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Registration No.:

Course Code: 0221

Program: Matric

Semester: Autumn 2026

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Allama Iqbal Open University

Functional English (221)

Level: Matric

Department of English

Semester: Autumn 2026

Assignment No. 1 (UNITS 1-4)

Total Marks: 100 Pass Marks: 40

SOLVED ASSIGNMENT GUIDE — For Study & Reference

Note to students: This guide is for study and reference only. Read each answer, understand it, and then write your assignment in your own words. Do not copy it word for word. Where a model letter, CV or personal description is given, replace every personal detail with your own. Details in model pieces that are not taken from the printed booklet are illustrative.

Booklet defects and honest notes: (1) Assignment 1, Question 8 prints two portrait photographs with no names or captions — the guide describes them by position (left / right) from their visible features only and does not guess any identity. (2) Assignment 1, Question 5 prints the phrase 'a 15-year-old adult' exactly as quoted in that question — the paragraph is written for a fifteen-year-old, as evidently intended. (3) Assignment 1, Question 9 refers to a chart on page 69 of the course book; that chart is not reproduced in the booklet, so the guide applies its descriptive method to model descriptions and tells students to adapt every detail to their own father and teacher.

Question 1

Q.1 Read Unit 1, page no 11. Read the following words carefully and separate countable and uncountable nouns and place them in the relevant column. i. bread, ii.flour, iii. gallon of water, iv. bananas , v. beef, vi. oil, vii. laptop, viii. money, ix.can, x. aeroplane (10)

Introduction

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A noun is the name of a person, place, thing or idea, but nouns do not all behave in the same way when we count them. Some things in the world come in separate, individual units that we can pick up, point to and number one by one, while other things come as a mass, a substance or an abstract amount that has no natural separate units. English grammar marks this difference clearly, and Unit 1 introduces it because so many later choices depend on it: whether we use a or an, whether we use some or any, whether we say much or many, and whether the noun takes a singular or a plural verb. This question therefore tests a foundation, not a memory list.

The Completed Answer

Countable items	Uncountable items	Reason / Note
bananas (iv)	bread (i)	Bananas are separate fruits; bread is a mass measured by loaf or slice.
laptop (vii)	flour (ii)	A laptop is one separate machine; flour is a powder measured by weight.
can (ix)	beef (v)	A can can be counted; beef is meat as a substance, measured by weight.
aeroplane (x)	oil (vi)	An aeroplane is one separate vehicle; oil is a liquid measured by litre.
gallon of water (iii) — see note	money (viii)	Money is treated as an uncountable amount; we

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		count coins, notes or rupees.

Transparency note on item (iii): the phrase as printed is 'gallon of water'. The word gallon is a countable unit — we can say one gallon, two gallons, three gallons — while water itself is uncountable. The phrase is therefore placed in the countable column as a measured unit phrase, and the student should understand both halves of it: we count the gallons, we do not count the water. In the same way, money is placed with the uncountable nouns because English treats money as an amount; the countable words in that area are coin, note, rupee and dollar. These two items are the real test in the list, because they punish a student who simply guesses from the object instead of thinking about how English uses the word.

The Rule Explained

A countable noun has both a singular and a plural form, it can be used with a, an and numbers, and it answers the question 'How many?' We can say a laptop, two laptops, many laptops and few laptops, and each sentence is natural. An uncountable noun normally has no plural form, it cannot be used directly with a, an or a number, and it answers the question 'How much?' We cannot say two breads, three moneys or a flour in ordinary English; instead we add a measuring word and say two loaves of bread, three kilograms of flour, or a sum of money. That measuring word, called a partitive, is what makes counting possible.

Notice also that the verb follows the noun. A countable singular takes a singular verb — the laptop is new — and a countable plural takes a plural verb — the bananas are ripe. An uncountable noun, even when it names a large amount, takes a singular verb: the money is safe, the oil was spilt, the flour has finished. Students lose easy marks by writing 'the informations are' or 'the furnitures are', because information and furniture are uncountable in English although their equivalents may be countable in another language. Learning the class of a noun is therefore

a habit to build with every new word, preferably by learning the word together with an example sentence.

How to Decide About a New Noun

Three quick tests settle most doubtful cases. First, try putting a number directly before the noun: if 'three —' sounds natural, the noun is probably countable. Second, try adding s to make a plural and using it in a sentence about separate items: 'three chairs are in the room' works, while 'three waters are in the room' does not, unless we mean bottles or kinds of water in a special sense. Third, ask whether the thing can be divided into smaller parts and still remain the same thing. Cut bread and it is still bread; pour out half the oil and it is still oil. Cut a laptop in half and it is no longer a laptop at all — it is a broken object. Substances survive division; individual things do not.

Some nouns can be both, depending on meaning, and a good student mentions this rather than pretending the rule is absolute. Chicken is uncountable when it means meat on a plate and countable when it means the living bird in a yard. Paper is uncountable as material and countable when it means a newspaper or an examination paper. Glass is the material, but a glass is a drinking vessel. These double uses do not break the rule; they show that it is the meaning in the sentence, not the spelling of the word, that decides the class. In this question, however, each of the ten printed items has one clear intended class, as shown in the table.

Common Mistakes

The commonest mistakes are adding s to uncountable nouns (advices, informations, furnitures, breads), using a or an before them (a money, an oil), using many instead of much (many money), and forgetting the measuring word in shopping sentences. A shopkeeper understands 'two bread, please', but the correct request is 'two loaves of bread, please' or simply 'a loaf of bread'.

Similarly we say a piece of advice, a bottle of oil, a kilo of flour, a slice of bread and a glass of water. Writing these partitive phrases in this answer, even though the question only asks for two columns, shows the examiner that the classification is understood and not memorised.

Conclusion

In short, bananas, laptop, can and aeroplane are countable because they name separate individual things, the printed phrase 'gallon of water' is countable as a unit phrase while water itself is uncountable, and bread, flour, beef, oil and money are uncountable because they name substances or amounts that must be measured rather than numbered. Once this distinction is clear, the next question on some and any becomes much easier, because those two words are chosen largely by whether the sentence is positive, negative or a question, and by the kind of noun that follows them. The student should revise the ten items with their measuring phrases until the classification feels automatic.

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Question 2

Q.2 Read Unit 1, pages 11, 12. Use "some" or "any" in the following blanks. (10) 1. We need ..... bananas. 2. She always takes ..... sugar with her coffee. 3. Then you must give me ..... more money. 4. I went to the butcher, but I didn't buy ..... meat. 5. My friend didn't make ..... mistakes in the exam. 6. Sidra didn't make ..... mistake. 7. Have you got ..... brother? 8. There are ..... flowers in Jasmine Garden. 9. Did Ali buy ..... rice? 10. Sophia went to buy ..... milk but she didn't find ..... in the shop.

Introduction

The words some and any are determiners used before nouns when the exact number or amount is not stated, not known or not important. They are small words, but choosing between them is one of the most frequent decisions in everyday English, made in shopping, in requests, in questions

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and in refusals. Unit 1 places this exercise immediately after countable and uncountable nouns because some and any are used with both kinds: some bananas and some sugar, any mistakes and any meat. The general rule taught at this level is simple and reliable: some is used in positive statements and any is used in negative statements and in questions. The completed sentences below apply that rule item by item, and the explanation that follows shows the exceptions a careful student should also know.

The Completed Sentences

No.	Completed sentence	Why
1	We need some bananas.	Positive statement.
2	She always takes some sugar with her coffee.	Positive statement.
3	Then you must give me some more money.	Positive statement; 'some more' means an additional amount.
4	I went to the butcher, but I didn't buy any meat.	Negative: didn't.
5	My friend didn't make any mistakes in the exam.	Negative: didn't.
6	Sidra didn't make any mistake.	Negative: didn't. (As printed, the noun is singular.)
7	Have you got any brother?	Question form. See the note below.
8	There are some flowers in	Positive statement.

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	Jasmine Garden.	
9	Did Ali buy any rice?	Question form.
10	Sophia went to buy some milk but she didn't find any in the shop.	First blank positive (some); second blank negative in meaning (any).

A note on item 7: within the choice this exercise offers — some or any only — any is the required answer because the sentence is a question. In completely natural everyday English a speaker would more often ask 'Have you got a brother?' or 'Do you have any brothers?', and the student may note that difference without changing the exercise answer. Item 6 should likewise be copied as printed in the booklet: the negative word didn't is what forces any. Item 10 is the most instructive item in the set because a single sentence contains both answers: the intention to buy is positive, so some milk, but the failure to find is negative in meaning, so any, with the noun milk understood and not repeated.

The Rule Explained in Full

Some means an amount or number, but not a large or exact one. It keeps the sentence indefinite: 'We need some bananas' does not say four or fourteen; it says a quantity is needed. Any in a negative sentence means none at all: 'I didn't buy any meat' means the amount bought was zero, and the word any strengthens that zero. Any in a question leaves the answer completely open: 'Did Ali buy any rice?' can be answered yes or no, and the speaker genuinely does not presume either. That is why any, not some, is the neutral choice in most questions, and why changing the word can change the attitude of the speaker even when the facts stay the same.

There is one important exception that good students learn early. Some is used in questions when the question is really an offer or a request, or when the speaker expects the answer yes. 'Would

you like some tea?' is an offer, so some is natural, while 'Is there any tea?' is a neutral enquiry. 'Can I have some water, please?' is a request, so some is used although the sentence is interrogative in form. None of the ten printed items is an offer or request of that kind, so the simple positive–negative–question rule gives every answer in this exercise, but knowing the exception prevents confusion when the student meets one in a question in real reading or conversation.

Some and Any with Countable and Uncountable Nouns

Both words work with plural countable nouns and with uncountable nouns, but never with a singular countable noun in the ordinary way. We say some bananas and any mistakes with plurals, some sugar and any rice with uncountables, but we do not say 'some brother' or 'any laptop' to mean one indefinite item; there English uses a or an. This is why item 7 feels unusual, and noticing that feeling is a sign of growing grammatical sense. The compounds somebody, something, somewhere and anybody, anything, anywhere follow the same pattern: 'Someone is at the door' is positive, 'I did not see anyone' is negative, and 'Did anyone call?' is a question. Learning the family together is more efficient than learning each word alone.

Common Mistakes and How to Avoid Them

Students most often use some in negatives ('I didn't buy some meat'), any in plain positives ('There are any flowers in the garden'), and double negatives borrowed from their first language ('I didn't buy no meat'), which is not standard English. A reliable checking method is to look first for a negative signal — not, n't, never, no, without, hardly — and then to check whether the sentence is a question. If either signal is present, choose any, unless the sentence is an offer or request expecting yes. If neither is present, choose some. Applying the check in that order to all ten items takes only a few seconds and produces the table above without guessing.

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Conclusion

The answers are: some, some, some, any, any, any, any, some, any, and some followed by any in the last sentence. Behind those short answers stands a clear system: some for positive statements and for offers and requests, any for negatives and neutral questions, and either word with plural countable and uncountable nouns but not with a single countable item. A student who can explain each choice in one phrase, as the table does, has learned more than a student who fills the blanks correctly by instinct, because the explanation is what transfers to new sentences in examinations, shopping, travel and everyday conversation.

Question 3

Q.3 Read Unit 1, page numbers 16, 17, 18. Make formal or informal requests in the following situations. (10) 1. You are in a library, and you require the librarian to help you search for books. 2. You are in the centre of an unknown city, and you want to find a way to the post office and you request a passerby. 3. Your father is sick, and you want to get a seat for him on the metro bus. How will you request a boy? 4. You are in your school, and you want to pay school dues. How will you borrow five hundred rupees from your class fellow? 5. You are not able to use a computer, but you have to apply for admission online. How will you request your senior school fellow to fill out the admission form online?

Introduction

A request asks another person to do something for us, and in English the words of a request do social work as well as practical work. The same need can sound polite, rude or ridiculous depending on the form chosen, the relationship with the listener, and the size of the favour being asked. Unit 1 therefore teaches formal and informal requests together: formal language, built with Could you, Would you, Would you mind and I would be grateful, is used with strangers,

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elders and officials, while informal language, built with Can you and short friendly forms, is used with friends and class fellows of our own age. The five situations below are deliberately mixed — a librarian, a stranger, a fellow passenger, a class fellow and a senior — so that the choice of form is itself part of the answer.

The Five Requests

Situation	Request	Formal or informal?
1. Librarian	Excuse me, Madam/Sir. Could you please help me search for books on Functional English? I would be grateful if you could show me the relevant shelf.	Formal — the librarian is an official and an elder in the setting.
2. Passerby / post office	Excuse me, please. Could you kindly tell me the way to the post office? I am new in this city.	Formal — a complete stranger is always addressed politely.
3. Seat on metro bus	Excuse me, please. My father is sick. Would you mind giving him your seat, please? I shall be very thankful to you.	Formal and gentle — a favour is being asked for a sick elder.
4. Borrow Rs 500 from a class fellow	Please lend me five hundred rupees. I have to pay my	Informal — a close class fellow; the promise to repay

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	school dues today, and I will return the money tomorrow, I promise.	is part of the request.
5. Senior school fellow / online form	Could you please fill out my online admission form for me? I am not able to use a computer, and I shall be really grateful for your help.	Polite / semi-formal — a senior is senior, so respect is kept even inside school.

Each request follows the same safe pattern: an opening that wins attention politely (Excuse me), the request itself in a modal form (Could you, Would you mind), the word please placed naturally, and, where the favour is large, a short reason or a word of thanks in advance. Giving a reason is not weakness; research and common experience both show that people agree more readily when they understand why help is needed. 'My father is sick' transforms the seat request, and 'I have to pay my dues today' transforms the loan request, because the listener can see an urgency rather than a habit.

Formal and Informal Language Compared

Formal requests avoid the imperative, the bare command form. 'Help me find the books' orders the librarian; 'Could you please help me to find the books?' asks her, and the difference is the whole lesson. Formal forms use modal verbs in the past form — could and would — not because the time is past but because the past form sounds more distant and therefore more respectful in English. They add softeners such as please, kindly, just and possibly, they use titles such as Sir and Madam, and they often end with gratitude: 'I would be very grateful.' Informal requests to

friends can be shorter — 'Can you lend me your pen?', 'Pass the book, please' — because the relationship itself supplies the warmth that formal words supply with strangers.

Grammar points deserve attention. After Would you mind, English uses the -ing form: 'Would you mind giving him your seat?', never 'Would you mind to give'. After Could you and Can you, the base form of the verb is used without to: 'Could you tell me the way?', not 'Could you to tell me'. In requests for things rather than actions, the pattern is Can I have, Could I have or May I have: 'May I have the catalogue, please?' Finally, intonation matters in speech: a request normally ends with a gentle rise or a soft fall, never with the sharp falling tone of a command, and the written please is the closest equivalent of that tone on paper.

Answering a Request

A complete lesson on requests also teaches the replies, because a student in a real library or bus must handle both sides of the exchange. Polite acceptances include 'Certainly', 'Of course', 'Sure, here you are', 'No problem' and 'I would be happy to help.' A polite refusal never consists of a bare 'No'; it gives a reason and, if possible, an alternative: 'I am sorry, I cannot lend money today because I have to pay my own dues, but you may ask the class teacher for a day's extension.' In situation 3, if the boy agrees, the correct close is thanks — 'Thank you very much; you are very kind' — and if he himself is unwell or is about to get down, he may explain briefly, and the requester should accept the answer gracefully and ask someone else.

Common Mistakes

The mistakes in this area are mostly social rather than grammatical. Asking a stranger 'Tell me the way to the post office' without Excuse me sounds like an order. Demanding money from a friend without naming repayment ('Give me five hundred rupees') damages the friendship even if the money is given. Using overly grand language to a close friend ('I would be extremely grateful

if you could possibly pass the salt') sounds comic rather than polite, which shows that formality must match the relationship. Finally, many students translate an Urdu politeness formula word for word and produce unnatural English; the remedy is to learn whole English request patterns, as in the table, and reuse them with small changes.

Conclusion

The five model requests show one principle in five settings: the greater the distance, age difference or size of favour, the more formal the language must be. A librarian and a stranger receive Could you with Excuse me, a fellow passenger is asked with Would you mind for the sake of a sick father, a class fellow is asked informally but with a clear promise to repay, and a senior is asked with respect because seniority itself creates distance. A student who masters these patterns owns a life skill, not only an examination answer, because requests are made every day at home, at school, in offices and in public places.

Question 4

Q.4 Read Unit 2. The following people have certain health problems. What would you suggest to them? Follow the example: (10) Problem: Nasir has a bad stomachache. Suggestion: Take time off from work and consult a doctor immediately. 1. He smokes cigarettes, and he has lung cancer. 2. Samina has toothache because of not brush her teeth regularly. 3. Atif has been bruised when he fell on the road. 4. They have sneeze in cold weather. 5. My son is very weak and underweight.

Introduction

Unit 2 teaches the language of health: naming common problems and, just as importantly, giving suitable suggestions in clear, kind English. A suggestion is neither a command nor a medical prescription. In this exercise it is made with forms such as You should, You ought to, You had

better, Why don't you, and with direct but gentle imperatives following the printed example — 'Take time off from work and consult a doctor immediately.' The suggestions below are general, educational suggestions of the kind a textbook exercise expects; they are not a diagnosis or a treatment plan for any real person. Serious or continuing symptoms always belong to a qualified doctor, and several answers say exactly that, because advising a patient to see a doctor is itself the most responsible suggestion of all.

The Five Problems and Suggestions

Problem (as printed)	Suggestion
1. He smokes cigarettes, and he has lung cancer.	He should stop smoking completely at once and consult a specialist doctor / oncologist immediately and follow the treatment advised. His family should support him, and he should take a healthy diet and complete rest as the doctor directs.
2. Samina has toothache because of not brush her teeth regularly.	Samina should brush her teeth twice a day, in the morning and before going to bed, use a soft brush and toothpaste properly, avoid too many sweets, and visit a dentist for the present toothache.
3. Atif has been bruised when he fell on the road.	Atif should wash the bruised part gently with clean water, apply a clean dressing / antiseptic as advised, rest the injured part, and see a doctor if there is heavy bleeding, swelling or

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	severe pain.
4. They have sneeze in cold weather.	They should keep themselves warm, wear warm clothes, cover the nose and mouth in cold air and dust, take warm drinks, and consult a doctor if the sneezing continues, as it may be an allergy or a cold.
5. My son is very weak and underweight.	You should give him a balanced and nourishing diet — milk, eggs, fruit, vegetables, pulses and meat in suitable amounts — at regular times, encourage play and proper sleep, and take him to a doctor for a check-up to find the cause of his weakness.

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The five problems form a sensible teaching set because they require different kinds of suggestion. The first is a grave illness in which a harmful habit must stop and specialist care must begin; nothing less would be honest. The second is a problem of daily habit, so the suggestion corrects the habit and adds a dentist for the pain that already exists. The third is an injury, where the first steps are cleanliness, protection and rest, with a doctor if warning signs appear. The fourth is a seasonal, repeating discomfort, where prevention — warmth and covering the nose and mouth — matters as much as any medicine. The fifth is a general condition of a growing child, where food, routine and a medical check-up work together. Matching the kind of suggestion to the kind of problem is the skill being marked.

The Language of Suggestions

English offers a ladder of strength for advice. 'You could take a warm drink' is a mild possibility. 'You should see a dentist' is clear advice and is the workhorse form of this unit. 'You ought to stop smoking' carries a sense of duty. 'You had better see a doctor at once' is stronger and warns of consequences if the advice is ignored. 'You must consult a specialist' is the strongest and suits only the gravest case, item 1. Questions can also advise gently: 'Why don't you wear a warm cap?' and 'How about taking some rest?' Imperatives, as in the printed example, are acceptable in textbook suggestions and in emergencies, but adding please or a softener keeps them kind. A student who varies these forms across five answers shows range; a student who begins every line identically shows only one memorised pattern.

Health Habits Behind the Suggestions

Read together, the five answers teach a small code of healthy living. Do not poison the body: smoking damages the lungs and is linked with cancer, and giving it up is the first step in any honest advice to a smoker. Keep the body clean: teeth, wounds and hands all become sources of illness when cleanliness is neglected, and both Samina's toothache and Atif's bruise are, in different ways, lessons in hygiene. Respect the weather: dressing for cold air prevents many seasonal troubles before they start. Feed the body properly: weakness and low weight in a child are most often answered first at the table, with regular, varied, nourishing food. And know the limit of home care: a doctor is not a last resort for the rich but the proper guide whenever pain is severe, bleeding is heavy, a symptom repeats, or an illness is serious.

A Note on Kindness in Advice

How a suggestion is spoken matters, especially to a patient. Advice should never mock, frighten unnecessarily or blame: telling a cancer patient only that he has ruined himself is cruel and useless, while telling him firmly to stop smoking, to begin treatment and to accept his family's

support gives him actions he can take today. With a child such as Samina, the tone should encourage a new habit rather than shame her for the old one. In examination writing this kindness appears as tone words — gently, regularly, at once where urgency is real, and as soon as possible where it is not — and examiners reward answers that sound like a sensible, caring person rather than a list of orders.

Common Mistakes

Grammatical mistakes in this question usually involve the verb after should, ought to and had better. Should and had better are followed by the base verb: 'He should stop', not 'He should stops' or 'He should to stop'. Ought is the exception that keeps to: 'He ought to stop.' Students also copy the booklet's own loose phrasing — item 2 prints 'because of not brush her teeth' where careful English writes 'because of not brushing her teeth' — and the student should write the corrected form in the answer while quoting the question as printed. Finally, vague suggestions such as 'He should take care' or 'She should take medicine' earn little; each suggestion must name a concrete action, and where medicine is concerned the action is to consult the doctor or dentist who can prescribe it.

Conclusion

The five suggestions, in one line each, are: stop smoking completely and take specialist treatment at once; brush twice daily and see a dentist; clean and protect the bruise, rest it and see a doctor if it worsens; keep warm and covered in cold weather and seek advice if sneezing persists; and feed the weak, underweight child a balanced diet with regular routine and a doctor's check-up. Together they practise the suggestion forms of Unit 2 — should, ought to, had better and the gentle imperative — and they model the attitude the unit is really teaching: practical, hygienic, kind, and always ready to hand serious illness over to a qualified doctor.

Question 5

Q.5 Read Unit 2. Write a paragraph about a balanced diet for a 15-year-old adult. (10)

Introduction and a Note on the Wording as Printed

Transparency note: the question is quoted exactly as printed, including the phrase 'a 15-year-old adult'. A fifteen-year-old is, strictly, an adolescent or teenager, not an adult, and the paragraph below is therefore written for a fifteen-year-old boy or girl in the growing years, which is plainly the intended meaning. No word limit is printed for this paragraph in the booklet, so none is invented; the model paragraph is kept to a single, well-developed paragraph as the question directs, and the discussion around it explains the choices made inside it.

The Model Paragraph

A balanced diet for a fifteen-year-old is a diet that gives the growing body everything it needs, in the right amounts, at the right times. At this age the body is building bones, muscles and the brain at great speed, so the daily food must include all the main food groups: energy-giving carbohydrates such as roti, rice, bread and potatoes; body-building proteins such as milk, eggs, meat, fish, chicken, pulses and lentils, which repair the body and make it grow; protective foods such as fresh vegetables and fruits, which supply vitamins and minerals and guard against disease; a small amount of fats and oils, which provide energy and warmth; and plenty of clean water throughout the day. Breakfast should never be missed, because it starts both body and mind for school; lunch should be wholesome rather than heavy; and dinner should be lighter and taken early. Milk or yoghurt should appear daily for strong bones and teeth, an egg or a portion of pulses should appear at one meal, and green vegetables and a seasonal fruit should not be treated as luxuries but as necessities. At the same time, a fifteen-year-old should limit junk food, fizzy drinks, too many sweets and very salty or fried snacks, because these fill the stomach while

starving the body of real nourishment. Eaten regularly, in moderate portions and with variety, such a diet keeps a teenager active, attentive in class, resistant to common illness and at a healthy weight — neither weak and underweight nor lazy and overweight — which is exactly what a balanced diet means.

Why Each Food Group Is There

The paragraph is built on the standard division taught in Unit 2, and each group earns its place by a different job. Carbohydrates are the body's fuel; without them a student feels tired before noon and cannot concentrate. Proteins are the building material; a growing teenager who eats too little protein may eat enough in quantity yet still remain weak, which connects this question with the underweight child of Question 1. Vitamins and minerals from fruit and vegetables are the protective group; they do not fill the stomach dramatically, but they decide how often a student falls ill. Fats are necessary in small amounts and harmful in large ones, which is why the paragraph says 'a small amount'. Water, often forgotten in diet answers, carries food through the body, controls temperature and prevents the headaches and tiredness that students wrongly blame on study alone.

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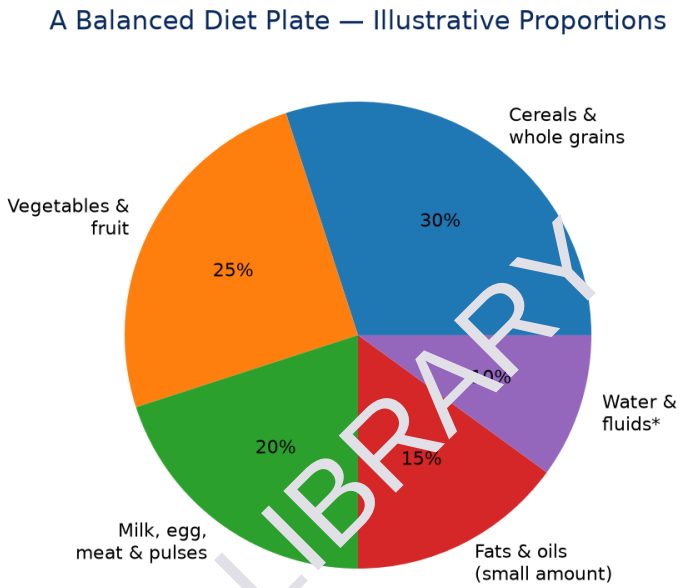


Figure: A balanced diet plate. The proportions shown are illustrative teaching proportions, not figures printed in the booklet.

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A Sample Day, in Words

To make the idea concrete, imagine one ordinary day on this diet. Breakfast is a glass of milk, an egg and roti or bread, eaten before leaving for school rather than skipped in the morning rush. At midday there is roti or rice with dal, sabzi or a piece of chicken, plus salad or yoghurt where available. In the afternoon a seasonal fruit — banana, guava, apple or orange according to price and season — replaces a packet of chips. Dinner is a lighter version of lunch, finished well before sleep, and water is taken through the day instead of fizzy drinks. Nothing in this day is expensive or foreign; every item is available in an ordinary Pakistani bazaar, which is an important point, because a balanced diet is a matter of combination and regularity more than of cost.

What 'Balanced' Really Means

Three words inside the phrase deserve emphasis. First, variety: eating only one favourite food, however good it is, cannot supply everything, so the plate must change across the week. Second, proportion: balance is spoiled both by too little food, which produces the weakness discussed in Question 4, and by too much of the energy foods, which produces overweight and laziness. Third, regularity: three sensible meals at fixed times do more good than one huge meal, and skipping breakfast and then overeating at night is the commonest way students unbalance an otherwise adequate diet. Cleanliness belongs to balance too — washed hands, washed fruit and clean water — because food that carries germs cannot nourish, however well chosen it is.

Mistakes Teenagers Commonly Make With Food

Four eating mistakes are so common at fifteen that a diet paragraph is incomplete without warning against them. The first is skipping breakfast and then eating heavily at night, which reverses the body's needs, since energy is required in the school hours and rest at night. The second is replacing water with fizzy drinks, which add sugar and gas but no nourishment and damage the teeth discussed in Question 4. The third is eating while watching a screen, which hides the signals of fullness and leads to thoughtless overeating. The fourth is copying the diet fashions of friends or of the internet — skipping whole food groups to look thin — which at a growing age can stunt the very growth the diet exists to support. A balanced diet is therefore also a set of habits: eat at tables, at times, with attention, and let no fashion remove milk, fruit or a whole group from the plate of a growing student.

Conclusion

A balanced diet for a fifteen-year-old, then, is not a special or costly diet but an ordinary diet properly combined: carbohydrates for energy, proteins for growth, fruit and vegetables for protection, a little fat, plenty of water, regular timings and strict limits on junk food and fizzy

drinks. The model paragraph above states all of this in a single paragraph suitable for direct study, and the explanation shows why each sentence is there. A student writing in the examination should adapt the foods to what is actually eaten at home, keep the paragraph to one paragraph as directed, and remember that the aim at fifteen is growth — of body, of mind and of the habits that will protect health for the rest of life.

Question 6

Q. 6 Read Unit 3. Write five causes of pollution in our country and suggest some ways to keep our environment clean. (10)

Introduction

Pollution is the dirtying of air, water and land by harmful substances that human activity releases faster than nature can clean them. Pakistan, like every country that is building cities, factories and transport quickly, suffers from all its main forms at once, and Unit 3 asks the student to do two things: name five real causes in our country, and then move from complaint to remedy by suggesting ways of keeping the environment clean. A good answer therefore has two balanced halves. Causes without remedies sound hopeless, and remedies without causes sound empty. The five causes below are causes, not merely types: each one names the human activity that produces the pollution, because only an activity can be changed.

Five Causes of Pollution in Our Country

Cause	How it pollutes	Visible result
1. Smoke from vehicles	Millions of cars, buses, rickshaws and motorcycles, many old and poorly maintained, burn petrol and	Smog in winter, burning eyes, coughs and breathing trouble, especially in large cities.

	diesel and release smoke and gases into the air of our cities.	
2. Factory waste and smoke	Factories release smoke from chimneys and throw untreated chemical waste and dirty water into rivers, canals and open land.	Poisoned river water, dead fish, foul air around industrial areas.
3. Throwing garbage in the open	Households and shops throw rubbish, plastic bags and waste into streets, plots, drains and streams instead of into bins and proper dumping places.	Blocked drains, heaps of filth, flies, mosquitoes and disease.
4. Burning of waste, crop remains and fuel wood / coal	Open burning of rubbish and crop stubble and the burning of wood and coal for cooking and heating fill the air with thick smoke.	Seasonal smog, grey skies, worsened asthma and chest illness.
5. Dirty water and sewage mixing with clean water; loud noise	Sewage and waste water are drained into rivers and groundwater, while horns, machinery and loudspeakers create constant noise	Unsafe drinking water, stomach diseases, stress and disturbed sleep and study.

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	pollution.	

Behind these five causes stand three deeper habits. The first is carelessness: most litter is dropped by a person who would never dirty his own courtyard in the same way. The second is weak enforcement: laws about factory waste, vehicle fitness and dumping exist, but a rule that is never checked soon stops being obeyed. The third is growth without planning: cities have expanded faster than their drainage, waste collection and public transport, so even a willing citizen often finds no bin, no collection service and no bus. Naming these roots matters because the remedies must answer them — personal habit, enforcement and planning together — and a remedy list that only says 'we should be careful' has not understood its own causes.

Ways to Keep Our Environment Clean

At the personal and home level, every citizen can throw waste only into bins or proper places, separate wet and dry waste where the system allows, reduce plastic bags by carrying a cloth bag, keep the front of his own house and shop clean, plant and protect trees and plants, and save water and electricity so that less fuel is burnt to produce them. At the community level, schools, mohalla committees and mosques can organise cleaning days, place shared bins, stop the open burning of rubbish, and teach children that a clean street is a shared duty, not the sweeper's private problem. Children are powerful agents here: a student who stops his own family from throwing a wrapper from a car window has changed real behaviour.

At the government and industry level, factories must treat their waste before releasing it and must be inspected and fined when they do not; vehicles must pass fitness and smoke tests, and good public transport must be provided so that fewer private vehicles crowd the roads; city governments must collect waste regularly, build proper landfill and recycling arrangements, and keep sewage out of drinking-water sources; and tree plantation on a large scale must be protected

after planting, not merely photographed on the day. Laws already cover much of this; the suggestion that matters is consistent enforcement on the powerful as well as the weak, because a factory that may pollute freely makes a mockery of asking a child not to drop a wrapper.

Why a Clean Environment Is a Health Subject

Unit 3 places pollution among health topics for a reason the next question makes explicit: dirty air, water and surroundings produce disease. Floods spread through blocked drains, stomach illnesses spread through polluted water, chest illnesses grow in smoky air, and mosquitoes breeding in standing dirty water carry fever from house to house. Money spent on prevention — bins, drains, treated waste, trees — is therefore not decoration; it is cheaper than the same money spent later on hospitals and medicines. There is also a moral and religious dimension that students in our country understand naturally: cleanliness is valued in our faith and culture, public cleanliness is simply private cleanliness extended to the street we share with others, and harming neighbours with our smoke and waste is a social wrong, not only a technical one.

The Role of Schools in This Work

Schools deserve a special mention among the remedies because they hold the next generation in one place every day. A school that keeps its own grounds clean, places bins and actually uses them, plants and tends trees rather than merely planting them for a photograph, teaches the pollution lesson of this unit in the laboratory of its own courtyard. Students can be given class duties for cleanliness, poster and speech activities on the environment, and a green corner or small garden maintained by their own hands; a child who has watered a plant for a term does not casually break branches or litter the street outside. Inter-school cleanliness competitions, visits to a river or a factory with a teacher's commentary, and honest discussion of the local smog or flood the students themselves have seen turn a textbook chapter into civic training, and the habits

formed at school travel home with the student into the family, which is where most waste decisions are actually made.

Conclusion

The five causes — vehicle smoke, factory waste and smoke, open garbage, open burning, and sewage in clean water together with noise — are all human activities, and that is the hopeful fact in this answer, because what human beings cause they can also stop. The remedies match them at three levels: personal habits of disposal, planting and restraint; community organisation in schools and neighbourhoods; and government enforcement, waste systems, clean transport and protected plantation. A clean environment will not come from a single campaign or a single department; it will come when the citizen, the community and the state each stop waiting for the other two, and this is the conclusion a Unit 3 answer should reach.

Question 7

Q.7 Read Unit 3, page numbers 52, 53. Write five causes of the following problems with words "because, as, since". i. flood, ii. pneumonia, iii. diarrhoea, iv. heat stroke, v. dust allergy. Follow the example: Example: Toothache: I have a severe toothache because I did not take care of my dental hygiene. (10)

Introduction

This question joins grammar to health knowledge. The grammar target is the set of cause words because, as and since, which introduce the reason for something. The health target is five common problems — flood, pneumonia, diarrhoea, heat stroke and dust allergy — and for each the student must write causes, following the printed example: 'I have a severe toothache because I did not take care of my dental hygiene.' Note the shape of the example: the problem is stated first, the cause word follows, and a clause giving the real reason completes the sentence.

Because, as and since are interchangeable in most such sentences, with small differences of position and formality explained below, and a strong answer uses all three across the set instead of repeating because five times.

The Five Problems and Their Causes

Problem	Cause sentences using because / as / since
i. Flood	Floods occur because heavy rain falls in a short time and the rivers cannot carry the extra water. Whole districts are flooded as blocked drains and encroachments on natural waterways leave the rainwater nowhere to go. Since forests on the hills have been cut, rainwater rushes down quickly instead of soaking into the ground.
ii. Pneumonia	A child may get pneumonia because germs enter the lungs through the air he breathes. He falls seriously ill as his chest infection is not treated in time. Since he is weak and poorly fed, his body cannot fight the infection.
iii. Diarrhoea	People suffer from diarrhoea because they drink dirty water containing germs. A baby gets diarrhoea as the feeding bottle was not washed and boiled properly. Since sewage mixes with drinking water in many places,

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	stomach infections spread from house to house.
iv. Heat stroke	A labourer may suffer heat stroke because he works for long hours under the hot sun without rest or water. He collapses as his body temperature rises beyond control. Since he was not wearing a cap and had not taken enough water and salts, the heat overcame him.
v. Dust allergy	She sneezes and her eyes water because she is allergic to dust. She avoids going out on windy days as dust in the air makes her breathing difficult. Since the carpets and bedding at home hold dust, her allergy troubles her even at night.

Each problem is given more than one cause sentence so that the student can see the pattern repeated with different cause words, but in the examination one clear cause sentence for each problem, correctly built, earns the substance of the marks; the extra sentences here are study support. Observe what every sentence does: it names a cause that is genuinely a cause. Blocked drains really do worsen floods, germs in the lungs really are the mechanism of pneumonia, polluted water really does carry diarrhoea, prolonged sun and water loss really do produce heat stroke, and inhaled dust really is the trigger of a dust allergy. A sentence that merely restates the problem — 'He has a dust allergy because he is allergic' — says nothing and would earn nothing.

Because, As and Since Compared

Because is the commonest and strongest of the three and answers a Why question directly; it is also the only one of the three that can stand at the front of a short answer: 'Why were you absent? Because I was ill.' As and since are slightly more formal and often carry the sense 'given that everyone knows'; they are comfortable at the beginning of a sentence: 'As the drains were blocked, the street flooded', 'Since the water was dirty, the children fell ill.' Because can also begin a sentence in modern English — 'Because the rain was heavy, the river rose' — which older school grammars sometimes discouraged. In all three cases the word is followed by a clause with its own subject and verb, not by a bare noun: we write 'because of the rain' with of when only a noun follows, but 'because it rained' without of when a clause follows. Confusing because and because of is the chief error in this exercise.

The Health Lesson Inside the Grammar

Writing causes is also a way of learning prevention, because almost every cause named above points to its own remedy. If floods worsen because drains are blocked, drains can be cleared before the rains and waterways can be kept free of building. If pneumonia grows worse as treatment is delayed, early consultation with a doctor becomes the obvious duty. If diarrhoea spreads since water is polluted, boiling or safely storing drinking water and washing hands become daily habits. If heat stroke strikes because a worker takes neither rest nor water, shade, water and rest breaks in the hot season are simple protections. If dust allergy troubles a person because dust collects at home, regular cleaning, washed bedding and covering the nose and mouth outside are practical steps. Grammar that teaches a student to state causes accurately is therefore also teaching him to think like a person who can prevent illness.

Common Mistakes

Apart from the because / because of confusion, students write sentence fragments after because — 'Because he was ill.' standing alone as a whole answer where a main clause is required — and they place a comma wrongly or start every sentence with the same word, losing the variety the question is designed to test. Some also give effects instead of causes: 'The flood came because many houses were damaged' reverses the truth, since damaged houses are the flood's result, not its reason. A quick test protects against this: read the because part and ask, 'Could this happen first and produce the problem?' If the answer is no, the sentence needs to be turned around. Finally, spelling of the five problem words should follow the booklet: diarrhoea and pneumonia in particular must be copied carefully.

Conclusion

The completed answer gives real causes for all five problems in correct cause clauses, rotating because, as and since exactly as the question instructs and following the printed toothache example in shape. Flood is traced to heavy rain, blocked drains and lost forests; pneumonia to germs and delayed care; diarrhoea to dirty water and unclean feeding; heat stroke to sun, exertion and water loss; and dust allergy to inhaled dust at home and outside. A student who masters this pattern can explain the reason for anything in clear English, and, just as valuably, has practised the habit of looking for the cause behind a problem instead of merely naming the problem itself.

Question 8

Q. 8 Read Unit 4. Look at the pictures of two famous personalities and describe their facial features. (10)

Introduction and a Necessary Transparency Note

Transparency note: the booklet prints two portrait photographs for this question but prints no names and no captions with them. This guide therefore does not guess or invent the identity of

either person. The portraits are described exactly as they appear, by position — the personality on the left and the personality on the right — and only their visible facial features are described, which is in any case what the question asks: it asks for facial features, not for biographies. If a student's own course book (Unit 4) names the personalities, the student may add the names from the book; nothing in the descriptions below depends on a name. This honest handling is deliberate: inventing an identity for an unlabelled photograph would be a defect in an assignment, not a strength.

The Personality on the Left — Facial Features

The portrait on the left shows an elderly man photographed from the front, slightly turned, against a plain indoor background. His most striking feature is a very long, full, flowing white beard that covers his chin, cheeks at the lower side and much of his chest, with a white moustache joining it; the beard is neatly kept rather than wild, and its whiteness dominates the whole picture. He wears a dark, close-fitting cap or topi on his head, below which a high, broad forehead is visible, marked with the natural lines of age. His eyebrows are thick and dark against his white beard, his eyes are deep-set and appear calm and thoughtful under slightly heavy lids, and his gaze is directed a little to one side of the camera rather than straight into it. His nose is long and straight, his cheekbones are somewhat prominent with the hollowing that age brings to the cheeks, and his mouth is mostly hidden by the moustache and beard. The skin of his face is weathered and wrinkled, especially on the forehead and around the eyes, and the overall expression is grave, peaceful and dignified — the face of a man of advanced age who appears accustomed to thought and patience rather than display.

The Personality on the Right — Facial Features

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The portrait on the right shows a middle-aged man in a head-and-shoulders photograph, facing the camera almost squarely, wearing a collared uniform-style shirt. His hair is dark, cut short at the sides and combed flat with a side parting, lying close to the head. His face is comparatively smooth and full rather than wrinkled: the forehead is broad and unlined in the photograph, the eyebrows are straight and fairly heavy, and the eyes look directly forward with a hard, fixed, unsmiling stare. His most distinctive facial feature is a very small, narrow, dark moustache confined to the strip of skin immediately below the nose and not extending towards the corners of the mouth — a toothbrush-style moustache, quite different from an ordinary full moustache. His nose is straight and medium in size, his cheeks are clean-shaven and slightly rounded, his lips are thin and closed firmly in a straight line, and his chin and jaw are firm and squarish. The overall expression is stern, severe and unsmiling, the exact opposite in mood of the gentle, aged face on the left, although the second face is much younger and smoother.

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The Two Faces Compared

Feature	Personality on the left	Personality on the right
Age shown	Elderly; wrinkles and white beard	Middle-aged; smooth, unlined face
Beard / moustache	Very long full white beard with moustache	No beard; very small narrow moustache below the nose only
Hair / head covering	Dark cap worn; hair mostly covered	Dark hair, short, side-parted, combed flat
Eyes and gaze	Deep-set, calm, looking slightly aside	Direct, fixed, hard stare at the camera

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Expression	Grave, peaceful, dignified	Stern, severe, unsmiling

Comparison is a valuable part of a description answer because it organises detail. Both portraits are of men, both are front-facing head-and-shoulders photographs in black and white, and both faces are serious rather than smiling; there the similarity ends. Age separates them first: one face is written over by time, the other is still smooth. Hair separates them second: flowing white beard and cap on one side, flat dark hair and the tiny moustache on the other — indeed each face has one feature so prominent that a reader could identify the portrait from that feature alone. Expression separates them third and most memorably: calm dignity against stern severity. A description that reaches this comparative paragraph shows the examiner observation, vocabulary and organisation together.

The Vocabulary of Facial Description

Unit 4 equips the student with a stock of words that this answer uses deliberately: face shape (oval, round, square), complexion (fair, dark, wheatish, weathered), forehead (high, broad, wrinkled), eyes (deep-set, bright, sharp, calm), eyebrows (thick, thin, straight), nose (long, straight, pointed), moustache and beard (full, trim, flowing, small), lips (thin, full, closed), chin and jaw (firm, pointed, square) and expression (smiling, grave, stern, gentle, thoughtful). The correct method is to move in an order — general impression, then forehead, eyes, nose, mouth area, chin, and finally expression — rather than jumping randomly from beard to eyes to hair and back. Order is what turns a heap of adjectives into a portrait a reader can see. The diagram in Question 9 shows the same order applied to describing any person.

Conclusion

Without inventing names the booklet does not print, the two personalities have been described fully from what the photographs actually show: on the left, an elderly man with a long flowing

white beard, a dark cap, deep-set calm eyes and a grave, dignified expression; on the right, a middle-aged man with flat side-parted dark hair, a very small narrow moustache, thin firmly closed lips and a stern, unsmiling stare. The contrast between the two faces — age against middle age, fullness of beard against the smallest of moustaches, peace against severity — is the natural conclusion of the description and the point a student should carry into Question 9, where the same skills are applied to familiar, living people.

Question 9

Q.9 Read the chart given on page 69 of Unit 4 carefully and describe the following people, (10)

i. Your Father ii. Your Teacher

Introduction and a Note About the Chart

Transparency note: this question refers to a chart given on page 69 of Unit 4 of the course book. That chart is in the course book; it is not reproduced in this assignment booklet, and its exact contents are therefore not quoted or invented here. What follows applies the standard method such a chart teaches — describing a person in an order, under heads such as general appearance, height and build, face, hair, eyes, dress and manner — to the two people named, father and teacher. The descriptions are model descriptions: they are written warmly and concretely so that a student can follow their pattern, but every student must replace the details with the true details of his or her own father and own teacher. Copying another person's father into your assignment would be both dishonest and easily noticed.

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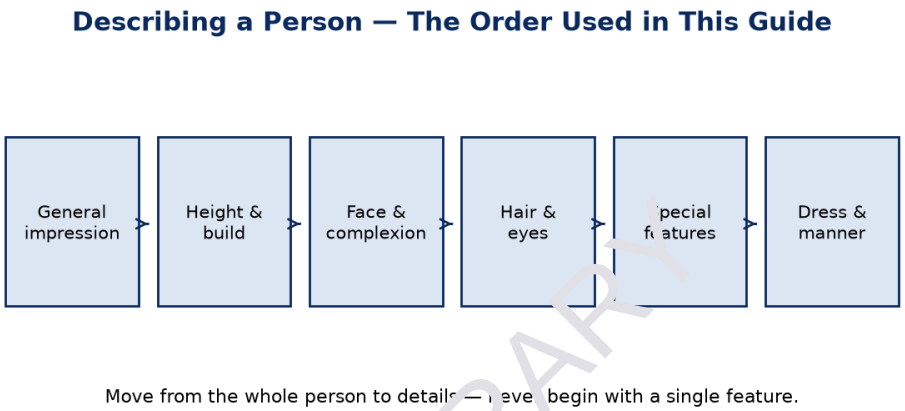


Figure: The order of a personal description, from general impression to dress and manner. The chart on page 69 of the course book should be consulted for its own wording.

Model Description (i): My Father

My father is a tall, well-built man of about forty-five years, and the first impression he gives is of strength joined with gentleness. He is about five feet and nine inches in height, with broad shoulders and an upright walk that makes him easy to recognise even in a crowd. His face is oval and wheatish in complexion, with a broad forehead that now shows a few lines when he is thinking or worried. His hair is black, cut short and combed to one side, with grey appearing at the temples, and he keeps a small, neatly trimmed moustache. His eyes are dark brown, deep and kind; they become sharp when he is examining my school work and soften at once when he is pleased. His nose is straight, his teeth are even, and his smile, which shows when he is among family, is the feature most of us remember him by. He dresses simply and cleanly — shalwar kameez at home and in the mohalla, and a shirt and trousers, or a waistcoat over shalwar kameez, on formal occasions — and his shoes are always polished, because he believes a clean appearance is a form of respect for others. In manner he is quiet, hardworking and patient: he

speaks little, listens fully, works long hours for the family without complaint, helps neighbours in their difficulty, and has never, in my memory, raised his voice in anger inside the house.

Model Description (ii): My Teacher

My teacher is a graceful, dignified lady of about thirty-five years, of medium height and slim build, and she enters the classroom with a neatness that itself teaches a lesson before she speaks a word. Her face is fair and oval, with a smooth forehead and a calm expression that seldom changes into anger. Her hair is dark brown, long and neatly tied, and covered decently with a dupatta which she arranges with care. Her eyes are large, dark and bright — the most noticeable feature of her face — and a single look from them across the classroom is usually enough to restore silence, although she also smiles readily when an answer pleases her. Her nose is small and straight, her voice is clear, soft and perfectly audible to the last bench, and she speaks English and Urdu with equal correctness, writing on the board in a hand so neat that our notebooks try to copy it. She wears clean, simple and graceful dresses in soft colours, never anything showy. In manner she is kind but firm: she reaches the class on time, prepares her lesson fully, explains a difficult point twice without irritation, knows the names and the weaknesses of her students, encourages the shy ones to answer, and treats every child in the class as if he or she were her own responsibility.

What Makes a Description Good

These two models succeed, if they do, for four reasons that the page-69 chart exists to teach. First, order: each moves from general impression to height and build, to face feature by feature, to dress, and ends with manner, so the reader builds the person steadily. Second, selection: a description does not list everything, which would be a census form, but chooses the few features by which the person is actually recognised — the father's smile and upright walk, the teacher's

bright eyes and clear voice. Third, honest warmth: both descriptions are affectionate, but neither claims perfection in a way that sounds false; the father's forehead lines and the teacher's firmness are human details that make the praise believable. Fourth, the ending on character: a person is finally remembered not for a nose or a chin but for patience, hard work, kindness and fairness, and a description that stops at the face has stopped halfway.

Adapting the Models to Your Own Family and School

A student should now do the real work of the question. Sit for two minutes and picture your own father: his real height, the actual state of his hair, whether he keeps a beard or a moustache or neither, the dress he truly wears, and the one habit or quality everyone in the family associates with him. Do the same for your teacher — choosing the teacher who knows you best — and note her or his real features, voice, dress and way of treating the class. Then write two paragraphs in the order used above, changing every detail that differs. If your father is of medium height, write medium; if your teacher is a gentleman, describe him. The examiner is not marking the handsomeness of your father; he is marking whether your English can observe a real person and report the observation in an order, and truthful detail always reads better than borrowed finery.

Conclusion

Father and teacher are the two most fitting subjects for a first lesson in description, because one is known by love at home and the other by respect at school, and both are known so well that the student has no excuse for vagueness. The models given here describe a tall, upright, grey-templed, patient father and a neat, bright-eyed, kind but firm teacher, moving in each case from appearance to character. Used as a pattern rather than a copy, they satisfy the question and teach its lasting skill: to look at a familiar person with fresh attention and to turn what you see into clear, ordered, honest English.

Question 10

Q.10 Read Unit 4. Write a letter to your friend and describe a picnic party in Murree, which you recently enjoyed in the winter. Describe the natural beauty of Murree, its attractive greenery atmosphere, mountains covered with snow, valleys with fog, forests with heavy green trees, and the weather, etc., in such a way that your friend feels the beauty of nature (10)

Introduction

An informal letter to a friend is judged on two things at once: correctness of letter form, and liveliness of the description inside it. The form is simple — the writer's address and date, a warm greeting, paragraphs that flow like conversation, a friendly closing and the writer's name — and this question adds a descriptive duty: the friend, who was not there, must be made to feel the beauty of Murree in winter through the letter. Every element the question names must therefore appear: the natural beauty of Murree, its greenery, the snow-covered mountains, the valleys filled with fog, the forests of heavy green trees, and the winter weather. The model letter below contains all of them; its address, date and names are illustrative and must be replaced with the student's own. No word limit is printed for this letter in the booklet, so none is invented.

The Model Letter

House No. 12, Street 4, [Your Town]. 12 January 2027. My dear Ahmed, Assalam-o-Alaikum! You will be glad to know that last week I enjoyed a picnic party in Murree with my family and two cousins, and the whole day I kept wishing that you were with us, so I am writing this letter to take you there in words, since you could not come in person.

We reached Murree in the morning, and the first sight itself took our breath away. All around us the high mountains stood covered with pure white snow, shining in the pale winter sunlight like heaps of silver, while between them the deep valleys lay filled with soft white fog, so that the

hills seemed to float on a sea of clouds. On every slope rose forests of tall, heavy green pine trees, their dark green branches carrying caps and lines of snow, and the contrast of white snow and deep green trees was so beautiful that we simply stood and looked for some minutes without speaking. The air was cold, fresh and sweet-smelling, quite different from the dusty air of our town; our breath came out in little clouds, our hands and cheeks tingled, and yet the cold felt pleasant rather than painful because the sun was shining and we were warmly dressed.

We spread our sheets at a pleasant spot and had our picnic: hot tea from the thermos, sandwiches, fruit and the home-made food my mother had packed, and I assure you that ordinary food tastes extraordinary in such air and such surroundings. After eating, we walked along the road, threw soft snow at one another, made a small snowman with a carrot for a nose, and took photographs against the white mountains and green forests, while the fog slowly climbed up from the valleys and wrapped the lower trees in its white veil before our eyes. By evening the cold had increased, the sky had turned golden and then grey, and we started for home with tired feet and completely happy hearts. Dear friend, Murree in winter is not merely a place; it is a feeling of peace, purity and gratitude to Allah Who has created such beauty. Next winter, I promise, we shall plan this picnic together, and you shall see with your own eyes everything I have tried to show you in this letter. Please remember me to your family. Your loving friend, [Your Name].

How the Letter Does Its Descriptive Work

Notice the techniques by which the letter makes the absent friend 'feel' the beauty, as the question demands. It appeals to more than sight: the reader sees the silver mountains and fog-filled valleys, but also feels cold air tingling on cheeks, sees breath making clouds, smells the fresh pine air and tastes hot tea and home food in that air. Description that uses several senses

convinces; description that uses sight alone reads like a list. It also uses comparison — mountains like heaps of silver, hills floating on a sea of clouds — because a simile carries a scene to a reader who has never seen it. And it arranges the day in time order, arrival, first sight, picnic, games, evening departure, so that the friend travels through the day with the writer instead of receiving a heap of unconnected beauties.

Letter Form and Language Points

The informal letter keeps the friendliness of its level throughout: the greeting is 'My dear Ahmed', the contractions and direct remarks to the reader ('you will be glad to know', 'I assure you') reproduce conversation, and the closing is affectionate rather than official. Contrast this with a formal letter, which would carry a subject line, 'Dear Sir' and 'Yours faithfully' — none of which belongs here, and students lose marks by mixing the two styles. Paragraphing also matters: address and date, greeting, the journey and scene, the picnic itself, and the closing invitation each begin fresh, which lets the examiner award content marks point by point. Tenses are mainly past, correctly, because the picnic is finished, while the promise about next winter properly uses the future — a small accuracy examiners notice.

Conclusion

The model letter satisfies the question on both its levels: as a letter, it is complete in form, warm in tone and correct in its mainly past narration; as a description, it delivers every element the question names — Murree's natural beauty, green atmosphere, snow-covered mountains, fog-filled valleys, forests of heavy green trees and sharp, pleasant winter weather — and it works through the senses so that the friend feels present. A student should copy its method, not its day: write about the picnic you actually took or can honestly imagine, name your own friend, keep

every required element, and let one or two comparisons and sensory details do the work that pages of loose praise cannot.

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