolerance

Religious intolerance has been a curse to society since very old times. The great tragedy is that it is still continuing while we boast of our scientific advancement. A very large number of innocent people still suffer because they belong to a particular religion or race. The rising scourge of religious fanaticism and sectarianism is turning men into creatures worse than wild beasts.

The malady arises from the priests working at the grass root level in all religions. Ignoring the high ideals enshrined in their religions or rather in all the religions they misguide their co-religionists by misrepresenting their scriptures and traditional faiths. In addition to this, selfish politicians also incite the people of their own community against other religious communities so as to broaden and strengthen their vote banks. They sometimes purposefully plan communal riots.

Common people should be aware of such elements. Right type of education can help a lot in this direction. All religions consist of essential and non-essential elements. The irony is that self-styled protectors of different religions ignore the essentials and fight over the non-essentials and cause bloodshed. They do not stop to think that all religions are similar in their basic tenets. In fact all the great prophets and saints were great lovers of humanity. They saw great injustice, cruelty and malpractices in their own communities and raised their voices against it. But what happened? The selfish elements and vested interests did not want any reform; they turned against them and almost all the prophets, saints and reformers had to suffer one way or the other.

Prophet Mohammed raised his voice against idolatry and other malpractices amongst the Arab tribes and had to leave Mecca and flee to Medina. The innocent saintly Jesus was mercilessly crucified on the cross because the priestly class of his own Jewish community did not like his reformist zeal. His only fault was that he wanted his people to lead a truly virtuous life and not care for non-essentials in their religion. The well-trenched priests thought it to be a challenge to their authority and self-interest and therefore incited the Roman ruler of the region to condemn him to death. Jesus was presented by them as someone who incited rebellion against the Roman empire - the greatest crime in the eyes of the Romans.

In the beginning all religions were pure; but by and by non-essential rituals overpowered the basic tenets of religions and spoiled them. That is why Kabir, the great poet-saint of medieval India condemned in his verses the useless rituals in both Islam and Hinduism. Let religion disseminate the ideal of universal brotherhood and create in man a desire for social justice.

NOTES

RELIGIOUS INTOLERANCE

(a) RELIGIOUS INTOLERANCE - A BANE

- (i) Bane since very old times
- (ii) Still continues in modern times
- (iii) Innocent people still suffer

- (iv) Turns man against man

(b) MEN BEHIND RELIGIOUS INTOLERANCE

- (i) Priests working at grass roots level
- (ii) Selfish politicians
- (iii) Selfish elements with vested interests

(c) REMOVAL OF RELIGIOUS INTOLERANCE

- (i) Awareness amongst common people
- (ii) Right type of education

(d) GREAT PREACHERS AND THEIR SUFFERING

- (i) Prophet Mohammad on raising his voice on malpractices among Arab tribes had to leave Mecca & flee to Medina
- (ii) Jesus-mercilessly crucified on cross as the priestly class did not like his reformist zeal.

(e) AIM OF RELIGION

- (i) Improving social life of man
- (ii) Improving spiritual life of man

(f) KABIR AND RELIGION

- (i) Condemned useless rituals in Islam & Hinduism
- (ii) Preached universal brotherhood & spiritual growth of man.

12.8 Let Us Sum Up

Note making is an extremely useful practice for preserving information for future use. Notes should be appropriate, brief and vivid. Learning the conventions of note making helps us a lot.

12.9 Review Questions

Q.1 Make notes of the following passage:

Although speech is the most advanced form of communication, there are many ways of communicating without using speech. Signals, signs, symbols, and gestures may be found in every known culture. The basic function of a signal is to impinge upon the environment in such a way that it attracts attention, as, for example, the dots and dashes of a telegraph circuit. Coded to refer to speech, the potential for communication is very great. Less adaptable to the codification of words, signs also contain meaning in and of themselves. A stop sign or a barber pole conveys meaning quickly and conveniently. Symbols are more difficult to describe than either signals or signs because of their intricate relationship with the receiver's cultural perceptions. In some cultures, applauding in a theater provides performers with an auditory symbol of approval. Gestures such as waving and handshaking also communicate certain cultural messages.

Although signals, signs, symbols, and gestures are very useful, they do have a major

disadvantage. They usually do not allow ideas to be shared without the sender being directly adjacent to the receiver. As a result, means of communication intended to be used for long distances and extended periods are based upon speech. Radio, television, and the telephone are only a few.

Q.2 Make notes of the following passage: -

Wild Flowers of India

Wild flowers are to be found in all kinds of unexpected places if you know how to look for them. While walking in the countryside or climbing a hill in the Himalayas you may come upon some wild flowers brightening a hollow in a rock, or half-hidden amidst the ferns which will make the outdoor experience especially rich. Even crowded cities have wild flowers growing in neglected corners of parks, ditches, verges of roads, cracks in pathways and in the corners of your garden. Sometimes one or two pop up in carefully cultivated flower pots. We tend to think of them as weeds if they come up unexpectedly in gardens and fields. Stop and look at the wild flowers carefully and you will discover that they have a disarming beauty of their own. Many of them are also ancestors of the familiar garden flowers that we tend so enthusiastically.

With its varied climate, and wide range of physical features, India is the home of an amazing array of species. The Himalayas are a treasure trove of flowers many of which grow all over the northern temperate zone too.

Some of them are unique to the Himalayas while others are very alpine in character. The lower hills have a mixture of temperate and subtropical flora. The plains and the scrub deserts have distinctly different flowers, while hot and humid areas have flora that is specific to their condition. The flower spectrum, if one can call it that is as wide as it is wonderful. However, there are some flowers that are common to most parts of the country.

The ability to identify wild flowers can transform a journey, walk or a drive into a voyage of discovery. Every shady nook, forest path or ditch becomes endowed with charm as you seek out its hidden cache of wild plants. Knowing the flowers in one's surroundings furthers a desire to know more about flowers whether near or far, and the need to save all the wild things that we have inherited on the earth. The fact that a rapidly growing population is threatening wild habitats is also connected with an awareness of nature and the need to preserve it.

There is a lack of awareness about conservation and the balance of nature. Natural plant life is not inexhaustible and we cannot be complacent about it, already many of our wildlife habitats are lost forever. Small things can help, for instance while walking we should walk along trodden path, for stepping on a plant may mean wiping out a whole species forever. Photographing wild flowers is a good way of enjoying their beauty forever. Plucking them needlessly is as thoughtless as it is destructive.

Q.3 Make notes of the following passage:

The Rose

Throughout the history of western civilization, from the earliest times to the present day, the rose has been the flower closest to the heart of man. In Greek mythology Aphrodite,

the goddess of love, was regarded as the creator of the rose, which was supposed to have arisen from a mixture of her tears and the blood of her wounded lover Adonis. In Roman legend it was said to have sprung from the blood of Venus. We find it appearing repeatedly in ancient history as a symbol of love and beauty, and sometimes of licentiousness and excess.

Keeping in mind the extensive use of the rose in paintings and for purposes of decoration it is soon evident that it stands supreme to all other flowers. Today the rose can be found in most gardens in countries all over the world, sometimes struggling in the most unsuitable of climates. What is the fascination of this flower? How is it that the rose has always been the best loved of all flowers? It seems to have the ability to evoke by its beauty many of the emotions, principles, desires and joys fundamental to the spirit of man, and to do this as no other flower can.

In the flower of a rose there are many flowers. It is seldom quite the same on any two days. From the opening bud to the fall of a flower, at every turn of its petals as they unfold, it is constantly presenting us with a new picture. Its colouring, too is a mystery—perhaps deep and rich at the center, may be softer towards the outer edges, but the balance will always be changing, some times paling with time, or taking on a new hue, or occasionally intensifying. The flower varies according to where it is grown, from garden to garden, from one soil to another. It varies according to weather conditions; it will be quite different on a sunny day than on one which is cool and overhung. It will take on one appearance in summer and quite another in autumn. This perhaps is one of the reasons why we do not easily tire of it. Then of course, there is the fragrance, which has been described as the very soul of a rose, and here we find no less diversity.

With all this the rose is also the most practical of often flowering intermittently from early summer to the coming of the first frosts. Once planted it will live for many years. Even those with no particular feeling for flowers can plant it in the knowledge that it is not going to give very much trouble. It is a flower for all people, from the great garden to the smallest suburban plot. What other flower can combine with so many qualities? It is small wonder then that the rose is known as the ‘Queen of Flowers’.

12.10 Bibliography

1. Meenaxi Raman and Sangeeta Sharma: Technical Communication, Oxford University Press.
2. B.G. Tandon and Loveena Tandon: A to Z of English, Me Publication.
3. R.P. Sinha: Current English Grammar and usage with Composition, Oxford University Press.

UNIT-13

REPORT AND REVIEW WRITING

Structure

- 13.0. Objectives
- 13.1 Introduction
- 13.2 Purpose
- 13.3 Characteristics of a Report
- 13.4 Types of Reports
 - 13.4.1 Informative Reports
 - 13.4.2 Periodic, Special Reports
 - 13.4.3 Oral, Written Reports
- 13.5 Importance of Reports
- 13.6 Review Writing with short Examples
- 13.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 13.8 Review Questions
- 13.9 Bibliography

13.0 Objectives

After reading this unit you will be able

- to know what a report is.
- to understand the meaning and purpose of writing a report.
- to know the characteristics of a good report.
- to know different types of reports.
- to understand the importance of reports.
- to what 'Review Writing' is
- to understand how a 'Review' is written.

13.1 Introduction

According to the dictionary one of the meanings of the word 'report' is an 'account or a statement'. A report, therefore, is an account of events or the investigation and analysis of an area of interest or concern, or a problem, prepared for somebody's perusal or for presentation at a particular forum. Reports are of several different kinds and may be prepared for diverse purposes.

During your academic years you may be expected to write reports for your college journal or prepare a brochure containing relevant information. You may also find yourself in situations where you have to write a report focusing on the activities of a particular organization, or record your observations on a given subject giving your suggestions and/or make recommendations for the improvement of a system.

Reports are apart of our lives - starting from school reports through news reports on TV and Radio to many kinds of reports we are required to submit in the course of our work.

From time to time, the Government sets up committees and commissions to report on various issues of social, political, and economic importance. There are various Parliamentary committees such as committee on Human Resources, Committee on Agriculture, Committee on Industry, Committee on Science and Technology and so on are setup to discuss, analyses, and report on various matters pertaining to the respective Ministries. Such Committees meet from time to time, work out a detailed plan to conduct surveys and collect data from various sources, and finally submit their findings and recommendations in the form of a technical report.

Thus, a report is a major form of technical/business/professional communication. In writing a report, a person who possesses certain facts, ideas, or suggestions useful for courses of action transmits this information to another person who wants to use it.

A report can be the description of an event by a person who witnessed it to somebody else who was not actually present on the scene. It can be the description of the conditions that did exist, that do exist, or that are likely to exist. In short, we can say that a report is usually a piece of factual writing, based on evidence, containing organized information on a particular topic and/or analysis of that particular topic. It is formal in nature and is written for a specific purpose and audience.

13.2 Purpose

The purposes for which reports are written vary widely. Given below are some important purposes of reports:

- To present a record of accomplished work (Project Report)
- To record an experiment (Primary research report/Lab. Report)
- To research findings or technical specifications
(A report on the details of a new product)
- To document schedules, timetables, and milestones (a report on a long-term plan)
- To document current status (an inspection report)
- To record and clarify complex information for future reference
(a report on policies and procedures)
- To present information to a large number of people (annual report)
- To present organized information on a particular topic

(a report describing the working of various divisions of an organization)

- To recommend actions that can be considered in solving certain problems.

(Recommendatory report)

13.3 Characteristics of a Report

1. **Precision:** Effective reports clearly reflect their purpose. While putting together a report, your investigation, analysis, and recommendations should be directed by this central purpose. Precision gives unity and coherence to your report and makes it a valuable document.
2. **Factual Details:** Your report should be very detailed and factual. The point of your report is to go into details, the kind of details your specific audience needs. The scientific accuracy of facts is very essential to a good report. Since reports invariably lead to decision-making, inaccurate facts may lead to disastrous decision.
3. **Relevance:** The facts presented in a report should be not only accurate but also relevant. While it is essential that every fact included in a report has a bearing on the central purpose, it is equally essential to see that no relevant information is excluded. Irrelevant facts make a report confusing, exclusion of relevant facts renders it incomplete and is likely to mislead.
4. **Reader orientation:** A good report is always reader oriented. While drafting a report, it is necessary to keep in mind the person who is going to read it. A report meant for the layman will be different from one meant for technical experts.
5. **Objectivity of recommendations:** If recommendations are made at the end of a report, they must be impartial and objective. They should come as a logical conclusion to investigation and analysis. They must not reveal any self-interest on the part of the writer.
6. **Simple and unambiguous language:** A good report is written in simple, unambiguous language. It is a document of practical utility; hence it should be free from various forms of poetic embellishment such as figures of speech. It should be clear, brief and accurate.
 - **Clarity:** A good report is absolutely clear. Clarity depends on proper arrangement of facts. Report writers must proceed systematically. They should make their purpose clear, define their sources, state their findings, and finally make & necessary recommendations. They should divide their report into graphs with headings, and insert other suitable signposts to achieve greater clarity.
 - **Brevity:** A report should be brief It is difficult to define brevity in absolute terms. Nor can brevity be laid down as a rule, All that can be said is that a good report is as brief as possible. Brevity should not be achieved at the cost of clarity. Nor should it be at the cost of completeness. Sometimes the problem being investigated is of such importance that it calls for a detailed discussion of facts. Then this discussion should not be evaded. Brevity in a report is the kind of brevity one recommends for a precis. Include everything significant and yet be brief
 - **Grammatical accuracy:** The grammatical accuracy of language of a good report is

of fundamental importance. It is one of the basic requisites of a good report as of any other piece of composition. Remember that faulty construction of sentences makes the meaning obscure and ambiguous.

7. **Special format:** The technical report uses a rather involved format including cover, title page, table of contents, list of illustrations, letter of transmittal, and appendices. These have to be prepared according to a set standard.
8. **Illustrations:** Most technical reports contain illustrations, which may be tables, graphs, maps, drawings, charts, or photographs.
9. **Homogeneity:** Your report should deal with one topic at a time. All the sections of report should focus on that topic.
10. **Documentation:** Technical reports acquire more value when adequately documented by acknowledging sources of information in an appropriate style.

13.4 Types Of Reports

On the basis of purpose, or mode of reporting, reports can be classified as follows:

- Informative, Analytical (Purpose)
- Periodic, Special (Frequency)
- Oral, written (mode of presentation)

13.4.1 Types of Reports

Informative Reports: An informative report, as the name suggests, entails provision of all details and facts pertaining to the problem. For instance, it could be report that attempts to trace the growth of company in the automobile industry. In a report of this kind, the presentation of all details that led to the growth of company should be listed in a chronological order:

Structural organization: As the presentation of information is the basic purpose of the report, details are worked out in a systematic and coherent manner. The structural orientation and its report should be clearly evident to the reader.

In a report of this kind, the various sections are simple and self explanatory. The introduction is followed by a presentation of information or facts and a conclusion thereafter, where all the details are collated in brief as a recap of earlier sections. Recommendations do not arise in this type of report.

The main purpose of an informational report is to present the information in an objective, factual, and organized manner. It presents the situation simply as it is. To write an informational you need is to collect data, arrange it in an appropriate order and present it in a style appropriate to technical writing.

Analytical Reports: An analytical report is also known as interpretative or investigative report. If a report merely presents facts pertaining to an issue or a situation, it is informative. On the other hand, if it analyses the facts, draws conclusions, and makes recommendations,

it is described as analytical report for instance, a report which presents production figures for a particular period is informative. But if it goes into the causes of lower production in that period, it becomes analytical, interpretative, or investigative.

The analytical report comprises stages in which there is a proper identification of the problem, analysis, and subsequent interpretation. Recommendations or suggestions are then incorporated in the report, depending upon what is required by the report writer. Thus, in a problem solving method, the steps observed are as follow:

- Drafting problem statement
- Evolving criteria
- Suggestive alternatives and evaluation
- Drawing conclusions and making recommendations

Patterns:

The structure of an analytical report may follow any of two patterns-inductive or deductive.

Inductive Methodology: An inductive ordering follows a simple, logical arrangement in which you proceed from the sensible singular to the universal or simply from the known to the unknown. There are two premises or syllogisms that conjoin to yield a final conclusion, e.g.,

Syllogism 1	The fire warms
Syllogism 2	And this fire warms
Syllogism 3	And this Fire warms
Syllogism 4	Also this fire warms
Conclusion	Therefore every fire warms

One could formulate umpteen number of syllogisms to reach a final conclusion which is always based on the number of experiments conducted or factors observed. Certain disciplines, in which experiments are carried out and surveys are conducted, naturally follow this pattern. Now, the progression is always in the nature of working on the known elements to arrive at an unknown conclusion.

However, inductive patterning, while normally followed for organization-based studies and experiments, suffers from a major drawback. As it is not based on any universal truth, it holds valid only up to the point where there is discovery of an issue that proves contrary to the findings in the report. It is by nature only relevant in the present and no universal claims to the same can be made.

Deductive Methodology: On the other hand, a deductive ordering proceeds from the unknown to the known. Universal truths are taken as the formulation point for the problem. The various alternatives are suggested, evaluated, and conclusions drawn, keeping in mind the original problem stated. To understand the manner of approach in deductive methodology, let us take an example.

Conclusion	Every fire warms
Syllogism 1	This fire warms
Syllogism 2	And this fire warms
Syllogism 3	And this fire warms
Syllogism 4	Also this fire warms

Structural Organization:

While in an inductive method the pattern of the report would normally follow the sequence of introduction, text, and terminal different. It could begin by stating conclusions and recommendations which are then followed by an introduction and the text section. This pattern would be observed if the report is of extreme importance and the receiver does not have the time to browse through the entire report. Merely a glance at the initial pages would enable the reader to assess the contents. Such readership would only be concerned with the conclusions and recommendations / suggestions or plan of action.

13.4.2 Periodic and Special Reports

Periodic or routine reports are either informational or analytical in their purpose. As they are prepared and presented at regular, prescribed intervals in the usual routine of business they are called periodic or routine reports. They maybe submitted annually, semi-annually, quarterly, monthly, fortnightly, weekly or even daily.

Generally such reports contain a mere statement of facts in details, in summarized form or in the layout of a prescribed form, without an opinion or recommendation. Progress reports of various kinds, inspection reports, annual reports, and sales reports all come under this category.

At times the routine reports can be analytical or interpretative. For example, when the heads of various divisions in an organization submit annual assessment reports of their employees to the higher authorities, they assess the data and give their recommendations so as to enable their superiors to take certain decisions.

Special report are related to a single occasion or situation. A report on the feasibility of opening a new branch, on the unrest among staff in a particular branch, or the causes behind the recent fire incidents in a factory are special reports. Special reports deal with non-recurrent problems.

13.4.3 Oral and Written Reports

Report can be oral or written depending upon the mode of presentation. When you rejoin duty after attending an international seminar, you meet your officer and report about the deliberations of the seminar. This type of reporting comes under oral reporting.

An oral report is simple and easy to present. It may communicate an impression or an observation. While oral reports are useful, written reports are always preferred as they enjoy several

13.5 The Importance Of Reports

A report is a basic management tool used in decision making. Hence it is extremely important for organizations of all types. Reports are vital especially for large scale organizations that are engaged in multifarious activities handled by different departments. Their top executives can not keep a personal watch over all these activities. So they have to base their decisions on their reports they get from the heads of various departments.

For large organizations, reports are indispensable. Reports bear a lot of significance both to the organizations in which they arise and to the organizations they are submitted to. The following list will give you an idea of how important reports and report writing are to the organizations and the individuals.

- A report is the only tangible product of a professional. All the efforts of engineers, academicians, and researchers culminate in reports which convey to others the efficiency with which they carried out their assignments.
- Reports enable decision making and problem solving in organizations : Based on the information presented, analysis discussed, or the suggestions rendered, administrators can make important decisions and solve problems of serious concern.
- Reports help the authorities in planning new ventures and in evaluating men and material: If an organization wants to open a new branch in a nearby locality, it can plan for the same more effectively after going through the feasibility report prepared for this purpose. Similarly if the organizations wants to assess the qualities and capabilities of a person, it can do so by going through the annual assessment form submitted by that person. It can also evaluate a newly introduced machine or product by listening to or reading the report prepared for this purpose.
- Reports are an important means of information dissemination within and outside the organization: Many of the routine reports such as inspection reports, inventory reports, or annual reports transmit information across and outside the organization.
- Reports serve as a measure of the growth, progress, or success of an organization: The progress of any organization depends on the quality and quantity of information flown through its personnel in the form of oral or written reports for instance, an organization focusing on research can bring out reports from time to time to provide information the progress being made.
- Reports serve as a valuable repository of information: Organizations of various kinds preserve reports of importance and value for a long time so that they can refer to these reports whenever needed. For example, an academic institution can refer to the previous assessment reports it had received from some committee in order to improve its performance.

13.6 Review Writing With Short Examples

What is a review?

A review is a critical evaluation of a text, event, object, or phenomenon. Reviews can

consider books, articles, entire genres or fields of literature, architecture, art, fashion, restaurants, policies, exhibitions, performances, and many other forms.

Above all, a review makes an argument. The most important element of a review is that it is a commentary, not merely a summary. It allows you to enter into dialogue and discussion with the work's creator and with other audiences. You can offer agreement or disagreement and identify where you find the work exemplary or deficient in its knowledge, judgments, or organization. You should clearly state your opinion of the work in question, and that statement will probably resemble other types of academic writing, with a thesis statement, supporting body paragraphs, and a conclusion.

Typically, reviews are brief. In newspapers and academic journals, they rarely exceed 1000 words, although you may encounter lengthier assignments and extended commentaries. In either case, reviews need to be succinct. While they vary in tone, subject, and style, they share some common features:

- First, a review gives the reader a concise summary of the content. This includes a relevant description of the topic as well as its overall perspective, argument, or purpose.
- Second, and more importantly, a review offers a critical assessment of the content. This involves your reactions to the work under review: what strikes you as noteworthy, whether or not it was effective or persuasive, and how it enhanced your understanding of the issues at hand.

You may be accustomed to thinking of academic writing in terms of the arguments that it makes. But you might find it more difficult to consider the persuasive qualities of concerts, works of art, or television shows. Nevertheless, authors, composers, chefs, and artists want you to experience their creations in a particular way. What made the biologist study chimpanzees instead of gibbons in her study of primate behavior? Why did the actors in the campus production of *Antigone* dress in drag in lieu of to gas? Why is the novel part of a trilogy? Why did the chef at the new Brazilian restaurant use *rocquefort* cheese for the pao de queijo? The answers to questions like these comprise the threads that weave the fabric of your reviews.

Becoming an expert reviewer: Three short examples

Reviewing can be a daunting task. Someone has asked for your opinion about something that you may feel unqualified to evaluate. Who are you to criticize Toni Morrison's new book if you've never written a novel yourself, much less won a Nobel Prize? The point is that someone—a professor, a journal editor, peers in a study group—wants to know what you think about a particular work. You may not be (or feel like) an expert, but you need to pretend to be one for your particular audience. Nobody expects you to be the intellectual equal of the work's creator, but your careful observations can provide you with the raw material to make reasoned judgments. Tactfully voicing agreement and disagreement, praise and criticism, is a valuable, challenging skill, and like many forms of writing, reviews require you to provide concrete evidence for your assertions.

Consider the following brief book review written for a history course on medieval Europe by a student who is fascinated with beer:

Judith Bennett's *Ale, Beer, and Brewsters in England: Women's Work in a Changing World, 1300-1600*, investigates how women used to brew and sell the majority of ale drunk in England. Historically, ale and beer (not milk, wine, or water) were important elements of the English diet. Ale brewing was low-skill and low status labour that was complimentary to women's domestic responsibilities. In the early fifteenth century, brewers began to make ale with hops, and they called this new drink "beer." This technique allowed brewers to produce their beverages at a lower cost and to sell it more easily, although women generally stopped brewing once the business became more profitable.

The student describes the subject of the book and provides an accurate summary of its contents. But the reader does not learn only key information expected from a review: the author's argument, the student's appraisal of the book and its argument, and whether or not the student would recommend the book. As a critical assessment, a book review should focus on opinions, not facts and details. Summary should be kept to a minimum, and specific details should serve to illustrate arguments.

Now consider a review of the same book written by a slightly more opinionated student:

Judith Bennett's *Ale, Beer, and Brewsters in England: Women's Work in a Changing World, 1300-1600* was a colossal disappointment. I wanted to know about the rituals surrounding drinking in medieval England: the songs, the games, the parties. Bennett provided none of that information. I liked how the book showed ale and beer brewing as an economic activity, but the reader gets lost in the details of prices and wages. I was more interested in the private lives of the women brewsters. The book was divided into eight long chapters, and I can not imagine why anyone would ever want to read it.

There's no shortage of judgments in this review! But the student does not display a working knowledge of the book's argument. The reader has a sense of what the student expected of the book, but no sense of what the author herself set out to prove. Although the student gives several reasons for the negative reviews, those examples do not clearly relate to each other as part of an overall evaluation—in other words, in support of a specific thesis. This review is indeed an assessment, but not a critical one.

Here is one final review of the same book:

One of feminism's paradoxes—one that challenges many of its optimistic histories—is how patriarchy remains persistent overtime. While Judith Bennett's *Ale, Beer, and Brewsters in England: Women's Work in a Changing World, 1300-1600* recognizes medieval women as historical actors through their ale brewing, it also shows that female agency had its limits with the advent of beer. I had assumed that those limits were religious and political, but Bennett shows how "patriarchal equilibrium" shuts women out of economic life as well. Her analysis of women's wages in ale and beer production proves that a change in women's work does not equate to a change in working women's status. Contemporary feminists and historians alike should read Bennett's book and think twice when they crack open their next brewsky.

This student's review avoids the problems of the previous two examples. It combines balanced opinion and concrete example, a critical assessment based on an explicitly stated rationale, and a recommendation to a potential audience. The reader gets a sense of what the book's author intended to demonstrate. Moreover, the student refers to an argument about feminist

history in general that places the book in a specific genre and that reaches out to a general audience. The example of analyzing wages illustrates an argument, the analysis engages significant intellectual debates, and the reasons for the overall positive review are plainly visible. The review offers criteria, opinions, and support with which the reader can agree or disagree.

Developing an assessment: Before you write

There is no definitive method to writing a review, although some critical thinking about the work at hand is necessary before you actually begin writing. Thus, writing a review is a two-process: developing an argument about the work under consideration, and making that argument as you write an organized and well supported draft.

What follows is a series of questions to focus your thinking as you dig into the work at hand while the questions specifically consider book reviews, the you easily transpose them to an analysis of performances, exhibition, and other reviews subjects. Don't feel obligated address each of the question; some will be more relevant than others to the book in question.

- What is the thesis-or main argument-of the book? If the author wanted you to get one idea from the book, what would it be? How does it compare or contrast to the world you know? What has the book accomplished?
- What exactly is the subject or topic of the book? Does the author cover the subject, adequately? Does the author cover all aspects of the subject in a balanced fashion? What is the approach to the subject (topical, analytical, chronological, descriptive)?
- How does the author support her argument? What evidence does she use to prove her point? Do you find that evidence convincing? Why or why not? Does any of the author's information (or conclusions) conflict with other books you've read, courses you've taken or just previous assumptions you had of the subject?
- How does the author structure her argument? What are the parts that make up the whole? Does the argument make sense? Does it persuade you? Why or why not?
- How has this book helped you understand the subject? Would you recommend the book to your reader?

Beyond the internal workings of the book, you may also consider some information about the author and the circumstances of the text's production:

- Who is the author? Nationality, political persuasion, training, intellectual interests, personal history, and historical context may provide crucial details about how a work takes shape. Does it matter, for example, that the biographer was the subject's best friend? What difference would it make if the author participated in the events she writes about?
- What is the book's genre? Out of what field does it emerge? Does it conform to or depart from the conventions of its genre? These questions can provide a historical or literary standard on which to base your evaluations. If you are reviewing the first book ever written on the subject, it will be important for your readers to know. Keep in mind, though, that naming "first"- alongside naming "bests" and "only"-can be risky business unless you are absolutely certain.

Writing the review

Once you have made your observations and assessments of the work under review, carefully survey your notes and attempt to unify your impressions into a statement that will describe the purpose or thesis of your review. Then, outline the arguments that support your thesis.

Your arguments should develop the thesis in a logical manner. That logic unlike more standard academic writing, may initially emphasize the author's argument while you develop your own in the course of the review. The relative emphasis depends on the nature of the review: if readers may be more interested in the work itself, you may want to make the work and the author more prominent; if you want the review to be about your perspective and opinions, then you may structure the review to privilege your observations over (but never separate from) those of the work under reviews. What follows is just one of many ways to organize a review.

Introduction

Since most reviews are brief, many writers begin with a catchy quip or anecdote that succinctly delivers their argument: "Last night the New York Philharmonic played Brahms. Brahms lost." But you can introduce your review differently depending on the argument and audience. In general, you should include:

- The name of the author and the book title and the main theme.
- Relevant details about who the author is and where he/she stands in the genre or field of inquiry. You could also link the title to the subject to show how the title explains the subject matter.
- The context of the book and/or your review. Placing your review in a framework that makes sense to your audience alerts readers to your "take" on the book. Perhaps you want to situate a book about the Cuban revolution in the context of Cold War rivalries between the United States and the Soviet Union. Another reviewer might want to consider the book in the framework of Latin American social movements, your choice of context informs your argument.
- The thesis of the book. If you are reviewing fiction, this may be difficult since novels, plays, and short stories rarely have explicit arguments. But identifying the book's particular novelty, angle, or originality allows you to show what specific contribution the piece is trying to make.
- Your thesis about the book.
- This should be brief as analysis takes priority. In the course of making your assessment you will hopefully be backing up your assertions with concrete evidence from the book, so some summary will be dispersed throughout other parts of the review.
- The necessary amount of summary also depends on your audience. Students, beware! If you are writing book reviews for colleagues-to prepare for comprehensive examinations for example-you may want to devote more attention to summarizing the book's contents. If on the other hand, your audience has already read the book-such as in a class assignment on the same work-you may have more liberty to explore points and to emphasize your

own argument.

Analysis and Evaluation of the Book

- Your analysis and evaluation should be organized into paragraphs that deal with single aspects of your argument. This arrangement can be challenging when your purpose is to consider the book as a whole, but it can help you differentiate elements of your criticism and pair assertions with evidence more clearly.
- You do not necessarily need to work chronologically through the book as you discuss it. Given the argument you want to make, you can organize your paragraphs more usefully by themes, methods, or other elements of the book.
- If you find it useful to include comparisons to their books, keep them brief so that the book under review remains in the spotlight.
- Avoid excessive quotation and give a specific page reference in parentheses when you do quote. Remember that you can state many of the author's points in your own words.

Conclusion.

- Sum up or restate your thesis or make the final judgment regarding the book. You should not introduce new evidence for your argument in the conclusion. You can, however, introduce new ideas that go beyond the book if they extend the logic of your own thesis.
- This paragraph needs to balance the book's strengths and weaknesses in order to unify your evaluation. Did the body of your review have three negative paragraphs and one favorable one? What do they all add up to? The Writing Center's handout on conclusion can help you make a final assessment.

In review

Finally, a few general considerations:

- Review the book in front of you, not the book you wish the author had written. You can and should point out shortcomings or failures, but criticize the book for not being something it was never intended to be.
- With any luck, the author of the book worked hard to find the right words to express her ideas. You should attempt to do the same. Precise language allows you to control the tone of your review.
- Never hesitate to challenge an assumption, approach, or argument. Be sure, however, to cite specific examples to back up your assertion carefully.
- Try to present a balanced argument about the value of the book for its audience. You're entitled-and sometimes obligated-to voice strong agreement or disagreement. But keep in mind that a bad book takes as long to write as a good one, and every author deserves fair treatment. Harsh judgments are difficult to prove and can give readers the sense that you were unfair in your assessment.
- Because this unit has focused on evaluating books, you'll want to think about the conventions of other forms when you review them. Lighting, cinematography, costumes,

and materials are just as important as characters, themes and evidence when you review plays.

13.7 Let Us Sum Up

Reports and Reviews have gained importance in the globalised world of today. The purpose of a report decides the kind of report but all reports have some common characteristics. Writing the review of a book or a film or any other as form is a skill that can be learnt and developed.

13.8 Review Questions

1. What is a report? What is the meaning and purpose of writing a report?
2. What are the characteristics of a good report?
3. What are the different types of reports?
4. What is the importance of report writing?
5. What is review writing?
6. Write a review of any article.

13.9 Bibliography

1. R.P. Sinha: Current English Grammar and usage with composition, Oxford University Press.
2. Vandana R. Singh: Written Word, Oxford University Press.
3. Drewry, John, Writing Book Reviews. Boston: The Writer, 1974.
4. Literary Reviewing. Charlottesville: University Press of Virginia, 1987.
5. Teitebaum, Harry. How to Write Book Reports 3rd ed.. New York: Macmillan, 1998.
6. Walford, A.J., ed. Reviews and Reviewing: A Guide. Phoenix, AZ: Oryx Press, 1986

UNIT-14

THEME WRITING AND ELABORATION

Structure

- 14.0 Objectives
- 14.1 Introduction
- 14.2 Principles of Theme Writing
- 14.3 Strategies of Theme Elaboration
- 14.4 Some Important Points for Theme Writing
- 14.5 Some Model Paragraphs
- 14.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 14.7 Review Questions
- 14.8 Bibliography

14.0 Objectives

The way people handle language, whether receptively in reading and productively in writing, is extremely complex and as yet little understood. We make no claim in this unit to resolve the complexity but merely attempt to discuss certain points such as principles and methods of theme writing to resolve the complexity that makes writing a complex and difficult task. We also intend to illustrate our point of view by providing you some model paragraphs.

14.1 Introduction

Theme writing is an exercise in expansion. Expansion implies an enlargement of the theme suggested by the lines or the passage given. It is, therefore, precisely opposite in nature to an exercise in optimization or précis writing where we have to compress. A sentence or short passage has to be enlarged into a paragraph by the fuller and more elaborate of its meaning, or by adding illustrations, examples, details, or proofs, to a simple statement. Such an exercise practically amounts to writing a miniature essay on the subject of the original sentence or passage. No strict rules can be laid down as to the length of the expansion. In theme writing is given a topic packed with meaning such as Indian Modern Woman, Indian Wedding, Advertising, What can Education Do?, The Scientific Temper, etc. In elaboration is given a well-known saying, a proverb, maxim, or a statement, e.g. Rome was not built in a day; Honesty is the best policy; No man is completely happy. There is much in such statements than meets the eye and this is precisely why they provide excellent exercises in elaboration.

It is the design of the writer that makes one writing different from another. Does the author want to tell a story (narration); does he want to picture an object, a person, a place or a process in words (Description); does he want to inform, explain or clarify (Exposition); or does he want to persuade his readers to accept a particular viewpoint or to follow a certain course of action (Argumentation)?

14.2 Principles of Theme Writing

Theme is an elaboration in the form of a composition. A good composition must observe the following three principles:

1. Principle of Unity
2. Principle of Consistency
3. Principle of Coherence

Unity: A paragraph achieves unity by stating and limiting the topic. In narrative and descriptive paragraphs, there are usually no topic sentences because what is narrated or described cannot be summarized in a sentence. Such a paragraph has topic idea. Unity or oneness can also be achieved by narrowing the range of the subject. In a composition, matter unrelated to the topic sentence or topic idea should not be included.

Example: AIDS — A Dangerous Disease

We do not know what causes AIDS but doctors say that it is related to a number of factors including illicit sex. Last month, our neighbour Mr Paresh died of AIDS. He was a very good singer in his youth.

The italicized portion of the above paragraph has nothing to do with the topic stated. The paragraph, thus, violates unity. If the writer, however, is interested in telling some facts about Mr Paresh he may do so in a separate paragraph.

Consistency: A writer maintains consistency in a paragraph by avoiding self-contradiction and by not changing point of view.

Example: Mr. Malik is the best teacher of our college. He explains every point carefully. He does not take up a new teaching item unless every student in the class has followed the earlier point. He analyses the topic thoroughly and writes the important points on the blackboard. Nevertheless, some students do not follow him at all. *Mr Sharma, our Hindi teacher is better understood by students.* He is therefore, a better teacher

Note the contradiction between the first sentence of the paragraph i.e. the topic sentence and the italicized portion. In the first sentence, the writer is all praise for Mr. Malik but in the last he throws him overboard. Thus, he has not been able to maintain a consistent attitude towards his subject.

Coherence: A paragraph in which all sentences are logically connected and all ideas systematically arranged, achieves coherence. Numbering the points in a paragraph, maintaining time order and transitional devices (such as using connectives, using pronoun references, repeating significant words and putting parallel thoughts in parallel constructions) help in making a paragraph coherent.

Example: Ramesh who is my neighbour is a good boy and my house is made of red bricks.

The above short paragraph is not coherent as it violates the principle of parallel thoughts in parallel constructions.

14.3 Strategies of Theme Elaboration

The most common and useful methods of writing a paragraph are the following:

- i. *Particularization*. In this method the writer makes a general statement in the beginning of the paragraph. He then takes the statement ahead by providing particular facts and details. He does so with a view to making the statement concrete and clear.
- ii. *Illustration*: In this method, the writer supports the general statement with the help of specific illustrations.
- iii. *Comparison and Contrast*: Comparison tells what a thing is like and contrast tells what a thing is not like. We compare two persons, two ideas, two places, two situations, etc.
- iv. *Definition*: This device is used in expository paragraphs where the writer uses abstract terms. The meaning of an abstract term very often varies from person to person. The writer, therefore, defines the term to explain what he actually means by the particular term in that particular context.
- v. *Enumeration*: Enumeration means the number-wise arrangement of ideas, events, stages in a process, etc.
- vi. *Statistics*: Statistics is a useful device to expand an idea.
- vii. *Classification*: You, as a writer can make use of this device to make your theme concrete and clear.
- viii. *Analogy*: This strategy of theme development is very effective. It also embellishes the diction and style of the theme.

14.4 Some Important Points for Theme Writing

Study carefully the following points:

- i. Devote a few minutes to thinking over and grasping the precise meaning, significance and implications of the statement given for theme writing. Try to express the main idea in a word or a phrase and then develop it at length.
- ii. After having grasped the meaning of the topic for theme writing, proceed to expand it by adding details, illustrations, proofs, examples, etc. until it becomes a tiny essay only long enough to make it a paragraph. Discuss both sides of the theme. Every subject at least has two sides. The writer may establish his own case but he must present the other side as well. He is under no compulsion either to agree or to disagree with the quotation or statement which is the subject of his theme.
- iii. Arrange your ideas and set down the important points to the order in which they should be developed. Mention only those points that are strictly relevant to the subject.
- iv. If you are given a metaphor, explain its full meaning in plain language, and give reasons to support it.
- v. Avoid beginning your expansion with stereotyped or uninteresting phrases such as the

meaning of the saying is, or this proverb means, or these lines teach us, etc. Make your essay interesting. Begin with an appropriate anecdote or quotation. This will arrest the attention of the reader.

- vi. Write simply and to the point. Avoid verbosity. Arrange the words in such a way that they may have a rhythmic effect.
- vii. Examine your composition and remove mistakes in grammar, spelling, punctuation, idiom, etc.
- viii. Finally read it through to see whether you have left out any important fact, or have made any wrong statement. Your paragraph should read as a complete piece of composition couched in good English.

14.5 Some Model Paragraphs

Now we will give you two model paragraphs to be able to discern the application of the principles enunciated above. You will come to know that each paragraph is ideally built around a single topic of which it is an expansion through one or more of the ways of development listed earlier.

1. Patriotism

Patriotism which is the defence of one's country, its rights and freedom, is an instinct deep-rooted in humanity. People in the past fought to defend their hearths and homes and drove away the invaders. They left behind traditions of courage, suffering and sacrifice that have been a source of inspiration to succeeding generations of mankind everywhere. In modern times, these heroes have had worthy successors in Mazzini and Garibaldi in Italy, Cromwell in England, George Washington and Abraham Lincoln in America and Shivaji, Maharana Pratap and Gandhi in India. These heroes fought against tyranny, oppression, injustice and brought honour to their countries. Their glorious deeds are celebrated in many a song and story.

If patriotism is so noble, who did the great Dr. Johnson fulminate against it? The answer is his hatred of cant. In his pamphlets on patriotism he displayed remarkable understanding of the true patriot: a sincere, unbiased and rational friend of his country. But he had no patience with canting politicians who exploited the masses for their own selfish ends. The tribe is not dead yet. We are familiar with the shrewd politicians of our own country whose heart bleeds for their country particularly before elections. They are never tired of spouting sympathy for the millions when all the time they themselves live in a whirlwind of gaiety, glamour and pleasure. Clad in white Kurtas, these 'patriots' deplete the exchequer of the country by building magnificent palaces for themselves and in arranging all the things for their comfort. They have no hesitation in protecting the hoarders, profiteers, black-marketers and human traffickers. They brazenly flout the law of the land by giving cushy jobs to their favourites and by allowing them to take foreign aunts in luxury airlines. To keep up this merry go round they go on piling heavier tax burdens on the people heedless of their protests. Plans and projects are in the air and afford bogus patriots ample opportunities for feathering their own nest. They are deeply into barefaced corruption and hush up scandals in 'public interest'. If these patriots are dropped in the election, they shamelessly transfer their allegiance to another party which offers better prospects of loaves and fishes. It is

a common joke that the easiest road to power and prosperity is that of the patriot. Patriotism covers many sins, and some of the greatest impostors and crooks may be found in the guise of patriots.

It was this professional patriotism that roused the ire of Dr. Johnson who said that patriotism is the last refuge of a scoundrel.

When not a cant, patriotism is simply a passion and love for one's own country. However, nationalism has also acquired an ominous significance. History which is a truthful record of the past is being written with a national bias to suit the ends of propaganda. This is being done to inculcate in our youth a sense of their own superiority to other nations. It was the belief of the Germans in their own 'master race' that plunged the world into a holocaust from the effects of which we shall not recover for decades to come. In the East the birth of fierce aggressive nationalism is the result of the exploitation by the West. The East has gradually thrown off the yoke of the West, but the Westerners are trying desperately to retain their hold on it by creating their respective spheres of influence. The world is divided into rival blocks, tension is mounting and unless saner counsels prevail, a third world war may break out and end our civilization in the smoke of the atom bomb.

The hopes of mankind are focused on the UNO. The people of the world are against aggressive nationalism, and are not prepared to risk the horrors of a third world war in the name of patriotism. It is possible only when every country surrenders its sovereignty to a world-state and every man regards himself as a citizen of the world.

The man of truth, said Voltaire, belongs to no country. This is truer today than it was in the times of Voltaire, for science has demolished the old geographical barriers. But the tragedy of the modern world is that though science has brought about physical unification, it has not achieved moral or spiritual unity without which peaceful co-existence is not possible. Unless the peoples of the world develop a sense of the brotherhood of man, there is no hope of survival for our civilization. The British nurse, Edith Cavell was executed during the first world-war; her only fault being that she sheltered and nursed the wounded French and English soldiers. Her last words before she faced the firing squad were: "Patriotism is not enough. I must have no hatred or bitterness towards any one". These words need to be paid due attention to by every citizen of the world.

2. Rome was not built in a day

The city of Rome which ultimately became the wonder of the civilized world must have consisted in the primitive stage of only a few huts and hovels, and it was only by slow progress that she came to attain eminence. So every great achievement in order to be lasting, must be gradual and cumulative.

We become impatient to see the fruits of our labours and tend to forget the fact that there is no royal road to anything and that true success is to be attained only by hard work. We must not yield to discouragement, because our efforts are not crowned with success, but toil on with patience and perseverance, which overcome mountains. Slow progress must not make us impatient, and difficulties must not discourage us. All great undertakings demand mature deliberation which must be given to them not only at the very beginning but also at their different stages of progress.

Every great success consists of parts which must be completed one after the other. Anything that is done in haste is only meant for undoing. A youth cannot become a good athlete nor a student a scholar, if the former does not take infinite pains and undergo hard training and the latter does not devote himself to his studies with all his sincere efforts.

The pyramids of Egypt which have seen many rough centuries, and still excite the admiration of the world, took many years to build, not the great forts arose in a few months and perished before they were completed. England has risen to her unrivalled eminence only through the work of ages, whereas the Goths and the Vandals flashed in their terrible greatness for a few years and passed away as mysteriously as they had sprung. Euripides, the great tragedian, was very slow in composing his dramas and when rallied for his tardiness by a poetaster, who boasted of his readiness of composition, said, "Ah! But there is this difference; your three hundred verses will perish in three days, while my three will survive three hundred years."

We should, therefore, not be disheartened if there has been no progress in our work. We should not become discouraged, relax our efforts or abandon the work as hopeless. We should always remember that years of hard toil are necessary to achieve anything great or everlasting.

14.6 Let Us Sum Up

Theme writing is an exercise in expansion; in it you are given a theme and then asked to elaborate upon it in the form of a composition. By definition composition implies putting or piercing together to make up a whole. The art of good composition lies in putting these parts together as to make them structurally independent and coherent. To achieve these aims, the principles of Unity, Consistency and Coherence are applied. Strategies of theme elaboration/development include Particularization, Illustration, Comparison and Contrast, Definition, Enumeration, Statistics, Classification, Analogy, etc. No development, however, is truly effective in the absence of a well-planned organization, which among other things requires a smooth transition from one sentence to another as well as from one paragraph to another. For achieving it, certain cohesive devices are used by all writers. The lexical and grammatical cohesive devices are repetition of key terms and their derivatives, use of pronouns, demonstratives, structural links and logical devices.

14.7 Review Questions

Write paragraphs beginning with the following topic sentences:

- (a) Problems of Industrialization
- (b) Modern Fashions
- (c) Popular Festivals
- (d) Advertising
- (e) Career Women
- (f) Are Science and Religion incompatible?
- (g) Prohibition

- (h) The Uses of Increased Leisure
- (i) World Government
- (j) Social Needs and Individual Wishes
- (k) “If I could wipe out the last twenty years of my life and begin afresh.”
- (l) The Great Man I Admire Most
- (m) Haste makes Waste.

14.8 Bibliography

1. Techniques in Applied Linguistics, Volume 3 (eds) by J. RB. Allen and S. Pit Corder, OUR
 2. Modern English by N. Krishnaswamy, Macmillan.
 3. An Approach to University Level English by R.P. Bhatnagar and Rajul Bhargava.
 4. English for Competitive Examinations by R. P. Bhatnagar and Rajul Bhargava.
-

UNIT-15

BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

Structure

- 15.0 Objectives
- 15.1 Introduction
- 15.2 Basic Forms of Communication
 - 15.2.1 Non-Verbal Communication
 - 15.2.2 Verbal Communication
 - 15.2.3 Distinction between Verbal and Non-Verbal Communication
- 15.3 Corporate Communication- Its Types
- 15.4 Communication Process
- 15.5 Effective Communication
- 15.6 Audience Analysis
- 15.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 15.8 Review Questions
- 15.9 Bibliography

15.0 Objectives

In this unit, we aim at discussing the concept of business communication, basic forms of communication, the communication process, corporate communication, effective communication and audience analysis. We also intend to focus your attention on the distinction between verbal and non-verbal communication.

15.1 Introduction

Communication is the process of sending and receiving messages. Though business is a specialized branch of general communication; there is no basic difference between the two-general communication as well as the business communication is governed by the same process and principles. They differ from each other in the sense that general communication plays many roles in the world at large; business communication is confined to business activities.

Today communication has become an integral part of our life. Inability to communicate effectively and efficiently can jeopardize our interests in business and other managerial administrative functions. The significance of communication can be gauged by the fact that whenever there are impediments in the communication process, the flow of activities loses its momentum and misunderstandings may crop up which very often result in failure of relationships and situational breakdowns. Communication is effective only when the message is properly understood and when it stimulates action or encourages the receiver to think in new ways.

Business communication is concerned with business activities. Business activities are of two types: - Internal and External. Internal business activities include maintaining and improving the morale of employees, giving orders, prescribing methods, announcing policies, keeping the management informed, etc. The external activities relate to selling and obtaining goods, services, reporting to the government agencies and share holders, etc. Every activity leads to some result. The main features of business communication are as follows:

1. It deals with various commercial and industrial activities.
2. It is characterized by commercial and technical vocabulary.
3. Its tenor (addressee-addressor relationship) is formal.
4. It is impartial and objective as utmost care is taken to furnish accurate information.
5. Its main objective is to obtain some result that is, to secure an action by the receiver.
6. The language used in imparting business messages is direct, plain, concise and to the point.

15.2 Basic Forms of Communication

Communication occurs in innumerable kinds of messages. You can write a memo to your boss and send it by e-mail. You can choose instead, to make him a phone call and have conversation with him or leave him a voicemail message if he is not available. In turn, he can also respond to your message in the form of his choice. Your supervisor may also decide to forward your message to other senior authorities and managers and they may communicate it to other employees, customers and outsiders. As a matter of fact, the communication process is fluid because the form in which a message is communicated changes constantly. Communication can broadly be categorized into (i) Non-Verbal Communication and (ii) Verbal Communication.

15.2.1 Non-Verbal Communication

The most basic form of communication is non-verbal communication. Non-verbal communication is the process of communicating without words. It consists of all the cues, gestures, facial expressions, spatial relationships and attitudes towards time that enable people to communicate without words. The history of non-verbal communication is as old as the origin of mankind. Anthropologists are of the view that long before human beings used words to talk things over, our ancestors communicated by using their body organs. They gritted their teeth to show anger; they smiled and embraced each other to show affection. Although we have come a long way from those primitive times, nonverbal communication still remains a means of communicating superiority, dependence, like, dislike, love, respect and many other feelings.

15.2.2 Verbal Communication

Verbal communication consists of words arranged in meaningful patterns. Although nonverbal communication covers a larger part of our communication, it has got its limits. It is evident from the fact that all the things cannot be communicated without the help of language. If one wants to discuss past events, ideas or abstractions, one needs symbols that stand for one's thoughts. Verbal communication may be transmitted through written or spoken words. Hence

verbal communication can be oral as well as written. Oral communication may be face to face or by telephone or by video conferencing system. Written communication can take the form of letters, memos, reports, etc. Most people in normal situations would rather talk to each other than write to each other. The reasons for this are obvious. Talking takes less time and needs no composing, keyboarding, rewriting, duplicating or distributing. More important than this is that oral communication provides the opportunity for feedback. When people communicate orally, they can ask questions and test their understanding of the message; they can share ideas and work together to solve problems. Oral communication has its drawbacks too. It provides far less opportunity to the sender to revise. Furthermore, at times written forms such as letters, memos, reports and proposals are more appropriate and effective: when the information to be conveyed is very complex, when a permanent record is needed for future reference, when the audience is large and geographically dispersed, and when there is no need of immediate interaction with the audience.

15.2.3 Distinction between Verbal and Non-Verbal Communication

Non-verbal communication differs from verbal communication in fundamental ways. The following points make the distinction clear:

- (i) Non-verbal communication is less structured and hence it is more difficult to study. Nobody can claim to have mastered the vocabulary of gestures, expressions and inflections that are common in our culture. Even experts do not really know how people learn non-verbal behaviour. No one teaches a baby to cry or smile, yet these forms of self-expression are almost universal. Other types of non-verbal communication such as the meaning of colour and other gestures vary from culture to culture. Verbal communication, on the other hand, is well structured and is composed of sounds (in case of oral communication), words and grammar.
- (ii) Non-verbal communication also differs from verbal communication in terms of intent and spontaneity. Verbal communication is generally planned that is, the sender plans the words and thinks about the message, if only for a moment, before it is transmitted. However, when one communicates nonverbally one does many things unconsciously. For instance, one does not learn to raise an eyebrow or to blush, those actions come naturally. Without one's consent, one's emotions are written all over one's face.

15.3 Corporate Communication

Corporate communication can broadly be categorized into Formal Communication and Informal Communication. Formal Communication consists of planned communication in the form of letters, reports, memos, e-mail, formal speeches, websites, news release, etc. that follows the company's chain of command. Informal Communication is the casual communication among employees, with the suppliers, customers, investors and other outsiders. This communication does not follow the company's chain of communication. It may occur in the form of e-mail, face-to-face conversation and phone calls. Formal communication may travel up, down and across an organization's formal hierarchy.

- (a) Formal Communication: It may be of the following types:

- (i) Downward Communication: It flows from top to bottom. It travels from senior executives to junior level functionaries. Most of what filters down is geared towards helping employees do their jobs. From top to bottom, each person must understand each message, apply it and pass it along. Corporate goals, business priorities, motivational letters, news letters, letters from General Manager are all typical examples of Downward Communication. The problem of downward communication is that quite often it is lost or distorted in the course of its journey down the chain of command. It is, therefore, to be always kept in mind that mere issuance of policies and procedures does not ensure communication. Secondly, the downward flow of communication through different channels of the organization is time-consuming. Thirdly, downward communication is likely to be filtered, modified or distorted at any or each level. This distortion and undue delay affects the employer employee relationship adversely.
 - (ii) Upward Communication: It flows from bottom to top. Communications from branches to regional offices, to zonal offices, from employees to supervisors, to managers, to top executives, to the top management are examples of upward communication. Upward communication enables the management in solving the problems and making intelligent discussions to arrive at a conclusion. It is essentially participative in nature and can flourish only in democratic organizational environment. The lack of upward communication can be disastrous. To encourage the free flow of information upward' the management must create an informal climate. Second, the formal structure of information flow must be clear. Third, an open door policy must be adopted and practiced.
 - (iii) Horizontal Communication: Horizontal or lateral communication, also known as crosswise communication relates to the communication among people on the same or similar organizational levels. It also includes diagonal flow of communication that is the communication among persons at different levels who have no direct reporting relationships with one another. Horizontal communication helps employees share information and coordinate among various departments and it is especially useful for solving complex and difficult problems.
- (b) Informal Communication: Every organization has an informal communication network- a grapevine- that supplements official channel, The informal communication network carries information along the organization's unofficial lines of activity and power. As people go about their work, they have casual conversations with their friends in the office. Some executives do not encourage informal communication network possibly because it threatens their power to control the flow of communication. However, the wise executives tap into the grapevine, using it to spread and receive informal message. Informal communication network is speedy, spontaneous and multidirectional; it also strengthens social relations and supplements formal communication. On the other hand, it may be misleading and disastrous for an organization as it may create misunderstanding among employees by spreading rumours.

15.3 The Communication Process

Communication does not occur haphazardly but involves several distinct steps. In its simpler form, the process involves stimulus and response. The stimulus arises from the sender and the receiver responds. Communication is incomplete until the message conveyed by the sender is properly understood by the receiver. Communication being a process requires at least two persons- a sender and a receiver- irrespective of the mode of communication. The sender conceives the idea, gives it a shape, decides the mode of communication which may be used to convey the idea, and conveys it. The receiver receives it, tries to understand it and finally takes an action which may be either to store the information or to send the message to the original source or take any other line of action as required by the source. Communication is, thus, a dynamic two way process that can be broken into six phases:

- i. The sender has an idea: This step is called Ideation. The sender conceives an idea and wants to communicate it to the other party.
- ii. The sender encodes the idea: This is also called Encoding. When the sender decides on the messages' form, (word, facial expression, gesture) length, organization, tone and style keeping in mind his idea, his audience and his personal style and mood, he is encoding it
- iii. The sender transmits the message: To transmit the message to the receiver, the sender selects a communication channel (verbal or non-verbal, spoken or written) and a medium (telephone, letter, memo, e-mail, report, face-to-face exchange). The choice of communication channel and medium are determined by the type of message, the audience's location, sender's need for speed and the formality required.
- iv. The receiver gets the message: For communication to occur the receiver must get the message.
- v. The receiver decodes the message: This is also given the name 'Decoding'. Decoding means absorbing and understanding the message. After having received the message, the receiver decodes the message. The decoded message must then be stored in the receiver's mind. If all goes well, the receiver interprets your message correctly, assigning the same meaning to sender's words as the sender intended, and responding in the desired way.
- vi. The receiver sends feedback: After decoding the message, the receiver responds in the some way and signals that response to the sender. This feedback (audience's response) enables the sender to evaluate the effectiveness of his message. If the audience does not understand what the sender means, the sender can tell by the response and refine his message.

The communication process is repeated until both parties have finished expressing themselves. In the above process of communication, out of six steps, the first three are to be taken by the sender and the last three by the receiver. When all the expectations of the receiver in the communication process are considered, they are sometimes called the Rule of Five in Communication. They represent the five steps from the side of the receiver

(i) Receiving (ii) Understanding (iii) Acceptance (iv) Action and (v) Feedback If these

five steps are adhered by the receiver, the communication is effective.

15.4 Effective Communication

Communication is effective only when it stimulates action. Effective business messages have a number of characteristics, which may be described as follows:

1. Provide practical information rather than ideal information: Effective business messages provide practical information rather than ideal suggestions. They usually describe how to do something, explain why a particular procedure was changed, highlight the cause of a problem or a possible solution, discuss the status of a project, or explain why a new piece of equipment should be purchased.
2. Give facts and data rather than impressions: To make business messages effective, the language used must be concrete and specific. Information must be clear, convincing, exact and ethical. The message must present facts and all sides of an argument so that a right decision may be taken.
3. Clarify and condense information: An effective message should not be large one. It should contain tables, charts, photos or diagrams to clarify or condense information to explain a process and to emphasize the exact information.
4. State precise responsibilities and expectations: Business messages contain specific purposes and hence, they are always directed to specific audience. An effective message, therefore, always makes a mention of the follow up action desired from the audience.
5. Persuasive in nature: The basic purpose of a business message is to persuade employers, customers or clients to purchase a product or service or adopt a specific plan of action. In order to persuade the audience, a business message clearly mentions how a product, service or idea will benefit them specifically. A message may contain the greatest ideas of the world but it is of no good to a company or to one's career if it cannot express them clearly and persuasively.

15.5 Audience Analysis

A successful communication entails more than the availability of adequate material with the speaker. Audience analysis also plays a vital role in making a communication successful. Therefore, a good communicator should start developing his communication by asking himself some key questions about his audience such as- who are they? What is their probable relation with the message delivered? How much do they already know about the subject? What is their relationship to the speaker?

In case the audience is made up of much familiar people, like the boss or the co-worker, audience analysis is relatively easy as one can easily predict the audience reaction pretty well, without a lot of research. On the other hand, if the audience consists of strangers, new customers, suppliers, boss or employee- one has to learn about the members of the audience to adjust his message to serve them. The following steps are to be adhered to develop an audience analysis:

- (i) Identification of the primary audience: If the sender is able to reach the decision makers or opinion moulders in the audience, other audience members will fall into place.

- (ii) Determine audience size and composition: The presenter should estimate how many people will attend. He should also consider whether the audience has some political, religious, professional or other affiliation in common. A good presenter always looks for common denominators that tie audience members together across differences in culture, education, status or attitude. He also analyzes the mix of men and women, age ranges, socio-economic and ethnic groups, occupation, and geographic regions represented.
- (iii) Gauge the level of understanding of the audience: Only that much information must be incorporated in a presentation which can be easily understood by the audience. Relevant and high level information (higher than the level of audience's understanding) will overwhelm the audience and divert their attention from the important points. A good presenter does the following things to gauge the audience's level of understanding:
 - (a) Analyzes whether everybody has the same background and experience.
 - (b) Determines that the audience already knows about the subject.
 - (c) Decides what background information the audience will need to understand the message in a better way.
 - (d) Considers whether the listener is familiar with his vocabulary.
 - (e) Analyzes what the audience expects from him.
- (iv) Anticipate the probable reaction of the audience: To analyze and predict the probable reaction of the audience, the sender should:
 - (f) Analyze why audience are attending the presentation. In other words, what do they want to attain through the presentation?
 - (g) Determine the audience's general attitude towards the topic that is whether the audience is interested, moderately interested, unconcerned, open- minded or hostile.
 - (h) Analyze the mood that people will be in when the speaker delivers the message to the audience.
 - (i) Try to find out what kind of background information will impress the audience most- technical, historical, financial, political, etc.
 - (j) Try to anticipate what can be the possible questions or objections.
- (v) Adopt a gradual approach: A good presenter adopts a gradual approach and provides plenty of evidence to win over a skeptical audience.

15.6 Let Us Sum Up

Business communication, like any other communication, is the process of sending and receiving messages. It is confined to business activities. There are two basic forms of communication- Verbal and Non-verbal. Communication is a two way dynamic process which can be broken into six phases comprising Ideation, Encoding, Transmission, Receiving, Decoding and Action. Corporate communication is of two types-Formal Communication and Informal Communication. Formal communication includes Downward Communication, Upward Communication and Horizontal Communication. Informal communication refers to informal communication network- a grapevine. Effective communication is one that stimulates action. A successful communication entails audience analysis.

15.7 Review Questions

1. Answer to the following questions should not exceed 20 words each:
 - (a) Define Business Communication.
 - (b) What are the main features of Business Communication?
 - (c) What are the two basic forms of communication?
 - (d) Define non-verbal communication.
 - (e) What is verbal communication? What are the two modes of its transmission?
 - (f) How does verbal communication differ from non-verbal communication?
 - (g) Why do people prefer oral communication to written communication in normal situation?
 - (h) What are the two main words that sum up communication?
 - (i) Name the six phases of communication process.
 - (j) What is the Rule of Five?
 - (k) Define Encoding.
 - (l) Define Decoding.
 - (m) What is noise? How can it affect the communication process?
 - (n) What is feedback?
 - (o) Define upward communication.
 - (p) Define downward communication.
 - (q) Define horizontal communication.
2. Answer the following questions in 250 words each:
 - (a) Describe the main features of effective communication.
 - (b) What is Audience Analysis? What steps are to be adhered to develop an audience profile?
 - (c) Describe the communication process in detail.

15.8 Bibliography

1. Agrawal, S. K. and P. K. Singh: Effective Business Communication, Himanshu, 2007.
2. Bovee, Thill, Schatzman: Business Communication Today, Pearson, 2003.
3. Fisher, Dalmer: Communication in Organizations, Jaico, 2003
4. Sharma, R.C. and Krishna Mohan: Business Correspondence and Report Writing, Tata McGraw, 2003.

UNIT-16

ELECTRONIC COMMUNICATION

Structure

- 16.0 Objectives
- 16.1 Introduction
- 16.2 Tradition and E-Communication
- 16.3 Types of Electronic Media
 - 16.3.1 Voicemail
 - 16.3.2 Teleconferencing
 - 16.3.3 Videotape
 - 16.3.4 Computer Conferencing
 - 16.3.5 Faxing
 - 16.3.6 E-mail
 - 16.3.7 Instant Messaging
 - 16.3.8 Website
- 16.4 Disadvantages of Electronic Messages
- 16.5 Electronic Presentations
 - 16.5.1 Planning Effective Slides for Presentation
 - 16.5.2 Creating Effective Slides for Presentation
 - 16.5.3 Advantages and Disadvantages of Electronic Presentations
- 16.6 Handling E-Communication Challenges
 - 16.6.1 Information Overload
 - 16.6.2 Data Security
 - 16.6.3 Employee Productivity and Privacy
 - 16.6.4 Sabotage and Theft
- 16.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 16.8 Review Questions
- 16.9 Bibliography

16.0 Objectives

The purpose of this unit is to acquaint you with the various forms of electronic

communication. We also intend to familiarize you with the challenges electronic communication faces today.

16.1 Introduction

Computer technology and telecommunication links via satellites have brought about revolutionary changes in the field of communication and have made electronic communication the fastest mode of delivering and receiving messages and latest information. The barriers of time and space have collapsed and the world seems to have squeezed into a small room in which given certain facilities, it is possible to communicate with anyone in any part of the world. The latest mode of communication is perhaps the concept of teleconferencing in which various people stationed in different parts of the world can confer with each other as if they were sitting together in a conference room. Generally electronic forms of communication are used for speed, to overcome time-zone barriers, and to reach a widely dispersed audience personally.

16.2 Tradition and E-Communication

Globalization has introduced a different medium-different from traditional written and spoken mode of communication, i.e. electronic communication, better known as e-communication. We have now computer mediated communication, or 'Net Speak'. With the internet, what has happened is that we have a new medium. It uses properties of language that do not exist in traditional speech and writing. The internet lacks simultaneous feedback. But in chat rooms, one can speak to so many, and the language and its sequence that comes out is quite unlike what one sees in traditional languages. In emails one has this amazing phenomenon of e-mail framing where one can get one's e-mail cut and paste a paragraph, answer it and the other person can answer that, and soon you get an amalgam of messages. This is again completely different from what you have been able to do with the written languages. The internet is not like written language either. Because, for a start, it is dynamic. The fundamental building of the internet is the hypertext link. Click here and go there. There is no worldwide web without the hypertext link. In the written language, the closest we can get to a hyperlink is the footnote. It makes this a new medium of communication, unlike speech and unlike writing but making them a completely different world. As far as teaching the language is concerned, it does make a very different situation.

'Net Speak' has marginalized handwriting. E-mails have introduced a new variety to a language. It is a language without capitalization, punctuation, etc. It is a variety where informality has been taken to extremes. It did not exist before; it is a terminology inspired informality of expression that did not exist before. Thus, it is obvious that the language has grown through the internet, with an extra dimension of language use being incorporated. Now, it is not all like this. There is another significant argument here. With internet language one is on one's own, when one is using the internet because there is no feedback. Hence, the sender has to ensure the clarity of the message. The sender has also to think out how he has to express himself more precisely than he otherwise would in speech because if he gets it wrong, that would be a sheer waste of time. So the need of the hour is to document the internet language- what goes on the internet, what actual forms of language are used there, etc.? Thus, there is a descriptive stage in the field of internet linguistics and there is an explanatory stage when one tries to explain what is happening,

why the language is taking the shape it is. Obviously, it has partly to do with technology; it is not all. Some of the conventions found on the web also shape the language.

16.3 Types of Electronic Media

The availability of a variety of electronic media increases your options as a communicator. In addition to the traditional forms of oral communication, oral media also include electronic forms such as voice mail, audiotape and videotape, teleconferencing and videoconferencing, closed —circuit television, instant messaging, and many more. Written media also include such electronic forms as e-mail, faxing, computer conferencing, websites, and more. Some of the forms of electronic communication are as follows:

16.3.1 Voice mail

Can be used to replace short memos and phone calls that need no response. It is most effective for short, unambiguous messages. It solves time-zone difficulties and reduces a substantial amount of interoffice paperwork. Voice mail is a powerful tool when you need to communicate your emotion or tone. It is especially useful for goodwill and other positive messages.

16.3.2 Teleconferencing

It is best for informational meetings, although ineffective for negotiation. It's an alternative to a face-to-face meeting, but it discourages the "secondary" conversations that occur during a meeting of more than four or five people—which helps participants focus on a topic but prevents them from sharing valuable information.

16.3.3 Videotape

It is often effective for getting a motivational message out to a large number of people. By communicating nonverbal cues, it can strengthen the sender's image of sincerity, honesty and trustworthiness; it does not offer any opportunity for immediate feedback.

16.3.4 Computer Conferencing

It allows users to meet and collaborate in real time while viewing and sharing documents electronically. It offers democracy because more attention is focused on ideas than on the sender. But overemphasizing a message (to the absolute neglect of the sender) can threaten corporate culture, which needs a richer medium.

16.3.5 Faxing

It can be used to overcome time-zone barriers when a hard copy is required. It has all the characteristics of a written message, except that it may lack the privacy of a letter and the message may appear less crisp, even less professional depending on the quality of the audience's machine.

16.3.6 E-mail

It offers speed low cost, increased access to other employees, portability and convenience

(it not only overcomes time-zone problems but also carries the message to so many, if thus willed). It is best for communicating brief, non-complex information that is time sensitive, but its effectiveness depends on user skill. Because the turnaround time can be quite fast, e-mail tends to be more conversational than traditional paper-based media. One of the greatest features- and dangers- of e-mail is that people tend to treat it far more informally than other forms of communication. They are also led to believe that deleting e-mail destroys it permanently. But that is not true. Even after you delete an e-mail message, it can still exist on the system's hard drive and backup storage devices at both the sender's and the recipient's locations. Deleting files only signals that the space required to store the message is no longer needed. The space is so marked, but the data that occupy it continue to exist until the computer overwrites the space with new data. Thus, deleted messages are recoverable and can be used as court evidences against you.

16.3.7 Instant Messaging

Allows people to carry on real-time, one-on-one, and small group text conversations. More versatile than phone call and quicker than e-mail, TM is becoming a valuable business tool. You can send your boss a text message that is immediately displayed on her or his computer screen, and you can have your response within seconds. Similarly, co-workers in different branch offices can use TM to exchange documents or hold a virtual meeting online in a private chat area.

16.3.8 Websites

Offer interactive communication through hyperlinks, allowing readers to absorb information nonsequentially: They can take what they need and skip everything else. A website can tailor the same information for numerous readers by breaking up the information into linked pages. Writing for the web can be specialized skill.

16.4 Disadvantages of Electronic Messages

Electronic messages also have disadvantages. Consider e-mail, for example. People sometimes include things in e-mail messages that they would not dream of saying in person or trying in a document. Thus although this new openness can help users get input from wider variety of people, it can also create tension and interpersonal conflict. Furthermore, because e-mail is so cheap and easy to send, people tend to overuse it, distributing messages more widely than necessary and contributing to the hundreds of junk- mail messages that some of us receive every day. Overusing e-mail can also overload company networks, resulting in lost messages or even system crashes. Secondly, electronic messages lack privacy. Some people negate their own privacy by being careless about screening their electronic distribution lists and sending information to receivers who should not have it or do not need it. Of course, even if your message, goes only where you originally intended, any recipient can easily forward it to someone else. Thirdly, user productivity is constantly interrupted by e-mail, voice mail, conference calls and faxes. Chat windows can pop up on computer screen and demand immediate conversation. Users can also diminish their productivity by surfing the web.

Still the advantages of electronic media often outweigh the drawbacks, so people are selecting electronic forms over traditional ones more and more often.

16.5 Electronic Presentations

An electronic presentation consists of a series of electronic slides composed using popular computer software such as Microsoft Power Point. The software allows you to incorporate photos, sound, video, graphics, animation and other movement into the slides, enabling you to capture and engage your audience like no other visual aid. For live presentations, an increasing number of people now use LCD (Liquid Crystal Display) projectors or display panels. These products grab the images from your computer screen and display them on the same projection screens used for viewing overhead transparencies.

16.5.1 Planning Effective Slides for Presentation

Effective slides are the result of careful planning. You need to do the following to increase the effectiveness of your slides:

- 1 Analyze both your purpose in creating the slides and the audience who will be viewing them.
- 2 Be aware of your audience's needs.
- 3 Gather the details carefully, and document your sources fairly and thoroughly.
- 4 Adapt your message to your audience and establish a good relationship. Be careful to choose the correct form of slide for your presentation.

16.5.2 Creating Effective Slides for Presentation

When creating slides, keep in mind that simplicity is the key to effectiveness. Therefore, your primary focus in creating text for graphic slides is to keep content and graphics simple and readable, select design elements that enhance your message without overshadowing it, be consistent in your design elements, and use special effects selectively.

1. Writing Readable Content: When writing content for text slides-
 - a. Keep your message short and simple.
 - b. Limit the content to about 40 words.
 - c. Write short phrases rather than long sentences.
 - d. Use telegraphic wording (Profits soar, for example).
 - e. Make your slides easy to read by using the active voice.
 - f. Include short informative titles.
2. Modifying Graphics for Slides: Graphics include charts, diagrams, maps, drawings and tables for written communication. The graphic visuals can be used in an oral presentation to clarify a concept, show a process or highlight key information. You can create effective visuals by following these guidelines:
 - a. Reduce the detail: Eliminate everything that is not absolutely essential to the message.

- b. Avoid repeating text: Minimize repetition by including the word in a title, subtitle, label, etc.
 - c. Shorten Numbers: On graphs, use 07 for the year 2007; round off numbers such as 12,500.72 to 12.5 and then label the axis to indicate thousands.
 - d. Limit data: Don't put more than five lines on a chart.
 - e. Highlight key points: Use arrows, boldface type, etc.
 - f. Adjust the size and design: Modify the size of the graphic to accommodate the size of a Slide.
3. Selecting Design Elements It is important to keep in mind that nothing detracts from good content more than poorly designed slides. By paying attention to the five principles of effective design — continuity, contrast, emphasis, simplicity and experience, you can transform a dull presentation into one that is both dynamic and readable. In accordance with the above principles, you select the colour, background design, artwork, fonts and type styles for your slides. Then once you have selected the best design elements for your slides, stick to them throughout your presentation.
4. Colour Colour is a critical design element. It grabs the viewer's attention, emphasizes important ideas, creates contrast, and isolates slide elements. Colour can make your slides more attractive, lively and professional. Colour can also increase the appeal and impact of your slides. Your colour choice can also stimulate different emotions. For example, if you wish to your audience, add some warm colours such as red and orange to your slides. If you wish to achieve a more relaxed and receptive environment, blue would be a better choice. Remember, colour may have a different meaning for certain cultures. "So if you are creating slides for international audience, be sensitive to cultural differences." (quoted in Business Communication Today) While selecting colours for your slides, keep in mind the following:
 - 1 Use contrasting colours on slides to increase readability.
 - 2 Reverse background and text colours for overhead transparencies.
 - 3 Fonts and Type Styles: When selecting fonts and type styles for slides, follow these guidelines:
 - a. Avoid decorative fonts.
 - b. Limit your fonts to one or two per slide.
 - c. If two fonts are used, reserve one for headings and the other for bulleted items.
 - d. Use boldface type for electronic slides.
 - e. Avoid italicized type because it is difficult to read when projected.
5. Completing Effective Slides for Oral Presentation: You must review the slides for content, style, tone, readability, clarity and conciseness. As you look over your presentation for the final time ensure that all slides are readable, simple, audience-centred, clear, mechanically correct and focused. Remember that your slides may be counter productive if they are not simple.

16.5.3 Advantages and Disadvantages of Electronic Presentation

The biggest advantage of electronic presentation is their computerized Format, which makes real time manipulation of data easy to perform. You can change a graphic, add a bulleted phrase, and alter the sequence of your slides with a simple click of the mouse. You can also add multimedia effects to slides. Secondly, electronic presentations are easy to store, transport, and customize for different audiences.

Electronic presentations are not without disadvantages. First, electronic slides require more expensive display equipment than overhead transparencies. Second, most people spend too much time focusing on the technical components of an electronic presentation and less to the content of their message. Third, inexperienced persons tend to pack too many special effects in their electronic slides, creating a visual feast of pictures and graphics that dazzle the audience but blur the key message.

16.6 Handling E-Communication Challenges

With the emergence of new communication technologies and devices, the business concerns are facing new challenges. Some of them can be enumerated as given below:

16.6.1 Information Overload

One of the most critical challenges is information overload. Organizations are being flooded by a rising tide of documents. As a result, the employees very often cannot discriminate between useful and useless information. In response, companies are training employees to send fewer messages, to identify the most urgent ones, or even to avoiding using e-mail for some part of every day.

16.6.2 Data Security

Today we are moving from paper based system to electronic data management. This has posed a real threat. Global networks increase the possibility that crucial information located on an internet or sent over the internet will be altered or destroyed. This is done through hacking, cracking, cyber terrorism, etc.

- a. Hacking: means breaking into a computer network such as an internet to steal, delete or change data.
- b. Cracking: means entering a computer network for non-destructive reasons, such as to play a prank or show off.
- c. Cyber terrorism: means orchestrated attacks on an organization or individual's system for political or economic purposes. Cyber terrorism is being taken more seriously since the terrorist attacks on New York City Washington D. C. on September 11, 2001. To safeguard themselves, the users can use security software called a Fire wall, a special type of gateway that controls access to the user's local network(Besides proper password protections). The fire wall allows access only to users who present the proper password and system identification.

16.6.3 Employee productivity and Privacy

Organizations are increasingly concerned about employee productivity in the wired work place, because so many employees are using office resources such as e-mail systems for personal business. To help prevent such problems, employers are forming policies governing on-line activities in the workplace. Electronic traffic jams are another productivity problems that organizations face. The unrestricted access, although a strength of internet, has become a weakness for users who need to move large amounts of data more quickly. When traffic gets heavy, the internet slows down, penalizing users trying to move a lot of data.

16.6.4 Sabotage and Theft

Among the most common forms of sabotage are viruses and worms. Viruses are programmes that can change or delete files or programmes. Embedded in legitimate software (without the manufacturer's knowledge) or in files passed from one computer to another, vicious viruses can quickly do tremendous damage. Worms are programmes specifically designed to replicate over and over again. Spread by e mail, these programmes send more worms to everyone in the recipient's e-mail address book- taking up precious network space and snarling connections.

16.7 Let Us Sum Up

Electronic communication is the fastest mode of delivering and receiving messages and latest information. E- Communication uses properties of language that do not exist in traditional speech and writing. For example in e-mail one has the amazing phenomenon of e-mailing, framing, cutting certain part and pasting another paragraph, answering it, etc. E-mail has introduced a new variety of language; an informal language without capitalization, punctuation, etc. Electronic media of communication include voicemail, teleconferencing (video conferencing), videotape, computer conferencing, faxing, e-mail, instant messaging, web-sites, etc. Electronic messages lack in privacy and affect employees' productivity adversely.

16.8 Review Questions

1. Define the following in not more than 15 words each:
 - a) Cracking
 - b) Hacking
 - c) Cyber Terrorism
 - d) Information Overload
 - e) Fire well
 - f) Traffic Jams
 - g) Viruses
 - h) Worms
2. Define the following (in 50 words each):
 - a) Voice mail

- b) Teleconferencing (Videoconferencing)
 - c) Computer Conferencing
 - d) Videotape
 - e) Faxing
 - f) E-mail
 - g) Instant Messaging
 - h) Websites
3. What is the difference between a chat room and instant messaging? Do you consider instant messaging a secure way to communicate?
 4. What is it that differentiates traditional communication (speech and writing) from electronic communication?
 5. What are the advantages and disadvantages of e-mail?
 6. Considering how fast and easy it is, should e-mail replace meetings and other face-to-face communication in your organization? Why or why not?
 7. If the e-mail facility is available, is it proper to communicate through e-mail for all purposes? Why or why not? Prepare a list of the occasions where you will not choose e-mail to communicate.
 8. If you have to instruct your overseas branch at Dubai to make arrangements for an urgent conference, what would you prefer-e-mail or a telephone call?
 9. Choose an electronic device (Video cassette recorder, personal computer, and telephoning answering machine) that you know how to operate well. Write two sets of instructions for operating the device: one set for a reader who has never used that type of machine and one set for someone who is generally familiar with that type of machine but has never operated that type of model.
 10. How has the modern world been affected by electronic communication? Discuss.
 12. What is an electronic presentation? Describe the guidelines for creating effective slides for presentation.
 13. Discuss the challenges of handling e-communication.

16.9 Bibliography

1. Agrawal, S. K. and P. K. Singh: Effective Business Communication, Himanshu, 2007.
2. Bovee, Thill, Schatzman: Business Communication Today, Pearson, 2003.
3. Fisher, Dalmer: Communication in Organizations, Jaico, 2003
4. Sharma, R.C. and Krishna Mohan: Business Correspondence and Report Writing, Tata McGraw, 2003.
5. Sinha, K.K.:Business Communication, Galgotia, 2003.

UNIT-17

NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

Structure

- 17.0 Objectives
- 17.1 Introduction
- 17.2 Kinesics
 - 17.2.1 Effective Use of Kinesics
 - 17.2.2 Advantages of Kinesics
 - 17.2.3 Limitations of Kinesics
- 17.3 Proxemics (Space Language)
 - 17.3.1 Kinds of Space
 - 17.3.2 Time Language
- 17.4 Paralanguage
 - 17.4.1 Advantages of Paralanguage
 - 17.4.2 Limitations of Paralanguage
- 17.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 17.6 Review Questions
- 17.7 Bibliography

17.0 Objectives

The purpose of this unit is to acquaint you of non-verbal communication including Kinesics, Proxemics and Paralanguage. The unit also discusses how you can be a successful communicator by following the guidelines related to the devices of non-verbal communication.

17.1 Introduction

Non-verbal communication can be defined as an unspoken or unwritten message that uses body language. This may be used by itself e.g. frowning or smiling at someone or along with oral communication. In oral communication, the facial expressions such as a smile or frown may strengthen the message. As a matter of fact, the entire body language, from large gestures to proximity with the listener, helps emphasize the contents of the message.

Alternatively, the absence of non-verbal communication leaves the receiver guessing. The incongruence between verbal and non-verbal communication leads to confusion and sometimes even to communication failure. This form of communication has a strong cultural content. The Arabs and Latin Americans are prone to move closer to the listener as well as maintain more eye-contact than the Europeans do. Similarly physical contact is considered a powerful tool of communication. But touching an acquaintance, the handshake expected, is almost taboo among

the British, insignificant in American and common in Latin America.

Non-verbal communication includes facial expressions, gestures, movement, eye-contact, nodding the head, physical appearance, and time and space language. Non-verbal communication is less deliberate and conscious, and more subtle and instructive than verbal communication. It also forms the larger part of the overall communication activity. The researches have revealed that bodily movements, gestures, voice, tone, inflection, etc., cover almost 93 percent part of our communication. Non-verbal communication includes: Kinesics, *Proxemics* and *Paralanguage*.

17.2 Kinesics

The word 'Kinesics' literally means 'body movements'. It stands for the way the body communicates without words, and through various movements, postures, gestures, etc. are guided by our thought processes, emotions, etc. By nodding our head, blinking our eyes, waving our hands, shrugging our shoulders and various other ways, we send out signals and messages that often speak louder than words. As the area involves maximum body movement, it is called 'body language' or 'kinesics.' Just as language uses sets of symbols to convey meaning, our body consciously as well as unconsciously carries messages, attitudes, status relationships, mood, warmth/indifference, positive/negative feelings and so on. We infer these meanings from body symbols. These body symbols include face, eyes, gestures, postures and physical appearance, each of which has its own functions.

17.2.1 Effective Use of Kinesics

To be a successful communicator, it is essential to learn the effective use of Kinesics. The following points are some useful tips in this regard:-

- a. *A Careful Handshake:* Handshake conveys crucial messages about power, status and concern for the person we meet. A firm, dry and strong handshake conveys confidence, where as bending the wrist or gripping only the fingers gives wrong signals.
- b. *Good Eye Contact:* Eye contact is the most remembered in forming an impression of someone. Therefore, one must acquire the ability to sustain the direct eye contact if one wants to be taken seriously.
- c. *Mind the Body-talk:* A good communicator always pays attention to the fact that body talks. As a matter of fact, we should carefully identify the little things that people do when they are balanced or tense. Some people play with their lock of hair or a pen in their hand. Such behaviour undermines the strength of what we say. Similarly, stiff posture shows rigidity in thought
- d. *Don 't Try to Show off:* To improve our body language, we must start from inside and work out. People who know who they are have a relaxed way of talking and moving. So avoiding all tensions, we must relax and be ourselves, not try to be, or show off to be, what we are not.
- e. *Graceful Movements and confident Postures:* make the communication impressive.

17.2.2 Advantages of Kinesics

- a. Kinesics or body language complements verbal communication. It helps in establishing

rapport.

- b. Body language adds intensity to the process of communication. In the absence of body language, communication will look blank and insipid.
- c. Body language is the most visible aspect of communication. It, therefore, helps the receiver in decoding the message.

17.2.3 Limitations of Kinesics

- a. Since it is non-verbal communication, it cannot be wholly relied on.
- b. It differs from culture to culture. It is, therefore, liable to be misinterpreted.
- c. Use of body language is not effective in large gatherings.
- d. Facial expressions, gestures, postures, etc. become ineffective if the listener is inattentive. It, therefore, requires extra care in getting the right message.

17.3 Proxemics (Space Language)

Just as kinesics is the study of body language, Proxemics is the study of how we communicate with the space around us. In the same way we communicate to others by means of the importance we attach to time or by sending out signals regarding time.

The space around us and its contents convey a definite meaning. Of course, it requires quite some effort on our part to arrange them meaningfully, and on the part of others to understand the meaning. Space language, according to Edward T. Hall (quoted in *Effective Business Communication* by S. K. Agrawal), distance wise can be stated as follows:

- (i) *Intimate*-(physical contact! touch to 18 inches): Intimate Space language is the real nonverbal language of proximity. Mostly, among family members, closest friends and selected people enter the area of intimate space language. In the language used within this small, intimate, perhaps private circle, not many words are used. Very often whispers take the place of loudly spoken words. Eye contact, handshake, pat on the back or shoulders are the memorable ways of this communication.
- (ii) *Personal* — (18 inches to 4 feet): Personal Space language includes normal conversation with our close friends, colleagues, associates and visitors. Although communication in this circle is also mostly personal in nature, it is relaxed and casual for most of the time.
- (iii) *Social* — (4 to 12 feet): Social Space language is more official and formal than the previous two. While feelings, emotions, shared likes and dislikes may come up in the intimate and personal space, more reason and planning are required in the 'social' space. It is therefore, of paramount significance in business.
- (iv) *Public*-(12 feet to as far as we can see and hear.) In public space language, communication becomes even more formal. The attachment of the intimate and personal space is substituted by the detachment of perception, objectivity of approach and formality of communication.

17.3.1 Kinds of Space

There are two kinds of space-Fixed and Semi-fixed. They have important implications for

communication. In fixed places we consider permanent features like walls, room sizes, the building, its total capacity, places, corners, counters for special purposes and so on. These permanent features affect communication by marking out who interrelates with whom, how, for how long and for what purpose. In semi-fixed space, the physical features are likely to be changed. This flexibility in arrangement permits a variety of spaces that can be used to conduct different types of communication activities. For example, the same furniture can be arranged or rearranged for a group discussion, and interview or an oral presentation.

Proxemics is also concerned with the use of space by groups of people. The way groups of people use the space assigned to them determines their respective places and interaction patterns. For example, people seated around a round/oval table are most likely to communicate in the form of a conference.

17.3.2 Time Language

In fact, time pervades our thinking and dominates our communication. All communication is meant to be suitably timed. Time is a major determinant for the initiation of communication. Whether the time is proper for a communication carries a lot of significance.

- a. *Surroundings.* Our surroundings or physical environment speak their own nonverbal language. Colour and Layout or designs are two important aspects of nonverbal communication.
- b. *Colour:* Different colors are associated with different behaviour patterns, attitudes and cultural backgrounds. Pink, yellow, red, purple, blue and green are gay colours. Black and gray colours are associated with negative feelings, melancholy or somber mood. White is associated with chastity or peace.
- c. *Layout and Design.* Communicate the space arrangement of an office- carpeting or its absence; the furniture and its design convey a meaning. This conveys the mood/personality/outlook/vision of the organization.

17.4 Paralanguage

Very closely allied to verbal communication but actually nonverbal communication is paralanguage. Para means 'like'. Hence 'Paralanguage' is 'like language'. It is nonverbal because it does not consist of words. But it is close to verbal communication because it shows how words are spoken or utterances made. In this way, we can say that while verbal communication consists of 'what' or the content of words, paralanguage involves the how of a speaker's voice or the way in which he speaks. On careful observation, we find that a speaker uses a vast range of signs and signals.

Voice. voice is the first signal that we use. Every body knows the importance of voice. It tells so much about the speaker's sex, background, education, training and temperament. There are all kinds of voice- clear, musical, cultivated, pleasant, unpleasant and so on. One must take care of the following points in the use of voice:-

- a. *Pitch Variation:* Pitch variations are necessary to catch the listener's attention and to keep him interested in us. Speaking at length on the same level of pitch makes the speech

monotonous or boring.

- b. Speaking Speed: We do not, should not, always speak at a high speed. The difficult, complicated, highly technical part of information should be conveyed at a slower pace. If we reverse the order, the result will be counter-productive.
- c. Pause: A pause can be highly effective in emphasizing the upcoming subject and in gaining the listener's attention. Too frequent pauses, however, will spoil the speech.
- d. Volume Variation: Depending upon the different parts of the message, one should monitor the values of one's speech so as to bring about a sense of contact between the louder and the not so loud parts of our speech. Volume variation puts life into our speaking.
- e. Non-fluencies. Utterances like 'oh, aha, urn, you know, ok, etc. are known as non-fluencies. They give the speaker breathing time (space-fillers) and the audience time to think over what has been said (grasp-breaks). Too frequent non-fluencies irritate the listener.
- f. Word Stress: By putting stress or emphasis on a word here or a word there in the same sequence, we can change the meaning. Therefore, the speaker should take care that proper stress is put on words or parts of words while we speak.

17.4.1 Advantages of Paralanguage

- a. Paralanguage is closely allied to oral communication. No oral communication is complete without it.
- b. It is a dependable indicator of the speaker's place in an organization. It tells in volumes about his place in an organization.
- c. Paralanguage helps the listener find out the educational background of the speaker.
- d. Paralanguage also helps the listener in identifying the speaker's regional and national background. It also helps the listener a lot in dealing with the speaker.

17.4.2 Limitations of Paralanguage

- a. One cannot rely on paralanguage and take a decision on the basis of it.
- b. The voice quality, speaking speed, pitch, etc. may sometimes unnecessarily prejudice the receiver of the message.
- c. Paralanguage cannot be uniform.

Besides the above, time also communicates. Time tells us when to communicate a particular message, and when not to communicate. The messages delivered at proper times are likely to evoke positive response and those delivered at improper times may not yield desirable results.

17.5 Let Us Sum Up

Non-verbal communication is an unspoken or unwritten message that uses body language. The incongruence between verbal and non-verbal communication leads to confusion and sometimes

even to communication failure. Non-verbal communication includes kinesics, proxemics and paralanguage. Kinesics stands for the way the body communicates without words. Proxemics is the study of how we communicate with the space around us. Space language, distance wise, can be categorized into Intimate Space, Personal Space, Social Space and Public Space. Paralanguage involves the how of a speaker's voice or the way he speaks. Time is a major determinant for the initiation of a communication. The effective use of kinesics, proxemics and paralanguage helps the speaker in making him a successful communicator.

17.6 Review Questions

1. Answer to the following questions should not exceed 20 words each:
 - a) Define non-verbal communication.
 - b) How is non-verbal communication associated with cultural content?
 - c) What does non-verbal communication include?
 - d) Which form of communication forms the larger part of overall communication activity?
 - e) What is kinesics?
 - f) What is proxemics?
 - g) What is time language?
 - h) What is paralanguage?
 - i) What are the two types of Space?
2. Answer to the following questions should not exceed 250 words each:
 - a) Discuss the effective use, advantages and limitations of kinesics.
 - b) Discuss the Space language (distance wise).
 - c) Discuss the various means, advantages and limitations of paralanguage.
3. Answer to the following question should not exceed 500 words:
 - a) What is non-verbal communication? What are its various types? Discuss in detail.

17.7 Bibliography

1. Agrawal, S. K. and P. K. Singh: Effective Business Communication, Himanshu, 2007.
2. Bovee, Thill, Schatzman: Business Communication Today, Pearson, 2003.
3. Fisher, Dalmer: Communication in Organizations, Jaico, 2003
4. Sharma, R.C. and Krishna Mohan: Business Correspondence and Report Writing, Tata McGraw, 2003.
5. Sinha, K.K.: Business Communication, Galgotia, 003

UNIT-18

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Structure

- 18.0 Objectives
- 18.1 Introduction
- 18.2 Research Acumen
- 18.3 Research Paper
- 18.4 The Role of Libraries
- 18.5 Preparing the list of Works Cited
- 18.6 Sample Entries : Books
- 18.7 Sample Entries : Articles in Periodicals
- 18.8 Sample Entries: Miscellaneous Print & Non-print
- 18.9 Sample Entries : Electronic Publications/Sources
- 18.10 Documenting Sources
- 18.11 Placing and Punctuating the Parenthetical Reference
- 18.12 Citing Sources: Examples
- 18.13 Using Notes and Parenthetical References
- 18.14 Quoting Sources
- 18.15 Summarizing and Paraphrasing Sources
- 18.16 Avoiding Plagiarism
- 18.17 Let Us Sum Up
- 18.18 Review Questions
- 18.19 Bibliography

18.0 Objectives

This unit explains the style recommended by the Modern Language Association (MLA) for documenting sources in research.

It also analyzes some of the implications of MLA style for your research

MLA style has three main features:

- All sources cited in a paper/chapter are listed in Works cited located at the end.
- Material borrowed from another sources is documented within the text in parenthetical

reference

- Numbered footnotes/endnotes are used to present two types of supplementary information:
 - (i) commentary or explanation
 - (ii) bibliographical notes that contain several source citations

18.1 Introduction

A dissertation is an ambitious and sophisticated document for communicating information and knowledge at a higher level. It has its strategies, rules and regulations of documentation and presentation. The research assignment is essentially a detailed presentation of ideas, using external sources to substantiate. It is not simply a rehash of those sources.

The MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers Joseph Gibaldi and Walter S. Achtert is like the sacrosanct Bible for research scholars. One should become thoroughly familiar with its contents and consult it frequently while documenting the dissertation.

18.2 Research Acumen

A research scholar should identify the area of his research specifically. It should be the area of his interest because he has to be preoccupied with it for a long time. If it is not the topic of his interest, it will be unendurably monotonous. The topic must be, therefore, mypoeic and specific: it should be studied both intensively and extensively to have a high voltage impact on the readers.

An in-depth study of the primary sources is essential for a research scholar and he should go through the secondary sources to evolve his own critical perspective. He should exhibit his first-hand acquaintance with the primary sources. A research scholar should have the courage of his conviction. If he has strong argument and evidence, he should not hesitate to attack reputed critics on the subject. He should assert himself. Research work is very time-consuming activity. Documentation of a Ph.D. thesis is not a cup of instant coffee. A term paper is a toy gun performance but a doctoral dissertation is Klashnicov or AK-47 rifle performance to hit the target. All research is a quest of truth: it is an attempt to contribute originally to the existing fund of knowledge on the given subject. A research paper is not 'a loose sally of the mind.' It is not a piece of maudlin sentimentality but a coherent, cohesive argument with a logical and dialectical pattern.' It is a product of cerebral exercise.

18.3 Research Paper

A research paper is a form of written communication. Like other forms of non-fiction writing- letters, memos, reports, essays, articles and books it should present information and ideas clearly and effectively. Students, when they are asked to research papers, become obsessively pre-occupied with gathering material, notes, compiling bibliography and documenting sources. Here is a formal staircase of expository writing.

- (a) If given a choice, subject which interests the research scholar, should be worked out within the stipulated time.
- (b) A research scholar should determine his objective in writing the paper and, then, proceed to

describe, explain, argue, interpret the topic.

- (c) A researcher should bear in mind his audience- specialists or generalists.
- (d) He should develop a thesis statement expressing the central idea of his paper.
- (e) He should arrange the material appropriately.
- (f) He should define, classify, analyse, compare and contrast wherever necessary.
- (g) He should prepare in advance an elaborate outline and stick to it while writing the paper.
- (h) He should first write a preliminary draft, with introduction, body and conclusion.
- (i) He should go through the tentative draft critically and try to improve it, revising, rearranging, adding words and phrases to make it effective.
- (j) He should iron out the words and phrases which are stale and unattractive, This procedure should be followed with all drafts and chapters of the ambitious thesis.
- (k) He should proofread the final draft by making final corrections.

Though a research paper has much in common with other forms of writing, it differs from many of them in relying on source of information other than the writer's personal knowledge and experience. A research paper adds to the writer's knowledge and experience and lends authority to his ideas and opinions because it is not a collection of other scholar's ideas but a carefully constructed presentation of the topic-oriented area.

The components of the research paper or thesis are straight forward: a title capturing succinctly the problem of the field researched, an introduction, several chapters of research findings and other common features are the preface, acknowledgments, footnotes, analysis, conclusion, bibliography. A research paper or a term paper is proposition that is stated formally and maintained with arguments, suitable evidences and proofs. It is more or less an essay that is presented by a research scholar in partial fulfilment of the requirement of a university degree. It is a scholarly, organized piece of writing on a given topic, fairly documented with bibliographical references and quotations from learned works on the subject. A researcher has to adapt and absorb the material to create a new perspective. A researcher happens to be a well-read and highly motivated person: he is a scholar-critic.

18.4 The Role of Libraries

All good libraries have desks staffed by professional reference librarians to help one locate information. Research scholars devote many hours to the library every day. Visiting the library is different from visiting a shrine, vegetable market or an exhibition; it is to be absorbed in the world of books which breathe the spirit of knowledge.

Libraries play a significant role in rendering help to researchers. Generally the librarian is a knowledgeable person in tracking down books. Many research scholars go to study at the American Studies Research Centre (ASRC), Hyderabad which has a richly stocked library. They stay there for a few months to collect material as honey bees hover over fragrant flowers to collect honey in the garden. Research scholars collect voluminous notes and return with a waggon load of xeroxed material. Some research scholars collect so much material that may take the whole life time to

organize. One should be very judicious in collecting essential and relevant material. If irrelevant material is stuffed unnecessarily into a chapter, the supervisor may cross out paragraph after paragraph and insist on revising and revamping the whole chapter; it is a heart-rending experience. Reading for research is a training in how to read well purposively, systematically and methodically. The majority of the candidates suffer due to very scanty material. It is unfortunate if there is not enough information to make a sizable chapter. A good research paper is one in which the entire material gravitates towards establishing a theory or principle or argument.

The Central Catalogue

The initial step in getting to know the library is learning to use the central card catalogue, and if files are stored in a computer, the online catalogue. Books are usually listed in the catalogue by author, title and subject. Author cards, title cards and subject cards are arranged alphabetically to form a catalogue. There are two systems of classification- The Dewey decimal system and the Library of congress system.

The Dewey decimal System $\frac{u}{r}$ 10 Headings

000	General works
100	Philosophy
200	Religion
300	Social Sceinces
400	Language
500	Natural Science
600	Technology and applied sceinces
700	Fine Arts
800	Literature
900	History and geography

The library of congress system divides books $\frac{u}{r}$ 20 Headings.

A	General Works
B	Philosophy and religion
C	General History
D	Foreign History
E-F	American History
G	Geography and Anthropology
H	Social Sciences
J	Political Sciences
K	Law

L	Education
M	Music
N	Fine Arts
P	Language and Literature
O	Science
P	Medicine
S	Agriculture
T	Technology
U	Military Science
V	Naval Science
Z	Bibliography and library Sc.

Note- If one knows the author of a book, one can locate it by consulting the author's card.
For example

Ps 3521A7255Z462	is the designation by which the book is shelved in the library.
Ps3521	
A7255	
Z462	
Kauffmann, Stanley (1916-)	Albums of early life, New Haven
ISBN089919-S15-4	

One should seek the librarian's/booklifter's help to get hold of the book. Locating the books in the library is like fishing in a large lake. When using an online catalogue, a research scholar can locate books by author, title and subject but instead of flipping through library cards and moving from one drawer to another, one can conduct the search by typing appropriate information and commands on the keyboard of a computer terminal. If one enters the author's full name, the screen displays a list of books by the author. When the book is selected, the screen shows the same bibliographical information for the book as a library card could.

Reference Books

Dictionaries, encyclopaedias, biographical works, year books, atlases, gazetteers etc are most widely used. *Oxford English Dictionary*, *Webster's Dictionary*, *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, *Oxford Companion to Literature* are readily available in any library. Books are kept either on open shelves or in closed stacks. If a research scholar wishes to lay his hands on a book in closed stacks, a slip about the book is given to a library staff member who locates the book within no time. Some books are placed in the reference section. They are "not to be issued" outside the library. But such titles can be consulted and studied in the reading room. The computer has made the collection of data much easier. What a research scholar collected fifty years ago in a few months, can be col-

lected by the present research scholar in half an hour.

Primary and Secondary Sources

Suppose you are working on the novels of Charles Dickens, his novels constitute the primary sources and critical books, review articles etc written by others are the secondary sources for your thesis. Whatever has been written by Charles Dickens comes under the umbrella of primary sources. If you are working on Shakespeare, *Macbeth*, *Hamlet*, *King Lear*, *The Merchant of Venice*, *As You Like It* etc are primary sources but A.C. Bradley's *Shakespearean Tragedy* and Moulton's *Shakespeare as a Dramatic Artist* are secondary sources. If one happens to work on Milton, *Paradise Lost*, *Samson Agonistes*, *Comus*, etc are primary sources. Critical articles in learned magazines, journals and newspapers are secondary sources. The subject bibliography is available in good libraries to facilitate the researchers.

Compiling a Tentative Bibliography

Every research scholar has to compile a working bibliography. His preliminary reading on the topic enables him to identify a few titles which he has to examine. His further reading leads him to additional important sources. His list of bibliography, therefore, gets frequently changed as new titles are added, and a few are eliminated. The working bibliography evolves into the final bibliography. Some supervisors recommend index cards in compiling the working bibliography- one card for his source. Index cards allow much greater flexibility than a continuous list on a single sheet of paper. One can arrange and rearrange one's sources in terms of alphabetical or chronological order. Complete bibliographical information should be noted on an index card. If there is an article from a learned journal, Volume No. and dates of publication should be checked as well.

Geherin, David: The American Private Eye: The Image of Fiction. New York: Ungar 1985.

Abrams, M.H.: A Glossary of Literary Terms. 3rd ed. Macmillan. 2004

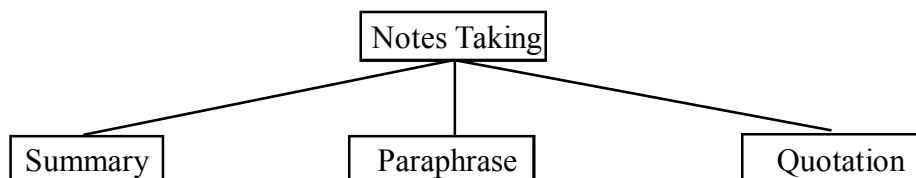
Taking Notes

A research scholar makes copious notes on the topic he has been assigned to work on. Usually notes are taken without much judicious consideration whether they are going to be meaningfully utilised. If a research scholar rationalises the available material, he can make relevant notes with an economy of effort and time. No two researchers would make identical notes nor do their methods agree. Some take notes on a second set of index cards; others write notebooks- beginning each new entry on a fresh page; still others make use of loose leaves clipped together. On the top of the page or card, the bibliographical information should be noted to minimise the problem of documentation later on. A research scholar must be thorough and concise in making notes: accuracy is the keyword in the context in summary, paraphrase and quotation.

First of all one should glance through voluminous books in the Reference Section. Going through the *Contents* page helps you immensely. If the book is from the reference section, it is not issued to you for taking home, so you have to sit in a quiet corner reading it and taking notes. If the book is from the lending section, the book can be issued to the members who can study it leisurely at home. Now the specific pages, chapters or the whole books are xeroxed instead of taking copious notes. Usually students have a bad habit of underlining the text and distorting page after page. A

good researcher should evolve the sensibility to judge what is **relevant** and what is not in the text he happens to study. Besides it is of extreme importance that you be brief while making notes. Excessive elaboration on a few points would invariably result in your missing out completely on some others. Moreover, it is useful to avoid ambiguity. Vague or illegible writing may later result in poor recall or, worse still, a misrepresentation of fact and figures.

There are, generally speaking, three methods of note taking



A research scholar should summarise if only the general impression is to be recorded out of an elaborate text. If he does not quote the exact words specific sentences or paragraphs he can paraphrase which means to redraft or rephrase or restate the material in his own words. If any phrase or word or sentence or clause is quite impressive it should be quoted ad verbatim with adequate quotation marks to distinguish it from summary or paraphrase. He can note down the page on the margin for ready reference the material he summarises, paraphrases or quotes and the change of page.

Avoiding Plagiarism

Plagiarism is the act of using someone else's ideas or expression as one's own without acknowledging the source. Alexander Lindsey defines the tendency as "the false assumption of authorship: the wrongful act of taking product of another person's mind, and presenting it as one's own (Lindsey, Alexander: *Plagiarism and Originality*. New York. Harper, 1952,p2) Plagiarism means that one has thought or written something which one has actually borrowed from someone else.

Plagiarism in students' writings in academic parlance, is regarded unintentional. A student who is assigned a topic to write some information by way of exercise, copies out ad verbatim from his text book,. Moreover, at the secondary level, they are ignorant about research methodology. They are, however, familiar with the word quotation which they use in the sense of a witty statement. The very notion of acknowledging the authorship is absent there. Plagiarism, as soon as it is detected, gives a poor impression about the man. For example, we want to use the information in the following passage which occurs in Williams and Gibson's book *Literary History of the United States* (Vol. I New York Macmillan 1974)(p.906) "The major concerns of Emily Dicknson's poetry early and late, her "flood subjects." may be defined as the seasons and nature, death and a problematic after life, the kinds and phases of love, and poetry as divine art."

The information may be paraphrased (referring to the authors): Gibson and Williams suggest that the chief subjects of Emily Dickinson's poetry include nature, death, love and poetry as a divine art. (Gibson, William M., and Stanley T. Williams: "Experiment in Poetry: Emily Dickinson and Sidney Laner" *Literary History of the United States*. ed. Robert E.Spiller etal. 4th ed. Vol.I New York. Macmillan. 1974 pp.899-916) The bibliographical information may be not at the end of the article.

18.5 Preparing the list of Works Cited

The list of works cited appears at the end of your paper and, as its title suggests, lists only the works you have cited in your paper. That list would include not only the sources you cite but also the sources you consulted as you conducted your research. In either case, MLA prefers Works Cited or Works Consulted to the more limited heading Bibliography.

18.6 Sample Entries: Books

A Book by One Author

- light, Richard J. *Making the Most of College: Students Speak Their Minds*. Cambridge: Harvard UP, 2001.

Two or More Books by the Same Author

- Rose, Mike, *lives on the Boundary: The Struggles and Achievements of America c Underprepared*. New York: Free, 1989.
- *The Mind at Work. Valuing the Intelligence of the American Worker*]New York: Viking, 2004.

A Book by Two or Three Authors

- Whynn, Charles M., and Arthur Wiggins. *Quantum leaps in the Wrong Direction: Where Real Science Ends. . . and Pseudoscience Begins*. Washington: National Academy, 2001.
- Peel, Robin, Annette Patterson, and Jeanne Gerlach. *Questions of English: Ethics, Aesthetics, Rhetoric and the Formation of the Subject in England, Australia, and the United States*. London: Routledge, 2000.

A Book by Four or More Authors

- lassiter, luke Eric, et al. *The Other Side of Middletown: Exploring Muncie African American Community*. Walnut Creek, CA : AltaMira, 2004.

A Book by a Corporate Author

- National Geographic Society. *Cradle and Crucible: History and Faith in the Middle East*. Washington: National Geographic, 2002.

A Book by an Anonymous Author

- *Literary Market Place 2001 : The Dictionary of the American Book Publishing Industry*. New Providence, NJ : Bowker, 2000.

A Book with an Editor

- Jackson, Kenneth T., ed. *The Encyclopedia of New York City*. New Haven: Yale UP 1995.

A Book with an Author and an Editor

- Toomer, Jean, Cane, Ed. *Darwin*. T. Turner, New York: Norton, 1988.

A Book with a Publisher's Imprint

- Hillenbrand, Laura. *Seabiscuit: An American Legend*. New York: Ballantine-Random, 2001.
An Anthology or Compilation
- Smith, Barbara Leigh, and John McCann, ed. *Reinventing Ourselves: Interdisciplinary Education, Collaborative Learning, and Experimentation in Higher Education*. Bolton, MA: Ankar, 2001.
A Work in an Anthology
- Peterson, Rai. "My Tribe outside the Global Village." *Visual Media and the Humanities: A Pedagogy of Representation*. Ed. Kecia Driver McBride. Knoxville: U of Tennessee P.2 004
An Introduction, Preface, Foreword, or Afterword
- Shulman, Lee S. Foreword, *Disciplinary Styles in the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*. Eds. Mary Taylor Huber and Sheryn P. Morreale. Washington: American Assn. of Higher Educ., 2002.
A Multi volume Work
- Blotner, Joseph. *Faulkner: A Biography*, 2 vols. New York: Random, 1974.
An Edition Other Than the First
- Chaucer, Geoffrey. *The Riverside Chaucer* 3rd ed. Ed. Larry D. Benson, Boston: Houghton, 1967.
A Book in a Series
- Eggers, Dave, ed. *The Best American Nonrequired Reading*, 2004. The Best American Series. Boston: Houghton, 2004.
A Republished Book
- Malamud, Bernard. *The Natural*. 1952, New York: Avon, 1980.
A Signed Article in a Reference Book
- Tobias, Richard. "Thurber, James." *Encyclopedia Americana*. 2002 ed.
A Government Document
- National Commission on Terrorist Attacks upon the United States. *The 9/11 Commission Report: Final Report of the National Commission on Terrorists Attacks upon the United States*. Washington: GPO, 2004.
Published Proceeding of a Conference
- Sass, Steven A., and Robert K. Triest. *Social Security Reform: Conference Proceedings: Links to Saving, Investment and Growth*. Boston: Fed. Reserve Bank of Boston, 1997.
A Translation
- Giroud, Françoise. *Marie Curie: A Life*, Trans. Lydia Davis. New York: Holmes, 1986.

A book with a Title in its Title

- Habich, Robert D, *Transcendentalism and the Western Messenger: A History of the magazine and Its Contributors, 1835-184*]. Rutherford: Fairleigh Dickinson UP, 1985.

An Unpublished Dissertation

- Geissinger, Shirley Burry. "openness versus Secrecy in Adoptive Parenthood." Diss. U of North Carolina at Greensboro, 1984.

A Published Dissertation

- Schotter, Beverly A. *A Handbook for Dealing with Plagiarism in Public Schools*. Diss. Kansas State U, 2003 Ann Arbor: UMI, 2004. AAT 3113929.

18.7 Sample Entries: Articles in Periodicals

A Signed Article from a Daily Newspaper

- Glanz, James. "Iraqi Insurgents step Up Attacks after Elections." *New York Times* 13 Feb. 2005, late ed.: A1.

An Unsigned Article from a Daily Newspaper

- "Sunnis Worry of Future in New Shiite-run Iraq." *Chicago Tribune* 13 Feb. 2005, sec. 1: 16+.

An Article from monthly or Bimonthly Magazine

- Fallows, James. "Success without Victory." *Atlantic Monthly* Jan.—Feb. 2005: 80-90.

An Article from a Weekly or Biweekly Magazine

- Mayer, Jane. "Outsourcing Torture." *New Yorker* 14-21 Feb. 2005: 106-23.

An Article in a Journal with Continuous Pagination

- Flower, Linda. "Intercultural Inquiry and the Transformation of Service." *College English* 65 (2002): 181-201.

An Article in a Journal that Numbers Pages in Each Issue Separately

- Madden, Thomas F. "Revisiting the Crusades." *Wilson Quarterly* 26. 4 (2002): 100-103.

An Editorial

- "Poverty and Health." Editorial. *Washington Post* 31 Aug. 2004: A20.

A Review

- Nathan, Daniel A. "Of Grades and Glory: Rethinking Intercollegiate Athletics." Rev. of *The Game of Life: College Sports and Educational Values*, by James I. Shulman and William G. Brown. *American Quarterly* 54.1 (2002): 139-47.

An Article Whose Title Contains a Quotation or a Title Within Quotation marks

- Decuii Andre I. "Italy, England and the female Artist in George Eliot's *Mr. Gilfil's love-*

Story.” *Studies in Short Fiction* 29 (1992): 67-75.

An Abstract from *Dissertation Abstracts or Dissertation Abstracts International*

- Creek, Mardena Bridges. “Myth, Wound, Accommodation: American literary Responses to the War in Vietnam.” *DA143* (1982): 3539A.

18.8 Sample Entries: Miscellaneous Print and Nonprint Sources

Films; Radio and Television Programs

- Chicago. Dir. Rob Marshall. With Renee Zellweger, Catherine Zeta-Jones, Richard Gere. Miramax, 2002.
- “New York, New York (1944-1951)” leonard Bernstein-An American lfe. Prods. Steve Howland and lanyAbrams. NPR, WBST, Muncie, 18 Jan.2005
- “Seeds of Destruction.” Slavery and the Making ofAmerica. Prod. Clara Gazit. PBS. WNET, New York, 16 Feb., 2006

Recordings

If you are not referring to an audio recording on a CD, then add the medium before the manufacturer.

- Mozart, Wolfgang A. Cost Fan Tutte. Record With Kin Te Kanawa, Frederica von Stacle, David Rendall, and Phillippe Huttenlocher. Cond. Alain lombard. Strasbourg Philharmonic Orch. IP. RCA. 1978.
- Jones, North. Come Away with Me. Blue Note, 2002

Works of Art

- Botticelli, Sandro Gullano de ‘Medici. Samuel H. Kress Collection. National Gallery of Art, Washington.
- Rodin. Auguste. The Gates ofHell. Rodin Museum. Paris.

Interviews

- Ellison, Ralph. “Indivisible Man.” Interview. By James Alan McPherson. *Atlantic* Dec. 1970: 45-60
- Martone, Michael Telephone interview. 6 Jan. 2005
- Patterson, Annette. E-mail interview. 16 Feb. 2005.

Maps and Charts

- Wine Country Map. Map. Napa Valley: Wine Zone, 2004.
- lufthansa. Advertisement. *New Yorker* 11 Oct. 2004: 27

lectures, Speeches, and Addresses

- Paglia, Camille. “Art and Poetry v. Hollywood and Media.” 92t Street YMCA, New York. 28 March. 2005

- Scholes, Robert. "The Presidential Address." MLA Convention. Philadelphia. 29 Dec.2004
Published and Unpublished letters
- Fitzgerald, F. Scott. "To Ernest Hemingway." 1 June 1934. The letters of F Scott
Fitzgerald Ed. Andrew Turnbull. New York: Scribner 's, 1963. 308-10
- Stowe, Harriet Beecher. letter to George Eliot. 25 May 1869. Berg Collection. New York
Public lib., NewYork

18.9 Sample Entries: Electronic Publications

When citing information from an electronic source, provide the following general categories of information:

- Author's last name, first name. "Article Title" or Book title, Publication information for any printed version. Or subject line of forum or discussion group. Indication of online posting or home page. Title of Electronic Journal. Date of electronic publication. Page numbers or the numbers of paragraphs or sections. Name of institution or organization sponsoring Web site. Date of access to the source(URL).

A Professional Site

MLA Style 10 Jan.2005. Modern language Association. 17 Feb. 2005 <<http://www.mla.org>>

A Home Page for a Course

- Papper, Carole Clark. Writing technologies. Course home page. January 2005-May 2005. Dept. of English, Ball State U. 17 Feb 2005 <http://www.bsu.edu/Jweb/cpapoe> 692>

A Personal Site

- Hawisher, Gail. Home page. U of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign. 26 March 2003 <http://www.english.uiuc.edu/facpages/Hawisher.htm>>.

An Online Book

- Anderson, Sherwood. IT's nesburg. Ohio. 1919. Bartleby.com: great Books Online. 1999 17 Feb. 2005 <<http://www.bartleby.com/1156/index.html>>

An Online Poem

- Roethke, Theodore. "My Papa's Waltz." Favorite Poem Project. 5 May 2003 <<http://www.favoritepoem.org/poems/roethke/waltz/html>>.

An Article in a Scholarly Journal

- Butler, Darell I., and Martin Selibom. "Barriers to Adopting Technology for Teaching and learning." Educause Quarterly 25.2 (2002): 22-28. Educause. 17 Feb. 2005 <<http://www.educause.edu/ir/library/pdf/eqm0223.pdf>>.

An Article in a Reference Database

- "Women in American History." Britannica Online. Vers. 98.1.1. Nov. 1997. Encyclopaedia Britannica. 10 Jan. 2005 <http://wwwweb.com>.

An Article in a Magazine

- Glasser, Ronald J. "We Are Not Immune." *Harper's* Oct. 2004. 12 Dec. 2004 <<http://www.harpers.org/?WeAreNOTImmune.html>>.

A Review

- Chabon, Michale. "Inventing Sherlock Holmes." Rev. of *The New Annotated Sherlock Holmes*, Vols. 1 and 2, by Sir Arthur Conan Doyle. Ed. Leslie S. Klinger. New York: Review of Books, 10 Feb. 2005. 17 Feb. 2005 <<http://www.nybooks.com/articles/17718>>.
- A Posting to a Discussion Group

Inman, James. "Re: Technologist." Online posting. 24 Sept. 1997. Alliance for Computers in Writing. 27 Feb. 2005. <acw.1@unicorn.acs.ttu.edu>

A Personal E-mail Message

Johnson, Alfred B. "Audio Interactive Awards." E-mail to James W. Miles. 14 Feb. 2005.

CD-ROM: Periodical Publication with Printed Source or Printed Analogue West, Comel. "The Dilemma of the Black Intellectual." *Critical Quarterly* 29(1987): 39-52. MLA International Bibliography. CD-ROM SilverPlatter. Feb. 1995.

CD-ROM: Nonperiodical Publication "Entropy." *The Oxford English Dictionary*. 2nd ed. CD-ROM. Oxford, Eng.: Oxford UP, 1992.

CD-ROM : A Work in More Than One Electronic Medium Mozart. CD-ROM, laser disk. Union City, CA: Ebook, 1992

18.10 Documenting Sources

The purpose of a parenthetical reference is to document a source briefly, clearly, and accurately. Brevity can be accomplished in three ways.

Cite the author's last name and the page number (s) of the source in parentheses. One historian argues that since the invention of television "our politics, religion, news, athletics, education and commerce have been transformed into congenial adjuncts of show business, largely without protest or even much popular notice" (Postman 3-4).

Use the author's last name in your sentence, and place only the page number(s) of the source in parentheses.

Postman points out that since the invention of television "our politics, religion, news, athletics, education and commerce have been transformed into congenial adjuncts of show business, largely without protest or even much popular notice" (3-4).

Give the author's last name in your sentence when you are citing the entire work rather than a specific section or passage, and omit any parenthetical reference.

Postman argues that television has changed virtually every aspect of our culture into a forum of show business.

Each of those in-text references is brief and clear and refers readers to a specific and

complete citation listed in Works Cited. The citation looks like this:

Works Cited

Postman, Neil. *Amusing Ourselves to Death: Public Discourse in the Age of Show Business*. New York: Penguin-Viking, 1985.

18.11 Placing and Punctuating the Parenthetical Reference

MLA recommends placing the parenthetical reference at the end of the sentence but before the final period.

In the nineteenth century, the supposed golden age of American education “college faculties acted as disciplinary tribunals, periodically reviewing violations of rules. . . .” (Graff 25).

On some occasions, you may want to place the reference within your sentence to clarify its relationship to the part of the sentence it documents. In such instances, place the reference at the end of the clause but before the necessary comma.

Graff suggests that even though college faculties in the nineteenth century “acted as disciplinary tribunals, periodically reviewing violations of rules” (25), the myth persists that they taught in the golden age of American education.

When the reference documents a long quotation that is set off from the text, place it at the end of the passage but after the final period. (see pages 24-25 for a discussion of long quotations.)

Gerald Graff’s description of the college in the nineteenth century corrects the popular myth about the golden age of American education:

College faculties acted as disciplinary tribunals, periodically reviewing violations of rules such as those requiring students to attend chapel services early every morning, to remain in their rooms for hours every day, and to avoid the snares of town. Nor were these restrictions relaxed for the many students in their late twenties or older, who lived alongside freshmen as young as fourteen. The classes themselves, conducted by the system of daily recitations, were said to have “the fearsome atmosphere of a police-station.” (25)

Works Cited

Graff, Gerald. *Professing literature: An Institutional History*. Chicago: U of Chicago P, 1987.

18.12 Citing Sources : Examples

Frequently, you will need to cite sources that are not as straightforward as the examples given above. In those cases, you will need to modify the standard format according to the variations illustrated below. Each example is followed by the appropriate entry that would appear in the list of works cited.

Citing one work by the author of two or more works

If your list of works cited contains two or more titles by the same author, place a comma after the author’s last name, add a shortened version of the title of the work, and then supply the

relevant page numbers. Another solution is to cite the author's last name and title in your sentence and then add the page numbers in a parenthetical reference.

Once society reaches a certain stage of industrial growth, it will shift its energies to the production of services (Toffler, *Future* 221).

Toffler argues in *The Third Wave* that society has gone through two eras (agricultural and industrial) and is now entering another: the information age (26).

Works Cited

Toffler, Alvin. *Future Shock*. New York: Random, 1970.

The Third Wave. New York: Morrow, 1980.

Citing one work by an author who has the same last name as another author in your list of works cited

When your list contains sources by two or more authors with the same last name, avoid confusion by adding the initial of the author's first name in the parenthetical reference and the author's first name in your sentence. In the list of works cited, alphabetize the two authors according to first name.

Critics have often debated the usefulness of the psychological approach to literary interpretation (F.Hoffman 317).

Daniel Hoffman argues that folklore and myth provide valuable insights for the literary critic (9-15).

Works Cited

Hoffman, Daniel G. *Form and Fable in American Fiction*. New York: Oxford UP, 1961.

Hoffman, Frederick J. *Freudianism and the literary Mind*. Baton Rouge: Louisiana State UP, 1945.

Citing a multivolume work

If you are citing one volume from a multivolume work, indicate in your parenthetical reference the specific volume you used.

William Faulkner's initial reluctance to travel to Stockholm to receive the Nobel Prize produced considerable consternation in the American embassy (Blotner 2: 1347).

Works Cited

Blotner, Joseph. *Faulkner: A Biography*. 2 vols. New York: Random, 1974.

Citing a work by more than one author

If you are citing a book by two or three authors, you may supply their last names in a parenthetical reference or in your sentence. To sustain the readability of your sentence if you are citing a book by four or more authors, use the first author's last name and "et.al" ("and others") in a parenthetical reference or in your sentence.

Boller and Story interpret the Declaration of Independence as Thomas Jefferson's attempt

to list America's grievances against England (2:62).

Other historians view the Declaration of Independence as Jefferson's attempt to formulate the principles of America's political philosophy (Norton et.al 141).

Works Cited

Boller, Paul F., Jr., and Ronald Story. *A More Perfect Union: Documents in US. History*. 2 vols. 5th ed. Boston: Houghton, 2000.

Norton, Mary Beth, et al. *A People and a Nation: A History of the United States*. 6th ed. Boston: Houghton, 2001.

Citing a work by title

In the list of works cited, alphabetize works by anonymous authors according to the first main word in the title. The initial articles a, an, and the are not counted as first words. A shortened version of the title—or the title itself, if it is short—replaces the author's last name in the text citation or parenthetical reference. If you shorten the title, be sure to begin with the word that the source is alphabetized by in the list of works cited.

The recent exhibit of nineteenth-century patent models at the Cooper-Hewitt Museum featured plans for such inventions as the Rotating Blast-Producing Chair, an Improved Creeping-Doll, and the life-Preserving Coffin: In Doubtful Cases of Actual Death ("Talk").

Notice that this example follows MLA's recommendation to omit page numbers in a parenthetical reference when citing a one-page article.

Works Cited

"The Talk of the Town." *New Yorker* 16 July 1984:23.

Citing a work by a corporate author or government agency

If the author of your source is a corporation or a government agency, you may include the appropriate citation within parentheses (AT&T 3). It is more graceful, however, to include this information in our sentence, particularly if you are citing several corporate or government reports in one text.

AT &T's Annual Report for 2001 announced that the corporation had reached a turning point in its history (3).

Works Cited

AT & T. *Annual Report 2001*. New York: AT&T, 2002.

Citing literary works

Because literary works—novels, plays, poems—are available in many editions, MLA recommends that you provide information in addition to page numbers so readers using editions different from yours can locate the passage you are citing. After the page number, add a semicolon and other appropriate information, using lowercase abbreviations such as pt., sec., ch.

Although Flaubert sees Madame Bovary for what she is - - a silly, romantic woman - - he insists that "none of us can ever express the exact measure of his needs or his thoughts or

his sorrows” and that all of us “long to make music that will melt the stars” (216; pt.2, ch. 12).

Works Cited

Flaubert, Gustave. *Madame Bovary: Patterns of Provincial life*. Trans. Francis Steegmuller. New York: Modern Library-Random., 1957.

When citing classic verse plays and poems, omit all page numbers and document by division(s) and line(s), using periods to separate the various numbers. You can also use appropriate abbreviations to designate certain well-known works. For example, Od.8.326 refers to book 8, line 326, of Homer’s *Odyssey*. Do not use the abbreviation I or II to indicate lines because the letters can be confused with numbers.

Also, as shown in the *Odyssey* citation given above, use Arabic numerals rather than roman numerals to indicate divisions and page numbers. Some teachers still prefer to use roman numerals for documenting acts and scenes in plays (for example, *Macbeth* if. Iv). If your instructor does not insist on this practice, follow MLA style and use Arabic numerals (and appropriate abbreviations) to cite famous plays: *Mac*.3 .4.

Citing more than one work in a single parenthetical reference

If you need to include two or more works in a single parenthetical reference, document each reference according to the normal pattern, but separate each citation with a semicolon.

(Oleson 59; Trimble 85; Hylton 63)

Work Cited

Hylton, Marion Willard. “On a Trail of Pollen: Momaday’s *House Made of Dawn*. “Critique:

Studies in Modern Fiction 14.2 (1972): 60-69.

Oleson, Carole. “The Remembered Earth: Momaday’s *House Made of Dawn*. “*South Dakota Review* 11(1973): 59-78.

Trimble, Martha Scott. N. Scott Momaday. *Boise State College Western Writers Series* Boise: Boise State Col., 1973.

Although MLA style provides this procedure for documenting multiple citations within a parenthetical reference, MLA recommends citing multiple sources in a numbered bibliographic note rather than parenthetically in the text so the flow of the text is not interrupted.

18.13 Using Notes and Parenthetical References

In MLA style, notes (preferably endnotes) are reserved for two specific purposes.

To supply additional commentary on the information in the text

Thurber’s reputation continued to grow until the 1950s, when he was forced to give up drawing because of his blindness.

Note

Thurber’s older brother accidentally shot him in the eye with an arrow when they were

children, causing the immediate loss of that eye. He gradually lost the sight of the other eye because of complications from the accident and a cataract.

To list (and perhaps evaluate) several sources or to refer readers to additional sources. The argument that American policy in Vietnam was on the whole morally justified has come under attack from many quarters.

Note

For a useful sampling of opinion, see Draper 32 and Nardin and Slater 437.

Notice that the sources cited in this note are documented like parenthetical references, and the note itself directs readers to the complete citation in the list of works cited.

Works Cited

Draper, Theodore. "Ghosts of Vietnam." *Dissent* 26(1979): 30-41.

Nardin, Terry, and Jerome Slater. "Vietnam Revisited." *World Politics* 33 (1981): 436-48.

As illustrated above, a note is signaled with a superscript numeral (a numeral raised above the line) typed at an appropriate place in the text (most often at the end of a sentence, after the period). The note itself, identified by a matching number followed by a space, appears at the end of the text (an endnote) or at the bottom of the page (a footnote.). MLA recommends that you keep such notes to a minimum so readers are not distracted from your main point.

18.14 Quoting Sources

Although quoting an author's text word for word is the easiest way to record information, use this method selectively and quote only the passages that deal with information, use this method selectively and quote only the passages that deal directly with your subject in memorable language.

To move a quotation from your notes to your paper, making it fit smoothly into the flow of your text, use one of the following methods.

Work the quoted passage into the syntax of your sentence

Morrison points out that social context prevented the authors of slave narratives "from dwelling too long or too carefully on the more sordid details of their experience" (109).

Introduce the quoted passage with a sentence and a colon.

Commentators have tried to account for the decorum of most slave narratives by discussing social context: "popular taste discouraged the writers from dwelling too long or too carefully on the more sordid detail of their experience: (Morrison 109).

Set off the quoted passage with an introductory sentence followed by a colon.

This method is reserved for long quotations (four or more lines of prose; three or more lines of poetry). Double space the quotation, and indent it one inch (ten spaces) from the left margin. Because this special placement identifies the passage as a quotation, do not enclose it within quotation marks. Notice that the final period goes before rather than after the parenthetical reference. leave one space after the final period. If the long quotation extends to two or more paragraphs, then indent the first line of these additional paragraphs one quarter inch (three spaces).

Toni Morrison, in “The Site of Memory,” explains how social context shaped slave narratives:

No slave society in the history of the world wrote more - - or more thoughtfully - - about its own enslavement. The milieu, however, dictated the purpose and the style. The narratives are instructive, moral and obviously representative. Some of them are patterned after the sentimental novel that was in vogue at the time. But whatever the level of eloquence or the form, popular taste discouraged the writers from dwelling too long or too carefully on the more sordid details of their experience. (109).

18.15 Summarizing and Paraphrasing Sources

Summarizing and paraphrasing an author’s text are the most efficient ways to record information. A summary condenses the content of a lengthy passage. When you write a summary, you reformulate the main idea and outline the main points that support it. A paraphrase restates the content of a short passage. When you paraphrase. You reconstruct the passage phrase by phrase, recasting the author’s words your own.

The following examples illustrate two common methods of introducing a summary or a paraphrase into your paper.

Summary of a long quotation

Often, the best way to proceed is to name the author of a source in the body of your sentence and place the page numbers in parentheses. This procedure informs your reader that you are about to quote or paraphrase. It also gives you an opportunity to state the credentials of the authority you are citing.

Award-winning novelist Toni Morrison argues that although slaves wrote many powerful narratives, the context of their enslavement prevented them from telling the whole truth about their lives (109)

Paraphrase of a short quotation

You may decide to vary the pattern of documentation by presenting the information from a source and placing the author’s name and page numbers in parentheses at the end of the sentence. This method is particularly useful if you have already established the identity of your source in previous sentence and now want to develop the author’s ideas in some detail without having to clutter your sentences with constant references to his or her name.

Slave narratives sometimes imitated the popular fiction of their era (Morrison 109).
Works Cited

Morrison, Toni. “The Site of Memory.” *Inventing the Truth: The Art and Craft of Memoir*. Ed. William Zinsser. Boston: Houghton. 1987. 101-24.

18.16 Avoiding Plagiarism

Plagiarism is theft. It is using someone else’s words or ideas without giving proper credit—or without giving any credit at all—to the writer of the original. Whether plagiarism is intentional or unintentional, it is a serious offense that your instructor and school will deal with

severely. You can avoid plagiarism by adhering scrupulously to the following advice.

Document your sources whenever you

- Use a direct quotation
- Copy a table, chart, or other diagram
- Construct a table from data provided by others
- Summarize or paraphrase a passage in your own words
- Present specific examples, figures, or factual information that you have taken from a specific source and used to explain or support our judgments.

Take notes carefully, making sure that you identify quotations in your note cards or electronic files. Also, be sure to identify a passage in your notes that is summary or paraphrase..

Formulate and develop your own ideas, using your sources to support rather than replace your own work.

18.12 Let Us Sum Up

Learning the strategies, rules and regulations of documentation and presentation for a research scholar as he is on his way to preparing an ambitious and sophisticated document.

18.13 Review Questions

1. What is a bibliography ? How should the reference list be organised ? Explain with examples.
2. Explain with examples how would you document the following:
 - (i) a book written by a single author.
 - (ii) an article from an edited book.
 - (iii) an article from a research journal.
 - (iv) an article from a newspaper.
 - (v) a book authored by two persons.
3. How would you ascertain that the subject you have chosen to research has not been used by anyone ? Explain.
4. How many types of endnotes/footnotes are there ? Discuss.

18.13 Bibliography

1. Joseph Gibaldi, MIA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers, 61h ed. New York: MIA, 2003
2. Joseph F. Trimmer, A Guide to MIA Documentation 7th ed. New York : Houghton Muffin co.