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I. Comprehension and Vocabulary

Now read the following paragraphs and answer questions following them:

1. People are the Prime Polluters

People are beginning to realize that the world may end, as T.S. Eliot wrote, "not with a bang but whimper" - the cry of a new-born child. The human race is literally committing suicide by producing the myriad wastes and pollutants of an ever-more-industrialized world.

In Europe, environmental pollution has become a supranational crisis.

Scandinavia: Once clichés for cleanliness, Scandinavians find themselves fouled increasingly with filth. Norway's aquamarine fjords are awash with stinking cakes of solid wastes, while fish die by the thousands, gills glued together by paper mill effluents pumped into rivers and lakes.

France: Carbon monoxide in bloodstreams of volunteers who stood for three hours in Paris' most air-polluted areas jumped 30%.

Italy: Infections picked up at polluted beaches near Rome this summer have sent typhoid fever soaring to near-epidemic proportions.

Germany: That great European sewer, the Rhine, picks up 15.6 million cubic yards of waste yearly en route to Holland, which the Dutch now phlegmatically call 'the rubbish bin of the world.'

European anti-pollution delegates recently heard Prince Philip of Great Britain, which has a remarkably good anti-pollution record, describe the U.S.'s Lake Erie: "It is so polluted that if anyone falls into it they don't drown, they just decay."

Oil is the single greatest pollutant on earth. When one tanker, the Torrey Canyon, hit a reef in 1967, the spilled oil devastated almost 200 miles of Cornish and Breton beaches. The Torrey Canyon disaster aroused a general awareness that oil pollution alone could destroy man's seemingly fail-safe 20th century culture.

Circle the best choice:

1. The prime polluters. Prime here means:

- a. primeval.
- b. first.
- c. original.
- d. principal.

2. From the first sentence one may conclude that so far people had always thought that the world would end:

- a. by some explosion.
- b. in an interstellar collision.
- c. all of a sudden.
- d. in utter silence.

3. Scandinavians, once clichés for cleanliness. This means that:

- a. Scandinavian was another word for clean.
- b. Scandinavians were proud of their cleanliness.
- c. only Scandinavians were considered clean.
- d. Scandinavians were always associated with cleanliness.

4. Increasingly means:

- a. more and more.
- b. more often.
- c. gradually.
- d. continually.

5. Paris' most air-polluted areas are to be found:

- a. in the suburbs.
- b. in the town-centre.
- c. near the car-parks.
- d. in the big stores.

6. Typhoid fever soared to near-epidemic proportions, because:

- a. it suddenly broke out as an epidemic.
- b. it looked almost like an epidemic.
- c. it spread so quickly that it became almost epidemic.
- d. the temperature of patients rose to unprecedented height.

7. The Rhine is considered:

- a. dusty.
- b. a pollutant.
- c. wasteful.
- d. filthy.

8. What Prince Phillip said about Lake Erie was:

- a. the truth.
- b. a lie.
- c. a figure of speech.
- d. sheer nonsense.

9. Oil is the single greatest pollutant, means that:

- a. it is the only one.
- b. it is the greatest by far.
- c. oil is an exceptional pollutant.
- d. oil is totally different from other great pollutants.

10. "A general awareness" suggests that:

- a. people all over the world began to realize.
- b. it became generally known.
- c. the whole world was alarmed.
- d. the conscience of the world was awakened.

2. Happy Memories

What souvenirs do you bring back from your holiday? Postcards, perhaps a framed picture or a map of the seaside resort, or perhaps some of those stickers for the windows of the car.

Well, last week I saw someone who takes all her holiday memories with her wherever she goes. She's an elderly lady whom I spotted coming out of the tourist information centre in Glasgow with the help of her trusty walking stick. As she came down the steps, I saw that her cane was covered with stickers from all over Britain. Among them I saw Brighton, the Tower of London, Blackpool, the Lake District, Edinburgh, and now a "Glasgow's Miles Better" sticker.

A passer-by smiled and pointed to the stick. She smiled back, and as I went by, I overheard her telling proudly that her stick was a talking point among her neighbours, and how the children from round about all asked to see the walking stick with its souvenirs, and to hear stories about the places she'd

been. Soon the two ladies were chatting away, and as they set off down the street, I wondered how many new friends she had made in the same way.

I hope her Glasgow sticker brings just as many happy memories.

A. Answer the following questions:

1. Who is the most important person in this story?
2. Where was she?
3. What was so special about her?
4. Do you remember some of the places she had visited?
5. Why was the walking stick important?
6. What does the title tell you about the lady's holiday?

B. Read the text again, and then find words or expressions that mean about the same as:

1. things given or kept for remembrance
2. a photograph with a wooden or metal edge around it
3. holiday place on the coast
4. rather old
5. noticed, saw
6. good old
7. her bamboo walking stick
8. something that was talked about
9. talking in a friendly way
10. began to walk along

C. Some more questions:

1. Where does the story take place?
 - a. England.
 - b. Scotland.
 - c. Wales.
 - d. Ireland.
2. In line 4 all her holiday memories means:
 - a. her walking stick
 - b. the stickers on the stick
 - c. everything she remembers

3. The words down in lines 9 and 20 have two different meanings:
Is this true or false?

3. Calling Names

When twin daughters were born to the King of Siam, he called them Night and Day. Day's hair was lighter in colour than her sister's, so it was easy to remember which daughter was which.

Two more daughters were born, and things became a little more complicated. However, the King was equal to the situation. He changed the names of the twins, and called them and their two sisters after the four seasons, Spring, Summer, Autumn and Winter.

In the course of time, he fathered three more girls, so another change was made. The King decided to give his daughters the same names as the days of the week.

When the Queen presented him with an eighth daughter, he thought again. "I'll make sure we have enough names this time," he said. "My daughters shall be named after the months of the year." "There are only twelve months," his wife objected. "And all this name-changing is very confusing."

But the King was a methodical man, and the one thing he never changed was his mind, once it was made up. The girls were given their new names, January, February, March, and so on, through to August, all in Siamese, of course. The Queen could not change this if she tried.

A ninth daughter arrived, and she was Princess September. "That leaves only October, November and December," said the Queen. "After December we shall have to start all over again with more names. I can't stand it!" "Oh, no, you're wrong," replied the King. "Twelve daughters are enough for any man. It's time I had a son. After the birth of dear little December I shall be reluctantly compelled to cut off your head."

Although he was capable of making so dreadful a threat, the King had a sentimental nature. He was very fond of the Queen, and she knew he would be upset if she lost her head. So would she!

However, there was no need for worry. September was their final daughter. The Queen gave birth only to sons in the following years, and they were called by the letters of the alphabet. Since the latest son was J, there were plenty of letters left.

All this changing of names had made the girls ill-tempered and disagreeable, particularly the older ones whose names had been changed several times. But the youngest daughter, September, was sweetness itself. She had always been known as September, except by her sisters, who called her all sorts of names.

A Princess can be charming when her name remains unchanged.

A. Circle the best answer:

1. *In line 6 we read that the king was equal to the situation. This means that he:*

- a. did not hesitate for a moment.
- b. had been faced by the same situation before.
- c. knew exactly what he was going to do.
- d. was able to deal with the problem.

2. *The word shall in line 15 expresses:*

- a. how seriously the King took the situation.
- b. the conclusion the King had reached.
- c. the future.
- d. the will of the king.

3. *Why did the King keep changing the names of his daughters?*

- a. Because he always did everything systematically.
- b. Because he could not change his-mind if he tried.
- c. Because he did not know what else he could do.
- d. Because it made it easier to remember the names.

4. *The word reluctantly in line 31 shows that the king:*

- a. did not like the idea of killing the Queen.
- b. had made a firm decision.
- c. meant exactly what he said.
- d. never changed the plans he had made.

5. *The word so in line 35 refers back to:*

- a. be upset
- b. lost her head
- c. she knew
- d. was very fond

6. How many children did the queen have?

- a. 16 b. 17 c. 18 d. 19

7. Why did September's sisters call her all sorts of names?

- a. Because she was sweet and they were ill-tempered.
b. Because she was the least disagreeable of them all.
c. Because they blamed her for the changes in their names.
d. Because they preferred using pet names.

4. Cycling in China

We were alone in a green plain of rice fields. There we were in the middle of China, land of 1000 million people, and all we could see was one chap waving as he cycled to market with 50 live chickens in cages on the back of his bike. All we could hear in the sub-tropical heat was the swish of tyres in the softening tar and the throb of diesels powering tractors and canal barges. Free to stop where we liked, and covered in sweat and dust, we felt closer to the 'real' China than coach-bound tourists. We, two Britons, had joined one Australian, four Canadians and 12 Americans on a "China Passage" cycle tour in Beijing (Peking) 10 days earlier. We had started with gentle rides to the Forbidden City, the Summer Palace and the Ming Tombs. Then, while we rode in the bus, the rest of the party wanted to prove something by cycling up to the Great Wall. We had hardly biked since our schooldays more than twenty years ago but we quickly learned to enjoy riding our hired Chinese sports bikes in the company of thousands of commuting cyclists in the rush-hour bike lanes.

There were no private cars on the well-surfaced roads. No punctures in three weeks. Riding on the right hand side of the road, we were treated with consideration by other vehicles probably because cyclists form the majority of road users.

On country roads, the commonest vehicles were the open-backed commune lorries, rather like drab green US army trucks of the Forties. They were used to transport food and materials to and from the industrial and agricultural communes.

In a country that had been virtually closed to foreigners for 30 years, we were surprised to see younger children running across the paddy fields to

shout a greeting to two middle-aged tourists who slowly pedalled along their country road. Everyone seemed keen to share with us their pride in their community achievement, be it housing project, new hotel, bike factory or rural hospital. Many were keen to practise English, learned initially from television. We would hold a halting conversation - not about the weather (it was always hot) - but about what we had in common, bikes. Overcoming their natural reserve, the Chinese would compare their heavy bikes with our lightweight ones; these seemed to hold for them much the same fascination as early ball-point pens once had for us. But I will remember most the warmth of our welcome, the people, their honesty, our security and the bustling shops and restaurants.

Notes:

1. communes: In China, as in some other countries, people sometimes work and live in groups, much closer together than in normal villages, sharing their work and everything they have.
2. paddy fields: rice fields.

A. Find in the text words or expressions that mean about the same as:

1. small boats for transporting goods.
2. people who tour the country in a bus.
3. people going to their work by bike.
4. they were very careful and polite towards us.
5. almost completely forbidden for.
6. what they had successfully managed to build.
7. what was of interest to both them and us.
8. their inborn shyness.
9. the very friendly way in which they received us.

B. Explain in your own words:

1. a green plain (1)
2. powering (7)
3. joined (10)
4. in the company of (18-19)
5. well-surfaced roads (21)
6. the majority of (24-25)

7. the commonest vehicle (26)
8. everyone seemed keen (35)
9. rural hospital (38)
10. the same fascination (44-45)

C. What words in the text tell you that:

1. the man cycling to market had seen the two Britons
2. it was indeed extremely hot
3. the first trips were rather easy
4. the trip to the Great Wall was more difficult
5. you only saw lorries on the road
6. they didn't have any flat tyres
7. ten years ago such a trip wouldn't have been possible
8. the first English words were learned from television
9. it was not very easy to talk with the Chinese people they met on their trips
10. they felt safe wherever they went

D. Questions:

1. Mr. Stevens says in 9 that he and his friend felt closer to the real China. What does he contrast this "real China" with?
2. What famous tourist attractions did they see?
3. What made it so easy for these tourists to ride their bikes even though they hadn't done so since their schooldays?
4. Why does Mr. Stevens mention the fact that he had to ride on the right hand side of the road (22)?
5. From note 1 you know what communes are. How can you think what may be meant by industrial and what by agricultural communes (29-30)?
6. Why was he surprised (32) that the Chinese children greeted them so warmly?
7. Why do you think that the Chinese did not have such light-weight hikes (43)?

5. Sums in the nursery

Children develop so rapidly, particularly between the ages of three and five, that it is a real deprivation to deny them experiences which will help them forward. The place of mathematics in this scheme of things is at first sight more debatable. Maths in the nursery? Whatever next?

The word mathematics conjures up horrors, of old maths (fractions never quite understood, tables never quite remembered), of the new maths (strange talk of sets and matrices and homework we can't help with) and a nightmare of three-year-olds doing "simple addition and subtraction sums". All these horrors can, and must, be done away with. And sums in the nursery must be the first to go.

Children don't learn by chanting tables, particularly very young children. They learn by doing, by having a variety of experiences from which they can eventually abstract some general idea. The younger the child, the more important the concepts rather than the skills to which they lead; later on, each is useless without the other.

So what are the concepts behind simple sums? Before a child can understand that five is more than three he will need the idea of ordering - which he can get from bringing some sticks of different lengths and sorting them out in order from the shortest to the longest. He will also need the idea of inclusion (these three cream buns are included in that plateful of five cakes). He'll need other concepts, too, before even such an innocent statement as $2 + 3 = 5$ can be made with conviction, pleasure or complete understanding of what it means.

Adults can all give child enormous help so long as they don't talk too much, give the game away, or block the children's thoughts. "Come along, dear, we're going to play with this lovely clay this morning, let's see what we can make with it, I think I can make a lovely elephant, come along, what about the trunk..." That poor child will have made a mental note that whatever he takes up as a career it won't be sculpture.

Much better to intervene not by leading the child, but by picking up what he's doing.

One common reaction is "Why are they spending all the day messing about with sand and water instead of doing some sums?" Perhaps it would help

parents to understand the reason, if we call this activity "pre-sums" like "pre-school". So what about this "sand and water"?

Take sand first. Comparisons can be made between wet and dry sand. Which will pour? Which is heavier? Will this bucket hold more than that container? How much sand can be shared among the three of us?

These are just some of the possibilities. Not that you should swamp all children with such questions; Matthew, the three-year-old who spent the best part of a morning filling his tipper-lorry with sand, dumping it somewhere else and repeating the process, was enjoying the sheer experience of handling the stuff and working spontaneously at his own level. But there is no doubt that the concepts were there literally for the asking.

Circle the best answer:

1. If the place of maths in the nursery is "more debatable" (line 5), then what, by implication, is not really debatable?

- a. that children develop fastest between the ages of three and five.
- b. that children must be given opportunities to develop themselves.
- c. that mathematics should be taught to older children.
- d. that only experience can help children develop more quickly.

2. In the first paragraph the writer asks two questions. By doing so he expresses:

- a. his doubt whether "maths in the nursery" is really a good idea.
- b. his fear that the children may start hating the nursery school.
- c. his feeling that "maths in the nursery" may seem questionable to the layman.
- d. his view that mathematicians may object to maths being taught in the nursery.

3. What is the main point of the second paragraph?

- a. Adults understand little of either old or new maths.
- b. Maths as it is generally understood is out of place in the nursery.
- c. the writer's conception of maths is different from most mathematicians.
- d. Three-year-olds dislike having to do sums.

4. Which of the following is an example of the "skills" mentioned in line 19?

- a. doing "sums" (line 22)
- b. "ordering" (line 24)
- c. "sorting out" (line 26)
- d. "inclusion" (line 27)

5. What is the function of the fourth paragraph ("so what ... means.")?

- a. It forms an introduction to the fifth paragraph.
- b. It says more about the subject of the third paragraph.
- c. It summarizes the preceding three paragraphs.
- d. It weakens the argument of the third paragraph.

6. Why is the child mentioned in line 39 called "poor"?

- a. He has begun to dislike playing with clay.
- b. He is being taught skills for which he is too young.
- c. he is not allowed to work out his own ideas.
- d. He will never wish to become a sculptor.

7. Why does the writer go on at such length about sand and water in line 44? He wants to stress that

- a. as long as children play with these, they are not ready for doing sums.
- b. as long as children play with these, they should not be bothered with doing sums.
- c. by playing with these, children can pick up general ideas necessary for further learning.
- d. by playing with these, children will learn how to deal with practical problems in general.

8. The writer discusses Matthew's behaviour (last paragraph) to point out that:

- a. children at play should not be disturbed.
- b. not all young children are intelligent enough for 'pre-sums'.
- c. not every occasion to teach a child at play need be exploited.
- d. One should never miss an opportunity to teach concepts to a child at play.

6. A Puma at Large

Pumas are large, cat-like animals which are found in America. When reports came into London Zoo that a wild puma had been spotted forty-five miles south of London, they were not taken seriously. However, as the evidence began to accumulate, experts from the Zoo felt obliged to investigate, for the description given by people who claimed to have seen the puma were extraordinary similar.

The hunt for the puma began in a small village where a woman picking blackberries saw 'a large-cat' only five yards away from her. It immediately ran away when she saw it, and experts confirmed that a puma will not attack a human being unless it is concerned. The search proved difficult, for the puma was often observed at one place in the morning and at another place twenty miles away in the evening. Wherever it went, it left behind it a trail of dead deer and small animals like rabbits. Paw prints were seen in a number of places and puma fur was found clinging to bushes. Several people complained of 'cat-like noises' at night and a businessman on a fishing trip saw the puma up a tree. The experts were now fully convinced that the animal *was* a puma, but where had it come from? As no pumas had been reported missing from any zoo in the country, this one must have been in the possession of a private collector and somehow managed to escape. The hunt went on for several weeks, but the puma was not caught. It is disturbing to think that a dangerous wild animal is still at large in the quiet countryside.

Comprehension and Précis

In not more than 80 words describe how experts came to the conclusion that the animal seen by many people really was a puma. Do not include anything that is not in the passage.

Answer these questions in note form to get your points:

1. What sorts of reports were received by London Zoo?
2. Were the reports similar in nature or not?
3. Who saw it first?
4. Did it stay in one place?
5. What did it leave behind it?
6. Were paw-prints and puma fur found as well or not?

7. What was heard at night?
8. Was the animal seen up a tree or not?
9. Were experts now sure that the animal really was a puma or not?

Vocabulary:

Give another word or phrase to replace the following words as they are used in the passage: spotted (1.3); obliged to (1.5); claimed (1.6); extraordinarily similar (2.7); immediately (1.10); convinced (1.20)

7. Thirteen Equals One

Our vicar is always raising money for one cause or another, but he has never managed to get enough money to have the church clock repaired. The big clock night was damaged during the war and has been silent ever since.

One night, however, our vicar woke up with a start: the clock was striking the hours! Looking at his watch, he saw that it was one o'clock, but the bell struck thirteen times before it stopped. Armed with a torch, the vicar went up into the clock tower to see what was going on. In the torchlight, he caught sight of a figure whom he immediately recognized as Bill Wilkins, our local grocer.

'Whatever are you doing up here Bill?' asked the vicar in surprise.

'I'm trying to repair the bell,' answered Bill. 'I've been coming up here night after night for weeks now. You see, I was hoping to give you a surprise.'

'You certainly did give me a surprise!' said the vicar. 'You've probably woken up everyone in the village as well. Still, I'm glad the bell is working again.'

'That's the trouble, vicar,' answered Bill. 'It's working all right, but I'm afraid that at one o'clock it will strike thirteen times and there's nothing I can do about it.'

'We'll get used to that Bill,' said the vicar. 'Thirteen is not as good as one, but it's better than nothing. Now let's go downstairs and have a cup of tea.'

Comprehension and Précis

In not more than 80 words describe what happened from the moment the vicar woke up. Do not include anything that is not in the passage.

Answer these questions in note form to get your points:

1. What woke the vicar up?
2. What was the time?
3. How many times did the clock strike?
4. Where did the vicar go?
5. What did he take with him?
6. Whom did he see in the clock tower?
7. What did Bill Wilkins say he was trying to do?
8. Had Bill Wilkins succeeded in repairing the clock or not?
9. Was the vicar pleased or angry?
10. What did he offer the grocer?

Vocabulary:

Give another word or phrase to replace the following words as they are used in the passage: vicar (1.1); repaired (1.3); damaged (1.6); silent (1.4); with a start (1.6); caught sight of (1.11).

8. The Loss of the 'Titanic'

The great ship, *Titanic*, sailed for New York from Southampton on April 10th, 1912. She was carrying 1316 passengers and a crew of 891. Even by modern standards, the 46,000 ton *Titanic* was a colossal ship. At that time, however, she was not only the largest ship that had ever been built, but was regarded as unsinkable, for she had sixteen water-tight compartments. Even if two of these were flooded, she would still be able to float. The tragic sinking of this great liner will always be remembered, for she went down on her first voyage with heavy loss of life.

Four days after setting out, while the *Titanic* was sailing across the icy waters of the North Atlantic, a huge iceberg was suddenly spotted by a look-out. After the alarm had been given, the great ship turned sharply to avoid a direct collision. The *Titanic* turned just in time narrowly missing the immense wall of ice which rose over 100 feet out of the water beside her. Suddenly, there was a slight trembling sound from below, and the captain went down to see what had happened; the noise had been so faint that no one thought that

the ship had been damaged. Below, the captain realized to his horror that the *Titanic* was sinking rapidly, for five of her sixteen water-tight compartments had already been flooded! The order to abandon ship was given and hundreds of people plunged into the icy water. As there were not enough life-boats for everybody, 1500 lives were lost.

Comprehension and Précis

Write an account of the sinking of the *Titanic* in not more than 80 words. Do not include anything that is not in the last paragraph.

Answer these questions in note form to get your points:

1. Where was the *Titanic* sailing?
2. What was seen by a look-out?
3. When did the ship turn sharply?
4. Did it sail alongside the iceberg, or did it collide with it?
5. What was heard from below?
6. What did the captain do?
7. What did he find?
8. When did everyone jump overboard?
9. Why were 1500 people drowned?

Vocabulary:

Give another word or phrase to replace the following words as they are used in the passage: colossal (1.4); regarded (1.6); compartments (1.7); flooded (1.8); float (1.8); avoid (1.15); narrowly (1.16).

9. Mary had a Little Lamb

Mary and her husband Dimitri lived in the tiny village of Perachora in southern Greece. One of Mary's prize possessions was a little white lamb which her husband had given her. She kept it tied to a tree in a field during the day and went to fetch it every evening. One evening, however, the lamb was missing. The rope had been cut, so it was obvious that the lamb had been stolen.

When Dimitri came in from the fields, his wife told him what had happened. Dimitri at once set out to find the thief. He knew it would not prove difficult in such a small village. After telling several of his friends about the theft, Dimitri found that his neighbour, Aleko, had suddenly acquired a new lamb.

Dimitri immediately went to Aleko's house and angrily accused him of stealing the lamb. He told him he had better return it or he would call the police. Aleko denied taking it and led Dimitri into his back-yard. It was true that he had just brought the lamb, he explained, but *his* lamb was black. Ashamed of having acted so rashly, Dimitri apologized to Aleko for having accused him. While they were talking it began to rain and Dimitri stayed in Aleko's house until the rain stopped. When he went outside half an hour later, he was astonished to find that the little black lamb was almost white. Its wool, which had been dyed black, had been washed clean by the rain!

Comprehension and Précis

In not more than 80 words describe what happened from the moment the vicar woke up. Do not include anything that is not in the passage.

Answer these questions in note form to get your points:

1. What did Mary tell Dimitri when he came home?
2. What did Dimitri learn about his neighbour, Aleko?
3. Where did Dimitri go?
4. What did he accuse Aleko of?
5. Did Aleko show Dimitri his new lamb or not?
6. What colour was it?
7. What did Dimitri do when he saw it was black?
8. Why did Dimitri stay in Aleko's house for half an hour?
9. Why did he get a surprise when he went outside?
10. Had the lamb been dyed or not?

Vocabulary:

Give another word or phrase to replace the following words as they are used in the passage: tiny (1.1); fetch (1.5); missing (1.6); acquired (1.13); denied (1.16); apologized (1.19); dyed (1.24).

II. Grammar

Simple present

I- The simple present is used to express habitual action.

a) The main use of the simple present tense is to express habitual action:-

Jasim rides horses.

Malik smokes.

Children drink milk.

This tense doesn't tell if (whether) or not the action is being performed at the moment of speaking, and if we want to make this clear we must add a verb in the present continuous tense:

He's studying. He always studies at night.

John's dog barks a lot, but he isn't barking now.

b) It can be used in a newspaper headline:

Peace talk fails.

c) It can be used for dramatic narrative. This is particularly useful when describing the action of a play, opera etc., and is often used by radio commentators at sports, events, public functions etc...

When the curtain rises, Juliet is writing at her desk. Suddenly the window opens and a masked man enters.

d) It can be used for a planned future, action or series of actions, particularly when they refer to a journey. Travel agents use it a good deal.

We leave Jerusalem at 10:00 next Monday and arrive in Cairo at 12:00.

It must be used instead of the present continuous with

verbs which cannot be used in the continuous form e.g love, see, believe etc.

Examples:

1- Samia always loves to eat bread with rice.

2- We often see wild animals in the zoo.

3- Some people believe in ghosts.

II- The simple present tense is often used with adverbs or adverbs phrases such as always, never, occasionally, often, sometimes, usually, every week, on Monday, twice a month.

How often does Sami go to the garden?

It rains in Winter.

Or with time clauses expressing routine of habitual actions.

Whenever and when (whenever) are particularly useful:

Whenever it rains, the roof leaks.

When you open the door a light goes on.

Other uses of the simple present tense:-

It is used chiefly with the verb say, when we are asking about or quoting from books, notice or very recently received letters:-

What does the notice say? ~ It says No smoking.

What does the book say? ~ It says cook very slowly.

Exercise: Correct the verbs between brackets into simple present.

1- Ali always _____ (come) by bus.

2- She never _____ (eat) in the class.

3- People often _____ (help) the poor.

4- We don't always _____ (eat) rice with bread.

Past Simple

We use the past simple for an action that started and finished in the past, often with a time expression:-

We form the past simple with "ed" or "d" for regular verbs.

decide - decided

live - lived

Irregular verbs have a special form.

wear → wore

write → wrote

give → gave

speak → spoke

Use did + infinitive without to for questions, and did not or didn't + infinitive without to for the negative.

Did he draw pictures?

He didn't write the sentences.

* Put the verbs in the past simple:

1. They (visit) _____ us last week.

2. I (buy) _____ a new jacket a month ago.

3. My brother (get) _____ a new job last week.

4. He (make) _____ many mistakes last month.

5. He (arrive) _____ two hours ago.

6. I (see) _____ him this morning.

1) Last month, my brother _____ some letters from his friends.
(receive)

2) The students _____ at 7 o'clock. (arrive)

3) My father _____ at home when my uncle _____. (be/arrive)

4) The tourists _____ many holy places. (visit)

* Use (did) in the following:-

Ex. I saw Ali yesterday.

Did you see Ali yesterday?

1) She came by bus.

2) Mohammed arrived early.

3) Sami went alone.

4) Suad wrote a letter.

5) Wael left in a hurry.

Present Continuous Tense

am }
is } Present participle (-ing form)
are }

e.g: I am reading now.

Muna is reading poetry.

They are reading their books.

I am = I'm

He is = He's

They are = They're

It is used:- to express what is happening now (now, today, at this moment, this week, this year, etc..)

Look, Listen, Smell! Etc..

We are playing now.

Look! Huda is crying.

A) To express the planned future:-

I am meeting her tomorrow.

B) with verbs of movement & remaining.

go/ come/ drive/ fly/ leave/ start/ stay/ remain, etc.

I am leaving tonight.

What ever happens; I am staying there.

I am tired, I am having a rest.

Put the correct present tense (present or continuous)

1. The students (learn) _____ English now.
2. The sun always (shine) _____ at 6:30 on our city.
3. Look! Mohammed (draw) _____ a picture on the blackboard.
4. It (rain) _____ in Winter . It (rain) _____ now.
5. We usually (wake up) _____ at seven and (have) _____ breakfast at 6:30.
6. "Where (be) _____ your father? " He (sit) _____ in the garden.
7. A lazy student never (study) _____ hard.
8. Listen! The film (begin) _____ now.

Choose the correct tense from those between brackets:-

- 1) You are very quiet. Why (do you think/ are you thinking) about?
- 2) I am sorry, (I'm not agreeing/I don't agree) with you.
- 3) (I hear/I'm hearing) you're leaving.
- 4) She (knows/is knowing) you're right.
- 5) They (watch/are watching) the children.
- 6) My parents usually (stay/are staying) at home on Fridays, but they come out tonight because my brothers (have/are having) a party.
- 7) I am afraid (I am not remembering/I don't remember) where we met.
- 8) (This jacket costs/is costing) 50\$.

Past Continuous "Interrogative"

1. Past continuous - form.

The past continuous of any verb is composed of two parts: the past tense of the verb *to be* (*was/were*), and the base of the main verb + *ing*.

Subject	was/were	base-ing
They	Were	watching

Affirmative		
She	Was	reading
Negative		
She	wasn't	reading
Interrogative		
Was	she	reading?
Interrogative negative		
Wasn't	she	reading?

Example: *to play*, past continuous

Affirmative	Negative	Interrogative
I was playing.	I was not playing.	Was I playing?
You were playing.	You were not playing.	Were you playing?
He, she, it was playing.	She wasn't playing.	Was she playing?
We were playing.	We weren't playing.	Were we playing?
You were playing.	You weren't playing.	Were you playing?
They were playing.	They weren't playing.	Were they playing?

2. Past continuous, function

The past continuous describes actions or events in a time *before now*, which began in the past and was *still going on* at the time of speaking. In other words, it expresses an *unfinished or incomplete* action in the past.

It is used:

- often, to describe the background in a story written in the past tense, e.g. "The sun *was shining* and the birds *were singing* as the elephant came out of the jungle. The other animals *were relaxing* in the shade of the trees, but the elephant moved very quickly. She *was looking* for her baby, and she didn't notice the hunter who *was watching* her through his binoculars. When the shot rang out, she *was running* towards the river..."
- to describe an unfinished action that was interrupted by another event or action: "I *was having* a beautiful dream when the alarm clock rang."
- to express a change of mind: e.g. "I *was going* to spend the day at the beach but I've decided to go on an excursion instead."
- with '*wonder*', to make a very polite request: e.g. "I *was wondering* if you could baby-sit for me tonight."

More examples:

- a. They *were waiting* for the bus when the accident happened.
- b. Caroline *was skiing* when she broke her leg.
- c. When we arrived he *was having* a bath.
- d. When the fire started I *was watching* television.

Note: with verbs not normally used in the continuous form, the simple past is used.

Examples:

1- She always enjoyed swimming.

2- He denied taking the bicycle.

3- He avoided making mistakes.

Present Perfect Continuous

Consists of to have + to be + ing

Has + been verb + ing (form)

Have + been verb + ing (form)

e.g. She has been waiting for you since six.

I have been driving for hours.

e.g. How long has he been reading?

He has been reading for six hours.

He has been reading since noon.

Exercise:

I- Put the verbs between the brackets into the "present perfect" or the present perfect continuous.

1. I (live) _____ here since 1960.
2. I (not see) _____ her for a long time.
3. How long (you learn) _____ English?
4. The cat (sit) _____ in front of the fire all day.
5. The boys (shut up) _____ the house and (go away) _____ for the holidays.
6. She (wait) _____ for her sister since seven.
7. You (already write) _____ two letters since morning.
8. She's cold because she (swim) _____ for hours.
9. The child's eyes are red because he (cry) _____ for hours.
10. You (ever be) _____ to Egypt?

II- Put the verbs in the "present perfect" or "the present perfect continuous" and add "for" or "since":-

1. She (stand) _____ at the corner _____ half an hour, but the bus (not arrive) _____.
2. You (write) _____ letters _____ the last two hours.
3. I left you, I (read) _____ two stories already.
4. We (sit) _____ on these chairs _____ nearly 3 hours.
5. You (not be) here _____ then.

Past Perfect Continuous

Past perfect continuous, form

The past perfect continuous is composed of two elements - the past perfect of the verb *to be* (=had been)+ the present participle (*base+ing*).

Examples:

Subject	had been	verb-ing
I	had been	walking.

Affirmative		
She	had been	trying.
Negative		
We	Hadn't been	sleeping.
Interrogative		
Had you	been	eating?
Interrogative negative		
Hadn't they	been	living?

Example: *to buy*, past perfect continuous

Affirmative	Negative	Interrogative
I had been buying.	I hadn't been buying.	Had I been buying?
You had been buying.	You hadn't been buying.	Had you been buying?
He, she, it had been buying.	He hadn't been buying.	Had she been buying?
We had been buying.	We hadn't been buying.	Had we been buying?
You had been buying.	You hadn't been buying.	Had you been buying?
They had been buying.	They hadn't been buying.	Had they been buying?

Past perfect continuous, function

The past perfect continuous corresponds to the present perfect continuous, but with reference to a time earlier than 'before now'. Again, we are more interested in the *process*.

Examples:

- a. *Had you been waiting* long before the taxi arrived?
- b. *We had been trying* to open the door for five minutes when Jane found her key.
- c. *It had been raining hard* for several hours and the streets were very wet.
- d. Her friends *had been thinking* of calling the police when she walked in.

This form is also used in **reported speech**. It is the equivalent of the past continuous and the present perfect continuous in direct speech:

Jane said "I have been gardening all afternoon." → Jane said *she had been gardening* all afternoon.

When the police questioned him, John said "I was working late in the office that night." → When the police questioned him, John told them *he had been working* late in the office that night.

Exercise: Fill in the following blank spaces putting one verb into past simple and the other into the past perfect continuous:

- 1- When she _____ (get) there, I _____ (work) all night.
- 2- My cousins _____ (not like) their house although they _____ (live) there for years.
- 3- There _____ (be) everywhere; he _____ (read) for hours.
- 4- The farmer _____ (work) in the farm, but he _____ (stop) when he saw the plane.
- 5- She _____ (try) to finish her homework, but she _____ (be) constantly interrupted.

Present Perfect

[HAS / HAVE] + [past participle]

EXAMPLES:

I have seen that movie many times.

I have never seen that movie.

NOTE: When you are using a verb tense with more than one part such as Present Perfect (have seen), adverbs usually come between the first part and the second part (have never seen).

USE 1 Unspecified Time Before Now



We use the Present Perfect to say that an action happened at an unspecified time before now. The exact time is not important. You CANNOT use the Present Perfect with time expressions such as "yesterday," "one year ago," "last week," "when I was a child," "when I lived in Japan," "at that moment," "that day" or "one day." We CAN use the Present Perfect with expressions like "ever," "never," "once," "many times," "several times," "before," "so far,"

"already" and "yet."

EXAMPLES:

I have seen that movie twenty times.

I think I have met him once before.

There have been many earthquakes in California.

Has there ever been a war in the United States?

Yes, there has been a war in the United States.

People have traveled to the moon.

IMPORTANT How do you actually use the Present Perfect?

The concept of "unspecified time" can be very confusing to English learners.

It is best to associate Present Perfect with the following topics:

TOPIC 1 Experience

You can use the Present Perfect to describe your experience. It is like saying, "I have the experience of..." You can also use this tense to say that you have never had a certain experience. The Present Perfect is NOT used to describe a specific event.

EXAMPLES:

I have been to France.

(This sentence means that you have the experience of being to France. Maybe you have been once, or several times.)

I have been to France three times.

(You can add the number of times at the end of the sentence.)

I have never been to France.

(This sentence means that you have not had the experience of going to France.)

I think I have seen that movie before.

He has never traveled by train.

Joan has studied two foreign languages.

Have you ever met him?

No, I have not met him.

TOPIC 2 Change Over Time

We often use the Present Perfect to talk about change that has happened over a period of time.

EXAMPLES:

You have grown since the last time I saw you.

The government has become more interested in arts education.

Japanese has become one of the most popular courses at the university since the Asian studies program was established.

My English has really improved since I moved to Australia.

TOPIC 3 Accomplishments

We often use the Present Perfect to list the accomplishments of individuals and humanity. You cannot mention a specific time.

EXAMPLES:

Man has walked on the moon.

Our son has learned how to read.

Doctors have cured many deadly diseases.

Scientists have split the atom.

TOPIC 4 An Uncompleted Action You Are Expecting

We often use the Present Perfect to say that an action which we expected has not happened. Using the Present Perfect suggests that we are still waiting for the action.

EXAMPLES:

James has not finished his homework yet.

Susan hasn't mastered Japanese, but she can communicate.

Bill has still not arrived.

The rain hasn't stopped.

TOPIC 5 Multiple Actions at Different Times

We also use the Present Perfect to talk about several different actions which occurred in the past at different times. Present Perfect suggests the process is not complete and more actions are possible.

EXAMPLES:

The army has attacked that city five times.

I have had four quizzes and five tests so far this semester.

We have had many major problems while working on this project.

She has talked to several specialists about her problem, but nobody knows why she is sick.

Past Perfect

Past perfect, form

The Past Perfect tense in English is composed of two parts: the past tense of the verb *to have* (*had*) + the past participle of the main verb.

Subject	had	past participle
We	had	decided...
Affirmative		
She	had	given.
Negative		
We	hadn't	asked.
Interrogative		
Had	they	arrived?
Interrogative negative		
Hadn't	You	finished?

Example: *to decide*, Past perfect

Affirmative	Negative	Interrogative
I had decided.	I hadn't decided.	Had I decided?
You had decided.	You hadn't decided.	Had you decided?
He, she, it had decided.	He hadn't decided.	Had she decided?
We had decided.	We hadn't decided.	Had we decided?
You had decided.	You hadn't decided.	Had you decided?
They had decided.	They hadn't decided.	Had they decided?

Past perfect, function

The past perfect refers to a time *earlier than* before now. It is used to make it clear that one event happened before another in the past. It does not

matter which event is mentioned first - the tense makes it clear which one happened first.

In these examples, Event A is the first or earliest event, Event B is the second or latest event:

a.	John <i>had gone</i> out	when I arrived in the office.
	Event A	Event B
b.	I <i>had saved</i> my document	before the computer crashed.
	Event A	Event B
c.	When they arrived	<i>we had already started</i> cooking
	Event B	Event A
d.	He was very tired	because he <i>hadn't slept</i> well.
	Event B	Event A

Past perfect + *just*

'*Just*' is used with the past perfect to refer to an event that was only a short time earlier than before now, e.g.

- The train *had just left* when I arrived at the station.
- She *had just left* the room when the police arrived.
- I *had just put* the washing out when it started to rain.

Exercise: Fill in the blank spaces putting past perfect tense and past simple tense where necessary.

- The boys _____ (eat) everything by the time I _____ (arrive) at the party.
- He _____ (wonder) why she _____ (not visit) him before.
- They _____ (go) home after they _____ (finish) their homework.
- He _____ (say) that he _____ (already see) the Nile.

Future Tenses

Introduction

There are a number of different ways of referring to the future in English. It is important to remember that we are expressing more than simply the **time** of the action or event. Obviously, any 'future' tense will always refer to a time 'later than now', but it may also express our **attitude** to the future event.

All of the following ideas can be expressed using different tenses:

a. Simple prediction

example: There **will be** snow in many areas tomorrow.

b. Arrangements

example: **I'm meeting** Jim at the airport.

c. Plans and intentions

example: **We're going to spend** the summer abroad.

d. Time-tabled events

example: The plane **takes off** at 3 a.m.

e. Prediction based on present evidence

example: I think **it's going to rain!**

f. Willingness

example: **We'll give** you a lift to the cinema.

g. An action in progress in the future

example: This time next week **I'll be sun-bathing.**

h. An action or event that is a matter of routine

example: **You'll be seeing** John in the office tomorrow, won't you?

i. Obligation

example: You **are to travel** directly to London.

j. An action or event that will take place immediately or very soon.

example: The train **is about to leave**.

k. Projecting ourselves into the future and looking back at a completed action.

example: A month from now **he will have finished** all his exams.

It is clear from these examples that several tenses are used to express the future. The sections that follow show the form and function of each of these tenses.

Simple Future

Simple future, form

The 'simple' future is composed of two parts: *will / shall* + the infinitive without 'to'

Subject	will	infinitive without to
He	will	leave...

Affirmative		
I	will	go
I	shall	go
Negative		
They	will not	see
They	won't	see
Interrogative		
Will	she	ask?
Interrogative negative		
Won't	she	take?

Contractions:	
I will → I'll	We will → we'll
You will → you'll	You will → you'll
He, she, will → he'll, she'll	They will → they'll

NOTE: The form '*it will*' is not normally shortened.

Example: *to see*, simple future

Affirmative	Negative	Interrogative
I'll see	I won't see/	Will I see?/
*I will/shall see	I shan't see	Shall I see?
You'll see	You won't see	Will you see?
He, she, it will see	He won't see	Will she see?
We'll see	We won't see/	Will we see?/
*We will/shall see	We shan't see	Shall we see?
You will see	You won't see	Will you see?
They'll see	They won't see	Will they see?

*NOTE: *shall* is slightly dated but can be used instead of *will* with *I / we*.

Simple future, function

The simple future refers to a time later than now, and expresses facts or certainty. In this case there is no 'attitude'.

The simple future is used:

- a. to predict a future event: It **will rain** tomorrow.
- b. (with **I/we**) to express a spontaneous decision: **I'll pay** for the tickets by credit card.

c. to express willingness: ***I'll do*** the washing-up. ***He'll carry*** your bag for you.

d. (in the negative form) to express unwillingness: The baby ***won't eat*** his soup. I ***won't leave*** until I've seen the manager!

e. (with ***I*** in the interrogative form) to make an offer: ***Shall I open*** the window?

f. (with ***we*** in the interrogative form) to make a suggestion: ***Shall we go*** to the cinema tonight?

g. (with ***I*** in the interrogative form) to ask for advice or instructions: What ***shall I tell*** the boss about this money?

h. (with ***you***) to give orders: ***You will do*** exactly as I say.

i. (with ***you***) to give an invitation: ***Will you come*** to the dance with me?
Will you marry me?

NOTE: In modern English ***will*** is preferred to ***shall***.

Shall is mainly used with ***I*** and ***we*** to make an offer or suggestion (see examples (e) and (f) above, or to ask for advice (example (g) above).
With the other persons (***you, he, she, they***) ***shall*** is only used in literary or poetic situations, e.g.

"*With rings on her fingers and bells on her toes, ***She shall have*** music wherever she goes.*"

Exercise: Put the following sentences into the simple future tense.

1- I think they _____ (be) happy.

2- They _____ (come) tomorrow.

3- I dare say she _____ (do) it.

4- Trains _____ (be) much faster in the future.

5- If he comes, he _____ (phone) you.

Future Continuous

Future continuous, form

The future continuous is made up of two elements: the simple future of the verb 'to be' + the present participle (*base+ing*)

Subject	simple future, 'to be'	Base+ing
You	will be	watching

Affirmative

I will be asking.

Negative

She won't be leaving.

Interrogative

Will they be retiring?

Interrogative negative

Won't we be staying?

Example: *to stay*, future continuous

Affirmative	Negative	Interrogative
I will be staying	I won't be staying	Will I be staying?
You will be staying	You won't be staying	Will you be staying?
He, she, it will be staying	He won't be staying	Will she be staying?
We will be staying	We won't be staying	Will we be staying?
You will be staying	You won't be staying	Will you be staying?
They will be staying	They won't be staying	Will they be staying?

Future continuous, function

The future continuous refers to an *unfinished* action or event that will be *in progress* at a time *later than now*. It is used:

a. to project ourselves into the future and see something happening: This time next week *I will be sun-bathing* in Bali.

b. to refer to actions/events that will happen in the normal course of events: *I'll be seeing Jim* at the conference next week.

c. in the interrogative form, especially with 'you', to distinguish between a simple request for information and an invitation: *Will you be coming* to the party tonight? (= request for information) Will you come to the party? (= invitation)

d. to predict or guess about someone's actions or feelings, now or in the future: *You'll be feeling tired* after that long walk, I expect.

More examples:

a. events in progress in the future:

When you are in Australia *will you be staying* with friends?

This time next week *you will be working* in your new job.

At four thirty on Tuesday afternoon I *will be signing* the contract.

b. events/actions in normal course of events:

I'll be going into town this afternoon, is there anything you want from the shops?

Will you be using the car tomorrow? - No, you can take it.

I'll be seeing Jane this evening - I'll give her the message.

c. asking for information:

Will you be bringing your friend to the pub tonight?

Will Jim be coming with us?

d. predicting or guessing:

You'll be feeling thirsty after working in the sun.

He'll be coming to the meeting, I expect.

You'll be missing the sunshine now you're back in England.

Exercise: Put the following sentences into future continuous.

1- I _____ (be watch) TV at six.

2- When you arrive, she _____ (be sleep).

3- Samia _____ (be stay) at her aunt's during the next two weeks.

4- I _____ (be study) while you are taking your bath.

5- I _____ (be see) him tomorrow.

Future Perfect

Future perfect, form

The future perfect is composed of two elements: the simple future of the verb *to have* (*will have*) + the past participle of the main verb:

Subject	will have	past participle
He	will have	finished

Affirmative

I will have left

Negative

They won't have gone

Interrogative

Will we have seen?

Interrogative negative

Won't he have arrived?

Example: *to arrive*, future perfect

Affirmative	Negative	Interrogative
I'll have arrived.	I won't have arrived.	Will I have arrived?
You'll have arrived.	You won't have arrived.	Will you have arrived?
He'll have arrived.	She won't have arrived.	Will it have arrived?
We'll have arrived.	We won't have arrived.	Will we have arrived?
You'll have arrived.	You won't have arrived.	Will you have arrived?
They'll have arrived.	They won't have arrived.	Will they have arrived?

Future perfect, function

The future perfect refers to a completed action in the future. When we use this tense we are projecting ourselves forward into the future and looking back at an action that will be completed some time later than now.

It is often used with a time expression using *by* + a point in future time.

Examples:

- a. *I'll have been* here for six months on June 23rd.
- b. By the time you read this *I'll have left*.
- c. *You will have finished* your work by this time next week.

Exercise: Put the verbs between brackets into future perfect.

- 1- She _____ (finish) her homework by six o'clock.
- 2- She _____ (go) before you arrive.
- 3- He _____ (stay) almost three months next January.
- 4- Sami _____ (sleep) ten hours by lunch time.
- 5- It is five o'clock. She _____ (reach) home by now.

Future Perfect Continuous

Future perfect continuous, form

This form is composed of two elements: the future perfect of the verb *to be* (*will have been*) + the present participle of the main verb (*base+ing*):

Subject	will have been	base+ing
We	will have been	living

Affirmative		
I	will have been	working
Negative		

I	won't have been	working
Interrogative		
Will	I have been	working?
Interrogative negative		
Won't	I have been	working?

Example: *to live*, Future Perfect continuous

Affirmative	Negative	Interrogative
I 'll have been living	I won't have been living	Will I have been living?
You 'll have been living	You won't have been living	Will you have been living?
He 'll have been living	He won't have been living	Will she have been living?
We 'll have been living	We won't have been living	Will we have been living?
You 'll have been living	You won't have been living	Will you have been living?
They 'll have been living	They won't have been living	Will they have been living?

Future perfect continuous, function

Like the future perfect simple, this form is used to project ourselves forward in time and to look back. It refers to events or actions in a time *between now and some future time*, that may be *unfinished*.

Examples:

- a. ***I will have been waiting*** here for three hours by six o'clock.
- b. By 2001 ***I will have been living*** here for sixteen years.
- c. By the time I finish this course, ***I will have been learning*** English for twenty years.
- d. Next year ***I will have been working*** here for four years.

Exercise: Put the verbs between brackets into future perfect continuous.

- 1- We _____ (live) here for two years next April.
- 2- By ten o'clock, they _____ (dance) twenty two hours.
- 3- She'll be tired because she _____ (drive) all day.
- 4- He'll get hurt because he _____ (drink) all night.

Future with Going To

1. Future with *Going to* - form

This form is composed of three elements: the appropriate form of the verb '*to be*' + *going to* + the *infinitive* of the main verb:

Subject	'to be'	going to	infinitive
She	is	going to	leave

2. Future with *Going to* - function

The use of '*going to*' to refer to future events suggests a very strong association with the present. The **time** is not important - it is later than now, but the **attitude** is that the event depends on a **present situation**, that we know about. So it is used:

a) to refer to our plans and intentions:

We're going to move to London next year. (= the plan is in our minds now.)

b) to make predictions based on present evidence:

Look at those clouds - it's going to pour with rain! (= It's clear from what I can see now.)

Note: In everyday speech, '*going to*' is often shortened to '*gonna*', especially in American English.

More examples:

Plans and intentions:

- a. *Is Freddy going to buy* a new car soon?
- b. *Are John and Pam going to visit* Milan when they are in Italy?
- c. I think Nigel and Mary *are going to have* a party next week.

Predictions based on present evidence:

- a. *There's going to be* a terrible accident!
- b. *He's going to be* a brilliant politician.
- c. *I'm going to have* terrible indigestion.

NOTE: It is unusual to say 'I'm going to go to...'
Instead, we use '*going to*' + a *place or event*:

Examples:

- We are going to the beach* tomorrow.
She is going to the ballet tonight.
Are you going to the party tomorrow night?

Exercise: Put the verbs between brackets into future using "going to".

- 1- She _____ (visit) Cairo next week.
- 2- I _____ (see) her tomorrow.
- 3- Anan _____ (buy) a new car next year.
- 4- They _____ (play) chess tonight.
- 5- We _____ (watch) a play tomorrow night.

Sentence, phrase and clause

Sentence: A group of words with complete meaning + finite verb. A sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop, or question mark or exclamation mark.

e.g. He sat.

She plays golf.

Are they dancing?

Ah, they have come!

Clause: A group of words which doesn't give a complete meaning with finite verb.

e.g. because he was tired.

When he arrived.

Phrase: A group of words which doesn't have a complete meaning or a finite verb.

e.g. in the corner

Reaching home

The difference between a sentence, clause and a phrase:

	Complete sense	Finite verb
Sentence		
Clause	X	
Phrase	X	X

Reaching school, he sat near the window because he was tired.

Give one example of:

- 1) A simple sentence.
- 2) A phrase.
- 3) A clause.

Which of the following are sentences clauses or phrases?

1. open the door
2. whom we helped
3. at the butcher's
4. across the road
5. that she left
6. through a hole
7. come here
8. as she was waiting
9. from my friend
10. where are my friends?
11. did you ask?
12. sit down
13. the new mosque

- 14. before he met her
- 15. If I meet her

Answers:

- 1. sentence 2. clause 3. phrase 4. phrase
- 5. clause 6. phrase 7. sentence 8. clause
- 9. phrase 10. sentence 11. sentence 12. sentence
- 13. phrase 14. clause 15. clause

Relative Clause

There are two different types of relative clause:

- A **"defining"** or identifying clause, which tells us which person or thing we are talking about.
- A **"non-defining"** or non-essential clause, which gives us more information about the person or thing we are talking about. This kind of clause could often be information included in brackets (...).

Example:

The farmer (his name was Fred) sold us some potatoes.

The farmer, whose name was Fred, sold us some potatoes.

It is important to see the difference between the two types of clause, as it affects:

- a. the choice of pronoun used to introduce the clause,
- b. the punctuation - you must use commas with a non-defining clause.

Defining Relative clauses

As the name suggests, these clauses give essential information to define or identify the person or thing we are talking about. Obviously, this is only necessary if there is more than one person or thing involved.

Example:

Elephants who marry mice are very unusual.

In this sentence we understand that there are many elephants, but it is clear that we are only talking the ones *who marry mice*.

Punctuation

Commas are not used in defining relative clauses.

Relative pronouns

The following relative pronouns are used in defining relative clauses:

	Person	Thing	Place	Time	Reason
Subject	who/that	which/that			
Object	who/whom/that/ø	which/that/ø	where	when	why
Possessive	<i>Whose</i>	<i>whose</i>			

Notes:

1. The relative pronoun stands in place of a noun.

This noun usually appears earlier in the sentence:

The woman	who/that	spoke at the meeting	was very knowledgeable.
Noun, subject of main clause	relative pronoun referring to 'the woman', subject of 'spoke'	verb + rest of relative clause	verb + rest of main clause

2. *Who*, *whom* and *which* can be replaced by *that*. This is very common in spoken English.

3. The relative pronoun can be omitted (\emptyset) when it is the *object* of the clause:

*The mouse **that the elephant loved** was very beautiful.*

*OR The mouse **the elephant loved** was very beautiful.*

Both of these sentences are correct, though the second one is more common in spoken English.

The table below shows the format of the defining relative clause:

The mouse	that/\emptyset	The elephant loved	was very beautiful.
Noun, subject of main clause	Relative pronoun, referring to 'the mouse, object of 'loved'	verb + rest of relative clause	verb + rest of main clause.

(You can usually decide whether a relative pronoun is an object because it is normally followed by another subject + verb.)

4. *Whose* is used for things as well as for people.

Examples:

*The man **whose car was stolen**.*

*A tree **whose leaves have fallen**.*

5. *Whom* is very formal and is only used in written English. You can use *who/that*, or omit the pronoun completely. Example: The doctor ***whom/who/that/ \emptyset I was hoping to see*** wasn't on duty.

6. *That* normally follows words like *something*, *anything*, *everything*, *nothing*, *all*, and superlatives.

Examples:

- There's something *that you should know*.
- It was the best film *that I've ever seen*.

Examples:

- A clown is someone *who makes you laugh*.
- An elephant is an animal *that lives in hot countries*.
- The plums *that were in the fridge* were delicious. I have eaten them.
- Where are the plums *(that) I put in the fridge?*
- Has anyone seen *the book I was reading?*
- Nothing *that anyone does* can replace my lost bag.
- Let's go to a country *where the sun always shines*.
- They live in the house *whose roof is full of holes*.

The information in these clauses is not essential. It tells us more about someone or something, but it does not help us to identify them or it.

Compare:

1. *Elephants that love mice are very unusual.* (This tells us which elephants we are talking about).

2. *Elephants, which are large and grey, can sometimes be found in zoos.* (This gives us some extra information about elephants - we are talking about all elephants, not just one type or group).

3. *John's mother, who lives in Scotland, has 6 grandchildren.* (We know who John's mother is, and he only has one. The important information is the number of grandchildren, but the fact that she lives in Scotland might be followed with the words "by the way" - it is additional information).

Punctuation

Non-defining relative clauses are always separated from the rest of the sentence by commas. The commas have a similar function to brackets:

My friend John has just written a best-selling novel. (He went to the same school as me) > My friend John, who went to the same school as me, has just written a best-selling novel.

Relative pronouns in non-defining clauses

	Person	Thing	Place
Subject	who	which	
Object	who/whom	which	Where
Possessive	whose		

Notes:

1. In non-defining clauses, you cannot use 'that' instead of *who*, *whom* or *which*.
2. You cannot leave out the relative pronoun, even when it is the object of the verb in the relative clause:
He gave me the letter, which was in a blue envelope.
He gave me the letter, which I read immediately
3. The preposition in these clauses can go at the end of the clause, e.g. *This is Stratford-on-Avon, which you have all heard about.*

This pattern is often used in spoken English, but in written or formal English you can also put the preposition before the pronoun: e.g. *Stratford-on-Avon, about which many people have written is Shakespeare's birthplace.*

4. Non-defining clauses can be introduced by expressions like *all of*, *many of* + relative pronoun:

	Person	Thing
<i>all of</i>	+ <i>whom</i>	+ <i>which</i>
<i>any of</i>	+ <i>whom</i>	+ <i>which</i>
<i>(a) few of</i>	+ <i>whom</i>	+ <i>which</i>
<i>both of</i>	+ <i>whom</i>	+ <i>which</i>
<i>each of</i>	+ <i>whom</i>	+ <i>which</i>
<i>either of</i>	+ <i>whom</i>	+ <i>which</i>
<i>half of</i>	+ <i>whom</i>	+ <i>which</i>
<i>many of</i>	+ <i>whom</i>	+ <i>which</i>

<i>most of</i>	+ whom	+ which
<i>much of</i>	+ whom	+ which
<i>none of</i>	+ whom	+ which
<i>one of</i>	+ whom	+ which
<i>two of etc?</i>	+ whom	+ which

Examples:

a. There were a lot of people at the party, *many of whom* I had known for years.

b. He was carrying his belongings, *many of which* were broken.

5. The relative pronoun *which* at the beginning of a non-defining relative clause, can refer to all the information contained in the previous part of the sentence, rather than to just one word.

a. Chris did really well in his exams, *which was a big surprise*. (= the fact that he did well in his exams was a big surprise).

b. An elephant and a mouse fell in love, *which is most unusual*. (= the fact that they fell in love is unusual).

Examples:

a. My grandmother, *who is dead now*, came from the North of England.

b. I spoke to Fred, *who explained the problem*.

c. The elephant looked at the tree, *under which she had often sat*.

d. We stopped at the museum, *which we'd never been into*.

e. She's studying maths, *which many people hate*.

f. I've just met Susan, *whose husband works in London*.

g. He had thousands of books, *most of which he had read*.

Exercise: Put a suitable relative pronoun.

1- The cat _____ had been very quiet, suddenly started mewing.

2- Mr. Jasem, _____ had been very sick, died last week.

3- I don't love cities, _____ are noisy.

4- That is one neighbour with _____ I will never be on good terms.

5- He is the one _____ car was stolen yesterday.

Exercise: Join each pair of sentences together to make one sentence. (use a relative pronoun)

1- This is the man. I met him in Amman.

2- The man was killed. He was driving a car.

3- She is the woman. Her car was stolen.

4- He is the man. He's going to be fired.

5- I climbed up the stairs. They were newly-painted.

Conditionals (If clause)

1- If clause: Type one.

(If clause), (Main clause)

If + s + simple present, subject + will

Shall

Can + simple present

May

Must

Examples:

If he studies, he will succeed.

If they work hard, they will be rewarded.

If she goes to Egypt, She may see the pyramids.

If he goes to London, he will see Big Ben.

If he (not study), he won't succeed.

If he doesn't study, he won't succeed.

If they don't invite us, we won't go.

If he has money, he will buy a car.

2- If clause: Type Two.
(If clause), (Main clause)

If + s + simple past, s + would + simple present

Examples:

If he drove quickly, he would make an accident.

If he went to Jordan, he might see Petra.

If she invited Salma, she would go.

If he (not work), he wouldn't get much money.

If he didn't work, he wouldn't get much money.

If she helped us, we would finish earlier.

If they didn't study, they wouldn't get high marks.

3- If clause: Type Three.
(If clause), (Main clause)

If + s + had + p.p, s + would + have + p.p

If I had known, I would have bought my book.

He would have died if he had eaten the poisoned chocolate.

If he hadn't gone back, he would have fallen into the gully.

If had studied, he would have succeeded.

If she invited us, we would have gone.

I would have visited England if I had saved a lot of money.

If it hadn't rained all the time, he might have gone to his work.

If she hadn't come early, she wouldn't have got the prize.

Exercise:

Change the verbs between brackets:

1- If he goes to Egypt, he (see) the Nile.

2- If she (invite) her friends, they might come.

3- If he had saved money, he (buy) a car.

4- If he didn't work hard, he (not become) tired.

5- If she (not drive) quickly, she wouldn't make an accident.

6- If she (be) a teacher, she would work hard.

7- If he (has) money, he would have bought a car.

8- If she (doesn't study), she wouldn't have succeeded.

9- If she (take) a map, she wouldn't lose her way.

10- If he (work) harder, he wouldn't have failed.

Kinds of subordinate clauses

* Noun clause (clause)=(sentence)

That he will go to England is true.

He listened to what I spoke.

Here is what you need.

I know where she lives.

* Adverbial clause.

This subject contains two sentences, you find one sentence, you'll have to write the second sentence. (to write a subject & a verb)

Notice that the sentence which comes after the linking verb is called subordinate clause, the other sentence is the main clause and the verb in this sentence is the main verb.

The linking verb may come in the middle of a sentence or at the beginning.

1. Clause of purpose:

People go to the river in order that ...

People go to the river in order that they may swim.

Ali took the apple so that ...

Ali took the apple so that he might eat it.

Ahmed put on his jacket lest

Ahmed put on his jacket lest he should catch cold.

Huda studies hard lest ...

Huda studies hard lest she should fail.

2. Clause of Result:

The boy is so ill that he cannot go to school.

The boy is so fat that he couldn't play football.

He studies hard that he got a high mark.

3. Clause of time:

When the holiday begins, I will go to Jericho.

He went home as soon as he finished school.
They will buy the house when they save money.
As soon as Ali found the book he began to read.

Complete the following with suitable clauses:

1. We study harder in order that _____
2. As soon as I heard the story _____
3. I won't go until _____
4. It began to rain while _____
5. Please wait until _____
6. Huda washed the fruit so that _____
7. When the thief saw the policeman _____
8. He will take his children to the zoo as soon as _____
9. It was such a heavy box _____
10. Students study hard so that _____

Adjective Clauses

1. Let us look at the following sentences:

This is the house *that Jack built*.

The girl *who stands first* will win the prize.

We see that the clauses in italics qualify the nouns *house and girl*, and are therefore doing the work of adjectives. Such clauses are called **Adjective Clauses**.

2. *Adjective Clauses* are joined to their main clause, by **Relative Pronouns**: *who, which, that, what, as*, and by the compound forms, *whoever, whichever, whatever*.

Adjective clauses are also joined to main clauses by **Relative Adverbs**: *where, when, why, whence, whither, wherein*, etc., e.g. The day when he arrived.

Notes. 1. **How to tell an Adjective Clause.** The test for an Adjective Clause is this: *Is it doing the work of an adjective?* in other words, *Does it qualify a noun, or a word used as a noun?*

2. Sometimes when an Adjective Clause is introduced by a *relative adverb*, it looks like an adverb clause, and we may be in danger of mistaking it for one; but we shall not often go wrong if we apply our test and see whether the clause *qualifies a noun* or not. Remember also that a Relative Adverb is equivalent to a Preposition + a Relative Pronoun. For example, *The year when this happened was 1934* (*where*=in which); the clause, *when this happened* qualifies the noun *year*, and is therefore an Adjective Clause. In, *When this happened he ran away*, the clause, *when this happened*, qualifies the verb *ran*, and is therefore an Adverb Clause. In, *I know when this happened*, the Clause, *when this happened*, is the direct object to the verb *know*, and is therefore a Noun Clause. If we find out *what work the clause is doing* we cannot go wrong.

3. Often the relative pronoun is omitted: *That's the boy I saw*. The house I *live in* was built years ago. When analyzing we must supply the Relative pronoun: *That's the boy whom I saw*.

4. *As* is used as a Relative Pronoun in such expressions as *such as, the same as*: (i) They made *such* a mess *as* I never saw before; (ii) I want the *same* kind of hat *as* I had before. In (i) *as* is direct object to the verb *saw*; in (ii) *as* is the direct object to the verb *had*.

Adverbial Clauses Clauses of reason, clauses of result

1. Adverbial clauses of reason can be formed by the following structures:

a. a finite clause

Too many projects have failed **because they lacked an understanding of the area controlled.**

b. a prepositional phrase

Too many projects have failed **because of a lack of understanding...**

c. a non-finite clause

Recognizing that development projects are unlikely to succeed... the desert Program has set out

2. Adverbial clauses of result can be formed by finite or non-finite clauses introduced by conjunctions such as *so, therefore, hence*:

There has often been a lack of understanding, **so many projects have failed...**

Clauses of condition, clauses of concession

1. Finite adverbial clauses of condition are introduced by words such as *if, unless, providing, provided that*:

If the desert can be made green, the Crown Prince believed that the desert program could serve as a blueprint...

If we believe the condition is unlikely to be met, we use a past form in the conditional clause:

If the climate in this area changed dramatically, we would be able to grow coconuts.

2. Adverbial clauses of concession are used when one action contrasts with another. They can be formed by:

a. a finite clause

Although this is a subject of heated discussion, few would disagree...

b. a prepositional phrase

In spite of the low rainfall, research is looking at a way of...

Connectors like *anyways, however, nevertheless, though, yet, after all, on the other hand* can also convey the meaning of concession:

The rainfall is low. **However**, there is some hope of...

Noun Clauses

1. Let us look at the following sentences:

(1) He said *something*.

(2) He said *that he was ready*.

In No. (1) the object governed by the verb *said* is the noun, *something*.

In No. (2) for the noun, *something*, we have substituted the clause, *that he was ready*. Here we have a clause taking the place of, and *doing the work of a noun*. Such a clause we call a **Noun Clause**.

A clause that does the work of a noun in a sentence is called a Noun Clause.

2. A *noun clause* may be:

(1) The Subject: *That he did so* is quite true.

- (2) The Object: She said *that she was ready*.
- (3) Used predicatively, as Complement to the verb: His excuse was *that his watch was slow*.
- (4) In Apposition to a Noun or Pronoun: The fact *that he was present* is sufficient proof. It is certain *that he will come*.
- (5) After a preposition: I am thinking of *what is coming next*.

3. **Omission of that.** Noun Clauses are frequently introduced by the word *that*, but the word *that* is often omitted: He said (*that*) he would come. I know (*that*) you are right.

4. **How to tell a Noun Clause.** If we are not sure whether a clause is a Noun Clause or not, perhaps the simplest way to find out is to substitute for the clause the word *something*.

If the sentence, when thus altered, still makes good sense, we shall generally find that the clause is a Noun Clause.

Let us take a few examples:

He said *that he was ready*. He said *something*.

That we shall win is certain. *Something* is certain.

His excuse was *that he did not know*. His excuse was *something*.

We see that all these altered sentences make sense, and may conclude that the clauses are Noun Clauses.

Let us take a few more sentences:

(1) Jack came *as soon as I was ready*. Jack came *something*.

(2) This is the man *who met me at the station*. This is the man *something*.

(3) I asked him *who he was*. I asked him *something*.

The first two altered sentences do not make sense, while the third does; we therefore conclude that (1) and (2) are not Noun Clauses, while No. (3) is a Noun Clause.

"Where to Put the Preposition in a Relative Clause"

There are often prepositions in relative clauses, and the relative pronoun is the *object* of the preposition. This means that the preposition can sometimes be omitted.

- The preposition is normally placed at the end of the relative clause:

Is that the man (who) you arrived *with*?

Do you know the girl (that) John is talking *to*?

- In formal or written English, the preposition is often placed before the relative pronoun, and in this case the pronoun cannot be omitted:

The person with whom he is negotiating is the Chairman of a large company.

It is a society to which many important people belong.

However, this is unusual in spoken English.

Examples:

- The jungle *the elephant lived in* was full of strange and unusual animals.
- He was very fond of the mouse *that he lived with*.
- The tree *under which they had their home* was the largest and oldest in the jungle.
- In the middle of the jungle was a river *that all the animals went to every day*.
- It was the stream *in which the elephant and the mouse preferred to swim*.

How to make questions

We ask about the time with when: when=time:

He arrived yesterday

When did he arrive?

He will go at 7 o'clock.

When will he go?

We ask about the place with where: where=place:

She is in the garden.

Where is she?

You can find a book on the table.

Where can I find a book?

We ask about the reason with why: why= reason:

He left early because he was in a hurry.

Why did he leave early?

She isn't coming with us because she is busy.

Why isn't she coming with us?

We ask about manner/means: How = manner/means:

He came to school means: How = manner/means:

He came to school by bus.

How did he come to school?

He speaks English fluently.

How does he speak English?

We ask about the uncountable with how much:

The house costs a lot of money.

How much money does the house cost?

We ask about the countable with how many:

There were few people in the market.

How many people were there in the market?

We ask about the age with how old:

I am 30 years old.

How old are you?

We ask about the length of time with how long:

He has been here for five years.

How long has he been here?

We ask about the frequency with how often:

She visits Egypt twice a year.

How often does she visit Egypt?

We ask about the distance with how far:

Hebron is 62 KM from here.

How far is it to Hebron from here?

We ask about possession with whose:

That's my sister's car.

Whose car is that?

We ask about the choice with which:

I want to buy a green shirt.

Which shirt do u want to buy?

We ask about things/events, facts with what:

Sami's comments made Huda angry.

What made Huda angry?

We ask about the subject person with who:

Jasim can ride a horse.

Who can ride a horse?

We ask about the object person with who(m):

Su'ad saw the doctor.

Who(m) did Su'ad see?

Exercises:

A. What does each of the following wh-questions ask about?

1. Who studied hard? ()
2. Where does he study? ()
3. What did she buy? ()
4. How old is Salma? ()
5. How does she work? ()

B. Supply a suitable wh-word or phrase:

1. _____ do you see her? Rarely.
2. _____ did he go to Egypt? Because he wanted to see the pyramids.
3. _____ went to Amman? Khalid did.
4. _____ are you reading? A story.

C. Make questions that match the given answers:

1. _____? The boys do.
2. _____? In the market.
3. _____? Always.
4. _____? Ten.
5. _____? Fluently.

Tag questions

A question tag is made at the end of the sentence.

Notice that if the sentence is negative the question should be affirmative, when the sentence is affirmative, the question should be negative.

Am, is, are, was, were, have, has, had, shall, should, will, would, can, could, may, might, must, ought.

Layla is sleeping, isn't she?

Huda isn't working, is she?

If the sentence consists of simple present, we use don't, do.

e.g. We play tennis well, don't we?

They don't sleep late, do they?

If the sentence consists of simple present + s, we use either doesn't, does.

e.g. Ali studies hard, doesn't he?

Anan doesn't play football, does he?

If the sentence consists of simple past, we use didn't, did.

e.g. You ate much rice, didn't you?

You didn't go to the market, did you?

Won't

will not

Shan't

Shall not

Can't

cannot

Exercise:

Add tail questions:

1. Ahmed is eating apples, _____?
2. The girl wasn't drawing a map, _____?
3. Salma hasn't a bicycle, _____?
4. It will rain tomorrow, _____?
5. You can write English, _____?
6. We draw well, _____?
7. These men sell bread, _____?
8. Yusef helps his father everyday, _____?
9. A camel doesn't eat meat, _____?
10. He gave me one book, _____?
11. This coat belongs to Shadi, _____?
12. Ali didn't buy a bicycle, _____?

13. Dogs cannot fly, _____?
14. Salma and Huda were busy yesterday, _____?
15. Monday isn't a month, _____?

Types of Adjectives

There are three types of adjectives or adjective phrases:

1- Most adjectives can come before nouns or, when they are used in copular 'be' sentences, after 'be' or the noun:

e.g.: The tall woman.

Karen is tall.

Is Angela tall?

2- Some adjectives can only come before nouns:

Karen is my close friend. **NOT: *My friend is close.(X)**

This group of adjectives is very small and is restricted to special meanings of adjectives.

For example, 'close' meaning 'physically near' is in group three.

3- Some adjectives are only used in copular 'be' sentences.

Karen is so alert. **Not: * Karen is an alert girl. (X)**

Write these three headings in your notebooks. Then write the adjectives in the correct column according to usage. Before and after a noun/before a noun only/ after a noun only:

Tall	close (friend)	alert
Afraid alert	asleep	awake
Complete (fool)	complete (book)	fond
Frightened	happy	ill
Old (car)	slim tall	old (man)
		well

Correct classification is the following:

Before and after a noun	Before a noun only	After a noun only
Tall	Close (friend)	Alert
Frightened	Complete (fool)	Afraid
Happy	Old (friend)	Asleep
Old (man)	Complete (book)	Awake

Slim	Close (hotel)	
Ill		
Well		

Supply the missing preposition or particle.

1. John is getting _____ Mary very well.
2. You'll never get your money _____.
3. She felt sad when the lights went _____.
4. Don't ever give _____ hope.
5. Can you go _____ some points with me?

Answers:

1. On with.
2. Back.
3. Out.
4. Up.
5. Over.

Exercises on Types of adjectives:

Underline the adjective in each sentence:

1. The tall woman who is playing the piano.
2. My car is fast and economic.
3. Rich people buy expensive cars.
4. The first American film from space.
5. Lazy students like simple tests.

Answers:

1. Tall.
2. Fast; economic.
3. Rich; expensive.
4. First, American.
5. Lazy; simple.

Adverbs

Types of adverbs:

1- Adverbs of manner:

e.g. slowly, gently, beautifully, strongly, etc.

2- Adverbs of degree:

e.g. hardly, rather, quite, very, completely, etc.

3- Adverbs of frequency:

e.g. always, sometimes, often, never, etc.

4- Adverbs of certainty:

e.g. certainly, definitely, clearly, surely, etc.

5- Adverbs of place:

e.g. here, there, abroad, downstairs, up, etc.

6- Adverbs of time:

e.g. today, yesterday, now, then, early, soon, etc.

7- Adverbs of negation and affirmation:

e.g. yes, no, not, verily, never, etc.

8- Interrogative adverbs:

e.g. why, where, when, how

9- Relative adverbs:

e.g. why, where, when

Adverbs of Quality

It shows how the action is done:

e.g. Well, first, gladly, pleasantly, quickly, slowly, gently, etc.

He ran **quickly**.

The patient felt **well** after taking his medicine.

Or as a sentence adverb:

e.g. **Suddenly**, there was a piercing scream.

Gently, she caressed the weeping girl and made her smile.

Note that 'so' & 'together' can be used as adverbs of quality.

e.g. We worked **together**.

He cries **so** because he is hurt.

Adverbs of Degree

Weaker	Moderate	Stronger
A little	Rather	Very
A bit	Fairly	Positively
Almost	Pretty	Too
Hardly	Quite	Quite
Scarcely		Completely
Any		Entirely
No		Totally
Just		Greatly
Partly		Absolutely
Nearly		Extremely
Barely		Much (too)
		A lot
		So
Fractions	Fractions	Fractions

With adjectives:

e.g. The boxer was **a bit** (**rather, very**) strong.

With adverbs:

e.g. She drove **a little** (**fairly, too**) fast.

With verbs:

e.g. I **almost** had an accident.

It **completely** went out of my mind.

With comparatives:

e.g. The doctor said that the patient was **no** better.

It was **a lot** easier the second time.

Notes:

1. **Quite** has two meanings = completely, = to a certain point.

1- "completely", with adjectives and adverbs with strong meaning:
unique, extreme, square, beautiful, excellent, perfect, awful, etc.

e.g. He is **quite** an *excellent* surgeon.

I am **quite** *certain* that he is innocent.

2- "to a certain point", with adjectives and adverbs which have no strong meaning:

pretty, good, cold, wet, useful, old, young, etc.

e.g. She is **quite** *pretty*. (But I have seen prettier)

It is **quite** a *good book*. (But there are better books)

2. **Fractions** can be used as adverbs of degree which may strengthen or weaken the meaning according to the fraction:

e.g. I am **ninety nine percent** sure that my answer is correct.

The theatre was **half** empty.

The bottle is **a third** full.

3. **So:**

1- So, adverb of degree:

e.g. He was **so** *tired* that he could not eat.

It is not **so** *difficult* after all.

2- So, adverb of manner:

e.g. He is a child and should be *treated* **so**.

He *behaved* **so** because he was angry.

It **so** *happened* that he was not present.

3- So conjunction, used to connect two sentences; one is the reason of the other, or result of the other:

e.g. I felt tired (1), **so** I went home (2). (1 is the reason for 2)

He lost all his money (1), **so** he had to borrow from me (2). (2 is the result of 1)

4- So is used as a pronoun:

e.g. Will you be able to help us? I hope **so**.

(I will be able to help you)

They say he will marry. If **so**, I will give him a present.

(He marries)

5- So has many meanings in the idioms:

e.g. In a year or **so**

So help me God!

and **so** forth, and **so** on.

How are you? Oh, **so so**.

So so!

That old **so** and **so** should be tired.

So, what are we going to do today?

4. Just:

1- Adverb of degree means only:

e.g. She was not **just** plain, she was positively ugly.

2- Adverb of time means now:

e.g. He has **just** arrived.

3- Adjective of quality means fair:

e.g. He was a **just** man.

5. 'Too' has two uses:

1- As an adverb of degree which means excessive and in this case it precedes the adjective or the adverb which modifies its meaning.

e.g. That is **too** much.

There were **too** many mistakes.

He answered **too** carelessly.

2- As an adverb of manner which means 'also' and in this case it is used at the end of the sentence.

e.g. I went there **too**.

I like oranges and apples **too**.
She plays the piano, and sings **too**.

6. Rather and Fairly:

1- Both of them mean moderately, but fairly is used in good conditions unlike rather which is used in bad conditions.

e.g. He won his money **fairly** *honestly*.
He won his money **rather** *dishonestly*.

2- With adjectives:

e.g. The food was **rather** *cold*.
The drinks were **fairly** *cold*.

3- Rather can mean very:

e.g. I thought that the bride was ugly but she was **rather** *beautiful*.

4- Rather can be used to express surprise:

e.g. I **rather** enjoyed the party.

Adverbs of Frequency

Always, nearly always, every day, week, hourly, daily, weekly, very often, frequently, often (generally, usually), normally, sometimes, occasionally, seldom, rarely, hardly ever, scarcely ever, never, not ever, (ever), once, twice, thrice, three times, etc.

Adverbs of Certainty

Certainly, surely, definitely, obviously, clearly, etc.

e.g. They **certainly** worked hard. **Evidently**, they are not coming.
Obviously, he is guilty.
She is **surely** pretty.

Adverbs of Place

Here, there, up, down, near, by, abroad, somewhere, downstairs, etc.

e.g. He travels **abroad** a lot.
He is coming **here**.

Note: some of these adverbs look like preposition, but prepositions must be followed by a noun or pronoun.

e.g. He was standing **near**. (as an Adv.)

noun

He was standing *near* a tree. (as a Prep.) "Note that *near* is followed by a noun "a tree"

She went **up**. (as an Adv.)

noun

She went *up* the stairs. (as a Prep.) "Note that *up* is followed by a noun "the stairs"

Adverbs of Time

1. today, tomorrow, yesterday, now, then, lately, recently, ago, soon, next week, this morning, last evening, etc.
2. just, already, still, yet.

e.g. He *will* come **soon**. (future simple)

She *went* home **yesterday**. (past simple)

They *have not* come **yet**. (present simple)

We *are studying* **now**. (present continuous)

e.g. He *has* **already** finished his homework.

He *has not* finished his homework **yet**.

My brother *is* **already** working.

Is your son in hospital **yet**?

e.g. He *is* **still** busy; he *has not* finished his work **yet**.

Are you **still** living in Alex?

e.g. **Still**, you ought to help him.

e.g. He *has* **just** arrived.

e.g. He *lost* his wife several years **ago**.

Interrogative Adverbs

Why

e.g. **Why** did he go?

Where

e.g. **Where** did he go?

When

e.g. **When** did he go?

How

e.g. **How** did he go?

e.g. **How long** will he stay?

How fast is your car?

How much did you pay?

How often do you go to the theatre?

Adverbs of Negation & Affirmation

No, not, nay, never

Yes, yea, verily, certainly

e.g. **No**, I will **not** come.

It is **never** true.

Yes, he went abroad.

Relative Adverbs

Why = for which

Where = in/at which

When = in/on which

e.g. The reason **why** he went back was to look for his eye-glasses.

Do you remember the day **when** we first met?

One day I am going to visit the town **where** I was born.

Forming Adverbs

Adjective + ly = adverb

e.g. bad → badly simple → simply

glad → gladly beautiful → beautifully

sudden → suddenly willing → willingly

e.g. heroic → heroically
economic → economically
atomic → atomically
hypnotic → hypnotically
public → publicly

Some adjectives ending 'ly' are not converted into adverbs.
Lovely, holy, friendly, silly, manly, womanly, ugly, etc.

e.g. She has a **lovely** voice. (adjective)
She sang **in a lovely way**. (adverb phrase)
His behaviour was **silly**. (adjective)
He behaved **in a silly way**. (adverb phrase)

Singular and Plural

Nouns are made by adding (s)

e.g.: glass - glasses watch - watches

box - boxes

house - houses

book - books

chair - chairs

If a word ends in (y) preceded by a consonant the (y) will be changed into (i) and (es) is added.

Lady - ladies

baby - babies

Body - bodies

In a word ends in (y) preceded by a vowel: a, e, i, o, u. Only (s) is added.

Day - days

key - keys

Boy - boys

In a word ends in (f) or (fe) we change (f) or (fe) into (ves).

Leaf - leaves

half - halves

Knife - knives.

These nouns end with (f), (fe) but they are irregular nouns, so we add only (s).

Roof - roofs

gulf - gulfs

Safe - safes

proof - proofs

Chief - chiefs

dwarf - dwarfs

Belief - beliefs

Irregular nouns:

Man - men

Ox - oxen

Foot - feet

Child - children

tooth - teeth

woman - women

goose - geese

louse - lice

If we find (a) or (an) before the singular noun, we omit it when we add (s).

He has a book.

He has books.

Or: They have books.

She has an apple.

She has apples.

Exercises:

A. Write these in the plural:

Tray - _____ inch - _____

Shelf - _____ lady - _____

Tooth - _____ tree - _____

Mouse - _____ toy - _____

Thief - _____ child - _____

Toothbrush - _____ monkey - _____

B. Write these in the singular:

1. These women work hard.

_____.

2. The workers are building a wall.

_____.

3. They are selling some knives.

_____.

5. Horses are bigger than donkeys.

_____.

6. Are these fish in those boxes?

7. The children were riding bicycles.

8. Our teachers don't come late.

9. These are new brushes.

No and None:

"No" is used before nouns: it signifies that the thing named doesn't exist.
There is no entertainment at Lake -of- the woods.

"None" means not (even) one: It is a pronoun and therefore is never used to modify a noun.

None of my friends like to go boating.

Bill has many relative in this country but Ahmed has none.

Some and Any:

Some: an unspecified number. It is used before nouns which represents uncountable thing and before plurals, in affirmative statements and in questions. It also functions as a pronoun.

They always take some meat.

We usually take some pickles.

Do you want some coffee?

Are there any boats on the lake?

Yes, there are some.

"Any" also means an unspecified number.

It is also used in questions and in negative statements.

It doesn't make a statement negative however.

Are you having any trouble?

No, I am not having any trouble.

Are there any boats at the lake?

No, there aren't any.

Small quantities:

"A little" is used before nouns representing uncountable things.

A little help, a little information, a little ice cream.

"A few" is used before plurals.

A few drinks, a few minutes.

"All" means a number of people or things considered as a group, while every means a number of people or things considered individually.

Each (adjective and pronoun)

Every (adjective)

Each: means a number of persons or things considered individually.

"Every" can have this meaning but with every there is less emphasis on the individual.

Every student had a book. Means all the students had books', and implies that the speaker counted the students and the books and found that he had the same number of each.

Each student had a book implies the speaker went to each man in turn and checked that he had a book.

"Each" is a pronoun and adjective.

Each (girl) knows where to sit.

"Every" is an adjective only:

Every student knows the answer.

Both: means "one and the other".

It takes plural verb.

"Both" can be used alone or followed by a noun.

Both books were useful.

Or by (of) + the, these, those or possessives:

Both of the windows were open.
Both of your brothers are clever.

A personal pronoun + "both" is also possible.
We both answered the question.

Exercise: Rewrite the following sentences beginning with the words given:

1- Ali comes early, Mohammad comes early, too.

Both _____

2- Huda has a bicycle, Muna has a bicycle, too.

Both _____

3- Sami is clever, Khalid is clever, too.

Both _____

Linking words

But and although

We can join two clauses with but.

The questions were difficult, but we answered them.

Maha has passed the driving test, but she never drives a car.

We can also use although.

Although he got a high mark, he didn't continue his study.

In spite of and despite:

We use in spite of before a noun phrase or the ing-form of a verb:

Jasim worked hard in spite of his illness.

Huda succeeded in spite of the difficulties.

They always seem to be enjoying themselves in spite of having no money.

Exercise:

Put in although or in spite of:

1) The match went a head _____ the bad weather.

2) _____ I told the absolute truth, no one would believe me.

3) The old man goes for long walk _____ being eighty years.

4) _____ the threats against his life, the minister carried on as normal.

5) The chairman resigned _____ the fact that it wasn't his fault.

Exercise:

Join each pair of sentences with "although - despite". Be careful where you put the words in brackets:

1. I couldn't sleep. I was tired. (despite)

2. Salma never learnt French. She lived in France for years. (although)

3. Ali is a millionaire. He hates spending money. (despite)

4. A few drains were running. There was a strike.

5. We couldn't get a seat. We arrived early. (in spite of)

To (purpose):

We use the "to"- infinitive to say someone does something, what the purpose of an action is:

Salma was hurrying to catch her plane.

Most students study hard to get high marks.

She went to the library to get some books.

My mother went to market to buy some vegetables.

* "In order to" - and "so as to" are more formal than "to".

1) The government took these measures in order to reduce crime.

2) The students are working hard in order to succeed.

3) The workers are working at weekends so as not to delay the project any further.

So that:

After "so that" we use a subject and a main verb (e.g.) (it gets)

I'll post the letter today so that it gets there earlier.

We often use "will" or "can" for a present purpose and "would" or "could" for a past purpose.

I'll give you a map so that you can find the way.

I gave Ali money so that he could buy books.

In informal English we can leave out "that".

You should put your passport in a safe place so (that) it doesn't get lost.

Exercise:

Complete each sentence using "to" and these words; buy a car, cash a cheque, get some petrol, go to sleep, look smart, make some tea.

- 1) Salma went to the bank _____
- 2) Sami sometimes takes a pill _____
- 3) Suha stopped at the garage _____
- 4) Huda is going to wear a new dress _____
- 5) My mother put on the kettle _____

In order to (action) - so as to (purpose)

- 1) Study books on business → be more successful.
- 2) Get to work earlier → impress the boss.
- 3) Work harder → achieve more.
- 4) Take regular exercise → keep fit and alert.
- 5) Think positively → not miss any opportunities.

Exercise: Complete the following using "in order to" and "so as to" to make an action and a purpose. *See the first example*

1. He is going to study books in order to be more successful.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.

Because and so:

We use because to express the reason for something and so to express the result of something.

I turned the heating on because it was cold.

She gets high marks because she studies hard.

I was in a hurry, so I left early.

The car didn't work, so I took a taxi.

Exercise:

Put in these words: although, because, in order to, in spite of, so, so that.

1. _____ it was late, Salma didn't seem in a hurry to leave.
2. They put video camera in shops _____ stop people stealing things.
3. Our room was very small, _____ we didn't mind at all.
4. Sami sent us a map _____ we'd be able to find his house.
5. No one was watching the television, _____ I switched it off.

Passive Voice

1. Specify the object
"Put it at the beginning."
2. Specify the verb and its tense. We use verb (to be) of the same tense.
3. Use the past participle of the main verb.

Ali wrote a story.

1. A story
2. was
3. written (by + agent "old subject")

e.g. She will buy a new car.

1. A new car
2. will be
3. bought
4. by her

e.g. He draws pictures.

1. Pictures
2. are
3. drawn
4. by him

e.g. She can drive a car.

1. A car
2. can be
3. driven
4. by her

e.g. The thief must have stolen the shop.

1. The shop
2. must have been
3. stolen
4. by the thief

If the verb has two objects direct object and another indirect object, we can use any of these two objects.

I gave the child some food.
The child was given some food.
Some food was given to the child.

In negative we use the same steps

"We use in the simple past verb to do when we change the tense into passive.

We use the negative by using the verb (to be)

She didn't write the lesson.
The lesson wasn't written by her.

He doesn't eat meat.
Meat isn't eaten by him.

In the interrogative follow the same steps. (Instead of to do / use to be)

Does she speak French?
Is French spoken by her?
Did he cook the dinner?
Was the dinner cooked?

Exercise 1:

Change the following sentences from active voice to the passive:-

1. Sami drives a car.

2. Ali threw a stone.

3. Widad had cleaned the room.

4. The thief stole the shop.

5. Cats eat mice.

6. They wrote everything.

7. He didn't write the sentences.

8. My friend wrote nothing.

Exercise 2:

Change the following questions from active to the passive voice:-

1. Does she play basketball?

2. Did you mend the chairs?

3. Did Hazim break the window?

4. Do they correct the mistakes?

5. Has he done his homework?

If the subject in active voice people, they ...

We change the sentence into:

It + verb in the passive.

e.g. 1. people think that Jasim is clever.
It is thought that Jasim is clever.

2. They know how to go there.
It is known how to go there.

Passive Verb Formation

The passive forms of a verb are created by combining a form of the "to be verb" with the past participle of the main verb. Other helping verbs are also sometimes present: "The measure could have been killed in committee." The passive can be used, also, in various tenses. Let's take a look at the passive forms of "design."

Tense	Subject	Auxiliary		Past Participle
		Singular	Plural	
Present	The car/cars	is	are	designed.
Present perfect	The car/cars	has been	have been	designed.
Past	The car/cars	was	were	designed.
Past perfect	The car/cars	had been	had been	designed.
Future	The car/cars	will be	will be	designed.
Future perfect	The car/cars	will have been	will have been	designed.
Present continuous	The car/cars	is being	are being	designed.
Past continuous	The car/cars	was being	were being	designed

A sentence cast in the passive voice will not always include an agent 'subject' of the action. For instance if a gorilla crushes a tin can, we could say "The tin can was crushed by the gorilla." But a perfectly good sentence would leave out the gorilla: "The tin can was crushed." Also, when an active sentence with an indirect object is recast in the passive, the indirect object can take on the role of subject in the passive sentence:

Active	Professor Sami gave <u>Ahmad</u> an A.
Passive	An A <u>was given</u> to Ahmad by Professor Sami.

Passive Ahmad was given an A.

Only transitive verbs (those that take objects) can be transformed into passive constructions. Furthermore, active sentences containing certain verbs cannot be transformed into passive structures. *To have* is the most important of these verbs. We can say "He has a new car," but we cannot say "A new car is had by him." We can say "Josefina lacked finesse," but we cannot say "Finesse was lacked." Here is a brief list of such verbs:

resemble	look like	equal	agree with
mean	contain	hold	comprise
lack	suit	fit	become

Examples on Passive Voice:

➤ Simple present

Active Voice

- 1- Muna writes a letter.
- 2- Huda cleans the room.
- 3- The workers build roads.
- 4- Children eat apples.

Passive Voice

- A letter is written.
- The room is cleaned.
- Roads are built.
- Apples are eaten.

➤ Simple Past

Active Voice

- 1- Salma ate the orange.
- 2- Anees wrote a letter.
- 3- My mother washed the dishes.
- 4- The child ate two eggs.

Passive Voice

- The orange was eaten.
- A letter was written.
- The dishes were cleaned.
- Two eggs were eaten.

➤ Present Continuous

Active Voice

- 1- She is driving a car.
- 2- The man is feeding the horse.
- 3- The woman is milking the cows.

Passive Voice

- A car is being driven.
- The horse is being fed.
- The cows are being milked.

4- The teacher is correcting the papers. The papers are being corrected.

➤ Past Continuous

Active Voice

1- He was mending a chair.

2- She was writing letters.

Passive Voice

A chair was being mended.

Letters were being written.

➤ Present Perfect

Active Voice

1- She has eaten all the bananas.

2- They have broken a chair.

Passive Voice

All the bananas have been eaten.

A chair has been broken.

➤ Past Perfect

Active Voice

1- I had read a story.

2- They had mended the tables.

Passive Voice

A story had been read.

The tables had been mended.

➤ Future

Active Voice

1- She will buy a new car.

2- He will send a letter.

Passive Voice

A new car will be bought.

A letter will be sent.

Reported Speech (Direct and indirect speech)

There are two ways of relating what a person has said direct and indirect.

In indirect speech we repeat the original speaker's exact words:

He said: "I have written my homework."

Remarks thus repeated are placed between inverted commas, and a comma or colon is immediately before the remark.

Direct speech is found in conversations in books, in plays, and in quotations.

In indirect speech we give the exact meaning of a remark or a speech, without necessarily using the speaker's exact words:

He said (that) he had written his homework.

Indirect speech is usually introduced by a verb in the past tense.

Verbs in the direct have been then to be changed into a corresponding past tense. The changes are shown in the following table.

Direct speech

Simple present

I never see a lion.

Present continuous

I'm writing a letter.

Present perfect

I have bought a new car.

Simple past

I broke the chair.

Indirect speech

Past tense

He explained he never saw a lion.

Past continuous

He said that he was writing a letter.

Past perfect

He said that he had bought a new car.

Past perfect

He said that he had broken the chair.

Statements:

1) Present simple "Ali eats an apple after dinner."

→ Simple past: He said that John ate an apple after dinner.

2) Present progressive "He is cleaning the car."

→ Past progressive: He said that he was cleaning the car.

3) Present perfect "He has eaten an orange."

→ Past perfect: he said that he had eaten an orange.

4) Simple past "She broke a chair"

→ Past perfect: he said that she had broken a chair.

5) Past progressive "Sami was taking a shower when the bell rang."

→ Past perfect progressive: He said that Sami had been taking a shower when the bell had rung.

6) Past perfect "Someone had eaten the food."

→ Past perfect: He said that someone had eaten the food.

7) Present perfect progressive "I have been studying for five hours."

→Past perfect progressive: He said that he had been studying for five hours.

8) Past perfect progressive "She had been playing basketball for three hours."

→Past perfect progressive: He said that she had been playing basketball for three hours.

Future and Modals to the past forms: will - would, can - could, may - might, shall - should, must/have to/ has to - had to.

Other changes: This - that, today - that day, tomorrow - the day after/on the next day, here - there, yesterday - the day before, ago - before.

Questions:

1- Do you know her?

He asked if I knew her.

2- Where does she study?

He asked me where I studied.

3- Is it expensive?

He asked if it was expensive.

4- Why did they leave?

She asked me why they had left.

Command and Request

Open the door.

He asked me to open the door.

Don't smoke.

The doctor ordered me not to smoke.

* Facts: verbs in simple present aren't changed into past.

"The earth goes round the sun"

He said that the earth goes round the sun."

If the verb is the simple present:

He says: "She speaks English."

He says that she speaks English.

"I went to school."

He says that he went to school.

"Did you study?"

He wants to know if I studied.

Exercise:

A. Change the following into indirect speech:

1) He said: "I go to school early."

2) He said to me: "I shall sell my camera tomorrow."

3) "I am going to swim in river" he said.

4) She said to him: "I have written these sentences."

5) Ali said: "My house is near the mosque."

6) The farmer said: "I went to market yesterday."

7) The lady told the policeman: "A thief has stolen my watch."

8) The pupil said: "I was ill yesterday."

B. Now change from direct to indirect:

1) "I've left my keys at home."
He said _____

2) "I feel sorry for her."
Mrs. Salma said _____

3) "The fire started in the kitchen of the hotel."
The fireman told us _____

4) "How much do the apples cost?"
He asked me _____

5) "Don't eat in the class."

He told me _____

6) "Do you study at night, Ali?"

Salma wants to know _____

C. Report the following sentences:

1- "Don't smoke in this room, Jasim."

The doctor advised _____

2- "Be more careful!"

Hani's father told Sami _____

3- "This book is quite interesting"

Sami said _____

4- "We will go to the museum next Monday."

The teacher said _____

5- "Are you a student at this school?"

Salma asked me _____

6- "Does Khalid wash his hands before breakfast?"

Mrs. Suha wanted to know _____

Phrasal Verbs

1. Phrasal verbs are very common in informal English. They are formed by a verb + one or more prepositions or particles.

Get + on He got on the horse.

Get + on + with He got on with her very well.

2. Phrasal verbs often have a literal meaning and another unrelated, non-literal meaning. We can work out the literal meaning by considering the literal meaning of the preposition, as in the first example above, where "on" means 'on its back'. The non-literal meaning must be learnt, as in the second example above, where "on" doesn't mean literally 'on top of' anything!

3. As with single-part verbs, phrasal verbs can be transitive (taking an object) or intransitive (not taking an object):

Transitive: I have got over my homesickness. (object)

Intransitive: I'm sure I'll be able to get by. (No object)

4. If a transitive phrasal verb consists of a verb + a particle (e.g. get back), the object can precede the particle or follow it:

I'll never get the book back. OR I'll never get back the book.

But if the object is a pronoun, the pronoun can only precede the particle, not follow it:

I'll never get it back. **NOT *I'll never get back it. (X)**

5. If a transitive phrasal verb consists of a verb + a preposition (e.g. get over), the object cannot precede the preposition:

I have got over my homesickness. **NOT * I have got it over. (X)**

Verb + preposition OR verb + particle

How can we distinguish between particles and prepositions?

A preposition comes after a name or a pronoun always.

e.g.: I looked at the man.

I looked at him.

And a particle:

a) Names come after or before it.

e.g.: He switched on the car.

He switched the car on.

b) Pronouns come before it NOT after it.

In questions a preposition comes at the beginning of the question or at the end of it.

e.g.: Whom do you depend on?

Or On whom do you depend?

But a particle comes only at the end of questions.

e.g.: What did he give up?

Note: If the verb is separated from the word it is connected with (a preposition or a particle) it is called separable. And others are called inseparable.

e.g.: He looked at me. (inseparable)

She put it on. (separable)

What is he interested in? (inseparable)

In what is he interested? (separable)

Note: Some phrasal verbs give a literal meaning.

e.g.: depend on look at

And some give a non-literal meaning and give a new meaning.

e.g.: look up give up let down

Here are some phrasal verbs:

1. Getting on well with (non-literal): be friendly with some one.
2. Get down (literal): go down.
3. Getting me down (non-literal): explain well.
4. Get the lesson across (non-literal): explain well.
5. Get on with (non-literal): continue.
6. Get through (non-literal): finish successfully.

Fifty common Two-word verbs

Inseparable

Separable

1. call on - ask to recite

26. call up - telephone

2. come back - return

27. do over - repeat

3. come over - pay a casual visit

28. fill out - complete

4. get up - arise

29. give back - return

5. get along - progress

30. give up - cease,

- 6. get along with - be friendly
- 7. get out of - escape, evade
- 8. get through - finish
- 9. get by - succeed with
minimum effort for
- 10. get over (an illness) - recover

11. go on - take place, happen

12. go over - review

13. keep on - continue

14. look into - investigate

15. look for - seek

16. look out - beware

17. look like - resemble

18. make out - succeed

19. make sure of - verify

20. run over - hit by a car

21. run out of - exhaust
one's supply

22. run across - discover
by chance

23. run into - meet by chance

24. show off - display

25. show up - appear

Exercises on Phrasal verbs:

A) Choose suitable phrasal verbs that give the same meaning of the underlined words.

1. I think he will never disappoint us. _____

2. She was able to overcome her problem. _____

surrender

31. hand in - submit

32. keep up - maintain

33. leave out - omit

34. look up - search

35. look over -
examine

36. make up - prepare,
invent, compensate

37. make (one's mind)
up - decide

38. pick out - choose

39. put off - postpone

40. put (clothing) on -
dress

41. put out - extinguish

42. take off - remove,
undress

43. take up - introduce,
discuss

44. take down - record
in writing

45. talk over - discuss

46. try out - test

47. turn (a report) in -
deliver

48. turn off - put out of operation

49. turn on - put into operation

50. use up - consume

3. Can you avoid it? _____
4. He may plan for the next project. _____
5. We will start at seven. _____

Answers:

1. Get down / let down.
2. Get over.
3. Get out of.
4. Draw up.
5. Set out / go ahead.

B) Fill in the following verbs (**believe, fill, get, look, put, switch, take, throw, turn, try**) with the correct prepositions (**away, down, for, in, off, on, out**).

1. My parents are out. So I have to _____ my baby-brother.
2. Quick! _____ the bus. It's ready to leave.
3. I don't know where my book is. I have to _____ it.
4. It's dark inside. Can you _____ the light, please?
5. _____ the form, please.
6. I need some new clothes. Why don't you _____ the jeans?
7. It's warm inside. _____ your coat.
8. This pencil is really old. You can _____ it _____
9. It's so loud here. Can you _____ the radio, please?
10. The firemen were able to _____ the fire in Church Street.
11. Does your little brother _____ ghosts?

Answers:

1. Look after
2. Get on
3. look for
4. switch on
5. Fill in
6. try on
7. Take off
8. Throw it away

9. turn down
10. put out
11. believe in

**Verb + to infinitive or
Verb + ing form**

Some verbs take a to - infinitive
And some take an ing - form

Ahmed decided to study English.

The committee agreed to pay half the cost.

We are drying to help the poor.

The young man had chosen not to abandon his old house.

Huda suggested studying in Egypt.
Suggest takes ing - form.

I can't face waiting him in the rain.

I can't stand seeing people quarrelling.

The man admitted not breaking the window.

+ To infinitive

agree, guarantee, undertake, ask, seek, attempt, can't afford, can't wait, long, choose, decide, claim, pretend, expect, fail, omit, neglect, hesitate, happen, turn out, hope, aim, learn, train, manage, offer, promise, plan, prepare, seem, appear, wish, want.

+ ing - form

admit, confess, deny, appreciate, avoid, save, escape, resist, can't help, delay, postpone, put off, dislike, enjoy, fancy, finish, give up, imagine, consider, keep, mind, suggest.

Put in the verbs. Use a to - infinitive or ing - form.

- 1- They decided _____ their holiday in Egypt. (spend)
- 2- Jasim enjoyed _____ basketball. (play)
- 3- He managed _____ a suntan. (get)
- 4- She dislikes _____ in one place all the time. (stay)
- 5- I don't mind _____ around in the car. (tour)
- 6- He promised _____ to Jordan with his family. (go)
- 7- He wasn't planning _____ abroad. (go)

Answers:

- 1- to spend 2- playing 3- to get
- 4- staying 5- touring 6- to go
- 7- to go

Prepositions

1. Let us look at the following sentences:

(1) My pen is in my hand. (2) The table is near the wall. In (1) the word *in* shows the relation between *pen* and *hand*. In (2) *near* shows the relation between *table* and *wall*. Such words are called *Prepositions*.

A preposition is a word used with a Noun or Pronoun to show its relation to some other word. - Prepositions are used with nouns to form phrases: *in time, on the spot, under the clock*.

Note: the preposition is usually placed before the noun, but sometimes it follows it:

- 1- Sugar I can do *without*.
- 2- Which street do you live *in*?
- 3- This I stick *to*.
- 4- These are the books *which* I paid *for*.

2. **Prepositions and Adverbs.** Look at these sentences:

1. The girl stood *before* the glass. 2. The coat is *on* the chair. 3. The train passes *near* my house. 4. I said that *before*. 5. Put it *on*. 6. That one came very *near*.

The words *before, on, near*, in the first three sentences are used with the nouns *glass, chair, and house*, and govern these nouns in the *accusative case*; they are therefore **Prepositions**.

In the next three sentences the words *before, on, near*, are not used with nouns, but qualify the meaning of the verb *said, put* and *come* they are therefore **Adverbs**.

Nearly all prepositions can be used as adverbs, but it is quite easy to distinguish between them. *If the word is used with a noun or a noun equivalent and governs it*, it is a Preposition; otherwise it is an adverb, or some other part of speech.

In English all *prepositions are regarded as governing the Accusative Case*.

3. **Compound Prepositions.** Very often groups of words are used in the same way as single prepositions; such groups always end with a preposition. Here are a few examples: *for the sake of, in front of, by means of, because of, as to, with, with a view to, with reference to, in consequence of, etc.* Such groups are sometimes called *Preposition Phrases*.

4. **Preposition governing other Parts of Speech.** Prepositions sometimes govern words, or groups of words, other than nouns or pronouns; such words are to be regarded as *noun equivalents*, doing the work of nouns.

(1) *Adjectives*: to the *bad*, to the *last*, off the *red*.

(2) *Adverbs*: by *now*, till then from *here*, for *ever*.

(3) *Verbs*: (i) *Infinitives*: He was *about to die*. There was nothing left *but to confess*. (ii) *Gerunds*: You can get there *by walking*. He was fined *for breaking rules*.

(4) *Phrases*: The question *of when to begin* is to be settled. This is *outside the scope of the Bill*.

(5) *Clauses*: He raised her *from where she knelt*. I know nothing *of why he did it*. If we supply antecedents these two clauses are to be treated as Adjective Clauses, e.g. He raised her from (the place) where ...

(6) *Quotations*: A Preposition often introduces a quotation. He interrupted with "That's a wicked lie." In such instances the quotation is to be regarded as a single noun.

5. **Prepositions Used after certain Words.** Particular prepositions are appropriate after certain words. This is a matter of idiom, and no rules can be given. The following are a few examples:

(1) *Nouns*: antipathy *to*, enmity *with*, menace *to*, taste *for*, prejudice *against*, respite *from*, etc.

(2) *Adjectives*: averse *to* or *from*, identical *with*, impervious *to*, obnoxious *to*, conscious *of*, etc.

(3) *Verbs*: acquiesce *in*, carp *at*, connive *at*, agree *to* or *with*, dilate *on*, dispense *with*, abstain *from*, accede *to*, etc.

Comparison of Modifiers

Adjectives and adverbs may be used in comparing two or more things.

Richard is **heavier** than bob.

This is the **heaviest** box of the three.

Hazel spoke **more clearly** than Alice.

Of all the speakers, Hazel spoke **most clearly**.

When adjectives and adverbs are used to express comparison, they show degrees of comparison. They show the degree to which one word has a quality compared to another word having the same quality.

This building is **tall**.

This building is **taller** than that one.

This building is the **tallest** one in the world.

I ski **frequently**.

I ski **more frequently** than he does.

Of the three of us, I ski **most frequently**.

There are three degrees of comparison of modifiers: positive, comparative, and superlative.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Weak	weaker	weakest
Ancient	more ancient	most ancient
Loud	louder	loudest
Loudly	more loudly	most loudly
Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Good	better	best
Bad	worse	worst

There are two regular ways to compare modifiers. To form the comparative degree, the letters *er* may be added to the word, or the word *more* may precede it. To form the superlative, the letters *est* may be added to the word, or the word *most* may precede it.

(1) Most one-syllable modifiers form their comparative and superlative degrees by adding *er* and *est*.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Near	nearer	nearest
Meek	meeker	meekest

(2) Some two-syllable modifiers form their comparative and superlative degrees by adding *er* and *est*, but most two-syllable modifiers form their comparative and superlative degrees by means of *more* and *most*.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Simple	simpler	simplest
Drowsy	drowsier	drowsiest
Modern	more modern	most modern
Pleasant	more pleasant	most pleasant

When you are in doubt about which way an adjective is compared, consult a dictionary.

(3) Modifiers of three or more syllables form their comparative and superlative degrees by means of *more* and *most*.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Ignorant	more ignorant	most ignorant
Hopefully	more hopefully	most hopefully

(4) Comparison to indicate *less* and *least* of a quality is accomplished by using the words *less* and *least* before the modifier.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Skillful	less skillful	least skillful
Delicate	less delicate	least delicate

Irregular Comparison

When adjectives and adverbs do not follow the regular methods of forming their comparative and superlative degrees, they are said to be compared irregularly. You should learn the comparative and superlative degrees of the five modifiers below.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Bad	worse	worst
Good	better	best
Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Well	better	best
Many	more	most
Much	more	most

Good and Well:

Distinguish between *good* and *well* as modifiers.

Use *good* to modify a noun or a pronoun. Never use *good* to modify a verb.
Use *well* to modify a verb.

Wrong Dean swims good.

Right Dean swims well.

Wrong The orchestra played very good.

Right The orchestra played very well.

In the following examples, *good* is correct because it is a predicate adjective modifying the subject. Like all predicate adjectives, it follows a linking verb.

Right The pie tastes especially **good**. [good pie]

Right Over the microphone his voice sounds **good**. [good voice]

Well can also be used as an adjective when it refers to a person's health or appearance.

Examples: Doug feels **well** today. [*Well* is predicate adjective modifying the subject *Doug*.]

You look **well** in red. [*Well* is a predicate adjective modifying the subject *you*.]

Older and **elder**:

The comparative of **old** is **older**:

- Tom looks **older** than he really is.

You can use **elder** (or **older**) when you talk about people in a family. You can say (my) **elder brother /sister /son/ daughter**:

- **My elder brother** is a pilot. (or **My older brother**...)

We say 'my **elder brother**' but we do not say that 'somebody is elder...':

- My brother is **older** than me. (*not* 'elder than me')

Exercise:

Choose the correct words:

1. John is (shortest; shorter) than Tom.

2. Ben was as (stronger; strongest; strong) as Mike.
3. This is the (biggest; big; bigger) ball I have.
4. Layla writes (quickly; most quickly; more quickly) than her friend.
5. All the pupils are clever. Tom is (cleverer than; the cleverest) of all.
6. Here are the (beautiful; most beautiful; more beautiful) pictures.
7. He is (old; older; oldest) than you.
8. These girls are young; but Salma is (younger than; the youngest) of all.
9. Please come as (early; earlier; earliest) as you can.
10. This man is _____ than that. (poorer; poor; poorest)
11. These are the _____ rooms. (more comfortable; most comfortable; comfortable)
12. Tom was as _____ as John. (fatter; fattest; fat)
13. Here is the (cheap; cheapest) and (most useful; more useful) book.
14. She bought the _____ watch. (good; better; best)

Infinitives and Gerunds (-ing form) after verbs

- 1 Group 1: verbs followed by the infinitive only:
 Agree, aim, arrange, attempt, choose, decide, demand, determine, expect, fail, forget, hope, learn, manage, mean, offer, plan, promise, refuse, threaten, want, wish
 We **arranged to meet** at 3.0.
 NOT *We arranged meeting at 3.0.

- 2 Group 2: verbs followed only by the gerund:
 Avoid, defer, deny, dislike, enjoy, escape, favour, finish, include, mind, miss, practise, suggest and some phrasal/prepositional verbs such as carry on, go on, give up
 Mary **denied seeing** the accident.
 NOT *Mary denied to see the accident.

3 Group 3: verbs followed by either the infinitive or the gerund:

Begin, continue, forget, intend, like, love, prefer, regret, remember, start, stop, try

Sometimes, the use of the infinitive or the gerund does not change the meaning:

We **began eating** at 12.0.

OR We **began to eat** at 12.0.

But with other verbs, the meaning changes:

I must **remember to phone** my parents. = remember what one has to do

I **remember coming** here when I was twelve. = remember what one has done

I am **trying to learn** English. = make an effort

I **tried changing** the filter but it didn't work. = make an experiment

III. Writing

Writing Composition

- An Overview:

What is a **Paragraph**?

A paragraph is a basic unit of organization in writing in which a group of related sentences develops one main idea. A paragraph can be as short as one sentence or as long as ten sentences. The number of sentences is unimportant; however, the paragraph should be long enough to develop the main idea clearly.

A paragraph may stand by itself. In academic writing, a paragraph is often used to answer a test question such as the following. "Define management by objectives, and give one example of it from the reading you have done for this class."

A paragraph may also be one part of a longer piece of writing such as a chapter of a book or an essay. You will first learn how to write good

paragraphs, and then you will learn how to combine and expand paragraphs to build essays.

Paragraph Structure

The following model contains all the elements of a good paragraph. Read it carefully two or three times and try to analyze its structure.

Model: Paragraph Structure

Gold

Gold, a precious metal, is prized for two important characteristics. First of all, gold has a lustrous beauty that is resistant to corrosion. Therefore, it is suitable for jewelry, coins, and ornamental purposes. Gold never needs to be polished and will remain beautiful forever. For example, a Macedonian coin remains as untarnished today as the day it was minted twenty three centuries ago. Another important characteristics of gold is its usefulness to industry and science. For many years. It has been used in hundreds of industrial applications. The most recent use of gold is in astronauts' suits. Astronauts wear gold-plated heat shields for protection outside the spaceship. In conclusion, gold is treasured not only for its beauty but also for its utility.

The Three Parts of a Paragraph:

A paragraph has three major structural parts: a topic sentence, supporting sentences, and a concluding sentence.

The **topic sentence** states the main idea of the paragraph. It not only names the topic of the paragraph, but it also limits the topic of one or two areas that can be discussed completely in the space of a single paragraph. The specific area is called the controlling idea. Notice how the topic sentence of the model states both the topic and the controlling idea:

Topic	Controlling Idea
- <u>Gold</u> , a precious metal,	is prized for <u>two important characteristics</u> .

Supporting sentences develop the topic sentence. That is, they explain the topic sentence by giving reasons, examples, facts, statistics, and quotations. Some of the supporting sentences that explain the topic sentence about gold are:

- First of all, gold has a lustrous beauty that is resistant to corrosion.

- For example, a Macedonian coin remains as untarnished today as the day it was minted twenty-three centuries ago.
- Another important characteristic of gold is its utility in industry and science.
- The most recent application of gold is in astronauts' suits.

The **concluding sentence** signals the end of the paragraph and leaves the reader with important points to remember.

- In conclusion, gold is treasured not only for its beauty but also for its utility.

Unity and Coherence:

In addition to the three structural parts of a paragraph, a good paragraph also has the elements of unity and coherence.

Unity means that you discuss only *one* main idea in a paragraph. The main idea is stated in the topic sentence, and then each and every supporting sentence develops that idea. If, for example, you announce in your topic sentence that you are going to discuss two important characteristics of gold, discuss only those. Do not discuss anything else such as the price of gold, the history of gold, or gold mining.

Coherence means that your paragraph is easy to read and understand because (1) your supporting sentences are in some kind of logical order and (2) your ideas are connected by the use of appropriate transition signals. For example, in the paragraph about gold, there are two supporting ideas: gold is beautiful, and gold is useful. Each of these supporting ideas is discussed, one after the other, and an example is given for each one. This is one kind of logical order. Furthermore, the relationship between the ideas is clearly shown by using appropriate transition words and phrases such as "first of all," "the second important characteristic," "for example," and "in conclusion."

In summary, a well-written paragraph contains five elements: a topic sentence, supporting sentences, a concluding sentence, unity, and coherence.

The Assignment Format

Below are instructions and a model of one possible format for the assignments you will prepare for this class. Your instructor may ask you to use this format, or he/she may have other requirements.

1. Use lined paper.

2. Write a title in the center of the top line.
3. Write the practice number, page number, and practice name in the upper left-hand corner.
4. Write your name, the course number, and date in the upper right-hand corner.
5. Leave one-inch margins on both sides of the page.
6. Indent the first line of every paragraph. When typing, indent the first line 5 spaces. When writing by hand, indent the first line about one inch from the margin.
7. Write on every other line.
8. Number your pages.

Model: Assignment Format

Practice number		<i>Practice1, page161</i>	<i>Name</i>	←	Your name
Page number		<i>Unity</i>	<i>English 002</i>		Course number
Practice number		<i>Gold</i>	<i>5/12/2005</i>		Date
Indent about one inch from the margin	→	<i>Gold, a precious metal, is prized for</i>			Center title
Write on every other line	→	<i>Two important characteristics. First of</i>			
		<i>all, gold has a lustrous beauty which is</i>			One-inch margin
One-inch margin	→	<i>resistant to corrosion. Therefore, it is</i>			
		<i>suitable for jewelry, coins, and ornamen-</i>			
		<i>tal purposes.</i>			

Notice that the first line in the paragraph is indented-moved to the right. While the practice of indenting is changing, particularly in business letter writing. It is still the accepted practice in academic writing.

How to Write a Title

Single paragraphs do not usually have titles. Giving your practice titles, however, may help you to organize and limit your thoughts. For longer essays or reports, though, the use of titles will become more necessary.

A title tells the reader what the topic of the paragraph is. It is usually a word or phrase, not a sentence. It should be brief, but not so brief that it doesn't tell the reader what to expect.

Remember these points when writing a title.

1. The first, last, and all important words in a title are capitalized. Prepositions and articles are not considered important words in a title. Prepositions of more than five letters, however, may be capitalized. Articles that begin the title, of course, are capitalized.
2. The title of a paragraph or essay is not underlined.
3. The title is not enclosed in quotation marks, nor is it ended with a period.
 - *My Greatest: Culture Shock.*
 - *How to choose a Good Used Car.*
 - *Inflation Affects Everybody.*
 - *Rackpacking in the Mountains.*
 - *Riding the Subway in New York.*

The Topic Sentence:

Every good paragraph has a topic sentence, which clearly states the topic and the controlling idea of the paragraph. It is a complete sentence. It is usually (but not always) the first sentence in the paragraph.

A topic sentence is the most important sentence in a paragraph. It briefly indicates what the paragraph is going to discuss. For this reason, the topic sentence is a helpful guide to both the writer and the reader. The writer can see what information to include (and what information to exclude). The reader can see what the paragraph is going to be about and is therefore better prepared to understand it.

There are three important points to remember about the topic sentence.

1. A topic sentence is a complete sentence, that is, it contains a subject, a verb, and (usually) a complement. The following are not complete sentences.
 - Driving on freeways.
 - The importance of gold.
 - How to register for college classes.
2. A topic sentence contains both a topic and a controlling idea. It names the topic and then limits the topic to a specific area to be discussed in the space of a single paragraph. The following examples show how a topic sentence states both the topic and the controlling idea in a complete sentence.
 - Driving on freeways requires skill and alertness.
 - Gold, a precious metal, is prized for two important characteristics.
 - Registering for college classes can be a frustrating experience for new students.
3. A topic sentence is the most general statement in the paragraph because it gives only the main idea. It does not give any specific details.

The following is an example of a general statement that could serve as a topic sentence:

The Arabic origin of many English words is not always obvious.

The sentence, on the other hand, is too specific to serve as a topic sentence:

The slang expression "so long" (meaning goodbye) is probably a corruption of the Arabic "salaam."

Some sentences may be too general to be good topic sentences:

English is a difficult language to learn.

Position of Topic Sentences

The topic sentence may be the first or last sentence in a paragraph. The topic sentence may also be the first and the last sentence of the paragraph—"sandwich-style." A "sandwich-style" paragraph is especially helpful to your reader if the paragraph is very long. The second topic sentence in the "sandwich-style" paragraph also serves as a concluding sentence.

Study the following three paragraphs. Notice the different positions for the topic sentence in each. The topic sentences are underlined.

Model: *Position of Topic Sentences*

Hurricanes

Hurricanes, which are also called cyclones, exert tremendous power. These violent storms are often a hundred miles in diameter, and their winds can reach velocities of seventy-five miles per hour or more. Furthermore, the strong winds and heavy rainfall that accompany them can completely destroy a small town in a couple of hours. The energy that is released by a hurricane in one day exceeds the total energy consumed by humankind throughout the world in one year.

Famous School "Failures"

Albert Einstein, one of the world's geniuses, failed his university entrance examinations on his first attempt. William Faulkner, one of America's noted writers, never finished college because he could not pass his English courses. Sir Winston Churchill, who is considered one of the masters of the English language, had to have special tutoring in English during elementary school. These few examples show that failure in school does not always predict failure in life.

Synonyms

Synonyms words that have the same basic meaning, do not always have the same emotional meaning. For example, the words "stingy" and "frugal" both mean "careful with money." However, to call a person stingy is an insult, while the word frugal has a much more positive connotation. Similarly, a person wants to be slender but not skinny, and aggressive but not pushy. Therefore, you should be careful in choosing words because many so-called synonyms are not really synonymous at all.

Writing Letters

Friendly Letters, Social Notes, Business Letters

Receiving a letter from a friend is always a satisfying experience. It is interesting to learn what he has seen and done recently, what he thinks, and what has happened to people you both know. However, you will not receive many letters unless you reply to them.

When you begin to write a letter, you may think: But I don't have anything to say! A moment's thought will show that this is untrue. What do you want to learn from a friend's letter? What questions do you want answered? Probably he has the same kinds of questions to ask you.

Friendly Letters:

In a friendly letter, write about the things that interest you and the person to whom you are writing.

Before you write a friendly letter, jot down your ideas. Include news that will interest your friend. Think of his last letter to you. Were there any questions or comments that need a reply? As you write, keep in mind the person who will receive your letter. You would not send the same kind of letter to a boy you met at summer camp as to your favorite uncle.

Study the following example of a friendly letter. Would you say that Bill is thinking of his friend Tom as he writes? Why? How would this letter be different if it were written to Bill's aunt?

1849 West Sixth Street Los
Angeles, California 90014 April 14, 1965

Dear Tom,

You asked what Carl and I have been up to lately. Well, Carl's taking care of a horse for a friend of his Dad's, but he's afraid to ride him. I said I'd ride him. You know me - no brains.

That horse bucked around the corral as if he'd been fed Mexican jumping beans. I stuck with him, though, until he reared straight up and went over backwards. Carl's Dad came running. He was mad, but all he said was that maybe we'd better put the horse back in the stable.

You asked what I'm doing for the Science Fair at school. Carl and I are preparing an exhibit showing the effects on rats of a poor diet and a well-balanced diet. We're working now on a chart comparing the two diets.

How about letting me know what you're doing?

Sincerely,
Bill

Choose stationery and link that are appropriate for a friendly letter.

Use letter stationery. White is always appropriate, though other colors may be used. *Never use lined paper.* If you can type well, type your letters. Do not type, however, if the result is usually a messy page of erasures and cross-outs.

Write in ink, never in pencil. In writing to close friends, you may use colored ink if you wish, but blue or black ink is more usual. (When writing on colored paper, avoid a colored ink that makes your letter difficult to read.) Avoid ink blots and erasures. Keep your writing neatly spaced and properly aligned; crowded lines that climb or stagger or droop give a bad impression. Make your margins wide; try to keep them equal on top and bottom as well as on the sides.

Try to estimate in advance how long your letter will be. A brief letter may require only one page. If you use folded stationery and the letter runs to two pages, do not write on the back of page one but skip over to page three. If the letter is longer than two pages, use the page order of a book; write the second page on the back of the first, and so on.

Follow generally accepted rules for the form of a friendly letter.

The form of a friendly letter is not hard to master. Study the following instructions and example.

1. Heading

The *heading* tells when and where the letter was written. It consists of three lines, placed at the upper right corner of the page. The address of the writer is placed on the first two lines, and the date on which the letter was written is placed on the third. Note that a comma is used between city and state and between the date of the month and the year. The ZIP code number appears several spaces after the state and on the same line. There is no punctuation at the ends of the lines.

18 Shipwright Street
Annapolis, Maryland 20022
April 14, 1965

Dear Bob,

Sincerely yours,
Jim

Form for a Friendly Letter

Two kinds of headings are appropriate in a friendly letter. The example "Form of a Friendly letter" is in *block style*. That is, the second and third lines of the heading begin directly below the beginning of the first line. Another style that is often used for handwritten friendly letters is *indented style*, in which the heading looks like this:

2534 Polk Place
Portland, Oregon 97235
May 12, 1987

2. *Salutation*

The *salutation* begins at the left-hand margin and is placed a short distance below the heading. In a friendly letter, it is followed by a comma.

3. *Body*

The *body* of a friendly letter is the message, what you have to say. It may begin directly below the end of the salutation, or may be indented about an inch from the left margin. The first line of each paragraph that follows must be indented the same distance.

4. *Closing*

The *closing* for a friendly letter may be *Your friend*, *Sincerely*, *Sincerely yours*, or any similar phrase you like, except *Yours truly* and *very truly yours*, which are used only on business letters. It is placed just below the final line of the letter, beginning a little to the right of the middle of the page, and is followed by a comma.

Only the first word of the closing begins with a capital.

5. *Signature*

The *signature* in a friendly letter need be only your first name. Center it under the closing. Always write the signature by hand, even if you have typed the rest of the letter.

Example:

26 Windmill Road
Bromley
Kent BR2 6DP
12th May

Dear Muna,

How are you and Ahmad? It seems ages since we saw you. I hope your new job is going well. Maher and I are both fine, and Sara is getting on well at her new school.

I'm writing now because I'm coming to Oxford next Monday for a meeting, and I wondered if we could meet for a pizza or something afterwards. Alternatively, I could just call round at your house for a little while on my way home. The meeting should be over by 4.30 at the latest.

Let me know what suits you. It would be lovely to see you if you have time.

Love from,
Su'ad

Exercise:

- 1- Write a letter to a friend from Australia inviting him to come to Jerusalem and telling him about the beautiful places he can go to in Jerusalem.
- 2- Write a letter to an old friend mentioning the beautiful old days that you were together and the unforgettable memories you have in common.
- 3- Write a letter to a friend who lost his job asking him to try for a better one. Try making him happier and hopeful and tell him how talented he is and the better job he deserves to get.

Business 'Formal' Letters

You may have already written business letters, possibly without realizing it. Perhaps you have ordered goods from a firm or requested information from an institution or government department. Later you will have occasion to write other business letters when you apply for a job or entrance to a school or when you request travel reservations and theatre tickets. Such letters are important in our daily lives, and you should learn to write them clearly and correctly.

Follow generally accepted rules for the form of a business letter.

Business firms use printed business stationery in two sizes: 8.5 X 11 inches, and (for brief letters) 5.5 X 8.5 inches. You should use unruled white paper of standard typewriter size: 8.5 X 11 inches. If you type well, it is always advisable to type your business letters. If you do not type well, however, write carefully with pen and ink.

Make your letter neat and attractive. Center it on the page, leaving equal margins on the right and left sides and on top and bottom. Avoid ink blots, erasures, and crossed-out words. Write only on one side of the page.

The form of a business letter is somewhat different from that of a personal letter. One important difference is that a business letter always includes an *inside address*. Study the following instructions and example.

1. *Heading*

A business address always requires a complete heading: street address on the first line; city, state, and ZIP code number on the second line, with a comma between the city and the state; date on the third line, with a comma between the day and the year. It is better not to abbreviate the month and the state.

Block style, not indented style, is always used in the heading of a business letter.

2. *Inside address*

A business letter, for filing purposes, requires an inside address, which gives the name and the address of the person or the firm (sometimes both) to whom you are writing. A comma is used between the city and state, and the

ZIP code number appears several spaces, or about one-quarter inch, after the state.

Place the inside address four typewriter lines below the heading and on the other side of the page, flush with the left-hand margin.

3. *Salutation*

The salutation is placed two typewriter lines below the inside address, flush with the left-hand margin. It is followed by a colon, not a comma as in a friendly letter.

567 Hardwood Street
San Diego, California 92128
December 17, 1991

Mr. John Anders
Acme Sporting Goods Company
33 Norton Avenue
Cleveland, Ohio 44105

Dear Mr. Anders:

Very truly yours,
Donald Hayes

The kind of salutation you use will vary. Writing to a person whose name you have used in the inside address, it is proper to say *Dear Mr.* _____: (or *Dear Miss* _____: or *Dear Mrs.* _____:)

Example Mr. S.E. Sorenson, Circulation Manager
 Boy's Magazine
 67 east Eighth Street
 New York, New York 10037

Dear Mr. Sorenson:

If you are writing to a person whose name you do not know, but whose official position you do know, you say *Dear Sir:* or *Dear Madam:*

Example Public Relations Director
 State Oil Company
 317 Bush Street
 Dallas, Texas 75243

Dear Sir:

If, however, you are not writing to a particular individual but to a group or a company, the correct salutation is *Gentleman:*

Example Board of Trustees
 Lafayette Elementary School District
 56 La Mesa Drive
 Lafayette, California

4. *Body*

The first sentence of the body of a business letter begins two typewriter lines below the salutation; that is, the same distance that the salutation is below the inside address. This first line may be indented about an inch or the length of the salutation. The first lines of all paragraphs in the body should be indented the same distance. (If you are using a typewriter, indent five spaces.) Keep your left-hand margin straight; keep the right-hand margin as straight as you can.

5. *Closing*

The standard form for the closing of a business letter is *Yours truly* or *Very truly yours* or *Sincerely yours*. The closing should begin a little to the right of the middle of the page. Only the first word is capitalized. A comma follows the closing.

6. *Signature*

Directly below the closing, in line with it, sign your full name in ink. If you are typing the letter, type your name below your written signature. Never put a title (Mr., Mrs., Miss, etc.) before your handwritten signature.

Very truly yours,

John Anderson

Example:

	26 Windmill Road Bromley Kent BR2 6DP 26 th September 1999
The Information Officer Welsh Tourist Board Brunel House 2 Fitzalan Cardiff CF2 1UY	
Dear Sir, I hope to have a holiday in North Wales this summer with my family. Could you please send me a list of camp-sites in the area, and information about the facilities they offer. My son and daughter would like to go ponytrekking; could you therefore also send me a list of riding centres that cater for children aged between 11 and 14? Thank you very much. Yours faithfully <i>David Watson</i> David Watson	

Exercise:

- 1- Write a letter to your company's boss asking him for a raise.
- 2- Write a letter to your company's boss resigning from your current job.

Writing a dialogue

Conversations in stories are called *dialogue*. Using dialogue is one method of making a story vivid.

Use dialogue to make your stories lively and convincing.

If you present the direct speech of people, your writing will be livelier and more realistic than if you merely describe their thoughts and feelings indirectly. Direct speech can vividly reveal the personalities of the speakers. Conversations makes a story seem more life-like and exciting.

In the following passage, the characters are engaged in conversations, but what they say is described- it is not reported directly. The result is a dull, uninteresting paragraph.

My friends Sam and Eddie went abalone fishing at Hondo Beach. When I met them, I asked where they had been. They told me. I asked what an abalone was. Sam said it was a shellfish. I asked how they caught abalone. Sam said they waded out into the water and pried them off the rocks. Eddie said the water was very cold, and that the abalone were hard to pry off the rocks. I wanted to know if the abalone were good to eat. Sam said yes, if properly cooked; but Eddie said they were awfully tough.

In the following paragraphs, the conversation is written as dialogue. Notice how much more interesting this second version is. Notice also that it is much more convincing. The dialogue not only adds liveliness; it also indicates the personalities of the speakers. Sam and Eddie sound like real people, each with a distinct personality, and the dialogue shows their personalities.

I ran into Sam and Eddie on the street.

"Where'd you go yesterday?" I asked them.

"Abalone fishing at Hondo Beach," Sam said.

"What's abalone?" I wanted to know.

"A shellfish."

"Like oysters?"

"No more like oysters," Eddie snorted, "than a wheelbarrow is like a motorcycle."

Sam explained, "An abalone has just one top shell, like a snail. It's open at the bottom."

"You fish for them with hook and line?"

"Gosh, are you ignorant!" Eddie said.

"They stick to the rocks, under water," Sam said, "and you wade out-"

"In water that's so cold you turn blue," Eddie interrupted.

"-and you pry them off the rocks. It's easy."

"Yes, sure," Eddie said, "as easy as prying names off plaques."

"What do you do with them?" I asked.

"Eat them," Sam said.

"If you're crazy enough," Eddie said. "By rights, you should use them for shoe soles."

"They're not tough if you remember to tenderize them by pounding before you fry them."

"Personally," Eddie insisted, "I prefer slabs of old automobile tire fried in axle grease."

One of the problems in writing conversation is to keep the reader aware of who is talking. There are many ways to do this. How many different ways of revealing who is speaking are shown in the passage above? Notice where the speaker is identified- at the beginning, at the end, or in the middle of his speech. With several speeches, there is no identification, yet the reader knows easily who the speaker is because the author has been careful to make it clear.

Before you write a story with conversation in it, review the rules for punctuation of dialogue. Remember these three rules:

1. Place quotation marks before and after words that anyone speaks.

2. Use commas to separate a person's speech from the rest of the sentence.
3. Start a new paragraph to indicate a change of speaker.

Exercise: Write a dialogue about:

1. The choice of two students who finished school and applied for university.
2. The rights of women in the world, one person with the women-rights and another against them.
3. The violent actions in the world, how can it be solved, two students having different opinions.

* Capitalization And Punctuation

Capitalization

In English the following are always begun with capital letters:

- (a) The first word in the sentence; e.g.
- *He* is a doctor. *Is* Mary a doctor too?
- (b) The first word of a direct quotation; e.g.
- *He* said, "*Your* brother is a decent chap".
- (c) The pronoun *I*; e.g.
- *I* am glad you came.
- (d) All proper nouns and proper adjectives; e.g.
- *John, Abdulla, New York, England, Palm Beach, The Dead Sea, The Himalayas, Washington Avenue, Mecca Street, Aswan Dam, The Middle East.*
- (e) Names of months and days of the week, e.g.
- *March, September, Monday, Tuesday*
- (f) Names of nationalities, races, religions, languages; e.g.
- *Jordanian, Palestinian, Arab, Semitic, Indian, Muslim, Christianity, Arabic, English.*
- (g) Organizations, business firms, institutions, government bodies; e.g.
- *United Nations, Security Council, UNESCO, Pan*

American Airlines, General Motors, Sheraton Hotel, University of Jordan, Al-Quds Open University, the National Assembly, the Parliament, the Congress.

(h) Titles; e.g.

- Mr., Dr., President, Dean, General

(i) The first and all important words in the titles of books, periodicals, newspapers, poems, movies, works of arts, etc.; e.g.

- *Moby Dick* (a book), *Washington Post* (a newspaper), *To a Skylark* (a poem), *War and Peace* (a book and movie), *Mona Liza* (a painting).

(j) Words referring to the Deity; e.g.

- *God, Allah, the Lord, the Almighty.*

Punctuation Marks

End Punctuation Marks

These are:

(a) **The full-stop:** used at the end of a statement; e.g.

- The fall semester begins on the first of October.

It also follows an abbreviation; e.g. Mr., Dr., B.Sc., B.C.

(b) **The question mark:** used at the end of a direct question; e.g.

- How old is your brother?

A full-stop is used instead at the end of an indirect question; e.g.

- I don't know what he wants.

A question-mark is to be placed inside the quotation marks when the quotation is a question; e.g.

- George asked, "Have you seen the accident?"

Otherwise, it should be placed outside the quotation marks; e.g.

- Did you say, "Father is coming soon"?

(c) **The exclamation mark:** used

1. at the end of an exclamatory sentence; e.g.

- What a glorious morning!
 - How elegant this building is!
2. at the end of strong imperatives; e.g.

- Shut that door now!
- Shut up!

What has been said in N.B.2 above applies here too;

e.g.

"How pretty the girl is!" exclaimed John.

The Comma

This is the most commonly used punctuation mark in English. It is important for the translator from Arabic into English to use it in the following cases:

(a) to separate *items in a list*: all but the last and the one before the last: e.g.

- There are *sheep, goats, cattle and horses* in the farm.
- words used in pairs are considered one item in a series; e.g.
- For lunch she served *macaroni and cheese, salad, ice cream and cake*, and coffee.

*Notice that in this case-and similar ones- a comma is placed after the item before the last. Another example:

- *John Brown, Camel Laird, Vickers*, and Harland and Wolf submitted tenders.

* This rule also applies to a series of adjectives preceding a noun; e.g.

- We had to attend *a long, dull, superficial* talk on proper behavior.

(b) to distinguish *a non-restrictive* from *a restrictive* relative clause; e.g.

- My father, *who is the city Mayor*, told me to do this.

(Non-restrictive).

- The man who spoke to me is the city Mayor.

(Restrictive)

(c) after some introductory elements such as: *yes, No, Oh* etc.;

e.g.

- *Yes*, I fully agree with you.

Participial and prepositional phrases; e.g.

- *Washing and polishing the car*, I developed sore muscles.

- *By the way*, I had a letter from John.

Adverb clauses; e.g.

- *While he was mountain-climbing*, he fell down and broke his leg.

(d) before (and, sometimes also, after) appositive (البَدَل); and parenthetical expressions (معترضة جمل أشباه أو جمل); e.g.

- Ahmad's father, *the well-known novelist*, was taken to hospital yesterday.

- If you apologize to your teacher and, *I am sure*, he will pardon you.

(e) to separate items in dates and addresses; e.g.

- John was born on July 22, 1973.

- Abdulla lives at 26 Tigris Street, Um Uthaina, Amman, Jordan.

(f) after the salutation of a friendly letter and after the closing of any letter; e.g.

Dear Fahed,

Yours Sincerely,

The Semicolon

This is used:

(a) between independent clauses joined by such words as: *for example, moreover, however*, etc. but not by co-ordinating conjunctions such as: *and, but, or, for, nor*, etc.

- She was ill; *therefore*, she was taken to the hospital.

- The situation was getting worse and worse in the country; *however*, the people remained quiet.

(b) to separate independent clauses, or items in a series within the clauses or after the items; e.g.

- The thieves entered the house through the garage, collected all the valuable things and put them in a sack; but they could not get them out because they were surprised by the police.

- These were the people present at the meeting: Dr.M.Warriner,

President of the Corporation; Mr. S. Smart, the accountant; and other top officials.

The Apostrophe

This is used:

(a) (with *s*) to form the possessive case of a singular noun, or a plural noun not ending in *s*; e.g.

- The man's hat
- The children's books

(b) (without *s*) to form the possessive case of plural (and some singular) nouns ending in *s*; e.g.

- The boys' books
- Charles' hat

(c) in phrases like:

- a day's rest, three days' rest
- one pound's worth, two pounds' worth

(d) to show that letters have been omitted in a word; e.g.

- They're = They are
- doesn't = does not

Quotation Marks/Inverted Commas

(a) These are used in English, but not all the time in Arabic, both in handwritten and printed matter, both by the translator and the printer and both in original and translated material, before and after direct quotations (مقتبسة كلمات), a person's exact words; e.g.

- Father said, "Go by bus; I need the car today."

Remember:

i. to begin the quotation with a capital letter.

ii. to place the full-stop, question mark, exclamation mark, or comma inside the quotation marks; e.g.

- The boss said, "You may go now."
- The teacher asked, "Can anyone answer the question?"

iii. to separate the quotation from the rest of the sentence by a comma; e.g.

- She exclaimed, "What a beautiful day!"

(b) They are also used by the translator into English (usually the

same or italics in print) to enclose unfamiliar technical terms, foreign, jargon or slang words, names of new inventions, neologisms; e.g.

- This kind of cancer is called "Leukemia"

- "The phoneme" is the smallest sound unit in a language that can indicate a difference in meaning.

- "Allah" is the Arabic word for God.

The Colon and the dash

(i) The Colon

This is used:

(a) before a list of items, especially after expressions like the following:

- The car boot was large enough for everything: mobile chairs, suitcases, fishing gear, baskets and clothing.

(b) between the hour and the minute in writing the time, e.g.

- 7:15 a.m., and

(c) between volume and page number of a journal; e.g.

- *TESOL Quarterly*, xx:73

(ii) The dash

This is used:

(a) to mean *namely*, *in other words*, *that is*, etc. before an explanation; e.g.

- The referees are authorized to prevent the friction—they could have stopped the game.

(b) to indicate an abrupt break in thought; e.g.

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- A mature man—if Ali can in fact be considered mature—could have avoided this scandal.

Parentheses and Brackets

(a) **Parentheses** are used:

to enclose incidental explanatory matter which is added to a sentence but is not considered of major importance; e.g.

- The results of the recent election temporarily affected the stock market. (*see Diagram A*).

(b) **Brackets** are used to enclose explanations within quoted material that are not part of the quotation; e.g.

- The following is a quotation from Mr Gray's address of acceptance:

"I am honoured by it [*the appointment*], but I am also aware of the responsibilities which accompany it."

Too Much Punctuation

There are a few examples of too much punctuation which should definitely be avoided:

(a) Separating the verb from its object; e.g.

- He asked, me if he could absent himself the following day.

(b) Using quotation marks before and after indirect quotations, statements, questions, etc.; e.g.

- W.S. Tell assumes "that he does not agree to what others have said or written about the issue."

(c) Separating a subject from its predicate; e.g.

- That he had committed the crime, was obvious,

(d) Separating verb to be from its complement; e.g.

- What the judge wanted to know was, how the defendant had entered the house.

(e) Using a question-mark after an indirect question; e.g.

- She asked when she could visit us?

Underlining And ITALICS

The translator into English usually underlines words:

(a) when they are the titles of printed material, plays, music, pictures, etc.;

(b) when they are foreign words;

(c) to distinguish, contrast or emphasize their importance.

Such words are usually italicized in print, or printed in bold type;

- I took a few ideas from my history text, *The Words' History*, and some others from the latest issue of the *Economist*.