

Comprehension & Communication Skills in English

Theory

- War Minus Shooting- The Sporting Spirit- George Orwell
- A Dilemma- A Layman looks at Science Raymond B. Fosdick.
- You and Your English -Spoken English and Broken English- G.B. Shaw.

Reading Comprehension, Vocabulary- Antonym, Synonym, Homophones, Homonyms, often confused words. Exercises to help the students in the enrichment of vocabulary based on TOEFL and other competitive examinations. Functional grammar: Articles, Prepositions, Verb, Subject verb Agreement, Transformation, Synthesis, Direct and Indirect Narration. Writing Skills: Paragraph writing, Precise writing, Report writing and Proposal writing. The Style: Importance of professional writing. Preparation of Curriculum Vitae and Job applications. Synopsis writing. Interviews: kinds, Importance and process.

Practical

Listening Comprehension: Listening to short talk, lectures, speeches (scientific, commercial and general in nature). Oral Communication: Phonetics, stress and intonation, Conversation practice. Conversation: rate of speech, clarity of voice, speaking and Listening, politeness & Reading skills: reading dialogues, rapid reading, intensive reading, improving reading skills. Mock Interviews: testing initiative, team spirit, leadership, intellectual ability. Group Discussion.

WAR MINUS SHOOTING

The Sporting Spirit

George Orwell

George Orwell (1903-1950), who was born in Bengal and educated in England, is well known for his greatest novel, *Animal Farm*, a masterly written political satire on the Russian revolution. His last work, *Nineteen Eighty-four*, is a grim forecast of the future of totalitarianism, written in the form of a readable novel. *The Sporting Spirit* first appeared in the *Tribune*, in December 1945 and is a refreshingly frank expression of Orwell's views on competitive games.

Summary

Introduction:

In the extremely competitive atmosphere in which sports is administered today, every player backed by every nation, would obviously have a strong temptation to take advantage of the gaps in the rule book, bending the rules to his favour, and conveniently interpreting the law to his advantage. Against this backdrop, George Orwell, pleads for the need to understand the importance of demonstrating sportsmanship and sets a good example on the sporting field for the others to emulate.

Sports as an Unfailing Cause of ill-will:

In his remarkable essay "The Sporting Spirit", Orwell grieves over the fact that sport is an unfailing cause of ill-will, and that the visit of the Russian football team *Dynamos*, has only worsened the Anglo-Soviet relations instead of strengthening it. Two of the four matches played led to much bad feeling. At the Arsenal match the referee was booed at. At the match in Glasgow, it was a free-for-all right from the start. According to Orwell, football was capable of provoking the vicious passions of patriotism, resulting in fresh animosity on both sides.

According to Orwell, the dictum that sports creates goodwill between the nations, is a great misnomer because, if the common peoples of the world could meet one another at football or cricket, they would not have any inclination to meet on the battlefield. Such is the ferocity and the fervour that flares up, leading to orgies of hatred, something similar to what happened in the 1936 Olympic Games, for instance.

Sports Played for Exercise and Sports Played for Prestige:

On the village green, when you pick up sides, no feeling of local patriotism is involved. The game is played simply for the fun and exercise. But, as soon as the question of prestige arises, and the moment you feel that you will be disgraced if you lose, the most savage

combative instincts are aroused. At the international level, sport is mimic warfare. More than the behaviour of the players, it is the attitude of the spectators that aggravates the situation. And that is because of a false notion that running, jumping and kicking a ball are tests of national virtue.

Even a leisurely game like cricket, demanding grace rather than strength, has caused a lot of ill-will, as seen in the controversy over body-line bowling in the 1921 match between Australia and England. Football, a game in which everyone gets hurt and every nation has its own style of play, is far worse. Worst of all is boxing. One of the most horrible sights in the world is a fight between white and coloured boxers before a mixed audience.

Modern Sport and its Ancient Origin:

Orwell then proceeds to inquire into how this modern cult of sport arose. Most of the games we play now are of ancient origin, but sport was not taken very seriously between Roman times and the nineteenth century. Even in the English public schools the games did not start till the later part of the twentieth century. So much that, Dr. Arnold, generally regarded as the founder of the modern public school, looked on games as simply a waste of time.

Sports today: Heavily Financed Activities:

But later on, chiefly in England and in the United States, games were built up into a heavily-financed activity, capable of attracting vast crowds and rousing savage passions, and the infection gradually spread from country to country. It is the most violently combative sports like football and boxing that have spread the widest. And the whole thing is bound up with the rise of nationalism. Even in the middle Ages games were played with much physical brutality but they were not mixed up with politics nor were they a cause of group hatreds.

Organised games like these are most likely to flourish in urban communities where the average human being lives a sedentary or confined life and does not get much opportunity for creative labour. For these urbanites, Orwell advocates that, when it is not possible to work off surplus energy by walking, swimming, climbing trees, riding horses, one must indulge in group activities if one wants an outlet for one's physical strength or for one's sadistic impulses.

Conclusion:

Orwell winds up his essay with a fervent plea for good sportsmanship, which, according to him, is one of the most desirable qualities in any great player. As the Olympic oath majestically declares, "in the true spirit of sportsmanship, for the glory of sport and the honour of our teams," every player should imbibe these qualities of sportsmanship which would go a long way in promoting the sporting spirit between nations.

War Minus Shooting- The Sporting Spirit

(Notes)

George Orwell expresses his views on competitive sports in the lesson War Minus Shooting, which also appeared as an article in Tribune in December 1945. He says that, in good golden days that are during Roman Times and in 19th century sports were not taken seriously. Some games like fishing, cockfighting and ferrying of rats did exist long ago, but they were unorganized and were meant only for the rustic communities. The posh and the elite never gave any importance to games Dr. Arnold, the founder of the Modern Public School, viewed games as a mere waste of time. It was later felt that some type of group activity is essential for the outlet of physical strengthen and sadistic impulses. It is this opinion which brought the existence of a more decent word "Sports".

Then chiefly in England and in United States games were built up into a heavily financial activity and attracted the crowds by rousing savage passions and this infection spread from country to country. Games are taken seriously in London and New York. In the middle ages they were played with much physical brutality and were not mixed up with politics or a cause of group hatreds.

Organized sports then started gaining momentum and flourished in the Urban Communities also. The English public schools in the later part of the last century became centres of several important sports. In Countries like Rome, Byzantium, London, New York, games were taken seriously. New sports namely walking, swimming, snowballing, climbing and finding houses made inroads in different parts of the world. England and United States witnessed costly games and savage passions were aroused.

Sports then began to be linked with nationalism. At the same time they were also said to be the cause of politics, brutality and group hatred. Rivalry began to develop especially when the games were played between Jews and Arabs, Germans and Czechs, Indians and British, Italians and Yugoslavs, Russians and Porki. Sports have become one of the main reasons of international rivalry. The author suggests that instead of making things worse by sending forth a team of eleven men, labelled as national champions to do battle against some rival team and allowing it to be felt on all sides that whichever nation defeated "will loose face".

The huge crowds in Boxing, Football and Cricket matches started rattling the opposite players with boos and insults. Harsh and fiercer passions began to be aroused in England and also several other countries. Even a gentleman's game like cricket, which is also called a leisurely game, was under question.

The controversy was witnessed over bodyline bowling and over the rough tactics of Australian team that visited England in 1921. A boxing match between white and coloured boxers gave a horrible sight. In countries like India or Burma, it is necessary at football matches to have strong cordons of police to keep the crowd from invading the field. The first big football match that was played in Spain about some time ago led to an uncontrollable riot.

George Orwell says that with the passage of time International sports became a mimic warfare. Sports began to be equated with war minus shooting. Instead of promoting good will, they were resulted in much hatred and further fostering the rivalry among the nations. Sports have become competitive when they are played to win and the game has little meaning unless it is won. As soon as the question of prestige arises players do every technique to win the game as I think that their countries dignity would be lost if that are lost. The attitude of the spectators is also important in creating much rivalry they forget that victory gained through cheating is meaningless. Spectators definitely try to influence the game by cheering their own side by insulting opposite players with boos and insults. The author feels that modern games have abundant hatred, jealousy, boastfulness and ignoring of all the rules and witnessed of all the violence.

Nearly all the sports practised nowadays are competitive. You play to win, and the game has little meaning unless you do your utmost to win. On the village green, where you pick up sides and no feeling of local patriotism is involved, it is possible to play simply for the fun and exercise: but as soon as the question of prestige arises, as soon as you feel that you and some larger unit will be disgraced if you lose, the most savage combative instincts are aroused. Anyone who has played even in a school football match knows this. At the international level sport is frankly mimic warfare. But the significant thing is not the behaviour of the players but the attitude of the spectators: and, behind the spectators, of the nations who work themselves into furies over these absurd contests, and seriously believe — at any rate for short periods — that running, jumping and kicking a ball are tests of national virtue.

Even a leisurely game like cricket, demanding grace rather than strength, can cause much ill-will, as we saw in the controversy over body-line bowling and over the rough tactics of the Australian team that visited England in 1921. Football, a game in which everyone gets hurt and every nation has its own style of play which seems unfair to foreigners, is far worse. Worst of all is boxing. One of the most horrible sights in the world is a fight between white and coloured boxers before a mixed audience. But a boxing audience is always disgusting, and the behaviour of the women, in particular, is such that the army, I believe, does not allow them to attend its contests. At any rate, two or three years ago, when Home Guards and

regular troops were holding a boxing tournament, I was placed on guard at the door of the hall, with orders to keep the women out.

In England, the obsession with sport is bad enough, but even fiercer passions are aroused in young countries where games playing and nationalism are both recent developments. In countries like India or Burma, it is necessary at football matches to have strong cordons of police to keep the crowd from invading the field. In Burma, I have seen the supporters of one side break through the police and disable the goalkeeper of the opposing side at a critical moment. The first big football match that was played in Spain about fifteen years ago led to an uncontrollable riot. As soon as strong feelings of rivalry are aroused, the notion of playing the game according to the rules always vanishes. People want to see one side on top and the other side humiliated, and they forget that victory gained through cheating or through the intervention of the crowd is meaningless. Even when the spectators don't intervene physically they try to influence the game by cheering their own side and "rattling" opposing players with boos and insults. Serious sport has nothing to do with fair play. It is bound up with hatred, jealousy, boastfulness, disregard of all rules and sadistic pleasure in witnessing violence: in other words it is war minus the shooting.

Instead of blah-blah about the clean, healthy rivalry of the football field and the great part played by the Olympic Games in bringing the nations together, it is more useful to inquire how and why this modern cult of sport arose. Most of the games we now play are of ancient origin, but sport does not seem to have been taken very seriously between Roman times and the nineteenth century. Even in the English public schools the games cult did not start till the later part of the last century. Dr Arnold, generally regarded as the founder of the modern public school, looked on games as simply a waste of time. Then, chiefly in England and the United States, games were built up into a heavily-financed activity, capable of attracting vast crowds and rousing savage passions, and the infection spread from country to country. It is the most violently combative sports, football and boxing, that have spread the widest. There cannot be much doubt that the whole thing is bound up with the rise of nationalism — that is, with the lunatic modern habit of identifying oneself with large power units and seeing everything in terms of competitive prestige. Also, organised games are more likely to flourish in urban communities where the average human being lives a sedentary or at least a confined life, and do not get much opportunity for creative labour. In a rustic community a boy or young man works off a good deal of his surplus energy by walking, swimming, snowballing, climbing trees, riding horses, and by various sports involving cruelty to animals, such as fishing, cock-fighting and ferreting for rats. In a big town one must indulge in group activities if one wants an outlet for one's physical strength or for one's

sadistic impulses. Games are taken seriously in London and New York, and they were taken seriously in Rome and Byzantium: in the Middle Ages they were played, and probably played with much physical brutality, but they were not mixed up with politics nor a cause of group hatreds.

If you wanted to add to the vast fund of ill-will existing in the world at this moment, you could hardly do it better than by a series of football matches between Jews and Arabs, Germans and Czechs, Indians and British, Russians and Poles, and Italians and Jugoslavs, each match to be watched by a mixed audience of 100,000 spectators. I do not, of course, suggest that sport is one of the main causes of international rivalry; big-scale sport is itself, I think, merely another effect of the causes that have produced nationalism. Still, you do make things worse by sending forth a team of eleven men, labelled as national champions, to do battle against some rival team, and allowing it to be felt on all sides that whichever nation is defeated will “lose face”.

I hope, therefore, that we shan't follow up the visit of the Dynamos by sending a British team to the USSR. If we must do so, then let us send a second-rate team which is sure to be beaten and cannot be claimed to represent Britain as a whole. There are quite enough real causes of trouble already, and we need not add to them by encouraging young men to kick each other on the shins amid the roars of infuriated spectators.

The author strongly feels that it is a pressing need to inculcate sportsman spirit among all of us to promote peace and goodwill through sports.

A Dilemma - A Layman Looks at Science

(Raymond B. Fosdick)

AUGUST 6, 1945 – The day the atomic bomb was dropped on Hiroshima - brought home to all of us in a dramatic fashion the significance of science in human life. The impact of that bomb has left us stunned and confused. Certainly we laymen are frightened by science as we never were before. And certainly too, we are bewildered by the power which science has suddenly placed in our laps – bewildered and humbled by our realization of how unequipped we are, in terms of ethics, law, and government, to know how to use it.

That, I think, is the first reaction of a layman to the stupendous repercussion of that bomb on Hiroshima. And the first question that comes to his mind is this: what use are radio and automobiles and penicillin and all the other gifts of science if at the same time this same science hands us the means by which we can blow ourselves and our civilization into drifting dust? We have always been inclined to think research and technology as being consciously related to human welfare. Now, frankly, we are not so sure, and we are deeply troubled, by the realization that man's brain can create things which his will may not be able to control.

To the layman it seems as if science were facing a vast dilemma. Science is the search for truth, and it is based on the glorious faith that truth is worth discovering. It springs from the noblest attribute of the human spirit. But it is this same search for truth that has brought our civilization to the brink of destruction; and we are confronted by the tragic irony that when we have been most successful in pushing out the boundaries of knowledge, we have most endangered the possibility of human life on this planet. The pursuit of truth has at last led us to the tools by which we can ourselves become the destroyers of our own institutions and all the bright hopes of the race. In this situation what do we do – curb our science or cling to the pursuit of truth and run the risk of having our society torn to pieces?

It is on the basis of this dilemma that serious questions are forming in the public mind. Unless research is linked to a human and constructive purpose, should it not be subject to some kind of restraint? Can our scientists afford to be concerned solely with fact and not at all with value and purpose? Can they legitimately claim that their only aim is the advancement of knowledge regardless of its consequences? Is the layman justified in saying to the scientists: 'We look to you to distinguish between that truth which furthers the well-being of mankind and that truth which threatens it?'

One of the scientists who played a leading role in the development of the atomic bomb said to the newspapermen: 'A scientist cannot hold back progress because of fears of what the world will do with his discoveries'. What he apparently implied was the science has no

responsibility in the matter, and that it will plunge ahead in the pursuit of truth even if the process leaves the world in dust and ashes.

Is that the final answer? Is there no other answer? Frankly, as a layman, I do not know. Offhand, this disavowal of concern seems callous and irresponsible. But we may be facing a situation where no other answer is realistic or possible. To ask the scientist to foresee the use – the good or evil of the use – to which his result may be put is doubtless beyond the realm of the attainable. Almost any discovery can be used for either social or anti-social purposes. The German dye industry was not created to deal with either medicine or weapons of war; and yet out of that industry emerged sulphur drugs and mustard gas. When Einstein wrote his famous transformation equation in 1905 he was not thinking of the atomic bomb, but out of the equation came one of the principles upon which the bomb was based.

Willard Gibbs was a gentle spirit whose life was spent in his laboratory at Yale University, and who never dreamed that his work in mathematical physics might have even a remote relationship to war; and yet it is safe to say that his ideas gave added power to the armaments of all nations in both World War I and World War II.

I suspect that the way out of the dilemma is not as simple as the questions now being asked seem to imply. The good and the evil that flow from scientific research are more often than not indistinguishable at the point of origin. Generally they are by products, or they represent distortions of original purpose, none of which could have been foreseen when the initial discovery was made. We are driven back to a question of human motives and desires. Science has recently given us radar, jet propulsion and power sources of unprecedented magnitude. What does society want to do with them? It can use them constructively to increase the happiness of mankind or it can employ them to tear the world to pieces. There is scarcely a scientific formula or a process or a commodity which cannot be used for war purposes, if that is what we elect to do with it. In brief, the gifts of science can be used by evil men to do evil even more obviously and dramatically than they can be used by men of goodwill, to do well.

I fear there is no easy way out of our dilemma. I would not absolve the scientists from some measure of responsibility, for they are men of superior training and insight and we are entitled to look to them for help and leadership more help and leadership, I venture to add, than have thus far been given. However, I note that a considerable number of scientist who were connected with the atomic bomb project have publicly expressed their apprehension of the consequences of their own creation. ‘All of us who worked on the atomic bomb, said Dr Allison of the University of Chicago, had a momentary feeling of elation when our experiment met with success; but that feeling rapidly changed to a feeling of horror, and a fervent desire that no more bombs would be dropped.

Nevertheless, in the long run I do not believe that we shall be successful in making science the arbiter of its discoveries. Somehow or other society itself must assume that responsibility. The towering enemy of mankind is not science but war. Science merely reflects the social forces by which it is surrounded. When there is peace, science is constructive; when there is war, science is perverted to destructive ends. The weapons which science gives us do not necessarily create war; they make war increasingly more terrible, until now it has brought us to the doorstep of doom.

Our main problem therefore, is not to curb science but to stop war to substitute law for force and international government for anarchy in the relations of one nation with another. That is a job in which everybody must participate, including the scientists. But the bomb on Hiroshima suddenly woke us up to the fact that we have very little time. The hour is late and our work has scarcely begun. Now we are face to face with this urgent question: 'Can education and tolerance and understanding and creative intelligence run fast enough to keep us abreast with or own mounting capacity to destroy?'

That is the question which we shall have to answer one way or another in this generation. Science must help us in the answer, but the main decision lies within ourselves.

A Dilemma - A Layman Looks at Science (Notes)

Raymond B. Fosdick in the lesson 'A Dilemma' says that science should be used only for the constructive purpose and not to be aimed at the degeneration of the society. August 6, 1945, was an unfortunate day, on which the atomic bomb was dropped on Hiroshima. It brought home to all of us, about the significance (or) importance of science in human life. Mankind was frightened by science and bewildered by its enormous power. This instance has realised the mankind how unequipped we are in terms of ethics, law, and government, to know how to use it. The author says that science is based on truth and should spring from the noblest attribute of the human spirit.

There are certain inventions that can evoke both positive and negative responses. Invention of Radio, Automobiles, Radar and jet propulsions shall be aimed towards the betterment of the society rather than creating ugliness and desolation. The gifts of science, the author vehemently feels, should not blow our civilization into drifting dust. The research and Technology yield right fruits when they are related to human welfare.

Science is the search for truth. But it is the same search for truth that has brought our civilization to the brink of destruction. The writer strongly feels that research shall be subjected to some kind of restraint if it is not linked to human constructive purpose; it is really

disheartening to read about that leading scientists associated with atom bomb saying that one should not hold back progress because of fear of misuse of science

Fosdick than says that some inventions are purely accidental and the scientists never had any evil intentions while discovering them. For instance Albert Einstein never thought of atom bomb while working for his transformation equation in 1905. Yet, from this come out one of the principles upon atom bomb is based. Similarly sulphur drugs and mustard gas which are offshoots of German dye industry was not created to deal with either medicine or weapons of war; Willard Gibbs was a gentle spirit whose life was spent in his laboratory at Yale university had never dreamt that his research in the mathematical physics might have even a remote relationship to world war I & II. These discoveries are classic examples where the gifts of science can be used by evil men to do evil even more obviously and dramatically than can be used by men of goodwill to do well.

The author concludes that the towering enemy of mankind is not science but war. Science merely reflects the forces by which it's surrounded. When there is peace, science is constructive and when there is war, science is prevented to destructive ends. Our problem therefore is not to comb science but to stop war- to substitute law for force and international government aware in the relations of one nation with another. He feels that our education should be based on tolerance understanding and creative intelligence that should run fast enough to put an end to the evil effects of the science formally, Science must help us but the decision lies within ourselves *i.e.*, the whole responsibility is of human beings.

YOU AND YOUR ENGLISH - SPOKEN ENGLISH AND BROKEN ENGLISH

G.B. SHAW

The name of George Bernard Shaw is well known in the world in which literature holds a place. No other writer, except, perhaps, Shakespeare, has earned such world-wide fame. The following text, which the literary genius prepared and spoke on a 'gramophone' recording for the Lingua-phone Company, is loaded with characteristic Shavian wit, but with serious purpose behind it all. The provocative ideas are couched in a simple but sparkling rhetorical style.

YOU AND YOUR ENGLISH -SPOKEN ENGLISH BROKEN ENGLISH – SUMMARY

Introduction

George Bernard Shaw is a well-known writer. He prepared and spoke on the topic 'Spoken English and Broken English' on a gramophone recording for the Lingua-phone institute. In his speech the provocative ideas are couched in a simple but sparkling rhetorical style.

Advantages in learning to speak well

Bernard Shaw says that when we travel in the British Commonwealth or in America or when we meet a native of these countries, we have to speak English well for enough understanding. If we speak in a provincial or cockney dialect it may prevent us from obtaining some employment which is open to those who only speak what is 'correct English'.

No such thing ideally correct English

No two British subjects speak exactly alike. Even educated persons, the Poet Laureate and trained speakers do not pronounce some of the simplest commonest words in the English language exactly alike. Members of the committee who are selected as models of correct speech speak differently. They differ according to the country in which they were born.

Confession of Bernard Shaw

Bernard Shaw confesses that he himself does not speak English in the same way. When he speaks to audience, he speaks carefully. If he were to speak carefully to his wife at home, she would think he was going mad. As a public speaker he has to take care that every word he says is heard distinctly at far end of large halls containing thousands of people. At home he speaks to his wife like mumbling. His wife also a little careless and so he sometimes has to say "What?"

Advice to foreign students of English

Do not try to speak English perfectly because native speakers of English won't understand. In London nine hundred and ninety-nine out of thousand people not only speak

bad English but speak even that very badly. No foreigner can ever stress the syllables and make the voice rise and fall in questions and answer, assertion and denial, in refusal and consent, in enquiry or information, exactly as a native does. Therefore, the first thing they have to do is to speak with a strong foreign accent, and speak broken English.

Conclusion

Bernard Shaw criticizes that it is an insult to the native speaker of English who cannot understand his own language when it is too well spoken.

SPOKEN ENGLISH AND BROKEN ENGLISH (Notes)

Shaw here emphasis the point that there is no such thing as ideally correct English and no two Britishers speak English exactly in the same manner. He says that because of his rich experience as a public speaker and also as a play righter he was appointed by the British Broadcasting Corporation as a member of a committee whose main aim was to develop a model of correct English speech for the British Islands. The Committee was chaired by a poet Laureate who was also an artist and his materials are the sounds of Spoken English, and a specialist in pronunciation Johnston Forbes Robertson, a well known actor known for the beauty of speech was also a member of this committee which was heterogeneous blend of Krish, Scottish, Welsh, Oxford and American members. All theses members could be recognized by their difference in speech and hence we can't conclude that they spoke English correctly. They, of course Spoken English presentably which is easy to comprehend. Imitating them would make us persons of good social standing. It is also astonishing to note that this committee sometimes did not agree to the usage and pronunciation of most of the simple and common words of English.

Shaw says that the two commonest words in English are 'Yes' and 'No'. But no two members of the committee pronounce them exactly alike. Yet there are some people who find delight in avoiding them. Shaw points out that good effort is needed to comprehend or to follow words, syllable by syllable. He says that he is speaking carefully to an audience of thousands of gramphonists. But if he speaks carelessly as he speaks to his wife, the audience can't make out, and at the same time if he speaks carefully at home, his wife thinks that he has gone mad.

The usage of English differs from situation to situation. One would indeed be labelled mad or insane if one talks to his wife in the same manner as he does at a Gramophone recoding and vice - versa. Shaw, in a lighter sense, asks us to be careful even while speaking to wife and the conversation between a husband and wife should be like a conversation between a King and a Queen. Unfortunately that doesn't happen with all of us.

Shaw classifies manners into two types namely Company Manners and Home Manners which also vary according to the situation. Family members do not speak among themselves in the manner as they do on ordinary occasions when they are in the presence of an outsider. Shaw

further adds by citing an example of 'key hole moral' the listener gets surprised to note the difference between two situations. The difference is greater in speech than in anything else.

Foreigners need not speak English perfectly if they want to travel in England and if they are wise to be understood these. Even if they do so, they will not be understood since a vast majority in London speaks bad English. If a foreigner speaks perfect English, he/she will be suspected of being a beggar or a confidence trickster. Speaking English too well is in fact a pedantic affectation. George Bernard Shaw further mentions that the stranger hears every syllable distinctly when he asks him what O' Clock is it? But his wife hears it as "Cloxst", because it is good enough for her but not to the listener.

Shaw emphasizes that there is no such thing as perfectly correct English and there is presentable English which we call "Good English". In London, Shaw points out that Nine hundred ninety nine out of every thousand people don't only speak bad English but speak even that very badly. They neither speak it correctly nor be understood when it is well spoken. He suggests the foreigners, to speak with a foreign accent, and speak broken English, that is English without grammar. Then, the native understands the foreigner and try to understand and gets ready to help.

The native never expects the foreigner to be polite and to use elaborate grammatical phrases. Shaw cites an example i.e.

"Will you have the goodness sir,
to direct me to the railway terminus at charring cross"
But if the foreigner shouts
"Please! Charing Cross! Which way!"

The stranger would have no difficulty, responding to it half a dozen people will immediately overwhelmed to help.

If any foreigner requests the native, pronouncing all the vowels and consonants beautifully, how will not understand, and would suspect him to be a beggar or a confidence trickster.

Finally, G.B. Shaw suggests us that one must not speak too well even with cultivated people, during private inter course also. While dispelling the fears of foreigners with regard to the language G.B. Shaw says that little knowledge is adequate to travel England, and adds that to speak too well is a pedantic affectation, even among English people. G.B. Shaw says that is an insult to the native who can't understand his own language when it is too well spoken.

Reading comprehension

Reading comprehension involves two levels of processing, shallow (low-level) processing and deep (high-level) processing. Deep processing involves semantic processing, which happens when we encode the meaning of a word and relate it to similar words. Shallow processing involves structural and phonemic recognition, the processing of sentence and word structure and their associated sounds. This theory was first identified by Fergus I. M. Craik and Robert S. Lockhart.

Vocabulary

Reading comprehension and vocabulary are inextricably linked. The ability to decode or identify and pronounce words is self-evidently important, but knowing what the words mean has a major and direct effect on knowing what any specific passage means. Students with a smaller vocabulary than other students comprehend less of what they read and it has been suggested that the most impactful way to improve comprehension is to improve vocabulary.

Most words are learned gradually through a wide variety of environments: television, books, and conversations. Some words are more complex and difficult to learn, such as **Homonyms**, words that have multiple meanings and those with figurative meanings, like **Idioms, Similes, and Metaphors**.

Broad vocabulary approach

The method of focusing of broad instruction on many words was developed by Andrew Biemiller who argued that more words would benefit students more, even if the instruction was short and teacher-directed. He suggested that teachers teach a large number of words before reading a book to students, by merely giving short definitions, such as synonyms, and then pointing out the words and their meaning while reading the book to students. The method contrasts with the approach by emphasizing quantity versus quality. There is no evidence to suggest the primacy of either approach.

Morphemic instruction

The final vocabulary technique, strategies for learning new words, can be further subdivided into instruction on using context and instruction on using **morphemes**, or meaningful units within words to learn their meaning. Morphemic instruction has been shown to produce positive outcomes for students reading and vocabulary knowledge, but context has proved unreliable as a strategy and it is no longer considered a useful strategy to teach students. This conclusion does not disqualify the value in "learning" morphemic analysis - prefixes, suffixes and roots - but rather suggests that it be imparted incidentally and in

context. Accordingly, there are methods designed to achieve this, such as Incidental Morpheme Analysis.

Reading strategies

Reciprocal teaching

In the 1980s Annemarie Sullivan Palincsar and Ann L. Brown developed a technique called **reciprocal teaching** that taught students to predict, summarize, clarify, and ask questions for sections of a text. The use of strategies like summarizing after each paragraph has come to be seen as effective strategies for building students' comprehension. The idea is that students will develop stronger reading comprehension skills on their own if the teacher gives them explicit mental tools for unpacking text.

Text factors

There are factors that once discerned, make it easier for the reader to understand the written text. One is the genre, like folktales, historical fiction, biographies or poetry. Each genre has its own characteristics for text structure that once understood help the reader comprehend it. A story is composed of a plot, characters, setting, point of view, and theme. Informational books provide real world knowledge for students and have unique features such as: headings, maps, vocabulary, and an index. Poems are written in different forms and the most commonly used are: rhymed verse, haikus, free verse, and narratives. Poetry uses devices such as: alliteration, repetition, rhyme, metaphors, and similes. "When children are familiar with genres, organizational patterns, and text features in books they're reading, they're better able to create those text factors in their own writing."

Non-Verbal Imagery

Media that utilizes schema to make connections either planned or not, more commonly used within context such as: a passage, an experience, or one's imagination. Some notable examples are emoji, emoticons, cropped and un-cropped images, and recently Imojis which are humorous, cropped images that are used to elicit humour and comprehension.

Visualization

Visualization is like a "**mental image**" created in a person's mind while reading text, which "brings words to life" and helps improve reading comprehension. Asking sensory questions will help students to visualize. Students can practice visualizing by imagining what they "see, hear, smell, taste, or feel" when they are reading a page of a picture book aloud, but not yet shown the picture. They can share their visualizations, and then check their level of detail against the illustrations.

Partner reading

Partner reading is a strategy created for pairs. The teacher chooses two appropriate books for the students' to read. First they must read their own book. Once they have completed this, they are given the opportunity to write down their own comprehensive questions for their partner. The students swap books, read them out loud to one another and ask one another questions about the book they read.

This strategy:

*Provides a model of fluent reading and helps students learn decoding skills by offering positive feedback.

*Provides direct opportunities for a teacher to circulate in the class, observe students, and offer individual remediation.

Multiple reading strategies

There is a wide range of reading strategies suggested by reading programs and educators. The National Reading Panel identified positive effects only for a subset, particularly summarizing, asking questions, answering questions, comprehension monitoring, graphic organizers, and cooperative learning. The Panel also emphasized that a combination of strategies, as used in Reciprocal Teaching, can be effective. The use of effective comprehension strategies that provide specific instructions for developing and retaining comprehension skills, with intermittent feedback, has been found to improve reading comprehension across all ages, specifically those affected by mental disabilities.

Reading different types of texts requires the use of different reading strategies and approaches. Making reading an active, observable process can be very beneficial to struggling readers. A good reader interacts with the text in order to develop an understanding of the information before them. Some good reader strategies are predicting, connecting, inferring, summarizing, analyzing and critiquing. There are many resources and activities educators and instructors of reading can use to help with reading strategies in specific content areas and disciplines. Some examples are graphic organizers, talking to the text, anticipation guides, double entry journals, interactive reading and note taking guides, chunking, and summarizing.

The use of effective comprehension strategies is highly important when learning to improve reading comprehension. These strategies provide specific instructions for developing and retaining comprehension skills. Implementing the following instructions with intermittent feedback has been found to improve reading comprehension across all ages, specifically those affected by mental disabilities.

Comprehension Strategies

Research studies on reading and comprehension have shown that highly proficient readers utilize a number of different strategies to comprehend various types of texts, strategies that can also be used by less proficient readers in order to improve their comprehension.

1. **Making Inferences:** In everyday terms we refer to this as “reading between the lines”. It involves connecting various parts of texts that aren’t directly linked in order to form a sensible conclusion. A form of assumption, the reader speculates what connections lie within the texts.

2. **Planning and Monitoring:** This strategy centre around the reader’s mental awareness and their ability to control their comprehension by way of awareness. By previewing text (via outlines, table of contents, etc.) one can establish a goal for reading-“what do I need to get out of this”? Readers use context clues and other evaluation strategies to clarify texts and ideas, and thus monitoring their level of understanding.

3. **Asking Questions:** To solidify one understands of passages of texts readers inquire and develop their own opinion of the author’s writing, character motivations, relationships, etc. This strategy involves allowing oneself to be completely objective in order to find various meanings within the text.

4. **Determining Importance:** Pinpointing the important ideas and messages within the text. Readers are taught to identify direct and indirect ideas and to summarize the relevance of each.

5. **Visualizing:** With this sensory-driven strategy readers form mental and visual images of the contents of text. Being able to connect visually allows for a better understanding with the text through emotional responses.

6. **Synthesizing:** This method involves marrying multiple ideas from various texts in order to draw conclusions and make comparisons across different texts; with the reader’s goal being to understand how they all fit together.

7. **Making Connections:** A cognitive approach also referred to as “reading beyond the lines”, it involves finding a personal connection to reading, such as personal experience, previously read texts, etc. to help establish a deeper understanding of the context of the text.

Define Reading Comprehension?

According to Webster's Dictionary, comprehension is "the capacity for understanding fully; the act or action of grasping with the intellect." Reading is "to receive or take in the sense of, as letters or symbols, by scanning; to understand the meaning of written or printed matter; to learn from what one has seen or found in writing or printing.

Identifying words on a page does not make someone a successful reader. When the words are understood and transcend the pages to become thoughts and ideas then you are truly

reading. Comprehension therefore is the capacity for understanding those thoughts and ideas. Applying what you have read and understood becomes the successful conclusion.

Comprehension Regulation:

You can become an active, effective reader through comprehension regulation. This is a method for consciously controlling the reading process. Comprehension regulation involves the use of pre-planned strategies to understand text. It is a plan for getting the most out of reading. It allows you to have an idea of what to expect from the text. Most importantly, it gives you techniques to use when you are experiencing difficulties.

As an active reader, you can get an idea of what the writer is trying to communicate by:

- Setting goals based on your purpose for reading
 - Previewing the text to make predictions
 - Self-questioning
 - Scanning
- Relating new information to old

Skills for being an effective reader and for increasing comprehension are:

- Finding main ideas and supporting details/evidence
- Making inferences and drawing conclusions
- Recognizing a text's patterns of organization
- Perceiving conceptual relationships
- Testing your knowledge and understanding of the material through application

Read the Preface & Introduction: Read the preface and introduction you'll get essential information for understanding the author's perspective. The preface usually provides information about the author's objective, the organizational plan, how it is different from others, and the author's background. Once you know the author's objective or goal, it's easier to see relationships among the facts presented. The introduction lays the foundation for the rest of the text in the form of overview and background information that will make it easier to digest information.

Make More Than One Pass: Reading articles and textbooks often requires more than one pass. It usually takes two, three, or even more readings to grasp difficult concepts. Skim the table of contents, preface, headings, and conclusions. Stop and think about the author's intent as well the instructor's purpose in making the assignment and purpose for reading.

Take Notes: In early readings, take the briefest of notes while reading by adding brackets in margins or underlining minimally. Note pages where you might want to take formal notes. After reading, take more extensive notes. When reading and note taking are complete, reread

all of your notes, think about what you've read, and add more notes based on your reflections. Your goal is to have notes that are concise, capture the reading - and replace it so that you don't have to go back and reread.

Don't Highlight: If you underline text, do so minimally and stay focused on the important details. Avoid the temptation to highlight every line. Heavy highlighting is a procrastination tool because usually you're marking what you should learn instead of focusing on learning it.

Identifying Topics, Main Ideas and Supporting Details: Understanding the *topic*, the *gist*, or the larger conceptual framework of a textbook chapter, an article, a paragraph, a sentence or a passage is a sophisticated reading task. Being able to draw conclusions, evaluate, and critically interpret articles or chapters is important for overall comprehension in college reading. Textbook chapters, articles, paragraphs, sentences, or passages all have topics and main ideas. The *topic* is the broad, general theme or message. It is what some call the subject. The *main idea* is the "key concept" being expressed. *Details*, major and minor, support the main idea by telling how, what, when, where, why, how much, or how many. Locating the topic, main idea, and supporting details helps you understand the point(s) the writer is attempting to express. Identifying the relationship between these will increase your comprehension

Grasping the Main Idea: A paragraph is a group of sentences related to a particular topic, or central theme. Every paragraph has a key concept or main idea. The main idea is the most important piece of information the author wants you to know about the concept of that paragraph. When authors write they have an idea in mind that they are trying to get across. This is especially true as authors compose paragraphs. An author organizes each paragraph's main idea and supporting details in support of the topic or central theme, and each paragraph supports the paragraph preceding it. A writer will state his/her main idea explicitly somewhere in the paragraph. That main idea may be stated at the beginning of the paragraph, in the middle, or at the end. The sentence in which the main idea is stated is the *topic sentence* of that paragraph.

Identifying the Topic: The first thing you must be able to do to get at the main idea of a paragraph is to identify the topic - the subject of the paragraph. Think of the paragraph as a wheel with the topic being the hub - the central core around which the whole wheel (or paragraph) spins. Your strategy for topic identification is simply to ask yourself the question, "What is this about?" Keep asking yourself that question as you read a paragraph, until the answer to your question becomes clear. Sometimes you can spot the topic by looking for a word or two that repeat. Usually you can state the topic in a few words

In writing, there are three types of paragraphs: *introductory*, *transitional*, and *summarizing*.

Introductory paragraphs tell you, in advance, such things as (1) the main ideas of the chapter or section; (2) the extent or limits of the coverage; (3) how the topic is developed; and (4) the writer's attitude toward the topic. *Transitional* paragraphs are usually short; their sole function is to tie together what you have read so far and what is to come - to set the stage for succeeding ideas of the chapter or section. *Summarizing* paragraphs are used to restate briefly the main ideas of the chapter or section. The writer may also draw some conclusion from these ideas, or speculate on some conclusion based on the evidence he/she has presented.

Strengthening Reading Comprehension:

1. **Analyze the time and place in which you are reading** - If you've been reading or studying for several hours, mental fatigue may be the source of the problem. If you are reading in a place with distractions or interruptions, you may not be able to understand what you're reading.
2. **Rephrase each paragraph in your own words** - You might need to approach complicated material sentence by sentence, expressing each in your own words.
3. **Read aloud sentences or sections that are particularly difficult** - Reading out loud sometimes makes complicated material easier to understand.
4. **Reread difficult or complicated sections** - At times, in fact, several readings are appropriate and necessary.
5. **Slow down your reading rate** - On occasion, simply reading more slowly and carefully will provide you with the needed boost in comprehension.
6. **Turn headings into questions** - Refer to these questions frequently and jot down or underline answers.
7. **Write a brief outline of major points** - This will help you see the overall organization and progression of ideas.
8. **Highlight key ideas** - After you've read a section, go back and think about and highlight what is important. Highlighting forces you to sort out what is important, and this sorting process builds comprehension and recall.
9. **Write notes in the margins** - Explain or rephrase difficult or complicated ideas or sections.
10. **Determine whether you lack background knowledge** - Comprehension is difficult, at times, and it is impossible, if you lack essential information that the writer assumes you have.

SYNONYMS

Synonyms are those words, which are very nearly alike in meaning but not quite. We have to choose from a number of synonyms, the particular word that exactly expresses the idea that we wish to convey. Synonyms can provide you with variety in speech or writing. There are endless examples of synonyms, making it easy for you to avoid overusing the same word and sounding repetitive.

List of Synonyms

•Action

- **Come** — advance, approach, arrive, near, reach
- **Go** — depart, disappear, fade, move, proceed, recede, travel
- **Run** — dash, escape, elope, flee, hasten, hurry, race, rush, speed, sprint
- **Hurry** — rush, run, speed, race, hasten, urge, accelerate, bustle
- **Hide** — conceal, cover, mask, cloak, camouflage, screen, shroud, veil
- **Move** — go, crawl, inch, poke, drag, toddle, shuffle, trot, dawdle, walk, traipse, mosey, jog,
- **Do** — execute, enact, carry out, finish, conclude, effect, accomplish, achieve, attain
- **Have** — hold, possess, own, contain, acquire, gain, maintain, believe, bear, beget, occupy, absorb, fill, enjoy
- **Use** — employ, utilize, exhaust, spend, expend, consume, exercise
- **Get** — acquire, obtain, secure, procure, gain, fetch, find, score, accumulate, win,
- **Keep** — hold, retain, withhold, preserve, maintain, sustain, support
- **Put** — place, set, attach, establish, assign, keep, save, set aside, effect, achieve, do, build
- **Take** — hold, catch, seize, grasp, win, capture, acquire, pick, choose, select, prefer, remove, steal, lift, rob, engage, bewitch, purchase, buy, retract, recall, assume, occupy, consume
- **Make** — create, originate, invent, beget, form, construct, design, fabricate, manufacture, produce, build, develop, do, effect, execute, compose, perform, accomplish, earn, gain, obtain, acquire, get
- **Break** — fracture, rupture, shatter, smash, wreck, crash, demolish, atomize
- **Destroy** — ruin, demolish, raze, waste, kill, slay, end, extinguish

- **Kill** — slay, execute, assassinate, murder, destroy, cancel, abolish
- **Cut** — gash, slash, prick, nick, sever, slice, carve, cleave, slit, chop, crop, lop, reduce
- **Fall** — drop, descend, plunge, topple, tumble
- **Fly** — soar, hover, flit, wing, flee, waft, glide, coast, skim, sail, cruise
- **Decide** — determine, settle, choose, resolve
- **Help** — aid, assist, support, encourage, back, wait on, attend, serve, relieve, succour, benefit, befriend, abet
- **Mark** — label, tag, price, ticket, impress, effect, trace, imprint, stamp, brand, sign, note, heed, notice, designate
- **Plan** — plot, scheme, design, draw, map, diagram, procedure, arrangement, intention, device, contrivance, method, way, blueprint
- **Show** — display, exhibit, present, note, point to, indicate, explain, reveal, prove, demonstrate, expose
- **Begin** — start, open, launch, initiate, commence, inaugurate, originate
- **Big** — large, enormous, huge, immense, gigantic, vast, colossal, gargantuan, sizable, grand, great, tall, substantial, mammoth, astronomical, ample, broad, expansive, spacious, stout, tremendous, titanic, mountainous
- **Little** — small, tiny, diminutive, shrimp, runt, miniature, puny, exiguous, dinky, cramped.
- **New** — fresh, unique, original, unusual, novel, modern, current, recent
- **Old** — feeble, frail, ancient, weak, aged, used, worn, dilapidated, ragged, faded, broken-down,
- **False** — wrong, fake, fraudulent, counterfeit, spurious, untrue, unfounded, erroneous, deceptive, incorrect, inaccurate, mistaken, erroneous, improper, unsuitable
- **True** — right, accurate, proper, precise, exact, valid, genuine, real, actual, trusty, steady, loyal, dependable, sincere, fair
- **Fast** — quick, rapid, speedy, fleet, hasty, snappy, mercurial, swiftly, rapidly, quickly, snappily, speedily, like a flash
- **Slow** — unhurried, gradual, leisurely, late, behind, tedious, slack
- **Cool** — chilly, cold, frosty, wintry, icy, frigid

- **Hot** — feverish, warm, heated, sweltering, torrid, fiery, flaming, sizzling, charged, burning, seared, chafed, inflamed
 - **Quiet** — silent, still, soundless, mute, tranquil, peaceful, calm, restful, hushed, inaudible reticent, reserved, taciturn, secretive, uncommunicative
 - **Noisy** — loudly, ear-splitting, stentorian, strident, clamorous, boisterous, clangorous, deafening, roisterers, uproarious
 - **All** — complete, entire, full, gross, outright, perfect, total, utter, whole, any, complete, every, sum, totality, each and every, every bit of, bar none, every single, everything, everyone
 - **None** — nothing, nobody, no one, zero, zilch, no one at all, no part, not a bit, not a soul, not a thing, not any, not anyone, not anything, not one, nonexistent, null nadir, nil, naught, void, nada, blank, nix
 - **Normal** — daily, traditional, familiar, routine, proper, ordinary, typical, everyday, usual, commonplace, natural, classic, standard, general,
 - **Strange** — abnormal, aberrant, anomalous, bent, bizarre, deviant, queer, eccentric, freakish, unusual, extraordinary, insane, irrational, disorderly, rare, exceptional.
- ***Descriptive***
 - **Describe** — portray, characterize, picture, narrate, relate, recount, represent, report, record
 - **Difference** — disagreement, inequity, contrast, dissimilarity, incompatibility
 - **Explain** — elaborate, clarify, define, interpret, justify, account for
 - **Idea** — thought, concept, conception, notion, understanding, opinion, plan, view, belief
 - **Look** — gaze, see, glance, watch, examine, gape, ogle, scrutinize, inspect, leer, behold, observe, view, witness, explore
 - **Story** — tale, myth, legend, fable, yarn, account, narrative, chronicle, epic, anecdote, record, memoir
 - **Tell** — disclose, reveal, show, expose, uncover, relate, narrate, inform, advise, explain, divulge, declare, command, order, bid, recount, repeat
 - **Think** — judge, deem, assume, believe, consider, contemplate, reflect, mediate
 - ***Feelings***
 - **Anger** — enrage, infuriate, arouse, nettle, exasperate, inflame, madden

- **Angry** — mad, furious, enraged, excited, wrathful, indignant, exasperated, aroused, inflamed
- **Calm** — quiet, peaceful, still, tranquil, mild, serene, smooth, composed, collected, unruffled, level-headed, unexcited, detached, aloof
- **Eager** — keen, fervent, enthusiastic, involved, interested, alive to
- **Fear** — fright, dread, terror, alarm, dismay, anxiety, scare, awe, horror, panic, apprehension
- **Happy** — pleased, contented, satisfied, delighted, elated, joyful, cheerful, ecstatic, jubilant, gay, tickled, gratified, glad, blissful, overjoyed
- **Hate** — despise, loathe, detest, abhor, disfavour, dislike, disapprove, abominate
- **Love** — like, admire, esteem, fancy, care for, cherish, adore, treasure, worship, appreciate, savour
- **Moody** — temperamental, changeable, irritable, testy, peevish, fretful, spiteful, sulky, touchy
- **Sad** — miserable, uncomfortable, wretched, heart-broken, unfortunate, poor, downhearted, sorrowful, depressed, dejected, melancholy, glum, gloomy, dismal, discouraged, unhappy
- **Scared** — afraid, frightened, alarmed, terrified, panicked, fearful
- **Negative**
 - **Awful** — dreadful, terrible, abominable, bad, poor, unpleasant
 - **Bad** — evil, immoral, wicked, corrupt, sinful, depraved, rotten, contaminated, spoiled, foul, rank, ghastly, execrable
 - **Crooked** — bent, twisted, curved, hooked, zigzag
 - **Dangerous** — perilous, hazardous, risky, uncertain, unsafe
 - **Dark** — shadowy, unlit, murky, gloomy, dim, dusky, shaded, sunless, black, dismal, sad
 - **Dull** — boring, tiring, tiresome, uninteresting, slow, dumb, stupid, unimaginative, lifeless, humdrum, dreary
 - **Fat** — stout, corpulent, fleshy, beefy, paunchy, plump, full, rotund, tubby, pudgy, chubby, chunky, burly, bulky, elephantine
 - **Gross** — improper, rude, coarse, indecent, crude, vulgar, outrageous, extreme, grievous, shameful, uncouth, obscene, low

- **Hurt** — damage, harm, injure, wound, distress, afflict, pain
- **Lazy** — indolent, slothful, idle, inactive, sluggish
- **Predicament** — quandary, dilemma, pickle, problem, plight, spot, scrape, jam
- **Trouble** — distress, anguish, anxiety, worry, wretchedness, pain, danger, peril, disaster, grief, misfortune, difficulty, concern, pains, inconvenience, exertion, effort
- **Ugly** — hideous, frightful, terrifying, gross, grisly, ghastly, horrid, unsightly, plain, homely, evil, repulsive, repugnant, gruesome

- **Positive**

- **Amazing** — incredible, unbelievable, improbable, fabulous, wonderful, fantastic, astonishing, astounding, extraordinary
- **Beautiful** — pretty, lovely, attractive, gorgeous, dazzling, splendid, magnificent, comely, fair, ravishing, graceful, elegant, fine, exquisite, aesthetic, pleasing, radiant, glowing, blooming, sparkling
- **Brave** — courageous, fearless, dauntless, intrepid, plucky, daring, heroic, valorous, audacious, bold, gallant, valiant, doughty, mettlesome
- **Bright** — shining, shiny, gleaming, brilliant, sparkling, shimmering, radiant, vivid, colourful, lustrous, luminous, incandescent, intelligent, knowing, quick-witted, smart, intellectual
- **Delicious** — savoury, delectable, appetizing, luscious, scrumptious, palatable, delightful, enjoyable, toothsome, exquisite
- **Enjoy** — appreciate, delight in, be pleased, indulge in, luxuriate in, bask in, relish, devour, savour, like
- **Famous** — well-known, renowned, celebrated, famed, eminent, illustrious, distinguished, noted, notorious
- **Funny** — humorous, amusing, droll, comic, comical, laughable, silly
- **Good** — excellent, fine, superior, wonderful, marvellous, qualified, suited, suitable
- **Great** — noteworthy, worthy, distinguished, remarkable, grand, considerable, powerful, much, mighty
- **Mischievous** — prankish, playful, naughty, roguish, waggish, impish, sportive
- **Neat** — clean, orderly, tidy, trim, dapper, natty, smart, elegant, well-organized, super, desirable, spruce, shipshape, well-kept, shapely

- **Popular** — well-liked, approved, accepted, favourite, celebrated, common, current
- *Talk / Speech*
 - **Answer** — reply, respond, retort, acknowledge
 - **Ask** — question, inquire of, seek information from, put a question to, demand, request, expect, inquire, query, interrogate, examine, quiz
 - **Cry** — shout, yell, yowl, scream, roar, bellow, weep, wail, sob, bawl
 - **Say/Tell** — inform, notify,
 - **Mean (Something)** — add up to, affect, be important, be of value, be substantive, carry weight, connote, count, denote, express, imply, intend, involve, signify, spell, stand for, suggest, value, weigh in,
- *Unsorted*
 - **Somewhat** — a little, sort of, kind of, a bit, relatively, slightly, moderately, to some extent / degree , reasonably
 - **Somehow** — in a way, virtually, to a certain extent, in some measure, to some extent, to a certain degree, quasi , in a manner of speaking, effectively anyhow, anyway, anywise, by hook or by crook, another, howsoever, in any way, somehow or other, someway, by some means
 - **Definite** — certain, sure, positive, determined, clear, distinct, obvious
 - **Fair** — just, impartial, unbiased, objective, unprejudiced, honest
 - **Important** — necessary, vital, critical, indispensable, valuable, essential, significant, primary, principal, considerable, famous, distinguished, notable, well-known
 - **Interesting** — fascinating, engaging, sharp, spellbinding, curious, captivating, enchanting, bewitching, appealing
 - **Part** — portion, share, piece, allotment, section, fraction, fragment
 - **Place** — space, area, spot, plot, region, location, situation, position, residence, dwelling, set, site, station, status, state

Antonym

An antonym is the opposite of another word. Antonyms can be used to help show contrast between two things or give clues to exactly what is meant. Below are some examples of antonyms:

Antonym Examples

- Achieve – Fail
- Active – Idle
- Afraid – Confident
- Ancient – Modern
- Arrive – Depart
- Arrogant – Humble
- Ascend – Descend
- Attack – Defend
- Attractive – Repulsive
- Adversity – Prosperity
- Affirm - Deny
- Blunt – Sharp
- Brave – Cowardly
- Cautious – Careless
- Complex – Simple
- Compliment – Insult
- Crazy – Sane
- Crooked – Straight
- Condemn - Approve
- Decrease – Increase
- Demand – Supply
- Destroy – Create
- Divide – Unite
- Drunk – Sober
- Expand – Contract
- Freeze – Boil
- Full – Empty
- Generous – Stingy
- Giant – Dwarf
- Gloomy – Cheerful
- Guilty – Innocent
- Hire – Fire
- Include – Exclude
- Individual – Group
- Innocent – Guilty
- Knowledge – Ignorance
- Liquid – Solid
- Major – Minor
- Marvellous – Terrible
- Mature – Immature
- Maximum - Minimum
- Noisy – Quiet
- Optimist - Pessimist
- Ordinary – Extraordinary
- Partial – Complete
- Passive – Active
- Permanent – Unstable
- Plentiful – Sparse
- Positive – Negative
- Powerful – Weak
- Praise – Criticism
- Private – Public
- Problem – Solution
- Professional – Amateur
- Profit – Loss
- Quality – Inferiority
- Random – Specific
- Rigid – Flexible
- Segregate – Integrate
- Shame – Honour

- Simple - Complicated
- Single – Married
- Strength – Weakness
- Sunny - Cloudy
- Superb – Awful
- Temporary – Permanent
- Timid – Bold
- Toward – Away
- Tragic – Comic
- Transparent - Opaque
- Triumph – Defeat
- Union – Separation
- Unique – Common
- Upset – Relaxed
- Urge – Deter
- Vacant – Occupied
- Vague – Definite
- Vertical – Horizontal
- Villain – Hero
- Visible - Invisible
- Wax - Wane
- Wealth – Poverty

Homonyms and Homophones

Homonyms

Homonyms are words that are pronounced the same and spelled the same but have different meanings. Homonyms are words that are both spelled and pronounced the same as each other yet have different meanings. The category is somewhat subjective, because words sometimes have related, only very slightly different, meanings. Therefore, a homonym is a word that has the same name as another word, meaning that the two words look and sound exactly alike.

A simple example of a homonym is the word “pen.” This can mean both a holding area for animals and a writing instrument. Another example is “book,” which can mean something to read or the act of making a reservation. In both cases, the sound and spelling are the same, and only the definition changes.

A word that sounds the same or is spelled the same as another word but has a different meaning, e.g. "No" and "know" are homonyms.

More Examples of Homonyms

Here are a few more examples of homonym pairs:

- address (to speak to)/address (location)
- air (oxygen)/air (a lilting tune)
- band (a musical group)/band (a ring)
- bark (a tree’s out layer)/bark (the sound a dog makes)
- current (up to date)/current (flow of water)
- die (to cease living)/die (a cube marked with numbers one through six)
- fair (equitable)/fair (beautiful)
- kind (type)/kind (caring)
- lie (to recline)/lie (to tell a falsehood)
- match (to pair like items)/match (a stick for making a flame)
- mean (average)/mean (not nice)
- Pole (a person from Poland)/pole (a piece of metal that holds a flag)
- pound (unit of weight)/pound (to beat)
- ream (a pile of paper)/ream (to juice a citrus fruit)
- rose (to have gotten up)/rose (a flower)
- spring (a season)/spring (coiled metal)
- tender (gentle)/tender (to pay money)
- tire (to grow fatigued)/tire (part of a wheel)

Homophones

Homophones are words that sound alike, thanks to that all-important suffix “phone,” which means sound. Homophones are two or more words that sound alike but that are spelled differently and have different meanings. Homonym traces back to the Greek words homos, meaning “same,” and onoma, meaning “name.” So a homonym is sort of like two people who have the same name: called the same thing but different Homophones have the same sound but different meaning, and they are often spelled differently. For example, consider the word “plate” and “plait.” A plate is a dish for eating, but a plait is a special knot or twist, usually indicating something braided, like hair or rope.

Homophones occur in English because there are multiple ways to spell the same sound. For example:

- The sound of /n/ can be spelled with the letter N or the letter combination KN, resulting in the homophones night and knight
- The sound of /ā/ can be spelled A-consonant-E or AY (among other possible spellings), giving us daze and days.
- The schwa sound (the muffled /uh/ sound of vowels in unaccented syllables) causes words like complement and compliment to be pronounced alike.

Homophones may or may not be spelled the same, because the definition is really about the sound.

Other examples:

- mat/matte
- two/too

Here are some more examples of homonyms:

- Bear and bear
We saw a bear in the woods. The cold was more than he could bear.
(Same spelling, same pronunciation.)
- Left and left
They left the coin on the beach. Turn left when you get to the lemonade stand.
(Same spelling, same pronunciation.)

Homonyms	Homophones
<i>Multiple meaning words</i>	<i>Words that sound alike</i>
the spruce tree... to spruce up...	addition for math edition of a book
suit yourself... wore a suit ...	I want to go I like it too One plus one is two
weigh on the scale ... scale the wall...	capitol building state capital
the price is fair ... go to the fair ...	pick a flower bake with flour

Commonly confused words

English has a lot of commonly confused words. They look alike, sound alike or, worst of all, look and sound alike but have completely different meanings. Other words look and sound different but are similar in meaning, and it's hard to determine which the correct one in a given context is. There are a lot of words that look or sound alike but have very different meanings, such as **pore** and **pour** or **flaunt** and **flout**.

Take a look at these two sentences – one of them contains a mistake:

*I **poured over** book after book.*

*We **pored over** the catalogues.*

Here's a quick-reference list of pairs of words that regularly cause people problems. The words follow the accepted British English spelling. Hopefully the following list of pairs of commonly confused words will help you keep them straightened out.

Accept vs. Except

Accept (verb) - to receive

- I accepted all my birthday gifts with gratitude.

Except (conjunction) - apart from; otherwise than; were it not true

- When Susan travels, she packs everything except the kitchen sink.

Affect vs. Effect

Affect (verb) - to have an effect on; influence; produce a change in; to stir the emotions

- The dog's death affected his owners.

Effect (noun) - anything brought about by a cause or agent; result

- The new speed limit law had little effect on the speed of the motorists.

A Lot vs. Allot

A lot (noun phrase) - many

- A lot of people came to the party.

*"A lot" is always two separate words. "Alot" is not a real word.

Allot (verb) - to distribute, give or assign

- Fifteen minutes were allotted to each of the speakers at the conference.

Allusion vs. Illusion

Allusion (noun) - an indirect reference

- The *Austin Powers* movies often make allusions to the *James Bond* films.

Illusion (noun) - a false idea or conception; belief or opinion not in accord with the facts; an unreal, deceptive, or misleading appearance or image

- The magician created the illusion that he was levitating.

Breath vs. Breathe

Breath (noun) - air taken into the lungs and then let out

- Take a deep breath.

Breathe (verb) - to inhale and exhale

- Just calm down and breathe.

Desert vs. Dessert

Desert (verb) - to forsake or abandon; to leave without permission; to fail when needed

- Soldiers should not desert their posts.

Desert (noun) - dry, barren, sandy region

- The largest desert in the world is the Sahara.

Dessert (noun) - a sweet course served at the end of a meal

- Fruit makes a healthy dessert after lunch or dinner.

Lose vs. Loose

Lose (verb) - to become unable to find; to mislay; to fail to win or gain

- Did you lose your glasses again?
- How many games did your team lose last season?

Loose (adjective) - not tight; giving enough room

- I've lost twenty pounds, and now these jeans are really loose.

Principal vs. Principle

Principal (noun) - a governing or presiding officer, specifically of a school; (adjective) - first in rank, authority, importance, degree, etc.

- The student's parents had to have a meeting with the principal.

Principle (noun) - a fundamental truth, law, doctrine, or motivating force, upon which others are based

- The student's parents thought that they had instilled stronger moral principles in their son.

Site vs. Sight

Sight (noun) - something seen, a view, field of vision

- She was a sight for sore eyes.

Site (noun) - a piece of land considered for a specific purpose

- The corner lot was a perfect site for the new shopping centre.

Stationary vs. Stationery

Stationary (adjective) - not moving or not movable; fixed or still

- I rode the stationary bike at the gym for an hour.

Stationery (noun) - writing materials; specifically, paper and envelopes used for letters

- My grandmother has given me a lot of stationery over the years. I think she wants me to use it to write her.

Than vs. Then

Than (conjunction) - used to introduce the second element in a comparison

- My right foot is bigger than my left foot.

Then (adverb) - at that time; next in order; (adjective) - of that time; (noun) - that time

- Take off all your clothes first. Then get in the shower.
- Emily drove up to New York with her then boyfriend, Nick.
- Let's wait until we're hungry; we can decide what we want to eat then.

Their vs. There vs. They're

Their (adjective) - of, belonging to, made by, or done by them

- They were proud of their work.

There (noun) - that place or point

- Just put it over there.

They're (contraction) of they + are

- They're going out to dinner tonight.

To vs. Too vs. Two

To (preposition) - in the direction of and reaching; as far as; to the extent of

- I'm going to Baltimore.

Too (adverb) - in addition; as well; besides; also; more than enough; superfluously; overly; to a regrettable extent; extremely

- I'm going to Baltimore, too.
- I'm too busy. I can't go to Baltimore.

Two (adjective) the number 2

- I have two jobs.

Your vs. You're

Your (adjective) - belonging to you

- Is this your dog?

You're (contraction) - you are

- You're a great mother!

Who vs. Whom

Who (subject pronoun) - what or which person or persons; the person or persons that, or a person that (used to introduce a relative clause)

- Who is going to the party with you?

Whom (object pronoun) - what or which person or persons; the person or persons that, or a person that (used to introduce a relative clause)

- With whom are you going to the party?

Complete the following sentences by selecting the correct word.

1. My little cousin turns _____(to, too, two) years old tomorrow.
2. The next-door neighbour's dog is _____(quite, quiet, quit) loud. He barks constantly throughout the night.
3. _____(Your, You're) mother called this morning to talk about the party.
4. I would rather eat a slice of chocolate cake _____(than, then) eat a chocolate muffin.
5. Before the meeting, he drank a cup of coffee and _____(than, then) brushed his teeth.
6. Do you have any _____(loose, lose) change to pay the parking meter?
7. Father must _____(have, of) left his briefcase at the office.
8. Before playing ice hockey, I was _____(suppose, supposed) to read the contract, but I only skimmed it and signed my name quickly, which may _____(affect, effect) my understanding of the rules.
9. Tonight she will _____(set, sit) down and _____(right, write) a cover letter to accompany her résumé and job application.
10. It must be fall, because the leaves _____(are, our) changing, and _____(it's, its) getting darker earlier.

Vocabulary based on TOEFL and other competitive examinations

Vocabulary is an important part of the TOEFL, and many questions on the exam require you to have a strong vocabulary. Here is a list of the 327 best TOEFL vocabulary words in order to guide your studying.

The 327 TOEFL Words You Need to Know

Word	Definition	Sample Sentence
Abundant	Present in large quantities.	Living close to a lake means we have an abundant supply of water.
Accumulate	To gradually collect.	Each fall, leaves accumulate in our driveway.
Accurate	Correct; free from errors.	Make sure your address is accurate before submitting your online order.
Accustomed	Used to something.	Having 8AM classes means I'm accustomed to getting up early.
Acquire	To come into possession of.	When my grandmother died, I acquired her cookbook collection.
Adamant	Refusing to change an opinion.	The defendant was adamant that he was innocent.
Adequate	Enough to suit your needs.	Our house isn't big, but it's adequate for the two of us.
Adjacent	Close to or next to.	The park is adjacent to the school.
Adjust	To change something so it serves its purpose better.	The bike seat may be too high; you'll probably need to adjust it.
Advantage	Something that makes it easier to achieve success.	His height gives him an advantage in basketball.
Advocate	To publicly support.	My aunt is a major advocate for women's rights.
Adverse	Unfavourable; against one's desires.	I had an adverse reaction to my medication and had to stop taking it.
Aggregate	To combine.	We should aggregate our resources to share them more easily.
Aggressive	Assertive and pushy.	The salesperson was very aggressive when trying to get us to buy the television.
Allocate	To put aside for a specific purpose.	The village needs to allocate funds for building the new school.
Alternative	Another option or choice.	If the ATM is broken, an alternative solution is to stop by the bank.
Amateur	Someone who is inexperienced or not highly skilled in a particular area.	He's an amateur soccer player and is still learning the rules of the game.
Ambiguous	Having several potential meanings; unclear and difficult to understand.	When I asked the HR manager what my chances were of getting the job, she gave me a very ambiguous reply.
Ambitious	Having large goals.	My son is very ambitious and hopes to be a millionaire by the time he's thirty.
Amend	To change for the better; to improve.	I believe we should amend our country's tax laws.

Ample	Plentiful.	Our new apartment has ample space for the two of us.
Anomaly	Deviation from the norm.	The basketball player is the team's best free thrower, so his missing both shots was an anomaly.
Annual	Occurring yearly.	The annual company barbeque takes place every August.
Antagonize	To tease or be hostile towards a person or group.	The boy loves to antagonize his little sister by pulling her hair.
Attitude	Manner or feeling.	After she got grounded, the teenager had a bad attitude for the rest of the day.
Attribute	To give credit.	Be sure to attribute credit to your sources when writing a research paper.
Arbitrary	Based on a whim or random decision.	Flipping a coin is an arbitrary way to make a decision.
Arduous	Requiring a lot of effort.	After you cross the bridge, there's an arduous walk up the hill.
Assuage	To lessen a negative feeling.	The mother assuaged her child's fear of the dark.
Assume	To suppose without solid proof.	I assumed he was rich because he worked as a lawyer.
Augment	To increase or make larger.	She augments her regular salary by babysitting on the weekends.
Benefit	Something positive or advantageous.	A benefit of doing homework on Friday is that your weekend will be free.
Berate	To scold.	Our neighbor berated us after we broke his window playing baseball.
Bestow	To give as a gift.	The medal was bestowed upon him by the president.
Boast	To brag or talk with excessive pride.	He always boasts of his talents after he wins a game.
Boost	To help raise or increase something.	I gave him a pep talk to boost his self-esteem before his speech.
Brash	Rude and tactless.	The brash man always asked inappropriate questions.
Brief	Short (in terms of time).	It will only have a brief meeting, so you'll still have plenty of time for lunch.
Brusque	Abrupt to the point of rudeness.	After being away for so long, I expected more than her brusque greeting.
Cacophony	A harsh, unpleasant mixture of noise.	The cuckoo clock shop lets off a cacophony every hour.
Cease	To stop.	I wish they would cease arguing.
Censure	To express strong disapproval.	Every parent in our district censured the education cuts.
Chronological	Arranged in order of time or date.	Put the historical events in chronological order to make them easier to study.
Clarify	To make clear; to remove confusion.	I didn't understand the instructions, so I asked the teacher to clarify them.
Coalesce	To combine or grow together.	The people on the street eventually coalesced into a group.
Coerce	To force someone to do	The young boy was coerced into stealing

	something against their will.	by his friends.
Cognizant	Being aware or having knowledge of something.	Before mountain climbing, you need to be cognizant of the risks.
Cohesion	Uniting; becoming one.	Water molecules show strong cohesion when they stick together.
Coincide	To occur at the same time.	This year Thanksgiving coincided with my birthday.
Collapse	To fall down or break down.	The old building finally collapsed, leaving nothing but a pile of rubble.
Collide	To hit one another with a forceful impact.	The two cars collided on the freeway.
Commitment	Dedication to a cause or activity.	Joining a school play is a big commitment. You'll need to practice every evening.
Community	A group of people who live or work together.	The Chinese community in my city is hosting a New Year celebration next week.
Conceal	To hide.	The mountains concealed the ocean from view.
Concur	To agree.	He believes women should be paid as much as men, and I concur.
Conflict	A disagreement or fight.	The conflict between the two families has been going on for generations.
Constrain	To restrict or repress.	You should move your plant to a bigger pot, otherwise you'll constrain its roots.
Contemplate	To consider thoughtfully.	I spend a lot of time contemplating what career I want to have.
Continuously	To go on without stopping.	My neighbours have been continuously blasting their music since last night.
Contradict	To give the opposite opinion.	I told the employees that sales were down, but my boss contradicted me and said sales were actually up.
Contribute	To give something (usually money or time) to a common fund or cause.	Every roommate contributes part of his paycheck to the grocery bill.
Convey	To make known.	I've conveyed my interest in working for that company.
Copious	Abundant.	He always takes copious notes during class to study later on.
Core	Central; of main importance.	Although many employees left the company, the core leadership remained.
Corrode	To gradually wear away.	The rust corroded the paint on my car.

Cumbersome	Burdensome; clumsy	Trying to carry four grocery bags at once was very cumbersome.
Curriculum	The courses given by a school or program.	Our school needs to add more music courses to its curriculum.
Data	Facts, statistics, or pieces of information.	The data from these graphs show that yearly temperatures are increasing.
Decay	To decline in health or excellence.	After the tree died, its wood began to decay.
Deceive	To trick or mislead.	He deceived me by pretending to be a millionaire.
Decipher	To find the meaning of.	The spy deciphered the secret code.
Declaration	An announcement.	He made a declaration to the office that he was quitting.
Degrade	To lower in quality.	My attempt at cake degraded into a crumbly mess.
Demonstrate	To show.	Let me demonstrate the proper way of throwing a football.
Deny	To state that something isn't true.	He denied being the robber.
Deplete	To significantly decrease.	Your shopping sprees have depleted my savings.
Deposit	To deliver and leave an item.	Please deposit your books in the bin outside the library.
Desirable	Worth having or wanting.	Bravery is a desirable trait for firefighters to have.
Despise	To hate.	I despise early morning classes.
Detect	To locate something.	The police dog detected the missing child's scent.
Deter	To discourage.	The warning signs on the house deterred trespassers.
Deviate	To differ from the norm.	I decided to deviate from my normal route home and took a shortcut.
Devise	To plan or create.	The coach devised a plan for winning the game.
Diatribe	A sharp criticism or attack.	The politician went into a diatribe against her opponent.
Digress	To wander from the main subject.	The teacher digressed from the lecture to discuss the weather.
Dilemma	A situation where one must choose between two difficult choices.	The student faced the dilemma of attending school sick or missing her exam.
Diminish	To shrink or reduce.	Sprinkle baking soda on the carpet to diminish the stain.
Dispose	To get rid of.	I need to dispose of this trash.
Disproportionate	Too large or small when compared to something else.	The piece of pie I received was disproportionately small.
Disrupt	To interrupt by causing a disturbance.	The protesters disrupted the politician's speech.

Distort	To misrepresent.	The camera filter distorted the image.
Distribute	To give portions of something.	Distribute the materials evenly among the class.
Diverse	Showing a lot of variety.	This city has a very diverse population.
Divert	To cause a change of course.	Because of the accident, the police had to divert traffic down a side street.
Dynamic	Constantly changing.	The theater has dynamic shows, so you never know what you'll see.
Ease	To reduce unpleasantness or difficulty.	This prescription will ease your allergies.
Efficient	Maximizing productivity.	Now that I'm following a schedule at work, I'm much more efficient.
Eliminate	To remove.	Our team lost the match and was eliminated from the competition.
Elite	A select, above-average group.	The elite detective team were also sent for when there were big crimes.
Eloquent	Moving speech or writing.	Her eloquent writing has gained her many fans.
Emphasize	To give special importance to when speaking or writing.	The teacher emphasized the due date of the project.
Endure	To suffer through something difficult with patience.	He has endured four knee operations so far.
Enhance	To intensify or magnify.	The falling snow enhanced the beauty of the small village.
Epitome	A perfect example of something.	The duchess is the epitome of class.
Equivalent	Equal.	Twenty-four is equivalent to two dozen.
Erroneous	Incorrect.	He apologized for his erroneous statement.
Estimate	An approximate value.	Try to get an estimate of the number of people attending the concert.
Evade	To avoid or escape.	By hiding in the bathroom, we were able to evade the intruder.
Evaluate	To assess.	At the end of the class, every student will evaluate how well the professor taught.
Evidence	Facts or information that help prove or disprove something.	These fossils are evidence of evolution.
Evolve	To gradually change.	The small school evolved into a world-class institution.
Exemplary	Worthy of imitation.	She is an exemplary student, and you should copy her study habits.
Exclude	To leave out.	The young boy was excluded from his friends' soccer game.
Exclusive	Not admitting the majority.	We may not be able to get in since that club is very exclusive.
Expand	To increase in size.	Adding air to bike tires will cause them to expand.
Expertise	Expert knowledge or skill in a particular field.	The surgeon's expertise is knee surgeries.
Exploit	To use selfishly.	The company exploited its workers by making them work long hours.
Expose	To reveal or unmask.	The emails presented exposed the

		company's corruption.
Extension	An act of making something longer.	If you're sick on the day the paper is due, the teacher may give you an extension on the due date.
Extract	To get or remove something.	The dentist extracted one of my teeth.
Famine	A time when there is an extreme lack of food.	Millions of children in Ethiopia died due to the famine there.
Feasible	Possible to do.	This study plan you made for me sounds feasible, even with my work schedule.
Finite	Having an end or limits.	Remember that life is finite; you're not immortal.
Flaw	A feature that ruins the perfection of something.	I got the diamond for a reduced price since the stone had a flaw.
Fluctuate	To change continually.	I'm not sure what to wear since the temperature has been fluctuating so much.
Focus	The central point or idea.	The program is going to focus on environmental issues.
Fortify	To strengthen.	The king decided to fortify the castle walls to protect them during attacks.
Framework	A skeletal structure designed to support something.	Skyscrapers must have a strong framework to support all the floors.
Frivolous	Unnecessary; of little importance	You must stop spending your money on frivolous purchases.
Function	A purpose natural to a person or thing.	The function of petals is to attract insects to the plant.
Fundamental	Of primary importance.	Learning scales is fundamental to being a good piano player.
Gap	A space in between two objects.	Be careful to avoid the gap between the two steps.
Garbled	Communication that is distorted and unclear.	Our answering machine is so bad that people's voices are always garbled.
Generate	To produce.	The fire generates heat, which keeps the room warm.
Grandiose	Pompous; overly important.	The actress had only one small part before she got grandiose ideas of her fame.
Hackneyed	Overused and unoriginal.	His poems contain many hackneyed phrases.
Haphazard	Lacking planning.	There was no schedule, so the event was very haphazard.
Harsh	Not gentle; unpleasant.	Her comments on my performance were very harsh and not kind at all.
Hasty	In a hurry.	In order to avoid the police, the robbers made a hasty retreat.
Hazardous	Full of risk.	The nuclear reactor has a lot of hazardous waste.
Hesitate	To pause, often due to reluctance.	She hesitated before entering the abandoned building.
Hierarchy	A ranking system.	In the office hierarchy, the manager is higher than the associate.

Hindrance	Something that causes delay or resistance.	Her hatred of public transportation is a hindrance when trying to get around New York City.
Hollow	Empty inside.	The dead tree is hollow.
Horror	An intense feeling of fear.	The haunted house filled me with horror.
Hostile	Extremely unfriendly.	My ex-boyfriend's new girlfriend was very hostile towards me.
Hypothesis	An unproven idea that attempts to explain something.	You'll need to conduct an experiment to test your hypothesis.
Identical	Exactly the same.	The twins were completely identical.
Illiterate	Unable to read.	Because he'd never been able to attend school, the man was illiterate.
Illustrate	To explain by using an example.	The professor illustrated the lesson with a personal story.
Impact	Effect or influence.	His moving words had a large impact on me.
Impair	To worsen.	Drinking alcohol will impair your driving abilities.
Implement	To carry out.	We will implement the new schedule starting next semester.
Imply	To strongly suggest.	My mother implied that I was the one who forgot to take out the trash.
Impose	To force upon.	After the riots, the mayor imposed a curfew on the town.
Impoverish	To reduce to poverty.	These medical bills are going to impoverish me.
Incentive	A reason to do something.	I hate my job, but the big pay checks are a good incentive to stick with it.
Incessant	Continuing without pause.	I can't sleep because of the dog's incessant barking.
Incidental	A minor part.	Don't worry about your grade on this quiz; it's only an incidental part of your grade.
Incite	To urge on.	The ringleader incited the soldiers to rebellion.
Inclination	A preference.	My inclination is to go to bed early.
Incompetent	Incapable; lacking ability.	The incompetent worker was fired from his job.
Inconsistent	Changing randomly.	His pitching has been very inconsistent all season.
Indefatigable	Untiring.	She is an indefatigable hiker and can walk all day.
Indisputable	Not able to be challenged.	She's the indisputable star of the basketball team.
Ineffective	Not producing any major impact.	The drug was shown to be ineffective at curing cancer.
Inevitable	Unable to be avoided.	Even if you're healthy, death is inevitable in the end.
Infer	To guess based on evidence.	I inferred that she was annoyed based on her body language.
Inflate	To increase in size.	Getting a promotion has really inflated

		his ego.
Influence	The ability to have an impact of something.	The older sister has been a positive influence on her younger siblings.
Inhibit	To hinder or restrain.	This cleaning spray inhibits the growth of bacteria.
Initial	The first.	She was the initial president of the company.
Inquiry	An investigation to determine the truth.	Congress launched an inquiry after the senator was accused of taking bribes.
Integral	Necessary to complete the whole.	You can't quit. You're an integral part of this team.
Integrate	To combine.	When making a cake, you need to fully integrate the wet and dry ingredients.
Interpret	To explain the meaning of something.	I need you to interpret this German speech for me.
Intervene	To come between people, objects, or an event and change what is happening.	When the toddlers couldn't share their toys, their mothers had to intervene.
Intrepid	Fearless.	The intrepid mountain climber reached the top of Mt. Everest.
Intricate	Highly detailed.	The pattern on this blanket is so intricate.
Invasive	Intrusive.	We found the stranger's questions too personal and very invasive.
Investigate	To examine or study.	The police are going to investigate the crime scene.
Irascible	Easy to anger.	Even though my grandfather seems irascible, he's actually very loving.
Irony	The use of words to give a meaning opposite to their literal meaning.	"I love spending my Friday nights doing homework," she said with irony.
Irresolute	Uncertain.	Not sure which direction to go in, he stood irresolute.
Jargon	Words specific to a certain job or group.	To be a successful doctor, you'll need to learn a lot of medical jargon.
Jointly	Together.	The newlyweds jointly opened up a bank account.
Knack	A special talent or skill.	My brother has a real knack for solving tricky math problems.
Labour	Work or effort.	Building a house requires a lot of labour.
Lag	To fall behind.	I stayed with the front group of runners for the first few miles, but after that I began to lag.
Lampoon	To mock or ridicule.	The cartoonist lampooned the president's speech.
Languish	To become weak; to be neglected.	During winter break, my plants languished since I was visiting my parents and couldn't water them.
Lecture	A talk given to an audience.	The professor will give a 30 minute lecture before the quiz.
Leery	Wary.	I'm leery of taking the dark-looking shortcut.

Legitimate	Lawful.	The way he became mayor is completely legitimate.
Lenient	Merciful; less harsh.	The judge gave the criminal a lenient sentence due to his bad childhood.
Likely	Probable.	I don't have much homework, so it's likely I'll be able to go out tonight.
Ludicrous	Ridiculous.	His claims about me are absolutely ludicrous.
Maintain	To continue at the same level.	She has maintained the same weight since high school.
Major	Very important.	This test is a major part of your final grade.
Manipulate	To influence, especially in an unfair way.	He tried to manipulate the results of the election.
Maximize	To increase to the greatest possible size.	The store's goal this year is to maximize its profit.
Measure	To find the size and dimensions of something.	By measuring the tree, I found it was seven feet tall.
Mediocre	Ordinary, average.	The meal the chef made was only mediocre.
Mend	To fix.	My mother will mend the hole in my shirt.
Method	A way of doing something.	Her method for making bread takes three days.
Migrate	To move from one place to another.	Every fall, the geese migrate to Florida.
Minimum	The smallest or lowest amount possible.	You need to get a minimum of 70% on the test to pass the class.
Misleading	Giving the wrong idea.	The advertisement for the weight loss pills is very misleading since studies have shown they're ineffective.
Modify	To change.	I need to modify my style so it looks more professional.
Morose	Gloomy, depressed.	The boy was morose after hearing he didn't make the football team.
Negligent	Lazy, neglectful.	The negligent babysitter invited her friends over while the children were upstairs.
Nonchalant	Indifferent, unexcited.	I was hurt when my friend greeted me so nonchalantly.
Obey	To follow orders or instructions.	My dog always obeys me when I ask her to sit.
Obtain	To get.	The spy obtained the secret codes we need.
Obvious	Easily understood.	The large poster of Michael Jackson over her bed made it obvious who her favourite singer was.
Opponent	Someone on the opposite side for a game or contest.	The soccer player blocked her opponent's shot at the goal.
Oppress	To unfairly burden.	For the past ten generations the royal family has oppressed the peasants by

		keeping them in poverty.
Origin	The source; where something began.	The explorers are trying to find the origin of the Nile.
Paradigm	A typical example of something.	This work of art is a paradigm of the period; you'll see many examples of it in the museum.
Parsimonious	Frugal, stingy.	The parsimonious woman only donated a dollar to charity.
Partake	To join in.	My leg was feeling much better, so I decided to partake in the soccer match.
Partial	Preferring one option over others.	We can get strawberry ice cream, but I'm actually more partial to chocolate.
Paucity	Something existing in very small amounts; scarcity.	During the drought, the town had a paucity of fresh water.
Peak	The highest or most important point.	Winning the championship was the peak of his career.
Peripheral	Located on the side or edge.	There are some peripheral fights going on at the outdoor concert.
Permeate	To penetrate or pass through.	Let the maple syrup permeate your waffles before eating them.
Persist	To continue, especially when facing opposition.	I may have lost my last six games, but I will continue to persist trying to win.
Pertain	Relate.	How does your question pertain to the lecture?
Phase	A period or stage in a process.	In high school, I went through a phase where I only wore black clothes.
Poll	A record of opinions or votes.	The polls show that my candidate is going to win the election.
Potent	Powerful.	Only take one sleeping pill since they're very potent.
Pragmatic	Practical, sensible.	Your boyfriend is too dramatic. I think you need a more pragmatic man.
Praise	To give approval or admiration.	The book is the best I've ever read; I can't praise it enough.
Precede	To come before.	The flower girls preceded the bride when they walked down the aisle.
Precise	Exact.	When collecting data, it's important that your measurements are very precise.
Prestigious	Having a high reputation.	Harvard is one of the most prestigious colleges in the United States.
Prevalent	Widespread.	If more people don't start washing their hands, disease will become more prevalent.
Primary	First; most important.	Maeve's primary goal in life is to become a doctor.
Prior	Previous or earlier.	Prior to becoming a teacher, Elena worked as a book editor.
Proceed	To continue doing something.	I'm sorry for interrupting; please proceed with your speech.
Progeny	Offspring.	The dog's progeny all have yellow fur.
Promote	To further to progress of	I'm promoting this new indian movie so

	something.	that more people will buy tickets to it.
Prosper	To do well.	Dave hopes his new business will prosper and make him a millionaire.
Proximity	Nearness in time or space.	The twins hated to be apart, so they bought houses in close proximity to each other.
Quarrel	Disagreement or fight; to have an argument.	Nina and her boyfriend always quarrel over money.
Range	The distance between two things, often the maximum and the minimum.	The range of ages at the concert spanned from 12 to 65.
Rank	An official position or station.	Archibald was promoted to the rank of first captain.
Rebuke	To sternly disapprove or reprimand.	After staying out too late, Grace received a rebuke from her parents.
Recapitulate	To give a brief summary.	At the end of his speech, the politician made sure to recapitulate his main points.
Recede	To retreat.	Two days after the flood, the seawater finally began to recede from our house.
Recommend	To present someone with confidence and approval.	I need to ask Mr. Smith if he'll recommend me for this leadership position.
Reform	To make changes that improve something.	Melanie's father is in charge of reforming to school system.
Regulate	To supervise or control a process so that it functions correctly.	Ben needs to regulate how much he eats in order to stay at a healthy weight.
Reinforce	To strengthen with added support.	The builders reinforced the house's wooden frame with steel beams.
Reject	To say no to something that is offered.	Lydia rejected my invitation to the homecoming dance.
Release	To free; to allow to be known.	The CEO decided to release the company's profits from last year.
Rely	To depend on.	I rely on coffee to get through my morning.
Reproach	To express disapproval or disappointment.	The coach reproached the players for failing to play their best.
Require	To need for a specific purpose.	The camping trip requires that every participant bring their own food and sleeping bag.
Resent	To feel bitterness or anger towards someone or something.	I've always resented my sister because she is my mother's favourite child.
Resign	To give up an office or position.	Due to his declining health, the mayor decided to resign from office.
Resist	To withstand the effect of.	Resist the impulse to have ice cream for breakfast.
Resolve	To come to a firm decision.	Matt resolved to get better grades next semester by studying every night.
Restrict	To confine or keep within limits.	My doctor told me to restrict myself to one glass of wine a day.
Retain	To continue to do something or keep something.	I've decided to retain my normal hairstyle.

Retract	1. To draw back in. 2. To withdraw something after it's found to be untrue.	1. I felt calmer after the lion retracted its claws. 2. After numerous errors were found, the newspaper retracted the story.
Retrieve	To bring back.	Alexis got out of the car to retrieve the ball her little brother had thrown.
Rhetorical	Used just for style or impact.	You aren't expected to actually answer rhetorical questions.
Rigid	Stiff; unyielding.	The boys' father was happy to see the base of the tree house was rigid and sturdy.
Rotate	To turn.	Rotate the sculpture so I can see the other side.
Safeguard	Something that serves as protection or ensures safety.	A retirement fund is one way to safeguard your finances for the future.
Scrutinize	To very carefully examine.	The judges were looking for perfection, so they scrutinized every entry.
Section	A part of the whole.	This section of the stadium dressed completely in red.
Select	To choose.	Jane selected a blue dress to wear to the wedding.
Sequence	Things that follow each other in a certain order.	Librarians need to know how order books in the correct sequence.
Severe	1. Harsh or strict. 2. Grave, critical.	1. The robbers suffered severe consequences for stealing. 2. My uncle is currently battling a severe illness in the hospital.
Shallow	Not deep.	You don't need to worry about getting your dress wet. The water is very shallow here.
Shelter	To protect from something harmful.	The empty barn gave the men shelter during the storm.
Shrink	To become smaller.	Hopefully this cream will cause my scar to shrink.
Significant	Important, noteworthy.	The Gettysburg Address was a significant event during the Civil War.
Source	A person, place, or thing where something was obtained.	You shouldn't use Wikipedia as a source when writing school papers.
Sparse	Thinly scattered.	The farm was almost empty; there were just a few sparse trees here and there.
Specify	To clearly indicate which one.	You need to specify which size shirt you want before I can order it.
Speculate	To form a theory without strong evidence.	My sister loves to speculate on the private lives of celebrities.
Solitary	Alone; without others.	The hermit lives a solitary existence deep in the mountains.
Sombre	Gloomy; depressing.	After losing the competition, the chess players were very somber.
Soothe	To calm or comfort.	The mother sang a lullaby to soothe her crying baby.
Squalid	Filthy and unpleasant.	The shelter was squalid and

		overcrowded.
Stable	Unlikely to change or fail.	We're lucky to live in a country with such a stable government.
Stagnant	Sluggish, showing little movement.	With few new jobs created, the economy has remained stagnant for the past five years.
Strategy	A plan to reach a desired outcome.	The football team will need a good strategy to win the game tomorrow.
Subsequent	Coming after something in time.	The first king was a good ruler, but subsequent kings have all been corrupt.
Substitute	A person or thing acting in place of another.	If you don't have sugar, honey makes a good substitute for this recipe.
Subtle	Difficult to notice right away.	Maya's perfume was very subtle; you had to get close to her to smell it.
Sufficient	Enough to serve a particular purpose.	Make sure you have sufficient food for the camping trip.
Summarize	To briefly give the main points.	The class didn't have time to read the book, so the professor summarized it for them.
Supervise	To oversee work or a process.	My dad didn't think we were old enough to build the fort on our own, so he supervised us.
Supplant	To take the place of something else.	The king was supplanted by his treacherous younger brother who locked him in the dungeon.
Suspend	1. To temporarily stop. 2. To hang something from somewhere.	1. The power outage suspended the school concert. 2. The lamp is suspended from the high ceiling.
Suspicious	Having the belief that someone is doing something dishonest or illegal.	The couple became suspicious when they saw strange men removing their neighbour's expensive electronics during the night.
Sustain	To keep going.	I stopped trying to sustain the friendship after he made fun of how I looked.
Symbolic	Serving as a symbol.	A cross is symbolic of Christianity.
Technical	Relating to a specific subject or craft.	The laptop manual is full of technical terms only a computer expert can understand.
Terminal	Situated at the end.	Everyone on the train must get off at the terminal stop.
Tolerate	To put up with.	I tolerate the rude man since he is my husband's best friend.
Transfer	To move from one place to another.	Ben's work is going to transfer him from Chicago to Detroit.
Transition	Changing from one state or condition to another.	The transition from student to employee can often take awhile to get used to.
Transparent	1. See-through material. 2. Easy to detect.	1. The glass vase is completely transparent. 2. Her attempt to flatter the movie star was very transparent.

Tuition	The fee for instruction at a school.	College tuition prices have gone up in recent decades.
Unobtrusive	Not attracting attention.	The prince's bodyguards had mastered the art of being unobtrusive.
Upbeat	Happy; optimistic.	Even when she's having a bad day, my mom always has an upbeat attitude.
Unjust	Unfair.	Since I tried my hardest on the exam, I felt my teacher's criticism of me was unjust.
Vacillate	To waver or be indecisive.	She vacillated between the two dresses before finally deciding to wear a skirt.
Valid	Just; well-founded.	The soldiers had valid concerns about the battles they'd be facing.
Vanish	To disappear quickly.	The plane vanished behind the clouds.
Verdict	A judgement or decision.	The jury delivered a guilty verdict.
Whereas	On the contrary.	I always save my money whereas my brother is constantly in debt.
Wholly	Completely.	The monk is wholly devoted to his faith.
Widespread	Occurring over a large region.	There is widespread poverty across that country.
Wilt	To droop and become limp.	Plants will wilt if you don't water them regularly.

FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR

Introduction:

Functional English is usage of the English language required to perform a specific function. This is typically taught as a foundation subject as a good command of English is often required for academic study and career progression. In some cases, a particular form of technical English may be required for a particular profession. Such specialized usage is known and taught as English for Specific Purposes which is Functional English.

The term “**Functional**” should be considered in the broad sense of providing learners with the skills and abilities they need to take an active and responsible role in their communities, everyday life, the workplace and educational settings. Functional English requires learners to communicate in ways that make them effective and involved as citizens, to operate confidently and to convey their ideas and opinions clearly.

Conversation: Conversation in plain context means the use of speech for informal exchange of views or ideas or information, or the spoken exchange of thoughts, opinions and feelings. It needs at least two persons to carry out a conversation because it is interactive and participants take turns to exchange messages. Therefore, conversation is fundamentally a sequential activity. Strong conversation skills benefit both the speaker and the listener in several ways.

Starting a Conversation - General Tips:

- Speak with clarity and purpose. Show interest in the conversation.
- Reflect before speaking if it's your turn to talk and allow silence to also have its rightful place in your conversation. Don't be afraid of pauses – use them to change topics, re-energize the conversation, or to take a short breather even.
- It will help if you watch some TV, listen to radio shows, and/or read a lot – newspapers, magazines, and/or books. Doing this will ensure that you have some idea of what's going on in the world.
- Follow the lead that your listener is expressing. If he or she appears interested, then continue. If he or she is looking at a clock or watch, or worse, looking for an escape strategy, then you've been going on for too long.
- Interesting and funny quotes or facts can lighten things up, and make way for things to talk about
- Practice better non-verbal skills that are friendly and confident.

- Remember, whoever you are talking to, you always have something in common. We all experience the weather, like good food, and enjoy a good laugh. When in doubt, just talk to them about what they are there for. For example, if you meet them at a bus stop, ask them where they are going. If they are from out of town, ask them about their life at home.
- To break the ice, a compliment is always nice.
- Make sure what you say is relevant to others. You can't make a connection with someone without commonality. It's just human nature.
- Additionally, you can always resort to fun but obvious conversation applications.
 - Look at the person or people you are talking to
 - If you haven't met before, introduce yourself and ask their name
 - Use a person's name when talking to them
 - Ask questions when you don't understand something
 - Stick to the subject
 - Say nice things about people and praise those who deserve it
 - It's fine to disagree, but disagree politely

Articles

An **article** is a word used to modify a noun, which is a person, place, object, or idea. Technically, an article is an **adjective**, which is any word that modifies a noun. Usually adjectives modify nouns through description, but articles are used instead to point out or refer to nouns. There are two different types of articles that we use in writing and conversation to point out or refer to a noun or group of nouns: definite and indefinite articles.

Definite Article (The)

Let's begin by looking at the **definite article**. There is only one definite article in the English language (*the*). "*The*" is used in front of singular or plural nouns and adjectives to refer to something with which both the speaker/writer and listener/reader are familiar. For example, if you're bouncing a basketball at school, your friend might say, "Give me *the* ball." In this case, both you and your friend recognize that there is only one specific ball being referred to, and that's the one you're bouncing. Your friend doesn't want *a* ball (meaning *any* ball); he or she wants *the* ball that you're holding.

If you introduce a word with *a* or *an*, you may use *the* anytime thereafter because the introduction has made both the speaker/writer and listener/reader familiar with the word. Here's an example:

Ruchika bought *a* book yesterday. She read the first three pages when she got home and decided to return *the* book because it was boring. This article is the word 'the,' and it refers directly to a specific noun or groups of nouns. For example:

- the freckles on my face
- the alligator in the pond
- the breakfast burrito on my plate

Indefinite Articles (A and An)

If indefinite articles are the proverbial thorn in your side, the good news is that you don't need a lot of grammatical jargon to understand their usage. You simply need your ears (okay, and maybe just a little grammatical jargon).

In English, '*a*' and '*an*' are indefinite articles, which means that they don't refer to anything definite or specific. If someone were to say, "Give me an apple," you might be inclined to run out and pick one from the tree outside, or you may even run to the store and buy one. By using the word *an*, the speaker has let you know that he or she is looking for *any* apple rather than a specific one.

The same can be said for the article '*A*'. If someone told you there's a dog on the road, you would probably know it's not your or your best friend's dog because the speaker chose to

use the word *a* rather than call the pooch by name. Hence, it's understood that the dog on the road is one of the millions of dogs in the world and is therefore not specific.

How do I know which one to use?

That's a very good question. Fortunately, the answer is quite simple. It's about *listening* to the words you're using. The rule for indefinite article usage is as follows:

*Use *a* before nouns (or adjectives) that start with a consonant sound.

*Use *an* before nouns (or adjectives) that start with a vowel sound.

Here are some examples from our English editing professionals:

Please give the dog *a* cookie.

(The noun *cookie* starts with a consonant sound, so *a* must be used.)

Please give the dog *a* delicious cookie.

(We have put the adjective *delicious* in front of *cookie*, but as you can see, *delicious* still starts with a consonant sound, so *a* must still be used.)

I need to work for *an* hour before we go to dinner.

The word *hour* is actually pronounced like the possessive pronoun *our*, which starts with the *o* vowel sound. Therefore, because we're starting with a vowel *sound* (regardless of whether the first letter is actually a consonant), we must use *an*. The same is true for the opposite (*i.e.*, a vowel that makes a consonant sound):

A union

The word may start with a *u*, but think for a minute about the sound that the word makes: ***you-nion***. We know that *y* is a consonant, so consequently we must use *a*. Here are a few more tricky ones to keep your eye on:

A university (again, the *you* sound made by a vowel)

An x-ray (a consonant making the *ex* sound, which, you'll notice, starts with the *e* vowel sound)

ARTICLES

There are three articles in English Language. They are A, AN and THE

In definite article (A and AN)

- A** Use 'a' if the word starts with a consonant.
- AN** Use 'an' if the word starts with a vowel.

Definite article (THE)

- THE** Use 'the' before singular countable or common noun.

THE PREPOSITION

The **preposition** is a part of speech which denotes the relations between objects and phenomena. It shows relationships in time and space and relationships between ideas (logical relationships). Many words that can be used as prepositions can also be used as adverbs, but not all of them can. A preposition in a prepositional phrase is always followed by a noun, a pronoun, or another word that can replace a noun, such as an -ing form (Gerund). An object form of a personal pronoun after a preposition is used.

As to their **morphological structure** prepositions fall under the following groups:

simple (*in, on, at, for, with, etc.*);

derivative (*behind, below, across, along, etc.*);

compound (*inside, outside, within, without, etc.*);

composite (*because of, in front of, in accordance with, etc.*).

A preposition is a word that shows the relationship between two things. In the example above, the prepositions show the relationships between a plane and a cloud. Below is a list of most common prepositions: about, beside, inside, to, above, besides, like, toward, across, between, near, under, after, beyond, of, underneath, against, by, off, until, along, despite, on, up, among, down, out, with, around, during, outside, within, at, except, over, without, before, for, past, behind, from, since, below, in, through, beneath, into, throughout etc.

Some prepositions consist of more than one word. Here is a list of the most common multiword prepositions: along with, in place of, because of, in spite of, Due to, instead of, except for, on account of, in addition to, out of, in case of, up to, in front of, with the exception of etc.

Prepositions (in, on, at, to)

Rules for Prepositions IN, ON, AT, TO

Basic Rules

- A. AT a time
- B. ON a day
- C. IN a month (season, year, decade, century)
- D. AT an address
- E. ON a street
- F. IN an area (neighborhood, town, borough, state, country, continent, ocean, the world, the solar system, the universe)

20 Special Rules for Prepositions IN, ON, AT, TO

1. Look AT and listen TO
2. TO with verbs of desire, necessity, expectation, love TO, like TO, hate TO, want TO, need TO, have TO, hope TO, expect TO
3. AT night, IN the morning, IN the afternoon, IN the evening
4. ON transportation, ON the bus, ON the train, ON the subway, ON a plane, ON a jet, ON a ship, ON a bicycle, ON a motorcycle, ON a surfboard, ON a skateboard, BUT IN a car, IN a taxi, IN a small boat, IN an elevator, IN a helicopter
5. AT an intersection (where two streets cross) AT Broadway and 42nd Street, AT Fifth Avenue and 34th Street
6. ON an island, ON a farm, ON a college campus, ON earth, ON a planet
7. Expressions that mean sometimes use different prepositions:
from time TO time, ON occasion, once IN a while
8. IN a park, IN a yard, AT a playground
9. ON anything flat, ON a plate, ON the wall, ON the floor, ON a shelf, ON the blackboard, ON a table, ON a desk, ON the stove, ON your face, a hat ON your head
10. IN a room or anything smaller, IN the closet, IN a drawer, IN a cup, IN a bowl, IN a glass, IN your mouth, ideas IN your head, a look IN your eye, a ribbon IN your hair
11. TO when moving from point A TO point B go TO school, drive TO work, take a trip TO Boston, take your kids TO school, fly TO London, walk TO the library, bring your dog TO the vet
12. ON a/an [adjective] morning, afternoon, evening, night, day ON a cold afternoon, ON a sunny morning, ON a rainy evening, ON a Saturday night, ON a spring day, ON a special night
13. ON vacation, ON the weekend, ON a trip, ON a picnic, ON your break, ON a leave of absence, ON your lunch hour
14. IN the water swimming (or drowning), ON the water boating
15. AT the beach (the whole place), lie ON the beach (=ON the sand), play IN the sand
16. ON anything like a line, ON the coast, stand ON line, ON the border, ON the side, ON a team/committee
17. ON forms of communication, ON TV, ON the radio, ON the phone, ON the fax machine, ON the computer, ON a disk, ON a CD, ON a hard drive, ON a channel, ON a screen
18. a report or news article ON the economy (ABOUT the economy)
19. ON time for an event or activity: Come to the meeting ON time. Be in class ON time.
20. IN time (or *too late*) TO do something: Get to the station IN time TO catch a train.

Practice

Prepositions for Time, Place, and Introducing Objects

Time

*On is used with days.

I will see you on Monday.

The week begins on Sunday.

*At is used with noon, night, midnight, and with the time of day.

My plane leaves at noon.

The movie starts at 6 p.m.

*In is used with other parts of the day, with months, with years, with seasons.

He likes to read in the afternoon.

The days are long in August.

The book was published in 1999.

The flowers will bloom in spring.

* Since, for, by, from—to, from—until, during, (with)in – expresses extended time.

She has been gone since yesterday. (She left yesterday and has not returned.)

I'm going to Paris for two weeks. (I will spend two weeks there.)

The movie showed from August to/until October. (Beginning in August, ending in October.) I watch TV during the evening. (For some period of time in the evening.)

We must finish the project within a year. (No longer than a year.)

Place

* **In** – describes the point itself.

There is a wasp in the room.

- **Inside** – expresses something contained.

Put the present inside the box.

- **On** – talks about the surface.

I left your keys on the table.

- **At** – talks about a general vicinity.

She was waiting at the corner.

- Over, above – when the object is higher than a point.

He threw the ball over the roof.

Hang that picture above the couch.

- Under, underneath, beneath, below – when the object is lower than a point.

The rabbit burrowed under the ground.

The child hid underneath the blanket.

We relaxed in the shade beneath the branches.

The valley is below sea-level.

- Near, by, next to, between, among, opposite – when the object is close to a point.

She lives near the school.

There is an ice cream shop by the store.

An oak tree grows next to my house

The house is between Elm Street and Maple Street.

I found my pen lying among the books.

The bathroom is opposite the kitchen.

Introduce objects of verbs

- At – with verbs glance, laugh, look, rejoice, smile, and stare

She took a quick glance at her reflection.

(exception with mirror: She took a quick glance in the mirror.)

You didn't laugh at his joke.

I'm looking at the computer monitor.

We rejoiced at his safe rescue.

That pretty girl smiled at you.

Stop staring at me.

- Of – with verbs approve, consist, and smell

I don't approve of his speech.

My contribution to the article consists of many pages.

He came home smelling of alcohol.

- Of/About –with verbs dream and think

I dream of finishing college in four years.

Can you think of a number between one and ten?

I am thinking about this problem.

- For – with verbs call, hope, look, wait, watch, and wish

Did someone call for a taxi?

He hopes for a raise in salary next year.

I'm looking for my keys.

We'll wait for her here.

You go buy the tickets, and I'll watch for the train.

If you wish for an "A" in this class, you must work hard.

Frequently Misused Prepositions

Prepositions may sometimes be confused because of slang and the general informality of talk.

Here are some frequently misused prepositions.

- Beside, besides. Beside means next to, whereas besides means in addition.

The comb is beside the brush.

Besides planning the trip, she is also getting the tickets.

- Between, among. Generally, between is used when two items are involved; with three or more, among is preferred.

Between you and me, he is among friends.

- Due to. Due to should not be used as a preposition meaning because of.

Because of (not due to) his speeding, we were all ticketed.

- Inside of. The of is always unnecessary.

Stay inside the house.

The man stayed outside (not outside of) the post office.

1. Fill in each space in the following sentences with the right preposition of place.

- 1) She lives [at] 43 Duke Road.
- 2) We sat [on] the floor.
- 3) He's [at] work (*i.e.* not at home).
- 4) She lives [in] Milan.
- 5) Our house is between two shops and it is [near] a bus stop; you just go [across] the road and walk along.
- 6) The key's [in] my pocket.
- 7) Put it [in] the box.
- 8) They're [at] a party tonight.
- 9) He's [in] the kitchen.
- 10) Below us was the river which ran [under] the bridge.

Prepositions of time

At a time: *at 9 o'clock*

an age: *at fifteen/the age of fifteen*

On a day or a *on Monday, on 25th September*

date: *on Saturday afternoon, on the morning of 4th June*

noun/gerund: **On** *departure /departing, she ... = When she departed, she...*

In a period of time:

- some time during that period: *in the morning, in February, in 1994;*

- at the end of a stated period: *I'll be ready in five minutes.* (five minutes from now);

- the length of time that something takes: *I read the book in two and a half hours.*

By a time, date, period, not later than that time: *You must be here by 7 o'clock.*

before a time, date, period, event: *I never go to bed before midnight.*

after a time, date, period, event: *I'll phone you after lunch.*

since a point in time, from that time now or until a point in the past: *We've been here since Tuesday. It was the end of the summer. They had been there since June.*

For a period of time: *They've been together for three years.*

during a named period or an event: *We always work hard during the summer.*

Practice

1. Fill in each space in the following sentences with: *in, at or on.*

- 1) I get up early [in]... the morning and go to bed late [at]... night.
- 2) I'm so bored. There's nothing to do [at]... weekends.
- 3) He went swimming [on]... Sunday morning, and [in]... the evening he play squash.
- 4) I love going for walks [in] summer. It's still light [at]... nine o'clock.
- 5) I take my annual holiday [in]... June, but I have a few days off [at]... Christmas.
- 6) He usually starts work [at]... 9.30, but [on]... Friday he starts [at]... 8.30.
- 7) I was born [in]... January, 1954.
- 8) People exchange presents [on]... Christmas Day.
- 9) This house was built [in]... the nineteenth century.
- 10) We usually work late [on]... weekdays.

NOTES:

- We use *at* with festivals and religious celebrations: *at Easter*.
- We say *at night*. But we can also say *in the night* meaning during.
- We often use *last / this / next* with time words: *We didn't go on holiday **last** summer. I'm going home **this** weekend. I'll see you **next** Monday.*
- *During* versus *for*. *We rented a cottage **for** the summer. He became ill **during** the summer. We spend all our time outside **during** the summer.*

• ***During*** versus ***in***.

They can both be used to refer to something that happens throughout a time period, from its beginning to its end, and so it is often possible to use either *during* or *in*

*: It's very cold here **during** day **in** the wintes.*

But

- We use ***in*** and not ***during*** when we want the time reference to sound more specific. So, for example, if we are contrasting one period of time with another, we use ***in***: *I last saw you **in** May, not July.*
- We use ***during*** when we want to stress the idea of duration. *She felt miserable **during** the whole of that summer.*
- When the time reference is an activity rather than a time period, we use ***during***: *She didn't speak once **during** the meal.*

Practice

1. Fill in each space in the following sentences with *while, during or for*.

- 1) I fell and hurt myself ... I was playing tennis.
- 2) It started to rain ... the match.
- 3) We played tennis ... two hours.
- 4) I worked in Pune ... three years.
- 5) ... the summer I stayed on a farm in Jabalpur.
- 6) I learned English ... I was there.
- 7) We went on holiday to Mumbai ... three weeks.
- 8) ... the day it was very hot, but it was cool at night.
- 9) We went to Disneyland ... we were there.
- 10) We had a lovely meal yesterday. We sat at the table ... three hours.
- 11) ... the meal we exchanged news.
- 12) ... I was talking to Pratibha, I learned that Sunil was in hospital.
- 13) They rented a villa ... a month.
- 14) Children got lots of presents ... Diwali.
- 15) Fighting broke out between rival fans ... the match.

on	in	by	for	at
on suspicion of	in view of	by chance	for granted	at noon
on holiday	in love with	by law	for fear of	at the peak of
on vacation	in defense of	by force	for the good	at the expense of
on purpose	in disguise	by order of	of	at the latest
on tiptoe	in charge of	by air	for the sake of	at length
on no account	in terms of	by sea	for life	at a distance
on a diet	in response to	by land	for some	at times
on approval	in brief	by nature	reasons	at night
on behalf of	in a sense	by no means	for good	at the top of
on time	in reality	by hand	for sure	at the bottom of
on business	in action	by mistake	for certain	at once
on edge	in hand	by means of	for a change	at odds with
on the verge of	in distress	by heart	for real	at random
on a trip	in progress	by far		at all costs
on a journey	in confusion	by request		at present
		by oneself		at the end of
		by mv watch		something

Conjunctions

There are two types of conjunctions, a small group of **coordinators** (or coordinating conjunctions) and a much larger group of **subordinators** (subordinating conjunctions).

A coordinator

1. is a word that connects two things at the same level (two noun phrases, two adjective phrases, two clauses of the same type).
2. can be either simple (*and, but, or*) or complex (*as well as, both...and, either...or, neither...nor*).
3. does not usually occur at the beginning of a sentence in formal and written language.

A subordinator

1. is a word that introduces a dependent clause, which usually functions either as an adverbial or as the post modifier in a noun phrase.
2. can be either simple (*as, because, where*) or complex (*as if, as long as, so that*)
3. contributes to expressing one of a number of different meanings, such as time (*while*), place (*where*), comparison (*as if*), intention/result (*in order that*), cause/reason (*because*), condition (*in case*), contrast/opposition/exclusion (*whereas*), question (*whether*)
4. can express different meanings in different contexts (*since* time/cause, *if* question/condition)

The most frequent subordinator is *that*, which is often left out, especially in informal language. *He said /that/ you were in town.*

In formal writing, *whether* is often preferred to *if*. In some cases, *whether* is the only acceptable alternative: A) after a preposition, B) when introducing a structure with *or not*, C) before an infinitive.

Some words in the subordinator class also belong to the preposition class (*after, as, before, like, than, since*), and a few others also belong to the adverb class (*when, where*).

Many subordinators express meaning similar to the meanings of adverbs and it can be difficult to keep them apart. Compare the following examples:

1. *He proceeded to distribute the exam, **although** the students complained loudly.* (Subordinator, used to introduce a dependent clause linked to the rest of the sentence by a comma)

2. *He proceeded to distribute the exam. However, the students complained loudly.* (Adverb, used in a main clause separated from the previous sentence by a full stop and a capital letter).

If *although* is used to introduce a sentence standing on its own, we have a **sentence fragment**. **He did it. Although they complained.* If *however* is used in a dependent clause connected to the previous clause by a comma, we have a **run-on sentence**. **He did it, however they didn't like it.* Knowing about subordinators will help you avoid these types of problem sentences.

Conjunctions

A **conjunction** is a part of speech that connects two words, phrases or clauses together.

Types of conjunctions:

A coordinating conjunction: This joins two ideas. These include:

and	but	or	for	nor	yet
-----	-----	----	-----	-----	-----

e.g. Do you want an apple **or** a banana?

A subordinating conjunction: This shows a relationship between two parts of a sentence. These include:

after	although	as	as if	as long as	as though
because	before	even if	even though	if	if only
in order that	now that	once	rather than	since	so that
than	that	though	till	unless	until
when	whenever	where	whereas	wherever	while

e.g. You can go and play **now that** you have finished your homework.

Direct and Indirect Narration

(Reported Speech)

INTRODUCTION

There are two ways of relating what a person has said: direct and indirect.

In **Direct Speech** we repeat the original speaker's exact words:

He said, "I have lost my umbrella."

Direct speech repeats, or quotes, the exact words spoken. When we use direct speech in writing, we place the words spoken between quotation marks (" ") and there is no change in these words. We may be reporting something that's being said NOW (for example a telephone conversation), or telling someone later about a previous conversation. Direct speech is found in conversations in books, in plays and in quotations.

INDIRECT SPEECH

Reported or indirect speech is usually used to talk about the past, so we normally change the tense of the words spoken. We use reporting verbs like 'say', 'tell', 'ask', and we may use the word 'that' to introduce the reported words. Inverted commas are not used.

*She said, "I saw him." (Direct speech) = She said **that she had seen him.** (Indirect speech)*

'That' may be omitted:

She told him that she was happy. = She told him she was happy.

We give the exact meaning of a remark or a speech, without necessarily using the speaker's exact words:

He said (that) he had lost his umbrella.

There is no comma after **say** in indirect speech. **That** can usually be omitted after **say** and **tell** + object. But it should be kept after other verbs: **complain, explain, object, point out, protest** etc. Indirect speech is normally used when conversation is reported verbally, though direct speech is used, to give a more dramatic effect.

When we turn direct speech into indirect, some changes are usually necessary.

'SAY' AND 'TELL'

Use 'say' when there is no indirect object:

He said that he was tired.

Always use 'tell' when you say who was being spoken to (*i.e.* with an indirect object):

He told me that he was tired.

'TALK' AND 'SPEAK'

Use these verbs to describe the action of communicating:

He talked to us.

She was speaking on the telephone.

Use these verbs with 'about' to refer to what was said:

He talked (to us) about his parents.

Tenses

If you turn direct speech into indirect speech, the tense of the sentence has to change. It goes one step back in time. This is called *backshift*.

Example

He said, "I am happy." – He said that he was happy.

Backshift of tenses	
from	to
Simple Present	Simple Past
Simple Past	Past Perfect
Present Perfect	
Past Perfect	
can	could
will	would
Progressive forms (continuous)	
am/are/is	was/were
was/were	had been
has been	
had been	

Backshift of tenses	
From	To
Ram: "I work in the garden."	Ram said that he worked in the garden.
Ram: "I worked in the garden."	Ram said that he had worked in the garden.
Ram: "I have worked in the garden."	
Ram: "I had worked in the garden."	
Ram: "I will work in the garden."	Ram said that he would work in the garden.
Ram: "I can work in the garden."	Ram said that he could work in the garden.
Ram: "I may work in the garden."	Ram said that he might work in the garden.
Ram: "I would work in the garden." (could, might, should, ought to)	Ram said that he would work in the garden. (could, might, should, ought to)
Progressive forms	
Ram: "I'm working in the garden."	Ram said that he was working in the garden.
Ram: "I was working in the garden."	Ram said that he had been working in the garden.
Ram: "I have been working in the garden."	
Ram: "I had been working in the garden."	

The verbs *could, should, would, might, must, needn't, ought to, used to* do not normally change.
Example:

He said, "She might be right." – He said that she might be right.

Pronouns

In reported speech, you often have to change the pronoun depending on who says what.

Example

She says, "**My** mum doesn't have time today." – She says that **her** mum doesn't have time today.

Place and Time expressions

For place and time expressions you have to check whether place and time are the same in direct and reported speech or not. Check out the following example:

Transformation in time expressions:

Direct Speech	Reported Speech
today	that day
now	then
yesterday	the day before
... days ago	... days before
last week	the week before
next year	the following year
tomorrow	the next day / the following day
here	there
this	that
these	those

DIRECT SPEECH	INDIRECT SPEECH
Simple Present <i>"I never eat meat", he explained.</i>	Simple Past <i>= He explained (that) he never ate meat.</i>
Present Continuous <i>"I'm waiting for Ann", he said.</i>	Past Continuous <i>= He said (that) he was waiting for Ann.</i>
Present Perfect <i>"I have found a flat", he said.</i>	Past Perfect <i>= He said (that) he had found a flat.</i>
Present Perfect Continuous <i>He said, "I've been waiting for ages".</i>	Past Perfect Continuous <i>= He said (that) he had been waiting for ages.</i>
Simple Past <i>"I took it home with me", she said.</i>	Past Perfect <i>= She said (that) he had taken it home with her.</i>
Future <i>He said, "I will/shall be in Paris on Monday".</i>	Conditional <i>= He said (that) he would be in Paris on Monday.</i>
Future Continuous <i>"I will/shall be using the car myself on the 24h", she said.</i>	Conditional Continuous <i>= She said (that) she'd been using the car herself on the 24th.</i>
Conditional <i>I said, "I would like to see it".</i>	Conditional <i>= I said (that) I would like to see it.</i>

Agreement of Subject and Verb

Subject/verb agreement can seem straightforward for native speakers and others comfortable with English; we know to write “the attorney argues” and “the attorneys argue.” However, some special circumstances can make it more difficult to tell whether a subject and verb really do agree. These complications can arise from the words themselves, or from their order in a particular sentence.

Verbs can change form in tense, person, and number. The subject and verb of every clause (independent or dependent), however, must agree in person and number. Once you identify the subject and the verb, you can then determine such agreement of the subject and the verb.

There are three persons:

First person- the speaker

Second person-the person spoken to

Third person- the person spoken about

There are two numbers:

Singular- denoting one person or thing

Plural- denoting more than one person or thing

Nouns ending in *s* are usually plural.

Verbs ending in *s* are singular.

Singular subjects should be paired with singular verbs and plural subjects should be paired with plural verbs.

She walks

The book is

They want

Bill, John, and Jane go

1. Compound Subjects

Compound subjects joined by *and* normally require a plural verb:

Hard work and persistence are required in all rewarding accomplishments.

Where are the pens and paper?

Subjects which include at least two nouns or pronouns connected by *and* should be paired with plural verbs.

the manager and the employees are

the cats and the dog run

the man and the woman are

2. Subjects Joined by *Or* or *Nor*

When two or more subject are joined by *or* or *nor*, the verb should agree with the subject part closest to the verb. This also applies to *either/or* and *neither/nor*.

The professor or her students write

The students or their professor writes

3. Intervening Expressions

Modifying phrases or clauses that come between the subject and the verb do not change the number of the verb. The number of the verb is determined entirely by the number of the subject:

The assignment, which they submitted to their professor, was incomplete.

[Assignment is the subject of the verb *was*].

The new computer classroom, with its many work stations and its sophisticated technology, fills [not fill] a long-felt need. [*Computer classroom* is the subject of the verb *fills*; the phrase *with its many work stations...* has nothing to do with the verb.]

4. Verb Preceding the Subject

It is possible for a verb to come before a subject in a sentence. The rules of agreement between the subject and the verb remain the same despite the change in order.

There is in many cities a desire to reduce traffic and pollution. [*Desire* is the subject of the verb *is*.]

There are a stapler, two pens, four books, and a writing tablet on the desk. [*Stapler, pens, books* and *writing tablet* are the subjects of the verb *are*.]

Where are *Joan and her daughters* going? [*Joan and her daughters* are subjects of the verb *are going*.]

5. Indefinite Pronouns

The indefinite pronouns or adjectives *either*, *neither*, and *each*, as well as compounds such as *everybody*, *anybody*, *everyone*, and *anyone* are always singular. *None* may be singular or plural. The plural usage is more common.

Each of the cars has its insurance proof in the glove compartment.

Everyone at the meeting was upset over the policies announced.

Every employee, supervisor, and executive reveals the operation of a model company.

Is either of you ready for lunch?

None of the employees have brought their children to the company dinner.

None of the students is interested in the research project.

None--no, not one--is planning to attend the retreat.

6. Subjects Plural in Form

Singular verbs are usually used with nouns that are plural in form but singular in meaning. The following nouns are usually singular in meaning: *news, economics, ethics, physics, mathematics, gallows, mumps, measles, shambles, whereabouts.*

a peanut butter and jelly sandwich is...

physics is a difficult course...

statistics is...

politics is...

athletics seems...

Nouns such as *gymnastics, tactics, trousers, scissors, athletics, tidings, acoustics, riches,* and *barracks* are usually treated as plural.

His tactics are sneaky.

The scissors are on the table.

The trousers are hanging in the closet.

Plural nouns denoting a mass, a quantity, or a number require a singular verb when the subject is regarded as a unit.

Five dollars is too much for her to pay.

Fifty bushels was all the bin would hold.

Though the usage is mixed, phrases involving addition, multiplication, subtraction, and division of numbers usually take the singular form.

Two plus two is four.

Two times three is six.

Twelve divided by six is two.

In expressions like *part of the apple, some of the pie, all of the money, the number of part, some,* and *all* is determined by the number of the noun in the prepositional phrase.

Some of the pie has been eaten.

Some of the pies have been eaten.

7. The subject of some form of *To Be*

When one noun precede and another follows some form of the verb *to be*, the first noun is the subject, and the verb agrees with it and not with the complement even if the complement is different in number.

The only food remaining is mashed potatoes.

Mashed potatoes are the only food remaining.

[In the first sentence, *food* is the subject; in the second, *mashed potatoes.*]

8. Relative Pronoun as Subject

When a relative pronoun (*who*, *which*, or *that*) is used as the subject of a clause, the number and person of the verb are determined by the antecedent of the pronoun, the word to which the pronoun refers.

This is the professor who is to be hired. [The antecedent of *who* is the singular noun *professor*; therefore, *who* is singular.]

These are the employees who are to be working tomorrow. [The antecedent of *who* is the plural noun *employees*.]

Should I, who am not a student at the school, be allowed to take the class? [*Who* refers to *I*; *I* is first person, singular number.]

She is one of those tough professors who are always expecting the best from students. [The antecedent of *who* is *professors*.]

If sentences such as the last one give you trouble, try beginning the sentence with the "of" phrase, and you will readily see that the antecedent of *who* is persons and not one.

Of those tough professors who are always expecting the best from students, she is one.

9. Collective Nouns

Some nouns are singular in form but plural in meaning. They are called collective nouns and include such words as *team*, *class*, *committee*, *crowd*, and *crew*. These nouns may take either a singular or plural verb; if you are thinking of the group as a unit, use a singular verb; if you are thinking of the individual members of the group, use a plural verb.

When referring to a group as a single unit, a singular verb is used.

The public is...

The family is...

The class is demanding...

When referring to a group's members as individuals, a plural verb is used.

The committee fight among themselves.

The student body are talking with each other.

The class are writing.

10. Nouns with Foreign Plurals

Some nouns retain the plural forms peculiar to the languages from which they have been borrowed: *alumni*, *media*, *crisis*. Still other nouns occur with either their original plural forms or plural forms typical of English: *aquaria* or *aquariums*, *criteria* or *criteria*. If you are in doubt as to the correct or preferred plural form of a noun, consult a good dictionary.

Writing skills

Paragraph Writing

A paragraph is a series of sentences in a special order. These sentences work together to develop a single idea. All the sentences in a paragraph must relate to the main idea.

How to Write a Paragraph

Paragraph writing remains one of the most important parts of writing. The paragraph serves as a container for each of the ideas of an essay or other piece of writing. Paragraphs are versatile and can take many forms that strengthen your writing, provide variety for readers, and help readers to organize the ideas you present.

Paragraph Length in a Piece of Writing

While it is true that a paragraph may be of any length, it is most common for an essay paragraph to be at least 3-5 sentences long and to be no longer than half a typed, double-spaced page. Journalism paragraphs (newspapers and magazines) tend to be 1-3 sentences long. Some paragraphs in books, especially technical treatises, might go on for several printed pages. No matter what length an individual paragraph, most good writing varies paragraph length within any one piece of writing. If there are a few short paragraphs, then a longer one usually comes along. If there are one or two long paragraphs, usually a short paragraph or two will intervene to give the reader a short break in concentration.

Use Paragraphs to Break Up Ideas

A paragraph is the container for only one idea. Often, a longer paragraph can - and should - be divided into smaller units. Usually a large, complex idea is made up of smaller ideas and can be explained in more paragraphs with those smaller ideas. The point, though, is to have one coherent paragraph - all of the ideas in each sentence of the paragraph must relate to a single main point. That point is most often made in a topic sentence.

Topic Sentences in Paragraphs

A topic sentence gives the main idea of a paragraph. It usually occurs as the first or last sentence of the paragraph. Some paragraphs will not have a topic sentence, if the main point is obvious. Others might place the topic sentence slightly differently. Occasionally, as in this paragraph, the topic sentence might begin the paragraph but be restated in a different way at the end. That is to say, most writers put the topic sentence of a paragraph at the beginning or the end or both.

Grammar in Paragraphs

Every sentence in a paragraph must be grammatically correct, in so much as that grammar aids in understanding the ideas that the writer would like to convey. The topic sentence, in particular, must be very well written and very clear to readers.

Types of Paragraphs

Most writing has an **introductory paragraph** or an introduction of a few paragraphs, and a conclusion of a few paragraphs or **concluding paragraph**. The introduction and conclusion are, of course, supported by **body paragraphs**. The typical body paragraph develops, supports, or elaborates a given topic sentence. Most paragraph structures longer than 1-2 sentences have common elements.

For example, **expository paragraphs** have three important elements common to most paragraphs: *flow, or unity* (a clear connection to the rest of the essay and placed in a sensible way among the other paragraphs; *development* (detailed, specific support or elaboration of the main idea); and *coherence* (each sentence clearly relates to the previous and next sentence in an understandable and sensible manner). **Persuasive paragraphs** focus on developing a strong argument that would convince someone who disagrees with the writer's position.

Narrative paragraphs have similar features of flow (or unity) and coherence. However, the development might be more related to the action or events narrated in the paragraph than to supporting an argument. Coherence in a narrative paragraph usually comes from the chronological order of the "story" or narrative. Similarly, a **descriptive paragraph** might find its development through giving a series of sensory details or of abstract ideas that describe an object (or concept or theory), rather than through support. These two types of paragraph - narrative and descriptive - differ only slightly in these respects from expository paragraphs, but the differences are still important.

With some attention to flow, development, and coherence in your paragraphs, you will soon be writing powerfully.

Paragraph Plan

Topic/Title

Topic Sentence

Ideas & Facts

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

Concluding Sentence.....

The instructions to be given are:

- (a) Write a topic sentence.
- (b) Write three descriptive sentences.
- (c) Write a clincher or emphatic concluding sentence.

How to Write a Paragraph

- The Topic Sentence : main idea of the paragraph
- Supporting Sentences : adding details to the topic
- The Concluding Sentences : summarizing the main idea

Writing a paragraph.

1. Look at the topic and come up with a topic sentence.
2. Jot down any ideas that support the topic sentence.
3. Decide which should be included in the paragraph. Cross out the ones that are not relevant.
4. Write the relevant ideas from the list in sentence form.
5. Write the sentences in paragraph form.

Tips:

1. Never use I or you (Unless specifically told that it is allowed.).
2. Do not use contractions in formal writing.
3. Organization is one of the most important parts of good writing. Make sure to organize from the first paragraph on.

Try to identify the topic sentence, developing sentences and the concluding sentence.

Swimming has many benefits. For one thing, after I swim, I feel refreshed. When I swim regularly, I have more energy. For another, unlike a lot of other exercise, swimming works the muscles in my entire body. Not only does this help build muscles, but it also burns calories. Most importantly, swimming itself is enjoyable. The cool water feels great, and the motions of swimming relax me. In short, swimming is good therapy for the body, mind, and soul.

Rules of Effective Writing

- Basic Rules
 1. Getting to the point
 - a. Being Concise
 - b. Paragraphing
 - c. Use of Lists
 - d. Framing Effective Questions
 2. Use of Non-Discriminatory Language
 3. Punctuation, Grammar and Spelling
 4. Tone
 - a. Choosing the Right Tone
 - b. Conversational Tone

Précis Writing

The word précis means an abstract, abridgement or summary; and précis writing means summarizing. To make a précis of a given passage is to extract its main points and to express them as clearly and as briefly as possible. A précis is a summary. Précis writing is an exercise in compression. A précis is the gist of a passage expressed in as few words as possible. A précis should give all essential points so that anyone reading it will be able to understand the idea expressed in the original passage.

Note that précis writing is different from paraphrasing. In a paraphrase you should give all the details: you should not leave out any details. A paraphrase will be at least as long as the original. A précis, on the other hand, must always be shorter than the original. It should express only the main theme that too as briefly as possible

How long should a précis be?

There are no rigid rules regarding the length of a précis. But as a general rule, it should not contain more than a third of the total number of words in the original passage.

Uses of précis writing

Most people read carelessly and fail to fully comprehend the meaning of the passage. Précis writing forces them to pay attention to what they read because no one can write a summary of a passage unless they read it carefully. So summarizing teaches one to read with concentration.

Précis writing also improves your overall writing skills. It teaches you how to express your thoughts clearly, concisely and effectively. You learn to choose your words carefully and construct your sentences in a logical and concise manner. A Précis is a summary. Précis-Writing is a very useful exercise. Most of us read carelessly. Writing précis gives training in careful reading. Précis-writing is regarded as a very important kind of composition because it develops one's capacity to discriminate between the essential and the non-essential.

A Précis is a shortening, in your own words, of a text of written work. You are to describe as accurately and briefly as possible the substance or main ideas contained in a text. To write an effective précis, read the passage several times for a full understanding. Note key points. It may, in fact, be helpful to underline these words. Do not use abbreviations or contractions. When writing about history, use the past tense. Finally, check your précis against the original to be sure that it is exact and retains the order, proportions, and relationships of the original.

rough draft. Unimportant things like the names of people and places and dates should not figure in it.

It may so happen that your first draft is too long or that it sounds rather jerky. Shorten it if necessary and write out a careful second draft. Sometimes you may need to work out three or even four drafts, but with reasonable care and concentration, you should normally succeed in producing good précis writing by the second draft.

3. Revision: When you have made your second (or final) draft, carefully revise it before writing out the fair copy. Look for any mistakes or slips in grammar or spelling and correct them. Don't forget to give your précis a title.

Rules for Good Précis Writing

1. Decide Theme of the Passage: The main theme of the passage should be found out through careful reading. These things are essential for brief and clear presentation of précis.

2. No Reproduction of Important Sentences: The sentences of original passage cannot be used for précis-writing. Précis-writing is an art of remodelling of sentences without affecting main theme of the original passage.

3. Have Brevity and Clarity: Brevity is the soul of précis-writing. But, at the same time, clarity should not be given up. Mere deletion or addition of few words of original passage cannot be a précis-writing. Moreover, brevity should not create any ambiguity in the minds of the reader.

4. Reflects the Intelligence of the Précis-writer: The style of language and words used in the précis-writing indicate the intelligence of the précis writer. In other words, the précis-writing preserved the spirit of the original passage with different words and sentences.

5. Use Own Language: The précis-writer should use his/her own language for précis-writing. The writer should not retain any significant phrases or technical terms of the original passage. It means that the writer should use his/her own sentences for précis-writing

6. Avoid Direct Speech and Use Indirect Speech: The précis-writing is presented in third person point of view. The text of the original passage presented in direct speech. Now, it is the duty of the précis-writer that he/she should present in indirect speech.

7. Inclusion of Statistical Information: If statistical information is included in the original passage, they can be used in the précis-writing for maintaining quality. If statistical information is excluded, it affects very purpose of précis-writing and convey different meaning.

8. **Observe Proportion:** Original passage is divided into many parts. Each part is dealt with according to importance but not according to length. In this way, objectives of précis-writing are achieved.

9. **No Comments but Conclusion:** The précis-writer need not give any comments over the original passage but should give conclusion. It means that the précis-writer need not evaluate the mind of the author but interpret the original passage in a meaningful way.

10. **One third of Original Passage:** It is the general practice that the length of précis-writing should be one third of original passage. If so, reader can get full information and do his/her job very effectively

The essential features of a good précis are:

- It should give the main points and the general impression of the passage summarized.
- It should be read like a continuous piece of prose.
- It should be clear. It must present the substance of the original in clear language
- It should be precise and brief. Cutaway all irrelevancies, omit all digressions and remove all unimportant details.
- It should not be sketchy. It should be complete in every way. It should contain all that is important in the original
- It should be 1/3 rd of the passage given.

Important points while making a précis:

- Write down in order all the important points of the original passage, which serves as a framework.
- Keeping this framework before you, now try to write your summary.
- Write simply, clearly and briefly.
- See that the parts of your précis have the same balance and proportion in relation to one another, as do the parts of original.
- It will be advisable to present the facts in the same order as they appear in the original.
- If the length of the précis is not prescribed, about one third of the original is usually expected.
- Choose your words carefully. Avoid all unnecessary adjectives and adverbs. Pay proper attention to important nouns and verbs that make your précis short and impressive.

- The use of direct speech is to be avoided. The précis is written in indirect speech, after a verb of saying in the past tense.
- Avoid figurative language, omit all metaphors and similes. Avoid redundancy and ambiguous words.
- Précis must be connected whole.

Some Don'ts

- Don't write your précis in a very small hand in order to give impression of conciseness.
- Don't add comments of your own or other irrelevancies.
- Don't borrow phrases and sentences from the original.
- Don't emphasize the wrong point.
- Don't exceed or fall short of the prescribed limit by more than five and six words.
- Don't make your précis a series of disjointed sentences.
- Don't be so brief as to become unintelligible. Your précis must be brief and clear.
- Don't use colloquial expressions, circumlocutions or rhetorical statements.
- Don't write bad English. Avoid mistakes in spelling, grammar punctuation, idiom and the like.
- Don't use personal construction when summarizing. Avoid such phrases as I think, I believe, and in my opinion etc.

Make a précis of the following paragraph and suggest suitable title:

Speech is a great blessing, but it can also be a great curse, for, while it helps us to make our intentions and desires known to our fellows, it can also, if we use it carelessly, make our attitude completely misunderstood. A slip of the tongue, the use of an unusual word, or of an ambiguous word and so on, may create an enemy where we had hoped to win a friend. Again different classes of people use different vocabularies, and the ordinary speech of an educated man may strike an uneducated listener as showing pride; unwittingly we may use a word, which bears a different meaning to our listeners' ears. Thus speech is not a gift to use lightly without thought, but one, which demands careful handling. Only a fool will express himself alike to all kinds and conditions of men.

Report Writing

A **report** is written for a clear purpose and to a particular audience. Specific information and evidence are presented, analysed and applied to a particular problem or issue. When you are asked to write a **report** you will usually be given a **report** brief which provides you with instructions and guidelines.

How to write a report

Reports generally involve presenting your investigation and analysis of information or an issue, recommending actions and making proposals. There are many different types of reports, including business, scientific and research reports, but the basic steps for writing them are the same. These are outlined below.

Step 1: Decide on the 'Terms of reference'

Step 2: Decide on the procedure

Step 3: Find the information

Step 4: Decide on the structure

Step 5: Draft the first part of your report

Step 6: Analyse your findings and draw conclusions

Step 7: Make recommendations

Step 8: Draft the executive summary and table of contents

Step 9: Compile a reference list

Step 10: Revise your draft report

Writing Your Report

1. Write your introduction. Your intro is where you introduce your topic and state your thesis. ...
2. Write your body paragraphs. The body paragraphs are where you state your evidence that supports your thesis. ...
3. Support your topic sentence. ...
4. Write your conclusion. ...
5. Cite your sources. ...
6. Format your report.

Report Writing: Formatting the Report Elements

Here are the main sections of the standard report writing format:

Title Section - If the report is short, the front cover can include any information that you feel is necessary including the author(s) and the date prepared. In a longer report, you may want to include a table of contents and a definitions of terms.

Summary - There needs to be a summary of the major points, conclusions, and recommendations. It needs to be short as it is a general overview of the report. Some people will read the summary and only skim the report, so make sure you include all the relevant information. It would be best to write this last so you will include everything, even the points that might be added at the last minute.

Introduction - The first page of the report needs to have an introduction. You will explain the problem and show the reader why the report is being made. You need to give a definition of terms if you did not include these in the title section, and explain how the details of the report are arranged.

Body - This is the main section of the report. The previous sections needed to be written in plain English, but this section can include jargon from your industry. There needs to be several sections, with each having a subtitle. Information is usually arranged in order of importance with the most important information coming first. If you wish, a “Discussion” section can be included at the end of the Body to go over your findings and their significance.

Conclusion - This is where everything comes together. Keep this section free of jargon as most people will read the Summary and Conclusion.

Recommendations - This is what needs to be done. In plain English, explain your recommendations, putting them in order of priority.

Appendices - This includes information that the experts in the field will read. It has all the technical details that support your conclusions. This report writing format will make it easier for the reader to find what he is looking for. Remember to write all the sections in plain English, except for the Body. Also remember that the information needs to be organized logically with the most important information coming first.

Tips for Good Writing

Here are a few tips for good writing.

- Keep it simple. Do not try to impress, rather try to communicate. Keep the sentences short and to the point.
- Use an active voice rather than passive. Active voice makes the writing move smoothly and easily. It also uses fewer words than the passive voice and gives impact to the writing by

emphasizing the person or thing responsible for an action. Here is an example: Bad customer service decreases repeat business.

- Good grammar and punctuation is important. Having someone proofread is a good idea. Remember that the computer cannot catch all the mistakes, especially with words like “red, read” or “there, their.”

How should a report be written?

The Style

A report is the Verbal structure, and style is the way we select and arrange the elements of structure. Jonathan Swift thought that style is “proper words in proper places”. Lord Chesterfield said that style is the “dress of thoughts”.

Importance of Professional Writing:

The ability to communicate effectively is one of the greatest assets anyone can acquire but the most common and perhaps the greatest communication problem today is that many people are unaware that they lack communicative ability.

To be an effective writer:

Visualize what you wish to say. If the picture you want to communicate is clear to you, the words should automatically follow to express it.

Prepare the first draft without caring much for the mechanics of writing.

Stop when you have finished saying what you wanted to say.

Revise the draft carefully; delete a word, phrase, sentence or paragraph that does not add any meaning to point under discussion.

Approach the problems with scientist’s objectivity, detachment and passion for truth. This will help make your writing crisp and sharp.

Choice of words and phrases: No two words in a language convey exactly the same meaning. For example, ‘pretty’, ‘charming’ and ‘delightful’ are not synonyms they have only a common area of meaning. Sometimes a wrong choice of words may lead to embarrassment, confusion and misunderstanding.

Do’s

Prefer concrete to abstract words: A concrete word permits limited interpretation and conveys more definite meaning. A few examples are names of persons. Number, words, dates etc. (e.g. I, he, she, etc.). Abstract words have a tendency to be general and vague.

Original

- a. Fuel tanks deformation was present
- b. The reason for the popularity of slides is the simplicity of their preparation

Revised

- The fuel tank was deformed.
- Slides are popular because they are easy to prepare

Precision

Prefer specific to general words: The use of specific words makes writing clearer and immediately creates an image in the mind of the reader.

1. She has developed a new gas lighter (designed)
2. Transfer the liquid into the receptacle (pour, beaker)

Conciseness: Modifiers of nouns and verbs tend to be vague and subjective. Use verbs instead of phrases having - -‘action words’ formed from verbs.

Phrases (Modifier)	Verbs
Make an investigation	investigate
Prepare a formulation	formulate

Plainness: Prefer plain and familiar to long and unfamiliar

Long and unfamiliar	Short and familiar
Expedite	hurry up
Optimum	best
Residence	house
Commence	start
Endeavour	try
Envisage	foresee

Cliches: A cliché is a faded word or a phrase, which has lost its effectiveness because of overuse. When it is first coined it is fresh and vigorous and conveys the meaning vividly. With the passage of time it loses sharpness and ceases to exercise the desired impact. Very often when you start writing, such words and phrases come to your mind and if you are not alert, find a place in the text of your report and thus weaken it.

Avoid excessive use of jargon: ‘The technical terminology or characteristic idiom of a special language or group’ – jargon. Every group of specialists has developed a highly specialized terms, yet these are the very words that cause readers a lot of difficulty.

Avoid using foreign words and phrases: Foreign words and phrases also like jargon are often used to impress and mystify the reader or to parade one’s scholarship. Some writers believe that their use would make the writing dignified. Thus instead of ‘see above’ they use ‘vide supra’ but keep your writing simple, use plain English for foreign words and phrases. Abbreviations like e.g., i.e., viz., a.m., p.m., need not be avoided.

Curriculum Vitae (CV)

CV is a multi-purpose, personal application form for employment, educational opportunities, honours and awards, membership or participation in an organization. Curriculum Vitae is an outline of a person's educational and professional history, usually prepared for job applications

A good CV now will aid you throughout your professional life. It is a living, not a static, document that needs to be continually updated as new experiences or accomplishments are completed. Despite its multiple purposes, your CV must be restructured and rewritten, or at least reviewed, for each specific purpose for which it is to be used. It might be entirely inappropriate to include a lengthy list of publications in a CV you are submitting as application for membership in a volunteer organization. Experts recommend maintaining two versions of your CV--one, a short summary of your training and experience and the other, a longer version with more detailed information about your publications and presentations. In general, however, no CV should be lengthy.

Sometimes, a CV is referred to as a "résumé." In fact, these terms are probably interchangeable. In academic or educational circles we tend to use the word curriculum vitae, or CV, more frequently than résumé. CV is much more comprehensive than a Resume and therefore it can be much longer. There is no limit to how long, but it must include only information that is needed to illustrate your academic and professional experience.

General Tips

- A chronological CV should be arranged in *reverse* chronological order. It should be apparent immediately where you are presently.
- It may be difficult to decide at first what is appropriate to include in your CV. It may seem that the residency application forms have already captured everything you have to say about yourself. Try to remember that an application form is limited to the few things that a particular institution wants to know about everybody. A CV lets you give information that is unique to you. Try putting in everything you can think of at first pull it out later if it doesn't seem pertinent.
- The appearance of your CV is extremely important. When you have finished designing the content and format, consider having it reproduced by a commercial printing service using an offset printing method. Alternatively, you can produce it yourself providing you have an excellent letter quality printer. Use standard size 8 1/2 by 11 inch paper in a white or very lightly coloured stock.

- The language of a CV is abbreviated and succinct. Resist the temptation to append explanatory sentences or language which will distract the reader from the basic information being presented. When applying for residency training, you will have the opportunity to express yourself in a personal or biographical statement. In the future, when applying for a job or some other type of position, you will want to include an appropriate cover letter with your CV to explain your particular qualifications and strengths for the position.
 - Everybody's CV is different. Even using the same format suggested in this section, your CV will not look the same as others because it doesn't have the same content. Don't despair if you discover that your CV is not done in the same way as a friend applying to the same residency programme. There is enough variation in format that no residency programme director is looking for a specific style.
 - Be honest. If you haven't accomplished anything in a particular category, then leave it out. Don't create things to fill in the spaces. You can be specific about your level of participation in a project or activity, but try not to be misleading.

Personal Data

Give your **full** name. Make sure you can be reached at the address, telephone number and e-mail address that you list. You should check each on a frequent basis. Include hospital paging phone numbers, if appropriate. Indicate if there are certain dates where you can be reached at other locations.

You may include some personal information, such as date of birth and marital status, at the beginning of your CV, or you may summarize it all in one section if you choose to add it at all. Keep in mind that by federal law, employers are prohibited from discriminating on the basis of age, race, sex, religion, national origin, disability, or sexual orientation. Therefore, you do not have to provide this information. Discrimination on the basis of sex includes discrimination on the basis of child-rearing plans (*i.e.*, number of children or plans to have children).

Although the following items appear quite frequently, they are probably not necessary and may be unwise to include them in a CV. These items include social security numbers, licensure numbers and examination scores. If this information is pertinent to your candidacy, it will be asked for on the application or at some later point in the application process.

Education

List in reverse chronological order, starting with your current place of learning. Include the name of the institution, the degree sought or completed, and the date of completion or date

of expected completion. Remember to include medical school, graduate education and undergraduate education. Omit high school. Later, you will add separate categories for "Post-graduate Training" (includes residencies and fellowships), "Practice Experience," "Academic Appointments," and "Certification and Licensure."

Honours and Awards

Any academic, organizational or community awards are appropriate, but you must use your own judgment as to whether an achievement that you value would be valuable to the person reading your CV.

Professional Society Memberships

List any professional organizations to which you belong and the years of your membership. Include leadership positions held, if any.

Employment Experience

List the position, organization and dates of employment for each work experience. Try to confine this list to those experiences which are medically related (*i.e.*, med tech, nurse's aide, research assistant, etc.) or that show breadth in your work experience (*i.e.*, high school teacher, communications manager, etc.).

Extracurricular Activities

List your interests or extracurricular activities in this section. It will help to develop a broader picture of your personality and character. Also, any special talents or qualifications which have not been given due recognition in other parts of the CV should be highlighted here or in a separate section. For example, you'll want to include things like fluency in other languages, or a certification such as a private pilot's license.

Publications/Presentations

List any papers published or presented by title, place and date of publication or presentation. If this list is very lengthy, you may want to append it separately or note "Provided Upon Request."

References

You may be asked to provide both personal and professional references. These names may be included in the CV, appended as part of a cover letter or application form, or noted "Provided upon Request".

Format of CV

PERSONAL DATA

- Name:
- Date of birth:
- Citizenship:
- Address:
- Mobile Phone:
- Residence:
- Email:

EDUCATION

WORK EXPERIENCE

SKILLS/LANGUAGE

EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

REFERENCE

What is a Curriculum Vita or CV?

A brief account of a person's education, qualifications, and previous occupations, typically sent with a job application.

The Latin meaning of curriculum vitae is “the course of one’s life or career” (Jackson & Geckeis, 2003).

- A CV is similar to and different from a resume.
- Resumes are limited 1 or 2 pages; CVs provide more comprehensive details about your educational and work background, and do not have a page limit.

What is the Difference Between a Resume and a CV?

The primary differences between a resume and curriculum vitae (CV) are length, what is included, and what each is used for. While both are used in job applications, a resume and a CV are not always interchangeable.

What Is a Curriculum Vita?

Like a resume, curriculum vitae (CV) provide a summary of one’s experience and skills. Typically, CVs are longer than resumes – at least two or three pages.

CV include information on one’s academic background, including teaching experience, degrees, research, awards, publications, presentations, and other achievements. CVs are thus much longer than resumes, and include more information, particularly related to academic background.

A **curriculum vitae summary** is a one-to-two-page, condensed version of full curriculum vitae. A CV summary is a way to quickly and concisely convey one's skills and qualifications. Sometimes large organizations will ask for a one-page CV summary when they expect a large pool of applicants.

What is a Resume?

A **resume** provides a summary of your education, work history, credentials, and other accomplishments and skills. There are also optional sections, including a resume objective and career summary statement. Resume is the most common document required in a job application.

A resume should be as concise as possible. Typically, a resume is one page long, although sometimes it can be as long as two pages. Often resume include bulleted lists to keep information concise. Resumes come in a few types, including chronological, functional, and combination formats. Select a format that best fits the type of job you are applying for.

When to Use a CV

CVs are used almost exclusively in countries outside of the United States. In Europe, the Middle East, Africa, or Asia, employers may expect to receive curriculum vitae. Within the United States, people in academia and medicine tend to use CVs rather than resumes. CVs are thus used primarily when applying for international, academic, education, scientific, medical or research positions or when applying for fellowships or grants.

When do I submit a CV instead of a resume?

- A CV could be requested in applications for graduate studies (masters or doctoral programs), research funding or a job in management or post-secondary teaching.
- Uncertain whether a CV or resume is required? Ask.

How can I prepare in advance for writing a CV?

- Consider starting a CV master or working file now to record details about your academic studies, work history and accomplishments (*e.g.*, committee work, presentations, publication).
- Then if asked for a CV, you'll be prepared to develop customized CVs for different purposes.

What do I include in my CV?

- Using the same CV or resume for all applications is generally less competitive than submitting customized ones that highlight how you've demonstrated the specific criteria or requirements.

- Structure your CV with sections relevant to the requirements. Provide examples that highlight your related knowledge, skills and abilities, attitudes, experience and other accomplishments.
- Critically review CV examples and then write your own. Do not copy. A unique CV will likely be more impressive.

5. How can I customize a CV to strengthen my application for a position?

- Review the specific requirements or criteria for the position.
- Circle the key words for the requirements and sort into categories.
- Name the categories and use each as a heading on your CV
- Under each heading, write statements describing how you've demonstrated the specific requirements.
- When possible, provide specific examples and quantify results, for example: Analyzed quantitative and qualitative data for 2 public opinion surveys. Academic projects: Survey Title and Survey Title.

6 What are the sections or components of a CV?

- Each CV is unique. Use your judgment to decide what sections are important to include given your background and goals. Order sections by importance, and add new ones as needed.

The Purpose of a C.V

The purpose of a **CV** is to provide a summary of your skills, abilities and accomplishments. It is a quick advertisement of who you are. It is a "snapshot" of you with the intent of capturing and emphasizing interests and secures you an interview. It is not an autobiography.

- **A Marketing tool:** Designed to capture attention and get you to the next stage in the recruitment process. It presents in writing the skills, accomplishments and qualifications that you bring to a potential employer.
- **Key component:** It is the first essential tool in the job search process. The resume is the first introduction a hiring manager will have of you. You want them to feel drawn in and motivated to invite you in for an interview.
- **Written Inventory:** CV is an inventory of your skills, accomplishments, experiences and education to date. It should be customized and targeted for each individual position.
- **Getting an Interview:** This is your ultimate goal with a CV, it tells the hiring manager that you have the necessary experience, skills and education, what now needs to be determined is will this person be a good fit for the department.

Job Application

Tips on writing a Job Application

Your Job application is the first contact you will have with an employer. It is also your chance to make a good first impression as the employer will use it to help decide if you are suitable for the job and if they would like to give you an interview. It is most important to take time and care with your application. Make sure that it looks professional, has a clean layout, is spell checked and is easy to read. Make sure you use paper that is size A4.

The Application Letter

There are many ways you can write a letter for a job, however, your address, phone number and the date must be on the letter. Always address the letter to the person named in the advertisement. If there is no name mentioned write Sir/Madam or phone the company and get the correct name. When you write the letter put in the following information.

- Contents
- Refer to the job and where and when you saw it advertised.
- Put in any information about work you have done before.
- Give your telephone number in the letter.
- Close your letter by saying how suitable you are for the job.
- If your letter starts with Sir/Madam, always end with Yours faithfully. If you start with a person's name end Yours sincerely.
- Sign your name and have your name printed underneath.

Things to Remember

- Before writing an application, research the job and find out as much as you can about the company.
- Make a draft plan first with what you want to put in your application.
- Write it as many times as you want until you get it right.
- Always check spelling and watch your grammar. Get someone to proof read it for mistakes before you send it.
- Write neatly, but get it typed if you can.
- Make sure you use clean A4 size paper.
- Tell the people who wrote you a reference you are being interviewed before you go.
- Make a number of copies of your résumé and send one off each time you apply for a job.
- Keep your résumé up to date.

Application letters

EXAMPLE A

Your name

Your address

Date.....

Name of Contact at Company

Company Name (ABC)

123 ABC St

City.....

Dear Sir/Madam, (person's name if you know it)

Re: position applying for

I am writing to express my interest in the position you have advertised for a (name position) and where advertised e.g., in The Courier Mail on (date you saw the advertisement) *e.g.* 23 October 2006.

My previous experience in the (mention related experience from workplace) has given me excellent workplace skills which would be an asset to (name company you are writing to).

I am honest, reliable, friendly and easy to get along with, as well as being a quick learner. I possess excellent communication skills and I am well presented.

Due to my previous experience in the (name industry) I believe any employer would strongly benefit from my employment.

Please find enclosed a copy of my current resume. I can be contacted on 0400 000, to discuss this opportunity further.

Thank you for considering my application and I look forward to meeting with you soon.

Yours faithfully,

or

Yours sincerely

[Sign here]

Your name

EXAMPLE B

Your name

Your address

Date.....

Name of person you are applying to

Company name

Address

Dear Sir / Madam

My name is and I am currently attending B.Sc (Ag.) at ABC College. I am looking to commence a traineeship in the industry as a school-based apprentice.

I have been gathering my skills in the Industry through work experience and casual employment as you will note in my resume. I can offer employer honesty and reliability and a commitment to learning the necessary skills to succeed within this field of work. I have very good communication skills and demonstrated my qualities as a valuable employee through my past work placements. I am a (insert a quality you have) person and would enjoy working in your company as part of a team, or in an autonomous role.

Please find attached my current resume that gives further details on my skills and experience. I can be contacted on 0400 000 000 to arrange a suitable time for an interview.

Thank you for considering my application and I look forward to meeting with you soon.

Yours faithfully,

or

Yours sincerely

[Sign here]

Your name

Synopsis

What is a synopsis?

Synopsis is the gist of your planned project submitted for approval from competent authorities. It gives a panoramic view of your **research** for quick analysis by the reviewers. Thus, a protocol or a **synopsis** forms an integral part of a **research** project or a thesis. A synopsis is a brief outline, abstract, summary, or general overview of an article, essay, story, book, or other work. A **synopsis** is a brief summary of the major points of a subject or written work or story, either as prose or as a table; an abridgment or condensation of a work.

Synopsis is a summary of the article; its arguments and conclusion. Consequently, a synopsis is very useful in helping you to decide if an article is relevant to your research, and if it is worth reading. Synopsis is also an integral feature of conferences: presenters are required to submit an abstract or synopsis of their papers, which conference delegates later receive. This helps the delegates decide which presentation they will attend. As a student you may be required to submit a synopsis to accompany a long essay or report. Your synopsis should include an overview of your arguments and conclusions. Synopses are generally only one or two paragraphs.

Drafting the Synopsis

1. Write in third person.
2. Introduce your main characters and conflict at the beginning.
3. Summarize the main events of the plot.
4. End with resolution of the book.
5. Include only necessary information. ...
6. Demonstrate character development and emotion.
7. Avoid complimenting your own writing.

Format of Synopsis

Topic/ Title

The topic for research should be selected carefully. It should be specific and about the general issues at national or international level.

Abstract

It should provide a brief description to explain the area of the proposed research work by the researcher.

Review of Literature

A review of the relevant literature is another very important part of the synopsis, showing the work done previously in the area of proposed research is essential to plan further research effectively and in a proper way. The information given in the review should be supported by references.

Justification and Likely Benefits

It is important to provide justification for undertaking the proposed research, perhaps in the light of previous work done. It should be possible in most cases to predict the specific and general benefits likely to be achieved as a result of completion of the proposed research.

Main Objectives of the Study

Broad objectives to be achieved should be clearly mentioned and these should be itemized. These objectives will indicate the major aspects of the study to be undertaken.

Hypothesis of Study

Hypothesis is statement which is to be tested for possible acceptance or rejection. Hypothesis are of two types *i.e.* Null (H₀) and Alternative (H₁). Null hypothesis is tested for possible rejection, whereas alternative hypothesis is tested for possible acceptance.

Significance of Study

It emphasized on the significance/ importance of the research work/study *i.e.* why we selected the topic under discussion.

Statement of Problem

The researcher has to clearly identify the problem/issue selected for thesis.

Plan of Work and Methodology

A plan of work describing the various aspects of the study in a logical sequence along with the methodologies to be employed, are the most important cracks of any research plan. It helps to demonstrate that the researcher has a fairly good idea about the nature of work likely to be involved. In the case of social sciences what resource materials will be used; whether the required information will be obtained from primary or secondary sources, etc.

Methodology includes the following:-

*** Sources of data (Primary or Secondary)**

Survey, questionnaires, interviews, focus group interviews, observation, case-studies, diaries, critical incidents, portfolios, books, journals, periodicals, abstracts, indexes, directories, research reports, conference papers, market reports, annual reports, internal records of organizations, newspapers and magazines, CD-ROMs, on-line databases, Internet, videos and broadcasts.

- **Sample size:**

Sample size should be normal neither too small nor too large.

- Data Collection Techniques (Registration, Questionnaires, Interviews, Direct Observations)
- Analysis of Data

References and Bibliography

Synopsis should contain at the end a list of references, and a bibliography if required. These should be written on a standard pattern.

INTERVIEWS

Interview is an interaction between two or more people. During an interview there is usually an interviewee – a person who is supposed to answer the questions on one side. On the other, there is an interviewing team – also known as interviewers that consists of one or more person. An interview may differ from occasion to occasion as it is conducted to achieve different objectives. Interviews are usually conducted by the employers to recruit and select employees and by the media to know the opinions of intellectuals and well placed people on various issues that affect us in one way or the other. Job interviews are the most common method of recruitment and selection of candidates for different jobs.

Define interview? Explain the different types of interview.

An **interview** is a conversation where questions are asked and answers are given. **Interviews** almost always involve spoken conversation between two or more parties, although in some instances a "conversation" can happen between two persons who **type** questions and answers back and forth.

Meaning of Interview: The word interview comes from Latin and middle French words meaning to “see between” or “see each other”. Generally, interview means a private meeting between people when questions are asked and answered. It suggests a meeting between two persons for the purpose of getting a view of each other or for knowing each other. When we normally think of an interview, we think a setting in which an employer tries to size up an applicant for a job.

Types of Interviews: There are many types of interviews that an organization can arrange. It depends on the objectives of taking the interview. Some important types of interviews are stated below:

1. **Personal Interview:** Personal interviews include:
 - Selection of the employees
 - Promotion of the employees
 - Retirement and resignation of the employees
2. **Evaluation Interview:** The interviews which take place annually to review the progress of the interviewee are called the evaluation interviews. Naturally, it is occurring between superiors and subordinates. The main objective of this interview is to find out the strengths and weaknesses of the employees.
3. **Persuasive Interview:** This type of interview is designed to sell someone a product or an idea. When a sales representative talk with a target buyer, persuasion takes the form of convincing that the product or idea meets his need.

4. **Structured Interview:** Structured interviews tend to follow formal procedures; the interviewer follows a predetermined agenda or questions.
5. **Unstructured Interview:** When the interview does not follow the formal rules or procedures. It is called an unstructured *interview*. The discussion will probably be free flowing and may shift rapidly from one subject to another depending on the interests of the interviewee and the interviewer.
6. **Counselling Interview:** This may be held to find out what has been troubling the workers and why someone has not been working.
7. **Disciplinary Interview:** Disciplinary interviews are occurring when an employee has been accused of breaching the organization's rules and procedures.
8. **Stress Interview:** It is designed to place the interviewee in a stress situation in order to observe the interviewee's reaction.
9. **Public Interview:** These include political parties' radio-television and newspaper.
10. **Informal or Conversational Interview:** In the conversational interview, no predetermined questions are asked, in order to remain as open and adaptable as possible to the interviewee's nature and priorities. During the interview the interviewer "goes with the flow".
11. **Standardized or Open-Ended Interview:** Here the same open-ended questions are asked to all interviewees; this approach facilitates faster interviews that can be more easily analyzed and compared.
12. **The Telephone Interview:** Often companies request an initial telephone interview before inviting you in for a face to face meeting in order to get a better understanding of the type of candidate you are. The one benefit of this is that you can have your notes out in front of you. You should do just as much preparation as you would for a face to face interview, and remember that your first impression is vital. Some people are better meeting in person than on the phone, so make sure that you speak confidently, with good pace and try to answer all the questions that are asked.
13. **The Face-to-Face Interview:** This can be a meeting between you and one member of staff or even two members.
14. **The Panel Interview:** These interviews involve a number of people sitting as a panel with one as chairperson. This type of interview is popular within the public sector.
16. **The Group Interview:** Several candidates are present at this type of interview. You will be asked to interact with each other by usually a group discussion. You might even be given a task to do as a team, so make sure you speak up and give your opinion.

- 17. The Sequential Interview:** These are several interviews in turn with a different interviewer each time. Usually, each interviewer asks questions to test different sets of competencies. However, if you are asked the same questions, just make sure you answer each one as fully as the previous time.
- 18. The Lunch / Dinner Interview:** This type of interview gives the employer a chance to assess your communication and interpersonal skills as well as your table manners! So make sure you order wisely (no spaghetti Bolognese) and make sure you don't spill your drink (non-alcoholic of course!). All these types of interviews can take on different question formats, so once you've checked with your potential employer which type of interview you'll be attending, get preparing!
- 19. Competency Based Interview:** These are structured to reflect the competencies the employer is seeking for the particular job. These will usually be detailed in the job spec so make sure you read it through, and have your answers ready for questions such as "Give me an example of a time you worked as a team to achieve a common goal." For more examples of competency based questions [click here](#).
- 20. Formal / Informal Interview:** Some interviews may be very formal; others may be very informal and seem like just a chat about your interests. However, it is important to remember that you are still being assessed, and topics should be friendly and clean!
- 21. Portfolio Based Interview:** In the design / digital or communications industry it is likely that you will be asked to take your portfolio along or show it online. Make sure all your work is up to date without too little or too much. Make sure that your images if in print are big enough for the interviewer to see properly, and always test your online portfolio on all Internet browsers before turning up.
- 22. The Second Interview:** You've past the first interview and you've had the call to arrange the second. Congratulations! But what else is there to prepare for? You did as much as you could for the first interview! Now is the time to look back and review. You maybe asked the same questions you were asked before, so review them and brush up your answers. Review your research about the company; take a look at the 'About Us' section on their website, get to know their client base, search the latest news on the company and find out what the company is talking about.
- 23. The Screening Interview:** The purpose of such interviews is to weed unqualified and unsuitable candidates for a particular job. The interviewer here will be interested in looking for the gaps in your employment history. He may ask you the reason for such

gaps and what you did during this period. Obviously you have to sound convincing. The interviewer usually looks for questionable matter in your bio-data. The purpose is to disqualify you if your qualifications are not acceptable and convincing. The interviewer will also examine your earlier experience and the new job fit.

Keep the following points in mind while participating in such interviews:

1. Give simple and direct answers.
2. Be ready to comment on your suitability for the job and difficult areas of your biodata.
3. Instead of quoting the exact figure for the salary you are expected to give your employer the range, making his choice bigger. Do not raise the salary issue on your own, let the interviewer talk about it.
4. Keep a note-card handy with important details when you are commenting on the acceptability and recognition of your degrees and diplomas. You must possess relevant documents in support of your statements.

24. The informational Interview: The informational interview is conducted by a company keeping in mind the future requirements of employees. The immediate objective is not to hire you but to keep you on the list of candidates who are likely to be called for interview when the demand in your area of specialization arises. Here the interviewer is more interested in knowing the details of your education and experience, your interests and your future plans. Since the interviewer would be examining your prospective employment in the company in future he is likely to ask questions to know your academic standard, communicative competence and your approach to the issues being faced by the company and even your approach to the issues being faced by the company and even problems encountered by the public in general. Take care of the following while attending such interviews:

25. The Stress Interview: The stress interview involves keeping the candidate in stress, in order to know how a candidate would react or respond in difficult and stressful conditions. You may be asked to wait for a very long period of time without any plausible reason. In such an interview, you may face cold stares, jeering and guffaws at your cost. Someone may choose to humiliate you about your persona, your personal beliefs, even your academic performance. Again the purpose is to provoke you and to put you under stress and then examine your reaction in. While tackling such an interview you must bear in mind the following.

1. Remember that your calm and confident attitude is your best asset in this type of interview.
2. Keep in mind that if you get provoked, you lose everything.

3. Presence of mind and your wit and humour can save you from a typically difficult situation.

26. The Screening Interview: The purpose of such interviews is to weed unqualified and unsuitable candidates for a particular job. The interviewer here will be interested in looking for the gaps in your employment history. He may ask you the reason for such gaps and what you did during this period. Obviously you have to sound convincing. The interviewer usually looks for questionable matter in your bio-data. The purpose is to disqualify you if your qualifications are not acceptable and convincing. The interviewer will also examine your earlier experience and the new job fit.

Keep the following points in mind while participating in such interviews:

1. Give simple and direct answers.
2. Be ready to comment on your suitability for the job and difficult areas of your biodata.
3. Instead of quoting the exact figure for the salary you are expected to give your employer the range, making his choice bigger. Do not raise the salary issue on your own, let the interviewer talk about it.
4. Keep a note-card handy with important details when you are commenting on the acceptability and recognition of your degrees and diplomas. You must possess relevant documents in support of your statements.

27. The Behavioural Interview: The company that wants to hire you would like to make a detailed inquiry about your problems, day routines, opportunities and challenges, competition from colleagues, over-all prevailing environment, etc.

1. Have a critical look at your bio-data to include the skills you used
2. Exclude from your bio -data what you think would be difficult to justify.
3. Prepare a story or an anecdote to explain a particular skill you practiced for solving a problem.
4. Make a list of achievements in your previous job and the skills that helped you make these achievements.

28. The Follow-up Interview: There is a possibility of your being called to second, third or even fourth interview by the same company. A company chooses to call you for more than one interaction for various reasons. If you are meeting the people you have met earlier, use this opportunity to cement relationship and inquire about the goals of the company.

1. On getting a call from the company where you have already been interviewed, revise your facts, skills and aptitude carefully, keeping your earlier interaction in mind.
2. You may also try to obtain more knowledge about the company and its products

3. If you are able to find somebody who has already worked in the organization and you are able to collect first hand information, it would prove to be an added advantage.

39. The Mealtime Interview: As the name suggests, mealtime interviews are conducted over meals.

1. Stay controlled and observant throughout the interview.
2. Be guided by the eating habits and manners of your hosts as they may be representing the company culture you are intending to work for.
3. Be polite and do not go for very expensive food items on the menu, in case you are offered to make a choice.
4. Do not be very finicky to display your strange food habits. Try to accommodate with your hosts.
5. Listen to each and every member carefully and do not mix business with personal talk.
6. It is always safer to reply to the interviewers' questions on personal matters than venturing on your interests without being asked to do so. However, one can always take calculated risks on matters pertaining to office.

Preparing for the Interview:

- * Prepare an update on your newly acquired skills, interests, values and accomplishments
- * Show that you have really taken care of things and are well-prepared for the job at hand.
- * Do anticipate and practice elaborately the questions that are likely to be asked in the interview. Both content and style matter.
- * You must have full information about the location and the available transport facilities to reach the venue of the interview. You must reach the place at least half an hour early before the scheduled time. Keep enough margins for transport delays.
- * Decide in advance: a suitable dress for yourself to be worn on the occasion of interview.
- * Keep a file in which you arrange the relevant pieces of information, articles, and comments of the experts on matters related to your areas of study and interests.
- * You can access the web site of the company or approach some of its past or present employees.
- * Do not forget to collect the business cards or the contact numbers of the experts. This information could be of great help at a later stage.
- * You must make your presence felt at the interview.
- * Sharpen your communication skills by developing a perfect command of a suitable vocabulary range and structures.
- * Your answers must exhibit your creativity and the originality of your approach.

* Project yourself, as a thorough professional who is going to be an asset to your company. Your answers must reveal your profession.

* Think positively before and after the interview. Suppose you were not selected somewhere, believe it was for the best.

*While leaving the venue do indicate to the panel that if position is offered you will certainly join it.

* Finally, learn some calm down techniques. When you go to the interview venue and feel very agitated, inhale and exhale deeply three times and you will feel some respite.

Body Language and Interview:

- Walk straight with confident steps after you have been called in.
- Politely greet the interviewer/interviewers, expressing your confidence and good manners.
- If the interviewer holds out his hand, give him a firm handshake revealing your interest and confidence.
- Do not shake your legs or hands while sitting in the chair. This reveals your nervousness.
- Sit straight and look into the eyes of the person who wants to question you.
- You should smile confidently each time after a question has been thrown at you to indicate that you have listened carefully and you are going to answer.
- Never interrupt your interviewer. Let him complete first.
- Use your hands to explain things. Movement of your hands should explain your meaning. For example, do not spread your hand wide while you talk about small sizes.
- Speak your answers in a clear audible voice. Never mumble and fumble for words.
- Don't forget to wish the people in the interview. Greet them when you enter and when you leave, leave with a cheerful 'Thank you'.

The sole aim of an interview should be to probe into the psyche of a person and bring out surprising and unknown facts that the interviewee may not know. Physical appearance, gestures and the very way you communicate count a lot in an employment interview.

FIGURATIVE LANGUAGE

Figurative language is associated with literature—and with poetry in a particular. But the fact is, whether we're conscious of it or not, we use figures of speech every day in our writing and conversations.

The Top Figures

- 1. Alliteration:** Repetition of an initial consonance sound. In this way language becomes musical.
Eg: How high his honour holds his haughty head.
- 2. Antithesis:** The juxtaposition of contrasting ideas in balanced phrases.
Eg: God made the country but man made the town United we stand divided we fall.
- 3. Apostrophe:** Breaking off discourse to address some absent person or thing, some abstract quality, an inanimate object, or a nonexistent character.
Eg: Wild west wind, thou breath of Autumns' being.
- 4. Euphemism:** The substitution of an inoffensive term of one considered offensively explicit.
- 5. Hyperbole:** An extravagant statement; the use of exaggerated terms for the purpose of emphasis or heightened effect. Here is the smell of blood still; All perfumes of Arabia will not sweeten this little hand.
- 6. Irony:** The use of words to convey the opposite of their literal meaning. A statement or situation where the meaning is contradicted by the appearance or presentation of the idea.
Eg: He is an honourable man (in fact he is not)
- 7. Epigram:** A brief pointed saying. Eg: The child is the father of man.
- 8. Metaphor:** An implied comparison between two unlike things that actually have something important in common.
Eg: The camel is the ship of the desert.
- 9. Metonymy:** A figure of speech in which one word or phrase is substituted for another with which it is closely associated; also, the rhetorical strategy of describing something indirectly by referring to things around it.
Eg: The pen is mightier than sword.
- 10. Onomatopoeia:** The formation or use of words that imitate the sounds associated with the objects or action they refer to. The murmurous haunt of flies in summer evening.

11. Oxymoron: a figure of speech in which incongruous or contradictory terms appear side by side.

Eg: James I was the wisest fool in Christendom.

12. Personification: A figure of speech in which an inanimate object or abstraction is endowed with human qualities or abilities.

Eg: Opportunity knocks at the door but once.

13. Pun: A play on words, sometimes on different senses of the same word and sometimes on the similar sense or sound of different words.

Eg: An ambassador is a gentleman who lies abroad for the good of his country.

14. Simile: A stated comparison (usually formed with “like” or” “as”) between two fundamentally dissimilar things that have certain qualities in common.

Eg: The younger brother is as good as gold.

15. Synecdoche: A figure of speech in which a part is used to represent the whole, the whole for a part, the specific for the general, the general for the specific, or the material for the thing made from it.

Eg: Kalidhasa is the Shakespeare of India.

Practical Class Outlines

1. Effective Listening – Developing Listening Skills – Honing Listening skills
2. Listening to Short talks and Lectures from the cassettes of EFL University
3. Spoken English, Vowels, consonants, monophthongs, diphthongs.
4. Stress, intonation, phonetic transcription
5. Seminars, Conferences, preparation and demonstration
6. Oral Presentation by students, Articulation and delivery – Evaluation sheet for oral presentation
7. Communication skills – Verbal communication, written communication
8. Telephonic conversation
9. Reading Skills, Skimming, Scanning, Extensive reading, Intensive reading examples
10. Meeting, purpose, procedure, participation, physical arrangements
11. Presentation of reports by using power point & L.C.D
12. Interviews – Mock interviews
13. Debate and Group discussion
14. Vocabulary
15. Pronunciation practice

Introducing Listening

Aural aspects of Communication play a role at least equal to oral elements in what could viably be called oral-aural communication. Considering the pivotal role that listening plays in all oral communication and the ubiquitous presence of oral communication in our personal, professional, and academic lives, the relative neglect that listening receives in education, when compared to other communicative endeavours like speaking, reading, and writing, is surprising.

Introduction:

Language begins with the ear and lives on the lips and tongue of the speaker, listening should precede speaking, and is the secret of effective beginning in language learning. It is impossible to expect a student to produce a sound or a natural sentence of the foreign language, which does not exist in mother-tongue, unless he has listened to a model of the form is produced. Speaking comes in a natural sequence after listening. In other words, speaking is built upon accurate listening. In this chapter, we shall consider these two activities, that is, listening and speaking.

Basic Principles of Effective Listening

Shared responsibility:

Any communication places equal burdens and duties on listener and speaker. Like effective speakers, effective listeners engage in as much prior preparation as possible, remain focused and concentrated during communication, understand the responsibilities unique to their roles as listeners in a given context, and practice continual self-evaluation and improvement. Without such purposeful behaviour on the part of the listener, even the most accomplished speaker can fail to communicate clearly. Our average listening comprehension for any given message is around 25% with only small changes caused by increases in speaker effectiveness (Nichols & Lewis, 1954, p.4). This data suggests, by pointing to a general ceiling in communication comprehension regardless of the skill of the speaker, that individual listening training could have just as much of an impact as corresponding education in speaking. An effective listener can help an ineffective speaker in many ways. Proper attention and nonverbal behaviours on the part of a listener encourages a more enthusiastic and engaged speaker. A listener skilled in asking the right questions at the right time can assist a speaker in clarifying and organizing thoughts.

Active attention.

Effective listening does not simply follow from a willingness to sit quietly and pay attention to a speaker. Hearing, which provides the initial foundation for listening, denotes the

physical reception of aural data. Listening involves mental activity, including cognitive and affective processing of received information. Consequently, educators enhance listening competence through diligent focus on the mental processes and skills involved in perceptive listening, such as memory, sense making, and evaluation.

Complex, dynamic process.

Listening is a variable communication activity that differs according to: the purpose and nature of the listener and the speaker, the content and style of the message, the channel of communication, and the surrounding environment. As a variable activity, effective listening does not issue from a monolithic, unchanging checklist that can be uniformly imposed on all situations.

Listening is a key to all effective communication. Without the ability to listen effectively, messages are easily misunderstood. If there is one communication skill you should aim to master, then listening is it. Listening is so important that many top employers provide listening skills training for their employees.

Language teachers discuss the importance of the listening skill. Listening is also important because it: occupies a big chunk of the time we spend communicating in the language. Think about the times you spend listening to others speak or listening to songs, news, lectures, YouTube, etc.

Listening is the ability to identify and understand what others are saying. This involves understanding a speaker's accent or pronunciation, his grammar and his vocabulary, and grasping his meaning (Howatt and Dakin). An able listener is capable of doing these four things simultaneously.

Types of listening skills?

The three main types of listening most common in interpersonal communication are:

- 1) Informational Listening (Listening to Learn)
- 2) Critical Listening (Listening to Evaluate and Analyse)
- 3) Therapeutic or Empathetic Listening (Listening to Understand Feeling and Emotion)

Here are four (of many) types of listening:

- Appreciative listening. Appreciative listening is exactly what the name implies — listening to enjoy the story, music or information you hear.
- Critical listening. Relationship listening.
- Discriminative listening.

The three main types of listening most common in interpersonal communication are: Informational Listening (Listening to Learn) Critical Listening (Listening to Evaluate and Analyse) Therapeutic or Empathetic Listening (Listening to Understand Feeling and Emotion)

What are the barriers to listening?

That can raise emotional barriers to communication, as judgments can mean that the listener doesn't have complete understanding or respect for the speaker. In a sense, giving a person your undivided attention while listening is the purest act of love you can offer.

Try these tips to overcome this habit:

1. Think before you speak, and don't speak if you have nothing important to contribute.
2. Practice self-control. ...
3. Avoid interrupting when the other person is speaking.
4. Be aware of indulging in useless talk for the sake of talking.
5. Be brief while conveying your thoughts.

Empathic listening (also called active listening or reflective listening) is a way of listening and responding to another person that improves mutual understanding and trust.

Here are 8 strategies for practicing empathic listening:

1. Take the time. Active, empathic listening requires time.
2. Offer empathy, not sympathy.
3. Pay attention to body language.
4. Refrain from solutions.
5. Use open-ended, empathic, or dangling questions.
6. Ask for more.
7. Repeat a phrase or word.
8. Allow for silences.

Author Joseph DeVito has divided the listening process into five stages:

- Receiving,
- Understanding,
- Remembering,
- Evaluating,
- Responding.

Improving Communication - Developing Effective Listening Skills

Effective communication skills are fundamental to success in many aspects of life. Many jobs require strong communication skills and social people with improved communication skills usually enjoy better interpersonal relationships with friends and family. Effective communication is a key interpersonal skill and by learning how we can improve our communication has many benefits.

Communication is a two way process so improving communication involves both how we send and receive messages. When someone is communicating with you, they want to feel like they're talking to you, rather than at you, and that can only be done with a set of good listening skills and an understanding of the principles of effective communication in general. Learn how to become an empathetic, attentive, and active listener with the information that follows.

Learn to Listen. Listening is not the same as hearing; learn to listen not only to the words being spoken but how they are being spoken and the non-verbal messages sent with them. Use the techniques of clarification and reflection to confirm what the other person has said and avoid any confusion. Try not to think about what to say next while listening; instead clear your mind and focus on the message being received. Your friends, colleagues and other acquaintances will appreciate good listening skills.

Listen Actively. The difference between *hearing* and *listening* is as important as the difference between seeing and observing. You can hear background noise but not think anything of it. Or you can listen and realize that what sounded a minute ago like an owl sounds an awful lot like a person trying to imitate an owl. Hearing is automatic and involuntary. You may recall from science class, it's sound waves bouncing off your ear drums and causing them to vibrate and send messages to your brain. Listening is the active, voluntary effort to receive a message, understand it, and respond to it.

Be Aware of Other People's Emotions. Be sympathetic to other people's misfortunes and congratulate their positive landmarks. To do this you need to be aware of what is going on in other people's lives. Make and maintain eye contact and use first names where appropriate. Do not be afraid to ask others for their opinions as this will help to make them feel valued.

Consider the emotional effect of what you are saying and communicate within the norms of behaviour acceptable to the other person.

Empathize. Empathy is trying to see things from the point-of-view of others. When communicating with others, try not to be judgemental or biased by preconceived ideas or beliefs - instead view situations and responses from the other person's perspective. Stay in tune with your own emotions to help enable you to understand the emotions of others.

If appropriate, offer your personal viewpoint clearly and honestly to avoid confusion. Bear in mind that some subjects might be taboo or too emotionally stressful for others to discuss.

Encourage. Offer words and actions of encouragement, as well as praise, to others. Make other people feel welcome, wanted, valued and appreciated in your communications. If you let others know that they are valued, they are much more likely to give you their best. Try to ensure that everyone involved in an interaction or communication is included through effective body language and the use of open questions.

The Five Types of Listening

You can become a better listener by understanding the four types of listening:

- Passive:
- Selective
- Competitive
- Active
- Reflective

Passive listening is one-way communication in which you do not provide feedback and may or may not understand the message. This kind of listening often takes place in a classroom or meeting when most people don't respond. Listening to the TV, radio, or a speaker who doesn't take questions is passive listening.

Selective listening is the act of hearing and interpreting only parts of a message that seem relevant to you, while ignoring or devaluing the rest. Often, selective listeners will form arguments before they've heard the full story, making them not only poor listeners, but poor speakers too!

Competitive listening takes place when you're not really listening closely—you listen long enough to hear what you think is the necessary information (and you may or may not be right about this), and you're already thinking about what you're going to say in reply. You can hardly wait for a break in the conversation so you can jump in. This is what happens when people talk past each other in an argument, neither one listening to what the other is trying to say.

Active listening, on the other hand, is a genuine two-way communication. You are listening intently, thinking about the information to make sure you understand it, and providing feedback to the speaker to clarify what you don't understand.

Reflective listening goes a step further—you are not only actively listening, but are concentrating on the speaker's feeling, which the speaker might express through word choice or body language. You reflect not only on what the speaker said, but on what the speaker feels about it. A good counsellor engages in this kind of listening.

Again, as the sender, it's your job to make sure the receiver heard and understood your message the way you meant it. As an active listener, you help the sender by thinking about the message, providing feedback, and seeking clarification. Don't depend on the sender to do it all. Listen actively and confirm that you understand the message.

Listen for meaning

Listening for meaning is a form of active listening. Active and attentive listeners not only pay attention to words, they also focus on the intent of each word – the message a word is intended to communicate. To decipher messages, first determine the central idea being communicated. Then pay close attention to anecdotes, explanations, and other details meant to clarify meaning. While you work to improve listening skills, always pay close attention to the central focus of what is being relayed.

While you're listening, and after the listening task has ended, check your comprehension. Did what you learn to make sense within the context of the topic or central idea being communicated? Monitoring and checking comprehension makes sure that your active listening strategy is working.

Focus on what's important

One of the keys of effective listening is the ability to concentrate on central idea. In other words, effective listeners focus on the stories or ideas behind the facts. They then are able to pick up on the supporting fact, details and evidence for the main concepts, ideals and topics being discussed.

Choose to be interested

Many people tune out lectures because they are not interested. As a result, they neglect to take notes on the concepts. Effective listeners become interested in the subject material, so that they can process the information and pay attention to classroom lectures

Distractions

- Many **noises or conversations** grabbing your attention at one time, or any other close-by dominant noise such as **television or music**.

- **Physical appearances** can certainly be distracting if they evoke extreme emotions of pleasure or displeasure.
- **Disinterest** causes boredom.
- **Personal habits** such as fiddling with your hair, fingers, or a pen. It also includes daydreaming.
- **Unmet needs** such as illness, tiredness, hunger, thirst, or needing to use the toilet.
- **Personal issues** keep us preoccupied.

Biases

- **Facts** take precedence over **empathy**.
- **Feeling sorry** for someone, rather than empathizing.
- **Personal prejudices** such as race, gender, age, religion, accent, or any aspect of personal appearance; and/or **past experiences**, preconceived ideas or biases which make you perceive the other as unintelligent or incredible.
- Having a **closed mind** and being unable to get past your own beliefs to see the other's viewpoint.

Break Down the Barriers

Now it is the time to look at 10 ways of teaching effective listening skills with all your students. As you employ them in your practices, be sure to take your kids along for the ride by listening, observing, and telling them what you are doing where appropriate and comfortable.

- 1. Stop talking:** If you are talking, you are not listening. Quiet your responses, and your interjections. Be open and available to what is being sought by the other person through your listening.
- 2. Get into your listening mode:** Quiet the environment. Mentally open your mind to hearing by getting comfortable and engaging in eye contact.
- 3. Make the speaker feel comfortable:** Examples of this might be nodding or using gestures. Seating is also important. Decide if the speaker will feel more comfortable if you stay behind your desk, or if you took a chair beside them. For smaller children, get at their eye level instead of towering over them.
- 4. Remove distractions:** This is something you might not think of at first. It means things like clearing the room, quieting screens, and silencing your phone; if the speaker requests privacy, honour that by closing the door or asking others to give you a few minutes in private.
- 5. Empathize:** At the very least, try “learning instead to embrace and wonder at their “otherness.”

- 6. Be comfortable with silence:** Some people really need time to formulate a thoughtful response. Rushing them through, or suggesting what they want to say, robs them of the opportunity to communicate honestly.
- 7. Put aside personal prejudice:** This is also quite difficult, as our experiences form who we are. Putting all those experiences aside is a skill which requires help and practice.
- 8. Heed the tone:** Sometimes the tone can hide the meaning of the words, and sometimes the tone enhances the meaning of the words. Know which is which.
- 9. Listen for underlying meanings, not words:** Listen first for *comprehension*, and then a second time for *ideas*.
- 10. Pay attention to non-verbal communication:** People communicate through body language and facial expressions. This is why eye contact is necessary.

Tips and techniques to become a better communicator

The art of listening has a famous mascot – Richard Branson. Yes, the flamboyant founder of the Virgin Group is a huge votary of ‘listening’.

“*Nobody ever learnt anything by hearing themselves speak,*” says Branson, adding that successful people often lose the ability to listen because they are “*very fond of their own voices*”.

Branson says some of the most successful entrepreneurs he has met are good listeners, underlining the importance of this talent as a core communication and leadership skill. There is no underestimating about the value of effective listening skills. From grievances and complaints, to suggestions, opinions and ideas, or just free-wheeling conversation at work, there is a wealth of information and insights you can gain by simply keeping your ears open.

Effective listening skills lead to better customer satisfaction, raises productivity, reduces errors and facilitates the sharing and exchange of information, which in turn enhances creativity and drives innovation.

India’s Harsh Goenka, chairperson of the RPG Group, believes Indians have an edge in listening skills due to their culture. Indians are raised to be good listeners since they ‘listen’ and do not talk back to their parents and teachers, he points out. Goenka says he places a premium on listening, especially because it helped him learn the business quickly as he was inducted at a very early age.

Shishir Joshipura, Managing Director of SKF India, has honed this skill to an art. He offers an unusual tip. Joshipura believes that for a conversation to yield valuable insights, one must engage in free-flowing conversation on the other person’s home ground. “This creates context, and the quality of the conversation is much better,” he says.

Tips to Become a Good Listener

Most people like to think they are good listeners but that could be pure narcissism talking. If you want to know whether you need to improve your listening skills, here are 8 things that could help you decide.

1. Shush!

When someone else is talking, say at a meeting, group discussion or brainstorming session, never interrupt, never talk over them and wait your turn to speak.

Some experts believe that the mark of a good leader is to employ the 80-20 rule – speak only 20 per cent of the time.

2. Eliminate Distractions

There is a world of difference between ‘hearing’ and ‘listening’. While hearing implies that you have physically heard what someone is saying, it doesn’t necessarily mean that you have truly listened to them.

To honestly listen to the speaker, shut out all mental distractions and focus entirely on what the speaker is saying.

3. Actively Listen

This means concentrating fully on what the speaker is saying and letting them know that you are. When you are seen to be listening, it is very encouraging for the speaker.

You can use non-verbal cues such as smiling occasionally, nodding and maintaining eye contact to demonstrate interest. You can also use verbal cues such as saying ‘Mm-hm’ or ‘yes’, from time to time. Once the speaker is at ease and knows you are listening, the quality of communication will improve.

4. Demonstrate Empathy

Empathy means putting yourself in the shoes of the speaker, which is darn difficult to do. That’s because each of us comes to the table with baggage, biases and prejudices, aimed either at the individual speaking or at what he or she is saying.

Guard against reacting and focus, instead, on the value of what is being discussed. A good listener always looks at things from the other person’s perspective.

5. Non-Verbal Cues

We never listen only with our ears. There are many non-verbal cues that people send out when speaking. So watch for posture; tone of voice, pitch and volume; and whether the speaker is nervously shuffling from one foot to the other.

Non-verbal cues will tell you whether the speaker is lying or exaggerating, whether they are nervous or uncomfortable as well as a host of personality traits that provide context for what the person is saying.

6. Don't Be Judgemental

When listening to someone speak, be aware of whether you are reacting to cues such as the speaker's ethnicity, gender, mannerisms or even to the emotional colour what they are saying. So, don't take sides or form opinions.

When you react emotionally, you are likely to miss out on bits of the content and possible creative ideas that might have otherwise struck you. In other words, even when you don't like what you are hearing or who is saying it, listen anyway!

7. Clarifying

Occasionally ask the speaker a question or two. This confirms that you have been listening to the speaker and reassures him or her that you are genuinely interested in what they have to say.

8. Reflecting

While using this technique, you essentially mirror what the speaker is saying, by paraphrasing or repeating key words. In the complex world of business today, CEOs and other honchos in leadership roles cannot escape the fact that listening comes with the territory. The world is fast changing, consumer tastes and preferences are rapidly evolving, technology is morphing as we speak, and employee expectations too are changing. Therefore, listening skills come into play way beyond Monday morning meetings and the occasional brainstorming session. Leaders have to listen to much larger conversations – where the industry is headed, what the competition is up to, what innovations their peers are pushing and the state of the economy in general.

Why would listening skills be important to a teacher in the classroom?

Despite this, genuine communication between **teacher** and student **can** only occur by showing a willingness to try to understand the students' feelings. Empathic **listening** in the **classroom**: ... Promotes honest communication and builds trust and confidence. Gives the **teacher** time to clarify his/her thinking

Public Speaking and Conversation

1. Introduction: **Speaking** is an act of making vocal sounds. We can say that **speaking** means to converse, or express one's thoughts and feelings in spoken language. These skills allow the speaker, to convey his message in a passionate, thoughtful, and convincing manner while public speaking and conversation share many similarities, they are in fact two very different forms of communication.

Differentiate between public speaking and conversation

- Public speaking is the process of speaking to a group of people in a structured, deliberate manner intended to inform, influence, or entertain the listeners.

- Conversation is a form of interactive, spontaneous communication between two or more people who are following rules of etiquette.
- There are three key differences that set public speaking apart from conversation: organizational structure, use of formalized language, and method of delivery.
- Speeches involve thoughts that are logically organized and structured, whereas conversations may wander around subjects.
- Speeches use formalized language, while conversation may use slang, profanity, or poor grammar.
- Speeches are often delivered in deliberate, intentional settings and contexts, whereas conversations may arise spontaneously.

Difference with Conversation

It may seem rather simple: isn't public speaking just a form of conversation with an audience? At the most basic level, that might seem true. But under closer inspection, public speaking and conversation are, in fact, two very different things.

Public speaking is defined as "the process of speaking to a group of people in a structured, deliberate manner intended to inform, influence, or entertain the listeners." Conversation, on the other hand, "is a form of interactive, spontaneous communication between two or more people who are following rules of etiquette." You may already notice the similarities: both conversation and public speaking involve speakers and audiences, as well as messages exchanged between the two parties. Depending on to whom you are speaking, you will adjust your message based on both your audience and the context of your speech or conversation. And of course, a good conversation and a good speech both share elements of compelling and engaging storytelling.

There are three key differences that set public speaking apart from conversation: organizational structure, use of formalized language, and method of delivery.

Organizational Structure

Speeches and public addresses are far more organized than everyday conversation. A public speaker organizes his or her thoughts in a speech by using three basic structural elements: an introduction, a body, and a conclusion. Conversations can wander and meander without ever coming to a point. Speeches are deliberately structured and organized, whereas conversations are not.

Use of Formalized Language

When you sit down and have a conversation with a close friend, either face-to-face or *via* text message or chat, you might find that your language and tone are far more casual than if you were to sit down and have a conversation with, say, your doctor. Public speaking formalizes language that much more. When speeches are designed to "inform, influence, or entertain," they require a

certain formality of speaking compared to a casual conversation between friends. Slang, profanity, and poor grammar might be accepted between friends but are definitely not appropriate for any kind of public address or speech.

Method of Delivery

You hear the phrase "strike up a conversation" more than you hear "strike up a speech" because conversations are far more spontaneous than public speeches. And don't let extemporaneous speaking fool you: extemporaneous speeches merely involve speaking about a subject with no written notes and are not to be considered truly spontaneous. Conversations can spring up anywhere. Public speaking is often organized into events and venues with a set time and location. Public speeches may also fall within certain time constraints, whereas conversations can be as brief or as long as those involved are willing to participate.

SEMINARS AND CONFERENCES

In earlier times seminars and conferences were limited to the academic world where the students presented their own research work through oral or written reports; now these have become common in the professional world also. But life in this century has become highly competitive owing to unprecedented advances in science and technology. So there is the increasing need for proper utilization of materials as well as manpower. These, in turn demand deep thinking and planning, which can be best done by a group and not by an individual.

Seminar: This refers to a discussion in a small group in which the result of original research or advanced study is presented through oral or written report. It may also be organized for cross-fertilization of ideas. Generally, one person presents a paper incorporating his findings and then there is in -depth discussion on the material presented.

The other members are knowledgeable and take active part in the discussion. They closely interact with the lead speaker by expressing their views as seen from the individual's angle. The doubts, if any, are sought to be clarified by putting specific questions. The main purpose of seminar is to share knowledge and to get the viewpoints of the people who are equally well-informed persons.

Symposium: In a Symposium, a small group of experts or well informed persons discuss different aspects a problem for the benefit or audience. Each speaker is allotted a certain amount of time for his presentation. Speakers follow each other in turn until all have been heard. The audience may participate in the discussion. Though the symposium is formal, an element of spontaneity is introduced through audience participation. It is generally suited to programmes presented to a large audience.

Panel Discussion: Each member speaks on the announced topic, which is worded as question instead of delivering a series of speeches on different aspects of the problem. The members in a panel discussion are usual experts in dealing with the problem selected for discussion. The panel discussion is a kind of cooperative thinking. This panel discussion may be followed by question session where the listener may put forth their questions to the panel members. This type of panel discussion is best suited to public discussion programmes on radio and T.V.

Conference: Another type of meeting is conference. The name conference indicates to confer with persons having the same interest and to collect their experiences and opinions. The discussion usually results in the end with a set of suggestions or recommendations on the central theme of the subject. The participants as well as the subject matters are wider when compared to symposia or seminars. Different groups hold discussion on different aspects of

the conference theme simultaneously at the venue. Formal lectures, audiovisual presentation, exhibitions are also arranged on this occasion.

The conference is a closed group discussion and the participants have to register their names for attending.

Colloquium: Colloquium is an organized conference or seminar on some subject, involving a number of scholars of experts.

Convention: Convention is a fellowship meeting of a closely linked fraternal group. It is more vigorously structured than a conference and only matters of professional interest are discussed. Thus the term is applied to professional of gathering held by companies, association, societies, etc., and applied to the assembly of the delegates of a political party.

There are certain generalized rules applicable to all oral communication situations. Body language plays a significant role in oral communication through which speech can be regulated.

Regulating Speech: There are six elements of communication namely **pitch, volume, rate, quality, animation and pause.**

1) **Pitch:** Pitch is the tone of sounds depending upon the rate of vibration of vocal chords.

When we speak, there is continuous variation in the levels at which your voice is pitched.

2) **Volume:** Refers to the power of the sound and it ranges form very loud to very soft.

3) **Soft:** Is the degree of speed at which you speak words.

4) **Quality:** The characteristic tone of voice is its quality. Sometimes a voice may be termed as creaky or jarring to the ears or it may be termed as pleasant.

5) **Animation:** The liveliness of speech is known as animation.

6) **Pause:** Refers to junctures in speech.

If one wants to be a successful speaker one should exploit fully the potential of all the six vocal elements. For self improvement we may tape record our speech and critically examine it and in subsequent efforts try to suitably amend in the light of self-analysis.

Personal appearance: The first impact on the audience is created by the personal appearance of the speaker. Even before the speaker utters the first syllable we begin to form an opinion and visualize the way he is going to talk.

Posture: Posture conveys a wealth of meaning in an economical way. It is an important part of body language and refers to the way one stands and walks. The movement of the body, the position of hands and legs and other parts of the body reveal an individual's personality-whether he is vibrant, alive, dynamic, nervous and self assured etc., A good speaker stands tall, feet together with the weight directly over the instep keeping his chin on a line parallel to

the floor or at right angles to the backbone. Standing in this posture before a group is in fact one of the first essentials for success in speaking.

Eye contact: Eye contact with the listener is the most important aspect of the body language. It has been rightly said that eye is an extension of the brain and window of the soul. Stress is laid on continuous eye contact because it tells whether the speaker is sincere and also whether the listener is interested. Eye contact is a means of gaining feedback, enabling the communicator to alert, adjust and reframe his message while transmitting it. Very often this process is automatic and interaction through eyes between the speaker and the listener takes place unconsciously. Studies have shown that better eye contact leads to more effective communication. A good speaker looks at all sections of audience and not on the ground, the ceiling or at the door.

Voice: A good voice is a gift of nature but anyone can improve the quality of his speech with proper training. The three most mobile speech organs are the lips, jaws and the tongue. They also need exercise. For this purpose, specifically read loud every day for a few minutes. You will soon discover the rich variety and resources of your vocal organs. Record your speech on a tape, if possible and listen to it for any flaws. Also mark how effective speakers vary the pitch of their voice to match the thought, idea or feeling they convey. The important points are:

Variation in pitch and tempo of the voice is essential to convey your message. A speech delivered in monotone makes the audience to sleep.

Fast delivery betrays a lack of confidence. Normally you should speak 125 to 150 words/mt.

Pronounce the words properly, putting stress at the right places.

Speak with enough volume so that everyone in the audience can hear you clearly.

Avoid nasalization and vocalized pauses such as 'er' 'um' etc.

Take care not to use phrases 'you see', 'I mean ', 'is it clear?' etc.,

Audience: Before you begin your talk, size up your listeners – their age, sex, background and interest.

Choose a suitable approach to your audience. In most cases if you speak directly, you will be listened to. Each listener should feel free that you are talking to him individually. If the subject is not interesting, give it a personal touch. If necessary dramatize certain ideas to break the barriers of communication. However, do not be too dogmatic, instead give the impression that you wish to share your views and ideas with audience. Another way to awaken the audience is to relate a joke. Humour arising from personal anecdotes is perhaps

the best. Some in the audience may have had similar experience and they will quickly identify with you, when you relate such a joke.

Preparation: The art of speaking is the reward of persistent effort. There is no magic formula to make you an effective speaker. Adequate planning and preparation are essential for successful presentation. In fact thorough preparation is the antidote for nervousness. Don't read out a written speech word for word. A written speech seldom sounds fresh or vigorous. Face to Face interaction demand thinking and speaking and not a mere repetition of what you have learnt by rote.

Visual aids: Visual aids can make your presentation more effective. The listeners feel stimulated and take more interest in what is being presented. Your explanation with the use of an aid can become more vivid and easily understandable. For example maps, pictures, charts, motion pictures, slides and overhead projectors and a black board. But remember that, too many aids may cripple the effect.

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