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Name:

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ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY, ISLAMABAD

Course: Compulsory English II (1424) • Level: BA/AD

Semester: Autumn 2026

Assignment No. 1 (Units 1–4)

Total Marks: 100 • Pass Marks BA: 40 • Pass Marks (AD): 50

SOLVED ASSIGNMENT GUIDE

(For Study & Reference)

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Note: This guide is prepared for study and reference purposes. Students are advised to read the relevant units of the course book first and then write the assignment in their own words. Do not copy word for word; understanding the answer and expressing it in your own language will earn better marks and improve your English.

Question 1: Changing Informal Sentences into Formal Sentences (15 Marks)

Question as printed: Change the following informal sentences into formal sentences. Unit 1 of your textbook gives you some traits of the formal and informal writing. (i) Ahmad needs to think about his decision. (ii) Sana can get in touch with her mother if she likes. (iii) They cannot dare go against him. (iv) Oscar started freaking out about the test. (v) When the cops arrived, the

crook ran outside. (vi) He pointed out towards the car. (vii) The soda bottle blew up like a bomb fixed in it. (viii) Saira discovered the cause of her disease. (ix) The song was awesome. (x) We have set up our business in Malaysia.

Introduction

English is used in two broad styles: informal English, which we use with friends, family and in casual conversation, and formal English, which is required in examinations, applications, official letters, reports, essays and assignments. Unit 1 of the textbook explains that the difference between the two styles is not a difference of correctness alone; it is a difference of vocabulary, grammar and tone. Informal writing freely uses slang, idioms, phrasal verbs, contractions and loose sentence structures, while formal writing avoids all of these and prefers precise, single, often longer words, complete sentences and a serious, impersonal tone. In this question, ten informal sentences are given. Each one contains at least one informal feature — a phrasal verb such as “get in touch” or “set up”, a slang expression such as “freaking out”, “cops”, “crook” and “awesome”, or an unsuitable word choice — and the task is to rewrite every sentence in correct formal English without changing its meaning. The solved sentences are given first in a table, and after the table each change is explained so that the student understands the principle behind it and can apply the same principle to new sentences in the examination or in practical life.

Traits of Formal Writing Used in This Answer

- Slang and colloquial words are replaced by standard words: “cops” becomes “police officers” and “crook” becomes “criminal”.

- Phrasal verbs are replaced by single formal verbs wherever possible: “set up” becomes “establish”, “get in touch with” becomes “contact”, and “blow up” becomes “explode”.
- Exaggerated or emotional expressions are replaced by measured statements: “freaking out” becomes “becoming extremely anxious”, and “awesome” becomes “truly impressive”.
- Contractions are avoided and sentences are kept complete and grammatically exact, because formal writing is planned, edited writing rather than speech written down.
- Words are chosen for precision: a verb must say exactly what happened, so “pointed out”, which means drawing attention to a fact, is corrected where a physical gesture towards the car is meant.

The Solved Sentences

Table 1: Informal sentences rewritten in formal English

No.	Informal sentence (as printed)	Formal sentence
i	Ahmad needs to think about his decision.	Ahmad needs to give careful consideration to his decision.
ii	Sana can get in touch with her mother if she likes.	Sana may contact her mother if she wishes to do so.
iii	They cannot dare go against him.	They do not dare to oppose him.
iv	Oscar started freaking out about the test.	Oscar became extremely anxious about the examination.
v	When the cops arrived, the crook ran outside.	When the police officers arrived, the criminal fled from the premises.
vi	He pointed out towards the car.	He pointed towards the car.
vii	The soda bottle blew up like a bomb fixed in it.	The soda bottle exploded with great force.
viii	Saira discovered the cause of her disease.	Saira ascertained the cause of her illness.
ix	The song was awesome.	The song was truly impressive.
x	We have set up our business in Malaysia.	We have established our business in Malaysia.

Explanation of the Changes, Sentence by Sentence

Sentence (i): “Think about” is an everyday, conversational way of expressing reflection. In formal English the idea is expressed through the noun “consideration” or the verb “consider”: Ahmad needs to give careful consideration to his decision. The formal version sounds planned and serious, which is why such phrasing is preferred in reports and essays. Sentence (ii): “Get in touch with” is a phrasal verb typical of speech; the single verb “contact” carries the same meaning formally. “If she likes” is also casual, so it becomes “if she wishes to do so”, and “can” is softened to the more formal “may”. Sentence (iii): The original wording is grammatically awkward; formal English states the idea directly as “They do not dare to oppose him”, where “oppose” replaces the phrasal expression “go against”. Sentence (iv): “Freaking out” is slang for losing emotional control. Formal English replaces slang with a precise description of the feeling, “became extremely anxious”, and the everyday word “test” is raised to “examination”.

Sentence (v): Both nouns in the original are street language. “Cops” is slang for police officers and “crook” is an informal word for a criminal; formal reporting requires the standard terms. “Ran outside” is also vague, so it is sharpened to “fled from the premises”, which states exactly what a criminal does when the police arrive. Sentence (vi): This sentence teaches a point of precision. “Point out” is a phrasal verb meaning to draw attention to a fact or idea, as in “She pointed out my mistake”. It cannot be used for the physical act of pointing with a finger, so the formal and correct version simply uses “pointed towards the car”, or “indicated the car”. Sentence (vii): “Blew up” is a phrasal verb and the comparison “like a bomb fixed in it” is clumsy and conversational. The single formal verb “exploded” and the phrase “with great force” convey the same event in an exact, economical way. Sentence (viii): “Discovered” is acceptable

English, but in a medical context formal writing prefers “ascertained” or “identified”, and “illness” is the more formal word for the condition described. Sentence (ix): “Awesome” is one of the most overused informal words in modern speech; it expresses vague excitement rather than judgement. Formal English evaluates: the song was “truly impressive” or “excellent”. Sentence (x): “Set up” is a phrasal verb; business and official writing uses “established”, so the sentence becomes “We have established our business in Malaysia”.

A General Method for the Examination

A student can formalise almost any sentence by following four steps. First, underline every slang word, idiom and phrasal verb, because these are the clearest signs of informal style. Second, replace each one with a single standard word of the same meaning, using a dictionary if necessary: get, put, set and take combine with particles to form dozens of phrasal verbs, and nearly all of them have a one-word formal equivalent. Third, remove exaggeration and emotion and state the fact in measured words. Fourth, read the sentence again to confirm that the meaning has not changed and that the grammar is complete and exact. Practising this method on everyday sentences — messages, conversations and news items — builds the habit quickly, and the habit matters beyond this assignment, because applications, office correspondence and examination answers are all judged partly by the formality and precision of their language.

Conclusion

To conclude, converting informal sentences into formal ones is an exercise in vocabulary and judgement rather than in grammar alone. Every sentence in this question became formal through the same few operations: slang was replaced by standard words, phrasal verbs by

single verbs, vague excitement by measured evaluation, and imprecise verbs by exact ones. A student who masters these operations gains control of the formal register of English, which is the register of education, employment and official life.

Question 2: Types of Writing — Expository, Narrative and Argumentative (15 Marks)

Question as printed: Define and exemplify the following types of writing. (i) Expository (ii) Narrative (iii) Argumentative.

Introduction

Writing is classified into types according to the writer's purpose. The same event — a school prize distribution, a road accident or the opening of a new hospital — can be written about in several different ways, and the way chosen depends on what the writer wants to do to the reader. If the writer wants to explain the event, the writing is expository; if the writer wants to tell it as a story, the writing is narrative; and if the writer wants to convince the reader to accept an opinion about it, the writing is argumentative. This question asks for definitions and examples of these three major types. Each type is defined below, its main features are listed, and an original short example is given, because a definition without an example remains abstract, while an example shows the type at work. A comparison table at the end brings out the differences clearly, and the conclusion summarises how a student can recognise and produce each type.

(i) Expository Writing

Definition and Features

Expository writing is writing that explains, informs or describes a subject in a clear, factual and organised manner. The word "expository" comes from "expose", meaning to lay open or make clear. Its purpose is to give the reader knowledge: to define a term, explain a process, describe a place or object, or present information in a logical order. Textbooks, encyclopaedias, news reports, instructions, recipes and examination answers of the "explain" type are all expository. Its main features are: it is based on facts rather than opinions; it is organised logically, often by definition, classification, sequence or cause and effect; its language is clear, formal and precise; and the writer remains neutral and does not try to entertain or persuade. The reader of expository writing should finish the passage knowing more than before, and knowing it accurately.

Example of Expository Writing

Example: "The water cycle is the continuous movement of water between the earth and the atmosphere. First, heat from the sun evaporates water from seas, rivers and lakes, turning it into vapour. The vapour rises, cools and condenses into tiny droplets, which gather as clouds. When the droplets become heavy, they fall as rain, hail or snow; this stage is called precipitation. Some of the fallen water collects in rivers and streams and flows back to the sea, while some sinks into the ground. The cycle then begins again." This passage is expository because it only explains a process step by step; it tells no story and argues for no opinion.

(ii) Narrative Writing

Definition and Features

Narrative writing is writing that tells a story — a sequence of events involving characters, arranged in time order and usually leading to a climax and an outcome. Novels, short stories, biographies, autobiographies, anecdotes and personal essays are narrative in form. Its main features are: it has characters and a setting; events follow a sequence, so sequence markers such as first, then, later, suddenly and finally are common; it is frequently written in the past tense and may be told in the first person ("I") or the third person ("he/she"); it contains description and often dialogue, which make the events vivid; and its purpose is to entertain, to move the reader, or to communicate an experience and its moral. Unlike expository writing, narrative writing shows events rather than explaining facts, and the reader is expected to feel the experience, not merely to learn information.

Example of Narrative Writing

Example: "The bus had already left when Bilal reached the stop, and dark clouds were gathering over the hills. He began to walk, clutching his examination slip, afraid he would be late on the most important day of his year. Suddenly an old man on a motorcycle stopped beside him and asked where he was going. When Bilal explained, the stranger smiled and said, 'Sit down, son; my own boy is also appearing today.' They reached the examination hall two minutes before the gate closed, and Bilal never forgot that kindness cannot be measured by the size of the vehicle." This is narrative writing: it has a character, a problem, events in sequence, dialogue and an ending with a lesson.

(iii) Argumentative Writing

Definition and Features

Argumentative writing is writing in which the writer takes a clear position on a debatable issue and supports that position with reasons and evidence in order to persuade the reader. Editorials, debate speeches, persuasive essays and letters arguing a case are argumentative. Its main features are: it begins with a clear claim or thesis, such as "Public libraries should remain open in the digital age"; each paragraph advances a reason supported by facts, examples or statistics; the writer anticipates the opposing view and answers it, which makes the argument honest and strong; its language is confident and logical, using connectors such as therefore, however, moreover and in conclusion; and it ends by restating the position and often calling the reader to agreement or action. Argumentative writing differs from expository writing because it is not neutral: it wants the reader to change or confirm an opinion, although it must still respect facts.

Example of Argumentative Writing

Example: "School uniforms should be compulsory in all public schools. Firstly, uniforms remove the visible difference between rich and poor students, so no child feels inferior because of clothing. Secondly, they reduce the daily expense and morning confusion of choosing outfits, which is a real burden for poor families. Critics argue that uniforms suppress individuality, but individuality is expressed through conduct, talent and ideas, not through expensive dresses. Therefore, for the sake of equality, discipline and economy, uniforms should be compulsory."

This passage is argumentative because it takes one side of a debatable question, gives reasons, answers the opposite side and concludes with its claim.

Comparison of the Three Types

Table 1: Expository, narrative and argumentative writing compared

Feature	Expository	Narrative	Argumentative
Purpose	To explain or inform	To tell a story / entertain	To persuade
Content	Facts, processes, definitions	Characters, events, dialogue	Claim, reasons, evidence
Writer's stance	Neutral	Involved as storyteller	Clearly on one side
Typical order	Logical (steps, classes, causes)	Time order (sequence)	Order of strength of reasons
Examples	Textbook, report, instructions	Novel, story, biography	Editorial, debate, essay

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Conclusion

In conclusion, the three types of writing differ mainly in purpose. Expository writing informs the reader through clear explanation, narrative writing engages the reader through a sequenced story, and argumentative writing convinces the reader through reasons and evidence. A mature writer recognises which type a task requires — this assignment itself is mostly expository, with narrative and argumentative examples used where the questions demand them — and mixes types only where the purpose allows. Defining each type and supporting the definition with an original example, as done above, is the surest way to show real understanding of the classification.

Question 3: Sequencing — "The Lion and the Mouse" in Paragraph Form (10 Marks)

Question as printed: We are sure you must have read about sequencing in Unit 7. Sequencing of events is very important in any process work. Given below are some sentences from the story "The Lion and the Mouse". Write them in the form of a paragraph using sequence markers. The sentences as printed: (i) The Mouse found the Lion in the net. (ii) The Lion roared with anger. (iii) The Mouse promises to help the Lion someday if he will let her go. (iv) The Lion was asleep. (v) The Lion laid his paw on the Mouse. (vi) The Mouse chewed the net to free the Lion. (vii) The Lion went hunting and got caught in a net. (viii) The Lion let the Mouse go. (ix) The Mouse ran across the Lion's nose. (x) The Lion woke up.

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Introduction

Sequencing means arranging events in the order in which they actually happen, and it is the backbone of all narrative and process writing. A recipe, a scientific procedure, a news report and a story all fail if their steps are placed out of order, because the reader cannot reconstruct what happened. Unit 7 teaches that writers guide the reader through a sequence with special linking words called sequence markers — first, secondly, then, next, after that, meanwhile, later, when, before and finally. In this question, ten sentences from the well-known fable "The Lion and the Mouse" are given in a jumbled order. The first task is to recover the true order of events; the second is to join the sentences into one smooth paragraph in which the markers carry the reader from the opening incident to the moral ending. The correct order is established below before the paragraph is written, so that the logic of the story is fully clear.

The Correct Order of Events

Table 1: The ten sentences placed in their true sequence

Order	Event (sentence as printed)	Printed number
1	The Lion was asleep.	iv
2	The Mouse ran across the Lion's nose.	ix
3	The Lion woke up.	x
4	The Lion laid his paw on the Mouse.	v
5	The Lion roared with anger.	ii
6	The Mouse promises to help the Lion someday if he will let her go.	iii
7	The Lion let the Mouse go.	viii
8	The Lion went hunting and got caught in a net.	vii
9	The Mouse found the Lion in the net.	i
10	The Mouse chewed the net to free the Lion.	vi

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The order is fixed by cause and effect inside the story. The Mouse cannot run across the Lion's nose before the Lion is asleep; the Lion cannot roar before he wakes and catches her; the promise must come before the release; and the rescue in the net is only possible after the Lion goes hunting and is trapped. Each event causes or permits the next, which is exactly how a writer should check any sequence: ask of every step, “Could this happen before the previous step?” If the answer is no, the order is right.

The Paragraph, Written with Sequence Markers

One day, a Lion was asleep in the forest. First, a little Mouse began to run up and down upon him, and as she ran across the Lion's nose, the Lion suddenly woke up. Then, in great anger, he

laid his huge paw on the tiny creature and roared fiercely, about to kill her. Next, the frightened Mouse begged for mercy and promised that if he would let her go, she would surely help him someday in return. At this, the Lion laughed at the idea that so small a creature could ever help the King of Beasts, but, amused by her promise, he gently lifted his paw and let her go. Some time later, the Lion went hunting and, while chasing his prey, got caught in a strong net tied by hunters, and however hard he struggled, he could not free himself. After that, the Mouse, passing by, found the Lion trapped in the net and saw his helpless condition. Finally, she set to work at once and, with her sharp little teeth, chewed through the ropes of the net one by one until the Lion was free. In this way the tiny Mouse kept her promise and proved that even the smallest creature can be of great help to the mightiest.

How the Sequence Markers Work in the Paragraph

The paragraph uses a chain of markers, each doing a specific job. “One day” opens the time frame of the story. “First” introduces the opening disturbance, the Mouse running over the sleeping Lion. “Suddenly” marks a sharp, unexpected turn — the Lion waking — while “then” and “next” move the action forward step by step through the capture, the roar and the promise. “At this” connects the Lion's decision to release the Mouse directly to her words. The phrase “some time later” performs the biggest time jump in the story, passing from the release to the hunting incident without confusing the reader, and “after that” brings the Mouse back onto the scene. “Finally” signals the last and most important action, the chewing of the net, and the closing sentence, beginning “in this way”, draws the conclusion and the moral. Notice that the tense is also adjusted into a consistent past narrative tense, and pronouns such as “she”

and “he” replace repeated nouns, because a paragraph is not merely a list of sentences: it is sentences fused together by markers, tense consistency and reference words.

Why Sequencing Matters Beyond This Story

The skill practised here is used everywhere. In process writing — how to make tea, how to change a tyre, how an experiment is performed — one wrong step destroys the result, so markers like first, secondly and finally are compulsory. In offices, reports of meetings and incidents must follow time order to be believed. Even this assignment is sequenced: each answer introduces its topic, develops it and concludes it. A useful habit for students is to collect a small bank of markers — beginning markers (first, at first, in the beginning), middle markers (then, next, after that, meanwhile, later, when), and ending markers (finally, at last, in the end) — and to use at least one marker for every new stage of an account. Overusing a single marker, especially “then”, should be avoided; variety keeps the paragraph natural.

Conclusion

To conclude, the jumbled sentences fall into a clear story once cause and effect are followed: the sleeping Lion is disturbed, catches and releases the Mouse, is later trapped in a net, and is freed by the very creature he spared. Written as a paragraph with sequence markers, the events flow without pause or confusion, and the fable's moral — that kindness is never wasted and even the weak can help the strong — emerges naturally from the order of events itself.

Question 4: Developing a Time Table into a Paragraph — A Day in the Life of Ms. Azra (15 Marks)

Question as printed: Given below is the time table of a day of Ms. Azra's life. Develop it into a paragraph. The time table as printed: (i) 11:30 p.m. to 05:30 a.m. — Sleep; (ii) 05:30 a.m. to 07:30 a.m. — Prayer, Breakfast, Get ready; (iii) 07:30 a.m. to 08:00 a.m. — Clean home, Travel; (iv) 08:00 a.m. to 11:30 a.m. — School teaching, Tea break; (v) 11:30 a.m. to 02:00 p.m. — Pray, Lunch; (vi) 02:30 p.m. to 05:00 p.m. — Travel home, Rest. (In the printed booklet the first time appears as "11:300 p.m." and the last as "02:300 p.m.", which are evident typesetting slips for 11:30 and 2:30.)

Introduction

A time table presents information in its most compressed form: times in one column and activities in another. Such a table is excellent for quick reference, but it is not yet communication in full sentences. This question asks us to perform the opposite movement — to expand compressed data into a flowing paragraph. Developing a table into a paragraph is a standard academic and office skill: timetables, schedules, charts and statistics constantly have to be described in reports, applications and essays. The expansion is not done by merely joining the entries with commas. The writer must supply what the table leaves out: a subject performing the actions in full sentences, time expressions that carry the reader from one period to the next, small connecting details that make the routine lifelike, and an opening and closing sentence that turn a list of activities into the portrait of a person's day. The time table of Ms.

Azra, a school teacher, is reproduced below, and the paragraph developed from it follows, with an analysis of the technique used.

The Time Table as Printed

Table 1: One day in the time table of Ms. Azra

No.	Time	Activities
i	11:30 p.m. to 05:30 a.m	Sleep
ii	05:30 a.m. to 07:30 a.m.	Prayer, Breakfast, Get ready
iii	07:30 a.m. to 08:00 a.m.	Clean home, Travel
iv	08:00 a.m. to 11:30 a.m.	School teaching, Tea break
v	11:30 a.m. to 02:00 p.m.	Pray, Lunch
vi	02:30 p.m. to 05:00 p.m.	Travel home, Rest

The Paragraph Developed from the Time Table

Ms. Azra, a devoted school teacher, follows a well-planned routine that keeps her home and her school duties in perfect balance. Her day in fact begins the night before, for she goes to bed early and sleeps soundly from 11:30 p.m. to 5:30 a.m., so that she may rise fresh and energetic. She gets up at half past five in the morning and, after offering her morning prayer, takes a wholesome breakfast and gets ready for school during the next two hours. Between 7:30 and 8:00 a.m. she quickly cleans her home and then leaves for her school, reaching it in good time. From 8:00 a.m. to 11:30 a.m. she remains busy in teaching her classes with full attention, taking only a short tea break to refresh herself. At 11:30 her teaching hours come to an end, and she offers her prayer and takes her lunch peacefully, using this interval, which lasts until 2:00 p.m., to recover from the exertion of the morning. After a short pause, she travels back home between 2:30 and 5:00 p.m. and then rests, so that by the evening she is once again ready to

attend to her family and to prepare the next day's lessons. Thus, through a disciplined timetable, Ms. Azra manages her professional and domestic responsibilities without haste or confusion.

Analysis: How the Paragraph Was Built

Chronological Order and Time Expressions

The paragraph follows the table's order strictly, because a daily routine can only be narrated chronologically. Movement from one period to the next is carried by varied time expressions — "at half past five", "during the next two hours", "between 7:30 and 8:00 a.m.", "from 8:00 a.m. to 11:30 a.m.", "at 11:30", and "between 2:30 and 5:00 p.m." — supplemented by sequence markers such as "after", "then" and "thus". Using a different expression each time prevents the monotony that a mechanical repetition of "from … to …" would produce.

Expansion Without Invention

Each brief table entry is expanded into a full clause, and only those details are added which the entry itself implies. "Sleep" for six hours implies going to bed early and rising fresh; "school teaching" implies classes taught with attention; the gap between 2:00 and 2:30 p.m., for which the table gives no activity, is honestly bridged with the phrase "after a short pause" rather than filled with invented facts. This is the governing rule of table-to-paragraph development: the writer may connect, phrase and lightly interpret the data, but may never contradict it or smuggle in information the table does not support. Marks in such questions are awarded for faithful coverage of every entry — all six periods of Ms. Azra's day appear in the paragraph, in order, with their times preserved.

Opening and Closing Sentences

A table needs no introduction, but a paragraph does. The opening sentence therefore presents the subject and the theme — Ms. Azra is a school teacher whose routine balances home and school — and the closing sentence draws the conclusion the data supports: her day is disciplined and free of confusion. Between these two frame sentences, the third-person present simple tense is used throughout, because the paragraph describes a habitual routine rather than one particular day, and this tense choice is another detail a table cannot show but a paragraph must decide.

A Note on the Two Misprinted Times

A careful student will notice that the booklet prints the first time of the table as “11:300 p.m.” and the last period as beginning at “02:300 p.m.”, readings that are impossible on a clock face. These are plainly typesetting slips for 11:30 p.m. and 2:30 p.m.: the sequence of the day confirms it, because the sleep period must end at 5:30 a.m. and begin the previous night, and the journey home must begin after the lunch interval ends at 2:00 p.m. and finish at 5:00 p.m. The correct way to handle a misprint of this kind in an assignment is exactly what has been done here — interpret the figure in the only sense that keeps the whole table continuous and sensible, use the corrected figure consistently throughout the paragraph, and, where the point might matter, note the correction openly rather than copying an impossible time into one's own work. Examiners reward such intelligent reading; they do not reward the mechanical copying of errors.

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Conclusion

In conclusion, developing Ms. Azra's time table into a paragraph required three operations: keeping the chronological order of the table, expanding every entry into complete sentences joined by varied time expressions, and framing the whole with an introduction and a conclusion. The result converts raw scheduling data into a readable account of a disciplined teacher's day, and the same method serves for describing any chart, graph or schedule in academic and professional writing.

Question 5: Classification of the Given Items (10 Marks)

Question as printed: You have learnt about classification techniques in Unit 3 (page 73). Classify the following items according to your understanding. Items: pancreas, souse, Water, jam, mobile, telephone, Radio, juice, milkshake, history, Urdu, liver, political science, lemonade, ketchup, TV, monies, stomach, Heart, chemistry.

Introduction

Classification is the technique of dividing a mixed collection of things into groups, called classes or categories, so that every member of a group shares a common characteristic which the members of other groups do not share. Unit 3 (page 73) explains that good classification follows two rules. First, one single basis of division must be chosen and applied consistently throughout; mixing bases — for example, grouping sometimes by colour and sometimes by use — produces confusion. Second, the classes must be complete and non-overlapping: every item must find exactly one place, and no item may be left out or placed in two classes at once. In this

question twenty items from daily life are mixed together in no order: parts of the human body, foods and drinks, communication and entertainment devices, school subjects and one item connected with money. The natural basis of classification here is the general kind or field to which each item belongs. Applying that single basis gives five clear classes, shown in the table below, after which each class is explained and the difficult items are discussed.

The Classification

Table 1: The twenty items classified on the basis of kind/field

Class	Basis of the class	Items (number)
1. Parts of the human body (internal organs)	Organs inside the human body	pancreas, liver, stomach, Heart (4)
2. Food, drinks and condiments	Things eaten, drunk or used to flavour food	souse, Water, jam, juice, milkshake, lemonade, ketchup (7)
3. Communication and entertainment devices	Electrical/electronic devices for communication or entertainment	mobile, telephone, Radio, TV (4)
4. School and college subjects	Subjects studied in education	history, Urdu, political science, chemistry (4)
5. Money and finance	Items connected with money	monies (1)

The completeness rule can be checked arithmetically: 4 + 7 + 4 + 4 + 1 = 20, which is exactly the number of items given in the question, so no item has been dropped and none has been counted twice.

Explanation of Each Class

Class 1: Parts of the Human Body

The pancreas, liver, stomach and heart are all internal organs of the human body. The heart pumps blood, the stomach receives and digests food, the liver performs hundreds of chemical tasks including purifying the blood, and the pancreas produces digestive juices and the hormone insulin. They belong together because all four are parts of human anatomy, studied in biology under the systems of the body. Note that all four are internal organs; if the list had contained external parts such as the hand or the eye, the class would simply have been named "parts of the human body", exactly as it is named here.

Class 2: Food, Drinks and Condiments

Seven items are things connected with the table. Water, juice, milkshake and lemonade are drinks — liquids taken to quench thirst or for nourishment. Jam and ketchup are condiments and spreads: jam is a sweet preserve of fruit eaten with bread, and ketchup is a sauce used to add flavour to food. The remaining item, printed as "souse", is a food item (a pickled food preparation); on the basis of the whole list it plainly belongs to the food group and to no other. The basis of this class is use at meals: everything in it is consumed by, or served with, eating and drinking.

Class 3: Communication and Entertainment Devices

The mobile phone and the telephone are instruments of two-way communication: they exist so that people can talk across distance. The radio and the television (TV) are instruments of mass

communication and entertainment: they broadcast programmes to many people at once, the radio through sound only and the television through sound and moving pictures. All four are electrical or electronic devices, all four work with signals, and all four connect people with information or with each other, which is why they form one natural class and cannot sensibly be placed with food, organs or subjects.

Class 4: School and College Subjects

History, Urdu, political science and chemistry are disciplines taught in schools and colleges. History studies past events, Urdu is a language and literature subject, political science studies the state, government and politics, and chemistry is the science of substances and their reactions. The class is heterogeneous in content — one language, two social sciences and one natural science — but it is perfectly unified by the chosen basis, which is not the content of the items but their field: all four are subjects of study appearing on a student's timetable and mark sheet.

Class 5: Money and Finance

Only one item remains: “monies”, which is the formal plural of money, used especially in legal and financial writing for sums of money belonging to different accounts or purposes. A class of one member is acceptable in classification when the basis of division genuinely leaves that item alone; forcing “monies” into any other class would break the single-basis rule, because money is neither an organ, nor a food, nor a device, nor a subject. Its separate placement actually proves that the classification has been done honestly.

Points to Remember About Classification

Three lessons from this exercise should be carried into other questions. First, announce the basis before or within the classification, because a classification without a stated basis looks arbitrary. Second, count the items before and after classifying, as done above, to guarantee completeness. Third, expect one or two difficult items in every exercise; deal with them by returning to the basis and asking which class's defining characteristic the item truly possesses, rather than where it 'feels' it belongs. A different writer may choose a different but still consistent basis — for instance, drinks separated from solid foods — and such a classification is also correct provided the basis is single, stated and completely applied.

Conclusion

To conclude, the twenty mixed items resolve into five classes on the single basis of kind or field: four organs of the human body, seven food and drink items, four communication and entertainment devices, four school subjects and one item of money. The classification is complete (twenty items in, twenty items placed), the classes do not overlap, and the basis has been applied uniformly — which are precisely the qualities Unit 3 requires of the classification technique.

Question 6: Classification Essay — "Fruits and Nutrition" (15 Marks)

Question as printed: Write a classification essay of around 200 words on any one of the following topics: (i) Fruits and nutrition (ii) Study discipline (iii) Sea animals. This answer

attempts topic (i), Fruits and nutrition; brief plans for the other two topics are given at the end for guidance.

Introduction

A classification essay takes a broad subject, divides it into classes on one clear basis, and then describes each class in turn. The structure is always the same: an introduction announcing the subject and the basis of division, one section or paragraph for each class, and a conclusion that gathers the whole. This question offers three topics, of which one is to be attempted. The topic chosen here is "Fruits and nutrition." The basis of classification is the chief nutritional contribution each fruit makes to the human diet: some fruits are valued mainly for vitamin C, some mainly for energy, some mainly for fibre and minerals, and some mainly for protective antioxidants and water. The essay itself is of about 200 words, as the question requires; in a guide, however, the essay is followed by an analysis of its structure and by short plans of the two remaining topics, so that a student who receives any of these topics in a test can attempt it with confidence.

The Classification Essay: Fruits and Nutrition (about 200 words)

Fruits are nature's ready-made food, but they do not all nourish the body in the same way, and they may usefully be classified according to their chief nutritional contribution. The first class is the vitamin C fruits, such as oranges, lemons, guavas and strawberries. Their special gift is to strengthen the body's defence system, to keep the skin and gums healthy and to help the body absorb iron from other foods. The second class is the energy fruits, such as bananas, mangoes, dates and grapes, which are rich in natural sugars and carbohydrates. These are the fruits of

labourers, athletes and growing children, for they restore strength quickly and keep the body active. The third class is the fibre-and-mineral fruits, such as apples, pears, figs and pomegranates. Their fibre keeps digestion smooth and prevents constipation, while their potassium and iron support the heart and the blood. The fourth class is the watery and protective fruits, such as watermelon, melon and papaya, which supply water in hot weather and contain antioxidants that protect the body's cells from damage. Thus every class of fruit has its own duty in the diet, and a wise person eats from all the classes rather than depending on one alone.

Analysis of the Essay's Structure

The essay demonstrates the four marks of a sound classification essay. First, the basis of division is announced in the opening sentence itself — "chief nutritional contribution" — so the reader knows the principle before meeting the classes. Second, the four classes are exhaustive for ordinary purposes and do not overlap in their defining quality, even though a real fruit may contain several nutrients; classification always proceeds by the dominant characteristic. Third, each class is treated in the same pattern: it is named, its typical members are listed, and its function in the diet is explained, which gives the essay balance and makes it easy to follow. Fourth, the conclusion does not merely repeat the list; it draws the practical lesson that a balanced diet draws on every class. The length also follows the instruction: the essay is around 200 words (about 215), because in classification essays the examiner is testing organised thinking, not length, and a short, well-divided essay scores better than a long, undivided one.

Guidance for the Other Two Topics

Topic (ii): Study Discipline

If this topic is chosen, classify study discipline by the area of a student's life it governs. Class one is time discipline: fixed hours of study, punctuality and a daily timetable. Class two is place and environment discipline: a quiet, fixed place of study, free of the mobile phone and other distractions. Class three is method discipline: reading actively, making notes, revising regularly and testing oneself instead of merely re-reading. Class four is moral discipline: honesty in examinations, regularity in attendance and respect for teachers. The conclusion should state that success in studies is less a gift or talent than the combined product of these four disciplines practised daily.

Topic (iii): Sea Animals

For this topic, classify sea animals by their biological kind. Class one is fish, such as sharks, tuna and sardines, which breathe through gills and are cold-blooded. Class two is marine mammals, such as whales, dolphins and seals, which breathe air, are warm-blooded and suckle their young. Class three is shellfish and crustaceans, such as crabs, prawns and oysters, protected by hard shells. Class four is other sea creatures such as jellyfish, octopus and sea turtles, which fit none of the above neatly. The conclusion can note that the sea contains representatives of nearly every great division of animal life, which is why a single simple basis — biological kind — organises them best.

Common Errors in Classification Essays

Students lose marks in classification essays through three recurring errors, all of which the model essay above avoids. The first error is changing the basis in mid-essay — beginning, for example, by dividing fruits according to nutrition and then drifting into divisions by colour, size or price — which destroys the unity of the classification. The second error is overlapping classes, such as placing the banana both among the energy fruits and, without explanation, among the fibre fruits; where a fruit genuinely serves two functions, the writer should place it by its dominant contribution and may mention the secondary one in a phrase. The third error is a list without commentary: naming the classes and their members but never explaining what each class does or why it matters. An essay is not a table; each class must be discussed, compared quietly with its neighbours and connected to the essay's practical conclusion. Avoiding these three errors is worth as much as the choice of classes itself.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the classification essay on fruits and nutrition divides its subject by nutritional function into vitamin C fruits, energy fruits, fibre-and-mineral fruits and watery protective fruits, treating each class in a uniform pattern within about 200 words. The plans supplied for “study discipline” and “sea animals” show that the same method — one basis, clear classes, uniform treatment, practical conclusion — succeeds on any topic, which is the real skill this question is designed to teach.

Question 7: Cause and Effect — Completing Sentences with Effects (10 Marks)

Question as printed: In Unit 4 of your textbook, you have read about cause and effect writing. Complete the following sentences, giving the effects of every cause mentioned, using the words given in the table. Words given: Thus, So, Therefore, As a result, Consequently. Sentences: (i) They couldn't stand her (ii) Faria worked hard on her homework (iii) Lightning struck a tree (iv) She came home late (v) We forgot to put gas in the car.

Introduction

Every happening in life has a cause — the reason why it happens — and an effect — the result that follows from it. Unit 4 teaches that clear writers signal this relationship openly with a special set of linking words, so that the reader never has to guess which part of a sentence is the reason and which part is the result. When the writer moves from cause to effect, the appropriate signal words are thus, so, therefore, as a result and consequently. This question gives five causes and asks us to complete each sentence with its effect, using the words in the table. Each connector is used once, which is the natural reading of the exercise. Two points of punctuation must be observed: “so” joins two clauses with a comma before it, inside one sentence; while “therefore”, “consequently” and “as a result” normally begin the effect clause after a full stop or a semicolon, and are themselves followed by a comma. “Thus” is used in the same formal way. The completed sentences are given first, and each is then explained.

The Completed Sentences

Table 1: Each cause completed with its effect

No.	Cause (as printed)	Completed sentence with effect
i	They couldn't stand her	They couldn't stand her, so they stopped inviting her to their gatherings.
ii	Faria worked hard on her homework	Faria worked hard on her homework; therefore, she secured the highest marks in the class.
iii	Lightning struck a tree	Lightning struck a tree; as a result, the tree split in two and caught fire.
iv	She came home late	She came home late; consequently, her parents were worried and she missed her dinner.
v	We forgot to put gas in the car	We forgot to put gas in the car; thus, we were stranded on the road far from any petrol pump.

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Explanation of Each Completion

Sentence (i): The cause is a feeling of dislike so strong that the people “couldn't stand her”, that is, could not tolerate her company. The natural social effect of such a feeling is avoidance, so the effect supplied is that they stopped inviting her to their gatherings. The connector “so” is the most conversational of the five, which suits this everyday social situation. Sentence (ii): Faria's hard work on her homework is a cause in the academic field, and its proper effect must also be academic: success in the form of the highest marks in the class. “Therefore” is the most logical and formal connector, fitting a result that follows by merit. Sentence (iii): Lightning striking a tree is a physical cause with a physical effect: the enormous electric energy splits the

wood and may set it alight. “As a result” is the clearest general-purpose marker of a consequence and is widely used in science writing for exactly such chains.

Sentence (iv): Coming home late produces two connected effects in a family: the parents worry, and the latecomer misses the meal served at its proper time. “Consequently”, a formal connector, links the cause to these domestic consequences. Sentence (v): Forgetting to put gas (petrol) in the car has an unavoidable mechanical effect: the car cannot run, and the travellers are stranded. “Thus” presents this as the inescapable conclusion of the carelessness. In every case the effect chosen is the most natural and immediate consequence of its cause; this naturalness is what the examiner tests, because an effect that is merely grammatically attached but logically unrelated - for example, “Faria worked hard on her homework; therefore, it rained” — earns no marks.

The Five Connectors Compared

Table 2: Effect-connectors, their tone and punctuation

Connector	Tone	Usual punctuation pattern
so	Informal, everyday	cause, so effect (one sentence)
therefore	Formal, logical	cause; therefore, effect
consequently	Formal	cause; consequently, effect
as a result	Neutral, very common	cause; as a result, effect
thus	Formal, conclusive	cause; thus, effect

Students should note that four of the five connectors are near-synonyms and differ mainly in formality, so the choice among them is a matter of style; the non-negotiable part of the skill is identifying which idea is the cause and which is the effect, and joining them in the right order. A reliable test is to insert the question words: ask “Why?” of the effect and the cause answers it;

ask “What happened then?” of the cause and the effect answers it. If both questions work in that direction, the sentence is correctly built.

A Short Practice Note

The surest way to make cause-and-effect writing automatic is to practise it on the material of daily life for a few minutes every day. Take any event reported in a newspaper or observed at home — a power failure, a rainstorm, a team's victory, a rise in the price of flour — state its cause in one clause and its effect in another, and join them in two different ways: once with the cause first (“Because the rain was heavy, the streets were flooded”) and once with the effect first and a connector from this question's table (“The rain was heavy; consequently, the streets were flooded”). Reversing the same pair in this manner teaches the hands what the rules in this answer teach the mind. Within a few weeks the connectors cease to be memorised items and become habits, and the student begins to notice weak writing elsewhere — in notices, reports and even textbooks — wherever an effect is asserted with no cause attached, or a cause is left dangling with no result drawn from it. That critical awareness is the deeper aim of Unit 4.

Conclusion

To conclude, the five sentences have been completed by supplying the most natural effect of each stated cause and by signalling the relationship with the given connectors, each used once and punctuated correctly. Cause-and-effect writing of this kind is the foundation of scientific explanation, news reporting and argument, and mastery of these five small words removes one of the commonest sources of confusion in students' English.

Question 8: Cause and Effect — Completing Sentences with Causes (10 Marks)

Question as printed: In Unit 4 of your textbook, you have read about cause and effect writing. Complete the following sentences, giving a cause of every effect mentioned, using the words given in the table. Words given: Because, As, Since, For this reason, This is why. Sentences: (i) _____ the town was flooded. (ii) _____ I missed the party. (iii) _____ the cake burned. (iv) _____ we ran out of gas. (v) _____ she was late for school.

Introduction

Question 7 moved from cause to effect, this question reverses the direction. Here the effect is given and the writer must supply the cause that produced it. In English, a cause placed before its effect is normally introduced by the subordinating conjunctions because, as or since, which turn the cause into a subordinate clause: “Because the river overflowed, the town was flooded.” Two of the expressions in the table, “for this reason” and “this is why”, behave differently: they do not introduce a cause at all — they introduce the effect after the cause has been stated, as in “The river overflowed; for this reason, the town was flooded.” A complete and honest answer must therefore do two things: fill the five blanks with because, as and since, the connectors that can grammatically stand before an effect, and separately demonstrate the same five relationships rearranged so that “for this reason” and “this is why” are also used correctly. Both parts are given below, so that every word in the printed table is accounted for and the student learns the direction in which each connector works.

The Completed Sentences (Cause Before Effect)

Table 1: Each effect completed by supplying its cause

No.	Effect (as printed)	Completed sentence with cause supplied
i	the town was flooded	Because the river overflowed its banks after several days of heavy rain, the town was flooded.
ii	I missed the party	Since I was suffering from a high fever that evening, I missed the party.
iii	the cake burned	As the cake was left in the hot oven for too long without being checked, the cake burned.
iv	we ran out of gas	Because we had driven a long distance without stopping to refuel, we ran out of gas.
v	she was late for school	Since her school bus had broken down on the way, she was late for school.

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The Same Relationships Using “For This Reason” and “This Is Why”

Table 2: Cause first, effect introduced by the remaining two expressions

Relationship	Sentence
i (flood)	The river overflowed its banks after several days of heavy rain; for this reason, the town was flooded.
v (late for school)	Her school bus had broken down on the way; this is why she was late for school.
ii (missed party)	I was suffering from a high fever that evening; this is why I missed the party.
iv (out of gas)	We had driven a long distance without stopping to refuel; for this reason, we ran out of gas.

Comparing the two tables teaches the central lesson of this question: because, as and since look backwards to a reason and can open a sentence, whereas for this reason and this is why look forwards to a result and must stand between the cause and the effect. “For this reason” literally means “because of the reason just mentioned”, and “this is why” means “this (the cause just stated) explains the following fact”. Placing either of them in the blanks of the printed sentences would produce ungrammatical English — “For this reason the town was flooded” states an effect while pretending to give a cause — which is precisely the trap this exercise is designed to expose.

Explanation of the Causes Supplied

For sentence (i), a town is flooded when water enters it in quantity, and the most standard cause is a river overflowing after heavy rain; the cause supplied therefore names both the rain and the overflowing river, the immediate agent. For sentence (ii), missing a party requires a personal obstacle, and illness is the most natural and acceptable one; “since” is used because it presents the cause as something already understood or evident, which suits an explanation offered to friends. For sentence (iii), a cake burns only if it receives heat for too long, so the cause supplied is the cake being left unchecked in a hot oven; “as”, the third of the subordinating connectors, is the natural choice when the cause describes the circumstances in which the effect occurred. For sentence (iv), running out of gas is explained by the long drive without refuelling — the exact mirror image of Question 7, sentence (v), where the same negligence produced the effect of being stranded. For sentence (v), lateness for school is most plausibly caused by transport failure, and the broken-down bus gives a cause that is outside the girl's own control, which is the kind of cause such an explanation usually needs.

Rules to Remember

- When the cause comes first in the sentence, use because, as or since, and put a comma at the end of the cause clause: “Because it rained heavily, the match was cancelled.”
- When the effect comes first, no comma is normally used before because: “The match was cancelled because it rained heavily.”
- As and since are slightly more formal than because and often suggest that the cause is already known to the reader.
- For this reason and this is why never introduce a cause; they introduce an effect whose cause has just been mentioned.
- Always test the completed sentence by asking “Why did the effect happen?” — the cause clause must answer that question exactly.

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Conclusion

In conclusion, the five effects have been completed with believable causes introduced by because, since and as, and the remaining two expressions of the table have been shown in their correct position, introducing effects after stated causes. Together, Questions 7 and 8 give the student full command of the cause-and-effect relationship in both directions, which is one of the most frequently used patterns in academic and everyday English writing.