

# English Communication Skills

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**LECTURE NOTES**

**DEVELOPED BY**

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# Syllabus

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- 1.1 the importance of communication through English at the present time
- 1.2 the process of communication and factors that influence communication : sender, receiver, channel, code, topic, message, context, feedback, 'noise', filters and barriers
- 1.3 the importance of audience and purpose
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- 1.5 verbal and non-verbal communication : body language
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## **Module 1**

# The Elements of Communication

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## Etymology:

The word communication is derived from the latin word 'communicare' meaning 'to share, to impart or to commune', it's literal meaning is 'sharing of information'.

*'Communication is any behaviour that results in an exchange of meaning.'* (American Management Association)

## What is communication?

Communication is a dynamic interactive process that involves effective transmission of facts, ideas, thoughts and etc. Communication is interactive as it requires both the sender and the receiver. Moreover, the word 'process' suggests that communication exists as a flow through a series of steps. 'Meaning' is central to communication, and transmission of meaning the central objective of communication. It begins with the sender sending out message cues, which are perceived by the receiver and responds to them accordingly. Communication is not complete unless the message is decoded and understood by the receiver and the feedback provided is in coherence with the message sent. Communication is symbolic as it involves not only words but also symbols and gestures.

In simple, we can describe communication as 'a multidimensional interactive process of sharing common sets of signs, symbols and language between two or more persons so that suitable response results.'

Without communication, social interaction may not be possible as human interaction is essentially communicative interaction. It is important in our relationships be it personal or professional, it plays a key role in our lives.

## Communication as skill

Communication is an activity – something that we do. When we communicate, we have to perform various 'tasks', some of which are fairly simple. For example, when a child in a kindergarten class has to inform the teacher of its need to visit the bathroom, all that it has to do is to hold up the little finger of one hand. Most children are able to do this quite easily. It is less easy, however, to persuade someone to part with money. The successful performance of this task requires a great deal of skill.

## How skills are acquired?

A 'skill' is defined as the ability to perform a task. Every human being is called upon to perform a number of routine tasks everyday. Some are simple but others require special skills. A few skills are 'inborn' – that is, human beings are born with the ability to perform certain activities ; but most skills have to be learnt or acquired. For example, human babies, unlike ducklings, are not born with the natural ability to swim ; they have to learn the skills of swimming.

Let's discuss the various **factors that make communication indispensable in the business world:**

Growth: In a world which is forever expanding, multinational companies need to have a head office with branch offices in various parts of the world. A thorough and updated knowledge of the activities of the branch offices helps the organisation to grow better and ensure smooth functioning.

Complexity: In an era of specialisation a single organisation deals with different activities like planning, production, sales, stores, advertising, financing, accounts, welfare, etc. If these departments do not

communicate with one another as well as the management, then there would not be any coordination among them. As a matter of fact if the various departments of an organisation go hand in hand the organisation can achieve better growth.

Competitiveness: Effective communication again plays a vital role in increasing the sales of a product in the market. In an era of consumerism, where a number of products compete for the same market space, what differentiates one product from another similar product is the attitude shown by a salesperson while dealing with customers. Even advertisements require a good deal of communication. Eg. Airtel friends

Harmony: Trade unions and the management of any organisation share a delicate relationship, where deficit in trust leads to trouble. Without proper communication the harmony between both the sides may be broken leading to wide scale damage. Eg. The mayhem at Maneswar Maruti Suzuki Plant, where the management was badly manhandled by the trade union, even leading to death of a senior manager.

Understanding and Cooperation: Effective management and communication skills help establish a cordial relationship between the employees and the employer. Only when employees know what is expected of them can the management utilize their potentials and make up for their limitations. This ultimately leads to job satisfaction which helps the organisation to grow.

Leadership: What is the role of a leader? A leader is expected to represent his/her followers and motivate them to reach heights of success through individual and collective effort. Communication is the best equipment a leader can employ to achieve this goal. Even ideals resting upon strong principles can fall flat and fail to motivate due to lack of effective communication skills. History is full with examples of many national leaders who have moved the masses by their life-changing speeches and powerful writings. Mahatma Gandhi and Subhas Chandra Bose are prominent examples of outstanding leadership through effective communication.

# Principles of Communication

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There are some principles of communication which act as guidelines to communication

## **Principle 1: Communication is transactional because it involves an exchange.**

If I go to the store to get a coke, I exchange money to the cashier for the coke. I give something and get something in return. Communication is the same... you have to give and receive for communication to happen.

## **Principle 2: Communication is complex for several reasons.**

It is interactive because many processes are involved.

It is symbolic because symbols are open to interpretation.

It is personal & cultural because a person's culture can add a new or different meaning to a phrase or gesture.

It is irreversible because once a message is sent, it cannot be taken back.

It is circular because it involves both original messages and feedback which is necessary to confirm communication.

It is purposeful because there is always a reason behind a message and it helps meet our needs.

It is impossible to duplicate because each interaction is unique.

## **Principle 3: Communication is unavoidable because it is impossible to not communicate.**

You are communicating constantly even when you do not intend to communicate. You communicate by the way you sit or move, by the way you speak, by what you wear, by your actions.... Even when you sleep in class, you're communicating that you are bored or that you don't care.

## **Principle 4: Communication is continuous because it continues to impact and influence future interactions and shape our relationships.**

Have you ever gotten off to a wrong start with someone? Has it taken a lot of time to perhaps overcome someone's negative opinion of you?

Has someone ever said something to you that hurt your feelings and you've always remembered it and think about it when you see that person

## **Principle 5: Communication skills can be learned because they can always be improved.**

You may need to work on speaking skills, written communication, listening, relationship skills... there's always room for improvement

## **Principle 6: Communication should be positive.**

The basis function of all communication is to build bridges between people therefore it should be a positive activity. Sometimes we also communicate messages to others which are unpleasant or painful, we should try to communicate them in as painless a manner as possible, showing respect for the feelings of the receiver.

### **Principle 7: Communication should have short- term as well as long-term goals.**

A salesperson in a company, for example may or may not be able to ‘talk’ a prospective client into the buying a product, but if he/she has been able to communicate effectively, he should have won a friend for the company.

### **Principle 8: Communication should be strategized and not left entirely to chance.**

A good communicator is seldom caught unprepared. Depending on the kind of profession or occupation communication to some extent is predictable if not in details at least in broad outlines. Example a computer salesman can make fairly predictions about the kinds of questions or situation he is suppose to meet.

Thus to be an effective communicator, one should be able to ‘think on your feet’ reading every change in a situation intelligently and sensitively. Good communication doesn’t happen ;it is made to happen.

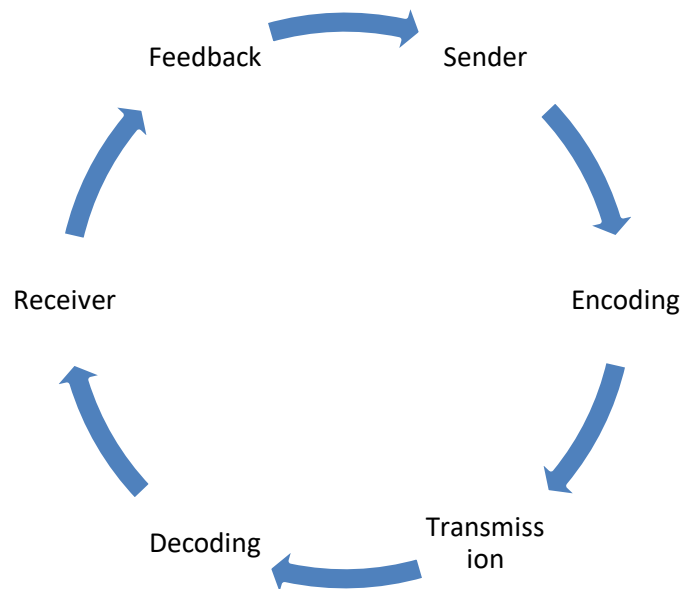
### **Characteristics of Good Communication:**

1. **Clarity:** the beginning of all communication is some message. The message must be as clear as possible. No ambiguity should creep into it. The message can be conveyed properly only if it has been clearly formulated in the mind of the communicator.
2. **Objective:** the communicator must know clearly the purpose of communication before actually transmitting the message. The objective may be to obtain information, give information, initiate action, and change another person’s attitude and so on. If the purpose of communication is clear it will help in the choice of mode of communication.
3. **Understand the Receiver:** understanding is the main aim of any communication. The communication must create proper understanding in the mind of the receiver. Picture the place of work; determine the receptivity and understanding levels of the receivers; be aware of social climate and customs; question the information’s timeliness. Ask what, when and in what manner you would like to be communicated with if you were in the similar environment and position.
4. **Consistent:** the message to be communicated should be consistent with plans, policies, programmes and goals of the enterprise. The message should not be conflicting with previous communications. It should not create confusion and chaos in the organization.
5. **Complete:** the message to be communicated must be adequate and complete; otherwise it will be misunderstood by the receiver. Inadequate communication delayed action, poor public relations affects the efficiency of the parties to communication.
6. **Feedback:** this principle calls for communication a two-way process and providing opportunity for suggestion and criticism. Since the receiver is to accept and carry out the instructions, his reactions must be known to the sender of message. The latter must consider the suggestion and criticism of the receiver of information. But feedback principle is often given a back seat by most managers, which defeats the very purpose of communication.
7. **Time:** information should be communicated at the right time. The communicator must consider the timing of communication so that the desired response is created in the minds of the receivers.

# Stages of Communication

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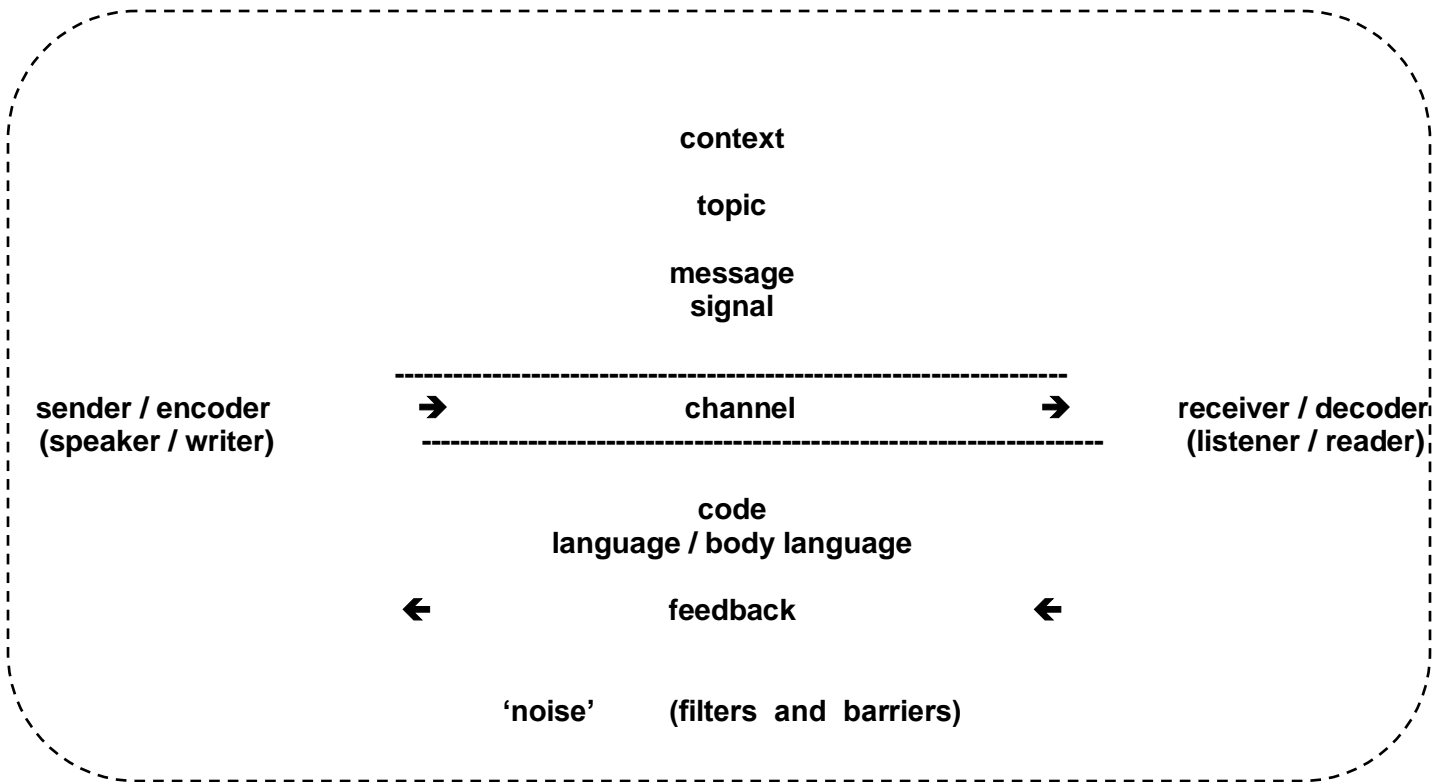
The process of Communication consists of five stages, namely,



- a. **Ideation:** The process of communication begins with ideation, it refers to the formation of ideas or selection of the message to be conveyed or communicated. It consists of 'what' of communication and is concerned with the content of the message. The scope of ideation is determined by the sender's knowledge, experience and abilities.
- b. **Encoding:** It is the process of changing the information into some form of logical and coded message. In a formal situation encoding involves, selecting a language for communication as verbal messages need a common language code. If the receiver is not able to understand the message then communication will fail. It also involves selecting the right medium of communication from the three available options - speaking, writing and non-verbal signs and symbols. It also deals with selecting the appropriate communication form.
- c. **Transmission:** it refers to the flow of message over the chosen channel. It is one of the most basic aspects of communication because it also involves choosing the proper time (when to communicate), proper place (where to communicate) and a proper way (how to communicate). It is essential, for communication to be successful that the right time, right place and right method is chosen.
- d. **Decoding:** is the process of converting the received code into message. It involves interpretation and analysis of the message. In written communication it refers to reading and understanding. It is important for communication to be effective as improper decoding would lead to misinterpretation of message thus leading to confusion and misunderstanding.
- e. **Response:** also known as feedback, it is the last stage of the communication process. It is the reaction of the receiver to the message. It helps the sender to know if the receiver has understood the message correctly or not. Feedback can be both verbal and non-verbal. No communication is complete until feedback is received.

# Process of Communication:

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Factors Influencing the process of Communication

**Sender:** The individual who initiates or starts the process of communication is known as the sender. He is the one who sends a piece of information and waits for a response. He is not the focus of the communication process. He has to keep in mind the background of the receiver if he wants communication to be successful.

**Receiver:** The focus of the communication process is receiver. The process of communication is designed to elicit a response from him.

**Code:** No communication is possible unless there is some code through which information can be conveyed and which is understood by both the sender and the receiver. Hence, code is a set of verbal and non-verbal signs and symbols which are understood by both the sender and the receiver.

**Message:** The core idea that has to be conveyed is known as message. It consists of both verbal (written & spoken) symbols and non-verbal (unspoken) symbols. There are two kinds of messages – logical (consisting of factual information) and emotional (consisting of feelings and emotions).

**Signal:** The term signal is sometimes used to refer to non-verbal messages mostly in form of gestures, facial expressions etc. Each signal generally communicates a simple meaning and is fixed in form.

**Topic:** Communication is usually about something- some event, action, object etc. that exists in the environment and has to be talked or written about. This is called topic; it is also called as the reference. The topic is connected to either the sender or the receiver.

**Context:** The term context refers to the total setting in which communication takes place, including the time, the place, the sender, the receiver and etc. Communication is heavily dependent on context and spoken communication is much more 'context-dependent than written communication. One must remember that unless a person is sensitive to context, one cannot communicate successfully.

**Feedback:** is the reverse flow of communication i.e. from the receiver to the sender. It is an essential part of communication as it is only after feedback has been received that the process of communication can be said to be complete.

**Noise:** Anything that hinders or obstructs communication is referred to as noise. Generally, the distortion is in the form of sound, but it also includes various other non-sound distortions like filters as well as barriers, whether psychological, cultural or linguistic.

**Filters:** In the process of communication filters refer to our personal experiences and view of the world that affect the interpretation of the message and distorts it or some part of it. They can be psychological as well as cultural. Moreover, each message has to pass through two sets of filter - the sender sees it through a different filter and the receiver sees it through a different set.

**Barrier:** A filter can sometimes be so powerful that it 'blocks' or prevents communication altogether. The filter then turns into a barrier.

**Information Loss:** Due to the presence of filters, the message sent by the sender is sometimes distorted. Sometimes during the process of communication the message sent by the sender is lost resulting in 'information loss' and invariably leading the receiver to 'add' or 'interpolate' some information which was not present in the original message.

**Interpersonal Communication:** The communication process happening between two or more people is known as interpersonal communication.

**Intrapersonal Communication:** the communication happening within one's self like thinking and etc.

# Channels of Communication:

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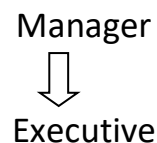
The means used to convey the message is known as channels of communication. It can be both informal and formal. Informal channels transmit official news through informal and unofficial ways. These unofficial communicative interactions are also known as 'grapevine'. These channels are not very reliable but do act as a safety valve vent out emotions among employees/ colleagues or friends.

## Formal Channels of Communication:

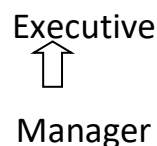
A formal communication channel is reliable, the following are four different channels of communication that are used within an organisation,

- a. **Downward Communication:** Downward communication flows from executives to employees, sharing executive decisions providing information that helps employees do their jobs. It is more than passing on information to subordinates. It may involve effectively managing the tone of the message, as well as showing skill in delegation to ensure the job is done effectively by the right person.

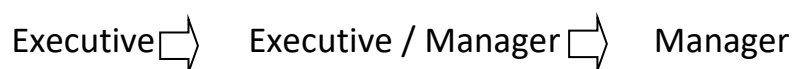
A few examples of this flow can be Annual Confidential reports, Performance Appraisals, Announcement of Company Policies, official instructions and so on. The downward communication can take place through various forms like notes, notices, memos, telephonic conversations, voicemails and face to face conversations..



- b. **Upward Communication:** Upward communication flows from employees to executives, providing accurate, timely reports on problems, trends, opportunities, grievances and performance. Thus allowing executives to solve problems and make intelligent decisions. Business Reports, Business Proposals, Suggestion Box, Exit Interviews and Grievance Committees are some of the examples upward communication. It promotes better working relationships and facilitates employee involvement in the decision making process.



- c. **Horizontal Communication:** Horizontal/Lateral communication involves communication among persons who do not stand in hierarchical relation to one another. Horizontal/ Lateral communication flows between departments to help employees share information and coordinate tasks. Such communication is especially useful for solving complex and difficult problems because it takes place between the **Professional Peer groups**. It plays a vital role in developing teamwork and promoting group coordination. Informal discussions, Management Gossip, Telephone Calls, Teleconferencing, Videoconferencing, Memos and Routine Meetings may be considered some of the forms/ media of communication.



Besides these flows there is one more flow called the diagonal flow of communication which is the outcome of the changing trends in the business world. The emergence of large size organisations, growth of trade unions, the human relations aspect, technological advancement and development of behavioral sciences has led to the inevitability of **Diagonal Communication**.

- d. **Diagonal Communication:** It refers to communication between managers and workers located in different functional divisions. Although both vertical and horizontal communication continue to be important, these terms no longer adequately capture communication needs and flows in most modern organizations. The concept of diagonal communication was introduced to capture the new communication challenges associated with new organizational forms, such as matrix and project-based organizations. It is a product of modern changes in information technology and management and also the result of growing realisation of fraternity and equality in the corporate sector. Basically it is a response to the market needs that demand speed and efficiency. Diagonal communication doesn't follow rigid norms of communication protocol.

### Informal Channels of Communication:

Grapevine communication is the informal communication network within an organization.

The grapevine is used to spread information bypassing the formal communication structure. Just like the grapevine plant: it spreads in random ways and it goes where it can.

The grapevine is formed by individuals and groups in an organization. The people in the groups have something in common that links them together.

### **Disadvantages of Grapevine Communication**

There are some intrinsic dangers in bypassing the organizational channels to get to the facts of the matter. The main danger is that much of the information that gets spread through the grapevine is **not verified**. Some of the information is likely false and difficult, if not impossible, to verify.

We discount information when the source is a known gossip. Even when the source is someone known to spread rumors, we believe that where there's smoke... Since we don't know what part is fire and which smoke, we accept the whole rumour. To justify our participation in spreading the rumour, we tell ourselves that part of it must be true.

The main reason why we **give credence to a rumour** is that it seems to match what we think about the situation or person that the rumour is about. We also tend to believe the person sharing the rumour with us.

Another main disadvantage of grapevine communication is that it's often used to spread more than rumours; it's used to **spread gossip**.

The terms rumours and gossip are used sometimes interchangeably, but **rumours are not quite the same as gossip**. Both are pieces of information that can't be verified, but rumours tend to affect organizations or groups of people, while gossip refers to more personal matters.

When gossip is being spread through the grapevine, people's reputations, careers, and **lives can get destroyed** very rapidly.

Despite its disadvantages, the grapevine can serve a purpose.

### **Advantages of Grapevine Communication**

Grapevine communication **creates a social bond** where none existed. People like to talk to one another; whether they talk about work or family, or anything. Teams become more cohesive when members talk to one another outside of the project or assignment they may be working on. Informal communication lends itself to bonding.

The grapevine **fills in a gap** that is left when official information is missing, especially in chaotic or changing times. Even in organizations where management is very proactive about communicating change and keeping employees informed, the grapevine helps to fill in the blanks.

The grapevine in many ways **helps keep people honest**; it can dissuade people from engaging on behavior that they don't want others to know about. This is a two edge sword. On one hand, people will think twice about taking what they know is a wrong course of action. On the other hand, they may also think twice about taking a necessary risk and doing the right thing, fearful that appearance may give rise to rumors.

### **Bottom Line**

**“Grapevine communication is part of the workplace, it can't be eliminated. Recognizing its pros and cons can help you use it to your advantage.”**

# Importance of Audience & Purpose

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**Purpose:** People communicate to express themselves and this reason for communication is known as 'purpose'. The effectiveness of communication depends to a large extent on its purposefulness. Communication which lacks a clear purpose is 'rambling' and 'unfocused'. The purpose of communication is generally to,

- a. To Inform
- b. To Instruct
- c. To Motivate
- d. To Entertain

**Audience:** The human factor is most important in communication, all communication should be 'people orientated'. The process of communication though initiated by the sender is complete only when the receiver is unable to understand it, hence the role or the part of the audience is very important to make the communication effective and complete.

**A** – Audience

**U**- Understanding

**D**- Demographics

**I** – Interest

**E**- Environment

**N**- Needs

**C**- Customised

**E**- Expectations

# Barriers to Effective Communication:

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Communication is a complex process and it is desirable to take care of communication interference and the barriers in the process of communication that may hamper the smooth flow effective communication. The barriers may come either from the sender/ receiver or from the circumstances of communication.

## **Factors affecting Communication**

**Noise:** Anything that hinders or obstructs communication is referred to as noise. Generally, the distortion is in the form of sound, but it also includes various other non-sound distortions like filters as well as barriers, whether psychological, cultural or linguistic.

**Filters:** In the process of communication filters refer to our personal experiences and view of the world that affect the interpretation of the message and distorts it or some part of it. They can be psychological as well as cultural. Moreover, each message has to pass through two sets of filter - the sender sees it through a different filter and the receiver sees it through a different set.

**Barrier:** A filter can sometimes be so powerful that it 'blocks' or prevents communication altogether. The filter then turns into a barrier.

## **The Information Gap Principle:**

Communication works on the 'information gap' principle. Transmission of information is only possible if there is a gap between the information the sender wants to send and what the receiver already possess on the topic. Information that the receiver already knows is known as 'old' information, while which the receiver does not know or have is referred to as 'new' information. For communication to be fruitful every message must have some new information. However, if the information is entirely new the receiver will not be able to understand it and it will lead failure in the process of communication; hence, messages should be a mixture of both old and new information so that the receiver is able to understand and decode it.

## **Information Loss:**

Due to the presence of filters, the message sent by the sender is sometimes distorted. Sometimes during the process of communication the message sent by the sender is lost resulting in 'information loss' and invariably leading the receiver to 'add' or 'interpolate' some information which was not present in the original message.

## **Information Overload:**

It describes a situation where so many different messages are received that the receiver is unable to decode or cope with the information. If too much new information is given the receiver gets confused; so it's necessary for the sender not only to mix the new information with the old but also to break the new information into small chunks and ask for feedback to ensure that the receiver has understood it before giving any new information.

Communication barriers may arise during the communication process and may confuse the listener or reader, create misunderstanding and confusion, and may sometimes lead to communication breakdown. Some of the barriers of communication are,

- **Improper Encoding** – it is one of the recurrent barriers in the process of communication, messages should be presented in a linguistic code familiar to one’s audience. If the audience is not able to follow the language a communication breakdown will definitely occur, leading to misunderstanding and confusion.
- **Bypassing** – the term ‘bypassing’ refers to misunderstanding resulting from missed meanings because of the use of abstract words and phrases on which both senders and receivers do not agree, again words mean different things to different people. It is probably the most common communication barrier that one has to deal with. For instance, an Indian asked his Arab colleague why he was a bachelor at the age of forty. The Arab replied “because of dowry...” The Indian responded ‘you should not have been so greedy.’ The Arab was confused and unable to understand why his Indian friend considered him greedy. There was a communication breakdown, because ‘dowry’ for an Indian is the money that the groom takes from the family of the bride while dowry for an Arab is *meher* that the groom has to pay to the father of the bride.
- **Frame of reference** – the moment you starts to interpret others point of view from your angle, you allow your preconceived notions and prejudices to start working for you, your frame of reference is individual to you as it is based on your experiences, exposure, education, personality and etc. In order to avoid communication failure, you have to put yourself in the other person’s position.
- **Physical Distractions** – physical disruptions can easily disrupt communication. A person who is physically uncomfortable can be neither a good speaker nor a good listener. Hence, in order to communicate effectively you must avoid any physical discomfort.
- **Psychological and Emotional Interference** – Any psychological or emotional turbulence or disturbance can prove to be a barrier to effective communication because it leads to lack of interest and concentration. Communication is a purposeful activity based on rationality and reason and must assure that one is not emotionally charged before one takes part in a communicative interaction. One may find it is difficult to concentrate on the content of the message if one is emotionally charged. Being or getting emotional overcharged adversely affects both encoding and decoding.
- **Intercultural Differences** – The interpretation of meaning can create misunderstanding during intercultural communication because the sender and the receiver belong to different cultures and values. We should be sensitive to cultural differences and take into account the values of our listeners/readers while communicating with them.

#### **Tips for Removing Communication Barriers:**

The following tips would enable you to remove most of the communicative barriers and make your communication effective:

- **Recognize that communication is a two way process:** We should encourage responses, questions and feedback messages so that confusion is removed.
- **Consistency and Coherence are vital:** Communication should be in line with the goals of the business.
- **Remove distance Barriers through Technological Tools:** Use telephone, telex, cellular phone, radio and remove the distance barrier.
- **Business Communication is a continuous process:** The objective is complete understanding of the messages. Communication should be a never-ending process of listening, reading and understanding.
- **Hearing is vital for successful business operations:** The communicator should know about his audience and design a message befitting their needs and feelings. Empathy wins friends and orders for the business organisation.
- **Beware of timing:** Properly timed communication would generate best responses from the other end of the communication channel.

- **Use feedback channels effectively:** it reduces the time consumed in the communication process & the chances of transferring wrong information is minimised.
- **Repetition is useful:** if there is any mistake in understanding the message or any confusion about the purpose of the communication it is removed by repeating the message.

# Verbal Communication:

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Anthropologists tell us that there was a time, thousands of years ago, when human beings did not possess language and communicated, like other animals, through grunts, barks, roars etc. – together with body-language (mainly, gestures and facial expressions). Later, when they had learnt the use of simple tools, they needed their hands to hold and manipulate these tools and could no longer use hand gestures to communicate. They then started making greater use of their speech organs – such as the vocal cords, tongue, lips etc. – and developed an elaborate system of sounds to convey messages to each other. It was out of this system that language developed. With the coming of language, human beings reached a new level of social existence which no other ‘animal’ species has been able to attain. Language marks the essential difference between a human being and an animal.

The difference between language and other codes used in communication is that language enables us to form and communicate an *infinite* number of messages to each other, whereas other codes permit the communication of only a limited number of messages. Most animals can communicate no more than five or six different messages to each other, the most common of which are “ I am hungry”, “ I have found some food ; come and share it ”, “There is danger ; be careful” , “This is my territory ; get out” or “I am ready to mate.” An animal would be unable to communicate something like “The weather is fine today, isn’t it ?”

Verbal communication is divided into two categories:

1. Oral or Spoken
2. Written

Language requires its users to observe various kinds of complex rules. Linguists believe that human beings are born with the knowledge of many rules of language, but some rules have to be learnt, mainly through experience and practice. We will now describe the main ‘rule-systems’ that exist in all languages.

## Phonological rules

Most languages of the world exist in spoken as well as written form. However, some languages exist only in spoken form and have no scripts (systems of writing). This leads us to believe that the spoken form of any language is its primary form, from which the written language developed later.

In spoken language, communication takes place through sounds, which are known as **speech sounds** because they are produced with the help of certain parts of the body called **speech organs**. Different speech sounds combine together to form meaningful units called **words**. For example, the word “dog” (which has a recognizable meaning) is a combination of three different sounds, which we represent in writing by the letters ‘d’, ‘o’ and ‘g’ respectively. A different combination of the same sounds, “god”, gives us a word with a different meaning. In English it is not possible, however, to have words like “ogd” or “gdo” as the rules of English do not allow these combinations of sounds.

The rules by which sounds combine to form words or parts of words are called **phonological rules**. (The root ‘phono’ means “having to do with sound”.)

Some sounds are common to a large number of languages – for example, the sound represented by the letter ‘p’, which is present in English as well as most Indian languages. But there are also some sounds which are found only in one language and not in others. For example, English has a sound which is not found in Oriya : this is the sound heard at the beginning of the word ‘zoo’.

A speaker of Oriya who is trying to communicate through English must make sure that he/she is using the right sounds and combinations of sounds, which are allowed by the phonological rules of English. This presents a major difficulty to anyone who is not a 'native speaker' of English. It is very important, therefore, to know the phonological rules of the language that one is trying to speak.

### Semantic rules

**Semantic rules** allow languages to communicate different kinds of meanings. An example will help us to understand how these rules work.

Most Indian languages have a number of words that are used to refer to 'rice' in its different forms. Oriya, for example, has the words 'chaula' (uncooked rice), 'bhata' (boiled rice), 'moodhi' (puffed rice), 'chooda' (flattened rice), 'pakhala' (boiled rice soaked in water), 'kanika' (sweetened fried rice) and so on. English, on the other hand, has only a single word : 'rice'. This is because rice occupies a much more important place in the 'world of meanings' that exists for a speaker of Oriya than it does in an Englishman's world of meanings.

A speaker of one language sees the world differently from a speaker of another language, because the language that one habitually uses forms a kind of 'screen' or 'filter', through which he/she tends to view the world. Each language organizes the world of meanings in a different way. For example, speakers of English view relationships within the family differently from speakers of Indian languages, and so English uses the word 'cousin' to refer to a whole range of relationships for which there are different words in Indian languages. There are different words, for example, to refer to one's father's sister's son ('piyushi-pua-bhai' in Oriya) and one's mother's brother's son ('mamu-pua-bhai'). English uses the same word, 'cousin', for both.

Semantic rules govern the way in which meanings are organized and arranged in any language. Knowledge of these rules is necessary for efficient use of the language.

Semantic rules are applied mostly in the use of **words** to represent different meanings. Words are the primary 'symbols' of language, which connect meanings to sounds. Efficient communication is not possible without an adequate stock of words, or **vocabulary**, in the language being used.

### Syntactic rules

Meanings are conveyed through words. However, the use of individual words in isolation may not convey enough information. For example, if someone walked up to you and said "dog", you would wonder what he/she was trying to communicate. Was the person trying to insult you by calling you a "dog", or was he/she trying to give you some information about a real dog ?

If some more words were used, you would get more information, but the message might still not be clear. For example, if you heard the words "dog", "man", and "bite", you would not be clear about the meaning. But if the same message was 'fine-tuned' and what you heard was "The dog bit a man", the meaning would be perfectly clear.

Three things have been done to make the message clear :

- i. the words have been arranged in a particular order : dog → bite → man.
- ii. Along with the words "dog", "bite" and "man" , which carry definite meanings, two other words have been introduced : "the" and "a". These words do not have independent meanings but they help to bring out the meanings of the other words. "The" tells us, for example, that we are referring to a particular "dog", while "a" tells us that we are not referring to any particular "man".

iii. A change has been made to the 'shape' of one of the words : "bite" has been changed to "bit". This informs us that reference is being made to an action that took place in the past.

" The dog bit a man" is a **sentence**, formed by applying certain rules to a combination of the words "dog", "bite" and "man". The rules by which sentences are formed from combinations of words are called **syntactic** or **grammatical** rules.

When we communicate, we mostly use sentences to convey meaningful messages, although it may be possible sometimes to communicate by using single words. Here is an example :

" How many mangoes did you eat, Mohan ?"

" Six."

The message that Mohan wants to convey is quite clear, although only one word has been used. This is because its meaning can be recovered from the 'context' provided by the previous sentence. What Mohan is really saying is " I ate six mangoes."

**Syntactic** rules are of great importance for any kind of communication through language, but particularly for written communication. Indians may face difficulties when trying to communicate through English if they are not sufficiently familiar with the 'syntax' of English.

### **Mother-tongue interference**

Each language has a different set of phonological, semantic and syntactic rules. Oriya, for example, has different rules from English.

A person who usually speaks one language has to 'switch' to a different set of rules when he/she tries to speak in a different language. Often, the speaker is not aware of the differences between the rules of his/her own language and those of the other language. In such a situation, the speaker will tend to use the rules of his/her own language to communicate in the other language. This is sometimes known as **mother-tongue** interference.

Let us look at a few examples of mother-tongue interference.

English has a sound which is represented in writing by the letter 'v'. This is the sound that you hear in words like 'very', 'evening' and 'love'. This sound does not exist in Oriya.

However, Oriya has a sound which is represented by 'bh'. This is the sound you hear in the Oriya words 'bhata' (rice) or 'labho' (benefit or profit).

When an Oriya tries to speak English, he/she often replaces the English 'v' sound by the Oriya 'bh' sound. So the word 'very' is pronounced as 'bheri', 'love' as 'labh', and so on. This is an example of **phonological interference**.

Mother-tongue interference can also be **syntactic** (as well as **semantic**). Syntactic interference is very common. For example, a speaker of Oriya or Hindi may say " I went yesterday there", instead of "I went there yesterday", which is how this sentence should appear in English. In Oriya, the adverb of time ('kali' or 'yesterday') generally comes before the adverb of place ('sethi' or 'there'), but not in English. The Oriya speaker replaces a syntactic rule of English by a syntactic rule of Oriya.

Mother-tongue interference is a major cause of the breakdown of communication when Indians try to communicate in English with foreigners.

### **Discourse rules**

As we have explained above, words give us only partial or incomplete meanings, which are often difficult to understand ; but sentences, which are combinations of words, are used to form meaningful 'messages'.

Sentences, and not words, are the primary units of communication. Very little communication is possible through language unless one has learnt the rules for forming sentences.

However, when we communicate, we use *sequences* of connected sentences rather than isolated sentences. A sequence is made up of at least two sentences which follow each other and are related to each other. The sentences may be uttered by different speakers or by the same speaker.

Here are two examples:

- a. "Rahul says he's going to become a millionaire in a year's time."  
" Oh, yes, Rahul likes to day-dream !"

These two sentences are spoken by different speakers. The second sentence is spoken in response to the first and forms a comment on it.

- b. "Rahul hopes to become a millionaire in a year's time. He is investing money in a new engineering college that is coming up near his village."

The two sentences above have been spoken or written by the same person. Here too, the second sentence forms a sequence along with the first and helps to develop an idea which was introduced in the first sentence.

A sequence of sentences through which messages are exchanged or communicated is known as **discourse**. Just as sentences are formed from words, using the rules of syntax, so also *discourse* is formed from sentences, using different kinds of rules which are referred to as **discourse rules**. Effective communication depends as much on knowledge of discourse rules as on knowledge of syntactic, semantic or phonological rules.

Let us now see what discourse rules are like.

### **a. Coherence and cohesion**

In discourse, sentences are linked to each other in different ways.

Look at the two sentences below :

- i. Mumbai is a wonderful city. The dog jumped over the fence.

These two sentences are completely unrelated to each other. They do not form meaningful discourse, and so there can be no communication through these two sentences.

Now let us look at a different pair of sentences :

- ii. Mumbai is a wonderful city. It has some of the best restaurants in the country.

These sentences are linked to each other in two ways. Firstly, they are linked by *meaning*. The first sentence makes a statement and the second sentence provides some 'evidence' or 'proof' to support that statement. There is a *logical* connection between the sentences. This kind of logical or meaningful connection between sentences is called **coherence**.

There is another kind of link between the two sentences. The pronoun “it” in the second sentence refers to the noun “Mumbai” in the first sentence, forming a ‘grammatical’ or ‘syntactic’ link. This kind of linkage between sentences is known as **cohesion**.

Both cohesion and coherence are needed to produce discourse.

It may, however, be possible to have coherence (meaningful linkage) without cohesion (grammatical linkage). Here is an example :

iii Mumbai is a wonderful city. I wish Delhi was less filthy !

There is no grammatical linkage (cohesion) between these two sentences, but there is a ‘meaning link’ (coherence). The speaker is indirectly comparing Mumbai and Delhi and giving a reason for preferring one over the other. We are able to relate the two sentences because we know that ‘Mumbai’ and ‘Delhi’ are the names of two cities, although this information is not given to us in the two sentences.

Coherence and cohesion are needed much more in written communication than in oral (spoken) communication. We will explain the reason for this in a later chapter, when we compare speech and writing as ‘media’ or ‘channels’ for communication.

### **b. Pragmatic rules**

The second kind of rules involved in discourse is **pragmatic** rules. We will explain this term below.

Sentences can communicate not only meanings but also **intentions**. For example, the sentence “The dog bit a man” conveys a certain meaning: it informs us of an action which was performed by an animal on a human being. But we do not learn from the sentence what the *intention* of the speaker was in making this utterance. He/she may have intended it as a simple ‘report’ on an event which he/she witnessed, or it may have been intended as a warning to the listener (“Be careful! This dog is in the habit of biting and may bite you.”).

The term **pragmatics** refers to the use of language to communicate different intentions or purposes. The rules by which sentences are used to convey different intentions are called **pragmatic rules**.

Compare the two sentences below:

- i Do you know the answer to this question ?
- ii Can you tell me how to reach the station ?

Both these sentences have the same grammatical form or ‘structure’: they are both ‘interrogative sentences’. Such sentences are normally used to ask questions.

Sentence (i) is, in fact, a question. The expected reply would be either “Yes” or “No.” But sentence (ii) is not intended as a question, although it looks like one. If the person to whom this sentence was addressed said “Yes” or “No” in reply, it would be an inappropriate response. The appropriate response would be something like “ Take the first turning to the right and then go straight ahead for about a kilometer. You will see the station on your right.”

Sentence (ii) was intended as a request for information (in this case, a request for directions to reach a place), and the response above shows that the listener correctly interpreted it as a request and not as a question.

### **Language functions**

Language is used to perform various **language functions**. In the sentences below, different language functions are performed, which are indicated in brackets:

- |       |                                       |                             |
|-------|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| I.    | Stop crying!                          | (Giving a command or order) |
| II.   | Please give me a mango.               | (Making a request)          |
| III.  | Let us walk to the station.           | (Offering a suggestion)     |
| IV.   | That's what I think too.              | (Expressing agreement)      |
| V.    | You are quite wrong!                  | (Expressing disagreement)   |
| VI.   | I'll be happy to come to your party.  | (Accepting an invitation)   |
| VII.  | I'm afraid you'll have to excuse me.  | (Declining an invitation)   |
| VIII. | That's not what I had told you to do! | (Reprimanding someone)      |

The term 'language function' refers to the *purpose* for which language is being used. Basically, we use language as a 'tool', to enable us to 'do' things – for example, to *request* someone for help, to *order* someone to do something, to accept or refuse an offer etc. The user of language must be able not only to produce sentences that are meaningful and grammatically correct, but sentences that indicate (to the listener) the purpose or function that the speaker has in mind. An efficient communicator should be able not only to *use* language appropriately to express his/her intentions but also be able to interpret the intentions that another person may be trying to convey.

### Dialects

When a language is used over a large geographical area (for example, Hindi, which is the language mainly used in Rajasthan, Haryana, Uttar Pradesh, Uttarakhand, Bihar and Madhya Pradesh), it develops several different 'regional' varieties, each of which is used by the speakers belonging to a particular region. These regional varieties are known as **dialects**. For example, there are three main dialects of Hindi in the state of Bihar: Maithili, spoken in the North; Magadhi or Magahi, spoken in and around the districts of Patna and Gaya, and Bhojpuri, spoken in the western parts of the state.

Dialects of the same language do not usually differ very much from each other in their syntactic rules – i.e., the rules of grammar. They may, however, differ in their semantic rules, so that one dialect can have a word to represent a certain meaning which is not found in another dialect. Where dialects differ most widely is in their phonological systems. That is why speakers of particular dialects 'sound' different when they speak. We say that the speakers of each dialect have a different '**accent**'. Sometimes, however, the dialects are so different from each other that the speakers of one dialect cannot understand the speakers of another dialect at all.

It is important to understand the concept of 'dialect' because there are, at the present time, at least three major dialects of English, used in different parts of the world: British, North American and Australian. Indians are often required to communicate (in English) with speakers of one or other dialect of English. The kind of English that is spoken in India is closer to British English than it is to either North American or Australian English, because of India's historical links with Britain. Indians often have difficulty, therefore, when they have to speak to Americans or Australians, who have a very different accent from speakers of British English.

### Registers

When the members of a particular profession – e.g. doctors or engineers – speak to each other, they often use a kind of 'technical' language which is difficult for 'outsiders' (i.e., people who belong to a different profession) to understand. For example, doctors may use expressions such as "cauterizing a wound", while computer professionals may talk of "booting a computer".

The variety of language used by the members of a particular profession is called a **register**. Registers differ from each other mainly in the vocabulary (technical terms) which they use, although there sometimes are grammatical differences between them as well.

Registers are sometimes referred to, rather disrespectfully, as 'jargon'.

The use of particular registers is very common in business communication. When 'professionals' are communicating with each other, it may become necessary to use professional registers, but it is important to remember that this kind of communication may be meaningless to a 'lay person'. If one is communicating with an 'outsider', it is best to avoid 'jargon'.

### **Language skills**

We have repeatedly been referring to 'communication' as 'a set of 'skills''. Since communication is mostly through language, 'communication skills' are also sometimes described as **language skills**.

The term 'language skill' refers to a person's ability to *use* language effectively, in its spoken and written forms, for different activities and purposes.

We have already said that all languages have rules which must be observed by their users. A language user must 'know' the rules of the language that he/she is using. This knowledge (as we saw in Chapter 1) can either be *conscious* or *sub-conscious*. It is mainly sub-conscious knowledge of the rules of language that one uses in communicating.

When one is able to *use* language 'automatically' in various situations, without having to think consciously of the 'rules' of that language, one is said to have acquired 'skills' in the language. The development of these skills requires a great deal of practice and effort.

There are four major language skills, which must be acquired by all language users. They are: Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing (LSRW). Speaking and Writing are known as 'Productive Skills', because when one is either speaking or writing, one is 'producing' language. Listening and Reading, on the other hand, are known as 'Receptive Skills', because when one is listening to someone or reading something that has been written by another person, one is only 'receiving' language.

The receptive skill of Listening is acquired earlier than the productive skill of Speaking. In fact, unless some skill in Listening has been developed, the skill of Speaking cannot be acquired. Similarly, the receptive skill of Reading may be a pre-requisite for the productive skill of Writing.

Although LSRW are the major language skills, there are numerous 'sub-skills' which language learners have to develop. For example, during listening, one has to be able to recognize the sounds produced by the speaker. One must be sure, for instance, that the speaker said 'full' and not 'fool', 'pit' and not 'fit'. The ability to recognize sounds accurately requires a particular 'sub-skill' of Listening. But when one is listening to a talk or lecture, one should be able to 'pick out' the important idea or ideas in the talk, and 'filter out' all the unimportant or unnecessary ideas. This requires a different sub-skill of Listening.

### **TO SUM UP**

When using language to communicate, it is necessary to observe the rules of the language that is being used. However, it is not enough to know only the rules of language : there are some 'social' and 'cultural' rules connected with the use of language in different social situations, which also have to be kept in mind.

# Non Verbal Communication:

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Nonverbal communication is the process of using wordless messages to generate meaning. Nonverbal communication includes non word vocalizations such as inflection and non word sounds such as “ah” and “hmm.” Communication is complex. We cannot quantify the relative contribution of nonverbal communication to verbal communication, but nonverbal communication often provides much more meaning than people realize. Indeed, when we are not certain about another person’s feelings or our feeling about him or her, we may rely far more Non-verbal communication on nonverbal cues and less on the words that are used.

You know the importance of nonverbal communication in your own life. Imagine how difficult communication would be if you could not see the people with whom you are communicating, hear their voices, or sense their presence. Actually, this is what occurs when you send e-mail or instant messages or chat with others online. As electronic forms of communication have become more prevalent, people have found creative ways to communicate feeling and emotions. Emoticons are sequences of characters composed in two-dimensional written formats for the purpose of expressing emotions. The most common example of the emoticon is the “smiley” or “smiley face.” Emoticons are a form of nonverbal communication, and they illustrate the importance of this means of communication, no matter the context.

Non-verbal communication is the communication where we transfer messages without using words. Non verbal communication is more important than verbal communication as it speaks about you even before you do. It aids and compliments verbal communication, if either contradicts the other it leads to communication breakdown. It can be broadly divided into;

- a. Kinesis
- b. Proxemics
- c. Chronemics
- d. Touch
- e. Para-linguistics

Now let’s discuss them one by one,

## **KINESICS**

Kinesics is the non-verbal behavior related to movement, either of any part of the body, or the body as a whole. In short all communicative body movements are generally classified as kinesics. For example, the British sign for Victory (forefinger and middle finger erect) symbolizes the letter V, a sign for victory often seen painted onto house walls during WWII. However, the same movement may symbolize the number two in the US and may be seen as insulting in Australia.

Another example is the “ok” sign made by forming a circle with your thumb and forefinger and stretching out the rest of the three fingers. This may be seen as an indication for zero or the number three in some countries. It is considered obscene in Australia though. Emblems as such are a bewildering array of different meanings. The list of possible interpretations and different meanings is, unfortunately, sheer endless. In short, emblems are signs used to refer to certain words. Its interpretation may vary across different cultures and groups of people.

Non-verbal signs are used to modulate and maintain the flow of speech during a conversation. These can be both kinesic, such as the nodding of a head, as well as nonkinesic, such as eye movements. They are often used as feedback to find out if one is clear of the instructions given or if the audience is interested in the speech. Different cultures use

different forms of regulators to show confusion or understanding of certain information. For example, the white American students may use sounds such as “uh-huh” followed by nodding of the head to indicate understanding. However, the black American students use silence to show understanding. Therefore, it may lead to confusion for the white Americans as to whether the black students understand what is being said.

Body movements & facial expressions display emotions. A lack of such affective displays may well be understood as a lack of emotion, which in turn is probably wrong. Different cultures may practice the displaying of emotions differently. Although two people may be feeling just as angry, their display of anger may be totally different. One may blow up in the face while the other may use silence to show displeasure. Therefore the lack of display may not indicate the lack of emotions.

Postural changes and other movements help to understand what your conversation partner really thinks. A slumped posture indicates that you have low spirits, fatigued or that you feel inferior. Whereas, an erect posture shows high spirits and confidence. If you lean forward it implies that you are open and interested. Leaning away shows disinterest and defensiveness. Maintaining a rigid posture may mean that you are defensive, while a relaxed posture may translate to openness. Crossed legs and arms shows unwillingness to listen while uncrossed arms and leg indicates that you are approachable.

### **PROXEMICS**

It is the study of the human use of space and distance. The use of space and distance can be categorized into 4 major categories:

- Intimate distance extends from you outward to 18 inches, and it is used by people who are relationally close to you. Used more often in private than in public, this intimate distance is employed to show affection, to give comfort, and to protect.
- Personal distance ranges from 18 inches to 4 feet, and it is the distance used by most Americans for conversation and other non intimate exchanges.
- Social distance ranges from 4 to 12 feet, and it is used most often to carry out business in the workplace, especially in formal, less personal situations. The higher the status of one person, the greater the distance.
- Public distance exceeds 12 feet and is used most often in public speaking in such settings as lecture halls; churches, mosques, and synagogues; courtrooms; and convention halls.

Our relationship to other people is related to your use of space. You stand closer to friends and farther from enemies. You stand farther from strangers, authority figures, high-status people, physically challenged people, and people from racial groups different from your own. You stand closer to people you perceive as similar or unthreatening because closeness communicates trust.

The physical setting also can alter the use of space. People tend to stand closer together in large rooms and farther apart in small rooms. In addition, physical obstacles and furniture arrangements can affect the use of personal space. The cultural background of the people communicating also must be considered in the evaluation of personal space. For example: Americans overseas were confronted with a variety of difficulties because of cultural differences in the handling of space. People stood “too close” during conversations, and when the Americans backed way to a comfortable conversational distance, this was taken to mean that Americans were cold, aloof, withdrawn, and disinterested in the people of the country.

Cultural background can result in great differences in the use of space and in people's interpretation of such use. As our world continues to shrink, more people will be working in multinational corporations, regularly traveling to different countries and interacting with others from a variety of backgrounds. Sensitivity to space use in different cultures and quick, appropriate responses to those variations are imperative.

## PARALINGUISTICS

Nonverbal communication includes some sounds, as long as they are not words. We call them paralinguistic features—the non word sounds and non word characteristics of language, such as pitch, volume, rate, and quality. The prefix *para* means “**alongside**” or “**parallel to**,” so paralinguistic means “**alongside the words or language**.”

The paralinguistic feature examined here is vocal cues—all of the oral aspects of sound except words themselves. Vocal cues include -

- **Pitch:** the highness or lowness of your voice.
- **Rate:** how rapidly or slowly you speak.
- **Inflection:** the variety or changes in pitch.
- **Volume:** the loudness or softness of your voice.
- **Quality:** the unique resonance of your voice, such as huskiness, nasality, raspiness, or whininess.
- **Non word sounds:** “mmh,” “huh,” “ahh,” and the like, as well as pauses or the absence of sound used for effect in speaking.
- **Pronunciation:** whether or not you say a word correctly.
- **Articulation:** whether or not your mouth, tongue, and teeth coordinate to make a word understandable to others (such as a lisp - *A speech defect in which s is pronounced like th in thick and z is pronounced like th in this*)
- **Enunciation:** whether or not you combine pronunciation and articulation to produce a word with clarity and distinction so that it can be understood. A person who mumbles has an enunciation problem.
- **Silence:** the lack of sound.

These vocal cues are important because they are linked in our minds with a speaker’s physical characteristics, emotional state, personality characteristics, gender characteristics, and even credibility. In addition, vocal cues, alone, have a persuasive effect for people when they are as young as 12 months. Vocal cues frequently convey information about the speaker’s characteristics, such as age, height, appearance, and body type.

*For example, people often associate a high-pitched voice with someone who is female, younger, and or smaller. You may visualize someone who uses a loud voice as being big or someone who speaks quickly as being nervous. People who tend to speak slowly and deliberately may be perceived as being high-status individuals or as having high credibility.*

## CHRONEMICS

**Chronemics** is the study of the use of time in nonverbal communication. The way that an individual would perceive and value time, structure our time and react to time is a powerful communication tool, and helps set the stage for the communication process. Across cultures, time perception plays a large role in the nonverbal communication process. Time perceptions include punctuality, willingness to wait, and interactions. The use of time can affect lifestyles, daily agendas, speed of speech, movements and how long people are willing to listen.

Time can also be used as an indicator of status. For example, in most companies the boss can interrupt progress to hold an impromptu meeting in the middle of the work day, yet the average worker would have to make an appointment to see the boss. The way different cultures perceive time can influence communication as well.

## **Eye-contact**

Speakers who have to address large audiences (e.g. lecturers in a college classroom) are generally advised to maintain 'eye-contact' with their audience – i.e., to look directly into their eyes and faces. It is said that the person being addressed has a greater feeling of involvement if you look at him/her while speaking, whereas if you look in some other direction while you speak, the person who is being addressed or who is addressing you may feel that he/she is being ignored and slighted.

This does not seem to be a universal rule, however. In many cultures, particularly Far Eastern cultures (China, Japan, Korea etc.) looking directly into a person's face and eyes while speaking is considered to be aggressive behavior, especially if he/she is older or 'superior' in position. In these cultures it is considered polite to look downwards while speaking or being spoken to.

In American culture, making eye-contact during conversation is supposed to represent the virtues of honesty and sincerity, and persons who 'look away' are believed to be 'shifty' and unreliable. However, even in American culture, it is considered impolite to 'stare' at a person who is speaking to you.

Communication between people from different cultures, e.g. an American and a Japanese person, can often be hampered by these differing attitudes to eye-contact. The Japanese may consider the American rude because he/she looks directly into the other's eyes ; the American, on the other hand, may consider the Japanese to be evasive and unreliable because he/she avoids direct eye-contact, as a mark of respect.

## **Personal Appearance**

If you are invited to a wedding or some other formal social occasion, you would normally be expected to go neatly dressed, in clean clothes, with your hair tidily combed etc. Your personal appearance sends out a message, which could be interpreted as " I consider my host and my fellow-guests sufficiently important for me to pay special attention to my appearance." On the other hand, if you go in crumpled and dirty clothes, your personal appearance sends out the message " My host and fellow-guests are not so important that I need to pay attention to my appearance." This message may not be relished by your host or fellow guests.

On the other hand, a person who appears to be 'over-dressed' is often considered to be a 'dandy' and may not be liked.

Your appearance can, therefore, say a lot for you, without your opening your lips. Again, this 'rule' of communication may be more culture specific than universal. On the whole, in a modern society, where most people are pressed for time, personal appearance seems to have become less important than it was a generation ago.

## **Touch**

In some cultures, it is common for people to touch each other's bodies (usually on the back, shoulders or arms) when talking to each other informally, in a natural gesture of friendliness. In some other cultures, however, physical contact of this kind is disliked and avoided.

How close you stand or sit to the other person while communicating is also an important aspect of 'body language', which can have an impact on the success of communication.

**However, a few simple rules may be sufficient:**

1. Always be 'natural' in your use of gestures, facial expressions etc. Do not try to imitate the gestures of others.
2. Make eye-contact when you are speaking or being spoken to, but do not make prolonged eye-contact. Do not stare.

3. Do not be 'stiff' and rigid in the way you sit or stand when you are speaking. Do not, on the other hand, be excessively 'casual' and relaxed in your posture. Be natural.
4. Keep a reasonable distance between yourself and the person you are speaking to.
5. Be neat in your personal appearance but do not 'overdress'. Do not be casual in appearance unless you know the person you are speaking to fairly well.

Non verbal communication is a rapidly flowing back and forth process. Successful non verbal communication depends on emotional self-awareness and an understanding of the cues one is sending, along with the ability to accurately pick up the cues others are sending you.

# GENERAL VERSUS PROFESSIONAL COMMUNICATION

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General Communication	Technical Communication
General Content	Technical Content
General Vocabulary	Specialised vocabulary
No formal elements	Formal elements
Both formal and informal in style	Always formal in style
May not be factual	Always factual
Both objective and subjective	Objective
Not always structured	Logically organised and structured
No specific exposition techniques	Complex & important exposition techniques
Not always for a specific audience	Specific audience
May or may not involve graphics	Usually involves graphics

A distinction is often made between General Communication and Professional (Business) Communication. 'General' communication is the kind of communication that goes on in ordinary, 'everyday' situations and is mostly social in nature. An example of general communication would be two friends talking to each other about the weather or about a cricket match which they have just witnessed.

'Professional' or 'Business' Communication is, as the name suggests, communication that is related to the professional or business world : the world of commerce and industry, of buying and selling, demand and supply etc. – in short, the hard, practical world of economic activity.

## **Module 2**

# The Sounds of English

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To speak good English, clear, acceptable & intelligible pronunciation is essential. To speak English with correct pronunciation, the basics of phonetics is needed. Each language possesses its own phonological (sound) system which is different from other. English also has its own sound system. There are some sounds in English that are not found in our Indian languages, and vice versa.

**PHONETICS**- It is the study of speech sounds with their classification & production.

**PHONOLOGY**-the study of speech sounds of a particular language.

**PHONEME**- the minimal sound of a language is called a phoneme. example- /p/,/b/,/s/ etc.

English has 44 sounds, 24 consonant and 20 vowel sounds

**Mother-tongue Interference**-When Indians speak in English, there is a tendency to replace the sounds of English with similar sounds from the 'mother-tongue'. This is referred to as mother-tongue interference. The English spoken by Indians may therefore sound a little 'strange' to people for whom English is the mother-tongue (e.g. people from Britain, America or Australia) as well as to people from other countries whose mother-tongues are different from ours (e.g., people from European, African or South American countries).

**Accent**- The term 'accent' is used to describe the manner in which English is spoken when some of the sounds of English are replaced by the sounds of a different language. We say that Indian speakers generally speak English with an 'Indian accent'. It describe the pattern of sounds that a speaker of English, from any part of the world, uses. Thus, Americans speak English with an American accent, Australians with an Australian accent and so on

English is now the only 'global' or 'international' language, extensively used for communication between people from different parts of the world. It should not be difficult for us to understand, therefore, that the existence of so many different English accents creates severe problems of communication.

## INTERNATIONAL STANDARDS OF ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION

There are many different accents of English, only two are recognized, at the present time, as international standards or 'bench marks'.

**Received Pronunciation**, or **RP**, which is the accent adopted by educated speakers of English living in and around London, as well as the accent mostly used for BBC broadcasts.

**General American English (GA)**. This is the accent used by educated Americans living in the mid-western states of America. The American and Canadian accents of English are very similar.

The English spoken in countries such as India which once formed parts of the British Empire and are now members of the Commonwealth is closer to the British variety than to the American. More and more Indians, however, are now speaking English with an American accent.

## RELATING SPELLING & PRONUNCIATION

Languages such as English, Hindi, Oriya etc. use **alphabetic** systems of writing, in which written symbols represent the sounds of the spoken language English spelling does not always indicate how an English word should be pronounced. There is, no one-to-one correspondence between the letters of the Roman alphabet and the sounds of English. While English has 44 sounds, the alphabet has only 26 letters. So the alphabet is overburdened. And worse still, even in the face

of a scarcity of letters, many of them are sometimes squandered in representing the same sound. These two factors together result in a good deal of confusion& complexity, making the language very challenging.

## Phonetic and Non-Phonetic Writing Systems

In Sanskrit (as well as languages derived from it), each letter of the alphabet represents either a single sound or a **syllable**. A letter always represents the same. By looking at the spelling of a word, it is possible to tell how the word should be pronounced. There is a high degree of 'match' between the written and the spoken language. We say, therefore, that the writing systems of Sanskrit, Hindi, Oriya etc. are highly **phonetic**.

In English, the same letter can represent several different sounds. The following words in which the same letter stands for many different sounds.

*Ch* machine, monarch, chief

*a* late, last, fat, woman, village, water, what

*Ough* though, through, bough, thought, thorough, cough

To make matters more complicated, some letters found in the spelling of certain words are said to be 'silent' – for example, the letter 'b' which comes at the end of the word 'climb'. By looking at the spelling of a word, one cannot always tell how the word should be pronounced. We therefore say that the writing system of English is **un-phonetic**.

## THE INTERNATIONAL PHONETIC ALPHABET (IPA)

A need was felt, for an international writing system which would show exactly how the words of any language should be pronounced. Such a writing system was developed during the 19<sup>th</sup> century, and is known as the **International Phonetic Alphabet** or **IPA**. The IPA uses a large number of symbols to represent the exact pronunciation of words in most languages of the world.

Out of the large number of symbols used by the IPA, a small number is chosen to represent the sounds of English. There are total 44 sounds in English. There are 24 consonant sounds & 20 vowel sounds. Out of the 20 vowel sounds, 12 are known as pure vowels or monothongs & 8 are diphthongs.

**Consonants-** Any sound that is produced with an obstruction in the oral cavity is called a consonant. When we speak, a stream of air is forced out of the lungs, travels upwards through the throat and then passes out through the mouth and nose. If you hold your hand in front of your mouth as you speak, you will feel this stream of air.

<u>IPA symbol</u>	<u>A word in which this sound occurs</u>
/p/	pin
/b/	bin
/t/	tin
/d/	din
/k/	kin
/g/	gun
/f/	fin
/v/	view

	/θ/	thin
	/ð/	then
	/s/	sin
	/z/	zinc
	/ʃ/	shoe
	/ʒ/	pleasure
	/h/	him
	/tʃ/	chin
	/dʒ/	gin
	/m/	meat
	/n/	neat
/ŋ/		ring
	/l/	learn
	/r/	ream
	/j/	yet
	/w/	wet

2. **Vowels-** The sounds which are produced without any obstruction in the oral cavity are called vowels. There are 20 vowel sounds, 12 are pure vowel which also known as monothongs & 8 are diphthongs.

**IPA symbol**

**A word in which this sound occur**

/i:/	eat, see
/ɪ/	in,
/e/	empty, ten
/æ/	and, hat
/ɑ:/	arm, car
/ɒ/	odd, got
/ɔ:/	awful saw

/ʊ/	put
/u:/	too
/ʌ/	up
/ɜ:/	girl, worst
/ə/	ago

**3. Diphthongs-** Combination of two vowel sounds is called diphthong. While producing these sounds the voice glides from one vowel to another

/eɪ/	rain
/aɪ/	time
/ɔɪ/	boy
/əʊ/	home
/aʊ/	now
/ɪə/	dear
/eə/	air
/ʊə/	poor

## Phonetic symbols

used in the dictionary

### Consonants

p	pen	/pen/	s	so	/səʊ/
b	bad	/bæd/	z	zoo	/zu:/
t	tea	/ti:/	ʃ	shoe	/ʃu:/
d	did	/dɪd/	ʒ	vision	/'vɪʒn/
k	cat	/kæt/	h	hat	/hæt/
g	got	/gɒt/	m	man	/mæn/
tʃ	chain	/tʃeɪn/	n	no	/nəʊ/
dʒ	jam	/dʒæm/	ŋ	sing	/sɪŋ/
f	fall	/fɔ:l/	l	leg	/leg/
v	van	/væn/	r	red	/red/
θ	thin	/θɪn/	j	yes	/jes/
ð	this	/ðɪs/	w	wet	/wet/

### Vowels and diphthongs

i:	see	/si:/	ʌ	cup	/kʌp/
i	happy	/'hæpi/	ɜ:	bird	/bɜ:d/
ɪ	sit	/sɪt/	ə	about	/ə'baʊt/
e	ten	/ten/	eɪ	say	/seɪ/
æ	cat	/kæt/	əʊ	go	/gəʊ/
ɑ:	father	/'fɑ:ðə(r)/	aɪ	five	/faɪv/
ɒ	got	/gɒt/	aʊ	now	/naʊ/
ɔ:	saw	/sɔ:/	ɔɪ	boy	/bɔɪ/
ʊ	put	/pʊt/	ɪə	near	/nɪə(r)/
u	actual	/'æktʃuəl/	eə	hair	/heə(r)/
u:	too	/tu:/	ʊə	pure	/pjʊə(r)/

(r) indicates that British pronunciation will have /r/ only if a vowel sound follows directly; otherwise it is omitted. In American pronunciation, every 'r' of the ordinary spelling is retained.

Some points to note about the use of IPA symbols

- Words and sentences of English can be represented in ‘phonemic script’, using IPA symbols, to show how they should be pronounced. This is called **phonemic transcription**.
- Notice that a diagonal ‘slash’ mark is used before as well as after a phonemic transcription.
- Most consonants are written the same way in ordinary writing as in phonemic transcription – for example, the consonants /p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /f/, /v/, /k/, /g/, /m/, /n/, /h/, /r/, /l/, /s/, and /w/. No special effort is required, therefore, to learn these IPA symbols.
- The sound represented in ordinary writing by the letter ‘y’ (as in the word ‘yellow’) is transcribed as /j/ and not as /y/.
- The sound of the letter ‘c’ can be represented by the symbols /s/ as well as /k/.
- The sounds heard at the beginning of the words ‘thing’ and ‘this’ are represented by the IPA symbols /θ/ and /ð/ respectively, which are not found in ordinary English writing. These are new symbols which have to be learnt.
- Most of the vowel sounds are represented by IPA symbols which do not occur in ordinary writing. These are also new symbols which have to be learnt.
- Note that the IPA symbols /i:/ and /u:/ are written with two dots. The dots indicate that these vowels are longer than other vowels. (The term ‘vowel length’ indicates that the sound continues for a longer time.)
- Each diphthong is counted as a single vowel, though it is a combination of two different vowel sounds.

**Voiceless sounds-** If the vocal cords are wide apart & the air passes by freely there is no vibration in the oral cavity. The sounds produced are called as voiceless sounds.

**Voiced sounds** –if the vocal cords are brought together & kept loosely close, the air pressure from the lungs may force the glottis to open. This causes the vocal cord to vibrate & the sounds produced are called voiced sounds. All vowels are voiced sounds.

**Nasal sounds-** during the production of sounds, when the soft palate is lowered & there is a complete closure of the oral cavity, the air passes through the nasal cavity. Thus nasal sounds are produced. Example- /m,n, ŋ/.

**Semi Vowels** -a semivowel (or glide) is a sound, such as English /w/ or /j/, that is phonetically similar to a [vowel](#) sound but functions as the [syllable](#) boundary rather than as the [nucleus](#) of a syllable

**Problem sounds of English-** There are 44 sounds in English language, but unfortunately there are only 26 letters of the alphabet to represent them. As such, people whose mother tongue is not English find it extremely difficult to produce these sounds correctly & their pronunciation is often faulty. This necessitates the learning of phonetic symbols on the part of all those who are keen to speak English correctly. The variation in the pronunciation of consonants may not cause much difference in the meaning of the words, but the production of vowel sounds does, if they are not properly and distinctly pronounced. It may also be noted that a, e, i, o, u are only vowel letters and not just sounds. The Vowel sounds, with their universally understood transcriptions are 20 in number. Those sounds and sound distinctions that constitute problems for Indian learners from different parts of the country are discussed below.

### **The problem of Consonants Sounds-**

1. /f/        /v/  
fail        veil

fine        vine

file        vile

foil        voile

off        of

leaf        leave

2. /v/        /b/  
vet        bet

vote        boat

vow        bow

curve        curb

van        ban

very        berry/bury

3. /s/        /z/  
sip        zip

peace        peas

sue        zoo

rice        rise

seal        zeal

place        plays

4. /s/        /ʃ/  
self        shelf

parcel        partial

sift        shift

ass ash  
sign shine  
mess mesh  
sip ship

5. /s/ /tʃ/  
seat cheat

seek cheek

side chide

sill chill

hiss hitch

sore chore

6. /ʃ/ /tʃ/  
Share chair

sheet cheat

shin chin

ship chip

shoes choose

shop chop

7. /z/ /dʒ/  
Zoo jew

Pays page

Rays rage

hues huge

zealous jealous

zest jest

### 8. The problem of / ʒ/ sound

casual barrage

confusion camouflage

division garage

occasion massage

provision prestige

9. /v/	/w/
vale/veil	whale
vane/vein/vain	wane
veal	wheel/weal/we'll
veered	weird
vent	went
verse	worse

### The Problem of Plural Sounds-

The plural forms of nouns, the 3rd person singular forms of verbs and the 3rd person possessive forms of nouns are pronounced in the following three ways.

- **/Iz/ after the consonants /s,z, ʒ,t/**

Kisses bushes messages

horses garages Raj's

Alice's watches judges

Dickens's witches' fetches

- **/s/ after the consonants /p,t,k,f,q/.**

caps Dick's

stops chiefs

it's laughs

pats Ruth's

pots cat's

- **/z/ after all other consonants and all vowels**

boys man's loves

rags China's plums

leaves officers' runs

buds employees' saves

goes she's flies

### 10. The Problem of /r/ Sound

In the Standard British English the consonant /r/ as in *ring*, *wrong*, *wrap*, *current*, generally does not occur in the final position in words. The letter r in the final position in words such as *actor*, *higher*, *butter* is pronounced as /r/ only when they are followed by vowel sounds in connected speech as for example in the following phrases.

The actor + in a play

Higher + and higher

Butter + and cheese

In American English on the other hand, r in the spelling is pronounced as /r/ in all positions.

**11. The problem of minimal pairs-** A minimal pair is a group of words that differ from each other in one sound. This difference brings about a change in the meaning.

**Minimal pairs.**

- / i:/    / I /  
Seat    sit

heal    hill

reach    rich

green    grin

meals    mills

- / ɪ /    / e /  
will    well

tin    ten

sit    set

hid    head

miss    mess

- / eɪ /    / e /  
main    men

saint    sent

fail    fell

raid    red

wait    wet

- / e /    / æ /  
men    man

ten    tan

send    sand

guess    gas

lend    land

- / ʊ /    / u: /

pull pool

full fool

should shooed

- / aɪ / / əɪ /  
buy boy

tie toy

tile toil

file foil

bile boil

- / əʊ / / ʊ /  
coat cot

note not

road rod

soaks socks

won't want

hope hop

rob robe

## 12. The Problem of Consonant clusters

A consonant cluster is a group of consonants that appear together in a syllable without a vowel between them. Here are some examples of consonant clusters. Although consonant clusters are found in several Indian languages, students often have difficulty in pronouncing certain English clusters. The problems generally arise in the pronunciation of 's-' clusters at the beginning of words. For example, 'school' is pronounced as either [isku:l] or [səku:l].

/st/ stop

/str/ stray

## SYLLABLES

The minimal sound produced in a single chest pulse is called a syllable. The individual sounds of a language combine to form words : for example, the three sounds represented by the IPA symbols /r/, /e/ and /d/ combine to give us the word “red”.

Words such as “red”, “rod”, “ bad” etc. are said to be **monosyllabic** words, containing only one **syllable**.

A syllable is a cluster (group) of sounds which forms either a complete word having a meaning (e.g. “red”), or a part of a word (e.g. the syllable “ab”, which forms the first part of the word “absent”).

Normally, each syllable contains only one vowel. Typically, this vowel is preceded as well as followed by a consonant – as in words such as “red”, “cat”, “sad” etc. Here, the vowel comes in the middle of the syllable.

A syllable in which there is a consonant in front of the vowel as well as after it is represented by the ‘formula’ CVC (where “C” represents “Consonant” and “V” represents “Vowel”).

However, a syllable can also have the structure CV (e.g. words such as “to”, “be”, “no” etc.) or VC (e.g. “of”, “it”). It is also possible for a syllable to have the structure CCV (e.g. “ski”) or VCC ( e.g. “east” ).

It is possible to form new words from given words by adding extra syllables. For example, the word ‘careful’ is formed by adding the syllable ‘ful’ to the word ‘care’. Then, by adding the syllable ‘ly’ to ‘careful’, we can get another word, ‘carefully’.

### Polysyllabic words

The words we have looked at so far were **monosyllabic** (containing only one syllable). But words can have two, three, four or even more syllables. Such words are called **polysyllabic** words.

Here are some examples :

word	syllable division	number of syllables
Man	/mæn/	1
House	/haus/	1
Quite	/kwait/	1
Quiet	/kwaɪ . ət/	2
Kitchen	/ki . tʃən/	2

Table	/tei . bl/	2
expensive	/iks . pen . siv/	3
interesting	/ in . ter. est .iŋ /	4
Divisible	/di. vi . zi . bl /	4
unexceptional	/ ʌn.ik.sep.ʃn . (ə)l/	5

### Syllable division

Each syllable generally has only one vowel. However, in some cases you find that a syllable does not contain any vowel : for example, the second syllable in the word “table” (transcribed as /tei.bl/) has no vowel at all. Here, the consonant /l/ seems to act as a vowel. The consonants /l/, /m/ and /n/ are called **syllabic consonants** because they can be used to form syllables in which no vowels are present.

### SYLLABLE STRESS

Try to pronounce the following words : thirty, forty, fifty, sixty.

Each of these words is made up of two syllables. The syllable divisions are shown below :

thir.ty    for.ty    fif.ty    six.ty

You will find that you have a natural tendency to put more ‘breath force’ into the first syllable than into the second, so that the first syllable becomes more prominent. The words will be pronounced as :

THIR.ty    FOR.ty    FIF. ty    SIX.ty

The emphasis that is given (through greater ‘breath force’) to any particular syllable in a word is known as **stress**. In all polysyllabic words, one of the syllables (which may be the first, second, third, fourth or fifth syllable in the word) receives greater stress than the others.

### Stressed and unstressed syllables: stress marking

The syllable in a word which receives stress is called the **stressed** syllable. All other syllables are known as **unstressed** syllables.

The stressed syllable is shown, in most dictionaries, by a short vertical mark which is placed above and just ahead of the first letter (in ordinary spelling) or the first IPA symbol (in phonemic transcription).

For example, the words ‘thirty’, ‘forty’, ‘fifty’, ‘sixty’ would be shown as follows :

ˈθɪr.ti    ˈfɔr.ti    ˈfɪf.ti    ˈsɪk.ti    etc. (in ordinary spelling)

In phonemic transcription these words would appear as:

/ˈθɜː.ti/                    /ˈfɔː.ti/                    /ˈfɪf.ti/                    /ˈsɪks.ti/

### Stress Rule

The fundamental rule is that stress is on the root syllable.

E.g.    ˈcareful    ˈkindness    beˈloved    ɪmˈpossible

— The stress tends to fall on the initial syllable. E.g.

ˈcarry    ˈpaper    ˈcolour    ˈsorry

ˈfamily    ˈlabour    ˈSunday    ˈEnglish

— In most words of four or more syllables, the stress is placed on the third syllable from the end.

E.g.

ˈsocialism    uniˈversity    apˈpreciate

ˈhandkerchief    ˈmanagement    ˈwonderful

— A monosyllabic word in isolation is considered to have stress. E.g.

ˈbook    but, this is a ˈnew book.

ˈlake    but, this is a ˈsmall lake

### STRESS SHIFT

Look at the following set of words

pho.to.graph    pho.to.gra.phy    pho.togra.phic

The words are related to each other, having come from the same root (‘photo’). But notice that the stress falls on a different syllable in each word.

ˈpho.to.graph    pho.ˈto.gra.phy    pho.to.ˈgraph.ic

This ‘migration’ or movement of the stress from one syllable to another in related words is known as **stress shift**.

### Stress variation in words having the same spelling but belonging to different grammatical classes

There are several pairs of words in English which have the same spelling and can be used either as nouns or as verbs. However, there is a shift in stress in these words. When they are used as nouns, the stress is on the first syllable and when used as verbs, they are stressed on the second syllable.

con.duct	con. 'duct
'con.vert	con.'vert
'des.ert	des.'ert
'ex.port	ex.'port
'ob.ject	ob.'ject
'per.mit	per.'mit
'pre.sent	pre.'sent
'pro.cess	pro.'cess
're.bel	re.'bel (verb)

### Stress patterns in compound words

In compound nouns, the stress is on the first part, e.g. **blackbird**, **greenhouse**

In compound adjectives, the stress is on the second part, e.g. good-**natured**, old-**fashioned**

In compound verbs, the stress is on the second part: **understand**, **overflow**

- 1 The **shopkeeper** was rather hasty.
- 2 But the **salesman** was helpful.
- 3 That's an expensive **tape recorder**.
- 4 Take the **water bottle** with you.
- 5 Send for the **fire brigade**.
- 6 Did you reach the **airport** on time

### Heavier stress on the second element

- 1 We were 'held 'up at the 'level 'crossing.
- 2 How did you spend the 'week 'end?
- 3 She said she'd 'call this 'after'noon.
- 4 We found these by the 'sea 'shore.
- 5 Why 'blame the 'Prime 'Minister?

6 I hate to say **'good 'bye**.

Each of the sentences below contains a **phrasal verb**. The second element of the phrasal verb takes a stronger stress than the first

1. **'Turn 'off** the lights.
2. Tell him to **'hold 'on** to them.
3. You'll have to **'put 'up** with it.
4. Ask him not to **'hang 'up**.
5. We may have to **'call 'off** the 'match.
6. Ask him to **'hang 'on** a minute.

## STRESS PATTERN IN SENTENCES (RHYTHM)

Sentences, like words, have stressed as well as unstressed syllables. Stress is put on the words which give us the main information, while the words which are not important for meaning are left unstressed. This pattern of stressed and unstressed syllables in sentences gives English speech its typical rhythm.

### Content words and Structure words

English words can be divided into two categories: **content** words and **structure** words. Content words are usually stressed, while structure words are usually unstressed and reduced.

**Content words** (generally stressed):

- Nouns, main verbs, adjectives and adverbs
- Demonstrative pronouns
- Question words in a question

**Structure words** (generally unstressed)

- Pronouns, prepositions, articles, auxiliary verbs and determiners

The arrangement of content words and structure words in a sentence gives it its **rhythm**.

### Stress-timed and syllable-timed languages

The sentence below contains a number of content words (nouns, verbs etc.) and some structure words (prepositions, articles etc.). Numbers have been placed below the sentence to show the stressed syllables.

The 'girls 'sat 'down, 'some in the 'mid.dle of the 'room and the 'others at the 'side.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

When this sentence is spoken or read out aloud, we find that the time taken to go from one stressed syllable to the next (e.g. from 'girls' to 'sat', or from 'down' to 'some') is always the same, regardless of the number of unstressed syllables that come between the stressed syllables. When the stressed syllables are close to each other, the rate of speaking slows down, but when the stressed syllables are far apart, the rate of speaking becomes faster.

English is called a **stress-timed** language because the time taken to speak a sentence depends on the number of *stressed* syllables and not on the total number of syllables.

English, has a very different rhythm from the Indian languages. To an English ear, Indians languages have a 'sing-song' rhythm. The rhythm of 'Indian English' (English as spoken by Indians) sounds 'strange' to 'foreigners', and this can seriously hamper communication through English between Indians and non-Indians.

It is therefore extremely important to make sure that you are putting stress on the right syllables when you speak English.

## CONTRASTIVE STRESS IN SENTENCES

Stress is not always pre-determined, but can be moved from its normal position in a sentence.

Take, for example, the sentence "Can you lend me some money ? ". Normally, stresses would fall on the content words only, giving us the pattern :

Can you 'lend me some 'money ?

The last stressed syllable in the sentence normally takes the heaviest stress (as we shall see later.) But if the stresses are placed on other syllables, which do not normally take stress, special meanings can be created. For example :

- i. 'Can you lend me some money ? (This sounds like a desperate plea.)
- ii. Can 'you lend me some money ? (I have already asked all the others and failed.)
- iii. Can you 'lend me some money ? (I am not asking you to make a gift of it.)
- iv. Can you lend 'me some money ? (It is I who need the money, not the others)
- v. Can you lend me 'some money ? ( If not a lot of money.)

Here is another example. The sentence below would normally have the following stress pattern :

- a. John is 'leaving for 'Paris to at'tend a 'conference 'next 'week.

But the pattern will change when a particular element has to be emphasized

1. John is leaving for Paris to attend a conference **next week**. ( When ?)
2. John is leaving for **Paris** to attend a conference next week. (Where ?)
3. John is leaving for Paris to attend a **conference** next week. (It is not a pleasure trip)
4. John **is** leaving for Paris to attend a conference next week. (This is the truth.)
5. **John** is leaving for Paris to attend a conference next week. (Not someone else.)

## STRONG AND WEAK FORMS OF STRUCTURE WORDS

We have told you that **structure words** (articles, determiners, auxiliary verbs, prepositions and conjunctions) do not take stress in a sentence.

There are about 40 structure words which have two possible pronunciations: a **weak** form as well as a **strong** form. The *strong* forms are used when these words are spoken in isolation and the weak forms are used when the words are used in sentences, along with other words. It is the weak forms that we usually hear in conversation.

Dictionaries give you both the strong and the weak forms of these words.

### Structure words which are normally used in their weak forms

1. determiners: a, an, the, some, his, her
2. pronouns: he, him, her, us, them, there
3. conjunctions and, as, but, than, that
4. prepositions at, for, from, of, to
5. 'be' forms am, is, are, was, were
6. auxiliaries have, has, had, do, does
7. modals shall, will, can, must, would

### Examples

i. The words 'an', 'as', 'at', and 'and', if spoken in isolation, would be pronounced in the following manner, as shown by the phonemic transcriptions below :

/æn/      /æz/      /æt/      /ænd/

The vowel used in these words is represented by the IPA symbol /æ/. These words are pronounced here in their *strong* forms.

But when these words are used in sentences, along with other words, they change into their *weak* forms, which are :

/ən/      /əz/      /ət/      /ənd/

The vowel /æ/ changes, in the weak form, to the vowel /ə/.

ii. The words 'on' and 'from' are pronounced, in their strong forms, as ;

/ɒn/      /frɒm/

But in their weak forms, these words are pronounced as :

/ən/      /frəm/

Structure words are pronounced in their strong forms in the following cases :

1 when we need to cite the word, as in a language lesson, e.g.

*Use the conjunction 'and' between the last two nouns.*

2 when two function words are contrasted, e.g.

*I go to and from the station every day.*

3 at the end of a sentence, e.g.

*Who were you speaking to?*

4 to emphasize a word, e.g.

*I had a great time and I made a lot of friends.*

## INTONATION

### Pitch

How would you describe the difference between a male voice and the voice of a woman or child? The woman's (or child's) voice sounds more 'shrill' or 'high-pitched', while a male voice is said to have a lower 'pitch'.

If you have heard the sound of a sitar or guitar, you know that the thicker strings (steel wires) produce a 'deep' and 'low' sound, while the thinner strings produce a 'thin' and 'high' sound. The difference between these two sounds is a difference of **pitch**.

The 'pitch' of a sound is different from its 'loudness'. 'Pitch' is related to the 'frequency of vibration' of sound waves. 'High-frequency' sounds have a higher pitch while 'low frequency' sounds have a lower pitch.

### Intonation

When we speak to each other, our voices tend to 'rise' or 'fall' in pitch over a part of an utterance. This rise or fall in pitch is known as **intonation**. Intonation plays an important part in communication. Intonation is used mainly to indicate the speaker's attitude towards the listener or towards the topic on which he/she is speaking

#### Intonation patterns in English

- i. He's \ 'going.
- ii. He's / 'going?

The two sentences have exactly the same grammatical form, but the punctuation shows that the first sentence is meant to be a statement while the second is meant to be a question.

What makes the two sentences different is the *intonation*. In the first sentence, the voice shows a clear fall in pitch, from a higher to a lower level, while in the second sentence there is a rise in pitch.

The fall or rise in pitch takes place at the last stressed syllable ('go'), which is referred to as the **nucleus**. We have used an 'arrow', pointing either downwards or upwards, to show the fall or rise in intonation. The arrow is placed just before the last stressed syllable (nucleus).

We say that the first sentence is spoken with a **falling tone** (or **tune**) while the second is spoken with a **rising tone**. These are the two most commonly used patterns of intonation in English.

#### a. \* The falling tone

The falling tone is used for

- i *ordinary statements*, e.g:

\* The 'man in the 'blue 'shirt is my \ 'brother.

- ii *commands*, e.g.

\* 'Pick up that 'piece of 'paper at \ 'once!

\* 'Clean up the 'floor after you've 'finished your \ 'work.

iii *exclamations*, e.g.

\* What a 'pretty 'dress you're \ 'wearing !

\* What a 'pleasant sur\ 'prise !

iv *'wh-questions'*, e.g.

\* 'What is the 'meaning of this \ 'word ?

\* 'When does the 'Puri Ex'press ar\ 'rive ?

\* 'Why didn't you 'ask him to \ wait ?

v *in question tags seeking confirmation of an opinion expressed by the speaker*, e.g.

\* She's a 'clever 'girl, \ 'isn't she ?

\* It's 'really 'pleasant out here, \ 'isnt it ?

vi *in 'yes/no' questions, the use of the falling tone produces an impression of 'abruptness', suggesting a 'cold' or indifferent attitude on the part of the speaker*, e.g. :

\*Are you 'coming \ 'home with me?

\*Do you 'know the \ 'answer ?

## **b. \*The rising tone**

The rising tone is used for

i. *statements expressing a feeling of surprise, disbelief, sarcasm etc.* For example :

\* 'That 'man is 'Seeta's / 'father ?

The use of the rising tone in this statement shows surprise or disbelief. If the same sentence was spoken with a falling tone, it would be just an ordinary statement.

'That 'man is 'Seeta's \ 'father.

ii. *'yes/no questions'*, e.g.

\* Is she the 'daughter of your / 'friend ?

\* Are 'those 'two 'girls re/ 'lated?

iii. *intonation questions* (sentences which have the structure of statements, but turn into questions because of rising intonation) e.g.

\* You'll 'leave 'next / 'week?

\* The re'sults are / 'out?

\* Our presen'tation is to/ 'day?

iv. *requests*, e.g.,

\* 'Get me a 'glass of / 'water.

\* Could you 'get me a 'glass of / 'water ?

If these two sentences were spoken with falling intonation, they would become commands.

'Get me a 'glass of \ 'water.

Could you 'get me a 'glass of \ 'water ? )

v. *suggestions*, e.g.

\* Shall we 'take a 'bus to the / 'station?

\* Let's 'take a 'bus to the / 'station.

vi. *question tags seeking information*, e.g.

\* The 'last 'train 'leaves at 'nine, / 'doesn't it?

\* He has in'vited you to the 'party, / 'hasn't he ?

\* The 'train 'won't 'leave until 'half 'past 'eight, / 'will it?

(In these sentences, the 'tag' (which follows the comma), is asked with a rising tone, showing that the speaker expects confirmation of the statement or opinion that has been expressed in the first part of each sentence.)

vii. *for 'wh-questions' where the rising tone indicates a feeling of surprise*, e.g

\* 'How did he 'dare to a/ 'buse you?

viii. *in 'wh-questions' where the speaker is asking for the repetition of something that was said earlier*

\* 'When was the 'last 'time you / 'met him?

## FINALITY AND INCOMPLETENESS

The falling tone, used at the end of a statement, indicates finality. (It shows that the statement is over and there is no more to be said.) For example:

- i. I 'feel this 'matter should be \ 'closed.
- ii. There's 'nothing 'more to be \ 'said.

A rising tone, on the other hand, gives a sense of incompleteness. For example :

- i. Having 'thought 'carefully 'over this / 'matter ...
- ii. With 'reference to your appli/'cation ...

The rising tone shows that the end of the sentence has not been reached and there is more to come. (This is shown in writing by the three dots after the last word.)

In a complex sentence where there is a subordinate clause before the main clause, a rising tone is used for the subordinate clause and a falling tone for the main clause. For example:

- i. When the 'bus 'finally ar/'rived, we 'found there were 'no \ 'seats.
- ii. If you 'ask your 'question po/ 'litely, you 'may 'get an \ 'answer.
- iii. When the 'bus 'finally ar/'rived, we 'found there were 'no \ 'seats.
- iv. If you 'ask your 'question po/ 'litely, you 'may 'get an \ 'answer.

- The 'following 'players have been se 'lected for the / 'team: / 'Rahul, / 'Sachin, / 'Anil and \ 'Sourav.

Rising intonation before the first three names shows that the end of the list has not been reached, and the falling intonation before the fourth name shows that this is the end of the list.

- When the po'lice 'searched the 'thief's / 'bag, they 'found a / 'knife, a / 'gun and a 'five 'hundred 'rupee \ 'note.

### c. The falling-rising (fall rise) tone

The fall-rise tone is used :

- i *for polite requests*, e.g.

\* Could I 'borrow your v 'phone?

- ii *to express disbelief on the speaker's part*, e.g.

\* She 'says she's 'seen v ' God !

- iii *in short questions, to show enthusiasm*, e.g.

3 ' Did v you?

- iv. *when making a polite correction to something that someone has said*, e.g.

A: You com'pleted the re'port on 'Thursday?

B: ' Not 'Thursday, v 'Tuesday.

V *in incomplete utterances, e.g. :*

\* ' v Well ...

## Module 3

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# 1. State and Dynamic Verbs

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## **Dynamic verbs vs. Stative verbs can cause confusion among students.**

But really they aren't as difficult or as complicated as you may think.

The most important reason you need to know about these is because stative verbs can't usually be used in the progressive form. But more about that later!

### **Firstly, what do the words "dynamic" and "stative" mean?**

They aren't very common words in everyday English, but they are grammar terms you will need to know to understand this subject.

### **Dynamic**

"Dynamic" is an adjective which means something is moving or changing.

In English grammar a "dynamic verb" means that the verb describes an action rather than a state. Dynamic verbs are sometimes known as "action verbs."

***"Joe is chasing the bus."***

### **Stative**

"Stative" is an adjective which describes something as having a state, or existing (this is a very uncommon adjective).

In English grammar a "stative verb" means that the verb describes a state rather than an action.

Stative verbs are sometimes known as "state verbs."

***"Kevin wants some ice-cream."***

### ***So now you know the meaning of the terms, let's look at some examples!***

First, here is a list of some Dynamic verbs. You can see that they are all used to describe an action, change, or process. Most of them are used to describe an activity which has a start and an end.

### **Examples of dynamic verbs:**

eat	write
walk	run
learn	read
grow	become
sleep	go
talk	

These words can all be used in the progressive form.

### Example sentences with dynamic verbs:

"I can't talk right now, I'm eating dinner."

*Present progressive used to describe an action happening now.*

"Sorry, I'm out of breath because I've been running."

*Present perfect progressive used to describe an action that started in the past, continued for some time and has results now.*

"I didn't steal the necklace! I was sleeping when someone broke into the shop!"

*Past progressive used to talk about an action that was happening at a particular time in the past.*

**Here is a list of some of the Stative verbs. Some of these describe relationships between things or people (for example, own) and some describe emotions or states of mind.**

### Examples of stative verbs:

love

hate

like

prefer

doubt

seem

know

own

understand

Examples showing that these words cannot be used in the progressive form.

Correct: "I like chocolate, but I prefer cake."

Incorrect: "I'm liking chocolate but I'm preferring cake."

Correct: "I don't understand you when you speak quickly."

Incorrect: "I'm not understanding you when you speak quickly."

### NOTE:

**There are also some verbs that can be either dynamic or stative, depending on their meaning and context in the sentence. I'm sure you know by now that there are many words in English that can have more than one meaning!**

### Examples of verbs that can be either dynamic or stative:

think

mind

have

smell

sound

**Let's look at some examples of how these verbs are used differently.**

"I think it is wrong to hit children."

*Here, think is a stative verb. It means "to have an opinion" and it cannot be used in the progressive form in this case.*

**BUT**

"I'm thinking about buying a new car."

*Here, thinking is describing a process, or an action. Something that is happening, rather than simply being. So here we can use the progressive form.*

"I don't mind what we do tonight."

*Here, mind means "care about", which is a state of mind, not an action. Therefore, it is stative.*

**BUT**

"I'm not being nosy. I'm minding my own business!"

*Here, minding means "looking after" and is therefore a process and a dynamic verb.*

"I have three brothers."

*Have here means "own" and is therefore stative.*

**BUT**

"I'm having a bad time right now. I'll call you when things are better."

*Having in this sentence means the speaker is going through the process of a bad time. It is therefore dynamic.*

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## 2. FINITE AND NON FINITE VERBS

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### Finite and non-finite Verbs

#### Finite verbs

Present Simple:	I type	I speak
Present Continuous:	I am typing	I am speaking
Past Simple:	I typed	I spoke
Present Perfect:	I have typed	I have spoken

#### Non-finite verbs

Present Participle:	Typing speed	Speaking engagement
Perfect Participle:	Having typed	Having spoken
Past Participle:	Typed letters	Spoken commentary
Gerund:	Typing can be difficult.	Do you find speaking stressful?
Infinitive:	To type is a real skill.	They want you to speak.

### Non-finite verbs are not limited by subject, person, number or tense

The Present Participle is formed by adding the suffix – ing. It functions as an adjective.

His **typing** speed was less than ideal.

The **speaking** engagement was for next Friday afternoon.

The Perfect Participle is formed by combining with the past participle:

**Having typed** the letter, he went home.

**Having spoken** her mind, she felt more at ease.

The Past Participle without an auxiliary, functions as an adjective:

**Typed** letters don't always look better than hand-written ones.

Most sports shows have a **spoken** commentary with them.

The Gerund is merely the present participle that functions as a noun.

**Typing** is something I don't do as well as I should.

I find **speaking** stressful. 2

The Infinitive

**To type** is a real skill.

**To win** the prize is my dream.

## PARTICIPLE

Present Participles ( –ing form) can be used as an adjective.

- This is an interesting book. (This book interests me)
- John has become very boring. (John now bores us.)
- An astounding number of men stay bachelors. (The number astounds us.)
- A charming house on the outskirts of town. (The house charms us.)

**Present Participles ( –ing form) can be combined with adverbs in compound structures**

- An adequately functioning computer. (A computer that functions adequately.)
- Pro-active performing staff (Staff who perform pro-actively)
- Quick-growing trees (These trees grow quickly)
- Slow-moving produce (This produces moves slowly)

**Present Participles ( –ing form) with an object can be used as an adjective. Note the word order.**

- Tamil-speaking Sri Lankans (These Sri Lankans speak Tamil)
- A rabbit-hunting woman. (A woman who hunts rabbits.)
- Is that oven self-cleaning? (Does that oven clean itself?)

**Verbs + ing forms - After some verbs, an –ing form is necessary:**

stop	delay	fancy	consider	admit	miss	involve
finish	postpone	imagine	avoid	deny	risk	enjoy

**After some expressions, an –ing form is necessary:**

It's no use                      it's no good                      there's no point in it's (not) worth                      have difficulty

**Examples with passive:**

- She fears that patients would resent being interviewed by a medical computer.
- He loves being looked at by others.

**Verb-like -ing forms - Agent (subject) of gerund is also the subject of the verb in the sentence.**

**Same time**

- Carol's in the bar having a drink.
- A man ran out of the house shouting.
- Don't just stand there doing nothing.
- Steve hurt his arm playing tennis.
- Be careful when crossing the road

### **Often used with verbs of reporting.**

- I saw a small girl standing in the goldfish pond.
- I saw him walking down the street.
- She heard me reading aloud my vocabulary.
- Liz felt something touching her on the back.

### **Instead of relative clauses**

- Who's the fat man sitting in the corner?
- There's a woman crying her eyes out over there.
- Anyone touching that wire, will get a shock.
- There's Neville, eating as usual.

### **After conjunctions and prepositions.**

- She's been quite different since coming back from Singapore.
- On meeting each other, Australian people often shake hands.
- They left without saying goodbye.

### **PERFECT PARTICIPLES**

- Having driven five hours to the meeting, Don learnt that it had been postponed.
- Having been invited to the party, we could hardly refuse to go.
- All the money having been spent, we started looking for work.
- Having been hunted close to extinction, the rhino is once again common in this area.

### **PAST PARTICIPLES**

**Past Participles ( –ed form) can be used as an adjective. These are derived from passive constructions.**

- The upstairs toilet window is still broken. (The window was broken by someone)
- The house looked abandoned. (The house had been abandoned by its occupants.)
- We cannot refuse to teach children the required subjects. (The subjects are required by the school.)
- She says she's got a broken heart. (Her heart was broken by someone.)

### **Clause-like structures**

- Rejected by all his friends, he decided to become a monk.
- Used economically, one tin will last for six weeks.
- Served with milk and sugar, it makes a delicious breakfast.

### **GERUNDS**

A gerund is a verbal form that ends in *-ing* and functions as a noun. Since a gerund functions as a noun, it occupies some positions in a sentence that a noun ordinarily would, for example: subject, direct object, subject complement, and object of preposition.

#### **Gerund as subject:**

- *Travelling* might satisfy your desire for new experiences.

- The study abroad program might satisfy your desire for new experiences.

**Gerund as direct object:**

They do not appreciate my *singing*.

They do not appreciate my assistance.

**Gerund as subject complement:**

My cat's favourite activity is *sleeping*.

My cat's favourite food is salmon.

**Gerund as object of preposition:**

The police arrested him for *speeding*.

The police arrested him for criminal activity.

**A Gerund Phrase is a group of words consisting of a gerund and the modifier(s) and/or (pro)noun(s) or noun phrase(s) that function as the direct object(s), indirect object(s), or complement(s) of the action or state expressed in the gerund, such as:**

<p><i>Finding a needle in a haystack</i> would be easier than what we're trying to do.</p>	<p><b>The gerund phrase functions as the subject of the sentence.</b> Finding (gerund) a needle (direct object of action expressed in gerund) in a haystack (prepositional phrase as adverb)</p>
<p>I hope that you appreciate <i>my offering you this opportunity</i>.</p>	<p><b>The gerund phrase functions as the direct object of the verb appreciate.</b> my (possessive pronoun adjective form, modifying the gerund) offering (gerund) you (indirect object of action expressed in gerund) this opportunity (direct object of action expressed in gerund)</p>
<p>Newt's favourite tactic has been <i>lying to his constituents</i>.</p>	<p><b>The gerund phrase functions as the subject complement.</b> lying to (gerund) his constituents (direct object of action expressed in gerund)</p>
<p>You might get in trouble for <i>faking an illness to avoid work</i>.</p>	<p><b>The gerund phrase functions as the object of the preposition for.</b> faking (gerund) an illness (direct object of action expressed in gerund) to avoid work (infinitive phrase as adverb)</p>
<p><i>Being the boss</i> made Jeff feel uneasy.</p>	<p><b>The gerund phrase functions as the subject of the sentence.</b> Being (gerund) the boss (subject complement for <i>Jeff</i>, via state of being expressed in gerund)</p>

**INFINITIVES**

The infinitive may function as a subject, direct object, subject complement, adjective, or adverb in a sentence. Although an infinitive is easy to locate because of the *to* + verb form, deciding what function it has in a sentence can sometimes be confusing.

- *To wait* seemed foolish when decisive action was required. (subject)
- Everyone wanted *to go*. (direct object)
- His ambition is *to fly*. (subject complement)
- He lacked the strength *to resist*. (adjective)
- We must study *to learn*. (adverb)

**An Infinitive Phrase** is a group of words consisting of an infinitive and the modifier(s) and/or (pro)noun(s) or noun phrase(s) that function as the actor(s), direct object(s), indirect object(s), or complement(s) of the action or state expressed in the infinitive, such as:

<b>We intended <i>to leave early</i>.</b>	<b>Functioning as direct object of the verb <i>intended</i>.</b> to leave (infinitive) early (adverb)
<b>I have a paper <i>to write before class</i>.</b>	<b>Functioning as an adjective modifying <i>paper</i>.</b> to write (infinitive) before class (prepositional phrase as adverb)
<b>Phil agreed <i>to give me a ride</i>.</b>	<b>Functioning as the direct object of the verb <i>agreed</i>.</b> to give (infinitive) me (indirect object of action expressed in infinitive) a ride (direct object of action expressed in infinitive)
<b>They asked <i>me to bring some food</i>.</b>	<b>Functioning as the direct object of the verb <i>asked</i>.</b> me (actor or "subject" of infinitive phrase) to bring (infinitive) some food (direct object of action expressed in infinitive)
<b>Everyone wanted <i>Carol to be the captain of the team</i>.</b>	<b>Functioning as the direct object of the verb <i>wanted</i>.</b> Carol (actor or "subject" of infinitive phrase) to be (infinitive) the captain (subject complement for <i>Carol</i> , via state of being expressed in infinitive) of the team (prepositional phrase as adjective)

### Split infinitives:

Split infinitives occur when additional words are included between *to* and the verb in an infinitive. Many readers find a single adverb splitting the infinitive to be acceptable, but this practice should be avoided in formal writing.

#### **Examples:**

- I like *to* on a nice day *walk* in the woods. (unacceptable)
- On a nice day, I like *to walk* in the woods. (revised)
- I needed *to* quickly *gather* my personal possessions. (acceptable in informal contexts)
- I needed *to gather* my personal possessions quickly. (revised for formal contexts)

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### 3. Time, tense and aspect

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<b>FUTURE</b>	<b>She will help her friend tomorrow</b>	<b>She will be helping her friend when I get there.</b>	<b>She will have helped her friend by tomorrow.</b>	<b>She will have been helping her friend for a couple of hours by the time they stop.</b>
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#### Aspect

#### The continuous aspect

*BE + PRESENT PARTICIPLE (VERB+ING)*

The continuous aspect is expressed with the auxiliary *be* and the present participle *-ing* form of the verb. Depending on the time of the action, we use the past (*was, were*), present (*am, are, is*) or modal + infinitive (e.g. *will be*) form of *be*.

The continuous aspect focuses on the duration of an event. It expresses that the action was, is or will be in progress at a specific point of time or over a period of time. The point of time may be defined by a time expression (*now, at 5 o'clock yesterday, this time tomorrow*) or a clause (*when I came home, when I come home*). For the period of time we can also use a time expression (*all day yesterday*) or a clause (*while she was reading*).

#### Examples of the continuous aspect:

*Are you **enjoying** yourself? (now)*

*At 5 o'clock I **was sitting** on the bus.*

*When I came home she **was sleeping**.*

*She **must be waiting** for me. (now)*

#### The perfect aspect

*HAVE + PAST PARTICIPLE*

The perfect aspect is expressed with the auxiliary *have* and the past participle form of the verb. Depending on the time of the action, we use the past (*had*), present (*have, has*), modal + infinitive (e.g. *will have*) or *-ing (having)* form of *have*.

The perfect aspect focuses on the completion of an event. It expresses that the action had, has or will have been completed by a specific point of time. This point of time may be defined by a time expression (*by 5 o'clock*) or a clause (*by the time you get home, when I arrived*).

#### Examples of the perfect aspect:

*I've lived here for ten years.* (from 10 years ago until now)

*By 5 o'clock he **had finished** the letter.* (at some time before 5 o'clock)

*When I arrived, they **had already left**.* (at some time before I arrived)

***Have you seen** my new bike?* (at any time up to now)

*I **will have done** the ironing by the time you get home.* (between now and when you get home)

*He **might have missed** the train.* (at some time before now)

***Having taken** the wrong turn, he ended up in a dangerous suburb.* (before he found himself in a dangerous suburb)

## The perfect continuous aspect

HAVE + BEEN + VERB-ING

The perfect continuous is not considered as an aspect in itself; rather it is the combination of the perfect and continuous aspects.

It is expressed with the auxiliaries *have* and *been* (the third form of *be*), and the (present participle) *-ing* form of the verb. Depending on the time of the action, we use the past (*had*), present (*have, has*) or modal + infinitive (e.g. *would have*) form of *have*.

The perfect continuous expresses that the action had, has or will have been in progress for some time at a specific point of time. This point of time may be defined by a time expression (*at 5 o'clock*) or a clause (*when she gets home*).

### Examples of the perfect continuous:

*I've **been waiting** for this moment all my life.* (from when I was born until now)

*At 5 o'clock he **had been writing** his homework for an hour.* (from 4 to 5 o'clock)

*When she gets home, Kevin **will have been sleeping** for hours.* (from some time before she gets home until she gets home)

*He's **been ironing** his shirts.* (from some time in the past until now)

*I **wouldn't have been** sitting there, if I hadn't had to.* (from some time in the past until a later time in the past)

## Tense is NOT time.

Past tense verbs do not always talk about the past. The future is not always expressed using the future tense.

Time has to do with the physical world we live in.

Tense is a grammatical feature of verbs. It often expresses a time relationship. The relationship between language and the real world is not a one-to-one relationship.

- My flight leaves at noon tomorrow.
- Leaves is a present tense verb.

**Sometimes we use a past tense verb to talk about something in the present.**

- If I had time right now, I would help you.

**Tense normally indicates the time of an action but very often there is no correspondence between tense & time – form of verb and time of action.**

- Simple Present – indicating no particular time (The sun rises in the east.)
- Simple Present – indicating future time (Manoj leaves for Patna next week.)
- Present Progressive – indicating future time (Manoj is leaving for Patna tonight.)
- Present Perfect – indicating future time ( I will go home after I have finished my work.)
- Simple Present – indicating past time ( He goes into hiding for five years and then robs the bank.)
- Simple Past – indicating present time ( It’s time we started the meeting.)
- Simple Past – indicating future time ( If a lion appeared all would flee.)
- Present Perfect – indicating past time ( You may have heard the news.)
- Simple future – general truths ( Wood will float on water.)

## **KEEPING TENSE AND TIME APART**

### **PRESENT**

<b>Tense</b>	<b>Time</b>
<b>Simple Present</b> I eat rice	<b>Simple Present</b> I eat rice
<b>Progressive</b> I am eating rice	<b>Progressive</b> I am eating rice
<b>Perfect</b> I have eaten rice	<b>As it refers to past time</b>
<b>Perfect Continuous</b> I have been eating rice	<b>Perfect Continuous</b> I have been eating rice

## PAST

TENSE	TIME
<b>Simple Past</b> I ate rice	<b>Simple Past</b> I ate rice
<b>Progressive</b> I was eating rice	<b>Progressive</b> I was eating rice
<b>Perfect</b> I had eaten rice	<b>Perfect</b> I had eaten rice
<b>Perfect Progressive</b> I had been eating rice	<b>Perfect Progressive</b> I had been eating rice
	<b>Present Perfect</b> I have eaten rice

## FUTURE

There are five main ways of expressing future time, they are –

**a. Will or shall:**

For e.g. I will see you again on Tuesday.

**b. Be going to:** Be going to + verb

For e.g. I think I am going to faint.

**c. Progressive Aspect:**

For e.g. What are you doing for lunch?

**d. Simple Present Tense:**

For e.g. I hope the train is on time.

**e. Will/ shall + progressive aspect**

For e.g. What do you think you will be doing at school today?

## EXCEPTIONS

- Future in the Past – is often expressed by would, was going to etc. in reported speech – for e.g. They were going to arrest him when he escaped from the building.
- Past in the Future – is expressed by will + perfect infinitive – for e.g. I am hoping that by the end of the month you will have finished your report.

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## 4. ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE

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### Form

The passive of an active tense is formed by putting the verb to be into the same tense as the active verb and adding the past participle of the active verb. The subject of the active verb becomes the 'agent' of the passive verb. The agent is very often not mentioned. When it is mentioned it is preceded by *by* and placed at the end of the clause:

- This tree was planted by my grandfather.

### Examples of present, past and perfect passive tenses:

- Active: We keep the butter here.  
Passive: The butter is kept here.
- Active: They broke the window.  
Passive: The window was broken.
- Active: People have seen wolves in the streets.  
Passive: Wolves have been seen in the streets.

The passive of continuous tenses requires the present continuous forms of *to be*, which are not otherwise much used:

- Active: They are repairing the bridge.  
Passive: The bridge is being repaired.
- Active: They were carrying the injured player off the field.  
Passive: The injured player was being carried off the field.

Other continuous tenses are exceedingly rarely used in the passive, so that sentences such as:

- They have/had been repairing the road and
- They will/would be repairing the road are not normally put into the passive,

Auxiliary + infinitive combinations are made passive by using a passive infinitive:

- Active: You must/should shut these doors.  
Passive: These doors must/should be shut.
- Active: They should/ought to have told him.  
(perfect infinitive active)  
Passive: He should/ought to have been told.  
(perfect infinitive passive)

### Other infinitive combinations

Verbs of liking/loving/wanting/wishing etc. + object + infinitive form their passive with the passive infinitive:

- Active: *He wants someone to take photographs.*  
Passive: *He wants photographs to be taken.*

With verbs of command/request/advice/invitation + indirect object + infinitive we form the passive by using the passive form of the main verb:

- Active: *He invited me to go.*
- Passive: *I was invited to go.*

But with *advise/beg/order/recommend/urge* + indirect object + infinitive + object we can form the passive in two ways: by making the main verb passive, as above, or by *advise etc. + that, should + passive infinitive*:

- Active: *He urged the Council to reduce the rates.*
- Passive: *The Council was/were urged to reduce the rates or*

*agree/be anxious/arrange/be determined/determine/decide/demand* + infinitive + object are usually expressed in the passive by *that... should*, as above:

- Active: *He decided to sell the house.*
- Passive: *He decided that the house should be sold.*

### Gerund combinations

*advise/insist/propose/recommend/suggest* + gerund + object are usually expressed in the passive by *that... should*, as above:

- Active: *He recommended using bullet-proof glass.*
- Passive: *He recommended that bullet-proof glass should be used.*

### Active tenses and their passive equivalents

Tense/Verb form	Active voice	Passive voice
<b>Simple present</b>	keeps	is kept
<b>Present continuous</b>	is keeping	is being kept
<b>Simple past</b>	kept	was kept
<b>Past continuous</b>	was keeping	was being kept
<b>Present perfect</b>	has kept	has been kept
<b>Past perfect</b>	had kept	had been kept
<b>Future</b>	will keep	will be kept
<b>Conditional</b>	would keep	would be kept
<b>Perfect conditional</b>	would have kept	would have been kept
<b>Present infinitive</b>	to keep	to be kept
<b>Perfect infinitive</b>	to have kept	to have been kept
<b>Present participle/gerund</b>	keeping	being kept
<b>Perfect participle</b>	having kept	having been kept

## Uses of the passive

*The passive is used:*

- A. When it is not necessary to mention the doer of the action as it is obvious who he is/was/will be:
- The rubbish hasn't been collected.
  - The streets are swept every day.
  - Your hand will be X-rayed.
- B. When we don't know, or don't know exactly, or have forgotten who did the action:
- The minister was murdered.
  - My cay has been moved!
  - You'll be met at the station.
  - I've been Sold that. . .
- C. When the subject of the active verb would be 'people':
- He is suspected of receiving stolen goods. (People suspect him of . . .)
  - They are supposed to be living in New York. (People suppose that they are living . . .)
- D. When the subject of the active sentence would be the indefinite pronoun one:
- One sees this sort of advertisement everywhere would usually be expressed:  
This sort of advertisement is seen everywhere.

**In colloquial speech we can use the indefinite pronoun you and an active verb:**

- You see this sort of advertisement everywhere
- E. When we are more interested in the action than the person who does it:
- The house next door has been bought (by a M-r Jones). If, however, we know Mr Jones, we would use the active;
  - Your/other's friend, Mr Jones, has bought the house next door. Similarly:
- F. The passive may be used to avoid an awkward or ungrammatical sentence. This is usually done by avoiding a change of subject:
- When he arrived home a detective arrested him would be better expressed:
  - When he arrived home he was arrested (by a detective).
  - When their mother was ill neighbors looked after the children would be better expressed:
  - When their mother was ill the children were looked after by neighbors.

**The passive is sometimes preferred for psychological reasons. A speaker may use it to disclaim responsibility for disagreeable announcements:**

- EMPLOYER: Overtime rates are being reduced/will have to be reduced. The active will of course, be used for agreeable announcements:

**I/We are going to increase overtime rates. The speaker may know who performed the action but wish to avoid giving the name. Tom, who suspects Bill of opening his letters, may say tactfully:**

- *This letter has been opened!*, instead of *you've opened this letter!*
- For the have + object + past participle construction, *I had the car resprayed.*

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## 5. MODALS

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Modals are a group of **auxiliary verbs** that are used to express an attitude or idea of prediction, ability, necessity, permission, or politeness.

Modals, unlike all other verbs, have no -s form, and they do not always change form from present to past.

**In English there are nine modals:**

**will can shall may must**

**would could should might**

Only **would, could, should,** and **might** are used in the past, but all nine modals may be used in the present

### Present

I **would** like to come tomorrow, but I **should** really do my homework, so I don't think I **will**.

I **could** do my homework tonight.

If I finish early, I **might** come.

### Past

He said he **would** help us move.

Later he called to say he **might** have to work.

We decided we **should** start without him.

**All modals, whether they are used in the past or the present must be followed by the simple or base form of the main verb.**

I **should arrive** on time.

If I am late, you **can call** my mother to find out what happened.

He knew he **would be** late, so he called to apologize.

### SEMI-MODALS

In addition to the nine modals, there are several phrases known as semi-modals. These have the same basic meaning and function as the modals, but they have a different form. The following is a list of semi-modals with their modal equivalents:

am/is/are going to = will

am/is/are able to = can

was/were going to = would (prediction in past)

used to = would (habitual in past)

ought to = should

have/has/had to = must

need/needs/needed to = must or should

Unlike modals, **semi-modals do change form for present and past and do have an –s form.**

I **am going to** call my mother tonight.

She **is going to** pick us up at the bus stop.

Your friends **weren't able to** attend the wedding.

My son **needs to** work on his spelling.

The only exceptions are **ought to**, which doesn't change form and **used to** which is only used in past tense.

He **ought to** know better than to call me so late.

Even when he lived at home, we always **used to** go to bed early.

Semi-modals, like modals, are always followed by the **base form** of the main verb.

I **was going to arrive** on time, but when the pilot **had to return** to the terminal, we were delayed, and I **wasn't able to notify** you.

## THE MEANINGS OF MODALS

All modals, in all their uses, express some degree of vagueness or uncertainty. They also tend to fall along a continuum from more to less probable, possible, realistic, necessary, or polite.

The following illustrations may help to make this idea of a continuum clear:

### Making Predictions

Even when you use the most definite modal, **will**, you are only making a prediction, not expressing certainty about the future, since we can never be fully certain of the future. Thus, even when you say you **will** be somewhere at a certain time, both you and the person you are speaking to know that it is possible that you won't.

least certain<----->most certain  
could    might    may    should    will

If you don't get up early, you **could** miss your class.

I **might** get there late, but I **will** be in class tomorrow.

I **should** make it on time, unless the trains are running late.

### Making Inferences

An inference is similar to a prediction, but instead of guessing what could or will happen, an inference is a guess about the reason for something or the meaning of something.

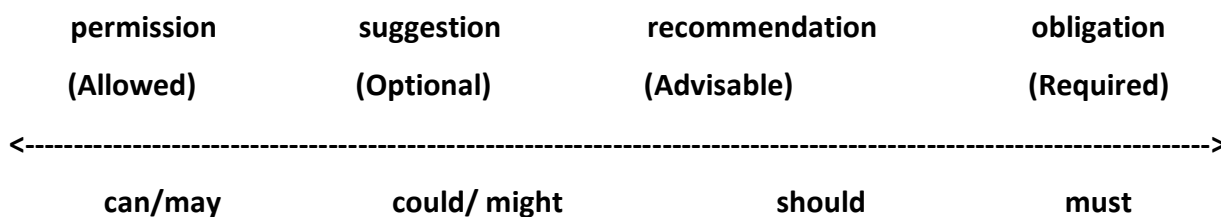
unlikely<----->likely  
could    might    may    must

I don't know why he's late. I guess he **could** be stuck in traffic.

He **may** have lost the phone number because he usually calls on time.

You **must** be in love because you look so happy.

### Expressing Permission, Recommendation, and Obligation



You **can** come any time, but you may want to be early to get a good seat.

You **could** take a day off tomorrow if you can't find a babysitter.

You **should** go to the ballet; it's fantastic.

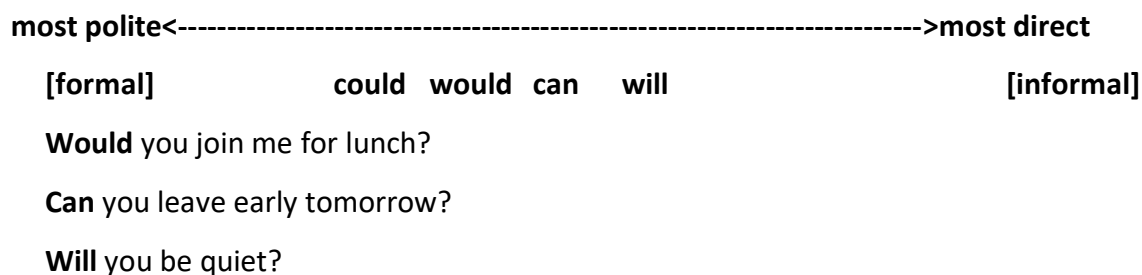
*Note: Students whose first language is not English sometimes confuse should with have to, the semi-modal equivalent of must. If something is a good idea or even strongly advised, use should. If it's required or necessary, then use have to or must.*

I **should** go to bed early because I **have to** be at work at 7 A.M.

At registration the clerk told me I **had to** get a copy of my transcript before I would be able to register.

### Making Polite Requests

When making requests, the modal is placed first since a polite request is a form of a question.



-5-

**Note: the most direct way of making a request is to use an imperative:**

Be quiet!

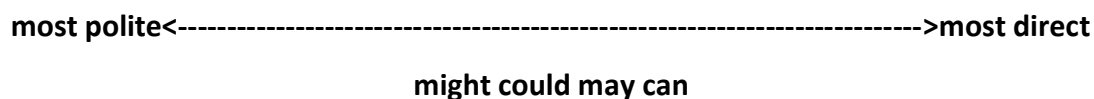
Take off your shoes.

or

more politely: Please, be quiet.

### Requesting Permission

When requesting permission, it is common to be even more polite (sometimes even humble)



**Might** I have a moment of your time?

**Could** you give me a ride?

**May** I speak frankly?

**Can** I talk to you?

## USE OF MODALS WITH EXAMPLES

Verb	Function or Use	Example
<b>Will</b>	Making personal predictions	I don't think the product will ever get launched
	Talking about the present with certainty	I am sure you will understand that it is not correct
	Talking about the future with certainty	I won't be in office tomorrow, I have a meeting in the other division
	Talking about the past with certainty	I am sure you will have noticed that the machine is not working
	Reassuring someone	Don't worry! You will settle down quickly
	Making a decision	I'll have just coffee and biscuits for breakfast
	Making a semi formal and (perhaps blunt )request	Will you open the door please? It's very hot in here.
	Offering to do something	You stay here, I'll get the paper.
	Making a promise or a threat	I'll be there at 4pm.
<b>Shall</b>	Making offers	Shall I prepare the report?
	Making suggestions	Shall we postpone the meeting?
	Giving an order ( too officious and authoritative - not used today)	You shall report for duty tomorrow.
<b>May and Might</b>	Talking about the past or the future with uncertainty	She may be back in the office. The meeting got over 10 minutes ago
	Requesting permission formally	May I take a day off?
	Giving permission	You may take the afternoon off.
<b>May</b>	Talking about things that can happen in certain situations	If the monitors are used in poorly lit places, users may experience headaches.
<b>Might</b>	Conveying very weak possibility	You might have seen me in the crowd
<b>Would</b>	As a past tense of 'will'	He said that the meeting will take place today
	Polite requests and offers	Would you like me to clarify?
	To indicate imagined, unreal , impossible situations	If I managed the project, I would implement
	To show regret or irritation over someone's refusal or their insistence on doing something	I wish you wouldn't keep interrupting me
	Talking about past habits	When I was in college, I would visit the library everyday

	Talking about a future event when narrating the past	XYZ event happened. It changed everything in his life. He would become a topper in his class after this event.
<b>Can and Could</b>	Talking about ability	He can solve the problem. Let's allocate the task to him.
	Making requests	Can you give me a call? Could you send in the report?
	Asking permission	Can I ask you a question?
	Reported speech	He asked me if I could pick him up after work
	General possibility	You can drive when you are 18
	Choice and opportunities	We could ask for extra funds
	Future probabilities	We can get permission easily
	Present possibility	That can be the right answer You could be right
	Past possibility	If I had known that the meeting is cancelled, I could have taken leave today
<b>Must</b>	Necessity and obligation	We must ask for an extension You must give us feedback
	Strong advice and invitations	I think you must make more of an effort
	Saying that you think something is certain	This must be the file. It has the project name on it.
<b>Should</b>	Giving advice	I think we should opt for a better day
	Weak obligation	The management should arrange for training
	Things which didn't happen or may (or may not) have happened	The order should reach you by eod. I'll go back to office and send it.
<b>Ought to</b>	Used almost like should. Used for expressing obligation	You ought to use a different approach.

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## 6. CONCORD

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### Basic Rule

The basic rule states that a singular subject takes a singular verb, while a plural subject takes a plural verb.

**NOTE:** The trick is in knowing whether the subject is singular or plural. The next trick is recognizing a singular or plural verb.

**Hint:** Verbs do not form their plurals by adding an s as nouns do. In order to determine which verb is singular and which one is plural, think of which verb you would use with *he* or *she* and which verb you would use with *they*.

### Example:

*talks, talk*

Which one is the singular form?

Which word would you use with *he*?

We say, "He talks." Therefore, *talks* is singular.

We say, "They talk." Therefore, *talk* is plural.

### Rule 1

***Two singular subjects connected by or or nor require a singular verb.***

### Example:

*My aunt or my uncle is arriving by train today.*

### Rule 2

***Two singular subjects connected by either/or or neither/nor require a singular verb as in Rule 1.***

### Examples:

*Neither Juan nor Carmen is available.*

*Either Kiana or Casey is helping today with stage decorations.*

### Rule 3

***When I is one of the two subjects connected by either/or or neither/nor, put it second and follow it with the singular verb am.***

### Example:

*Neither she nor I am going to the festival.*

### Rule 4

***When a singular subject is connected by or or nor to a plural subject, put the plural subject last and use a plural verb.***

### Example:

*The serving bowl or the plates go on that shelf.*

### Rule 5

***When a singular and plural subject are connected by either/or or neither/nor, put the plural subject last and use a plural verb.***

**Example:**

*Neither Jenny nor the others are available.*

**Rule 6**

***As a general rule, use a plural verb with two or more subjects when they are connected by and.***

**Example:**

*A car and a bike are my means of transportation.*

**Rule 7**

***Sometimes the subject is separated from the verb by words such as along with, as well as, besides, or not. Ignore these expressions when determining whether to use a singular or plural verb.***

**Examples:**

*The politician, along with the newsmen, is expected shortly.*

*Excitement, as well as nervousness, is the cause of her shaking.*

**Rule 8**

***The pronouns each, everyone, every one, everybody, anyone, anybody, someone, and somebody are singular and require singular verbs. Do not be misled by what follows of.***

**Examples:**

*Each of the girls sings well.*

*Every one of the cakes is gone.*

**NOTE:** *Everyone* is one word when it means *everybody*. *Every one* is two words when the meaning is *each one*.

**Rule 9**

***With words that indicate portions—percent, fraction, part, majority, some, all, none, remainder, and so forth—look at the noun in your of phrase (object of the preposition) to determine whether to use a singular or plural verb. If the object of the preposition is singular, use a singular verb. If the object of the preposition is plural, use a plural verb.***

**Examples:**

*Fifty percent of the pie has disappeared.*

*Pie* is the object of the preposition *of*.

*Fifty percent of the pies have disappeared.*

*Pies* is the object of the preposition.

**Rule 10**

***The expression the number is followed by a singular verb while the expression a number is followed by a plural verb.***

**Examples:**

*The number of people we need to hire is thirteen.*

*A number of people have written in about this subject.*

## Rule 11

***When either and neither are subjects, they always take singular verbs.***

### **Examples:**

*Neither of them is available to speak right now.*

*Either of us is capable of doing the job.*

## Rule 12

***The words here and there have generally been labeled as adverbs even though they indicate place. In sentences beginning with here or there, the subject follows the verb.***

### **Examples:**

*There are four hurdles to jump.*

*There is a high hurdle to jump.*

## Rule 13

**Use a singular verb with sums of money or periods of time.**

### **Examples:**

*Ten dollars is a high price to pay.*

*Five years is the maximum sentence for that offense.*

## Rule 14

**Sometimes the pronoun *who*, *that*, or *which* is the subject of a verb in the middle of the sentence. The pronouns *who*, *that*, and *which* become singular or plural according to the noun directly in front of them. So, if that noun is singular, use a singular verb. If it is plural, use a plural verb.**

### **Examples:**

*Salma is the scientist who writes/write the reports.*

The word in front of *who* is *scientist*, which is singular. Therefore, use the singular verb *writes*.

*He is one of the men who does/do the work.*

The word in front of *who* is *men*, which is plural. Therefore, use the plural verb *do*.

## Rule 15

**Collective nouns such as *team* and *staff* may be either singular or plural depending on their use in the sentence.**

### **Examples:**

*The staff is in a meeting.*

*Staff is acting as a unit here.*

*The staff are in disagreement about the findings.*

*The staff are acting as separate individuals in this example.*

The sentence would read even better as:

*The staff members are in disagreement about the findings.*

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## 7. NEGATION

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### Definition:

A grammatical construction that contradicts (or negates) part or all of a sentence's meaning.

In [Standard English](#), negative [clauses](#) and [sentences](#) commonly include the [negative particle](#) *not* or the contracted negative *n't*.

Negative [words](#) (known as *negators*) are commonly formed by adding the [prefix](#) *-un*. Other negative [affixes](#) include *a-*, *de-*, *dis-*, *in-*, *-less*, and *mis-*.

### Basic rules

1. **Do** is used if there is no other auxiliary verb. After do, we use the infinitive without to.

- Money **brings** you happiness. (assertive)
- Money **does not bring** you happiness. (negative)
- She **came**. (assertive)
- She **did not come**. (negative)

2. When **be** (is, am, are, was, were) is the main verb, we make negative forms by putting **not** after **be**.

- She **is not** ready.
- You **are not** late.
- I **was not** surprised.

3. When **have** is the main verb, we make negative forms by putting **do not** before **have**.

- They **have** a car. (assertive)
- They **do not have** a car. (negative)
- He **has** a good job. (assertive)
- He **does not have** a good job. (negative)

4. We use **not** before infinitives and **-ing** forms. **Do** is not used.

- It is important **not to be** late.
- The best thing about a computer **is not complaining**.

5. Besides **not**, there are also other words that can make a clause negative.

*Compare:*

- He is **not** at home.
- He is **never** at home.
- He is **seldom/rarely/hardly ever** at home.

### Negative questions

Contracted and uncontracted [negative questions](#) have different word order.

Compare:

- **Can't we** wait? (auxiliary verb + n't + subject – contracted)
- **Won't she** come? (auxiliary verb + n't + subject – contracted)
- **Can we not** wait? (auxiliary verb + subject + not – uncontracted)
- **Will she not** come? (auxiliary verb + subject + not – uncontracted)

Contracted negative questions are less formal than uncontracted negative questions.

**Review the following table for examples of negation in English. Some examples use the contracted forms more used in informal writing and speech, and some others use the full forms.**

Present Simple	do+not = don't does+not = doesn't	I do not play. She doesn't play.
Past Simple	did+not = didn't	I didn't play.
Present Progressive	am + not (*no amn't) is+not = isn't are+not = aren't	I am not playing. He is not playing. We aren't playing.
Past Progressive	was+not = wasn't were+not = weren't	I wasn't playing. They were not playing.
Present Perfect	have+not = haven't has+not = hasn't	You haven't played. She has not played.
Present Perfect Progressive	have+not+been= haven't been has+not+been = hasn't been	I have not been playing. She hasn't been playing.
Past Perfect	had+not = hadn't	You hadn't played.
Past Perfect Progressive	had+not+been = hadn't been	She hadn't been playing.
Future Simple	will+not = won't	I won't play.
Future Perfect	will+not+have = won't have	He will not have played.
Conditional	would+not	She wouldn't play.
Conditional perfect	would+not+have	She wouldn't have played.
Modals	can + not = can't or cannot (formal) should+not = shouldn't	I can't play. I cannot play. We shouldn't play.

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## 8. INTERROGATION & TAG QUESTIONS

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### QUESTION TAGS

Question tags are short questions at the end of statements.

They are mainly used in speech when we want to:

- confirm that something is true or not, or
- to encourage a reply from the person we are speaking to.

Question tags are formed with the auxiliary or modal verb from the statement and the appropriate subject.

A. A **positive** statement is followed by a **negative** question tag.

- Jack **is** from Spain, **isn't** he?
- Mary **can** speak English, **can't** she?

B. A **negative** statement is followed by a **positive** question tag.

- They **aren't** funny, **are** they?
- He **shouldn't** say things like that, **should** he?

C. When the verb in the main sentence is in the *present simple* we form the question tag with **do / does**.

- You *play* the guitar, **don't** you?
- Alison *likes* tennis, **doesn't** she?

D. If the verb is in the *past simple* we use **did**.

- They *went* to the cinema, **didn't** they?
- She *studied* in New Zealand, **didn't** she?

E. When the statement contains a word with a **negative** meaning, the question tag needs to be **positive**

- He **hardly ever** speaks, **does** he?
- They **rarely** eat in restaurants, **do** they?

F. Some verbs / expressions have different question tags. For example:

**I am** - I am attractive, **aren't** I?

**Positive imperative** - Stop daydreaming, **will / won't** you?

**Negative imperative** - Don't stop singing, **will** you?

**Let's** - Let's go to the beach, **shall** we?

**Have got (possession)** - He has got a car, **hasn't** he?

## INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES

Sentences that ask a question are called interrogative sentences. They're easy to spot -they always end with a question mark (?). But it's not quite as simple as that. All interrogative sentences are not the same.

**There are 4 types of Interrogative sentences.**

1. Yes/No interrogatives
2. Alternative interrogatives.
3. Wh-interrogatives
4. Tag questions.

**Yes/no interrogatives** are questions that can be answered with a yes or a no response. You probably ask or are asked these questions every day.

**Here are some examples of yes/no interrogative sentences:**

- Mister, can you spare a dime?
- Did you take your vitamin this morning?
- Do you have your homework ready?
- Are you ready to go?
- Did you go to the game Friday night?

For each of the above questions, the answer will be either a yes or no answer.

**Alternative interrogatives** are questions that provide for two or more alternative answers. In other words, you're providing a choice.

**Examples of alternative interrogative sentences:**

- Would you prefer chocolate or vanilla ice cream?
- Should I call or email you?
- Do you want coffee, tea, or soda?

**Wh-interrogatives sentences begin with a wh-word and call for an open-ended answer.** A yes or no answer isn't appropriate for these questions, nor does the question provide alternative answers. The answer can be a simple response or complex explanation.

**Examples of wh-interrogative sentences:**

- What are you doing?
- Where do you live?

- Who is playing in the Super Bowl?
- What is the meaning of this?
- Which songs do you like best?

**Tag questions** are questions attached or tagged onto the ending of a declarative statement. They transform a declarative sentence into an interrogative sentence.

Examples:

- You live in the city, don't you?
- We need to get going now, don't we?
- There's a game on today, isn't there?
- You're coming to the party, aren't you?

Sometimes interrogative sentences are actually declarative sentences that have a question mark at the end. If you ask this type of question, the last syllable of the final word in the sentence is spoken with a rising intonation. Here are a few examples.

- The bus has already left?
- The Saints won the Super Bowl?
- It's snowing in Florida?
- You've lost 15 pounds already?
- The Subject of Interrogative Sentences

The subject of interrogative sentences may not be obvious. Typically, you can spot them right after the verb. But there's a way to make the subject easier to spot. Simply rewrite the question into a statement and then the subject is then easy to find.

Here are some examples below. First you'll find an interrogative sentence. Immediately following is the declarative form of the sentence with the subject underlined.

- Did you clean up your room? You cleaned up your room.
- Has Jack come to visit? Jack has come to visit.
- Is this Jill's wallet? This is Jill's wallet.

Interrogative sentences are the most simple to identify. They always ask a question or request information. Simply look for the question mark at the end and you'll have no problem finding or understanding the function of interrogative sentences.

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## 9. CONDITIONALS

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### Conditional Clause and Main Clause

If I have enough money, I will go to Japan.

**conditional clause**

**main clause**

I will go to Japan,

**main clause**

if I have enough money

**conditional clause**

### First, Second, and Third Conditional

**1. First conditional:** If I have enough money, I will go to Japan.

**2. Second conditional:** If I had enough money, I would go to Japan.

**3. Third conditional:** If I had had enough money, I would have gone to Japan.

### Conditional clause      Main clause

**1. If + Present Tense**      will + inf / present tense / imperative

- a. If you help me with the dishes (if + pres),  
I will help you with your homework. (will + inf)
- b. If the sum of the digits of a number is divisible by three,  
the number is divisible by three (Pres. tense)
- c. If you see Mr Fox tonight, tell him I am ill. (imperative).

**2. If + Past Tense**      would + inf

**3. If + Past Perfect Tense**      would have + past participle

We do not normally use will or would in the conditional clause, only in the main clause.

### Uses of the Conditional

#### 1. First conditional

- a. Nature: Open condition, what is said in the condition is possible.

- b. Time: This condition refers either to present or to future time.  
e.g. If he is late, we will have to go without him.  
If my mother knows about this, we are in serious trouble.

## 2. Second conditional

- a. Nature: unreal (impossible) or improbable situations.
- b. Time: present; the TENSE is past, but we are talking about the present, now.  
e.g. If I knew her name, I would tell you.  
If I were you, I would tell my father.  
*Compare:* If I become president, I will change the social security system. (Said by a presidential candidate)  
If I became president, I would change the social security system. (Said by a schoolboy: improbable)  
If we win this match, we are qualified for the semifinals.  
If I won a million pounds, I would stop teaching. (improbable)

## 3. Third conditional

- a. Nature: unreal
- b. Time: Past (so we are talking about a situation that was not so in the past.)  
e.g. If you had warned me, I would not have told your father about that party. (But you didn't, and I have).

### **Remember!**

**1. The conditional construction does not normally use *will* or *would* in if-clauses. EXCEPTION: If *will* or *would* express willingness, as in requests, they can be used in if-clauses.**

e.g. If you will come this way, the manager will see you now.  
I would be grateful if you would give me a little help.  
(= ± please, come this way; please, give me...)

**2. For the second conditional, *were* replaces *was*:**

If I were a rich man...

**3. After *if*, we can either use "some(-one, -where...)" or "any(-one, -where...)."**

If I have some spare time next weekend....or :  
If I have any spare time...

**4. Instead of *if not*, we can use *unless*.**

e.g. I'll be back tomorrow unless there is a plane strike.  
He'll accept the job unless the salary is too low.

**5. There is a "mixed type" as well, for the present results of an unreal condition in the past:**

If + Past Perfect - would + inf.  
If you had warned me [then], I would not be in prison [now].

## 10. PHRASAL VERBS

Phrasal verbs are usually two-word phrases consisting of **verb + adverb** or **verb + preposition**. Think of them as you would any other English vocabulary. Study them as you come across them, rather than trying to memorize many at once. Use the list below as a reference guide when you find an expression that you don't recognize. The examples will help you understand the meanings. If you think of each phrasal verb as a separate verb with a specific meaning, you will be able to remember it more easily. Like many other verbs, phrasal verbs often have more than one meaning.

This list shows about 200 common phrasal verbs, with meanings and examples. Only the most usual meanings are given. Some phrasal verbs may have additional meanings.

As well as learning their meanings, you need to learn how to use phrasal verbs properly. Some phrasal verbs require a direct object (*someone/something*), while others do not. Some phrasal verbs can be separated by the object, while others cannot. Review this [phrasal verbs grammar](#) from time to time so that you don't forget the rules!

Verb	Meaning	Example
<b>ask someone out</b>	invite on a date	Brian <b>asked</b> Judy <b>out</b> to dinner and a movie.
<b>ask around</b>	ask many people the same question	I <b>asked around</b> but nobody has seen my wallet.
<b>add up to something</b>	equal	Your purchases <b>add up to</b> \$205.32.
<b>back something up</b>	reverse	You'll have to <b>back up</b> your car so that I can get out.
<b>back someone up</b>	support	My wife <b>backed me up</b> over my decision to quit my job.
<b>blow up</b>	explode	The racing car <b>blew up</b> after it crashed into the fence.
<b>blow something up</b>	add air	We have to <b>blow</b> 50 balloons <b>up</b> for the party.
<b>break down</b>	stop functioning (vehicle, machine)	Our car <b>broke down</b> at the side of the highway in the snowstorm.
<b>break down</b>	get upset	The woman <b>broke down</b> when the police told her that her son had died.

<b>break something down</b>	divide into smaller parts	Our teacher <b>broke</b> the final project <b>down</b> into three separate parts.
<b>break in</b>	force entry to a building	Somebody <b>broke in</b> last night and stole our stereo.
<b>break into something</b>	enter forcibly	The firemen had to <b>break into</b> the room to rescue the children.
<b>break something in</b>	wear something a few times so that it doesn't look/feel new	I need to <b>break</b> these shoes <b>in</b> before we run next week.
<b>break in</b>	interrupt	The TV station <b>broke in</b> to report the news of the president's death.
<b>break up</b>	end a relationship	My boyfriend and I <b>broke up</b> before I moved to America.
<b>break up</b>	start laughing (informal)	The kids just <b>broke up</b> as soon as the clown started talking.
<b>break out</b>	escape	The prisoners <b>broke out</b> of jail when the guards weren't looking.
<b>break out in something</b>	develop a skin condition	I <b>broke out in</b> a rash after our camping trip.
<b>bring someone down</b>	make unhappy	This sad music is <b>bringing</b> me <b>down</b> .
<b>bring someone up</b>	raise a child	My grandparents <b>brought</b> me <b>up</b> after my parents died.
<b>bring something up</b>	start talking about a subject	My mother walks out of the room when my father <b>brings up</b> sports.
<b>bring something up</b>	vomit	He drank so much that he <b>brought</b> his dinner <b>up</b> in the toilet.
<b>call around</b>	phone many different places/people	We <b>called around</b> but we weren't able to find the car part we needed.

<b>call someone back</b>	return a phone call	I <b>called</b> the company <b>back</b> but the offices were closed for the weekend.
<b>call something off</b>	cancel	Jason <b>called</b> the wedding <b>off</b> because he wasn't in love with his fiancé.
<b>call on someone</b>	ask for an answer or opinion	The professor <b>called on</b> me for question 1.
<b>call on someone</b>	visit someone	We <b>called on</b> you last night but you weren't home.
<b>call someone up</b>	phone	Give me your phone number and I will <b>call</b> you <b>up</b> when we are in town.
<b>calm down</b>	relax after being angry	You are still mad. You need to <b>calm down</b> before you drive the car.
<b>not care for someone/something</b>	not like (formal)	I don't <b>care for</b> his behaviour.
<b>catch up</b>	get to the same point as someone else	You'll have to run faster than that if you want to <b>catch up</b> with Marty.
<b>check in</b>	arrive and register at a hotel or airport	We will get the hotel keys when we <b>check in</b> .
<b>check out</b>	leave a hotel	You have to <b>check out</b> of the hotel before 11:00 AM.
<b>check someone/something out</b>	look at carefully, investigate	The company <b>checks out</b> all new employees.
<b>check out someone/something</b>	look at (informal)	<b>Check out</b> the crazy hair on that guy!
<b>cheer up</b>	become happier	She <b>cheered up</b> when she heard the good news.
<b>cheer someone up</b>	make happier	I brought you some flowers to <b>cheer you up</b> .
<b>chip in</b>	help	If everyone <b>chips in</b> we can get the kitchen

		painted by noon.
<b>clean something up</b>	tidy, clean	Please clean up your bedroom before you go outside.
<b>come across something</b>	find unexpectedly	I came across these old photos when I was tidying the closet.
<b>come apart</b>	separate	The top and bottom come apart if you pull hard enough.
<b>come down with something</b>	become sick	My nephew came down with chicken pox this weekend.
<b>come forward</b>	volunteer for a task or to give evidence	The woman came forward with her husband's finger prints.
<b>come from somewhere</b>	originate in	The art of origami comes from Asia.
<b>count on someone/something</b>	rely on	I am counting on you to make dinner while I am out.
<b>cross something out</b>	draw a line through	Please cross out your old address and write your new one.
<b>cut back on something</b>	consume less	My doctor wants me to cut back on sweets and fatty foods.
<b>cut something down</b>	make something fall to the ground	We had to cut the old tree in our yard down after the storm.
<b>cut in</b>	interrupt	Your father cut in while I was dancing with your uncle.
<b>cut in</b>	pull in too closely in front of another vehicle	The bus driver got angry when that car cut in.
<b>cut in</b>	start operating (of an engine or electrical device)	The air conditioner cuts in when the temperature gets to 22°C.

<b>cut something off</b>	remove with something sharp	The doctors cut off his leg because it was severely injured.
<b>cut something off</b>	stop providing	The phone company cut off our phone because we didn't pay the bill.
<b>cut someone off</b>	take out of a will	My grandparents cut my father off when he remarried.
<b>cut something out</b>	remove part of something (usually with scissors and paper)	I cut this ad out of the newspaper.
<b>do someone/something over</b>	beat up, ransack (Br.E., informal)	He's lucky to be alive. His shop was done over by a street gang.
<b>do something over</b>	do again (N.Amer.)	My teacher wants me to do my essay over because she doesn't like my topic.
<b>do away with something</b>	discard	It's time to do away with all of these old tax records.
<b>do something up</b>	fasten, close	Do your coat up before you go outside. It's snowing!
<b>dress up</b>	wear nice clothing	It's a fancy restaurant so we have to dress up.
<b>drop back</b>	move back in a position/group	Andrea dropped back to third place when she fell off her bike.
<b>drop in/by/over</b>	come without an appointment	I might drop in/by/over for tea sometime this week.
<b>drop someone/something off</b>	take someone/something somewhere and leave them/it there	I have to drop my sister off at work before I come over.
<b>drop out</b>	quit a class, school etc	I dropped out of Science because it was too difficult.
<b>eat out</b>	eat at a restaurant	I don't feel like cooking tonight. Let's eat out.

<b>end up</b>	eventually reach/do/decide	We ended up renting a movie instead of going to the theatre.
<b>fall apart</b>	break into pieces	My new dress fell apart in the washing machine.
<b>fall down</b>	fall to the ground	The picture that you hung up last night fell down this morning.
<b>fall out</b>	separate from an interior	The money must have fallen out of my pocket.
<b>fall out</b>	(of hair, teeth) become loose and unattached	His hair started to fall out when he was only 35.
<b>figure something out</b>	understand, find the answer	I need to figure out how to fit the piano and the bookshelf in this room.
<b>fill something in</b>	to write information in blanks (Br.E.)	Please fill in the form with your name, address, and phone number.
<b>fill something out</b>	to write information in blanks (N.Amer.)	The form must be filled out in capital letters.
<b>fill something up</b>	fill to the top	I always fill the water jug up when it is empty.
<b>find out</b>	discover	We don't know where he lives. How can we find out?
<b>find something out</b>	discover	We tried to keep the time of the party a secret, but Samantha found it out.
<b>get something across/over</b>	communicate, make understandable	I tried to get my point across/over to the judge but she wouldn't listen.
<b>get along/on</b>	like each other	I was surprised how well my new girlfriend and my sister got along/on.
<b>get around</b>	have mobility	My grandfather can get around fine in his new wheelchair.

<b>get away</b>	go on a vacation	We worked so hard this year that we had to get away for a week.
<b>get away with something</b>	do without being noticed or punished	Jason always gets away with cheating in his maths tests.
<b>get back</b>	return	We got back from our vacation last week.
<b>get something back</b>	receive something you had before	Liz finally got her Science notes back from my room-mate.
<b>get back at someone</b>	retaliate, take revenge	My sister got back at me for stealing her shoes. She stole my favourite hat.
<b>get back into something</b>	become interested in something again	I finally got back into my novel and finished it.
<b>get on something</b>	step onto a vehicle	We're going to freeze out here if you don't let us get on the bus.
<b>get over something</b>	recover from an illness, loss, difficulty	I just got over the flu and now my sister has it.
<b>get over something</b>	overcome a problem	The company will have to close if it can't get over the new regulations.
<b>get round to something</b>	finally find time to do (N.Amer.: get around to something)	I don't know when I am going to get round to writing the thank you cards.
<b>get together</b>	meet (usually for social reasons)	Let's get together for a BBQ this weekend.
<b>get up</b>	get out of bed	I got up early today to study for my exam.
<b>get up</b>	stand	You should get up and give the elderly man your seat.
<b>give someone away</b>	reveal hidden information about someone	His wife gave him away to the police.

<b>give someone away</b>	take the bride to the altar	My father gave me away at my wedding.
<b>give something away</b>	ruin a secret	My little sister gave the surprise party away by accident.
<b>give something away</b>	give something to someone for free	The library was giving away old books on Friday.
<b>give something back</b>	return a borrowed item	I have to give these skates back to Franz before his hockey game.
<b>give in</b>	reluctantly stop fighting or arguing	My boyfriend didn't want to go to the ballet, but he finally gave in.
<b>give something out</b>	give to many people (usually at no cost)	They were giving out free perfume samples at the department store.
<b>give something up</b>	quit a habit	I am giving up smoking as of January 1st.
<b>give up</b>	stop trying	My maths homework was too difficult so I gave up.
<b>go after someone</b>	follow someone	My brother tried to go after the thief in his car.
<b>go after something</b>	try to achieve something	I went after my dream and now I am a published writer.
<b>go against someone</b>	compete, oppose	We are going against the best soccer team in the city tonight.
<b>go ahead</b>	start, proceed	Please go ahead and eat before the food gets cold.
<b>go back</b>	return to a place	I have to go back home and get my lunch.
<b>go out</b>	leave home to go on a social event	We're going out for dinner tonight.
<b>go out with someone</b>	date	Jesse has been going out with Luke since they met last winter.

<b>go over something</b>	review	Please go over your answers before you submit your test.
<b>go over</b>	visit someone nearby	I haven't seen Tina for a long time. I think I'll go over for an hour or two.
<b>go without something</b>	suffer lack or deprivation	When I was young, we went without winter boots.
<b>grow apart</b>	stop being friends over time	My best friend and I grew apart after she changed schools.
<b>grow back</b>	regrow	My roses grew back this summer.
<b>grow up</b>	become an adult	When Jack grows up he wants to be a fireman.
<b>grow out of something</b>	get too big for	Elizabeth needs a new pair of shoes because she has grown out of her old ones.
<b>grow into something</b>	grow big enough to fit	This bike is too big for him now, but he should grow into it by next year.
<b>hand something down</b>	give something used to someone else	I handed my old comic books down to my little cousin.
<b>hand something in</b>	submit	I have to hand in my essay by Friday.
<b>hand something out</b>	to distribute to a group of people	We will hand out the invitations at the door.
<b>hand something over</b>	give (usually unwillingly)	The police asked the man to hand over his wallet and his weapons.
<b>hang in</b>	stay positive (N.Amer., informal)	Hang in there. I'm sure you'll find a job very soon.
<b>hang on</b>	wait a short time (informal)	Hang on while I grab my coat and shoes!
<b>hang out</b>	spend time relaxing	Instead of going to the party we are just going

	(informal)	to hang out at my place.
<b>hang up</b>	end a phone call	He didn't say goodbye before he <b>hung up</b> .
<b>hold someone/something back</b>	prevent from doing/going	I had to <b>hold</b> my dog <b>back</b> because there was a cat in the park.
<b>hold something back</b>	hide an emotion	Jamie <b>held back</b> his tears at his grandfather's funeral.
<b>hold on</b>	wait a short time	Please <b>hold on</b> while I transfer you to the Sales Department.
<b>hold onto someone/something</b>	hold firmly using your hands or arms	<b>Hold onto</b> your hat because it's very windy outside.
<b>hold someone/something up</b>	rob	A man in a black mask <b>held</b> the bank <b>up</b> this morning.
<b>keep on doing something</b>	continue doing	<b>Keep on</b> stirring until the liquid comes to a boil.
<b>keep something from someone</b>	not tell	We <b>kept</b> our relationship <b>from</b> our parents for two years.
<b>keep someone/something out</b>	stop from entering	Try to <b>keep</b> the wet dog <b>out</b> of the living room.
<b>keep something up</b>	continue at the same rate	If you <b>keep</b> those results <b>up</b> you will get into a great college.
<b>let someone down</b>	fail to support or help, disappoint	I need you to be on time. Don't <b>let me down</b> this time.
<b>let someone in</b>	allow to enter	Can you <b>let</b> the cat <b>in</b> before you go to school?
<b>look after someone/something</b>	take care of	I have to <b>look after</b> my sick grandmother.
<b>look down on someone</b>	think less of, consider inferior	Ever since we stole that chocolate bar your dad has <b>looked down on</b> me.

<b>look for</b> <i>someone/something</i>	try to find	I'm <b>looking for</b> a red dress for the wedding.
<b>look forward to</b> <i>something</i>	be excited about the future	I'm <b>looking forward to</b> the Christmas break.
<b>look into</b> <i>something</i>	investigate	We are going to <b>look into</b> the price of snowboards today.
<b>look out</b>	be careful, vigilant, and take notice	Look out! That car's going to hit you!
<b>look out for</b> <i>someone/something</i>	be especially vigilant for	Don't forget to <b>look out for</b> snakes on the hiking trail.
<b>look something over</b>	check, examine	Can you <b>look over</b> my essay for spelling mistakes?
<b>look something up</b>	search and find information in a reference book or database	We can <b>look</b> her phone number <b>up</b> on the Internet.
<b>look up to</b> <i>someone</i>	have a lot of respect for	My little sister has always <b>looked up</b> to me.
<b>make something up</b>	invent, lie about something	Josie <b>made up</b> a story about why we were late.
<b>make up</b>	forgive each other	We were angry last night, but we <b>made up</b> at breakfast.
<b>make someone up</b>	apply cosmetics to	My sisters <b>made me up</b> for my graduation party.
<b>mix something up</b>	confuse two or more things	I <b>mixed up</b> the twins' names again!
<b>pass away</b>	die	His uncle <b>passed away</b> last night after a long illness.
<b>pass out</b>	faint	It was so hot in the church that an elderly lady <b>passed out</b> .

<b>pass something out</b>	give the same thing to many people	The professor <b>passed</b> the textbooks <b>out</b> before class.
<b>pass something up</b>	decline (usually something good)	I <b>passed up</b> the job because I am afraid of change.
<b>pay someone back</b>	return owed money	Thanks for buying my ticket. I'll <b>pay you back</b> on Friday.
<b>pay for something</b>	be punished for doing something bad	That bully will <b>pay for</b> being mean to my little brother.
<b>pick something out</b>	choose	I <b>picked out</b> three sweaters for you to try on.
<b>point someone/something out</b>	indicate with your finger	I'll <b>point</b> my boyfriend <b>out</b> when he runs by.
<b>put something down</b>	put what you are holding on a surface or floor	You can <b>put</b> the groceries <b>down</b> on the kitchen counter.
<b>put someone down</b>	insult, make someone feel stupid	The students <b>put</b> the substitute teacher <b>down</b> because his pants were too short.
<b>put something off</b>	postpone	We are <b>putting off</b> our trip until January because of the hurricane.
<b>put something out</b>	extinguish	The neighbours <b>put</b> the fire <b>out</b> before the firemen arrived.
<b>put something together</b>	assemble	I have to <b>put</b> the crib <b>together</b> before the baby arrives.
<b>put up with someone/something</b>	tolerate	I don't think I can <b>put up with</b> three small children in the car.
<b>put something on</b>	put clothing/accessories on your body	Don't forget to <b>put on</b> your new earrings for the party.
<b>run into someone/something</b>	meet unexpectedly	I <b>ran into</b> an old school-friend at the mall.

<b>run over</b> <i>someone/something</i>	drive a vehicle over a person or thing	I accidentally <b>ran over</b> your bicycle in the driveway.
<b>run over/through</b> <i>something</i>	rehearse, review	Let's <b>run over/through</b> these lines one more time before the show.
<b>run away</b>	leave unexpectedly, escape	The child <b>ran away</b> from home and has been missing for three days.
<b>run out</b>	have none left	We <b>ran out</b> of shampoo so I had to wash my hair with soap.
<b>send something back</b>	return (usually by mail)	My letter got <b>sent back</b> to me because I used the wrong stamp.
<b>set something up</b>	arrange, organize	Our boss <b>set</b> a meeting <b>up</b> with the president of the company.
<b>set someone up</b>	trick, trap	The police <b>set up</b> the car thief by using a hidden camera.
<b>shop around</b>	compare prices	I want to <b>shop around</b> a little before I decide on these boots.
<b>show off</b>	act extra special for people watching (usually boastfully)	He always <b>shows off</b> on his skateboard
<b>sleep over</b>	stay somewhere for the night (informal)	You should <b>sleep over</b> tonight if the weather is too bad to drive home.
<b>sort something out</b>	organize, resolve a problem	We need to <b>sort</b> the bills <b>out</b> before the first of the month.
<b>stick to something</b>	continue doing something, limit yourself to one particular thing	You will lose weight if you <b>stick to</b> the diet.
<b>switch something off</b>	stop the energy flow, turn off	The light's too bright. Could you <b>switch it off</b> .

<b>switch something on</b>	start the energy flow, turn on	We heard the news as soon as we <b>switched on</b> the car radio.
<b>take after someone</b>	resemble a family member	I <b>take after</b> my mother. We are both impatient.
<b>take something apart</b>	purposely break into pieces	He <b>took</b> the car brakes <b>apart</b> and found the problem.
<b>take something back</b>	return an item	I have to <b>take</b> our new TV <b>back</b> because it doesn't work.
<b>take off</b>	start to fly	My plane <b>takes off</b> in five minutes.
<b>take something off</b>	remove something (usually clothing)	<b>Take off</b> your socks and shoes and come in the lake!
<b>take something out</b>	remove from a place or thing	Can you <b>take</b> the garbage <b>out</b> to the street for me?
<b>take someone out</b>	pay for someone to go somewhere with you	My grandparents <b>took</b> us <b>out</b> for dinner and a movie.
<b>tear something up</b>	rip into pieces	I <b>tore up</b> my ex-boyfriend's letters and gave them back to him.
<b>think back</b>	remember (often + to, sometimes + on)	When I <b>think back</b> on my youth, I wish I had studied harder.
<b>think something over</b>	consider	I'll have to <b>think</b> this job offer <b>over</b> before I make my final decision.
<b>throw something away</b>	dispose of	We <b>threw</b> our old furniture <b>away</b> when we won the lottery.
<b>turn something down</b>	decrease the volume or strength (heat, light etc)	Please <b>turn</b> the TV <b>down</b> while the guests are here.
<b>turn something down</b>	refuse	I <b>turned</b> the job <b>down</b> because I don't want to move.

<b>turn something off</b>	stop the energy flow, switch off	Your mother wants you to <b>turn</b> the TV <b>off</b> and come for dinner.
<b>turn something on</b>	start the energy, switch on	It's too dark in here. Let's <b>turn</b> some lights <b>on</b> .
<b>turn something up</b>	increase the volume or strength (heat, light etc)	Can you <b>turn</b> the music <b>up</b> ? This is my favourite song.
<b>turn up</b>	appear suddenly	Our cat <b>turned up</b> after we put posters up all over the neighbourhood.
<b>try something on</b>	sample clothing	I'm going to <b>try</b> these jeans <b>on</b> , but I don't think they will fit.
<b>try something out</b>	test	I am going to <b>try</b> this new brand of detergent <b>out</b> .
<b>use something up</b>	finish the supply	The kids <b>used</b> all of the toothpaste <b>up</b> so we need to buy some more.
<b>wake up</b>	stop sleeping	We have to <b>wake up</b> early for work on Monday.
<b>warm someone/something up</b>	increase the temperature	You can <b>warm</b> your feet <b>up</b> in front of the fireplace.
<b>warm up</b>	prepare body for exercise	I always <b>warm up</b> by doing sit-ups before I go for a run.
<b>wear off</b>	fade away	Most of my make-up <b>wore off</b> before I got to the party.
<b>work out</b>	exercise	I <b>work out</b> at the gym three times a week.
<b>work out</b>	be successful	Our plan <b>worked out</b> fine.
<b>work something out</b>	make a calculation	We have to <b>work out</b> the total cost before we buy the house.