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BENGALURU
CITY UNIVERSITY

PEN - ALIGNER

Discipline Specific Core
Communicative English

Paper 2: Phonetics and LSRW Skills
(As Per National Education Policy 2020)

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Prasaranga: Bengaluru City University

***Pen Aligner II: DSC Communicative English Textbook for II Semester BA Communicative English* under Faculty of Arts is prepared by the Members of the Text Book Committee, Bengaluru City University (BCU).**

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FOREWORD

Pen- Aligner II, is the Communicative English Text Book for Discipline Specific Core- Communicative English, for II Semester BA under Faculty of Arts, Bengaluru City University (BCU), as per National Education Policy 2020. This book has been designed for undergraduate students of BCU, Bengaluru and has been prepared by the Members of the Text Book Committee.

This book has been designed to prepare students to speak, read and write English effectively. The text has also been prepared with a view to gear students to prepare for exams where English is a compulsory component.

I congratulate the Chief Editor Dr. T N Thandava Gowda and the Members of Text Book Committee on their efforts in the preparation of the material.

I thank the Director of Bengaluru City University Press and their personnel for bringing out the Text Book neatly and on time.

I hope the text will motivate the teachers and the students to make the best use of it.

Prof. Lingaraja Gandhi
Vice-Chancellor
Bengaluru City University
Bengaluru-560001.

PREFACE

Pen Aligner II introduces Discipline Core Communicative English students to the nuances of writing, reading and appropriate use of vocabulary with an emphasis on Phonetics and Spoken English with the aim to help students acquire quality pronunciation and excellent speaking skills.

The syllabi will help students inculcate the ability to think critically and write effectively and coherently.

I would like to thank the Chairperson and her team of teachers who have meticulously put together a meaningful syllabus, and a textbook which spells out specificities that frame the norms of effective speech and writing.

I wish to thank the Vice Chancellor and the Registrar of BCU for their consistent support. I also thank the publisher, who helped us bring out this text on time.

Dr. TN Thandava Gowda

Chief Editor of the Textbook and Chairperson

UG BOS in English

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Introduction And Note to the Facilitator

Pen-Aligner II has been prepared for the students of Second Semester Discipline Specific Core- Communicative English in accordance with the programme outcomes of National Education Policy 2020.

The II Semester Discipline Specific Core Subject: Communicative English, aims at enhancing the listening, speaking and writing skills of the students. The paper has been designed to help students develop essential skills like writing paragraphs, summarizing, e-mails and resume. The modules in **Pen-Aligner II** have a variety of exercises that are both interesting and challenging. The aim of the exercises is to enable the students to use the language and develop their communicative competence. The paper has also been designed to prepare students for competitive examinations where English is a compulsory paper.

Programme Objectives:

- To develop proper pronunciation and understand the relation between sounds and symbols in English.
- To enable students to be fluent in their speech.
- To focus on Received Pronunciation.
- To understand the process and structure of pronunciation.
- To learn basic transcription.
- To minimize pronunciation errors.
- To improve listening skills.
- To enhance specific reading and writing skills.
- To develop interpretative reading and writing skills.
- To comprehend different styles of writing.
- To improve auditory and verbal ability.
- To identify author's purpose and tone.
- To write effective and coherent paragraphs.
- To give information about themselves in a convincing manner in a resume or a profile.

Learning Outcomes

- Hone pronunciation and appropriate use of English.
- Enhance spoken skills in social interaction.
- Differentiate between consonants and vowels.
- Speak fluently and confidentially.

- Read and write in varying tones.
- Equip students to be able to attempt the English written component in competitive exams.
- Enable students to be keen listeners and observers of the language.
- Enhance logical thinking and error free writing.
- Summarize/paraphrase information in a text.
- Infer meanings of unfamiliar words.
- Write effective Emails.

Assessment Pattern:

Theory	
Summative	60
Formative Assessment	40
Total	100

Practicals	
Summative	25
Formative Assessment	25
Total	50

Formative Assessment Pattern	
Assessment Occasion/ Type	Weightage in Marks
Presentation/Seminar	10
Assignments	15
Tests and Attendance	15
Total	40

The material in this book has been drawn from various sources. I, on behalf of the team thank Dr T N Thandava Gowda, Chairperson Board of Studies, English, Bengaluru City University for entrusting us with the responsibility of generating material for the text book. I thank Dr Kavita Shastri, Member Board of Studies and Members of the Communicative English Text book Committee for their cooperation.

Manjula Veerappa

Chairperson and Editor, Communicative English Textbook

BA Semester 2

Title of the Course: Phonetics and LSRW Skills

Number of Theory Credits	Number of lecture hours/semester	Number of practical Credits	Number of practical hours/ Semester
4	52 or 56	2	52 or 56
Content of Theory Course 2			52/56Hrs
			13/14
Module 1	Introduction What is Phonetics? Production of Speech Sounds Air-stream mechanism Organs of Speech Articulatory System		
Module 2	Classification of Speech Sounds Consonants Vowels –Pure Vowels and Diphthongs		
Module 3	Syllable Syllable Structure Composition of the syllable Consonant Cluster		
Unit – 2			13/14
Module 4	Stress Word accent/stress Sentence stress Intonation		
Module 5	Native language influence on English Transcription- Remedial phonetics - Error analysis - Accent neutralization - Practice session		
Module 6	Listening Skills		
Unit – 3			13/14
Module 7	Reading Comprehension – Skimming and Scanning, Identifying main ideas, Drawing inferences		
Module 8	Paragraph Writing		

Composition: Reflective, Descriptive, Narrative and Argumentative Module 9 Summarizing Expansion Writing Dialogue Writing	
Unit – 4	13/14
Module 10 Profile Writing and Resume	
Module 11 E mail	
Module 12 Vocabulary Synonyms Antonyms Homonyms Homophones Commonly used Foreign Words in English Idioms and Phrases Collocation	

Formative Assessment	
Assessment Occasion/ type	Weightage in Marks
Presentation/Seminar	10
Assignment	10
Test and Attendance	20
Total	40

Practical Component

Practical Record
Listening Comprehension
Transcription

Books for Reference

- A Textbook of English Phonetics for Indian Students – T. Balasubhramanian- Macmillan Publications
- Better English Pronunciation – J.D. Connor – Cambridge University Press
- English Phonetics and Phonology – Peter Roach – Cambridge University Press
- An Outline of English Phonetics- Daniel Jones
- English Pronouncing Dictionary- Daniel Jones
- English Pronunciation in Use- Martin Hewings- Cambridge University Press
- Functions of English- Lee Jones- Cambridge
- Cambridge Phrasal Verbs Dictionary
- English Vocabulary in Use- McCarthy
- Grammar Practice Activities- Penny Ur
- Making Sense of English: A Textbook of Sounds, Words and Grammar- M A Yadugiri

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Module 1

Introduction

English is spoken as a first or second language by a large number of people throughout the world. English is a native language in countries like the United Kingdom, the United States of America, Canada and Australia. In some Commonwealth countries like India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Nigeria and Tanzania, it is spoken as a non-native or second language. In these countries, where English is used as a second language it is used for various purposes: official, educational, social and interpersonal. In some countries like Russia, Japan, Germany, France and Italy, English is used as a foreign language. A **second language** is one which is used for various purposes within the country while a **foreign language** is used for mainly international communication.

Language Variety

There is usually a standard form of written English all over the world. But even in countries where English is spoken as a native language there are variations in speech. For example, in the UK there are variations between the speech of England, Scotland, Wales and Ireland and again within each of these areas there will be a variety of accents (i.e., ways of pronunciation). Similarly, in India where English is spoken as a second language it has developed a variety of accents. For example, the speech of a Bengali speaker of English will differ markedly from that of a Punjabi or Tamil or Gujarati speaker.

Accent

As there is such a wide range of variation in accent (both native and non-native), it is essential that for teaching spoken English, we follow a standard. One native regional accent that has gained wide acceptance is the Received Pronunciation of England (R.P.). It is the pronunciation of the South-East of England and is used by English speakers. R.P. today is generally equated with the “correct” pronunciation of English.

In many non-English-speaking countries R.P. is chosen as a model. Many dictionaries and English language books use R.P. R.P. is generally used by BBC news readers and serves as a model for Indian news readers too.

The teaching and learning of pronunciation concern the following:

- The sound system (Segmental features- consonants and vowels)
- Word accent
- Rhythm, and (Supra-segmental features)
- Intonation

Language is used for linguistic communication. It can be spoken or written. Speech sounds can be systematically

analysed; how sounds are produced, transmitted and received. *Phonetics is a branch of linguistics that deals with the study and systematic classification of the sounds.* It deals with the production, transmission and reception of human speech sounds. A person, who specializes in phonetics is known as a phonetician. The word *Phonetics* is derived from the Greek word *phone* which means sound/voice.

Phonetics is a branch of linguistics that focuses on the production and classification of speech sounds. Speech sounds are produced by the interaction of different organs of speech - the hard palate, the lips, tongue and teeth etc.

Speech is the result of a complicated series of events. When we frame a sentence for example, It is raining in Bengaluru, a number of processes take place. First, you formulate the concept at a linguistic level i.e. in the brain: this stage is said to be *psychological*. Then the nervous system transmits this message to “the organs of speech” which make certain movements and produce particular patterns of sounds: this stage can be called *articulatory or physiological*. The movement of organs of speech creates disturbances in the air: this stage can be described as being physical or acoustic. Since communication generally involves a speaker and a listener, at the listening end the processes involved are *auditing* (i.e., perception of sounds by the listener) and *cognition* (i.e., the decoding of sounds).

The Air-Stream Mechanisms

Human beings possess the ability to produce sounds by using certain mechanisms. These mechanisms have other functions too, to perform such as breathing, smelling, chewing and swallowing and also speech is one such function. An air-stream mechanism is required for the production of speech sounds. The air flows through the mouth for producing different sounds. This stream of air is the basis of speech sounds. The air that we breathe out is modified into speech sounds. For the production of many speech sounds, lung-air is used.

Our body from the head to the abdomen is needed for the production of speech sounds. There are three groups of bodily organs which are used: one group lies in the trunk, one in the throat and one in the head. These are:

1. The Respiratory system
2. The Phonatory
3. The Articulatory system.

These three systems, with very different functions, work together as a unified whole to produce speech.

The respiratory system consists of the lungs, the muscles of the chest and the windpipe also known as trachea. The lungs are spongy bodies made up of small sacs called the alveoli. These sacs are the filters, where the blood is cleaned of its carbon-dioxide and fresh oxygen from the outer-air is provided. Bronchioles are small tubes that supply air to the alveoli. The bronchioles come together into two large tubes called the bronchi (situated on the right and left). The bronchi join the windpipe. The air that we breathe in passes through the throat into the lungs.

The respiration process involves inspiration (taking outer air into the lungs) and expiration (throwing out air from the lungs into the outer atmosphere. It is the expiratory air or the air that we breathe out, that is the basis for the articulation of most of the speech sounds.

Three main types of air-stream mechanisms are used in human speech and each mechanism has a different initiator. All three mechanisms may be used to push air out (egressive) or to pull it in (ingressive).

The three main air-stream mechanisms:

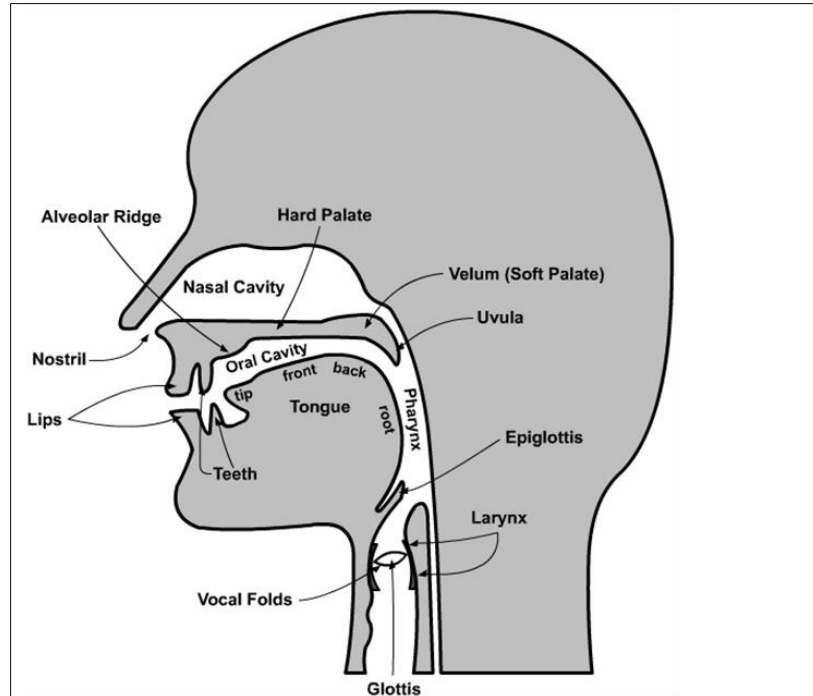
- (1) Pulmonic air-stream mechanism
- (2) Glottalic air-stream mechanism
- (3) Velaric air-stream mechanism.

The **pulmonic air-stream mechanism** consists of the lungs and the respiratory muscles. The latter move the walls of the lungs which form the initiator, so that air is either drawn into the lungs or pushed out of them. For the sounds of English and most Indian languages, it is the pulmonic egressive air-stream that is used.

The second of the three air-stream mechanisms is called the **glottalic**. The larynx itself, with the glottis firmly closed, is the initiator. Sounds produced by an ingressive or egressive glottalic air-stream are found in many languages.

The third and last of the air-stream mechanisms i.e., the **velaric air-stream mechanism**. Its initiator is the back part of the tongue which can be lifted up so that it comes firmly into contact with the velum (soft palate). Certain languages spoken in Africa such as Zulu, use the ingressive velaric air-stream.

The Organs of Speech



In the production of speech sounds, we need an airstream mechanism and the mechanism used in the production of most sounds of most languages is the pulmonic egressive air-stream mechanism. The air that we breathe out comes out from the lungs. In the process of the air passage, various organs in our body convert it into speech sounds. for the speech sounds. These organs are *organs of speech*. The organs, which are involved in the production of speech sounds, are the lungs, the vocal cords, the tongue, the teeth and the lips. The organs of speech can be grouped as:

The Respiratory System

The respiratory system comprises the lungs, the bronchial tubes and the wind pipe or trachea. The usual source of energy for our vocal activity is provided by an air-stream expelled from the lungs. There are languages which have sounds not requiring lung (pulmonic) air for their articulation, but all the essential sounds of English need pulmonic air for their production.

The Phonatory System

The phonatory system is formed by the *larynx or voice-box*, the front part of which can be seen in adult males as the Adam's apple. The larynx contains the vocal cords. The opening between the vocal cords is known as glottis.

The Larynx

The pulmonic air-stream mechanism is the mechanism generally used for the production of the sounds of English

and most Indian languages. The air from the lungs has to pass through the windpipe or trachea and the larynx. Inside the larynx are situated a pair of lip-like structures called the *vocal cords*, placed horizontally from front to back. They are attached in the front and can be separated at the back. They are made of elastic tissue which may be brought together or parted. The opening between the vocal cords is known as the *glottis*. The vocal cords can by their action bring about a number of different states of the glottis.

The four states of the glottis are:

- a. open glottis (breath/voiceless state)
- b. glottis in vibration (voice state)
- c. closed glottis (a state in which a glottal stop is produced)
- d. narrowed glottis (whisper state).

Open glottis: When we say that the glottis is open we mean that the vocal cords are drawn wide apart so that an air-stream can pass through them quite freely. This is the state of the glottis for normal breathing. Any segment of speech which is produced with the glottis open is said to be *voiceless or breathed*. The initial phoneme in the following English words: pear, tamarind, kite, children, fall, thick, seat, shine and hit for example, (/p/, /t/, /k/, /tʃ/, /f/, /θ/, /s/, /ʃ/, /h/) are voiceless sounds.

Glottis in vibration: The glottis may be in vibration i.e., the vocal cords are alternately brought into contact and blown apart by the force of the air flowing through the glottis. The vocal cords open and close regularly many times a second. This vibration of the vocal cords produces *voiced sounds* and constitutes the process called phonation.

All vowel sounds and the consonants [/b/, /d/, /g/, /dʒ/, /v/, /ð/, /z/, /ʒ/, /t/, /m/, /n/, /ŋ/, /l/, /r/, /j/, /w/] as in the English words bat, dog, goat, jack, vase, that, zoo, treasure, mat, note, sing, leaf, rose, yes and wet are voiced sounds.

The rate at which the vocal cords vibrate is called the frequency of vibration of the vocal cords and this determines the *pitch* of the voice.

The distinction between voiceless and voiced sounds is very important in the description of speech.

Closed glottis: The glottis may be entirely closed i.e., the vocal cords are brought together with sufficient firmness to prevent the air-stream from forcing them apart. The glottis momentarily assumes this position when one coughs or has hiccups and for the glottal stop [ʔ]

Narrowed glottis: The glottis may be narrowed i.e., the vocal cords are brought close together, but not so close that they are set into vibration. The air-stream is impeded by this narrowing as it passes through the glottis. This

cuts down the force of the air-stream and produces a soft hissing noise called a whisper.

The Articulatory System

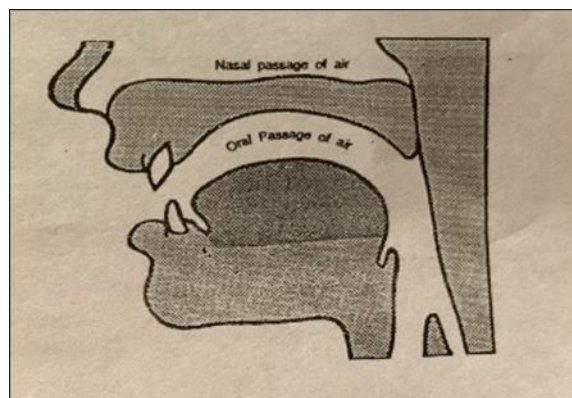
The articulatory system consists of the nose, the lips, and the mouth including the teeth and the tongue. Although the ear is not part of the speech producing mechanism, we must include it among the vocal organs, because speech is not just produced, it also has to be received - and the main organ of reception is the ear.

The *roof of the mouth* comprises *the hard palate, the soft palate, the teeth ridge and the uvula*.

The convex bony part of the roof of the mouth which lies immediately behind the upper front teeth is called *teeth ridge*, also known as *alveolar ridge or alveolum*. Immediately after the teeth-ridge, the roof of the mouth becomes concave and hard and bony. This surface part is called *hard palate*. *Soft palate* lies just behind the hard palate where the surface of the roof of the mouth is soft and fleshy. Soft palate is also known as *velum*. The fleshy structure hanging loose at the extreme end of the roof of the mouth is called *uvula*.

The soft palate acts like a valve in opening and closing the nasal passage of air. The soft palate can be raised or lowered. In normal breathing the soft palate is lowered so that the air can escape through the nose and the mouth.

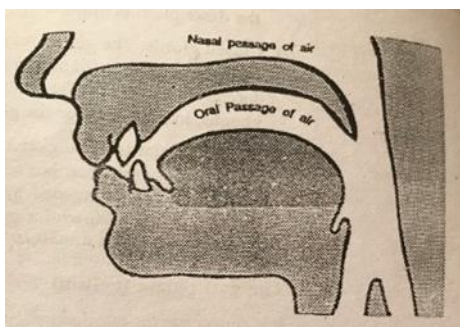
Oral Sounds



Production of oral sounds

When the soft palate is raised the nasal passage is shut (the nasal passage of air is blocked), and what we have is a velic closure. The air then escapes solely through the mouth and sounds produced in this way are called *oral sounds*. All English sounds with the exception of the nasal consonants have this oral escape of air.

Nasal Sounds



Production of nasal sounds

When the soft palate is lowered, the nasal passage is open. The passage of air into the nose is opened and the passage into the mouth is blocked, so the air from the lungs escapes only through the nose. This is the position taken by the soft palate in the production of *nasal sounds*. The consonant sounds /m/, /n/ and /ŋ/ as in the English words ram, ran and sing are nasal sounds.

The Tongue

The tongue is an active articulator in the production of speech sounds. It can take up different positions during the production of various sounds. The tongue can be divided into the *tip*, the *blade*, the *front*, the *back*, and the *root* of the tongue. The extreme edge of the tongue is called the *tip*. Immediately after the *tip* is the *blade* of the tongue and it lies opposite the teeth-ridge. Beyond the blade lies the *front* of the tongue and its position is opposite of the hard palate. The *back* of the tongue lies beyond the front of the tongue and its position is opposite the soft palate. Even beyond the back of the tongue is its *root*.

The Lips

The lips are also active articulators in the production of certain speech sounds. Both the upper lip and the lower lip function together to produce the consonant sounds like /p/, /b/ and /m/.

The Teeth

Both the upper teeth and the lower teeth are articulators in producing sounds. They are passive articulators.

Alveolar-ridge/Teeth Ridge

The convex part of the roof of the mouth immediately behind the upper teeth.

Hard palate: the concave part of the roof of the mouth behind the teeth ridge.

Soft palate: the flexible part at the back of the roof of the mouth. The soft palate-can be raised or lowered. The continuous line shows the soft palate in its raised position and the broken line shows the soft palate in its lowered position.

Uvula: the end of the soft palate.

Pharynx: space between the back of the tongue and the back wall of the throat.

Blade of the tongue, including tip: the part which lies opposite the teeth-range when the tongue is in a position of rest.

Front of the tongue: the part which lies opposite the hard palate when the tongue is in a position of rest.

Back of the tongue the part which lies opposite the soft palate when the tongue is in a position of rest.

Root of the tongue.

Questions for Discussion:

I Answer the following questions:

1. How are sounds produced?
2. Are sounds of English produced by inhaling air into the lungs or by exhaling air out of the lungs?
3. Name the air-stream mechanism used for producing English sounds.
4. What is the state of the glottis in the production of voiced sounds?
5. Describe the organs of speech and air stream mechanism.
6. Draw organs of speech and label correctly.
7. Describe pulmonic egressive air-stream mechanism.
8. Distinguish between voiced and voiceless sounds. With examples
9. What kind of sounds are produced when the glottis is open?

II Fill in the blanks with the appropriate word or phrase:

1. The organs of speech are divided into _____ system, _____ system and _____ system.
2. The soft palate is also known as _____
3. When the soft palate is lowered we get _____ sounds.
4. Voiceless sounds are also called _____ .
5. The teeth ridge is also called _____.
6. Voiceless sounds are also called _____
7. Velic closure is caused by raising the _____.
8. The _____ of the tongue lies opposite the hard palate when the organs of speech are at rest.
9. During the production of _____ sounds the oral passage remains closed.
10. Vibration of _____ results in the production of voiced sounds.

Module 2

Description and Classification of Speech Sounds

Consonants

There are forty-four speech sounds in English. These forty-four speech sounds are divided into two main groups: *Vowels and Consonants*. The consonant sounds are those during the production of which, the air escapes through the mouth with a friction. They are produced by a partial or complete obstruction of the airstream by a constriction of the speech organs. /s/ and /m/ sounds in ‘sum’ are consonants. Vowel sounds are those during the production of which, there is no obstruction in the mouth. The air escapes through the mouth freely and no friction is felt. The sound /i/ in ‘sin’ is a vowel.

There are twenty-four consonants in English. When consonants are produced there is either a closure or narrowing of the air passage in the mouth. Consonants can be voiceless or voiced, depending upon whether the vocal cords are held wide apart or are in vibration.

IPA symbols for consonants

p	Pencil	s	Son
b	Balloon	z	Zero
t	Table	ʃ	Ship
d	Dark	ʒ	Pleasure
k	Kite	h	Help
g	Go	m	Mango
tʃ	Church	n	Neat
dʒ	Judge	ŋ	Ring
f	Fan	l	Lamp
v	Velvet	r	Rain
θ	Think	j	Yesterday
ð	This	w	Wet

Consonants are described on the basis of

- a) the state of the glottis.
- b) place of articulation
- c) manner of articulation

State of the Glottis: Sounds produced with the vocal cords wide open i.e. the glottis is open, these sounds are called *Voiceless Sounds*. Sounds produced when the vocal cords are loosely held together and the pressure of the air from the lungs makes the vocal cords open and close rapidly(vibrate) are called *Voiced Sounds*.

Voiceless Consonants: The voiceless consonants in English are /p/, /t/, /k/, /f/, /θ/, /s/, /ʃ/, /h/ and /tʃ/

Voiced consonants: /b/, /d/, /dʒ/, /g/, /v/, /ð/, /m/, /n/, /ŋ/, /z/, /ʒ/, /r/, /l/, /j/ and /w/

Place of Articulation: Articulators are the organs that alter the shape and character of the airstream by modifying it. Two articulators are involved in the production of the consonants. Some articulators move towards the other articulator during the production of speech sounds, these are called *active articulators*. Those articulators that the active articulator moves towards are called the *passive articulators*. The passive articulators are the upper lip, the upper teeth, and the roof of the mouth and the back wall of the throat or pharynx. The active articulators are the lower lip and the tongue.

The place of articulation simply involves the active and passive articulators used in the production of a particular consonant. There are several types of consonants depending on the place of articulation. The label used is an adjective derived from the name of the passive articulator.

1. Bilabial: the two lips are the articulators. /p/, /b/, /m/, /w/

2. Labiodental: The lower lip and upper front teeth are the articulators. /f/, /v/

3. Dental: The tongue and the upper front teeth are the articulators. /θ/, /ð/

4. Alveolar: The tip/blade of the tongue and the teeth ridge are the articulators. /t/, /d/, /s/, /z/, /n/, /l/

5. Post Alveolar: The tip of the tongue and the part of the roof of the mouth immediately behind the teeth ridge are the articulators. /r/

6. Palato- Alveolar: The tip of the tongue or the tip and blade of the tongue and the teeth ridge are the articulators. /tʃ/, /dʒ/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/

7. Palatal: The front of the tongue and the hard palate are the articulators. /j/

8. Velar: The back of the tongue and the soft palate are the articulators. /k/, /g/, /ŋ/

9. Glottal: The vocal cords are the articulators. Sound is produced in the glottis. /h/

Manner of Production of Sound/ Articulation:

The manner of articulation refers to the type of stricture involved in the production of a consonant. Stricture refers to the way in which the passage of air is restricted by the various organs of speech.

Consonants in English are divided into six groups based on their manner of production.

1) Plosives / Stop Consonants

The stricture may be one of complete closure, i.e., the active and passive articulators make a firm contact with each other, thus preventing the passage of air between them. With a complete closure of both the oral and nasal passages, the air is blocked and when released the air escapes with a slight explosive sound. For example, in the production of /p/ as in pot and /b/ as in bamboo, the lips make a complete closure. In the production of /t/ as in time and /d/ as in doll the tip and rims of the tongue make a complete closure with the teeth-ridge and the side teeth.

English /k/ as in kite and /g/ as in gold are also articulated with a stricture of complete closure, the back of the tongue makes a firm contact against the soft palate, In all these cases, the soft palate is in its raised position and so there is no possibility of the air escaping through the nose.

There are three pairs of plosives in RP:

/p/ ,/b/ Bilabial

/t/ , /d / Alveolar

/k /, /g / Velar

/p/, /t/, k / are **Voiceless** and / b, d, g / are **Voiced**.

a) Bilabial Plosives / p/, /b /

The two lips are closed and thus the air passage in the mouth is shut off completely. The soft palate is raised, thereby blocking the nasal passage also. When the lips are separated the air escapes with an explosive sound. The vocal cords are held apart during the articulation of /p/ but they vibrate during the articulation of / b /. Thus / p / is a voiceless bilabial plosive and / b / is a voiced bilabial plosive.

/p/ and / b / can occur *initially, medially and finally* in words as in pail, spoon, tap and beautiful, rubber, tub.

b) Alveolar Plosives / t/, /d /

The oral closure is made by placing the tip and blade of the tongue firmly against the alveolar ridge. The soft palate is raised, thereby blocking the nasal passage. The air from the lungs is compressed. When the mouth closure is released, the air escapes with an explosive sound. The vocal cords are held apart for / t/ and they vibrate for / d /. Thus / t / is a voiceless alveolar plosive and / d / is a voiced alveolar plosive.

/ t / and / d / occur *initially, medially and finally* as in tomb, stop, pat and door, sudden, bed.

/t/ and / d / are inflexional suffixes. The inflexional suffixes (i.e. suffixes used for making past and participle forms of verbs) are pronounced / -t/, / -d / and

/ -id / (though these suffixes are always represented by the letter -d or the letters -ed). The different pronunciations of these suffixes are governed by the following rules.

- a) The suffixes are pronounced /- t / after voiceless consonants other than /t/.

Examples: kicked, laughed, locked, pushed, stopped.

- b) They are pronounced /- d / after voiced sounds (voiced sounds include vowels) other than /d /.

Examples: begged, called, loved, played, robbed.

- c) They are pronounced /- id / when the root verb ends in / t / and / d /. Examples: handed, hunted, lamented, landed, wanted

c) Velar Plosives / k, g /

The back of the tongue is firmly held against the soft palate, which is raised to shut off the nasal passage of air. The air that is compressed by pressure from the lungs escapes with an explosive sound when the back of the tongue is removed from the soft palate. The vocal cords are held apart for / k / and they vibrate for

/ g /, / k / is thus a voiceless velar plosive and / g / a voiced velar plosive.

/ k / and / g / occur initially, medially and finally as in keep, skip, ask and God, beggar, mug.

2) Fricatives

The stricture may be one of close approximation, i.e. the two articulators are brought very close to each other so that the space between them is very narrow. The air passes between them with audible friction. /f/ as in fill, /v/ as in velvet,

/θ/ as in think, /ð/ as in this, /s/ as in small, and /z/ as in zoo are some examples of sounds produced with a stricture of close approximation.

The air escapes through this narrow passage with audible friction. There are nine fricatives in RP.

/f/	/v/	Labio-dental
/ θ/	/ ð /	Dental
/ s/	/ z/	Alveolar
/ʃ/	/ʒ/	Palato-alveolar
/h/		Glottal

a) Labio-dental fricatives / f/ / v /

During the articulation of / f / and / v / the lower lip is brought very close to the edge of the upper teeth making a light contact with them. The soft palate is raised, thereby shutting off the nasal passage of air. The air passes through the narrow space between the lower lip and the upper teeth with audible friction. The vocal cords are held apart during the articulation of / f / and they vibrate during the articulation of / v /. / f / is thus a voiceless labio-dental fricative while / v / is a voiced labio-dental fricative.

/ f / and / v / can occur initially, medially, and finally, as in fine, left, life and vet, ravishing, leave.

b) Dental fricatives /θ/ /ð/

During the articulation of /θ/ and /ð/ the tip of the tongue makes a light contact with the upper front teeth. The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage of air. The air from the lungs escapes through the narrow space between the tip of the tongue and the upper front teeth, causing audible friction. The vocal cords are held apart during the articulation of / θ/ whereas they vibrate during the articulation of / ð /. Thus / θ/ is a voiceless dental fricative and / ð / is a voiced dental fricative.

Both /θ/ and / ð / can occur initially, medially and finally in a word as in thin paths, bath and then, rather, bathe.

c) Alveolar fricatives /s/ /z/

/ s/and /z / the tip and blade of the tongue are brought very close to the alveolar ridge so that the space between them is very narrow. The soft palate is raised so as to shut off the nasal passage of air. The air from the lungs escapes through the narrow passage between the tip and blade of the tongue and the alveolar ridge, causing audible friction. The vocal cords are wide apart during the articulation of /s/ while they vibrate during the articulation of / z / /s/ is thus a voiceless alveolar fricative and /z/ is a voiced alveolar fricative.

/s/ and /z/ can occur initially, medially and finally as in sin, assist, rice and zip, raised, eggs, zebra

/s/ and /z/ in inflexional suffixes:

The inflexional suffixes (i.e. suffixes used for making plurals and possessives of nouns and simple present tense third person singular forms of verbs) are pronounced /-s / / -z / and /-iz / (though these suffixes are always represented by the letter –s or the letters –es). The different pronunciations of these suffixes are governed by the following rules.

1) These suffixes are pronounced /s/ after voiceless consonants other than /s

/ / ʃ / and /tʃ/

Examples: caps, cots, coughs, cakes, months

2) They are pronounced / z / after voiced sounds (remember, voiced sounds include vowels) other than /z / /ʒ/ and / dʒ /

Example: buns, bombs, boards, calls, cities, goes, cows, bears, toes, loathes, loves, plays, cubs sons

3)They are pronounced / -iz/ when the root (i.e. singular noun or the infinitive form of the verb) ends in /s/ / z / / ʒ / / dʒ / / ʃ / /tʃ/

Examples: judges, bushes, cages, catches, edges, garages, roses

3) Lateral

The stricture of a complete closure in the centre of the vocal tract but with the air passing along the sides of the tongue without any friction (lateral passage). This is what happens when you articulate the English /l/ as in love, lamp, all.

During the articulation of /l/ the tip of the tongue makes firm contact with the alveolar ridge. The soft palate is raised so as to shut off the nasal passage of air. The vocal cords vibrate, thus /l/ is a voiced.

/l/ can occur initially, medially and finally as in lamb, along, till.

4) Approximants

The stricture may be one of open approximation, i.e., the two articulators are brought close to each other but the space between them is wide enough for the air to escape without friction. All vowels and the English Sounds /j/ as in yam and /w/ as in wet and /r/ as in rain are produced this way.

During the articulation of /j/ the lips are neutral or spread. The soft palate is raised so as to shut off the nasal passage of air. The front of the tongue assumes a position of a vowel between close and half-close and quickly glides to the position of the following vowel. The vocal cords vibrate, producing a voiced consonant.

/j/ occurs initially and medially as in yes, yellow, yet student. It does not occur finally in a word.

/w/

The soft palate is raised so that the nasal passage of air is shut off completely. The back of the tongue is raised in the direction of the soft palate and the lips are rounded. Then there is a quick movement of the tongue and the lips to the position for the next vowel. The vocal cords vibrate, producing voice.

/w/ occurs initially and medially as in wet, water, watch language. It does not occur finally in a word.

/r/

The tip of the tongue is raised in the direction of the hinder part of the teeth-ridge. The soft palate is raised so as to shut off the nasal passage of air. The air from the lungs comes out of the space between the tip of the tongue and the post-alveolar region without any friction. Sounds that are produced with the tip of the tongue curled backwards are called Retroflex sounds. The vocal cords vibrate producing the sound. /r/ is thus a voiced palatal alveolar approximant.

In RP /r/ occurs initially and medially, (as in red, sorry) but only before a vowel sound. /r/ does not occur finally in a word in RP except when a word with a final r in spelling is immediately followed by another word beginning with a vowel. Thus, the word butter is pronounced /ə/ in isolation.

The sounds /w/ and /j/ are also called semi vowels, as these sounds have phonetic similarities to the vowels /u/ and /i/.

- All the three approximants are Voiced.

5) Affricates

The stricture involved in the production of these sounds is of complete closure and slow release. These sounds begin as plosives but end as fricatives. The active articulator is removed slowly from the passive articulator, thereby friction will be heard. /tʃ/ as in church and /dʒ/ as in judge are the affricates.

The air passage in the mouth is completely closed by a firm contact between the tip and blade of the tongue and the alveolar ridge. The front of the tongue is raised in the direction of the hard palate. The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage of air. The tip and blade of the tongue are removed from the alveolar ridge slowly so the air from the lungs escapes with friction. The vocal cords are held apart during the articulation of / tʃ / and they vibrate during the articulation of /dʒ/.

Both / tʃ / and / dʒ / can occur initially, medially and finally as in chair, actually, teach and jam, suggest, badge.

6) Nasals

The stricture involved is complete oral closure. The active and passive articulators are in firm contact with each other thus blocking the oral passage of air. The soft palate is lowered so that the air comes out of the nose. There are three nasal consonants in English: /m/ as in make /n/ as in nest and / ŋ / sing.

a) Bilabial nasal/ m /

During the articulation of /m/ the two lips are brought together and thus the oral passage is blocked completely. The soft palate is lowered and the air escapes through the nose. The vocal cords vibrate, producing voice. Thus / m / is a voiced bilabial nasal.

/ m / occurs initially, medially and finally as in moon , summer, tomb.

b) Alveolar nasal / n /

The tip of the tongue makes a firm contact with the alveolar ridge, thereby blocking the oral passage of air. The soft palate is lowered and the air escapes through the nose. The vocal cords vibrate. Thus / n / is a voiced alveolar nasal.

/ n / can occur initially, medially and finally as in name, manner, man.

c) Velar nasal /ŋ/

The back of the tongue makes a firm contact against the soft palate, thereby blocking the oral passage of air. The soft palate is lowered and the air escapes through the nose. The vocal cords vibrate. Thus / ŋ / is a voiced velar nasal.

/ ŋ / occurs medially and finally as in singing, sing. It does not occur initially in a word.

In RP word-final ng is pronounced / ŋ / (that is, the final letter g is not pronounced as / ing /). Thus sing is pronounced / sɪŋ / and king is pronounced / kɪŋ /.

Some consonant sounds have been described in terms of the points listed above. For the production of all English sounds and most of the sounds in most Indian languages, pulmonic egressive air-stream mechanism is used.

1. /p/ in the English word pot.

- i. The vocal cords are held apart and the sound is voiceless.
- ii. The soft palate is raised and the nasal passage is closed.
- iii. The active articulator is the lower lip.
- iv. The passive articulator is the upper lip
- v. There is a stricture of complete closure and sudden release.

2. /d/ in the English word deep.

- i. The vocal cords vibrate, and the sound is voiced.
- ii. The soft palate is raised and the nasal passage is closed.
- iii. The active articulator is the tip of the tongue.
- iv. The passive articulator is the teeth-ridge.
- v. There is a stricture of complete closure (the tip of the tongue makes a firm contact with the teeth-ridge) and sudden release.

3. /m/ in the English word map.

- i. The vocal cords vibrate and the sound is voiced.
- ii. The soft palate is lowered and the nasal passage is open.
- iii. The active articulator is the lower lip.
- iv. The passive articulator is the upper lip.
- v. There is a stricture of complete oral closure.

Three-term label: A consonant can be described by using a three-term label:

- | | |
|-----|---|
| /p/ | in police is a voiceless, bilabial plosive. |
| /m/ | in matron is a voiced bilabial nasal. |
| /ŋ/ | in ring is a voiced velar nasal. |
| /z/ | in zebra is a voiced alveolar fricative. |

Classification of English Consonants

Place of Articulation								
Manner of Articulation	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Palato-Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Plosive								
<i>Voiceless</i>	/p/			/t/			/k/	
<i>Voiced</i>	/b/			/d/			/g/	
Fricative								
<i>Voiceless</i>		/f/	/θ/	/s/	/ʃ/			/h/
<i>Voiced</i>		/v/	/ð/	/z/	/ʒ/			
Affricate								
<i>Voiceless</i>					/tʃ/			
<i>Voiced</i>					/dʒ/			
Nasal	/m/			/n/			/ŋ/	
<i>Voiced</i>								
Lateral				/l/				
<i>Voiced</i>								
Approximant	/w/				/r/	/j/		
<i>Voiced</i>								

Questions for Discussion:

1. Give the three-term label for the following consonant sounds:

1. /z/ _____
2. /h/ _____
3. /l/ _____
4. /ʒ/ _____
5. /θ/ _____
6. / m/ _____
7. /ð/ _____
8. / k/ _____
9. /v/ _____
10. /d/ _____

2. Give phonetic symbols to match the following descriptions of consonant sounds:

1. voiced post-alveolar frictionless continuant
2. voiceless palato-alveolar affricate
3. voiced alveolar nasal

4. voiced labio-velar semi-vowel
5. voiceless alveolar fricative
6. voiced velar plosive
7. voiceless dental fricative
8. voiced bilabial plosive
9. voiceless labio-dental fricative
10. voiced palato-alveolar fricative

Description and Classification of Vowels

Vowels are produced with an open approximation of the articulators, i.e. the active articulator which is always the tongue (the front, the back or the center of the tongue) is raised towards the passive articulator (which in the case of vowels is either the hard palate, or the soft palate or the meeting point of the hard and the soft palates) in such a way that there is sufficient gap between the two for the air to escape through the vocal tract without any friction. Therefore all vowels are voiced. The size and the shape of the oral cavity change in different ways for different vowels. Vowels differ from each other in terms of the way the size and the shape of the oral cavity change during their production.

Phonetic symbols (IPA) Short vowels

/ɪ/	sit
/e/	end
/ʊ/	pull
/æ/	apple
/ʌ/	mutton
/ɒ/	cot
/ə/	about

Long vowels

/ɑ:/	car
/i:/	bee
/ɔ:/	caught
/u:/	pool
/ɜ:/	girl

Vowels are described on the basis of:

- a) **The part of the tongue that is raised highest- front, centre or back.**
- b) **The vertical difference between the tongue and the roof of the mouth (the height to which it is raised) - open, half open, close and half-close.**
- c) **The shape of the lips- rounded or unrounded.**

a) The part of the tongue that is raised:

In the articulation of vowel sounds the active articulator is the front, the center, or the back of the tongue. If it is the **front** part of the tongue is raised in the direction of the hard palate, then the vowels produced are called **Front vowels**. The vowels in the English words see, sit, bed and bat are examples of front vowels.

During the production of some vowels, the **back** of the tongue is raised in the direction of the soft palate. These vowels are called **Back vowels**. The vowels in the English words: car, cot, caught, look, shoe are examples of back vowels.

Some vowels are produced by raising that part of the tongue which is **between the front and the back (we call this part the Center of the tongue)** towards that part of the roof of the mouth which lies at the meeting point of the hard palate and the soft palate. These vowels are called **Central vowels**. The vowels in the English words bird, cup and in the first syllable of ago are examples of central vowels.

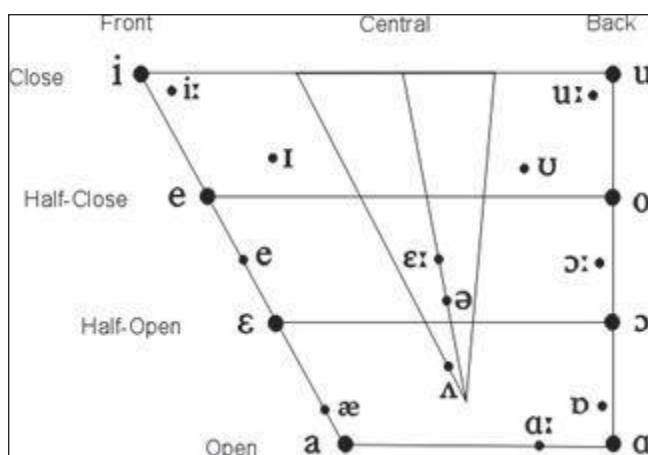
Thus, we classify vowels into three categories taking into account the part of the tongue raised. **These are front vowels, back vowels and central vowels.**

b) The height to which the tongue is raised

When we utter a vowel sound, we move our tongue at different levels from. For example, to utter some vowels we have to raise our tongue close to the palate and at times the tongue remains far from the palate. From this we can say whether the vowel uttered is open or close. There are eight main categories of vowels according to height of the tongue. They are called Cardinal Vowels and they are:

1. Front Close Vowel 2. Front Half Close vowel 3. Front Half Open Vowel 4. Front Open Vowel 5. Back Open Vowel 6. Back Half Open Vowel 7. Back Half Close Vowel 8. Back Close Vowel.

- a) **Close vowel:** Is produced when the tongue is raised so high that the surface of the tongue is very close to the roof of the mouth. Example beat, shoe.
- b) **Half Close vowel:** Is produced when the tongue is between the close and open positions, but closer to the close position than to the open position.
- c) **Open vowel:** Is produced when the tongue is not raised high and there is a great distance between the surface of the tongue and the roof of the mouth. Example: cart, part.
- d) **Half Open position:** Is produced when the tongue is between the close and open positions, but closer to the open position than to the close position.



c) Position of the lips

A third criterion for the classification of vowels is the position of the lips. A simple classification is based on two categories—rounded (lips brought forward as for the vowel in the word shoe) and unrounded or spread (corners of lips pulled back as for the vowel in the word see).

Thus we describe a vowel in terms of the following:

- Part of the tongue raised (front, center and back)
- The height to which the tongue is raised (close, half -close, open, half-open)
- The position of the lips (unrounded or rounded)

We can describe a vowel using a three-term label—the term to indicate which part of the tongue is raised, the second to indicate the height of the tongue and the third to indicate the position of the lips.

The vowel in the word *see* /i:/ is a front close unrounded vowel

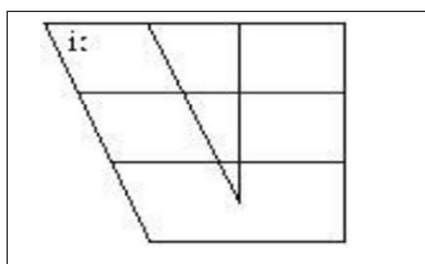
The vowel in the word *card* /ɑ:/ is a back open unrounded vowel.

Description of pure vowels

/ə/	a central, half-open, unrounded vowel
/ɑ:/	A back, open, unrounded vowel
/ɪ/	A centralized front, just above half-close, unrounded vowel
/i:/	A front, close, unrounded vowel
/ʊ/	A centralized, back, rounded vowel, just above half-close position
/u:/	A back, close, rounded vowel
/e/	A front, unrounded vowel between half-close and half-open
/æ/	A front, unrounded vowel just below the half-open position
/ʌ/	A central, unrounded vowel between open and half open
/ɜ:/	A central, unrounded vowel between half-close and half-open
/ɒ/	A back, open, rounded-vowel
/ɔ:/	A back, rounded vowel between half-open and half-close

Front vowels / i: i e æ/

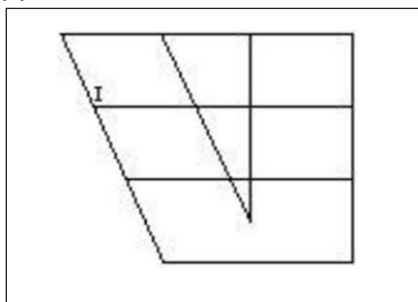
/i:/



In the articulation of this vowel, the front of the tongue is raised in the direction of the hard palate to an almost close position. The lips are spread. The tongue is tense. The vowel is comparatively long. We may describe it as a Front *Close Unrounded* vowel.

The vowel / i: / occurs initially, medially and finally as in eat / i:t /, meat /mi:t / and tea /ti:/.

/i/

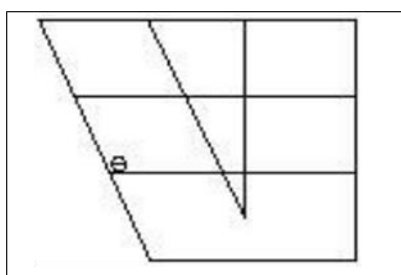


During the articulation of this vowel the rear part of the front of the tongue is raised in the direction of the hard palate, to a position between close and half-close nearer half-close than close. The lips are loosely spread. The vowel

/ i/ can thus be described as a Front Unrounded Vowel between Close and Half-Close.

/i/ can occur initially, medially and finally as in it /it/, sit / sit/, city / siti/

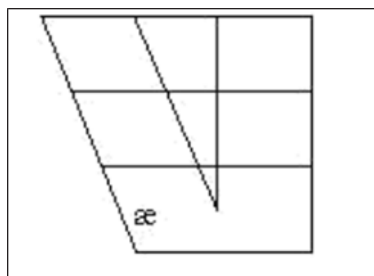
/e/



During the articulation of this vowel the front of the tongue is raised in the direction of the hard palate to a position between half-close and half-open. The lips are loosely spread or neutral. /e/ can therefore be described as a Front Unrounded Vowel between Half-Close and Half-Open.

The vowel /e / occurs initially and medially as in ate / et / , bet / bet / . It does not occur finally.

/æ/

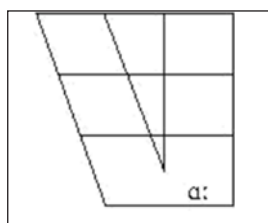


During the articulation of this vowel the front of the tongue is raised to a position slightly below the half-open position. The lips are neutral. / æ/ is thus a Front Unrounded Vowel just below the Half-Open position.

The vowel /æ/ occurs initially and medially as in as /æ/, man /mæn/. It does not occur finally in a word.

Back Vowels

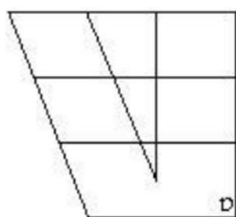
/a:/



During the articulation of /a: / the back of the tongue is in the fully open position. The lips are neutral. /a:/ is thus a Back Open Unrounded vowel

The vowel /a: / occurs initially, medially and finally as in art / a:rt / , heart / /ha:rt / , far /fa:/

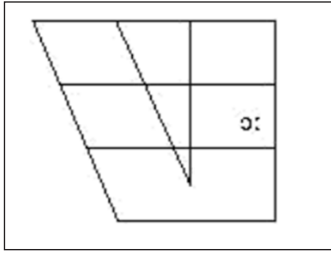
/ɒ/



During the articulation of this vowel the back of the tongue is raised in the direction of the soft palate and it is in the fully open position. The lips are rounded. Thus /ɒ / can be described as a Back Open Rounded vowel.

The vowel /ɒ/ occurs initially and medially as in on /ɒn/, what /wɒt/. It does not occur finally in a word.

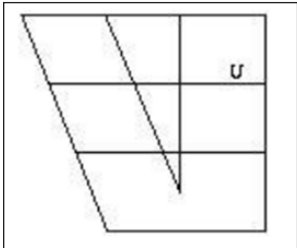
ɔ:/



During the articulation of this vowel, the back of the tongue is raised in the direction of the soft palate, to a height between half-close and half-open. The lips are rounded. It is a long vowel. /ɔ:/ is thus a Back Rounded Vowel between Half-Close and Half-Open.

The vowel /ɔ:/ occurs initially, medially and finally as in order /ɔ:də/, bought /bɔ:t/ law /lɔ:/

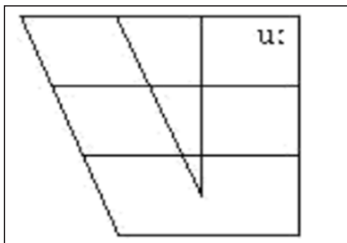
/ʊ/



During the articulation of this vowel the back of the tongue is raised to a position between close and half-close. The lips are loosely rounded. /ʊ/ is thus a centralised Back Rounded Vowel between Close and Half-Close.

The vowel /ʊ/ does not occur initially. It occurs medially as in look/ lʊk/. In the word-final position it occurs only in the weak forms of words like to /tʊ/, do /dʊ/

/u:/



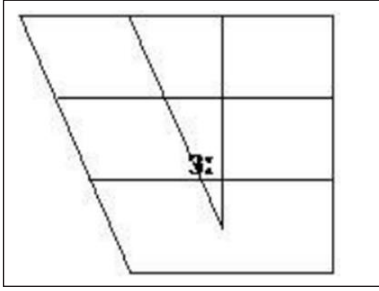
During the articulation of this vowel the back of the tongue is raised in the direction of the soft palate, almost to a close position. The lips are closely rounded. /u:/ is thus a Back Close Rounded Vowel.

The vowel /u:/ occurs initially, medially and finally as in ooz /u:z/, stool /stu:l/

/, shoe /ʃu:/.

Central Vowels /ɜ: ʌ ə/

/ɜ:/

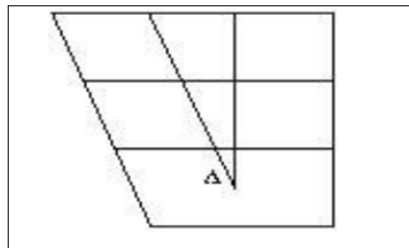


During the articulation of /ɜ:/ the center of the tongue is raised in the direction of the roof of the mouth where the hard and soft palates meet to a position between half-close and half-open. The lips are neutral. It is a central vowel.

RP

/ɜ:/ is thus a Central Unrounded Vowel between Half-Close and Half-Open. The vowel /ɜ:/ occurs initially, medially and finally as in earth /ɜ:θ/, turn /tɜ:n/, fur /fɜ:/

/ʌ/



During the articulation of this vowel, the center of the tongue (i.e. the part of the tongue between the front and the back) is raised to a position between open and half-open. The lips are neutral. /ʌ/ is thus a Central Unrounded Vowel between Open and Half-Open.

The vowel /ʌ/ occurs initially and medially as in up /ʌp/ mutton /mʌtn/. It does not occur finally.

/ə/

During the articulation of /ə/ (when it occurs in non-final positions) the center of the tongue is raised to a position between half-close and half-open. The lips are neutral. Non-final /ə/ is thus a Central Unrounded Vowel between Half- Close and Half-Open.

If the vowel occurs in the word-final position, the center of the tongue is raised to the half-open position. The lips are neutral. Final /ə/ is thus a Central Half- Open Unrounded vowel.

The vowel /ə/ occurs initially, medially and finally as in the first syllable of aloud /ə/, the second syllable of purpose /ə/, the last syllable of father /ə/.

In RP /ə/ is a very frequently occurring vowel, but it occurs only in unstressed syllables.

Diphthongs

'Diphthongs' are vowel glides within one syllable. They may be said to have a first element (the starting point) and a second element (the point in the direction of which the glide is made).

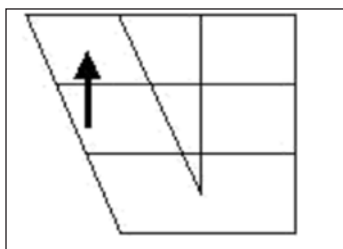
The R.P. diphthongs have as their first element sounds in the general region of /ɪ, e, a, ə, ʊ/ and for their second element /ɪ, ʊ, ə/. These elements may be treated as separate phonemic entities.

The following generalizations apply to all the R.P. diphthongs:

1. Most of the length and stress associated with the glide is concentrated on the first element, the second element being only lightly sounded.
2. They are equal in length to the long vowels and are subject to the same variations of quality, e.g. plays /pleɪz/, place /pleɪs/. The reduced forms show considerable shortening of the first element.

There are five closing diphthongs they are /eɪ/, /aɪ/, /ɔɪ/, /əʊ/, /aʊ/

/eɪ/

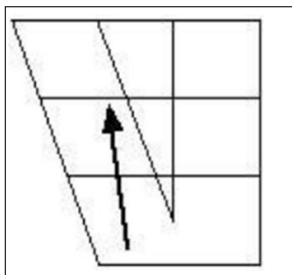


/eɪ/ as in 'day'- The glide begins slightly below the half-close front position and moves in the direction of R.P. /ɪ/, there being a slight closing movement of the lower jaw; the lips are spread. The starting point is therefore somewhat closer than R.P. /e/ of 'bet'.

Spellings

- A) a ape, late, make, lady, waste, bass.
- B) ai, ay day, may, waist, rail, aim, rain.
- C) ei, ey eight, veil, weigh, rein, they, whey.
- D) ea great, steak, break.

/aɪ/



The glide of R.P. /aɪ/ begins at a point slightly behind the front open position and moves in the direction of the position associated with R.P. /ɪ/. The glide is much more extensive than that of /eɪ/, the closing movement of the lower jaw being obvious. The starting point may be similar to the articulation used in the advanced R.P. type of /ʌ/. The lips change from a neutral to a loosely spread position.

Spellings

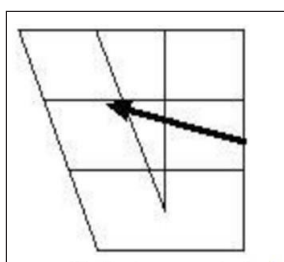
A) i y time, write, bite, climb, cry, dry, by.

B) igh eight, high, light, fight, might, height.

C) ie ye die, lie, pie, tried, dye.

D) ei ai either, aisle.

/ɔɪ/



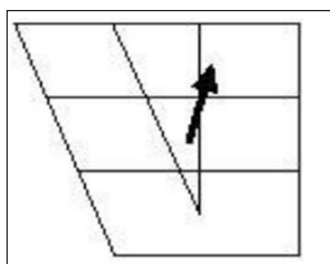
For /ɔɪ/ the tongue glide begins at a point between the back half-open and open positions and moves in the direction of /ɪ/. The tongue movement extends from back to centralized front, but the range of closing in the glide is not as great as for /aɪ/; the jaw movement, though considerable, may not be as marked as in the case of /aɪ/. The lips are open-rounded for the first element, changing to neutral for the second.

Spelling

A) oi, oy boy, toy, noise, voice, boil, point.

This diphthong does not present very great difficulties to the foreign learners, provided that, in addition to the appropriate variations of quantity, the quality of the first element lies between the sounds of R.P. /ɔ:/ and /ʊ/. The glide does not extend beyond the half-close front level

/əʊ/

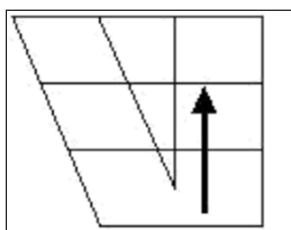


The glide of R.P. /əʊ/ begins at a central position between half-close and half-open and moves in the direction of R.P. /ʊ/, there being a slight closing movement of the lower jaw; the lips are neutral for the first element, but have a tendency to round on the second element.

Spellings

- A) o so, old, home, both, folk.
- B) oa oak, road, foal, toast, soap.
- C) oe toe, doe, sloe, foe, hoe.
- D) ou Ow soul, though, shoulder, snow, blow.

/aʊ/



The glide of R.P. /aʊ/ begins at a point between the back and front open positions, slightly more fronted than the position for R.P. /a:/ and moves in the direction of R.P. /ʊ/, though the tongue may not be raised higher than the half-close level. The glide is much more extensive than that used for /əʊ/ and is symmetrically opposed to the front glide of /aɪ/. The lips change from a neutrally open to a weakly rounded position.

Spellings

- A) Long in how, loud, town, cows.
- B) Reduced in ‘shout, about, mouse, mouth.’
- C) /l/ following in ‘cowl, fowl, owls.’

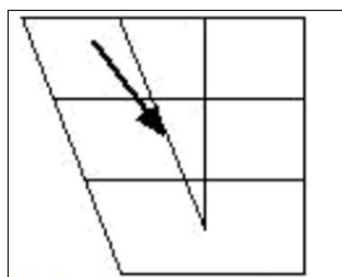
Diphthongs + /ə/

All the preceding diphthongal glides /eɪ, aɪ, ɔɪ, ʒɪ, aʊ/ are falling (i.e. with length and stress on the first element)

and closing (i.e. gliding from a more open to a closer position); three of them /aɪ, ɔɪ, aʊ/ require an extensive movement of the tongue. All may be followed by /ə/ within the word, either as an inseparable part of the word as in ‘fire, choir, iron, hire, society, sour, tower’ etc., or as a suffix appended to the root as in ‘grayer, player, slower, mower, higher, drier, employer’ such cases a third vocalic element /ə/ may be added to the two elements of the diphthongal glide.

Centering Diphthongs: /ɪə, eə, ʊə/

/ɪə/

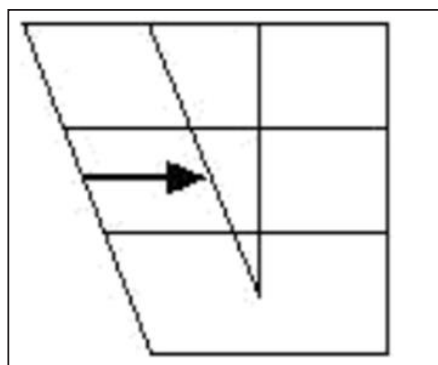


The glide of R.P. /ɪə/ begins with a tongue position approximately that used for /ɪ/, i.e., centralized front half-close and moves in the direction of the more open variety of /ə/ when /ɪə/ is final in the word; in non-final positions as in ‘beard, fierce’ the glide may not be so extensive, the quality of the /ə/ element being of a mid-type, The lips are neutral throughout, with a slight movement from spread to open.

Spellings

- A) eer ear, ere deer, dear, tear.
- B) eir ier ir weird, fierce, fakir.
- C) ea ia eu eo idea, Ian, museum, theological

/eə/



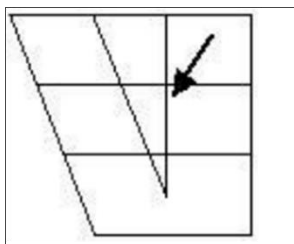
The glide of R.P. /eə/ begins in the half open front position and moves in the direction of the more open variety of /ə/, especially when the diphthong is final where it occurs in a syllable closed by a consonant the /ə/ element

tends to be of a mid-type. The lips are neutrally open throughout.

Spellings

- A) are care, rare, share, mare.
- B) air air, fair, pair, chair.
- C) ear bear, pear, wear, tear.

/ʊə/



RP /ʊə/- glides from a tongue position similar to that used for /ʊ/ towards the more open type of /ə/, which forms the end-point of all three centering diphthongs with a somewhat closer variety of /ə/ when the diphthong occurs in a closed syllable. The lips are weakly rounded at the beginning of the glide, becoming neutrally spread as the glide progresses.

Spellings

- A) oor poor, moor.
- B) ure pure, endure, cure, sure.
- C) ur curious, spurious, during, security.
- D) ewer sewer.
- E) our tour, dour, gourd.

It also occurs in words like jewel, fluent, Care should be taken to use the first element of a half-close kind rather than a quality resembling that of /u:/. In addition, the spelling 'r' should not be pronounced, except when a /r/ link is made before a following vowel, either occurring initially in the next word as in 'poor old man' or in the following syllable of the same word as in 'tour, touring' etc.

Description of diphthongs

/eɪ/	A glide from a front, unrounded vowel just below half-close to a centralized, front, unrounded vowel just above half-close
/aɪ/	A glide from a front, open, unrounded vowel to a centralized, front, unrounded vowel just above half-close

/ɔɪ/	A glide from a back, rounded vowel between open and half-open position to a front, unrounded vowel just above half-close position
/ɪə/	A glide from a centralized front unrounded vowel just above half-close to a central, unrounded vowel between a half-close and half-open
/eə/	A glide from a front, half-open unrounded vowel to a central, unrounded vowel between a half-close and half-open
/ʊə/	A glide from a centralized, back rounded vowel just above half-close to a central, unrounded vowel between a half-close and half-open
/aʊ/	A glide from back, open, unrounded position to a centralized, back, rounded vowel just above the half-close position
/əʊ/	A glide from a central, unrounded vowel between half-close and half-open to a centralized, back rounded vowel just above the half-close position.

Questions for Discussion

1. Give the phonetic symbol and three term label / description for the initial phoneme in the following words:

- | | |
|-----------|------------------|
| 1. Over | 6. Earth |
| 2. Age | 7. Unintelligent |
| 3. On | 8. As |
| 4. Armour | 9. Upto |
| 5. Even | 10. Of |

2. Give a word with each of the sounds described below:

1. A back open unrounded vowel.
2. A central unrounded vowel between half close and half open.
3. The diphthong /ai/
4. A front, close unrounded vowel.
5. A centralized front unrounded vowel just above half close.
6. A central unrounded vowel between open and half open.
7. A back, close, rounded vowel.

8. A back rounded vowel between half open and half close.
9. The diphthong /au/
10. A central half open unrounded

Module 3

The Syllable

A syllable comes after a phoneme in the hierarchy of speech sounds. A unit of human speech that is interpreted by the listener as a single sound, although syllables usually consist of one or more vowel sounds, either alone or combined with the sound of one or more consonants; a word consists of one or more syllables (Oxford Dictionary).

Examples: The word *Dog* /dɒg/ has one syllable

The word *English* /ɪŋɡlɪʃ/ has two syllables; the syllables are /ɪŋg/ and /lɪʃ/

Words like cat, book and toy are made up of one syllable and are called monosyllabic words; words like paper, pencil and bottle are made up of two syllables; words like computer, important and remember have three syllables; a word like intonation has four syllables; a word like examination has five syllables.

Syllable division is usually marked with a hyphen, examples: pa-per, com- pu-ter, in-to-na-tion and e-xa-mi-na-tion. It is always not possible to mark syllable division in the spelling form therefore the words are to be transcribed to facilitate syllable division. the transcription indicates the actual way in which the word is pronounced For example, the syllable division in following words is marked as: *phonetics* /fə - 'ne - tɪks/ *linguistics* /lɪŋ - 'ɡwɪs - tɪks/ and *grammar* /'ɡræ - mə/

Syllable Structure

A syllable can be analysed in terms of its segments i.e., consonants and vowels. A consonant functions as a marginal element. If the consonant occurs at the beginning of a syllable it is called as a **releasing consonant** and the one that occurs at the end of a syllable is called as an **arresting consonant**. The vowel is the **nucleus** or the central part of a syllable. When the structure of a syllable is described, the symbol C is used to represent a consonant and V to represent a vowel. For example, the word look /lɒk/ has the structure CVC (i.e, it is made up of one consonant, one vowel and one consonant). The structure of the syllable /lɒk/ can be shown thus:

C	V	C
l	U	K
releasing consonant	Nucleus	arresting consonant

The word eye /aɪ/ is made up of just one speech sound, the diphthong /aɪ/. This is the nucleus of the syllable and it has no consonant before or after it. Thus, the structure of the syllable is V. Let's take two other words which have the syllable structure CV and VC respectively. She /ʃi:/ has the structure CV and ill /ɪl/ has the

structure VC.

A syllable which is arrested by a consonant (ends in a consonant) is called a **closed syllable**, for example, *is* /iz/.

A syllable which has no arresting consonant (ends in a vowel) is called an **open syllable**, for example, *you* /ju:/.

The syllable has three positions- onset (open), centre (peak) and termination (coda) examples next, treat, means etc.

Here a few more examples of the syllable structures discussed above: Monosyllabic Words (words with one syllable):

a) CVC

Hat /hæt/

Phone /fəʊn/

Cut /kʌt/

Boys /bɔɪz/

c) CV

Day /deɪ/

Who /hu:/

Law /lɔ:/

Know /nəʊ/

b) V

I /aɪ/

air /eə/

a /eɪ/

oh /əʊ/

d) VC

all /ɔ:l/

in /ɪn/

oil /ɔɪl/

us /ʌs/

Disyllabic Words (words of two syllables each) About /ə'baʊt/ V-CVC

Letter /'le-tə/

CV-CV

Allow /ə-'laʊ/

V-CV

Expert /'eks-pɜ:t/

VCC-CVC Trisyllabic Words (words of three syllables each)

Episode /'e-pɪ-səʊd/

V-CV-CVC

Develop /dɪ-'ve-ləp/

CV-CV-CVC Refreshment /rɪ-'freʃ-mənt/ CV-CCVC-CVCC

Usually /'ju:-ʒʊə-li/

CV-CV-CV Words of more than three syllable each

Photographic /fəʊ-tə-'græ-fɪk/

CV-CV-CCV-CVC Neurology /njʊ-'rɒ-lə-dʒi/ CCV-CV-CV-CV

Types of syllables:

a) a) Some syllables have a nucleus and an arresting consonant VC:

b) at /æt/

am /æm/

b) Some syllables have a releasing consonant and a vowel and no arresting consonant CV:

Go /gəʊ/

She /ʃi:/

c) Some syllables have a releasing consonant, a vowel and an arresting consonant CVC:

Cat /kæt/

Toad /təʊd/

d) Some syllables have two releasing consonant and a vowel CCV:

fry /fraɪ/

slow /sləʊ/

e) Some syllables have two releasing consonant, a vowel and an arresting consonant CCVC:

school /sku:l/

prize /praɪz/

f) Some syllables have three releasing consonant, a vowel and an arresting consonant CCCVC:

screen /skri:n/

spread /spred/

g) Some syllables have three releasing consonants, a vowel and two arresting consonants CCCVCC:

strange /streɪndʒ/

script /skript/

h) Some syllables have a releasing consonant, a vowel and three arresting consonants CVCCC:

bands /bændz/

text /tekst/

i) Some syllables have a releasing consonant, a vowel and four arresting consonants CVCCCC:

Tempts /tempt/

Twelfths /twelfθs/

English allows up to three consonants to begin a syllable and up to four consonants to end a syllable. A sequence of two or more consonants occurring at the beginning or end of a syllable is called as a **consonant cluster** eg. paint, allows. When the consonants occur together in a word but are in different syllables they are called as **abutting consonants** eg. content, example.

Questions for Discussion:

1. Indicate the syllable division in the following words.

application, intonation, engineering, propaganda, legislation, compensation, fundamental, mathematics, understanding, population, potato, subtle, consider, element, approximation, silky, captain, blue, twinkle, human

2. Indicate the syllable division in the following words

delight, reciprocate, linguistics, father, barbaric, calculate consonant, smaller, agriculture, tailor, dip.

3. From the words below, pick out the ones with a CVCC structure.

laughed, charged, wrist, seems, brunch, turns, switch, debts, slipped, lambs,
frank, first start, hold, shift.

4. From the words given below pick out the ones with a CCCV structure:

screw, spray, splay, square, splint, straw, sliced, splash, string, screech, strong, steel, street, straight

Module 4

Stress

The 44 sounds of English are known as the segmental features, and stress, intonation and rhythm are the supra-segmental or paralinguistic features. Of these features stress and intonation are the most important ones. Without these, pronunciation would lack its communicative force. These features are integrated with the way an utterance is made and they are not easily identified as discrete segments or entities. These features affect communication by extending across segments (individual sounds or words) in a sentence to change meaning. These mechanisms convey the attitude or emotion of the speaker in the form of such verbal cues as stress, intonation, pitch, pause, loudness, etc. In written language, to some extent, they might take the form of punctuation marks, underlining, bold print, or italicizing. Because these mechanisms extend across several sounds or words (linguistic segments), they are called supra-segmental devices. They are ‘para’ linguistic and not fully linguistic because they lack the possibility of signaling meaning through sequential arrangement into structures, which is a criterion of linguistic communication.

When we speak English, we do not articulate all the syllables in the same way. In a word of more than two syllables one of the syllables is pronounced with greater prominence than the other/others i.e. some syllables are said with greater breath force than the others. The feature of certain syllables having greater breath force than the others is referred to as stress. For example, when we say ex-a-mi’na-tion, we stress the penultimate (last but one) syllable, i.e. ‘na’ In polysyllabic words, one syllable is made to stand out more than the other(s), by saying that syllable slightly louder, holding the vowel a little longer and pronouncing the consonants very clearly. These features combine to give that syllable prominence or stress. Stress placement depends on a) the number of syllables in a word b) the sequence of consonants and vowels that make up the syllables c) the grammatical category that the word belongs to (noun, adjective, verb, reflexive pronoun) d) the morphological structure of the word (simple, complex (prefixes, suffixes), compound words)

There are two degrees of stress: a) Primary/Strong stress and Secondary/Weak stress. Primary stress is marked with a vertical bar above and in front of the syllable and secondary stress is marked with a vertical bar below and in front of the syllable that receives the stress.

Examples of Disyllabic words:

First syllable stress

1st syllable)

‘useful

‘yellow

Second syllable stress (because of weak prefix in

a’mount

ma’chine

‘Sunday	be’long
‘civil	de’mise
‘wisdom	in’tense

Examples of Trisyllabic words:

First syllable Stress	Second Syllable Stress	Third Syllable Stress
‘beautiful	ef’ficient	after’noon
‘tabulate	re’member	introduce
‘innocent	at’tendance	under’sand
‘hospital	ex’perience	maga’zine
‘property	pre’vection	absen’tee

Here are a few rules which will help us to stress correctly.

1. Stress in disyllabic words may change depending upon the function, i.e., whether the word is used as a noun/adjective or as a verb. When used as a noun/adjective, the word carries a stress on the first syllable, whereas the stress is shifted to the second syllable when the word is used as a verb. A few examples are given below.

Nouns / Adjectives	Verbs
‘absent	ab’sent
‘conflict	con’flict
‘convert	con’vert
‘extract	ex’tract
‘import	im’port
‘object	ob’ject

1. Disyllabic words with weak prefixes are accented on the root (a-, be- and re-).

a’rise be’low re’duce
a’lone be’come re’tire

2. Disyllabic words beginning with the prefix dis- are stressed on the last syllable.

dis’may, dis’grace, dis’pel, dis’close, dis’count

3. Disyllabic verbs ending in –ate, -ise, -ize and –ct are stressed on the last syllable.

-ate	-ise/-ize	-ct
nar'rate	chas'tise	at'tract
mi'grate	com'prise	con'nect
de'bate	cap'size	de'pict

4. When verbs ending in –ate, -ise/-ize and –ify have more than two syllables, the stress is on the third syllable from the end.

–ate,	-ise/ize,	-ify
'complicate	'colonise	'justify
'separate	'brutalise	'classify
'educate	'patronise	'beautify

5. Numbers ending in -teen, take the stress on the last syllable.

thir'teen, seven'teen

6. Some words ending in the suffix –ion have the stress on the penultimate syllable.

at'tention, culti'vation, intro'duction, infor'mation, 'mansion

7. Some words ending in –ity that have the accent on the third syllable from the end.

a'bility, ac'tivity, e'quality, gene'rosity

8. Some words ending in the suffixes –ic, -ical, -ically, -ial, -ially, -ian that have the accent on the syllable before the suffix.

-ic	-ically	-ian
apolo'getic	apolo'getically	elec'trician
patri'otic	sympa'thetically	mu'sician
scien'tific	scien'tifically	tech'nician

9. Some words ending in –ious, -eous that have the stress on the syllable preceding the suffix.

-ioux	-ious
-eous	-eous
'anxious	in'jurious
'piteous	'hideous
'fractious	la'borious
cou'rageous	'righteous

in'dustrious

re'bellious

'gorgeous

simul'taneous

10. Words ending in 'cracy, 'crat that have the stress on the antepenultimate (third from the last) syllable

-cracy

-crat

au'tocracy

'autocrat

de'mocracy

'democrat

tech'nocracy

'technocrat

11. Words ending in 'graph, -graphy, -meter, -logy that have the stress on the antepenultimate syllable.

-graph

-graphy

-meter

-logy

'autograph

pho'tography

ther'mometer

psy'chology

'paragraph

spec'trography

lac'tometer

bi'ology

'photograph

bi'ography

di'ameter

zo'ology

12. When a compound word conveys a meaning different from that of its individual components, it is the first element that is stressed.

`blacksmith

`blackbird

13. Words ending in -self, -selves that have primary accent on the suffix itself.

My`self, him`self, her`self, your`self, you`selves, our`selves.

14. Usually Prefixes and Suffixes are unstressed.

im'possible, a 'moral, re'turnable, can'tonment

15. Though suffixes and prefixes are generally unstressed, these are exceptions. Disyllabic words beginning with a prefix which has no distinct meaning of its own are sometimes stressed on the prefix itself. Most of these words are either nouns or adjectives. (When they are verbs, stress is on the second syllable.)

e.g. Nouns and adjectives: 'adverb, 'insult, 'prefix, 'pronoun, etc.

Verbs : in'sult, di'gest, de'crease, trans'fer etc.

16. Di-and tri-syllabic words without any easily recognizable prefix usually take the stress on the first syllable.

e.g 'captain, 'father, 'freedom, etc.

17. In longer words of four or more syllables, the general tendency is to have the stress on the antepenultimate syllable (the third syllable from the end)

a-nni-’ver-sa-ry, cur’riculum, sig’nificant, etc.

(Exceptions are adjectives ending in -able, e.g. ‘comfortable, con’siderable, etc. Other exceptions are ‘accuracy, administrative, etc.)

18. Most compound words take their stress on the first of the two words forming the compound,

e.g. ‘class room, ‘ice cream, ‘black board, ‘dancing doll, ‘black bird,

‘hand writing, ‘book self, ‘post office, ‘fountain pen, ‘tape recorder, etc.

(There are exceptions like bare ‘footed, down’stairs, short’sighted, hot ‘tempered, etc.)

Compound nouns generally take the stress on the first word: e.g. ‘thoroughfare,

‘bookshop.

Compound verbs usually take the stress on the second word: e.g under’stand, over’take

Stress shift:

Stress shift could be of the following types:

a) Functional stress: Certain syllabic words are used both as noun and adjective on the one hand and as verb on the other. The stress falls on the first syllable when such a word is used as a noun/adjective and on the second syllable when it is use as a verb. As stress falls either on the first or second syllable depending on the grammatical function, this feature is known as functional stress. When the noun/adjective is used as a verb, the stress shifts to the second syllable.

Noun/Adj.	Verb	Noun/Adj.	Verb	Noun/Adj.	Verb
‘object	ob’ject	‘conduct	con’duct	‘content	con’tent
‘present	pre’sent	‘increase	in’crease	‘decrease	de’crease
‘refuse	re’fuse	‘insult	in’sult	‘desert	de’sert
‘import	im’port	‘export	ex’port	‘subject	sub’ject
‘produce	pro’duce	‘progress	pro’gress	‘record	re’cord
‘absent	ab’sent	‘content	con’tent	‘suspect	sus’pect
‘digest	di’gest	‘project	pro’ject	‘rebel	re’bel
‘contest	con’test	‘perfect	per’fect	‘frequent	fre’quent

(There are exceptions to this, e.g. ‘promise, ‘contact. There is no stress shift here. It remains the same, whether it is a noun/adjective or a verb)

Sentence Stress

Apart from Word stress we also have Sentence/Utterance Stress. All words are not stressed in a sentence. Now, look at this sentence-

I want you to take the dog for a walk in the park.

Out of the 13 words in this sentence only the 5 italicized words are stressed. Stressed syllables are marked with a vertical bar in front of the syllable.

I 'want you to 'take the 'dog for a 'walk in the 'park.

The other 8 are not stressed. If we stress all the words in this sentence, it would result in an unnatural rhythm.

Which words take stress and which don't, in a sentence? Content words are stressed.

Structural words are not stressed.

Content words: Nouns (e.g. house, girl), Verbs (e.g. walk, go), Adjectives (e.g. beautiful, good, long) Adverbs (e.g. today, usually), Demonstratives (e.g. those, this) and Interrogatives (e.g. who, what).

Structural words: Articles (a, an, the), Prepositions (e.g. on, in), Personal Pronouns (e.g. I, him, se, it), Possessives (e.g. my, your, his, her), Relative pronouns (e.g. who, that, which), Conjunctions (e.g. and, but, so, that), Auxiliaries (e.g. be, have, do, will, shall, may, might) and 'One', when used as a noun substitute (e.g. the black pen and the blue 'one').

Apart from this, depending on the meaning we want to convey, we can stress the words. In the sentence, 'I want you to take the dog for a walk in the park', if the speaker wants to stress the point that it is the hearer and no one else, 'you' could be stressed and given extra emphasis. Similarly, can be stressed to emphasise the fact that the speaker and no one else is giving the instruction. (This is known as the semantic stress shift. Depending on the meaning to be conveyed, at times even structural words take stress). If we want to say it in a neutral way, without giving any special emphasis to convey a particular meaning, then we stress the content or lexical words and leave the grammatical or structural words unstressed.

Module 5

Native Language Influence

English is a language that has no one-to-one correspondence between the spelling and sounds. This creates a problem for many non-native speakers. The non-native speakers are also influenced by their native language and speak with a slight regional language accent. At times this is not understood and could lead to ineffective/unintelligible communication. Some Indian languages have nasalized sounds as such the speakers convert all English voiceless sounds to voiced sounds. Example /ʌŋkl/ is pronounced as /ʌŋkul/.

The following are a few commonly mispronounced words:

Word	Mispronounced	Correct Pronunciation
Vest	/west/	/vest/
paint	/pent/	/peɪnt/
Assistant	/əsɪstənt/	/əsɪstnt/
Peas	/pi:s/	/pi:z/
Knees	/ni:s/	/ni:z/
Lord	/la:d/	/lɔ:d/
Paper	/pæpər/	/peɪpə/
Child	/cheild/	/tʃaɪld/
Apple	/a;pəl/	/æpl/
Breakfast	/breaka:st/	brekfəst/
Onion	/ʊnjən/	/ʌnjən/
Cough	/kʌf/	/kɒf/
Plumber	/plʌbər/	/plʌmə/
Lion	/lɔɪn/	/laɪən/
Doctor	/da:ktər/	/dɒktə/
Leisure	/legər/	/leʒə/
People	/pi:pəl/	/pi:pl/
Biscuit	/bɪskt/	/bɪskɪt/
Lawyer	/laɪr/	/lɔ:jə/

Care is to be taken while pronouncing some words where some letters are Silent. Below is a list of such words:

1. In the spelling sequence '**dj**', '**d**' is silent.

Spelling	Pronunciation
adjective	/ædʒɪktɪv/
adjust	/ədʒʌst /

2. The letter '**h**' is silent in the sequence '**gh**' and in the word final position.

Spelling	Pronunciation
ghost	/gəʊst/
ghastly	/ gɑːstli/

3. The letter '**b**' is always silent in the sequences '**mb**' and '**bt**' in word final position.

Spelling	Pronunciation
Limb	/lim/
Lamb	/læm/
Doubt	/daʊt/
Debt	/det/
plumber	/plʌmə/
Subtle	/sʌtl/

4. The letter '**f**' is silent when it occurs between '**s**' and '**l**' or '**s**' and '**en**'.

Spelling	Pronunciation
castle	/kɑːs(ə)l/
whistle	/ wɪs(ə)l/
fasten	/fɑːs(ə)n/
listen	/lɪs(ə)n/

5. The letter '**k**' is silent in the sequence '**kn**' when this comes in the initial position in words.

Spelling	Pronunciation
knee	/niː/
know	/nəʊ/

6. When the sequence of letters '**lk**' and '**lm**' come at the end of a word, the letter '**t**' is silent.

Spelling	Pronunciation
talk	/tɔ:k/
walk	/wɔ:k/
balm	/ba:m/
calm	/ka:m/

7. The letter '**n**' is silent in the word-final sequence '**mn**'.

Spelling	Pronunciation
autumn	/ɔ:təm/
column	/kɒləm/

8. The letter '**g**' is silent in the spelling sequence '**gm**' or '**gn**'.

Spelling	Pronunciation
phlegm	/flem/
paradigm	/pærədaim/
gnaw	/nɔ:/
sign	/saɪn/

9. The letter '**w**' is silent in the final position in words.

Spelling	Pronunciation
claw	/klɔ:/
blow	/bləʊ/

10. The letter '**w**' is silent in the following '**wh**' word-initial sequences.

Spelling	Pronunciation
who	/hu:/
whom	/hu:m/
whose	/hu:z/
whole	/həʊl/

Pronunciation of the Letter sequence '**ng**'

- a. The letters 'ng' are pronounced /ŋ/ in the word-final position. For example:
- | | |
|-------|---------|
| bring | running |
| song | hitting |

- b. In the middle of words, 'ng' is pronounced /ŋ/ in words formed from other words ending in /ŋ/ For example:
- | | |
|--------|----------|
| singer | things |
| hanger | ringing |
| brings | fillings |
- c. In all other cases, 'ng' is pronounced /ŋg/ For example:
- | | | |
|--------|--------|-------|
| finger | hunger | anger |
|--------|--------|-------|

Questions for Discussion:

1. In each of the following sets, circle the words in which a letter (s) are not pronounced and underline the letters.
- milk talk whole half yolk
 - foreign signature reign benign resignation
 - heir herb exhaust exhibition white
 - numb plumber tumble dumb thumb
 - swan answer sword swear wrist
 - psalm psychology receipt pneumonia concept
 - hasten ballet bullet thistle ballot
 - subtle butcher Wednesday edge

Transcription

When we are dealing with a language like English, we have to remember that there is no one-to-one relationship between the letters of the alphabet and, the sounds they represent. As said earlier, there are 26 letters of the alphabet and these letters represent 44 sounds in the RP, for example the letter string 'ough' can be pronounced in 8 different ways as in bough, bought, cough, dough, hiccough, rough, thoroughbred, and through. On the other hand, there are languages like Hindi which are written as they are pronounced.

As there is no one-to-one correspondence between the sounds and the letters of the alphabet, a different notation in which one symbol represents only one sound is indispensable. Of the many notations available, the symbols of the International Phonetic Association (IPA) are the one that are used the most. These symbols are known as the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA).

The advantages of phonetic transcription are: a) it is scientific and precise b) is a convenient device to indicate the way in which the words of a language are pronounced. Example the letters *ch* in words like school, character, machine and church will have different symbols, as *ch* is pronounced differently in each of these words.

Transcribe the following words

Word

Your transcription

About

alphabet

apart
beauty
behind
breathing
break
choice
country
courtesy
daughters
English
fluent
luxury
machine
many
museum
pleasure
pretty
quality
question
scarce
shoulder
thanks
woman

Module 6

Listening Skills

Communication is the exchange of words, views, opinions, feelings and expressions between two or more people. Effective communication needs effective listening. Listening is an important part of any communication.

Communication has been defined as a continuous process of meaningful interaction between two or more people who are trying to inform or persuade each other. This implies that while one person is speaking, the other person is expected to listen. Later on, the listener become the speaker and vice versa. This is referred to as turn- taking. Therefore, one major characteristics of a good communicator is in his/her ability to listen. That is, a poor listener is as good as a poor communicator. Hence, it will be impossible to achieve our communication objectives without listening to others.

There is a difference between listening and hearing. Hearing refers to the sounds that enter the ears. It is a physical process that is passive and unconscious. Hearing helps you to perceive sound. You can often hear even when you do not want to. Listening, on the other hand, is an active and deliberate activity. Listening begins with hearing, but goes beyond hearing.

An active listener pays attention to the language, tone and body language of what is being said. Active listening process begins when the listener pays attention to the verbal and non-verbal messages and also interprets the message.

What is Listening?

- Listening is a receptive communication skill that involves the process of creating meaning through understanding and interpretation of messages in a communication process.
- Listening is also a process of receiving, interpreting and reacting to the messages received from the communication sender.
- Listening is the ability to accurately receive and interpret messages in the communication process.
- Listening is key to all effective communication, without the ability to listen effectively messages are easily misunderstood.
- Listening is one of the most important skills.
- An active process of getting information, ideas.
- Listening is the process of receiving, constructing meaning from, and responding to spoken.
- Listening is not just about being Quiet while someone else is speaking.

- Listening is with the Mind.
- Hearing with the senses.
- Listening is conscious.
- To improve our interpersonal & oral exchange. Just Listening to words is not enough; a good Listener has to pay attention to the non-verbal communication of the speaker.

Process of Listening

Receiving

- Is the intentional focus on hearing a speaker's message.
- This stage is represented by the ear because it is the primary tool involved with this stage of the listening process.

Understanding

- In the understanding stage, we attempt to learn the meaning of the message, which is not always easy.
- Deciding what the message means to you.

Remembering

- Remembering begins with listening; if you can't remember something that was said, you might not have been listening effectively.
- However, even when you are listening attentively, some messages are more difficult than others to understand and remember. Highly complex messages that are filled with detail call for highly developed listening skills.

Evaluating

The fourth stage in the listening process is evaluating.

Evaluations of the same message can vary widely from one listener to another.

The stages two, three, and four are represented by the brain because it is the primary tool involved with these stages of the listening process.

Responding

Responding—sometimes referred to as feedback—is the fifth and final stage of the listening process.

Your reaction to the message. It can be emotional and intellectual.

Importance of Listening

- Helps us to learn accurate information.
- Helps us to adapt and understand.
- To avoid communication errors.
- Helps to learn something new.
- It is the key to success.
- Helps in giving right feedback.

Types of Listening

Active listening

Selective listening

Emphatic listening

Ignoring listening

1. Active Listening

- Mental presence along with Physical presence.
- Understanding all things.
- Proper interaction.
- Proper feedback.

2. Selective Listening

- We remember only selective portion.
- If the topic is not interesting, we listen only selective part of it.

3. Empathetic listening

- When we listen empathetically, we go beyond sympathy to seek a truer understand how others are feeling.
- This requires excellent discrimination and close attention to the nuances of emotional signals. When we are being truly empathetic, we actually feel what they are feeling.

4. Ignoring Listening

- Not listening at all is pretty insulting to others.
- It can lead to strained relations.

- It proves that you are not a good listener.
- A person with normal hearing is not necessarily a good listener.

Barriers of Listening

Many aspects can prevent a speaker's message from being received. These are called barriers to listening. Some common barriers in the process of listening are:

1. Pre-judgments about the speaker.
2. Assuming that the speaker is going to give some unimportant information.
3. Arriving late for a speech, presentation or lecture.
4. Judging the speaker by his/her mannerisms, voice, appearance, accent etc.
5. Lack of concentration/interest.
6. Avoiding listening to difficult, boring or complex information and selectively listening only to what is considered interesting.
7. Speaker or listener being distracted by disturbances.

Strategies for Effective listening

- Stop Talking – Be Silent
- Show Interest
- Empathize
- Ask Questions
- Maintain Eye Contact
- Take notes
- Listen Creatively
- Put Your Entirety
- Send feedback
- Avoid or eliminate distraction
- Try to gather information about the topic to develop interest and familiarity.

Benefits of Effective Listening

- Enhances productivity
- Improves relations
- Avoids conflicts

- Improves understanding
- Improves negotiation skills
- Adds to your Image & Personality

Active Listening

- Put the focus of attention on the speaker
- Paraphrase and clarify
- Summarize
- Don't discuss your own reactions or give well-intentioned comments like, "I know what you mean.", "Oh yeah, that same thing happened to me.", or "I don't agree because..." This is not a time to articulate your own view points or turn the attention back to yourself.
- Don't ignore the speaker's feelings
- Don't pretend that you understand their meaning if you don't. It's perfectly fine to ask for clarification. For example, "What did you mean by...?" or "Can you tell me more about...?"
- Don't ignore the non-verbal content. People's body language, facial expressions, gestures, pitch, tone, can give you clues about what they are thinking and feeling.
- Don't think about what you will say next. (Probably the hardest guideline to follow) It seems it is our default response when we are getting into a rather heated conversation with somebody, we're just holding our breath until we can get a chance to insert our opinion, and that is the opposite of active listening.

Questions for Discussion:

1. What is listening?
2. What are the stages of Listening?
3. Write the importance of listening.
4. What is Active Listening?
5. What is selective listening?
6. What is empathetic listening?
7. What are the barriers of listening?
8. Write the Strategies for effective listening.
9. What are the benefits of listening?
10. What are the guidelines for effective listening.

Module 7

Reading Comprehension

Reading is a part of our daily lives. It is performed for pleasure and information. Reading skills are important for individuals since they foster comprehension in reading. Reading Comprehension is the ability to understand a written passage of a text and demonstrate the ability to accurately interpret and analyse written information. Comprehension refers to the ability to understand written words. It is different from the ability to recognize words. Recognizing words on a page but not knowing what they mean does not fulfil the purpose or goal of reading, which is comprehension.

Imagine, for example, that a teacher gives a child a passage to read. The child can read the entire passage, but he or she knows nothing when asked to explain what was read. Comprehension adds meaning to what is read. Reading comprehension occurs when words on a page are not just mere words but thoughts and ideas. Comprehension makes reading enjoyable, fun, and informative. Each Reading Comprehension question is based on a passage that may vary in length from one paragraph to several paragraphs. Reading Comprehension questions are designed to test a variety of abilities that are required to read and understand different kinds of written material. The abilities include:

- to understand the meaning of individual words and sentences
- to understand the meaning of paragraphs and larger bodies of text
- to distinguish between minor and major points
- to summarize a passage
- to understand the structure of a text in terms of how the parts relate to one another

Skimming and scanning are different strategies for speed reading.

Skimming

Skimming is reading a text quickly to get a general idea of meaning. It can be contrasted with scanning, which is reading to find specific information. It is a specific reading skill that is common in reading newspapers, messages and e-mails. Learners must understand that there is no need to read every word when skimming.

Skimming is not reading faster; it's reading more efficiently. Skimming involves reading key portions of a passage to know the gist.

How to Skim:

- Read the title.
- Read the introduction or the first paragraph.
- Read the first sentence of every other paragraph.
- Read any headings and sub-headings.
- Notice any pictures, charts, or graphs.
- Notice any italicized or boldface words or phrases.
- Read the summary or last paragraph.

Scanning

Scanning is reading a text quickly to find specific information, e.g. figures or names. It can be contrasted with skimming, which is reading quickly to get a general idea of meaning. Scanning is commonly used in everyday life, for example, when looking up a word in the dictionary or finding your friend's name in your contacts directory, etc.

How to Scan:

- State the specific information you are looking for.
- Try to anticipate how the answer will appear and what clues you might use to help you locate the answer. For example, if you were looking for a certain date, you would quickly read the paragraph looking only for numbers.
- Use headings and any other aids that will help you identify which sections might contain the information you are looking for.
- Selectively read and skip through sections of the passage.

Scanning to answer questions:

- Read each question completely before starting to scan. Choose your keywords from the question itself.
- Look for answers to only one question at a time. Scan separately for each question.
- When you locate a keyword, read the surrounding text carefully to see if it is relevant.
- Re-read the question to determine if the answer you found answers this question.

Tone, Topic sentence, Supporting Sentence and Concluding sentence:

Tone

Any written composition has a tone. It can be defined as an attitude of a writer towards a subject or an audience. The tone is generally conveyed through the choice of words or the viewpoint of a writer on a particular subject.

Every written piece consists of a central theme or subject matter. The manner in which the writer approaches this theme and subject is the tone. The tone can be formal, informal, serious, comic, sarcastic, sad, cheerful etc.

Topic Sentence

The topic sentence is usually the first sentence of a paragraph. It consists of the main idea developed in the rest of the paragraph. The topic sentence should be a complete, statement of intent, an opinion or a mix of both. It should be neither too broad nor too narrow.

Supporting sentence

The supporting sentence come after the topic sentence and it supports the main idea of the paragraph/passage. These sentences follow the topic sentence in a paragraph. They usually give details to develop and support the main idea. These sentences should be arranged in a logical order.

Concluding sentence

The conclusion signals the end of the passage; these sentences summarize the main point and relates them to the topic sentence. It gives a final comment on the topic and leaves the reader with the most important ideas to think about. It can also be used to make a suggestion or a prediction.

Comprehension Passages

1. Read the following passage and answer the questions:

A material is what something is made of. There are 5 basic materials. Most things are made with these materials. Some things are made of metal. Some things are made of glass. Some things are made of wood. Some things are made of cloth. And some things are made of plastic. There are some other materials. But they are not used as much as these 5 materials. Let's talk about metal first. Metal is very heavy. And it is very hard and strong. It usually feels cool if you touch it. We use metal to make lots of things. We use it for forks and knives. We use it for keys. We use it for cars. We use it for these things because it is very strong. Next, let's talk about glass. Glass is very smooth. It feels cool to touch. It is not as heavy as metal. It is hard. But it is not strong. It breaks very easily! Then why do we use it? We use it because it is clear! You can see through glass! That's why we use it for windows. That's also why we use it for glasses. Now, let's talk about wood. Wood is lighter than metal and glass. It is not as strong as metal. But it is much stronger than glass. We use wood to make lots of things. Things made from wood are usually light and hard and strong. Chairs and tables are made from wood. Pencils are made from wood. Now let's talk about cloth. Cloth is very light. It is much lighter than wood. And it is very soft. We use cloth to make lots of things. For example, it is used to make clothing. And it is used to make blankets. Last, let's talk about plastic. Plastic is also very light. But it is different from cloth. Sometimes it is soft. And sometimes it is hard. Plastic can be used to make thin plastic bags. These are light, soft, and strong. But plastic can also be used to make bicycle helmets. These are light, hard, and strong. A helmet and a bag seem different. But they are both made from plastic.

Select the most appropriate answer:

1) Which sentence from the passage best describes the main idea?

- A. "We use cloth to make lots of things."
- B. "Metal is very heavy."
- C. "There are 5 basic materials."
- D. "A helmet and a bag seem different."

2) According to the passage, which of these things is a material?

- A. Chairs

- B. Clothing
- C. Windows
- D. Wood

3) According to the passage, how does glass feel?

- A. Smooth and cool
- B. Warm and soft
- C. Light and hard
- D. Sharp and heavy

4) In the passage, “Wood is lighter than metal and glass.” What is the main purpose of this sentence?

- A. To explain something
- B. To recommend something
- C. To compare something
- D. To demonstrate something

5) Which material would you use if you wanted to make something that was strong and very light?

- A. Plastic
- B. Wood
- C. Metal
- D. Glass

Answer the following questions:

1) In this passage, we learn about the 5 different materials. Which of these materials do you think is best? Why?

2) In this passage, we learn about the 5 different materials. Which of these materials do you think is the worst? Why?

2. Read the following passage and answer the questions.

A device that calculates or manipulates data in some way is a computer. Thus, adding machines, pocket calculators and abacuses are examples of computers. Today, however, the term computer generally refers to an electronic device that can manipulate data at high speed, with great accuracy and through complex series of steps without human direction. The heart of such a computer consists of electronic components such as transistors and integrated circuits.

Wired to a huge variety of other devices, computers process numbers, words, electrical pulses and many other forms of information in specific ways that are especially useful to particular people and organisations.

Computers can perform millions of complicated mathematical calculations in seconds. They can also be used to produce printed text at blinding speeds, draw complex pictures and control manufacturing processes. In some instances, a computer can do in minutes what might take a person's lifetime.

The awesome power of computers along with their widespread use has triggered socio and economic changes of great magnitude. Computers in myriad roles in manufacturing have improved the quality and increased the quantity and variety of products. In the process, computers have replaced some workers but have created new jobs for others. Many, perhaps most people believe that the overall impact of computers has been good. They point to some of the positive aspects of computer use. In medicine, computers have revolutionised many aspects of diagnosis and treatment. In business, they have relieved workers of boring, repetitive tasks and then have performed those jobs better and faster. In the home they are also useful, for example, tiny computers in wristwatches, automobiles, television sets, microwave ovens and other products have made them more efficient and reliable.

Other people, however, think that the computer is largely a negative factor. They resent the "depersonalised" numbers assigned to human beings so that computers can more easily perform such tasks as billing and recording licences. These people also point to computer errors which, though infrequent, are sometimes difficult to correct. They also wonder, amid conflicting studies, whether the use of the small computers called calculators is not creating a generation of mathematics illiterates. A more serious charge is that without computers nuclear weapons and modern warfare would be impossible. Then, too, there is concern about the opportunity for invasion of individual privacy because of the huge amount of data about people stored in and accessible from computers.

I. Tick the most appropriate answer.

1. Although any device that calculates and manipulates data can be called a computer, today a 'computer' means

a) a high-speed manipulator of data

- b) an electronic data processor
- c) a highly accurate calculator
- (d) (a), (b) and (c)

2. A computer can process data "in specific ways that are useful to particular people and organizations". This means that computers can be

- a) assembled
- b) chosen
- c) customized
- d) copyrighted

3. The power of computers has

- a) accelerated
- b) changed
- c) hampered
- d) slowed

-social and economic progress.

4. It has been shown that without the pocket calculators

- a) more people would be good at Maths.
- b) very few students could pass maths examinations.
- c) students can learn maths quickly
- d) none of the above.

5. Some people criticize computers because they

- a) often make errors that are difficult to correct.
- b) have made nuclear wars a reality
- c) have deprived people of their jobs
- d) have changed the way a doctor or hospital works

II. Answer the following questions briefly:

1. Write a simple definition of a computer.

2. In what fields have computers brought about a change? How?

3. Why do people object to computers? Cite three reasons that you think are important.

4. Give an example of a way in which a person's privacy can be 'invaded' by computers.

5. As a student, how would you make use of the computer?

3. Read through this newspaper article and answer the questions.

Chief Minister Mufti Mohammad Sayeed's home town is famous for one particular item over which India's mastery is rather uncertain these days-the cricket bat. If the Indian batsmen are beleaguered in South Africa these days, units making bats in this south Kashmir town also face a grim future. For even as supply orders are pouring in from Meerut and Jalandhar-based sports goods manufacturers, delivery dates are iffy because many units have been earmarked for demolition as part of Mufti's jihad against encroachments.

"My hands are full of orders. My unit's turnover could cross the Rs 40 lakh mark," says Salroo Sports group's Nazir Ahmad. "But I'm now busy looking around for an alternative workplace as the authorities have marked part of my unit as illegal." This comes at a time when the multi crore complex for sports goods built by Sheikh Abdullah in 1982 is still occupied by troops who were billeted there in 1991.

Last week, Ghulam Hassan Salroo, president, Kashmir Sports Manufacturers Association led a delegation to the DC, Anantnag to request that the complex be vacated. Spread over around 7 hectares, this facility for manufacturing bats had a seasoning plant for fresh willow clefts and could accommodate 32 units. But in 1982 only a few moved in, so the troops occupied the near-empty complex in 1991.

Later, Dr Farooq Abdullah decided to build another such complex in neighbouring Halmul the oldest manufacturing place for bats-as well as make the main complex functional, but he lost office before that could be done. Now the DC Anantnag has promised that the troops will vacate the complex.

"We must have some place to work. After a long wait we have got something to do. We are panicky," said Gulam Mohammed of Sangam Sports. Against the orders for just 19,000 bats last year, this time he's booked 1,00,000.

Of the 129 bat-making units registered with the Industries Department, almost two-thirds are doing well, this year thanks to the World Cup hype. A similar trend has been seen in Jammu too. Conservative estimates put the yearly turnover at around Rs 25 crore excluding the earnings from supplying raw material to Jalandhar and Meerut.

Answer the following:

1. In which two towns are cricket bats manufactured?

- a) _____ b) _____

2. From which two places have the biggest orders come?

- a) _____ b) _____

3. How many registered cricket bat manufacturing units are there in all?

4. Why can't the sports goods complex be used?

5. How many sports goods manufacturers have been mentioned in the article? Name them and the companies they head.

6. 'iffy' in sentence 4 means

- a) quick
b) uncertain
c) slow
d) impossible

7. According to Masood Hussain, who else shares a grim future with the units making bats

in south Kashmir?

8. What does 'Kashmir willow weeps' mean?

- a) a trade opportunity has been sadly lost
- b) there is a recession in the sports goods industry
- c) the willows in Kashmir are sad
- d) the Indian cricket team is doing badly.

4. Read the following passage and answer the questions.

ONE-DAY CRICKET may not be as old as the game of cricket is, yet the instant version of the game is more than half a century old. There is recorded evidence of limited-over matches being played in the 1940s. But it started full-fledged in 1950 - where else – in England.

Some superannuated Englishmen rubbed shoulders with national and county cricketers of the country every Sunday in limited overs games. It caught the imagination of the public instantly. The tournament was a big draw. And sponsors came rushing. Soon the matches got televised too.

The popularity of these matches was pretty obvious. The county matches, of three-day duration, were not only long but also excruciatingly dull and dreary. The results, most often, were either one-sided or dull draws.

In total contrast, the one-day matches promised action, thrills, frills, runs, wickets and, above all, an exciting result. Those were the days when fast food was the flavour of England. Instant cricket became another flavour. The growing popularity of these games disturbed the connoisseurs. They treat it as a necessary evil. Some conservative cricket bosses called it 'snicket' and 'slogget' but not cricket. Tony Greig, the former England skipper, once wrote: "The purists were horrified but they were only a tiny minority"

But the purists had no choice as these 'snicket' and 'slogget' games gained in popularity. The first official one-day tournament was started in England in 1963. Soon more changes in English cricket followed. Each county was allowed to recruit three overseas players. The one-day tournaments Gillette Cup (with 60 overs-a-side) and Benson and Hedges Trophy (55 overs-a side) - started in 1972 and became big crowd pullers.

The first official one-day international was played on Jan 5, 1971 between England and Australia in Melbourne. It was watched by a packed house at the Melbourne Cricket Ground. But the first one-day international (ODI) happened by chance rather than by design. The match was played on the 5th day of an Ashes Test after the first four days were washed out. The success of that match led to a three-

match one-day series during Australia's return tour of England in 1972. The series was a roaring success.

I. Say whether the following statements are true (T) or false (F). If false, give the correct answer.

1. The first ever limited overs match was played in 1950 in England.
2. The limited overs tournaments became popular because it appealed to the public.
3. England and Australia planned a one-day match in 1971.
4. The first ODI was a part of the Ashes series.
5. Purists thought that one day cricket was a game for minorities

II. Answer the following questions briefly:

1. Who took part in the first informal one-day cricket games?

2. What three things were there in one-day cricket that was missing in 3-day matches?

3. Why do you think purists did not approve of one-day matches?

4. Were the words 'snicket' and 'slogget' used approvingly? Why?

5. Does any sentence in the passage suggest that the game of cricket started in England? Quote.

5. Read the following passage and answer the questions.

If the pillar of balance was one which the Mughals did not recognize and did their best to overturn, that of personality is one for which they must be given full credit. Akbar's long reign of forty-nine years and his overpowering personality might be thought likely to crush out all initiative from his sons. Nevertheless, his successor Jahangir (1605-1627), though drunken and cruel, proved to have the ability to hold his own and extend the empire, and to possess a personality in his own right. He was saved from a war of succession by the pre-decease of his brother and had only to deal with a short-lived revolt of his eldest son Khusrau. Along with his vices of drink temper, and cruelty he proved to have a keen artistic sense so that he became a kind of life-president of Indian artists, an attractive love of nature, and a sense of humour. His attachment to the empress Nur Jahan is well known and

commemorated by a special issue of gold mohurs. He wrote his own memoirs and he and his court are vividly portrayed by the English ambassador Sir Thomas Roe who spent nearly four years (1615-1619) in following the Mughal court from camp to camp in search of commercial privileges.

Shah Jahan was a man of greater mark, though in my view less attractive than Jahangir, in spite of his obvious faults. Shah Jahan was a man of great executive ability, to which he added a love for the magnificent and a refined artistic sense, especially for architecture. He was in a special sense the architectural director of his day and there seems to be little doubt that the great buildings of his reign, the Taj Mahal, the Delhi Fort, and Jama Masjid, and the reconstruction of the Agra Fort, would not have been what they were without his personal inspiration and direction. To these great gifts he added a capacity for affection revealed in his marriage with Mumtaz Mahal. Here the catalogue often ends, but there is another side. His romantic love did not hesitate to expose Mumtaz to the rigours of travel in all states of health so that she died at the age of 39 after giving birth to her fourteenth child. In his youth he was not only ambitious but cruel and vindictive to an unnecessary degree. A more controlled man than his father he was also more ruthless. At his succession he executed all the male Mughal collaterals, the descendants of his brothers and uncles, although at that time they had little political significance. In his later years he became sensual and self-indulgent to an extent remarked upon even in that far from critical age. The sorrows of his later days were to a large extent a direct reflection of the acts of his early ones. The pathetic prisoner of the Agra Fort gazing romantically across the Jumna to the Taj was in fact an old man who had gained power by ruthlessness and lost it through self-indulgence. As a ruler he governed India firmly for thirty years and left behind him a legend of magnificence, rough justice and prosperity.

1. Answer the following in a one or two sentences:

- a. How many Mughal Emperors are mentioned in this piece?
- b. What one feature of the great Mughals does the author talk about?
- c. Who has written extensively about the Mughal courts?
- d. Why was he in India?

2. What does it mean? Circle the correct answer.

1. pillar of balance could refer to

- a) political balance
- b) Mughal architecture

c) conquest of India

2. He was saved from the war of succession by the predecease of his brother implies that

a) only one brother was allowed to live

b) there was always a quarrel about who would be emperor

c) they fought many wars after they became emperors

3. The writer feels that Shah Jahan was less attractive than Jahangir because he

a) made Mumtaz Mahal travel with him

b) dealt out rough justice

c) was needlessly cruel

4. 'self indulgence in the passage means

a) fond of one's pleasures

b) thinking only of oneself

c) extravagant

5. overpowering personality means

a) dictatorial nature

b) extremely strong character

c) intensely emotional

6. Read the following passage and answer the questions.

Fruit flies are tiny insects that are attracted to ripe or rotting fruits and vegetables. The flies not only eat the fruit, they also lay their eggs there. A single fruit fly can lay up to 500 eggs on the surface of a piece of fruit. Within eight days, the fruit flies that hatch from these eggs are full adults that can then lay their own eggs. As you can see, what might start out as a small fruit fly problem can become very large very quickly. Although there is a chance fruit flies can carry germs on to your food, this is not very likely. Fruit flies are annoying, but they probably will not hurt you. Because they are such a nuisance, however, most people want to get rid of these pesky bugs as quickly as possible. Some people use pesticide sprays on the fruit flies. Although this will kill the flies, it will also spread harmful poison all over your kitchen. Luckily, there is also a completely safe way for you to get rid of fruit flies in your house. The first step is for you to remove all fruits or vegetables from your counter. Store these items in the refrigerator or in sealed containers. Clean up any spilled juice or bits of food that might be on the floor. Take out the trash and empty the recycling bin. Wash any dirty dishes that are in your sink. Doing all of these things will stop new fruit flies from finding food or places to lay their eggs.

Next, make a trap to catch all of the remaining fruit flies in your house. First, fill a small bowl with a few tablespoons of vinegar. Then, put a piece of very ripe or rotting fruit into the vinegar. Cover the bowl very tightly with a sheet of plastic wrap and poke a few very small holes in the wrap with a fork. If all goes according to plan, the flies will enter the trap through the holes but will be unable to fly back out. This trap will catch all of the remaining fruit flies. You can either kill these flies or release them outdoors. Fruit flies can be a pest, but they do not have to make you crazy. With a little effort, you can get existing flies out of your house and prevent new ones from taking over your kitchen.

Choose the most appropriate option.

1) In reading this passage, we learn that fruit flies

I. die immediately after they lay their eggs

II. can grow into adults after only 8 days

III. are mostly harmless

A. I only

B. I and II only

C. II and III only

D. I, II, and III

2) As used in the passage, a nuisance is something that

A. bothers you

B. can be dangerous

C. grows fast

D. is very small

3) According to the passage, why should you not use pesticide spray to kill fruit flies?

A. most sprays do not actually kill all of the fruit flies

B. buying sprays can get expensive if you need to use a lot of them

C. the sprays take too much time to work

D. it can be dangerous to use them in your kitchen

4) Based on the information in the penultimate (next-to-last) paragraph, we can understand that the author thinks that

A. some people do not mind having fruit flies in their house

B. some people do not like killing insects

C. fruit flies do not like vinegar

D. making a fruit fly trap can be difficult

Answer the following questions.

1) Imagine you had a fruit fly outbreak in your kitchen. What would you do to handle the situation? Would you take the advice offered in the passage? Why or why not?

[illegible]

2) How would you react if you only saw one fruit fly in your house? Would you take the same action you described in question five, or would you behave differently? Why?

[illegible]

7. Read the following passage and answer the questions.

Joti, a gardener's son, was once invited to attend the marriage ceremony of a Brahmin friend. As he loved his friend dearly, he attended the function. The bridegroom was being led in a procession to the bride's house. The procession consisted of men, women and children mostly Brahmin. Joti was also walking along with the procession.

One orthodox Brahmin recognized him and was annoyed at the sight of a low caste boy walking with the Brahmins in the marriage procession. Unable to contain himself, he shouted, "How dare you walk along with us? You are not our equal. Get behind! Otherwise, go away." Joti felt insulted. He left the procession and returned home.

He narrated the whole incident to his father with anger in his eyes. However, his father advised him to observe old customs. That night Joti could not sleep. What could he do for the equality of human beings? Caste system was deep-rooted. As the lower caste people were not educated, they had accepted this mental slavery for ages. Joti therefore resolved to revolt against this mental slavery and educate the lower caste people. He became the first Indian to start a school for the untouchables as well as a girls' school in Maharashtra. We recognize him today as Mahatma Phule.

1. According to the passage, what has made low caste people accept mental slavery?

- a) Poverty
- b) Old customs
- c) Apathy of change
- d) Lack of education
- e) Supremacy of the Brahmins

2. What kind of a man was Joti's father?

- a) A man of revolutionary ideas
- b) One who advised him to start a school for the untouchables
- c) A man who did not want Joti to break old traditions
- d) A man not in favour of Joti attending the marriage ceremony
- e) One who was also present in the marriage procession

3. What did Joti do after his insult?

- a) Left the procession and went to his friend
- b) Tried to take a revenge on his friend
- c) Decided not to join any such marriage processions in future
- d) Involved himself actively in the freedom movement
- e) Engaged himself in social service

4. Why did Joti attend the marriage?

- a) On the advice of his father
- b) He was invited by the father of the bride
- c) The bridegroom was a good friend of Joti
- d) Not mentioned in the passage
- e) None of these

5. Why could Joti not sleep that night?

- a) He had to attend the marriage of his friend
- b) He wanted to do something for the lower caste people
- c) The Brahmin insulted his friend
- d) His father was sick

e) He was not getting any help for his school

6. Why was the Brahmin annoyed with Joti?

a) He left the marriage procession abruptly

b) He insulted his friend

c) He did not invite the Brahmin for the marriage procession

d) He was an uninvited guest

e) He was walking along with other Brahmins in the marriage procession

7. According to the passage, why did Joti quit the marriage procession?

a) He was asked accordingly by his friend

b) He could not tolerate his insult

c) He had to see his ailing father

d) His father warned him against attending that marriage

e) He had no faith in such customary rituals

8. What does the author highlight in this passage?

a) Joti's contribution to the upliftment of the people of lower classes

b) Poverty of lower-class people in India

c) Need for separate schools for girls

c) Merits of caste system in India

e) Need for unity among different sections of people in India

8. Read the following passage and answer the questions.

Work expands so as to fill the time available for its completion. The general recognition of this fact is shown in the proverbial phrase. It is the busiest man who has time to spare. Thus, an elderly lady at leisure can spend the entire day writing a postcard to her niece. An hour will be spent in finding the postcard, another hunting for spectacles, half an hour to search for the address, an hour and a quarter in composition and twenty minutes in deciding whether or not to take an umbrella when going to the pillar box in the street. The total effort that would occupy a busy man for three minutes, all told, may in this fashion leave another person completely exhausted after a day of doubt, anxiety and toil.

1. What happens when the time to be spent on some work increases?

a) The work is done smoothly

- b) The work is done leisurely
- c) The work consumes all the time
- d) The work needs additional time

2. Explain the sentence: Work expands so as to fill the time available for its completion

- a) The more work there is to be done, the more the time needed
- b) Whatever time is available for a given amount of work, all of it will be used.
- c) If you have more time, you can do more work.
- d) If you have some important work to do, you should always have some additional time.

3. Who is the person likely to take more time to do work:

- a) A busy man
- b) A man of leisure
- c) An elderly person
- d) An exhausted person

4. What is the total time spent by the elderly lady in writing a postcard?

- a) Three minutes
- b) Four hours and five minutes
- c) Half an hour
- d) A full day

5. What does the expression "pillar box" stand for?

- a) A box attached to the pillar
- b) A box in the pillar
- c) Box office
- d) A Pillar-type post box

9. Read the following passage and answer the questions.

The first thing the children wanted to do at the zoo was to ride the elephant. They were frightened as they climbed the ladder to take their seats on the swaying back of the huge beast. Elephants seem awkward creatures as they move along heavily, their legs covered with loose folds of tough skin and their trunk swinging from side to side in search of food or drink. An elephant has great strength in its trunk, and can drag heavy loads with ropes, but it can also use its trunk to pick up small articles such as coins or nuts from the ground.

After their ride on the elephant, the children went to see the lions and tigers. Crowds of people stood watching, protected from the cruel beasts by the strong metal bars of the cages. From there, they went to see the monkeys. Those merry creatures were jumping about the rocks, swinging on the wires of their cages, or begging for nuts from the passers-by. If anyone annoyed them, they would scold him angrily and beat their chests with their hands. In the end, they saw some curious creatures like the giraffe with its long neck and the camel with its short beard.

1. Which of the following is the reaction of monkeys when they get irritated?

- a) They jump about the rock
- b) They swing on the wire of the cage
- c) They beat their chest
- d) They beg from visitors
- e) They keep quiet

2. The cages of lions are made of strong metals bars in order to

- a) Protect visitors from the lions
- b) Protect lions from other animals
- c) Ensure the durability of the cages
- d) Enable the visitors to see the lions
- e) Enable lions to get fresh air

3. Which of the following is the chief function of the trunk of the elephants?

- a) Picking up small articles like coins from the ground
- b) Swaying from side to side
- c) Dragging heavy loads
- d) Eating food and drinking water
- e) Creating fear among other animals

4. The children were afraid of riding on the elephant as

- a) The elephant looked awkward
- b) The back of the elephant was swaying
- c) The trunk of the elephant was swinging
- d) The elephant was dragging heavy loads
- e) Its legs were covered with loose folds

5. Which of the following is a ferocious animal?

- a) Giraffe
- b) Elephant
- c) Monkey
- d) Camel
- e) None of these

6. Which of the following does not make elephant awkward in appearance

- a) Its long trunk
- b) Its swinging trunk
- c) Its heavy movement
- (d) Loose folds on its legs
- (e) None of these

10. Read the following passage and answer the questions.

To those who do listen the desert speaks of things with an emphasis quite different from that of the shore, the mountain, the valley or the plains. Whereas these invite action and suggest limitless opportunity and exhaustless resources, the implications and the mood of the desert are something different. For one thing, the desert is conservative, not radical. It is more likely to provide awe than to invite conquest. The heroism which it encourages is the heroism of the endurance, not that of conquest. It brings man up against this limitation. turns him in upon himself and suggests values which more indulgent regions suppress. Sometimes it induces contemplation in men who have never contemplated before. And of all the answers to the question-what is a desert good for - contemplation is perhaps the best.

1. In order to receive the desert's message, the beholder needs to be

- a) Courageous in his reaction
- b) Conservative in his responses
- c) A good listener
- d) Sensitive to nature

2. The desert is unique among landscapes in that it encourages only

- a) Contemplation

- b) Indolence
- c) Heroic endeavour
- d) Adventurous spirit

3. If one responds with insight to the mood of the desert, it evokes

- a) An inclination for deep thought
- b) The possibility of unending resources
- c) The desire for heroic conquest
- d) A sense of intense revulsion

4. The writer calls the desert 'conservative rather than 'radical' because it provides an environment that

- a) Inspires man to explore it
- b) Offers unlimited opportunity to conquer
- c) Tests one's endurance
- d) Makes one gloomy

5. What does the phrase brings man up against his limitation, mean?

- a) It makes man feel hopeless about his Limitations
- b) It makes man aware of his limitations
- c) It compels man to fight against his limitations
- d) It persuades man to overcome his limitations

Module 8

Paragraph Writing

A series of sentences that are organized and coherent, and are all related to a single topic is called Paragraph. A paragraph is the full and logical development of a single idea. Paragraphs are comprised of coherent sentences. A paragraph is a group of sentences organized around a central topic. In fact, the cardinal rule of paragraph writing is to focus on one idea. A well written paragraph takes its readers on a clear path, without detours. A paragraph expresses a single idea, in about three to five sentences. Paragraph writing is not just expressing your views about the topic in a group of sentences. It is all about structuring ideas in a clear format to make the reader fall in love with the topic and continue their studying till to an end of the topic. While writing paragraphs about any topic, it's more important to maintain the quality and flow of the paragraph than word count. Paragraphs are often thought of as a 'unit' of thought.

A paragraph usually consists of five sentences: the topic sentence, three supporting sentences, and a concluding sentence.:

- Topic sentence
- Supporting sentence(s)
- Concluding sentence

Topic Sentence

The topic sentence is usually the first sentence of a paragraph. It consists of the main idea developed in the rest of the paragraph. The topic sentence should be a complete, statement of intent, an opinion or a mix of both. It should be neither too broad nor too narrow. The topic sentence is also what will determine whether the reader will read the entire paragraph. Therefore, some writers also use a fact, quote, or statistic to grab the attention of the reader.

- **What is the topic sentence?** The topic sentence is the first sentence in a paragraph.
- **What does it do?** It introduces the main idea of the paragraph.
- **How do I write one?** Summarize the main idea of your paragraph. Make clear what your Paragraph will be about.

Supporting sentence

The supporting sentence comes after the topic sentence and it supports the main idea of the paragraph/passage. These sentences follow the topic sentence in a paragraph. They usually give details to develop and support the main idea. These sentences should be arranged in a logical order.

The supporting sentences explain more about the topic sentence by showing some facts, stats, or examples regarding the topic. It also includes the writer's experience and own analysis and used to develop the topic sentence. The following are common origins of supporting details: expert opinion, facts and statistics, personal experiences, experiences of others, brief stories and anecdotes, research studies, analysis, interviews, etc.

- **What are the supporting sentences?** They come after the topic sentence, making up the body of a paragraph.
- **What do they do?** They give details to develop and support the main idea of the paragraph.
- **How do I write them?** You should give supporting facts, details, and examples

Concluding sentence

The conclusion signals the end of the passage; these sentences summarize the main point and relates them to the topic sentence. It gives a final comment on the topic and leaves the reader with the most important ideas to think about. It can also be used to make a suggestion or a prediction.

- **What is the closing sentence?** The closing sentence is the last sentence in a paragraph.
- **What does it do?** It restates the main idea of your paragraph.
- **How do I write one?** Restate the main idea of the paragraph using different words.

A good paragraph must have the following elements:

Unity: Unity in a paragraph begins with the topic sentence. Every paragraph has one single, controlling idea that is expressed in its topic sentence, which is typically the first sentence of the paragraph. A paragraph is unified around this main idea, with the supporting sentences providing detail and discussion. All the sentences in a paragraph are logically connected to the central idea. Irrelevant material violates the principle of unity.

Order: Order refers to the way you organize your supporting sentences. Whether you choose chronological order, order of importance, or another logical presentation of detail, a good paragraph always has a definite organization. In a well-ordered paragraph, the reader follows along easily. Order helps the reader grasp the meaning and avoids confusion.

Coherence: Coherence is the quality that makes writing understandable. Sentences within a paragraph need to connect to each other and work together as a whole. One of the best ways to achieve coherency is to use transition words. These words bridge one sentence to the next. Transition words that show

order (first, second, third); spatial relationships (above, below) or logic (furthermore, in addition, in fact) are to be used. Also, in writing a paragraph, using a consistent verb tense and point of view are important ingredients for coherency.

Completeness: Completeness means a paragraph is well-developed. If all sentences clearly and sufficiently support the main idea, then the paragraph is complete. If there are not enough sentences or enough information to prove your thesis, then the paragraph is incomplete. Usually three supporting sentences, in addition to a topic sentence and concluding sentence, are needed for a paragraph to be complete. The concluding sentence or last sentence of the paragraph should summarize your main idea by reinforcing your topic sentence.

Types of Paragraphs

There are four types of paragraphs that you need to know about: **narrative, descriptive, expository, and persuasive.**

Narrative Paragraph: In simple words, this type of paragraph narrates a story that includes a sequence of topic sentences like a clear start, middle of the topic, an end to the paragraph.

One North Carolina man found quite a surprise last year while fishing in the Catawba River: a piranha. Jerry Melton, of Gastonia, reeled in a one pound, four-ounce fish with an unusual bite. Melton could not identify it, but a nearby fisherman did. Melton at first could not believe he had caught a piranha. He said, “That ain’t no piranha. They ain’t got piranha around here.” Melton was right: the fish is native to South America, and North Carolina prohibits owning the fish as a pet or introducing the species to local waterways. The sharp-toothed, carnivorous fish likely found itself in the Catawba River when its illegal owner released the fish after growing tired of it. Wildlife officials hope that the piranha was the only of its kind in the river, but locals are thinking twice before they wade in the water.

Descriptive Paragraph: This paragraph type describes the topic and displays the reader what’s the subject included in it. The terms selected in the description type usually appeal to the five senses of touch, smell, sight, sound, and taste. This type of paragraph can be more artistic and may vary from grammatical standards. While writing a descriptive paragraph, provide specific details about what something looks, smells, tastes, sounds, or feels like. Organize spatially, in order of appearance, or by topic.

Piranhas are omnivorous, freshwater fish, which are mostly known for their single row of sharp, triangular teeth in both jaws. Piranhas’ teeth come together in a scissor-like bite and are used for puncture and tearing. Baby piranha are small, about the size of a thumbnail, but full-grown piranha grow up to about 6-10 inches, and some individual fish up to 2 feet long have been found. The many

species of piranha vary in color, though most are either silvery with an orange underbelly and throat or almost entirely black

Expository Paragraph: It defines something or gives instruction. It may also explain a process and influence the reader step by step via a form of the method. This Expository Para usually needs research, but also, it's possible to rely on the writer's own knowledge and experience. For instance, if you are giving instructions, explain how something works, step by step. Perhaps follow a sequence—first, second, third.

You can safely swim with piranhas, but it's important to know how and when to do it. First, chose an appropriate time, preferably at night and during the rainy season. Avoid piranha-infested waters during the dry season, when food supplies are low and piranhas are more desperate. Piranhas feed during the day, so night-time swimming is much safer. Second, streamline your movement. Wild or erratic activity attracts the attention of piranhas. Swim slowly and smoothly. Finally, never enter the water with an open wound or raw meat. Piranhas attack larger animals only when they are wounded. The presence of blood in the water may tempt the fish to attack. If you follow these simple precautions, you will have little to fear.

Persuasive Paragraph: This kind of paragraph seeks to make the audience to admit a writer's point of view or know his/her position. Persuasive paragraphs are often used in academics, marketing and advertising because it is beneficial when building an argument. Also, it makes a writer to research and collects some facts on the topic.

Laughter is one of the greatest healing devices known to man. Laughter is powerful and can help people in many different ways. It has the power to cure something as little as a bad day or to heal the wounds of a terminally ill person. Laughing has helped create the smile which is the universal sign of wellbeing. Generally, individuals who do not laugh live miserably and have unhappy lives. Dr. Robert Holden found out that smiling and laughing releases endorphins in the brain which gives people an overall happy wellbeing. Using comedy, many doctors have stimulated the healing process in manic depressants and fatally ill patients giving them hope and ambition. In many clinics laughter is being used in replacing anti-depressants and reduces the need for pain killers. (Dr. Gael Crystal). Take comedians for example, they usually live long and happy lives. Putting a smile on faces and laughs in souls is what makes life complete. Laughter helps heal people and brightens spirits for a better and healthier life. Laughing is a sign of joy and hope and keeps people normal and the world happy. Using the techniques of laughter and happiness is the best medicine known to man. Laughter is the universal sign of wellbeing and happiness within health. Laughing brightens the spirit and heals the mind and

body of people who allow it to overcome them. So, try a smile and laugh on for size and live a longer happier life with loved ones.

Some useful transition words to write a good paragraph

- **To show addition:** again, and, also, besides, equally important, first (second, etc.), further, furthermore, in addition, in the first place, moreover, next, too,
- **To give examples:** for example, for instance, in fact, specifically, that is, to illustrate
- **To compare:** also, in the same manner, likewise, similarly
- **To contrast:** although, and yet, at the same time, but, despite, even though, however, in contrast, in spite of, nevertheless, on the contrary, on the other hand, still, though, yet
- **To summarize or conclude:** all in all, in conclusion, in other words, in short, in summary, on the whole, that is, therefore, to sum up
- **To show time:** after, afterward, as, as long as, as soon as, at last, before, during, earlier, finally, formerly, immediately, later, meanwhile, next, since, shortly, subsequently, then, thereafter, until, when, while
- **To show place or direction:** above, below, beyond, close, elsewhere, farther on, here, nearby, opposite, to the left (north, etc.)
- **To indicate a logical relationship:** accordingly, as a result, because, consequently, for this reason, hence, if, otherwise, since, so, then, therefore, thus

Tips to Develop a Paragraph

- Think of a specific topic
- Brainstorm and collect ideas
- Choose the topic sentence
- Put the ideas in order around the topic sentence
- Make the first and last sentences short and effective

Questions for Discussion

Write a paragraph of about 100 words on the following:

1. Your favorite sport.
2. Good health is the most precious of all possessions.
3. The grass is always greener on the other side of the fence.
4. Bengaluru
5. Childhood
- 6.

Module 9

Summarizing

To summarize means to sum up the main points of any piece of writing. It is the act of expressing the most important facts or ideas about something or someone in a short and clear form, or a text in which these facts or ideas are expressed.

A summary is a brief outline of a larger work that gives the reader a comprehensive understanding. To write a summary, a writer will gather the main ideas of an article, essay, television show, or film they've read or watched, and condense the central ideas into a brief overview. Summaries provide an abridged description of another work in the form of a paragraph, providing enough detail so that the reader understands the subject of the summary, while highlighting the summary writer's personal understanding of the subject matter. Therefore, apart from being written in the reader's own words, it also acts as a good way to revise information, check comprehension and aid memorization.

The purpose of a summary is to provide readers with a succinct overview of important details or interesting information, without inserting a personal opinion. A summary gives a brief rundown of the main points of a text or piece of media, like the abstract to a scientific paper, a description of a movie's plot, or in the form of a novel synopsis.

Summary writing helps you to develop the following skills:

- Ability to concentrate
- Power of condensation
- Command over the vocabulary
- Ability to select the correct information and to re-present in own words
- Skill in keeping to word limit
- Ability to express oneself clearly in writing

Process and Hints to Summary Writing

One major challenge with summary writing is deciding what to include and what to leave out. A bit of instruction on the process to follow, along with useful techniques, will have you writing expert summaries in no time.

- Read the text for understanding, without editing. Make sure you understand the content, including major and minor sections, as well as the overlying message being conveyed. Look closely at topic sentences and key words repeated throughout.

- Read through the material and cross out non-vital information. Underline what you believe to be the most important points, even if those points are words or phrases.
- Find the main idea. A useful summary distils the source material down to its most important point to inform the reader. Pick the major point the pieces want to communicate the reader, and use limited sentences wisely to convey it. Take down a few notes to help outline your thoughts in an organized manner
- Write your summary in your own words. Follow both the organization of the original as well as its tone, though you need to make sure your own point of view is purely objective (reporting content of the text, only). Opinions should not appear in a summary. Any words or phrases from the original need to be properly documented and punctuated.
- Keep it brief. A summary is not a rewrite—it's a short summation of the original piece. A summary paragraph is usually around five to eight sentences. Keep it short and to the point. Eliminate redundancies or repetitive text to keep the paragraph clear and concise. Your summary should be 15 to 20% the length of the original.
- Be sure to go back when you've finished your summary and compare it to the original for accuracy.
- When writing a summary, remember that it should be in the form of a paragraph.
- Make sure it flows. Transitions are incredibly helpful when it comes to building momentum in your writing. Connect your sentences with transition words, making sure they flow together and convey your summary clearly.

Example 1

"The Northern Lights"

There are times when the night sky glows with bands of color. The bands may begin as cloud shapes and then spread into a great arc across the entire sky. They may fall in folds like a curtain drawn across the heavens. The lights usually grow brighter, then suddenly dim. During this time the sky glows with pale yellow, pink, green, violet, blue, and red. These lights are called the Aurora Borealis. Some people call them the Northern Lights. Scientists have been watching them for hundreds of years. They are not quite sure what causes them. In ancient times people were afraid of the Lights. They imagined that they saw fiery dragons in the sky. Some even concluded that the heavens were on fire.

Summary

The Aurora Borealis, or Northern Lights, are bands of colour in the night sky. Ancient people thought that these lights were dragon on fire, and even modern scientists are not sure what they are.

Example 2

Most medical people despised the press, holding attitudes not totally unfamiliar today. Reporters tended to be suckers for every quack, half-quack, over-eager scientist, or naive country doctor who thought he had a serum to cure tuberculosis, a herbal remedy for cancer, or a new surgical procedure to rejuvenate the aged. When the newspapers were not wasting space on undeserving medical stories, they were over-playing legitimate news, getting their facts wrong, and generally making a nuisance of themselves interfering in the lives and practices of busy professionals. Doctors' deep suspicion of what they read in the newspapers and even in the less-carefully edited of the medical journals, helps to explain some of the early scepticism about insulin in countries like Britain: Oh, the Americans are always curing everything; this week it's diabetes. Even in Canada and the United States it was some months before there was enough confirmation of the unlikely news from Toronto to convince wire services and the more sceptical doctors and editors that insulin was, indeed, the real thing.

Summary

Most medical people hated the press, because reporters tended to believe every over-eager scientist or naive country doctor who thought he had a cure for something. Newspapers often over-played legitimate news, got their facts wrong, and interfered in the lives and practices of busy professionals. Doctors became deeply suspicious of what they read in the newspapers and less-carefully edited medical journals, therefore were sceptical about insulin in countries like Britain because it seemed the Americans were always curing everything.

Summarize the following passages:

1.Encounter Groups

Because of the unstructured nature of the group, the major problem faced by the participants is how they are going to use their time together - whether it be eighteen hours of a week-end or forty or more hours in a one-week group. Often there is consternation, anxiety, and irritation at first - particularly because of the lack of structure. Only gradually does it become evident that the major aim of nearly every member is to find ways of relating to other members of the group and to himself. Then as they gradually, tentatively, and fearfully explore their feelings and attitudes towards one another and towards themselves, it becomes increasingly evident that what they have first presented are façades, masks. Only cautiously do the real feelings and real persons emerge. The contrast between the outer shell and the inner person becomes more and more apparent as the hours go by. Little by little, a sense of genuine communication builds up, and the person who has been thoroughly walled off from others comes out with some small segment of his actual feelings. Usually his attitude has been that his real feelings will be quite unacceptable to other members of the group. To his astonishment, he finds that

he is more accepted the more real that he becomes. Negative feelings are often especially feared, since it seems certain to each individual that his angry or jealous feelings cannot possibly be accepted by another. Thus one of the most common developments is that a sense of trust slowly begins to build, and also a sense of warmth and liking for other members of the group. A woman says on Sunday afternoon, 'If anybody had told me Friday evening that by today I would be loving every member of this group I would have told him that he belonged in the nut house.' Participants feel a closeness and intimacy which they have not felt even with their spouses or members of their own family, because they have revealed themselves here more deeply and more fully than to those in their own family circle. Thus, in such a group the individual comes to know himself and each of the others more completely than is possible in the usual social or working relationships. He becomes deeply acquainted with the other members and with his own inner self, the self that otherwise tends to be hidden behind his façade. Hence he relates better to others, both in the group and later in the everyday life situation.

2.School and life

In my experience the problem of what to do in life was not made any easier by those who were entrusted with my education. Looking back, it seems most odd that never once in all the years that I was at school was there any general discussion about careers. As presumably the main object of going to school is to prepare for after life, it surely would have been very easy and relevant to organise lectures or discussions designed to give boys a broad view of the enormous variety of occupations open to men of average intelligence? Of course many boys were destined from birth to follow their fathers' careers, but even these would have benefited by glimpse of a wider horizon. Often and often in after life I have come across people doing jobs that I had never dreamed of before, and which would have thrilled me had I been told about them at school. I suppose the reason for this extra-ordinary omission is that so many schoolmasters had themselves such a restricted view. Spending all their time working to a rigid curriculum, the passing of examinations by their pupils gradually became the whole object of their working life. I recognize the importance of being made to learn things that one does not like, but surely it was not good to give the young mind the impression that all education was a form of mental gymnastics. For example, I used to find geometry rather fun, and, when I still had the naïve idea that what I was being taught might have some practical value, I asked what geometry was for. The only answer I ever got was that it taught one how to solve problems. If, instead, I had been told the simple fact that the word was derived from the Greek *ge*, the earth, and *metron*, a measure, and that the meaningless triangles that I was asked to juggle with formed the basis of geographical exploration, astronomy and navigation, the subject would immediately have assumed a thrilling

romance, and, what is more, it would have been directly connected in my mind with the things that most appealed to me.

My experience in this connection may have been unfortunate, but it was by no means unique; many of my friends who went to different schools confess to a similar experience, and complain that when they had completed their school education they had not the remotest idea of what they wanted to do. Moreover I do not think that this curiously detached attitude towards education was confined to schools. It had been intended that I should go to one of the great universities. I was tepid about the idea myself, for I had developed a dislike for the very thought of educational establishments. However, the prospect of three extra seasons in the Alps was a considerable incentive, and by dint of an enormous mental effort I succeeded in cramming sufficient Latin into my head to pass (at my second attempt) the necessary entrance examination. In due course I went to be interviewed by the master of my prospective college. When I was asked what subject I propose to take when I came up to the university, I replied, somewhat diffidently, that I wanted to take Geology - diffidently, because I still regarded such things as having no reality in the hard world of work. The answer to my suggestion confirmed my fears. 'What on earth do you want to do with Geology? There is no opening there unless you eventually get a first and become a lecturer in the subject.' A first, a lecturer - I, who could not even learn a couple of books of Horace by heart! I felt that I was being laughed at. In fact I am sure I was not, and that my adviser was quite sincere and only trying to be helpful, but I certainly did not feel like arguing the matter. I listened meekly to suggestions that I should take Classics or Law, and left the room in a state of profound depression. 'Oh Lord,' I thought, 'even here I won't be able to escape from Kennedy's Latin Primer,' with which I had been struggling for ten years.

3.Violence

Now, if you want to stop violence, if you want to stop wars, how much vitality, how much of yourself, do you give to it? Isn't it important to you that your children are killed, that your sons go into the army where they are bullied and butchered? Don't you care? My God, if that doesn't interest you, what does? Guarding your money? Having a good time? Taking drugs? Don't you see that this violence in yourself is destroying your children? Or do you see it only as some abstraction?

All right then, if you are interested, attend with all your heart and mind to find out. Don't just sit back and say, 'Well, tell us all about it'. I point out to you that you cannot look at anger nor at violence with eyes that condemn or justify and that if this violence is not a burning problem to you, you cannot put those two things away. So first you have to learn; you have to learn how to look at anger, how to look at your husband, your wife, your children; you have to listen to the politician, you have to learn why

you are not objective, why you condemn or justify. You have to learn that you condemn and justify because it is part of the social structure you live in, your conditioning as a German or an Indian or a Negro or an American or whatever you happen to have been born, with all the dulling of the mind that this conditioning results in. To learn, to discover, something fundamental you must have the capacity to go deeply. If you have a blunt instrument, a dull instrument, you cannot go deeply. So what we are doing is sharpening the instrument which is the mind - the mind which has been made dull by all this justifying and condemning. You can penetrate deeply only if your mind is as sharp as a needle and as strong as a diamond.

It is no good just sitting back and asking, 'How am I to get such a mind'? You have to want it as you want your next meal, and to have it you must see that what makes your mind dull and stupid is this sense of invulnerability which has built walls round itself and which is part of this condemnation and justification. If the mind can be rid of that, then you can look, study, penetrate, and perhaps come to a state that is totally aware of the whole problem.

To investigate the fact of your own anger you must pass non-judgemental on it, for the moment you conceive of its opposite you condemn it and therefore you cannot see it as it is. When you say you dislike or hate someone that is a fact, although it sounds terrible. If you look at it, go into it completely, it ceases, but if you say, 'I must not hate; I must have love in my heart', then you are living in a hypocritical world with double standards. To live completely, fully, in the moment is to live with what is, the actual, without any sense of condemnation or justification - then you understand it so totally that you are finished with it. When you see clearly the problem is solved.

But can you see the face of violence clearly - the face of violence not only outside you but inside you, which means that you are totally free from violence because you have not admitted ideology through which to get rid of it? This requires very deep meditation, not just a verbal agreement or disagreement. You have now read a series of statements but have you really understood? Your conditioned mind, your way of life, the whole structure of the society in which you live, prevent you from looking at a fact and being entirely free from it immediately. You say, 'I will think about it; I will consider whether it is possible to be free from violence or not. I will try to be free.' That is one of the most dreadful statements you can make, 'I will try'. There is no trying, no doing your best. Either you do it or you don't do it. You are admitting time while the house is burning. The house is burning as a result of the violence throughout the world and in yourself and you say, 'Let me think about it. Which ideology is best to put out the fire?' When the house is on fire, do you argue about the colour of the hair of the man who brings the water?

4. Freedom and selfishness

It is always the problem of how to change an ideal into reality that gets in the way of both the leaders and the people. A thought is not a deed and never will be. We are not magic men. We cannot imagine something into existence - especially a change of behaviour. Just as we have been conditioned to be what we are now - greedy, competitive, stingy, mean - so we need to learn to love, to learn to be free. Freedom is a difficult thing to handle. How many people given the complete freedom to do whatever they like would die of boredom? No structure, no rules, no compulsion to work from nine to five, no one telling us when to do this, do that - it sounds great until we try it. We've learned to be directed by so many others - by mommy, daddy, teacher, principal, boss, policeman, politician, bureaucrat, etc. - that freedom from all this could be overwhelming. Imagine: making love, eating, sleeping, playing ... and ... ho, hum, now what? Where do you go and what do you do when the trip ends?

Give people freedom and they'll do all the things they thought they never had a chance to do. But that won't take very long. And after that? After that, my friend, it'll be time to make your life meaningful. Can you do it if you're free? Can you do it if others no longer require you to do what they say is best? Authority is only necessary for those who need it. Most of us need it because we've been taught to believe that we have to be concerned about others. For instance: 'You're selfish if you think of yourself,' or even: 'Ask not what your country can do for you, ask what you can do for your country.'

Sorry friends, but that's all Christian, authoritarian, manipulative bullshit. You've got to get in touch with what your real needs are before you can begin to be of value to others. The other-directedness of Americans that is promoted by mom, God, and the flag has pushed us to the precipice of Fascism in this country. We are no longer able to think for ourselves, we think for the 'good' of others. 'Who am I?', 'What do I really want out of life?' These are considered selfish questions. So a whole society goes down the drain. So it is with communes, whose members are too eager to help their curious 'brothers,' who find it remarkably easy to create all kinds of physical and figurative mess and then leave it for the members to clean up.

Challenges to this traditional, other-directed, do-gooder mystique are met with admonitions and scoldings: 'Why are you so selfish, all the time thinking only about yourself? Don't you have any regard for the rights of others?' (The intent and frequent effect of such a question is to make one feel guilty and consequently willing to conform to the 'altruistic' wishes of others.) And because we have become so confused about what is really important to us as individuals, we believe these admonitions - and with good reason. Our demands are indeed 'selfish'. As we are no longer capable of knowing who we really are, we are compelled and desire to be like someone (everyone) else. We feel we must have money, a new car, power, position, prestige, and an all too material sense of personal worth.

5.How children fail

Most children in school fail. For a great many this failure is avowed and absolute. Close to forty per cent of those who begin high school drop out before they finish. For college the figure is one in three. Many others fail in fact if not in name. They complete their schooling only because we have agreed to push them up through the grades and out of the schools, whether they know anything or not. There are many more such children than we think. If we 'raise our standards' much higher, as some would have us do, we will find out very soon just how many there are. Our classrooms will bulge with kids who can't pass the test to get into the next class.

But there is a more important sense in which almost all children fail: except for a handful, who may or may not be good students, they fail to develop more than a tiny part of the tremendous capacity for learning, understanding, and creating with which they were born and of which they made full use during the first two or three years of their lives.

Why do they fail? They fail because they are afraid, bored, and confused. They are afraid, above all else, of failing, of disappointing or displeasing the many anxious adults around them, whose limitless hopes and expectations for them hang over their heads like a cloud. They are bored because the things they are given and told to do in school are so trivial, so dull, and make such limited and narrow demands on the wide spectrum of their intelligence, capabilities, and talents.

They are confused because most of the torrent of words that pours over them in school makes little or no sense. It often flatly contradicts other things they have been told, and hardly ever has any relation to what they really know - to the rough model of reality that they carry around in their minds. How does this mass failure take place? What really goes on in the classroom? What are these children who fail doing? What goes on in their heads? Why don't they make use of more of their capacity?

This book is the rough and partial record of a search for answers to these questions. It began as a series of memos written in the evenings to my colleague and friend Bill Hull, whose fifth-grade class I observed and taught in during the day. Later these memos were sent to other interested teachers and parents. A small number of these memos make up this book. They have not been much rewritten, but they have been edited and rearranged under four major topics: Strategy; Fear and Failure; Real Learning; and How Schools Fail. Strategy deals with the ways in which children try to meet, or dodge, the demands that adults make on them in school. Fear and Failure deals with the interaction in children of fear and failure, and the effect of this on strategy and learning. Real Learning deals with the difference between what children appear to know or are expected to know, and what they really know. How Schools Fail analyses the ways in which schools foster bad strategies, raise children's fears, produce learning which is usually fragmentary, distorted, and short-lived, and generally fail to meet the real needs of children.

6.Hypnosis

There are many methods of producing hypnosis; indeed, almost every experienced hypnotist employs variations differing slightly from those of others. Perhaps the most common method is something along these lines. The hypnotist tries to obtain his subject's co-operation by pointing out to him the advantages to be secured by the hypnosis, such as, for instance, the help in curing a nervous illness to be derived from the patient's remembering in the trance certain events which otherwise are inaccessible to his memory. The patient is reassured about any possible dangers he might suspect to be present in hypnosis, and he may also be told (quite truthfully) that it is not a sign of instability or weakness to be capable of being put in a hypnotic trance, but that, quite on the contrary, a certain amount of intelligence and concentration on the part of the subject is absolutely essential.

Next, the subject is asked to lie down on a couch, or sit in an easy-chair. External stimulation is reduced to a minimum by drawing the curtains and excluding, as far as possible, all disruptive noises. It is sometimes helpful to concentrate the subject's attention on some small bright object dangled just above eye-level, thus forcing him to look slightly upwards. This leads quickly to a fatigue of the eye-muscles, and thus facilitates his acceptance of the suggestion that he is feeling tired and that his eyes are closing. The hypnotist now begins to talk to the subject in a soft tone of voice, repeating endlessly suggestions to the effect that the subject is feeling drowsy, getting tired, that his eyes are closing, that he is falling into a deep sleep, that he cannot hear anything except the hypnotist's voice, and so on and so forth. In a susceptible subject, a light trance is thus induced after a few minutes, and the hypnotist now begins to deepen this trance and to test the reactions of the subject by giving suggestions which are more and more difficult of execution. Thus, he will ask the subject to clasp his hands together, and tell him that it is impossible for him to separate his hands again. The subject, try as he may, finds, to his astonishment, that he cannot in actual fact pull his hands apart. Successful suggestions of this kind are instrumental in deepening the hypnotic trance until, finally, in particularly good subjects, all the phenomena which will be discussed presently can be elicited.

Having induced a reasonably deep hypnotic trance in our subject, what types of phenomena can be elicited? The first and most obvious one, which, indeed, may be responsible in large measure for all the others, is a tremendous increase in the subject's suggestibility. He will take up any suggestion the hypnotist puts forward and act on it to the best of his ability. Suggest to him that he is a dog, and he will go down on all fours and rush around the room barking and yelping. Suggest to him that he is Hitler, and he will throw his arms about and produce an impassioned harangue in an imitation of the raucous tones of the Führer! This tremendous increase in suggestibility is often exploited on the stage to induce people to do foolish and ridiculous acts. Such practices are not to be encouraged because

they go counter to the ideal of human dignity and are not the kind of way in which hypnosis ought to be used; nevertheless, they must be mentioned because it is probably phenomena such as these which are most familiar to people from vaudeville acts, from reading the papers, and so forth.

It would not be true to say, however, that all suggestions are accepted, even in the very deepest trance. This is particularly true when a suggestion is made which is contrary to the ethical and moral conceptions held by the subject. A well-known story may be quoted to illustrate this. Charcot, the great French neurologist, whose classes at one time were attended by Freud, was lecturing on hypnosis and was demonstrating the phenomena of the hypnotic trance on a young girl of eighteen. When she had been hypnotized deeply he was called away, and handed over the demonstration to one of his assistants. This young man, lacking the seriousness of purpose so desirable in students of medicine, even French ones, suggested to the young lady that she should remove her clothes. She immediately awakened from her trance, slapped his face, and flounced out of the room, very much to his discomfiture.

7.Acquiring new knowledge

In all learning, advances tend to come irregularly and in bursts, as you gain fresh insights into the subject. In order to obtain these insights you must thoroughly understand what you are studying. If you really understand a subject not only do you remember it easily, but you can apply your knowledge in new situations. The important thing is not what you know, but what you can do with what you know. The extra effort involved in getting a firm grounding in the essentials of a subject is repaid many times in later study. How are you to achieve understanding? Understanding involves (1) linking new knowledge to the old and (2) organizing it and remembering it in a systematic fashion. To retain and make sense of any new concept or fact it must be linked in as many ways as possible to your existing body of knowledge. All good introductory textbooks are constantly giving familiar examples, or using analogies, or appealing to common experience. In setting out the differences between daylight vision and twilight vision, for example, most writers point out that as twilight falls in the garden, blue flowers remain blue for some time after red blossoms appear black, illustrating, by appeal to common experience, that under dim illumination the colours of the blue end of the spectrum become relatively brighter than those of the red end. Or again, to illustrate that the movement of any particular electron during the passage of an electric current is only a few centimetres a second, although the velocity of the current is extremely great, the analogy is often used of a truck run into the end of a long line of trucks in a shunting yard, a corresponding truck being rapidly ejected from the far end. Linking new information to familiar experience in this fashion always helps understanding. In order to tie the new information to your stock of knowledge with as many links as possible, you must reflect on it, and try and relate it to what you already know. Thinking the matter over by yourself, writing out summaries

of the main points, and talking to other students about it, are all valuable for fixing it more clearly in your mind.'

Dialogue Writing

A dialogue is a conversation between two or more people. It is an effective tool of composition and communication. The conversation may be formal, between a senior and junior officer, or between a teacher and a student. It may also be informal - between two friends or a husband and a wife.

However, before learning to write dialogues, it is important to learn Language functions. A language function can be defined as "the use to which language is put, the purpose of an utterance rather than the particular grammatical form an utterance takes". The language used for a particular function varies in formal and informal contexts.

Language Function	Formal	Informal
Starting a conversation/ Greetings	- Excuse me - Hello - Just a moment, please - Good morning/ good afternoon	- Hi/Hey - What's up? - I don't think we have met.
Making requests	- could you please _____ - I am sorry to trouble you _____ - I hope you don't mind me asking _____	- Can you _____? - Will you please _____? - Mind doing _____?
Expressing Gratitude	- It is very kind of you. - I am grateful to you. - You have been a great help.	- Thank you/Thanks a lot
Complementing	- May I say how _____ - If I may say so _____ - Please accept my compliments	- What a beautiful/ wonderful _____ - Wow! - Amazing! _____
Congratulating	- Congratulations! - I must Congratulate _____ - We are Proud of you.	- Congrats! - Well done! - We are happy for you.
Apologising	- I apologise - I beg your pardon - Kindly excuse me	- Very/ extremely/ so sorry
Responding to an apology	- That is okay - I appreciate your apology - I hear you	- That's fine - Alright! - Fine!
Expressing Sympathy	- I am sorry to hear that _____ - I sympathise with you - My sympathies are with you.	- How sad! - That's a pity. - Oh my god!
Seeking permission/ information	- May I _____? - Could you please _____?	- Mind If I _____ - Can you please _____?
Giving permission	- Yes. Permission granted.	- Of course, you can

	- We are pleased to permit.	- Go ahead
Refusing permission	- I am sorry, that's not possible - I am afraid I can't____ - I would rather you didn't	- No, please - Sorry that is not____ - Sorry, I can't____
Request for repetition	- I beg your pardon - Would you mind repeating? - May I ask you to repeat?	- Pardon? - What did you say? What was that?
Complaining	- I regret to bring to your notice____ - I would like to bring to your purview_____	- Sorry, but____ - How could you that!
Agreeing	- I agree - That is a great idea. - Indeed	- Of course - That's great - Yes
Disagreeing	- I am afraid I don't agree - Well, you have a point but____ - I am sorry I disagree	- No - I am not sure
Leave-taking	- It was a pleasure seeing you - Nice meeting you - Goodbye - I am afraid, I must go now. - Let me take your leave	- Bye - See you later - catch you later

Points to remember while writing dialogues:

The context- We need to understand whether the context is formal or informal which will, in turn, help us use appropriate language.

Tense of the dialogue should be maintained through the conversation based on the situation.

Dialogue should be precise to convey the idea clearly.

Punctuations should be marked appropriately.

Questions for Discussion:

I. Complete the following conversations

1. Shopkeeper: Excuse me, sir. How can I help you?

Customer: _____(asking for information)

Shopkeeper: Yes sir, we do have it.

Customer: How much would it cost?

Shopkeeper: _____(giving information)

Customer: Do I have to buy a wrapper?

Shopkeeper: No sir, it is complimentary.

Customer: _____ (expressing gratitude)

2. Student: Good morning, Sir. _____(asking for permission)

Principal: Please come in.

Student: _____ (Introducing himself).

Principal: Yes. What can I do for you?

Student: Sir I am here to invite you for the Annual Day tomorrow at 10 am.

Principal: _____(agreeing).

Student: _____(expressing gratitude)

3. Patient: Good morning, sir. _____(introducing)

Doctor: Good morning. Please sit down. Tell me about your problem.

Patient: _____(giving information?)

Doctor: Since when do you have a fever?

Patient: For three days.

Doctor: _____(asking for other details)

Patient: Not really.

Doctor: Take these medicines for three days.

Patient: _____(expressing gratitude)

4. Akash: Hi Preeti! You have not returned my book!!

Preeti _____(apologizing)

Akash: _____(responding to the apology)

Preeti: May I return it next week?

Akash: _____(disagreeing)

Preeti: Fine! Will give it tomorrow.

Akash: _____ (ending conversation)

5. Tenant: Hello. Is it 3535358?

Owner: Yes. May I know who is speaking?

Tenant: _____(introducing)

Owner: What can I do for you?

Tenant: _____(asking for information)

Owner: Oh, I am sorry. It is already taken.

Tenant: _____(leave taking)

II. Develop dialogues for the following situations

1. You are a student enquiring for admission for BA course in a college. Write a dialogue between the college office reception and you.

2. Conversation between two friends, who are planning a trip.

3. Conversation between a traffic policeman and a bike rider regarding not wearing a helmet.

4. Conversation between two sisters on buying a new phone

5. Conversation between a customer and a sales executive in a TV showroom

Module 10

Profile Writing and Resume

What is a profile?

A profile is a written portrait of a person. Often, a profile is published as a narrative non-fiction article in a newspaper, magazine, or website. The story is based on facts discovered through research as well as interviews with the subject and their friends, family, or professional associates. A profile piece is meant to be informative. Often, a profile is a portrait of the person through a combination of stories, quotes, and photographs.

Profile writing tricks

1. Read the profile carefully.
2. Write the incidents in chronological order.
3. Make grammatically correct sentences.
4. Don't forget to cover all given clues.
5. Use correct punctuation marks.

The following pointers will be helpful while writing a profile:

Age: He/she is....years old.

Birth: He/she was born on.... In... to (name of parents).

Qualifications: He/she is a/an..../ he/she qualified to be..../ he/she studied to be....

Reasons for popularity: He/she is known for/is most famous for/is a renowned....

Hobbies: Some of his/her hobbies are/include...

Awards/Achievements: He/she was awarded/ has achieved/is known for/is the recipient of...

Nicknames/titles: He/she is known as...

Death: He/she died on/passed away on/was assassinated on..

Given below is a profile of Puneet Rajkumar. Observe how the data is converted into a profile.

Born: March 17, 1975

Nick names: Power star, Appu

Occupation: Actor, singer, producer

Known for: Best actor, social service

Award: Karnataka Ratna, National Film Award

Died: 29 October 2021

Ans: Puneet Rajkumar was born on March 17 in 1975. His nick names are Power star and Appu. He was the best actor, singer and film producer. He was known for best actor and social service. For his great achievement he was awarded with Karnataka Ratna and National Film Award. He died on 29 October in 2021.

The second example is that of Subhas Chandra Bose.

Born: 23 January, 1897

Nick names: Netaji

Education: University of Cambridge

Known for: Indian independence movement

Notable work: 'The Indian Struggle'

Died: 18 August 1945

Ans: Subhas Chandra Bose was born on January 23 in 1897, and he was popularly known by the name of Netaji. He studied in Cambridge University. He was one of the most prominent leaders of Indian independence movement. His well-known book is 'The Indian Struggle.' He died on 18th August 1945.

Professional Profile Writing

A professional profile—or resume profile—is an important tool to consider when building your resume. It is a description that highlights your skills and expertise and it shows employers what assets you will bring to the role you are applying for. You might consider adding a professional profile section to your resume so that employers immediately see how you can benefit their company. This guide will help you write your professional profile and show you some examples that you can use to get started.

What is a professional profile?

A professional profile is an introductory section on your resume that highlights your relevant qualifications and skills. Including a professional profile can have some advantages.

First, your resume profile concisely features your skills and professional experience in a way that gets employers' attention. Employers typically scan resumes and do not spend much time reading each one through. Because of this, your professional profile can be an effective way to quickly show your employer how you will be an asset to the position you're applying for.

Another benefit of including a professional profile is that you can highlight specific skills and expertise that employers require for a certain position. For example, an educator's professional profile might highlight classroom management, curriculum development and teaching skills when seeking an elementary school teaching position.

How to create a professional profile for your resume

Consider the following steps to craft a professional profile that makes your resume stand out:

1. Keep your profile short and concise
2. Include the skills that are relevant to the job you are applying for
3. Include any achievements relevant to the job industry
4. Place your profile where it's highly visible

1. Keep your profile short and concise

Your professional profile should be no more than four brief sentences. You may write your profile as a list in bullet form or as a short paragraph. Include your job title and years of work or training experience. Highlight your professional strengths for the role.

2. Include the skills that are relevant to the job you are applying for

Include only your professional skills and experience that are relevant to the job you're targeting. This is especially helpful if your skills and work history differ from your current career goals because it enables you to showcase the related expertise that hiring managers are looking for.

3. Include any achievements relevant to the job industry

If you have exceptional accomplishments—such as markedly improving sales results in your last position—include those in your professional profile. Quantifiable achievements show employers how you can contribute to the development of their company if they hire you for the role. For example, the details highlighted in this phrase, 'increased open rate for online campaigns by 17% in one year' shows an employer more of your ability than 'increased the open rate for online campaigns.'

4. Place your profile where it's highly visible

Consider showcasing your professional profile at the top of your resume, above your work and education history. Hiring managers and recruiters typically scan the top parts of resumes first.

Tips for writing your professional profile

Here are some additional tips to consider when writing your profile.

- Include quantifiable results that show how you perform on work tasks. For example, 'developed and implemented data backup and recovery systems that accounted for 20% of XYZ's cyber security software' is more effective than 'developed and implemented data backup and recovery systems for Company XYZ.'
- Choose your words carefully. Keep your profile wording simple and free from figurative language, metaphors and other vague language.
- Be yourself in your profile. If a word doesn't feel right to use for describing yourself, use a different word that will encompass your professional values and skills.

Professional profile examples

The purpose of your professional profile is to show how your skills and work experience will meet the requirements of the job. The skills you include should be specific to your desired position. Below are some samples:

Education professional profiles

Jobs in education may frequently include administrative positions like principals, assistant principals and office staff, instructional positions, paraprofessionals, teachers' aids and professors. Education workers require a variety of skills that can include management and organizational skills, leadership, curriculum planning and development, lesson implementation, interpersonal skills and relationship-building strategies within the community.

Example: *'Veteran teacher with 15 years of experience planning and implementing algebra curriculum to students with disabilities. Passionate and highly effective with success in instructional strategies to develop students' academic skills and raise test scores.'*

News and media professional profiles

This industry encompasses roles such as journalists, news anchors, directors, editors and camera operators. The desirable skills generally include public relations and speaking skills, audience engagement and the ability to deliver clear, effective messages.

Example: *'TV news copy editor with exceptional editing skills and attention to detail. Extensive experience leading a team of content editors and writers in providing current and engaging text to meet company standards.'*

Resume Writing

Curriculum vitae (CV), Resume or Bio-Data are three different terms used for a document which the job seekers send to the prospective employer stating their educational qualifications, skills, experience and others. While the three may be used interchangeably, they are slightly different from each other.

Here are some of the ways you can differentiate between them:

Detail: A CV tends to be more detailed than a resume. Biodata is a detailed document that provides a comprehensive summary of a candidate's life along with career information. Resumes are more of an overview of a candidate's career.

Length: Typically, a CV can be over two pages long. You can limit resumes to one or two pages. A biodata is usually over two pages long.

Content: A CV includes all your skills and certifications and is customizable for a larger audience. A resume includes only relevant and active certifications. You can customize your biodata as per the intent.

As such, you would tailor-make your resume or CV before applying for a job, in order to showcase those aspects of your training and experience that make you suitable for the particular position, while you would submit a bio-data when being, let's say, nominated for a lifetime award.

What is a Resume?

A resume is a self-profile and a document prepared by the person who seeks an employment in an institution/ company and to get an interview from the employer. It is made up of the following components:

- Personal details
- Objective or Career objective
- Qualification
- Academic Achievements
- Education
- Work history
- Summary of skills
- Personal data
- References

The above components or some of them vary depending upon certain factors like a beginner, a senior, skills and experience and the requirements of a particular job.

Personal details include name, address, email and phone number. State your full name first in bold and upper case. Provide the address you want to be contacted at. Employees are not supposed to discriminate on the basis of your gender, caste or religion. So, your resume need not contain such information unless specified.

Objective or Career objective tells your employer what you are looking for and the level of responsibility that you seek. For an appealing statement of job objective, use as many content words as possible.

Education discusses your educational background. Most employers expect you to state the degrees or courses you have completed, the year of passing, name of the institute, grade or division you have achieved. You may use a table to present this data.

Summary of Skills would usually include computer skills, managerial skills, language proficiency and any other specific skills that you may have acquired. Skills acquired during your career can be highlighted separately in the next section.

Work History / Experience includes details about all positions that you have held, including the work that you have done during your training or projects. Highlight your best qualities, responsibilities you held and projects you undertook.

Personal Data includes information such as date of birth, gender, etc. Do not write your age or date of birth at the top of your resume but write it towards the end under 'Personal Profile/ data', if the advertisement requires or when there is an age limit for a particular post.

References include the names and contact details of two distinguished people or former employers who know you and your work well. Include their current contact information. It is possible that your prospective employer will get in touch with them and seek information about you – your qualifications, work ethics, dependability etc. So, your referees should be aware that you have included their names and they must be willing to write or speak about you. Always check with someone before including them as a reference.

Some Tips

- Number of pages should be generally 1 or maximum 2 for a beginner and for experienced people it can be 4 to 5, on A4 size sheet.
- Use 10 or 12 font's size and only 2 kinds of them, Times New Roman or Ariel. Do not use fancy fonts.
- Use only bullet points.
- Do not copy a template from the computer.
- Be truthful.
- Avoid the use of 'I' and other personal pronouns.
- Be specific about your achievements.
- Have someone else review your resume.
- Spell Check.

Sample Resume

G.V.SAVITHRI

#211,Mittal Building

II cross, I main,

Mathikere Bengaluru 560054

Mobile phone- 93741- 98667

Career Objective

To work for a professionally managed and growth-oriented organisation that would hone my skills and intellectual faculties while adding value to self.

Work Experience

2004 January — to date

- 6 months Assistant. Manager, Accounts in charge, NOVOPAN, Bengaluru (GVK group of Industries) dealing with all sorts of Foreign transactions as part of Imports & Exports Of wood and its products in the company 2001-2003 Dec.
- Completed 3 years of Article ship training with M/s. Shalini Associates, Chartered Accountants, Bengaluru as required under the regulations of the ICAI from the period 1999 to 2002.
- Involved as a team member in conduct of various audit assignments in accordance with the prevalent accounting and audit standards, ensuring the compliance of statutory requirements, in the areas — statutory audit, bank audit, tax audit, internal audit.

Qualifications:

- Chartered Account (CA) - November 2003
- Bachelor of Commerce (B.Com) – April 2001

Academic Achievements:

- Topper in graduation (B.Com) from Maine's Degree College, Bengaluru.
- Winner of L N Gupta Medal from AIIE. (All India Industrial Exhibition Society) for highest score in Intermediate. (Plus two)

Education

- CA Final: 50.38%
- CA Inter: 55.67%
- CA Foundation: 56.50%
- B. Com: 69.13%
- Intermediate: 82.20%
- SSC: 82.16%

IT Skills

- MS- Office
- Tally 67

Personal Profile

Date of Birth: 27-06-1981

Languages Known: English, Hindi, and Kannada

References

1. Senior General Manager XYZ
Address:
Phone number:
Email ID:
2. Mr.ABC
Address:
Phone number:
Email ID:

Signature: XXXX

Place & Date: ——

COVER LETTER

Cover letter is a part of the resume though separately enclosed and equally important as the letter. A cover letter states the purpose of your communication, the nature of the job you are interested in, your understanding of the job requirement and whether you have the required skills. A well written cover letter

- Introduces you
- Talks about your areas of specialization
- Indicates the kind of job you are interested in
- Highlights your qualifications
- Talks about the kind of work you have already done
- Attempts to persuade the prospective employer to call you for an interview.

A cover letter contains:

- Past experience and skills –If in service, a mention must be made of present job and about experience and skills relevant for the present post applied for. If you do not have any experience mention the projects or trainings relevant to the job.
- A reference - make a reference, if any, of someone (taking permission) who suggested you to apply for, preferably, in the beginning of the letter itself.
- Level of confidence - every word in the CL, should reflect the confidence level. It should emphasize why you think you are suitable with your skills for the post.

Five Ways Making a Cover Letter Attractive:

1. Your neatness, precision, presentation skills and ability to pay attention to details
2. Editing your letter to ensure grammatical correctness, correct spelling and usage.
3. Your letter should convey your personality. Don't copy anyone's letter.
4. Emphasizing concisely the information pertaining to your specialized training and all relevant experience and skills necessary to the post.
5. Avoid the use of outdated words like "humbly request" 'I beg', 'your esteemed company', 'I enclose herewith' etc.

Example:

Write a cover letter for the advertisement.

The ICAI University Accounting officers based at Ahmedabad, Bengaluru, Bihar, Hyderabad and Ranchi. The ideal candidates should be Chartered Accountants with 2 to 3 years of relevant experience in computerised Accounting. All candidates should be computer savvy and should have Excellent communication and prevention skills. Interested candidates may apply immediately with their full Bio-data with ref code (8364) and location preferred, to The Manager

202, Olbee centre,

Raj Bhavan Road,

Bengaluru 500 001

Ph . 040-2343365,2345678,

Fax- 040 23435367

E-mail. Hydic@alchemisindia.org

(From 'The Hindu', June 23, 2004)

The cover letter for the above advertisement

SAVITHRI.R

#54, Rajmargh

Cheluvapet Road

Bengaluru- 51

25 July 2022

The Manager

HR Consulting

202, Olbee Centre

Raj Bhavan Road

Bengaluru – 500 001

Madam/Sir,

Sub: Application for the post of Accounts Officer in ICFAI University

Ref: Advertisement in The Hindu, Dated July 23, 2022, for Accounts officer .Ref. Code (8364)

I am currently employed in NOVOPAN, Hyderabad which deals with wood and its products, as Assistant Manager in charge of Accounts, since January 2020. I am confident of handling the responsibilities as accounts officer which you advertised for, and have relevant experience in computerized accounting in my present job. I am proficient in computer skills relevant to my job and very good in communication skills. In fact, I am ready to work at any place but my preference is Hyderabad. Please find my resume attached to the file.

Regards

————-(Signature)

————-(Place)

————-(Date)

Questions for Discussion:

1. Prepare a suitable resume and cover letter for the following advertisement:
Surya Infotech, Gate 6, Bidadi Industrial Area, Bengaluru, Karnataka-60 has invited applications for the post of ACCOUNTS OFFICERS in its respective branches at Ahmedabad, Bengaluru, Bihar, Hyderabad and Ranchi. Candidates with good communication skills are preferred. Computer knowledge is a must. Freshers can also apply.
2. Here are a few details about S Radhakrishnan. Write a brief profile using the same:
Birth: 5 September, 1888, Thiruttani
Profession: philosopher, professor.
Education: Madras Christian College
Spouse: Shivakamu
Achievements: First Vice President and Second President of Independent India.
Awards: Bharat Ratna, Templeton Prize, Order of Merit
Died: 17 April, 1975 in Chennai.
3. Draft a professional profile for a job of a copy writer in an ad agency.

Module 11

E-Mail

E-mail stands for electronic mail. It is similar to a letter, but it is sent electronically to one or more recipients through internet. Email is a fast, convenient, reliable and inexpensive way to communicate and is widely used all over the world. It also provides an effective and safe way to transfer electronic data. It is easy to use; anyone with an email account and an internet connection can send and receive email.

Advantages of Email:

- It is instantly delivered to anyone in any part of the world
- It can be sent to multiple recipients at the same time.
- One can also attach attachments like files, pictures and videos.
- One can know when the mail was sent.
- It can be read on multiple devices
- It can be saved, reproduced and printed.

Composing an Email:

Writing an email is easy and can be done in a few simple steps

1. Open your mail account
2. Click the compose/write icon
3. The compose/write tab contains the following fields
 - (i) To
 - (ii) Sub
4. Enter the email address of the recipient(s) in the “to” field (use comma to separate multiple addresses)
5. Enter the subject of the mail in the “Subject” field.
6. Click in the message box and type your message
7. To attach a file, click the attach icon, a dialog box appears, select the file and click open.
8. Click the send button.

Parts of an Email:

Subject Line

The subject line clearly states the purpose of the mail. It should be brief (ideally not more than six words), appropriate and to the point. If the subject line is lengthy, misleading or irrelevant the mail may not be read. E.g. “Job Application”, “Staff Meeting, 18th Oct, 2019”, “Project Report Overdue”

Salutation

The salutation should be formal and appropriate. If you know the person’s name, use their name along with the title/designation. E.g. Dear Prof. Pathak, Ms. Sameena Khan, Project Manager

If you do not know the name, use title/designation.

If you do not know either name or title, it is acceptable to write “To whom it may concern”.

Note: Do not use improper salutations such as “hi” and “hello”

Body of the mail

The body of the mail elaborates on the purpose of the mail. Mention your objective clearly and include necessary details. Keep it as brief as possible. However, if the mail is lengthy, break the content into paragraphs. If there are attachments mention them in the body of the mail to make sure the recipient reads them. Use complete sentences and avoid slang, emojis and contractions.

Note: Introduce yourself to the recipient first.

E.g. My name is Keerthi M, I teach Philosophy at S.R.K. University.

Closing

A proper closing is very important to make a good impression. E.g. Yours Sincerely, Warm Regards, Regards etc.

This is to be followed by Name and title of the sender is to be typed below.

Writing an effective Email is a skill; only a well written/structured email can produce the desired result.

Tips to write an Email

- Keep the message clear and concise.
- Do not use decorative fonts for formal emails. The standard fonts for formal mails usually are Times New Roman and Arial.
- The standard font size generally used is 12.
- Do not use colours unless it is absolutely necessary.
- Proofread before sending the mail.
- A professional signature template would add an impact.

Sample 1: Job application

To startechology@gmail.com

Subject Application for the post of Sales Executive

Dear Sir/Madam

My name is Shwetha Rao. I wish to apply for the position of Sales Executive as advertised in Naukri.com. I strongly believe I am a qualified candidate for this position. I have excellent communication skills and an aptitude for customer service. My experience at ITC as a sales manager coupled with good communication skills would prove to be an asset to the company.

I am attaching a copy of my resume in pdf format.

I look forward to hearing from you.

Regards

Your name

Sample 2: Meeting Notification

Subject: Research Scholars' Meeting, December 28

Dear All

We will hold our monthly research scholars' meeting in the conference room at 11:00 a.m. on Friday, December 28th.

Research scholars should be prepared to give an update on their current projects and to submit the monthly report.

Regards

Dr. Mahesh .M.

Chairperson, Department of English

Sample 3: Applying for internship

Subject : Application for Internship

Dear Madam/ Sir

I am a third year B A (sixth semester) student, pursuing Journalism, English Literature and Psychology at Government Arts College, Bengaluru. As part of the course all students are required to do a one month internship at a media house.

As I hope to work in the electronic media after completing my studies, I would be interested in working with your channel. I would be happy to work in any department in order to gain knowledge and experience.

I would be very grateful if you could give me an opportunity to work with your channel.

The most suitable time would be from early March or mid-October.

Please find enclosed my CV.

I look forward to hearing from you.

Warm Regards

(Your name)

Questions for Discussion:

1. You are Ms. Sneha and you recently bought a car from Autotek Cars. Write an email to the manager of, Autotek Cars explaining the poor quality of vehicle service offered to you by them.

2. You are a project manager and you took the help of Samuel, an additional resource, to complete a task in time. Write a "Thank You" email to Samuel appreciating his timely help and making the project a success.
3. You are former student of Prof. Madhukar. Write an email to Prof. Madhukar thanking him for his guidance that contributed to your overall development.
4. You are invited for your best friend's wedding but you are traveling on work on the same day. Write an email to your best friend congratulating the couple and apologizing for not attending his/her wedding explaining your situation.
5. You are a part of corporate communication team in your company. The working time period is revised as 8:30 am to 5:00 pm. Write an email to the employees in your company informing the same.

Module 12

Vocabulary

Vocabulary is defined as **the collection of words that are used by people for expressing written or verbal ideas**. Using vocabulary is very important. Vocabulary is important for learning all skills such as reading, writing, listening, and speaking. It is the basis of achieving success. Vocabulary refers to the words we must understand to communicate effectively.

Vocabulary forms an integral part of the process of reading and readers' comprehension. It refers to the words needed for communicating effectively. It implies receptive vocabulary and expressive vocabulary. Receptive vocabulary refers to the words that we hear and read while expressive vocabulary implies to the words that we speak and write. Without vocabulary, it is not possible to convey anything.

Vocabulary is also commonly called word stock, lexis, and lexicon. It is a sum or stock of words employed by a language, group, individual, or work or in a field of knowledge.

Importance of Vocabulary

1. Vocabulary is critical for communication and expression.
2. Vocabulary forms the basis of reading comprehension.
3. Linguistic vocabulary and thinking vocabulary work parallel.
4. Vocabulary also forms a basis for judgment many times.
5. For conveying anything, vocabulary is important.

Three Tiers of Vocabulary

1. Basic Vocabulary

The basic words form the first tier of vocabulary. These words normally have a single meaning and do not require instruction. Early reading words, sight words, adjectives, verbs, nouns, etc. are portrayed in this tier.

2. High-frequency Vocabulary

Also called the multiple meaning vocabulary tier. This tier comprises words used in a variety of domains, adult communication, literature, etc. It influences reading and speaking.

The characteristics for tier two words are as follows:

- It has multiple meanings
- Vital for reading comprehension
- Typical mature language
- Descriptive vocabulary
- Used for direct instruction

3. Low-frequency Vocabulary

The words that are used only when specifically required or in a particular domain like weather, technology, geographical region, occupation, hobbies, school, etc. comprise this tier.

Types of Vocabulary

The types of vocabulary can be categorized based on spoken and written vocabulary. The types of vocabulary are discussed below briefly.

1. Listening Vocabulary

Listening vocabulary comprises words that we understand through hearing. A fetus may start recognizing some words when in the womb. Learning new words is a continuous process, and by the time you reach adulthood, almost fifty thousand words are understood and recognized by you. Deaf people can be exposed to visual listening vocabulary for learning.

2. Speaking Vocabulary

Speaking vocabulary consists of words that we actually speak. These are used for giving instructions and conversations. The number of words in this category are comparatively lesser than the listening vocabulary.

3. Reading Vocabulary

The major ingredient of vocabulary building is reading. Reading grows and develops your vocabulary. The words we get to learn while reading a text are termed as reading vocabulary. It may happen that we understand words through reading vocabulary even if we don't use it in speaking vocabulary.

4. Writing Vocabulary

Words we recoup while expressing ourselves through writing are termed as writing vocabulary. Writing vocabulary is normally influenced by the words we are able to spell. We find it easy to express verbally, through facial expression, or intonation, but writing vocabulary depends upon our expertise in vocabulary.

5. Final Vocabulary

Richard Rorty discovered this term ‘Final Vocabulary’. It is a collection, set, or group of words that every person applies to justify their actions, beliefs, and lives. Final vocabulary comprises words a person avails to praise, contempt, express deep feelings, hopes, doubts, etc.

Ways to Improve your Vocabulary

- Develop a Reading Habit
- Dictionary and Thesaurus
- Play Word Games
- Flashcards
- Use new Words in Conversation

Learning and exploring new words and then applying them in different contexts improves your communication skills. Always keep learning antonyms, synonyms, connotations, idioms, phrases, and keep reading various books to develop your vocabulary.

The techniques to build new vocabulary

The techniques to build new vocabulary are listed below.

- a) Memorize new words and learn their antonyms, synonyms, connotations, etc.
- b) The keyword method assists in creating mnemonic devices, word associations.
- c) Make a list of new words.
- d) Read various types of books as much as possible.
- e) Refer to the Dictionary to learn new words.
- f) Look for context clues or hints in test-taking and conversations.
- g) Install language mobile applications on your smartphones.
- h) Master the new words through the flashcard method that has words and definitions included in it.
- i) Take vocabulary quizzes, often.

- j) Try speaking the language you want to learn frequently and regularly.
- k) Write a notebook of words and keep revising it.
- l) Read blogs in the language that you want to build your vocabulary in.
- m) Remain observant of your surroundings.

Phrasal Verbs

A phrasal verb is a phrase that indicates action. Phrasal verb consists of a verb and an adverb or preposition. These adverbs and prepositions are often called particles when they are used in a phrasal verb.

Eg. Take off= Take(V) + off (prep)

Phrasal verbs sometimes have meanings that you can easily guess. For eg. **sit down**. However, in most cases their meanings are quite different from the meanings of the verb they are formed from. For eg. **Hold up** can mean ‘to cause a delay’ while the original meaning of **Hold** no longer applies.

Below are a few commonly used phrasal verbs.

Phrasal Verb	Meaning	Sentence
blow up	explode	The terrorists tried to <u>blow up</u> the railroad station.
bring up	mention a topic	My sister <u>brought up</u> that matter of my not clearing the exams.
call off	cancel	They <u>called off</u> the strike yesterday.
fill up	fill to capacity	She <u>filled up</u> the bags with fruit.
find out	discover	My sister <u>found out</u> that we had been planning a surprise party for her.
give away	give something to someone else for free	The NGO was <u>giving away</u> free books.
give back	return an object	Amita borrowed my car. I have a feeling she’s not going to <u>give it back</u> in the evening.
hand in	submit something (assignment)	The students <u>handed in</u> their assignments and left the room.
hang up	put something on hook or receiver	She <u>hung up</u> the phone as soon as she heard the news.
hold up	delay	I hate to <u>hold up</u> the meeting, but I have to attend a meeting in my child’s school.

leave out	omit	You <u>left out</u> the part about the police chase down Asylum Avenue.
look over	examine, check	The lawyers <u>looked over</u> the papers carefully before questioning the witness.
look up	search in a list	You've misspelled this word again. You'd better <u>look it up</u> .
make up	invent a story or lie	She knew she was in trouble, so she <u>made up</u> a story about going to a picnic with her cousins.
pick out	choose	There were three women in the line-up. She <u>picked out</u> the woman she thought had stolen her purse.
pick up	lift something off something else	The crane <u>picked up</u> the entire house.
put away	save or store	We <u>put away</u> money for our retirement. She <u>put away</u> the cereal boxes.
put off	postpone	Please <u>put it off</u> for another day.
put on	put clothing on the body	I <u>put on</u> a blue sweatshirt.
put out	extinguish	The firefighters <u>put out</u> the house fire before it could spread.
take down	make a written note	These are your instructions. <u>Write</u> them <u>down</u> before you forget.
take off	remove clothing	It was so hot that I had to <u>take off</u> my coat.

Questions for Discussion:

1. Her grandfather always taught her not to ____deprived people. (look up to / look down on)
2. Stop cribbing and____your work! (get on with / get over)
3. The manager wants you to____your data for this month. (hand out / hand in)
4. We're going to have to____our trip to Lakshadweep until February. (put up/ put off)
5. I ____Rounak today at the theatre. It was great to see him. (ran out of/ ran into)
6. I'm so tired of Sonu__her new phone all the time. (showing off, showing up)

7. The government will not ____ to the terrorist's demands. (give up/give in)
8. I thought I would ____ for a cup of tea. Is that okay? (drop off/ drop in)
9. Have you ever _____ such a nonchalant person? (come forward/come across)
10. It's important to _____ on time. (show up / show off)

Synonyms and Antonyms

Synonyms: are those words or expressions that have the same meaning or nearly the same meaning in the same language. For example – liberty, liberation, freedom, independence, and emancipation are all synonyms of each other.

Antonyms: are those words or expressions that have the opposite meaning. For example – the antonym of 'independence' is 'dependence'.

Synonyms and antonyms of any language not only enrich the language but also accelerate its natural flow. Using synonyms one can avoid the boring repetition of any word or expression.

Synonyms and antonyms can also enhance one's vocabulary knowledge of a language.

Synonyms and Antonyms of some words:

1. ABANDON (v) – to leave: He abandoned his wife and children.
 - a. Synonyms: abdicate, leave, quit, desert, discard.
 - b. Antonyms: chase, follow, undertake, accept.
2. ADVERSE (adj.) – unfavourable: He made some adverse comments on my proposal.
 - a. Synonyms: antagonistic, unfavourable, critical, hostile, negative, unkind, censorious.
 - b. Antonyms: favourable, propitious, appropriate, advantageous, congenial.
3. ALARMING (Adj.) – ominous: Our population is increasing at an alarming rate.
 - a. Synonyms: frightful, terrible, fearful, ominous
 - b. Antonyms: hopeful, bright, auspicious
4. ANIMOSITY (n.) – hostility: There is no animosity between them.
 - a. Synonyms: enmity, hostility, antagonism, aversion, antipathy, acrimony, grudge, resentment, vindictiveness.
 - b. Antonyms: amity, love, friendliness, sympathy, good will, sweetness, cordiality.

5. AUSPICIOUS (adj.) – propitious: Today is an auspicious day in my life.

a. Synonyms: favourable, suitable, propitious, happy, fortunate, opportune, promising, good.

b. Antonyms: unfavourable, inauspicious, hopeless, unhappy, unlucky.

6. BARREN (adj.) – unproductive: Crops do not grow in a barren land.

c. Synonyms: infertile, unproductive, sterile, bleak

d. Antonyms: fertile, productive

7. BENEFICIAL (adj.) – useful: Exercising is beneficial to health.

e. Synonyms: useful, helpful, valuable, positive.

f. Antonyms: useless, harmful, detrimental.

8. BENEVOLENT (adj.) – kind: Our teacher is a benevolent person.

g. Synonyms: generous, kind, merciful, charitable, gracious.

h. Antonyms: cruel, unkind, inhuman, malicious, selfish.

9. BONAFIDE (adj.) – real: Those who are bonafide students can enjoy the service.

i. Synonyms: genuine, real, sincere, authentic, legitimate, actual, true, valid, legal.

j. Antonyms: bogus, false, inauthentic, counterfeit.

10. BREVITY (n.) – briefness: I like the brevity of Bacon's essays.

Synonyms: shortness, conciseness, pithiness, terseness, succinctness, concision.

Antonyms: lengthiness, verbosity, grandiloquence.

11. BUOYANT (adj.) – light: Cork is a buoyant material.

Synonyms: floating, hopeful, cheerful, lively, vivacious, afloat, lighthearted, upbeat, optimistic.

Antonyms: depressed, cheerless, moody, joyless

12. CANDID (adj.) – frank: He made a candid confession.

Synonyms: frank, open, sincere, straightforward, outspoken, honest, sincere, truthful, blunt.

Antonyms: reserved, insincere, enigmatic, mysterious.

13. CAPRICIOUS (adj.) – whimsical: We should give up our capricious behaviour.

Synonyms: fickle, changeful, whimsical, fanciful, freakish, inconsistent, flexible.

Antonyms: firm, rigid, constant, inflexible.

14. COMPLACENT (adj.) – satisfied: She had a complacent smile on his face.

Synonyms: pleased, satisfied, content, happy, smug, content

Antonyms: dissatisfied, unhappy, discontented, anxious

15. CORDIAL (adj.) – hearty: He gave us a cordial reception.

Synonyms: warm, earnest, sincere, hearty, loving, genial, affable, friendly, amiable, jovial

Antonyms: cold, insincere, distant, formal, unfriendly, ceremonious

16. DELIBERATE (adj.) – willful: Deliberate mistakes should be punished.

Synonyms: intentional, willful, planned, conscious, purposeful, premeditated

Antonyms: unintentional, inadvertent, unwilling, unwitting

17. DESIRABLE (adj.) – proper: Such an act of stupidity is not desirable from you.

Synonyms: acceptable, proper, suitable, advisable

Antonyms: objectionable, undesirable, improper, evil, unadvisable

18. DILIGENT (adj.) industrious: She is very diligent.

Synonyms: active, industrious, hardworking, assiduous, attentive

Antonyms: indolent, lazy, idle, inactive

19. DISPERSE (v.) – to spread: The police dispersed the mob.

Synonyms: scatter, spread, disband, diffuse, break up, dispel, dissipate

Antonyms: gather, assemble, collect, meet, accumulate

20. ELEGANT (adj.) – graceful: She loves elegant clothes.

Synonyms: polished, refined, graceful, decent, handsome, grand, luxurious

Antonyms: coarse, rude, inelegant, ungraceful, simple, vulgar

21. ENCOURAGE (v.) – to inspire: My father always encourages me to help others.

Synonyms: incite, stimulate, urge, impel, inspire

Antonyms: prevent, discourage, dissuade, deter, dishearten

22. EPHEMERAL (ad.) – momentary: Happiness is ephemeral.

Synonyms: fugitive, momentary, transient, temporary, fleeting, evanescent, mortal

Antonyms: permanent, eternal, perpetual, immortal, perennial

23. FEEBLE (adj.) – weak: He is a man of feeble mind.

Synonyms: faint, weak, vain, frail, scanty, forceless, nerveless

Antonyms: strong, robust, active, vigorous, muscular

24. FERTILE (adj.) – productive: The land of Bangladesh is fertile.

Synonyms: productive, rich, luxuriant, prolific, fecund, conducive, lush

Antonyms: barren, sterile, ineffective, unproductive, poor, fruitless, infertile

25. FLEXIBLE (adj.) – elastic: We should have a flexible mind to cope with others.

Synonyms: pliant, supple, elastic, changeable, ductile, lithe, bendy, bendable

Antonyms: hard, rigid, inflexible, tough, inelastic

26. FRIVOLOUS (adj.) – silly: We should give up our frivolous behaviour.

Synonyms: silly, trivial, petty, worthless, trifling

Antonyms: serious, grave, earnest, important

27. GALLANT (adj.) – brave: He was a gallant soldier.

Synonyms: bold, brave, courageous, valiant, heroic, fearless, chivalrous

Antonyms: cowardly, timid, churlish, fearful

28. GORGEOUS (adj.) – grand: We had a gorgeous party last night.

Synonyms: pompous, grand, magnificent, splendid, superb, costly

Antonyms: cheap, simple, colourless, threadbare, dingy

29. GRATIFY (v) – to satisfy: His result gratifies his parents.

Synonyms: please, satisfy, gladden, reward

Antonyms: displease, disappoint, dishearten, dissatisfy, sadden

30. HAPHAZARD (adj.) – chaotic: Everything in the room was in a haphazard condition.

Synonyms: chaotic, confusing, disorderly, unsystematic, unmethodical

Antonyms: organized, systematic, planned, methodical

31. HAZARD (n.) – risk: No business is free from hazard.

Synonyms: peril, risk, danger, jeopardy

Antonyms: safety, security, protection, certainty

32. HINDER (v.) – to impede: Nothing can hinder the expression of truth.

Synonyms: retard, debar, embarrass, impede, thwart, block, prevent, interrupt, stop, obstruct

Antonyms: enable, promote, expedite, facilitate, accelerate

33. HYPOCRISY (n.) – deception: His conduct is full of hypocrisy.

Synonyms: affectation, deception, pretension, falsification, duplicity

Antonyms: honesty, sincerity, integrity, uprightness

34. IGNOBLE (adj.) – shameful: He has done an ignoble job.

Synonyms: mean, base, detestable, shameful, dishonourable,

Antonyms: exalted, lofty, grand, eminent, illustrious, brilliant, notable

35. IMPEDIMENT ((n) – obstacle: Illiteracy is the impediment to success.

Synonyms: block, hindrance, obstacle, obstruction

Antonyms: support, succour, aid, help, assistance

36. INCLEMENT (adj.) – rough: You should not go out in the inclement weather.

Synonyms: severe, rough, harsh, cruel, rigorous, awful, tyrannical

Antonyms: genial, mild, clement, merciful, benign

37. INDULGENT (adj.) – tolerant: He is an indulgent father.

Synonyms: tolerant, complaint, tender, affectionate

Antonyms: severe, harsh, rough, cruel, intolerant

38. JUDICIOUS (adj.) – wise: He took a judicious decision regarding his job.

Synonyms: wise, thoughtful, sagacious, expedient, prudent, sensible, discreet

Antonyms: indiscreet, unwise, silly, rash, foolish, inexpedient, imprudent

39. JUVENILE (adj.) – youthful: This novel is full of juvenile impulse.

Synonyms: young, youthful, childish, boyish, girlish, immature, adolescent

Antonyms: senile, mature, manly, womanly, adult, aged

40. KINDLY (adv.) – cordially: Would you kindly help me?

Synonyms: warmly, cordially, gently, generously, politely, patiently, sympathetically

Antonyms: cruelly, impolitely, harshly, rudely, mercilessly

41. KNOWLEDGEABLE (adj.) – learned: He is a very knowledgeable person.

Synonyms: educated, learned, experienced, intelligent, scholarly

Antonyms: ignorant, uneducated, unaware, foolish, stupid, inexperienced

42. LACONIC (adj.) – reticent: I like Iconic person.

Synonyms: curt, terse, epigrammatic, reticent

Antonyms: wordy, garrulous, eloquent, circumlocutory

43. LANGUID (adj.) – spiritless: I saw his languid body on the floor.

Synonyms: spiritless, exhausted, flagging, pining, drooping

Antonyms: active, strong, healthy, robust, vigorous

44. LIBERAL (adj.) – moderate: He is a liberal person.

Synonyms: copious, bountiful, catholic, bounteous, progressive, moderate, generous

Antonyms: conservative, mean, traditional, narrow-minded, bigoted,

45. LUDICRIOUS (adj.) – funny: He put me into a ludicrous situation.

Synonyms: funny, ridiculous, farcical, comic, comical, laughable

Antonyms: tragic, serious, grave, sad, doleful, mournful, somber

46. MEDIOCRE (adj.) – average: He is a mediocre student.

Synonyms: average, commonplace, medium, ordinary, second-rate, middling

Antonyms: distinctive, exceptional, extraordinary, brilliant, excellent, superior

47. MISERABLE (adj.) – wretched: He has fallen into a miserable condition.

Synonyms: wretched, despicable, abject, forlorn, pitiable, worthless, sad, intolerable

Antonyms: happy, worthy, comfortable, respectable, delightful, pleasant

48. MODESTY (n.) – politeness: Everybody is impressed by his modesty.

Synonyms: humility, purity, bashfulness, politeness, diffidence, sobriety

Antonyms: vanity, conceit, effrontery, shamelessness, wantonness

49. MUSTY (adj.) – stale: Your ideas are all musty.

Synonyms: stale, outdated, obsolete, fetid, rank, fusty, mildewed

Antonyms: balmy, fresh, odorous, fragrant, aromatic

50. NEBULOUS (adj.) – vague: There is nebulous difference between the two ideas.

Synonyms: ambiguous, cloudy, hazy, imprecise, indistinct, misty, obscure, vague

Antonyms: clear, certain, precise, distinct, bright

51. NERVOUS (adj.) – anxious: He feels nervous in the examination hall.

Synonyms: shaky, jumpy, timid, anxious, hesitant

Antonyms: brave, courageous, bold, confident, valiant, calm, cool

52. NOMINAL (adj.) – so-called: The president is the nominal head of the state.

Synonyms: so-called, symbolic, titular, trivial, insignificant

Antonyms: actual, genuine, real, important, essential, substantial

53. OBJECTIONABLE (adj.) – offensive: Your comment is highly objectionable.

Synonyms: unpleasant, unacceptable, offensive, obnoxious, disagreeable, detestable, despicable

Antonyms: pleasant, acceptable, agreeable, welcome

54. OBLIVIOUS (adj.) – forgetful: I am now oblivious of those days.

Synonyms: ignorant, negligent, unaware, careless, heedless, unconscious

Antonyms: aware, conscious, observant, mindful

55. OBSCENE (adj.) – dirty: I don't like obscene jokes.

Synonyms: bawdy, coarse, indecent, filthy, foul, gross, lewd, licentious, offensive

Antonyms: clean, decent, decorous, wholesome, pure

56. OBSOLETE (adj.) – out-date: Give up your obsolete plans.

Synonyms: old, ancient, out-dated, outmoded, outworn, old-fashioned

Antonyms: current, new, modern, up-to-date, contemporary

57. PACIFY (v.) – to appease: The mother is pacifying her crying baby.

Synonyms: calm down, soothe, appease, tranquilise, mollify, placate

Antonyms: excite, irritate, rouse, exasperate, agitate, provoke,

58. PERILOUS (adj.) – dangerous: Smoking is perilous for health.

Synonyms: dangerous, hazardous, risky, unsafe, horrible, terrible, fearful

Antonyms: secure, safe, sound, certain, comfortable

59. PERMIT (v) – allow: The teacher permits me to ask my question.

Synonyms: approve, let, allow, authorize, encourage, content, sanction

Antonyms: disallow, stop, prevent, check, forbid, prohibit

60. PERVERSE (adj.) – wayward: He leads a perverse life.

Synonyms: wick, mean, bad, untoward, stubborn, immoral, wayward, unmanageable, intractable, vicious

Antonyms: docile, ductile, amenable, governable, manageable, complacent

61. PRECIOUS (adj.) – valuable: Gold is a precious metal.

Synonyms: costly, valuable, dear, expensive, priceless, prized, loved

Antonyms: cheap, worthless, inexpensive, valueless, ordinary, base

62. QUEER (adj.) – strange: He speaks in a queer way.

Synonyms: strange, abnormal, odd, eccentric, curious, crazy, unnatural, peculiar

Antonyms: common, ordinary, usual, natural, familiar, customary, normal

63. RAPID (adj.) – quick: The rapid growth of population is a problem of our country.

Synonyms: swift, speedy, fast, prompt, hasty

Antonyms: slow, lazy, tardy, sluggish, leisurely, belated

64. REBUKE (v.) – to scold: The teacher rebuked us for make noise in the class.

Synonyms: chide, reprove, censure, reprimand, scold, admonish, reproach

Antonyms: praise, commend, admire, encourage, applaud, appreciate, eulogise

65. REDUCE (v.) – to decrease: We should reduce the speed of your car.

Synonyms: lessen, diminish, decrease, curtail, shorten, contract, weaken

Antonyms: increase, expand, enlarge, lengthen, extend, augment

66. RELISH (n.) – taste: He ate the food with great relish.

Synonyms: taste, appetite, zest, gusto, flavour

Antonyms: disrelish, disflavour, nauseousness, insipidity

67. REPEAL (v.) – to cancel: All the oppressive rules should be repealed.

Synonyms: abolish, cancel, annul, revoke, abrogate, rescind, discontinue

Antonyms: sanction, enact, continue, establish, pass, confirm

68. RUSTIC (adj.) – uncouth: You must give up your uncouth behaviour.

Synonyms: awkward, boorish, clumsy, pastoral, uncouth, uncultured, rough, rural

Antonyms: polished, refined, cultured, sophisticated, urban

69. SACRED (adj.) – holy: All religions have some sacred places.

Synonyms: holy, heavenly, religious, divine, blessed, solemn, devout, godly

Antonyms: mundane, profane, irreligious, secular, ungodly, temporal, unholy

70. SHABBY (adj.) – ragged: She was wearing a shabby dress.

Synonyms: ragged, beggarly, threadbare, dirty, paltry

Antonyms: smart, tidy, neat, clean, fashionable

71. SOLITARY (adj.) – lonely: He lives a solitary life.

Synonyms: lonely, isolated, secluded, deserted, uninhabited

Antonyms: populous, social, inhabited, well-frequented.

72. TACTFUL (adj.) – skillful: He is very tactful in dealing with students.

Synonyms: careful, diplomatic, discreet, politic, skilful, prudent

Antonyms: careless, rude, tactless, impolitic, imprudent

73. TANGIBLE (adj.) – manifest: There is no tangible evidence of his crime.

Synonyms: actual, real, definite, manifest, evident, concrete, positive, substantial, material

Antonyms: intangible, abstract, indefinite, unreal, negative, untouchable

74. TERMINATE (v.) – end: She terminates her speech with a reference from Shakespeare.

Synonyms: cease, close, complete, conclude, finish, wind up, stop

Antonyms: begin, start, commence, initiate

75. UNANIMOUS (adj.) – concerted: They reached a unanimous decision on the matter.

Synonyms: common, concerted, harmonious, joint, united

Antonyms: discordant, divided, disunited, split

76. VACATE (v.) – to leave: The police asked the people to vacate the place.

Synonyms: leave, quit, abandon, withdraw, desert, evacuate

Antonyms: occupy, capture, enter, fill, take

77. WEAKEN (v.) – to decline: The disease has weakened his body.

Synonyms: dilute, impair, paralyse, debilitate, enfeeble

Antonyms: empower, confirm, strengthen, invigorate

78. ZENITH (n.) – peak: He has reached the zenith of his fame.

Synonyms: acme, climax, height, peak, summit, top, vertex

Antonyms: nadir, bottom, depth, lowest point

I Write synonyms of the words given in the brackets:

1. A lot of crops grow in Bangladesh because her land is (fertile).
2. He is always (antagonistic) to me.
3. I do not like him because of his (audacity)
4. We cannot live without air. It is (indispensable) for us.
5. The prisoner was (released) from his charge.
6. The man was (fascinated) by the beauty of the lady.
7. It is not (feasible).
8. I like this food because it is (hygienic).
9. His (amiable) attitude charmed us.
10. We want to (eradicate) poverty from our country.
11. Today is one of the most (favourable) day of my life.
12. The mistake was not (deliberate).
13. The cuckoo has a very (dulcet) voice.

14. If you are (honest), you will prosper in life.
15. He is a (notorious) killer.

II Write antonyms of the words given in the brackets:

1. His speech is always (believable).
2. His (prudent) decision infuriated me.
3. I like her because she is (lethargic).
4. The word 'honesty' means (immortality).
5. Smoking is (beneficial) for health.
6. His misbehaviour (pleased) me.
7. His (peaceful) attitude frightened us all.
8. The lady guest very (reticent)
9. I like my friend because he is (spendthrift).
10. His wife is (infidel) to him.
11. Medicine (aggravate) diseases.

III Give antonyms of the following words and make sentences with them:

Tentative, filthy, flattery, superficial, shabby, serene, reticent, relinquish, refute, omnipotent, sanguine, eradicate, alleviate, deceptive, peril, antipathy, pacify, deteriorate, terseness, unkempt

IV Give synonyms of the following words and make sentences with them:

Durability, momentous, reveal, strange, animosity, catastrophe, diffuse, scarcity, enduring, liberal, awkward, talkative, clandestine, feasible, lucrative, delicate, vigilant, vulgar, unanimous

Commonly used Foreign Words in English

English was originally brought to what is now called Britain by Anglo-Saxon settlers from Northwest Germany, West Denmark and the Netherlands. But the language that we nowadays call English has been changed almost out of recognition by the passing of time, and even more influentially, the impact of other languages. It is estimated that words borrowed from other languages make up around 80% of the English language.

One of the reasons why English has such a huge vocabulary- estimated to be more than two million words, though not all are in current use- is that English has borrowed words from up to 350 other languages. Some of the biggest contributions come from Latin and Greek, and French- via the Norman invasion of 1066.

We easily recognise such words as café and entrepreneur as being French, but a lot of much older words are too. For example, most of the words for meat, such as beef, mutton and pork come from French, and this explains why they are so different from the words we use to describe the animals themselves.

Arabic has given the language many words that most people would not recognise as anything but English. For example, admiral, caravan and candy. And the time the British spent in India, as a colonial power, has given the language words Hindi or Urdu words such as bungalow, pyjamas, khaki and shampoo. And then there are more modern borrowings, such as anime, tsunami and rickshaw from Japanese, guerrilla and cockroach (cucaracha) from Spanish, rucksack and delicatessen from German, broccoli and graffiti from Italian and glitch and bagel from Yiddish.

Given below is a list of words in English borrowed from various languages:

1. Arabic – admiral, candy, caravan
2. German – rucksack, kindergarten, hamster
3. Hindi/Urdu – pyjamas, bungalow, khaki, shampoo, khaki
4. Italian – broccoli, graffiti, alarm, ballot
5. Japanese – anime, tsunami, rickshaw, hara-kiri, haiku, tycoon, typhoon, karaoke, ninja
6. Spanish – cockroach, guerrilla, mosquito, aficionado, siesta

IDIOMS

An idiom is an expression where the meaning is different from the meaning of the individual words. For example, to have your **feet on the ground** is an idiom meaning ‘to be sensible’ as in: “Tara is an intelligent girl who has **her feet firmly on the ground.**”

Idioms are usually formed using phrasal verbs. For example: After he left me, it took me a long time to **pick up** the pieces = It took me a long time to return to a normal life.

Many idioms are colloquial, which means that they are used in informal conversation rather than in writing or formal language.

IDIOMS	MEANING
Ahead of the curve	Ahead of current curve/trends: Ex- Rakesh is smart: he is ahead of the curve
Back to square one	Back to the beginning Ex- Since the project failed, we are back to square one.
Catch off guard	To make someone surprised Ex- The question caught her off guard.
Get the ball rolling	To start something Ex- We need to get the ball rolling on our project.
Go the extra mile	To go beyond one's expectations Ex- Our manager goes the extra mile to satisfy our customers.
Have deep pockets	To be very rich Ex- My uncle has a deep pocket.
Steal someone's thunder	To take the credit for something someone else did Ex- She stole my thunder!!!
Pinch pennies	To be frugal Ex- As I have lost my job, I need to pinch pennies.
Sweep under the rug	To hide something embarrassing Ex-The President is trying to sweep this scandal under the rug.
Hang in there	Don't give up Ex- I asked him to hang in there.
Up in arms	To protest angrily Ex- The employees were up in arms against the change in the leave rules in the company.
Let someone off the hook	To not hold someone responsible for something Ex- You are innocent. You are off the hook.

Let someone off the hook	To not hold someone responsible for something Ex- You are innocent. You are off the hook.
Once in blue moon	Something that happens very rarely Ex- I go to cinema once in blue moon.
A piece of cake	Something that is very easy Ex- The exam was a piece of cake.
You know the drill	You are familiar with something Ex- You are late and you know the drill.
Ball is in your court	It is up to you to make the decision. Ex- I have surrendered. The ball is in your court
On cloud nine	Extremely happy Ex- Team England is on cloud nine as they won the 2019 World Cup.

Beat around the bush	Avoiding speaking on something Ex- The Chairman was beating around the bush as he was not sure about the proceedings.
All and sundry	Everyone Ex- Government distributed free books to all and sundry.

Questions for Discussion:

I Choose the correct meaning of the given idiom.

1. Plain speaking

(a) Steaming hot

(b) Dreaming hot

(c) Rancour

(d) Extreme anger

2. To be at the zenith of

(a) to die in an accident

(b) To be succumbed to, one's flattery

(c) face difficulty boldly

(d) be at the peak of

3. Face the music

(a) get finished

(b) get reprimanded

(c) feel sorry

(d) listen to music

4. Bandy words with

(a) argue

(b) oratory

(c) speech enthusiast

(d) linguist acumen

5. Back up

(a) Step aside

(b) pack up

(c) support

(d) withdraw from

II Fill in the blanks with a suitable idiom given below.

sad figure, red handed, made a dash, plays fast and loose, get on my nerves

1. We _____ to the cricket stadium to see Rohit Sharma.

2. Please do not _____, I am already in a crisis.

3. An honest person never _____ with his friends.

4. She cut a _____ in her first performance on the stage.

5. The thief was caught _____.

Collocations

A familiar grouping of words which appears together because of their habitual use and thus creating the same meaning is called collocation. Suppose, when we say heavy rain instead of big or strong rain, it conveys the meaning that it is raining heavily.

Although in the above example strong rain or the big rain conveys the same meaning. In fact, both of them are also grammatically correct. But, the use of big rain or strong rain will sound strange. Thus, we use heavy rain to sound natural and a lot better English.

Similarly, there are many such examples where we use a particular set of groups of words to sound naturally correct. A group of words that are expected to be together can also be defined as collocations. Some more examples of collocations are to do homework, to make the bed, to take a risk, etc.

Besides the reasons mentioned above, there are reasons as well for using collocations. These are:

- Making the use of the English language natural and interesting
- As it follows a particular order, it helps in adhering to pre-decided and a proper structure of the English language
- Helps in beautifying the language
- Make better use of words or group of words by presenting it in better form
- It enhances the use of language and thereby comparatively leads to innovation of the English language

Types of Collocations

There are several different types of collocation made from various combinations of a verb, noun, adjective, etc in the English language. Some of the most common types are:

- **adverb + adjective:** completely satisfied
- **adjective + noun:** excruciating pain
- **noun + noun:** a surge of anger
- **noun + verb:** lions roar
- **verb + noun:** commit suicide
- **verb + expression with a preposition by its side:** burst into tears
- **verb + adverb:** wave frantically

Verb Collocations

The collocations which are used extensively tend to involve verb + noun formation in the day to day situations. Here are some of the examples of these words for you to understand them better. In each of these examples the verb has other meanings as well, but combining it with the words will result in a group of words.

- To save time

Adjective Collocations

Many collocations can be formed when you add adjectives with noun and adverbs. Here are a few examples of how you can make collocations using a single adjective.

- Deep: Deep feeling, deep pockets, deep sleep, deep trouble.
- Heavy: Heavy rain, heavy sleeper, a heavy drinker, heavy snow, heavy traffic.
- Strong: Strong smell, strong sense, strong denial.

Noun Collocations

In this type of collocations, you can use a verb as well as a noun to form the group of words. Service industry, tea leaf, dogs bark, water flows, paper flutters, blurred vision, critical analysis.

Business Collocations

Mostly, the use of collocations is critical in various types of businesses and work situations. Here, there are numerous ways in which you can form a collocation using verbs, nouns, adjectives, and adverbs. They can be combined with keywords and a business expression can be formed. Some of the important business collocations are:

Security blanket	Cash flow
Opinion poll	Make money

Forgive a debt	Counterfeit money
Key in a PIN	Annual turnover
GO bankrupt	Cease to trade
Hard-earned money	Deposit a check
Close a deal	Open an account

Here are some more examples of common English collocations:

adverb + adjective

Absurdly easy

Fully aware

Painfully slow

Widely believed

Utterly appalled

adjective + noun

Deep sleep

Low/high cost

Maiden voyage

Rich history

Strong coffee

noun + noun

Bar of soap

Business English

Round of applause
Surge of energy

Trade agreement

**noun +
verb**

Cats purr
Dogs bark
Engines roar
Snakes hiss
Snow falls

verb + noun

Break a leg
Get the message
Give a speech
Keep a secret

**verb + expression
with preposition**

Burst into tears
Filled with awe
Roped into helping
Put off the decision

verb + adverb

Act rashly
Clean thoroughly
Criticize harshly
Speak loudly

Make the bed

Run out of time

Walk softly

Questions for Discussion:

A) Each sentence given below contains an incomplete collocation. Complete the collocation by supplying a suitable word. Choose your answers from the options given below each question.

1. My neighbour was a smoker, so few people were surprised when he died of oral cancer.

a) serial

b) heavy

c) big

2. She was a / an wife who loved her husband more than anything else in the whole universe.

a) devoted

b) sincere

c) intelligent

3. It is a golden If you miss it, you will regret it.

a) chance

b) opportunity

c) offer

4. She seemed quite interested in buying that house, but at the last moment, she changed her

a) mind

b) thoughts

c) offer

5. Although I was annoyed by her attitude, I said nothing.

a) moderately

b) lightly

c) slightly

6. To grow, you need to step out of your zone.

a) comfortable

b) test

c) comfortable

7. After all those years of being a travelling salesman, he was now looking for a job.

a) good

b) desk

c) cash

8. You areaware of the consequences of being unvaccinated. Don't pretend to beunaware.

a) somewhat aware, shyly

b) fully, blissfully

c) partially, horribly

9. It was long, perfect, and beautiful.

a)absurdly, alarmingly, ridiculously

b)alarmingly, absurdly, ridiculously

c) ridiculously, absurdly, alarmingly

10. Given how different they are, it is highly..... that they are married.

a) unlikely, happily

b) mountain, actually

c) probably, wedding

B) Match the following words to form popular collocations. Then use them in sentences to bring out their meaning.

Security	Recommend
Actively	Business
Getting	To terms
Break	Old / late
Highly	Cow
Do	Time
Come	A leg
Nice	Involved
Deeply	Blanket
Cash	Competitive

Homonyms

Homonyms are the words that share the same spelling and pronunciation but have different meanings.

Examples:

Lie (untruth)

Lie (sleep/ lie down)

Fair (reasonable)

Fair (village festival/ complexion)

Answer the following:

I. Frame two sentences using the following homonyms to show the difference in meanings:

- | | |
|-----------|-----------|
| 1. Bear | 7. Right |
| 2. Bank | 8. Close |
| 3. Board | 9. Light |
| 4. Desert | 10. Lift |
| 5. Bow | 11. Coach |
| 6. Left | 12. Train |

Homophones

Homophones are a type of homonyms that are pronounced alike but have different meanings and have different spellings.

Example:

- Stationary: (Stood in one place)
- Stationery: (Writing tools)

- Bare: (Naked)
- Bear: (Endure/ Wild animal)

Answer the following:

I Fill in the blanks with the appropriate words given in the brackets:

1. The doctor gives right _____ (advice/ advise) to the patient.
2. The young prince was the next _____ (air/heir) of the conquered kingdom.
3. The _____ (aisle / isle) in the crowded hall was narrow to walk through.
4. God was placed on high _____ (altar / alter).
5. A _____ of robbers were _____ from entering the village. (band/banned)
6. The cracks in the _____ were completely renovated by _____ it with cement.
(sealing/ ceiling)
7. The boy had to _____ the poem; in the open _____ though he did not have _____.
(site / sight/cite)
8. The _____ cloth became the subject of the _____ for the fashion designing students. (coarse / course)
9. They lost the _____ in the river but managed to reach the mining _____. (ores/ oars)
10. The mountaineers just had a _____ of the mountain _____. (peek /peak)

II Frame sentences using the following homophones so as to bring out the difference between them.

1. Fourth and Forth
2. Cell and Sell
3. Feat and Feet
4. Lessen and Lesson
5. Loan and Lone
6. Rap and Wrap
7. Scene and Scene
8. Soar and Sore
9. Waist and Waste
10. Toe and Tow

III Fill in the blanks with the suitable words given in the brackets:

1. The _____ of a snow-clad mountain is exciting.

A. site B. cite C. sight D. none of these

2. I _____ him very well.

A. now B. no C. know D. none

3. His legal _____ is Sheela.

A. heir B. hare C. hair D. here

4. Naipaul was _____ by the English King.

A. nighted B. nighed C. knighted D. knitted

5. The king died _____.

A. hareless B. heirless C. hairless D. a hierer

Question Paper Pattern

I Answer any five of the following: (5x2=10)

(7 questions to be given from Unit 1)

II Write the phonetic symbol and three-term-label for the initial in the following words. (3x1=3)

III. From the words given below identify the ones that have a CVC structure.

(Any structure can be given) (2x1=2)

IV. Indicate the syllable division in the following words. (3x1=3)

V. Indicate the word stress (2x1=2)

VI Paragraph writing 5

VII. Summarizing 5

VIII. Dialogue 5

IX. Profile/Resume 5

X. Email 10

XI. Vocabulary

Synonyms 2

Antonyms 2

Homonyms/ Homophones 2

Idioms and Phrases	2
Collocation	2

Model Question Paper

Time: 2 ½ hrs

Max Marks: 60

Instructions: Read all the questions carefully.

All questions are compulsory.

Mark the question numbers properly.

I. Answer any five of the following: (5x2=10)

1. Voiceless sounds are also called _____
2. How are sounds produced?
3. What remains closed during the production of sounds?
4. How are voiced sounds produced?
5. What is alveolar?
6. What are fricatives?
7. What are diphthongs?

II. Write the three-term-label for the following consonant sounds. (3x1=3)

1. / m/ _____
2. /ð/ _____
3. / k/ _____

III. From the words given below identify the ones that have a CVC structure. (2x1=2)

1. Boys
2. Phone
3. Letter
4. Allow

IV. Indicate the syllable division in the following words. (3x1=3)

1. Barbaric
2. Understanding
3. Agriculture

V. Indicate the word stress. (2x1=2)

1. Increase

2. Progress

VI. Write a persuasive paragraph of about 100 words on the importance of physical activity among youngsters. (5)

VII. Summarize the following passage. (5)

School and life

In my experience the problem of what to do in life was not made any easier by those who were entrusted with my education. Looking back, it seems most odd that never once in all the years that I was at school was there any general discussion about careers. As presumably the main object of going to school is to prepare for after life, it surely would have been very easy and relevant to organise lectures or discussions designed to give boys a broad view of the enormous variety of occupations open to men of average intelligence? Of course many boys were destined from birth to follow their fathers' careers, but even these would have benefited by glimpse of a wider horizon. Often and often in after life I have come across people doing jobs that I had never dreamed of before, and which would have thrilled me had I been told about them at school. I suppose the reason for this extra-ordinary omission is that so many schoolmasters had themselves such a restricted view. Spending all their time working to a rigid curriculum, the passing of examinations by their pupils gradually became the whole object of their working life. I recognize the importance of being made to learn things that one does not like, but surely it was not good to give the young mind the impression that all education was a form of mental gymnastics. For example, I used to find geometry rather fun, and, when I still had the naïve idea that what I was being taught might have some practical value, I asked what geometry was for. The only answer I ever got was that it taught one how to solve problems. If, instead, I had been told the simple fact that the word was derived from the Greek *ge*, the earth, and *metron*, a measure, and that the meaningless triangles that I was asked to juggle with formed the basis of geographical exploration, astronomy and navigation, the subject would immediately have assumed a thrilling romance, and, what is more, it would have been directly connected in my mind with the things that most appealed to me.

My experience in this connection may have been unfortunate, but it was by no means unique; many of my friends who went to different schools confess to a similar experience, and complain that when they had completed their school education they had not the remotest idea of what they wanted to do. Moreover I do not think that this curiously detached attitude towards education was confined to schools. It had been intended that I should go to one of the great universities. I was tepid about the idea myself, for I had developed a dislike for the very thought of educational establishments. However, the prospect of three extra seasons in the Alps was a considerable incentive, and by dint of an enormous mental effort I succeeded in cramming sufficient Latin into my head to pass (at my second attempt) the necessary entrance examination. In due course I went to be interviewed by the master of my prospective college. When I was asked what subject I propose to take when I came up to the university, I replied, somewhat diffidently, that I wanted to take Geology - diffidently, because I still regarded such things as having no reality in the hard world of work. The answer to my suggestion confirmed my fears. 'What on earth do you want to do with Geology? There is no opening there unless you eventually get a first and become a lecturer in the subject.' A first, a lecturer - I, who could not even learn a couple of books of Horace by heart! I felt that I was being laughed at. In fact I am sure I was not, and that my adviser was quite sincere and only trying to be helpful, but I certainly did not feel like arguing the matter. I listened meekly to suggestions that I should take Classics or Law, and left the room in a state of profound depression. 'Oh Lord,' I thought, 'even here I won't be able to escape from Kennedy's Latin Primer,' with which I had been struggling for ten years.

VIII. Develop a minimum of 10 dialogues for the given situation. (5)

Conversation between two friends, who are planning a trip.

IX. Write a brief profile using the details given below: (5)

Name: S Radhakrishnan.

Birth: 5 September, 1888, Thiruttani

Profession: Philosopher, Professor.

Education: Madras Christian College

Spouse: Shivakamu

Achievements: First Vice President and Second President of Independent India.

Awards: Bharat Ratna, Templeton Prize, Order of Merit

Died: 17 April, 1975 in Chennai.

X. You are a former student of Prof. Madhukar. Write an **email** to Prof. Smitha thanking him for his guidance that contributed to your overall development. **(10)**

XI. Do as directed.

i. Write synonyms for the following: **(2)**

- a. Auspicious
- b. Brevity

ii. Write antonyms for the following **(2)**

- a. Barren
- b. Candid

iii. Frame sentences using the following homophones so as to bring out the difference between them. **(2)**

- a. Rap and Wrap
- b. Waist and Waste

iv. Choose the correct meaning of the given idioms. **(2)**

- a. Face the music
 - (i) get finished
 - (ii) get reprimanded
 - (iii) feel sorry
 - (iv) listen to music
- b. Bandy words with
 - (i) argue
 - (ii) oratory
 - (iii) speech enthusiast
 - (iv) linguist acumen

v. Complete the collocation by supplying a suitable word. Choose your answers from the options given below each question. **(2)**

- a. My neighbour was a smoker, so few people were surprised when he died of oral cancer.
 - Serial
 - Heavy
 - Big
- b. Although I was annoyed by her attitude, I said nothing.
 - moderately
 - lightly
 - slightly

Practical Component

Practical Record

Listening Comprehension	10
Transcription	5
Reading Comprehension	10

Model Question Paper for Practicals

Max Marks: 25

Time: 2 Hrs

Instructions:

- Read through the question paper
- Listen to the audio clips
- Each audio clip will be played twice
- Answer all the questions

I. Listen to the audio track and answer the questions.

(5)

1. Does Chris like his job?
2. What is Karen's job?
3. Why was Karen sad?
4. Where was the boss when Chris arrived?
5. Why was the dog in the office?

II. Listen to the audio clip and fill in the blanks.

(5)

Barbara couldn't take it ____1____. Her upstairs neighbor was blasting his stereo again. She had asked him ____2____ already to turn the volume down. The first time she asked, he was surprised. He said he didn't know that she could hear his stereo.

"Yes," she said. "It's just like your stereo was in my living room. I can hear every ____3____!" He said he would keep it down. She hoped that he was telling the ____4____. Of course, he wasn't. The very next day, he blasted his stereo. She ____5____ upstairs to remind him of his promise. He said the volume was so low that he

_____6_____could barely hear it. She asked him to turn it lower. He said he would try. Barbara could _____7_____ that when she re-entered her apartment, the music was louder than when she had walked upstairs. So, this was the third time. She took her baseball _____8_____ upstairs with her. She knocked very loudly on his door. When he opened the door, she screamed at him like a crazy person. She told him she would kill him if he didn't turn the music down and keep it down. His eyes got _____9_____. She went back downstairs. She couldn't hear a note. I can't believe I said that, she told _____10_____.

II. Transcribe the following words:

(5)

- a) Laughed
- b) Examination
- c) Park
- d) Traffic
- e) Provident
- f) Bushes
- g) Talked
- h) Transcribe
- i) Book
- j) Beautiful

III Read the following passage and answer the questions given below it:

5

It was in Germany and France that the first successful attempts were made to produce an internal combustion engine driven by petrol. In England people were strangely timid about horseless vehicles. English inventors were handicapped by a quaint old law that forbade any such vehicle to attain a greater speed than four miles an hour, and compelled each one to be preceded by a man carrying a red flag. This law was not repealed until 1896.

The earliest motor cars were looked upon as mere jokes, or as rather dangerous playthings, by everyone except their inventors. Some of them were single-seaters, others would carry two or even three people; but all were noisy, clumsy, queer-looking things. When in 1888, Carl Benz, a German, produced a three wheeled, internal-combustion car, a great forward stride had been made. Another German, whose name, Damber is often seen on motor cars to this day, was experimenting about the same time, and testing a petrol driven engine.

It is easy to understand how the introduction of the petrol-driven engine revolutionized road transport throughout the world. Until then the necessary power to push a vehicle along could not be obtained without the cumbersome tanks, boilers and furnaces of the steam engine. The internal-combustion engine is light in weight and small in size by comparison; the fuel is burned in it, so that there is no waste, like the dusty cinder a coal fire.

Questions

1. How did most people regard early motor cars?
 - a) Not better than horse-driven vehicles
 - b) A mere joke, or as rather dangerous playthings.
 - c) A mere scientific experiment

- d) A cumbersome vehicle
2. What were all early motor cars?
 - a) A plaything or toy
 - b) A vehicle better than horse-driven vehicle
 - c) Noisy, clumsy, queer-looking things
 - d) Dangerous and risky
 3. What made the English inventors handicapped?
 - a) The general public did not welcome the invention
 - b) The quaint old law that forbade any such vehicle to attain a greater speed than four miles/hour
 - c) Non-availability of adequate fuel to power the engine
 - d) None of these
 4. What does 'repealed' mean?

a) repeated	b) abolished
c) contradicted	d) enforced
 5. Which among the following words is as closely opposite to 'clumsy'?

a) unhandy	b) refined
c) unusually large	d) unusual
 6. What is incorrect about the internal combustion engine?
 - a) fuel burnt in it as waste
 - b) light in weight
 - c) noisy and clumsy
 - d) small in size

IV Read the passage carefully and choose the best answer to each question out of the four alternatives.

In the world today we make health an end in itself. We have forgotten that health is really a means to enable a person to do his work and do it well. A lot of modern medicine – and this includes many patients as well as many physicians – pays very little attention to health but very much attention to those who imagine that they are ill. Our great concern with health is shown by the medical columns in newspapers, the healthy articles in popular magazines, and the popularity of the television programmes and all those books on medicine. We talk about health all the time. Yet, for the most part, the only result is more people with imaginary illnesses. The health man should not be wasting any time talking about health; he should be using health for work: he does the work that good health makes possible.

1. Modern medicine is primarily concerned with

- (a) promotion of good health.
- (b) people suffering from imaginary illnesses.
- (c) people suffering from real illness.
- (d) increased efficiency in work.

2. A health man should be concerned with

- (a) his work which good health makes possible
- (b) looking after his health.

- (c) his health which makes work possible.
- (d) talking about health.

3. Talking about health all the time makes people

- (a) always suffer from imaginary illnesses.
- (b) sometimes suffer from imaginary illnesses.
- (c) rarely suffer from imaginary illness.
- (d) often suffer from imaginary illnesses.

4. The passage suggests that

- (a) health is an end itself.
- (b) health is a blessing.
- (c) health is only a means to an end.
- (d) we should not talk about health.

5. The passage tells us

- (a) how medicines should be manufactured.
- (b) what a healthy man should or should not do?
- (c) what the television programmes should be about?
- (d) how best to imagine illness?

