

AHMEDNAGAR JILHA MARATHA VIDYA PRASARAK SAMAJ'S

NEW LAW COLLEGE, AHMEDNAGAR

B.A.LL.B I (CEO101)

GENERAL ENGLISH

(80 MARKS)

SEM-I

GENERAL ENGLISH

Objectives of the Course the purpose of the course is to acquaint the students with the nature of English language and its grammatical concepts. This paper focuses on strengthening the students' syntactical competence so as to bring quality and correct grammatical constructions in their writing and it is also meant to train them on how to study for various purposes.

SYLLABUS/INDEX

Mod. No.	Sub. No	Topics	Page No.
I.		Language and Grammar	3
	1.	Defining Language	
	2.	Nature of Language	
	3.	Syntactical Competence (Introductory)	
	4.	Grammar and Usage a. Sentence Structure- Subject and Predicate b. Concord c. Tenses d. Use of Articles e. Accurate Use of Prepositions f. Making Questions (Why- and yes-no questions and question tags) g. Use of Modal Auxiliary Verbs (making requests, suggestions, seeking permission etc.) h. Some Common Errors	
II.		Sentence Transformation	35
	1.	Active and Passive Voice	

	2.	Types of Sentences (Statements, interrogative, exclamatory and imperative)	
	3.	Simple, Complex and Compound Sentences	
	4.	Reported Speech	
	5.	Syntactic Ambiguity	
III		Vocabulary Skills	57
	1.	Idioms and Phrases	
	2.	One Word Substitution	

IV		Communication Skills	78
	1.	Communication - Verbal, Non-verbal and Written	
	2.	Significance of Communication Skills for Lawyers- Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing (Introductory)	
	3.	Electronic Communication and its Types (Telephone, Facsimile, E-mail, Voice mail, Teleconferencing, Video-conferencing, Word processor, Internet, Social Media)	
	4.	Formal Correspondence	
	5.	Resume Writing	
V		Study Skills for Law Students	94
	1.	SQ3R (Survey Question Read Recite and Review)	
	2.	Reading - Types- intensive and extensive; techniques- scanning, skimming and critical	
	3.	Note making	
	4.	Writing [Correct grammar, spelling, punctuation and clarity)	
	5.	Paragraph Writing	

1. LANGUAGE AND GRAMMAR

Important Topics in this chapter are:

1.	Define Language
2.	Nature of Language
3.	Syntactical Competence [Introductory]
4	Grammar and Usage - Sentence Structure- Subject and Predicate Concord Tenses Use of Articles Accurate Use of Prepositions Making Questions (Why- and yes-no questions and question tags) Use of Modal Auxiliary Verbs (making requests, suggestions, seeking permission etc.) Some Common Errors

Defining Language

Some definition of Language is as follows:

1. **Oxford English Dictionary** defines language as "Words and the methods of combining them for the expression of thoughts"
2. **According to Alien**, "Language is a mean of communicative thoughts."
3. **According to Bolinger**, "Language is species specific."
4. **According to H.A. Gleason**, "Language is one of the most important and characteristic forms of human behaviour."
5. **According to Ben Jonson**, "Language most shows a man, speak that I may see thee."
6. **Leonard Bloomfield** says, "Each community is formed by the activity of language."

Explanation:

Many definitions of language have been proposed. Henry Sweet, an English phonetician and language scholar, stated: "Language is the expression of ideas by means of speech-sounds combined into words. Words are combined into sentences, this combination answering to that of ideas into thoughts."

The American linguists Bernard Bloch and George L. Trager formulated the following definition: "A language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group cooperates." Any succinct definition of language makes a number of presuppositions and begs a number of questions. The first, for example, puts excessive weight on "thought," and the second uses "arbitrary" in a specialized, though legitimate, way.

A number of considerations (marked in italics below] enter into a proper understanding of language as a subject:

Every physiologically and mentally typical person acquires in childhood the ability to make use, as both sender and receiver, of a system of communication that comprises a circumscribed set of symbols (e.g., sounds, gestures, or written or typed characters).

In spoken language, this symbol set consists of noises resulting from movements of certain organs within the throat and mouth. In signed languages, these symbols may be hand or body movements, gestures, or facial expressions. By means of these symbols, people are able to impart information, to express feelings and emotions, to influence the activities of others, and to comport themselves with varying degrees of friendliness or hostility toward persons who make use of substantially the same set of symbols.

Different systems of communication constitute different languages; the degree of difference needed to establish a different language cannot be stated exactly. No two people speak exactly alike; hence, one is able to recognize the voices of friends over the telephone and to keep distinct a number of unseen speakers in a radio broadcast. Yet, clearly, no one would say that they speak different languages.

Generally, systems of communication are recognized as different languages if they cannot be understood without specific learning by both parties, though the precise limits of mutual intelligibility are hard to draw and belong on a scale rather than on either side of a definite dividing line.

Substantially different systems of communication that may impede but do not prevent mutual comprehension are called dialects of a language. In order to describe in detail the actual different language patterns of individuals, the term idiolect, meaning the habits of expression of a single person, has been coined.

Typically, people acquire a single language initially—their first language, or native tongue, the language used by those with whom, or by whom, they are brought up from infancy. Subsequent "second" languages are learned to different degrees of competence under various conditions. Complete mastery of two languages is designated as bilingualism; in many cases—such as upbringing by parents using different languages at home or being raised within a multilingual community—children grow up as bilinguals. In traditionally monolingual cultures, the learning, to any extent, of a second or other language is an activity superimposed on the prior mastery of one's first language and is a different process intellectually.

Language, as described above, is species-specific to human beings.

Other members of the animal kingdom have the ability to communicate, through vocal noises or by other means, but the most important single feature characterizing human language [that is, every individual language), against every known mode of animal communication, is its infinite productivity and creativity. Human beings are unrestricted in what they can communicate; no area of experience is accepted as necessarily incommunicable, though it may be necessary to adapt one's language in order to cope with new discoveries or new modes of thought.

Animal communication systems are by contrast very tightly circumscribed in what may be communicated. Indeed, displaced reference, the ability to communicate about things outside immediate temporal and spatial contiguity, which is fundamental to speech, is found elsewhere only in the so-called language of bees. Bees are able, by carrying out various conventionalized movements (referred to as bee dances) in or near the hive, to indicate to others the locations and strengths of food sources. But food sources are the only known theme of this communication system. Surprisingly, however, this system, nearest to human language in function, belongs to a species remote from humanity in the animal kingdom.

On the other hand, the animal performance superficially most like human speech, the mimicry of parrots and of some other birds that have been kept in the company of humans, is wholly derivative and serves no independent communicative function. Humankind's nearest relatives among the

primates, though possessing a vocal physiology similar to that of humans, have not developed anything like a spoken language. Attempts to teach sign language to chimpanzees and other apes through imitation have achieved limited success, though the interpretation of the significance of ape signing ability remains controversial.

However, sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic studies have drawn attention to a range of other functions for language. Among these is the use of language to express a national or local identity (a common source of conflict in situations of multiethnicity around the world, such as in Belgium, India, and Quebec). Also important are the "ludic" (playful) function of language—encountered in such phenomena as puns, riddles, and crossword puzzles—and the range of functions seen in imaginative or symbolic contexts, such as poetry, drama, and religious expression.

In most accounts, the primary purpose of language is to facilitate communication, in the sense of transmission of information from one person to another.

Language interacts with every aspect of human life in society, and it can be understood only if it is considered in relation to society. This article attempts to survey language in this light and to consider its various functions and the purposes it can and has been made to serve. Because each language is both a working system of communication in the period and in the community wherein it is used and also the product of its history and the source of its future development, any account of language must consider it from both these points of view.

The science of language is known as linguistics. It includes what are generally distinguished as descriptive linguistics and historical linguistics. Linguistics is now a highly technical subject; it embraces, both descriptively and historically, such major divisions as phonetics, grammar (including syntax and morphology), semantics, and pragmatics, dealing in detail with these various aspects of language.

Nature of Language

Language is the most important phenomenon in the world. From birth to death, all our activities are regulated by language. The human knowledge and culture is stored and transmitted in language.

Thinking is only possible through language. In our dreams, we make use of language. Language dominates every aspect of human life. In fact, it is a yardstick to separate us from other beings. Language is a mean of communication. With the help of language, we can express our thoughts and feelings to others. Without language, society would be impossible.

1. **Language is learnt:** Learning of language is not an automatic process. Of course, it is a behaviour but it is not type of behaviour like walking and crawling that comes to child in natural way. Language by imitation and practice. Language is not possible without effort.
2. **Language is related to the culture of society:** Every language is related to culture of society to which it belongs. The culture of the people naturally influences the language. Every language is the product of society. We cannot separate language from the culture in which that language exists. It has meaning only in relation to that society and culture.
3. **Language is species specific:** Language is species specific. Only human beings have got the gift of language. Of course, the other species do communicate but only human beings can make use of language.
4. **Language is species uniformed:** Language is species uniformed. All human children are capable of acquiring any language natively if they are provided the right kind of environment.
5. **Language is a system:** Each language is a unique system. The system of language consists of sounds, structures and vocabulary. A person who wants to learn a new language will have to learn new sounds, new structures and new vocabulary. The sound system of language differs from language to language depending upon the culture to which a language belongs. Each language has its own system of vocabulary. Thus each language is systematic.
6. **Language is a system of systems:** Each language is a system of systems. There are phonological and grammatical systems in all languages. There are several sub systems with in a language. The phonology of a language forms its own system as the various sounds function in a systematic way.

7. **Language is a system of symbols:** Each language works through symbols. Different words used in a language are the symbols. They stand for certain things. The language will function well if its symbols are known both to the speaker and the person for whom they are being used.

For **example** the word cup has three sounds (K, JI, P) It is a symbol of English because a meaning is attached to it. But if we take the same three sounds like, K, JI, P they do not form a word, but that is not a symbol of English language as no meaning is attached to it.

8. **Symbols of language are vocal:** Different symbols are used in a single language. These symbols are vocal. A language system does not exist in a vacuum. It is primarily used in speech. Only speech provides all essential signals of a language. There are other kinds of symbols which cannot be called vocal symbols.

For **example**, gestures and signal flags are visual symbols and ringing of the bells and beating of a drum are auditory symbols. They do not form any language. In language the sounds are produced through vocal organs. Reading and writing are no doubt important. But speech is the basic form of language. A language without speech is unthinkable.

9. **Language is a skill subject:** Learning of a language is a skill subject. It is skill like swimming and cycling. We can not learn swimming or cycling just by studying rules. We can learn it by practice. In the same way, we can learn a language by constant practice of that language. So a lot of repetition for major linguistic skills like listening, speaking, reading and writing is required.

10. **Language is for communication:** Language is the best means of communication and self-expressions. Human beings express their ideas, thoughts, feelings and emotions through language. In this way language is a means to connect past present and future.

11. **Governed by a particular set of rules:** Each language is governed by a particular set of rules. For example English is S.V.O. language. In forming sentence, we put subject, then verb and after verb we put object.

Concept of Syntactical Competence (Introductory)

The concept of Syntactical Competence is as explained below:

The goal of semantics is to properly characterize semantic competence. What is semantic competence? To see the answer to this question, let us consider what syntactic competence consists of.

It consists of the ability to judge which strings of words form grammatical sentences. Similarly, semantic competence consists of the ability to determine the meaning of a particular string of words. Since a particular string of words may correspond to more than one syntactic structure, we can take semantic competence to consist of the ability to determine the meaning of a particular syntactic structure.

This ability also consists of the ability to determine the relationships between the meanings of distinct syntactic structure. These relationships include entailment, equivalence, and contradiction. It is not clear exactly what kind of objects meanings are.

We will treat them as mathematical objects that provide us information about the world. In particular, we will use the truth conditions of a sentence to reason about its meaning. To make clear the notion of semantic competence, let us construct a thought experiment: suppose a Martian visits earth and develops syntactic competence.

What does the Martian need to know in order to be semantically competent
The Martian needs to know what individual words mean. But this is not enough (We know that just knowing the meaning of the words in a sentence is not the same as knowing its meaning)

(1) a. Jim saw Bill/Bill saw Jim. b. Gina saw the girl with a telescope. The words Jim, saw, Bill can be combined in at least two ways as in

(1a). These two orders have distinct meanings. So in addition to knowing the meaning of the words, the Martian must also be aware of the role played by order. That order is not quite the primitive notion that is relevant is revealed by the ambiguity of (1b), where the same order (but two distinct structures) corresponds to two distinct meanings. The two distinct syntactic structures available for

(1b) lead to distinct meanings. So the Martian also needs to be aware of the role played by syntactic structure in the construction of meaning. To sum up, semantic competence consists of:

(i) Knowledge of the meaning of individual lexical items

(ii) Knowledge of how the syntactic structure guides the construction of sentence (and phrase-level) meaning from the meanings of individual lexical items, and of the operations by which meaning is constructed. Both (i) and (ii) are finite i.e. any language has only a finite number of lexical items, and the number of rules that guide the construction of meaning is also finite. However, the nature of the knowledge in (ii) is such that it allows us to compute the meaning of an infinite number of arbitrarily complex syntactic structures.

Our goal in this class will be to formally and explicitly characterize what semantic competence consists of. We will find that we will go back and forth between (i) and (ii). Cases where we have clear intuitions about word meaning (i.e. i) as well as sentence meaning will provide us evidence about the nature of the combinatorial rules (i.e. ii).

Then once we have some confidence in our combinatorial rules, we can use them and our intuitions about sentence meaning to deduce the meaning of lexical items like *a*, *no*, *every*. We will be adopting the principle articulated by

David Lewis that meaning is what meaning does. Note that in both directions we make appeal to our intuitions about sentence meaning. These intuitions concern relations of implication, ambiguity, synonymy, contradiction, anomaly, and appropriateness.

They are the raw material of semantics.

The goal of semantic theory is to build a theory that can explain why we have these intuitions. Like any theory, it will be based on the basic data of the theory - semantic intuitions. Further, if our theory is any good it must have predictive power i.e. given novel syntactic structures, our theory should be able to predict their meaning i.e. their truth conditions and their semantic relationships with other structures. Quoting from Davidson (1984):

The theory reveals nothing about the conditions under which an individual sentence is true; it does not make those conditions any clear than the sentence itself does. The work of the theory is in relating the known truth

conditions of each sentence to those aspects ("words") of the sentence that recur in other sentences, and can be assigned identical roles in other sentences. Empirical power in such a theory depends on success in recovering the structure of a very complicated ability - the ability to speak and understand a language.

Importance of Grammar and Usage for the following:

- a. Sentence Structure- Subject and Predicate
 - b. Concord
 - c. Tenses
 - d. Use of Articles
 - e. Accurate Use of Prepositions
 - f. Making Questions (Why- and yes-no questions and question tags)
 - g. Use of Modal Auxiliary Verbs (making requests, suggestions, seeking permission etc.)
 - h. Some Common Errors
-

Importance of Grammar and Usage is as explained below:

a. Sentence Structure

Every word in a sentence serves a specific purpose within the structure of that particular sentence. According to rules of grammar, sentence structure can sometimes be quite complicated. For the sake of simplicity, however, the basic parts of a sentence are discussed here.

Subject and Predicate

The two most basic parts of a sentence are the subject and predicate.

SUBJECT

The subject of a sentence is the person, place, or thing that is performing the action of the sentence. The subject represents what or whom the sentence is about. The simple subject usually contains a noun or pronoun and can include modifying words, phrases, or clauses.

The man...

PREDICATE

The predicate expresses action or being within the sentence. The simple predicate contains the verb and can also contain modifying words, phrases, or clauses.

The man / **builds a house.**

The subject and predicate make up the two basic structural parts of any complete sentence. In addition, there are other elements, contained within the subject or predicate, that add meaning or detail. These elements include the direct object, indirect object, and subject complement. All of these elements can be expanded and further combined into simple, compound, complex, or compound/complex sentences.

DIRECT OBJECT

The direct object receives the action of the sentence. The direct object is usually a noun or pronoun.

The man builds a **house.**

The man builds **it.**

INDIRECT OBJECT

The indirect object indicates to whom or for whom the action of the sentence is being done. The indirect object is usually a noun or pronoun.

The man builds **his family** a house.

The man builds **them** a house.

[

SUBJECT COMPLEMENT

A subject complement either renames or describes the subject, and therefore is usually a noun, pronoun, or adjective. Subject complements occur when there is a **linking verb** within the sentence (often a linking verb is a form of the verb **to be**).

The man is a good **father.** [Father = noun which renames the subject]

The man seems **kind.** [Kind = adjective which describes the subject]

Note: As an example of the difference between parts of speech and parts of a sentence, a noun can function within a sentence as subject, direct object, indirect object, object of a preposition, or subject complement.

Parts of speech have specific tasks to perform when they are put together in a sentence.

A noun or pronoun functions as the sentence subject when it is paired with a verb functioning as the sentence predicate.

Every sentence has a subject and predicate.

A **subject** can be a noun or pronoun that is partnered with an action verb.

Example:

Subject verb

↓ ↓

Philanthropists donated millions to charity.

The action of this sentence is expressed by the verb - donated.

The noun **philanthropists** DOING the action of donating.

Therefore, philanthropists is the the **subject** of the sentence.

Sometimes a verb will express **being** or **existence** instead of action.

Example:

Subject verb

↓ ↓

Good friends are loyal people.

The verb in this sentence-are- does **not** express action.

Instead, it expresses **being** or **existence** - tells us that something is alive.

The noun **friends** is DOING the existing or being.

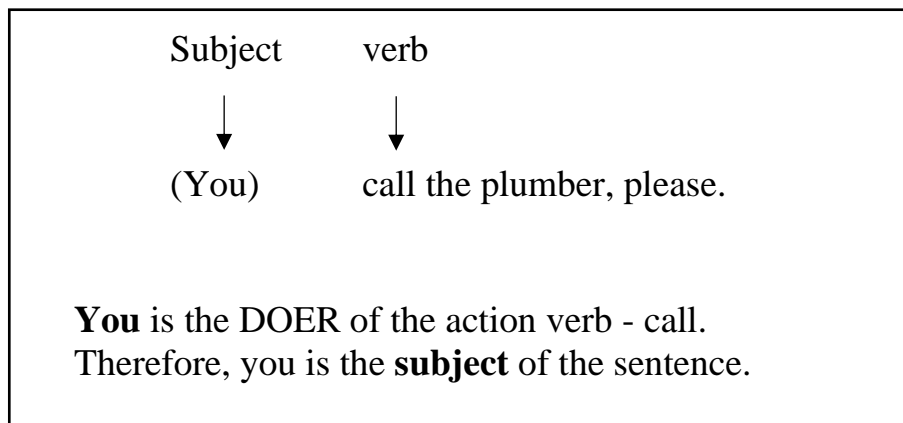
Therefore, friends is he **subject** of the sentence.

Sometimes we use sentences in which a subject is not actually stated, but is, nevertheless, **understood** in the meaning.

Example:

Call the plumber, please.

A sentence like this gives an order or a request to someone.



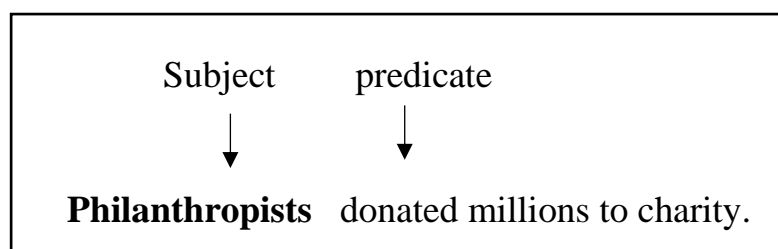
Because we use such statements when we are talking directly to someone, we omit the word you. It is **understood** in the sentence. Therefore, in statements like this one, we say the subject is

You (understood).

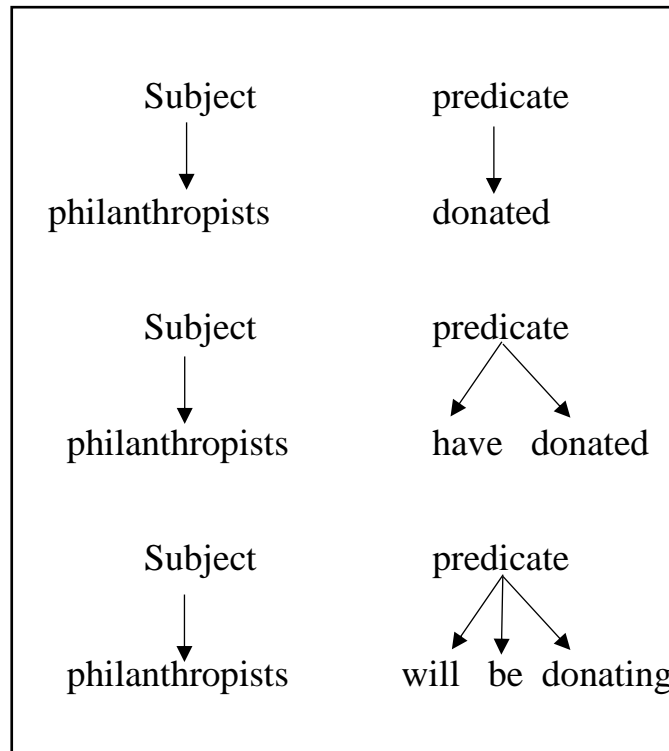
This kind of sentence is an **imperative** sentence.

A **predicate** is a verb that expresses the subject's action or state of being.

Example:

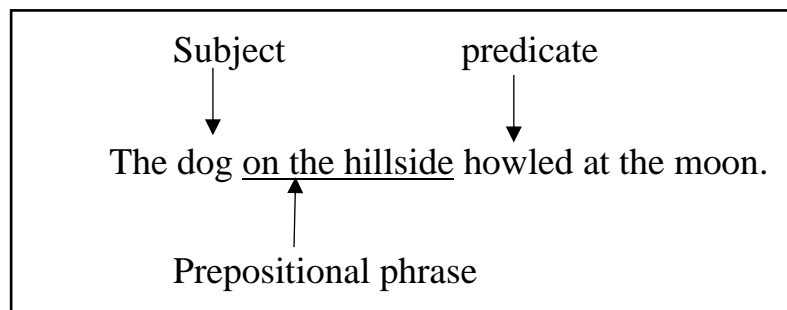


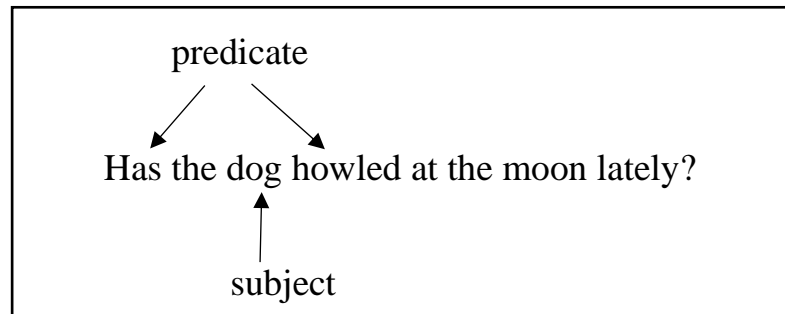
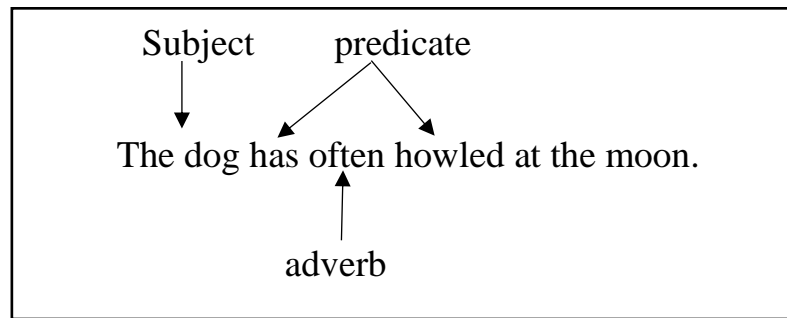
Sometimes the predicate will be composed of two or three verbs that fit together -the **main verb** preceded by one or more **auxiliary (helping) verbs**.



IMPORTANT NOTE: To be a **predicate**, a verb that ends in -ing must **ALWAYS** have a helping verb with it. An -ing verb **WITHOUT** a helping verb **cannot** be a **predicate** in a sentence.

A subject and predicate may not always appear together or in the normal order, as the following examples show:





b. **Concord:**

When we use the word 'concord' in everyday speech, it means 'agreement or harmony between people or groups' (Oxford Dictionary). When we use the word in the context of grammar, it has a similar meaning: grammatical agreement between two parts of a sentence. An important language skill to master is subject-verb concord.

The basics of concord

Subject-verb concord is when the subject of a sentence and the verb of a sentence agree. Simply, if the subject of the sentence is singular, the verb must be singular. If the subject of a sentence is plural, the verb must be plural. Look at these examples:

1. The **pages** (subject) **is** (verb) held together by a staple.
2. The **pages** (subject) **are** (verb) held together by a staple.

Number 2 is correct, because the subject, 'pages', and the verb, 'are', are both plural. They agree. It's easy, yes? Let's gear up and try something more difficult.

A phrase in between the subject and the verb

Look at these examples:

3. The message between the lines **is** that we need to finish before Monday.
4. The message between the lines **are** that we need to finish before Monday.

The temptation here is to look at the word in front of the verb (the plural 'lines') and choose the verb that agrees with it (the plural 'are'). This is wrong. The subject of the sentence is not 'lines'. It's 'message'. So, because the subject, 'message', is singular, we use the singular verb 'is'. The phrase 'between the lines' is a prepositional phrase (starting with a preposition), which is why it's not the subject of the sentence.

Try these:

5. The case of champagne bottles **are** for the year-end party.
6. The case of champagne bottles **is** for the year-end party.
The correct answer is number 6. 'Case' is singular, so use the singular verb 'is'.
7. The sentiment in our offices **is** that our bonuses were measly this year.
The sentiment in our offices **are** that our bonuses were measly this year.

The correct answer is number 7. 'Sentiment' is singular, and the singular verb 'is' agrees with it.

Two subjects connected by either/or, or neither/nor

If you have two singular subjects that are connected by either/or, or neither/nor, use the singular verb. Look at this:

9. Neither Sibongile nor Ted **has** the keys to the stationery cupboard.
10. Either Mary or Shandu **is** manning the info desk at the conference.

Even though you're discussing two people, only one of them (singular) is taking action, so the verb is singular.

What do you do when one of the subjects is plural and the other isn't?
Look at these

Examples:

11. Neither Sibongile (singular) nor the personal assistants (plural) have the keys to the stationery cupboard.
12. Either the stewards (plural) or Mary (singular) **is** manning the info desk at the conference.

Do you see how the verb agrees with the subject closest to it? However, the second sentence sounds awkward, so rather write sentences like this with the second subject being plural, and then make the verb plural. Sentence number 12 should rather be rewritten as:

13. Either Mary or the stewards **are** manning the info desk at the conference.

Two subjects connected by 'and'

When you have two subjects connected by 'and', use the plural form of the verb.

14. Tshepiso and Sbo **are** responsible for the exchange server.

15. Elize and Raveshan **are** our new project managers.

There are two exceptions to the rule. The first (see number 13) is when a compound subject connected with 'and' is seen as a singular subject due to popular use. The second is when the subjects connected by 'and' are the same person or entity (see number 14).

16. Pap and wors **is** my favourite meal.

17. The creator and distributor of the software **is** Energesix Ltd.

Plural subjects that call for singular verbs

Use a singular verb when you have a subject that conveys a single unit of distance, time, or money.

18. Ninety-five cents **is** a great bargain for a SIM card.

19. One hundred kilometres **is** a gruelling daily commute.

20. Twenty minutes **is** all I have to prepare for the meeting.

Other subjects that call for singular verbs

The following words need singular verbs: each, everyone, everybody, anyone, anybody, somebody, nobody, someone, none, and no-one.

Look at these examples:

21. Each of our staff members **has** to fill in an evaluation form.

22. Anyone who **wants** a day off in lieu of overtime must still fill out a leave form.

23. Someone **has** left a coffee cup on the glass of the photocopy machine.

24. None of us **wants** to admit to being behind on filing.

Subjects that are collective nouns

Look at these examples:

25. The board **wants** to make the decision by next Thursday.

26. The staff **is** in a meeting.

27. The team **is** due to fly out today.

The board, staff, and team are made up of many individual members, but each forms a collective, singular subject. Thus, a singular verb is used. Be careful not to make this mistake, though:

28. The staff **is** in a meeting to discuss their appraisals.

Now, you have a singular subject (staff), a singular verb (is), and a plural pronoun (their) in the same sentence. To improve concord, rather rewrite the sentence in one of the following ways:

29. The **staff is** in a meeting to discuss appraisals.

30. The staff **members are** in a meeting to discuss **their** appraisals.

a. Tenses

There are only three basic tenses in the English language: **the past, the present, and the future.**

- The past tense is used for anything that happened before this moment in time.
- The present tense is used for anything that happens right now or for general statements.
- The future tense is used for anything that will happen at some point later than right now.

(There is also a **perfect tense**, but this article will stick to the three basic tenses described above.)

Of course if it were that simple, you wouldn't be reading this guide!

These tenses have a few variations that make them more specific.

These variations talk about the exact time during which actions happen.

All three tenses have two main types of variations: **simple** and **continuous.**

- The continuous tenses are used for actions that happen repeatedly over a period of time.
- The simple tenses are used for...everything else!

You'll discover exactly when to use either in the guide below.

Since the past and the present tenses are very closely linked, it's better to look at them together.

The future tense will be discussed later in this article. (Actually, that last sentence used the future tense! Did you notice?)

Here is a basic guide that will help you begin to understand when to use which tense.

Simple Tenses

Look back at the *very* first example used in this blog: "I eat fish." This sentence uses the **simple present tense**.

Simple Present

The simple present tense is mostly used for three things:

1. To describe things that are permanent or unchanging.
2. To describe how often something happens.
3. To talk about scheduled events.

To use the tense, add an *-s* to the end of the verb when "he" or "she" is doing the action (he speaks, she eats).

Use the unchanged verb when anyone else is doing it (we speak, I eat).

So you would use this tense if you wanted to tell someone about yourself or your hobbies, share something you believe to be true, or ask about when you can catch the next bus at the stop.

Here are some examples:

If your hobby is the violin, you can say "I **play** the violin." Since it's just a hobby though, you can add: "I **am** not a professional violinist."

You might be worried about your friend if you notice he's biting his nails because "**he bites** his nails when he's nervous."

You'll need to get ready quickly if you want to make it to your friend's party, because she just told you that "the party **starts** in an hour."

Maybe you should remind your friend to bring a gift since "he never **remembers** birthdays."

Simple Past

The **simple past** is used in a very similar way to the simple present. Simple past verbs use *-ed* (I walked, he smiled). There are many irregular verbs that don't use the *-ed* form, which you will need to learn (I spoke, he ate).

Instead of talking about now, this tense talks about something that has already happened or is no longer true.

Use the simple past if you want to describe an action that already happened.

This description of a trip uses the simple past tense: "Last year I **visited** New York. I **lived** in a hotel for a month. I **rode** the train, **took** many pictures and **walked** all around Central Park."

You can also use this tense for many of the same reasons as the simple present. It can be used to describe a hobby or habit you **had** in the past, or something you **used to** believe was true.

In fact, the words "used to" are often used for this tense. You can say it either way: "I **used to play** the violin when I was young" has the same meaning as "I **played** the violin when I was young."

Continuous Tenses

The word **continuous** means something that's ongoing, happening right now.

The continuous tense uses the *-ing* ending of a verb (eating, speaking) in both the present and the past.

But wait, if the continuous tense is happening "right now," how can you have a past continuous tense? Read on to find out!

Present Continuous

You can use the present continuous to talk about something ongoing that's happening now or soon.

Right now, you are **reading** this article. Maybe you're **drinking** some coffee or **taking** a break from work. Later today you might be **meeting** some friends for dinner.

By adding the words "always" or "constantly" you can express the frequency of the action.

For example: "My mother-in-law is **always complaining**," or "that child is **constantly crying**." These are not good things, but they do use the right tense!

Past Continuous

This tense is used to describe a continuous action that got interrupted. If you got a phone call late at night, you could say "**I was sleeping** last night when I got the call." You can also use this tense to say what you were doing at a specific time in the past. For example: "I **was** already **writing** at 6 in the morning," or "yesterday in the evening I **was eating** dinner."

Looking to the Future

The future is anything that hasn't happened yet. It can be a few seconds from now or a few years from now.

Simple Future

Speaking about the future is pretty simple: just add the words "will" or "is going to" before an unchanged verb.

How do you know when to use "will" and when to use "is going to"? Don't worry about it too much—you can usually use either one! You can say "I **will call** you later," or "I **am going to call** you later." They are both correct.

The slight difference is in the meaning: "going to" is used more often for things that are planned. So in the above example, the first sentence is more offhand (without giving it too much thought), but the second sentence sounds like you will make sure to call later.

The difference is subtle (not too big) and you can get away with using either one. Just remember that "will" is used more often for promises and things you do by choice, and "going to" is used for making plans.

Both can be used for predictions too, or things you think will happen. You can say "the world **will end** in ten years," and you can also say "the world **is going to end** in ten years." Either way is correct—but hopefully the prediction is wrong!

Future Continuous

This last way to talk about the future has the same uses as the past continuous.

You use this tense to talk about things that might be interrupted in the future, or to say what will be happening at a specific time in the future.

Just add the -ing form of a verb after the words "will be" or "am going to be." If you know your friend is coming to visit you tomorrow, for example, you could tell her to come before 7 because "we **will be eating** dinner at 7." You can also tell her: "**I will be waiting** for you at the train station."

Summary of English Tenses

Simple present

Something that is unchanging, general, scheduled or happening at certain intervals. Uses: "verb-s."

Present continuous

Something that is happening now or in the near future. Uses: "Is + verb-ing."

Simple past

Something that happened before now. Uses: "Verb-ed."

Past continuous

Something that got interrupted by an event or a time. Uses: "Was + verb-ing."

Simple future

Something that will happen later than now. Uses: "Will + verb," "Is going to + verb."

Future continuous

Something that will be interrupted by an event or a time. Uses: "Will be + verb-ing," "Is going to be + verb-ing."

b. Use of Articles

Articles are something that are very important to the English language, but for some reason many students do not use them when they are speaking. In this post I want to stress the importance of articles, as native speakers are very quick to identify that a sentence was said incorrectly because an article was not used.

So first, let's discuss what an article is. The English language has three articles, 'a', 'an', 'the' (Each of these articles is used before a noun.)

a/an

These articles are known as the 'indefinite articles' because (they do not specify which noun you are talking about) For example, 'a table' could be any table, or you may want to eat 'an apple' without choosing a specific one. The way to know which article to use is if the noun starts with a vowel (the letters 'a', 'e', 'i', 'o' or 'V') it will use 'an'. If it starts with any consonant however, then you will use 'a'.

Exceptions

There are some exceptions to the rule of always using 'a' before consonants and 'an' before vowels. If your noun starts with V but makes the sound of 'you' then you will use 'a.' For example, "I went to a university". Also, if your noun starts with a silent 'h' then you will use 'an.' For example, "we have an hour before the movie starts".

The

This is 'definite article'. When you use this article, it means that you are talking about something very specific. For example, if "I bought the table" then I am talking about a very specific table that I bought.

Articles are used before a noun but it is important to know when to use them and when not to use them.

You don't use an article:

Before a proper name such as Queen Elizabeth, Steve Jobs or John Smith.

- Names of most countries such as Italy, Brazil or Saudi Arabia.
- Sports such as basketball, football or soccer
- Languages such as English, Spanish or Portuguese
- Academic subjects such as Mathematics, English or Literature.

Always use articles before:

- Names of rivers, seas, oceans such as, the Atlantic Ocean, the Black Sea and the Missouri River.
- Deserts, gulfs, forests or peninsulas such as the Amazon, the Sahara Desert and the Gulf of Mexico.
- Jobs such as an engineer, a doctor, or a lawyer.

c. Accurate Use of Prepositions

d. Making Questions (Why- and yes-no questions and question tags)

e. Use of Modal Auxiliary Verbs (making requests, suggestions, seeking permission etc.)

In English, we use Modal auxiliary verbs to indicate the mood of the speaker. See examples of modal auxiliary verbs:

Non-Negative	Non-contracted Negative	Contracted Negative
Can	Cannot/ Can not	Can't
Could	Could not	Couldn't
May/Might	May not / Might not	Mayn't/Mightn't
Shall/Should	Shall not / Should not	Shan't/Shouldn't
Will/Would	Will not / Would not	Won't /Wouldn't
Must	Must not	Mustn't
Ought to	Ought not to	Oughtn't to
Used to	Used not to	Didn't use to
Need (to)	Need not (to)	Needn't (to)
Dare	Dare not	Dare't

Things to Note

1. We refer to 'Used to', 'Need' and 'Dare' as quasi or marginal modal auxiliaries.
2. Normally, we do not use 'Mayn't'; instead we use 'mustn't'.
3. We usually accompany 'Ought' with 'to-infinitive'. 'Ought' is not used without the addition of 'to'.
4. 'Used' always takes the 'to-infinitive' and occurs only in the past tense.
5. We can use 'Dare' and 'Need' either as modal auxiliaries (with a bare infinitive and no inflector's' form) or as lexical verbs (with 'to-infinitive' and with inflector's' form).
6. The modal verb construction is restricted to negative and interrogative sentences whereas the lexical (main) verbs construction can be used in positive constructions. Let us take some exemplifications:

Examples	Modal Auxiliary Construction	Lexical Verb Construction
Positive		He needs to go home now.
Negative	He needn't go home now.	He doesn't need to go home now.
Interrogative	Need he go home now?	Does he need to go home now?
Negative Interrogative	Needn't he go home now?	Doesn't he need to go home now?

Uses of Modal Auxiliary Verbs

Modal auxiliaries have different uses that are explored below.

Can

This is used to express the following:

Ability

- Sola can sew very well
- I can drive,
- The lady can speak French.

Permission

- Can I read in your office?
- Can I go with you?
- You can leave the room now.

Theoretical Possibility

- Anybody can make mistakes.
- The examination can be postponed.
- The task can be done.
- The equation can be solved.

Could

This is used to express to the following:

Past Ability

- She could jump when she was younger
- I could eat a lot when I was in America.

Present or Future Permission

- Could I read in your office? (now or sometime in the future)
- Could I have my documents signed?

Present Possibilities (theoretical or factual)

- We could see the President.
- The meeting could be postponed.

Polite Request

- Could Mary go with them?
- Could you be kind enough to lend me some money?

NOTE:

1. It is not in all cases that 'could' or 'should' is used to indicate past tense.
2. The ability can bring in the implication of willingness.

Examples:

- a. I can help you (I can help and I am also willing to help)

May

This can be used to express the following:

Permission

It means 'be allowed to'. It is more formal than 'can'.

1. You may stay here till tomorrow if you wish.
2. You may eat whatever you like.
3. The meeting may be postponed.
4. We may sell the car.

Possibility

Might

We use 'Might' to express the following:

Permission

We rarely use this though.

1. Might I go with you?
2. She might come here next week.
3. The money might be stolen if you leave it on the table.
4. It might rain this evening.

Possibility

Shall

This is used at the following levels:

Expression of simple futurity

(Intention of what one is likely to do; intention on the part of the speaker).

In this context, 'shall' will go with the First Person (I/We), while 'will' will go with the Second and Third Persons. E. g.

1. I shall be there tomorrow.
2. We shall come to your party.
3. I shan't stay too long.
4. We shall be victorious.

Willingness on the part of the speaker

(in the second and third person), for example:

- You shall have the book. (Restricted use)
- He shall do exactly as he wishes. (Restricted use)

Insistence (Restricted use)

- You shall wash the plates.
- You shall not go there even if it becomes dark.

Legal Injunction

- The tenants shall take good care of the complex.
- You shall not sublet the room.

Should

We use this for the following:

Expression of Obligation and Logical Necessity

(in this context, it connotes "Ought to")

- The students should have eaten by now.
- The children ought to be sleeping by now.
- We should obey the constitution of the country.

After certain expressions like 'it is a pity', 'it is surprising', 'I am sorry', etc.

- It is a pity that you should experience such disappointment.
- I am sorry that this should have happened to you,
- It is surprising that he should leave so soon.

Contingent Use in the Main Clause/Expressing Condition

In this sense, it means 'would'.

- He would love to go abroad if he had the money.
- I should inform you if the man comes.
- I should travel if my father permits me.

Will

We use this to express the following:

Willingness

Here, we use this in a polite request, with or without the addition of 'please'.

For example:

- She will train you if you ask her.
- Will you have another plate of food?

Intention

- We won't come to your house.
- will go to the party tonight.

Specific Prediction

- The match will be over by now.
- The soldiers will be here soon.

Timeless Prediction (a prediction that holds for all time)

- Oil will float on water.
- The sun will continue to shine.

Habitual Prediction (something that happens always)

- He will sleep for hours if he is not hungry.
- Ants will find sugar jars if not properly sealed.

Would

This shows the following:

Willingness

- Would you wash the clothes?
- He would love to work in the bank.

Insistence

- He would take nothing.
- You would eat the cold food.

Characteristic activity in the past (characteristic ability)

- Every morning, he would read newspapers.
- The lazy student would come late to class.

Contingent use in the main clause of a conditional sentence

He would spend his earnings on betting if no one stopped him.

He would not go to school if he had his way.

Probability

- That would be the teacher speaking.

Must

We use this to express:

Obligation or Compulsion in the Present Tense

(this means 'be obliged to', 'have to' or 'have got to', consider these examples:

- You must come there tonight.
- You must tell me the truth.
- She must change her ways.
- I must eat three times daily.

NOTE: In the Past Tense, we do not use 'must'. Rather, we use 'had to'.E. g.

- Yesterday, you had to sleep on the couch.

In Reported Speech, one can have:

- Yesterday, you said you must sleep on the couch.

Logical Necessity

- There must be a policeman on duty.
- There must be a solution.
- It must be a mistake.
- He must work hard to succeed.

NOTE: We do not use 'Must' in sentences with negative or interrogative meanings, instead, we use 'can'. Examples:

- There cannot be a solution.
- There cannot be a policeman on duty.
- Who can go on our behalf? (Someone must go on our behalf).

Ought to

We use this to express

Logical necessity or expectation

In this context, it is equivalent to 'should'. See these examples:

- You ought to do your homework.
- She ought to attend the ceremony.
- The criminals ought to be in jail by now.
- The rains ought to have begun.

Used to

This usually expresses:
a habitual action in the past

Examples include:

- He used to love singing as a child.
- They used to travel abroad frequently.

NOTE: We should not confuse 'Used to' with 'accustomed to'. E. g.

- We are used to sleeping late at night.
- I am used to watching the news every morning.

The above examples express habits that are not in the past. They are still sustained habits.

Dare

We use this to express:

Impossibility

Consider the following Examples:

- Nobody dare insult his father,
- You dare not spend that money.
- The man dare not go to his office.

Need to

This is the equivalent of 'ought to'. In the negative sense, it shows:

Absence of obligation

.E.g. :

- They need to see what he did to her.
- You needn't accept the offer.

As noted earlier, some scholars have described these auxiliaries: 'ought to', 'need to' and 'dare' as "quasi-auxiliaries".

f. Some Common Errors

Problems in English grammar and language are the number one troubles students face in India. Recent troubles have also pointed to the same. When a country with 122 major languages and more than a 1599 other languages and dialects studies in a single foreign language –

English, problems are bound to crop up. But in this globalised world of digitisation, we need to ensure that the language we study in since entering school is used flawlessly as it is the medium on which most of us would build our professional lives.

1. Incorrect Verb Form:

Most students don't have a proper grip on the tenses and so, using incorrect verb forms and losing marks for the same is probably the most common issue student's face. Master the chart below on basic tense forms and improve your reading habits to fix this problem once and for all.

2. **Subject - Verb Disagreement:**

In a sentence, the subject and verb need to agree with each other. This means that you need to pay close attention to the subject of the sentence and notice if it is singular or plural. Singular subjects need to go with singular verbs and plural subjects need to go with plural verbs.

Example:

Incorrect: The efforts of the cat to reach the cookie jar was in vain.

Correct: The efforts of the cat to reach the cookie jar were in vain.

Here, at a quick glance, the subject seems to be 'cat'. But the subject here is actually

'Struggles'. Since the subject is plural, the associated verb also needs to be the plural

'Were' instead of the singular 'was'.

Example:

IC: He, along with a few other officials, were charged in the paper leak case.

C: He, along with a few other officials, was charged in the paper leak case. The verb 'were' describes the action of the subject 'he'. Don't be misled into believing that the subject itself is plural here. The clause, 'along with a few other officials', which is enclosed within a pair of commas, can be discarded with 'along with' is not a conjugation.

Compound subjects will always go with plural verbs:

Example:

Rahul and Aditya are joining a stand-up comedy club this weekend.

3. Run-on Sentences & Comma Splices:

Run-on sentences and comma splices are two common errors that go hand in hand. When two or more independent clauses are connected by a coordinating conjunction (for/and/nor/but/or/yet/so) but if the connecting punctuation is missed, it becomes a run-on sentence. A comma must be put before the coordinating conjunction. When you use a comma to join two

independent clauses without a coordinating conjunction, it is called a comma splice.

Every independent clause in a sentence must be set off either with a punctuation mark or with a comma plus conjunction. The punctuations you can use to mark complete, independent clauses are full-stops, semicolons and em dashes.

To understand if a particular clause in a sentence is independent, check if it has its own subject and verb. If it does, the clause can be used independently as a separate sentence as well.

Example:

IC: I love painting and I am getting enough time for it as well but the exhibition deadline is stressing me out.

The above sentence has three separate clauses:

- I love painting
- I get enough time for it as well
- the exhibition deadline is stressing me out

There are two ways to correct this:

C: I love painting, and I am getting enough time for it as well, but the exhibition deadline is stressing me out.

C: I love painting; I am getting enough time for it as well, but the exhibition deadline is stressing me out.

4. Comma Misuse:

Commas are the most diverse punctuation marks with multiple uses. And the more number of ways they can be used, the more number of mistakes can be made. One misplaced comma can change the meaning of the entire sentence. As seen below, the right comma can even save lives!

Example:

IC: Let's eat grandpa.

C: Let's eat, grandpa.

Read all about the **11 uses of comma here along with examples** and never get confused again!

5. Apostrophe Misuse:

Besides commas, it is the apostrophe that causes the most errors in writing. The apostrophe has two main uses:

- To show a noun in a possessive case

Example:

Ravi's book, (a book belonging to Ravi)

- To make letters and acronyms plural. Apart from this, apostrophes are strictly never used to make something plural

Examples:

Dot your i's and cross your t's.

I brought home all the faulty CD's to make some art piece out of them.

6. Spelling Mistakes:

With education becoming increasingly digitised, we spend a lot of our time on the computer or our smartphones where our text is automatically spell checked. So, we tend to put little effort into remembering correct spellings and tend to lose a lot of marks in exams for the same.

Take extra care with differing variations in the spellings of the same words in UK and US English.

Another common area for errors is the similar spellings of homophones which have the same pronunciation, but different spellings.

Students make errors very often in spellings when changing certain words from one tense form to the other. There are other pairs of words which sound similar and we frequently misuse them..

7. Ambiguous Modifiers:

Ambiguous modifiers or squinting modifiers are words, phrases or clauses which describe the word before it or after it. It is a misplaced modifier. Students often place modifiers next to the wrong word. The meaning of the sentence becomes confusing and ambiguous if the wrong word is modified or described.

2. SENTENCE TRANSFORMATION

Most common transformations

1. From active → to passive
They offered James a job James was offered a job
2. From active → to causative form (have sth done)
They are painting my room I am having my room painted next week
3. From direct speech → to reports speech
"I have a Sot of work to do",
lan said. lan said that he had a lot of work to do

Important Topics in this chapter are:

1.	Active and Passive Voice
2.	Types of Sentences (Statements, interrogative,
3.	Simple, Complex and Compound Sentences
4.	Reported Speech
5.	Syntactic Ambiguity

Active and Passive Voices

Active and Passive Voices are as explained below:

Active voice describes a sentence where the subject performs the action stated by the verb.

In **passive voice** sentences, the subject is acted upon by the verb.

Examples of Sentences in Active and Passive Voice:

Here are examples of sentences written in both the active voice and the passive voice, with the active voice sentence appearing first:

- Harry ate six shrimp at dinner, [active)
At dinner, six shrimp were eaten by Harry, (passive)
- Beautiful giraffes roam the savannah, (active)
The savannah is roamed by beautiful giraffes, (passive)
- Sue changed the flat tire, (active)
The flat tire was changed by Sue. (passive)
- We are going to watch a movie tonight, (active)
A movie is going to be watched by us tonight, (passive)
- I ran the obstacle course in record time, (active)
The obstacle course was run by me in record time, (passive)
- The crew paved the entire stretch of highway, (active)
The entire stretch of highway was paved by the crew, (passive)
- Mom read the novel in one day. (active)
The novel was read by Mom in one day. (passive)
- The critic wrote a scathing review, (active)
A scathing review was written by the critic, (passive)
- I will clean the house every Saturday, (active)
The house will be cleaned by me every Saturday, (passive)
- The staff is required to watch a safety video every year, (active)
A safety video will be watched by the staff every year, (passive)
- She faxed her application for a new job. (active)
The application for a new job was faxed by her. (passive)
- Tom painted the entire house, (active)
The entire house was painted by Tom. (passive)
- The teacher always answers the students' questions, (active)
The students' questions are always answered by the teacher, (passive)
- The choir really enjoys that piece, (active)
That piece is really enjoyed by the choir, (passive)
- Who taught you to ski? (active)
By whom were you taught to ski? (passive)
- The forest fire destroyed the whole suburb, (active)
The whole suburb was destroyed by the forest fire, (passive)
- The two kings are signing the treaty, (active)
The treaty is being signed by the two kings, (passive)
- The cleaning crew vacuums and dusts the office every night, (active)
Every night the office is vacuumed and dusted by the cleaning crew, (passive)
- Larry generously donated money to the homeless shelter, (active)
Money was generously donated to the homeless shelter by Larry. (passive)

- No one responded to my sales ad. (active)
My sales ad was not responded to by anyone, (passive)
- The wedding planner is making all the reservations, (active)
All the reservations will be made by the wedding planner, (passive)
- Susan will bake two dozen cupcakes for the bake sale, (active)
For the bake sale, two dozen cookies will be baked by Susan, (passive)
- The science class viewed the comet, (active)
The comet was viewed by the science class, (passive)
- Who ate the last cookie? (active]
The last cookie was eaten by whom? (passive)
- Alex posted the video on Facebook. (active)
The video was posted on Facebook by Alex. (passive)
- The director will give you instructions, (active)
Instructions will be given to you by the director, (passive)
- Thousands of tourists view the Grand Canyon every year, (active)
The Grand Canyon is viewed by thousands of tourists every year, (passive)
- The homeowners remodelled the house to help it sell, (active)
The house was remodelled by the homeowners to help it sell, (passive)
- The team will celebrate their victory tomorrow, (active)
The victory will be celebrated by the team tomorrow, (passive)
- The saltwater eventually corroded the metal beams, (active)
The metal beams were eventually corroded by the saltwater, (passive)
- The kangaroo carried her baby in her pouch, (active)
The baby was carried by the kangaroo in her pouch, (passive)
- Some people raise sugar cane in Hawaii, (active).
Sugar cane is raised by some people in Hawaii, (passive)

These sentences illustrate how different the same sentence can sound when written in active or passive voice. Generally, it's better to write in the active voice. It's clearer and more direct. Passive voice sentences tend to be more wordy and vague but can still be useful in some situations, such as formal or scientific writing.

Types of Sentences (Statements (Declarative), Interrogative, Exclamatory and Imperative) Explain each type with suitable examples

Types of Sentences are as explained below:

Introduction:

When we are writing and speaking, we use different types of sentences to say what we want to say. There are four main types of sentences: declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory; each with its own specific purpose.

Don't be afraid of their fancy names—all of the types of sentences are actually pretty simple!

a. Statements (Declarative) Sentences:

Declarative sentences give information. We use them to share facts and statements, in other words, to declare things. In fact, it is probably the type of sentence we use most each day.

Here are a few examples:

- The dog went to the county fair.
- She saw the dog eat popcorn.
- Dogs don't usually eat popcorn,
- The popcorn was hot.
- I like popcorn.

How to Write a Declarative Sentence?

A declarative sentence is written like statement, basically, "A is B" or "A does B." A declarative sentence has a neutral tone; so, it ends with a period. It can express feelings, but not very strong feelings. For example "I like popcorn," is a simple sentence that "declares" something you like. If you write "I LOVE popcorn!", it expresses a strong feeling, which makes it an **exclamatory sentence**

b. Interrogative sentence:

Quite simply, an **interrogative sentence** is a question. It is easy to recognize because it **always** ends in a question mark (?). Questions ask things like who, what, where, when, why, and how. Here are some examples:

- Why is the dog going to the county fair?
- Have you ever been to a county fair?
- What is your favourite snack?
- How do you make popcorn?

How to Write an Interrogative Sentence

Writing an interrogative sentence is simple and easy. Remember—it's just a fancy name for a question! As mentioned, questions should ask things like who, what, where, when, why, or how. So, using those words, let's try to ask some questions about popcorn:

- Who cooks fresh popcorn around here?
- Where can I buy fresh popcorn?
- What is the best flavour of popcorn?
- When do you usually eat popcorn?
- Why do you let your dog eat popcorn?
- How is it?

Or, you can change the word order within a declarative sentence. For example, the sentence below, can easily be made into a question:

Declarative Sentence: The popcorn is delicious.

New Interrogative Sentence (or question): Is the popcorn delicious?

c. Imperative sentence:

An imperative is a word expressing a command, thus, an **imperative sentence** gives instructions, requests, or demands, or shares a wish or invitation. Basically, they tell someone what to do or reflect something you want to happen. Here are some examples:

- Have fun at the fair! (Expressing a wish)
- Come to the fair with me! (Sharing an invitation)
- Feed the dog once per day. (Giving instructions) Please don't give the dog popcorn. (Sharing a request)
- Stop feeding the dog! (Giving a demand)

The verbs in imperative sentences are in what is called an "**imperative mood**," meaning they give commands. Look at these two sentences:

Don't feed the dog.

Imperative verb "don't" expressing a Command

He didn't feed the dog.

Indicative verb "didn't," reflecting a Lack of action

How to Write an Imperative Sentence

Writing an imperative sentence is easy, but it's important to remember its role. Its tone can be fairly neutral; or, it can express strong emotions. Because of this, they can end in either a period or an exclamation mark. For instance, a forceful command should end with an exclamation mark, but a more neutral request only needs a period.

Even if it ends with an exclamation mark, an imperative sentence **CANNOT** be an exclamatory sentence, because exclamatory sentences **do not share commands**

d. Exclamatory Sentence:

Exclamatory sentences share strong feelings or excitement. They are just like declarative sentences in that they share declarations, but the difference is that the words are said with more **emotion**. They are powerful sentences, so they always end with an exclamation mark. Here are a few:

- I can't believe how fast the dog ran to the county fair!
- Wow, he must really love popcorn!
- That popcorn isn't for dogs!

Simple, Complex and Compound Sentences

Simple, Complex and Compound Sentences are as explained below:

A. Simple Sentences:

1. What is a Simple Sentence?

A simple sentence is the most basic sentence that we have in English. It has just one independent clause, which means only one subject and one predicate. A simple sentence is also the shortest possible sentence; it can have as little as two words! Overall, a simple sentence is exactly what it sounds like—simple!

2. Examples:

A simple sentence can be very short, but some are long too, so long as they only have one subject-verb combination. Here, the subjects are orange and the verbs are green.

- I ate.
- I ate dinner.
- I ate dinner with my brother and sister.
- Last night, I ate dinner at a restaurant with my brother and sister.

As you can see, even though some of these sentences are long, each only has one subject and one verb (one clause).

3. Parts of Simple Sentences:

All sentences have one main important part: an independent clause. Sometimes, they also include other words, like objects and/or modifiers.

a. Independent Clause

An independent clause has a subject and a predicate and makes sense on its own as a complete sentence. In fact; an independent clause itself is a simple sentence! Here are a few:

- The cat ate.
- He ate ice cream.
- He went to the beach.
- The wolf ate steak at the zoo.

So, you can see that all of the clauses above work as sentences. All sentences have an independent clause, but all simple sentences have ONE independent clause.

b. Objects

An object is the word affected by the verb or preposition in a sentence. Objects are usually nouns or pronouns that answer questions like "who," "what," "where," and "when?" Here, the objects are purple.

- The dog ate bacon. **What did the dog eat?**
- The dog ate bacon at the park. **Where did he eat it?**
- I took my dog to the park. **Who did you take there?**
- We went to the park yesterday. **When did you go?**

So, you can see that the highlighted objects answer the questions above. They make the sentences more informational than they would be without objects.

c. Modifiers

A **modifier** is an adjective or adverb that "modifies" other words in a sentence to make it more descriptive. They help give a clearer idea about the things in the sentence. Here, the **modifiers are gray**. Let's start with a simple sentence:

The panda ate corn.

Now, let's add modifiers:

The **fat** panda **quickly** ate the **buttery** corn.

Modifiers make the sentence more detailed. We now know that the panda was fat, that he ate quickly, and that the corn was buttery! Modifiers can make sentences much more interesting.

4. Types of Simple Sentences

There aren't exactly different "types" of simple sentences, but they can be written in different ways. As mentioned, sometimes they are very short, or sometimes they include modifiers or objects that make them longer.

a. Simple Sentence with ONLY a Subject and a Verb

As mentioned, simple sentences are the shortest possible complete sentences. You can have a simple sentence with only a simple subject and a predicate, using only two or three words, like this:

- I see.
- He ran.
- We looked.
- They cooked.
- The dog ate.
- The baby cried.

Though only two or three words, these are all independent clauses, so they work on their own as complete sentences!

b. Simple Sentence with other Objects or Modifiers

Not all simple sentences are short. So long as it only has one subject and one predicate, a simple sentence can actually be pretty long. Take a look at the extra words in these examples:

- I see you **behind the** cotton candy machine!
- He ran to the fair as **fast as possible**.
- We ate buttery corn **at the famous** farmer's market.
- They prepared cotton candy **in an old-fashioned** machine.

So, a simple sentence can use lots of modifiers and objects to add details, while at the same time only describing one subject doing one thing.

5. How to Avoid Mistakes

The most important thing to remember about simple sentences is that they never have more than one subject or more than one predicate. In other words, there is only one subject doing one thing. A simple sentence CAN have a compound subject (two people using the same verb), but that's still just one subject.

- (WRONG) Maria went to the market and bought an apple. **One subject, two verbs**
- (WRONG) Sandy drove to the market and the dog went with her. **Two subjects, two verbs**
- (CORRECT) Jose went to the market. **One subject, one verb**
- (CORRECT) Maria and Jose went to the market. **One compound subject, one verb**

When you start adding more independent or dependent clauses to a sentence, you get a compound, complex, or compound-complex sentence. BUT, a simple sentence is just simple—one subject, one predicate.

B. Complex Sentences:

1. What is a Complex Sentence?

A **complex sentence** is a sentence with an independent clause and a dependent clause. It is one of the four main types of sentence structures. In a complex sentence, the independent clause shares the main information, and the dependent clause(s) provide details. Complex sentences let us share lots of information with just one sentence.

2. Examples of Complex Sentence

In the examples below, independent clauses are orange and dependent clauses are green.

- **When the dog went to the county fair, he ate popcorn.**
- **If the dog goes to the county fair, he will eat popcorn.**
- The dog went to the county fair **after he smelled popcorn.**
- **The dog smelled popcorn, so he went to the county fair.**

As you can see, sometimes the independent clause comes first, and sometimes the dependent clause comes first.

3. Parts of Complex Sentences:

All complex sentences have one **independent clause** and one or more **dependent clauses**. They often also include dependant "marker" words or coordinating conjunctions.

a. Independent Clause

An **independent clause** is a clause that can exist as a sentence on its own. It has a subject and a predicate and makes sense as a complete sentence. As mentioned, the independent clause shares the main information of a complex sentence.

- The dog ate popcorn.
- The dog ran quickly.
- He ate popcorn.
- He went to the county fair.

So, you can see that all of the clauses above are working sentences. All complex sentences have **ONLY** one independent clause.

b. Dependent (Subordinate) Clause

A **dependent clause** has a subject and a predicate; BUT, it can't be a sentence. It provides extra details about the independent clause, and it doesn't make sense on its own, like these:

- After he went to the fair
- Though he ate popcorn
- While he was at the county fair
- If the dog eats popcorn

Though all of the examples above contain subjects and predicates, none of them make sense. Each leaves an unanswered question. By itself, a dependent clause is just a fragment sentence (an incomplete sentence). So, it needs to be combined with an independent clause to be a sentence.

Complex sentences have at least one dependent clause, but they can have two or more.

c. Dependent "Marker" Words/Subordinating Conjunctions

A **dependent marker word** (also called a **subordinating conjunction**) goes at the beginning of an independent clause. It turns an independent clause into a dependant clause by adding details like time or context. Common dependent marker words include after, although, as, because, before, even if, even though, if, since, though, unless, until, whatever, when, whenever, whether, and while. Let's start with an independent clause:

He was at the county fair = **Independent clause**

Now, add a dependent marker word, like "when":

When he was at the county fair = **Dependent clause**

Here are some complex sentences with the marker words underlined:

- When he was at the county fair, the dog ate popcorn.
- Though he likes cotton candy, the dog loves popcorn.
- The dog gets a stomachache if he eats popcorn.
- The dog ate popcorn while he was at the county fair.

d. Coordinating Conjunctions

Coordinating conjunctions are words that connect sentences, like and, but, for, or, nor, so, and yet. If you are using a coordinating conjunction to connect an independent and a dependent clause, it needs a comma before it. Here are some examples with the conjunctions underlined:

- The dog ate popcorn, so he didn't want dinner.
- He likes popcorn, but it has to be hot.
- The dog doesn't like ice cream, for it is too cold.
- Pop the popcorn, and then eat it.

4. Types of Complex Sentences

A complex sentence is a type of sentence on its own, but the number of dependent clauses can vary.

a. Complex Sentences with One Dependent Clause

Many complex sentences have an independent clause and just one dependent clause, like these:

- **The dog didn't eat popcorn, nor did he eat cotton candy.**
- **The dog runs fast, so make sure you watch him.**
- **When he was at the county fair, the dog bought popcorn.**
- **Since the popcorn was cold, he didn't like it.**

b. Complex Sentences with More than One Dependent Clause

Complex sentences only ever have one independent clause, but they can have more than one dependent clause, like these:

The dog didn't eat popcorn, nor did he eat cotton candy or drink soda. '

The dog can run fast, so make sure you watch him or you will lose him.

When he was at the county fair, the dog bought popcorn but not cotton candy.

Since the popcorn was cold, the dog didn't like it, so he got cotton candy.

5. How to Write a Complex Sentence

Complex sentences are very common and pretty easy to write, as long as you remember their rules. When writing a complex sentence, you should follow these important guidelines:

1. All complex sentences have an independent clause and a dependent clause.
2. Complex sentences can have more than one dependent clause.
3. To connect independent and dependent clauses, you need dependent marker words and/or coordinating conjunctions.
4. Dependent marker words come at the beginning of a complex sentence
5. Coordinating conjunctions come after commas

C. Compound Sentences:

1. What is a Compound Sentence?

A **compound sentence** allows us to share a lot of information by combining two or more related thoughts into one sentence. It combines two **independent clauses** by using a conjunction like "and." This creates sentences that are more useful than writing many sentences with separate thoughts.

Compound sentences are important because they allow us to shorten the things we say or write. They express our thoughts in a way that allows our audience to receive information easily and quickly. Often, everything we want to say can be summarized, and it is generally the best choice for communicating. So remember: more words don't necessarily mean more information.

2. Examples of Compound Sentence

We use compound sentences all of the time. Here are some examples, the independent clause is **green**, the second is **purple**, and the conjunctions are **orange**:

- I drove to the park, and then I walked to the beach.
- Mike drove to the park, and I walked to the beach.

Let's take a look at the following section to find out what is an independent clause and a conjunction.

3. Parts of Compound Sentences

A compound sentence has at least two independent clauses and always includes a conjunction.

a. Independent Clause

An independent clause has a subject and a predicate and makes sense on its own as a complete sentence. Here are a few: The parrot ate popcorn.

- The wolf ran quickly.
- He ate candy apples.
- He went to the mall.

So, you can see that all of the clauses above are working sentences. All sentences have an independent clause, but all compound sentences have at least two independent clauses.

b. Conjunction

A **conjunction** is a word in a sentence that connects other words, phrases and clauses. The most common conjunction that you know is "**and.**" Other common conjunctions are for, but, or, yet, and so. A compound sentence needs at least one conjunction to connect two or more complete sentences.

Conjunctions are important because they let us combine information, but still keep ideas separate so that they are easy to understand. A compound sentence without a conjunction would be a run-on sentence, and would sound very confusing! Here are two sentences, with and without conjunctions:

The boy ran to the park then he ate a hotdog.

The boy ran to the park, and then he ate a hotdog.

So, you can see that we need a conjunction to for the sentence to be clear!

It is important to know that the word "**then**" is **NOT** a conjunction—it's an adverb. So, when you are writing a compound sentence and want to use "then", you still need a conjunction, for example, "**so then,**" "**but then,**" or "**and then.**"

4. Types of Compound Sentences

As mentioned, a compound sentence combines two independent clauses. But, sometimes a compound sentence is about:

- one subject (like when you discuss two different things you did)
- or two different subjects doing the same thing.
- or two different subjects doing two different things

a. When one subject does more than one thing:

Example 1:

The boy ran to the park.

The boy ate a hotdog there.

These sentences have the same subject, "boy," but two verbs, "ran" and "ate." Since both sentences are about what the boy does at the park, we can combine them:

The boy ran to the park, and he ate a hotdog there.

This compound sentence is the best way to share the information from the two original sentences. Even though the boy does two different things, we

can explain them in one sentence because they are related to each other. Let's try another example, again starting with two sentences.

Example 2:

Every morning, **Shelly eats breakfast.**

After breakfast, **Shelly works in her garden.**

Both of these sentences describe what the subject, Shelly, does every morning. Why not say this in one sentence?

Every morning, **Shelly eats breakfast and then she works in her garden.**

Again, the compound sentence is much stronger than two separate sentences.

b. When multiple subjects do the same thing:

Example 1:

Yesterday **the lion went to the candy store.**

The zebra also went to the candy store yesterday.

Both subjects, "the lion" and "the zebra," went to the candy store

Yesterday So, let's combine these things:

Yesterday, **the lion went to the candy store, and the zebra went too.**

Also, you should know that in contrast, combining the subjects makes a compound subject, but NOT a compound sentence:

The lion went to the candy store, and the zebra went too.

Compound sentence The lion and the zebra went to the candy store.

Compound subject

b. When multiple subjects do multiple things:

Example 1:

The girl ate cake at the party.

Subject "girl," verb "ate"

The cat drank soda at the party.

Subject "cat," verb "drank"

Even though these two sentences are about two different subjects doing two different things, they both share the phrase "at the party." Since they have this information in common, we can combine them:

At the party, **the girl ate cake but the cat drank soda.**

5. How to Write a Compound Sentence and Avoid Mistakes

Compound sentences are a great tool in writing, and come naturally in speaking. As mentioned, they exist to help you unite multiple related ideas into one strong sentence.

For example, here are three simple sentences:

The cheetah ran fast.

She ran all the way to the movies.

There, she ate a hot pretzel.

We really don't need three separate sentences to share this information, because it's all about the same subject. So, let's combine all three of the sentences above to make one compound sentence:

The cheetah ran fast; she ran all the way to the movies, **and** there she ate a hot pretzel.

The compound sentence still has the subject "cheetah," but it now shares both of the things she did at the county fair, "ran" and "ate."

As you can see in the sentence above, you need a conjunction, like "and", to combine two or more sentences. **All compound sentences need at least one conjunction.** Sometimes you only need one conjunction, but other times you may need two. Let's look at three more sentences:

The cheetah ran to the movies.

They were out of pretzels.

She ate popcorn instead.

The cheetah ran to the movies, **but** they were out of pretzels, **so** she ate popcorn instead.

This compound sentence needs two conjunctions "but" and "so" to tell share the information. Without them, the sentence would be hard to understand.

Finally, it's important to remember that compound sentences combine **related** information. Even if you follow the proper grammar pattern, it doesn't mean you can combine any old thing with another. You don't want to make the mistake of putting things together that have nothing to do with each other, like this: Mary went to the market yesterday and she gardens every morning.

In this sentence, the first point is that Mary went to the market yesterday, and the second is that she gardens every morning. But, these things **are not related** to each other, even though they are both about Mary. It seems like

they came from two different stories. So, while there is nothing wrong with the grammar, this is not a proper compound sentence because the ideas are unrelated.

Usage of Reported Speech

The usage of reported speech is as explained below.

Introduction:

If we report what another person has said, we usually do not use the speaker's exact words (direct speech), but reported (indirect] speech. Therefore, you need to learn how to transform direct speech into reported speech. The structure is a little different depending on whether you want to transform a statement, question or request.

a. Statements

When transforming statements, check whether you have to change:

- pronouns
- present tense verbs (3rd person singular)
- place and time expressions
- tenses (backshift)

Type	Example
direct speech	"I speak English."
reported speech (no backshift)	He says that he speaks English.
reported speech (backshift)	He said that he spoke English.

b. Questions

When transforming questions, check whether you have to change:

- pronouns
- present tense verbs (3rd person singular)
- place and time expressions
- tenses (backshift)

Also note that you have to:

- transform the question into an indirect question
- use the interrogative or if f whether

Type		Example
with interrogative	direct speech	"Why don't you speak English?"
	reported speech	He asked me why I didn't speak English.
without interrogative	direct speech	"Do you speak English?"
	reported speech	He asked me whether / if I spoke English.

c. Requests

When transforming questions, check whether you have to change:

- pronouns
- place and time expressions

Type	Example
direct speech	"Carol, speak English."
reported speech	He told Carol to speak English

d. Additional Information and Exceptions

Apart from the above mentioned basic rules, there are further aspects that you should keep in mind, for example:

- main clauses connected with and / but
- tense of the introductory clause
- reported speech for difficult tenses
- exceptions for backshift
- requests with must, should, ought to and let's

Examples of Reported Speech:

a. Reported Speech without backshift - Change of Pronouns

Helen is in front of the class holding a presentation on London. As Helen is rather shy, she speaks with a very low voice. Your classmate Gareth does not understand her, so you have to repeat every sentence to him.

Complete the sentences in reported speech (no backshift). Note the change of pronouns and verbs.

- Helen: I want to tell you something about my holiday in London.
- Gareth: What does she say?
- You: She says that she wants to tell us something about her holiday in London.

- Helen: I went to London in July.
- Gareth: What does she say?
- You: She says that she went to London in July.

- Helen: My parents went with me.
- Gareth: What does she say?
- You: She says that her parents went with her.

- Helen: We spent three days in London.
- Gareth: What does she say?
- You: She says that they spent three days in London.

- Helen: London is a multicultural place.
- Gareth: What does she say?
- You: She says that London is a multicultural place.

- Helen: I saw people of all colours.
- Gareth: What does she say?
- You: She says that she saw people of all colours.

- Helen: Me and my parents visited the Tower.
- Gareth: What does she say?
- You: She says that she and her parents visited the Tower.

- Helen: One evening we went to see a musical.
- Gareth: What does she say?
- You: She says that one evening they went to see a musical.

- Helen: I love London.
- Gareth: What does she say?
- You: She says that she loves London

- Helen: The people are so nice there.
- Gareth: What does she say?
- You: She says that the people are so nice there.

Syntactic Ambiguity

Syntactic Ambuity is as explained below:

Syntactic ambiguity, also called **amphiboly** or **amphibology**, is a situation where a sentence may be interpreted in more than one way due to ambiguous sentence structure.

Syntactic ambiguity arises not from the range of meanings of single words, but from the relationship between the words and clauses of a sentence, and the sentence structure underlying the word order therein. In other words, a sentence is syntactically ambiguous when a reader or listener can reasonably interpret one sentence as having more than one possible structure.

In legal disputes, courts may be asked to interpret the meaning of syntactic ambiguities in statutes or contracts. In some instances, arguments asserting highly unlikely interpretations have been deemed frivolous. A set of possible parse trees for an ambiguous sentence is called a parse forest. The process of resolving syntactic ambiguity is called syntactic disambiguation.

Different forms of Syntactic Ambuity

a. Globally ambiguous

A globally ambiguous sentence is one that has at least two distinct interpretations. In this type of ambiguity, after one has read or heard the entire sentence, the ambiguity is still present. Rereading the sentence cannot resolve the ambiguity because no feature of the representation (i.e. word order) distinguishes the distinct interpretations.

Global ambiguities are often unnoticed because the reader tends to choose the meaning he or she understands to be more probable. One example of a global ambiguity is "The woman held the baby in the green blanket." In this example, the baby could be wrapped in the green blanket or the woman could be using the green blanket as an instrument to hold the baby.

b. Locally ambiguous

A locally ambiguous sentence is a sentence that contains an ambiguous phrase but has only one interpretation. The ambiguity in a locally ambiguous sentence briefly persists and is resolved, i.e., disambiguated, by the end of the utterance. Sometimes, local ambiguities can result in "garden path" sentences, in which a structurally sound sentence is difficult to interpret because one interpretation of the ambiguous region is not the ultimate coherent interpretation.

Examples of Syntactic Ambuity:

1. The sentence, "they were milking cows," could be understood to mean that those fine animals over there are a particular type of cow. They were milking cows. Or the sentence could mean that them thar farmers were in the act of extracting milk from their domesticated bovine... "They were milking cows."
2. The duke yet lives that Henry shall depose. — Henry VI (1.4.30), by William Shakespeare

Amphiboly occurs frequently in poetry, sometimes owing to the alteration of the natural order of words for metrical reasons. The sentence could be taken to mean that Henry will depose the duke, or that the duke will depose Henry. *Eduardum occidere nolite timere bonum est.* — Edward II by Christopher Marlowe

According to legend, Isabella of France and Roger Mortimer, 1st Earl of March famously plotted to murder Edward II of England in such a way as not to draw blame on themselves, sending a famous order in Latin which, depending on where the comma was inserted, could mean either "Do not be afraid to kill Edward; it is good" or "Do not kill Edward; it is good to fear":

3. I'm glad I'm a man, and so is Lola. — Lola by Ray Davies

Can mean "Lola and I are both glad I'm a man", or "I'm glad Lola and I are both men", or "I'm glad I'm a man, and Lola is also glad to be a man". Ray Davies deliberately wrote this ambiguity into the song, referring to a cross-dresser.

4. John saw the man on the mountain with a telescope.
Who is on the mountain? John, the man, or both? Who has the telescope? John, the man, or the mountain?
5. The word of the Lord came to Zechariah, son of Berechiah, son of Iddo, the prophet. Is the prophet Zechariah, Berechiah, or Iddo?
6. Aristotle writes about an influence of ambiguities on arguments and also about an influence of ambiguities depending on either combination or division of words:

... if one combines the words 'to write-while-not-writing': for then it means, that he has the power to write and not to write at once; whereas if one does not combine them, it means that when he is not writing he has the power to write.

— Aristotle, *Sophistical refutations*, Book I, Part 4

3. VOCABULARY SKILLS

Important Topics in this chapter are:

1.	Idioms and Phrases
2.	One Word Substitution

Idioms and Phrases and their usage

Idioms and Phrases are as explained below:

a. **Idioms:**

Definition of an Idiom:

An **idiom** is an expression that takes on a figurative meaning when certain words are combined, which is different from the literal definition of the individual words. For example, let's say I said: 'Don't worry, driving out to your house is a piece of cake.' We would understand that the expression 'piece of cake' means that it's easy. Normally, we obviously wouldn't associate the word 'cake' when it is on its own as anything other than dessert. But in this context, it's a well-known idiom.

Examples of Idioms

There are tens of thousands of idioms used in the English language. As we can probably understand, idioms are difficult for people whose first language is not English. Actually, even native English speakers in the Motherland of England have a hard time with American idioms. Americans know them because they're common expressions. We're used to hearing them in our homes, at school, and in our favourite television programs.

Sometimes American idioms make their way around the world, and sometimes an expression doesn't even make it out of a particular state. Here a few of the most commonly used idioms in the United States and their likely origins. (Note that these origins may be in dispute.)

'As happy as a clam'

Mary was happy as a clam on the day of her wedding.

Meaning: Pleased, very content .

Origin: So why in the world would a clam ever be happy? They're shellfish, they don't have feelings. The expression most likely began because when a clam's shell is opened up, it does look like the clam is smiling.

'Pass the buck'

It is Tim's responsibility to mow the lawn. He shouldn't pass the buck to his younger brother.

Meaning: To dodge one's responsibilities by giving them to someone else

Origin: The game of poker became extremely popular in the 1800s in the United States. Of course, many of the cowboys and bar patrons who played the game were degenerate gambler types who could not be trusted. So, a system was instilled that on each new game a different person would deal out the cards and they would be given some kind of marker to indicate that it was their deal. Often times a knife was used as a marker. The handles of these knives were typically made out of a buck's horn. In time, the marker just became known

b. Phrases:

What Is a Phrase?

How does writing start? When you sit down to write, what is the first idea you put on paper? We begin writing with something very simple: a word. Our writing grows as words become phrases, phrases become clauses, clauses become sentences, and sentences become complex and compound. By knowing how a sentence begins, you are able to create more complicated sentences, combine ideas more smoothly, and know how to punctuate your writing to convey a clear meaning.

It is obvious that we all know what a word is. However, we may not be as familiar with a phrase. A **phrase** is two or more words that are related to each other. Unlike clauses and sentences, phrases are never complete thoughts because a phrase does not contain a subject and a verb.

Let's look at an example to explain the way we may write a sentence. First, we would start with the word 'dog.' This word becomes the phrase 'a small,

black dog' when we add modifiers to it. Notice that this is an incomplete thought because it is only a subject and does not contain a verb. Next, the phrase becomes a **clause**, a group of words related to each other that contain a subject and verb. We can write, 'When the small, black dog started to jump.' The clause is still incomplete because it does not contain a complete thought. To fix this, we would want to finish the thought and create a sentence: 'When the small, black dog started to jump, we quickly ran away.'

Now that we have defined a phrase and looked at its role in creating a sentence, let's look at the different kinds of phrases we can use in our writing.

Noun Phrase

A **noun phrase** is a phrase that includes a person, place, or thing and the modifiers that describe it. It is important to recognize the noun phrase because it will distinguish the noun. In writing, this will help you add more details and create a stronger, more vivid picture for your audience. For instance, instead of writing, 'I saw them,' you could write, 'I saw the young, joyful children.'

You can recognize the noun phrase by finding the subject and identifying the words that describe it. These words may be placed before or "after the noun. For example, in our earlier example our noun phrase was 'a small, black dog.' 'Dog' is our initial noun, but the entire description is the noun phrase. It is important to remember that there are many different ways to describe a noun, so there are many different kinds of noun phrases.

Let's first look at the noun phrases that contain modifiers before the nouns. First, you may just have the articles 'a,' 'an,' and 'the' before word. For example, 'the rabbit' or 'an ant.' This would be recognized as a noun phrase. Second, a possessive noun or pronoun before a noun, such as 'June's rabbit' or 'her rabbit,' will complete the noun phrase. Finally, **participles**, a verb being used as an adjective would create a noun phrase. For example, 'the jumping rabbit' or 'the marching ant.'

There are also modifiers that can be placed after the noun. First, you can use an adjective clause, which is a clause that contains a subject and verb that functions as an adjective. For example, 'the girl that was late for class' contains the noun 'girl' and the modifier 'that was late for class.' This clause distinguishes what girl in the sentence. Next, a noun phrase can contain a noun and preposition phrase, such as 'the child in the car.' Finally, a noun

phrase could end with a **participle phrase**, a verb ending in -ing or -ed that serves as an adjective. For example, in the noun phrase 'the boy asking for a cookie,' 'the boy' is the noun and 'asking for a cookie' is the participle phrase.

As a last step, there are a few different types of noun phrases. An **appositive noun phrase** renames the noun or subject of the sentence. Since it renames the noun, we do not consider it to be modifying the noun, which makes it a noun phrase. For example, 'Katie, my best friend, was late to school.' Or 'Bob, the loyal dog, passed away last night.'

A **gerund phrase** is a noun phrase that begins with a gerund. A gerund is a verb that functions as a noun. For example, 'Traveling can be exhausting.' 'Travel,' which is normally a verb, is being used as a noun in the sentence. Or for another example: 'I love baking cookies.' In this sentence, 'baking cookies' is our noun phrase, which starts with the gerund 'baking.'

An **infinitive phrase** is a noun phrase that begins with an infinitive. An infinitive is usually the word 'to' before a verb. For example, 'to sleep' or 'to read.' An infinitive noun phrase could be 'I love to sleep all day,' or 'I prefer to read alone.'

15 Most common English idioms and phrases:

1. **'The best of both worlds'** - means you can enjoy two different opportunities at the same time.
"By working part-time and looking after her kids two days a week she managed to get the best of both worlds."
2. **'Speak of the devil'** - this means that the person you're just talking about actually turns up at that moment.
"Hi Tom, speak of the devil, I was just telling Sara about your new car."
3. **'See eye to eye'** - this means agreeing with someone.
"They finally saw eye to eye on the business deal."
4. **'Once in a blue moon'** - an event that happens infrequently.
"I only go to the cinema once in a blue moon."
5. **'When pigs fly'** - something that will never happen. "When pigs fly she'll tidy up her room."

6. **'To cost an arm and a leg'**- something is very expensive. "Fuel these days costs an arm and a leg."
7. **'A piece of cake'**- something is very easy. "The English test was a piece of cake."
8. **'Let the cat out of the bag'** - to accidentally reveal a secret. "I let the cat out of the bag about their wedding plans."
9. **'To feel under the weather'** - to not feel well.
"I'm really feeling under the weather today; I have a terrible cold."
10. **'To kill two birds with one stone'** - to solve two problems at once.
"By taking my dad on holiday, I killed two birds with one stone. I got to go away but also spend time with him."
11. **'To cut corners'** - to do something badly or cheaply.
"They really cut corners when they built this bathroom; the shower is leaking."
12. **'To add insult to injury'** - to make a situation worse.
"To add insult to injury the car drove off without stopping after knocking me off my bike."
13. **'You can't judge a book by its cover'** - to not judge someone or something based solely on appearance.
"I thought this no-brand bread would be horrible; turns out you can't judge a book by its cover."
14. **'Break a leg'** - means 'good luck' (often said to actors before they go on stage). "Break a leg Sam, I'm sure your performance will be great."
15. **'To hit the nail on the head'** -to describe exactly what is causing a situation or problem.
"He hit the nail on the head when he said this company needs more HR support."

Exercise: To test your new-found knowledge here are some sentences to practice with. Fill in the blank!

- A. I can't afford this purse! It _____. I won't be able to pay my rent!
- B. His birthday was supposed to be a surprise! I can't believe you _____. Now he knows!
- C.
- D. Ha! John has been promising to paint the house for five years.... Maybe when _____.
- E. Yeah, it'll _____. I need to sign some papers at Jenny's school anyway so I'll pick her up for you too.
- F. I don't really like going out to bars anymore. I only go _____.
- G. I'm sorry I can't come into work today. I'm _____. I have a sore throat and runny nose.
- H. They tried _____ when installing the pipes for the house and now we have leaks only one month after purchasing it!
- I. We missed our flight to Paris because the connecting flight was late and to _____ they made us pay for a new ticket as if it was our fault!
- J. I can't wait to see you perform on stage tonight! _____!
- K. Jane is just never on time to work, it's really annoying. Oh wow, _____ here she comes...
- L. So we're going to London, then Munich, then we will fly out of Athens, right? Great. I'm so glad to be traveling with someone I _____ with.
- M. Wow, she found her dream man and has now landed an amazing job. She really does have _____.
- N. OK, she might not be the most attractive but _____. I'm sure she is a sweetheart.
- O. I have been trying to figure this out for ages. Thanks so much, you're right. You _____.
- P. I can't believe that was our test. I think it was easier than some of our homework! It was a _____.

So how did you do? Don't forget to try and use these idioms and phrases when practicing your English. And do let us know if you need further clarification on commonly used idioms by leaving a comment below.

Answers: 6, 8, 5, 10, 4, 9, 11, 12, 14, 2, 3, 1, 13, 15, 7

Some more Idioms and Phrases:

S.No.	Idioms & Phrases	Meaning
1.	Rank and File	Ordinary People
2.	By fits and starts	In short periods, not regularly
3.	A wee bit	A little
4.	Out of the wood	Free from difficulties and dangers
5.	Under his thumb	Under his control
6.	At one's wits end Between the devil and the deep	In a state where one does not know what to do
7.	sea	Between two dangers
8.	Burn the midnight oil	Work or study hard
9.	Call a spade a spade	Speak frankly and directly
10.	Come off with flying colors	Be highly successful
11.	Hoping against hope	Without hope
12.	Hit the nail on the head	Do or say the exact thing
13.	An axe to grind	A personal interest in the matter
14.	To get rid of	Dispose of
15.	At daggers drawn	Bitterly hostile
16.	To play ducks and drakes	To act foolishly or inconsistently
17.	To take the bull by the horns	To tackle a problem in a bold and direct fashion
18.	Rain cats and dogs	Rain heavily
19.	To move heaven and earth	To make a supreme effort
20.	No avail	Without any result
21.	Bark up the wrong tree	Accuse or denounce the wrong person
22.	Keep one at bay	Keep one at a distance
23.	Make a clean breast of it	Confess - especially when a person has done a wrong thing
24.	Have a card up one's sleeve	Have a secret plan in reserve
25.	Like a cat on hot bricks	Very nervous
26.	Cat and dog life	Life full of quarrels
27.	Cock and bull story	Made up story that one should not believe
28.	Cry for the moon	Ask for the impossible
29.	The pros and cons	The various aspects of a matter in detail
30.	Be in a tight corner	In a very difficult situation
31.	Cross one's t's and dot	Be precise, careful and one's i's exact

32.	At arm's length	To keep at a distance
33.	Out of the question	Impossible
34.	Out of the way	Strange
35.	Show a clean pair of heels	Run away
36.	Keep one's fingers crossed	The anxiety in which you hope that nothing
37.	In the nick of time	Just at the last moment
38.	Sitting on the fence	Hesitate between two decisions
39.	Spread like wild fire	Spread quickly
40.	The gift of the gab	Talent for speaking
41.	By hook or by crook	By fair or foul means
42.	Feather one's own nest	Make money unfairly
43.	Throw out of gear	Disturb the work
44.	Take to one's heels	Run away
45.	Tooth and nail	With all one's power
46.	Die in harness	Die while in service
47.	Take a leaf out of one's book	Imitate one
48.	Leave no stone unturned	Use all available means
49.	A man of straw	A man of no substance
50.	Read between the lines	Understand the hidden meaning
51.	In cold blood	Deliberately and without emotion
52.	A thorn in the flesh	A constant source of annoyance
53.	Smell a rat	Suspect something foul
54.	Harp on the same string	Dwell on the same subject
55.	Bury the hatchet	End the quarrel and make peace
56.	Leave one in the lurch	Desert one in difficulties; leave one in a helpless condition
57.	Like a fish out of water	In a strange situation
58.	At one's beck and call	Under his control
59.	To make both ends meet	To live within one's income
60.	In hot water	In trouble
61.	Nip in the bud	Destroy in the early stage
62.	Stick to one's guns	Remain faithful to the cause
63.	To eat humble pie	To apologize humbly and to yield under humiliating circumstances
64.	In high spirits	Very happy
65.	Put the cart before the horse	Put or do things in the wrong order
66.	To all names	To abuse

67.	On tenterhooks	In a state of suspense and anxiety
68.	Wash one's dirty linen	Discuss unpleasant in public-private matters before strangers
69.	To bell the cat	To face the risk
70.	A hard nut to crack	A difficult problem
71.	Let the cat out of the bag	Reveal a secret
72.	A big gun	An important person
73.	Kill two birds with one stone	To achieve two results with one effort
74.	Take one to task	Rebuke
75.	Gain ground	Become Popular
76.	To blow one's own	To praise one's own trumpet achievement
77.	A bosom friend	A very close friend
78.	A brown study	Dreaming
79.	Turn a deaf ear	Disregard / ignore what one says
80.	A close shave	Narrow escape
81.	Turn over a new leaf	Change for the better
82.	Make up one's mind	Decide
83.	In the long run	Eventually; ultimately
84.	Bring to light	Disclose
85.	Pay off old scores	Take revenge
86.	Hard and fast rules	Strict rules
87.	At the eleventh hour	At the last moment
88.	A close shave	Narrow escape
89.	To cut a sorry figure	To make a poor show
90.	With a high hand	Oppressively
91.	Burn one's fingers	Get into trouble by interfering in other's affairs
92.	Laugh one's head off	Laugh heartily
93.	Chew the cud	Ponder over something
94.	Play second fiddle	Take an unimportant part
95.	Above board	Honest and open
96.	Through thick and thin	Under all conditions
97.	Put a spoke in one's wheel	To upset one's plans
98.	At sixes and sevens	In a disordered/disorganized manner, chaotic
99.	At home	Comfortable
100.	Alpha and omega	The beginning and the end
101.	At sea	Confused and lost
102.	A bosom friend	A very close friend

103.	At one's beck and call	At one's service
104.	By leaps and bounds	Rapidly
105.	To burn one's boats	Go back on a decision
106.	To beat about the bush	Talk irrelevantly
107.	To burn candle at both ends	To waste lavishly
108.	Take one to task	Rebuke
109.	A bone of contention	A source of quarrel
110.	Add fuel to the fire	To aggravate the situation
111.	An acid test	A critical test
112.	At a snail's pace	Very slowly
113.	A bolt from the blue	Something unexpected
114.	To build castles in the air	Make imaginary schemes
115.	Once in a blue moon	Something that happens very rarely
116.	Beating around the bush	Avoiding the main topic
117.	Cry over spilled milk	Complaining about a loss or failure from the past
118.	Chip on your shoulder	When someone is upset about something that happened a while ago
119.	Piece of cake	Something that is easy to understand or do
120.	Golden handshake	A big sum of money given to a person when he/she leaves a company or retires
121.	Spill the beans	To disclose a secret
122.	Blessing in disguise	Something good and useful that did not initially seem that way
123.	Mean business	Being Serious or Dedicated
124.	Come hell or high water	Possible obstacles in your path
125.	Apple of one's	Being cherished
126.	eye Bite off more than you can chew	Not able to complete a task due to lack of ability
127.	The best of both worlds	The benefits of widely differing situations, enjoyed at the same time
128.	Feeling a bit under the weather	Feeling slightly ill
129.	Icing on the cake	Something that turns good into great
130.	Cost an arm and a leg	Be very expensive

131.	Jump the bandwagon	To join a popular activity or trend
132.	Ball is in your court	When it is up to you to make the next decision or step
133.	To be in the doldrums	To be in low spirits
134.	To sit on the fence	To remain neutral
135.	Break the ice	To initiate a social conversation or interaction
136.	Hear it on grapevine	To hear rumors about something or someone
137.	Can't judge a book by its cover	Cannot judge something primarily on appearance
138.	It takes two to tango	Actions or communications need more than one person
139.	Let the cat out of the bag	To reveal the secret carelessly or by mistake
140.	Black and blue	Full of Bruises
141.	Be on cloud nine	Be very happy
142.	Last straw	The final problem in a series of problems
143.	A bird's eye view	A view from a very high place that allows you to see a very large area
144.	A litmus Test	A method that helps to know if something is correct
145.	At the drop of a hat	Willingness to do something instantly
146.	Afraid of one's own shadow	To become easily frightened
147.	A house of cards	A poor plan
148.	Fool's paradise	False sense of happiness
149.	Get a raw deal	To not be treated as well as other people
150.	Give cold shoulder	To ignore
151.	Hand to mouth	Live on only basic necessities
152.	Make a face	To show dislike or disappointment through facial expressions
153.	It's Greek to me	Something that is not understandable
154.	To pour oil on troubled waters	To make peace

155.	Don't put all your eggs in one basket	Do not put all your resources in one basket (in one place or thing)
156.	To put in a nutshell	To say in a few words or to make something concise
157.	Back out	To withdraw from a promise or contract
158.	Blow up	To explode
159.	Back Up	To support and sustain
160.	Back Upon	To be relevant
161.	Break Down	Failure in something
162.	Break off	To end or discontinue
163.	Break Up	To disperse / dissolve
164.	Bring up	To rear
165.	Call forth	To provoke
166.	Call out	To shout
167.	Call upon	To order
168.	Carry on	To continue
169.	Cast away	To throw aside
170.	Catch up with	To overtake
171.	Come off	To take place
172.	Cry Down	To make little of
173.	Catch up with	To overtake
174.	Cry out against	To complain loudly against
175.	Cut out	Designed for
176.	Drop in	To Visit Casually
177.	Drop out	To fall
178.	Fall back	To Recede; To Retreat
179.	Fall down	From a higher position to a lower one
180.	Fall off	To Withdraw; To Drop Off
181.	Fall under	To come under
182.	Get along	To Prosper; To Progress; To Proceed
183.	Get on with	To Live Pleasantly Together; To Progress
184.	Get into	To be involved in
185.	Give in	To Surrender; To Yield
186.	Give over	Not to do any longer
187.	Go after	To Follow; To Pursue
188.	Go Down	To be accepted
189.	Go without	To remain without

190.	Go by	To follow
191.	Hang about	To Loiter near a place
192.	Hang upon	To depend upon
193.	Hold out	To Endure; To Refuse to yield; To continue; To offer
194.	Hold to	Abide By
195.	Keep off	To ward off
196.	Keep up with	To keep pace with
197.	Knockout	To win by hitting another one
198.	It takes two to tango	Both people involved in a bad situation are responsible for it
199.	Last straw	The final problem in a series of problems
200.	Keep something at bay	Keep something away
201.	Kill two birds with one stone	To solve two problems at a time with just one action
202.	Let sleeping dogs lie	Leave something alone if it might cause trouble
203.	Open the floodgates	Release something that was previously under control
204.	Out of the blue	Happen unexpectedly
205.	Out on a limb	Do something risky
206.	Over the Top	Totally excessive and not suitable for the occasion
207.	Pen is mightier than the sword	Words and communication have a greater effect than war
208.	Push one's luck	Trying to obtain more than what one has
209.	Reap the harvest	Benefit or suffer as a direct result of past actions
210.	Roll up sleeves	To get yourself prepared
211.	See eye to eye	To be in agreement with
212.	Shot in the dark	A complete guess
213.	Sink your teeth into	Do something with a lot of energy and enthusiasm
214.	Take with a grain/pinch of salt	To doubt the accuracy of information
215.	Skating on thin ice	Do or say something risky
216.	Tight spot	A difficult situation
217.	Strike while the iron is hot	To act at the right time

218.	Take the plunge	Venture into something of one's interest despite the risks involved
219.	Take a nosedive	Rapid drop or decrease in value
220.	Think the world of	Admire someone very much
221.	Stand in a good stead	To be useful or be of good service to someone
222.	Take a back seat	Choose to be less important in a role
223.	Wave a dead chicken	Do something useless
224.	Whale of a time	Enjoy a lot
225.	Wrap one's brain around	Concentrate on something to understand
226.	Zero in on something	Focus all attention on one thing
227.	Above all	Chiefly, Mainly
228.	On Account of	Due to
229.	On no account	Not for Any Reason
230.	A Fidus Achates	A faithful friend or a devoted follower
231.	The Heel of Achilles	A Weak Point
232.	An Adonis	A very handsome man
233.	To assume airs	To affect superiority
234.	To stand aloof	To keep to oneself and not mix with others
235.	To lead to the altar	To marry
236.	An Ananias	A Liar
237.	An Apollo	A Man with Perfect Physique
238.	To Upset the Apple Cart	To disturb the peace
239.	Apple Pie Order	In perfect order
240.	Arcadian Life	A blissful, happy, rural and simple life
241.	To take up arms	To fight or go to the war
242.	To Grind	To have some selfish objective in view
243.	To break the back of anything	To perform the most difficult part
244.	To backbite a person	To speak disguise about someone
245.	He has no backbone	He has no will of his own
246.	To cause bad blood	To Cause Enmity
247.	Bag and Baggage	With all one's belongings
248.	To keep the ball rolling	To keep things going

249.	Barmecide feast	Imaginary Benefits
250.	Bee-line	The shortest distance between two places
251.	Behind one's back	Without one's Knowledge
252.	Behind the scenes	In Private
253.	To hit below the belt	To act unfairly in a contest
254.	To bite the dust	To be Defeated in Battle
255.	A Wet Blanket	A person who discourages enjoyment or enthusiasm
256.	In Cold Blood	Deliberately
257.	A blue Stocking	A learned/educated or intellectual woman
258.	At First Blush	At first sight
259.	A Bolt from the Blue	Something completely unexpected that surprises you
260.	One's bread and butter	One's means of livelihood
261.	To breadth one's last	To Die
262.	To make bricks without straw	To attempt to do something without proper materials
263.	To kick the bucket	To die
264.	Good wine needs no bush	There is no need to advertise something good
265.	To burn the candle at both ends	To expend energy in two directions at the same time
266.	If the cap fits, wear it	If you think the remarks refer to you, then accept the criticism
267.	Care killed the cat	Don't fret and worry yourself to death
268.	To Catch one's eye	To attract attention
269.	To take the chair	To preside a meeting
270.	She is no chicken	She is older than she says
271.	To pick and choose	To make a careful selection
272.	To square the circle	To attempt something impossible
273.	Every cloud has a silver lining	Adverse conditions do not last forever
274.	Close fistcd	Mean
275.	Cut your cloth according to your Cloth	Live within your income
276.	A cock and bull story	A foolishly incredible story
277.	To be cock sure	To be perfectly sure or certain

278.	To throw cold water upon anything	To discourage efforts
279.	Off colour	Not in the usual form
280.	To commit to memory	To learn by heart
281.	Too many cooks spoil the broth	Where there are more workers than necessary
282.	Crocodile tears	Hypocritical Tears
283.	By hook or by crook	By fair or foul means
284.	Cut and dried	Readymade
285.	Up to date	Recent
286.	Evil days	A period of misfortune
287.	Halcyon Days	A time when there are peace and happiness in the land
288.	To step into dead man's shoes	To come into an inheritance
289.	Go to the devil	Be off
290.	Devil's bones	Dice
291.	Devil's Playthings	Playing Cards
292.	Give a dog a bad name and hang him	Once a person loses his reputation
293.	Every dog has his day	Sooner or later, everyone has his share of good fortune
294.	To throw dust in one's eyes	To try to deceive someone or mislead someone
295.	A white elephant	A useless possession which is extremely expensive to keep
296.	To set the Thames on fire	To do something sensational or remarkable One who has had a previous unpleasant experience is always scared of situations where such experiences are likely to be
297.	A burnt child dreads the fire	repeated
298.	A fish out of water	Anyone in an awkward
299.	Foul play	Cheating
300.	To jump from a frying pan into fire	To come out of one trouble and get into a worse
301.	All that glitters are not gold	Things are not always as attractive as they appear
302.	To die in harness	To continue at one's occupation until death
303.	Make hay while the sun shines	Take advantage of all opportunities

304.	Lock, stock and barrel	The whole of everything
305.	A miss is as good as a mile	Comes nowhere near it. If someone narrowly misses the target it still is treated as a missed one or failure.
306.	To move heaven and earth	To exert all efforts
307.	One swallow does not make a summer	It is unreliable to base one's conclusions on only a single test or incident
308.	If wishes were horses, beggars might ride	If wishing could make things happen, then even the most destitute people would have everything they wanted
309.	A nine days' wonder	An event which relates a sensation for a time but is soon forgotten
310.	Yellow press	Newspapers which publish sensational and unscrupulous stories and exaggerates the news to attract readers.
311.	A ball park figure	A general financial figure
312.	To balance the books	To make certain that the amount of money spent is not more than the amount of money received.
313.	A cash cow	A product or service that makes a lot of money for a company
314.	Devil's Advocate	To present a counter argument
315.	Don't give up the day job	You are not very good at something. You could not do it professionally.
316.	To cook the books	To modify financial statements
317.	To get the sack	To be dismissed from your job
318.	To be snowed under	To be very busy
319.	To work your fingers to the bone Or To sweat blood	To work really hard
320.	Hear it on the grapevine	To hear rumours
321.	In the heat of the moment	Overwhelmed by what is happening in the moment
322.	Not a spark of decency	No Manners
323.	Speak of the devil!	This expression is used when the person you have just been talking about arrives
324.	Whole nine yards	Everything. All of it
325.	Your guess is as good as mine	To have no idea about anything

One Word Substitution

One Word Substitution is as explained below:

The one-word substitutions list is divided into different sections as given below.

<u>People</u>	<u>Group</u>	<u>Profession</u>
<u>Venue</u>	<u>Government</u>	<u>Phobia</u>
<u>Death</u>	<u>Sound</u>	<u>Generic Terms</u>

List of One Word Substitution for "Individual Character/Person/People"

PHRASE	ONE WORD
One who is not sure about God's existence	Agnostic
A person who deliberately sets fire to a building	Arsonist
One who does a thing for pleasure and not as a profession	Amateur
One who can use either hand with ease	Ambidextrous
One who makes an official examination of accounts	Auditor
A person who believes in or tries to bring about a state of lawlessness	Anarchist
A person who has changed his faith	Apostate
One who does not believe in the existence of God	Atheist
A person appointed by two parties to solve a dispute	Arbitrator
One who leads an austere life	Ascetic
One who does a thing for pleasure and not as a profession	Amateur
One who can either hand with ease	Ambidextrous
An unconventional style of living	Bohemian
One who is bad in spellings	Cacographer
One who feeds on human flesh	Cannibal
A person who is blindly devoted to an idea/ A person displaying aggressive or exaggerated patriotism	Chauvinist
A critical judge of any art and craft	Connoisseur
Persons living at the same time	Contemporaries
One who is recovering health after illness	Convalescent
A girl/woman who flirts with man	Coquette
A person who regards the whole world as his country	Cosmopolitan
One who is a centre of attraction	Cynosure

One who sneers at the beliefs of others	Cynic
A leader or orator who espoused the cause of the common people	Demagogue
A person having a sophisticated charm	Debonair
A leader who sways his followers by his oratory	Demagogue
A dabbler (not serious) in art, science and literature	Dilettante
One who is for pleasure of eating and drinking	Epicure
One who often talks of his achievements	Egotist
Someone who leaves one country to settle in another	Emigrant
A man who is womanish in his habits	Effeminate
One hard to please (very selective in his habits)	Fastidious
One who runs away from justice	Fugitive
One who is filled with excessive enthusiasm in religious matters	Fanatic
One who believes in fate	Fatalist
A lover of good food	Gourmand
Conferred as an honour	Honorary
A person who acts against religion	Heretic
A person of intellectual or erudite tastes	Highbrow
A patient with imaginary symptoms and ailments	Hypochondriac
A person who is controlled by wife	Henpeck
One who shows sustained enthusiastic action with unflagging vitality	Indefatigable
Someone who attacks cherished ideas or traditional institutions	Iconoclast
One who does not express himself freely	Introvert
Who behaves without moral principles	Immoral
A person who is incapable of being tampered with	Impregnable
One who is unable to pay his debts	Insolvent
A person who is mentally ill	Lunatic
A person who dislikes humankind and avoids human society	Misanthrope
A person who primarily concerned with making money at the expense of ethics	Mercenary
Someone in love with himself	Narcissist
One who collect coins as hobby	Numismatist
A person who likes or admires women	Philogynist
A lover of mankind	Philanthropist
A person who speaks more than one language	Polyglot
One-who lives in solitude	Recluse
Someone who walks in sleep	Somnambulist

A person who is indifferent to the pains and pleasures of life	Stoic
A scolding nagging bad-tempered woman	Termagant
A person who shows a great or excessive fondness for one's wife	Uxorious
One who possesses outstanding technical ability in a particular art or field	Virtuoso

One Word Substitution List for "Collection/ Grout)"

PHRASE	ONE WORD
A group of guns or missile launchers operated together at one place	Battery
A large bundle bound for storage or transport	Bale
A large gathering of people of a particular type	Bevy
An arrangement of flowers that is usually given as a present	Bouquet
A family of young animals	Brood
A group of things that have been hidden in a secret place	Cache
A group of people, typically with vehicles or animals travelling together	Caravan
A closed political meeting	Caucus
An exclusive circle of people with a common purpose	Clique
A group of followers hired to applaud at a performance	Claque
A series of stars	Constellation
A funeral procession	Cortege
A group of worshippers	Congregation
A herd or flock of animals being driven in a body	Drove
A small fleet of ships or boats	Flotilla
A small growth of trees without underbrush	Grove
A community of people smaller than a village	Hamlet
A group of cattle or sheep or other domestic mammals	Herd
A large group of people	Horde
A temporary police force	Posse
A large number of fish swimming together	Shoal
A strong and fast-moving stream of water or other liquid	Torrent

One Word Substitutes List for "Research / Profession"

PHRASE	ONE WORD
The medieval forerunner of chemistry	Alchemy
A person who presents a radio/television programme	Anchor
One who studies the evolution of mankind	Anthropologist
A person who is trained to travel in a spacecraft	Astronaut
The scientific study of the physiology, structure, genetics, ecology, distribution, classification, and economic importance of plants	Botany
A person who draws or produces maps	Cartographer
A person who writes beautiful writing	Calligrapher

A person who composes the sequence of steps and moves for a performance of dance	Choreographer
A person employed to drive a private or hired car	Chauffeur
A person who introduces the performers or contestants in a variety show	Compere
A keeper or custodian of a museum or other collection	Curator
The branch of biology concerned with cyclical physiological phenomena	Chronobiology
A secret or disguised way of writing	Cypher
The study of statistics	Demography
The use of the fingers and hands to communicate and convey ideas	Dactylogy
A person who sells and arranges cut flowers	Florist
A line of descent traced continuously from an ancestor	Genealogy
The therapeutic use of sunlight	Heliotherapy
The art or practice of garden cultivation and management	Horticulture
One who supervises in the examination hall	Invigilator
The theory or philosophy of law	Jurisprudence
A person who compiles dictionaries	Lexicographer
The scientific study of the structure and diseases of teeth	Odontology
One who presents a radio programme	Radio Jockey
The art of effective or persuasive speaking or writing	Rhetoric
The branch of science concerned with the origin, structure, and composition of rocks	Petrology
One who study the elections and trends in voting	Psephology's
An artist who makes sculptures.	Sculptor
The scientific study of the behaviour, structure, physiology, classification, and distribution of animals	Zoology

4.COMMUNICATION SKILLS

Important Topics in this chapter are:

1.	Communication - Verbal, Non-verbal and Written
2.	Significance of Communication Skills for Lawyers- Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing (Introductory)
3.	Electronic Communication and its Types (Telephone, Facsimile, E- mail, Voice mail, Teleconferencing, Video-conferencing, Word processor, Internet, Social Media)
4.	Formal Correspondence
5.	Resume Writing

Types of Communication - Verbal, Non-verbal and Written

The Types of Communication are as explained below:

Introduction:

Communication is the exchange of information between people by means of speaking, writing or using a common system of signs or behaviour. It is a way of making others react with ideas, thoughts, feelings and values transmitting the information or conveying the message.

Communication Process involves the followings:

- **Source/Sender:** A person to transmit meaning, an opinion, fact or idea.
- **Encoding:** It involves using the forms of words, facial expressions, gestures, actions, numbers, pictures, graphs, eye contact and posture etc.
- **Transmission:** It is an appropriate channel or a medium of a message.
- **Decoding:** It involves perception and interpretation.
- **Receiver:** A person who receives the message - individual or a group.
- **Noise:** Noise refers to any type of disruption which reduces the clearness of the message.

The primary methods that are involved in the process of communication are: **Verbal, Nonverbal and Written,**

a. Verbal Communication:

It is the important form of organizational communication that involves direct talk between the speakers and the listeners when they are physically present. It is the process in that the receiver observes simultaneously the content of the message, gestures, the changes in tone and the pitch connected with the spoken word.

The formal record of such communication does not exist, so the spirit of authority cannot be transmitted as it should be. At times, more or less or different meaning may be communicated by manner of speaking, tone and facial expression. Nonetheless, personal warmth and friendliness can be conveyed through verbal communication. It enables the receiver to respond by opinions and reactions in case he or she is indecisive of the message.

b. Non-Verbal Communication:

Facial or non-verbal expressions reveal a lot about a person's usual mood or temperament - his behavioural tendency can also be envisaged. This way of communication has considerable meaning to managers to interpret the behaviour of the employees. It enables to comprehend pretense or real situation - it may be said that however much one acts as if something were true or acts in a way intended to make others believe something is untrue or misleading, but the reality is visible at his face.

The true or false countenance can be easily differentiated. Thus, body language plays a vital role being diluted with non-verbal expressions. A handshake or a pleasant smile is an example of most common form of body language. Moreover, some of the environmental elements such as building, office space can convey a message about the authority of the person. Facial expressions can be categorized as, excitement, fear, joy, anger, unhappiness and distress etc. It is easy to know the person's arrogance, boldness, shyness and other characteristics by means of his or her facial expressions

c. Written Communication:

This method of communication is of much value and relevance in the organizations. It includes formal letters, memos, reports, company policy manuals and so on. These areas, for the efficient functioning of the organization, are covered in particular through written communication. It reduces the probabilities and perceptual distortions while providing

permanent records for future references. The message can be stored for an indefinite period of time for use in the future.

As a negative factor, it leads to the excessive formalities. It is likely that the confidential written material may leak out or may be disclosed unofficially before the proper time causing disruption. Nevertheless, it is authoritative for the action and most effective as and when needed, more specifically, when the communication is that of general informational nature.

Significance of Communication Skills for Lawyers- Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing (Introductory)

Significance of Communication Skills for Lawyers is as Explained below:

a. Listening:

1. The first rule of listening is to be present. That means you are actually there with the other person. You're not mentally going over your to-do list while they're talking. When you are really listening, you imagine what it might be like to live in their world. You allow the other person to share. You pay attention. You get the big picture. You don't allow distractions. You listen to the other person rather than that 'little voice' in your head that is chattering away at you. You show some compassion.
2. Know yourself. Be aware of your own listening style. Each of us has our own preconceived notions and judgments. We listen through filters and we often resort to a certain style of listening. The more we take responsibility to become aware of our own filters and styles, the better able we are to put these filters and patterns aside and truly listen to others.
3. Listen to what they say and what they don't say. Sometimes what is not said is much more important than what is said. Is the other person upset? Angry? Hurt? What is the emotion behind the words? Is she ashamed to tell you something? What details is she leaving out? Is he embarrassed to tell part of the story? Does the other person feel betrayed? What is the commitment behind the betrayal? Has some standard been violated?
4. Learn to listen to your own intuition. Everyone has intuition. The question is not whether you have intuition, but whether you choose to

develop your intuition and integrate it into your professional and personal life. Integrating this intuition into the way that you listen to clients also trains you for more satisfying relationships with spouses, partners, family, etc. When you truly listen to someone, you can "hear" much more than the words that are spoken. [Caution! It is easy to confuse your own judgments or notions with intuition. Ask yourself if you are really clear to listen to the other person and to your intuition or if you are merely listening to the judgments of your own 'little voice'.]

5. Create the environment for listening. In the office, it is often a good idea to meet clients in a conference room or other neutral place where the distractions on your desk do not claim your attention. Close the door, turn off phones, sit quietly and put all your attention on the client. Make sure others know that you are not to be interrupted except in case of a real emergency. Of course, not all listening is done in the office. There are many ways to create safe and calm environments for creating the focus for listening. When talking on the phone, it may be useful to try closing your eyes and concentrating on listening (rather than playing a computer game). In a public place, it may be useful to step aside, look directly into the person's eyes, if appropriate you may even touch him or her on the arm to make connection.

b. Speaking:

1. Ask questions. Using your good listening skills, help the other person tell you what you need to know to get the full picture. Ask about what the other person isn't saying as well as what he is saying. If you think your client is avoiding a topic, it is usually better to find a way to draw out the information rather than having it surprise you later.
2. Acknowledge the content of what you have heard. Therapists have a technique called active listening that is very helpful. In active listening, you repeat back what the other person said. This can feel awkward at first but it is an amazing tool. As you repeat it back, the other person knows you have heard the communication and is empowered to move on to the next concept.
3. Acknowledge the emotions behind what you have heard. Often, clients come to us when they are very angry. They may also feel embarrassed, betrayed, helpless, upset, sad, etc. Reflecting back the emotion you hear expressed by the other person has multiple purposes. First: it helps you to clarify what emotions are attached to the other person's story. Second, knowing the emotions are there can help identify what the

other person really wants in crafting a solution. Third, because the other person is acknowledged, she/he is better able to feel your compassion and to know you understand.

4. Acknowledge the unfulfilled expectations you have heard. The other person may be complaining about something, but behind every complaint is an unfulfilled expectation. Often, the complaint is a result of a standard or expectation that has been violated, unfulfilled or not lived up to. Discerning what the unfulfilled expectation is can help the client better see what is possible or not possible in crafting any solution to a dispute.
5. Let the client know you care. Often, we lawyers jump right to the legal issues. Our clients may be upset because they can't differentiate between legal, financial or emotional issues. For some people, the issues are all meshed together. First we can acknowledge the frustration, and then help the client sort out the issues into these categories. And then let the client know that you care.

For example, recently a lawyer in California told me that a woman had called her about a broken relationship. The couple had been living together for eight years and she always expected they would eventually be married. Now, the man had left her. She wanted legal recourse. The lawyer told her that she did not live in a common law marriage state, and that the expectation of being married someday was not actionable.

The woman hung up on the lawyer, then called back a few minutes later to say that she didn't appreciate the lawyer's attitude. "I called a human being," she said, "and I expected to get a human response." In informing the client about her legal rights, the lawyer had overlooked the pain of the break-up. This scenario might have gone differently if the lawyer had said; "This must be terrible for you, to live with someone for eight years, expecting to get married, loving him, counting on a future together, only to have it end abruptly. I wish I could help. It may not be fair and- you may be justifiably upset but the law doesn't provide any remedy for this sort of situation."

c. Reading:

Lawyers must be able to take in a great deal of information, often on topics about which they are unfamiliar. The ability to digest information from lengthy, dense texts is essential. Equally important is the ability to listen to clients and understand their unique issues and concerns

d. Writing:

Whether in the courtroom or the law office, lawyers must be effective communicators. If lawyers could not translate thoughts and opinions into clear and precise English, it would be difficult for the law to serve society. After all, the law is embodied in words, and many of the disputes that give birth to laws begin with language—its meaning, use, and interpretation. Litigation leads to written judicial opinions; congressional enactments are recorded as printed statutes; and even economic transactions must be expressed as formal, written contracts.

Electronic Communication and its Types (Telephone, Facsimile, E-mail, Voice mail, Teleconferencing, Video-conferencing, Word processor, Internet, Social Media)

Electronic Communication and its Types are as explained below:

Introduction:

Electronic communication dates back to the telegraph that used Morse code to send messages long distances over wires. After that, the electronics industry added the wired telephone, the wireless radio and television. Since then, the industry has exploded; consumers now share information with each other anywhere, anytime and in ways that are as varied as we are.

Electronic communication has become a very popular means to communicate worldwide. Electronic communication is used for the transfer of different types of data and images through wire, electromagnetic, photo electronic or photo-optical system and radio. Electronic communication is so popular that many businesses and people consider it to be essential tool in our daily lives.

There are many ways to communicate electronically, each with benefits and risks related to business or personal use. It is likely that in the future, advances in technology and computer programming will enable us to communicate in ways we can only dream about today.

With the revolutionary development of information technology, the world is becoming smaller and people staying at any corner are well-capable of communicating with others, whatever the distance is people and organizations use different modern devices of communication technology. Some widely used electronic communication technologies or media of **electronic communication** are discussed below

a. Telephone:

The most commonly and most widely used electronic device of communication is telephone. With its invention in 1876 by Graham Bell, a German scientist, the human civilization moved to a new era. By telephone, people can transmit information orally within a minute. Recently-developed satellite telephoning system has added new dimension in telecommunication system. In most of the cases, it is the easiest and less expensive way of communicating distance people. Now-a-days, the development and diffuse of cellular or mobile phone have been an expected euphoria to all of us. Definitely it is becoming extremely popular.

b. Facsimile (Fax):

The use of fax a gradually increasing for transmitting visual materials such as picture, diagrams, illustrations etc. here, the fax machine is connected with a telephonic. The document to be transmitted is fed through the machine, then it is electronically scanned and signals are transmitted to the receiving end where an identical copy of the document is reproduced on a bland sheet of paper by the receiving machine. The fax machine has made it possible to send copies of important documents including certificates, testimonials, degrees, agreements; contracts etc. form one place to another at the speed of a telephone call. For this reason, it is universally used method of communication.

c. Electronic Mail (E-mail):

Email via the widely used internet is popular because people are able to write short messages, receive quick responses and include photographs or reports with formatted data quickly and efficiently. Sending information through the conventional or 'snail' mail can be costly and time consuming.

Using email for personal or professional purposes is an efficient means of communication.

Email is a method originally intended to imitate physical mail. Messages are delivered from one specific address to one or more specific addresses. Users are alerted to the presence of new messages in their inboxes by email clients that display the content and offer an opportunity to reply.

Messages are primarily text but may include file attachments of various types including images and short movies. Unlike instant messages, emails are generally not expected to be read immediately upon receipt. Most email readers keep track of conversations that include multiple people through the use of threads. Thus email is ideally suited for long, involved conversations between two people or among small groups of people.

d. Voice mail:

Voice mail is a form of e-mail. It is used to send the voice of the sender instead of sending written message to the receiver. The mechanism of sending message here is almost same as in case of e-mail. It is useful to communicate with the original voice tone of the sender.

e. Teleconferencing:

Under teleconferencing system people staying at different places can hold talks or meetings over telephone. Here everyone involved in the meeting is able to hear each other and can share information with one another as if they were all placed in one room. It can save both money and time of the executives.

f. Video-conferencing:

Videoconferencing is the latest version of teleconferencing system. Under this method people can meet and work together without being gathered in one room. They can hear and see each other over the television or video screen and can share information with one another. Now-a-days multinational companies use videoconferencing method as a widely used means of communication in order to keep touch with the executives staying miles away from the head office. It also saves money and time of high officials.

g. Word processor:

A word processor is an electronic device where a computer is combined with a typewriter. It can greatly simplify the job of **written**

communication. Typing skill, basic computer literacy and word processing software are essential for using a word processor. The operator of a word processor can easily edit the text, give it the desired format and insert or delete words phrase or sentences wherever he likes. It is a very useful medium of modern communication technology as it provides some important advantages.

h. Internet:

Internet is the latest and most amazing development that has changed the way of live regarding communication. It is the world's largest computer network linked together by telephone lines, radio links or satellite links. Internet can be used for multipurpose functions. It can be used for sending e-mail, for advertisement, for teleconferencing, for telephoning and so on.

World Wide Web users post content on websites for others to view. The content may be simple text, but it might also contain multimedia files including images, sounds, videos or streaming content. Unlike many other forms of electronic communication, most Web content is pulled from the Web by users who are seeking information, rather than pushed to subscribers. While not as permanent as traditional media like paper, Web pages can archive information for extended periods.

i. Social Media:

Social networking sites facilitate communication among people with common interests or affiliations. Sites such as Facebook and LinkedIn provide places for people to interact, sometimes in real time. Microblogging services like Twitter, allow short textual messages of no more than 140 characters to be broadcast to a large audience. Unlike text messages, which are delivered to only small groups, microblog posts are intended to be seen by all of a user's followers. Microblog users can repost messages that they want to share with their own followers, so a microblog post can spread quickly. A widely reposted message is called a viral post.

Many newsgroups and chat rooms now use Facebook, My Space and Twitter, a type of social media for communication purposes which lets the user give an instant message and receive an instant response with supporting live video images. Users are able to post messages to a particular' group of people or to members of a specific club and comment instantaneously.

Concept of Formal Correspondence is as explained below:

Introduction:

The definition of 'Formal' is: "In conformance with generally accepted standards; the opposite of casual. Generally accepted formal standards usually denote professionalism, whereas the absence or lack of standards would be seen as casual. For example, a business jacket, tie, button-up shirt, slacks, dark-colored socks, business shoes, and a neat and clean appearance is considered formal attire for men. Similarly, a formal letter would have many different characteristics than a casual email, such as a standard header, salutation, closing, and formatting.

The definition of "**Correspondence**" is: "Any written or digital communication exchanged by two or more parties. Correspondences may come in the form of letters, emails, text messages, voicemails, notes, or postcards. Correspondences are important for most businesses because they serve as a paper trail of events from point A to point B. "The law firm required all employees to archive their correspondences so that they could be retrieved as a reference point for pending cases"

A formal correspondence is written in the professional language, with a prescribed format for a formal purpose, i.e. it can be a recommendation letter, enquiry letter, complaint letter, cover letter and so on.

All business letters are formal, but vice versa is not possible. Such letters are used for a variety of reasons like a formal invitation, proposal, and reference, making a complaint or inquiry, applying for a job. While writing a formal correspondence one should keep in mind the following things:

- It should be in specified format.
- It should avoid the use of unnecessary words.
- It should be straight to the point.
- It should be relevant and objective.
- It should be complex and thorough.
- It should be polite, even if it is a complaint letter.
- It should be free from any mistakes, i.e. grammatical or spelling.

There are three types of formal correspondences, i.e. business letters, letters for outlining civic problems and job applications.

Comparison between Formal and Informal Correspondence:

Basis For Comparison	Formal Correspondence	Informal Correspondence
Meaning	A formal correspondence is written in formal language, in the stipulated format, for official purpose.	A correspondence written in an friendly manner, to someone you are familiar with, is called informal correspondence.
Objective	Professional Communication	Personal Communication
Format	Written in prescribed format only.	No prescribed format.
Written in	First person - Business letters, third person - others.	First, second or third person.
Written to	Business, college/institute, employer, organizations, etc.	Friends, family, acquaintances etc.
Voice	Passive	Active
Sentences	Long and complex	Short and simple
Size	Concise	Large or concise
Contractions and Abbreviations	Avoided	Used

Conclusion:

Before we start correspondence, first we should identify, who is your recipient? If you are having a professional relationship with the recipient, then you should go for a formal letter, whereas if the recipient is someone very close to you or you know the recipient well, then the informal letter is the right choice for you.

Basics of Resume Writing

Introduction:

Resume (sometimes called your "CV") is your most important tool when applying for a job. It doesn't matter how qualified you are, or how much experience you have - if your resume is poorly presented or badly written, you're going to have trouble getting the job you want - or even an interview.

Taking the time to work on your resume is really important. The information on this page offers some tips and advice on how to make your resume the best it can be.

The purpose of a resume

Your resume is a marketing tool. It needs to demonstrate:

- That you are employable
- How you meet the job and the organisation's requirements
- That you have the right qualifications and education
- That you have the right experience and skills
- That you have the right level of professionalism for the job
-

How long should my resume be?

There is no set length for a resume. A resume varies in length depending on your experience and education. If you haven't worked much before, one or two pages is best, but three pages is okay if you've got a lot of study and work behind you.

Make sure you don't pad out your resume. If your resume is only one page, as long as it's well-presented it might get better results than a two-page resume full of unnecessary information.

How should I order my resume?

Generally it's always good to present the information on your resume in this order:

1. Contact details
2. Opening statement
3. List of key skills
4. List of technical/software skills
5. Personal attributes/career overview
6. Educational qualifications
7. Employment history/volunteering/work placements
8. References/referees

Not everything in this list must appear on your resume every time, and the order can change from application to application. For more information about each of these sections, check out "What Your Resume Should include", below.

The most important thing is to get the most useful information across first. For example, if your education history is not specifically related to the job, put it toward the end of your resume, behind the information that is related to the job.

Should we change the resume for each application?

You need to tailor your resume to every job application so that it responds to the specific requirements of the job you're applying for.

You might not need to change much, but you do need to make sure your opening statement, your key skills and your personal attributes all respond to the needs of the role, based on the job ad (if there was one) and the research you've done into the job.

You should also tailor your resume to show how your work experience specifically meets the needs of the job you're applying for.

How to tailor your resume

Ways that you can tailor your resume include:

- Using your opening statement to link your experience and education to the organization and the requirements of the job
- Listing your most relevant key skills first
- Including examples of achievements that meet the advertised requirements of the job
- Including specifically relevant key words and phrases throughout your resume (see "Keywords" in "What Your Resume Should Include", below)

What your resume should include

Contact details

Make sure you include your name, email address and a contact phone number on your resume. You don't have to include your home address, although there might be some situations when doing so would be a good idea.

Don't include your contact details in the header of your resume. Recruitment software sometimes has difficulty reading information in headers or footers, so it's a good idea to avoid headers altogether.

You can put your contact details in the footer of your resume, but if you do, you must make sure they're also in the main body of the document.

Opening statement

An opening statement is a summary of who you are, where you've studied and/or worked, and what you bring to the job. It should be about six lines long and written in first person without the personal reference (i.e., don't say "I did this" - say "Did this" instead). Your opening statement should start with one sentence about who you are and what you bring to the job, then describe the skills and attributes you have that suit you to the job.

Key skills & strengths

Your resume should include a list of between 10 and 15 skills that link your experience to the job you're applying for.

If the job you're applying for was advertised, either the ad or the position description may provide a list of skills and experiences that are essential for doing the job. It may also provide a list of "desirable" skills and experience. Your list of key skills & strengths needs to respond to all of the items on the "essential" list and as many items as possible on the "Desirable" list.

When putting together this list, think of things you've done or learned to do as part of:

- Jobs you've had
- Your studies
- Any work placements you've done
- Any volunteering you've done

Technical/software skills

This is a short list of the names of software or technology you know how to use. Examples might include:

- Word processing or spreadsheet software
- Programming languages
- Tools (e.g., cash registers, EFTPOS)

Examples of Resumes:

1. Resume of the post of a lawyer in law-firm:

<div style="border: 1px solid black; border-radius: 15px; padding: 10px; width: fit-content; margin: 0 auto;"> <p>College logo goes here</p> </div>		
<p>Vinod Mehta (Name-16 pt. font size) College: Big National Law University (BNLU), Mumbai (10 pt.) Email: vinod.mehta@bnlu.edu (Mention the most frequently used email. Ideally mention the college email ID is mentioned. You should be able to quick contacted) Contact Number: +91 2787665589; +91 9416896966</p>		
<p>EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION (ALL HEADINGS ARE 12 POINTS, HIGHLIGHTED IN GREY AND IN CAPS)</p>		
COLLEGE/SCHOOL	QUALIFICATION (12 POINTS, CAPS)	CGPA/ PERCENTAGE
BNLU, Mumbai	Pursuing 4 year of the BA. B.Sc./LLB (Hones.) Course	5.2/7.0
ST. MARY'S HIGH SCHOOL, Chennai	Higher Senior Secondary (Class XII); Affiliated to CBSE Board	83%
DPS, RKPURAM, New Delhi	Senior Secondary (Class X); Affiliated to CBSE Board	87.6%
<p>ADDITIONAL QUALIFICATIONS AND COURSES</p>		
COURSE	INSTITUTION	TIME PERIOD / PROGRESS
Company Secretary Course	ICSI (Popular abbreviations need not be written in full form)	Foundation course cleared
Patents (DL-201)	WIPO's Worldwide Academy, Geneva	June 1-July 15, 2011
Cyber Laws Course	Asian School of Cyber Laws	October 3- November 23, 2010
<p>INTERNSHIPS</p> <p>Luthra and Luthra Law Offices, New Delhi [April-May, 2011: 4 weeks] (12 points) (Full name of the organisation is written followed by the name of city. Duration is mentioned in square brackets as given above)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Drafted a plaint and a cease and desist notice against the Client's trademark violators. • Framed a legal opinion for a web based cricket stock exchange. • Did extensive case law and statutory research on the Indian Arbitration and Conciliation Act; case law research on international arbitration and online mediation processes. <p>(Work done during the internship is mentioned in 3-4 bullet points with precise detail. A uniform bullet style is used throughout).</p>		

ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENTS

- Was the batch topper with a GPA of 6.8/7 in the 5th semester.
- Obtained 'E' grade (the highest attainable grade) in Constitutional Law I, Public International Law.

MOOT COURT EXPERIENCE

- Winner, Manfred Lachs International Space Law Moot Court Competition (Asia Pacific Round) (April 2011). **(Dates, wherever applicable, are mentioned in brackets).**

PUBLICATIONS

- "Hindu Law and the Constitution", Indian Bar Review, Vol. XX (20th April 2011).

SEMINARS AND OTHER WORKSHOPS

- Presented a Paper titled 'Unman Rights and Globalization' at a Seminar on Human Rights held at Princeton University (June 2010) (Italicise the text in case you need to highlight it. For example, the topic of the paper is highlighted here. Avoid underlining text).

OTHER ACCOMPLISHMENTS

- Student Editor of Indian Juridical Review. Responsibilities include selecting abstracts; contacting jurors, lawyers and academicians for peer review and proofreading (2009-2010).

(The nature of the job or the accomplishment is explained in precise detail).

ORGANISATIONAL EXPERIENCE

- Convenor, Moot Court Society (2010-11). Responsibilities include conducting and managing logistics of moot courts in association with law firms; selecting/training moot court teams.

(Point out things which a potential recruiter would like to see. The above, for example, shows leadership skills, experience in event management and communication skills).

PRE-UNIVERSITY ACHIEVEMENTS

- Won 1st prize in Oxford University Annual Debate- India Chapter (2009-10).

HOBBIES AND INTERSTS

I am a dog lover and like to read up on various breeds of dogs. Apart from internships, adventure sports and mountain climbing occupy my time during vacations. I like to write poems and blog regularly for youthup.com. (Hobbies and interests are mentioned in a write-up format and not as bullet points).

5. STUDY SKILLS FOR LAW STUDENTS

1.	SQ3R (Survey Question Read Recite and Review)
2.	Reading - Types- intensive and extensive; techniques- scanning, skimming and critical
3.	Note making
4.	Writing (Correct grammar, spelling, punctuation and clarity)
5.	Paragraph Writing

SQ3R (Survey Question Read Recite and Review)

SQ3R (Survey Question Read Recite and Review is explained as below:

Introduction:

SQ3R is a comprehension strategy that helps students think about the text they are reading while they're reading. Often categorized as a study strategy, SQ3R helps students "get it" the first time they read a text by teaching students how to read and think like an effective reader.

The Definition of Technique:

The word technique in oxford learner's dictionary is method of doing something that need skill. Basically, there are many definitions of education experts as follows: J.R David defines "technique is a plan, method, or series of activities designed to achieves a particular education goal (J.R David : 1976).

Moreover Sinful Bahri Djamarah states "technique can be defined as common role of teaching-learning activity to achieve determined goal."

This strategy includes the following five steps (Robinson, 1946):

The Concept OfSQ3R Technique:

As Richardson states "One such technique that has proven effective as a study and reading technique is SQ4R (Survey, Question, Read, Recite and Review) where SQ3R provides a systematic way of comprehending and studying text (Richardson and Morgan, 1997).

Richard-Amato & Snow states SQ3R is a technique students can use to comprehend content reading.

- First. Student survey the chapter by skimming it, looking at headings and visuals.
- Second, students question, writing down any questions they have about the pictures, charts, or subheadings, etc.
- The third step is to read the passage.
- The fourth step is reciting, where student answer their own questions from what they learned in the reading.
- The fifth step is recording/when students write down their answers. Finally, the students review what they wrote.

As we know that "smart" or intelligence people are different from other people in that they ask lots of question, actively seek answers, and have a large vocabulary than others.

Start with an attitude when reading a text: if you are not reading and studying the text and notes as if you are preparing to take a test, you are wasting your time. A sample of the SQ3R method is show here. Which the SQ3R technique stands for: Survey, question, read, recite and review

The SQ3R procedure:

Moreover there is information from internet that explained that SQ3R is Survey, question. read, recite and review, it explained the system of SQ3R as follows:

- a) Survey the chapter
- b) Make a question for each heading and subheading.
- c) Read the information one paragraph at a time.
- d) Recite the important information prom paragraph.
- e) Review the information learned in the chapter.

Several examples of how this technique is used through out the reading process are students preview text to develop predictions about topic. The students then read actively, searching for answers to the questions they have generated. By summarizing information, students are able to monitor their own comprehension through review. The researcher clarifies of SQ4R Technique as follows:

1) Survey:

Survey is measure an area of land and to record the details of it. Basically the surveying's goal is to help you in getting the important questions answered in the chapter. When surveying written materials, our goals is to obtain a general or comprehensive view which allows seeing where were going.

In this step, students should skim and scan the chapter. The purpose of surveying the chapter is to get the general idea of the content, structure, organization and plan of the chapter. Surveying the chapter give "the big picture" a framework of the main ideas, which will help to hold the detail information together later"

The steps of the survey as follows:

1) The whole book

- a) Read preface, table contents.
- b) Leaf through book to get acquainted with the organization and style.
- c) Check for the appendices, types that can be useful.
- d) Read all the titles and subtitles.
- e) Read captions under pictures, charts, graphs or map
- f) Read the questions at the end of the chapter
- g) If there is a summary read it.
- h) Get an overview of what the chapter is about.

2) Individual book

- a) Take a few minutes to consider the title.
- b) Look at all illustrations, diagrams, graphs.
- c) Quickly read the introduction, summary and review questions.
- d) Glance at all key words bolted text, questions for consideration, problem sets.

2) Question:

Question is any matter that needs to be deal with or considered. Having students develop questions gives them a purpose for reading. Reading for specific purposes positively influences comprehension. Setting a purpose also aids the students in recalling information. Developing prior for reading result in spontaneous attempts to answer the concentration and attention while reading to find an answer the question and increased comprehension due to the main in its attempt to find an answer to the question. This will make reading a more active process which help with concentration and retention. You will also find that it is easier to identify the important issues and you will, therefore end up with fewer notes to review.

The steps of the question as follows:

- a. Use the knowledge you gain in surveying the chapter as basis for asking your self questions that you expect to find answers in the chapter.
- b. Turn headings and subheading into questions.
- c. If there are not headings, ask questions that their teacher would ask.
- d. Ask your self "what did my teacher say about this chapter or topic when it was assigned?"
- e. Ask your self "what have I already known about topic?"
- f. Read actively by asking why, who, when, what, where, how, and which,
- g. Question all statement of fact and the evidence they are based on.
- h. Concentrate on relationships based on concepts introduced earlier.

3) Read

Read is to look at otherwise scan (as letters or other symbols representing word or sentences) with mental formulation of the words or sentences represented." Reading promotes an active search for answer to the specific questions that students developed. It forces the students to concentrate for better comprehension and aids in lengthening attention span.

Students should read each section of the text to answer questions that were developed in the step above. If the section reread, and it is still unclear, underline the word or jot down and look it up when they finish reading.

The steps of the read as follows:

- a. Read the text book, but only section by section actively in looking for the "answer" to the "question" you have posed,
- b. Ask yourself, what is the writer's purpose? What are they trying to get me to think or do? Is he giving facts or his opinions?
- c. Look for answers to the question you have developed.
- d. Reread captions under pictures, charts, graphs, or maps.
- e. While you read, make notes in point form and in your own words at the end of each section or subsection.
- f. Note all the underlined, italicized, or bold printed words or phrases.
- g. Study graphic aids
- h. Reduce your speed for difficult passages.
- i. Stop and reread parts that are not clear.

4) Recite

Recite is to find out from reading or writing. This step encourages students to use their own words and not simply copy from the book. This improves memory and assures greater understanding.

After the students have read the section, they should close their books and write the answers to the questions they developed. The answers should be written in their own words and not copy out of the texts. If the students can not answer a question they should reread. Students should also jot down key examples and make brief note.

5) Review

Review is looking at target language information, if it is done once is not enough. It must be reviewed in order to be remembered. Students should study their outline and notes and be able to retail what were their own words. Students should try to see relation within the content. If they are unable to the teacher may need to modal for students to look for relationship. Students should be checking their memory by trying to recall main point and sub points. Information from the entire chapter or article is linked together in the reflection phase. The steps in reviewing as follows:

- a. Recite and review as continuous process.
- b. Make sure you understand the general idea behind what you have read.
- c. Use a critical attitude toward material you have read.
- d. Relate the new material studied to what you already know.

Reading - Types- intensive and extensive; techniques- scanning, skimming and critical

A. Reading Types:

Intensive Reading:

You need to have your aims clear in mind when undertaking intensive reading. Remember this is going to be far more time consuming than scanning or skimming. If you need to list the chronology of events in a long passage, you will need to read it intensively. This type of reading has indeed beneficial to language learners as it helps them understand vocabulary by deducing the meaning of words in context. It moreover, helps with retention of information for long periods of time and knowledge resulting from intensive reading persists in your long term memory.

This is one reason why reading huge amounts of information just before an exam does not work very well. When students do this, they undertake neither type of reading process effectively, especially neglecting intensive reading. They may remember the answers in an exam but will likely forget everything soon afterwards.

Extensive reading

Extensive reading involves reading for pleasure. Because there is an element of enjoyment in extensive reading it is unlikely that students will undertake extensive reading of a text they do not like. It also requires a fluid decoding and assimilation of the text and content in front of you. If the text is difficult and you stop every few minutes to figure out what is being said or to look up new words in the dictionary, you are breaking your concentration and diverting your thoughts.

B. Reading Techniques:

One of the first things you learn about teaching is that there are different **reading techniques** and the students should be aware of which technique is most suited, depending on the reading task required by the text or by their teacher.

Training students to know their *reading techniques* and deduce when best to apply them is indeed important, especially under exam conditions when time constraints come into play and decisions need to be made depending on time availability and the importance of the task at hand.

Main types of reading techniques are the following:

1. Skimming
2. Scanning
3. Critical

They are explained as below

1. Skimming:

Skimming is sometimes referred to as gist reading. Skimming may help in order to know what the text is about at its most basic level. You might typically do this with a magazine or newspaper and would help you mentally and quickly shortlist those articles which you might consider for a deeper read. You might typically skim to search for a name in a telephone directory.

You can reach a speed count of even 700 words per minute if you train yourself well in this particular method. Comprehension is of course very low and understanding of overall content very superficial.

2. Scanning:

Picture yourself visiting a historical city, guide book in hand. You would most probably just scan the guide book to see which site you might want to visit. Scanning involves getting your eyes to quickly scuttle across sentence and is used to get just a simple piece of information. Interestingly, research has concluded that reading off a computer screen actually inhibits the pathways to effective scanning and thus, reading of paper is far more conducive to speedy comprehension of texts.

Something students sometimes do not give enough importance to is illustrations. These should be included in your scanning. Special attention to the introduction and the conclusion should also be paid.

3. Critical Reading Technique:

Reading critically does not, necessarily, mean being critical of what you read. Both reading and thinking critically don't mean being '*critical*' about some idea, argument, or piece of writing - claiming that it is somehow faulty or flawed.

Critical reading means engaging in what you read by asking yourself questions such as, 'what is the author trying to say?' or 'what is the main argument being presented?'

Critical reading involves presenting a reasoned argument that evaluates and analyses what you have read. Being critical, therefore - in an academic sense - means advancing your understanding, not dismissing and therefore closing off learning.

To read critically is to exercise your judgement about what you are reading - that is, not taking anything you read at face value.

When reading academic material you will be faced with the author's interpretation and opinion. Different authors will, naturally, have different slants. You should always examine what you are reading critically and look for limitations, omissions, inconsistencies, oversights and arguments against what you are reading.

In academic circles, whilst you are a student, you will be expected to understand different viewpoints and make your own judgements based on what you have read.

Critical reading goes further than just being satisfied with what a text says, it also involves reflecting on what the text describes, and analysing what the text actually means, in the context of your studies.

As a critical reader you should reflect on:

- **What the text says:** after critically reading a piece you should be able to take notes, paraphrasing - in your own words - the key points.
- **What the text describes:** you should be confident that you have understood the text sufficiently to be able to use your own examples and compare and contrast with other writing on the subject in hand.
- **Interpretation of the text:** this means that you should be able to fully analyse the text and state a meaning for the text as a whole.

Critical reading means being able to reflect on what a text says, what it describes and what it means by scrutinising the style and structure of the writing, the language used as well as the content.

Critical Thinking is an Extension of Critical Reading

Thinking critically, in the academic sense, involves being open-minded - using judgement and discipline to process what you are learning about without letting your personal bias or opinion detract from the arguments.

Critical thinking involves being rational and aware of your own feelings on the subject -being able to reorganize your thoughts, prior knowledge and understanding to accommodate new ideas or viewpoints.

Critical reading and critical thinking are therefore the very foundations of true learning and personal development.

Techniques of 'Note Making'

Note making is not just about writing down everything you hear or read. It is a process of reviewing, connecting and synthesising ideas from your lectures or reading.

Making notes helps you to:

- stay active and engaged during your lectures, reading and revision
- understand what you are learning and clarify your thinking
- be selective and identify key ideas
- remember the material
- organise your ideas and make connections
- plan and structure written assignments
- Review and revise before exams.

You can also complete our note making tutorial, which contains guidance and activities that will help you to reflect on your current approach to taking and making notes, and suggestions for how to make your notes more meaningful and useful.

What your notes should contain?

All good notes should contain:

- source information (title, author, date etc)
- headings to help you identify the key topics
- key points, examples, names, new ideas
- triggers to make your notes more memorable - such as mnemonics, colour or drawings
- Further reading and ideas to follow up later.

Consider developing a system of symbols and abbreviations to help you speed up your note taking. Common abbreviations in notes include "poss." for possibly, "esp." for "especially", and "govt." for government, but you can create a list that works for you.

Sometimes poor note taking can lead to unintentional plagiarism. To help avoid this you should make quotes, paraphrases and summaries look different from your own ideas in your notes. You could use quotation marks or square brackets, or highlight other people's ideas in a different colour.

Set up a system to record complete bibliographic details, including:

- name of the author, editor, lecturer 'or organisation
- date of lecture, publication, or access (for websites)
- title of lecture or source
- page numbers where applicable
- Other bibliographic details you might need for a reference.

Three stages of note making

Note making doesn't only happen when you are reading or attending lectures. There are three stages to making effective notes: before, during, and after.

- **Before:** Prepare by finding out what you need to know and what the purpose of the reading or lecture is.
- **During:** Note down main ideas and keywords. Find techniques that work for you.
- **After:** Reflect and review and then organise your notes.

Many of us struggle to make notes that are meaningful when we need to refer back to them. You need to adapt strategies that work for you to help you take and make effective notes.

Prepare yourself

To take effective notes, you should prepare for the lecture or reading. You should think about what you want to know, what the lecture or material is about, and how it is relevant to your own work.

If you are preparing for a lecture, you can start by reading your module handbook to find out what the lecture will be about and what the learning outcomes are. Make sure that you familiarise yourself with new ideas, terms or language by consulting recommended texts. Your tutor may have recommended some preparatory reading, and Wikipedia can also be helpful for an overview of unfamiliar topics. Consider how the lecture material relates to your assignments and identify the key points that you need to note down.

It might also help to review your notes from previous lectures so you can make connections between each lecture.

If you are preparing to read texts, ask yourself what you need to get from your reading. Do you need an overview, case studies and examples, definitions, or ideas and evidence to support your own argument?

The purpose of your reading will influence your reading technique as well as the way you take notes.

Tips for making notes from lectures

Be ready to listen actively during a lecture. Pay particular attention at the beginning and end of lectures, as this is where the lecturer will set out and then summarise the main points.

Don't try to write everything that is said. Listen for key words and phrases, like "there are three main causes of..." or "on the other hand..." to help you identify key ideas. Listen out for references to other sources that you may wish to follow up.

Most lectures are recorded using lecture capture technology. Watching the lecture again can help you fill in any gaps in your notes.

Tips for making notes from reading

There are three main strategies you can use when reading for university:

- Scan for key information such as statistics, dates, facts and keywords
- Skim the introduction, conclusion, and the beginning and end of paragraphs to get the main idea and a general overview of the text
- Read carefully, slowly and possibly repetitively to interrogate the text and raise questions.

If you are **scanning** the text, highlight the text and note down the key information and full details of the source.

Only highlight what you need. Highlighting too much is a waste of your time as when you go back you will have no idea why you highlighted those sections.

If you are **skimming** the text then you should highlight key parts and also annotate the text. A good annotation will include keywords, ask questions, and include related ideas and comparisons with other texts. Use the annotations to help you make more detailed notes that summarise the main ideas.

Critical **in-depth reading** requires detailed notes. You need to concentrate, ask questions of the text and make critical comments to assess and evaluate the ideas and evidence. When making detailed notes you still need to be selective and ask particular questions to help you think critically.

Techniques of note-making:

There are several different ways to take notes. Some students prefer to write down their notes in a linear format, some like to write notes in columns, and some prefer to use patterns and mind-maps.

Which technique you choose will depend on what you find most effective.

The linear format

The **linear format** is the most conventional method. It can encourage a more passive approach, so to make your notes as effective as possible:

- Use headings, underlining and capitals to organise notes on the page
- Use symbols or abbreviations to keep it brief
- Use bullet points or numbering
- Leave good margins so you can add additional notes later
- Use quotation marks to show direct quotes from your lecturers or the source you are using
- Identify your own ideas e.g. within square brackets or using a different colour.

The pattern format

The **pattern format** is a visual approach. You organise the key words and concepts across the page, like a mind-map, and can use colours and pictures to help you understand the ideas.

By using this approach you can make connections and use visual cues, while still clearly recording sources and quotes.

The three-column format

The **three column format** organises your page into three areas;

- key information
- your own notes (taken any way you like)
- a summary.

The right section is for your notes, the left section is for key terms, questions and references, and the lower section is where you will summarise the lecture or reading in your own words.

This is a good approach for note taking as it allows you to take notes how you like (visual, linear, mind-maps etc.), encourages you to question, review and think critically, and gives you a usable summary.

Review and organise 'Notes'

After you have made your notes, you need to ensure you can do something with them. This will include creating a filing system, using clear labels, and cross-referencing. You can also use technology to help you to organise your notes.

Read your notes and try to create a summary. You can then attach this summary to your notes and hand-outs.

Your summary may include:

- key facts
- concepts, theories, ideas or arguments
- some illustrative detail
- information about other sources of information or ideas
- Questions, thoughts or criticisms.

You should also fill in details from any further reading or research, link new information to what you already know, and discuss with others to fill in any gaps.

If you have written notes from multiple sources for an assignment, review and organise them to help structure your answer.

To organise your notes you should label and file your notes, whether physically or online, and cross-reference with any hand-outs.

Technology to help you make notes

Many people still like to take notes by hand, but there are now many applications that you can use to help take and organise your notes. Make sure you read the reviews so you can decide what will work best for you before you purchase any apps or software. Some apps to consider are:

- **Ever note:** Allows you to create, edit and organise notes, save webpages, photograph handwritten notes and synchronise everything across your devices. Available on all devices.
- **UPAD:** Available on iPad. Allows you to create visual, eye catching notes as well as highlighting and annotating PDFs.
- **Notability:** Available on iPad, iPhone, and iPod Touch. You can import a wide range of documents and annotate those using drawing and text tools.

Elements of Writing (Correct grammar, spelling, Punctuation and clarity)

a. Correct Grammar:

Grammar explains the forms and structure of words (called morphology) and how they are arranged in sentences (called syntax). In other words, grammar provides the rules for common use of both spoken and written language so we can more easily understand each other.

Grammar is important because it provides information that helps the reader's comprehension. It is the structure that conveys precise meaning from the writer to the audience. Eliminate grammatical errors from your writing, and reward your readers with clear communication. Let us know if we can help.

The building blocks of grammar are the eight parts of speech:

- Verbs express actions, events, or states of being.
- Nouns name a person, animal, place, thing, or abstract idea.
- Pronouns take the place of nouns or another pronoun.
- Adjectives modify nouns or pronouns by describing, identifying, or quantifying them. An adjective usually precedes the noun or the pronoun which it modifies.
- Adverbs modify a verb, adjective, another adverb, a phrase, or a clause and indicate manner, time, place, cause, or degree. Adverbs can be recognized because they answer the question how, when, where, or how much. Adverbs often end in ly.
- Prepositions link nouns, pronouns, and phrases to other words in a sentence and usually indicate a relationship of time, space, or logic.
- Conjunctions link words, phrases, and clauses.

b. Spelling:

The availability of spell checkers in word processing programs greatly reduces the likelihood of spelling errors - except for homonyms. A homonym is a word that is pronounced the same as another, but is spelled differently and has a different meaning. Here are some examples of homonyms:

- **Affect** (to have an influence on), **effect** (a result). Affect is generally used as a verb (To affect) while effect is generally used as a noun (the effect).
- **capital** (seat of government) and **capitol** (a building)
- **lie** (recline) and **lye** (used in making soap)
- **principal** (head of school) and **principle** (a truth, law, rule, or standard)
- **scene** (setting) and **seen** (past participle of see)
- **whine** (complain) and **wine** (an alcoholic drink)

c. Punctuation:

Punctuation helps convey the precise meaning of a sentence - and in fact can even change the meaning, as in this well-known example:

A woman, without her man, is nothing.
A woman: without her, man is nothing.

Here is a brief description of how punctuation is used:

- **A comma** tells the reader to pause and assimilate information. They are also used to separate the items in a series.
- **A semi-colon** links independent clauses that are closely related in meaning when they are not linked by a conjunction.
- **A colon** introduces a list or a summation. It can also be used to link an idea that has been introduced in an independent clause.
- **End punctuation** - period, question mark, and exclamation mark - denotes the end of a sentence.
- **Parentheses** enclose words that are not directly related to the main thought of the sentence but provide important information, or to provide examples.
- **A dash** signals a sudden change of thought or break in a sentence. Dashes can also be used in place of parentheses to emphasize information.
- **Quotation marks** indicate direct speech. All punctuation marks are enclosed within the quotation marks except for semi-colons, colons, and question marks when they are not part of the quotation.

An apostrophe indicates that letters are missing from a contraction, or shows possession (i.e., that one thing belongs to another). The word (its) spelled without an apostrophe is a possessive; spelled with an apostrophe (it's) is a contraction of it is. Similarly, whose is a possessive pronoun, and

whose is a contraction of who is. Do not use an apostrophe to form the plural of numbers or letters (the 1990s, a box of PCs).

e. Clarity:

Using clear, descriptive language improves clarity in a paragraph. It helps the reader see accurately the person or thing the writer is describing.

Avoid vague and unclear words, such as good and nice. Instead choose clear and precise words.

Adding adjectives or prepositional phrases can make your sentences more specific and descriptive to improve the clarity of your writing.

Replace each vague or simple phrase with a more descriptive or accurate phrase. Just as it is important to maintain clarity at the word level, it is also important at the sentence level.

Techniques of Paragraph Writing:

A Paragraph is a group of sentences that introduces, presents and develops ONE main idea about the topic. And it can be divided into THREE major parts.

A. THE TOPIC SENTENCE

- It is normally the first sentence of the paragraph.
- It conveys the overall point of the paragraph.
- It helps the writer focus on the idea written about.
- It helps the reader know about what the paragraph is all about.

B. THE SUPPORTING DETAILS

- They are sentences used to support the main idea stated in the topic sentence.
- They give more information about the main idea through examples.
- They say in details what the topic sentence says in general.
- They should be clear evidence that what the topic sentence says is trustworthy.
- They should be strong convincing points on which the topic sentence can rely upon.

C. THE CONCLUDING SENTENCE

- It is a reflection of the main idea pronounced in the topic sentence.
- It sums up what the topic sentence and the supporting details talk about.
- It is the closing sentence that reminds the readers of what they have to
- Value.
- It is compulsory for the completion of the paragraph unity.
- It eventually indicates the end of a paragraph.
- It prepares the reader for a smooth transition to the next paragraph if there is one.

b. How to write a paragraph?

Paragraph writing consists of many necessary elements to be taken into Consideration **before**, **while** and **after** writing.

I. BEFORE WRITING:

- In this stage it is important to specify the topic you are intending to tackle. Take a sheet of paper and just start jotting down notes that have tight
- Connection with your topic.
- In this stage, mistakes and word-order are to be overlooked momentarily.
- After you gathered the data necessary for your topic the next step is to be
- Taken.

II. WHILE WRITING:

- **TOPIC SENTENCE** Choose a topic sentence for your paragraph that states the main idea of your top.

The topic sentence is a statement that generally introduces the topic and thus it is often referred to as: the opening statement. Keep in mind that the readers will greatly rely on what it says so as they can decide if the paragraph is worth reading or not. It gives them a broad view of what you are writing about because the topic sentence is meant to state the main idea of the paragraph. It helps readers save time as it tells them what the reset of the paragraph is all about. If they are interested in the topic, they will continue reading; if not; the topic sentence has given them guiding clues that help them be selective in their reading. I mean that the topic sentence in each paragraph is the short cut that helps the readers economize the

amount of time and effort when they are skimming for gist or scanning for specific information.

That's why your topic sentence should be a sort of clincher, that is - a tempting statement that catches the readers' attentions and entice them to carry on with the reading of the paragraph. The students are the most meant by this because their corrector should intelligently be dragged into liking and enjoying reading the paragraph because this topic sentence controls the entire paragraph. It helps the student focus on the main idea and not drift away from it. If it is well put, it easily helps the students narrow their supporting details, which will follow, into more specific and subject related examples because the supporting details are there to reinforce the topic sentence and to do that effectively they should each include at least one example.

o SUPPORTING DETAILS

These are sentences that support the topic sentence. They give information that reinforces the main idea stated in the topic sentence. So there should at least be three supporting details because one or two make the paragraph less convincing and not worth the effort done to build it. Thus the students are strongly advised to provide at least three strong details which can support the main idea. The students can use all the writing techniques necessary to make the paragraph sustainable and eligible: descriptions, definitions, examples, elaboration and exploration. If any of the supporting details doesn't correlate with the main idea or does not support it, it will break the unity of the paragraph.

o CONCLUDING SENTENCE

This is the last sentence of your paragraph and it should reflect what you have talked about in your paragraph and it should echo the topic sentence in a way or another.

III. AFTER WRITING: Reviewing

This final step can be called the editing step. This is a very crucial stage of your work process as you should review what you have done and make sure the paragraph is eligible, technically speaking. Among the things that this stage is about are:

- Coherence and cohesion of the content
- The stability of the form
- The linking words
- Grammar, spelling and punctuation.
- Clear handwriting.

Apart from these essentials, other factors are to be mulled over:

6. Your main idea should be expressed in the topic sentence in a full, clear declarative sentence.
7. Your topic sentence should in no way be a purpose statement such as:
 - The purpose of this paragraph is ...
 - I will prove in this paragraph ...
 - In this paragraph, I will tell ...
 - Show but don't tell
8. Don't repeat yourself now then thinking that you are reinforcing your point.
9. Don't use complex or farfetched terms that may puzzle the corrector.
10. Don't use long winding sentences. Keep simple.
11. Instead of giving definitions, it's better to explain and give examples.
12. Your supporting details shouldn't be too excessive.
13. Try not to be redundant or out of point. Stick to your topic.
14. Never introduce or present new ideas.
15. Irrelevant supporting details should immediately be discarded.

Finally, you can transform your concluding sentence into a thought provoking statement that the reader may find appealing.