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Scientific Research**

University of Mohamed Boudiaf- M'sila

Faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages

Department of English Language and Literature



**Lectures in Written Expression: Lessons Designed for First-Year
LMD Students**

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List of Abbreviations

Adj: Adjective

Adv: Adverb

Cl: Clause

CONJ: Conjunction

GER P : Gerund Phrase

INF P : Infinitive Phrase

Interj: Interjection

MV: Main Verb

N: Noun

N.B.: Mark well

OD: Direct Object

P: Predicate

PP: Prepositional Phrase

Prep: Preposition

Pron: Pronoun

Rel-pron: Relative Pronoun

S: Subject

V(fin): Finite Verb

V(non-f) : Non-finite Verb

Vi : Intransitive Verb

Vt : Transitive Verb

Introduction of the Written Expression Course

Course Presentation

Level: First-year LMD students

Fundamental Unit

Credit: 4

Standard: 2

Course hours: 45 hours per Semester (three TD hours per week)

Evaluation mode: Continuous check-up/quiz (50%) exam (50%)

General Course Objectives

This course is meant to offer students in the English department within Mohamed Boudief University-Msila an introduction to the basics of academic writing. Writing is among the most basic language skills necessary for clarity and accuracy. The course will aim at improving students' writing capacity, beginning from word choice and building towards writing a short academic piece.

Besides enhancing grammatical correctness and vocabulary usage, this course focuses on highlighting and promoting a cohesive and logical flow of ideas. The course will teach students important elements required in academic writing, including summarizing, paraphrasing, and referencing.

By the end of the course, students are expected to:

- Recognize the features of effective academic writing.
- Apply appropriate grammar and vocabulary in written contexts.
- Develop well-structured sentences and paragraphs.
- Organize ideas logically to produce short essays.
- Demonstrate awareness of academic conventions such as clarity, precision, and proper citation.

Ultimately, the course aims to equip EFL students with the foundational skills necessary for academic success, preparing them for more advanced writing tasks throughout their university studies.

Course Structure

Semester One: From Word to Sentence Writing

Lesson One: parts of speech

Lesson Two: Finite and Non-finite Verbs

Lesson Three: Phrases

Lesson Four: Clauses

Lesson Five: Sentences

Lesson Six: Sentence Fragments

Lesson Seven: Sentence Parallel Structure

Lesson Eight: Wordiness

Lesson Ten: Punctuation and Capitalization

Semester Two: From Sentence to Paragraph Writing

Lesson One: Paragraphs: Definition and Types

Lesson Two: Paragraphs: Components and Types

Lesson Three: Descriptive Paragraphs

Lesson Four: Narrative Paragraphs

Lesson Five: Comparative Paragraphs

Lesson Six: Argumentative Paragraphs

Lesson Seven: Basic Essay Structure

Written Expression for First Year-LMD Students

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Assessment

Semester One

- TD written assessment (participation 3pts, attendance 2 pts, quiz 16 pts)
- Exam written assessment (20 pts)

Semester Two

- TD written assessment (participation 3pts, attendance 2 pts, quiz 16 pts)
- Exam written assessment (20 pts)



**Semester One: From Word to Sentence
Writing**

Lesson One: Parts of Speech

I. Objectives

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

- Recognize the different parts of speech in English.
- Define the function and role of each part of speech.
- Identify the correct part of speech of given words in context.
- Use parts of speech appropriately in constructing sentences.

II. Content

1. The Noun (Definition and Kinds)
2. The Pronoun (Definition and Kinds)
3. The Adjective (Definition and Kinds)
4. The Adverb (Definitions and Types)
5. The Pronoun (Definitions and Types)
6. The Conjunction (Definitions and Types)
7. The Preposition (Definitions and Types)
8. The Interjection

Introduction

Parts of speech refer to the categorization of words that indicate word functions in a sentence. English has eight basic parts of speech. These include nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections. Each has a distinct function in determining the significance of communication.

1. Nouns

1.1. Definition of nouns

A noun is a word that names a person, a place, a thing, a quality, an idea, or a feeling. The noun heads a noun phrase in a sentence. There are two categories according to which a noun will be classified: it may be a noun that refers to a ‘thing with a physical existence,’ or it may

be a noun referring to a non-concrete notion and includes qualities, feelings, and ideas (Quirk et al., 1985; Richards & Schmidt, 2010).

1.2. Kinds of nouns

1.2.1. Proper nouns

Proper nouns are the names of individual people, places, or things, which are always spelled with capital letters because they name specific, individual things (Quirk et al., 1985).

For instance, the examples could be "France",

1.2.2. Common nouns

"Common nouns" are those that refer to general kinds of people, places, and things rather than to particular people, places, or things, and are not capitalized unless they are the first word in a sentence (Richards & Schmidt, 2010).

Examples: general, emperor, street, town, dictionary, railroad.

1.2.3. Abstract nouns

Abstract nouns are referred to as the quality, state, idea, and broad concept that can neither be seen nor touched. Kittredge and Farley (1913) define an abstract noun as "the name of a quality or general concept," including blackness, freshness, elegance, grace, and peace (p. 29). Many abstract words can be traced back from adjectives and verbs; for example, depth can be traced back from the adjective deep, and freedom from the adjective free (Kittredge & Farley, 1913). They generally use suffixes like -ity, -ness, -ence, and -tion; for example, happiness, difference, freedom, hatred, intelligence, equality, safety, tolerance, civilization, and independence.

1.2.4. Collective nouns

These are the names that are referred to as a class or a collection of individuals and things. According to Kittredge and Farley (1913) in "A Popular Dictionary of Proper Names," the definition of a collective noun is "the name of a group, class, or multitude, and not of a single person, place, or thing" (p. 29). Some examples for collective nouns are crowd, group, and legislature. In certain situations, a single noun can be an abstract noun and at the same time, a collective noun depending on its meaning.

Examples:

- They believe in fraternity. (abstract)
- The student joined a fraternity. (*Collective*)

1.2.5. Compound noun

A compound noun is a noun that results from the combination of two or more words into one single lexical unit with a unique meaning. According to Kittredge and Farley (1913), compound nouns take different forms; some may be written as one word, others hyphenated, while others may be written as separate words, depending on usage and conventions (p. 30). Examples of compound nouns written as a single word include the following: sidewalk, steamboat, innkeeper, and teapot.

Other compound nouns may also occur as two words, when the first noun modifies the second, for example, souvenir shop-a shop selling souvenirs, animal hospital-a hospital for animals (Kittredge & Farley, 1913). Some of the compound nouns are written with a hyphen, for instance: washing-machine while others are written as names. For instance, Sydney Opera House.

There are no fixed rules which regulate whether compound nouns need to be written as one word, hyphenated, or separately. Thus, when in doubt, it is usually safest to write the words separately, since this form is regularly acceptable in all forms of English usage Quirk et al 1985.

1.2.6. Countable and uncountable nouns

- Countable nouns

Countable nouns are those which can be counted and have both singular and plural forms. For example, referring to Eastwood (2002), it was stated that countable nouns can be singular or plural, just like in the example of house ► houses and problem ► problems (Eastwood, 2002, p.175). Countable nouns include individuals such as people, animals, and concrete objects like 'lawyer', 'bird', 'car', 'cow', 'table', 'woman', 'house'.

Furthermore, the following are some examples of countable nouns representing actions that can be viewed as separate occurrences: departure, crash, goal, lecture, error, punch, and riot (Yule, 2006, p. 75).

- Uncountable nouns

Uncountable Nouns: These kinds of nouns represent things that cannot be counted separately and therefore lack plural forms. These kinds of words always accompany the singular verb forms and do not make use of either the indefinite article “a” or “an” (Eastwood, 2002). Examples of uncountable nouns include alcohol, wool, milk, meat, cement, oil, rice, salt, and shampoo.

Moreover, the abstract concepts of dignity, bravery, education, evidence, equality, justice, ignorance, hate, poverty, and safety are conveyed through the help of the uncountable nouns. In fact, these nouns can also refer to activities or processes. For instance, skiing, training, work, research, shopping, and jogging are the activities or processes described by these nouns (Yule, 2006, p. 74).

1.2.7. Regular and Irregular Plural Forms

Most countable nouns add –s to form their plural, as in books, customers, and countries (Eastwood, 2002). Nouns that end in –o, –ch, –sh, –ss or –x usually form their plural by adding –es, such as tomatoes, brushes, boxes, branches, and glasses (Quirk et al., 1985).

Nouns that end in –y preceded by a consonant form their plural by dropping the –y and adding –ies, as in, baby → babies; country → countries; lady → ladies (Eastwood 2002). Some nouns which end in –f or –fe form their plural by changing –f/–fe to –ves, for example, loaf → loaves; wife → wives; wolf → wolves (Quirk et al. 1985).

Many of these irregular plural nouns form their plural with a change in the internal vowel: man/men, tooth/teeth, foot/feet, mouse/mice, woman/women (Yule, 2006). On the other hand, some nouns have the same form for their singular and plural forms, which include sheep and series among others (Eastwood, 2002).

Certain nouns are always plural in form and therefore take a plural verb, for example clothes, police, trousers, pyjamas, glasses, scissors, goods, and stairs (Quirk et al., 1985). On the other hand, some nouns are plural in form but singular in meaning, especially names of academic subjects such as economics, mathematics (maths), physics, politics, and statistics, as in the news is good (Eastwood, 2002). Those are the collective nouns which denote a group of human beings or things, such as army, audience, committee, family, government, staff, and team. These may be singular or plural in form according to whether the group is considered as a unit (Our team is the best) or as comprising individuals (Our team are wearing their new T-shirts) (Quirk et al., 1985).

1.2.8. The Possessive Form of Nouns

The use of the possessive form of nouns is to refer to possession, relationship, and other kinds of associations. According to Quirk et al. (1985), the possessive structure is generally a sign of possession as in "Mary's house" (the house of Mary) and "the future of the company".

The possessive form results from the addition of an apostrophe and –s ('s) to singular nouns as well as to the plural form that does not end in –s to form possessives like my friend's name and the children's name (Eastwood, 2002). For the plural form that ends in –s, the possessive form requires the addition of an apostrophe (') to form possessives like my friends' name and the kids' name (Quirk et al., 1985).

The possessive 's is most commonly found with personal and animal nouns, thus: Tom's computer isn't working and don't step on the cat's tail. According to Eastwood (2002) It is far less commonly found with non-countable substances and with notions in general. In these instances, "of" is preferred before a noun that denotes substance, and before a noun that refers to a notion. For instance: The temperature of the water. The water temperature. The title of the book. However, the possessive 's is generally used with institutions and time expressions, for example, in the government's decision or in next week's meeting has been cancelled (Yule, 2006).

Exercise One: Underline the nouns in the following sentences and decide whether they are countable (C) or uncountable (U)

1. The children are playing in the garden.
2. Scientists say that the environment is threatened by pollution.
3. My mother uses butter to prepare cakes.
4. We need some glue to fix this vase.
5. My father drinks two big glasses of water every morning.
6. A rise in oil prices is inevitable since there is more and more world demand for energy.

Exercise Two: Put the plural form of the words between brackets

1. The (fish) _____ I bought is in the fridge.
2. Most (housewife) _____ work more than ten hours a day at home.
3. Where did you put the (knife) _____? On the (shelf) _____
4. (Goose) _____ like water.
5. (Piano) _____ are expensive.
6. Where is my (luggage) _____? In the car!

Exercise Three: Look at the definitions and write the words.

- a station from which trains leave -----→ **a train station**
- a bottle once containing medicine and made of glass ----→ **a glass medicine bottle**
- 1 a wall made of stone -----→ _____
- 2 a centre where information is given to tourists -----→ _____
- 3 a towel you use after having a bath --- → _____
- 4 clothes for working in -----→ _____
- 5 a block of offices in the centre of a city -----→ _____
- 6 a graph showing sales -----→ _____
- 7 a card that gives you credit -----→ _____
- 8 a race for horses -----→ _____
- 9 the Director of Marketing -----→ _____
- 10 a tour by bicycle at the end of the week -----→ _____

Exercise Four: Complete this letter Rachel has received from her sister. Choose the correct forms.

Written Expression for First Year-LMD Students

Dr. Bouakaz Amel

(►) Thank/Thanks for your letter. Your news **(1) was/were** interesting. We must talk soon. What about us? Well, we're living on the **(2) outskirts/outskirts** of town, not far from the company **(3) headquarter/headquarters**, where Jeremy works. We've spent nearly all our **(4) saving/savings** on the house. That wouldn't matter so much if I hadn't crashed the car last week and done some **(5) damage/damages** to the front of it. More bills! But at least I wasn't hurt. The house is nice actually, but the surroundings **(6) isn't/aren't** very pleasant. We're on a very busy **(7) crossroad/crossroads**. I'm doing the course I told you about. Statistics **(8) is/are** an easy subject, I find, but economics **(9) gives/give** me problems!

Key Answers

Exercise One:

- 1- children (C), garden (C)
- 2- scientists (C), environment (U), pollution (U)
- 3- mother (C), butter (U), cakes (C)
- 4- glue (U), vase (C)
- 5- father (C), glasses (C), water (U), morning (C)
- 6- rise (C), oil (U), prices (C), demand (U), energy (U)

Exercise Two:

1. Fish, 2. housewives, 3. knives / shelves, 4. Geese, 5. Pianos, 6. luggage

Exercise Three:

1. Stone wall, 2. tourist information centre, 3. Bath towel, 4. work clothes, 5. Office block, 6. Sales graphs, 7. credit card, 8. Horse race, 9. Marketing Director, 10. Weekend cycling tour

Exercise Four:

Thanks – was – outskirts – headquarters – savings – damage – aren't – crossroads – is – gives

2. The Pronoun

2.1. Definition of pronoun

A pronoun is a word used to replace a noun whether it refers to a person, place, thing, or idea to avoid unnecessary repetition in a sentence. For example, instead of repeating Maria in “Maria went to the store. Maria bought some bread,” we can say, “**Maria went to the store. She bought some bread**” (Quirk et al., 1985).

2.2. Kinds of pronouns

2.2.1. Personal pronouns

Personal pronouns are pronouns that replace nouns referring to people, animals, or things, depending on the context. Most personal pronouns refer to people, such as **I, you, he, she, we,** and **they**. However, the third-person pronoun **it** is used to refer to animals, objects, or things rather than people (Quirk et al., 1985).

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Subject pronouns		Possessive pronouns	
		Determiner	
I	we	My	our
You	you	Your	your
He	they	His	their
She	they	Her	their
It	they	its	their
Object pronouns		Possessive pronouns	
Me	us	mine	ours
You	you	yours	yours
Him	them	his	theirs
Her	them	hers	theirs
It	them		

***A subject pronoun:**

Subject pronouns are pronouns that replace the noun that performs the action in a sentence. They usually appear at the beginning of a sentence, before the verb. Common subject pronouns include: **I, we, he, she, they, you** (Eastwood, 2002).

Examples:

- **I** go to school every day. (The pronoun ‘**I**’ is doing the action of going to school every day and is the subject in the sentence)
- **We** are travelling to Paris next week. (The pronoun ‘**we**’ refers to the subject who is currently doing the action of travelling to Paris)
- **He** will be meeting Nina tomorrow. (The pronoun ‘**he**’ is the subject who will be performing the action of meeting Nina the next day)
- **She** is writing a letter to her cousin. (The pronoun ‘**she**’ is the subject in the sentence that is currently performing the action of writing a letter to her cousin)
- Did **you** get the book you were looking for? (The pronoun ‘**you**’ is the subject pronoun in the sentence)
- **They** will be playing the final match in Australia. (The pronoun ‘**they**’ is the subject who will be playing the final match in Australia)

***An object pronoun:**

Object pronouns are pronouns that receive the action in a sentence. They replace nouns functioning as objects to avoid repetition. Common object pronouns include: **me, us, him, her, them, it** (Quirk et al., 1985).

Examples:

- **My dad** fixed my screen door. We made a cake to thank **him**. (Him replaces my dad)
- Mary ordered chocolate **ice cream**. She really enjoyed **it**. (it replaces chocolate ice cream)
- I spent the week with **my family**. I love **them** so much. (them replaces my family).

***Determiner:**

A determiner is a word that comes before a noun and provides information about possession, quantity, or specificity. For example, determiners indicate possession (**my bike**), quantity (**two thieves**), or specificity (**that book**), thereby giving additional details about the noun they modify (Quirk et al., 1985).

2.2.2. Reflexive pronouns

Reflexive pronouns are pronouns that refer back to the subject of the sentence, indicating that the action of the verb affects the same person or thing. Common reflexive pronouns include: **myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, and themselves** (Quirk et al., 1985).

Examples:

- I talk to myself sometimes when I'm alone. (Myself refers back to the subject I.)
- Dania cut herself while preparing dinner. (Herself refers back to Dania.)
- I bought myself a new coat yesterday. (Myself refers back to I.)

2.2.3. Relative Pronouns

A relative pronoun is a pronoun that introduces a relative clause, which is a subordinate clause providing additional information about a noun in the main clause. The relative clause usually comes immediately after the noun it describes (Quirk et al., 1985).

Common relative pronouns include: **that, which, who, whom, whose, whatever, whichever, whoever, and whomever**. The pronouns **that** and **which** generally refer to animals or things, although **that** can sometimes refer to people. The pronouns **who** and **whom** are used for people, and **whose** can refer to both people and things.

Example:

I know the dog that bit my cat.

(That is the relative pronoun introducing the relative clause that bit my cat, which provides more information about the dog.)

2.2.4. Possessive pronouns

Possessive pronouns are the possessive forms of personal pronouns. They are used to indicate ownership or possession and can stand alone in a sentence without a noun following them. Common possessive pronouns include: **mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, and theirs** (Quirk et al., 1985).

Example :

- This book is mine. (Mine replaces my book.)
- The red car is hers. (Hers replace her car.)
- The decision is theirs. (Theirs replaces their decision.)

Possessive pronouns	
Singular	Plural
mine	Ours
yours	Yours
his	Theirs
hers	Theirs

2.2.5. Indefinite pronouns

Indefinite pronouns refer to people or things in a general sense and do not specify a particular person, object, or amount. Examples of indefinite pronouns include **anyone**, **everyone**, **someone**, **nobody**, **anything**, **everything**, and **nothing** (Quirk et al., 1985).

Most indefinite pronouns that refer to things, such as **anything**, **everything**, **nothing**, and **something**, are singular and take singular verbs.

Example :

- Something is wrong with the car. (Something is singular.)
- Nothing has been decided yet. (Nothing is singular.)

	Person	Place	Thing
All	everyone everybody	everywhere	everything
Part (positive)	someone somebody	somewhere	something
Part (Negative)	anyone anybody	anywhere	anything
None	no one nobody	nowhere	nothing

Examples

Noun	Indefinite pronoun
I would like to go to Paris this summer.	I would like to go somewhere this summer.
Jim gave me this book.	Someone gave me this book.

I won't tell your secret to Sam.	I won't tell your secret to anyone .
I bought my school supplies at the mall .	I bought everything at the mall.

2.2.6. Reciprocal pronouns

Reciprocal pronouns are pronouns that express a mutual action or relationship between two or more parties. There are only two reciprocal pronouns: **each other** and **one another** (Quirk et al., 1985).

Examples:

- This is the tenth year that Jack and Jim have known each other.
- They realized it would be much easier if they all cooperated with one another.
- The two old monkeys are seen scratching each other's heads.

2.2.7. Demonstrative Pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns indicate the person, thing, or place being referred to. The common demonstrative pronouns are **this, that, these, and those**.

- This refers to a singular item near the speaker, while that refers to a singular item farther away.
- These is the plural of this, and those is the plural of that.

A pronoun becomes a demonstrative determiner when it directly modifies a noun; when it stands alone without modifying a noun, it functions as a demonstrative pronoun (Eastwood, 2002).

Examples:

- This is the same story I heard from him before. (This is a pronoun.)
- This story is the same story I heard from him before. (This is a determiner.)

2.2.8. Intensive pronouns

Intensive pronouns (also called emphatic pronouns) are used to add emphasis to a noun or pronoun in a sentence. They are identical in form to reflexive pronouns (**myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves**) but function differently (Quirk et al., 1985).

Examples of use :

1. Immediately after the pronoun it refers to:

- He himself repaired the machine.

2. Further away from the pronoun it emphasizes:

- I can look after the whole place myself.

Exercise: Underline the correct pronoun in the following sentences.

1. Each student brought (their, his) book
2. One boy asked us to help (him, them).
3. He took us and (they, them) to the game.
4. She can sit between you and (me, I).
5. Everyone except (he, him) is going to be there.
6. My father gave the car to John and (I, me).
7. Will you go with (us, we)?
8. It is (he, him).
9. I called as many people as (she, her).
10. (There, They're) coming tonight.
11. Please come with Harry and (me, I).
12. It is (they, them).
13. (Them, Those) books are overdue.
14. (Who, Whom) did you send on the errand?
15. Will it be (he, him)?
16. It could be (we, us).
17. My mother and (I, myself) have the same birthday.
18. (Who, Whom) told you?
19. It is (you're, your) book.

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20. (Its, It's) my book.
21. It is I (whom, who) am present.
22. One of the boys saw (their, his) mother.
23. (Who, Whom) will go?
24. John and (you, yourself) will go.
25. It's (me, I).
26. The secret is between you and (they, them).
27. He is as tall as (I, me).
28. (Their, They're) on the way.
29. Father and (I, myself) arrived.
30. (Whose, Who's) book is it?
31. It will be (I, me).
32. He told the man (himself, herself).
33. It was Harry (who, which) told us.
34. Let's sit by the girl and (they, them).
35. He is the man (who, whom) I saw in the park.
36. With (who, whom) will you go?
37. All of the class except (we, us) went on the field trip.
38. Each boy ate (their, his) lunch.
39. The dog (who, which) saved the child received a medal.
40. Between him and (she, her) I prefer her.
41. (Whose, Who's) coming to dinner?
42. Is he better than (us, we)?
43. He is heavier than (I, me).

Key answers

1. his, 2. him, 3. them, 4. me, 5. him, 6. me, 7. us, 8. he, 9. she, 10. They're, 11. me, 12. they, 13. Those, 14. Whom, 15. him, 16. us, 17. I, 18. Who, 19. your, 20. It's, 21. who, 22. his, 23. Who, 24. you, 25. me, 26. them, 27. I, 28. They're, 29. I, 30. Whose, 31. me, 32. himself, 33. who, 34. them, 35. whom, 36. whom, 37. us, 38. his, 39. which, 40. her, 41. Who's, 42. we, 43. I

3. The Adjective

3.1. Definition of Adjectives

Adjectives are words that modify or describe nouns or pronouns by providing additional information about their qualities, quantities, colours, sizes, origins, or other attributes. Their primary function is to specify, limit, or clarify the meaning of the noun they accompany, thereby making descriptions more precise and informative. On the basis of the type of information they convey, adjectives can be classified into several categories (Quirk et al., 1985).

3.2. Kinds of Adjectives

Kinds Of Adjectives	Examples
<p>Adjectives of quality: Adjectives of quality describe nouns or pronouns by indicating their characteristics or inherent traits, such as size, shape, age, colour, or general condition. They answer the question <i>what kind?</i> and serve to give a more detailed and specific description of the noun they modify (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 434–435).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Her house is enormous.• Ahmed is an excellent student.• That movie was terrible.• The exam was difficult.• She has a beautiful voice.• Their neighbour is a kind man.• The weather today is awful.• This book is interesting.
<p>Adjectives of quantity: Adjectives of quantity indicate the amount or degree of a noun without specifying an exact number. They answer the question <i>how much?</i> and are commonly used with both countable and uncountable nouns to express quantity in a general or approximate way (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 253–255).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• She has much patience.• There is little water left.• They showed enough interest in the project.• He has some experience in teaching.• We spent a lot of time on revision.

<p>Adjectives of number: Adjectives of number describe nouns or pronouns by indicating quantity in numerical terms and typically answer the question <i>how many?</i> They may be classified into definite and indefinite numeral adjectives. Definite numeral adjectives include cardinal numbers (e.g., <i>one, two, three</i>), which express exact quantity, and ordinal numbers (e.g. <i>first, second, third</i>), which indicate order or position. Indefinite numeral adjectives (e.g., <i>few, many, several, much</i>) express quantity in a non-specific way. In addition, numeral adjectives may be distributive, referring to individual members of a group separately, such as <i>each, every</i>, and <i>neither</i> (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 251–253).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She has three brothers. (<i>cardinal</i>) • This is my first attempt. (<i>ordinal</i>) • Many students participated in the activity. (<i>indefinite</i>) • Few mistakes were made in the test. (<i>indefinite</i>) • Each student received a handout. (<i>distributive</i>) • Neither answer is correct. (<i>Distributive</i>)
<p>Demonstrative adjectives: Demonstrative adjectives modify nouns or pronouns by indicating their relative position in space or time, distinguishing between entities that are proximal (near to the speaker) and distal (far from the speaker). The demonstrative adjectives in English are <i>this</i> and <i>these</i> (proximal) and <i>that</i> and <i>those</i> (distal), and they are used to specify which particular noun is being referred to (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 372–373).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This book is very useful. • These exercises are easy. • That building is very old. • Those students are waiting outside
<p>Interrogative adjectives: Interrogative adjectives are used to modify nouns in Interrogative sentences in order to ask</p>	<p>Which items did you sell? Whose book is that?</p>

<p>questions and obtain specific information about the noun they accompany. They help identify or specify the noun by asking about its selection, ownership, or quantity. The main interrogative adjectives in English are <i>which</i>, <i>what</i>, and <i>whose</i> when they are followed by a noun (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 366–367).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Which book did you choose ?• What subject are you studying this semester ?• Whose bag is on the chair ?
<p>Possessive Adjectives: Possessive adjectives modify nouns or pronouns to indicate possession, ownership, or close association between the possessor and the thing possessed. In English, the possessive adjectives include <i>my</i>, <i>your</i>, <i>his</i>, <i>her</i>, <i>its</i>, <i>our</i>, and <i>their</i>, and they always occur before a noun (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 253–254).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• This is my book.• They forgot their keys.• She likes her job very much.
<p>Emphasising Adjectives: Emphasising adjectives are used to place special emphasis on a noun or pronoun, often to stress identity or exclusiveness. Common emphasising adjectives include <i>own</i> and <i>very</i>, which reinforce the importance or exactness of the noun they modify (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 458–459).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• She completed the project on her own initiative.• This is the very reason for the delay.• He spoke to the manager himself.
<p>Exclamatory Adjectives: Exclamatory adjectives are used to modify nouns or pronouns in exclamatory sentences in order to express strong feelings such as surprise, admiration, anger, or delight. The most common exclamatory adjective in English is</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• What a beautiful day !• What an interesting idea !• What terrible weather we are having !

<i>what</i> , followed by a noun (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 366–367).	
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Exercise One: Describe the nouns using compound adjectives.

1. a walk that takes ten minutes
2. a building that has twelve stories
3. a boy who is five years old.....
4. a report that is thirty pages long
5. students in high spirits
6. children who behave well
7. a monster with green eyes
8. a man who has short hair
9. a lady with a kind heart
10. an app that saves time
11. a dessert that makes your mouth water
12. a woman who has a strong will
13. traffic that moves slowly
14. a man who looks good
15. medicine that lasts a long time
16. a person who has an open mind
17. a room that has bright lights
18. a documentary that provokes thinking
19. a museum that is famous throughout the world
20. cookies that are free from fat

Exercise Two: Read the given sentences below and circle the adjectives

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1. The homeless beggar hasn't eaten in days.
2. The fox is a sly animal.
3. Mary had a little lamb.
4. The selfish giant didn't allow the children to enter his garden.
5. The foolish dog barked at its reflection and lost its food.
6. The family didn't have enough food for the winter.
7. The girl is a state-level boxer.
8. The brave army marched through the streets.
9. I had no idea such a fantastic place existed.
10. Some oranges are pretty sour.
11. The ship sustained heavy damage.
12. I have called Sam several times.
13. The teacher called your name twice.
14. Naomi won the second prize.
15. I haven't seen Mr Thomas for several days.
16. The soldier died a glorious death.
17. I had an eventful day.
18. King Solomon was a wise king.
19. Penny saw the accident with her own eyes.
20. What colour shirt do you like?

Exercise Three: Go through the following sentences and identify the type of adjective used in them.

1. Sharon will clean her messy room today.
2. The miser lost all his money.
3. There haven't been sufficient crops to sell this year.
4. Collecting coins is an interesting hobby.

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5. The boy did not have any soup.
6. There's no milk left in the bowl.
7. This bag is heavier than the suitcase.
8. The white pomeranian is very fluffy.
9. The food was delicious.
10. Whose pencil box is this?
11. These apples are pretty sweet.
12. Shiv came second in the marathon.
13. I saw it with my own eyes.
14. What a splendid piece of art!
15. The Atlantic Ocean is the largest ocean in the world.
16. Most children are playing.
17. I did not find those books.

Key answers

Exercise One:

1. ten-minute walk, 2. twelve-storey building, 3. five-year-old boy, 4. thirty-page report, 5. high-spirited students, 6. well-behaved children, 7. green-eyed monster, 8. short-haired man, 9. kind-hearted lady, 10. time-saving app, 11. mouth-watering dessert, 12. strong-willed woman, 13. slow-moving traffic, 14. good-looking man, 15. long-lasting medicine, 16. open-minded person, 17. brightly-lit room, 18. thought-provoking documentary, 19. world-famous museum, 20. fat-free cookies

Exercise Two:

1. homeless, 2. sly, 3. little, 4. selfish, 5. foolish, 6. enough, 7. state-level, 8. brave, 9. fantastic, 10. some/sour, 11. heavy, 12. several, 13. your, 14. second, 15. several, 16. glorious, 17. eventful, 18. wise, 19. own, 20. what/colour

Exercise Three:

1. possessive & descriptive, 2. possessive, 3. quantity, 4. descriptive, 5. quantity, 6. quantity, 7. comparative, 8. descriptive, 9. descriptive, 10. interrogative, 11. demonstrative & descriptive, 12. numeral (ordinal), 13. possessive/emphasizing, 14. descriptive, 15. superlative, 16. quantity, 17. demonstrative

4. The Verb

4.1. Definition of Verbs

Verbs are words that form the central part of the predicate and function to express an action, event, or state of being. They indicate what the subject does, experiences, or is, and may also convey information related to tense, aspect, mood, voice, and agreement in a clause (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 96).

4.2. Types of Verbs

4.2.1. Linking verbs

Linking verbs are state verbs that do not express an action on their own but connect the subject to a subject complement, thereby linking the subject with the predicate. Common linking verbs include *am*, *is*, *are*, *was*, and *were*. They describe a state or condition rather than an action (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 96-97)

Example :

- I **am** not feeling well today.

4.2.2. Action Verbs

Action verbs express physical or mental actions performed by the subject. They indicate what the subject does (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 96-97)

Example :

- The storm **hit** hard last night.

4.2.3. Transitive verbs

A transitive verb is an action verb that requires a direct object to complete its meaning. The action “passes over” from the verb to the object. To identify a transitive verb, ask *Who?* or *What?* after the verb (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 99–100).

Examples:

- I had **eaten** an apple.
- The man **sailed** the yacht. (*Question: Sailed what? Answer: The yacht*)

4.2.4. Intransitive Verbs

An intransitive verb does not take a direct object; the action remains with the subject. To test, ask *Who?* or *What?* after the verb if there is no answer, the verb is intransitive. An intransitive verb does not take a direct object; the action remains with the subject. To test, ask *Who?* or *What?* after the verb if there is no answer, the verb is intransitive.

Example :

- The rain **stopped**. (*No object; action does not pass to anything*)

4.2.5. Auxiliary Verbs

Auxiliary verbs, also called helping verbs, support main verbs or participles to form complete verb phrases and express tense, aspect, mood, or voice. The main auxiliary verbs are to be, to have, to do, and will (Quirk et al., 1985).

Examples:

- I **have read** all of my books! (*Have helps read*)
- I **am going** for a walk. (*am helps going*)

Tense Formation Examples:

- Past : I **was** hungry.
- Present: I **am singing**.

- Future: I **will go** to the mall tomorrow

4.2.6. Modal Verbs

Modal verbs are a type of auxiliary verb used to express possibility, necessity, certainty, or permission. Common modal verbs include *can, could, may, might, must, shall, should, will*, and *ought to* (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 111–113). Modals convey different degrees of modality:

- **Low modality:** things that might happen (*may, might*).
- **Medium modality:** things that can or should happen (*can, should*).
- **High modality:** things that will or must happen (*will, must*).

Example :

- **May** I get your attention, please?

Here are some examples of modal verbs:

Low modality	Medium modality	High modality
May	Should	Must
Might	Can	Will
Could	Need to	Have to

Exercise One: Identify the transitive and intransitive verb.

1. Mr. Jenkin's cat watched the birds in the trees. _____
2. We will not buy a new car until next summer. _____
3. The small boat moved slowly through the grey sea. _____
4. Diane tripped on the top step and fell downstairs.

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5. Please order a hamburger and a milkshake for me. _____
6. Have you ever explored a cave? _____
7. Many years ago, a young boy discovered a huge cave in Kentucky. _____
8. The cave contained strange, twisted formations of stone and crystal. _____
9. Your friend Tom has a very intriguing job. _____
10. We arrived at the stadium ten minutes before the game started.
11. Do you play tennis every day? _____
12. After the election, the Prime Minister assembled his cabinet. _____
13. At our last meeting we discussed the problem of leaking pipes. _____
14. Mr. Clark spoke for more than an hour about the deficit in our finances.
15. The old cabin was surrounded by many tall trees.

Exercise Two: Fill in the blanks with the correct modals

1. I..... arrange the flowers for the bouquet. (may/can)
2.I borrow this pen from you? (may/might)
3. The teacherask you to bring the homework. (might/can)
4. According to the weather forecast, it.....snow heavily tomorrow. (may/shall)
5. Raj hasn't studied well. He..... fail his exam. (might/shall)
6. Youfollow the traffic rules. (may/must)
7. It be difficult to live amidst war. (should/must)
8. My mother.....scold me if I don't go back on time. (will/may)
9. Wetake care of our parents. (ought to/ could)
10. Ivisit the local grocery store soon. (shall/can)
11. Yoube punctual. (should/ought)
12. One repay all their debts. (must/ought to)
13.you show me the road to the market? (could/might)
14. The child be taken to hospital immediately. (must/might)
15. you have hot chocolate? (shall/will)

Exercise Three: Read the following sentences and fill in the blanks with ‘has’ or ‘had.’

1. The boys a fight yesterday.
2. The baby a blanket.
3. The dog..... an injury, but now he’s fine.
4. I rabbits when I was young.
5. Tia an ear infection.
6. India many states.
7. My uncle a white coat which he used to wear.
8. The tiger..... sharp claws.
9. The girl..... broken her leg a few months ago.
10. Natasha a sweet smile.
11. The children a lot of fun last night.
12. His grandparents..... passed away a long time ago.
13. William Shakespeare written many plays.
14. the baby fallen asleep?
15. She..... a purple dress.

Key Answers

Exercise One (T = Transitive / I = Intransitive):

1.T, 2. T, 3. I, 4. I, 5. T, 6. T, 7. T, 8. T, 9. T, 10. I, 11. T, 12. T, 13. T, 14. I, 15. T

Exercise Two (Modals):

1.can, 2. May, 3. might, 4. may, 5. might, 6. must, 7. must, 8. may, 9. ought to, 10. shall, 11. should, 12. ought to, 13. could, 14. must, 15. will

Exercise Three (has / had):

1.had, 2. has, 3. had, 4. had, 5. has, 6. has, 7. had, 8. has, 9. has, 10. has, 11. had, 12. had, 13. has, 14. Has, 15. has

5. The Adverb

5.1. Definition of Adverb

An adverb is a word that modifies a verb, an adjective, another adverb, or an entire sentence. Adverbs provide additional information about manner, place, time, degree, frequency, or

certainty, specifying how, when, where, or to what extent an action or quality occurs (Quirk et al., 1985).

Examples:

- He works **hard**. (*Adverb modifying a verb*)
- This cheese is **very** tasty. (*adverb modifying an adjective*)
- She walks **rather slowly**. (*Adverb modifying an adverb*)
- **Today**, the weather is very nice. (*Adverb modifying the whole sentence*)

Comparatives and Superlatives of Adverbs Ending in -ly:
Adverbs ending in **-ly** form the comparative with more and the superlative with the most.

Examples:

- She dresses **more beautifully** than she used to.
- This is **the most beautifully** decorated house.

5.2. Kinds of Adverbs

5.2.1. Sentence Adverbs

Sentence adverbs modify the entire sentence rather than a single word, often expressing the speaker's attitude, viewpoint, or certainty. They usually appear at the beginning of a sentence (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 438–439)

Examples:

- **Hopefully**, we will win the match.
- **Apparently**, the sky is getting cloudy.

- **Certainly**, I did not think of coming here.

5.2.2. Adverbs of Time/Frequency (When?)

Adverbs of time or frequency indicate when an action occurs or how often it happens. They answer the question *when?* or *how frequently?* (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 440–441)

Common Examples: ** always, never, often, eventually, now, frequently, occasionally, once, forever, seldom, before, Monday, Sunday, 10 AM, 12 PM**

Examples:

- He **always** gets a good result.
- I will leave **Monday**.
- He smokes **occasionally**.

5.2.3. Adverbs of Place/Direction (Where?)

Adverbs of place or direction indicate where an action occurs or the direction of movement. Common Examples: across, over, under, in, out, through, backward, there, around, here, sideways, upstairs, in the park, in the field (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 441–442)

Examples:

- I went **through** the jungle.
- He plays **in** the field.
- Alex is going **to school**.
- He is staying **at my home**.

5.2.4. Adverbs of Degree (How Much?)

Adverbs of degree express the intensity or extent of an action, adjective, or another adverb. They answer the question *how much?* (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 442–443)

Common Examples: completely, nearly, entirely, less, mildly, most, thoroughly, somewhat, excessively, much

Examples:

- She **completely** forgot about her anniversary.
- I read the newspaper **thoroughly**.
- I am **so** excited about the new job.
- Robin **hardly** studies.

5.2.5. Adverbs of Manner (How?)

Adverbs of manner describe how an action is performed and usually answer the question *how?* Many of these adverbs end in **-ly**. (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 443–444)

Common Examples: beautifully, equally, thankfully, carefully, handily, quickly, coldly, hotly, resentfully, earnestly, nicely, tirelessly

Examples:

- Let's divide the prizes **equally**.
- Please handle the camera **carefully**.
- Mike is walking **slowly**.
- He is running **fast**.

5.2.6. Emphasizing adverbs

Emphasising adverbs strengthen or intensify the meaning of the words they modify. They are often placed in the mid-position in the sentence. (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 444–445)

Common Examples: very, pretty, almost, quiet, terribly, extremely

Examples:

- He is **very** tired.
- This lesson is **pretty** easy to understand.
- We **almost** got lost in the city.
- It's **quite** generous of you to let me stay at your house.
- The employees are **terribly** underpaid.
- He plays the piano **extremely** badly.

Exercise One: Read the sentences given below and underline the adverbs.

1. The boy is too careless.
2. The winds are very strong.
3. The baby slept soundly.
4. The soldiers fought the war valiantly.
5. Joey always tries his best.
6. Surely you are mistaken.
7. The movie is to end soon.
8. Your friend messaged again.
9. I did my homework already.
10. I was rather busy.
11. Is your mother within?
12. We looked for the lost puppy everywhere.
13. We do not know her.
14. How long is the trip?
15. Monica seldom visits here.

Exercise Two: Fill in the blanks by choosing the most appropriate adverb from the table.

out	quickly	forward	pretty	too
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before	often	once	somewhat	so
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1. Riya ran to her mother ____.
2. The scores are ____.
3. We have met ____.
4. I know him ____ well.
5. The baby is ___ sleepy.
6. The naughty boy is ___ annoying.
7. My aunt comes to visit us ____.
8. My grandpa is ____ better today.
9. I met a magician ____
10. Ambition urges us ____.

Exercise Three: Go through the given sentences and identify the type of adverb used in each sentence.

1. The boy practised his speech regularly.
2. The phone kept ringing constantly.
3. The people have gone out.
4. I have heard this story before.
5. Are you quite sure?
6. You are driving too carelessly.
7. I always try my best.
8. You are quite right.
9. He solved the problem quickly.
10. I have heard enough.
11. The boy often makes the same mistake.
12. I could hardly recognise him.
13. The little kid is too shy to sing.

14. The horse galloped away.

Key answers

Exercise One (Adverbs):

1. too, 2. very, 3. soundly, 4. valiantly, 5. always, 6. surely, 7. soon, 8. again, 9. already, 10. rather, 11. within, 12. everywhere, 13. not, 14. how, 15. seldom

Exercise Two (Adverbs):

1. out, 2. so, 3. once, 4. pretty, 5. too, 6. somewhat, 7. often, 8. somewhat, 9. before, 10. forward

Exercise Three (Type of Adverb):

1. frequency, 2. frequency, 3. place, 4. time, 5. degree, 6. degree, 7. frequency, 8. degree, 9. manner, 10. degree, 11. frequency, 12. degree, 13. degree, 14. place

6. Preposition

6.1. Definition of Preposition

A preposition is a word or group of words that links nouns, pronouns, or phrases to other words in a sentence, indicating relationships of time, place, direction, cause, manner, or instrumentality. Prepositions can be single words (*in, at, on, of, to, by, with*) or prepositional phrases (*in front of, next to, instead of*).

In English, the use of prepositions is often determined by fixed expressions and idiomatic usage. While general guidelines exist, many prepositions are collocated with specific verbs, adjectives, or nouns, and it is usually most effective to learn these as part of the whole expression rather than in isolation (Quirk et al., 1985, p,147).

Examples:

- She is sitting **on** the chair.
- He arrived **at** the station early.
- They walked **in front of** the school.
- I chose this option **instead of** the other one.

*** A Few Rules for Usage**

Although there are few strict rules governing preposition use, prepositions most commonly indicate relationships between nouns and help locate words, actions, or ideas in time or space. A useful tip to remember their function is that the word “preposition” contains “position,” reflecting their role in showing placement or relationship.

The following tables contain rules for some of the most frequently used prepositions in English:

6.2. Types of Prepositions

6.2.1. Prepositions – Time

English	Usage	Example
in	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• months/seasons• years• time of day•centuries and historical periods• after a certain period of time	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• in August/in the summer• in 1985• in the evening• in the 19th century• Mystic Market closes in two hours.
at	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• time of days• noon, night, and midnight• names of mealtime• age	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• at 2:30• at night• at breakfast• I learned how to use a computer at 12.
on	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• days of the week	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• on Friday
since	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• from a period of time up to the present (when it started)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• I have been a student since 2004.

for	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • how long a period of time has been 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I have been a student here for 2 years
from...to...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the beginning and end of a period of time 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • My appointment is from 13:30 to 14:00.
until	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a period of time up to a specific point in time 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I cannot go dancing until I finish reading this chapter.
by	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • in the sense of "at the latest" • due date 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • You must return your book by April 21st. • My essay is due by the end of the week.

6.2.2. Prepositions – Place (Location and Direction)

English	Usage	Example
in	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • when something is in a place, it is inside it (enclosed within limits) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • in class/in Victoria • in the book • in the car/in a taxi • You look serious in this photo
at	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • located at a specific place (a point) • for events • place where you are to do something typical (watch a movie, study, work) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • at the library • at a concert/at a party • at the cinema/at school/at work
on	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • being on a surface (not enclosed) • for a certain side (left, right) • for a floor in a building • for public transport • for television, radio 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I left the keys on the table. • Go down this hall to the end, turn right, and it's the third door on your left. • My apartment is on the fourth floor.

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		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I forgot my phone on the bus. • You can hear my brother on the radio.
to	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • moving toward a specific place (the goal or end point of movement) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Every morning, I take the bus to campus.
from	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • for the origin or starting point 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I used carrots from my garden. • I received a suspicious email from my bank. • I will be on vacation from July 31 for a week.
towards	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • movement in direction of something 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I suddenly saw a dog running towards me.
across	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • movement from one side to another 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There is a coffee shop across the street. • I swam across the lake.
through	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • movement from one side to another but "in something" 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I entered the room through an open window. • You have to go through the kitchen to get to the bathroom.
between	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a place "in the middle" of two or more separate people or things 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I was standing between my friend and his parents. • The gap between the rich and poor keeps growing.
among	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a place "surrounded" by more than two people or things together as a group (in the 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • France is among the countries of Western Europe. • Among the advantages of exercising regularly are

	sense of "included in")	• lower risks of depression and a better quality of life.
--	-------------------------	---

6.2.3. Prepositions – Connection

English	Usage	Example
of	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • between two noun phrases to show that the first belongs to or is part of the second • to say how people are related 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The keyboard of my computer is pink. • Richard is the son of Audrey/He is a good friend of mine.
With	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Between two noun phrases when the second is a particular feature of the first • to say that people or things are together • for the specific thing used to perform an action 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I spilled coffee on the computer with a pink keyboard. • I think Sarah is studying with Tara/I went to a workshop with my friend. • My roommate killed a spider with a book.
By	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • when we want to describe an action in a more general way 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • My roommate saved my live by killing the spider.

Exercise One: Fill in the blanks below with the correct prepositions of time.

1. My brother has a new job. He works _____ the evening.
2. We're going to have a picnic _____ Saturday afternoon. Would you like to come?
3. I'll be finished my work _____ an hour. Then, I can go home.
4. When is the meeting? Is it _____ 2:00?
5. I like to get up really early, _____ sunrise, when the birds start to sing.
6. Tom's birthday is next week, _____ January 14.

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7. My grandfather was born _____ the 1950s.
8. Will we be _____ time, or will we miss our flight?
9. My family and I like to ski _____ winter.

10. Are there any holidays _____ October?
11. Our school cafeteria opens for lunch _____ noon.
12. What time does your son go to bed _____ night?
13. We moved to this city _____ 2012.
14. Are you going to do anything special _____ your birthday?
15. I'm not going to watch that TV show. It starts _____ midnight!

Exercise Two: Choose the correct preposition from the box. [at in on]

1. Dave lives California.
2. My appointment is 10am.
3. My favorite flower shop is 55 Bond Street.
4. I go horse riding Sunday mornings.
5. I like a glass of wine the evening.
6. Samantha lives a mansion.
7. I go food shopping Friday.
8. I go to Switzerland January.
9. I put the biscuits back the shelf.
10. I always keep my phone ___ my bag.
11. I always take afternoon tea ___ Sundays.
12. I need to be ___ school ___ nine.
13. I live ___ England.
14. I'm going ___ holiday ___ Tuesday.
15. Samantha was planning to move abroad ___ July.

Exercise Three: Correct the mistakes in these sentences.

Dear Dr. Smith,

This is Amanda Liu from your Introduction to Postmodernist Literature Class. After reading excerpts of Wallace's *Infinite Jest*, there was something that seemed odd for me. In my notes, I wrote that the heavy use of endnotes is meant to disrupt the linear narrative. Given Wallace's

perception on reality as contingent, I can understand the latter interpretation. I'm having difficulty understanding how the conclusion can be said to be open-ended, though. I understand that it has something to do from the story eschewing chronological plot development and straightforward resolution, which support a wide range of readings, but the reliance of endnotes does seem to maintain some sense of narrative cohesion. I've talked to a few others in class, and none of them have been able to provide me much insight. Would you be able to explain this to me? If you do not have time to do so via email, would you be willing to discuss it on the beginning of next class? Sincerely,

Amanda Liu

Key Answers

Exercise One (Prepositions of Time)

1. **in**, 2. **on**, 3. **in**, 4. **at**, 5. **at**, 6. **on**, 7. **in**, 8. **on**, 9. **in**, 10. **in**, 11. **at**, 12. **at**, 13. **in**, 14. **on**, 15. **at**

Exercise Two (at / in / on)

1. **in**, 2. **at**, 3. **at**, 4. **on**, 5. **in**, 6. **in**, 7. **on**, 8. **in**, 9. **on**, 10. **in**, 11. **on**, 12. **at / at**, 13. **in**, 14. **on / on**, 15. **in**

Exercise Three (Corrections – key changes only)

- *odd to me* → **odd to me**
- *perception on reality* → **perception of reality**
- *has something to do from* → **has something to do with**
- *which support* → **which supports**
- *reliance of endnotes* → **reliance on endnotes**
- *provide me much insight* → **provide me with much insight**
- *discuss it on the beginning* → **discuss it at the beginning**

7. The Conjunction

7.1. Definition of Conjunction

Conjunctions are words that connect words, phrases, or clauses within a sentence, establishing grammatical and logical relationships between them. They help different parts of a sentence cohere and ensure the flow of ideas.

Examples:

- The bat hit the ball **and** the ball hit me.
- I ate a sandwich **when** I got home from school.

Conjunctions can be classified into coordinating, subordinating, and correlative conjunctions, depending on the type of relationship they express (Quirk et al., 1985)

7.2. Types of Conjunctions

7.2.1. Coordinating conjunctions

A coordinating conjunction is a word used to link two or more words, phrases, or clauses of equal grammatical importance within a sentence. The seven coordinating conjunctions in English are **for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so**, which can be remembered using the acronym **FANBOYS** (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 475-476).

Functions and Examples:

- **For** indicates cause: “We left a day early, **for** the weather was not as clement as we had anticipated.”
- **And** joins items without specifying a relationship: “Neorealism, neoclassical realism, **and** realist constructivism.”
- **Nor** adds to a previous negation: “Neither fish **nor** fowl.”
- **But** signals contrast or tension: “There was no precedent for such an approach, **but** the team forged ahead.”
- **Or** expresses alternatives: “Give me liberty **or** give me death.”

- **Yet** indicates a contrast similar to “but”: “There was no precedent, **yet** the team forged ahead.”
- **So** indicates effect or result: “The weather was poor, **so** we left a day early.”

► **Joining Independent Clauses**

Coordinating conjunctions can connect two independent clauses to form a compound sentence. A comma is required before the conjunction.

Structure:

Subject + verb + object, [coordinating conjunction] + subject + verb + object

Examples:

- I like football, **and** I like hockey.
- The directions are complicated, **but** I am starting to understand them.

► **Joining Words and Phrases**

Coordinating conjunctions can also connect **words or phrases**.

- When connecting **two words or phrases**, no comma is needed:
 - My favorite foods are burritos **and** sushi.
 - I will eat either a hamburger **or** a hotdog.
- When connecting **three or more items**, a comma precedes the final conjunction:
 - I recently bought new straps, pedals, **and** toe clips for my bike.
 - Jaime wants a tablet, a sword, **or** a cell phone for his birthday.
- When connecting **two phrases**, no comma is required:
 - I want to study at my university library **or** at the local coffee shop.

- Phil was entranced by the dancer's stage presence **and** graceful movements.
-

7.2.2. Subordinating Conjunction

Subordinating conjunctions are words or phrases that connect a dependent (subordinate) clause to an independent (main) clause, showing the logical relationship between the two. They indicate how the dependent clause relates to the main clause, expressing relationships of time, place, cause, condition, contrast, or purpose (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 478–480).

7.2.2.1. Different Types of Subordinating Conjunctions

There are different types of subordinating conjunctions, and they can each be used to indicate a different relationship between two clauses.

- **Subordinating conjunctions of time:** These indicate when an action occurs.

Examples: after, before, when, while, since, until, as soon as, as long as

- I went home **after** the meeting ended.
- She stayed up late **until** she finished her homework.

- **Subordinating conjunctions of place:** These indicate where an action occurs.

Examples: where, wherever

- I will follow you **wherever** you go.
- Sit **where** you like.

- **Subordinating conjunctions of cause:** These indicate why something happens.

Examples: because, since, so that, in order that

- She left early **because** she was feeling unwell.
- I brought an umbrella **so that** I wouldn't get wet.

- **Subordinating conjunctions of condition:** These indicate conditions that must be met for something to occur.

Examples: if, unless, whether, even if

- I will attend the party **if** I finish my work on time.
- You cannot succeed **unless** you try your best.

Exercise: Complete the following worksheet on conjunctions. Use the following conjunctions to complete the exercises. (And, but, or, yet, therefore, otherwise, either or, neither nor, not only but also, so ... that, as as, both and, as if, while, as soon as, before, though, although, after, when, where, why, how, still, till, unless, until, if, because, since)

01. _____ he is a busy, he spends time with his family.
02. She is _____ intelligent _____ hard working.
03. Raju will play today _____ he gets a chance.
04. You can't succeed _____ you work hard.
05. We must reach there _____ anyone else.
06. Sam is _____ a fool _____ a stupid.
07. I fell asleep _____ I was watching TV.
08. He is _____ intelligent _____ hard working.
09. Samuel was eating food _____ the postman arrived.
10. I was very angry, _____ I didn't argue.
11. She was unhappy, _____ she was rich.
12. I like him very much _____ he is my best friend.
13. I can't believe you _____ you speak the truth.
14. Liola _____ _____ Sweetly.
15. We don't know _____ Suma failed in the examination.
16. Suresh is clever _____ proud.
17. I can't attend the meeting _____ I am suffering from fever.
18. This is the village _____ I lived in my childhood.
19. Veda is _____ kind _____ humble.
20. You better keep quiet _____ you will be sent outside.

Key Answers

Although, 2. both ... and, 3. if, 4. unless, 5. before, 6. neither ... nor, 7. while, 8. not only ... but also, 9. when, 10. yet, 11. though, 12. because, 13. if, 14. either ... or, 15. why, 16. but, 17. because, 18. where, 19. both ... and, 20. otherwise

8. The Interjection

8.1. Definition of Interjection

An interjection is a word or phrase that expresses sudden or strong emotion, such as surprise, joy, pain, hesitation, or protest. Interjections often stand alone or are inserted into sentences, and they are frequently followed by an exclamation mark to convey the intensity of the emotion. They do not have a grammatical relationship with other parts of the sentence (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 483–484).

Examples:

- “**Oops !** I’m sorry.”
- “**Bingo !** I found it.”
- “**Oh,** how cute she is!”
- “**Well!** I think Steve got married!”
- “**Meh!** I don’t like that movie.”
- “**Yahoo!** We made it!”

8.2. Types of Interjections

Interjections can be classified into six types depending on the emotion or reaction they convey in a sentence, such as greeting, joy, attention, approval, surprise, and sorrow (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 484-485).

8.2.1. Interjections for Greeting

These interjections express **warmth or acknowledgment** when meeting someone.

Examples:

- **Hey!** Where are you going?
- **Hi!** What are you up to?
- **Hello!** I am Ekta.

8.2.2. Interjections for Joy

These interjections express immediate happiness or excitement.

Examples:

- **Hurrah !** We've won !
- **Good!** Now we can move on.
- **Wow!** What a beautiful dress!

8.2.3. Interjections for Attention

These interjections are used to **draw someone's attention**.

Examples:

- **Look!** She is so bad.
- **Listen!** I am not talking about you.
- **Behold!** Something is there.
- **Shh!** Be quiet!

8.2.4. Interjections for Approval

These interjections express **approval, praise, or agreement**.

Examples:

- **Well, done!** You won the race.
- **Brilliant!** That was a good shot.
- **Bravo!** You scored the most.

8.2.5. Interjections for Surprise

These interjections express **strong surprise or astonishment**.

Examples:

- **Ah !** It feels good.
- **Oh!** You both know each other.
- **What!** He died.
- **Ah!** I got a 100\$ note.

8.2.6. Interjections for Sorrow

These interjections express **sadness, pain, or regret**.

Examples:

- **Ouch!** That hurts.
- **Oops!** I'm sorry. That was my mistake.
- **Alas!** He broke his leg.

Exercise: Spot the interjection in the following sentences and state the feeling it expresses:

1- Alas! Many children have been killed in Syria.

2- Oh! It is so cute.

3- Ah! I am so sorry to hear that.

4- Ay! I broke my arm.

5- Bingo! My phone is repaired.

6- Bravo! You made progress.

7- Bye! I am going home.

8- Ha-ha! That is not funny.

9- Yay! We are done with parts of speech.

Key Answers

1. Alas! – sorrow / sadness
2. Oh! – surprise / admiration
3. Ah! – sympathy / regret
4. Ay! – pain / distress
5. Bingo! – joy / triumph
6. Bravo! – praise / appreciation
7. Bye! – farewell / parting
8. Ha-ha! – amusement / laughter
9. Yay! – happiness / excitement

Lesson Two: Finite and Non-finite Verbs

I. Objectives

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

- Define finite and non-finite verbs.
- Distinguish between finite and non-finite verbs.
- Identify finite and non-finite verbs in English sentences.

II. Content

1. Finite Verbs (Definition and Form)
2. Non-finite Verbs (Definition and Form)

1. Finite Verbs

Finite verbs are verbs that change their form according to the number and person of the subject (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005). They also show tense, typically the present or past tense. Therefore, finite verbs agree with the subject and are marked for tense.

Examples:

- She plays **V(fin)** the piano.
- They play **V(fin)** football every weekend.
- I am **V(fin)** tired today.
- He was **V(fin)** absent yesterday.
- We have **V(fin)** finished the exercise.

2. Non-finite Verbs

Non-finite verbs are verbs that do not change their form according to the number or person of the subject (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005). Unlike finite verbs, they do not express tense and

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are not marked for agreement. Non-finite verbs can function as nouns, adjectives, or adverbs within a sentence.

There are three main types of non-finite verbs in English: infinitives, gerunds, and participles (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005).

Examples:

- I am **V(fin)** trying **V(non-fin)** to get **V(non-fin)** the tickets.
- She refused **V(fin)** to accept **V(non-fin)** my offer.
- He tried **V(fin)** to help **V(non-fin)**.
- He has **V(fin)** tried **V(non-fin)** to help **V(non-fin)**.

An English sentence must contain **at least one finite verb**. In sentences with **compound verb tenses** (perfect, continuous, and perfect continuous), **only the first verb is finite**, while the following verbs are non-finite.

Examples:

- She has **V(fin)** had **V(non-fin)** an excellent trip.
- Peter has **V(fin)** been **V(non-fin)** waiting **V(non-fin)** for Jane for many hours.
- I will **V(fin)** be **V(non-fin)** waiting **V(non-fin)** for your call.

Exercise: Are the underlined verbs in the following paragraph finite or non-finite?

Peter is one of those rare people who believe in old myths. He bought a new house in the city, but ever since he moved in, he has had trouble with motorists. When he returns home at night, he always finds that someone parked a car near his gate. Therefore, he was unable to get his own car into his garage. Peter has put up a ‘No Parking’ sign outside his gate, but these have not had any effect. Then, he has put an ugly stone head over the garage. It is one of the ugliest faces I have ever seen. I asked what it was, and he told me that it was Medusa, the Gorgon.

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Peter believes that she turns motorists into stones, but no one of them has been turned to stone yet!

From: Mainline. Skills B: Student's Book. (Alexander & Kingsbury, 1976, p. 37)

Key answers

the verbs marked as (F) = finite or (NF) = non-finite

Peter **is (F)** one of those rare people who **believe (F)** in old myths. He **bought (F)** a new house in the city, but ever since he **moved (F)** in, he **has had (F)** trouble with motorists. When he **returns (F)** home at night, he always **finds (F)** that someone **parked (F)** a car near his gate. Therefore, he **was (F)** unable **to get (NF)** his own car into his garage. Peter **has put (F)** up a 'No Parking' sign outside his gate, but these **have not had (F)** any effect. Then, he **has put (F)** an ugly stone head over the garage. It **is (F)** one of the ugliest faces I **have ever seen (F)**. I **asked (F)** what it **was (F)**, and he **told (F)** me that it **was (F)** Medusa, the Gorgon. Peter **believes (F)** that she **turns (F)** motorists into stones, but no one of them **has been turned (F)** to stone yet!

Lesson Three: Phrases

I. Objectives

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

- Define the concept of a phrase.
- Distinguish between selected types of English phrases.
- Identify prepositional, participial, gerund, infinitive, and appositive phrases in context.
- Construct correct English phrases using given grammatical forms.

II. Content

1. Definition of a Phrase
2. Types of Phrases
 2. 1. Prepositional Phrase
 2. 2. Participle Phrase
 2. 3. Gerund Phrase
 2. 4. Infinitive Phrase
 2. 5. Appositive Phrase

1. Definition of Phrases

A phrase is a group of related words that functions as a single unit within a sentence but does not contain both a subject and a finite verb (Woodford, 2003). Although a phrase cannot usually stand alone as a complete sentence, it contributes meaning to the sentence as a whole.

Examples:

at home, an old man.

Other scholars provide similar definitions:

- Richards and Schmidt (2002), a phrase is “a group of words that form a grammatical unit within a clause or sentence.”
Examples: in the morning, very happy.
- Yule (2010) defines a phrase as a set of words that act together as a single syntactic unit, often built around a head word such as a noun, verb, or preposition.
- Huddleston and Pullum (2005) state that a phrase consists of one or more words organized around a central element (the head) and functions as a constituent in sentence structure.
- According to Crystal (2008), a phrase is an intermediate unit of grammar, larger than a word but smaller than a clause.

In summary, a phrase is not meaningless; rather, it carries meaning but remains structurally incomplete on its own, requiring a sentence context to express a complete idea.

2. Types of Phrases

2.1 Prepositional Phrase (PP)

A prepositional phrase is a group of words that functions as a single unit in a sentence and is headed by a preposition (Lau, 2017). It typically consists of a preposition followed by its object (usually a noun or pronoun), and may include modifiers. Prepositional phrases commonly function as adjectives or adverbs, providing information about place, time, direction, cause, or manner.

Examples:

- These letters are **for Peter**. (PP)
- We walked **across the street**. (PP)
- They sat **in the garden**. (PP)
- The book is **on the table**. (PP – place)
- She arrived **after the meeting**. (PP – time)
- He spoke **with confidence**. (PP – manner)

2.2 Participle Phrase

A participle phrase is a group of words headed by a participle, which may be a present participle (-ing form) or a past participle (-ed, -en, or irregular third-column form). The participle is usually followed by its complements and modifiers. A participle phrase functions adjectivally, meaning it modifies a noun or pronoun in a sentence (Bindra, 2016).

Participle phrases often provide additional information about the noun, such as action, condition, or state. When the participle phrase is non-essential (i.e., extra information), it is usually set off by commas.

Examples:

- **Students, raising their hands,** need more explanation.
(Present participle phrase modifying “students”)
- **That chair, made of plastic,** is nice.
(Past participle phrase modifying “chair”)
- **The girl, wearing a blue dress,** won the prize.
(Present participle phrase modifying “girl”)
- **The documents, signed by the manager,** were sent yesterday.
(Past participle phrase modifying “documents”)

2.3 Gerund Phrase (GER P)

A gerund phrase is a group of words headed by a gerund, which is the -ing form of a verb used as a noun. The gerund may be followed by its objects and modifiers, forming a phrase that functions as a noun within a sentence. A gerund phrase can act as a subject, object, or complement of a verb or preposition (Bindra, 2016).

Examples:

- Skipping **courses** is a bad habit.

(Gerund phrase functioning as the subject)

- Smiling is good.

(Gerund phrase functioning as the subject)

- Smoking **cigarettes** is dangerous.

(Gerund phrase functioning as the subject)

- I love **eating chocolate**.

(Gerund phrase functioning as the direct object)

2.4 Infinitive Phrase (INF P)

An infinitive phrase is a group of words headed by an infinitive verb, usually formed with *to* + base form of the verb. Although it is derived from a verb, an infinitive phrase can function as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb within a sentence (Lau, 2017). The infinitive may be followed by its objects, complements, and modifiers.

Examples:

- **To err** is human.

(Infinitive phrase functioning as a subject noun)

- I love **to travel**.

(Infinitive phrase functioning as a direct object noun)

- The place **to visit** is London.

(Infinitive phrase functioning as an adjective modifying “place”)

- I cannot wait **to go**.

(Infinitive phrase functioning as an adverb modifying “wait”)

2.5 Appositive Phrase

An appositive phrase is a noun phrase that follows another noun and renames, identifies, or gives additional information about it. The noun being described is called the antecedent. Appositive phrases may be non-essential (extra information) and set off by commas, or essential (necessary for meaning) and written without commas (Lau, 2017).

Examples:

- **Apple, the company,** produces expensive phones.
(non-essential appositive phrase explaining “Apple”)
- **Apple, the fruit,** is rich in vitamin C.
(non-essential appositive phrase clarifying meaning)
- **My brother, a university student,** lives in Algiers.
(non-essential appositive)
- **Dr. Ahmed, the head of the department,** gave the opening speech.
(non-essential appositive)

Exercise One: Analyze the following sentences by identifying the type of the underlined phrase.

1. The meeting will start in the afternoon.
2. He sent the email to his teacher after the class.
3. Smiling happily, the children entered the classroom.
4. Reading novels helps improve vocabulary.
5. The report was written by the secretary.
6. Exhausted after the long journey, the tourists rested immediately.
7. Albert Einstein, the famous physicist, developed the theory of relativity.
8. The crying baby needs attention.
9. She saved money to buy a laptop.
10. He enjoys playing football.
11. This book belongs to my sister.
12. To finish the project on time, the team worked late.

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13. My uncle, a skilled mechanic, fixed the car.
14. The student wearing glasses answered the question.
15. Learning new skills requires patience.
16. Oran, a coastal Algerian city, attracts many tourists.

Exercise Two: Underline the phrase in each sentence, then write its type
(Prepositional / Participle / Gerund / Infinitive / Appositive)

1. The students are waiting outside the classroom.
2. Broken by the storm, the tree fell across the road.
3. Watching movies is her favorite hobby.
4. He has an exam to prepare for.
5. My sister, a medical student, lives in Constantine.
6. The man standing near the window is our teacher.
7. She decided to apply for the scholarship.
8. Walking in the rain, they returned home late.
9. I dislike waking up early.
10. Algiers, the capital of Algeria, is a large city.

Key answers

Exercise One:

1. in the afternoon – Prepositional
2. to his teacher – Prepositional, after the class – Prepositional
3. Smiling happily – Participle
4. Reading novels – Gerund
5. by the secretary – Prepositional
6. Exhausted after the long journey – Participle, after the long journey – Prepositional
7. the famous physicist – Appositive, of relativity – Prepositional
8. The crying baby – Participle
9. to buy a laptop – Infinitive
10. playing football – Gerund

11. to my sister – Prepositional
12. To finish the project on time – Infinitive, on time – Prepositional
13. a skilled mechanic – Appositive
14. wearing glasses – Participle
15. Learning new skills – Gerund
16. a coastal Algerian city – Appositive

Exercise Two :

1. outside the classroom – Prepositional
2. Broken by the storm – Participle
3. Watching movies – Gerund
4. to prepare for – Infinitive
5. a medical student – Appositive
6. standing near the window – Participle, near the window – Prepositional
7. to apply for the scholarship – Infinitive
8. Walking in the rain – Participle, in the rain – Prepositional
9. waking up early – Gerund
10. the capital of Algeria – Appositive, of Algeria – Prepositional

Lesson Four: Clauses

I. Objectives

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

- Define what a clause is.
- Identify independent and dependent clauses in sentences.
- Recognize the different types of English clauses.
- Distinguish between a phrase and a clause.
- Construct or form grammatically correct English clauses.

II. Content

1. Definition of a Clause
2. Types of Clauses
 - 2.1. Dependent Clause
 - 2.2. Independent Clause

Introduction

Sentences may be classified grammatically, according to the types of clauses they contain, or rhetorically, according to their communicative purpose. Awareness of sentence types enables writers to vary sentence patterns in order to suit their audience, content, and purpose. Sentence variety also maintains the reader's interest: a sequence of short sentences may seem monotonous, while a brief sentence following longer ones can add emphasis and force (Rosa & Eschholz, 2013).

1. Definition of a Clause

A clause is a group of words that contains a subject and a **predicate** (verb) and functions as part of a sentence (Richards & Schmidt, 2002; Yule, 2010).

Examples:

- She understands the lesson.
- Because the weather was cold

- When the teacher arrived

2.Types of Clauses

Clauses are classified according to their grammatical completeness. Some clauses can stand alone as complete sentences, while others depend on another clause to complete their meaning (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005).

2.1 Independent Clause (Main Clause)

An independent clause is a clause that can stand alone as a complete sentence because it expresses a complete thought (Yule, 2010). When written with a capital letter and ending punctuation, it forms a simple sentence.

Examples:

- The battery is defective.
- He feels well.
- Thomas Jefferson lived in Paris for a time.

Joining Independent Clauses

Independent clauses may:

1. Stand alone as separate sentences.
2. Be joined by a comma + coordinating conjunction (and, but, or, for, nor, yet, so), forming a compound sentence (Azar & Hagen, 2017).

Examples:

- Dan wrote a research paper on motivation. He submitted it for publication.
- Dan wrote a research paper on motivation, and he submitted it for publication.

Note: Do not use a comma if the clause following the conjunction does not have its own subject.

- Dan wrote a research paper and submitted it for publication.

2.2 Dependent Clause (Subordinate Clause)

A dependent clause contains a subject and a verb but cannot stand alone as a complete sentence. It depends on an independent clause for meaning and is introduced by a subordinator such as *because, if, when, that, which*, etc. (Biber et al., 1999).

Examples (incomplete alone):

- When the sun finally came out
- That we are on the right track
- As you requested

Combined with an independent clause:

1. When the sun finally came out, we felt more cheerful.
2. I told you that we are on the right track.
3. As you requested, I have cancelled your trip.

Thus, dependent clauses rely on independent clauses to complete the meaning.

2.2.1 Types of Subordinate Clauses

A subordinate clause may function as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb (Quirk et al., 1985).

Examples:

- I know **that wheat grows in Kansas**. (Noun clause)
- The car **which rolled over the cliff** *was destroyed*. (Adjective clause)
- He retired early **because he had made enough money**. (Adverb clause)

2.2.1.1 Noun Clause

A noun clause is a dependent clause that functions like a noun. It may act as a subject, object, complement, or object of a preposition (Yule, 2010).

Function	Noun	Noun Clause
Subject	His whereabouts are unknown.	Where he lives is unknown.
Direct Object	I don't know that man.	I don't know who he is.
Indirect Object	The officer gave the students the key.	The officer gave whoever wanted it the key.
Object of Preposition	He isn't interested in geometry.	He isn't interested in what the class is studying.

Common noun clause subordinators:

That, whether, if, who, whom, whoever, what, whatever, which, whichever, when, where, why, how

Examples:

- The laboratory aide reported **that all the students had completed the experiment.**
- The students asked **when the reports were due.**
- Mrs. Peterson asked **whether the supplies had arrived.**

2.2.1.2 Adjective Clause (Relative Clause)

An adjective clause is a dependent clause that modifies a noun or pronoun. It usually begins with a relative pronoun (*who, whom, which, that, whose*) or a relative adverb (*when, where, why*) and follows the word it modifies (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005).

Examples:

1. David, **who has worked here for five years**, is our new director.
2. The time **when our plane arrives** is 4:00 p.m.
3. The house **where Lincoln lived** is in Springfield.

Functions of relative pronouns:

- Refer to an antecedent
- Connect the clause to the main sentence
- Function grammatically within the clause

Example:

George, **who is a reliable student**, was appointed.

(who = subject of is)

2.2.1.3 Adverb Clause

An adverb clause modifies a verb, an adjective, an adverb, or the whole sentence. It begins with a subordinating conjunction that expresses relationships such as time, cause, condition, contrast, or place (Biber et al., 1999).

Common subordinators:

After, before, although, because, if, unless, when, while, since, until, wherever, whenever

Examples:

- Cinderella lost her shoe **after the clock struck twelve**. (Time)
- Mary hid the key **where no one could find it**. (Place)
- She drove so fast **that she got a ticket**. (Result)
- The fire will spread **unless it rains**. (Condition)

2.2.1.4 Essential and Non-essential Clauses (Restrictive / Non-restrictive)

An essential (restrictive) clause is necessary to identify the noun it modifies and is not set off by commas. Removing it changes the meaning of the sentence (Quirk et al., 1985).

Example :

- People **who speak more than one language** are multilingual.

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A non-essential (non-restrictive) clause adds extra information and is set off by commas. Removing it does not change the core meaning.

Example :

- My cousin Michael, *who lives in New York*, is coming for a visit.

Exercise one: Show the subject (S) and the predicate (P) in each statement

- 1- My roommate lost the room's keys.
- 2- A car hit the child on the street.
- 3- Soccer and tennis are his favorite sports.
- 4- The air smells fresh and clean.
- 5- She lives in a two-bedroom apartment.
- 6- The sun is shining today.
- 7- My youngest brother is in high school.
- 8- Jane watches TV and does her homework at the same time.

Exercise Tow: Are these statements a phrase or a clause?

- 1- In the park
- 2- When they study English
- 3- Although she writes good stories
- 4- A black cat
- 5- A dark room
- 6- At home
- 7- which are coming soon
- 8- In the university

Exercise Three: Analyze the following statements by mentioning the type of the clause.

- 1- Art students should visit Paris because it has excellent art museums.
- 2- After we finished our homework, we watched TV for a while.

- 3- She takes a walk in the garden before she goes to work.
- 4- Exercising wakes the body and clears the mind, but it is hard in winter.
- 5- It will be dark when they leave the town.
- 6- He always does his prayers after he gets back home.
- 7- I like walking on the weekends because it refreshes my mind.
- 8- She never goes out on rainy days; when the alarm clock rings, she turns over and goes back to sleep.
- 9- In order for you to succeed, you have to work hard.

Exercise Four: Fill in the gaps by inserting the appropriate relative pronoun or subordinating conjunction.

A person ...(1)... I really admire is my mother ...(2)... she is a very tenacious and positive woman. She is the type of person ...(3)... tries to stay positive in every situation. She has taught me to think optimistically, ...(4)... in situations ...(5)... seem difficult. Her ability to thrive is ...(6)... mostly impresses me.

Key answers

Exercise One: (Subject – Predicate)

1. S: My roommate / P: lost the room's keys
2. S: A car / P: hit the child on the street
3. S: Soccer and tennis / P: are his favorite sports
4. S: The air / P: smells fresh and clean
5. S: She / P: lives in a two-bedroom apartment
6. S: The sun / P: is shining today
7. S: My youngest brother / P: is in high school
8. S: Jane / P: watches TV and does her homework at the same time

Exercise Two: (Phrase or Clause)

1. In the park – Phrase
2. When they study English – Clause

3. Although she writes good stories – Clause
4. A black cat – Phrase
5. A dark room – Phrase
6. At home – Phrase
7. which are coming soon – Clause
8. In the university – Phrase

Exercise Three: (Type of Clause)

1. because it has excellent art museums – Adverbial Clause of reason
2. After we finished our homework – Adverbial Clause of time
3. before she goes to work – Adverbial Clause of time
4. but it is hard in winter – Coordinating Clause / Contrast
5. when they leave the town – Adverbial Clause of time
6. after he gets back home – Adverbial Clause of time
7. because it refreshes my mind – Adverbial Clause of reason
8. when the alarm clock rings – Adverbial Clause of time
9. In order for you to succeed – Adverbial Clause of purpose

Exercise Four: (Relative Pronouns / Subordinating Conjunctions)

1. Whom, 2. because / as, 3. Who, 4. even / also / even when, 5. that / which, 6. which

Lesson Five: Sentences

I. Objectives

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

- Define a sentence accurately.
- Distinguish between English phrases, clauses, and sentences.
- Explain the different types of English sentences.
- Identify and classify sentences according to their type.
- Construct grammatically correct English sentences.
- Transform sentences from one type to another (e.g., simple to compound or complex).

II. Content

1. Definition of a Sentence

2. Types of Sentences

2.1 Simple Sentence (Definition, Types, Forms, and Structures)

2.2 Compound Sentence (Definition, Forms, and Structure)

2.3 Complex Sentence (Definition, Forms, and Structure)

2.4 Compound-Complex Sentence (Definition, Forms, and Structures)

1. Definition of a Sentence

A sentence is a group of words that expresses a complete and meaningful thought. In written English, it begins with a capital letter and ends with an appropriate end mark (a full stop, question mark, or exclamation mark). Grammatically, a sentence is an independent unit of expression composed of two essential parts: a subject and a predicate (Lunsford, 2009; Hogue, 2007). For a group of words to qualify as a well-formed sentence, it must contain a finite verb, which agrees with the subject in person and number and indicates tense. A structure lacking a finite verb or a subject cannot function as a complete sentence (Day, 2018; Huddleston & Pullum, 2005).

A sentence may consist of one or more clauses and may include several phrases, depending on its structural complexity. Simple sentences contain a single independent clause, whereas compound and complex sentences contain multiple clauses.

Example:

Students are in the classroom because they are studying written expression with their teacher.

This sentence contains the following elements:

Subject 1: The students

Predicate 1: stayed in the library

Subject 2: they

Predicate 2: were preparing for the exam

Phrase 1: in the library (*prepositional phrase*)

Phrase 2: for the exam (*prepositional phrase*)

Clause 1: *The students stayed in the library. (Independent clause)*

Clause 2: *because they were preparing for the exam (dependent clause)*

The presence of both a subject and a finite verb in the independent clause allows the sentence to stand alone as a complete grammatical unit.

2. Types of Sentences

2.1 Simple Sentence

A simple sentence contains one independent clause only, which means it has one finite **verb**. However, this single clause may include compound subjects, compound predicates, or both (Joshi, 2014; Hogue, 2007).

2.1.1 Simple Subject + Simple Predicate

A simple sentence with a simple subject and a simple predicate consists of one subject and one finite verb.

Examples:

- The researcher published the results.
- The children slept early.
- The meeting ended abruptly.

2.1.2 Compound Subject + Simple Predicate

A simple sentence with a compound subject contains two or more subjects joined by a coordinating conjunction such as *and*, *or*, *both ... and*, *either ... or*, *neither ... nor*, and one finite verb.

Examples:

- The teacher and the assistant prepared the materials.
- Neither the manager nor the employees agreed on the plan.
- Both the boy and his sister enjoy reading.

2.1.3 Simple Subject + Compound Predicate

A simple sentence with a compound predicate has one subject and two or more finite verbs joined by a coordinating conjunction (usually *and*).

Examples:

- The athlete trained hard and competed successfully.
- She opened the door and greeted the guests.
- The baby cried and fell asleep.

A simple sentence with a compound subject and a compound predicate contains two or more subjects and two or more finite verbs, all joined by coordinating conjunctions. Despite its length, it remains a simple sentence because it contains only one independent clause.

Examples:

- The students and the teacher discussed and solved the problem.
- My brother and my cousin study and work in the same city.
- The wind and the rain damaged and destroyed several houses.

2.2 Compound Sentences

A compound sentence consists of two or more independent clauses (simple sentences) that are equal in importance and are joined together by a coordinating conjunction - **for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so** (FANBOYS) or by appropriate punctuation such as a semicolon (Lunsford, 2009; Hogue, 2007; Joshi, 2014; Quirk et al., 1985).

Each independent clause in a compound sentence can stand alone as a complete sentence; however, when combined, they form a single compound structure.

Examples

Two independent clauses

- Sara is preparing for her final exam. (S1)
- She has little free time this month. (S2)

Compound sentence :

- Sara is preparing for her final exam, **so** she has little free time this month.

Three independent clauses

- The students wanted to relax after class. (S1)
- They went to the café. (S2)
- They discussed the lesson. (S3)

Compound sentence:

- The students wanted to relax after class, **so** they went to the café, **and** they discussed the lesson.

Contrast using *but*

- The task seemed difficult. (S1)
- The group completed it successfully. (S2)

Compound sentence :

- The task seemed difficult, **but** the group completed it successfully.

Choice using *or*

- You can submit the assignment today. (S1)
- You can send it by email tomorrow. (S2)

Compound sentence :

- You can submit the assignment today, **or** you can send it by email tomorrow.

Note: When two independent clauses are joined by a coordinating conjunction, a **comma** is placed **before** the conjunction.

- ✓ She studied hard, and she passed the exam.
- ✗ She studied hard and she passed the exam. (Comma missing)

However, **no comma** is used if the second part is **not** an independent clause.

- She studied hard and passed the exam.

2.3 Complex Sentences

A complex sentence consists of one independent (main) clause **and** one or more dependent (subordinate) clauses. The dependent clause cannot stand alone and is grammatically linked to the independent clause, which carries the main idea of the sentence (Lunsford, 2009; Hogue, 2007; Joshi, 2014; Quirk et al., 1985). A complex sentence is formed by joining an independent clause with a dependent clause through a subordinating conjunction or a relative pronoun.

2.3.1. Complex Sentences with Subordinating Conjunctions

Subordinating conjunctions introduce dependent clauses and express relationships such as time, cause, condition, contrast, purpose, or concession (Hogue, 2007).

Common subordinating conjunctions include:

after, although, as, as if, as soon as, because, before, even if, even though, if, in case, once, provided that, since, so that, then, that, though, unless, until, when, whenever, where, wherever, while

Examples :

1. She smiled **when she opened the box.**
 - Independent clause: She smiled
 - Dependent clause: when she opened the box

2. **Because he passed all his tests**, he will graduate in June.
 - Dependent clause: Because he passed all his tests
 - Independent clause: he will graduate in June

3. Phone technology has advanced **since it first appeared on the market.**
 - Independent clause: Phone technology has advanced
 - Dependent clause: since it first appeared on the market

4. **Although he did not have enough money**, he bought a new car.
 - Dependent clause: Although he did not have enough money
 - Independent clause: he bought a new car

5. Students will succeed **if they study hard.**
 - Independent clause: Students will succeed
 - Dependent clause: if they study hard

2.3.2. Complex Sentences with Relative Clauses

A complex sentence may also include a relative (adjective) clause, which is introduced by a relative pronoun such as *who*, *whom*, *which*, *whose*, or *that*. The relative clause modifies a noun in the independent clause (Joshi, 2014; Huddleston & Pullum, 2005).

Examples

1. Anna enjoyed the present **that was sent by Jane**.

- Independent clause: Anna enjoyed the present
- Relative clause: that was sent by Jane

2. The house **which is painted pink** looks elegant.

- Independent clause: The house looks elegant
- Relative clause: which is painted pink

Note: Subordination reduces the grammatical independence of one clause but does not reduce its importance in meaning; instead, it helps show logical relationships between ideas such as cause, time, or condition (Hogue, 2007).

2.4 Compound–Complex Sentences

A compound–complex sentence is a sentence that contains at least two independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses. It combines the features of compound sentences (coordinating clauses) and complex sentences (subordinating clauses), allowing writers to express multiple ideas and relationships within a single sentence (Joshi, 2014; Lunsford, 2009; Hogue, 2007).

Structure:

- Independent clause + Coordinating conjunction + Independent clause + Subordinating conjunction + Dependent clause (or variations of this order).

Examples

1. Exams are next month, **so** you need to revise your lessons **because** they will be difficult.
 - Independent clause 1: Exams are next month
 - Independent clause 2: you need to revise your lessons
 - Dependent clause: because they will be difficult

2. I usually wake up early **so that** I can watch the sunrise, **but** today I woke up late.
 - Independent clause 1: I usually wake up early
 - Dependent clause: so that I can watch the sunrise
 - Independent clause 2: today I woke up late

3. She was nervous **because** she had never performed on stage before, **and** her friends tried to calm her down.
 - Dependent clause: because she had never performed on stage before
 - Independent clause 1: She was nervous
 - Independent clause 2: her friends tried to calm her down

Exercise One: Spot the subject and the predicate in the following sentences and say if they are simple or complex

- 1- She studied hard and passed the test.
- 2- Both electricity and water are necessary for us.
- 3- Cars and trucks break easily and should be repaired quickly.
- 4- Obama governed the U.S. from 2009 to 2017.
- 5- Either tape or glue is needed for this activity.
- 6- The horse ran out of the field and got into the crowd.
- 7- Feghouli played with West Ham United and then moved to another team.

Exercise Two: Form compound sentences from the sentences below using the appropriate coordinate conjunction.

- 1- Peter should study.
He has final exams.
He plays video games every night.
- 2- Students have to attend the sessions.

They will be excluded.

3- The computer is broken.

I have to repair it.

I have to buy a new one.

4- Susan is on a diet.

She still wants chocolate.

5- The government passed the new law.

Many people were against it.

6- I have got an early flight.

I need to be at the airport at five o'clock.

7- The film was very long.

It was interesting.

8- The university administration built a new library.

It is not large enough.

9- Three soldiers were injured in the terrorist attack.

They are in the hospital.

10- She works in a remote place in the Sahara.

She is well-paid.

She has a comfortable house.

Exercise Three: State how many sentences there are in the following paragraph and study each sentence by mentioning its type (simple/ compound/ complex)

Unusual Vacation

Some people like to relax and do nothing when they take a vacation. Other people like to travel, and others like to have an adventure. Unusual vacations are becoming popular. For example, people go hiking in Nepal or river rafting in Ecuador. Some people spend their vacation learning, and some spend their vacation helping others. A friend of mine likes to help people, so he spent his summer helping to build a school in Bangladesh. After he returned home, he wanted to go back to help build a medical clinic. People may find the local scenery a little boring after climbing volcanoes in Guatemala or riding camels in Egypt.

From: *First Steps in Academic Writing* (Hogue, 2007, p83)

Exercise Four: Transform the following simple sentences into a compound and then complex ones

1. This plan was not practical for me.
2. I was exhausted and could not walk.
3. Good parents burn their lives for their children to live.
4. She got a good mark on the exam but was not satisfied.

Key answers

Exercise One: (Subject – Predicate / Sentence Type)

1. S: **She** / P: **studied hard and passed the test** → **Compound**
2. S: **Both electricity and water** / P: **are necessary for us** → **Simple**
3. S: **Cars and trucks** / P: **break easily and should be repaired quickly** → **Compound**
4. S: **Obama** / P: **governed the U.S. from 2009 to 2017** → **Simple**
5. S: **Either tape or glue** / P: **is needed for this activity** → **Simple**
6. S: **The horse** / P: **ran out of the field and got into the crowd** → **Compound**
7. S: **Feghouli** / P: **played with West Ham United and then moved to another team** → **Compound**

Exercise Two: (Compound Sentences with Coordinate Conjunctions)

1. Peter should study, **for** he has final exams, **but** he plays video games every night.
2. Students have to attend the sessions, **or** they will be excluded.
3. The computer is broken, **so** I have to repair it, **or** I have to buy a new one.
4. Susan is on a diet, **yet** she still wants chocolate.
5. The government passed the new law, **but** many people were against it.
6. I have got an early flight, **so** I need to be at the airport at five o'clock.
7. The film was very long, **but** it was interesting.

8. The university administration built a new library, **but** it is not large enough.
9. Three soldiers were injured in the terrorist attack, **and** they are in the hospital.
10. She works in a remote place in the Sahara, **but** she is well-paid, **and** she has a comfortable house.

Exercise Three: (Paragraph Analysis: Number of Sentences / Type)

1. Some people like to relax and do nothing when they take a vacation. → **Simple**
2. Other people like to travel, and others like to have an adventure. → **Compound**
3. Unusual vacations are becoming popular. → **Simple**
4. For example, people go hiking in Nepal or river rafting in Ecuador. → **Simple**
5. Some people spend their vacation learning, and some spend their vacation helping others.
→ **Compound**
6. A friend of mine likes to help people, so he spent his summer helping to build a school in Bangladesh. → **Compound**
7. After he returned home, he wanted to go back to help build a medical clinic. → **Complex**
8. People may find the local scenery a little boring after climbing volcanoes in Guatemala or ridden camels in Egypt. → **Complex**

Exercise Four : (Transform Simple → Compound → Complex)

1. Simple: This plan was not practical for me.
 - Compound: This plan was not practical for me, **and** I could not use it.
 - Complex: This plan was not practical for me **because** it did not fit my needs.
2. Simple: I was exhausted and could not walk.

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- Compound: I was exhausted, **so** I could not walk.
 - Complex: I could not walk **because** I was exhausted.
3. Simple: Good parents burn their lives for their children to live.
- Compound: Good parents burn their lives, **and** their children live better because of them.
 - Complex: Good parents burn their lives **so that** their children can live better.
4. Simple: She got a good mark on the exam but was not satisfied.
- Compound: She got a good mark on the exam, **but** she was not satisfied.
 - Complex: She was not satisfied **even though** she got a good mark on the exam.

Lesson Six : Sentence Fragments

I. Objectives

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

- Define what a sentence fragment is.
- Differentiate between a complete sentence and a sentence fragment.
- Recognize the different types or levels of sentence fragments.
- Identify sentence fragments in writing.
- Correct and revise sentence fragments to form complete sentences.

II. Content

1. Definition of Fragment
2. Levels of Sentence Fragments
 - 2.1. Fragments at the Phrase Level
 - 2.2 Fragments at the Clause Level
 - 2.3 Fragments at the Sentence Level

1. Definition of a Fragment

The term fragment refers to a part of something. A sentence fragment is a group of words that is punctuated as a complete sentence but is incomplete grammatically because it lacks one or more essential elements, such as a subject, a predicate, or a complete thought (Oshima & Hogue, 2006; Hogue, 2007; Lunsford, 2009).

Sentence fragments are considered errors in writing, as they fail to express a complete idea.

Examples

1. Before the exam began.
 - This is a fragment because it contains a subordinating conjunction (Before) but no main clause.
2. While walking to school.

- Fragment: the dependent clause does not have an independent clause to complete the thought.
- 3. Because the weather was terrible.
- Fragment: lacks an independent clause explaining the result.
- 4. After the meeting ended.
- Fragment: incomplete thought; we need an independent clause to complete it.
- 5. Running down the street.
- Fragment: missing a subject and a finite verb to form a complete sentence.

2. Levels of Sentence Fragments

Sentence fragments can occur at different levels: phrases, clauses, or sentences. Understanding these levels helps writers identify and correct fragments effectively (Oshima & Hogue, 2006; Hogue, 2007; Lunsford, 2009).

2.1 Fragments at the Phrase Level

Phrase-level fragments occur when a verbal, prepositional, noun, or appositive phrase is punctuated as a sentence but lacks a complete subject, predicate, or both.

A phrase is a group of words acting as a unit but cannot stand alone as a sentence. When it is punctuated as a sentence, it becomes a fragment.

Examples

1. After the meeting ended. (*Prepositional phrase*)
2. A talented musician and singer. (*Noun phrase*)
3. To finish the project on time. (*Infinitive phrase*)

Corrections

1. We discussed the results after the meeting ended.

2. John, a talented musician and singer, won the competition.
3. She worked late to finish the project on time.

2.2 Fragments at the Clause Level

Clause-level fragments occur when a dependent clause or a relative clause is written as a complete sentence. Even though a clause contains a subject and a verb, it cannot stand alone without an independent clause.

A dependent clause expresses a partial thought and must be connected to an independent clause to form a complete sentence.

Examples of Dependent Clause Fragments

1. Because the train was late. (*Subordinating conjunction*)
2. Although she studied hard. (*Subordinating conjunction*)
3. The book that I borrowed from the library. (*Relative clause*)

Corrections

1. Because the train was late, we missed the meeting.
2. Although she studied hard, she did not pass the test.
3. The book that I borrowed from the library is very interesting.

Alternative Correction (by removing the subordinating word):

1. The train was late.
2. She studied hard.
3. I borrowed a book from the library.

2.3 Fragments at the Sentence Level

Sentence-level fragments occur when a sentence lacks a subject, a predicate, or both, or when compound predicates are split incorrectly.

Examples

1. Work from sunrise to sunset. (*Missing subject*)
2. Start next week. (*Missing subject*)
3. My cousins. (*Missing verb*)
4. In the park. (*Missing subject and verb*)
5. They sold their house. And moved into an apartment. (*Compound predicate split incorrectly*)

Corrections

1. She works from sunrise to sunset.
2. Classes will start next week.
3. My cousins are visiting us this weekend.
4. The children are playing in the park.
5. They sold their house and moved into an apartment.

Exercise One: Correct each of the following fragments:

- 1- Syria has been traumatized. Over many years.
- 2- At the podium. Jack stood to present his work.
- 3- From the studio. We could hear her clearly.
- 4- He goes out with his friends. Waiting for his vacation to end.
- 5- Sitting at the back of the classroom. Students keep gossiping about people.
- 6- The Internet which is used by everybody today is not safe.
- 7- Unprepared students who never revise their lessons and cheat in exams will not advance their careers.

Exercise Two: Are the following statements fragments (F) or sentences (S)? Correct each fragment.

- 1- Women who work.
- 2- Nowadays, more women work in traditionally male occupations.
- 3- For example, the field of medicine.
- 4- There are now more women than men in medical school.
- 5- Medical schools, which did not use to accept many women.

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- 6- Men are also working in traditionally female occupations.
- 7- Such as nursing, which used to be a woman's profession.
- 8- More women are applying to engineering schools too.
- 9- I know a young woman who is studying construction management.
- 10- Her dream which is to supervise the construction of bridges and dams.

Exercise Three: Correct each of the following fragments:

- 1- It rained a lot. but they enjoyed themselves.
- 2- She speaks English. And is fluent in French.
- 3- His skills are weak, and his performance average.
- 4- They enjoy studying English. For they love it.
- 5- My father said that he will give me money. Or buy me a new phone.
- 6- Electronic games are funny. But they are very dangerous.
- 7- Reading books is very beneficial. And cultivates the reader's mind.

Key answers

Exercise One: (Correcting Fragments)

1. Syria has been traumatized **over many years.** → *Combine: Syria has been traumatized over many years.*
2. At the podium, Jack stood to present his work.
3. From the studio, we could hear her clearly.
4. He goes out with his friends **while waiting for his vacation to end.**
5. Sitting at the back of the classroom, students keep gossiping about people.
6. The Internet, which is used by everybody today, is not safe.
7. Unprepared students, who never revise their lessons and cheat in exams, will not advance their careers.

Exercise Two: (Fragment = F / Sentence = S)

1. Women who work. → **F** → Correct: Women who work **hard succeed.**
2. Nowadays, more women work in traditionally male occupations. → **S**

3. For example, the field of medicine. → **F** → Correct: For example, the field of medicine **has many women professionals.**
4. There are now more women than men in medical school. → **S**
5. Medical schools, which did not use to accept many women. → **F** → Correct: Medical schools, which did not use to accept many women, **now have equal enrollment.**
6. Men are also working in traditionally female occupations. → **S**
7. Such as nursing, which used to be a woman's profession. → **F** → Correct: Men are working in fields such as nursing, which used to be a woman's profession.
8. More women are applying to engineering schools too. → **S**
9. I know a young woman who is studying construction management. → **S**
10. Her dream, which is to supervise the construction of bridges and dams, → **F** → Correct: Her dream, which is to supervise the construction of bridges and dams, **is coming true.**

Exercise Three: (Correcting Fragments / Combining Sentences)

1. It rained a lot, **but they enjoyed themselves.**
2. She speaks English **and is fluent in French.**
3. His skills are weak, and his performance **is** average.
4. They enjoy studying English, **for they love it.**
5. My father said that he will give me money **or buy me a new phone.**
6. Electronic games are funny, **but they are very dangerous.**
7. Reading books is very beneficial **and cultivates the reader's mind.**

Lesson Seven: Sentence Parallel Structure

I. Objectives

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

- Define parallel structure.
- Distinguish between correctly and incorrectly parallel sentences.
- Describe the different levels of parallel structure.
- Identify sentences with faulty parallelism.
- Revise sentences to achieve correct parallel structure.

II. Content

1. Definition of Sentence Parallel Structure
2. Levels of Parallel Structure
 - 2.1 Parallel Structure at the Word Level
 - 2.2 Parallel Structure at the Phrase Level
 - 2.3 Parallel Structure at the Clause Level

1. Definition of Sentence Parallel Structure

Sentence parallelism, or parallel structure, occurs when similar ideas are expressed using similar grammatical forms. It ensures clarity, balance, and readability in writing (Lunsford, 2009; Oshima & Hogue, 2007). Using parallel structure helps readers easily understand relationships among ideas and improves the rhythm of sentences.

Examples:

▶ ~~She likes reading, writing, and to paint~~ ➡ She likes reading, writing, and painting.

▶ ~~The manager asked the team to analyze the data, prepare a report, and presenting their findings.~~ ➡ The manager asked the team to analyze the data, prepare a report, and present their findings.

2. Levels of Parallel Structure

2.1 Parallelism at the Word Level

Parallel structure at the word level requires that items in a series or list belong to the same grammatical category (e.g., all nouns, all adjectives, or all verbs). Consistency in word class enhances clarity and coherence, whereas mixing word classes results in faulty parallelism (Lunsford, 2009).

Example of faulty parallelism:

- She is a good girl because she is **beautiful** (Adj), **respectful** (Adj), and **tells the truth** (N).
- He enjoys **swimming**, **to run**, and **biking**.

Corrected version:

- She is a good girl because she is **beautiful**, **respectful**, and **truthful**. (All adjectives)
- He enjoys **swimming**, **running**, and **biking**. (All gerunds)

2.2 Parallelism at the Phrase Level

At the phrase level, parallelism requires that items in a series are expressed in the same type of phrase, such as infinitive phrases, gerund phrases, or prepositional phrases. Maintaining uniform phrase types ensures syntactic consistency and readability (Straus, 2006).

Example of faulty parallelism:

- She likes **reading** (Gerund P), **writing** (Gerund P), **traveling** (Gerund P), and **to swim** (Infinitive P).
- He prefers **to hike**, **swimming**, and **to bike**.

Corrected versions :

- She likes **reading, writing, traveling, and swimming**. (All gerunds)
- Or: She likes **to read, to write, to travel, and to swim**. (All infinitives)
- He prefers **to hike, to swim, and to bike**. (All infinitive phrases)

2.3 Parallelism at the Clause Level

Parallel structure at the clause level requires that items in a series are of the same type, such as all independent clauses, all subordinate clauses, or all participial phrases. Maintaining parallelism at this level improves sentence clarity and cohesion (Streicher, 2016).

Example of faulty parallelism:

- The teacher told us **that we should have a test next week** (Subordinate Clause), **that we should revise our lessons** (Subordinate Clause), and **to work seriously** (Phrase).

Corrected version :

- The teacher told us **that we should have a test next week, that we should revise our lessons, and that we should work seriously**. (All subordinate clauses)

Voice consistency example:

- Faulty: The teacher expected that she would find students motivated (active), that they would listen attentively (active), and that questions would be asked by students (passive).
- Correct: The teacher expected that she would find students motivated, that they would listen attentively, and that they would ask questions. (All active voice)

Comparison example:

- Faulty: Students like **skipping** (Gerund P) classes more than **to attend** (Infinitive P) them.

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- Correct: Students like **skipping** classes more than **attending** them. (Both gerunds)
- Or: Students like **to skip** classes more than **to attend** them. (Both infinitives)

Exercise One: Use parallelism to balance the words, phrases, or clauses in the following examples. In each sentence, cross out and replace the word, phrase, and/or clause that does not balance the sentence grammatically.

1. Mary enjoys hiking, bicycling, and to go swimming.
2. While in English class, we learned to read poems critically, to answer questions thoughtfully, and we appreciated literature.
3. By incorporating online resources, by creating a class chat room, and asking students to create and edit informative videos, the class is technology-supported.
4. Michael excelled at clarifying complex points in his essay and used outlines to map those points.
5. The production manager was asked to write his report quickly, thoroughly, and to be accurate.
6. Ashley said she wanted to be a dancer, a singer, and to paint.
7. The teacher's lessons focused on clarifying, illuminating, and how to use parallelism.
8. Students who do not attend class risk suspension and to be expelled.
9. In my spare time, I enjoy reading classical novels and to write thoughtful poetry.
10. Bill spent hours calculating the profits of his company and to record expenses.

Exercise Two: Edit these sentences to create parallel structure

1. Mike likes to listen to rock music and reading mystery novels.
2. Julia is in charge of stocking the shelves, writing orders, and to sell computers.
3. My grandfather's favorite pastime is to eat in trendy restaurants and visiting art galleries.
4. While in France, my nephew spent his time studying French, working in a restaurant, and he jogged along the Seine River every morning.
5. Joan decided to paint her office, to add some new curtains, and that the rug needs dry cleaning.

Exercise Three: Complete the sentences with parallel structure

1. With no job, money or _____, the student had to drop out of school.
2. Because I used a computer to write my research paper, I could easily correct spelling errors, move paragraphs and _____.
3. While I was in college, I worked as a waitress, as a typist, and _____.
4. The professor walked through the door, looked at the students, and _____.
5. I was surprised to learn that, in person, the lead singer of 2PM was warm, friendly and _____.

Exercise Four: Rewrite the sentences and fix non-parallel elements. Combine sentences, if necessary.

1. He was handsome, brave, and the sort of person who would do anything for you.
2. I was afraid of the river. It had a fast current; big waves and it was cold.
3. That high school has many rules. Students need to wear uniforms, arrive before 8am and they cannot bring their Smartphone to school.
4. The room was beautiful, the service was impeccable, and I've never tasted better food in my entire life.
5. Being a nurse is a good career because of the high salary, vacations and schedules.
6. It is dangerous to be living in this world today because of war, unemployment and not enough money.
7. Cooking and eating at home is a good idea for students because it is saves time, money and it is easy to do.

Key answers

Exercise One: (Correcting Parallelism)

1. Mary enjoys hiking, bicycling, and **swimming**.
2. While in English class, we learned **to read poems critically, to answer questions thoughtfully, and to appreciate literature**.

3. By incorporating online resources, by creating a class chat room, and **by asking students to create and edit informative videos**, the class is technology-supported.
4. Michael excelled at **clarifying complex points in his essay and outlining those points**.
5. The production manager was asked to write his report **quickly, thoroughly, and accurately**.
6. Ashley said she wanted to be a dancer, a singer, and **a painter**.
7. The teacher's lessons focused on **clarifying, illuminating, and teaching how to use parallelism**.
8. Students who do not attend class risk **suspension and expulsion**.
9. In my spare time, I enjoy **reading classical novels and writing thoughtful poetry**.
10. Bill spent hours **calculating the profits of his company and recording expenses**.

Exercise Two: (Edit Sentences for Parallel Structure)

1. Mike likes **listening to rock music and reading mystery novels**.
2. Julia is in charge of **stocking the shelves, writing orders, and selling computers**.
3. My grandfather's favorite pastime is **eating in trendy restaurants and visiting art galleries**.
4. While in France, my nephew spent his time **studying French, working in a restaurant, and jogging along the Seine River every morning**.
5. Joan decided **to paint her office, add new curtains, and have the rug dry cleaned**.

Exercise Three: (Complete Sentences with Parallel Structure)

1. With no job, money, or **support**, the student had to drop out of school.
2. Because I used a computer to write my research paper, I could easily **correct spelling errors, move paragraphs, and format citations**.
3. While I was in college, I worked **as a waitress, as a typist, and as a receptionist**.
4. The professor walked through the door, looked at the students, and **began the lecture**.
5. I was surprised to learn that, in person, the lead singer of 2PM was **warm, friendly, and approachable**.

Exercise Four: (Fix Non-Parallel Elements / Combine Sentences)

1. He was **handsome, brave, and selfless**.
2. I was afraid of the river because it **had a fast current, big waves, and cold water**.
3. That high school has many rules: students need to **wear uniforms, arrive before 8am, and cannot bring their smartphones**.
4. The room was beautiful, the service was impeccable, and the food was **delicious**.
5. Being a nurse is a good career because of the **high salary, vacation benefits, and flexible schedules**.
6. It is dangerous to live in this world today because of **war, unemployment, and poverty**.
7. Cooking and eating at home is a good idea for students because it **saves time, saves money, and is easy to do**.

Lessen Eight: Wordiness

I.Objectives

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

- Define wordiness and concision in academic writing.
- Identify the main causes of wordiness in sentences.
- Apply effective strategies to eliminate wordiness and improve sentence clarity.
- Avoid fillers, clichés, and flowery language in academic writing.
- Recognize the importance of concision for clarity and effectiveness in academic writing.

II. Content

1. Definition of Wordiness
2. Concision in Writing
3. Causes of Wordiness
4. Strategies for Eliminating Wordiness
5. Eliminating Fillers and Conversational Language
6. Avoid Clichés and Flowery Language
7. Importance of Concision in Academic Writing

1. Definition of Wordiness

Wordiness is the use of more words than necessary to express an idea, which results in unclear, indirect, or weak sentences. It often distracts the reader and obscures meaning.

Lunsford (2009) defines wordiness as *the use of unnecessary words that weaken clarity and effectiveness*. In academic writing, wordiness reduces precision and makes arguments harder to follow.

2. Concision in Writing

Concision refers to expressing ideas clearly, accurately, and efficiently, using only words that contribute meaning. Concise writing ensures that every word performs a necessary function. Writers should not confuse brevity with concision. A sentence may be short but ineffective if it lacks essential information. As Kierzek and Gibson (1977) note, achieving concision requires asking whether each word “is doing its work and carrying its proper load of meaning” (p. 394).

3. Causes of Wordiness

Wordiness commonly results from:

- Excessive modifiers
- Unnecessary phrases and clauses
- Redundancy
- Passive voice constructions
- Expletive openings (*it is, there are*)
- Fillers and conversational expressions
- Clichés and flowery language
- Verb phrases instead of strong single verbs

These elements lengthen sentences without adding meaning and reduce clarity and precision in academic writing. According to Lunsford (2009), wordiness occurs when writers rely on redundant expressions, empty words, and weak verb constructions that obscure meaning. Hacker and Sommers (2016) note that passive constructions, expletive openings, and unnecessary modifiers often make sentences indirect and difficult to read. Similarly, Strunk and White (2000) argue that unnecessary words weaken sentences and that effective writing requires eliminating all elements that do not serve a clear purpose.

4. Strategies for Eliminating Wordiness

Effective revision involves examining sentence structure and removing unnecessary language. Key strategies include:

- **Using active voice instead of passive voice**
 - *Wordy*: The report was submitted by the auditor.
 - *Concise*: The auditor submitted the report.

- **Eliminating interrupting phrases between subject and verb**
 - *Wordy*: Time management, which is often ignored by students, becomes essential.
 - *Concise*: Often ignored by students, time management becomes essential.

- **Rewording unnecessary infinitive phrases**
 - *Wordy*: The duty of the ambassador is to greet students.
 - *Concise*: The ambassador greets students.

- **Avoiding expletive constructions**
 - *Wordy*: It is the professor who sets the rubric.
 - *Concise*: The professor sets the rubric.

- **Reducing relative clauses to phrases**
 - *Wordy*: The announcement, which was released yesterday, shocked everyone.
 - *Concise*: The announcement released yesterday shocked everyone.

These strategies help writers express ideas more directly and clearly by eliminating unnecessary words and strengthening sentence structure. According to Lunsford (2009), effective revision requires reducing redundancy, replacing weak constructions, and favoring active verbs to improve clarity. Hacker and Sommers (2016) emphasize that eliminating expletive constructions, unnecessary clauses, and passive voice leads to more direct and readable sentences. Likewise, Strunk and White (2000) argue that strong, clear sentences depend on removing all unnecessary words.

5. Eliminating Fillers and Conversational Language

Fillers such as *basically, really, I believe, it has been noted that*, and public-speaking expressions (*well, so, um*) weaken academic tone and reduce clarity because they add length without contributing meaning. Lunsford (2009) explains that empty words and filler expressions create verbal clutter and obscure the writer's message. Similarly, Hacker and

Sommers (2016) argue that conversational language and vague expressions undermine the objectivity and precision required in academic writing.

Academic writing should also avoid vague references to opinions (e.g., *some people think, many believe*) and instead communicate meaning clearly through evidence-based claims and proper citation. According to Swales and Feak (2012), academic writers are expected to support ideas with sources rather than generalizations. Writers should further avoid stating information that is already implied, such as “*tall in height,*” since redundancy weakens clarity and effectiveness (Strunk & White, 2000).

6. Avoid Clichés and Flowery Language

Clichés and overly expressive language reduce precision and credibility in academic writing. Style guides strongly recommend eliminating clichés unless they appear in direct quotations, as they weaken originality and clarity. Strunk and White (2000) emphasize that unnecessary and overused expressions should be removed so that every word contributes meaningfully to the sentence. Excessive adjectives and adverbs often repeat meanings already expressed by nouns or verbs and should therefore be eliminated during revision. According to Lunsford (2009), overwriting through decorative language leads to wordiness and distracts readers from the main idea. Similarly, Hacker and Sommers (2016) note that flowery language dilutes sentence impact and undermines the effectiveness of academic communication.

7. Importance of Concision in Academic Writing

Concision improves clarity, fluency, and precision in academic writing. It strengthens arguments and helps readers understand ideas quickly and accurately.

Strunk and White (2000) emphasize that effective writing requires eliminating unnecessary words so that “every word tell” (p. 23). Concise writing does not eliminate detail; rather, it ensures that all details serve a purpose.

Exercise: Revise the following sentences to eliminate wordiness.

1. Regardless of time of day, whenever anyone called for someone to help in doing some certain thing, Karen was always the very first person to volunteer her precious time and lend her much needed help for the cause at hand.

2. This spirit of cooperation is entirely essential and completely necessary for anyone to have in order to get along with other people and fellow citizens, and this is a particular quality that Christy possessed in amply supply and abundance.

3. Jonathan found his neighbor who happened to live next door to him to be quite possibly one of the most helpful and caring humans that he had ever encountered in his life.

4. Although they were basically several in number at the period of time when the specific research was conducted, the authors that were part of the research team generally felt that they could have quite possibly used several more researchers to fully and adequately complete the study.

5. It is highly unlikely and actually very unusual to find someone who has rarely, or quite possibly never, told a deliberate lie on purpose.

6. Mark was really late to his English class due to the fact that he had to finish his very lengthy math test.

7. According to most measures, the specific subjects that are considered the most important by college students are those subject areas of study that have been shown to be especially useful to them beyond the time following their graduation from colleges and universities.

8. Jake willingly provided a detailed and thorough explanation of the unique problem to his grandfather whose name is Jerry.

9. It is fully expected that the new revised schedule will be announced by the administration within the course of the next few days.

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10. If you go to the store, you will see that the store is closed on Sunday due to the fact that the storeowner likes to go to church.

11. Terrible and unspeakable tragedy might be caused when people willingly and without hesitation disobey rules that have been established by the governing authorities who are in charge for the safety of all people under their jurisdiction.

12. During the period of time when I lived in the great state of Ohio, it was my clear intention to go to college in Texas.

Key answers:

1. Whenever anyone called for help, Karen was always the first to volunteer.

2. Christy had the spirit of cooperation required to get along with people.

3. Jonathan found his neighbor to be helpful and caring.

4. Though several authors researched the topic, they felt more researchers were needed for a thorough study.

5. Finding someone who has never deliberately lied is rare.

6. The long math test made Mark late to English class.

7. College students consider the most important courses to be the ones that prove the most useful after graduation.

8. Jake explained the problem to his grandfather Jerry.

9. Administration is expected to announce the revised schedule in a few days.

10. The store is closed Sundays because the owner goes to church.

11. Tragedy may result when people disobey government rules.

12. When living in Ohio, I intended on going to a Texas college.

Lesson Ten: Punctuation and Capitalization

I. Objectives

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

- Understand the importance of correct punctuation in writing.
- Apply appropriate punctuation marks in sentences and paragraphs.
- Recognize and follow standard capitalization rules.
- Edit sentences and paragraphs by correctly adding punctuation and capitalization.

II. Content

1. Punctuation

1.1 The Importance of Punctuation

1.2 Punctuation Rules

1.2.1 The Period

1.2.2 The Comma

1.2.3 The Question Mark

1.2.4 The Exclamation Point

1.2.5 The Colon

1.2.6 The Semicolon

1.2.7 The Quotation Marks

1.2.8 The Apostrophe

1.2.9 The Parentheses

1.2.10 The Hyphen

2. Capitalization Rules

2.1 Capitalizing Words in Titles

2.2 Capitalizing Words in Sentences

1. Punctuation

1.1 The Importance of Punctuation

Punctuation marks are essential in writing because they clarify meaning, indicate pauses, and help organize ideas. Correct punctuation ensures that the writer's intended meaning is conveyed accurately, while incorrect punctuation can change the meaning of a sentence entirely (Lunsford, 2009; Suliman, Ben-Ahmeida, & Mahalla, 2019).

Examples:

1. Add Cream of Wheat slowly, stirring constantly.

- Correct placement of the comma ensures that the cereal is added slowly, not stirred slowly.

2. Let's eat, kids.

- Without the comma, the sentence suggests eating the children. With the comma, it invites the children to eat.

3. She said she will arrive tomorrow.

- Adding a comma after *said* when introducing a quote: *She said, "I will arrive tomorrow."*

1.2 Punctuation Rules

1.2.1 The Period (.)

The period, also known as the full stop, is primarily used to mark the end of declarative sentences and indirect questions. It is also used in abbreviations and titles (Lunsford, 2009; Straus, 2006).

Uses and examples:

- End of a statement: *The lesson starts at nine o'clock.*
- End of an indirect question: *She asked where the students were.*
- Abbreviations: *Dr., Mr., Prof.*

1.2.2 The Comma (,)

The comma is used to separate elements within a sentence and to signal brief pauses. It plays a crucial role in organizing ideas and preventing misreading (Lunsford, 2009; Strunk & White, 2000).

Uses and examples:

1. Items in a series
 - *The course includes grammar, writing, reading, and speaking.*
2. Introductory elements
 - *After the lecture, students asked questions.*
3. Compound sentences
 - *She studied hard, but she failed the exam.*
4. Appositives
 - *Dr. Bouakaz, the course instructor, explained the rule.*
5. Dates
 - *July 5, 1962, marks Algeria's independence.*

1.2.3 The Question Mark (?)

The question mark is used exclusively at the end of direct questions and is not used with indirect questions (Lunsford, 2009).

Examples:

- Where do you live ?
- Have you completed the assignment?

1.2.4 The Exclamation Point (!)

The exclamation point expresses strong emotion, surprise, or emphasis. However, it should be used sparingly in academic writing to maintain formality (Lunsford, 2009; Straus, 2006).

Examples:

- What an excellent performance !
- Stop immediately!

1.2.5 The Colon (:)

The colon introduces material that explains, illustrates, or amplifies the preceding clause. It must follow a complete independent clause (Streicher, 2016; Straus, 2006).

Uses and examples:

- Introducing a list:

The library offers three services: lending, research assistance, and training.

- Introducing a quotation:

The author concludes: "Practice leads to mastery."

- Explanation:

There is one solution: consistent practice.

1.2.6 The Semicolon (;)

The semicolon connects closely related independent clauses and separates complex list items. It is stronger than a comma but weaker than a period (Lunsford, 2009).

Uses and examples:

- *Related independent clauses:*

Writing is essential; clarity is equally important.

- *Complex lists:*

Students came from Oran, Algeria; Tunis, Tunisia; and Cairo, Egypt.

- *With conjunctive adverbs:*
She was ill; however, she attended the lecture.

1.2.7 Quotation Marks (“...”)

Quotation marks are used to enclose direct speech or exact words taken from another source (Lunsford, 2009; Streicher, 2016).

Examples:

- The teacher said, “Submit your assignments tomorrow.”
- The article states, “Grammar improves clarity.”

1.2.8 Apostrophe (’)

The apostrophe is used to form contractions and to show possession. Misuse of apostrophes is a common grammatical error (Straus, 2006; Lunsford, 2009).

Uses and examples:

- Contractions : *it’s, don’t, they’re*
- Possession: *the student’s book, the teachers’ lounge*

1.2.9 Parentheses (...)

Parentheses enclose additional or nonessential information that supplements the main idea without interrupting sentence structure (Lunsford, 2009).

Examples:

- *The exam (scheduled for Monday) was postponed.*
- *She won the prize (her second this year).*

1.2.10 Hyphen (-)

Hyphens join compound words, while dashes emphasize or set off information within a sentence (Streicher, 2016; Lunsford, 2009).

Examples:

- Hyphen: *well-known author, part-time job*
- Dash: *Grammar — when clearly taught — becomes accessible.*

2. Capitalization Rules

2.1 Capitalizing Words in Titles

In titles, major words such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and pronouns are capitalized, while articles and short prepositions are not, unless they appear at the beginning or end (Straus, 2006).

Examples:

- The History of Modern Art
- A Journey to the Center of the Earth

2.2 Capitalizing Words in Sentences

Capitalization is used for specific grammatical and semantic purposes (Lunsford, 2009).

1. First word of a sentence.

- *Students are preparing for the exam.*

2. Pronoun 'I'.

- *I enjoy reading novels.*

3. Days and months.

- *Monday, March*

4. Names of people and titles.

Written Expression for First Year-LMD Students

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- *Dr. Ahmed, Mrs. Chibani, Prof. Triki*
- 5. Places, countries, continents.
 - *Algiers, London, Africa, Asia*
- 6. Institutions.
 - *Badji Mokhtar University, Rabah Bitat Airport*
- 7. Manmade monuments.
 - *The Pyramids of Giza, the Liberty Statue*
- 8. Languages.
 - *English, French, Arabic*
- 9. Nationalities.
 - *Algerian, American, French*
- 10. Religions.
 - *Christianity, Islam, Judaism*

Exercise: Supply the necessary punctuation and capitalization to the following paragraph

nelson mandela: a brief biography

my name is nelson mandela and i have had an unusual life i have been both a prisoner and a president in my country i was born in 1918 in a small village in south africa my father hennery mandela, was the chief of our tribe as a child i took care of my family s cattle and goats when i grew up i decided to become a lawyer this seemed the good way to help my people after i became a lawyer i became the leader of a group of young africans who wanted to change the system of discrimination in our country because of my political activities i went to prison for twenty seven years the prison was on a cold windy island in the atlantic ocean in the prison I learned afrikaans which is the language of white south africans and i also learnt english in 1990

i was set free i became the president of south africa in 1994 during my time in office i tried to bring peace democracy and prosperity to all of my country s people

From: First Steps in Academic Writing (Hogue, 2007, p. 18).

Key answers

Nelson Mandela: A Brief Biography

My name is Nelson Mandela, and I have had an unusual life. I have been both a prisoner and a president in my country. I was born in 1918 in a small village in South Africa. My father, Hennery Mandela, was the chief of our tribe. As a child, I took care of my family's cattle and goats. When I grew up, I decided to become a lawyer. This seemed the good way to help my people. After I became a lawyer, I became the leader of a group of young Africans who wanted to change the system of discrimination in our country. Because of my political activities, I went to prison for twenty-seven years. The prison was on a cold, windy island in the Atlantic Ocean. In the prison, I learned Afrikaans, which is the language of white South Africans, and I also learned English. In 1990, I was set free. I became the president of South Africa in 1994. During my time in office, I tried to bring peace, democracy, and prosperity to all of my country's people.

**Semester Two: Semester Two: From
Sentence to Paragraph Writing**

Lesson One: Paragraph (Definition and Structure)

I. Objectives

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

- Define what a paragraph is.
- Describe the basic format of a well-structured paragraph.
- Explain the main components of a paragraph.
- Identify the components of a paragraph in written texts.

II. Content

1. Definition of a Paragraph
2. The Shape of a Paragraph
3. Components of the Paragraph

1. Definition of a Paragraph

A paragraph is a group of related sentences that develop a single main idea or topic (Zemach & Rumisek, 2005; Hogue, 2007). It focuses on one topic only, which is introduced, explained, and supported within the paragraph (Day, 2018). All sentences in a paragraph are therefore connected and contribute to the development of the same central idea.

In academic writing, a paragraph functions as a basic unit of meaning, allowing writers to organize their ideas logically and clearly (Hogue, 2007). A well-written paragraph usually consists of at least five sentences, including a topic sentence, supporting sentences, and a concluding sentence, although its length may vary depending on the purpose and context of writing (Zemach & Rumisek, 2005).

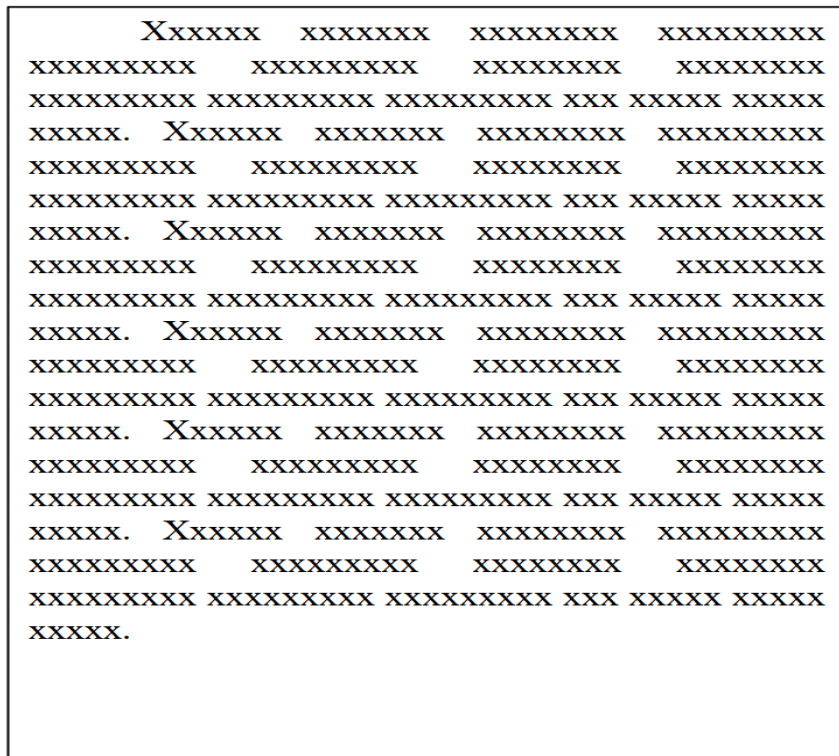
Academic paragraph writing requires mastery of several language skills, such as accurate sentence structure, effective organization, appropriate grammar, and correct punctuation (Hogue, 2007). The main aim of an academic paragraph is to explain ideas clearly, present

information logically, and communicate meaning effectively to the reader, rather than merely expressing personal opinions (Hogue, 2007).

2. The Shape of a Paragraph

A paragraph has a clear and recognizable shape that helps readers identify where a new idea begins. One of the most common features of a paragraph is **indentation**, where the first line of the paragraph is moved slightly to the right. This indentation signals the beginning of a new paragraph and distinguishes it from the previous one (Zemach & Rumisek, 2005). In addition to indentation, a paragraph is usually written as a block of sentences that are closely connected in meaning and appear together on the page. Each paragraph typically begins with a topic sentence, followed by supporting sentences that develop the main idea, and ends with a concluding sentence that completes the thought (Hogue, 2007). Visually, all sentences in a paragraph are aligned on the left margin, except for the indented first line.

In academic writing, maintaining a clear paragraph shape improves readability and organization, making it easier for the reader to follow the writer's ideas (Day, 2018). Consistent formatting, including indentation and spacing, reflects good writing practices and contributes to the overall coherence of a text (Zemach & Rumisek, 2005).



From: Academic Writing: From Paragraph to Essay (Zemach & Rumisek, 2005, p. 12)

3. Components of a Paragraph

A well-structured paragraph enables readers to understand the topic more easily by organizing ideas into clear and logical parts. In academic writing, a paragraph is expected to show unity (one main idea), coherence (logical flow of ideas), and adequate development. For this reason, a paragraph typically consists of three main components: a topic sentence, supporting sentences, and a concluding sentence (Hogue, 2007; Day, 2018).

a) Topic Sentence

The topic sentence is usually the first sentence of the paragraph. It introduces the main idea and clearly states what the paragraph will explain or discuss. This sentence plays a crucial role in guiding the reader and limiting the paragraph to one central idea, which helps avoid irrelevant information (Hogue, 2007).

A good topic sentence is clear, focused, and specific enough to control the content of the paragraph, but not so narrow that it limits development. In some cases, particularly in longer or more complex academic texts, the topic sentence may be preceded by a short introductory or transitional sentence that links the paragraph to the previous one and leads smoothly into the main idea (Day, 2018).

b) Supporting Sentences

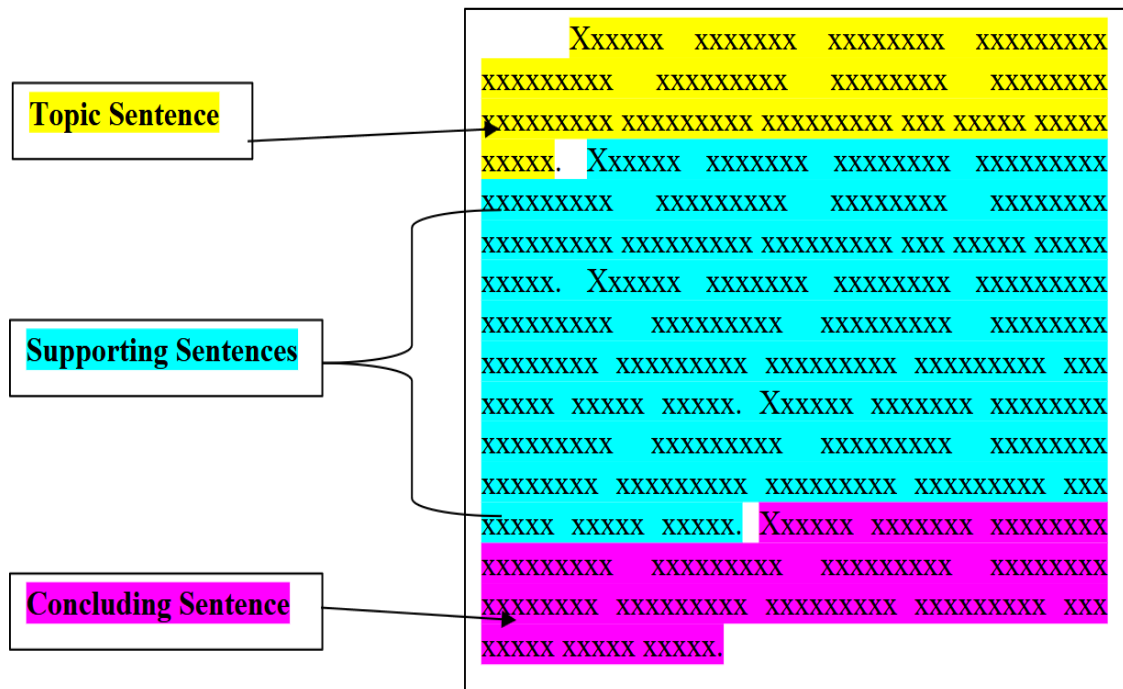
Supporting sentences form the body of the paragraph. Their main function is to explain, develop, and support the idea introduced in the topic sentence by providing relevant details and information (Hogue, 2007). These sentences give the reader reasons to accept or understand the main idea of the paragraph.

Supporting sentences may include definitions, explanations, examples, facts, reasons, evidence, or comparisons. Depending on the type and purpose of the paragraph, they may also describe causes and effects, interpret or evaluate information, or present arguments in a logical order (Day, 2018). To achieve coherence, supporting sentences should be logically organized and connected using appropriate linking words and transitions. Effective supporting sentences ensure both unity and clarity within the paragraph.

c) Concluding Sentence

The concluding sentence is usually the final sentence of the paragraph. Its purpose is to signal the end of the paragraph and to remind the reader of the main idea by restating it in different words or summarizing the key points discussed (Hogue, 2007).

In academic writing, a concluding sentence should not introduce new information. Instead, it may provide a brief comment, result, or implication related to the topic, giving the paragraph a sense of completeness and balance (Day, 2018). A strong concluding sentence helps the paragraph end smoothly and prepares the reader for the next idea.



Exercise One: Find the three components of a paragraph:

Mrs. Robinson

My first-grade teacher was an important person in my life. Her name was Mrs. Robinson. In the schools in my country, children usually learn to print before they learn to write. Mrs. Robinson didn't believe in printing. She thought it was a waste of time. She taught us to write in cursive scripts (like handwriting) from the first day. At first, it was very hard. She made us practice a lot. I remember filling entire pages just with capital Os. At the end of the year, we felt very grown up because we could write in cursive. Mrs. Robinson was important in my life because she taught me a valuable lesson: I can achieve anything by working hard.

From: First Steps in Academic Writing (Hogue, 2007, p. 5)

Exercise Two: Find the three components of a paragraph:

My Best Friend

My best friend, Freddie, has three important qualities. First of all, Freddie is always ready to have fun. Sometimes we play Frisbee in the park. Sometimes we just sit around in my room, listening to music and talking. Well, I talk, and Freddie just listens. Second, he is completely trustworthy. I can tell Freddie my deepest secrets, and he doesn't share them with anyone else. Third, Freddie understands my moods. When I am angry, he tries to make me feel better. When I am sad, he tries to comfort me. When I am happy, he is happy too. To sum up, my best friend is fun to be with, trustworthy, and understanding- even if he is just a dog.

From: First Steps in Academic Writing (Hogue, 2007, p. 5)

Exercise Three: Choose one topic and write a well-structured paragraph including:

✓ **A clear topic sentence**

✓ **At least two supporting sentences**

✓ **A strong concluding sentence**

① **The Benefits of Reading** – Explain why reading is important and how it helps people in different aspects of life.

② **A Person Who Inspires Me** – Write about someone who motivates you and describe how they have influenced your life.

③ **The Advantages of Learning a Second Language** – Discuss why learning another language is useful and beneficial.

④ **The Importance of Healthy Eating** – Explain why eating nutritious food is essential for maintaining a healthy lifestyle.

Key answers

Exercise One: Mrs. Robinson

- **Topic Sentence:** *My first-grade teacher was an important person in my life.*
- **Supporting Sentences:**
 - Her name was Mrs. Robinson.
 - In the schools in my country, children usually learn to print before they learn to write.
 - Mrs. Robinson didn't believe in printing.
 - She thought it was a waste of time.
 - She taught us to write in cursive scripts (like handwriting) from the first day.
 - At first, it was very hard.
 - She made us practice a lot.
 - I remember filling entire pages just with capital Os.
 - At the end of the year, we felt very grown up because we could write in cursive.
- **Concluding Sentence:** *Mrs. Robinson was important in my life because she taught me a valuable lesson: I can achieve anything by working hard.*

Exercise Two: My Best Friend

- **Topic Sentence:** *My best friend, Freddie, has three important qualities.*
- **Supporting Sentences:**
 - First of all, Freddie is always ready to have fun.
 - Sometimes we play Frisbee in the park.
 - Sometimes we just sit around in my room, listening to music and talking.
 - Well, I talk, and Freddie just listens.
 - Second, he is completely trustworthy.
 - I can tell Freddie my deepest secrets, and he doesn't share them with anyone else.
 - Third, Freddie understands my moods.
 - When I am angry, he tries to make me feel better.
 - When I am sad, he tries to comfort me.

- When I am happy, he is happy too.

- **Concluding Sentence:** *To sum up, my best friend is fun to be with, trustworthy, and understanding even if he is just a dog.*

Lesson Two: Paragraphs (Components and Types)

I. Objectives

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

- Identify the different components of a paragraph.
- Distinguish between topic, supporting, and concluding sentences.
- Explain the concept of unity in paragraph writing.
- Use appropriate transitional signals to achieve coherence.
- Organize ideas logically within a paragraph.
- Write effective topic, supporting, and concluding sentences.

II. Content

1. The Topic Sentence
 - 1.1 The Topic Part
 - 1.2 The Controlling Idea Part
2. The Supporting Sentences
 - 2.1 Paragraph Unity
 - 2.2 Transitional Signals
3. The Concluding Sentence
4. Types of Paragraphs

1. The Topic Sentence

The topic sentence usually appears at the beginning of a paragraph and states the main idea or opinion about the topic. It informs the reader about what the paragraph will discuss and sets clear expectations for the information that follows (Zemach & Rumisek, 2005). By presenting the central idea, the topic sentence provides direction and focus to the paragraph. In addition to guiding the reader, the topic sentence also guides the writer by helping determine which details, examples, and explanations should be included and which should be excluded. In this way, it plays a crucial role in maintaining unity, ensuring that all sentences in the paragraph relate to the same central idea (Oshima, Hogue, & Ravitch, 2014).

A topic sentence typically consists of two main parts: the *topic* and the *controlling idea* (Oshima & Hogue, 2006). The topic names the subject of the paragraph, while the controlling idea limits or controls what will be said about the topic. This limitation prevents the paragraph from becoming too broad or unfocused and helps the writer develop the idea clearly and effectively. Furthermore, an effective topic sentence should be clear, specific, and appropriately focused for the purpose of the paragraph. According to Hogue (2007), a strong topic sentence should not be too general, as this may lead to vague development, nor too specific, as this may limit further explanation. In academic writing, topic sentences are essential because they contribute to the logical organization of ideas and help readers follow the writer's argument more easily (Day, 2018).

1.1 The Topic Part

The *topic part* of a topic sentence names the subject of the paragraph; in other words, it tells the reader what the paragraph is about (Oshima & Hogue, 2006). The topic is usually expressed by a noun or a noun phrase and should be general enough to allow development, but not so broad that it becomes unclear (Hogue, 2007).

The topic alone does not give complete information. It only introduces the general subject, which will later be limited by the controlling idea. In academic writing, identifying the topic helps readers quickly recognize the focus of the paragraph (Zemach & Rumisek, 2005).

Examples :

- English (**Topic**) is constantly adding new words.
- English (**Topic**) borrows words from other languages.
- English (**Topic**) is necessary for many different jobs.
- University education (**Topic**) plays an important role in modern society.
- Online learning (**Topic**) has become more common in recent years.

1.2 The Controlling Idea Part

The *controlling idea* tells the reader what the paragraph will say about the topic. It limits the topic by specifying the aspect that will be discussed and excludes all other possible aspects (Oshima & Hogue, 2006). In other words, the controlling idea signals to the reader: *this paragraph will discuss these points and only these points.*

The controlling idea is essential for maintaining unity because all supporting sentences in the paragraph must relate directly to it (Hogue, 2007). Without a clear controlling idea, a paragraph may become unfocused or include irrelevant information (Day, 2018).

Examples:

- English is **constantly adding new words.** (Controlling idea)
- English **borrowes words from other languages.** (Controlling idea)
- English is **necessary for many different jobs.** (Controlling idea)
- University education **prepares students for the job market.** (Controlling idea)
- Online learning **offers flexibility for working students.** (Controlling idea)

In most topic sentences, the topic comes first, followed by the controlling idea. However, the controlling idea may sometimes come before the topic, especially for emphasis or stylistic variation (Oshima & Hogue, 2006).

Examples (Topic first):

- **English** is necessary for many different jobs.
- **Social media** has changed the way people communicate.

Examples (Controlling idea first):

- **Many jobs** require English.
- **Greater flexibility** is offered by online learning.
- **New vocabulary** is constantly added to English.

Both structures are acceptable in academic writing as long as the topic sentence remains clear and focused (Zemach & Rumisek, 2005).

2. The Supporting Sentences

The supporting sentences are the middle sentences of a paragraph. Their main function is to explain, develop, and support the idea introduced in the topic sentence. They provide the reader with reasons, details, and evidence that make the main idea clear and convincing. For this reason, supporting sentences are considered the most substantial part of a paragraph (Hogue, 2007).

Supporting sentences develop the topic sentence by providing explanations, illustrations, information, and examples (Oshima & Hogue, 2006). They may also include definitions, facts, comparisons, causes and effects, or results, depending on the purpose of the paragraph. In academic writing, supporting sentences should be logically organized and clearly connected so that the paragraph is easy to follow (Oshima, Hogue, & Ravitch, 2014).

Example :

- *Topic sentence:* Studying English is beneficial.
- *Supporting sentence:* It helps students access international academic resources.
- *Supporting sentence:* It also improves communication in global workplaces.

2.1 Paragraph Unity

When writing supporting sentences, it is essential to respect the Paragraph Unity Rule. Unity means that a paragraph focuses on one main idea only, and all sentences in the paragraph support that idea (Oshima & Hogue, 2006). Supporting sentences must therefore be relevant, that is, directly related to the topic sentence.

If a sentence does not support or explain the main idea, it should be removed, even if it is interesting. Lack of unity can confuse the reader and weaken the paragraph's effectiveness (Zemach & Rumisek, 2005).

Example :

- *Topic sentence:* Studying English is beneficial.
- *Relevant supporting sentence:* It allows learners to communicate with people from different cultures.
- *Irrelevant supporting sentence:* Studying French is beneficial too.

The last sentence is irrelevant because it introduces a different topic and breaks paragraph unity.

2.2 Transitional Signals

A transitional signal, also called a linking word or connector, is a word or phrase that shows how one idea is related to another (Hogue, 2007). Transitional signals guide the reader through the paragraph by showing the order of ideas, addition of information, contrast, cause and effect, or examples. They play a key role in achieving coherence, which means that ideas flow smoothly from one sentence to the next (Oshima & Hogue, 2006).

Common types of transitional signals include:

- **Listing and order:** first, second, next, finally
- **Addition :** moreover, furthermore, in addition
- **Example:** for example, for instance, such as
- **Contrast:** however, on the other hand, although
- **Cause and effect:** because, therefore, as a result

Example:

Studying English is beneficial. *First*, it helps students understand academic texts. *Moreover*, it increases their chances of finding better jobs. *As a result*, English has become an essential skill in today's world.

Effective use of transitional signals makes supporting sentences clearer and helps readers follow the writer's ideas more easily (Hogue, 2007; Day, 2018).

3. The Concluding Sentence

The concluding sentence is the final sentence of a paragraph. Its primary function is to close the paragraph and signal to the reader that the discussion of the main idea is complete, so no further information is expected (Zemach & Rumisek, 2005). By doing so, the concluding sentence provides a sense of completeness and balance to the paragraph.

In academic writing, the concluding sentence reminds the reader of the main idea discussed in the paragraph by referring back to the topic sentence or the key points developed in the supporting sentences (Oshima, Hogue, & Ravitch, 2014). One common way of achieving this is by restating the topic sentence in different words, which reinforces the central idea without repeating it exactly (Hogue, 2007).

Example :

- *Topic sentence:* My first-grade teacher was an important person in my life.
- *Concluding sentence:* Mrs. Robinson played a significant role in my life because she taught me that hard work can lead to success.

Another function of a concluding sentence is to **summarize the main supporting points** discussed in the paragraph, especially when several details or examples have been provided (Oshima & Hogue, 2006).

Example :

- *Topic sentence:* California is a state with a wide variety of geography.
- *Concluding sentence:* Indeed, California includes mountains, deserts, beaches, and fertile farmland.

It is important to note that a concluding sentence should **never introduce a new idea**. Its role is to bring the paragraph to a clear and logical end, not to add new information that should have been developed earlier (Zemach & Rumisek, 2005).

Conclusion Signals

Conclusion signals are words or phrases that indicate to the reader that the paragraph is ending (Hogue, 2007). They help make the conclusion clearer and smoother. Common conclusion signals include:

In conclusion, in summary, to sum up, in brief, overall, indeed, therefore

Example:

Learning English is important in today’s world. It helps students communicate internationally and access academic resources. *Overall*, English has become an essential tool for education and employment.

The effective use of conclusion signals strengthens paragraph coherence and helps readers follow the writer’s ideas more easily (Day, 2018).

Exercise One: Circle the topic and underline the controlling idea in the following topic sentences.

1. Good roommates have four characteristics.
2. College students take many kinds of tests.
3. Small cars have several advantages.
4. A soccer player must master several skills.
5. Living with parents has certain advantages.
6. Living with parents has certain disadvantages.
7. Patience and hard work are the keys to success.
8. Tokyo has an excellent public transportation system.
9. Tokyo is one of the world’s most expansive cities.

Exercise Two: Read the paragraph, then choose the best topic sentence.

1. First of all, employers want workers to be dependable. This is, they want workers who come to work every day. Second, employers want workers who are responsible. Third, employers look for workers

who can work well with others. The ability to get along with co-workers is important to the success of a business. To summarize, employers look for dependable, responsible team players.

- a) It is difficult to find good employees (workers) these days
- b) Employers look for three main qualities in their employees.
- c) Employers read job applications very carefully

From: *First Steps in Academic Writing* (Hogue, 2007, p. 42)

2. First, living in a foreign country helps you learn another language faster than studying it at school. Second, you can learn directly about the history, geography, and culture of a country. Third, you become a more tolerant person because you experience different ways of living. Fourth, living in a foreign country makes you appreciate your own country better.

- a) Living in a foreign country helps you learn
- b) Everyone should live in a foreign country for a while
- c) Living in a foreign country has four benefits.

From: *First Steps in Academic Writing* (Hogue, 2007, p. 41)

Exercise Three: Add two different controlling ideas to these topics to make complete topics sentences

1. Sports

- Different sports are played at different times of the year.
- Each person has its own favorite sports.

2. Restaurants

- Restaurants differ from each other in specialty and taste.
- There are different menus in each restaurant.

3. Studying English

- It is very difficult to study English.
- There are many benefits of studying English.

4. Msila

- Msila is a very beautiful city.
- Msila has many historical places/ monuments.
- Msila is an ancient city.

Exercise Four: Write concluding sentences for each of the following topic sentences using conclusion signals

1. Good roommates have four characteristics.
2. Small cars have several advantages.
3. A soccer player must master several skills.
4. Living with parents has certain advantages.
5. Living with parents has certain disadvantages.

Exercise Five: Select one of the following topics and write a paragraph in which you include the three components of a paragraph. Use transitional and conclusion signals.

An important person in my life

A memorable event in my life

A place I will never forget

Key answers

Exercise One: Topic / Controlling Idea

1. **Good roommates** have *four characteristics*.
2. **College students** take *many kinds of tests*.
3. **Small cars** have *several advantages*.
4. **A soccer player** must master *several skills*.
5. **Living with parents** has *certain advantages*.
6. **Living with parents** has *certain disadvantages*.
7. **Patience and hard work** are *the keys to success*.
8. **Tokyo** has *an excellent public transportation system*.
9. **Tokyo** is *one of the world's most expansive cities*.

Exercise Two: Best Topic Sentence

1. **Answer: b) Employers look for three main qualities in their employees.**
2. **Answer: c) Living in a foreign country has four benefits.**

Lesson Three: Descriptive Paragraphs

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

- Define a descriptive paragraph.
- Explain the purpose of a descriptive paragraph.
- Identify the main characteristics of a descriptive paragraph.
- Use spatial (space-order) signals appropriately.
- Organize ideas logically in a descriptive paragraph.
- Write a well-structured descriptive paragraph.

II. Content

1. Definition of a Descriptive Paragraph
2. Writing the Topic Sentence of a Descriptive Paragraph
3. Writing the Supporting Sentences of a Descriptive Paragraph
 - 3.1 Space Order Signals
 - 3.2 Organization of a Descriptive Paragraph
4. Writing a Concluding Sentence of a Descriptive Paragraph

1. Definition of a Descriptive Paragraph

A descriptive paragraph creates a “word picture” by describing a person, place, object, or scene in such a way that the reader can imagine it clearly. It appeals to the reader’s senses by explaining how something looks, smells, tastes, sounds, or feels (Hogue, 2007).

Writing a description involves presenting vivid and specific details so that the reader can visualize the subject without actually seeing it (Zemach & Rumisek, 2005). In academic writing, descriptive paragraphs are often used to describe places, objects, or situations clearly and accurately.

Example:

A descriptive paragraph about a classroom should help the reader imagine its size, appearance, and atmosphere.

2. Writing the Topic Sentence of a Descriptive Paragraph

The topic sentence of a descriptive paragraph usually identifies the person, place, or object to be described (Hogue, 2007). The topic part names what is being described, while the controlling idea gives a general impression or overall feeling about it, such as *beautiful, crowded, peaceful, messy, or unpleasant* (Oshima & Hogue, 2006; Oshima, 2007).

The controlling idea guides the description by setting the tone and limiting the details that will follow.

Examples:

- The **classroom** looks extremely **messy and uncomfortable**.
- The **old market** is a **crowded and noisy** place.
- The **library** is a **quiet and relaxing** environment.

3. Writing the Supporting Sentences of a Descriptive Paragraph

In descriptive paragraphs, details and description are the most important elements. Supporting sentences should include a variety of adjectives related to size, shape, color, texture, atmosphere, and feelings in order to create a vivid picture for the reader (Hogue, 2007).

In addition, prepositions of place and spatial expressions are essential for showing how objects or people are arranged in space (Zemach & Rumisek, 2005). To achieve clarity and coherence, ideas must be organized logically by following a clear pattern of space order.

Example:

The classroom looks messy and uncomfortable. The desks are broken and covered with dust. Old papers are scattered on the floor, and the windows are dirty, blocking most of the light.

3.1 Space Order Signals

There are two key principles for writing an effective descriptive paragraph:

1. Use **space order** to organize the description (especially when describing a place).

2. Use **rich descriptive details** to help the reader visualize the scene.

Space order signals show **where things are located** in relation to each other (Oshima, 2007).

Common space order signals include:

- On the right / on the left
- In the center / in the middle
- Next to / beside
- Between
- Above / below / under
- Opposite
- Near
- On one side of / on the other side of (*Adapted from Oshima and Hogue, 2007, p. 62*)

Example:

On the left side of the classroom, there is a broken cupboard. In the center, several desks are placed unevenly. Near the window, a damaged chair lies on the floor.

3.2 Organization of a Descriptive Paragraph

When writing a descriptive paragraph, writers usually follow a spatial organization pattern, which helps maintain clarity and coherence. According to Hogue (2007), descriptive paragraphs may follow different types of space order, such as:

- Top to bottom / bottom to top
- Left to right / right to left
- Near to far / far to near
- Inside to outside / outside to inside

The writer should choose one clear pattern and follow it consistently throughout the paragraph.

4. Writing a Concluding Sentence of a Descriptive Paragraph

The concluding sentence of a descriptive paragraph usually restates the general impression given in the topic sentence and brings the description to a clear end (Hogue, 2007). It may also express the writer's personal feeling or opinion about the subject, without introducing new details.

Examples:

- In short, the classroom gives a depressing and unpleasant impression.
- Overall, the old market is a lively but exhausting place.

Exercise One: Read the following samples of a descriptive paragraph. Then, find the topic sentence and its components, underline the space order used by the writer, and find the concluding sentence.

The Shared Refrigerator

My roommate and I share a refrigerator. My roommate's half of our refrigerator is very neat. On the top shelf is a carton of milk, a pitcher of orange juice, and a bottle of mineral water. These are arranged in a straight line on the shelf. On the next shelf are cans of soda. These are carefully lined up in rows. Orange soda is in the first row, cola in the second, and lemon-lime in the third. On the third shelf, he keeps dairy foods, such as butter, cheese, eggs, and yogurt. On the bottom shelf sit plastic containers of leftovers. These are neatly arranged by size. The large ones are in the back, and the small ones are in the front. There are two drawers at the bottom of the refrigerator. In the drawer, my roommate keeps vegetables and fruit. Each item is in a separate plastic bag in the drawer. In conclusion, my roommate is an organized person, and his half of our refrigerator really reflects his personality.

From: *First Steps in Academic Writing* (Oshima and Hogue, 2007, p. 99)

My Tall Nephew

The first thing you notice about my nephew is that he is extremely tall- nearly two meters, 1.95, to be exact. His head sticks up almost a foot above everyone else's. His hair is short, light brown, and curly. His eyes are blue. His nose is straight, and his mouth curls into a smile easily. His casual clothes are typical of young people everywhere: a T-shirt and jeans. On the front of

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his shirt, you can read the name of his company in red and blue letters. As your eyes move down his long legs, you notice that his jeans are a little too short. Perhaps he cannot buy pants to fit his long legs and narrow waist; or perhaps he does not care much about clothes. On his feet, he wears sneakers. Maybe his sneakers were white when they were new, but now they are gray with age and wear. Despite his casual clothes, my nephew is not a casual person. He stands as tall and straight as a tree, and you think to yourself, “This is a strong and confident young man”.

From: *First Steps in Academic Writing (Oshima and Hogue, 2007, p. 100)*

Exercise Two: Work with a classmate, a small group, or the whole class. Read the following topic sentences for descriptive paragraphs. Then discuss with your partner or group some possible details to describe the place. Next, decide on the best kind of spatial order to use in the description: right to left, left to right, top to bottom, far to near, outside to inside, and so on. Finally, write your details in spatial order on the lines.

1. After my sister spends two hours getting ready to go out, her room looks as if it had been hit by a magnitude 8.5 earthquake.

a. From the doorway, you see nothing but a mountain of clothes all over the floor.

b. _____

c. _____

2. The park near my house is full of activity on a sunny weekend afternoon.

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

3. My uncle's workshop is a model of neatness and organization.

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

From: *Introduction to Academic Writing (Oshima and Hogue, 2007, p. 63-64)*

Key answers

Exercise One: Descriptive Paragraph Analysis

1. The Shared Refrigerator

- **Topic Sentence:** *My roommate and I share a refrigerator.*
- **Space Order Used: Top to bottom** (description moves from top shelf → bottom shelf → drawers).
- **Supporting Details :**
 - Top shelf: milk, orange juice, mineral water in a line.
 - Next shelf: cans of soda in rows (orange soda first row, cola second, lemon-lime third).
 - Third shelf: dairy foods – butter, cheese, eggs, yogurt.
 - Bottom shelf: plastic containers of leftovers arranged by size.
 - Drawers: vegetables and fruit, each in a separate plastic bag.
- **Concluding Sentence:** *In conclusion, my roommate is an organized person, and his half of our refrigerator really reflects his personality.*

2. My Tall Nephew

- **Topic Sentence:** *The first thing you notice about my nephew is that he is extremely tall nearly two meters, 1.95, to be exact.*
- **Space Order Used: Top to bottom** (head → hair → eyes → nose → mouth → casual clothes → long legs → feet).
- **Supporting Details :**
 - Head sticks up a foot above everyone else.
 - Hair: short, light brown, curly. Eyes: blue. Nose: straight. Mouth: smiles easily.
 - Casual clothes: T-shirt with company logo, jeans a little short.
 - Shoes: sneakers, gray with age.

- **Concluding Sentence:** *Despite his casual clothes, my nephew is not a casual person. He stands as tall and straight as a tree, and you think to yourself, “This is a strong and confident young man.”*

Exercise Two: Spatial Order for New Descriptions

1. Sister’s messy room (Topic: After my sister spends two hours getting ready, her room looks as if hit by an earthquake)

- **a. From the doorway:** You see a mountain of clothes all over the floor.
- **b. Near the bed:** Shoes and handbags are scattered; the chair is piled with jackets.
- **c. Desk area:** Makeup and books are spread across the desk and chair.
- **Suggested Spatial Order: Outside → inside / front → back**

2. The Park near my house (full of activity)

- **a. Entrance:** Children run around the playground, people walk dogs.
- **b. Center of park:** Families have picnics on the grass, joggers pass by.
- **c. Far end / pond area:** Ducks swim in the pond, elderly people sit on benches.
- **Suggested Spatial Order: Near → center → far**

3. My uncle's workshop (model of neatness)

- **a. Entrance / front table:** Tools are organized in labeled boxes.
- **b. Workbench:** Equipment neatly arranged, small parts in trays.
- **c. Shelves / back wall:** Materials stacked by type, plans pinned on the wall.
- **Suggested Spatial Order: Front → middle → back**

Lesson Four: Narrative Paragraphs

I. Objectives

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

- Define a narrative paragraph.
- Explain the purpose of a narrative paragraph.
- Identify the main characteristics of a narrative paragraph.
- Recognize and use time-order (chronological) signals appropriately.
- Organize ideas logically to construct a narrative paragraph.
- Write a coherent and well-structured narrative paragraph.

II. Content

1. Definition of a Narrative Paragraph
2. Writing the Topic Sentence of a Narrative Paragraph
3. Writing the Supporting Sentences of a Narrative Paragraph
 - 3.1 Time Order Signals
4. Writing a Concluding Sentence of a Narrative Paragraph

1. Definition of a Narrative Paragraph

A narrative paragraph is a type of paragraph that tells a story or recounts a sequence of events. The events are usually presented in chronological order, that is, in the order in which they occurred. The main purpose of a narrative paragraph is not only to inform the reader about what happened, but also to engage the reader by creating interest and a sense of continuity (Oshima & Hogue, 2007).

Narrative paragraphs often focus on personal experiences, real-life incidents, or imagined events, and they commonly answer questions such as *what happened, when it happened, where it happened, and why it was important.*

Example:

A narrative paragraph may describe a student's first day at university, a memorable trip, or an unexpected event.

2. Writing the Topic Sentence of a Narrative Paragraph

The topic sentence of a narrative paragraph introduces the main idea or point of view of the story. Rather than starting the narration immediately, the topic sentence sets the purpose of the narration and prepares the reader for what will be described. It often reflects the writer's attitude, feeling, or judgment about the event (Oshima & Hogue, 2007).

A good narrative topic sentence includes:

- The **topic** (what the story is about), and
- The **controlling idea** (the writer's main impression or opinion).

Example:

My last birthday party was a complete disaster.

- **Topic:** my last birthday party
- **Controlling idea:** was a complete disaster

Note: In narrative writing, the topic sentence does not present events in detail. Instead, it gives the reader a clear point of view that will be supported by the events described in the paragraph.

3. Writing the Supporting Sentences of a Narrative Paragraph

The supporting sentences develop the story by presenting the events in a logical and chronological order. In a well-organized narrative paragraph, the supporting sentences can be divided into three main parts:

3.1 Beginning of the Story

This part introduces the background information, such as the time, place, and people involved. It helps the reader understand the context of the story.

Example:

On the evening of my birthday, my friends gathered at my house to celebrate.

3.2 Middle of the Story

The middle part describes the main events of the story. It is usually the longest part of the paragraph and includes the most important actions or problems. This section should maintain the reader's interest and show how events developed.

Example:

Soon after the party started, the electricity suddenly went off, and everyone began to panic.

3.3 End of the Story

The final part presents the outcome or result of the events. It explains how the situation ended and may show the writer's reaction or feelings.

Example:

Eventually, the guests left early, and the party ended in complete disappointment.

According to Oshima and Hogue (2007), the clarity of a narrative paragraph largely depends on the effective use of time order signals, which guide the reader smoothly from one event to another.

3.4 Time Order Signals

Time order signals are words or phrases used in narrative paragraphs to show the sequence of events. They help the reader follow the story easily by indicating what happened first, next, later, and finally (Oshima & Hogue, 2007).

Common Time Order Signals

Single-word time order signals:

First, initially, previously, suddenly, eventually, meanwhile, later, finally, ultimately.

Time-order phrases:

At the beginning, at first, in the afternoon, during the evening, that same day, a few minutes later, shortly after that, soon afterward, by the end of the day, in the end.

Sequence and transition phrases:

Afterwards, before long, as soon as that happened, from that moment on, while this was happening, not long after, following this event, up to that point.

Example in context:

First, everything seemed perfect. After a while, unexpected problems began to appear. Finally, the party ended earlier than planned.

4. Writing the Concluding Sentence of a Narrative Paragraph

The concluding sentence brings the narrative paragraph to a logical and satisfying end. It may:

- Restate the main idea of the topic sentence,
- Provide a final comment or reflection, or
- Make a prediction related to the experience.

The concluding sentence should not introduce new events but should instead sum up the significance of the story (Oshima & Hogue, 2007).

Exemples :

- In conclusion, my last birthday party turned out to be the worst experience I have ever had.
- Although the day ended badly, it taught me an important lesson about planning.
- I hope my next birthday celebration will be far more successful.

Exercise One: Read the following sample of a narrative paragraph. Find the topic sentence and its components. What words or phrases show when different actions took place? Divide the supporting sentences into three sections. Find the concluding sentence.

Earthquake!

An unforgettable experience in my life was a magnitude 6.9 earthquake. I was at home with my older sister and younger brother. Suddenly, our apartment started shaking. At first, none of us realized what was happening. Then my sister yelled, "Earthquake! Get under something!" I half-rolled and half-crawled across the room to get under the dining table. My sister also yelled at my little brother to get under his desk. Meanwhile, my sister was on the kitchen floor holding her arms over her head to protect it from falling dishes. The earthquake lasted less than a minute, but it seemed like a year to us. At last, the shaking stopped. For a minute or two, we were too scared to move. Then we tried to call our parents at work, but even our cell phones did not work. Next, we checked the apartment for damage. We felt very lucky, for nothing was broken except a few dishes. To conclude, our first earthquake was an experience that none of us will ever forget.

Adapted from: *Introduction to Academic Writing (Oshima and Hogue, 2007, p.24)*

Exercise Two: Fill in the gaps using the appropriate time order signal from the following list: first, on the night before Thanksgiving, about 3:00 in the afternoon, then, after that, after dinner, in the morning, soon, before taking the first bite, finally.

Thanksgiving

Thanksgiving in the United States is a day for families to be together and enjoy a traditional meal.a.....our mother bakes a pumpkin pie, the traditional Thanksgiving dessert.b..... She gets up early to prepare the other traditional dishes.c..... she makes dressing (a special food for the occasion).d..... she stuffs the turkey with the dressing and puts the turkey into the oven to roast.e..... she prepares the rest of the meal. She cooks all day long.f..... the family sits down at the table.g..... everyone around the table says one thing that they are thankful for.h..... we can begin to eat. We stuff ourselves just as full as Mother stuffed the turkey earlier in the day!i..... we are all groaning because we have eaten too much.j..... we collapse on the living room sofa and watch football games on TV. No one moves for at least two hours.

From: *Introduction to Academic Writing (Oshima and Hogue, 2007, pp.25-26)*

Exercise Three: The following sentences are not in the correct time order. Number the sentences in the correct order.

1.

- She put the clean dishes away.
- She removed the dirty dishes from the table.
- She turned on the dishwasher.
- She put them in the dishwasher.
- She piled them in the sink and rinsed them.
- It was Sarah's turn to wash the dishes last night.
- Finally, the dishes were clean.

2.

- He filled it out and left.
- He went to the bookshelf, but the book was not there.
- Tom went to the library to get a book.
- He went to the computer catalog.

..... The librarian told him to fill out a form.

..... He told the librarian he wanted to reserve that book.

..... He wrote down the title and call number of the book.

From: *Introduction to Academic Writing (Oshima and Hogue, 2007, p.27)*

Key answers

Exercise One: Narrative Paragraph: “Earthquake!”

- **Topic Sentence:** *An unforgettable experience in my life was a magnitude 6.9 earthquake.*

- **Components of Topic Sentence :**

- **Topic:** An unforgettable experience in my life
- **Controlling Idea:** was a magnitude 6.9 earthquake

- **Time order / signal words showing sequence:**

- *Suddenly* → action begins
- *At first* → initial reaction
- *Then* → next action
- *Meanwhile* → simultaneous action
- *At last* → shaking stops
- *For a minute or two* → immediate aftermath
- *Next* → checking for damage

- **Supporting Sentences divided into three sections:**

- **Beginning / earthquake starts:**

I was at home with my older sister and younger brother. Suddenly, our apartment started shaking. At first, none of us realized what was happening. Then my sister yelled, "Earthquake! Get under something!" I half-rolled and half-crawled across the room to get under the dining table. My sister also yelled at my little brother to get under his desk. Meanwhile, my sister was on the kitchen floor holding her arms over her head to protect it from falling dishes.

- **Middle / earthquake during:**

The earthquake lasted less than a minute, but it seemed like a year to us. At last, the shaking stopped. For a minute or two, we were too scared to move.

- **End / aftermath:**

Then we tried to call our parents at work, but even our cell phones did not work. Next, we checked the apartment for damage. We felt very lucky, for nothing was broken except a few dishes.

- **Concluding Sentence:** *To conclude, our first earthquake was an experience that none of us will ever forget.*

Exercise Two: Time Order Signals: Thanksgiving Paragraph

Filled paragraph with correct time order signals:

- On the night before Thanksgiving**, our mother bakes a pumpkin pie, the traditional Thanksgiving dessert.
- In the morning**, she gets up early to prepare the other traditional dishes.
- First**, she makes dressing (a special food for the occasion).
- Then**, she stuffs the turkey with the dressing and puts the turkey into the oven to roast.
- After that**, she prepares the rest of the meal. She cooks all day long.
- After dinner**, the family sits down at the table.
- Before taking the first bite**, everyone around the table says one thing that they are thankful for.
- Soon**, we can begin to eat. We stuff ourselves just as full as Mother stuffed the turkey earlier in the day!
- About 3:00 in the afternoon**, we are all groaning because we have eaten too much.
- Finally**, we collapse on the living room sofa and watch football games on TV. No one moves for at least two hours.

Exercise Three: Correct Time Order of Sentences

1. Dishwashing sequence:

1. It was Sarah's turn to wash the dishes last night.
2. She piled them in the sink and rinsed them.
3. She put them in the dishwasher.
4. She turned on the dishwasher.
5. She removed the dirty dishes from the table. (*or "removed" could come before piling, depending on interpretation; usually removed → piled → dishwasher → turn on*)
6. Finally, the dishes were clean.

2. Library sequence:

1. Tom went to the library to get a book.
2. He went to the computer catalog.
3. He went to the bookshelf, but the book was not there.
4. The librarian told him to fill out a form.
5. He told the librarian he wanted to reserve that book.
6. He wrote down the title and call number of the book.
7. He filled it out and left.

Lesson Five: Comparative Paragraphs

I. Objectives

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

- Define a comparative paragraph.
- Explain the purpose of a comparative paragraph.
- Identify the main characteristics of a comparative paragraph.
- Recognize and use appropriate compare-and-contrast signals.
- Organize ideas effectively to develop a comparative paragraph.
- Write a clear, coherent, and well-structured comparative paragraph.

II. Content

1. Definition of a Comparative Paragraph
2. Writing the Topic Sentence of a Comparative Paragraph
3. Writing the Supporting Sentences of a Comparative Paragraph
 - 3.1 Compare and Contrast Signals
 - 3.2 Organization of a Comparative Paragraph
4. Writing a Concluding Sentence of a Comparative Paragraph

1. Definition of a Comparative Paragraph

Comparison means showing how two or more people, objects, or places are similar, while contrast means showing how they are different (Zemach & Rumisek, 2005). A comparative (comparison–contrast) paragraph is a type of paragraph that examines the similarities, differences, or both between two or more subjects (Oshima & Hogue, 2007).

Although a comparative paragraph may focus on similarities, differences, or both, writers often emphasize differences in order to highlight distinctions clearly and make the comparison more meaningful.

A comparative paragraph may therefore focus on:

- Similarities only
- Differences only
- Both similarities and differences

Example topics :

- Online learning vs. face-to-face learning
- Life in the city vs. life in the countryside
- Samsung phones vs. iPhones

2. Writing the Topic Sentence of a Comparative Paragraph

The topic sentence of a comparative paragraph introduces the two subjects being compared or contrasted and clearly indicates the basis and direction of the comparison. It consists of:

- A topic part, which names the two items under comparison, and
- A controlling idea, which signals whether the paragraph will focus on similarities, differences, or both.

Example :

- The architecture of some modern government buildings is similar to the construction style used hundreds of years ago.

In this example:

- **Topic:** modern government buildings and old buildings
- **Controlling idea:** similarity in construction style

Since the controlling idea emphasizes similarity, the reader expects the paragraph to discuss shared features rather than differences.

examples :

- Living in a city and living in the countryside differ greatly in terms of lifestyle.
- Online education and traditional classroom learning share several important features.

3. Writing the Supporting Sentences of a Comparative Paragraph

The supporting sentences develop the comparison by explaining how the two subjects are similar or different. These sentences usually include:

- **Descriptive adjectives**, often in comparative or superlative forms (e.g., *cheaper, faster, more convenient*), and
- **Compare-and-contrast signals**, which help guide the reader through similarities and differences (Oshima & Hogue, 2007).

Example :

- Samsung phones are generally cheaper than iPhones, whereas iPhones are often considered more user-friendly.

3.1 Compare and Contrast Signals

Compare-and-contrast signals are words and phrases used to show similarities or differences between two subjects. Their correct use improves clarity and coherence in comparative writing.

Comparison signals (show similarities):

Similarly, likewise, also, too, both ... and, not only ... but also, the same as, similar to, as, just as.

Example :

- Both Samsung and iPhone offer high-quality cameras.

Contrast signals (show differences):

In contrast, on the other hand, however, whereas, while, although, even though, unlike, different from, differ in/from.

Example:

- *Samsung phones are more affordable; however, iPhones are more expensive.*

3.2 Organization of a Comparative Paragraph

There are two main ways to organize the supporting sentences in a comparative paragraph:

3.2.1 Block Organization

In block organization, the writer discusses all the points related to the first subject first, followed by all the corresponding points related to the second subject (Zemach & Rumisek, 2005).

Example (Samsung vs. iPhone) :

- **Samsung:** price, camera quality, storage capacity
- **iPhone:** price, camera quality, storage capacity

This organization is suitable when the paragraph focuses mainly on one subject at a time.

3.2.2 Point-by-Point Organization

In point-by-point organization, the writer discusses one point of comparison for both subjects, then moves to the next point, and so on (Zemach & Rumisek, 2005).

Example (Samsung vs. iPhone) :

- Price : Samsung vs. iPhone
- Camera quality: Samsung vs. iPhone
- Storage capacity: Samsung vs. iPhone

This organization is often clearer and more effective, especially when several points of comparison are involved.

4. Writing the Concluding Sentence of a Comparative Paragraph

The concluding sentence of a comparative paragraph brings the discussion to a close. It may:

- Restate the main idea of the paragraph,
- Express an opinion or preference, or
- Make a recommendation based on the comparison (Oshima & Hogue, 2007).

Examples :

- In conclusion, although Samsung and iPhone differ in price and design, they serve the same basic purpose.
- Overall, both smartphones have advantages, but the best choice depends on the user's needs.

Exercise One: Read the following sample of the comparative paragraph. Find the topic sentence and its components. Find the concluding sentence and describe how the author formed it. Which kind of organization is used in the text?

Right Brain Left Brain

The left and right sides of your brain process information in different ways. The left side is logical, rational, linear, and verbal. The right side, on the other hand, processes information intuitively, emotionally, creatively, and visually. Left brains think in words, whereas right brains think in pictures. People who depend more on the left side of their brain are list makers and analysts. They are detailed, careful, and organized. In contrast, right-brained people are visual, intuitive, and sensual. When a left-brained person has to make an important decision, he or she makes a mental list of all the factors involved and arrives at a decision only after careful analysis. When a right-brained person has to make the same decision, on the other hand, he or she is more likely to base it on intuition and feelings. For example, a left-brained automobile

shopper will consider a car's cost, fuel efficiency, and resale value, whereas a right-brained shopper bases a decision on how shiny the chrome is, how soft the seats are, and how smoothly the car drives. Of course, no one is 100 percent left-brained or 100 percent right-brained. Although one side may be stronger, both sides normally work together.

From: *Introduction to Academic Writing (Oshima and Hogue, 2007, p.109)*

Exercise Two: Read the following comparative paragraph and then answer the questions.

Two Varieties of English

Although U.S. English and British English are mutually understandable languages, there are quite a few differences. One difference is spelling. Some words are spelled one way in the United States but spelled another way in Great Britain. A person goes to a British theatre but to a U.S. theater. In U.S. schools, students theorize, analyze and socialize, whereas British students theorise, analyse, and socialise. A second area of difference is vocabulary. For example, the word college names two very different types of schools in the United States and Great Britain – university level in the United States and pre-university level in Great Britain. Also, British university students live in halls on campus and in flats off campus, but U.S. students live in dormitories on campus and in apartments off campus. Finally, there are many differences in pronunciation. In Great Britain, the sound of “a” in the words path, laugh, aunt, plant, and dance is like the “a” in father. In the United States, in contrast, the “a” sound in words is like the “a” in cat. All in all, though there are differences between the English spoken in the United States and the English spoken in the British Isles, we understand each other most of the time!

1. Underline the topic sentence. Does it indicate that the paragraph will discuss mostly similarities or mostly differences?
2. What comparison and contrast signals can you find?
3. What other transition signals can you find?
4. Which kind of organization is used in the text? Block/ point by point.

From: *Introduction to Academic Writing (Oshima and Hogue, 2007, p.114)*

Exercise Three: Write a paragraph comparing and contrasting two school systems.

Follow these five steps:

Step 1: Interview someone who is not from your culture or country about elementary and/or secondary educational systems. Choose one subtopic ("time spent in school" or "curriculum" or "teachers and teaching styles" or "other") and fill in the appropriate section of the chart. Then write a paragraph talking about the similarities and differences you discovered.

Step 2: Organize the ideas by making an outline. Decide whether to organize your topic in a block pattern or in a point-by-point pattern. Write a topic sentence that indicates a comparison/contrast type of paragraph.

Step 3: Write the rough draft. Write ROUGH DRAFT at the top of your paper. Focus on using comparison and contrast signals appropriately.

Step 4: Polish the rough draft. Exchange papers with a classmate and ask him or her to check your rough draft using Peer-Editing Worksheet 7 on page 210. Then discuss the completed worksheet and decide what changes you should make. Write a second draft. Use Self-Editing Worksheet 7 on page 211 to check your second draft for grammar, punctuation, and sentence structure.

Step 5: Write a final copy. Hand in your rough draft, your second draft, your final copy, and the page containing the two editing worksheets. Your teacher may also ask you to hand in your prewriting paper. Limit your paragraph to one subtopic; otherwise, your paragraph will not have unity.

From: *Introduction to Academic Writing (Oshima and Hogue, 2007, p.122)*

Key answers

Exercise One: "Right Brain Left Brain"

- **Topic Sentence**

The left and right sides of your brain process information in different ways.

- **Topic:** The left and right sides of the brain
- **Controlling Idea:** process information in different ways

- **Supporting Sentences:**

- Left side: logical, rational, linear, verbal; think in words; list makers and analysts; detailed, careful, organized.
- Right side: intuitive, emotional, creative, visual; think in pictures; visual, intuitive, sensual.
- Examples of decision-making and car shopping illustrate the differences.

- **Concluding Sentence:**

Of course, no one is 100 percent left-brained or 100 percent right-brained. Although one side may be stronger, both sides normally work together.

- **How the author formed it:** The author summarizes the comparison and contrast, noting that while differences exist, both sides cooperate.

- **Organization Used: Point-by-point**

- The paragraph compares and contrasts each characteristic of left vs right brain one by one.

Exercise Two: “Two Varieties of English”

- **Topic Sentence**

Although U.S. English and British English are mutually understandable languages, there are quite a few differences.

- **It indicates:** The paragraph will discuss **mostly differences** between U.S. and British English.

- **Comparison and Contrast Signals:**

- Although, in contrast, whereas, but, in contrast

- **Other Transition Signals:**

- One difference is..., A second area of difference is..., Finally, For example, All in all
- **Organization Used: Block organization**
 - The paragraph discusses differences category by category (spelling, vocabulary, pronunciation) rather than alternating points between U.S. and British English.

Lesson Six : Argumentative Paragraphs

I. Objectives

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

- Define an argumentative paragraph.
- Explain the purpose of an argumentative paragraph.
- Identify the main characteristics of an argumentative paragraph.
- Distinguish between facts and opinions.
- Use appropriate transitional signals in an argumentative paragraph.
- Write a coherent and well-structured argumentative paragraph.

II. Content

1. Definition of an Argumentative Paragraph
2. Writing the Topic Sentence of an Argumentative Paragraph
3. Writing the Supporting Sentences of an Argumentative Paragraph
 - 3.1 Transitional Signals for Argumentative Paragraphs
4. Writing a Concluding Sentence of an Argumentative Paragraph

1. Definition of an Argumentative Paragraph

An argumentative paragraph is a type of paragraph in which the writer expresses and defends an opinion about a specific topic. It is also referred to as an *opinion paragraph* because the writer clearly states a personal viewpoint and attempts to persuade the reader to accept it (Hogue, 2007).

According to Hogue (2007), there are four key elements of a successful argumentative paragraph:

1. **Stating the opinion clearly** in the topic sentence.
2. **Explaining each reason logically** and in a clear order.
3. **Supporting each reason with facts**, examples, or evidence.

4. **Ending with a strong concluding sentence** that reinforces the writer's opinion and leaves a lasting impression on the reader.

Thus, an effective argumentative paragraph does not merely present an opinion but supports it with logical reasoning and evidence.

2. Writing the Topic Sentence of an Argumentative Paragraph

The topic sentence of an argumentative paragraph introduces the main idea and clearly states the writer's opinion or claim. It gives the reader a general idea of what the paragraph will discuss and indicates whether the writer is arguing *for* or *against* an issue (Hogue, 2007).

Therefore, the topic sentence should be clear, specific, and debatable, meaning that not everyone will necessarily agree with it.

Example:

Social media should be banned for children.

This sentence clearly expresses an opinion and prepares the reader for the supporting arguments that follow.

3. Writing the Supporting Sentences of an Argumentative Paragraph

The supporting sentences develop and justify the opinion stated in the topic sentence. They may include facts, examples, opinions, arguments, and counterarguments, all of which should be organized logically, usually from the least important to the most important point (Hogue, 2007).

In an argumentative paragraph, writers generally support their viewpoints in two main ways:

3.1. Opinions

Opinions are statements that express a person's beliefs, feelings, or thoughts. They are subjective and related to what a person thinks or believes (Hogue, 2007). Since opinions are personal, people may agree or disagree with them (Zemach & Rumisek, 2005).

Example:

Dr. Bouakaz is a good teacher.

This statement reflects a personal judgment rather than a verifiable truth.

3.2. Facts

Facts are statements that are true and can be proven. They are based on evidence and cannot be reasonably disputed (Hogue, 2007). Facts may include statistics, scientific information, historical data, or direct quotations.

Example:

Dr. Bouakaz teaches written expression.

This statement can be verified and is therefore a fact.

Note:

When writing an argumentative paragraph, opinions can be used as reasons; however, the paragraph becomes stronger and more convincing when opinions are supported by facts and evidence.

4. Transitional Signals for Argumentative Paragraphs

In argumentative paragraphs, certain words and phrases signal whether an idea is an opinion or a fact. These transitional signals help guide the reader and improve clarity and coherence (Hogue, 2007).

Opinion Signals

In my opinion, in my view, I believe (that), I think (that)

Fact Signals

According to ..., X said that ..., As mentioned in ... As X states ...

Using these signals appropriately helps distinguish personal viewpoints from factual evidence and strengthens the overall argument.

5. Writing a Concluding Sentence of an Argumentative Paragraph

The concluding sentence is the final sentence of an argumentative paragraph. Its main function is to bring the paragraph to a logical and effective close by restating the writer's opinion or by suggesting a solution to the issue discussed. Rather than introducing new ideas, the concluding sentence summarizes the argument and reinforces the writer's position (Zemach & Rumisek, 2005).

In an argumentative paragraph, the concluding sentence may:

- **Remind the reader of the number of reasons** presented in the paragraph,
- **Restate the writer's opinion explicitly**, or
- **Propose a solution or recommendation** related to the argument.

According to Zemach and Rumisek (2005), a strong concluding sentence helps the reader clearly understand the writer's stance and leaves a persuasive final impression.

Examples :

► Opinion-based conclusion

For these four reasons, I believe that Mrs. Kingsley should be given a chance.

► Solution-based conclusion

For these four reasons, the government should ban the consumption of drugs and alcohol and should also provide support for unemployed parents.

Note:

Effective concluding sentences often use summarizing expressions such as for these reasons, in conclusion, *or* therefore. They should clearly reflect the arguments presented in the supporting sentences and avoid adding new information.

Exercise One: Read the following sample of an argumentative paragraph and then answer the questions:

Boy Divorces Parents

Twelve-year-old Gregory Kingsley is in court asking the judge to give him a divorce from his natural mother and father. He wants his foster parents, George and Lizabeth Russ, to adopt him. Gregory's lawyers say that Gregory's natural mother, Rachel Kingsley, has not taken good care of him. They say that she abandoned him because she sent him to live with relatives and foster parents. Gregory has lived for many years as a foster child. Gregory tells the judge that his mother is cold and does not seem to care about him. He says that for many years, his mother sent him no cards, no letters, no charismas gifts, and no birthday presents. "I thought she forgot about me" he says. Other people describe Rachel Kingsley as a person who abuses drugs and alcohol. They say that she spent more time parting than she spent with Gregory and his two younger brothers. They also say that she sometimes hit the children. Gregory says that she had a brown box in the living room filled with marijuana and that alcohol bottles are everywhere in the house. He also says, "We never had enough money, and sometimes we did not have food." Mrs. Kingsley says she tries to be a good mother. She says she had to send Gregory away for a while because she did not have enough money to take care of him. At the tile, she did not have a job. Now she has two jobs, and she is living near her parents, who can help her to take care of the children. She thought it would be better for Gregory to live with a foster family while she was having financial problems, but she never wanted him to be away from her and his brothers permanently. She says, "I thought that if I worked hard, he would be returned to me." Her lawyer says that Rachel Kingsley's problems were temporary and that she is trying to become a responsible parent. He also says that the rights of a natural family to stay together are

stronger than the rights of a foster family. Her father believes that she has learned from her mistakes and should be given a second chance.

1. Should the judge allow Gregory to divorce his parents?
2. Give four reasons and support each one by referring to the text.

From: *First Steps in Academic Writing (Oshima and Hogue, 2007, p. 147)*

Exercise Two: Write a good argumentative paragraph about one of the following topics

- Exams are not the best way to evaluate students.
- Homework should be reduced for school students.
- University education should be free for everyone.
- Online learning is more effective than face-to-face learning.

Exercise three: Read the following argumentative paragraph and answer the questions

Video Games and Violence

In my opinion, violent video games are harmful to young people. First of all, playing these games can cause changes in the behavior of young people. According to studies by psychologists, frequent players have poorer grades in school. They are also more hostile and act more aggressively toward their teachers and classmates. A second reason that violent video games are harmful to young people is that they make young people less sensitive to violence in the real world. The games make it fun to shoot and kill, and the line between play violence and real violence becomes very thin or disappears entirely. Thirteen-year-old Noah Wilson was stabbed to death by a friend who often played the violent game “Mortal Kombat”. Noah’s mother said, “The boy who stabbed him was acting out the part of Cyrex”, who is a character in the game. A third reason that violent video games are harmful to young people is that they teach players to use violence to solve problems. If classmates tease you, do not try to work it out –bring a gun to school and shoot them. An extreme example of this kind of thinking resulted in the Columbine High School massacre. Two students shot and killed twelve classmates, a teacher, and themselves at Columbine High School Colorado. The two young killers were fans of the game “Doom” and “Wolfenstein 3D”. To end with, for these three reasons, I feel that

violent video games are harmful to young people and should be controlled - or even better, banned.

1. What is the writer's opinion about violent video games?
2. What phrases does the writer use to introduce his opinion?
3. How many reasons does the writer give for his opinion?
4. What order does the writer use to discuss the reasons?
5. In your opinion, which reason is stronger and why.
6. Analyze the paragraph by finding the following details:
 - a) Topic sentence and its components
 - b) Supporting sentences and divide them into reasons and their details (why)
 - c) Find facts and opinions.
 - d) The concluding sentence (is it an opinion or a solution).

From: *First Steps in Academic Writing* (Hogue, 2007, p. 150)

Key answers

Exercise One: Gregory Kingsley Case

1. Should the judge allow Gregory to divorce his parents?

- This is debatable, but based on the text, the judge may **consider allowing it temporarily** because Gregory's natural mother showed neglect in the past, although she claims she is now responsible.

2. Four reasons (with textual support):

1. **Neglect by mother:** "Gregory tells the judge that his mother is cold and does not seem to care about him."
2. **Lack of communication and gifts:** "For many years, his mother sent him no cards, no letters, no Christmas gifts, and no birthday presents."
3. **Abuse and unsafe environment:** "Other people describe Rachel Kingsley as a person who abuses drugs and alcohol... she sometimes hit the children... a brown box... filled with marijuana and alcohol bottles are everywhere in the house."

4. **Financial instability in the past:** “She had to send Gregory away for a while because she did not have enough money... At the time, she did not have a job.”
- **Counterargument:** She is trying to improve and wants him back: “Her lawyer says... the rights of a natural family to stay together are stronger than the rights of a foster family.”

Exercise Two: Example Paragraph

Topic: University education should be free for everyone

Sample Paragraph:

University education should be free for everyone because it ensures equal opportunities, promotes economic growth, and reduces social inequality. First, when education is free, students from low-income families can access higher learning without financial barriers. This allows talented individuals to succeed regardless of their background. Second, free education produces a more skilled workforce, which benefits the economy. Countries with highly educated citizens are more innovative and productive. Third, it reduces social inequality by allowing everyone to compete on a level playing field. In conclusion, providing free university education helps individuals achieve their potential and benefits society as a whole.

Exercise Three: Video Games and Violence

1. Writer’s opinion :

- Violent video games are harmful to young people and should be controlled or banned.

2. Phrases used to introduce opinion:

- “In my opinion,”
- “To end with, for these three reasons, I feel that...”

3. Number of reasons given:

- Three reasons

4. Order used to discuss reasons:

- **Logical order / Cause-effect order**
 1. Changes behavior and poor grades
 2. Desensitizes to real-world violence
 3. Teaches violence as problem-solving

5. Strongest reason (opinion-based):

- Reason 3: “They teach players to use violence to solve problems.”
 - Strongest because it links video games directly to extreme real-life consequences (e.g., Columbine massacre).

6. Paragraph Analysis:

- **a) Topic sentence and components:**
 - *Topic:* Violent video games
 - *Controlling idea / opinion:* are harmful to young people
- **b) Supporting sentences (reasons & details):**
 - Reason 1: Changes behavior – “frequent players have poorer grades... act more aggressively...”
 - Reason 2: Desensitization – “make young people less sensitive to violence... fun to shoot and kill...”
 - Reason 3: Promotes violent problem-solving – “If classmates tease you... bring a gun to school...”
- **c) Facts vs opinions:**

- *Facts*: “Thirteen-year-old Noah Wilson was stabbed...”; “Two students shot and killed twelve classmates...”
 - *Opinions*: “violent video games are harmful... should be controlled or banned”
- **d) Concluding sentence:**
 - *Sentence*: “To end with, for these three reasons, I feel that violent video games are harmful to young people and should be controlled – or even better, banned.”
 - *Type*: Opinion + suggested solution

Lesson Seven: Basic Essay Structure

I.Objectives

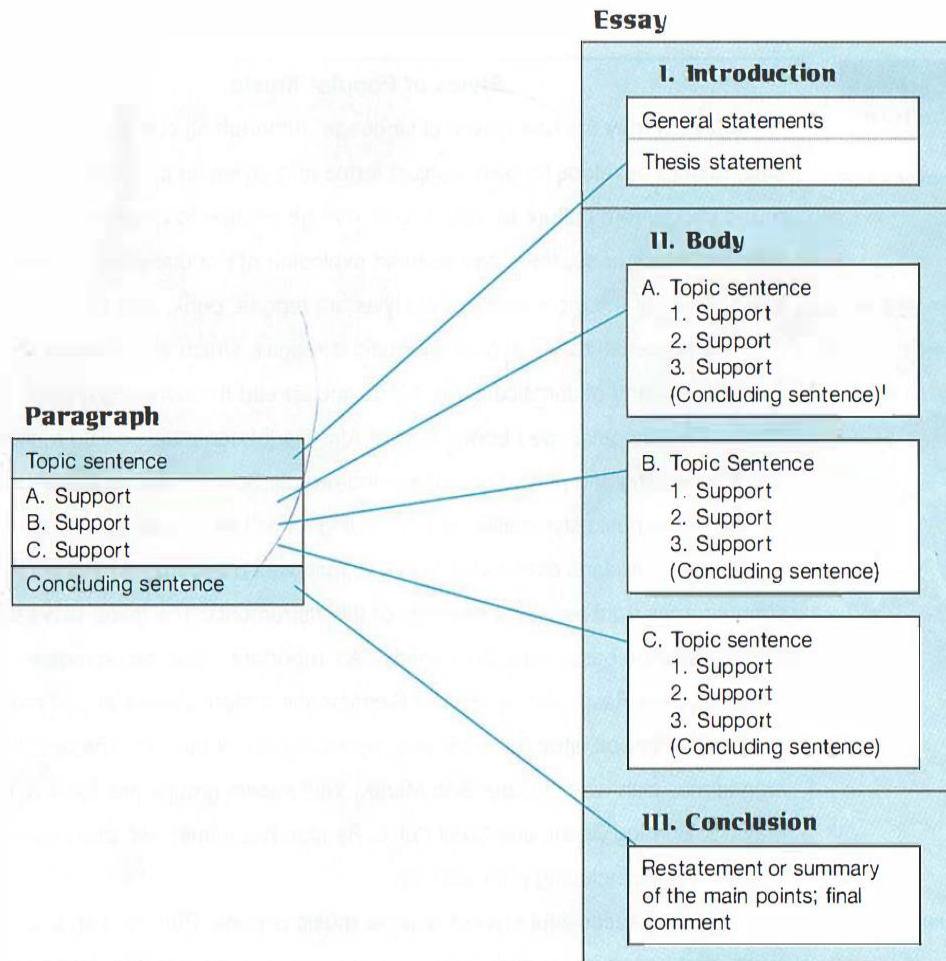
- Identify and write general statements and a thesis statement.
- Identify and construct topic sentences, supporting details, and concluding sentences.
- Summarize main points and write a final comment.
- Recognize and use transition signals for coherence.
- Create an organized essay outline with introduction, body, and conclusion.

II. Content

- 1.The structure of an Essay
 - 1.1. The Introductory Paragraph
 - 1.2. Body Paragraphs
 - 1.3. The Concluding Paragraph
- 2.Transitions Between Paragraphs
- 3.Essay Outlining

1.The Structure of an Essay

An essay typically consists of three main parts: the introduction, the body, and the conclusion. The introduction begins with general statements that provide context for the topic and leads to the thesis statement, which presents the essay's specific focus. The body is made up of several paragraphs, each centered on a topic sentence that introduces a key point. Each topic sentence is supported by multiple supporting details or evidence, and the paragraph often ends with a concluding sentence that reinforces the main idea. For example, a body paragraph may present a topic sentence followed by three supporting points and conclude with a summary statement. Subsequent paragraphs follow the same structure, each developing a separate aspect of the topic. The conclusion wraps up the essay by restating or summarizing the main points and may include a final comment to leave a lasting impression on the reader (Oshima and Hogue, 2006, p.148). The following diagram shows the three parts of an essay



From: *Writing Academic English (Oshima and Hogue, 2006, p.147)*

1.1. The Introductory Paragraph

The introductory paragraph is the first paragraph of an essay and serves two main purposes: (1) to capture the reader's interest and (2) to introduce the topic of the essay. It typically begins with general statements that provide background information and gradually focus on the specific topic of the essay. These general statements help the reader understand the context and significance of the topic. The paragraph usually ends with a thesis statement, which is the most important sentence of the introduction. The thesis statement clearly presents the main topic of the essay, may outline the key subtopics that will be discussed, and can indicate the method or approach used to organize the essay (Oshima and Hogue, 2006, p.150).

1.2. Body Paragraphs

The body of an essay consists of one or more paragraphs, each focused on a specific idea. Every body paragraph begins with a topic sentence and is followed by several supporting sentences that provide evidence, examples, or explanations. Some body paragraphs may also include a concluding sentence to summarize the main point. Overall, each paragraph works to support and develop the essay's thesis statement (Oshima and Hogue, 2006, p.152).

1.3. The Concluding Paragraph

The concluding paragraph is the final paragraph of an essay and serves three main purposes:

- 1- it signals the end of the essay
- 2- it reminds the reader of the main points discussed
- 3- it leaves the reader with your final thoughts or a lasting impression on the topic (Oshima and Hogue, 2006, p.153).

2. Transitions Between Paragraphs

Just as transition signals are important for connecting ideas within a paragraph, they are equally important between paragraphs to show how one idea relates to the next. These signals help the reader understand whether the following paragraph continues the same line of thought, provides additional information, or introduces a contrast or change in direction (Oshima and Hogue, 2006, p.156).

Examples:

"Additional Idea" Transition Signals:

Sentence Connectors	Prepositions
1. Furthermore, . . . Moreover, . . . In addition to (+ noun or gerund) . . . Besides, . . . In addition, . . .	2. Besides (+ noun or gerund) . . . In addition to (+ noun or gerund) . . .
1. Furthermore /In addition /Moreover/Besides, people on fad diets often gain even more weight than they had lost. Besides/In addition to suffering from poor nutrition, people on fad diets often don't lose weight. (The word suffering is a gerund.) 2. Besides/In addition to not losing weight, people on fad diets often gain even more weight than they had lost.	

Adapted from (Oshima and Hogue, 2006, p.157).

"Opposite Idea" Transition Signals

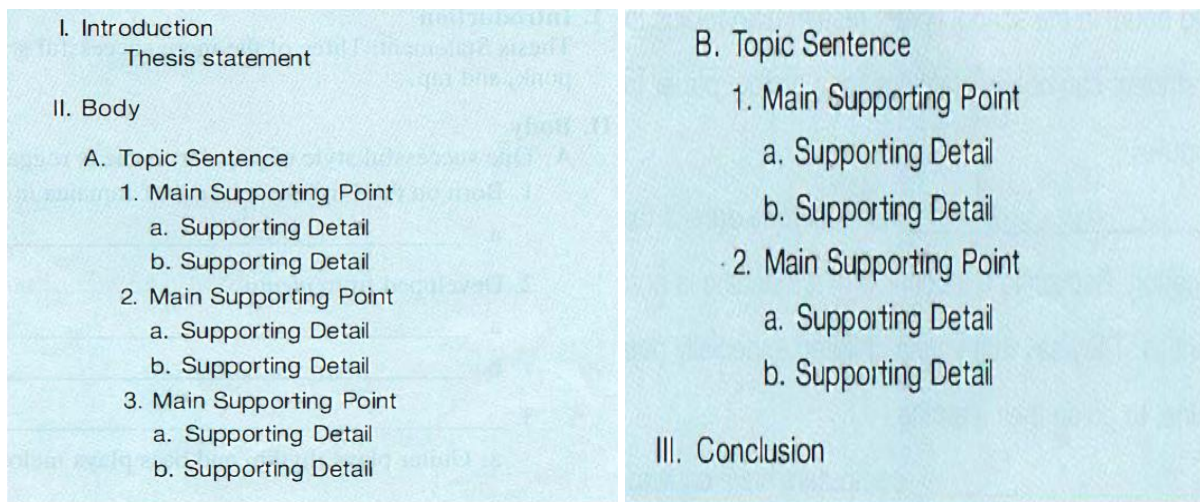
Sentence Connectors	Subordinators	Prepositions
1. On the other hand, . . . However, . . .	2. Although . . . Even though . . .	3. Despite . . . In spite of . . .
1. On the other hand/ However, people who want to lose weight can succeed. 2. Although/Even though fad diets do not work, there are other diets that do. 3. Despite/ In spite of many attempts to lose weight, I am still overweight. Despite/In spite of dieting for several years, I am still overweight.		

Adapted from (Oshima and Hogue, 2006, p.157).

3. Essay Outlining

Creating an outline is especially important when planning an essay, as it helps organize multiple ideas and details clearly. For example, an outline for an essay with two body paragraphs might look like this:

1. The introduction, body, and conclusion are numbered using Roman numerals: I, II, and III.
2. The topic sentence of each body paragraph is labeled with a capital letter: A, B, C, and so on.
3. Each main supporting point is numbered using Arabic numerals: 1, 2, 3, and so on.
4. Each supporting detail is labeled with a lowercase letter: a, b, c, and so on.
5. Each time the outline moves from a Roman numeral to a capital letter to an Arabic numeral, the text is indented. Indenting visually shows the hierarchy of ideas, making it easier to distinguish main points from specific details.



Adapted from (Oshima and Hogue, 2006, p.159-160).

Exercise: Write a short essay of 4–5 paragraphs (introduction, 2–3 body paragraphs, conclusion) on one of the following topics:

1. The benefits of reading books.
2. Should students have homework every day?
3. The impact of social media on young people.
4. A memorable experience from your childhood.
5. The importance of learning a foreign language.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Sample Tests and Exams in Written Expression

University: Mohamed Boudief- Msila

Department of: English

Semester: One

Module: Written Expression

Level: First Year

Date:

Student's full name:..... **Group:**

First Test in Written Expression (First Term)

Read the following passage carefully then answer the questions thoroughly

Big Ben is the nickname for the Great Bell of the striking clock at the north end of the Palace of Westminster in London; it is often extended to refer to the clock tower as well. In 2012, it was renamed as Elizabeth Tower. It is the third-tallest free-standing clock tower in the world. It celebrated its 161st anniversary last year. In May 2005, the clock tower briefly saw a shut-down attributable to weather conditions. The idiom of putting a penny on, with the meaning of slowing down, sprang from the fine-tuning of the clock. Above the pendulum is a small stack of penny coins; these are to adjust the time of the clock.

Task One: Find in the text the following (2.5 pts).

1. Three proper nouns,,
3. Three transitive verbs,,
4. Adverb of manner & adverb of frequency
5. One compound noun

Task Two: Complete the table below (02 pts).

Singular		anniversary		fish		Criterion
Plural	pence		Information		bacteria	

Task Three: Put in “in”, “at” or “on” where necessary (02 pts).

1. There was a long queue of people the bus stops.
2. Nicola was wearing a silver ring her little finger.
3. There was an accident the crossroads this morning.
4. I wasn't sure whether I had come to the right office. There was no name the door.
5. There are some beautiful trees the park.
6. You'll find the sports results the back page of the newspaper.
7. I wouldn't like an office job. I couldn't spend the whole day sitting a computer.
8. The man the police are looking for has a scar his right cheek.

Task Four: Give examples of (01 pts)

1. a sentence that contains a collective noun.
.....
.....
2. a sentence with a relative pronoun
.....
.....

“Good Luck”

University: Mohamed Boudief- Msila

Department of: English

Semester: One

Module: Written Expression

Teacher: Dr. BOUAKAZ Amel

Level: First Year

Student's Full Name:..... Group:

First Term Examination in Written Expression

Activity One: Read the following sentences and identify the type of sentence (Declarative, imperative, interrogative, Exclamatory). (05 pts)

1. Please shut the windows and doors.
2. Do you like chocolate pastries?
3. My name is Astrid Gracy.
4. Where are you going?
5. Such a beautiful place!
6. Go and try this new flavour.
7. Today is Monday.
8. Please clean your cupboard today.
9. Turn off all the lights and fans when you leave the room.
10. May I come in ?

Activity Two: Rewrite the below sentences in parallel structure. (06pts)

1. I dislike cleaning and to cook.
 ➡.....
2. I searched in my bag, on the table, and I checked under the sofa.
 ➡.....
3. Surfing, skateboarding and to snowboard require good balance.
 ➡.....
4. He was both angry and he was also shocked.
 ➡.....
5. She wants to get a job, make some money, and she'd like to buy a car.
 ➡.....

6. A good employee should be reliable, work hard, and respectful.

➡.....

Activity Three: Decide which parts of speech are the underlined words (05 pts)

1. You have to believe in yourself if you ever expect to be successful at something.
.....

2. We left for the mountain just before six in the morning.

3. We first went to the store to buy a few things.

4. We had a breakfast at a café near the rail station.

5. My friend wasn't strong enough to lift his heavy rucksack.

Activity Four: Arrange the words in the correct order to form meaningful sentences. (04 pts).

1. Likes / She / to/sing/.
.....

2. The / flies / sky / bird / high / in / the /.
.....

3. Read / every / day / I / books /.
.....

4. Are / colorful / butterflies / Some /.
.....

“Best Wishes”

University: Mohamed Boudief- Msila

Department of: English

Semester: Two

Module: Written Expression

Level: First Year

Date:

Student's full name:..... **Group:**

First Test in Written Expression (Second Term)

Task One: Provide four (4) supporting sentences to have a meaningful paragraph (02pts)

Family is the first and the most basic connection that we make in our lives. First,

1).....

2).....

3).....

Furthermore,4).....

.....Finally, without a family, an individual's identity isn't ever complete.

Task Two: Write a coherent paragraph about 8 to 10 sentences about one of the following topics. (04 pts)

a. Describe a character from a book, movie, or television program.

b. Tell a story about a wonderful trip you made.

.....
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“Good Luck”

University: Mohamed Boudief- Msila

Department of: English

Semester: Two

Module: Written Expression

Teacher: Dr. BOUAKAZ Amel

Level: First Year

Student's Full Name:.....

Group:

Second Term Examinatin in Written Expression

Task One: Relying on what you have learned about punctuation in the types of sentences, supply punctuation, and capitalization whenever necessary (05pts).

1- where have you been all the day

.....

2- ill need two things a tent and a sleeping bag

.....

3- youre my friend my best friend

.....

4- how awful

.....

5- please could you fetch me three apples two pears a peach and a carton of orange juice

.....

Task Two: Add a topic sentence and a concluding sentence to the following paragraph (02 pts).

.....

..... Firstly, look for all the information you need. You should go to the library catalog. Then, look at all the books that might have something on the topic. Often librarian is able to make a suggestion. After that, you must take notes from all the books, articles, and encyclopaedias that you have found.

Next, draw up a plan for your assignment. Finally, write or type your assignment. Be sure to add a bibliography of all the materials you have used before you hand it in.

