The Essence of English

by Khattab

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Preface

In the name of Allah, Most Gracious, Most Merciful I write my pages with a steady hand and a light heart. I was fortunate, for I have found what I love to do early in life. Therefore, the only way to do great work is to love what you do. For that reason, the passion of occupation is a quality that differentiates extraordinary works from other ordinary works.

The emotion of love and the ambition of creating a masterful achievement were the major motives that inspire me to write this masterpiece in which contains both my work and the work of my professor Nasser Al-Samarrai who taught me English sincerely.

Until now, I have never found anyone that did not want to help me if I asked them for help. Because of the generosity of my professor and other educated people, I have promised myself that if anyone asks me for help, I will be as responsive as I can to pay that debt of gratitude back.

In order to improve yourself in any field of life, you have to be willing to fail and start over again. The heaviness of being successful will be replaced by the lightness of being a beginner again. If you are frightened of failing, then you will not achieve perfection.

Introduction to English

English language is very important nowadays, because it has become such a universal language. Therefore, English is quite significant to be studied for different reasons. One of the reasons is the lack of well-educated and professional teachers. So, I have decided to make this book to clarify the language for intermediate and advanced learners.

The modern English alphabet is a Latin alphabet consisting of 26 letters, each having an uppercase and lowercase form:

A/a, B/b, C/c, D/d, E/e, F/f, G/g, H/h, I/i, J/j, K/k, L/l, M/m, N/n, O/o, P/p, Q/q, R/r, S/s, T/t, U/u, V/v, W/w, X/x, Y/y, Z/z

A word is a single unit of language that has meaning and can be spoken or written.

Parts of speech (word classes) are 9 parts that contribute to structure a sentence:

verb	preposition
noun	conjunction
adjective	pronoun
adverb	determiner
interjection	

A phrase is a set of words that express a single idea but do not form a complete sentence.

e.g. Very few giant pandas remain in the world.

Everyone is watching T.V. at the moment.

A clause is a set of words consisting of a subject and predicate.
A clause may form a part of a sentence or it may be a complete sentence in itself.
e.g. She had a long career, but she is remembered mainly for one early work. (Compound sentence consisting of two clauses.)
John eats potatoes. (Clause is a complete sentence.)

A sentence is a set of words containing a subject and predicate.
(predicate : verb and its complement)
e.g. We <u>went to the airport</u>.

There are mainly 4 skills in English: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.
There are other skills, such as pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, and spelling.

Grammar is a set of structural rules governing the composition of clauses, phrases, and words in any given natural language.

Vocabulary is a set of familiar words within a person's language.

Lesson 10: Transitive Verbs and Intransitive verbs

A verb is a word used to describe an action, state, or occurrence, and to form the main part of the predicate of a sentence.

e.g. hear, become, go, send, etc.

A predicate is one of the two main constituents of a sentence; the predicate includes the verb and its complement.

e.g. The boys went to the zoo.

Intransitive verbs

An intransitive verb is a verb that does not require an object

e.g. arrive, go, lie, sit, die, smile, etc.

- The guests arrived.
- She smiled.

Transitive and Intransitive verbs are the two main kinds of verbs in English

Transitive verbs

A transitive verb is a verb that requires one or more objects

e.g. hold, bring, offer, play, lend, give, etc.

- She was holding a bunch of flowers.
- Bring me a glass of water.

The object of transitive verbs can be a noun, pronoun, clause, or phrase

e.g. Linda plays tennis (N.). Everyone likes her (Pron.). I believe you are wrong (cl.).

James won 4 gold medals (Phr.).

Direct object is known by answering the question 'What?' or 'who?' about the verb.

e.g. Susan ate a sandwich (O_d.) for breakfast

Indirect object typically preceds the direct object.

e.g. He sent his aunt (O_i.) a postcard (O_d.).

My mother gave a gift (O_d.) to me (O_i.).

Lesson 2 : Action Verbs and State Verbs

Action verbs

An action verb is a verb used to express a specific action.
We can use action verbs in continuous tenses.
e.g. play, listen, study, teach, eat, run, etc.
- He is playing football with his friends.
- Richard eats a lot of pasta.

State verbs (non-action verbs)

A state verb is a verb used to express a state.
We cannot use state verbs in continuous tenses.
Some verbs have 'state' meanings and 'action' meanings.
When the meaning of the verb is 'action', we use the present continuous to emphasise that a situation is temporary or for a period of time around the present.
State verbs can describe the following:

1. mental states : think, weigh, measure, understand, forget, remember, expect, doubt, guess, imagine, mean, agree, disagree, deny, promise, recognise, suppose, believe, know, regret
   e.g. • I think he is a clever person (think : state).
   • He is thinking about the problem at the moment. (think : action = consider)
2. emotions : love, like, dislike, hate, adore, prefer, care, mind, want, need, desire, wish, hope, appreciate, value
3. senses : see, hear, taste, smell, feel
   e.g. • He cannot see colours at night. (see : state)
   • His wife was still seeing him, and she was having an affair with him. (see : action = meet)
4. possession : have, possess, own, belong, lack, consist, involve, include, contain
   e.g. • I have a car. (have : state)
   • He is having breakfast. (have : action = eat)
5. appearance : seem, look, appear, suit, fit
   e.g. • You seem happy today.
   • That dress really suits you.

(6) physical sensations: hurt, ache, itch

e.g. • I fell and hurt my arm.

• My nose is itching.

Other states verbs are 'be', 'exist', and 'consider'.

e.g. • He considers himself a native speaker. (consider : state)

• He is considering taking early retirement. (consider : action = think carefully about)

Lesson 3 : Auxiliary Verbs

Auxiliary verbs (auxiliaries) : they are the verbs : 'be', 'do', and 'have' when they are used with a main verb to form questions, negatives, tenses passive forms, etc. Modal verbs are also auxiliary verbs.

1. 'Be' means 'is', 'am', 'are', 'was', 'were', or 'been'

am (pres.) ⇒ was (p.t.) ⇒ been (p.p.)

is (pres.) ⇒ was (p.t.) ⇒ been (p.p.)

are (pres.) ⇒ were (p.t.) ⇒ been (p.p.)

'be' with subject pronouns:

I am ⇒ I'm

he / she / it is ⇒ he's, she's, it's

we / you / they are ⇒ we're, you're, they're

N.B. To differentiate between 'is' and 'has' in their contraction 's', and the possessive 's':

After 'is' comes an adjective or present participle.

e.g. • She's beautiful.

• She's eating a sandwich.

After 'has' comes past participle.

e.g. • He's got a new car.

After the possessive 's' comes a noun.

e.g. • Alan's car is broken down

We use 'be' for emphasis

e.g. I am working hard.

2. 'Do' means 'do, does, did, or done'

do (pres.) / does (pres.) ⇒ did (p.t.) ⇒ done (p.p.)

'do' with subject pronouns:

I do

he / she / it does

we / you / they do

We use 'do' for emphasis.

e.g. I do like English!

After 'do' comes an infinitive. e.g. Do you like English?

3. 'Have' means 'have', 'has', or 'had'

have (pres.) / has (pres.) ⇒ had (p.t.) ⇒ had (p.p.)

'have' with subject pronouns:

I have ⇒ I've

he / she / it has ⇒ he's, she's, it's

4. **Modal verbs** (modals) : They are a group of verbs that give information about things as possibility, permission, necessity, and obligation. After modals come an infinitive.

a. simple modals: "will, shall, can, must, may, would, should, could"

b. phrasal modals (semi-modals): "ought to, has/have t, had to, had better, need, dare, used to"

"يستطيع" **Can**: we use it to express ability, to show possibility, and to request or offer permission. We also use it with polite request. "Can" refers to the present. The negative form of "can" is "cannot".

e.g. • I can ride a horse. (ability)

• Any child can grow up to be president. (possibility)

• She cannot stay out after 10 a.m. (permission)

• Can you hand me the stapler, please? (polite request)

The past tense of "can" is "could".

"ربما/يمكن أن" **May**: we use it to express possibility and to request or offer permission. We also use it with polite request.

e.g. • He may be at home. (possibility)

• Alan, you may leave the table when you have finished your dinner. (Permission)

• May I use your phone? (polite request)

The past tense of "may" is "might"

"سوف" **Shall**: we use it to refer to the future, but we can use it in the present. We commonly use "shall" in sentences with "I" or "we" instead of "will" in future tenses. "Shall" is much more commonly heard in British English, and it is very formal. We use it to make suggestions and promises, and to ask for information or advice. The negative form of "shall" is "shall not" or "shan't"

e.g. • I shall be very happy to see her again. (future)

• We shan't be arriving until ten o'clock. (future)

• Shall I help you carry that box? (suggestion)

• What time shall I come? (asking for information)

• In the rules, it says that a player shall be sent off for using bad language. (formal)

The past tense of "shall" is "should"

'Will' (سوف): we use it to talk about the future, and to express willingness. We also use it in conditional sentences.
The negative form of 'will' is 'will not' or 'won't'.
e.g. • I'm sure you'll pass your exam. (future)
• I will carry your case for you. (willingness)

The past tense of "will" is "would"

'Must' (يجب أن): we use it to express certainty, strong recommendation and obligation, or necessity. We use 'must' for personal opinions about what it is necessary. 'Shall' is formal.
e.g. • This must be the right address! (certainty)
• You must take some medicine for that cough. (strong recommendation)
• Students must wear uniform at school. (strong obligation)
• Students must pass an enterance examination to study at this school. (necessity)
The past tense of 'must' is 'must have' or 'had to'. كان يجب أن

'Have/has to' (يجب أن): we use it to express certainty, obligation, and necessity. We use 'have/has to' for what somebody in authority has said it is necessary to do.
e.g. • The answer has to be correct. (certainty)
• You have to leave early. (obligation)
• The soup has to be stirred continuously to prevent burning. (necessity)
The past tense of 'have/has to' is 'had to' كان مضطراً أن

'Ought to' (ينبغي أن/يجب أن): we use it to express recommendation and expectation. 'Ought to' is not as forceful as 'must'. The negative form of 'ought to' is 'ought not' or 'oughtn't' without 'to' which is used to advise against doing something.
e.g. • You ought to stop smoking. (recommendation)
• Alan ought to get promotion. (expectation)
• Mark ought not drink so much. (advice)
The past tense of 'ought to' is 'ought to have' كان ينبغي أن

من الأجدر أن

'Had better': we use it to refer to the present or the future.
We use 'had better' to make recommendations, and to express desperate hope as well as warn people. The negative form of 'had better' is 'had better not' which is used to advise against doing something.

e.g. • You had better take your umbrella with you today. (recommendation)
• That bus had better get here soon! (desperate hope)
• You had better watch the way you talk to me in the future. (warning)
• People had better not smoke for the sake of their lives. (advice)

The past tense of 'had better' is 'had better have' كان من الأجدر أن

'Would': We use 'would' to express repeated willingness in the past, and to talk about the past in the future.
We use 'would' for polite request and offering.
We also use 'would' in conditional sentences.

e.g. • We thought that people would buy this book. (willingness in the past)
• In London, she met the man that she would one day marry. (future in past)
• Would you open the door, please? (polite request)
• Would you like a cup of tea? (offer)
• If I were in your place, I would refuse. (conditional)

The past form of 'would' is 'would have'

'Should': we can use it in present, past, and future.
We use 'should' to make recommendations, express obligation, and give advice.

e.g. • The police should do something about it. (present)
• Susan should be in New York by next week. (future)
• When you go to Berlin, you should visit the palaces in Potsdam. (recommendation)
• You should be at work before 9 o'clock. (obligation)
• You should focus more on studying English and less on playing video games. (advice)

The past tense of 'should' is 'should have'
'Be supposed to' is similar to 'should have', and it can be used in the past.

يستطيع
"Could": we can use it in present, past, and future.
We use "could" to express possibility and past ability, to offer permission, and to make suggestions and polite requests. "Could" is also commonly used in conditional sentences.

e.g. • John could be the one who stole the money. (present)
• John could go to jail for stealing the money. (future)
• Extreme rain could cause the river to flood the city. (possibility)
• Nancy could ski like a pro by the age of 11. (past ability)
• You could take my car unless you do not have an accident (permission)
• You could see a movie or go out to dinner. (suggestion)
• Could I use your computer to email my boss? (polite request)
• We could go on the trip if I didn't have to work this weekend. (conditional)

The past tense of "could" is "could have"
"Could not" and "might not": "could not" suggests that it is impossible for something to happen. "Might not" suggests you don't know if something happens.

e.g. • Jack might not have the key. Maybe he doesn't have the key.
• Jack couldn't have the key. It is impossible that he has the key.

"Have got to": we use it to express obligation and necessity
e.g. • I have got to be at work by 8:30 am. (obligation)
• Drivers have got to get a license to drive a car in the U.S. (necessity

كان عليه أن
"Had to": we use it to express obligation in the past.
e.g. I had to wash my car yesterday.

"Might": We can use it in present, past, and future.
We use "might" to express possibility and to make suggestions and polite requests.
"Might" is also used in conditional sentences.

e.g. • She might be on the bus. I think her car is having problems. (present)
• She might take the bus to get home. I don't think Bill will be able to give her a ride. (future)
• Your purse might be in the living room. (possibility)

- You might visit the bontanical gardens during your visit. (suggestion)
- Might I borrow your pen? (polite request)
- If I didn't have to work, I might go with you. (conditional)

The past tense of "might" is "might have"

"Need" يلزم: we use it in negative sentences or in affirmative sentences with a negative meaning. "Need" expresses the absence of obligation or necessity, and it is followed by a bare infinitive. The present tense of "need" is "need" in all persons. The negative form of "need" is "need not" or "needn't"

e.g. • You needn't worry about that.
- No one need be surprised at what happened.
- You need only just ask.
- I doubt whether I need help you.

"Need" occurs in interrogative sentences, but this use is much more formal.

e.g. • Need we pay the whole amount now?
- Need you make so much noise?

The past tense of "need" is "need not have" or "needn't have" which means that you did something, but it was not necessary.

e.g. • We needn't have bought any milk. We still have plenty at home.

"Need" as a main verb is followed by to-infinitive and expresses obligation and necessity.

e.g. • You need to buy the tickets in advance. (obligation)
- I need to make a phone call. (necessity)

"Dare" تجرؤ: we use it in negative sentences or in affirmative sentences with a negative meaning. "Dare" means "to have boldness or courage (to do something)", and it is followed by a bare infinitive. The present tense of "dare" is "dare" in all persons. The negative form of "dare" is "dare not" (= daren't), or "do not / does not dare" (= don't / doesn't dare)

e.g. • You dare not ask for a raise for fear of losing your job.
- I dare not ask her to lend me any more money.

"Dare" occurs in interrogative sentences

e.g. Dare she risk staying where she was?

The past tense of "dare" is "dare not have" (= daren't have)

اعتاد

Used to : we use it to express an event that happened continuously in the past, and it no longer occurs.

e.g. She used to live with her parents.

People used to come and visit him every day.

"Used to" ocurres in integorrative sentences with "did". We can just use "used" which is more formal and not often used

e.g. did you use to smoke?

Where did she use to live?

Used he to work here?

The negative form of "used to" is "did not use to" (= didn't use to) or "used not to"

e.g. I did not use to like jazz.

He used not to drive a car.

There are some alternatives to modals. They are:

- **Be able to** : we can use it instead of "can" or "could" to talk about ability.
- We prefer "be able to" when we talk about a difficult achievement that requires some effort.

e.g. Despite yesterday's snowfalls, we were able to drive home in less than an hour.

- We use "will be able to" to say that something is possible in the future on condition that something is done first.

e.g. After the trees have been cut back, we will be able to see more of the garden from the sitting room.

- **Be supposed to** : we can use it instead of "should" or "ought to" to express a less strong obligation than should.

e.g.

- **Be allowed to** : we use it instead of "could" to talk about permission for a particular past action. You can use either "could" or "be allowed to" to say that somebody had general permission to do something in the past.

e.g. Although he did not have a ticket, Jack was allowed to come in. (only "be allowed to")

Anyone could / was allowed to fish in the lake when the council owned it. ("could" or "be allowed to")

- In negative sentences, we can use either "could not" (= couldn't) or "was not/were not allowed" (= wasn't / weren't allowed to) to say that permission was not given in general or particular situations.

  e.g. • I couldn't / wasn't allowed to open the present until my birthday.

Lesson 4:

Performative Verbs (Performatives)

A performative is a verb which performs the action it describes, such as 'name, order, permit, predict, refuse, remind, request, thank, warn, acknowledge, admit, advise, beg, confess, declare, congratulate'. bet, accept, insist, regret

We use the present simple with performatives

e.g. • They forbid smoking in public places. (When we say "forbid", we actually do the action of the verb.)

• I run in the morning. ('Run' represents an action which is running, and we cannot run just by saying 'run'.)

Some performatives 'apologise, deny, guarantee, promise, suggest' have a similar meaning with either the present simple or the present continuous in negative sentences.

e.g. • I do not deny / I am not denying taking the books, but Sarah said it would be okay.

Modals can be used with performatives to make we say more polite.

e.g. • We would advise you to arrive two hours before the flight leaves

Lesson 5 :

Linking Verbs

A linking verb is a verb which connects a subject to its predicate without expressing an action, such as 'be, appear, become, feel, look, seem, smell, sound, taste'.

A linking verb is used to re-identify or describe its subject (noun/adjective)

The word, phrase, or clause which follows a linking verb to re-identify or describe the subject is called the subject complement.

e.g. • His father is the headmaster. (C.s. 'Is' re-identifies 'his father'.)
• The soup smells delicious. (C.s. 'Smells' describes 'the soup'.)

The verbs 'be', 'become', and 'seem' are always linking verbs which link the subject to the predicate to re-identify or describe the subject

However, the other verbs in the set above are not always linking verbs; Some of the verbs, which are followed by a direct object, can express an action.

e.g. • He smells the soup. (O.d. 'Smells' is an action verb followed by a direct object.)
• Tony smells awful. (Adj. 'Smells' is a linking verb followed by an adjective.)

We can use the linking verb 'be' with the passive voice and participles.

e.g. • He was painted. (the passive voice and past participle)
• He is frustrating. (present participle)

Lesson 6 :

Phrasal Verbs

A phrasal verb is a verb consisted of a main verb with one or two particles.

The particle can be an adverb or preposition, or both.

e.g. • I will see to the animals.
• She has always looked down on me.

When phrasal verbs are intransitive, they are inseparable.

e.g. • We broke up two years ago.
• They set off early to miss the traffic.

When phrasal verbs are transitive, they are separable or inseparable.

e.g. • He threw away the old pizza.
• He threw the old pizza away.

When the direct object is the specific name of a thing or person, It can be located after the phrasal verb or in the middle. However, if the direct object is an object pronoun, it must be located in the middle.

e.g. • They will pick up John from the airport.
• They will pick him up from the airport.

Lesson 7

Regular Verbs

Generally, we add (-ed/-d) to the end of a regular verb to make the past simple and participle forms.

① If the verb is ended in (-e), we add (-d) only to the end of the verb.
e.g. • like (pres.) → liked (p.t.) → liked (p.p.)

② If the verb is ended in a consonant letter, preceded by a vowel letter, we make the consonant letter double, and add (-ed) to the end of the verb.
e.g. • stop (pres.) → stopped (p.t.) → stopped (p.p.)

③ If the verb is ended in (-y), preceded by a consonant letter, we change (-y) into (-ied). e.g. • study (pres.) → studied (p.t.) → studied (p.p.)

④ If the verb is ended in (-y), preceded by a vowel letter, we add (-ed) only to the end of the verb. e.g. • play (pres.) → played (p.t.) → played (p.p.)

⑤ If the verb is ended in (-c), we add (-ked) to the end of the verb.
e.g. • panic (pres.) → panicked (p.t.) → panicked (p.p.)

Lesson 8 :

Irregular Verbs:

* There are over (470) irregular verbs in English. The following list has the most important irregular verbs:

Base Form	Simple Past	Past Participle	Base Form	Simple Past	Past Participle
abide	abode	abode	eat	ate	eaten
arise	arose	arisen	fall	fell	fallen
be	was / were	been	feed	fed	fed
bear	bore	born	feel	felt	felt
beat	beat	beaten	fight	fought	fought
become	became	become	flee	fled	fled
begin	began	begun	fly	flew	flown
bend	bent	bent	find	found	found
bite	bit	bitten	forbid	forbade	forbidden
bleed	bled	bled	forget	forgot	forgotten
blow	blew	blown	forgive	forgave	forgiven
break	broke	broken	freeze	froze	frozen
bring	brought	brought	get	got	got / gotten
build	built	built	give	gave	given
burst	burst	burst	go	went	gone
buy	bought	bought	grow	grew	grown
catch	caught	caught	hang	hung	hung
choose	chose	chosen	have	had	had
come	came	come	hear	heard	heard
cost	cost	cost	hide	hid	hidden
cut	cut	cut	hit	hit	hit
deal	dealt	dealt	hold	held	held
dig	dug	dug	hurt	hurt	hurt
do / does	did	done	keep	kept	kept
draw	drew	drawn	know	knew	known
drink	drank	drunk	lay	laid	laid
drive	drove	driven	lead	led	led
dwell	dwelt	dwelt	leave	left	left
Idea Plus slide	slid	slid	learn	learnt	learnt

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Base Form	Simple Past	Past Participle	Base Form	Simple Past	Past Participle
lend	lent	lent	spend	spent	spent
let	let	let	spin	spun	spun
lie	lay	lain	split	split	split
light	lit	lit	spread	spread	spread
lose	lost	lost	spring	sprang	sprung
make	made	made	stand	stood	stood
mean	meant	meant	steal	stole	stolen
meet	met	met	stick	stuck	stuck
pay	paid	paid	sting	stung	stung
put	put	put	strike	struke	struke
quit	quit	quit	strive	strove	striven
read	read	read	swear	swore	sworn
ride	rode	ridden	sweep	swept	swept
rise	rose	risen	swell	swelled	swollen
run	ran	run	swim	swam	swum
say	said	said	swing	swang	swung
see	saw	seen	take	took	taken
seek	sought	sought	teach	taught	taught
sell	sold	sold	tear	tore	torn
send	sent	sent	tell	told	told
set	set	set	think	thought	thought
sew	sewed	sewn	thrive	throve	thriven
shake	shook	shaken	tread	trod	trod
shoot	shot	shot	understand	understood	understood
show	showed	shown	wake	woke	woken
shut	shut	shut	wear	wore	worn
sing	sang	sung	wed	wed	wed
sink	sank	sunk	weep	wept	wept
sit	sat	sat	win	won	won
sleep	slept	slept	write	wrote	written
speak	spoke	spoken	rewind	rewound	rewound
throw	threw	thrown			

Lesson 9 :

- Subject - verb Agreement :
- Indefinite pronouns require a singular verb, except 'all, none, some' are depending on what they are referring to.

  e.g. Some of the beads are missing

  Some of the water is gone.
- 'And, along with, together with' : require a plural verb.

  e.g.
- We can use either singular or plural verb with collective nouns.
- 'Or, nor, either / or, neither / nor, not only / but also' : use the verb form that is the nearest to the subject.

  e.g. • Either the bears or the lion has escaped from the zoo.

  • Neither the lion nor the bears have escaped from the zoo.
- 'As well as' requires a singular verb.
- We use a singular verb with an amount.

  e.g. fifty dollars is too much. Five million is a good price.

Subject - verb inversion

Subject-verb inversion in English is a type of inversion where the subject and the verb switch their order, so that the subject follows the verb.

e.g. • Some flowers are in the vase.

• In the vase are some flowers.

Lesson 10 : Nouns

Abstract nouns : An abstract noun is an uncountable noun that denoting an idea, quality, or state rather than a concrete object.

There are suffixes that are used to form abstract nouns :

(—ment) : e.g. retirement, amazement, commencement

(—ion) : e.g.

(—ness) : e.g. bitterness, carelessness, consciousness, tenderness, ugliness, happiness

(—ity) : e.g. anonymity, complexity, curiosity, generosity, hostility, prosperity, sensitivity, fraternity

(—dom) : e.g. wisdom, stardom, martyrdom, kingdom, freedom, boredom

(—ship) : e.g. friendship, relationship, partnership, ownership, membership, companionship, apprenticeship

(—hood) : e.g. adulthood, brotherhood, childhood, manhood, womanhood, fatherhood, motherhood, likelihood

Other abstract nouns :

length, width, breadth, depth, strength, warmth, fame, liberty, love, hate/hatred, hope, life, fear, belief, faith, anger, action, luck

Generic nouns : A generic noun is a noun that refers to all members of a group, and it is used to make generalization.

- It can be singular or plural.

e.g. [1] A book is a window into a new world.

[2] Books are windows into new worlds.

A concrete noun

Concrete nouns is the name of something which we can experience by touching, seeing etc.

e.g. table, ice

• List of some collective nouns:

family (n.) (sing.v.) (pl.v.) عائلة	crew (n.) (sing.v.) (pl.v.) طاقم
audience (n.) (sing.v.) / (pl.v.) جمهور	people (n.) (sing.v.) / (pl.v.) ناس
jury (n.) (sing.v.) / (pl.v.) هيئة المحلفين	police (n.) (sing.v.) / (pl.v.) شرطة
crowd (n.) (sing.v.) / (pl.v.) حشد	couple (n.) (sing.v.) (pl.v.) زوجان

A collective noun

Collective nouns is a singular noun used to refer to a group.

• We can use either singular verb or plural verb.

• We use plural verb with a collective noun if we are refering to the members of a group. We use singular verb if we are refering to a group.

e.g. [1] The family is the core of society.

[2] His family are completely behind him whatever he decides.

Common nouns

common nouns are names of people who do something, places, things, and animals

We use indefinite articles with common nouns

e.g. a doctor, a shop, a chair, a dog

• We always use indefinite articles with

e.g. a doctor, a chair.

A proper noun

Proper nouns is a noun which is always written in capital letter.

A noun in singular

Nouns in singular is a noun that comes only in singular form.

• List of some nouns in singular:

air, politics, physics, crossroads

Lesson 11 : A noun in plural

Nouns in plural : is a noun that comes only in plural form.

- We can use either singular verb or plural verb
- We use "a pair of ... a piece of ..." to make a singular form
- List of some nouns in plural :

phonetics (n.pl.) (pl.v.) صوتيات / (n.) (sing.v.) علم الأصوات
linguistics (n.pl.) (pl.v.) لغويات / (n.) (sing.v.) علم اللغة
statistics (n.pl.) (pl.v.) إحصائيات / (n.) (sing.v.) علم الإحصاء
politics (n.pl.) (pl.v.) شؤون سياسية / (n.) (sing.v.) علم السياسة
dramatics (n.pl.) (pl.v.) دراميات / (n.) (sing.v.) فن التمثيل المسرحي
athletics (n.pl.) (pl.v.) ألعاب رياضية / (n.) (sing.v.) علم الرياضة
ethics (n.pl.) (pl.v.) أخلاقيات / (n.) (sing.v.) علم الأخلاق
aesthetics (n.pl.) (pl.v.) جماليات / (n.) (sing.v.) علم الجمال
economics (n.pl.) (pl.v.) اقتصاديات / (n.) (sing.v.) علم الاقتصاد
tactics (n.pl.) (pl.v.) تكتيكات / (n.) (sing.v.) فن التكتيك
physics (n.pl.) (pl.v.) طبيعيات / (n.) (sing.v.) علم الفيزياء
means (n.pl.) (pl.v.) وسائل ⇒ a means (sing.v.) وسيلة
proceedings (n.pl.) (pl.v.) إجراءات
beans (n.pl.) (pl.v.) فاصوليا
clothes (n.pl.) (pl.v.) ملابس
ashes (n.pl.) (pl.v.) رفات (الجثة)
teachings (n.pl.) (pl.v.) تعاليم
trousers (n.pl.) (pl.v.) (Br.) بنطال
pants (n.pl.) (pl.v.) (Am.) بنطال
headquarters (n.pl.) (sing.v.) مقر
accommodations (n.pl.) (pl.v.) وسائل الراحة
assets (n.pl.) (pl.v.) موجودات
series (n.pl.) (sing.v.) سلسلة
peas (n.pl.) (pl.v.) بازلاء ⇒ a pea (c.n.) (sing.v.) حبة بازلاء
nuts (n.pl.) (pl.v.) مكسرات
nuptials (n.pl.) (pl.v.) حفلات الزفاف
outskirts (n.pl.) (pl.v.) ضواحي المدينة
odds (n.pl.) (pl.v.) احتمالات

binoculars (n.pl.) (pl.v.) منظار
news (n.pl.) (sing.v.) أخبار
jeans (n.pl.) (pl.v.) بنطلون
socks (n.pl.) (pl.v.) جوارب
surroundings (n.pl.) (pl.v.) محيط
sweats (n.pl.) (pl.v.) حلوى
pincers (n.pl.) (pl.v.) ملقط
scales (n.pl.) (pl.v.) ميزان
scissors (n.pl.) (pl.v.) مقص
woods (n.pl.) (pl.v.) (Am.) غابة
papers (n.pl.) (pl.v.) أوراق ⇒ a piece of paper
goods (n.pl.) (pl.v.) بضائع
boundaries (n.pl.) (pl.v.) حدود
spectacles (n.pl.) (pl.v.) نظارات
glasses (n.pl.) (pl.v.)
shoes (n.pl.) (pl.v.) حذاء ⇒ a pair of shoes
customs (n.pl.) (sing.v.) (بكان) الجمارك
humanities (n.pl.) (pl.v.) علوم إنسانية
brackets (n.pl.) (pl.v.)
parentheses (n.pl.) (pl.v.)
cattle (n.pl.) (pl.v.) ماشية
poultry (n.pl.) (pl.v.) دواجن
livestock (n.pl.) (pl.v.) الماشية

Lesson 12

Uncountable Nouns (Non-count Nouns)

Wood (u.n.) خشب
water (u.n.) ماء
coal (u.n.) فحم
fur (u.n.) فراء
sugar (u.n.) سكر
salt (u.n.) ملح
fruit (u.n.) فواكه ⇒ a fruit (c.n.)
steel (u.n.) فولاذ
coffee (u.n.) بُن
barley (u.n.) شعير
cloth (u.n.) قماش ⇒ a piece of cloth
dirt (u.n.)
hair (u.n.) شعر ⇒ a hair (c.n.) شعرة
milk (u.n.) حليب
snow (u.n.) ثلج
soup (u.n.) حساء
soap (u.n.) صابون ⇒ a bar of soap
wool (u.n.) صوف
yogurt (u.n.) لبن
lettuce (u.n.) خس
corn (u.n.) ذرة
clove (u.n.) قرنفل
pepper (u.n.) فلفل
ash (u.n.) رماد ⇒ ashes (n.pl.) رفات (الجثة)
cabbage (u.n.) ملفوف
cotton (u.n.) قطن
energy (u.n.) طاقة
flour (u.n.) طحين
gas (u.n.) (Am.) غاز ⇒ a gas (c.n.) غاز
gasoline (u.n.) (Am.) بنزين
petrol (u.n.) (Br.) بترول

gold (u.n.) ذهب
silver (u.n.) فضة
iron (u.n.) حديد
ice (u.n.) ثلج
leather (u.n.) جلد
oil (u.n.) زيت/نفط
powder (u.n.) مسحوق
sand (u.n.) رمل
sauce (u.n.) صلصة ⇒ a sauce (c.n.)
paste (u.n.) معجون
silk (u.n.) حرير
business (u.n.) (sing. v.) أعمال
garbage (u.n.) (sing. v.) (Am.) قمامة
rubbish (u.n.) (sing. v.) (Br.) قمامة
waste (u.n.) (sing. v.) قمامة
supply (u.n.) (sing. v.) مؤونة ⇒ a supply (c.n.)
abundance (u.n.) (sing. v.) وفرة
stationary (u.n.) (sing. v.) قرطاسية
anarchy (u.n.) (sing. v.) فوضى
vocabulary (u.n.) (sing. v.) مفردات لغوية
property (u.n.) (sing. v.) ممتلكات
furniture (u.n.) (pl. v.) أثاث
hardware (u.n.) (pl. v.) معدات
software (u.n.) (pl. v.) برمجيات
advice (u.n.) (pl. v.) نصائح ⇒ a piece of advice
housework (u.n.) (sing. v.) أعمال منزلية
homework (u.n.) (sing. v.) الفرض المنزلي
luggage / baggage (u.n.) (sing. v.) أمتعة السفر
information (u.n.) (sing. v.) معلومات
money (u.n.) (sing. v.) مال
cash (u.n.) (sing. v.) نقود
staff (u.n.) (pl. v.) موظفين
stuff (u.n.) (pl. v.) ممتلكات شخصية
liturgy (u.n.) (sing. v.) طقوس دينية

junk (u.n.) (sing.v.) خردة
equipment (u.n.) (pl.v.) تجهيزات
laundry (u.n.) (sing.v.) ملابس مغسولة ⇒ a laundry (c.n.) مجرة غسل الملابس
chalk (u.n.) (sing.v.) طباشير
clothing (u.n.) (sing.v.)
paper (u.n.) (sing.v.) ورق ⇒ a piece of paper
change (u.n.) (sing.v.) فكة
jewelry (u.n.) (sing.v.) مجوهرات
clutter (u.n.) (sing.v.) فوضى
kit (u.n.) (sing.v.) عدة
gear (u.n.) (sing.v.) تجهيزات
footage (u.n.) (sing.v.) لقطات
grammar (u.n.) (sing.v.) قواعد
coconut (u.n.) (sing.v.) جوز الهند ⇒ a coconut (c.n.)
onion (u.n.) (sing.v.) بصل ⇒ an onion (c.n.)
garlic (u.n.) (sing.v.) ثوم ⇒ a clove of garlic
traffic (u.n.) (sing.v.) حركة المرور
internet (u.n.) (sing.v.) انترنيت
intelligence (u.n.) (sing.v.) استخبارات
feedback (u.n.) (sing.v.) تعليقات
progress (u.n.) (sing.v.) تقدم

Lesson 13 : Plural الجمع

In general, we add (-s) to the end of a countable noun.

1. If the noun is ended in (-s / -x / -z / -sh / -ch / -ss), we add (-es) to the end of the noun.
   e.g. church → churches, axe → axes, bus → buses, box → boxes, brush → brushes, quiz → quizzes

2. If the noun is ended in (-y), preceded by a vowel letter, we add (-s) only to the end of the noun.
   e.g. boy → boys, day → days, key → keys, way → ways, valley (وادي) → valleys

3. If the noun is ended in (-y) preceded by a consonant letter, we change (-y) into (-ie) and we add (-s) to the end of the noun.
   e.g. baby → babies, city → cities, country → countries, factory → factories, lady → ladies, family → families

4. If the noun is ended in (-f / -fe), we change (-f / -fe) into (-ves).
   e.g. calf → calves, elf → elves, knife → knives, leaf → leaves, loaf → loaves

5. If the noun is ended in (-o) preceded by a vowel letter, we add (-s) only to the end of the noun.
   e.g. video → videos, radio → radios, studio → studios, zoo → zoos

6. If the noun is ended in (-o) preceded by a consonant letter, we add (-es) to the end of the noun
   e.g. hero → heroes, potato → potatoes, tomato → tomatoes, veto → vetoes, volcano → volcanoes

7. If the noun is ended in (-us), we change (-us) into (-i)
   e.g. stimulus (محفز) → stimuli, focus (بؤرة) → foci, radius (نصف قطر) → radii

8. If the noun is ended in (-um), we change (-um) into (-a)
   e.g. curriculum → curricula, ultimatum → ultimata, datum → data

9. If the noun is ended in (-sis), we change (-sis) into (-ses)
   e.g. analysis → analyses, crisis → crises, diagnosis (تشخيص) → diagnoses, parenthesis (قوسين) → parentheses

10. If the noun is ended in (-a), we add (-e) to the end of the noun.
    e.g. larva (يرقة) → larvae.

11. If double (o) occurred in the middle of the noun, we change the (-oo-) into (-ee-). e.g. goose → geese

Rules:

12. We use "the" with some adjectives and nouns to make a plural noun
    e.g. the elderly, the Japanese

13. If the noun consists of two or more nouns, we pluralize the last noun.
    e.g. babysitter → babysitters, grandchild → grandchildren

14. If the compound noun consists of (n. + prep. + n.), we pluralize the first noun. e.g. sister-in-law → sisters-in-law

15. If the compound nouns are followed by (man / woman), we pluralize both nouns.
e.g. woman priest → women priests

16. We do not pluralize currencies. But, when we talk about currencies as price, we pluralize them
e.g. dollar → dollars, the dollar

17. We pluralize the words 'hundred', 'thousand', 'million', and 'billion' if they come at the begining of the sentence. However, if they occurred in the middle of the sentence, after them comes a plural noun.

18. After {all / many} comes a plural noun.

19. There are nouns that have two ways to pluralize.
e.g. index → indexes / indices , appendix → appendixes / appendices

* Exceptions :

dwarf → dwarfs	piano → pianos
wharf → wharfs	penny → pence
chief → chiefs	man → men
proof → proofs	woman → women
safe → safes	belief → beliefs
casino → casinos	gulf → gulfs
roof → roofs	photo → photos , video → videos
kilo → kilos	ox → oxen
formula → formulas	louse → lice
person → persons (Am.) / people (Br.)	persona → personnel
silo → silos	

We use the following adjectives with illnesses : • a bad / terrible (شديد) headache, cold
• a sore (متقرح) throat
• an inoperable cancer (متقدم لدرجة العملية غير ممكنة)

Lesson 14 : Adjectives الصفات

We can derive adjectives from nouns and verbs by adding prefixes and suffixes

Prefix / Suffix	Examples
(-able)	acceptable, usable
(-ible)	edible
(-al)	normal, final, comical
(-ial)	radial, adverbial
(-ar)	particular, similar, familiar
(-ful)	beautiful, careful, masterful, wishful
(-ent)	excellent, frequent, ancient
(-ic)	economic, basic, scientific
(-ical)	political, hysterical
(-ish)	amateurish, childish
(-ive)	active, attractive
(-ative)	talkative
(-less)	endless, priceless, careless, senseless
(-eous)	erroneous
(-ious)	various, anxious, serious
(-ous)	famous
(-y)	angry, busy, windy, wealthy
(-like)	business-like, hollywood-like
(a-)	awake, asleep, alike, alive
(-ian)	Brazilian, Christian
(-i)	Iraqi, Omani
(-ese)	Japanese, Vietnames
(-ant)	assistant
(anti-)	anti-nuclear
(il-)	illegal
(im-)	impossible
(un-)	uncommon, unpopular

inoperable
(in-): incapable, indirect
(ir-): irresponsible
(dis-): disrespectable

Lesson 15 : Adverbs

ظروف الدرجة

Adverbs of degree they tell us about the intensity or degree of the action.
They can modify verbs, adverbs or adjectives.
Also, They come before the adjectives and after the auxiliaries.
The following table shows some adverbs and what they are modifying:

Adverb	Modifying تصف	Examples
extremely	adjective	The water was extremely cold.
quite	adjective	The movie is quite interesting.
just	verb	I was just leaving
almost	verb	She has almost finished the project.
very	adverb	She is running very fast.
too	adverb / adjective	You are walking too slow. / She's too small to reach the shelf
enough	adverb	You are running fast enough
still		There are still 5 minutes.
so	adjective	

- 'Too' is used with negative meaning, and it's followed by infinitive.
  e.g. She's too small to reach the shelf.
- 'So' is used with affirmative meaning.
  e.g.
- 'Very' is used with affirmative and negative meaning.
  e.g.

ظروف الحال

Adverbs of manner.

Adverbs of manner are derived from adjectives, and we use them to modify verbs.

- If the adjective is ended in (-y) preceded by a consonant letter, we change (-y) into (-ily)
  e.g. easy → easily, happy → happily, lucky → luckily
- If the adjective is ended in (-le), we change (-le) into (-ly). e.g. possible → possibly, probable → probably
- If the adjective is ended in (-e), we add (-ly) to the end of the adjective e.g. active → actively, polite → politely
- If the adjective is ended in (-ic), we add (-ally) to the end of the adjective. e.g.
- exceptions: 'hard, daily, late, far, cheap, still, long, low, near, straight'

Adverbs of frequency

Adverb of Frequency	Example
always دائماً	He always eats potatoes.
usually عادةً	She usually studies with her friends.
generally / normally عموماً	He generally / normally goes to the gym.
often / frequently غالباً	I often / frequently surf the internet.
sometimes / occasionally أحياناً	I sometimes / occasionally play football with my little brother.
seldom / rarely / scarcely نادراً	She seldom / rarely / scarcely reads newspapers.
hardly ever لا	I hardly ever drink pepsi
never (used for negative meaning)	I never drink alcohol.

The positions of adverbs

1. the front position of the clause
   e.g. • Suddenly, I felt afraid.
2. the mid position of the clause between the subject and the main verb.
   e.g. • He always drinks alcohol.
3. the end position of the clause.
   e.g. • She drives so fast.
4. after the auxiliary verbs
   e.g. • She is always late for class.
   • I have already (مؤكدة) eaten my lunch.
5. before the emphatic 'be'
   e.g. • I never was a fan of hers.

Lesson 16 :: Transitions (Transitional Words) أدوات الربط الإنتقالية

Lesson 17 Prepositions

A preposition is a word that shows the relationship between two things.

The plane flew above the cloud
Behind the cloud, around the cloud
Below the cloud, beneath the cloud
Beside the cloud, beyond the cloud
Into the cloud, near the cloud
Outside the cloud, over the cloud
Past the cloud, through the cloud
Toward the cloud, under the cloud
Finally, dived underneath the cloud

The following list contains the most common prepositions:

at	about	around	through
in	above	beside	throughout
into	across	besides	under
on	after	toward	underneath
onto	before	towards	until
by	behind	beyond	till
for	beneath	despite	with
from	below	during	within
to	down	except	without
of	up	like	
off	against	near	
by	along	over	
ouside	among	past	
out			
inside	between	since	

The following list contains the most common multiword prepositions;

along with	except (for)	in front of	on account of
because of	in addition to	in place of	out of
due to	in case of	in spite of	up to
		instead of	with the exception of

The preposition 'on'

- We use 'on' with days of the week and dates.
  e.g. • I will see you on Monday. • The Gunpowder Plot is on the fifth of November.
- We also use 'on' to talk about the surface.
  e.g. • I left your keys on the table.
- We use 'on' with planets
  e.g. • You will find a wide variety of life on earth
  • the first man on the moon.
- Furthermore, we use 'on' to indicate an electronic device.
  e.g. • My favorite actor will be on T.V. tonight.
  • He is on the phone right now.
- We use 'on' to indicate a part of the body.
  e.g. • He hit me on my shoulder.
  • I wear a ring on my finger.
- In addition, we use 'on' for addresses.
  e.g. • She lives on 79th Avenue.

Notes:

- 'On the weekend' is used in American English. However, 'at the weekend' is used in British English.
- 'On time'

- 'On' is sometimes confused with 'onto'. 'On' indicates that something is already in the position. 'Onto' indicates a movement from one place onto the surface of some type.
  e.g. • Peter took a book out of his backpack and put it onto the table
  • Could you please move those clothes onto the sofa?

fixed expressions:

on foot	be on one's own	on sale
on balance	on the contrary	on fire
on condition (that)	on the other hand	on the road
	on the way	
	on the whole	

The preposition 'at'

- We use 'at' to talk about a general vicinity
  e.g. • She was waiting at the corner.
- We use 'at' with the time of day, age, town's, villages, local places, price and speed.
  e.g. • He has finished high school at 18.
  • at five o'clock / noon / night / midnight / dawn
  • She lives in Madrid, at Los Barrios.
  • at school / airport / museum / university / college / theater
- We do not use 'at' with 'stay' and 'go' when they are used with 'home'.
- We use 'at' with 'noon', 'night', and 'midnight'
  fixed expressions:
  at work, at home, at lunch, at war, at my side
  at the door, at the desk / office / table

The preposition 'in'

- We use 'in' with enclosed placed or places within boundries
  e.g. in the box, in the park, in the hospital
- We also use 'in' with seasons, years, months, big places (cities, countries, and continents), and names of rivers.
  e.g. in summer, in 1996, in November, in Baghdad, in Iraq
  in Asia, in the suburbs, in the Tigris, in the Ephrates
- We use 'in' with 'morning', 'afternoon' and 'evening'

The preposition 'by'

We use 'by' with means of transportation
e.g. by bus / train / car

The preposition 'from'

We do not use 'from' with the sun; We use 'in' instead.
e.g. The sun rises in the east and sets in the west.

The preposition 'of'

We use 'of' with some verbs (e.g. approve, consist, smell)

Prepositions of time : 'since', for, by, from / to, from / until, during, with, within, on, at, in'

- 'Since', for', 'by', 'from / to', 'from / until', 'during', 'with', and 'within' are used to express extended time.

e.g. • She has been gone since yesterday (She left yesterday and has not returned.)
• I am going to Paris for two weeks. (I will spend two weeks there)
• The movie showed from August to/until October. (beginning in August, ending in October)
• I watch T.V. during the evening. (for some period of time in the evening)
• We must finish the project within a year. (no longer than a year)

- 'On' is used with days of the week and dates.
- 'At' is used with 'noon', 'night', 'midnight' and with the time of day
- 'In' is used with 'morning', 'afternoon', and 'evening'.

Also, 'in' is used with months of the year, years, and seasons.

Prepositions of place : 'in, inside, on, at, over, above, under, underneath, beneath, below, near, by, next to, between, among, opposite, against'

- 'In' is used with enclosed places or places within boundries.
- 'Inside' is used to express something contained e.g. Put the present inside the box.
- 'On' is used to talk about the surface.
- 'At' is used to talk about a general vicinity.
- 'Outside' is the opposite of 'inside'.

N.B. We do not use 'of' with 'inside/outside' when they are used as prepositions. If they are used as nouns, we can use 'of' with 'inside/outside'.

- 'Over' and 'above' are used when the object is higher than a point.

e.g. • He threw the ball over the roof.
• She hang her picture above the couch.

- 'Under', 'underneath', 'beneath', and 'below' are used when the object is lower than a point.

e.g. • The rabbit burrowed under the ground.
• The child hid underneath the blanket.
• We relaxed in the shade beneath the branches.
• The valley is below sea-level.

- 'Near', by, 'next to', 'between', 'among', 'opposite', 'beside', and 'against', are used when the object is close to a point.

e.g. • She lives near the school.
• There is an ice cream shop by the store
• An oak tree grows next to my house.
• The house is between Elm street and Maple street.
• I found my pen lying among the books
• The bathroom is opposite the kitchen

Notes:

- The difference between 'between' and 'among':
'Between' is used when two items are involved only.
e.g.
'Among' is used when two or more items are involved.
e.g.

- The difference between 'beside' and 'besides':
'Beside' means 'next to'
e.g. The comb is beside the brush.
'Besides' means 'in addition'
e.g. Besides planning the trip, she is also getting the tickets.

- 'Due to' means 'because of'
e.g.

Prepositions that introduce objects of verbs:

- 'At' is used with verbs 'glance', 'laugh', 'look', 'rejoice', 'smile', and 'stare'.

  e.g. • She took a quick glance at her reflection
  (exception with mirror: She took a quick glance in the mirrow.
  • We rejoiced at his safe rescue.

- 'Of' is used with verbs 'approve', 'consist' and 'smell'

  e.g. • I do not approve of his speech.
  • My contribution to the article consists of many pages.

- 'Of' and 'about' are used with verbs 'dream' and 'think'.

  e.g. • I dream of finishing college in four years.
  • Can you think of a number between one and ten?

- 'For' is used with verbs 'call', 'hope', 'look', 'wait', 'watch', and 'wish'

  e.g. • Did someone call for a taxi?
  • He hopes for a raise in salary next year.

Lesson 18 :: Conjunctions

A conjunction is a word used to connect words, phrases, clauses, or sentences.

Types of conjunctions

1. Coordinate conjunctions (coordinators) or (fan boys) حروف العطف التنسيقية

a coordinator is a word that joins two verbs, two nouns, two adjectives, two phrases, or two independent clauses.

Coordinators are 'for, and, nor, but, or, yet, and so'
بسبب ، و ، و ، و ، لكن ، أو/إما ، بعد ، إذن/لذلك

e.g. • The children lost their way, for they had never been in the forest alone before. (for = because)

• We ate bread and butter.

• 'We have not been to America.' 'Nor have we' (Nor used before positive verb to agree with something negative that has just been said)

• I would love to buy a new car, but I do not have enough money.

• She must have loved him, or she would not have married him. (or = otherwise / or else)

• He seems pleasant, yet there is something about him I do not like.

• She felt very tired, so she went to bed early. (so = therefore)

2. Subordinate conjunctions (subordinators) حروف العطف الإتباعية

a subordinator is a word that joins dependent clause to independent clause.

List of subordinators:

after بعد e.g. After we had finished our dinner, we went into the garden.

before e.g. Turn the lights off before you leave.

Although / even though بالرغم من e.g. Although / even though it was very hot, they went running.

because / as بسبب e.g. We decided to stay home because / as it was very cold.

until / till حتى e.g. You cannot drive until / till you get your license.

as long as / provided that بشرط كذا / if طالما

e.g.

when لما / once لما / as soon as لما.
e.g. We can leave when / once / as soon as you are ready.
while في حين / whereas بينما
e.g. Monica lives in New York, while / whereas her brother lives in Iraq.
unless / only if ما لم
as much as
as if
as though
though
in case (that)
in order (that)
assuming that
whenever
by the time
rather than

Correlative conjunctions

List of correlative conjunction's :
as / as
just as / as
both / and
hardly / when
scarcely / when
either / nor
neither / nor
if / then
not / but
not only / but also
whether / or
no sooner / than
rather / than
what with / and

4. Conjunctive adverbs

List of conjunctive adverbs:

accordingly
again
also
besides
still
then
therefore
thus
consequently
ultimately / finally
further
furthermore
hence
however
indeed
otherwise
likewise
instead
moreover
namely

Lesson 19 : Pronouns الضمائر

There are mainly five types of pronouns :

1. Subject Pronouns : (sub.pron.) ضمائر الفاعل
(I / he / she / it / you / they / we)
2. Object Pronouns : (obj.pron.) ضمائر المفعول به
(me / him / her / it / you / them / us)

} Subject and object pronouns are called personal pronouns.

3. Possessive Adjectives : (poss.adj.) صفات الملكية
(my / his / her / its / your / their / our)
4. Possessive Pronouns : (poss.pron.) ضمائر الملكية
(mine / his / hers / its / yours / theirs / ours)
5. Reflective Pronouns : (ref.pron.) الضمائر الإنعكاسية
(myself / himself / herself / itself / yourself / yourselves / themselves / ourselves)

---

* Indefinite Pronouns : (indef.pron.) ضمائر النكرة
(somebody / someone / something / anybody / anyone / anything / nobody / nothing / none or no one / few / more / each / every / either / all / both / any / one / several / much / many / some)

N.B. Use (any) with negation and interrogation

* Reciprocal Pronouns : الضمائر التبادلية
one another بعضهم البعض : (more than two persons)
each other بعضهم الآخر : (between two persons)

* Old-use pronouns : thou / thee
thy / thine

* Relative Pronouns : ضمائر الوصل

1. Who : we use it to refer to the subject of the sentence. e.g. He was the same man who helped me yesterday.
2. Whom : we use it to refer to the object of the sentence. e.g. They called him Sunny, whom was very famous.
3. Which : we use it to refer to things. e.g. I want the pen which I lent you yesterday.
4. What : we use it to refer to things. e.g. Your red dress is what you should wear.
5. that : we use it to refer to subject, object or a thing. 6. whose : we use it in possessive
7. (whoever / whomever / whatever / whichever)

N.B. (What / who) are used in exclamation

* Demonstrative adjectives أسماء الإشارة : they describe a noun.
e.g. That soup is good.

this : للمفرد القريب — these : للجمع القريب
that : للمفرد البعيد — those : للجمع البعيد

* Demonstrative pronouns : ضمائر الإشارة ; they stand alone
e.g. That is good.

Lesson 20 : Articles أدوات

* There are two kinds of articles: definite and indefinite articles.

1. Indefinite Articles: (a/an/some) محددات النكرة (indf. art.)

a. We use (a) before the noun that begins with a consonant letter. e.g. a car, a school, a book

b. We use (an) before the noun that begins with a vowel letter. e.g. an apple, an egg

c. We don't use (a/an) with uncountable nouns, we use (some) instead.

d. We can't use (an) with number (one)

e. We don't use (a/an) before the adjective that there isn't a noun after it, but when there is a noun after the adjective, we can use (a/an) according to the first letter of the adjective. e.g. a busy man, a beautiful face, an attractive woman, an active pupil

f. We use (a) with (h) if we pronounce it, we use (an) with the silent (h)
e.g. an honor, an hour, a humanitarian, a hospital, a house

g. It is optional to use (a) with (quarter)

2. Definite Article: (the) أداة المعرفة

a. We use (the) when the thing is known, for example when we mention the noun for the second time or we know it before.

b. We use it with unique nouns. e.g. the sun, the sky, the moon, the world, the earth

c. We use it with musical instruments e.g. the piano, the guitar

d. We use it before the names of rivers, oceans, seas, mountain ranges (السلاسل الجبلية), nationalities, countries, families and adjectives that refer to a group of people. e.g. the Nile, the Euphrates (نهر الفرات), the Tigris (نهر دجلة), the Atlantic Ocean (المحيط الاطلسي), the Mediterranean Sea, the Rocky Mountains (سلسلة جبال الروكي), the Iraqi (العراقيين), the French (الفرنسيين), the United Kingdom, the United States, the Smiths, the poor, the rich, the elderly

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Lesson 21 : Quantifiers أدوات حساب الكمية

Countable nouns	Uncountable nouns	Both sides
(so/too) many (of) الكثير من	(so/too) much الكثير من	a lot of / lots of (infml.) كثير من
few / a few (of) القليل من	a little القليل من	عدد كبير من
each (two only) / every (more than two) كل/كلا (of) كل (of)	a little bit of قليلاً من	some (affirmation) بعض
several (of) عدة	a bit of بعض الشيء من	all (of) كل من
a number of عدد من	a great deal of مقدار كبير من	most (of) معظم كنا
a great/large number of عدد كبير من	a large amount of كمية كبيرة من	more المزيد من
	a small amount of كمية قليلة من	less القليل من
		plenty (of)
		any (affirmation / negation)
		enough

Lesson Twelve: Determiners المحددات

* Determiner is a word precedes the noun. General determiners: (a/an/any/another/other/what)
* Types of determiners:

1. Articles : أدوات التعريف وأدوات النكرة e.g. ① The dog is barking too loudly. ② A student returned the book.
2. Demonstratives : أسماء الإشارة e.g. This (determiner) book is very boring. (determiner)
   ⇒ This (pronoun) is a very boring book. (pronoun)
3. possessives : أدوات الملكية
4. Numbers : الأعداد الأصلية والترتيبية
5. Quantifiers : أدوات حساب الكمية e.g. There's plenty (determiner) room for all of you. Plenty (pronoun) of eggs
6. Indefinite pronouns ضمائر النكرة
7. Interrogative determiners : (what / which)

Lesson 22 :

Tenses

	Past	Present	Future
Simple	Simple Past	Simple Present	Simple Future
Perfect	Past Perfect	Present Perfect	Future Perfect
Continuous	Past Continuous	Present Continuous	Future Continuous
Perfect Continuous	Past Perfect Continuous	Present Perfect Continuous	Future Perfect Continuous

There are 12 tenses in English

Lesson 23 :

Simple present

- Pattern : (sub.) + (Vo) + third person singular 's' with 'he', 'she', and 'it' + (C.)
  e.g. Susan sometimes meets with her friends after school.
  Passive voice : (obj.) + be (pres.t.) + (p.p.) + (C.)
  e.g. He eats an apple. (active)
  An apple is eaten. (passive)
- We use the simple present with permanent situations. e.g. Giraffes live in Africa.
- We use the simple present with habits and habitual events.
  e.g. He goes to school every day.
- We use the simple present with scientific facts.
  e.g. Water boils at 100° centigrade.
- We use adverbs of frequency with the simple present.
  e.g. She always eats potatoes.
  I sometimes play football with my little brother.

N.B. We call the simple present 'simple' because there is only one simple verb in the sentence.

- We use the simple present when we perform an action by speaking. e.g.
  - We use the simple present with performative verbs
    e.g. I promise to be more careful
    I accept their decision
    accept, promise, apologize, bet, deny, insist, regret

Simple past

- Pattern : (sub.) + main verb (p.t.) + (C.)
  e.g. I visited Paris last week.
- Passive voice : (obj.) + be (p.t.) + (p.p.) + (C.)
  e.g. He ate an apple. (active)
  An apple was eaten. (passive)
- We use the simple past to indicate an event that occurred in the past, and it was over at that time.
- We use the following adverbs with the simple past:
  last السابق/الماضي e.g. I watched a horror movie last night.
  yesterday البارحة e.g. I went to the stadium yesterday.
  ago منذ e.g. I saw him 10 minutes ago.

Lesson 24:

Present perfect

الترجمة: لقد/قد

- Pattern: (sub.) + have / has + (p.p.) + (C.)
  e.g. I have broken my arm this week.
- Passive voice: (obj.) + have / has + been + (p.p.) + (C.)
  e.g. Alix has seen that film six times. (active)
  That film has been seen six times. (passive)
- We use the present perfect to indicate an event that occurred in the past and has a relation to the present.
  e.g. I have done my homework.
  Alina has lost her bag.
- We use the present perfect with state verbs
  e.g. I have known Tony for about five years.
- We use the present perfect to describe a life experience.
  e.g. I have been to Istanbul.
  Jack has studied at university of London.
- We use the following adverbs and phrases with the present perfect:
  - for (unspecific time) لمدة/لـ e.g. Mark has waited for an hour to see you.
    Selina has taught English for 5 years.
  - Since (specific time) منذ e.g. I have not seen him since last Tuesday.
    Taylor has lived here since 1992.
  - just للتو e.g. I have just seen your brother near the bank.
    John has just arrived from his vacation.
  - already سابقاً / قبل قليل e.g. I have already eaten my lunch.
    She has already done her homework.
  - 'Yet' is used in negative and interrogative. بعد / لا يزال
    e.g. We have not had any serious problems yet. (negative)
    Have you met my friend yet? (interrogative)
  - 'Ever' is used in affirmative, negative, and interrogative
    e.g. He is the best teacher I have ever known. (affirmative) في عمرك
    No one has ever said that to me before. (negative) في أي وقت مضى
    Have you ever been to Istanbul? (interrogative) هل في حياتك
  N.B. We cannot use 'not' with 'ever'. Instead, we use 'no one, nothing, etc.'
  - never (negative) لا ... أبداً e.g. John has never been to Italy.
  - how long
  - this week / month

Lesson 25 :

Past perfect

الترجمة : لقد كان / قد كان

- Pattern : (sub.) + had + (p.p.) + (C.)
  e.g. Jack had saved his document before the computer crashed.
- Passive voice : (obj.) + had + been + (p.p.) + (C.)
  e.g. When they arrived we had already started cooking. (active)
  Cooking had already been started when they arrived. (passive)
- We use the past perfect to describe an event occurred before another one in the past.

$$\underbrace{\text{event 1}}_{\text{simple past}} + \underbrace{\text{event 2}}_{\text{past perfect}}$$

vice versa

e.g. John had gone out when I arrived in the office.
He was very tired because he had not slept well.

- We use the following adverbs and phrases with the past perfect :
  - just (adv.) للتو e.g. The train had just left when I arrived at the station.
  - already (adv.) سابقاً / قبل قليل e.g. When Alice arrived, the teacher had already started the lecture.
  - after (adv.) بعد e.g. After Sofia had finished her work, she went to the market.
  - before (adv.) قبل e.g. Before Jack was a teacher, he had worked as a taxi driver.
  - when (adv.) عندما e.g. She washed the floor when the painter had gone.
  - by the time (phr.) في الوقت الذي كنا
    e.g. By the time he phoned her, she had got on the train.
  - as soon as (phr.)
    e.g. As soon as she had done her homework, she went to bed.

Lesson 26: Present Continuous and Past Continuous

present continuous

الترجمة : إنه

- pattern : (sub.) + be (pres.t.) + (V.o.) + (-ing) + (c.)
  e.g. Julie is sleeping at the moment.
- passive voice : (obj.) + be (pres.t.) + being + (p.p.) + (c.)
  e.g. You are studying the present continuous. (active)
  The present continuous is being studied. (passive)
- We use the present continuous to indicate an event that is happening in the present.
  e.g. The children are studying now.
- We use the present continuous to describe a temporary event.
  e.g. Michael is studying history for a few months.
- We use the following adverbs and phrases with the present continuous.
  - now (adv.) الآن e.g. Susan is studying now.
  - nowadays (adv.) في الوقت الحاضر e.g. Jack is very busy nowadays.
  - at the moment (phr.) في هذه اللحظة e.g. At the moment, he is riding to downtown.
  - at the present (phr.) في الوقت الحاضر e.g.
  - right now (phr.) الآن e.g.
  - for a week/month/year (phr.) لأسبوع/الشهر/السنة
    e.g. He is staying with his friends for a week.
  - for a few days/months (phr.) لأيام/لأشهر
    e.g. Alex is reading the book 'War and Peace' for a few days.
  - this week/month/year (phr.) هذا الأسبوع/الشهر/السنة
    e.g. I am wearing new trousers for school this week.

past continuous

الترجمة : كنت

- Pattern : (sub.) + be (p.t.) + (Vo.) + (-ing) + (obj.) + (c.)
  e.g. Peter was reading a book yesterday evening.
- Passive voice : (obj.) + be (past) + being + (p.p.) + (c.)
  e.g. She was writing a letter to her friend. (active)
  A letter was being writen to someone's friend. (passive)
- We use the past continuous to indicate a continuous event occurred in the past.
  e.g. The boy was reading a book.
  Alice was listening to the radio.
- We use the past continuous to indicate two event occurred in the past, one continued after the other.

  $\underbrace{\text{event 1}}_{\text{simple past}} + \underbrace{\text{event 2}}_{\text{past continuous}}$

  vice versa

  e.g. Annie called when Tom was studying.
  While we were sitting at the breakfast table, the telephone rang.
- We use the past continuous with two parallel events.
  e.g. Anne was watching T.V. and John was reading a newspaper.
- We use the past continuous with annoying or repeated event by using 'always'.
  e.g. Andrew was always coming late.
  My brother was always snoring.
- We use the past continuous with some verbs (wonder, hope)
  e.g. I was wondering when I could talk to you.
- 'While' and 'when' are used with the past continuous.
  e.g. While the movie was playing, Mary ate popcorn.
  Susan dropped a cup while she was washing the dishes.

Lesson 27 : Present Perfect Continuous and Past Perfect Continuous

Present perfect continuous: We use it to describe an event in the past and continues in the present.

- Pattern: (sub.) + have / has + been + (Vo) + (-ing) + (C.)

e.g. She has been waiting for you all day.
They have been travelling since last October.
She has been swimming for three hours.
It has been raining since last Sunday.

- Passive voice pattern:

(obj.) + have / has + been + being + (p.p.) + (C.)

Past perfect continuous : الزمن الماضي المستمر

We use it to describe two events, one started in the past and another ended in the past.

- Pattern: (sub.) + had + been + (Vo) + (-ing) + (C.)

e.g. We had been trying to open the door for five minutes when Jane found her key.
It had been raining hard for several hours and the street were very wet.

- Shape of past perfect sentence:

action -1- (past perfect continuous) action -2- (simple past)

vice versa

Lesson 28 :

الترجمة : سوف/س وهو حدث سوف يحدث في المستقبل ويكتمل

Simple future : We use it with an action that is expected to occur in the near future, and it will be completed. We have three patterns :

a. Pattern one :

	(sub.) + will + (Inf.) + (C.)

verb phrase

e.g. She will write the invitations later today.

- Question patterns :
- Information question pattern :

	wh-word + will + (sub.) + (inf.) + (C.) ?

e.g. 1. Who will write the invitations ?
2. When will she write the invitations ?
3. What will she do later today ?

She will write the invitations later today.
① (sub) ③ (obj.) ② (adv.)

- Yes/no question pattern :

	will + (sub.) + (inf.) + (C.) ?

e.g. Will she write the invitations later today ?
Yes, she will./ No, she won't.

b. Pattern two :

	(sub.) + be (pres. t.) + going to + (inf.) + (C.) ?

verb phrase

e.g. Mr. Alan is going to have a party tomorrow.
N.B. When we make a question, we can't ask about any element of the verb phrase.

- Question patterns :
- Information question pattern :

	wh-word + be (pres. t.) + (sub.) + going to + (inf.) + (C.) ?

1. Who is going to have a party ?
2. What is Mr. Alan going to have ?
3. When is Mr. Alan going to have a party ?

Mr. Alan is going to have a party tomorrow.
① (Sub.) (v. phr) ② (obj.) ③ (adv.)

- Yes/no question pattern:

be (pres. t.) + (sub.) + going to + (inf.) + (C.) ?

e.g. Is Mr. Alan going to have a party tomorrow?
Yes, he is going to. / No, he isn't going to.

c. Pattern three:

(sub.) + be (pres. t.) + about to + (inf.) + (C.)

verb phrase

- We use this pattern to express the near future.

e.g. Alice is about to introduce the guests.

- Question patterns:
- Information question pattern:

wh-word + be (pres. t.) + (sub.) + about to + (inf.) + (C.) ?

e.g. 1. Who is about to introduce the guests?
2. Whom is Alice about to introduce?
3. What is Alice about to do?

Alice is about to introduce the guests.
① (sub.) ③ (V.) ② (obj.)

- Yes/no question pattern:

be (present) + (sub.) + about to + main verb (base form) + complement ?

e.g. Is Alice about to introduce the guests?
Yes, she is about to. / No, she isn't about to.

Lesson 29:

1. Future continuous: We use it with an action that will occur in the future and continue for an expected length of time.

a. Pattern one:

(sub.) + will + be (pres. t.) + (Vo.) + (-ing) + (C.)
(base form)

e.g. Anna will be preparing refreshments at this time next week.

- Question patterns:
- Information question pattern:

wh-word + will + (sub.) + be + (Vo.) + (-ing) + (C.) ?
(base form)

e.g. 1. Who will be preparing refreshments at this time next week?
2. What will Anna be doing at this time next week?
3. When will Anna be preparing refreshments?

Anna will be preparing refreshments at this time next week.
1. (sub.) 2. (obj.) 3. future time expression

- Yes/no question pattern:

Will + (sub.) + be + (Vo.) + (-ing) + (C.) ?

e.g. Will Anna be preparing refreshments at this time next week?
Yes, she will / No, she won't

b. Pattern two:

(sub.) + be (pres. t.) + going to + be + (Vo.) + (-ing) + (C.)
(base form)

e.g. Anna is going to be preparing refreshments at this time next week.

- Question patterns:
- Information question pattern:

Lesson 30:

Future Perfect: We use it with an action that will happen before certain time in the future, and it will be completed. وهو حدث سوف يحدث في المستقبل قبل وقت محدد وسوف ينتهي.

a. Pattern one: (sub.) + will + have + (p.p.)

e.g. You will have perfected your English by the time you come back from London.

b. Pattern two: (sub.) + be (present) + going to + have + (p.p.)

e.g. You are going to have perfected your English by the time you come back from London.

Future perfect continuous: We use it with an action that will happen in the future and continue up until a point in the future.

وهو حدث سوف يحدث في المستقبل قبل وقت محدد ولكن سوف يستمر

a. Pattern one:

(sub.) + will + have + been + base form + (-ing) + complement

e.g. You will have been waiting for more than two hours when her plane finally arrives.

b. Pattern two: (sub.) + be (present) + going to + have + been + main verb + (-ing) + complement

e.g. You are going to have been waiting for more than two hours when her plane finally arrives.

Lesson 31:

(*) The use of "will" and "(be) going to":

- Both are used to make a prediction.

"Will" is used to make a prediction based on our opinion or experience.

e.g. Why don't you come over at the weekend? The children will enjoy seeing you again.

"(be) going to" is used to make a prediction based on present evidence.

e.g. The sky has gone really dark. There's going to be a storm.

- "Will" is used when we make a decision at the moment. (rapid decisions)

e.g. I will buy one for you too.

"(be) going to" is used when something has been previously arranged. (prior plan)

e.g. I'm going to accept that job offer.

- "Will" is used to make a promise, offer, determination, or inevitability.

e.g ① I promise I will behave next time.

② I will give you a discount if you buy it right now.

③ I will help you with your math assignment

④ My team will win the league this season

- "Will" is used with some phrases, such as "I expect, I hope, I imagine, I'm sure, I bet (infml.), I reckon (infml.), I wonder, and I think"

"think" and "reckon" are used in questions.

e.g. ① I imagine the stadium will be full for the match on Saturday.

② When do you think you'll finish work?

③ That cheese smells awful. I bet nobody will eat it.

- "(be) going to" is used when something is about to happen.

e.g. Get back! The bomb is going to explode.

Lesson 32:

⊛ Expressing the near future: We use the following phrases to express the near future:

- Be to + base form

e.g. Police officers are to visit every home in the area.

- It's used to talk about formal instructions and to give orders.

e.g. You are not to leave the school without my permission.

⇒ N.B. We use the passive voice to make orders and instructions more impersonal. We use: be to be +(p.p.)

- It's used with conditional sentences.

e.g. If he is to win the gold medal at the next Olympics, he needs to work hard

- It's used to refer to the future from the past, we often use it to describe what happened to sb.

e.g. He was to write to more books about his experiences in Africa before her death in 1969.

- Be about to + base form

e.g. The train is about to leave the station very soon.

- Be on the verge of +(p.pr.) / noun

e.g. People are on the verge of starvation as the drought continues.

- Be on the brink of + gerund / noun

e.g. Scientists are on the brink of making major advances in the fight against AIDS.

- Be on the point of + (p.pr.) / noun

e.g. I didn't find my car in the car park. I was on the point of calling the police, when I remembered that I had walked to work that morning.

- Be due to + base form

e.g. The company's chief executive is due to announce his retirement tonight.

⇒ N.B. We use: due to + noun to give the reason for sth, not to talk about the future.

e.g. He is unable to come tonight due to illness.

- Be sure to + base form

e.g. Her plane is sure to arrive in a few seconds.

- Be bound to + base form

e.g. Her new movie is bound to succeed in the box office.

- Be set to + base form

e.g. Her new film is set to be a great success.

- Using present tense to express a forthcoming event in the future :

• Simple present future :

a) Pattern one : (sub.) + main verb (base form + third person singular (s) with (he/she/it) + complement

e.g. Richard graduates in June.

b) Pattern two : (sub.) + be (present) + complement

e.g. The next meeting is a week from today.

• Present continuous future :

Pattern : (sub.) + be (present) + main verb (base form) + (-ing) + complement.

e.g. The bakers are coming tomorrow.

Lesson 33:

* Other patterns for forming passive sentences:

- Pattern: (sub.) + (v.) + infinitive + (obj.)
- The passive voice: (obj.) + (v.) + to be + (p.p.)

e.g. Supermarkets started to sell fresh pasta only in the 1990s. (the active voice)
Fresh pasta started to be sold by supermarket only in the 1990s. (the passive voice)

- Pattern: (sub.) + (v.) + (obj.) + gerund
- The passive voice: (obj.) + be + (p.p.) + gerund

e.g. [1] Her screams brought everyone running into the room. (the active voice)
Everyone was brought running into the room by her screams. (the passive voice)
[2] They saw the monkey climbing over the fence. (the active voice)
The monkey was seen climbing over the fence. (the passive voice)

N.B. Present participle has the same form as gerund, but the difference is use. (P.P^r) acts like a verb or adjective, It's used with tenses. Gerund acts like a noun.

Lessor 34 : Participle اسم المفعول

* A participle is a word formed from a verb.
* Participial Phrase : العبارة النعتية
  - It's a phrase which is introduced by a participle.
  - It always functions as adjective and modifies (تقييد) a noun or pronoun.
  - It's consisted of present participle or past participle plus other modifiers (مقيدات).

N.B. Modifier comes after the participle

N.B. Modifiers can be adjectives, adverbs, phrases ...

* Forms of the participle :

1. Present participle (اسم الفاعل) : We can use it instead of a phrase starting with as/since/because
   - It's a form of verb used as adjective or as a verb in conjugation.

   e.g. Feeling hungry, he went into the kitchen and opened the fridge.

   pres.p. — modifier (pres.p. phrase) — pronoun

   pres.p. phrase functions as adjective and modifies the pronoun (he)

2. Past Participle (اسم المفعول) :

   e.g. Deceived by his friends, he commited suicide.

   p.p. — modifier

3. Perfect Participle (التام) : It is formed from putting the pres.p in front of p.p. and it indicates a completed action.

   e.g. Having rested for awhile, we continued our journey.

* The (-ing) Form : Adding

1. If the verb is ended in (-e), we omit (-e) and then we add (-ing)

   e.g. injure → injuring

   Exception : verb (to be) → being

2. If the verb is ended in a consonant letter preceded by a vowel letter, we make the consonant letter double and add (-ing)

   e.g. stop → stopping , begin → beginning

   Exceptions : listen → listening , offer → offering , open → opening , visit → visiting

3. If the verb is ended in (-ie), we change (-ie) into (-y) and add (-ing)

   e.g. die → dying , vie → vying , lie → lying

Lesson 35 : Gerund صيغة اسم المتوية بالوب

* Gerund: it's a term of a verb used as a noun.
* Formula: base form + (-ing)

1. Gerund can be in place of subject
   e.g. Studying English is important
2. Gerund can be in place of object
   e.g. I like studying English
3. Gerund can be in place of object of preposition.
   e.g. ① I like going by bus
   ② He is excited about playing football.
4. Gerund is used with polite request:
   [1] Do you mind + gerund
   [2] Would you mind + gerund
5. Verbs that are followed by gerund:
   (go / like / dislike / hate / love / adore / enjoy / quit / give up / avoid / stop / look forward to / used to
   postpone / delay / put off / finish / consider / discuss / suggest / mention
6. Adjectives that are followed by gerund: / take part in / participate in / believe in / insist on
   interested in / excited about / capable of / accustomed to / responsible for
   accused of
7. After stative verbs comes gerund.
8. Other words that are followed by gerund: instead of / in addition to / without

Lesson 36 : **Infinitive** صيغة المصدر

* It's a form of verb that's used to describe an action of non-finite duration.
* There are two types of infinitive :

1. Infinitive form with (to)
2. The bare infinitive form : It's without (to), the infinitive verb is preceded by verbs of perception : (feel / hear / help / let / make / see / watch) and if it's preceded by modal verbs (will / would / shall / should / may / must / might)

N.B. We can use either the bare infinitive or present participle after the object.

e.g. ① I felt the ground shake once. / I felt the ground shaking for about half a minute.

② I helped him (to) do his homework / I can help you (to) succeed in school.

③ Let me speak, please.

④ He made him understand English very well.

⑤ I saw him climb over the fence. / He was seen to climb over the fence

⑥ He watched the cook prepare the food he had ordered

⑦ I heard the bomb explode.

N.B. In some infinitive verbs, (to) is optional to use, it is omitted in informal English.

* Some verbs that are followed by infinitive : (get / stop / have / keep)
* After verb (to do) comes infinitive
* After modal (needn't) comes infinitive

Lesson 37 : Affixes

Lesson 38 : Conditional Sentences (If Clauses) الجمل الشرطية

1. Zero/fact conditional الحالة الشرطية الصفرية

Formula: simple present + simple present
(if clause) (result clause)
جملة فعل الشرط جملة جواب الشرط

e.g. If I go to London, I learn English.

2. First Conditional (probable condition) الحالة الشرطية الأولى / الشرط المحتمل

Formula: simple present + modal (will / can / may / shall / would / might / should / must / need to) + base form
(if clause) (result clause)
جملة فعل الشرط جملة جواب الشرط

e.g. If I study hard, I will succeed in school. ② If someone asks you for money, you should give him.

3. Second Conditional (improbable condition) الحالة الشرطية الثانية / الشرط الغير المحتمل

Formula: simple past + modal (would / could / might) + base form
(if clause) (result clause)
جملة فعل الشرط جملة جواب الشرط

e.g. If I studied hard, I would succeed in school.

4. Third Conditional (impossible condition) الحالة الشرطية الثالثة / الشرط الغير ممكن

Formula: past perfect + modal (would / could / might) + have + (p.p.)
(if clause) (result clause)
جملة فعل الشرط جملة جواب الشرط

e.g. If I had studied hard, I would have succeeded in school.

5. Mixed time condition :

improbable condition + impossible condition

يكون فعل الشرط ماضي تام وجواب الشرط ماضي بسيط والعكس صحيح

e.g. If I had eaten breakfast several hours ago, I wouldn't be hungry now.

6. Implied condition :

e.g. If you hadn't helped me, I would never have succeeded.

⇒ If would never have succeeded without your help.

* Notes :

1. (if clause) could be at first or secondly with only one condition that we omit the comma.
e.g. I will write my parents a letter if I have enough time.
2. We usually avoid using (was) when we have (if / as if / as though / wish) in the senten
, we use (were) instead of (was)
e.g. If I were you, I would take care of myself.
3. Polite request with (if) :
① Do you mind if + simple present } they refer to the present
② Would you mind if + simple past }

Lesson 39 : Question Making صناعة السؤال

* We have two types of questions :

1. Yes/no questions
2. Information questions / wh-questions

1. Yes/no questions :

- Formula : (aux.v.) + (sub.) + (main v.) + complement ?
- N.B. If there is an auxiliary verb, we put it at the beginning of the question. If there isn't an auxiliary verb, we use verb (to do) at the beginning of the question.
- Yes/no questions with each one of the tenses :

1. Simple present : Do you like bananas ? Yes, I do.
   Do you speak English ? Yes, I do.
2. Present continuous : Are you coming with us ? Yes, I am.
   Is it raining ? Yes, it is.
3. Present perfect : Have you finished your homework ? Yes, I have.
   Have you received the letter ? Yes, I have.
4. Simple past : Did you know the answer ? No, I didn't.
   Did you get the letter ? Yes, I did.
5. Past continuous : Was he studying English ? Yes, he was.
   Were you sleeping then ? No, I wasn't.
6. Past perfect :
7. Simple future : a. (will) : Will you study English tomorrow ? Yes, I will.
   b. (going to) : Is he going to study English abroad ?
   Yes, he is.

2. Information questions / wh-questions : They are questions which begin with a question word.

- Formula :

wh-word + (aux.v.) + (sub.) + (main v.) + complement ?

- N.B. We can use wh-words in the middle of the sentence.
  e.g. I don't know who those people are. (✓)
  I don't know who are those people. (✗)

- Question words / wh-words:

1. How كيف : It is used to ask about somebody's health or the quantity or degree of something, e.g. ① How are you? ② How much money do you have? ③ How do you feel? ④ How old are you? ④ How many friends do you have?

2. What (الضمير العاقل) ماذا : It's used to ask for information about something or somebody, e.g. ① What time is it? ② What kind of music do you like?

3. Why لماذا : It's used to ask about the reason of something, e.g. Why are you here?

4. When متى : It's used to ask about time, e.g. When did you start working here?

5. Where أين : It's used to ask about a place, e.g. Where do you live?

6. Who من : It's used to refer to the subject of the sentence, e.g. Who are you?
   It's used to ask about the subject of the sentence.

7. Whom من : It's used to refer to the object of the verb.
   ② Whom ate my sandwich? • It's used to ask about the object of the verb. Who is also used for asking for the subject.
   e.g. ① Whom did you meet there? N.B. To tell if it's a subject or object, try to substitute with subject or object pronouns. You may have to temporarily rearrange the sentence.
   In addition to the last formula, there is another one: whom + (main v.) + ... ?

8. Which (الضمير العاقل) أي : It's used to ask about a choice. In addition to the last formula, there is another one for using (which)
   - Formula: which + (n.) + (aux.v.) + (sub.) + complement?
   e.g. ① Which one do you like?
   ② Which are the ones you really like?

9. Whose : It is used to ask about possession.
   In addition to the last formula, there is another one for using (whose)
   - Formula: whose + (n.) + (aux.v.) + (sub.) + complement?
   e.g. [1] Whose pen does Annia use? Annia uses Amanda's pen.
   [2] Whose class is she the best in? She is the best student in Dr. Alan's class.
   [3]

- N.B. If we are asking about the subject, we don't use verb (to do)
- Information questions with each one of the tenses:

1. Simple present: (sub.q.): Who likes Fred?
   (obj.q.): Whom does Karen like?
   respond: Karen likes Fred.
2. Simple past: (sub.q.): What damaged the house?
   (obj.q.): What did the earthquake damage
   respond: The earthquake damaged the house
3. Present continuous: (sub.q.): Who is washing the car?
   (obj.q.): What is Paul washing?
   respond: Paul is washing the car.

4. present perfect: (sub.q.): Who has spent $1000 on a computer?
(obj.q.): How much have your parents spent on a computer?
respond: My parents have spent $1000 on a computer.

5. past continuous: (sub.q.):
(obj.q.):
respond:

6. past perfect: (sub.q.):
(obj.q.):
respond:

7. Simple future: a. (will): (sub.q.): What will help the student?
(obj.q.): Whom will this textbook help?
respond: This textbook will help the students.
b. (going to): (sub.q.): Who is going to order pizza?
(obj.q.): What are you going to order?
respond: We are going to order pizza.

* Direct and indirect questions:
- Direct questions are informal
- Indirect questions are formal. We use the following phrases:

1. Do you have any idea....
2. Do you know....
3. Can/could you tell me...
4. I'd like to know....
5. Is there any chance....
6. I was wondering....

e.g. ① Where is my bag? ⇒ Do you know where my bag is?
② Why did you move to Europe? ⇒ I was wondering why you moved to Europe?
③ Has she ever studied abroad? ⇒ Do you know if she has ever studied abroad?

Lesson 40 : Sentences الجمل

* English sentence consists of : sub. + predicate (الخبر (بقية الجملة)
* There are (3) three types of sentences :

1. Simple sentence : it has one verb, one subject and one object
   e.g. He eats fish.
2. Compound sentence : it has a sentence connector or two subjects

3. Complex sentence : it's made of two clauses.

a. adverbial clause / adverb clause : it's dependent. There are two types of adverb clauses : 1. time adverbial clause
   2. place adverbial clause

b. Main clause : it's independent
   e.g. $\underbrace{\text{When the phone rang}}_{\text{time adverbial clause}}$, $\underbrace{\text{the baby woke up}}_{\text{main clause}}$.

* We use the following words with adverbial clause
  (when / as soon as / before / because / since / now that / even though / in spite of / although / while / whereas / if / whether / even if / in case of / in the event that / unless / only if)

* The sentence in English consists of subject (الفاعل) + predicate (الخبر (بقية الجملة))
* Sentences patterns :

1. [S V (be linking verb) C_s (subject complement)] e.g. John (looks / is) happy.
2. [S $V_{(intrans.)}$ Adv] e.g. The train arrived early.
3. [S $V_{(mono\text{-}trans.)}$ O_d] e.g. The train hit the car.
4. [S $V_{(dia\text{-}trans.)}$ O_i O_d] e.g. Henry gave Suzan a flower.
   هنا المفعولين ليس لها علاقة
5. [S $V_{(complete\ trans.)}$ O_d C_o (object complement)]
   e.g. Henry made Suzan happy.
   هنا المكملة ليس لها علاقة بالمفعول به

Lesson 41: Clause (شبه الجملة) and Phrase (عبارة)

* Phrase: it's a group of words, it doesn't contain a subject or verb.
  It's dependent. e.g. The man who speaks English is my friend.
  (phrase)

* Clause: it's a group of words, it does contain a subject and verb
  (isn't a complete thought) (complete thought)
  It's called subordinate clause. It can be dependent (depends) or independent.
  e.g. The man who speaks English is my friend.
  (clause)

N.B.

* Noun Clause:

1. It starts with a relative pronoun and it modifies a noun
   e.g. I know where she lives.
   (noun clause)

2. If we have a yes/no question, we start the noun clause by if / whether
   e.g.

3. Noun clause could function the subject of the sentence and we can't omit it.
   e.g. That she doesn't understand spoken English is obvious.
   (it)

* Adjective Clause / Adjectival Clause / Relative Clause:

1. We call it adjectival because it contains adjective that modifies a noun.
2. It's dependent
3. Adjectival clause uses pronouns to be connected with independent clause
4. Relative pronouns are used with adjectival clause

* Function of relative pronouns: they function:

1. The subject of the adjective clause. (We can't omit it)
   e.g. The girl who won the race is happy.
2. The object of the verb. (We can omit it).
   e.g. The people whom we visited last night were nice
   (adjective clause)

N.B. We can omit the object pronoun, but we cannot omit the subject pronoun
e.g. Titanic which was produced in 1996 was a great movie
(We cannot omit it)

- Expressions of relative pronouns:
  - (---of which) e.g. He gave several reasons, only few of which is valid.
  - (---of whom) e.g. There are a twenty students, most of whom are from Asia.
  - (---of whose) e.g. The teacher discussed Jim, one of whose problems was living.

  N.B. "Which" modifies the whole sentence.

- Changing adjective clause to adjective phrase:

1. We omit the relative pronoun.
2. We change the verb into present participle.

   N.B. If there is past participle, we don't change it.

   e.g. The man who is talking to John is from Korea. (clause)

   The man talking to John is from Korea. (phrase)

- In adjective phrase, when a noun follows another noun, it is called appositive

  e.g. Paris, the capital of France, is an interesting place.

* There are two systems of pronunciation: ① International Phonetic Alphabet (I.P.A) ② American Phonetic Alphabet

Lesson 42: Phonetics علم الأصوات اللغوية

* There are forty-four sounds in English phonetic alphabet: a. twenty vowel sounds. b. twenty-four consonant sounds
/phonemes

• Vowel sounds:

1. أ / I / e.g. hit, lip, sick, will, sit, pin, in, did, kick, him, kit, fit, minute, pick
2. ي / i: / e.g. heat, leap, seek, wheel, seat, feet, free, see, sea, tea, eat, believe teeth, geese, deer, breath, read
   N.B. (ee/ea/ie): / i: /
3. ي / e / e.g. set, red, read (past), pet, pen, met, head, bread, steady, cheque, bed, fell many, dress, breath, dead, medal
   N.B. (e + consonant): / e /
4. آ / ʌ / e.g. uncle, bunk, but, cup, swum, son, sun, done, love, blood, mud, cut, up button, one (wʌn)
   N.B. (o/u): / ʌ /
5. ا / æ / e.g. ankle, bank, bat, cap, swam, fat, cat, rat, dad, map, dad, that, hand
   N.B. (a + consonant): / æ /
6. آ / a: / e.g. car, bar, father, farm, start, hard, bottom
7. أو / ɔ / or / ɒ / e.g. stop, doll, tall, gone, caught, wash
8. أور / ɔ: / or / ɒ: / e.g. door, ball, bald, all, call, fall, for, law, war, though
9. أ / u / or / ʊ / e.g. cook, put, foot, good
10. أو / u: / e.g. rude, food, goose, tooth, two, blue, group
11. أر / ɜ: / e.g. fur, girl, nurse, learn, refer, stir, church, turn, burst
12. أ / ə / schwa e.g. ambassador, father, accept, about, banana (bə'na:), common, accuse, camera

• Diphthongs: there are eight (8) diphthongs in English:

13. أي / eI / e.g. fame, fate, lame, rate, weigh, weight, face, break, day
14. آي / aI / e.g. diet, bike, fight, kite, fine, night, eye, price, high, try
15. و / əʊ / e.g. home, no, know, envelope, toe, boat, show, clone
16. آو / aʊ / e.g. now, cow, how, owl, mouth, fowl
17. أوي / ɔI / e.g. noise, voice, choice, coin, annoy, soil, boy, N.B. (ow/oi): / ɔI /
18. آر / eə / e.g. fair, hair, air, pair, square
19. إر / Iə / e.g. ear, near, fear, hear, weary
20. أوي / ʊə / e.g. pure, tour, cure

- Consonant sounds:

1. بْ /p/ e.g. people, pick, picnic, pill
2. بِ /b/ e.g. back, book, bag
3. تِ /t/ e.g. tip, ten, get
4. دِ /d/ e.g. dog, bad, dad
5. كْ /k/ e.g. cat, school,
6. گِ /g/ e.g. go, good, game
7. فْ /f/ e.g. fit, four, pharmacy
8. ڤْ /v/ e.g. very, vet, of
9. سْ /s/ e.g. city, song, lass
10. زْ /z/ e.g. zoo, zebra, zero
11. مْ /m/ e.g. bomb, comb, lamb
12. نْ /n/ e.g. no, night, knee, know
13. لْ /l/ : ① dark /l/ e.g. fall, fail
    ② light or pale /l/ e.g. light, fly
14. هـ /h/ e.g. how, half, help
15. رْ /r/ e.g. read, write, red
16. يْ /j/ e.g. yes, pupil, Yankee
17. وْ /w/ e.g. what, week, wet
18. ثْ /θ/ e.g. three, thumb
19. ذْ /ð/ e.g. that, this, the
20. شْ /ʃ/ e.g. she, machine, session, fish
21. تشْ /tʃ/ e.g. child, future, century, match, church, teacher
22. اشْ /ʒ/ e.g. vision, television
23. جْ /dʒ/ e.g. individual, education, judge
24. أنكْ /ŋ/ e.g. going, sing, England

N.B. To remember diphthongs easily, we memorize them in groups:

أوي /ɔɪ/ noise, voice آو /au/ now, cow	إير /ɪə/ ear أير /eə/ air	اور /uə/ pure أور /əu/ no	أي /ei/ mate أي /ai/ fight

- Phoneme : it is a set of similar sounds which contrasts with other such sets to differentiate words. It changes the meaning of the word. e.g. [1] velar /k/ of cool and palatal /k/ of keel
  [2] /m/ in mat and /p/ in pat, different phonemes /m, p/
  [3] /s/ in sin and /p/ in pin, different phonemes /s, p/
  [4] chef /ʃef/, choir /kwaɪə/, cheese /tʃiːz/ } (ch) has three different pronunciations which represented by three different phonemes /ʃ, k, tʃ/

- Allophone : it is a different variant of phoneme.
  e.g. [1] letters (p) and (ph) are allophones of phoneme /p/
  [2] letters (t) and (th) are allophones of phoneme /t/
  [3] the (ed) has three different pronunciations :
  looked : /t/ , hunged : /d/ , landed : /ɪd/

Lesson 43 : Pronunciation of English Letters

* There are (26) letters in English alphabet and we have 2 type of letters:

a. consonant letters حروف صامتة

b. Vowel letters (a, e, i, o, u) حروف صائتة

* Rules of pronouncing English letters:

- (a) : If it's followed by (u/w/l), it's pronounced /ɔ/ e.g. autumn, awful, talk, tall
- (e) : If it's followed by (u), it's pronounced /jʊ/ e.g. euphony, euro
- (c): If it's followed by (e/i/y), it's pronounced /s/ e.g. cell, city, cycle
- (g) : If it's followed by (e/i/y), it's pronounced /dʒ/ e.g. geology, giraffe, gym
- (-mb) : /m/ e.g. bomb, comb,
- (-bt) : /t/ e.g. debt, doubt
- (gn) : /n/ e.g. sign, assign, resign ⇒ exception : signature
- (-and-) : /ən/ e.g. sandwich, handsome
- (dn) : /n/ e.g. Wednesday
- (-lf) : /f/ e.g. half, calf
- (ps-) : /s/ e.g. psychology
- (-lk) : /k/ e.g. walk, talk
- (-is-) : /ɪ/ e.g. aisle
- (Kn-) : /n/ e.g. know, knee, knowledge
- (-ten) : /n/ e.g. often, listen
- (wr-) : /r/ e.g. write
- (-tle) : /l/ e.g. castle
- (-gh) : ① /f/ e.g. laugh, enough
  ② /ـaɪ/ e.g. high,
- (ch) : /tʃ/ e.g. cheetah, chair
  exceptions: school, scholar
- (-tch) : /tʃ/ e.g. watch
- (-tu-) : /tʃ/ e.g. congratulate
- (-ght) : /t/ e.g. light, night, fight
- (-cia-/-cie-/-cio-/-tia-/-tio-/-tie/sio-/-su-/sh) : /ʃ/ e.g. artificial, conscious, essential, action
- (-tion/-cian) : /ʃən/ e.g. congratulation, physician
- (-du-/-dg-) : /dʒ/ e.g. education, dodge
- (th) : /ð/
- (-se) : ① /z/ e.g. to house, to use (v.)
  ② /s/ e.g. house, use (n.)

* The pronunciation of the (-ed) ending:

a. If the verb is ended in a vowel sound, we pronounce it /d/ e.g. played, stayed

b. If the verb is ended in a consonant sound, we pronounce it /t/ e.g. stopped, booked

c. If the verb is ended in (t/d) we pronounce it /ɪd/ e.g. wanted, treated

* The pronunciation of (into) and (to):

into : a. before a consonant letter : /ɪntə/ e.g. into house
b. before a vowel letter : /ɪntu:/ e.g. into another

to : a. before a consonant letter /tə/ e.g. to go
b. before a vowel letter /tu:/ e.g. to own

* The pronunciation of the article (the), it is pronounced:

a. before a consonant letter /ðə/ e.g. the house, the car

b. before a vowel letter /ði:/ e.g. the only, the animal

Lesson 44

Abbreviations

An Abbreviation (abbrev.) is a shortened form of a word.

- We use a dot with abbreviations.

■ Grammatical terms abbreviations (gram. tr.) :

- The following abbreviations are used in patterns :

(V_o.) : base form of verb
(C.) : complement
(C_s.) : subject complement
(C_o.) : object complement
(O_d.) : direct object
(O_i.) : indirect object

($V_{mono-trans}$) : mono-transitive

(aux.) : auxiliary verb

(abbrev.) : abbreviation
(adj.) : adjective
(adv.) : adverb
(Am.) : American
(Br.) : British
(conj.) : conjunction
(det.) : determiner
(exclam.) : exclamation
(interj.) : interjection
(n.) : noun
(v.) : verb
(vt.) : transitive verb
(vi.) : intransitive verb

(phr.v.) : phrasal verb
(pl.) : plural
(sing.) : singular
(pl. v.) : plural verb
(sing. v.) : singular verb
(prep.) : preposition
(phr.) : phrase
(prep. phr.) : preposition phrase
(v. phr.) : verb phrase
(n. phr.) : noun phrase
(adj. phr.) : adjective phrase
(pron.) : pronoun
(obj.) : object
(sub.) : subject
(sfx.) : suffix
(pfx.) : prefix
(p.p.) : past participle
(pres. p.) : present participle
(pres. t.) : present tense
(p. t.) : past tense
(pers. n.) : person noun
(i.) : intransitive
(t.) : transitive
(fml.) : formal
(infml.) : informal
(fem.) : feminine
(masc.) : masculine
(c.n.) : countable noun
(u.n.) : uncountable noun
(imper.) : imperative
(comp. v.) : compound verb
(exp.) : expression
(n. pl.) : noun in plural
(l.v.) : linking verb

- List of some abbreviations:

Ar. : Arabic
En. : English
Gr. : German
Sp. : Spanish
It. : Italian
Fr. : French
Russ : Russian
ling. : linguistic
tech. : technical
Alt. : altitude
Assn. : association جمعية
Org. : organisation منظمة
Corp. : corporation شركة
Ave. : avenue جادة
ft. : foot / feet
vol. : volume
vs. : versus ضد/مقابل
grad. : graduated خريج كلية
phil. : philosophy علم الفلسفة
pol. : politics علم السياسة
geom : geometry علم الهندسة
geol. : geology علم الأرض
KG. : kindergarten روضة أطفال
anat. : anatomy علم التشريح
chem. : chemistry علم الكيمياء
bio : biology علم الأحياء
sl. : slang عامية
colloq. : colloquial عامي
ad. : advertisement
c. : cent
pt. : point
lab. : laboratory
o'clock : of the clock تماماً
(adv.)

Mr. : mister
Mrs. : mistress
Ms. : miss
O.K. :
K.I.A. : killed in action
R.I.P. : rest in peace
A.I. : artificial intelligence
pic : picture
photo : photograph
bra : brassiere
vet : veterinarian
fridge : refrigerator
gym : gymnasium
math : mathematics
exam : examination
ma'am : madam
gotta : get to
gonna : going to
wanna : want to

- Academic degrees :

B.A. : Bachelor of Arts بکالوریوس آداب
M.A. : Master of Arts ماجستیر آداب
Ph.D. : Doctor of Philosophy
B.S. : Bachelor of Science.

N.B. The periods are optional with the abbreviations of academic degrees.

- Latin abbreviations :

e.g. : exempli gratia = for example
i.e. : id est = that is
etc. : et cetera = and so forth
A.M./a.m. : ante-meridiem
P.M./p.m. : post-meridiem

B.C. :

N.B. : note bene (phr.) انتباه

A.C. : anno Christi (adv.)

C.V. : curriculum vitae سيرة ذاتية

N.B. We must use periods with Latin abbreviations.

- Days of the week :

Sat.

Sun.

Mon.

Tues.

Wed.

Thurs.

Fri.

- Months of the year :

- Unites of measurement:

lbs. : pound(s)
in. : inch(es)
ft. : foot/feet
cm. : centimeter(s)
m. : meter(s)
mm. : millimeter(s)
mg. : milligram(s)
g. : gram(s)
kg. : kilogram(s)

N.B. Measurements should be spelled out when they aren't preceded by such a quantity

- Abbreviations of time zones:

EST : Eastern Standard Time
MST : Mountain Standard Time
PDT : Pacific Daylight Time.
GMT : Greenwich Mean Time
LMT : local mean time

N.B. We don't use periods with the abbreviations of time zones

N.B. Try to avoid the use of abbreviations in formal writing However, some abbreviations are well-known that we can use them safely in writing, like the abbreviations of organizations and countries.

(n. sing.) : noun in singular
(pr. n.): proper noun
(neg.) : negative
(abstr. n.) : abstract noun
(col. n.) : collective noun
(conc. n.) : concrete noun
(g. n.) : generic noun
(def. art.) : definite article
(indef. art.) : indefinite article
(art.) : article
(dem.) : demonstrative
(poss.) : possessive
(quant.) : quantifier
(q.) : question

- There are two types of abbreviations:

1. Acronym
2. Initialism

1. Acronym : It is an abbreviation that is formed by combining the first letter of each word in a longer name or phrase, and it is written in capital letters.

- It is pronounced as a single word rather than as a series of letters.
- List of acronyms:

NASA : National Aeronautics and Space Administration
laser : light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation
NATO : the North Atlantic Treaty Organization
UNICEF : the United Nations Children's Fund
UNESCO : the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
radar : radio detecting and ranging
AWOL : absent without leave
ASAP : as soon as possible

- We don't use periods with acronyms

2. Initialism : it is an abbreviation that is similar to an acronym. However, initialism is pronounced as a series of letters.

- We use periods when we write initialisms.
- List of some initialisms :

F.B.I. : Federal Bureau of investigation مكتب التحقيقات الفيدرالي
C.I.A. : Central Intelligence Agency
D.V.D. : digital video disc
B.B.C. : British Broadcasting Corporation
F.M. : frequency modulation
I.D. : identity card
A.T.M. : automated teller machine آلة الصرف الآلي
K.S.A. : the Kingdom of Saudi Arabie
(*) E.U. : the European Union الاتحاد الأوروبي
U.K. : the United Kingdom المملكة المتحدة
U.S.(A.) : the United States (of America)
U.S.A. : United States Army
E.T.A. : estimated time of arrival الوقت المقدر للوصول
N.P.T. : Nonproliferation Treaty معاهدة حظر الانتشار النووي
C.N.N. : Cable News Network شبكة الأخبار الأمريكية
L.M.T. : local mean time

I.A.E.A. : International Atomic Energy Agency الوكالة الدولية للطاقة الذرية
P.D.F. : portable document format تنسيق مستند محمول
V.H.S. : video home system

- N.B: We can use the definite article "the" with acronyms and initialisms. If you need to use an indefinite article with acronyms and initialisms, use it according to the initial sound of the word.

Lesson 45 | Punctuation Marks

Punctuation marks are symbols that are used to aid the clarity and the comprehension of written language.

"Proper punctuation is both the sign and the cause of clear thinking"

1. Comma:

"I have spent most of the day putting in a comma and the rest of the day taking it out" by Oscar Wilde

- We use a comma to separate two independent clauses in a compound sentence, for example, clauses linked by coordinating conjunctions "fan boys", or we can use a semi-colon.

  e.g.
  - We were out of milk, so I went to the store.
  - We were out of milk; I want to the store.

- We use a comma to separate the main clause from the subordinate clause. However, we do not use a comma if the subordinate clause comes after the main clause.

  e.g.
  - When I was running, I saw my friend.
  - I saw my friend when I was running.
  - If the election had been held before the scandal, the outcome would have been different.
  - The outcome would have been different if the election had been held before the scandal.

- We use commas with "and" to separate three or more items in a series, and the last comma is optional.

  e.g.
  - Julie loves ice cream, books, and kittens.

- We do not use a comma before "and" which introduces only two items.

  e.g.
  - We were singing and dancing all evening.

- We use commas with "or" which introduces three or more items in a series, and the last comma is optional.

  e.g.

- We use a comma before "too" when "too" comes at the end

of the sentence, and we also use commas around "too" when "too" is embedded in the sentence. e.g. • I think chocolate is tasty, too
• I know, too, that chocolate is tasty.

- Using commas are unnecessary with correlative conjunctions, such as (either / or, neither / nor, not only / but also)
  e.g. • Either the blue shirt or the red sweater will look good with your jeans.
  •

- We use a comma to separate two adjectives when the order of the adjectives is interchangeable.
  e.g. • He is a strong, healthy man. (interchangeable)
  •

- We use a comma after introductory adverbs.
  e.g. • Finally, I have passed my test.
- We use commas with quotations if the quotation is a piece of dialogue.
  e.g. • "When you leave the house," my mother yelled, "do not slam the door!"
  We do not use a comma with the quotation that is a question or exclamation.
  e.g. • "You have a spider on your nose!" my friend yelled.
  • "Where did that spider come from?" I asked.
- We use a comma after parentheses / brackets, and we do not use a comma before parentheses / brackets.
  e.g. • After opening the new cookie tin (and eating several of the cookies), he had a hard time replacing the lid.
- We use commas to offset the appositive from the rest of the sentence.
  e.g. •

- We use commas when we write a date.
  e.g. • I was born on Sunday, May 12, 1968.

2. Colon:

- We use a colon after an independent clause to introduce amplifications, examples, explanations, lists or long quotations.

  e.g. • The results confirmed the theory: black cars are more often involved in accidents.

- We do not use a colon to introduce items when the items listed in the sentence are objects.

  e.g. • They went to the shop and bought bread, milk and soap.

3. Semi-colon:

We use a semi-colon to link two independent clauses

e.g. • Some of the studies seem to confirm the theory; others appear to refute it.

We use semi-colons to separate items in a series or list if the items contain commas

e.g. • The contributors are Marie Noël, Professor of History; Stephen White, Research Fellow in Media Studies; and Wu Ming, lecturer at the IT Research Institute.

4. Dash: The main reason for using dashes is to add emphasis to the information that is enclosed by them.

There are two kinds of dashes; the em dash and the en dash.

The **em dash** is the width of the letter "m". There is no space between the words either side of the em dash.

e.g. Today's exam — the morning one — is in the library.

The **en dash** is the width of the letter 'n'. En dashes can have a space before and after.

e.g. — trees aged 20 – 30 years are —

- We use en or em dash to separate a phrase from the rest of the sentence.

  e.g. • My report — the one you read yesterday — is being published.

- We use en dash to link words or numbers in pairs.

  e.g. • Refer to pages 80 – 85

  • The study will examine parent-child relationships

5. Apostrophe : (')

We use an apostrophe to form a possessive noun.

e.g. • We went to John's house for lunch.

We use an apostrophe to indicate a contraction.

e.g. •

6. Quotation marks : (" ")(Am.) / inverted commas (" ")(Br.)

- We use quotation marks to enclose direct quotations

e.g. • Joseph said, "I cannot finish my quiz!"

- We can use quotation marks to enclose single words for emphasis, but only when quoting a word or term somebody else used. Usually, the quoted word implies disagreement

e.g. • You call this filthy room "clean"?!

- In the American style, commas and periods are placed inside the quotation marks. However, in the British style, commas and periods are placed outside the quotation marks.

We place other punctuation marks outside the quotation marks. But, We place other punctuation marks inside the quotation marks when the punctuation marks are part of what is being quoted, such as a quoted question.

- In the American style, double quotation marks are used to enclose a quotation; single quotation marks are used to enclose a quotation within a quotation.

In the British style, single inverted commas are used to enclose a quotation; double inverted commas are used to enclose a quotation within a quotation.

e.g. • " 'The Dementor's Kiss' is my favorite chapter in the whole series," Tom said.

• ' "The Dementor's Kiss" is my favorite chapter in the whole series', Tom said

- We capitalize the quotation if it is a complete sentence.

e.g. •

- We use italics instead of quotation marks if a word needs to be emphasized no quoted. However, We can use quation marks to emphasize or separate a certain word from the rest of the sentence. e.g. • 'They're', 'their', and 'there' are easily confused, because they are homophones.

• 'Cool' can refer to temperature, or it can be an something is good.

7. Question mark (?)
We use a question mark at the end of a direct question
e.g. •

8. Exclamation mark (!)
We use an exclamation mark with exclamation, imperative, and interjection.

9. Period (Am.) / full stop (Br.) (.)
We place a period at the end of a sentence ; Period is also used with abbreviations.

10. Hyphen (-)
We use a hyphen in compound words.
e.g.

11. Parentheses (( ))
Parentheses are curved notations used to contain further thoughts. However, parentheses can be replaced by commas without changing the meaning.
e.g. • John and Jane (who were actually half brother and sister) both have red hair.

12. Brackets ([ ])
Brackets are squared off notations used for technical explanation.

13. Braces ({ })
Braces are not commonplace in most writings used to contain two or more lines of text or listed items to show that they are considered as a unit.

14. Ellipsis (...)
The ellipsis mark is represented by three periods.
We use the ellipsis mark to indicate an intentional omission of a word, sentence, or section from a text without altering its original meaning.

15. Capitalization

Capitalization is the action of writing in capital letters or with an initial capital. We capitalize the following items:

① the first word of a sentence

e.g. • Start a sentence with a capital letter.

② proper nouns

e.g. • I received a gift from Uncle George, but not from my other uncle.

③ names of nationalities, languages, and countries

e.g. • I am not English, but I like English.

religions and their adjectives

e.g. • A Muslim is someone who believes in Islam.

④ the pronoun "I"

⑤ days of the week, months of the year, and holidays

e.g. Friday, October, Halloween

⑥ geographic areas

e.g.

⑦ special periods and occasions

e.g. Victorian Era, Renaissance, Age of Enlightenment, Constitutional Convention

⑧ the title of the composition

⑨ titles preceding a name

e.g. Over 2,000 people attended the rally for Governor Brown.

exceptions – We do not capitalize titles that follow names.

e.g. Over 2,000 people attended the rally for Harold Brown, governor of Texas.

– We do not capitalize titles used as general words

– e.g. The governor attended the rally today.

⑩ titles of major words, articles, songs, books and movies

⑪ the word "God", religious figures and holy books e.g. Allah, the Quran, Moses

exception – We do not capitalize the non-specific use of the word "god".

e.g. The Greeks believed in many gods.

⑫ trademarks e.g. Pepsi, Sony, Toyota

⑬ the first word of a sentence that is a direct quote

e.g.

(14) the first word in each line of poetry
(15) salutations and closings in letters e.g. Dear student, Yours truly
(16) initials, initialisms, and acronyms
e.g.
(17) names of the planets
e.g. Mars, Venus, Neptune

- We do not capitalize the following items:
  1. prepositions
  2. conjunctions
  3. cardinal points
  4. seasons of the year
  5. articles
  6. common nouns

- Capitalization of the first word of a sentence following a colon is optional.

Punctuation

The hyphen comes into play
Question marks are for inquisitiv
While commas, show delay

If writing is your avocation
And hope writing you will master
Punctuate with punctuation
Averting literal disaster
Stanley Cooper
- an American film director

Punctuation, stepchild tool of writing
Does not get it is writeful due
If we stopped this literate slighting
It would be a literal coup

The period we see as a dot
Has such a vital essence
The reason we use it a lot
Is to forestall a run-on sentence

Colons are sometimes used
To act as sentencing braces
Colons called semi; help us fuse
Connecting multiple phrases
To combine a compound adjective