



بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ



Shendi University

Semester (2)

English Language (2)

Part one

(Reading, grammar and writing)

Unit one

Reading

Introduction:

This course concentrate on developing reading and developing critical thinking through discussion and evaluation exercises. It covers variety of topics, from different fields, to expose the students to various lexis which s/he used.

Objectives of this part:

By the end of this course, students should be able to:

1. Revise their knowledge and their ability to use English language.
2. Read more fluently and accurately, then understand the themes of various texts.
3. Improve their reading speed and comprehension.
4. Infer the meaning and use the key words in given reading texts in appropriate contexts.
5. Enrich students' vocabulary.

Definition of Reading:

What is Reading?

Reading is perceiving a written text in order to understand it's content. This can be done silently (silent reading). The understanding that result is called reading comprehension.

It is also saying a written text aloud "oral reading". This can be done with or without understanding of the contents.

Different types of reading comprehension are often distinguished, according to the readers' purposes in reading and the types of reading used. The following are commonly referred to:

a. Literal comprehension:

Reading in order to understand, remember and recalling the information explicitly contained in a passage.

b. Inferential Comprehension:

Reading in order to find information which is not explicitly stated in a passage. Using the reader experience, intuition and inferring.

c. Critical or evaluative Comprehension:

Reading in order to compare information in the passage with the reader's own knowledge and value.

d. Appreciative Comprehension:

Reading in order to gain an emotional or other kind of valued response from a passage.

Types of Reading Speed:

The speed which a person reads depend on, the type of reading materials (fiction – fact), the readers purpose (to gain information or to find the main ideas) and the reader's individuals reading skills. The following are typical reading speed:

Speed	Purpose	Good reader
Slow	When material is difficult or high comprehension is required.	200_300 words per minute 80% _90% comprehension
Average	Used for everyday reading of magazines, newspapers ...etc.	250_500 words per minute 70% comprehension

Fast	When highest speed is required, comprehension is intentionally lower.	800 words per minute 50% comprehension
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There are many types of speed reading techniques:

1. **Skimming:** is a type of speed reading technique which is used when the reader wants to get the main idea from a passage. It's done at speed three to four faster than normal reading. It is used for a general sense of a passage.
2. **Scanning:** is a type of speed reading technique which is used when the reader wants to locate a particular piece of information without necessarily understanding the rest of a text. Scanning involves moving the eyes quickly down the page seeking specific words, phrase or piece of information.
3. **Extensive reading:** is the reading in quantity and in order to gain a general understanding of the text. It is intended to develop good reading habits, to build up knowledge of vocabulary and structure.
4. **Intensive Reading:** Is generally at slower speed, and requires a higher degree of understanding than extensive reading.
5. **Silent Reading:** it is more effective and help students to read efficiently.
6. **Loud reading:** it is not useful practice and it doesn't help students to read more efficiently. Loud reading is used in dialogue and to pay attention for something.

Some selected topics for reading comprehension:

1. A Strong Friendship

Joe made the world a better place. He got the idea to do that at school. He watched a video there. It was about a factory. This factory produced a lot of trash and put it in a river. The trash and water were a bad mix. People populated the area by the river and drank its water. This made them sick. Many of them needed medicine and made regular visits to doctors.

But the video wasn't all bad news. It showed ways to pick up trash and why it's important to do this. It said people can make a difference to their environment. The video's important features made Joe associate trash with hurting people.

One day Joe walked through a park. He recognized some of the problems from the video. One instance of these problems was the trash in the pond. It was full of plastic cups. There was too much trash. Joe didn't want it to hurt anyone.

He told his grandfather about the park. His grandfather said, "You know, it's a tradition in our family to help people. That's why we give food to poor people. Maybe you can help people by cleaning the park."

Cleaning the park would involve hard work. Joe decided to organize a group to help him. He chose a wide area of the park. It had the most trash. He asked his family and friends to come. On Saturday, he gave everyone a sharp stick. They wondered why. He said, "You use the stick's tip to pick up trash. This makes it easier." They worked for six weeks. Different people helped each time, but Joe was always there.

In that period of time, Joe saw a range of results. There was no trash in the water. People could swim in it. Joe knew that was a good sign. He was happy because he helped his environment.

Reading Comprehension

Answer the questions.

1. What is the main idea of this story?

- a. A grandfather teaching traditions
- b. How to recognize signs of sickness
- c. An instance of videos helping students study
- d. A boy helping the environment

2. When did the boy decide to clean the park?

- a. After he saw a video about a factory harming a river with its trash
- b. After he went there on regular visits
- c. After he saw a range of people cleaning it
- d. After he associated trash with harming people

3. Why did the people in the video get sick?

- a. A factory put trash in a river.
- b. They produced too much trash.
- c. They populated too many parks.
- d. They had no medicine for a long period.

4. Why was it easy to pick up the trash?

- a. It did not involve hard work.
- b. Joe did not organize the group.
- c. They used the tips of sharp sticks.
- d. The people had a good mix of tools to use.

5. What did the features of the video make Joe do?

.....

2. The Laboratory

Mia's father had a laboratory, but she had no idea what was in it. Her dad always closed and locked the door when he went in. She knew that he used it to do projects for work. He never told Mia what these projects were.

1 One night, Mia approached the door to the laboratory. She stopped and thought, "I wonder what crazy experiment he is doing now." Suddenly, she heard a loud noise. It sounded like an evil laugh. The noise scared her, so she walked quickly back to her room.

The next night, her friend Liz came to her house. When Liz arrived, Mia told her about the night before. "Oh, it was terrible," she said.

"Why don't we see what is in there?" Liz asked. "It will be a fun adventure!" Mia felt nervous about going into her father's laboratory, but she agreed. As always, the door was locked. They waited until Mia's father left the laboratory to eat dinner. "He didn't lock the door!" Liz said. "Let's go."

The laboratory was dark. The girls walked down the stairs carefully. Mia smelled strange chemicals. What terrible thing was her father creating?

Suddenly, they heard an evil laugh. It was even worse than the one Mia heard the night before. What if a monster was going to kill them? Mia had to do something. She shouted for help.

Mia's father ran into the room and turned on the lights. "Oh, no," he said. "You must have learned my secret." "Your monster tried to kill us," Mia said.

“Monster?” he asked. “You mean this?” He had a pretty doll in his hands. The doll laughed. The laugh didn’t sound so evil anymore. “I made this for your birthday. I wanted to give it to you then, but you can have it now. I hope you like it!”

Reading Comprehension

Answer the questions.

1. What is this story about?

- a. A girl’s terrible experiment.
- b. A secret that two girls have.
- c. A girl who gets nervous about what’s in a laboratory.
- d. A man who creates chemicals.

2. What scares Mia when she approaches the door?

- a. The room is very dark.
- b. She hears a person shout.
- c. She smells fire.
- d. She hears a loud noise.

3. What is true of Mia in the story?

- a. A monster kills her friend.
- b. She does not like adventures.
- c. She always locks the door of her room.
- d. Her birthday has not come yet.

4. What project was Mia’s father working on?

- a. A doll to give to Mia for her birthday.
- b. A way to keep the door closed.
- c. A chemical that smells worse than fire.
- d. A monster that had an evil laugh.

5. When did Mia and Liz go into the laboratory?

.....

3. By the Water

I live in a house by the water. I sit by the water each day. I take my bag there with me. In it, I pack a book, a blanket, a chair, and a basket of food. I walk down my back steps and sit in the same spot along the grass. When I go out to the water in the morning, I am alone. I hear the water. I see the boats. I feel calm. *It is the part of the day I like best.* Later, some children come to play by the water.

It is afternoon. I hear them laughing. I see them play ball. "Nestor, Nestor!" the children yell when they see me on the beach. I wave and smile. "Play ball with us, Nestor!" the children shout. "No, thanks," I say. "I am too old to play ball. I walk with a cane and my hands are no longer good at catching." I try to read my book, but it is hard with all the noise.

I watch mothers and fathers fish along the shore. I am happy. I hear the water. I see the boats. I eat my lunch. Later, the **sky gets dark**. I gather all of my things and go back to the house. I get in bed. I hear the water through my open window. The sound puts me to sleep.

Questions

1) Where does Nestor live?

- a. on a farm
- b. on a mountain top
- c. in a boat on the water
- d. in a house by the water

2) What does Nestor do each day?

- a. sit by the water
- b. play by the water
- c. run by the water
- d. swim in the water

3) What does Nestor bring with him to the water?

- a. a newspaper
- b. a blanket
- c. food
- d. his fishing pole

4) Who is with Nestor in the morning?

A. _____

5) What do the children do by the water?

- a. boat
- b. fish
- c. laugh
- d. play ball

6) When do children come to the water?

A. _____

7) What kind of person does Nestor seem to be?

- a. calm
- b. sad
- c. loud
- d. young

8) What does the children's noise make it hard for Nestor to do?

- a. eat
- b. catch fish
- c. read
- d. sleep

Questions (continued)

9) Who fishes?

A. _____

10) Why doesn't Nestor play with the children?

- a. He feels he is too old.
- b. He cannot catch.

c. He is very hungry.

d. He is very sleepy.

11) How do Nestor's feelings change during the story?

a. from calm to sleepy to happy

b. from sleepy to calm to happy

c. from calm to happy to sleepy

d. from happy to sleepy to calm

12) What does Nestor mean when he says that the sky gets dark?

a. that it is night

b. that it is raining

c. that the wind is blowing

d. that the sky is angry

13) What is Nestor's favorite part of the day?

a) the morning

b) when he is watching the children

c) the afternoon

d) the night

14) When does Nestor hear the water?

a. only in the morning

b. only in the afternoon

c. only in the night

d. all the time

15) What is another way to say It is the part of the day I like best?

a. I do not like this part of the day.

b. I love this part of the day.

c. It is my favorite part of the day.

d. I like all parts of the day.

c) the afternoon

d) the night

16) When does Nestor hear the water?

a. only in the morning

- b. only in the afternoon
- c. only in the night
- d. all the time

17) What is another way to say It is the part of the day I like best?

- a. I do not like this part of the day.
- b. I love this part of the day.
- c. It is my favorite part of the day.
- d. I like all parts of the day.

18) What is your favorite part of the day? Why?

4-The Park

Reem likes to go to the park with her mom.

She likes to play at the park with her friends.

Today when Reem goes to the park, she looks around and becomes very sad.

“What is wrong, Reem?” Mom asks.

“There is so much trash on the ground,” Reem says. “It seems like each day, I see more trash here.”

Reem and her mom look around.

There are old boxes on the ground.

There are popped balloons on the ground.

There are old cans, too.

“You are right,” Mom says. “The park is very dirty.

” “What can we do?” Reem asks.

“I am sure you will think of something,” Mom says.

Reem and her mom go home. Reem paints a picture of a park. She uses blue, green, brown and yellow paint.

PLEASE KEEP OUR PARK CLEAN, she writes in big letters on top of her picture.

“Let’s go back to the park, Mom,” Reem says.

“Okay,” Mom says.

Reem grabs a bunch of trash bags to take with her. She also brings along some tape.

When Reem gets to the park, she tapes her picture on a big trashcan.

“Here you go!” she says to her mom. She hands Mom a bag. “Will you help me pick up the trash?”

“I sure will,” Mom says. The children at the park run over to see what is going on.

Reem hands them bags. “Let’s clean this place up,” she says. The children pick up lots of trash. They talk and laugh as they work. Soon all the bags are full.

“We need to **come back another day**. There is still some trash on the ground,” Reem says. “But the park looks much better.” “It does,” Mom says. “I knew you would think of some way to help.”

Questions:

1) Why is Reem sad?

- a. her friends are not at the park
- b. she cannot find her mom
- c. there is a lot of trash at the park
- d. she hurts herself on the slide

2) What is on the ground?

- a. old cans
- b. old boxes
- c. old food
- d. old shoes

3) What does Reem do when she gets home?

A. _____

4) Where does Reem put her picture?

A. _____

5) Why does Reem tape her picture to the trashcan?

- a. so people can see it
- b. so it falls to the ground
- c. so people get mad
- d. She is tired of holding it

6) Who helps Reem pick up trash?

- a. her dad
- b. her mom
- c. no one
- d. other children

7) What does Reem give the children?

- a. brooms
- b. gifts
- c. mops
- d. trash bags

8) What does Reem learn at the park?

- a. that she can help make things better
- b. that people do not care about the park
- c. that her mom does not like to pick up trash
- d. that the park has no trashcans

9) How might Reem and her friends feel after cleaning up?

- a. funny
- b. good
- c. mad
- d. sad

10) How does the park look after everyone cleans it up?

- a) all clean
- b) better
- c) very dirty

d) more dirty

11) Why does Reem say that she will come back another day?

a. to play at the park

b. to clean up more trash

c. to empty the trash bags

d. to show her dad her work

Can you think of other ways to fight pollution and preserve the environment?

Unit two

Grammar

Grammar

Objectives of this part:

By the end of this course, the students are expected to be able:

1. To identify and use appropriately the parts of speech.
2. To compare people/ things using comparatives and superlatives.
3. To use conditional sentences in an appropriate way.
4. To report sentences. (Direct and indirect speech)
5. To identify and use auxiliary verbs (can, could, will, would, must, ought to, may and might).

Introduction:

What is grammar?

I will be using the word **grammar** in this book to refer to the set of rules that allow us to combine words in our language into larger units. Another term for grammar in this sense is **syntax**.

Why do we study grammar?

The study of language is a part of general knowledge. We study the complex working of the human body to understand ourselves; the same reason should attract us to studying the marvellous complexity of human language.

Everybody has attitudes towards the English language and its varieties, and has opinions on specific features. These attitudes and opinions affect relationships with other people.

Parts of Speech Table (Revision)

part of speech	function or "job"	example words	example sentences
<u>Verb</u>	action or state	(to) be, have, do, like, work, sing, can, must	English Club is a web site. I like English Club.
<u>Noun</u>	thing or person	pen, dog, work, music, town, London, teacher, John	This is my dog. He lives in my house. We live in London.
<u>Adjective</u>	describes a noun	a/an, the, 2, some, good, big, red, well, interesting	I have two dogs. My dogs are big. I like big dogs.
<u>Adverb</u>	describes a verb, adjective or adverb	quickly, silently, well, badly, very, really	My dog eats quickly. When he is very hungry, he eats really quickly.
<u>Pronoun</u>	replaces a noun	I, you, he, she, some	Tara is Indian. She is beautiful.
<u>Preposition</u>	links a noun to another word	to, at, after, on, but	We went to school on Monday.
<u>Conjunction</u>	joins clauses or sentences or words	and, but, when	I like dogs and I like cats. I like cats and dogs. I like dogs but I don't like cats.

part of speech	function or "job"	example words	example sentences
<u>Interjection</u>	short exclamation, sometimes inserted into a sentence	oh!, ouch!, hi!, well	Ouch! That hurts! Hi! How are you? Well, I don't know.

The Comparison of Adjectives

The Comparative Form

To compare two people or things, use the comparative form of an adjective.

The comparative form is usually made by adding **er** to the adjective.

adjective	comparative form	adjective	comparative form
dark	darker	hard	harder
light	lighter	warm	warmer
high	higher	cold	colder
low	lower	fast	faster
old	older	slow	slower
young	younger		
rich	richer		
poor	poorer		
tall	taller		
small	smaller		
soft	softer		

Example: Yuri is smarter than Joe.

The word than is often used to compare two things or people. For example, you say:

Mr. Lee is taller than Philip.

A car is faster than a bike.

The Superlative Form

When you compare three or more people or things, use the superlative

form of an adjective. The superlative form is usually made by adding **est** to the adjective.

Adjective	superlative form	adjective	superlative form
Dark	darkest	warm	warmest
light	lightest	cold	coldest
high	highest	fast	fastest
low	lowest	slow	slowest
old	oldest		
young	youngest		
rich	richest		
poor	poorest		
tall	tallest		
small	smallest		
soft	softest		
hard	hardest		

Example: Monika is the **tallest of** the three sisters.

The word **the** is often used before the superlative form. For example:

A bee is a small insect. A ladybird is smaller, but an ant is **the** smallest.

If the adjective ends in **e**, add **r** to form the comparative and **st** to form the superlative

Adjective	comparative	superlative
nice	nicer	nicest
close	closer	closest
large	larger	largest
rude	ruder	rudest
safe	safer	safest
wide	wider	widest

Suppose the adjective is a short word that ends in a consonant and has a single vowel in the middle. Just double the consonant and add **er** to make the comparative and **est** to make the superlative.

adjective	comparative	superlative
sad	sadder	saddest
wet	wetter	wettest
slim	slimmer	slimmest
thin	thinner	thinnest
big	bigger	biggest

Use **more** and **most** to compare most other two-syllable adjectives. You will also use **more** and **most** with all adjectives that have *more* than two syllables.

adjective	comparative	superlative
famous	more famous	most famous
precious	more precious	most precious
handsome	more handsome	most handsome
exciting	more exciting	most exciting
beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
expensive	more expensive	most expensive
comfortable	more comfortable	most comfortable
delicious	more delicious	most delicious
interesting	more interesting	most interesting
difficult	more difficult	most difficult

Irregular Comparative and Superlative Forms

A few adjectives don't form their comparative and superlative forms in any of the usual ways. The comparative and superlative forms of these adjectives are different words, called irregular forms.

adjective	comparative	superlative
good	better	best
bad	worse	worst
little	less	least
many	more	most
far	farther or further	farthest or furthest

For example:

My painting is good, Melanie's painting is better, but Andrew's painting is the best.

Conditionals Sentences:

*If (1) possible:

If clause

main clause

Present simple:

Future simple (will. Shall)

Examples:

1. If I go to university I shall meet my colleagues.
2. If he gets up late he will miss the lecture.
3. If they read hard they will succeed at exam.

If (2) impossible:

If clause

Main clause

Past simple

Future past (should, would +
infinitive)

*Examples:

1. If I went to university I should meet my colleagues.
2. If he got up late he would miss the lecture.
3. If they read hard they would succeed at exam.

If (3) can not be fulfilled:

If Clause

Main Clause

Past perfect

Future Perfect

(had+ pp)

(should, would +have +pp)

Examples:

1. If I had gone to university I should have met my colleagues.
2. If he had got up late he would have missed the lecture.
3. If they had read hard they would have succeeded at exam.

REPORTED SPEECH

DIRECT AND INDIRECT (OR REPORTED) SPEECH. INTRODUCTION

There are two ways of relating what a person has said: direct and indirect. In direct speech we repeat the original speaker's exact words:

He said, "I have lost my umbrella."

PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES: CHANGES NECESSARY

- First and second person pronouns and possessive adjectives normally change to the third person except when the speaker is reporting his own words.
- (I = he, she;
- me = him, her;
- my = his, her;
- mine = his, hers;
- we = they...)

She said, "he's my son". → *She said that he was her son.*
"I'm ill", she said. → *She said that she was ill.*

B. THIS / THESE

This used in time expressions usually becomes **that**.

She said, "She's coming this week". → *She said that she was coming that week*

This and **that** used as adjectives usually change to **the**.

He said, "I bought this pearl/these pearls for my mother".
He said that he had bought the pearl/the pearls for his mother.

This, these used as pronouns can become **it, they/them**.

He came back with two knives and said, "I found these beside the king's bed". □
He said he had found them beside the king's bed.

EXPRESSIONS OF TIME AND PLACE IN INDIRECT SPEECH

A. Adverbs and adverbial phrases of time change as follows:

INDIRECT SPEECH	DIRECT SPEECH
that day	today
the day before	yesterday
two days before	the day before yesterday
the next day/the following day	tomorrow
in two days' time	the day after tomorrow
the following week/year etc.	next week/year etc.
the previous week/year etc.	last week/year etc.
a year before/the previous year	a year etc. ago

"I saw her the day before yesterday", he said. → He said he'd seen her two days before.

"I'll do it tomorrow", he promised. → He promised that he would do it the next day.

She said, "My father died a year ago". → She said that her father had died a year before/the previous year.

B. But if the speech is made and reported on the same day these time changes are not necessary:

At breakfast this morning he said, "I'll be very busy today". → At breakfast this morning he said that he would be very busy today.

C. here can become there but only when it is clear what place is meant:

At the station he said, "I'll be here again tomorrow". → He said that he'd be there again the next day.

Usually here has to be replaced by some phrase:

She said, "You can sit here, Tom". → She told Tom that he could sit beside her.

STATEMENTS IN INDIRECT SPEECH: TENSE CHANGES NECESSARY

A. Indirect speech can be introduced by a verb in a present tense: He says that ... This is usual when we are:

a. reporting a conversation that is still going on

b. reading a letter and reporting what it says

c. reading instructions and reporting them

d. reporting a statement that someone makes very often, e.g. *Tom says that he'll never get married.*

When the introductory verb is in a present, present perfect or future tense we can report the direct speech without any change of tense:

PAUL (phoning from the station): *I'm trying to get a taxi.*

ANN (to Mary, who is standing beside her): *Paul says he is trying to get a taxi*

B. But indirect speech is usually introduced by a verb in the past tense. Verbs in the direct speech have then to be changed into a corresponding past tense. The changes are shown in the following table.

INDIRECT SPEECH	DIRECT SPEECH
Simple Past = He explained (that) he never ate meat.	Simple Present "I never eat meat", he explained.
Past Continuous = He said (that) he was waiting for Ann.	Present Continuous "I'm waiting for Ann", he said.
Past Perfect = He said (that) he had found a flat.	Present Perfect "I have found a flat", he said.
Past Perfect Continuous = He said (that) he had been waiting for ages.	Present Perfect Continuous He said, "I've been waiting for ages".
Past Perfect = She said (that) he had taken it home with her.	Simple Past "I took it home with me", she said.
Conditional = He said (that) he would be in Paris on Monday.	Future He said, "I will/shall be in Paris on Monday".
Conditional Continuous = She said (that) she'd been using the car herself on the 24th.	Future Continuous "I will/shall be using the car myself on the 24h", she said.
Conditional = I said (that) I would like to see it.	Conditional I said, "I would like to see it".

QUESTIONS IN INDIRECT SPEECH:

Direct question: *He said, "Where is she going?"*

Indirect question: *He asked where she was going.*

A. When we turn direct questions into indirect speech, the following changes are necessary:

- tenses, pronouns and possessive adjectives, and adverbs of time and place change as in statements.
- the interrogative form of the verb changes to the affirmative form.
- the question mark is omitted in indirect questions.

B. If the introductory verb is **say**, it must be changed to a verb of inquiry, e.g. **ask, wonder, want to know** etc.

He said, "Where is the station?" → *He asked where the station was.*

C. **ask** can be followed by the person addressed (indirect object):

He asked, "What have you got in your bag?" → He asked (me) what I had got in my bag.

COMMANDS, REQUESTS, ADVICE IN INDIRECT SPEECH

Direct command: *He said, "Lie down, Tom".*

Indirect command: *He told Tom to lie down.*

Indirect commands, requests, advice are usually expressed by a verb of command/request/advice + object + infinitive.

A. The following verbs can be used: **advise, ask, beg, command, order, remind, tell, warn** etc.

He said, "Get your coat, Tom!" → He told Tom to get his coat.

B. Negative commands, requests etc. are usually reported by **not** + infinitive:

"Don't swim out too far, boys", I said → I warned/told the boys not to swim out too far.

YES AND NO IN INDIRECT SPEECH

yes and **no** are expressed in indirect speech by subject + appropriate auxiliary verb.

- *He said, "Can you swim?" and I said "No" → He asked (me) if I could swim and I said I couldn't.*
- *He said, "Will you have time to do it?" and I said "Yes" → He asked if I would have time to do it and I said that I would.*

Auxiliary verb

Auxiliary verb, or helping verbs, are used before infinitives to add a different meaning.

For example, you use auxiliary verbs to say:

- **n** that someone is able to do something,
- **n** that someone is allowed to do something, or
- **n** that someone has to do something.

The helping verbs are **can, could, would, should, ought to, will, shall, may, might** and **must**.

Can and could

Use can and could to say that someone is able to do something.

- ✓ She can draw really good pictures.
- ✓ Philip can run faster than Matt.
- ✓ Can you ride a bike?
- ✓ Can you help me with my homework?
- ✓ She could already read before she started school.
- ✓ Our teacher said we could go home early.
- ✓ I ran as fast as I could.
- ✓ Sarah could not come to the party because she was ill.

You may also use can and could to say that someone is allowed to do something.

- ✓ My mom says you can come to our house for dinner.
- ✓ Dad says I can't walk to school on my own.
- ✓ You can't go in there without a ticket.
- ✓ Mom said I could have ice cream after my dinner.
- ✓ The big sign on the gate said PRIVATE, so we couldn't go in.

n Could is the simple past tense form of can.

n When you put not after can write it as one word: cannot.

- ✓ They cannot find their way home.

n The contraction of cannot is can't, and the contraction of could not is couldn't.

- ✓ They can't find their way home.
- ✓ I'm full. I can't eat any more.
- ✓ Sarah couldn't come to the party because she was ill.

Can and could are also used for asking for information or help, for offering something, and for suggesting something.

- ✓ Can you tell me if this train goes to Topeka?
- ✓ Could you show me where the accident happened?

- ✓ Could you open that window, please?
- ✓ You can borrow my pen, if you like.
- ✓ Your sister could come with us, if she wanted to.
- ✓ I could lend you my football.
- ✓ We can go to the library instead.
- ✓ You could ask your dad to help us.
- ✓ John can borrow his brother's skates

will and would

Use will and would when you are asking someone to do something.

- ✓ Will you please stop making that noise?
- ✓ Would you pass me that book, please?
- ✓ Please, will you close the door?

You can also use will and would to offer something or to suggest something.

- ✓ Will I hold this end of the rope?
- ✓ Will I carry the bag for you?
- ✓ Would you like another drink?
- ✓ Which cake would you like?

shall and should

You can use shall and should to ask for advice, offer something and suggest something..

- ✓ Should I bring waterproof clothes?
- ✓ Shall I go by car, or will it be better to walk?
- ✓ Should I phone the police?
- ✓ Shall I help you with that heavy bag?
- ✓ Shall we go home now?

ought to

You use ought to make strong suggestions and talk about someone's duty.

- ✓ You look tired. You ought to go to bed early tonight.
- ✓ I ought to get more physical exercise.
- ✓ We ought to lock the door when we leave home.
- ✓ You ought to turn off the computer when you're not using it.
- ✓ You ought to know how to spell your own name.
- ✓ The teacher ought to make his classes more interesting.

must

- ✓ **Use must to talk about things that you have to do.**
- ✓ I must mail this letter today.
- ✓ You must speak louder. I can't hear you.
- ✓ Children must not play with matches.
- ✓ Go to bed now. Oh, must I?
- ✓ Why must I do my homework tonight

may and might

Use may to ask if you are allowed to do something and to tell someone that they are allowed to do something.

- ✓ "May I go out to play now?" "Yes, you may."
- ✓ May I borrow your pen?
- ✓ Please may I see your ticket?
- ✓ John may leave now, but Sally may not.
- ✓ May Kenny come with us to the movies?

Use may and might to talk about things that are possible or likely.

- ✓ Take an umbrella. It might rain.
- ✓ I may not have time to go swimming tonight.
- ✓ We might go to the party later.
- ✓ If you're not careful, you may hurt yourself.
- ✓ "Are you going to the concert?" "I don't know. I might or I might not."

Unit 3

Writing

Writing is an act of joining words into sentences on paper. Certainly a large part of composing takes place in the mind.

Objectives of this unit:

By the end of this unit, the students are expected to be able:

1. To write numbers in appropriate way
2. To master the rules of capitalization
3. To use contraction correctly
4. To identify the conjunction and its types and use them in a sentence.

1-Rules for writing numbers

While writing numbers, sometimes we use figures or digits and sometimes we write out the number in words. Here is a quick overview of the rules for writing numbers.

Small numbers

- Numbers smaller than ten should be spelled out.

Two birds were sitting on a branch. (NOT ‘2 birds were sitting on a branch.’)

- Two-word numbers should be expressed in figures. Examples are: 24, 32, 56 etc.

I got only **35** marks in English. (More natural than I got only thirty-five marks in English.)

- One-word numbers can be spelled out. Examples are: **eleven, thirteen, twenty, thirty** etc.
- When writing large number, we often use commas.

There are 746,372 voters in this constituency.

- The period (full stop) is used as a decimal separator. Example: 10.5
- The International Systems of Units (SI) does not recommend the use of commas or periods.
- SI recommends that a space should be used to separate groups of three digits.

He earns \$1 500 000 a year.

- You cannot begin a sentence with a numeral.

Write ‘Twenty years ago...’ (NOT 20 years ago...)

- Sometimes you will have to change the structure of the sentence to remove the numeral from the beginning.

Write ‘They sold 400,000 copies on the first day’ instead of ‘400,000 copies were sold on the first day.’

- **Centuries should be spelled out.**

In the **nineteenth** century

- But some writers also use a combination of numbers and letters. Example:
19th century

Percentages

In a less formal style, you can use the symbol %. In formal writing, you should spell the percentage out.

She got 96% marks. (Informal)

She got 96 percent marks. (Formal)

2-The rules of capitalization

The rules of capitalization in English can be quite confusing. Most students understand that they should begin a sentence with a capital letter. They also understand that proper nouns (e.g. Mark, Mary) should be capitalized.

However, the most common mistakes occur with national adjectives and the names of languages.

If you find the rules of capitalization confusing, this will be helpful to you.

- **Capitalize** ‘I’
- **Capitalize** the names of countries.

Examples: Japan, America, Russia Capitalize national nouns and adjectives.

Examples: Chinese, Russian, French, British

- **Capitalize** the first letter of the first word in a sentence or question.
- **Capitalize** proper nouns (i.e. the names of people). Examples: John, Mary, Annie
- Do not capitalize common nouns. Examples: boy, tree, flower, butterfly
- **Capitalize** the names of institutions, organizations etc.
- **Capitalize** the names of festivals. Examples: Id, Diwali, Easter, Christmas Study the examples given below.

He went to **university**.

University is a common noun and hence we do not capitalize it.

He went to Oxford University. (NOT He went to oxford university.)

- The names of universities, organizations, institutions, mountains, deserts and rivers are capitalized.
- Note that when you write the name of a university or an organization, all words in the name begin with capital letters.

Examples

British Broadcasting Corporation (NOT British broadcasting corporation)

United Nations Organization (NOT United nations organization)

Notes in British English, the article ‘the’ is not normally used before the names of universities, public buildings or organizations. However, in American English, ‘the’ is more often used in such cases.

He studied at the Harvard University. (US)

Correct the mistakes in the following sentences.

1. He introduced me to mary, his wife.
2. I don’t understand french, but I can speak a little spanish.
3. They went skiing in the alps.
4. She bought a new Car for her birthday.

5. Peter comes from new england.

Answers

1. He introduced me to Mary, his wife.

2. I don't understand French, but I can speak a little Spanish.

3. They went skiing in the Alps.

4. She bought a new car for her birthday.

5. Peter comes from New England.

3-Contractions

The forms like I've, don't etc. are called contractions. There are two kinds:

1-Auxiliary verb + not

can't (= cannot)

wouldn't (= would not)

shouldn't (= should not)

won't (= will not)

haven't (= have not)

isn't (= is not)

You shouldn't do it.

I can't come. He won't go.

2-Noun / pronoun / etc + auxiliary verb

I'm. (= I am.)

She's gone. (= She has gone.)

They've come. (= They have come.)

Where's the station? (= Where is the station?)

Nobody's there. (= Nobody is there.)

- Contractions are formed with modal auxiliary verbs, and also with be and have when they are not auxiliary verbs.

The contracted form 's can be written after nouns, pronouns, questions words, here and now.

She's ready. (= She is ready.)

Here's our bus. (= Here is our bus.)

- The short forms 'll, 'd and 're are written after pronouns and unstressed there.

She'd like to talk to you. (= She would like to talk to you.)

You're very late. (= You are very late.)

He'll come. (= He will come.)

In other cases, we usually write the full forms.

Alice will be surprised to find you here. (NOT Alice'll be ...)

Contractions are not usually written with double subjects.

John and I have decided to go on a vacation. (NOT John and I've decided to go on a vacation.)

Note that in a contraction the apostrophe goes in the same place as the letters that we leave out.

Examples are:

hasn't = has not (NOT ha'snt)

they'd = they would (NOT the'yd)

- Note that shan't and won't have only one apostrophe each although words are left out in more than one place.

shall not = shan't

will not = won't

Finally, learn this irregular (unusual) contraction:

will + not = **won't**

EXERCISE 1. Write the contraction.

Sample:

have + not = *haven't*

1. has + not =.....

2. must + not =.....

3. can + not =.....

4. should + not =.....

5. will + not =.....

EXERCISE 2. Change each of the following contractions to *formal* English.

Samples:

didn't _____ did not

I've _____ I have

1. hasn't _____

6. can't _____

2. isn't _____

7. weren't _____

3. won't _____

8. you'd _____

4. I'll _____

9. wasn't _____

5. shouldn't _____

The contraction *ain't* is considered nonstandard. This means that *ain't* should not be

used in either formal or informal English situations. Avoid it.

Not use

I *ain't* ready.

Ain't I next?

They *ain't* come back.

USE

I'm not ready.

or **I am not ready.**

Am I not next?

They haven't come back.

or **They have not come back.**

• **4-Abbreviation, Acronym and Initialism**

Abbreviation

The label abbreviation refers to the practice of writing a word or phrase that could also be written out in full using only the letters of the alphabet. Examples are:

- **Mr** for mister,

- **Dr** for doctor and
- **Capt** for captain.
- **tel.** – telephone
- **BA** - Bachelor of Arts
- **BS** - Bachelor of Science

In British English full stops are uncommon after abbreviations that contain the first and last letters of the full expression. Examples are: Dr and Mr

In American English, full stops are common, and Mr. and Dr. are preferred.

An abbreviation usually does not have a distinct pronunciation of its own: we pronounce Mr as ‘mister’ and ‘Dr’ as ‘doctor’. There are, nevertheless, a few exceptions to this rule. For example, the abbreviation p. for pence is sometimes pronounced as ‘pee’.

• **Acronym**

An acronym is a word constructed from the initial letters of the main words in a phrase. Examples are: LASER and SCUBA. An acronym can be pronounced as a word and it has the same meaning as the original phrase.

- **AIDS** - Acquired Immuno deficiency Syndrome. ...
- **LASER** for Light Amplification by the Stimulated Emission of Radiation
- **NATO** for North Atlantic Treaty Organization
- **PIN** - Personal Identification Number. ...
- **UNICEF** - The United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund

• **Initialism**

An initialism is a word constructed from the initial letters of the principal words in a phrase. It is formed in the same way as an acronym but cannot be pronounced as a word. Examples are:

- **BBC** for British Broadcasting Corporation and
- **UNO** for United Nations Organization.
- **DVD** - Digital Versatile Disc
- **CD** - Compact Disc
- **ATM** - Automated (or Automatic) Teller Machine

5-List of Conjunctions used in English

Conjunctions join words, phrases and clauses together. This provides a brief overview of the different types of conjunctions and their function in sentences.

1. Coordinating Conjunctions

but

so

or

and

Coordinating conjunctions join words, phrases, or independent clauses of a sentence together.

They often link similar grammatical parts of a sentence together (parts of speech + parts of speech / phrase + phrase / clause + clause).

Here are some example sentences:

1. We went to the park, **but** we did not have time for the museum.
 2. She has to work late tonight, **so** she cannot make it to party.
 3. Let's meet at the beach **or** in front of the hotel.
 4. On Friday night we watched TV **and** a movie.
- In a sentence, coordinating conjunctions come in between the individual words, phrases, and independent clauses they are joining.

2. Subordinating Conjunctions

□ **after** / **before** □ **although** / **even though** □ **because** / **as** □ **if** □ **as long as** □ **till** / **until** □ **unless** □ **when** / **once** / **as soon as** □ **while** / **whereas** □ **in spite of** / **despite**

Subordinating conjunctions join an independent clause (which contains both a subject and a verb and can act as a complete sentence) and a dependent clause (which also contains a subject and a verb, but is not a complete sentence). Here are some example sentences:

1. They went running, **although** / **even though** it was very hot.
2. We went to the beach **despite** / **in spite of** the rainy weather.
3. We decided to go to the cinema **because** / **as** it was too cold to go to the beach.

4. Monica lives in New York, **while** / **whereas** her brother lives in California.
5. He went to work **after** he (had) finished his breakfast.
6. He finished breakfast **before** he went to work.
7. I will go there **if** / provided that / as long as you go too.
8. I won't go there **unless** you go too
9. We can leave **when** / once you are ready.
10. You can't drive **until** / **till** you get your license.

Subordinating conjunctions always come at the beginning of a dependent clause. However, dependent clauses can sometimes come before an independent clause (separated by a comma). So, we could write the above sentences this way:

1. Although / Even though it was very hot, they went running.
2. Despite / In spite of the rainy weather, we went to the beach.
3. Because / as it was too cold to go to the beach, we decided to go to the cinema.
4. While / Whereas her brother lives in California, Monica lives in New York.
5. After he (had) finished his breakfast, he went to work.
6. Before he went to work, he finished his breakfast.
7. If / Provided that / As long as you go too, I will go there.
8. Unless you go too, I won't go there.
9. When / Once you are ready, we can leave.
10. Until / Till you get your license, you can't drive.

Coordinating conjunctions join parts of sentence that are similar whereas subordinating conjunctions often shows a contrasting or unequal relationship.

3. Linking words across sentences

Linking words across sentences always link a second sentence to an idea in the previous sentence. That means they come at the beginning of the second sentence.

□ In addition, / Furthermore, □ However, / On the other hand, □ Therefore, / Consequently, □ First(ly), / Second(ly), / Third(ly), / Finally,

 **Complete the following:**

We ate a pizza _____ a kebab. (**BUT** / **AND** / **SO**)

We had some cake _____ we didn't have any coffee. (**UNLESS** / **UNTIL** / **BUT**)

I had a headache _____ I didn't go to the party. (**WHEN / SO / WHEREAS**)

You can have a coffee _____ a tea but not both. (**OR / TILL / BUT**)

I can't come to school _____ I have an important appointment. (**SO / BECAUSE / UNLESS**)

I will call you _____ I get home. (**AS / AND / WHEN**)

_____ you do your homework, you will pass the course. (**UNLESS / UNTIL / AS LONG AS**)

I wanted to eat Japanese food _____ my wife wanted to eat Chinese food. (**SO / WHEN / WHEREAS**)

You cannot go into that bar _____ you are 18 or older. (**PROVIDED THAT / UNLESS / AS**)

She still went to work _____ she was sick. (**EVEN THOUGH / UNTIL / IF**)

Don't call me _____ you have finished your work. (**UNTIL / WHILE / AS LONG AS**)

_____ the bad weather, they decided to have a picnic. (**BECAUSE / DESPITE / WHEREAS**)

Wash your hands _____ you eat your dinner. (**TILL / WHEN / BEFORE**)

I did not have the correct visa. _____, I could not enter the country. (**BECAUSE / AS / CONSEQUENTLY**)

I like milk, butter, cream and yoghurt. _____, I don't like cheese. (**SO / HOWEVER / AND**)

He did not pass the exam because he had not studied or done his homework. _____, he did not go to school on the exam day. (**OR / UNTIL / IN ADDITION**)

You can have an ice-cream _____ you have finished you homework. (**SO/PROVIDED THAT/OR**)

_____ john was fixing the car, his wife was making sandwiches. (**WHILE / UNTIL / DESPITE**)

He could not get the job _____ his excellent qualifications. (**BECAUSE / WHILE / IN SPITE OF**)

I will love you _____ I die. (**AFTER / UNLESS / TILL**)

I had a shower _____ I got home. (**BUT / AS SOON AS / UNTIL**)

_____ you don't work hard you won't get a promotion. (**IF / SO / AS LONG AS**)

You won't get a promotion _____ you work hard. (**WHILE / UNLESS / BECAUSE**)

_____ we had no money, we still had a good time. (**FINALLY / HOWEVER / ALTHOUGH**)

ANSWERS

We ate a pizza and a kebab.

We had some cake but we didn't have any coffee.

I had a headache so I didn't go to the party.

You can have a coffee or a tea but not both.

I can't come to school because I have an important appointment.

I will call you when I get home.

As long as you do your homework, you will pass the course.

I wanted to eat Japanese food whereas my wife wanted to eat Chinese food.

You cannot go into that bar unless you are 18 or older.

She still went to work even though she was sick.

Don't call me until you have finished your work.

Despite the bad weather, they decided to have a picnic.

Wash your hands before you eat your dinner.

I did not have the correct visa. Consequently, I could not enter the country.

I like milk, butter, cream and yoghurt. However, I don't like cheese.

He did not pass the exam because he had not studied or done his homework. In addition, he did not go to school on the exam day.

You can have an ice-cream provided that you have finished your homework.

While John was fixing the car, his wife was making sandwiches.

He could not get the job in spite of his excellent qualifications.

I will love you till I die.

I had a shower as soon as I got home.

If you don't work hard you won't get a promotion.

You won't get a promotion unless you work hard. Although we had no money, we still had a good time.