

People's Democratic Republic of Algeria
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research



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FACULTY OF TECHNOLOGY
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ENGLISH LECTURE HANDOUT

PRESENTED BY:

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FOR FIRST YEAR STUDENTS LICENCE
TECHNOLOGY

OVERVIEW

The English syllabus consists of the following major parts. Sample texts are used to let students acquainted with both Scientific and Technical English as well as for both scientific and technical vocabulary and grammar acquisition.

The texts are selected according to the vocabulary built up, familiarization with both scientific and technical matters in English and further comprehension. Each text is therefore followed by a set of vocabulary concepts, a set of special phrases (idioms) and comprehension questions.

There is also a terminology which means the translation of some words from English to French one. Besides, the texts are followed at the end by a translation of long statements which are selected from the texts.

SEMESTER 1:
ENGLISH 1 (T112)

PROGRAM CONTENT

A. Phonetics:

- Consonant sounds: eg : /k/; /m/; /b/;/j/
- Vowels sounds: eg: /e/; /i/; /u:/
- Diphthongs: eg: /aI/; /eI/
- Triphthongs: eg: /eIa/; /aIa/

B. General Grammar:

1- Parts of speech

- Verb: definition, transitive, negative form, interrogative form, regular, irregular ...
- Noun: definition, kind, singular, plural, compound nouns ...
- Adverbs: definition
- Adjectives: definition

2- Types of sentences

- Simple sentences
- Compound sentences (using connectors eg.: but, ...)
- Complex sentences (using relative pronouns eg. who, where, ...)

C. Texts and Activities:

Activities, scientific or technical texts are included progressively, in which we focus on the application of the previous lessons.

LECTURE 1: PHONETICS

Definition:

Phonetics is the scientific study of speech sounds and how they are produced.

Vowel and consonant sounds

- **Vowels** are sounds in which there is no obstruction to the flow of air as it passes from the larynx to the lips. E.g. /u:/ ; /i/

Types of vowels

1- Short vowels

English has a large number of vowel sounds; the first ones to be examined are short vowels. The symbols for these short vowels are:

- ɪ (example word): *fish*
- e (example word): *yes*
- æ (example word): *man*
- ʌ (example word): *but*
- ɒ (example word): *gone*
- ʊ (example word): *push*

2- Long vowels

There are five long vowels; these are the vowels which tend to be longer than the short vowels in similar context.

i: (example words): *mean, peace*

ɜ: (example words): *bird, purse*

ɑ: (example words): *card, pass*

ɔ: (example words): *board, horse*

u: (example words): *loose, soon*

3- diphthongs

Diphthongs sounds consist of a movement or glide from one vowel to another. The total number of diphthongs is eight. The easiest way to remember them is in terms of three groups divided as in this diagram.

diphthong	
Centring	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• ending in ə : ɪə (fierce), eə (scarce), ʊə (tour)
Closing	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• ending in ɪ: eɪ (face), aɪ (nice), ɔɪ (voice)• ending in ʊ : əʊ (home), aʊ (house)

4- Triphthongs

The most complex English sounds of the vowel type are the triphthongs. A triphthong is a glide from one vowel to another and then to a third, all produced rapidly and without interruption. The triphthongs can be looked on as being composed of the five closing diphthongs, with ə added at the end. Thus we get:

- eɪ + ə = eɪə (player)
- aɪ + ə = aɪə (fire)
- ɔɪ + ə = ɔɪə (loyal)
- aʊ + ə = aʊə (hour)
- əʊ + ə = əʊə (lower)

Consonant sounds are speech sounds produced by partly or totally blocking the path of the air through the mouth. E.g. /m/ ; /f/

PRACTICE

Text:

In order to talk about electricity, it is necessary first to talk about the atom. The idea of the “atom” has a long history, one extending back to about 600 B.C. and the time of the ancient Greeks. They believed that all matter was made up of atoms. The word “atom”, in fact, comes from the Greek word “atoms” which means “indivisible”. It was until 1897 that it was discovered that the atom is not indivisible but is composed of even smaller particles. Among these particles is one called the electron.

Electrons orbit around the center or nucleus of the atom, such as the planets in the solar system orbit around the sun.

Electrons flow easily through certain kinds of materials called “conductors”. Many metals, such as silver, copper, gold, and aluminum, are good conductors. Good conductors are used in electric circuits to provide a path for the current.

Questions:

1) Comprehension

1. Give a title to the text.
2. What did the ancient Greeks believe about the atom?
3. When was it discovered that the atom is not indivisible?
4. What are the components of the atom?
5. Cite, according to the text, some good conductors.

2) Vocabulary / Grammar

1. Give the synonyms of the following words: orbit, many, path.
2. Give the opposite of the following word: indivisible.
3. Underline in the text: a verb, an adjective, an adverb.

3) Translation / Transcription

1. Translate the following words into French: atom, nucleus, electricity, electron.

2. Transcribe the following words: atom, electricity, electron, nucleus, current, system, planet, word, many, sun, such, among.
3. Answer the following statements by true (**T**) or false (**F**). Correct the false ones.
- a) /aɪ'dɪə/, this word ends in a short vowel.
 - b) /ɜːbɪt /, /ɜː / in this word is a long vowel.
 - c) /'æ t ə m/, this word contains schwa.

LECTURE 2: VERBS

Definition: A verb is any action (walk), occurrence (happen), or state of being (be).
A word indicating action or a state.

Categories of verbs: there are different types of verbs corresponding closely to different types of Object and Complement.

1- Extensive verbs can be either **transitive or intransitive**. They are intransitive if they don't permit any of the four objects and complement types i.e. Od, Oi, Cs, Co
E.g. It (s) rained (v) steadily (A) all day (A).

1-a- **Transitive verbs** take a direct object. Some in addition, permit an indirect object. A few verbs take an object complement.

2- **Stative verbs:** Some verbs are not usually used in the continuous/ progressive forms in certain meanings, especially when the verbs have a meaning of knowledge, sense of perception or of emotion. When these verbs show a state of condition rather than an activity or an event, they can be called stative.
E.g. believe, feel, recognize. (Knowledge and mental activity)
hear, see, sound, smell (sense of perception)

3- **Dynamic verbs:** Dynamic verbs are the ones which are fitted to indicate action, activity, and temporary or changing conditions.
E.g. His brother **grew** happier.

Negative form

- The simple present tense: third person singular does not/ doesn't+ infinitive; other persons do not/ don't+ infinitive.
- The simple past tense negative for all persons is did not/ didn't+ infinitive.
- Contractions are usual in speech
 - He does not/ doesn't answer letters.
 - They do not/ don't live here
 - I did not/ didn't phone her.
- The negative for all other tenses is formed by putting not after the auxiliary.
 - He has not/ hasn't finished / - He would/ wouldn't come.

Interrogative form

Simple present tense interrogative: do I / you/ we/ they + infinitive
Does he/ she/ it + infinitive
e.g. Does Peter enjoy party?

Simple past tense interrogative: did + subject+ infinitive.
e.g. Did he enjoy Ann's party?

a- Wh –questions : the wh- questions (which, when, why, where, what, who, whose and how) are a special set of pro- forms used in questions to ask for the identification of subject, object, complement, or an adverbial of a sentence.

e.g. They (1) make him (2) the chairman (3) every year (4).

- (1) **Who** makes him the chairman every year?
- (2) **Whom** do they make the chairman every year?
- (3) **What** do they make him every year?
- (4) **When** do they make him the chairman?

b- Yes- no questions: Besides wh questions, which elicit information on particular parts of a sentence, there are questions which seek a yes or no response in relation to the validity of an entire predication.

- (1) Is the girl now a student?
- (2) Did John search the room carefully?
- (3) Has he given the girl an apple?

Interrogative negative form

Isn't the girl a student? OR Is the girl not a student?
 Didn't John search the room? OR Did John not search the room?
 Hasn't he given the girl an apple? OR Has he not given the girl an apple?

Regular and irregular verbs

John searched the big room and the small one. (Regular verb)
 I found him working. (Irregular verb).

Activity: Write the past simple and the past participle of these verbs:

Verb	Past simple	Past participle
break	broke	broken
wash	washed	washed
speak	spoke	spoken
rain	rained	rained
prepare	prepared	prepared
put	put	put

LECTURE 3: INTERROGATIVES (WH QUESTIONS)

Interrogatives:

For persons: subject who
 Object whom, who
 Possessive whose

For things: subject/object what

Interrogative adverbs:

- a- **Why?** Means ‘for what reason?’
E.g. why was he late? He missed the bus.
- b- **When?** means ‘at what time’
E.g. when do you get up? I get up at 7a.m.
- c- **Where?** means ‘in what place’
E.g. where do you live? I live in London.
- d- **How?** means ‘in what way’
E.g. How did you come? I came by plane.
How do you start the engine? You press this button.

‘How’ can also be used

- a- **With adjectives.** E.g. how important is this letter?
- b- **With much and money.** E.g. how much (money) do you want?

How many (pictures) did you buy?
- c- **With adverbs.** E.g. how fast does he drive?

ACTIVITIES.

Activity one: Choose the correct question and suggest an answer.

- 1- What was the exam like? / What the exam was like?
What was the exam like? It was easy.
- 2- What does she looks like? / What does she look like?
What does she look like? She is tall.
- 3- What is his father? / What his father is?
What is his father? He is a dentist.

Activity two: Ask questions on the underlined part of each sentence.

- 1- A safe worker must think about his work.
Who must think about his work?
- 2- She studied hard to make her parents happy.
Why did she study hard?
- 3- They arrive late.
When do they arrive?

LECTURE 4: NOUNS

1-kinds of nouns in English

There are four kinds of nouns in English:

***Common nouns**: man, cat

***Proper nouns**: Celine, France

***Abstract nouns**: beauty, fear

***Collective nouns**: team, group

2- Plurals

A- The plural of a noun is usually made by adding **s** to the singular:

E.g. day→ days house→ houses

Other plural forms

B- Nouns ending in **o** or **ch**, **sh**, **ss** or **x** form their plural by adding **es**:

E.g. tomato→ tomatoes church→ churches brush→ brushes kiss→ kisses
box→ boxes

But words of foreign origin or abbreviated words ending in **o** add **s** only:

E.g. photo→ photos piano→ pianos kilo→ kilos

C- Nouns ending in **y** following a consonant form their plural by dropping the **y** and adding **ies**: e.g.

Country→ countries lady→ ladies

* Nouns ending in **y** following a vowel form their plural by adding **s**:

E.g. boy→ boys day→ days

D- Twelve (12) nouns ending in **f** or **fe** drop the **f** or **fe** and add **ves**. These nouns *are calf, half, knife, leaf, life, loaf, self, sheaf, shelf, thief, wife, wolf.*

E.g. life→ lives wife→ wives

*The nouns *hoof, scarf* and *wharf* take either **s** or **ves** in the plural:

E.g. hoofs or hooves scarf or scarves wharfs or wharves

E- A few nouns form their plural by a vowel change:

E.g. foot→ feet man→ men mouse→ mice tooth→ teeth

woman→ women goose→ geese louse→ lice

*The plurals of *child* and *ox* are *children* and *oxen*.

F- Collective nouns, crew, family, team etc. can take a singular or plural verb; singular if we consider the word to mean a single group or unit: e.g. our team is the best.

or plural if we take it to mean a number of individuals: e.g. our team are wearing their new jerseys.

G- Compound nouns:

1-Normally the last word is made plural: e.g. boy-friend→ boy-friends

2- The first word is made plural with compounds formed of **noun+preposition+noun**. e.g. sisters-in-law.

3- Uncountable nouns (also known as non-count nouns or mass nouns)

***Names of substances** considered generally: e.g. bread, cream, oil

***Abstract nouns**: e.g. advice, beauty, courage, fear

Uncountable nouns are always singular and are not used with a/an: e.g. I don't want (any) advice or help. I want (some) information.

These nouns are often preceded by some, any, no, a little etc.

NB.

* Many of the nouns in the above groups can be used in a particular sense and are then countable. They can take a/an in the singular and can be used in the plural; for example, hair (all the hair on one's head) is considered uncountable, but if we consider each hair separately, we say one hair, two hairs etc.: her hair is black. Whenever she finds a grey hair she pulls it out.

* Some abstract nouns can be used in a particular sense with a/an:

a help

E.g. My children are a great help to me.

a knowledge + of:

E.g. He had a good knowledge of mathematics.

a love+of/ a dislike+ of

E.g. a love of music.

ACTIVITIES:

Activity one: Give the plural of each word:

- 1- girl → **girls**
- 2- city → **cities**
- 3- box → **boxes**
- 4- tooth → **teeth**
- 5- life → **lives**

Activity two: Find the nouns that correspond to the following verbs:

Infiltrate test compress develop infect distill produce inform

Infiltration / test/ compression/ development/ infection/ distillation/ production/ information

Activity three: Fill in the gaps with the right word. Some words from the above list may be used.

- 1- Machines have made mass **production** possible in factories.
- 2- Clouds are formed by **evaporation** of water in the atmosphere.
- 3- **Automation** is a term which describes the use of machines to control other machines.
- 4- A computer is a machine that stores and handles **information**.
- 5- **Compression** is the process of reducing the volume of a substance by outside forces.

LECTURE 5: ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

I/ **Adjective** is a word that describes or modifies a noun.

E.g. The *unhappiest, richest* man / A *solid* commitment.

1- Attribute and predicative adjectives

The major syntactic function of adjectives is attribute and predicative.

a- **Determiner – adjective- noun,**

e.g. a **pleasant** holiday. (Attribute adjective).

b- **Subject- verb- subject complement** (adjective),

e.g. The holiday is pleasant (predicative adjective)

c- **Subject- verb- object- object complement** (adjective),

e.g. we made him happy (predicative adjective).

The large majority of adjectives may be used attributively and predicatively.

** However such adjectives are attribute only e.g. (only, Roman)

E.g. A Roman holiday.

** The adjectives “ill” and “afraid” are predicative only.

E.g. The soldier is afraid.

** Some adjectives change their meaning when moved from one position to the other.

E.g. A small farmer is a man who has a small farm, but the farmer is small means that he is a small man physically.

II/ **Adverb** is a word that modifies a verb, an adjective, another adverb, or a sentence.

Kind of adverbs:

Manner: e.g. bravely, fast, hard e.g. He works hard

Place: away, everywhere, here, nowhere, there etc e.g. She went away.

Time: afterwards, eventually, lately, recently, tomorrow e.g. I will wait till tomorrow.

Frequency: always, continually, frequently, once, repeatedly, never e.g. He can never understand.

Degree: almost, barely, so, too, fairly, extremely e.g. I am almost ready.

Sentence: these modify the whole sentence or clause and normally express the speaker’s opinion: certainly, definitely, luckily, surely e.g. He certainly works hard.

Interrogative adverbs: why, when, where, how, e.g. Why was he late?

Relative adverbs: when, where, why e.g. The year when he was born.

III/ Adverbs and adjectives with the same form

	Used as adverbs	Used as adjectives
back	Come back soon	The back door
hard	They work hard	The work is hard
fast	The train went fast	A fast train
right	Turn right here	The right answer
straight	She went straight home	A straight line
wrong	He led us wrong	This is the wrong way

ACTIVITIES:

Activity one: What is the difference between these sentences?

a- The train is early.

The train is early means that it is before its proper time.

b- An early train

An early train means a train scheduled to run early in the day.

Activity two: Fill in the gaps with the right word: *only, suspiciously, ever, old, obviously, where.*

a- He looked at me **suspiciously**.

b- Have you **ever** ridden a camel?

c- He is **obviously** intelligent.

d- The hotel **where** they were staying.

e- He is my **only** son.

f- This house is **old**

LECTURE 6: OVERVIEW OF CLAUSES

Definition:

A clause is a **group of words with its own subject and verb**. Clauses allow you to **combine ideas** to show their relationship. This adds logic and cohesion to your speech and writing.

There are two types of clauses: *independent clauses* (main clauses) and *dependent clauses* (subordinate clauses and relative clauses).

- **An independent clause** is a complete sentence because it has its own subject and verb and expresses a complete thought.
- **A dependent clause** is part of a sentence, so it cannot stand alone.

Independent clause	Dependent clause
He had no qualification	; however he got the job.

- **Although the dependent clause** shown on the previous chart has a subject and a verb, **it does not express a complete thought**. As a result, it cannot stand alone.
- **A dependent clause** often **starts** with a **word** that makes the clause unable to stand alone; for example, *however*. These words are **subordinating conjunctions**.
- **Subordinating conjunctions** link an independent clause to a dependent clause. Each subordinating conjunction expresses a relationship between the dependent clause and the independent clause.

The following chart lists the subordinating conjunctions used most often and the relationships they express.

Subordinating conjunctions	Relationship
Unless, provided that, if	<i>Condition</i>
Because, as	<i>Reason</i>
Rather than, than, whether	<i>Choice</i>
Though, although, even though, but	<i>Contrast</i>
Where, wherever	<i>Location</i>
In order that, so	<i>Result</i>
While, once, when, since, as whenever, after, before, until, as soon	<i>Time</i>

Exercise: Join the following pairs of sentences using suitable connectors:

1. You don't like him. You can still be polite.
.....
2. We camped there. It was too dark to go on.
.....
3. John was angry. We were late.
.....

LECTURE 7: THE RELATIVE CLAUSE

Definition: a relative clause is a dependent clause. It adds extra information or necessary information about one of the nouns in the main clause. It goes immediately after the noun it is related to. The relative pronouns “**who, whose, which, that**” introduce it.

1) The relative pronoun as subject of a relative clause.

E.g. A man is rich. He may spend his money foolishly.

The man **who is rich** may spend his money foolishly.

Note: ‘*That*’ is a possible alternative after *all, everyone, everybody, no one, nobody and those*.

E.g. Nobody **who/ that** knew him liked him.

2) The relative pronoun as object of a relative clause.

E.g. There is the doctor. I met him yesterday.

There is the doctor whom/ who/ that I met yesterday.

Or: There is the doctor I met yesterday. (Relative pronoun omitted when used as object).

3) Whose: is the possessive determiner form of “**who**”. It usually refers to a person or people.

It replaces **his, her, and their** or a possessive case (s).

E.g. The film is about a spy whose wife betrays him.

(Relative clause- possessive)

Functions of a relative clause:

1) **Defining/ Restrictive clause:** it introduces *information indispensable* for defining the noun it is related to. It limits/ restricts the noun it modifies.

E.g. “The house has just been sold” “Which house are you talking about?”

The house **that/ which** I showed you last week.

2) **Non-defining/ non-restrictive clause:** it adds extra/ *additional information*, but that can be useful. The omission of this information doesn’t affect the meaning of the sentence.

E.g. Mrs. Porter’s house has just been sold. It has been for sale for two years.

Mrs. Porter’s house, **which has been for sale for two years**, has just been sold.

Notice the use of **comas (,)** when dealing with non- defining relative clauses.

Sentence relative clause:

It refers back to the whole clause or sentence, not just to one noun. It always goes at the end of the clause or sentence.

E.g. Tina admires the Prime Minister. **And this surprises me.**

Tina admires the Prime Minister, **which surprises me.**

Relative pronouns used in relative clauses

	Subject	Object	Possessive
For persons	who that	whom/who that	whose
For things	which that	which that	whose/ of which

Note: do not use “**that**” at the beginning of a non- defining clause.

LECTURE 8: TYPES OF SENTENCES

1- Simple Sentence

A simple sentence, also called an independent clause, contains a subject and a verb, and it expresses a complete thought.

1. Some students (s) like (v) to study in the mornings.
2. Juan and Sami (s) play (v) football every afternoon.
3. Alicia (s) goes (v) to the library and studies (v) every day.

The three examples above are all simple sentences. Note that sentence 2 contains a *compound subject*, and sentence 3 contains a *compound verb*. Simple sentences, therefore, contain a subject and verb and express a complete thought, but they can also contain compound subjects or verbs.

2- Compound Sentence

A compound sentence contains *two independent clauses* joined by a *coordinator*. The coordinators are as follows: *for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so*. (Helpful hint: The first letter of each of the coordinators spells FANBOYS.) Except for very short sentences, coordinators are always preceded by a comma.

1. I tried to speak Spanish, and (coordinator) my friend tried to speak English.
2. Sami played football, so (coordinator) Maria went shopping.
3. Sami played football, for (coordinator) Maria went shopping.

The above three sentences are compound sentences. Each sentence contains two independent clauses, and they are joined by a coordinator with a comma preceding it. Note how the conscious use of coordinators can change the meaning of the sentences. Sentences 2 and 3, for example, are identical except for the coordinators. In sentence 2, which action occurred first? Obviously, "Sami played football" first, and as a consequence, "Maria went shopping." In sentence 3, "Maria went shopping" first. In sentence 3, "Sami played football" because, possibly, he didn't have anything else to do, *for* or *because* "Maria went shopping."

3- Complex Sentence.

A- A complex sentence has an independent clause joined by *one or more dependent clauses*. A complex sentence always has a *subordinator* such as *because, since, after, although, or when* (and many others) or a *relative pronoun* such as *that, who, or which*.

1. When (subordinator) he handed in his homework, he forgot to give the teacher the last page.
2. The teacher returned the homework after (subordinator) she

- noticed the error.
- The students are studying because (subordinator) they have a test tomorrow.
 - After (subordinator) they finished studying, Juan and Maria went to the movies
 - Juan and Maria went to the movies after (subordinator) they finished studying.

When a complex sentence begins with a subordinator such as sentences 1 and 4, a comma is required at the end of the dependent clause. When the independent clause begins the sentence with subordinators in the middle as in sentences 2, 3, and 5, no comma is required. If a comma is placed before the subordinators in sentences 2, 3, and 5, it is wrong.

Note that sentences 4 and 5 are the same except sentence 4 begins with the dependent clause which is followed by a comma, and sentence 5 begins with the independent clause which contains no comma. The comma after the dependent clause in sentence 4 is required, and experienced listeners of English will often *hear* a slight pause there. In sentence 5, however, there will be no pause when the independent clause begins the sentence.

B- Complex Sentences / Adjective Clauses

Finally, sentences containing adjective clauses (or dependent clauses) are also complex because they contain an independent clause and a dependent clause. In these sentences, the independent clauses are underlined.

- The woman who called my mom sells cosmetics.
- The book that Maria read is on the shelf.
- The house which Abraham Lincoln was born in is still standing.
- The town where I grew up is in the United States.

ACTIVITIES:

Activity 1: Fill in the gaps with the right word: **stimulate** / **if** / **even if** / **as** / **text-based**

The pedagogical strength of multimedia is that it uses the natural information-processing abilities that we already possess as humans. The old saying that “a picture is worth a thousand words” often understates the case especially with regard to moving image **as** our eyes are highly adapted to detecting and interpreting movements. For the student, one advantage of multimedia courseware over the **text-based** variety is that the application looks better. **If** the courseware includes only a few images at least, it gives relief from the screen and **stimulate** the eye **even if** the image have little pedagogical value.

Activity 02: The above paragraph is about the advantages of multimedia. Write another paragraph on the same topic using a simple sentence, and a complex one.

Multimedia which refers to woven combination of text, graphic art, sound, animation, and video elements offers a unique advantages in the field of education.(a complex sentence) multimedia enables learning through exploration, discovery and experience. (a simple sentence).

TEXTS FOR APPLICATION

Text I: Metals

The study of metals began in the Middle Ages when alchemists searched for a technique to convert “base metals”, like lead, to gold. They never succeeded in making gold but at least by experimenting with the metals.

Iron, which is the most widely used metal, is rarely found in the Free State (not combined with other metals) and must be extracted from naturally occurring compounds such as pyrite. The beautiful colours of rocks are due almost entirely to these iron compounds. In fact, iron pyrite is often called fool’s gold because of the similarity of its colour to gold.

Aluminum is the most abundant metal, but it was not used until a century ago because it is so active chemically and difficult to extract. Like iron it is solid, but in contrast to iron and steel, aluminum is very light. These qualities make it useful for airplanes, trains, automobiles...

In the 1940’s, magnesium emerged as an important metal. (Although) it is less abundant in the earth, more chemically active and harder to extract than aluminum, it is present in sea water and that means there is almost an endless supply for it.

- 1- Classify the underlined verbs into regular and irregular verbs.

Began: irregular verb

Succeeded: regular verb

Used: regular verb

Extracted: regular verb

Emerged: regular verb

- 2- What does the subordinating conjunction “although” express?

Although expresses **opposition**

- 3- Give an example using “although”.

Although he is rich, he is unhappy.

- 4- Form adverbs from these adjectives : abundant- solid (**abundantly, solidly**)

- 5- Ask questions on the underlined part of these sentences.

- Aluminum is the most abundant metal

What is the most abundant metal?

- The study of metals began in the Middle Ages.

When did the study of metals begin?

- 6- , which is the most widely used metal; explain the reason behind using commas in this sentence. Is the relative pronoun “that” a possible alternative in this sentence?

Commas are used in this sentence as it is a **non- restrictive sentence**.

The relative pronoun “that” is not a possible alternative in this sentence.

- 7- Translate the following into French: metal-gold- steel- iron

Metal (le métal) -gold (l’or) - steel (l’acier) - iron (le fer)

Text 2: Electrical Hazards

The two main hazards of electricity are electric shock and fire. Both hazards can be avoided if electrical equipment and installations are properly used.

How does electric shock occur?

Electricity escapes from a circuit by travelling to earth. If it travels to earth through a human body, it causes an electric shock. The shock may be small, or it may be fatal. This depends upon the voltage of the electricity and the resistance of the body and ground. An electric shock is more dangerous when resistance is low. For example, wet ground has lower resistance than dry ground. A man on wet ground may be killed by an electric shock. Similarly, most metals have a low resistance.

Fires in electrical equipment are caused by overheating or sparking. They can also be caused by damaged insulation. The main danger of most small fires is that they can quickly spread.

Electricians and other workers doing electrical repairs should take special precautions: before starting work, they must switch off the electric current at the mains and wear thick rubber shoes- rubber has a high resistance to electric current.

Adapted from Industrial safety C.J. Moore and R.V. Allot

Exercise1: what do or not do in case of:

* Electric shock

* Electrical fire

A- Switch off the electric current immediately.

B- Immediately sound the fire alarm.

C- If you cannot find the switch, free the casualty from electrical contact with a dry wooden stick or hold his clothes to pull him.

D- Shut the doors and windows to cut oxygen supply.

E- Never touch someone who has received an electric shock.

F- Remove any material, object or equipment which can burn.

G- If not, he must be given artificial respiration.

H- Do not let the cause walk and let him warm respiration.

Correction:

* **Electrical shock**

A / C / E / H

* **Electrical fire**

B / D / F / G

TERMINOLOGY COURSES

Geometry

Definition:

Geometry is the study of points, lines, angles, and shapes, and relationships and properties.

Some Key Terms to Know

Fill in the gaps with the words below:

ray, point, line segment, line, plane.

- **Plane:** a flat surface that extends infinitely in all directions.
- **Point:** a location on a plane.
- **Line:** a straight path of points that goes on indefinitely.
- **Line segment:** all of the points on a line between two specific end points.
- **Ray:** all of the points on a line going out from one end point indefinitely in one direction.

ANGLES

Definition:

An angle is formed by the meeting of two rays at the same end point.

The point where the two rays meet is called *the angle's vertex*.

The rays are called **the sides** of the angle.

Angles are measured in degrees. If an angle is less than 90 degrees, it is called an *acute angle*. If it is exactly 90 degrees, it is called a *right angle*. And if it is more than 90 degrees, it is called an *obtuse angle*.

Numerals

Cardinal numbers

Points to notice about cardinal numbers

A- When writing in words, or reading, a number composed of three or more figures we place **and** before the word denoting tens or unit:

713 seven hundred and thirteen

5,102 five thousand, one hundred and two but

6,100 six thousand, one hundred (no tens or units)

B- “**a**” is more usual than **one** before **hundred, thousand, million**, etc when these numbers stand alone or begin an expression: 100 a hundred; 1,000 a thousand; 100,000 a hundred thousand

We can also say a hundred and one, a hundred and two etc. up to a hundred and ninety- nine and a thousand and one etc. up to a thousand and ninety- nine. Otherwise, we use one, not a. So:

1,040 a/ one thousand and forty but

1,140 one thousand, one hundred and forty

C- the words hundred, thousand, million and dozen, when used of a definite number, are never made plural: e.g. six hundred men

If however these words are used loosely, merely to convey the idea of a large number, they must be made plural: e.g. thousands of birds.

Ordinal numbers

A- When writing in words or reading fractions other than $\frac{1}{2}$ (a half) and $\frac{1}{4}$ (a quarter) we use a combination of cardinal and ordinal numbers:

$\frac{1}{4}$ a /one quarter (a is more usual than one)

Points to notice about ordinal numbers

A- When ordinal numbers are expressed in figures the last two letters of the written word must be added(except in dates):

first = 1st

forty-second= 42nd

- In compound ordinal numbers the rule about **and** is the same as for compound cardinal numbers: 101st = the hundred and first.

B- Titles of kings etc. are written in Roman figures

James III Elizabeth III

But in spoken English we use the ordinal numbers preceded by the:

James the Third Elizabeth the Third

SEMESTER 2:
ENGLISH 2 (T212)

PROGRAM CONTENT

A. Phonetics:

- Pronunciation of the final (ed)
- Silent letters : definition, spelling + pronunciation of each letter

B. General Grammar:

1- Tenses

- Simple present
- Simple past
- Simple future
- Present continuous
- Present perfect
- Past perfect

2- Modals

- eg: can, may, should, must ...

3- Reported speech

4- Using English:

- To compare
- To define
- To report

C. Texts and Activities:

Activities, scientific or technical texts are included progressively, in which we focus on the application of the previous lessons.

LECTURE 1: PRONUNCIATION OF THE FINAL (ED)

Voiceless sounds take /t/ /f/ /h/ /k/ /ks/ /p/ /s/	Voiced sounds take /d/ /b/ /d/ /dg/ /g/ /j/ /l/ /m/ /n/ /ng/ /r/ /v/ /w/ /z/ +all vowel sounds	These sounds take /id/ /t/ /d/
laughed talked	Rubbed hugged	painted added

ACTIVITIES:

Activity one: Classify the following verbs according to the pronunciation of their final ed:

Instructed handled gripped bugged gained

/t/	/d/	/id/
gripped	Handled -bugged -gained	instructed

Activity two: Choose the correct ending sound for these words:

1. smelled _____

/t/ /d/ /id/

3. walked _____

/t/ /d/ /id/

5. saved _____

/t/ /d/ /id/

7. needed _____

/t/ /d/ /id/

9. asked _____

/t/ /d/ /id/

2. rested _____

/t/ /d/ /id/

4. called _____

/t/ /d/ /id/

6. played _____

/t/ /d/ /id/

8. bugged _____

/t/ /d/ /id/

10. wanted _____

/t/ /d/ /id/

LECTURE 2: SILENT LETTERS

Definition:

A **letter** that is usually left unpronounced, such as the *b* in *subtle*, the *c* in *scissors*, the *g* in *design*, and the *t* in *listen*.

According to Ursula Dubosarsky, roughly "60 percent of words in **English** have a silent letter in them" (*The Word Snoop*, 2009).

Examples and Observations:

- The letter combination *gh* is silent in the following words: *bought, caught, dough, eight, flight right, sleigh, sigh, taught, thought*.
- **Different Kinds of Silent Letters**
"Edward Carney, author of *A Survey of English Spelling* distinguishes two kinds of **silent letters**: *auxiliary* and *dummy*.

Auxiliary letters are part of a group of letters that spell a sound that does not have a usual single letter to represent it. For example,

/th/ thing /th/ there /sh/ share /zh/ treasure /ng/ song

Dummy letters have two subgroups: *inert letters* and *empty letters*. *Inert letters* are letters that in a given word segment are sometimes heard and sometimes not heard. For example:

resign (g is not heard)
resignation (g is heard)
malign (g is not heard)
malignant (g is heard)

Empty letters are letters that do not have a function like auxiliary letters or inert letters. The letter *u* in the word *gauge* is empty. Here are some examples of silent consonants:

Silent b: thumb Silent c: indict Silent ch: yacht Silent d: bridge
Silent g: foreign Silent h: rhinoceros Silent k: knee Silent l: calf

Silent m: mnemonic Silent n: autumn Silent p: receipt Silent t: castle

Silent w: answer

There are no rules that we can apply to words with empty letters [;] you just have to use them and remember their spelling."

- **Silent Consonants**

Silent consonant letters constitute one of the problem areas in respect to pronunciation of English words. To solve some of the problems of the learners, a few spelling sequences containing silent letters are discussed below:

(*) *b* is always silent in the spelling sequences *mb* and *bt* occurring in the word-final position: *comb, numb, bomb, limb, debt. ...*

(*) *d* is always silent in the spelling sequence *dj*: *adjective, adjunct, adjacent. ...*

(*) *g* is silent in the spelling sequence *gm* or *gn*: *sign, phlegm*

(*) *h* is silent in the spelling sequence *gh* and in the word-final position: *ghost, oh.*

(*) *k* is always silent in the word-initial spelling sequence *kn*: *knee knowledge,*

Exercise: Read each word and choose which letter is silent.

Gnome: silent letter is G

Wrap: silent letter is W

Spaghetti: silent letter is H

Talk: silent letter is L

Raspberry: silent letter is P

Ballet: silent letter is T

LECTURE 3: TENSES

The Present Perfect Simple:

Form: s+to have (have, has) + past participle

Use:

- State leading up to present time. E.g. that house has been empty for ages.
- Habit in a period leading up to the present time. E.g. he has attended lectures regularly (this term)
- Past event with results in the present time. E.g. the taxi has arrived. (it is now here).
- It is used with “just” to express a recently completed action. E.g. he has just gone out.
- It can be used with “since ,for, today, ...

Special Structures

- The present perfect is used in special way after expressions like:
 - This is the first/second/third time I have heard her sing.
 - It is one of the most interesting books I have ever read.
- It is + period+ since+ past simple or present perfect tense.
 - It is a long time since I have heard from Peter.

The Simple Past Tense

Form: 1- s+ stem+ ed / 2- irregular verbs

Use:

It is the most often used to talk about the past. It can refer to short, quickly finished events, to longer actions and situations repeated happenings.

- It is used for actions completed in the past at a definite time (in the past) which may be identified by:
 - A past adverbial in the same sentence: Harry was born in 1973.
 - The preceding language contact: John has become engaged, it took us completely by surprise. (Here the past tense “took” is used as the event is already identified in the first clause).
 - The context outside language: did the postman bring any letters?
 - It is used for a past habit: he always carried an umbrella.

Notes:

A past tense does not always have a past meaning. Expressions like “I had” or “you went” can be used in some kinds of sentences to talk about the present or future. This happens in different cases:

- After “if” and other words similar conditional meanings: e.g. if I had the money now, I’d buy a car.
- In some expressions where the past tense expresses a ‘tentative’ attitude suggesting politeness or respect. E.g. I thought you might like some flowers.

The past perfect simple:

Form: s+ had+ past participle

The past perfect is the past equivalent of the present perfect.

E.g. Ann has just left. (Present)

Ann had just left. (Past)

Use

- If we are talking about the past, we use the past perfect to go back to an earlier past time, to talk about things that had already happened at the time we are talking about.
E.g. he wasn't exactly a stranger. I had met him once before.
- The past perfect is always used with conjunctions of time "when, after, as soon as, until, before...."
E.g. when I'd written all my letters, I did some gardening.
- A simple past tense can often be used instead of a past perfect if the earlier action was a short one.
E.g. when I put the cat out, it ran off into...

The present progressive

Form: s+ to be (am, is, are) + stem+ ing

Use:

- For an action happening now/ or about this time but not necessarily at the moment of speaking.
E.g. I am reading a play by Shaw. (This may mean at the moment of speaking but may also mean "now" in a more large sense).
- For a definite plan in the near future (and is the most usual way of expressing one's immediate plans)
E.g. I'm meeting Tom tonight. He is taking me to the theatre.
Note that the time of the action must always be mentioned, as otherwise, there might be confusion between present and future meanings.

The future time

i) **Form:** Shall/will bare infinitive

Use:

- The future habitual actions which we assume will take place.
E.g. Spring will come again.
- With clauses of condition, time and sometimes purpose.
E.g. If I drop this glass, it will break.
- To express intention at the moment of decision
E.g. A: the phone is ringing.
B: I'll answer soon.

ii) **to be going to**

This form is used for: 1- intention

2- prediction

- It can be used for the near future with a time expression as an alternative to the present progressive, i.e. we can say: I'm meeting Tom at the station at six.
Note: I'm meeting Tom" implies an arrangement with Tom.

I'm going to meet Tom at the station at six. (Tom may get a surprise)

- With time clauses when we wish to emphasize the subject's intention:
E.g. He is going to be a dentist when he grows up.

"Will" and "be going to" are therefore rather similar but there are two differences.
- "Be going to" implies that there are signs that something will happen.
E.g. The lift is going to break down. (it is making strange noises; we had better get out on the next floor)
Will implies that the speaker thinks/ believes that it will happen.
E.g. the lift will break down (this will happen sometimes in the future.)
- "Be going to" is used about the immediate future.
- "Will" does not imply any particular time and could refer to remote future.

The present simple tense

Form : in the affirmative, the simple present tense has the same form as the infinitive but **adds 's' for the third person of singular.**

e.g. I work- I don't work/ I do not work- do I work?- do I not work?/ Don't I work?

He works- He doesn't work/ he does not work- Does he work?- Does he not work? Doesn't he work?

Spelling notes:

- Verbs ending in "ss ,sh, ch, x, o" add "es" instead of "s" alone to form the **third person of singular.**

He misses he rushes she watches she mixes he goes

- **When "y" follows a consonant, we change the "y" into "i" and add "es".**

e.g. I copy : she copies they try: she tries

- However, verbs **ending in "y" following a vowel obey** the usual form.

I say: he says they pray: she prays

Use:

- The commonest use of the present simple is to refer to "**general time**". That is to talk about actions and situations that happen repeatedly, or all the time, or at any time.
E.g. I go running three times a week.
My parents live in London.
- It is used with **adverbs or adverbs phrases** such as: often, usually, sometimes, never, on Mondays, twice a year, every week, ...
E.g. it rains in winter.
- It is used sometimes to talk about the future particularly after "**if**", **after time conjunctions, and discussions about programmes and timetables, or calendar.**
E.g. I'll be happy if it rains soon

What are you doing when you leave school?

Next Friday is the thirteenth.

The train arrives at 7.45

- It is used chiefly with the verb “**say**”, when we are asking about or **quoting** from books, notices or very recently received letters.
E.g. what does this notice say? I see you’ve got a letter from Ann. What does she say?
Shakespeare says, “Neither a borrower nor a lender be”.
- 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 great deal.
E.g. We leave London at 10.00 next Tuesday and arrive in Paris at 13.00. We spend two hours in Paris and leave again at 15.00. We arrive at Rome at 19.30 and spend four hours in Rome,
- It is used instead of the **present progressive** with those verbs that cannot be used in the continuous form (**stative verbs**).
E.g. This house belongs to my parents.

I smell gas. There must be a leak somewhere.

Exercise: Justify the use of these tenses in the following examples:

- 1- The phone is ringing. I will answer it.
Will + infinitive used to express intention at the moment of decision
- 2- I’m meeting Lina at five.
This sentence implies an arrangement with Lina.
- 3- **I’ve washed** the car. It looks lovely.
Recent actions in the present perfect often have results in the present.
- 4- Cats drink milk.
The simple present is used to express habitual actions.
- 5- I’m not wearing a coat as isn’t cold.
The present continuous is used to express an action happening now.

LECTURE 4: MODALS

PERMISSION:

- **may** used for **permission**: forms

'**may**' for all persons in the present and the future. **Might** in the conditional and after verbs in a past tense.

Negative: may not/ mayn't. Might not/mightn't. Interrogative: may I? Might I?

'**may**' is followed by the bare infinitive.

- '**can**' used for **permission**

Can for all persons in the present and the future. Could for past and conditional.

Negative: cannot/ can't, could not/ couldn't. Interrogative: can I? Could I?

'**can**' is followed by the bare infinitive.

- '**may**' and '**can**' used for permission in the present or future.

A – First person

I/ **we can** is the most usual form. *E.g. I can take a day off whenever I want.*

I /**we may** meaning 'I /we have permission to....' is possible.

E.g. I may leave the office as soon as I have finished.

But this is not a very common construction and it would be much more usual to say:

I can leave/ I'm allowed to leave.

B- Second person

Here '**may**' is chiefly used when the speaker is giving permission.

E.g. You may park here means 'I give you permission to park'.

'**can**' can be used as an informal alternative to '**may**' here. But it can also be used to express the idea of having permission. *E.g. you can park here* can mean you have the right to park here.

C- Third person

'**may**' can be used as in **B** above when the speaker is giving permission:

E.g. He may take my car. (I give him permission to take it)

But it is chiefly used in impersonal statements concerning authority and permission:

E.g. If convinced, an accused person may (= has the right to) appeal.

Requests for permission

- A- can I ? could I?, may I? might I ? are all possible and can be used for the present or future. Can I? is the most informal
could I? is the most generally useful of the four, as it can express both formal and informal requests.

Possibility

A- may/might for possibility

May/might +present infinitive can express possibility in the present or future:

He may/might tell his wife. (Perhaps he tells/ he will tell his wife)

- might must be used in the **conditional** and when the expression is introduced by a verb in the past tense: e.g. *If you invited him he might come.*

B- Can used to express possibility

A- General possibility: subject + **can**, can mean 'it is possible, i.e. circumstances permit(this is quite different from the kind of possibility expressed by **may**)

E.g. You can ski on the hills. There is enough snow.

C- Can express occasional possibility: e.g. *measles can be quite dangerous.*(Sometimes it is possible for them to be quite dangerous/sometimes they are quite dangerous).

Should and Must

Should: is used to express the subject's obligation or duty or to indicate a correct or sensible action: e.g. *They shouldn't allow parking here; the street is too narrow.*

Here there is neither the speaker's authority, as with **must**. It is a matter of conscious or good sense. Another difference between **should** and **must** is that with **must** and **have to** we normally have the impression that the obligation is being or will be fulfilled. With **should** we do not necessarily feel that the obligation is being or will be fulfilled. E.g. *If a driver says I should go slowly here* implies that he isn't going to go slowly. If he really intended to go slowly he would say: *I must go/ have to go slowly here.*

Must can express obligation and emphatic advice:

E.g. Father: you must get up earlier in the morning. (Obligation)

You must take more exercise. Join a squash club. (Advice)

ACTIVITIES:

Activity one: Explain the meaning of the following modals used in these sentences:

- 1- He **could be** very unreasonable.
(Sometimes he was unreasonable; this was a possibility).
- 2- He **may** emigrate.
(Perhaps he will emigrate).
- 3- You **can** take two books with you.
I allow it/ the library allows it.

Activity two: Fill in the gaps with the suitable modal.

- 1- I have no time. I.....leave now or I will miss the bus.
- 2- She looks tired, shetake some days off.
- 3- Judy is not at home. She might have gone to Madrid, I don't know.
- 4- Youlook at me when I am talking to you.
- 5-we go out tonight, please?

LECTURE 5: REPORTED SPEECH

Introduction:

There are two ways to convey a message of a person, or the words spoken by a person to other person.

1. Direct speech
2. Indirect speech

Suppose your friend whose name is John tells you in school, "I will give you a pen". You come to home and you want to tell your brother what your friend told you. There are two ways to tell him.

Direct speech: John said, "I will give you a pen".

Indirect Speech: John said that he would give me a pen.

In direct speech the original words of person are narrated (no change is made) and are enclosed in quotation mark. While in indirect speech some changes are made in original words of the person because these words have been uttered in past so the tense will change accordingly and pronoun may also be changed accordingly. In indirect speech the statement of the person is not enclosed in quotation marks, the word "that" may be used before the statement to show that it is indirect speech. Indirect speech is also called reported speech because reported speech refers to the second part of indirect speech in which something has been told by a person.

Reporting verb: The verb first part of sentence (i.e. he said, she said, he says, they said, she says,) before the statement of a person in sentence is called reporting verb.

Examples:

In all of the following example the reporting verb is "said".

- | | |
|--|-------------------|
| He said , "I work in a factory" | (Direct speech) |
| He said that he worked in a factory. | (Indirect speech) |
| They said , "We are going to cinema" | (Direct speech) |
| They said that they were going to cinema. | (Indirect speech) |

Reported Speech: The second part of indirect speech in which something has been told by a person (which is enclosed in quotation marks in direct speech) is called reported speech. For example, a sentence of indirect speech is, *He said that he worked in a factory*. In this sentence the second part "*he worked in a factory*" is called reported speech and that is why the indirect speech as a whole can also be called reported speech.

Fundamental rules for indirect speech:

1. Reported speech is not enclosed in quotation marks.

2. **Use of word “that”:** The word “that” is used as a conjunction between the reporting verb and reported speech.
3. **Change in pronoun:** The pronoun (subject) of the reported speech is changed according to the pronoun of reporting verb or object (person) of reporting verb (first part of sentence). Sometimes the pronoun may not change.

In the following example the pronoun of reported speech is “I” which will be changed in indirect speech into the pronoun (Subject) of reporting verb that is “he”.

Example:

Direct speech: He said, “I am happy”

Indirect Speech: He said that **he** was happy.

Direct speech: I said to him, “you are intelligent”

Indirect Speech: I said him that he was intelligent. (“You” changed to “he” the person of object of reporting verb)

- ✓ **Change in time:** Time is changed according to certain rules like now to then, today to that day, tomorrow to next day and yesterday to previous day.

Examples:

Direct speech: He said, “I am happy today”

Indirect Speech: He said that he was happy **that day**.

- ✓ **Change in the tense of reported speech:** If the first part of sentence (reporting verb part) belongs to past tense the tense of reported speech will change. If the first part of sentence (reporting verb part) belongs to present or future tense, the tense of reported speech will not change.

Examples:

Direct speech: He said, “I am happy”

Indirect Speech: He said that he was happy. (Tense of reported speech changed)

Direct speech: He says, “I am happy”

Indirect Speech: He said that he is happy. (Tense of reported speech didn’t change)

Some changes in reported speech:

Direct speech	Reported speech
now	Then , that time
here	there
tomorrow	The coming day
Yesterday , last week	The previous day, the previous week
this	that
these	those
today	That day

LECTURE 6: USING ENGLISH TO COMPARE

The study of metals began in the Middle Ages when alchemists searched for a technique to convert “base metals”, like lead, to gold. They never succeeded in making gold but at least by experimenting with the metals.

Iron, the most widely used metal, is rarely found in the free state (not combined with other metals) and must be extracted from naturally occurring compounds such as pyrite. The beautiful colours of rocks are due almost entirely to these iron compounds. In fact, iron pyrite is often called fool’s gold because of the similarity of its colour to gold.

Aluminum is the most abundant metal, but it was not used until a century ago because it is so active chemically and difficult to extract. Like iron it is solid, but in contrast to iron and steel, aluminum is very light. These qualities make it useful for airplanes, trains, automobiles...

In the 1940’s, magnesium emerged as an important metal. Although it is less abundant in the earth, more chemically active and harder to extract than aluminum, it is present in sea water and that means there is almost an endless supply for it.

Using English to Compare

- **Comparing** is examining two or more items to discover their similarities and differences.
- **Contrasting** concentrates on differences.

1- Comparing Similarities.

Like iron it (aluminum) is solid.....§3

...iron pyrite is often called fool’s gold because of the similarity of its color to gold. §2

2- Contrasting Differences:

Iron, the most widely used metal ...§2

Use: iron > all other metals

Aluminum is the most abundant metal....§3

Abundance: iron > all other metals.

...in contrast to iron and steel, aluminum is very light §3

Lightness: aluminum > iron and steel

3- Sentence pattern:

3-a. Comparing similarities

Magnesium is	like	aluminum
	similar to	
	comparable to	
	as important as	

3-b. Contrasting differences

Iron	is unlike	aluminum
	is different from	
	differs from	

Unlike iron,

In contrast to iron,

aluminum is light

Compared to iron,

Iron is heavier than aluminum
is less abundant than

4- Like and as

Comparisons usually use the words **like** and **as**

- **Like** is used before **a noun or pronoun**.

E.g. He thinks like a scientist. (Before a noun)

- But if the noun or pronoun is followed **immediately by a verb**, the word **as** is used.

E.g. Don't do as I do, do as I say. (I is followed **immediately by a verb**)

- **As** is also used before and after an adjective.

E.g. The night was **as long** as the day. (the night and the day were equally long.)

Exercise 1: Circle the answer that best complete the statement according to the information in the chart.

Metal	Melting point (°C)	Boiling point(°C)
Copper	1083	2595
Gold	1063	2966
Silver	960	2212

- 1- The melting point of silver is **lower than** that of copper. (As low as, lower than).
- 2- **Compared to** copper, gold has a high boiling point. (Like, compared to).
- 3- Compared to the other metals on this table, silver has **the lowest** melting point. (a relatively low, the lowest).

Exercise 2: Fill in the blanks in each of the following sentences with as or like:

- 1- Modern computers are not **as** large **as** the first computers.
- 2- **Like** Galileo before him, Newton studied motion.
- 3- The ancient Greek scientists did not experiment **as** modern scientists do.

LECTURE 7: USING ENGLISH TO DEFINE

Aristotle suggested that a good definition should include the general classification of a term plus the specific characteristics that differentiate the term from other members of its class. For example, a giraffe is an animal, and specific characteristics, such as; a giraffe is a tall, African animal with a very long neck.

Definition formula: Term = Class+ Characteristics

Example:

1- Chemistry is a branch of science which deals with the structure, composition, properties and reactive characteristics of substances. (Frequently, the characteristics appear as a relative clause beginning with which, that, who, or where).

Term = class+

Chemistry = a branch of science+ characteristics
which deals with the structure, composition, properties
and reactive characteristics of substances.

Note: when defining, remember the following:

1. Definitions require **the present simple** and the auxiliary **to be**.
2. The definite article, the, is usually not used with the term being defined because definitions are general statements. For example, we would define a giraffe (in general), not the giraffe (a specific giraffe).

Exercise 1: Combine each of the following pairs of sentences to produce a one- sentence definition with a relative clause:

- a- Nitrogen makes up four-fifths of the Earth's atmosphere by volume. It is a colorless, odorless gas.
Nitrogen is a colorless, odorless gas which makes up four-fifths of the Earth's atmosphere by volume.
- b- Marine biologists are scientists. They study animals and plants that live in the sea.
Marine biologists are scientists who study animals and plants that live in the sea.
- c- Insulin is used in the treatment of diabetes. It is a hormone produced by the pancreas.
Insulin is a hormone produced by the pancreas which is used in the treatment of diabetes.

Exercise 2: Using the information given in each series, write a definition.

- a- Lung / organ/ respiratory.
Lung is a respiratory organ.
- b- Acoustics/ science/ sound
Acoustics is science of sound.

LECTURE 8: USING ENGLISH TO REPORT

Different tenses are used to report past actions. The simple past tense is the most frequently used in scientific writing.

- 1- A completed action: past simple/ passive voice

The study of metals began in the middle ages. (This action has taken place a long time ago and is completed.)

Much of man-made pollution could be controlled. (The passive form is used because the action is more important than the performer of the action.)

- 2- An uncompleted action: present perfect

All life has probably evolved from that single original cell....

(This action is also incomplete, that is, life is still evolving.)

He has (often, already, just, seldom, sometimes, not yet, recently, still not, usually) made new discoveries.

- 3- An action completed before a given past time: past perfect

By 1957, Russia had launched the first Sputnik.

Activity: Insert the correct past tense.

1- Darwin **published** his theory of evolution in 1958. (**to publish**)

2- By the time we arrived, the bomb **had exploded**. (**to explore**)

3- Many studies **have been made** to determine the effects of smog on the lungs. (**to make**)

4- Air pollution **has become** a major problem in our cities. (**to become**)

TEXTS FOR APPLICATION

Text 1: Oil

The oil price has ingratiated itself with the lower price band for some time now closing below \$73 a barrel in New York on Friday. There seems to be a mixture of reasons at play for the price drop. First on the list- oil and gas prices have been rocked by the uncertainty about the extent of economic recovery.

The June job report was grim with just 83,000 new private sector jobs added. Though lesser than anticipated it was better than the May figures when only 33,000 jobs were added. The unemployment figure did drop from 9.7 to 9.5 per cent-a modest gain, a gain nonetheless. However, analysts believe the drop happened as many people gave up their search for jobs.

On the whole, the job report indicates slow growth. The bearish job report didn't revive fears of recession but didn't offer any hope either. Soon after the jobs report, the price of U.S treasuries fell and the U.S stocks saw their worst week in two months. In Europe the shares closed higher though the German Bund futures fell. On Friday the Dollar fell against the Euro. The president expressed disappointment. He said, "We're not headed there fast enough for a lot of Americans," adding, "We're not headed there fast enough for me, either".

Part one:

- 1- How many paragraphs are there in the text?
- 2- Say whether these sentences are true or false. Correct the false ones.
 - a- The oil prices headed lower.
 - b- For analysts, the drop happened because many people sought for jobs.
- 3- In which paragraph is it mentioned that the joblessness figure did fall?
- 4- Find in the text synonyms of the following words: a- although b-mixture
- 5- Find in the text opposites of the following words: a-higher b- opened
- 6- Explain the president's statement using your own words.

Part two:

- 1- What is the difference between these sentences?
 - a- A late bus.
 - b- The bus is late.

- 2- Add one word to the list
 - a- Geometry, geometrical, ...
 - b- Electric, electricity, ...

- 3- Give the plural form of each noun.
Piano country box boy

- 4- The word "hard" can be used as an adjective and as an adverb. Give two examples in which you use it in both cases.

- 5- Classify these verbs into regular and irregular verbs.
Spoke identified went put

- 6- Combine the following pairs of sentences using the suitable relative pronoun.
 - a- I have bought a new book. The book is about animals.
 - b- There is my friend. I met her yesterday.

Part three: Fill in the gaps with the following words:

rise- the amount- the price- gasoline- product- of

The price of oil as discussed in the news is the price of a commodity different from the you fill your car with; it is in fact crude oil. Crude oil is the base that gets processed into gasoline at oil refineries. So, if the price of oil goes up, of gas goes up. However, there are a number of other factors affecting the price of gasoline and that's why the gas price doesn't always fall with the price oil. Refining capacity can and fall. If a major refinery develops problems and has to shut down, then of gasoline that can be produced falls. The price of gasoline rises because of shortages, but the price of crude oil will fall because of gluts.

Text 2: Plagiarism

Due largely to the amount of information available on the internet, it is becoming easier for everyone to plagiarize. Whether intentional or not, schools and universities consider plagiarism a form of academic dishonesty and unethical practice.

Obvious plagiarism includes buying a paper or copying another person's work and presenting it as yours. This can be information or items copied from Web pages, books and newspapers, TV shows or any other artwork. Essentially, it is a form of piracy; a theft of the author's intellectual property. The educational systems are so tolerant that the rate of plagiarism scandals has doubled in recent years.

One of the scholars pointed out, "before trying to avoid plagiarism, we must tackle the causes which include: the lack of academic integrity, the students' ignorance, their difficulty with citing, in addition to the weaknesses in language skills". The University of California, at Devis explains that the effects of plagiarism are ranging from damaging the student's academic career and causing serious legal problems to tarnishing the institution's reputation.

The policies detailing the guidelines on the problem of plagiarism that have been established should be explained by teachers periodically. Whenever ideas or works are borrowed from another source, students must cite or quote that source. This is the best way to minimize plagiarism.

By Shelia Odak, www.ehow.com/facts

Part one:

1- Circle the letter that corresponds to the right answer.

The text is:

- a- book extract
- b- b- a website article
- c- c- a newspaper article

2- Answer the following questions according to the text.

- a- Mention two causes of plagiarism.
- b- What are the consequences of plagiarism?

3- What is the general idea of:

- a- The first paragraph.
- b- The last paragraph.

Part two:

1- Give the plural form of each word.

Woman- country – bag

2- Choose the appropriate subordinating conjunction to complete these sentences: to , because, so, however

- a-rich people are, they always seem anxious to make more money.
- b- We camped there.....it was so dark to go on.
- c- She left work earlybe at home when her husband arrived.
- d- Celine worked hard.....she got a merit raise.
- e- He is studying mathematics.....qualify for a good job.

3- Say if these statements are true or false. Correct the false ones.

- a- A dependent clause is a complete sentence.
- b- “as” expresses cause.
- c- A dependent clause starts with a word. This word is called a phrase.

Part three:
Written expression

Choose one of the following topics

Either one: Summarize the text.

Either two: Write a composition about the causes and consequences of fraud at exams.

TERMINOLOGY COURSES

What is Multimedia?

Definition

Multimedia is a term frequently heard and discussed among educational technologists today. Unless clearly defined, multimedia can alternately mean a judicious mix of various mass media such as print, audio and video.

A multimedia application is one that uses a collection of media sources. Some of the better known examples of such applications are “PowerPoint”, the presentation package from Microsoft, and “Acrobat”, the document presentation product from Adobe Systems.

Special uses of multimedia

- Drill and practice to master basic skills.
- Problem solving
- Understanding abstract mathematics and science concepts.
- Simulation in science and mathematics.
- Individualized and cooperative learning.
- Acquisition of computer skills.

Advantages of Multimedia

The pedagogical strength of multimedia is that it uses the natural information-processing abilities that we already possess as humans.

Multimedia enables learning through exploration, discovery and experience. With multimedia the process of learning becomes more goal-oriented, flexible in time and space. For example, in teaching biology, an instructor cannot make a killer whale come alive in a classroom. Multimedia enables us to provide a way by which learners can experience their subject in a vicarious manner.

Practical disadvantages of multimedia

Multimedia packages require good quality computers. A major disadvantage of writing multimedia courseware is that it may not be accessible to a large section of its intended users if they do not have access to multimedia-capable machines.

Multimedia has other weaknesses too. While proponents of this new technology are very enthusiastic about its potential, they leave the financial and technological issues unattended.

Further, the user must possess a minimum level of computer literacy in order to exploit the capabilities of this medium for learning.

The Description of Jobs

Activity one: Fill in the gaps:

1- I am a **mechanic** but I want to become a **mechanical** engineer.

(mechanics/mechanic/ mechanical)

2- **The engineer** is responsible for every **engine** in the factory.

(engineering/ engineer/ engine)

3- The **electrician** repairs all the **electrical** equipment on the rig.

(electrical/ electrician/ electricity)

Activity two: Complete using the words below:

Lab technician, inspector, electronic engineer, joiner, electrician, mechanic, fitter

1- Joiner is someone who works with wood.

2- Lab technician is someone who works in laboratory.

3- Fitter is someone who puts together, adjusts, or installs machinery or equipments.

4- Inspector is someone who checks the quality of work or goods.

5- Mechanic is someone who repairs and maintain engines especially car engines.

6- Electronic engineer is someone who works with thing like computer, TVs, radios, etc....

7- Electrician is someone who works with electrical equipment