

HOMOPHONES

Homophones are words that sound the same but have different meanings. They are usually spelt differently, so that when written they are clearly distinguishable, but in a speech-based interface they have the potential to cause ambiguity and confusion and are best avoided. It is worth consulting this list when designing spoken utterances as it is easy to become blinkered, thinking only of the particular meaning one has in mind and forgetting that a homophone might exist.

For example,

- acts -things done axe - chopping tool
- affect - to change effect - result
- ball - playful orb bawl - to cry
- ere - eventually err -to make a mistake e'er-contraction of ever
- feat - an accomplishment feet -look down
- grate - a lattice great - extremely good
- leak - accidental escape of liquid leek -variety of onion
- made - accomplished maid - young woman
- pail - bucket pale - light coloured
- sail – wind powered water travel sale- the act of selling

WORDS WITH MORE THAN ONE MEANING

Many English words can take several related meanings and function as more than one part of language without a change in the way they are spoken. Words which can be used as different parts of language but refer to the same object or function (for example camp, which can be used as either a verb or a noun) are not included in this list since they pose few problems in the design of speech dialogues. Provided a clause is correctly structured, the way in which the word is being used will be clear to the listener. However, where a word can take more than one meaning while functioning as the same part of language (for example jet which, when used as a noun, can mean either a stream of liquid or an aircraft) it must be used with care in order to avoid ambiguity.

EXAMPLE-

WORD	MEANINGS
1. Air	gaseous mixture, melody
2. Jet	stream of liquid, aircraft
3. Left	remaining, opposite direction to right
4. Let	hinder ,allow, hire
5. Neat	tidy, undiluted
6. Pen	writing instrument, enclosure
7. Pole	stick, magnetic pole, native of Poland
8. Yarn	tale, thread
9. Sage	wise person, herb

10. Rear breed,cultivate,rise up

WORDS WITH MORE THAN ONE PRONUNCIATION

The words listed below can take more than one spoken form depending upon how they are used. In general a change of vowel sound signifies a change of meaning; for example, the word "tear" can mean either a drop which falls from the eye (pronounced teer) or a break, rip or wound (pronounced tare). Changes in the placement of the stress generally indicate a change of usage from one part of language to another; for example, the word "record" is pronounced re-cord when it is used as a noun or an adjective but becomes re-cord when it is used as a verb.

Example,

- | | | |
|-------------|---------------------|----------------------|
| • Ally | <u>al</u> -ly | al- <u>ly</u> |
| • Annex | <u>ann</u> -ex | ann- <u>ex</u> |
| • Attribute | <u>att</u> -ri-bute | att- <u>ri</u> -bute |
| • August | <u>aug</u> -ust | aug- <u>ust</u> |
| • Bow | bo | bow |
| • Collect | <u>col</u> -lect | col- <u>lect</u> |
| • Combat | com- <u>bat</u> | <u>com</u> -bat |
| • Combine | com- <u>bine</u> | <u>com</u> -bine |

COMMONLY CONFUSED WORDS AND THEIR CORRECT USAGE

•Accept and Except:

Accept is a verb that means to receive. Except is both a preposition and a verb: meaning but and to leave out. Example: "He accepted a present" is different from "Everyone except Laurie received presents."

•Advice and Advise:

Advice is a noun that refers to guidance or recommendations. Advise is a verb meaning to offer suggestions about the best course of action to someone. Example: A person who advises students gives them advice on the best courses to take.

•Affect and Effect:

In terms of usage, affect is usually a verb and effect is usually a noun. Example: The party was affected by the weather. The effect of the plastic surgery was astounding. However, the tricky part is that these words can also be used in other ways. Affect can be a noun, specifically when describing psychological conditions. Effect can be a verb meaning to bring about or to accomplish. Example: The drug created a happy affect. The political party hoped to effect change with new policies.

•Cite, Sight, and Site:

Cite means to quote or document. Example: Students must cite their sources when writing research papers. Sight usually refers to the power of seeing or to a thing that can be seen. Example: There are many sights to see in New York City. Site refers to a particular area, position, or place. Example: We visited the site of the September 11th monument.

- Deserts and Desserts:

Arid land is a desert. People who get what they deserve are getting their deserts—the accent is on the second syllable. People who get goodies like ice cream and cake are getting desserts. Example: While in the desert, I will have a pop-sicle for dessert.

- Disinterested and Uninterested:

They are not the same: disinterested means impartial or neutral; uninterested means bored or lacking interest. Example: A good umpire should be disinterested but certainly not uninterested.

- I and Me:

Although it is sometimes obvious when to use me and when to use I, it can be harder to tell when more than one person is listed. The best way to determine which to use is to temporarily remove any references to other people from the sentence and see what fits. Example: Would you say, “meet Sam and I at the writing center”, or “meet Sam and me at the writing center”? By removing the reference to Sam, the answer becomes clear. You would not ask someone to meet I, you’d ask them to meet me. Therefore, the correct form is: “Meet Sam and me at the writing center.” Example: Would you say, “if you’ll be at the writing center, Sam and I can meet you there”, or “if you’ll be at the writing center, Sam and me can meet you there”? Again, remove Sam. You would tell someone I can meet them, not me can meet them. Therefore, the correct form is: “If you’ll be at the writing center, Sam and I can meet you there.”

- It’s and Its:

It’s and its are two different words. It’s is a contraction for ‘it is’. Its is possessive. Apostrophes are usually used with words that are contractions and words that are possessive, but with it’s and its the apostrophe is kept in the contraction form but eliminated from the possessive form because its is a possessive pronoun. Other possessive pronouns such as yours, theirs, and ours do not use apostrophes either, but they are less confusing because they are not also contractions! Just remember that it’s is only used when ‘it is’ or ‘it has’ could be used instead. If ‘it is’ or ‘it has’ does not fit in the sentence, then use the possessive form: its. Example: It’s sometimes difficult to determine the proper use of a word and its apostrophe.

- Loose and Lose:

Loose is the opposite of tight and lose is the opposite of win. A funny way to remember this important difference: The Pats are going to lose if their defensive end plays a loose defense again!

- Who and Whom:

Who is used for subjects and subject complements. Whom is used for objects. Issues with these words arise when writing subordinate clauses or questions. It is helpful to check what the word’s function in the clause or question is in order to choose which word. Example: You will work with our senior

engineers, whom you will meet later. Whom is used here because it is the direct object of the verb will meet.

•Your and You're:

Use your to show possession, and use you're to express the contraction for you are. It sometimes helps if you break it down while you write: any place you could actually place 'you are,' write 'you're' (except in formal writing when you do not use contractions!). Example: Now you're in possession of the knowledge necessary to correctly complete your assignment!

SYNONYMS AND ANTONYMS

ABET: To encourage -or support - treacherously abetted the enemy.

Synonyms: spur, incite.

Antonym: deter

ABRIDGE: To shorten - abridged his lengthy speech.

Synonyms: curtail, diminish, retrench.

Antonyms: protract, elongate, amplify

CANDID (noun: CANDOR): Frank, outspoken; impartial a candid reply that could hardly be more forthright.

Synonyms: artless, ingenuous, unbiased.

Antonyms: guileful, evasive.

CANTANKEROUS: Ill-natured; quarrelsome – showed a cantankerous and sullen disposition.

Synonyms: petulant, peevish, contentious, pugnacious, testy, choleric, fretful.

Antonyms: amiable, affable, equable.

DEPRECATE: To plead or argue against a certain course of action - deprecated the proposal severely.

Synonyms: remonstrate, protest, decry, expostulate.

Antonym: sanction.

DEPRECIATE: To belittle or speak slightly of - depreciated John's acting ability.

Synonyms: disparage, derogate (adj. derogatory).

Antonyms: enhance, magnify, extol, laud, eulogize.

EXTRANEOUS. Not essential; foreign; irrelevant - excluded material extraneous to the subject.

Synonyms: extrinsic, adventitious.

Antonyms: germane, intrinsic, inherent, relevant, pertinent.

FLAMBOYANT: Elaborately showy - written in a flamboyant, style, full of highly decorative imagery.

Synonyms: florid, ornate, resplendent, embellished, garish, gaudy, gorgeous

IMPRECATION: A curse - hurled imprecations at those who would not listen to him.

Synonyms: execration, malediction, anathema.

Antonyms: benediction, benison.

IMPREGNABLE: Unconquerable - an impregnable fortress.

Synonym: invincible.

Antonym: vulnerable.

NOVICE: A beginner - conducted himself in politics like a novice.

Synonyms: tyro, neophyte.

Antonym: virtuoso.

OBDURATE: Hard-hearted; stubborn - an obdurate, unrepentant criminal.

Synonyms: adamant, unyielding, inflexible.

Antonyms: submissive, docile, compliant.

QUERULOUS: Given to fault-finding and complaining - Her querulous nature estranged many people.

Synonyms: fretful, whining, captious, carping, peevish

TRIVIAL: Of little - importance - a trivial offense.

Synonym: paltry. Antonyms: gross, momentous. h, petulant.

Antonym: affable.

IDIOMS AND PHRASES

A fair crack of the whip	A period of importance
To hold something in leash	To restrain
To wrangle over an ass's shadow	To quarrels over trifles
To play fast and loose	To hurt some body's feelings /to play tricks
All agog	Restless
to give up the ghost	To die
To snap one's fingers	To be anxious
A pipe dream	An impractical plan
To stand to one's guns	To perseverance when hardships press
To loose one's head	To become confused and over excited
By the skin of one's teeth	Only just
To throw one's glove	To give a challenge
To be in abeyance	In suspense
A chip off the old block	Characteristics of one's ancestors

CORRECT WORD USAGE

Identifying informal words: the following lists provide contrasting examples of informal English (usually spoken) and formal English (used in academic writing). Depending on the context, the words on the right may be preferable to the words on the left for academic writing. Refer to a good English dictionary to check for meaning if you're not sure which word to use.

Part of speech	Informal vocabulary	Formal (more academic) vocabulary
1. Nouns	thing	factor, issue, aspect, item

	place	location, site
	buyer	purchaser
	parts	elements, components
	answer	response, solution
2. Phrases	good thing	benefit, advantage
	good enough	adequate
	lots of / a lot of	many, numerous
	to do with	regarding
3. Adjectives	good	positive, useful, valuable, advantageous
	bad	negative, disadvantageous
	big	large, major
	little	small, minor
4. Adverbs	around	approximately
5. Verbs	get	obtain
	has got, have got	have
	give	provide, donate
	watch	observe
	stay	remain
	keep	preserve
	show	demonstrate, indicate
	need	require
	guess	estimate
	happen	occur
	answer	respond

Part of speech	Informal vocabulary	Formal (more academic) vocabulary
6. Phrasal verbs <i>(verbs + prepositions or adverbs)</i>	<p>☒ Phrasal verbs are common in spoken and informal English, but are rarely used in academic writing. There is usually a more formal, academic verb which is used instead. Below is a list of the more frequently used phrasal verbs and their more formal equivalents.</p>	
	bring along	bring
	start again	resume, recommence
	go up	rise, increase
	go down	fall, decrease
	find out	determine, discern, discover
	pick up	collect
	put in	insert
	fill out (a form)	complete
	take away	remove
	come back, go back	return (somewhere)
	give back, take back	return (something)
	throw away	discard
	take apart	dismantle
	think about	consider
	keep up	maintain
	come over	visit
	put up with	tolerate
help out	assist	
set up	establish	
get rid of	eliminate	

look into	investigate
bring up	raise
meet with	encounter
cut down	reduce
move up and down	fluctuate
put off	delay
put out (a fire, cigarette)	extinguish
talk over	discuss
bump into (an old friend)	meet (by chance)

THE 20 RULES OF SUBJECT VERB AGREEMENT IN STANDARD ENGLISH

1. Subjects and verbs must agree in number. This is the cornerstone rule that forms the background of the concept.

The *dog growls* when he is angry. The *dogs growl* when they are angry.

2. Don't get confused by the words that come between the subject and verb; they do not affect agreement.

The *dog*, who is chewing on my jeans, *is* usually very good.

3. Prepositional phrases between the subject and verb usually do not affect agreement.

The *colors* of the rainbow *are* beautiful.

4. When sentences start with "there" or "here," the subject will always be placed after the verb, so care needs to be taken to identify it correctly. There *is* a problem with the balance sheet. Here *are* the papers you requested.

5. Subjects don't always come before verbs in questions. Make sure you accurately identify the subject before deciding on the proper verb form to use.

Does *Lefty* usually *eat* grass? Where *are* the *pieces* of this puzzle.

6. If two subjects are joined by *and*, they typically require a plural verb form. The cow and the pig *are jumping* over the moon.

7. The verb is singular if the two subjects separated by *and* refer to the same person or thing.

Red beans and rice is my mom's favorite dish.

8. If the words *each, every, or no* come before the subject, the verb is singular. No *smoking and drinking is* allowed. Every *man and woman is* required to check in.

9. If the subjects are both singular and are connected by the words *or, nor, neither/nor, either/or,* and *not only/but also* the verb is singular. *Jessica or Christian is* to blame for the accident.

10. The only time when the object of the preposition factors into the decision of plural or singular verb forms is when noun and pronoun subjects like *some, half, none, more, all,* etc. are followed by a prepositional phrase. In these sentences, the object of the preposition determines the form of the verb.

All of the *chicken is* gone. All of the *chickens are* gone.

11. The singular verb form is usually used for units of measurement. Four *quarts of oil was* required to get the car running.

12. If the subjects are both plural and are connected by the words *or, nor, neither/nor, either/or,* and *not only/but also,* the verb is plural. *Dogs and cats are* both available at the pound.

13. If one subject is singular and one plural and the words are connected by the words *or, nor, neither/nor, either/or,* and *not only/but also,* you use the verb form of the subject that is nearest the verb. Do *your sisters or your girlfriend want* any pizza?

14. Indefinite pronouns typically take singular verbs. *Everybody wants* to be loved.

15. * Except for the pronouns (*few, many, several, both*) that always take the plural form.

Few were left alive after the flood.

16. If two infinitives are separated by *and* they take the plural form of the verb.

To walk and to chew gum require great skill.

17. When gerunds are used as the subject of a sentence they take the singular verb form of the verb, but when they are linked by *and* they take the plural form.

Standing in the water was a bad idea. *Swimming in the ocean and playing drums are* my hobbies.

18. Collective nouns like *herd, senate, class, crowd,* etc. usually take a singular verb form.

The *herd is* stampeding.

19. Titles of books, movies, novels, etc. are treated as singular and take a singular verb.

The Burbs is a movie starring Tom Hanks.

20. Final Rule – Remember, only the subject affects the verb!

PARTS OF SPEECH NOTES

- **NOUN** – person, place, thing, or idea / *The (noun) smiled.*

o Nouns can be **common** or **proper**

- Common nouns: man, book, city, team
- Proper nouns: Justin, *Lord of the Flies*, New York, New York Giants

o Nouns can be **concrete** (things you can see or touch) or **abstract** (things you can't see or touch)

- Concrete nouns: dishes, desks, discs, doorknobs
- Abstract nouns: love, justice, guilt, anxiety

o Nouns can be **subjects** or **objects**

- A subject noun names the person, place, thing or idea that is doing the action or is being talked about.

Our family loved spending afternoons in the park.

- An object noun is used as the direct object, indirect object, or object of the preposition.

We would often eat our lunch there.

- A predicate noun follows a linking verb or a form of the be verb and repeats/renames the subject.

Our favorite game was football.

- **PRONOUN** – substitutes for nouns and function as nouns / *Jess said the hat was (pronoun) .*

o **Personal pronouns** – refers to specific people, places, or things

☐ *I, you, he, she, it, we, they I want to go home.*

o **Indefinite pronouns** – **do not** substitute for specifics

☐ *everybody, some*

Everybody speaks.

o **Relative pronouns** – **relate** groups of words to nouns or other pronouns

? *who, whoever, which, that*

The book that won is a novel.

o Interrogative pronouns – introduce **questions**

? *who, which, what*

Who will contribute?

o **Demonstrative pronouns** – identify or **point to** nouns

? *this, that, such*

This is a problem.

o **Intensive pronouns** – a personal pronoun + **self/selves**

? *himself, ourselves*

He himself asked that question.

o **Reflexive pronouns** – same form as intensive but indicate that the sentence subject also receives the **action of the verb**

? *themselves*

They injured themselves.

• **VERB** – action or state of being

o *Janie* __ (verb) __ five miles. o *You/He/She/They/We* __ (intransitive verb) __ often. o *I/You/It* __ (linking verb) __ happy. o *Let's* __ (transitive verb) __ it.

o **Transitive verbs** pass the action on to a **receiver** (person, place, or thing)/object

? The receiver is the object

I threw the pen.

? HINT: if there are questions left (who, where, what), it's probably transitive

o **Intransitive verbs** don't pass the action on to a receiver o **Linking verbs** link subjects to word(s) that describe the subject

? Any form of the be verb (am, is, are, were, was, be, being, been)

The answer is three.

o **Verb Phrases** consist of a main verb and a helping verb

? Helping verbs = can, could, did, do, does, had, has, have, may, might, must, shall, should, will, would

She had always been thinking of her future.

- **ADVERB** – modify/describes verbs, adjective, or other adverbs; answers the question HOW? WHEN? WHERE? or TO WHAT EXTENT?

Who ran (adverb) in the relay? I ran (adverb).

- **HINT: -ly** ending is a clue that it's an adverb
- Adverbs have 3 forms: positive, comparative, and superlative.

? **Positive**

Performing fleas train vigorously. (“Vigorously” modifies the verb “train” without making any comparisons.)

? **Comparative**

Jumping frogs train more vigorously than performing fleas. (“More vigorously” modifies the verb “train” and compares how “frogs” train to how “fleas” train.)

? **Superlative**

Fido's flea is the most vigorously trained insect in the world. (“Most vigorously” modifies the adjective “trained” and compares one “flea” to all other insects.)

o **Good vs. Well**

- “Good” is used only as an adjective
- “Well” can be used as an adverb (many different meanings) or an adjective (only meaning “fit” or “healthy”)

Her health was good. “Good” is an adj. describing her health.

Decker trained well. “Well” is an adv. telling me HOW Decker trained.

- **ADJECTIVE** – modifies/describes a noun or pronoun; answers the questions WHAT KIND? HOW MANY? WHICH ONE?

The (adjective) girl/boy is very (adjective).

- **4** Types of Adjectives
 - Demonstrative: **points** out a particular noun

This kitten is mean, but that cat is meaner.

- Compound: made up of **more than one word**

Scar-faced Bronty is no scaredy-cat guard.

- Indefinite: gives an approximate **number/quantity**

Some cats enjoy having many mice around.

- Predicate: follows a **linking verb** and **describes** the subject

A frustrated kitten is unpleasant and unpredictable.

- Forms of Adjectives
 - Positive: describes noun/pronoun without comparing it to anything

Frozen yogurt is a light dessert.

- Comparative: compares 2 nouns/pronouns

Frozen yogurt is a lighter dessert than ice cream.

- Superlative: compares 3 or more nouns/pronouns

Frozen yogurt is the lightest dessert of the five on this menu.

- **PREPOSITIONS** – show position or direction

Kate tossed a penny (preposition) the fountain.

- Gives more information and explains things. Explains relationships.
- Prepositions always exist in **phrases**
 - A **prepositional phrase** can be left out of a sentence and the sentence still makes sense.
 - A prepositional phrase starts with a preposition
 - A phrase contains a subject or a verb – not both

○ Without prepositions, we lose visuals in writing as well as our orientation in time and space.

- **CONJUNCTIONS** – connects ideas or joins words, phrases, or clauses

Fred finished his math (conjunction) science.

○ Connects words, phrases/clauses, and sentences
○ Allows us to say more without repetition
○ Subordinate Conjunctions:

- AAWWUBBIS: as, after, although, while, when, until, before, because, if, since
- Coordinate:
 - FANBOYS: for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so

- **INTERJECTIONS** – word or phrase used to express strong emotion or surprise

“ (interjection) , Joe, guess where I’m going next week?”
○ Shows intense **emotion**
○ Exists in single words or VERY short phrases.
○ Usually set off with a comma, exclamation point, question mark, or period.

○ Examples:

☒ Ahhh! Oh. Hey, Oh my gosh! Huh? Oh, man! Dude! Dude. Dude?

ONE WORD SUBSTITUTION LIST

- A judge's private room, without the press or the public being present - **In camera**
- A period of time in the past that was idyllically happy and peaceful - **Halcyon** ☐ A tax or levy - **Cess**
- An abbreviation formed from the initial letters of other words and pronounced as a word - **Acronym**
- An ability to do several things at the same time - **Multitasking**
- An ability to express oneself well in speech - **Oracy**
- An ability to make good judgements and take quick decisions - **Acumen**
- An ability to see what will or might happen in the - **Foresight** ☐ An ability to stay calm in difficult or dangerous situations - **Sangfroid**
- An ability to use one's hands skillfully or an ability to think quickly and effectively - **Dexterity**
- An ability, talent, or special skill needed to do something - **Knack**
- Able to become strong, healthy, or successful again after something bad happens - **Resilient**
- Able to do many different things - **Versatile**

MODAL AUXILIARIES

Modal auxiliaries are auxiliary verbs that lend different shades of meaning to the main verb to which they are attached. Modals help to express the mood or attitude of the speaker and convey ideas about possibility, probability, necessity, obligation, advisability, and permission.

The single-word modal auxiliaries are:

Can	May	Must	Shall	Will
Could	Might		Should	Would

Some phrasal modal auxiliaries are:

Be able to	Be supposed to	Have to	Ought to	Have better
Be going to	Be to	Have got to	Used to	

SINGLE-WORD MODAL AUXILIARIES

Single-word modal auxiliaries are always followed by the simple (or “stem”) form of the verb.

Here are some examples of the how single-word modal auxiliaries influence meaning:

Statement	Meaning
I <i>can</i> go. I am	able to go. / I have permission to go.
I <i>could</i> go. If	certain conditions were met, I would be able to go.
I <i>may</i> go. It's go.	not certain, but there's a chance that I'll go. / I have permission to go.
I <i>might</i> go.	It's not certain, but there's a chance I'll go.
I <i>must</i> go. I	am obliged to go.
I <i>shall</i> go. I	am going (in the future).
I <i>should</i> go. It	is advisable/recommended/obligatory that I go.
I <i>will</i> go. It's	certain that I am going (in the future). / I am willing to go.

I *would* go. My going is uncertain; it depends on certain conditions.

The following chart demonstrates some uses for single-word modal auxiliaries. Notice that in some cases when the verb tense changes, the modal is replaced with another word or group of words. Empty spaces denote non-existent forms.

MODAL	MEANING	PRESENT FORM	PAST FORM	FUTURE FORM	NEGATIVE FORM
Can	1. Ability	He can play the piano.	He could play the piano.	He will be able to play the piano.	He cannot play the piano.
	2. Opportunity	I can go now that I've finished working.	I was able to go when I finished working.	I can go when I finish working later tonight.	I cannot go.
	3. Permission	Their parents say they can have a party.	Their parents said they were allowed to have a party.	Their parents will surely say that they can have a party.	They cannot have a party.
	4. Informal request (refers to near future)			Can I borrow your book?	Can't I borrow your book?
	5. Possibility (usually a generalization)	It can be tiring to study and work at the same time.			It can't be tiring to sit around and watch TV all day!
Could	1. Past of <i>can</i>		Before I hurt my wrist, I could toss pizza dough.		Even before I hurt my wrist, I couldn't toss pizza dough.
	2. Conditional		I could have made an omelet if we had had the ingredients.	I could make an omelet if we have the ingredients.	I couldn't make an omelet even if we had the ingredients.
	3. Suggestion		You could have taken a long weekend to visit your family.	You could take a long weekend to visit your family.	
	4. Polite Request (refers to near future)			Could you phone me when you arrive?	Couldn't you phone me when you arrive?
	5. Possibility / Impossibility	Ms. Stevens could be the electors' choice for mayor.	Ms. Stevens could have been the	Ms. Stevens could become mayor.	Ms. Stevens couldn't be the electors' choice for mayor.

			electors' choice for mayor.		
May	1. Permission	You may submit your paper via email now.	You were allowed to submit your paper via email.	When you finish, you may submit your paper via email.	You may not submit your paper via email.
	2. Polite Request (refers to near future)			May I use your phone?	
	3. Possibility	The bakery may be open now.	The bakery may have opened earlier today.	The bakery may open later today.	The bakery may not open.
Might	1. Request (refers to near future)			Might I use your phone?	
	2. Conditional	If you give me a chance, I might impress you!	If you had given me a chance, I might have impressed you!	If you will give me a chance, I might impress you!	Even if you give me a chance, I might not impress you.
	3. Suggestion		You might have called to say you weren't coming.	You might call to say you aren't coming.	You might not want to call to say you aren't coming.
	4. Possibility	My dog might be the one who made the mess.	My dog might have made the mess.	My dog might make a mess.	My dog might not make a mess.

MODAL	MEANING	PRESENT FORM	PAST FORM	FUTURE FORM	NEGATIVE FORM
Must	1. Certainty	She must be the best athlete in our school's history.	She must have been the best athlete in our school's history.		She must not be the best athlete in our school's history.
(Must not)	2. Strong recommendation	To be healthy, you must eat well.	To have stayed healthy, you should have eaten better.	To be healthier, you should eat better.	To be healthy, you mustn't eat poorly.

	3. Necessity	Visitors must sign in at reception.	In the past, visitors had to sign in at reception.	In the future, visitors must sign in at reception.	Visitors don't have to sign in at reception.
	4. Prohibition				You must not disrupt his concentration.
Shall	1. Inevitability			One day, we shall overcome our dependence on oil.	Humanity shall never abandon the quest for immortality.
	2. Promising (British usage)			I shall ensure that everything goes according to plan.	I shall not let you down.
	3. Future Action (British usage)			Our train shall arrive ahead of schedule.	Our train shall not arrive ahead of schedule after all.
Should	1. Recommendation	For strong bones, you should drink milk.	For stronger bones, you should have drunk milk.	For strong bones, you should start drinking milk.	You shouldn't drink too much milk.
	2. Obligation			I should return this library book.	
	3. Expectation	She should be at the airport right now.	She should have arrived at the airport by now.	She should arrive at the airport before 9 o'clock tonight.	She shouldn't be at the airport yet.
Will	1. Future Action			We will go to the movie tonight.	We will not go to the movie tonight.
	2. Promising			I will ensure that everything goes according to plan.	I will not disappoint you.
Would	1. Past of <i>will</i>		You said we would go to the movie.		You said we wouldn't go.
	2. Conditional	If I were in trouble, I would ask him for help.	If I had been in trouble, I would have asked him for help.	If I got into trouble, I would ask him for help.	Even if I got into trouble, I would not ask him for help.

3. Repetition in the past / habitual action or behaviour		When we were kids, we would always play street hockey in the alley.		When we were kids, we would not play street hockey in the alley.
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PHRASAL MODAL AUXILIARIES

Like single-word modal auxiliaries, phrasal modals are always followed by the simple (or “stem”) form of the verb. Unlike single-word modals, however, most phrasal modals contain the verbs *be* or *have*, which must be conjugated to identify tense and number (*I am*, *you are*, *he/she/it is*, *I was*, *you were*, *he/she/it was*, etc). Exceptions are *used to* and *ought to*, which require no change in verb form.

Had better is never conjugated, and it does not include the word *to* as the other phrasal modals do. Like single-word modals, it is followed immediately by the simple form of the verb.

Some examples of how phrasal modal auxiliaries influence meaning:

I used to go. I went on a regular basis (habitual action in the past).

I had better go. It is advisable that I go.

The following chart demonstrates some uses for phrasal modal auxiliaries. Notice that in some cases when the verb tense changes, part of the modal is replaced with another word or group of words. Empty spaces denote non-existent forms.

MODAL	MEANING	PRESENT FORM	PAST FORM	FUTURE FORM	NEGATIVE FORM
Be able to	Ability	She is able to join us.	She was able to join us.	She will be able to join us.	She is not able to join us.
Be going to	Plan (for the future)		I was going to start university next fall.	I am going to start university next fall.	I am not going to start university next fall.
Be supposed to	Expectation		He was supposed to bring dessert, but I guess he forgot.	He is supposed to bring dessert tonight.	He is not supposed to bring anything tonight!

Be to	Expectation / obligation		She was to see the project through to its end, but she left before its completion.	She is to see the project through to its end, no matter how long it takes.	She is not to see the project through to its end after all.
Have to	Obligation (= must)	I have to leave now.	I had to leave then.	I have to leave in approximately 10 minutes.	I do not have to leave.
Have got to	Strong obligation	I have got to prepare my presentation now.	I needed to prepare my presentation at that time.	I have got to prepare my presentation as soon as I finish dinner.	I do not need to prepare my presentation anymore. I'm ready!
Ought to	1. Recommendation	One ought to express one's gratitude.	We should have sent a note to our hostess.	We ought to send a thank you note to our hostess.	We ought not forget. *to is dropped in the negative
	2. Certainty	When one studies hard, one ought to pass.	With all the studying she did, she ought to have passed her exam.	With all the studying she's done, she ought to pass her exam.	
Used to	Habitual past action / behaviour		My grandfather used to walk 3 miles to and from school every day!		
Had better	Recommendation			You had better go. It's getting late!	You had better not go. The weather looks pretty nasty!

Articles: are used to indicate whether a noun refers to a specific or a general item. The rules for using articles in English are quite complex, so for students whose first language is not English, when to use an article, and which article to use can cause problems. There are two types of articles, **definite** and **indefinite**. However, in your choice about whether to use an article, or which one to use, you have four possible choices: **the, a, an, or no article**.

- 'the' is known as the DEFINITE ARTICLE

'a' and 'an' are INDEFINITE ARTICLES is used in used in this fact sheet.

- no article is sometimes referred to as ZERO ARTICLE

Some basic rules for using articles :

The first thing you need to decide is whether the noun is countable or uncountable

Countable nouns in English are usually those that can take a plural form (e.g. lecture, lectures, essay, essays, student, students).

Uncountable nouns in English usually do not have a plural form. They include names for languages, subjects (biology, economics, history), solids (iron, coal), liquids (water, oil), gases (oxygen, hydrogen), powders (sugar, flour). However, some nouns can be both countable and uncountable, depending on the context or meaning. This group includes words like paper, discipline, space. If you are unsure, most learner dictionaries (e.g. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English) will indicate whether a noun is countable or uncountable.

Rules for using the indefinite article (a/an)

1. The indefinite article (a, an) cannot be used with uncountable nouns or with plural nouns.
2. Use 'an' if the word immediately after the article begins with a, e, i, o or u, except where the 'u' is pronounced like a 'y' (e.g. an apple, an egg, an interesting result, an odd couple, an umbrella, BUT a university).
3. Use a, an when you first mention a singular countable noun.
4. Use zero article when you first mention a plural noun or an uncountable noun.

The definite article (the) can be used for specific references to countable nouns

Rules for using the definite article (the)

1. Use 'the' for the second and subsequent references to an item. The item could be explicitly referred to, or implied (e.g. The committee has approved a new policy. The policy...) (A survey was administered to.... The results showed that ...)
2. Use 'the' when you use 'most' as the superlative form (e.g. The most critical step is...)
3. Use 'the' when using ordinal forms to show order or number (e.g. The first students to graduate were...; The last students to leave...)

4. Use 'the' when using words that specify a particular item (e.g. The same student, the only essay, the principal reason)
5. Use 'the' for reference to an item that is understood by all speakers (the sun, the planets, the moon, the stars)

The examples above refer to specific, real items. You may also need to refer more generally to an entire class of things, or to a representative of that class.

Rules for using articles (a/an, the, zero article) for classes of things

1. Use the definite article (the) to refer to an entire class of things (e.g. The mobile phone has revolutionised communications.)
2. Use the indefinite article (a/an) with a singular countable noun to refer to a representative of the class of things (e.g. A mobile phone is a prime example of how technology has shaped our lives.)
3. Use zero article with plural countable nouns and with uncountable nouns to refer to a representative of the class of things (e.g. Mobile phones have revolutionised . . .

;Technology is revolutionising the way people communicate.)

Using Gerunds and Infinitives:

A gerund is a verb form that ends in "-ing" and is used as a noun (walking, traveling, voting); an infinitive is the base form of a verb preceded by "to" (to walk, to travel, to vote). Gerunds and infinitives can function as the subject of a sentence or the object of a verb. Words derived from verbs are known as verbals and may take modifiers, objects, and complements to form verbal phrases. A gerund phrase uses the "-ing" form of the verb to function as a noun; an infinitive phrase is formed using the infinitive and can function as a noun, adverb, or adjective.

USING VERB FORMS AS SUBJECTS

When functioning as the subject of a sentence, gerunds and infinitives always use a singular verb form, for example: "Walking is good exercise." In this sentence, the "-ing" verb form ("Walking") is the simple subject and the verb "is" links the subject to the subject complement "good exercise," which refers to and describes the subject. When a gerund phrase functions as a subject, the "-ing" verb form is expanded as a word group, for example: "Traveling with a friend made the trip to New York more enjoyable." In this sentence, the gerund phrase ("Traveling with a friend") is the subject, "made" is the verb, "the trip" is the direct object, "to New York" is the indirect object, and "more enjoyable" is the object complement..

Similar to a gerund, the infinitive form of a verb can also function as the subject of a sentence, for example: "To vote is a legal obligation." In this sentence, the subject ("To vote") is linked to the direct object ("a legal obligation") by the verb "is." Likewise, an infinitive phrase can function as a subject: "To vote in the upcoming election will be an important personal statement." In this sentence, the infinitive

phrase (“To vote in the upcoming election”) is linked to the direct object of the sentence (“an important personal statement”) by the verb “will be.”

USING VERB FORMS AS OBJECTS

In idiomatic English, certain verbs are followed only by a gerund, certain verbs by an infinitive, and certain verbs by either a gerund or an infinitive.

Common Verbs Followed Only by a Gerund

admit	He admitted stealing the money.
advise	She advises waiting until tomorrow.
anticipate	I anticipate having a good time on vacation.
appreciate	I appreciate hearing from you.
avoid	He avoided answering my questions.
complete	She finally completed writing her term paper.
consider	I will consider going with you.
delay	He delayed leaving for school.
deny	She denied knowing anything about it.
discuss	They discussed opening a new business.
enjoy	We enjoyed visiting them.
escape	The team escaped losing the final game.
finish	She finished studying at about ten.
imagine	We imagined returning the next summer.
keep	I keep hoping she will come.

Common Verbs Followed Only by an Infinitive

afford	I can't afford to buy it.
agree	They agreed to help us.
appear	She appears to be tired.
ask	He asked to come with us.

hate

I hate **arguing** about politics.

I hate **to argue** with you.

like

They like **skiing**.

They like **to ski**.

love

Children love **playing** with their friends.

Children love **to play**.

neglect

She neglected **telling** her about the fire.

She neglected **to tell** her the whole story.

prefer

She prefers **eating** a light dinner.

She prefers **to eat** a light dinner.

remember

I remember **locking** the door.

I remembered **to lock** the door.

start

He started **running**.

He started **to run**.

WORD CHOICE:

1. Controlling Wordiness and Writing Concisely BY :

1. Recognize and eliminate repetitive ideas.
2. Recognize and remove unneeded repeated words.
3. Recognize unneeded words and revise sentences to be more concise.

It is easy to let your sentences become cluttered with words that do not add value to what you are trying to say. You can manage cluttered sentences by eliminating repetitive ideas, removing repeated words, and rewording to eliminate unneeded words.

Eliminating Repetitive Ideas

Examples

Original: Use a **very heavy skillet made of cast iron** to bake an extra juicy meatloaf.

Revision: Use a cast iron skillet to bake a very juicy meatloaf.

Original: Joe thought **to himself** , “I think I’ll make caramelized grilled salmon tonight.”

Revision: Joe thought, “I think I’ll make caramelized grilled salmon tonight.”

Removing Repeated Words

Example

Original: The student who won the cooking contest is a very talented and ambitious **student** .

Revision: The student who won the cooking contest is very talented and ambitious.

REWORDING TO ELIMINATE UNWANTED WORDS

Original: Andy **has the ability to make** the most fabulous twice-baked potatoes.

Revision: Andy makes the most fabulous twice-baked potatoes.

Original: For his **part in the** cooking class group project, Malik **was responsible for making** the mustard reduction sauce.

Revision: Malik made the mustard reduction sauce for his cooking class group project.

Notes:

- State ideas only once within a single sentence, as opposed to repeating a key idea in an attempt to clarify.
- Avoid unnecessarily repeating words within a sentence.
- Write concisely by eliminating unneeded words.

2. Using Appropriate Language

1. Be aware that some words are commonly confused with each other.
2. Recognize and use appropriate words, taking care to avoid jargon or slang.
3. Write in a straightforward manner and with the appropriate level of formality.

Omit jargon¹ (technical words and phrases common to a specific profession or discipline) and slang² (invented words and phrases specific to a certain group of people), unless your audience and purpose call for such language. Avoid using outdated words and phrases, such as “dial the number.” Be straightforward in your writing rather than using euphemisms³ (a gentler, but sometimes inaccurate, way of saying something). Be clear about the level of formality needed for each different piece of writing and adhere to that level

Focusing on Easily Confused Words

Words in homophone sets are often mistaken for each other.

Table 17.1 Commonly Confused Words

affect	effect	good	well
all ready	already	lay	lie
allusion	illusion	leave	let
among	between	ordinance	ordnance

Writing without Jargon or Slang

Jargon and slang both have their places. Using jargon is fine as long as you can safely assume your readers also know the jargon. For example, if you are a lawyer, and you are writing to others in the legal profession, using legal jargon is perfectly fine. On the other hand, if you are writing for people outside the legal profession, using legal jargon would most likely be confusing, and you should avoid it. Of course, lawyers must use legal jargon in papers they prepare for customers. However, those papers are designed to navigate within the legal system. You are, of course, free to use slang within your personal life, but unless you happen to be writing a sociolinguistic study of slang itself, it really has no place in academic writing.

Choosing to Be Straightforward

Some writers choose to control meaning with flowery or pretentious language, euphemisms, and double-talk⁴. All these choices obscure direct communication and therefore have no place in academic writing. Study the following three examples that clarify each of these misdirection techniques

PRESENTING AN APPROPRIATE LEVEL OF FORMALITY

If you said, "It depends," you are right! Each version is appropriate in certain situations. Every writing situation requires you to make a judgment regarding the level of formality you want to use. Base your decision on a combination of the subject matter, the audience, and your purpose for writing. For example, if you are sending a text message to a friend about going bowling, the formality shown in

example three is fine. If, on the other hand, you are sending a text message to that same friend about the death of a mutual friend, you would logically move up the formality of your tone at least to the level of example two.

Chapter 17 Word Choice

KEYNOTES:

- Some words are confused because they sound alike, look alike, or both. Others are confused based on similar meanings.
- Confine use of jargon to situations where your audience recognizes it.
- Use slang and unofficial words only in your informal, personal writing.
- Write in a straightforward way without using euphemisms or flowery language to disguise what you are saying.
- Make sure you examine the subject matter, audience, and purpose to determine whether a piece of writing should be informal, somewhat casual, or formal.

3.CHOOSING PRECISE WORDS

1. Understand connotations of words and choose words with connotations that work best for your purposes.
2. Incorporate specific and concrete words as well as figurative language into your writing.
3. Recognize and avoid clichés and improperly used words.

Consider that the words “laid-back” and “lackadaisical” both mean “unhurried and slow-moving.” If someone said you were a “laid-back” student, you would likely be just fine with that comment, but if someone said you were a “lackadaisical” student, you might not like the connotation⁵. Nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs all have both denotations⁶ and connotations. The denotation is the definition of a word. The connotation is the emotional sense of a word. For example, look at these three

words:

- excited
- agitated
- flustered

The three words all mean to be stirred emotionally.

Choosing Specific and Concrete Words

You will always give clearer information if you write with specific words⁷ rather than general words.

Examples

Original: The **animals** got out and ruined the **garden produce** .

Revision: The *horses* got out and ruined the *tomatoes and cucumbers*

Another way to make your writing clearer and more interesting is to use concrete words⁹ rather than abstract words

Examples

Original: The horses **got** out and **ruined** the tomatoes and cucumbers.

Revision: The horses *stampeded* but and *squished and squirted* the tomatoes and cucumbers.

ENHANCING WRITING WITH FIGURATIVE LANGUAGE

Figurative language¹¹ is a general term that includes writing tools such as alliteration¹², analogies¹³, hyperbole¹⁴, idioms¹⁵, metaphors¹⁶, onomatopoeia¹⁷, personification¹⁸, and similes¹⁹. By using figurative language, you can make your writing both more interesting and easier to understand.

Figurative Language

Alliteration: Repetition of single letters or sets of letters.

Effect: Gives a poetic, flowing sound to words.

Example: *Dana danced down the drive daintily.*

Analogy: The comparison of familiar and unfamiliar ideas or items by showing a feature they have in common.

Effect: Makes an unfamiliar idea or item easier to understand.

Example: Writing a book is *like raising a toddler*It takes all your time and attention, but you'll enjoy every minute of it!

Hyperbole: A greatly exaggerated point.

Effect: Emphasizes the point.

Example: I must have written *a thousand pages*this weekend.

Idiom: A group of words that carries a meaning other than the actual meanings of the words.

Effect: A colorful way to send a message.

Example: I think this assignment will be *a piece of cake*

Metaphor: An overall comparison of two ideas or items by stating that one is the other.

Effect: Adds the connotations of one compared idea to the other compared idea.

Using Clichés Sparingly

Clichés are phrases that were once original and interesting creations but that became so often used that they have ceased to be interesting and are now viewed as overworked. If you have a tendency to use a cliché or see one while you are proofreading, replace it with plain language instead.

Example

I'm loose as a goose today.

Replace cliché: I'm very relaxed today.

COMMON CLICHES

as fresh as a daisy	as slow as molasses	as white as snow
beat around the bush	being led down the primrose path	big as life
bottomless pit	busy as a bee	can't see the forest for the trees
chip off the old block	dead of winter	dirt cheap
don't upset the apple cart	down to earth	flat as a pancake
for everything there is a season	from feast to famine	go with the flow
gone to pot	green with envy	growing like a weed
heaven on earth	here's mud in your eye	in a nutshell
in the doghouse	just a drop in the bucket	knock on wood
light as a feather	like a duck out of water	made in the shade
muddy the water	naked as a jaybird	nutty as a fruitcake
old as dirt	our neck of the woods	plain as the nose on your face
raking in the dough	sick as a dog	stick in the mud
stubborn as a mule	sweet as apple pie	thorn in my side
two peas in a pod	under the weather	walks on water
water under the bridge	when pigs fly	

Guarding against Misusing Words

If you are uncertain about the meaning of a word, look the word up before you use it. Also, if your spellchecker identifies a misspelled word, don't automatically accept the suggested replacement word. Make an informed decision about each word you use

Figure 17.1

Tonya is so ~~photographic~~! She always looks good in pictures.
photogenic

KEYNOTES:

- Words have both denotations and connotations, and you need to focus on both of these meanings when you choose your words.
- Specific words, such as “fork” or “spoon” instead of “silverware,” and concrete words, such as a “piercing siren” instead of a “loud sound,” create more interesting writing.
- Figurative language, including alliteration, analogies, hyperbole, idioms metaphors, onomatopoeia, personification, and similes, helps make text more interesting and meaningful.
- Both clichés and improperly used words detract from your writing. Reword clichés using straightforward language. Eliminate improperly used words by researching words about which you are not sure.

Using the Dictionary and Thesaurus Effectively

1. Understand the information available in a dictionary entry.
2. Understand the benefits and potential pitfalls of a thesaurus.
3. Use dictionaries and thesauruses as writing tools.

DIFFERENT METHODS OF READING:

Reading is a receptive skill - through it we receive information. But the complex process of reading also requires the skill of speaking, so that we can pronounce the words that we read. In this sense, reading is also a productive skill in that we are both receiving information and transmitting it (even if only to ourselves).

Reading is the third of the four language skills, which are :

- 1. Listening**
- 2. Speaking**
- 3. Reading**
- 4. Writing**

READING COMPREHENSION:

Reading comprehension is one of the pillars of the act of reading. When a person reads a text he engages in a complex array of cognitive processes. He is simultaneously using his awareness and

understanding of phonemes (individual sound “pieces” in language), phonics (connection between letters and sounds and the relationship between sounds, letters and words) and ability to comprehend or construct meaning from the text. This last component of the act of reading is reading comprehension. It cannot occur independent of the other two elements of the process. At the same time, it is the most difficult and most important of the three.

There are two elements that make up the process of reading comprehension: vocabulary knowledge and text comprehension. In order to understand a text the reader must be able to comprehend the vocabulary used in the piece of writing. If the individual words don't make the sense then the overall story will not either. Children can draw on their prior knowledge of vocabulary, but they also need to continually be taught new words. The best vocabulary instruction occurs at the point of need.

According to purpose & manner of comprehending, there are **kinds of reading** :

1. **Extensive Reading** - reading for pleasure any topic of interest - main purpose: to relax and enjoy yourself - comics, humorous stories, tales, novels, short articles in the newspapers and magazines, jokes, and other forms of light reading materials

2. **Intensive Reading** - careful or in-depth reading - you read for details and extract specific info on particular topics - the kind of reading you do when you study, prepare a term paper, or an oral report - has several techniques or sub-types: scanning, skimming, exploratory reading, study reading, critical reading, and analytical reading

For intensive reading there are reading techniques :

➤ Scanning - rapid reading assisted by key words to locate specific pieces of info - for research, review - gets info that answer what, who, where, when, how. Ex. looking for a word meaning in the dictionary, getting a document from the filing cabinet, looking through the yellow pages .

➤ Skimming - rapid reading focusing on the TITLE, HEADINGS, TOPIC SENTENCE, SIGN POSTS to get the main idea - effective preliminary step to reading thoroughly bec. after skimming, you can quickly go back to details you need to read entirely .

3. **Exploratory Reading**

Aims to get a fairly accurate picture of a whole presentation of ideas; how the whole selection is presented - Allots more time for reading. Examples: Long articles in magazines, short stories, descriptive texts.

4. **Study Reading** - the reader must get a maximum understanding of the main ideas and their relationships - examples: SQ3R, SQ4R (survey, question, read, record, recite, review) SQ4R: STEPS 1. SURVEYING: (preparing for reading) Take note of the titles, headings & subheadings; words in italics or bold print; intro & summaries; pictures & captions; questions at the end of the chapter or section (do this in few minutes only) 2. QUESTIONING: (focusing your reading) Turn headings & subheadings into questions by asking who, what, when, where, why, and how about them. 3. READING: (focusing your reading) Take time to read with maximum comprehension. Try to answer the questions you posed in the previous step. Try to det. the main ideas and major details of the text. 4. RECORDING: (focusing your

reading) Take note so you can remember what you have read.5. RECITING: (recalling step)Recite aloud or mentally, pair up with a partner for a Q&A session.6. REVIEWING: (recalling step)Repeat some of the previous steps and review on a regular basis

5. Critical Reading - question, analyze and evaluate the text - use critical-thinking skills to differentiate bet. fact & opinion; recognize author's purpose in writing; make inferences abt. purposes and characters; recognize the author's tone in writing; recognize persuasive techniques or propaganda designed to sway you to believe - reader stops to consider the facts carefully, "take time to read in order to the get facts straight" Examples: Reading done in periodicals, books, ads which are loaded with propaganda devices designed to sway opinions.

CRITICAL READING METHODS:

1. PREVIEWING
2. CONTEXTUALIZING
3. QUESTIONING TO UNDERSTAND AND REMEMBER
4. REFLECTING ON CHALLENGES TO ONE'S BELIEFS AND VALUES
5. OUTLINING AND SUMMARIZING
6. EVALUATING AN ARGUMENT
7. COMPARING AND CONTRASTING RELATED READINGS
8. ANALYTICAL READING
9. DEVELOPMENTAL READING

ACTIVE READING->

- BEFORE READING
- DURING READING
- AFTER READING

THE SQ3R READING STRATEGY

SQ3R STANDS FOR:

- SURVEY
- QUESTION

- READ
- RECITE
- REVIEW