



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



Laboratory for the Valorization and Conservation of Arid Ecosystems
"LVCEA"

Faculty of Natural and Life Sciences and Earth Sciences
Department of Biology

Course Handout Intended for LMD Bachelor's Students (L1)

CET2 VERSION Communication & Expression Techniques 2 in English **ENGLISH**

Academic year : 2024 - 2025



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Adress: Ghardaia City, Algeria.

2024
2025

THE CET2 English

V E R S I O N E D I T I O N



DEDICATION

This module, Communication and Expression Techniques, is respectfully dedicated to the first-year students of the Biology Department at the University of Ghardaïa.

It is intended to support and accompany them as they begin their academic journey, helping them build essential communication skills—both written and oral—that are vital for success in the field of biological sciences. Through this material, we hope to empower students to express their ideas, research, and scientific observations with clarity, accuracy, and confidence in English.

This work is also dedicated to the devoted faculty members of the Biology Department who continue to inspire, guide, and shape the next generation of biologists with dedication and passion.

May this handout contribute to the growth of scientific thinking and communication among our students and help strengthen the academic mission of the University of Ghardaïa.



HANDOUT

DAILY SCHEDULE

CET2

METHODOLOGICAL UNITE

CREDIT : 06 |
COEFFICIENT : 04
CODE : UEM 2.1

HOOR VOLUME :
45H00

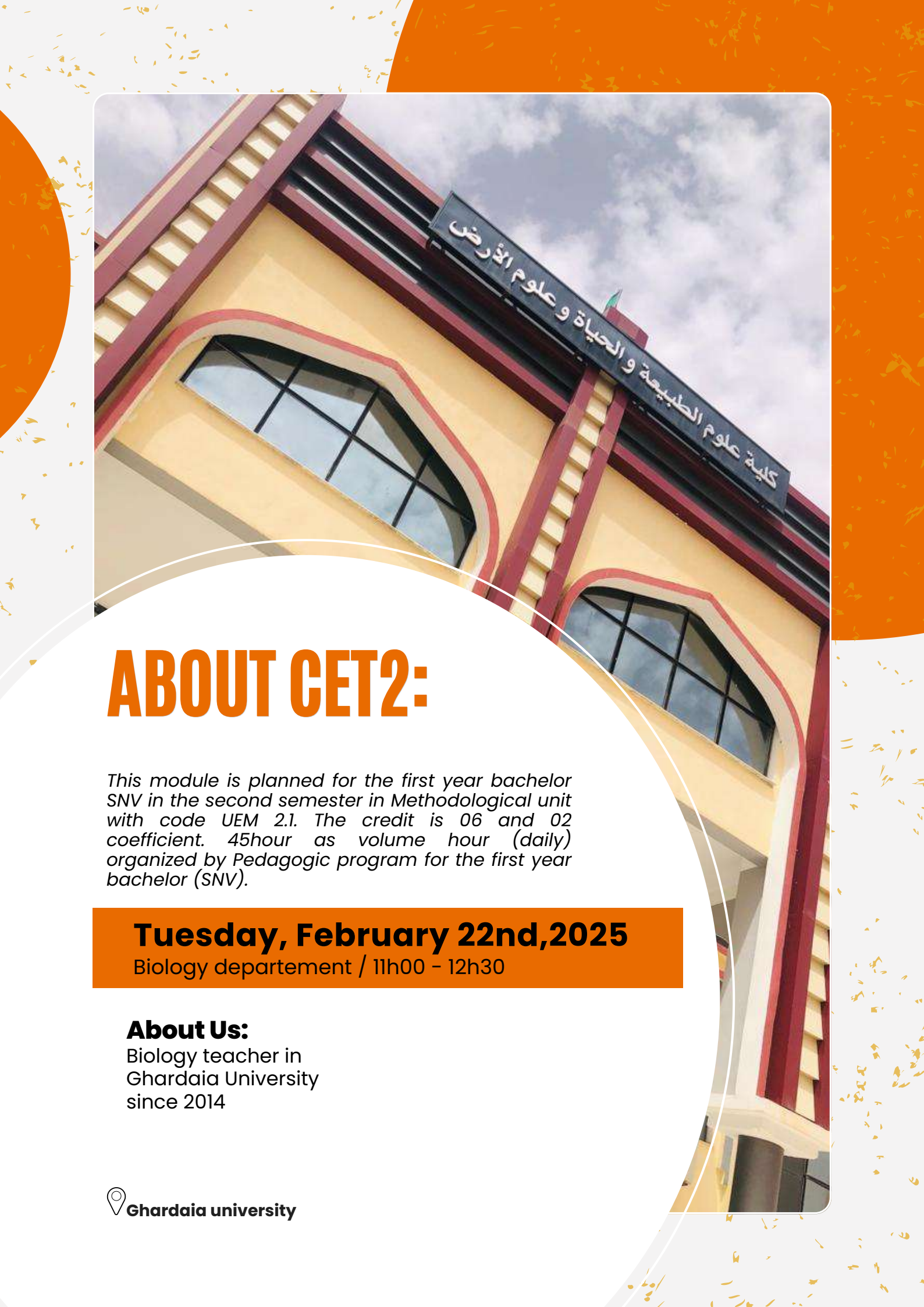
SCHEDULE:
11H - 12H30
AUDITORIUM: A2

2ND SEMESTER

Availability in department:
Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday at 09h00 -12h00.

TRAINER: DR. CHERIF REKIA





ABOUT CET2:

This module is planned for the first year bachelor SNV in the second semester in Methodological unit with code UEM 2.1. The credit is 06 and 02 coefficient. 45hour as volume hour (daily) organized by Pedagogic program for the first year bachelor (SNV).

Tuesday, February 22nd, 2025

Biology departement / 11h00 - 12h30

About Us:

Biology teacher in
Ghardaia University
since 2014



Ghardaia university



_ABOUT LECTURE

This lecture is designed for first-year learners focusing on the rules of writing and communication techniques to be used in the classroom with classmates. The module emphasizes two main axes: written communication and oral communication. Learners will use expressions and various techniques to effectively convey ideas, feelings, messages, and more.

By the end of the year, learners will be able to introduce themselves using words, verbs, concepts, and ideas to share information with their peers. They will also develop their language skills through individual and group activities during sessions, applying conversation rules as practical examples. The overall aim of this lecture is to develop students' communication and expression skills on both personal and professional levels.

_PRIOR KNOWLEDGE

Before starting CET2, learners should be able to understand a text by identifying main and general ideas and the structure of arguments. They should also have mastered the basics of French and English expression, including the ability to recognize and use syntactic and lexical elements of sentences, and possess foundational vocabulary knowledge.

_CONTENT

The Communication and Expression Techniques course consists of seven chapters taught over seven or eight sessions, each lasting 105 minutes per week. The program includes lectures and tutorials (activities), with eight tutorials scheduled weekly, each also lasting 105 minutes.



CHERIF R.

Preface

This handout has been carefully prepared to introduce first-year bachelor students to the essential principles of Communication and Expression Techniques. In today's academic and professional contexts, the ability to express oneself clearly, confidently, and effectively—both in writing and in speech—is a crucial skill to develop from the beginning of university life.

Throughout this course, students will explore the foundational elements of language structure, such as parts of speech, punctuation, capitalization, and grammatical tenses. Special attention is given to academic and scientific terminology, enabling learners to communicate complex ideas with clarity and accuracy. Practical modules on written communication—such as note-taking, summarizing, and preparing academic reports—will help students produce organized and coherent texts. The oral communication section is designed to build confidence through structured presentations, dialogues, and the use of both verbal and non-verbal communication strategies.

This document serves as both a reference and a companion throughout your learning process. It reflects the course's objective of developing active, critical, and articulate students who are prepared to communicate effectively in academic and professional environments.



We hope this handout will contribute meaningfully to your growth as a competent and confident communicator.

08 Sessions &
Tutorials

PLANNING CET2

04 CHAPTERS / 08 LESSONS

- **CHAPTER ONE_**
Terminology Science
- **CHAPTER TWO_**
Analyze Text
- **CHAPTER THREE_**
Written Communication
- **CHAPTER FOUR_**
Oral Communication

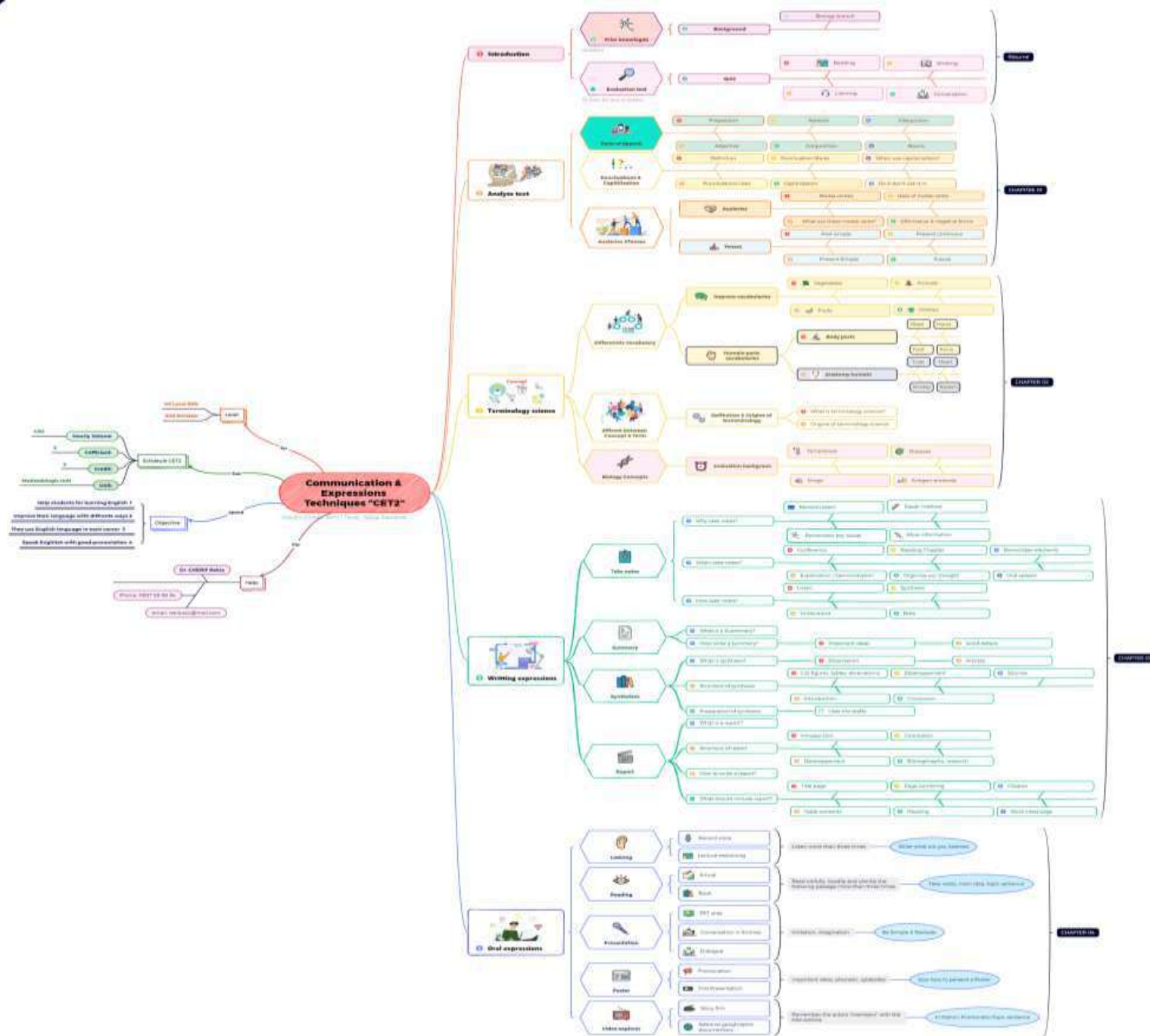


SCHEDULE

- One Tutorial/ week ●
- One Lecture/ week ●
- Quiz / 03 sessions ●
- Test/ 3 Months ●
- Final Exam ●

Programme
23 February – 25 April 2025
2nd Semester





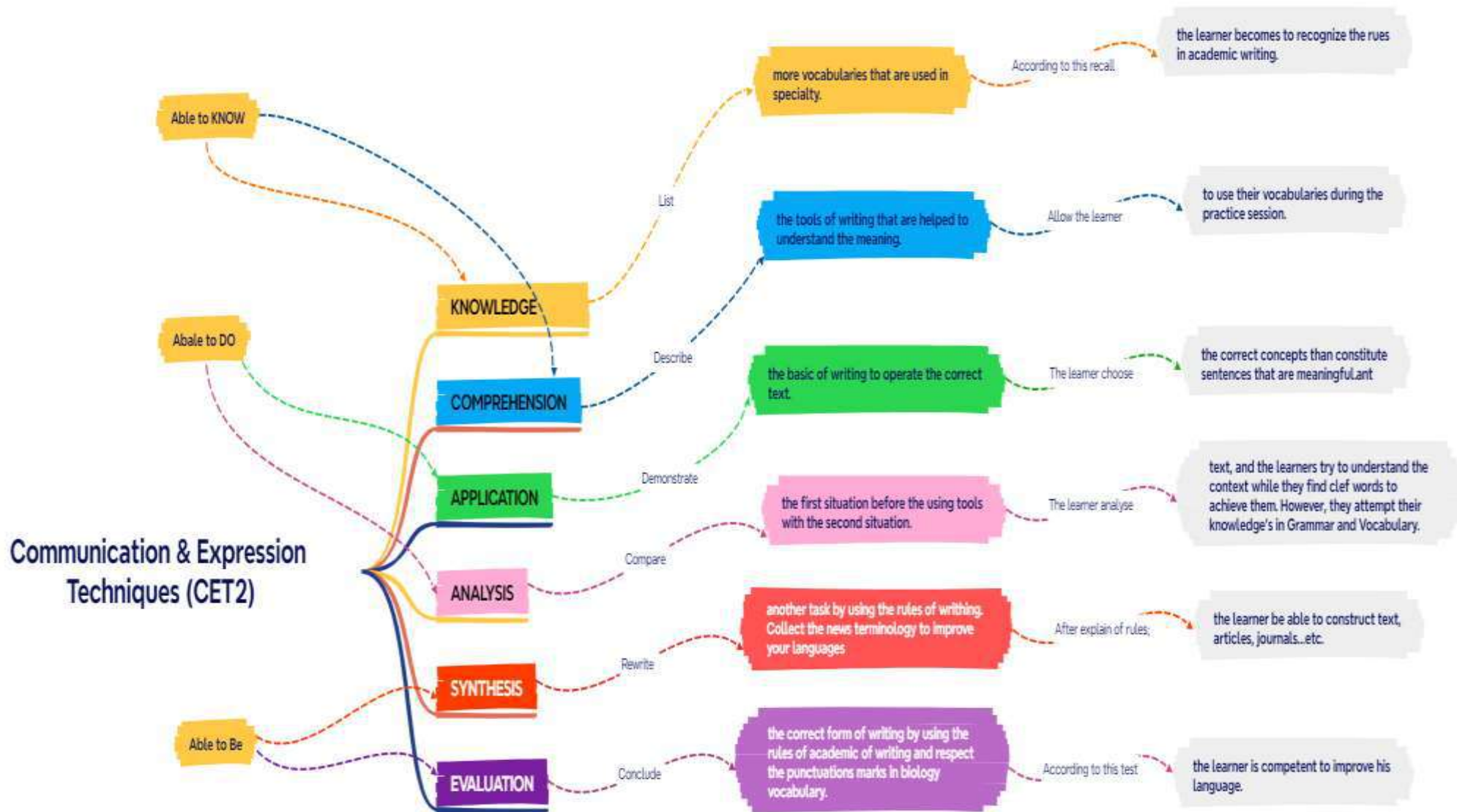
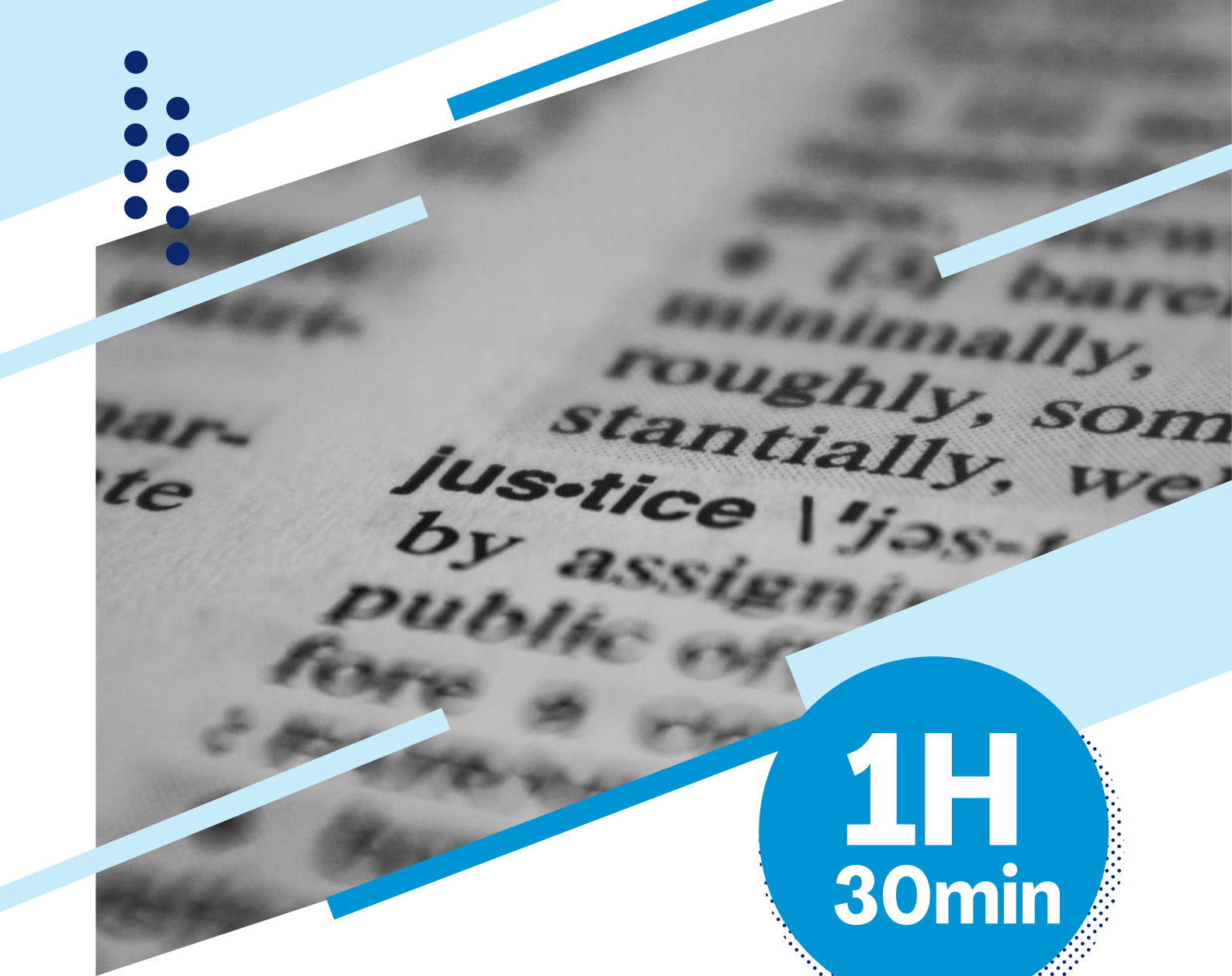


Figure 02: Objectives Articulation of Communication & Expression techniques 2 (CET2)



1H
30min

CHAPTER ONE

TERMINOLOGY

TWO LESSONS INCLUDES

From one session to two sessions



CET2 English
VERSION

Chapter 01_ Terminology Science

Objectives

- Recognize the importance of using correct technical terms;
- Distinguish between general vocabulary and specialized terminology;
- Understand how terms are created, classified, and used in context;
- Begin developing their own **scientific and academic vocabulary bank**.

Mastering terminology is the **first step** toward understanding scientific texts, writing academic reports, and presenting research with accuracy and professionalism.

Lesson 01 – About Biology Science

In every scientific field, language plays a vital role in transmitting knowledge clearly and precisely. To communicate effectively within a discipline, we must use the **specific words and expressions** that are commonly accepted and understood by specialists. This is where **terminology** becomes essential.

Terminology is the study and use of **specialized vocabulary** related to a particular domain of knowledge such as biology, computer science, medicine, linguistics, or law. These terms may have **exact meanings** that differ from their everyday usage (context), and they help ensure **clarity, precision, and consistency** in academic and professional communication.

(Boussouf A.,2025)

1. Definition

Terminology is the study of the selection and use of terms that belong specifically to the vocabulary of a particular specialty or field. Terminology exists in all areas of knowledge, such as computer science, grammar, linguistics, mathematics, philosophy, medicine, music, and more. These terms can also come from everyday language and are documented in various dictionaries maintained by lexicographers.

- **Terminology** refers to a set of specialized words and their meanings within a specific field. It also refers to the study of these terms and how they are used; this study is sometimes called **terminology science**.
- A **term** is a word, compound word, or multi-word expression that, in a specific context, has a precise meaning.
- Terminology is a discipline that systematically studies the **labeling (classification) or definition of concepts** particular to one or more subject areas or human activities.
- Terminology can be **monolingual** (limited to one language), **bilingual**, or **multilingual**, and may focus on interdisciplinary uses across different fields.

Examples of Terms:

- Science: Knowledge gained through observation and experiment.

- **Nature** The physical world—things that can be seen or felt, such as trees, plants, animals, mountains, rivers, etc.
- **Life:** The quality belonging to humans, animals, and plants, distinguishing them from non-living things (rocks, minerals, etc.).
- **Natural Science:** Sciences such as physics, chemistry, or biology that study the physical and natural world or natural events.
- **Life Science:** A field of science dealing with living organisms and life processes.

2. Fundamental Terms Used in Biology.

This section includes some essential terms commonly used in biology and scientific fields. These are fundamental concepts that students should know at the beginning of their studies, as they frequently appear in lectures and scientific discussions.

The tables below contain basic biology terms in **English** and **French** for your reference. For the table01 represent some concepts about composition of cell which are usually used in biology filed. The next table includes some basic sciences with their definition. the third tale present some examples of plant part.



Table 01_ Composition of cell

In French	In English	Phonetic	Terminology
Atome	Atom	/ˈætəm/	<i>An atom is the smallest unit of a chemical element that retains the properties of that element. It consists of a dense nucleus, composed of positively charged protons and neutrons, surrounded by a cloud of negatively charged electrons (Chang, R., & Goldsby, K. A. 2016).</i>
Molécule	Molecule	/ˈmɒlɪˌkjuːl/ or /ˈmɑːlɪˌkjuːl/	A molecule is a group of two or more atoms held together by covalent bonds, forming a stable, electrically neutral unit. (Atkins, P., & de Paula, J. 2006).
Organite	Organelle	/ˌɔːrgəˈneɪl/	An organelle is a membrane-bound subunit within a eukaryotic cell that has a specific function, such as energy production, protein synthesis, or waste processing (Alberts, B. et al. 2014).
Cellule	Cell	/sɛl/	A cell is the smallest unit of life that can replicate independently, and cells are often called the "building blocks of life." (Alberts, B. et al. 2014).
Tissue	Tissue	/ˈtɪʃuː/ or /ˈtɪʃjuː/	A tissue is an ensemble of cells, not necessarily identical, but from the same origin, that together carry out a specific function (Tortora, G. J., & Derrickson, B. 2017).
organe	Organ	/ˌɔːrgən/	An organ is a collection of tissues that structurally form a functional unit specialized to perform a particular function (Tortora, G. J., & Derrickson, B. 2017).
Système humanaire	Body system	/ˈhjuːmən ˈsɪstəm/	A body system is a set of interacting or interdependent organs forming a complex whole that works together to perform one or more functions in the body (Marieb, E. N., & Hoehn, K. 2018).
ADN	DNA	/ˌdiː.enˈeɪ/	DNA is the repository of genetic information. It is composed of two complementary strands of nucleotides wound into a double helix, carrying instructions essential for life (Alberts, B., et al., 2014).
ARN	RNA	/ˌɑːrɛnˈeɪ/ or /ˌɑːrɛnˈeɪ/	RNA is a nucleic acid composed of ribonucleotides (containing the sugar ribose), which plays key roles in coding, decoding, regulation, and expression of genes (Watson, J. D. et al. 2014).
Cytoplasme	Cytoplasm	/ˈsaɪtəˌplæzəm/	The cytoplasm is the part of a cell enclosed within the cell membrane, excluding the nucleus, composed mainly of cytosol, organelles, and inclusions. (Alberts, B. et al. 2014).
Mitochondrie	Mitochondria	/ˌmɪtəˈkɒndrɪə/ or /ˌmɪtəˈkɒndrɪə/	Mitochondria are double-membraned organelles that generate most of the cell's ATP through aerobic respiration and are involved in many other vital processes such as cell signaling and apoptosis (Alberts, B. et al. 2014).

Chloroplaste	Chloroplast	/ˈklɔːrəˌplæst/	A chloroplast is an organelle that contains chlorophyll and is the site of photosynthesis in plant and algal cells (Raven, P. H. et al. 2013).
Noyau	Nucleus	/ˈnuːkliəs/	The nucleus is a membrane-bound organelle that contains the cell's DNA and coordinates activities such as gene expression, growth, and cell division (Alberts, B. et al. 2014).
Nucléole	Nucleolus	/njuːˈkliːələs/ or /ˈnjuːkliələs/	The nucleolus is a non-membrane-bound structure within the nucleus that assembles ribosomal subunits by transcribing and processing ribosomal RNA (Alberts, B. et al. 2014).
Nucléotide	Nucleotide	/ˈnjuːkliəˌtaɪd / or /ˈnuːkliəˌtaɪd/	A nucleotide is an organic molecule composed of a nitrogenous base, a five-carbon sugar (pentose), and one or more phosphate groups. It serves as the structural unit of nucleic acids like DNA and RNA (Alberts, B. et al. 2014).
Ribosomes	Ribosomes	/ˈrɪbəˌsoʊm/	Ribosomes are macromolecular machines composed of ribosomal RNA (rRNA) and proteins that carry out protein synthesis in all living cells (Alberts, B. et al. 2014)..
Membrane plasmique	Plasma membrane	/ˈplæzmə ˈmemˌbreɪn/	The plasma membrane is a selectively permeable phospholipid bilayer embedded with proteins that controls the passage of materials into and out of the cell (Alberts, B. et al. 2014).
Paroi	Cell wall	/sɛl wɔːl/	The cell wall is a tough, often rigid structure that lies outside the cell membrane in plants, fungi, and many microorganisms, providing structural support, protection, and preventing excessive water uptake (Raven, P. H. et al. 2013).
Reticulum endoplasmique L & R	Rough ER	/rʌf ˈendʊˈplæzmɪk rɪˈtɪkjʊləm/	The rough ER is a membrane-bound organelle covered with ribosomes that synthesizes and processes proteins destined for secretion or insertion into membranes (Alberts, B. et al. 2014).
Centrisosome	Centrosome	/ˈsɛntriˌoʊl/	The centrosome is an organelle that serves as the main microtubule-organizing center (MTOC) in animal cells, consisting of two centrioles surrounded by a protein matrix (Alberts, B. et al. 2014).
Gène	Gene	/dʒiːn/	A gene is a sequence of nucleotides in DNA (or RNA in some viruses) that encodes the synthesis of a functional product, typically a protein (Griffiths, A. J. F. et al. 2020).
Cromatide	Chromatid	/ˈkroʊməˌtɪd/	A chromatid is one of the two identical copies of a chromosome that are joined together by a centromere following DNA replication (Alberts, B. et al. 2014).
Chromosome	Chromosome	/ˈkroʊməˌsoʊm/	A chromosome is a thread-like structure composed of DNA and histone proteins, which carries genetic information essential for heredity and cell function (Griffiths, A. J. F. et al. 2020).
Mitose	Mitosis	/maɪˈtoʊsɪs/ or /mɪˈtoʊsɪs/	Mitosis is the part of the eukaryotic cell cycle during which replicated chromosomes are separated into two new nuclei, leading to the formation of two genetically identical daughter cells (Alberts, B. et al. 2014).

Miose	Meiosis	/maɪ'əʊsɪs/	Meiosis is a two-step cell division process that reduces the chromosome number by half and produces four haploid gametes, each genetically distinct from the parent cell (<i>Griffiths, A. J. F. et al. 2020</i>).
Transcription	Transcription	/træns'krɪpʃən/	Transcription is the process by which the genetic information in a DNA sequence is copied into a complementary RNA strand by RNA polymerase (<i>Alberts, B. et al. 2014</i>).
Traduction	Translation	/træns'leɪʃən/	Translation is the process by which the sequence of codons in messenger RNA (mRNA) is read by the ribosome and translated into a specific sequence of amino acids to form a polypeptide (protein) (<i>Alberts, B. et al. 2014</i>).

Table 02_ examples of sciences

In French	In English	Phonetic	Terminology
Biologie	Biology	/baɪ'ɒlədʒi/ or /baɪ'ɑ:lədʒi/	Biology is the branch of natural science concerned with the study of living organisms and life processes, including their physical structure, chemical processes, molecular interactions, physiological mechanisms, development, and evolution (<i>Urry et al., 2017</i>).
Embryologie	Embryology	/,ɛmbri'ɒlədʒi/ or /,ɛmbri'ɑ:lədʒi/	Embryology is the science concerned with the origin, growth, and development of an embryo and fetus, particularly during the early stages of prenatal life (<i>Moore, K.L., Persaud, T.V.N., & Torchia, M.G. 2016</i>).
Physiologie	Physiology	/,fɪzi'ɒlədʒi/ or /,fɪzi'ɑ:lədʒi/	Physiology is the scientific study of the functions and mechanisms in a living system. It explains how organisms, organ systems, organs, cells, and biomolecules carry out chemical and physical functions in a living body (<i>Guyton & Hall 2021</i>).
Anatomie	Anatomy	/ə'nætəmi/	Anatomy is the scientific study of the structure of organisms and their parts, especially as revealed by dissection and observation (<i>Marieb, E.N., & Hoehn, K. 2018</i>).
Astronomie	Astronomy	/ə'strɒnəmi/ or /ə'stra:nəmi/	Astronomy is the scientific study of the universe and its contents beyond Earth's atmosphere, including the observation and explanation of celestial bodies and cosmic

			events (<i>Chaisson, E., & McMillan, S. 2017</i>).
Immunologie	Immunology	/,ɪmju'nɒlədʒi/ or /,ɪmju'nɑ:lədʒi/	Immunology is the study of the immune system, including its structure, function, disorders, and response to pathogens or vaccines (<i>Abbas, A. K., Lichtman, A. H., & Pillai, S. 2022</i>).
Zoologie	Zoology	/zu'ɒlədʒi/ or /zu'ɑ:lədʒi/	Zoology is the scientific study of animals, including their biology, physiology, development, classification, and interactions with their environment (<i>Hickman, C.P. et al. 2018</i>).
Océanologie	Oceanology	/,oʊʃi'ɒlədʒi/ or /,oʊʃi'ɑ:lədʒi/	Oceanology is the interdisciplinary science that studies the ocean's physical properties, chemical composition, marine life, seafloor geology, and the interactions between the ocean and the atmosphere (<i>Thurman, H.V., & Trujillo, A.P. 2017</i>).
Archéologie	Archaeology	/,ɑ:rki'ɒlədʒi/ or /,ɑ:rki'ɑ:lədʒi/	Archaeology is the study of past human cultures and societies through their material remains, such as architecture, tools, inscriptions, and other physical evidence (<i>Renfrew, C., & Bahn, P. 2016</i>).
Histologie	Histology	/hi'stɒlədʒi/ or /hi'stɑ:lədʒi/	Histology is the study of the microscopic anatomy of cells and tissues of plants and animals, typically using a microscope to examine thin tissue sections (<i>Ross, M. H., & Pawlina, W. 2020</i>).
Enzymologie	Enzymology	/,enzai'mɒlədʒi/ or /,enzai'mɑ:lədʒi/	Enzymology is the study of the structure, function, kinetics, and mechanisms of enzymes, as well as their role in metabolism and regulation (<i>Nelson, D.L., & Cox, M.M. 2017</i>).
Cytologie	Cytology	/saɪ'tɒlədʒi/ or /saɪ'tɑ:lədʒi/	Cytology is the microscopic study of cell structure, function, and composition. It involves examining both normal and abnormal cells to understand life processes and detect diseases (<i>Alberts, B. et al. 2014</i>).
Microbiologie	Microbiology	/,maɪkroʊ'baɪɒlədʒi/ or /,maɪkroʊ'baɪɑ:lədʒi/	Microbiology is the study of microscopic organisms, including their structure, function, classification, metabolism, genetics, and roles in health, disease, and the environment (<i>Prescott, L.M., Harley, J.P., & Klein, D.A. 2021</i>).
Bactériologie	Bacteriology	/,bæktɪri'ɒlədʒi/ or /,bæktɪri'ɑ:lədʒi/	Bacteriology is the scientific discipline concerned with the classification, structure, physiology, genetics, and interactions of bacteria, including their roles in health, disease, and industry (<i>Madigan, M.T., Bender, K.S., Buckley, D.H., et al. 2018</i>).
Virologie	Virology	/maɪ'kɒlədʒi/ or /maɪ'kɑ:lədʒi/	Virology is the study of viruses and virus-like agents, including their structure, classification, evolution, ways to infect and exploit host cells, the diseases they cause, and their use in biotechnology (<i>Knipe, D.M. & Howley, P.M. 2013</i>).

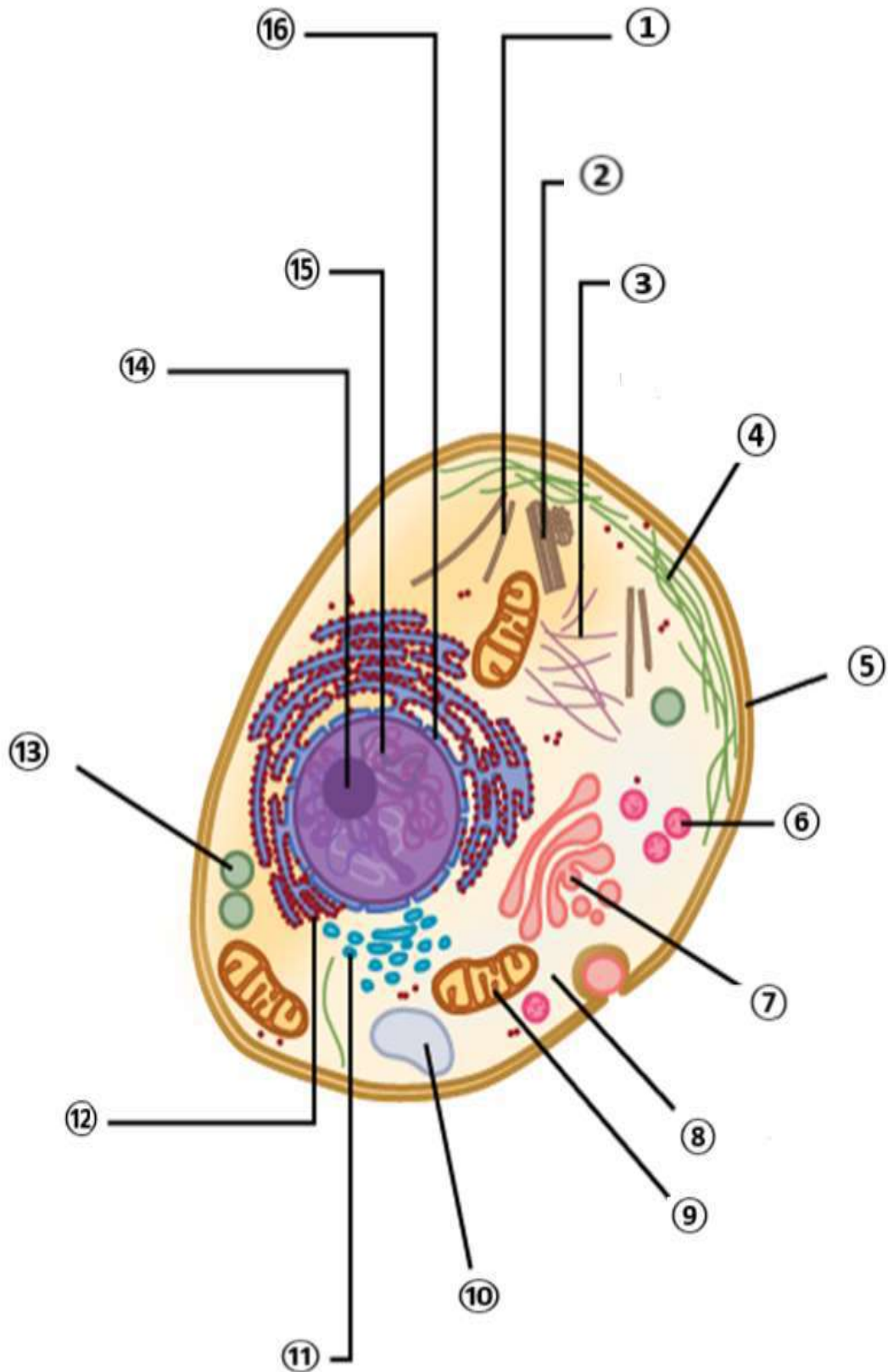
Mycologie	Mycology	/vai'rɒlədʒi/ or /vai'rɑ:lədʒi/	Mycology is the scientific study of fungi, including their genetic and biochemical properties, taxonomy, and their usefulness or pathogenicity to humans and the environment (<i>Deacon, J. W. 2006</i>).
Botanique	Botany	/'bɒtəni/ or /'bɑ:təni/	Botany is the scientific study of plants, including algae, mosses, ferns, gymnosperms, and angiosperms, covering their physiology, structure, genetics, ecology, distribution, and classification (<i>Raven, P.H., Evert, R.F., & Eichhorn, S.E. 2013</i>).
Hydrologie	Hydrology	/hai'drɒlədʒi/ or /hai'drɑ:lədʒi/	Hydrology is the science concerned with the properties, distribution, and circulation of water on and below the Earth's surface and in the atmosphere (<i>Chow, V.T., Maidment, D.R., & Mays, L.W. 2013</i>).
Agronomie	Agronomy	/'ægrə,nɒmi/ or /'ægrə,noomi/	Agronomy is the science of soil management and crop production. It involves the study of plants, soils, climates, and agricultural practices to improve the quantity and quality of food and other plant products (<i>Brady, N.C. & Weil, R.R. 2016</i>).

Table 03_ Plant parts

In French	In English	Phonetic	Terminology
Plante	Plants	/plænt/	Plants are multicellular organisms that typically produce their own food through photosynthesis, have cell walls made of cellulose, and grow rooted in soil or water environments (<i>Raven, P.H., Evert, R.F., & Eichhorn, S.E. 2013</i>).
Feuilles	Leaves	/li:f/ (singular), /li:vz/ (plural)	Leaves are the main photosynthetic organs of most plants, consisting of a blade and sometimes a petiole, containing vascular tissues that transport water and nutrients (<i>Raven, P.H., Evert, R.F., & Eichhorn, S.E. 2013</i>).
Racine	Roots	/ru:t/	Roots are plant organs that typically grow downward into the soil, providing anchorage, absorbing water and minerals, and sometimes storing food (<i>Raven, P.H., Evert, R.F., & Eichhorn, S.E. 2013</i>).
Tige	stem	/stɛm/	The stem is the plant organ that provides structural support, contains vascular tissues for the transport of water, minerals, and photosynthates, and can also store nutrients (<i>Raven, P.H., Evert, R.F., & Eichhorn, S.E. 2013</i>).

Fleurs	flower	/'flaʊər/ or /'flaʊə/	A flower is a modified shoot bearing structures that function in sexual reproduction, including stamens (male organs), carpels (female organs), petals, and sepals (<i>Raven, P.H., Evert, R.F., & Eichhorn, S.E. 2013</i>).
Fruit	fruit	/fru:t/	A fruit is the ripened ovary of a flower along with its seeds, often adapted to aid in seed dispersal by various agents like animals, wind, or water (<i>Raven, P.H., Evert, R.F., & Eichhorn, S.E. 2013</i>).
Grains	seed	/si:d/	A seed is a mature fertilized ovule that contains an embryonic plant and stored food, enclosed within a protective coat. It enables the plant to reproduce and disperse (<i>Raven, P.H., Evert, R.F., & Eichhorn, S.E. 2013</i>).
Photosynthèse	Photosynthesis	/,fɒtəʊ'sɪnθəsis/	Photosynthesis is the process through which plants and other organisms use sunlight to synthesize nutrients from carbon dioxide and water, producing oxygen as a byproduct (<i>Taiz, L., Zeiger, E., Møller, I.M., & Murphy, A. 2015</i>).
Transpiration	Transpiration	/,trænspe'reɪʃən/	Transpiration is the evaporation of water from plant surfaces, primarily through stomata, which helps regulate temperature and facilitates the upward movement of water and nutrients from the roots (<i>Taiz, L., Zeiger, E., Møller, I.M., & Murphy, A. 2015</i>).
Respiration	Cellular respiration	/,respə'reɪʃən/	Cellular respiration is the metabolic process that converts biochemical energy from nutrients into ATP, and releases waste products such as CO ₂ and water (<i>Alberts, B. et al. 2014</i>).

Practice ①: Complete this schema below & name the kind of this cell.



Nucleus

Nuclear envelope: membrane enclosing the nucleus. Protein-lined pores allow material to move in and out.

Chromatin: DNA plus associated proteins.

Nucleolus: condensed region where ribosomes are formed.

Peroxisome: metabolizes waste

Endoplasmic reticulum

Rough: associated with ribosomes; makes secretory and membrane proteins.

Smooth: makes lipids.

Cytoskeleton

Microtubules: form the mitotic spindle and maintain cell shape.

Centrosome: microtubule-organizing center.

Intermediate filaments: fibrous proteins that hold organelles in place.

Microfilaments: fibrous proteins; form the cellular cortex.

Plasma membrane

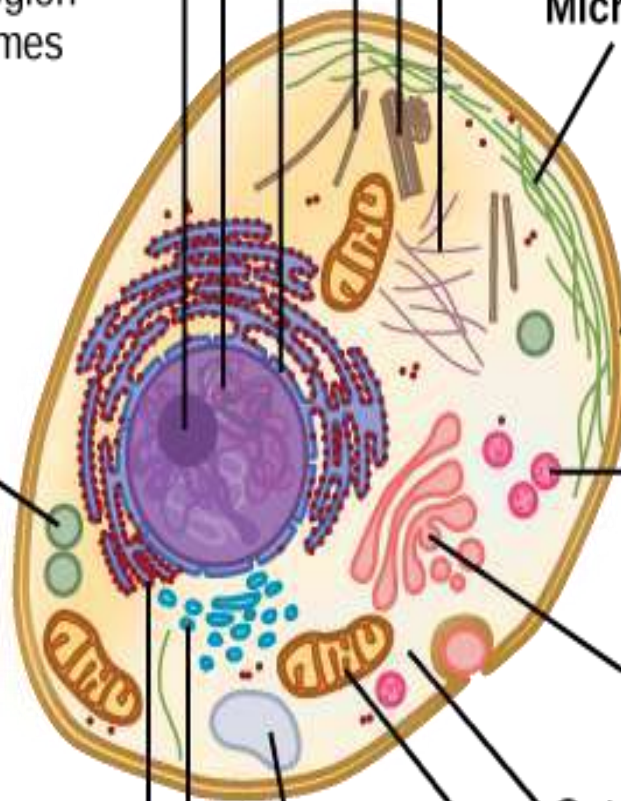
Lysosome: digests food and waste materials.

Golgi apparatus: modifies proteins.

Cytoplasm

Mitochondria: produce energy.

Vacuole



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CHAPTER 02

ANALYZE TEXT

This chapter helps students understand how texts are built. By learning parts of speech, punctuation, and tenses, they gain the tools to read, write, and analyze texts more clearly in academic settings.



INCLUDES SIX (06) LESSONS

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Learning Objectives

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

- Define the 8 parts of speech in English.
- Identify each part of speech in context.
- Use each part of speech appropriately in basic sentences.

Lesson 01_ Parts of speech

In order to speak, write, and understand English correctly, it is important to know how words function in a sentence. Every word we use belongs to a category or class called a Part of Speech.

Each part of speech tells us something about the meaning, position, or function of the word in a sentence.

Understanding the 8 parts of speech is the foundation of English grammar. Once you master them, it becomes much easier to construct correct sentences, analyze texts, and express ideas clearly in academic and everyday contexts.

A word in English may be Nouns, Verbs, Pronouns, Adjectives, Adverbs, Prepositions, Determiners, Conjunctions and Interjections. These are the words that you use to make a sentence.

1- Articles :

The articles are: **a, an, the**. They are marked with a checkmark on top, and they indicate a noun is coming. They are special adjectives, but are marked with a checkmark.

Determiners: “are words like the, an, this that start a noun phrase”. They are another relatively small lexical class, consisting mainly of articles and a few **demonstrative** and **interrogative** words. In other languages, articles may be gendered.

For instance: in **French** the article “**la**” precedes a feminine noun, and “**le**” precedes a masculine one. In English, because nouns are not gendered, the most common determiner used in English grammar is the word “**the**”. Let’s look at a few of the ways determiners are used.

In these sentences, the determiner will again be bolded for clarity:

- ❖ **Basic Determiner:** Mike ate **an** apple.
- ❖ **Quantifying Determiner:** Mike ate **many** apples.
- ❖ **Possessive Determiner:** Mike’s apple was delicious.

You can see that determiners are necessary because it simply does not make sense to say “Mike ate apple”, right? There are some other instances where either pronouns or numerals can serve as determiners as well, for instance:

- **Pronoun Determiner:** **His** apples were not ripe. (my/yours/his/her/its/our/yours/their)
- **Numeral Determiner:** **Four** apples were rotten.

Note: that every noun will NOT have an article in front of it, though many do.

2- Nouns:

They are word for a person (teacher, Mary), place (town, area), or thing (table, music), feeling or idea". Everything, we can see or talk about is represented by a word that names it. That "naming" word is called a noun.

Often a noun will be the name for something we can touch (e.g., lion, cake ...), but sometimes a noun will be the name for something we cannot touch (e.g., bravery, mile, joy).

Everything is represented by a word that lets us talk about it. This includes people (e.g., man, scientist), animals (e.g., dog, lizard), places (e.g., town, street), objects (e.g., vase, pencil), substances (e.g., copper, glass), qualities (e.g., heroism, sorrow), actions (e.g., swimming, dancing), and measures (e.g., inch, ounce).

A noun is the largest lexical class, and it's usually the first thing children learn. Why? Nouns are basic: they describe a person, place, or thing. Let's look at a few sentences-note that all of the nouns in the sentences have been bolded:

- The train left early in the morning.
- Tom has a smart laptop.
- The duck swims on the placid pond.

Some basic rules to remember with nouns is that these are the words that can be pluralized (duck, ducks), made possessive (that man's sister), and changed with a prefix or suffix like -age or -hood in order to change-it to a new verb (sister/sisterhood, sign/signage). While this doesn't apply to all nouns, it's a great place to start. Also remember that proper nouns, a subclass of nouns, are always capitalized. For instance: New York, Mrs. Smith, University of Texas.

All nouns are either common or proper nouns:

- A **common noun names** any person, place, or thing. Examples are: basketball, video, wizard, coin, woman, and coach.
- A **proper noun names** a particular person, place, or thing and begins with a capital letter. Examples are: Winston Churchill, Babe Ruth, Mr. Richard Turner, and Chicago.

Here are some specific **types of nouns**:

- A **collective noun names** a group of people or things. Examples of collective nouns are jury, herd, flock, family, fleet, club, class, and group.
- A **compound noun** is a noun consisting of more than a single word. It could be separate words such as social studies, physical education, and dining room. It could be two words joined by a hyphen such as merry-go-round, thirty-three, sister-in-law, and great-grandmother. It could be a combined word such as schoolteacher, bookkeeper, landlord, and headmaster.

Practice ①: Underline each noun in the following sentences

- Wendy located her housekeeper.
- Some answers on this test are about electricity.

- Her violin and easel were missing.
- Their rabbit that left the yard was returned by the officer.
- He used this umbrella in Alabama.
- After the rain, the electrician checked the box.
- The end of the afternoon arrived quickly.
- This group is funny.
- The ostrich and the orangutan are interesting.
- My doctor and my orthodontist are neighbors.
- In the evening, Archie likes to go boating.
- Unfortunately, he had a rash and an allergy.
- Her height and agility helped her win the match.
- Linda cared for the infant throughout the night.
- The garbage carton near the oven had licorice and noodles in it.

3- Pronouns:

Pronouns “like “me, you, ours, mine, yours” that can take the place of a noun. They constitute a rather small lexical class, but they can also be the most confusing. That’s because as a pronoun can take so many forms.

➤ **There are several types of pronouns:**

Personal pronouns refer to people and things. They are divided into three categories called:

- **First person** (referring to the person who is speaking: I went to the mall),
- **Second person** (referring to the person spoken to: Joey, can you see the bus?),
- **Third person** (referring to anyone or anything else: Bob saw us do this assignment). The pronouns in the two example sentences above are personal pronouns.

They exist in the first, second, and third person, and are further classified into nominative, oblique, reflexive, possessive determiners, and possessive pronouns.

A pronoun is a word used in place of one or more nouns. We use pronouns to:

- ✓ Refer to a noun (called its antecedent) that usually comes before the pronoun
- ✓ Make our writing clearer, smoother, and less awkward

e.g.:

- The sentence, “Roberto feels that he can win the race,” he is the pronoun, and Roberto is the antecedent.
- In the sentence, “Terry and Jim know that they are best friends,” they is the pronoun, and Terry and Jim are the noun antecedents.

In addition to *personal pronouns*, there are several other types of pronouns: *reflexive pronouns*, *relative pronouns*, *interrogative pronouns*, *demonstrative pronouns*, and *indefinite pronouns*.

- A **reflexive pronoun** is formed by adding - self or - selves to certain personal pronouns. Examples of reflexive pronouns are: **myself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, themselves, yourself, and yourselves.**

e.g.: The sentence, “I found it myself,” contains the personal pronoun I and the reflexive pronoun myself.

- **An interrogative pronoun** is used to ask a question. These pronouns are which, who, whom, and whose.
- **A demonstrative pronoun** is used to point out a specific person or thing. These pronouns include this, that, these, and those. In the sentence, “Theresa, is this yours?” This is the demonstrative pronoun, and yours is the personal pronoun.
- **An indefinite pronoun** often does not refer to a specific or definite person or thing. It usually does not have a definite or specific antecedent as a personal pronoun does. In the sentence, “Everybody will select another to help with everything,” the three italicized words are all indefinite pronouns since they take the place of a noun and do not refer to a specific or definite person or thing.

- | | | | |
|-------------|--------------|-----------|------------|
| ▪ All | ▪ Each | ▪ More | ▪ One |
| ▪ Another | ▪ Either | ▪ Most | ▪ Other |
| ▪ Any | ▪ Everybody | ▪ Much | ▪ Several |
| ▪ Anybody | ▪ Everyone | ▪ Neither | ▪ Some |
| ▪ Anyone | ▪ Everything | ▪ Nobody | ▪ Somebody |
| ▪ Any thing | ▪ Few | ▪ None | ▪ Someone |
| ▪ both | ▪ many | ▪ No one | |

ENGLISH PRONOUNS					
	Personal subject pronoun	Object pronoun	Possessive adjective determiner	Possessive pronoun	reflexive Intensive pronoun
1 st personal Singular	I	Me	My	Mine	Myself
2 nd personal singular	You	You	Your	Yours	Yourself
3 rd personal singular male	He	Him	His	His	Himself
3 rd personal singular female	She	Her	Her	Hers	Herself
3 rd personal singular neutral	It	It	Its	–	Itself
1 st personal pleural	We	Us	Our	Ours	Ourselves
2 nd personal pleural	You	You	Your	Yours	Yourselves
3 rd personal pleural	They	Them	Their	Theirs	Themselves

- Many people get confused with the terms pronouns and nouns. They often seem same but are slightly different. Apart from the major difference in their meanings, here is the detailed difference between pronouns and nouns:

Pronouns	Nouns
Pronouns are words that are used in place of nouns.	A noun can be a name of a persona, place, animal, thing, or even idea.
There are more than 100 pronouns in the English language.	They are one of the major word classes. This means that the English vocabulary has a lot of words and a most of them are categorized as nouns, then verbs, adjectives, and so on.
There are 10 types of pronouns: indefinite, reflective, demonstrative pronouns, etc.	There are 12 types of nouns: proper noun, common noun, material noun, plural and singular noun, etc.
For example, pronouns can look like: she, they, them, it, her, his, oneself, themselves, mine, yourself, and so on.	Examples of nouns are: Ronny, hut, affinity, lake, desert, and so on.

Also, **Pronouns** take the place of a noun. “*Jessica went to the store so **SHE** could buy some ice cream.*” The pronoun “**she**” took the place of saying **Jessica’s** name again. Some pronouns can be used as the **subject of a sentence**, but others are used as **object pronouns** or **possessive pronouns**. They are marked by writing *pron.* on top of the word.

e.g.:

- **They** traveled to California for **their** summer vacation. (“They” is a subject pronoun since “they” is the subject of the sentence; “their” is a possessive pronoun showing ownership of the vacation.)
- **She** gave **him** the biggest slice of apple pie. (“She” is a subject pronoun; “him” is an object pronoun since it’s not the subject, and it receives the action. [She gave it to whom? She gave it to him.]).

After the difference between pronouns and nouns, there is another term called determiners. Many confuse them with pronouns. Thus, the table below will elaborate on the differences between pronouns and determiners.

Pronouns	Determiners
Pronouns are used in place of nouns.	Determiners are used before nouns.
There are over 100 pronouns in the English language that you use daily.	There are 4 types of determiners: 1. Articles: a, an, the 2. Demonstratives Possessives 3. Quantifiers 4. Numbers
For example, pronouns can look like: she, they, them, it, her, his, oneself, themselves, mine, yourself, and so on.	For example, a, an, the, this, that, your, his, her, some, many, one, two, and so on.

To sum up, pronouns are one of the most important parts of speech. So much so that you use it almost daily while communicating in the English language. This blog showed the correct usage of every type of pronoun before supporting verbs. It is essential to learn if you wish to speak English fluently and correctly.

Practice ①: Checkmark the articles. Underline the nouns once. Underline the verbs twice.

Write **pron.** over the **pronouns**.

- Their house was painted a light gray color.
- We ate a delicious meal after the ballgame on Saturday.
- During the hurricane, their house was severely damaged by the wind.
- He made her a special bracelet from seashells.
- Difference Between Pronouns and Determiners

Practice ②: Underline the two pronouns found in each sentence. Above each pronoun, label its type using these abbreviations: personal (PER), reflexive (REF), demonstrative (DEM), interrogative (INT), or indefinite (IND) pronoun.

- This is the way to do it.
- He hurt himself during gym class.
- Can you and they finish the cleaning by three o'clock?
- Who is the person with her?
- I held the door for them.
- Please tell him that we said hello.
- Ours is older than theirs.
- Neither of them is the clear winner of the race as of now.
- Will she watch someone while Sarah goes shopping?
- Those are the best ones to buy.
- Please bring yours to us.
- After Jerry spotted the giraffe, he photographed it.

4- Verb:

Action verbs, express what is happening (do, work). State verbs express a situation (be, have). Verbs comprise the next largest lexical family and are commonly known as “**action words**” because they help make an assertion regarding what is being done to the subject in a sentence. Every sentence must have a **verb**! Verbs can show **action**, or they can be a **linking verb**. Action verbs show some **kind of action** - skipped, hop, throw, baked, watched, took, etc. Verbs can be happening **now (present tense)**, already **happened (past tense)**, or they **will happen (future tense)**. Depending on the verb tense, a **helping verb** may be needed.

If you have a sentence {I am planning a party for my sister.} “**am**” is a **helping verb** used with the **main action verb “planning.”** Your complete verb is “am planning.” The helping verbs are listed below.

- **Helping verbs** - am, is, are, was, were, be, being, been, have, has, had, do, does, did, may, might, must, can, could, shall, will, should, would
- **The other type of verb** is a **linking verb**. Note that some of the linking verbs are also helping verbs. Linking verbs do not show action, but are used to link the subject with a descriptive word coming after the verb.
- **Linking verbs** - am, is, are, was, were, be, being, been (all of these can be helping verbs also)
- **Other linking verbs** are - feel, smell, taste, sound, look, seems, becomes. Linking verbs can sometimes be harder to find in a sentence.

e.g.:

- The tall man on television **was shopping** for a nice suit. {“was” is used as a helping verb.}
- She **mixed** and **rolled** the dough for the sugar cookies. {“mixed” and “rolled” are action verbs}
- My father **is** a teacher at the college on Spring Street. {“is” is a linking verb. The linking verb “is” links the noun teacher to the subject father.}

Practice ①: Checkmark the articles. Underline the nouns once. Write pron. over the pronouns. Underline the verbs twice.

- The strong man cut the tree into smaller pieces.
- The steaks for dinner were delicious.
- Many young boys practiced basketball for the game on Saturday.
- Several people tried the blackberry jam on their toast.
- They are shopping for a new house in our neighborhood.
- David is very sick from the flu.

5- Adjectives:

Describes a noun or pronoun only. Many times you can do an “adjective test” to see if your word is an adjective. The “adjective test” is to say the word between an article and a noun. See the examples below.

- The **pink** house – since this makes sense, “pink” is an adjective and describes the noun house
- The **quickly** store – since this does NOT make sense, “quickly” is NOT an adjective

An adjective is a word that describes more about a noun (big, red, expensive). The adjective is the part of speech that gives a sentence the flair it needs, and they are absolutely essential to great creative writing. These are descriptive words, and modify a word—usually by being placed in front of it—by describing, identifying, or quantifying it.

Here are a few common examples:

- The sky turned dark and ominous.
- Gray clouds rolled in, and rain splattered the window.
- Sarah put her polka-dotted rain boots on.

You can see how adjectives are used in English grammar to add “flavor” to nouns and other words in order to describe them more aptly to the reader or listener.

- Adjectives answer the questions **which one? what kind? how many? how much? whose?**
- Adjectives are marked by writing adj. on top of the word.

e.g.:

- **The tall man** on television was shopping for a nice suit. (“**tall**” describes the man and it comes between an **article** and **noun**, passing the adjective test; “nice” describes the suit, and it also passes the adjective test).
- The small black cat played with a tiny red string. (“**small**” and “**black**” describe the noun cat; “tiny” and “red” describe string)

Practice ①: Checkmark the **articles**. Underline the **nouns** once. Underline the **verbs** twice. Write **pron.** over the **pronouns**. Write **adj.** over the **adjectives**.

- My sweet grandmother taught us many useful lessons.
- One television channel showed a long commercial about a new shampoo.
- She used the blue paint for her bedroom walls and shelves.
- The green shrubs and trees needed rain.

6- Adverbs:

An adverb can modify/ describe a verb, adjective, or another adverb. Adverbs **tell when? where? how? how often/much? and to what extent?** Adverbs typically (but not always) end with the suffix “-ly” and can answer the questions “**where, when, how, and how much?**”

Many adverbs deal with time (**today, soon, sometimes**).

Often adverbs can move around in sentences and still make sense.

e.g.:

- We quickly ran in the hardware store and bought blue paint for our house.

Or

- We ran into the hardware store and quickly bought blue paint for our house.

Quickly is an **adverb** that tells how they ran, and you can move it around in the sentence.

Let's take a look:

- Steven **sharpened** his pencil as quietly as possible.
- The child swings her legs **impatiently**.
- **Fortunately**, we will have enough pizza for everyone.

In the above sentences, we see how the adverb works as a modifier. In the first, “**quietly**” modifies the verb “**sharpened**.” in the second, “**impatiently**” modifies the verb “swings”, and in the last sentence, “**Fortunately**” modifies the entire phrase. You can also see from these examples how an adverb can be placed anywhere in a sentence, and how it does not change even as the tense changes.

e.g.:

- She **quietly** put the puzzle pieces in place. (“**quietly**” tells how she put)
- The delicious soup was **very** hot. (“**very**” tells how hot OR to what extent hot)
- During the hurricane, their house was **severely** damaged by the wind. (“**severely**” tells how damaged)

Practice ①: Checkmark the **articles**. Underline the **nouns** once. Underline the **verbs** twice. Write **pron.** over the **pronouns**. Write **adj.** over the **adjectives**. Write **adv.** over the **adverbs**.

- One sunny day several students thoughtfully bought my dinner.
- The angry pig ran wildly around the muddy pit.
- Aren't we planning a vacation for the month of May?
- We sometimes fill the jar with cookies or brownies.
- It's a very thrilling time of year for a ballgame.
- I've never taken a written driving course on the computer.

Practice ②: In each sentence, the letters of the underlined adverb are scrambled. Unscramble the letters, and write the word on the line provided before the sentence.

- _____ He walks tsaf.
- _____ Do you want to stop ehre ?
- _____ He visits his grandmother ywlkee.
- _____ Do you feel lewl enough to go on the trip?
- _____ Have you erve been to Mexico City?
- _____ I wasaly run errands for her.
- _____ Have I met you foebre ?
- _____ I would r aerht drive to your house tonight.
- _____ Are you ilslt going to go to summer school?
- _____ I am tno trying to insult you, Nick.
- _____ Will you bat frsit tonight?

7- Prepositions

These are words that add additional information to sentences. They always start a prepositional phrase. A prepositional phrase is not necessary to the sentence, but it adds additional information. The phrase always ends with a noun or pronoun called the **object of the preposition (OP)**.

They are marked by writing **prep.** Over the word. A list of the major prepositions is below:

(Aboard, about, above, across, after, against, along, among, around, at before, behind, below, beneath, beside, between, beyond, but, by down, during, except, for, from, in, inside, into, like, near, of, off, on, out, outside, over past, since, through, throughout, to, toward, under, underneath, until, up, upon, with, within, without).

Prepositions: “expresses the relationship of a noun or pronoun to another word (*at, in, from*)”. They are linking words; they introduce the object of the preposition in a word or phrase. They also address the spatial or temporal location of the words that they introduce, in other words, where an object exists in space or time.

Like pronouns, they are a closed class of lexical elements:

- Sarah looked everywhere for her book and found it under the office.
- Marc checked his text messages during his lunch break.
- Stefan was well known throughout the academic community; he was lauded for his grammar prowess.

In these examples, you can see how prepositional phrases and stand alone prepositions link words together in the sentence, and how they can be used to introduce an object.

e.g.:

- (With a grateful heart), we opened the new school supplies.
- Grandmother lives (around the corner) (from the library.)
- The man (from China) visited (for several weeks.)

8- Conjunction

A conjunction connects words or group of words. There are three types of conjunctions: coordinating conjunctions, correlative conjunctions, and subordinating conjunctions.

- a) **Coordinating conjunctions:** is a single connecting word. These **seven (07)** words are: **for, and, nor, but, or, yet, and so.**

e.g.

- The boys **and** girls worked at the fair. (**And** joins the names boys and girls.)
- Paula **or** Jeannine can go with you tonight. (**Or** joins the names Paula and Jeannine.)
- I would like to help you, **but** I will be busy tonight. (**But** joins two sentences or complete ideas.)
- We must leave early **so** we can get to the wedding reception on time. (**So** joins two sentences or two complete ideas.)

Remember the made-up word **FANBOYS** when you memorize the coordinating conjunctions. Each letter in this word (For, And, Nor, But, Or, Yet, So) stands for a coordinating

conjunction.

- b) **Correlative conjunctions:** are pairs of connecting words. These **five (05)** pairs of words are: (both/and), (either/or), (neither/nor), (not only/but also), and (whether/or).

e.g.

- **Both** Henry **and** Henrietta are leaving the dance now. (The correlative conjunctions join two **names**.)
- **Not only** will they leave now, **but** they will **also** not be here to help clean up. (The correlative conjunctions join two **sentences** or complete ideas.)
- **Either** go with them **or** stay here and help. (The correlative conjunctions illustrate a **choice**.)
- He went **neither** to the stadium **nor** to the concert hall during this vacation. (The correlative conjunctions join two **prepositional** phrases.)

- c) **Subordinating conjunction :** A subordinating conjunction is a word that connects an independent clause to a dependent clause. An independent clause can stand alone as a sentence. In other words, it does not need any additional information to operate as a sentence.

e.g.:

The sentence "The student failed the test" is an example of an **independent clause**.

A dependent clause adds extra information to the main clause. These clauses cannot stand by themselves and their meaning is dependent on the independent clause. They are not complete sentences. For example, "because she didn't study" is not a complete sentence.

However, combine the two clauses, and we have "The student failed the test because she didn't study." A complete idea has been expressed and enough information has been presented to fully explain the thought.

What joined the two clauses? The word "because." And there we have our first subordinating conjunction.

- **Using Subordinating Conjunctions:** It introduces a dependent clause and indicates the nature of the relationship among the independent clause(s) and the dependent clause(s).

Subordinating Conjunctions	Relationship
Unless, provide that, I, even if	Condition
Because, as, as if	Reason
Rather than, than, whether	Choice
Thought; although, even though, but	Contrast
Where, wherever	Location
In order that, so, so that, that	Result, effect
While, once, when, since, as whenever	Time
After, before, until, as soon	

Note: You'll notice that when a dependent clause precedes an independent clause, there's a comma (,) between the two, indicating the beginning of the independent clause. However, when

the independent clause comes first, there's usually no need to separate the two clauses with a comma.

- ✚ The most **common subordinating conjunctions** are: after, although, as, because, before, how, if, once, since, than, that, though, until, when, where, whether, and while.

e.g. of Subordinating Conjunctions: In the following examples, the subordinating conjunctions are in bold for easy identification:

- **As** Sherri blew out the candles atop her birthday cake, she caught her hair on fire.
- Sara begins to sneeze **whenever** she opens the window to get a breath of fresh air.
- **When** the doorbell rang, my dog Skeeter barked loudly.

Practice ①: Checkmark the articles. Underline the nouns once. Underline the verbs twice. Write pron. over the pronouns. Write adj. over the adjectives. Write adv. over the adverbs. Write prep. over the prepositions, and put parentheses around the prepositional phrases. Put a c.c. over any coordinating conjunctions.

- We had mashed potatoes with gravy and hot rolls with butter.
- The green shrubs and trees needed rain.
- The first day of school was great; I will return tomorrow.

Practice ②: Checkmark the articles. Underline the nouns once. Underline the verbs twice. Write pron. over the pronouns. Write adj. over the adjectives. Write adv. over the adverbs. Write prep. over the prepositions, and put parentheses around the prepositional phrases.

- The obedient student walked quietly down the hallway.
- Dad was too tired and couldn't play with me.
- We had mashed potatoes with gravy and hot rolls with butter.
- Along the path we picked up a dozen small pebbles

Practice ③: The following exercises will help you gain greater understanding about how subordinating conjunctions work. Choose the best answer to complete each sentence.

1. _____ the basement flooded, we spent all day cleaning up.

- After
- Although
- Before
- Even if

Answer: After the basement flooded, we spent all day cleaning up.

2. I don't want to go to the movies _____ I hate the smell of popcorn.

- Although
- Because
- Whenever
- So that

Answer: I don't want to go to the movies because I hate the smell of popcorn.

3. I paid Larry, _____ garden design work is top-notch.

- Whenever
- Whose
- After
- If

Answer: I paid Larry, whose garden design work is top-notch.

4. _____ spring arrives, we have to be prepared for more snow.

- Because
- Until
- Although
- Now that

Answer: . Until spring arrives, we have to be prepared for more snow.

5. _____ the alarm goes off, I hit the snooze button.

- As soon as
- Because
- Before
- Now that

Answer: As soon as the alarm goes off, I hit the snooze button.

9- Interjections

The interjection shows emotion or feeling and is marked with an exclamation point above the word.

e.g.: **Ouch!** You hurt my foot. Well, I'm not sure.

Practice ①: the sentences on the following page using all the marks you have learned.

- The torn books were taken to the repair shop.
- Many students are involved in clubs after school, and they must practice.
- Yes! I enjoyed our short vacation to the mountains.
- After the test, I worked on my science project.
- For many years, the Navaho Indians lived in Arizona and New Mexico.
- The corn casserole was too hot and burned my tongue.
- Hard work often leads to a successful future.
- The beach is a great place for a picnic.
- Computers are useful, but they can also be frustrating.
- The young soldier practiced for three weeks at Fort Hood.
- Amelia traveled to Switzerland for her vacation.
- Alexander and Andrew trained for the marathon and ran on Thursday.
- Soap and toothpaste are two necessary things for everyone.

Bibliographic source

- NACER D., 2022. English module. University of Batna2. Level Master 1 & 2. 30page.

Chapter 02_ Analyze Text

Objectives

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

- Identify the **prefix**, **base word**, and **suffix** in a given word.
- Understand how each part contributes to the **meaning** of a word.
- Construct new words using these elements.

Lesson 02 – Prefix, base word & suffix

In this lesson, we begin exploring how **English words are formed**. Many words are not just one unit, but rather a combination of smaller parts. These parts are **prefixes**, **base words**, and **suffixes** – help us understand and build vocabulary more easily.

Understanding how words are constructed allows us to:

- **Guess the meaning** of unfamiliar words,
- **Form new words** correctly,
- **Improve spelling**, pronunciation, and grammar.

This lesson will introduce you to the **three building blocks** of many English words:

1. **Prefix** – a part added to the beginning of a word,
2. **Base word** – the main part of the word that holds the core meaning,
3. **Suffix** – a part added to the end of a word.

By recognizing and using these elements, you will be able to **decode scientific and academic terms**, making it easier to understand complex vocabulary in your studies and research.

1) Demonstration

A base word can stand alone and has meaning (exp: help). A suffix is a word part added to the end of a word (for example, -ful). If you add the suffix -ful to the base word “help”, the word is “helpful”. A prefix is a word part added to the beginning of a word or base word (exp: un-). If the prefix un- is added to helpful, the word is unhelpful.

Word =	Prefix + Base Word + Suffix
	Exp: Unhelpful = un + help + ful

- **Prefixes:** We add prefixes before the base or stem of a word.

Prefixes	Meaning
Monorail,	mono=one
Multicultural	Multi = many'
Postgraduate	Post = 'after'
Unusual	Un = 'not' or 'opposite to'

- **Suffixes:** We add suffixes after the base or stem of a word. The main purpose of a suffix is to show what class of word it is (e.g. noun or adjective).

Suffixes	Uses and meaning
Terrorism, Sexism	-ism and -dom are used to form nouns
Employer, Actor	-er and -or are used to form nouns to describe people who do things
Widen, Simplify	-en and -ify are used to form verbs
Responsible, Uncomfortable	-able is used to form adjectives
Unhappily, Naturally	-ly is a common suffix used to form adverbs

2) Formation of Adjectives From Nouns.

We can form adjectives from nouns by adding suffixes to a noun. The Adjectives that are formed by adding **-y** or **-al** or **-ial** as a suffix are given below in the table. If the noun has an 'e' in the ending, it is removed and -y or -al or -ial is added as a suffix to the noun to form an adjective.

suffix	Noun example	Adjective
_y	Luck	Lucky
	Health	Healthy
	Storm	Stormy
	Length	Lengthy
_al _ial	Accident	Accidental
	Nature	Natural
	Magic	Magical
	Commerce	Commercial
	Finance	Financial

- **Adjectives** formed by adding **-ly** or **-ish** or **-ic** as a suffix to nouns are given below in the table. If the noun has a 'y' in the ending, it is removed and the suffix is added to form an adjective.

suffix	Noun example	Adjective
_ly	Man	Manly
	Human	Humanly
	King	Kingly
_ish	Girl	Girlish
	Child	Childish
	Book	Bookish
_ic	Tragedy	Tragic
	Artist	Artistic

- **Adjectives** formed by adding **-ous** or **-some** or **-able** or **-full** as a suffix to nouns are given below in the table.

Suffix	Rule	Noun example	Adjective
_ous	- if the noun ends is y remove it	Mystery	Mysterious
	-if the noun ends is e remove it	Fame	Famous
	-if the noun ends cle it is replaced by cul	Miracle	Miraculous
_some		Trouble	Troublesome
_able		Question	Questionable
		Laugh	Laughable
_ful	Lf the noun is ending with y replace it with i	Beauty	Beautiful

3) Formation of Adjectives from Verbs

Suffixes like ‘-y’, ‘-able’, ‘-ous’, ‘-al’, ‘-ful’, ‘-less’, ‘-ing’ and ‘-ive’ can be added to verbs to form adjectives.

Suffix	Verb	Adjective
_y	Speed	Speedy
_able	Read	Readable
	Enjoy	Enjoyable
	Shake	Shakable
	Laugh	Laughable
_ous	Continue	continuous
_al	Judge	Judgmental
_ful	Help	Helpful
	Hate	Hateful
	Forget	Forgetful
_less	Tire	Tireless
_ive	Talk	Talkative
	Create	Creative
_ing	Annoy	Annoying
	Amuse	Amusing

4) Common Prefixes and Their Meanings

Prefix	Meaning	Example	Meaning
un-	not	unhappy	not happy

Prefix	Meaning	Example	Meaning
re-	again	rewrite	write again
dis-	opposite of	disconnect	not connected
pre-	before	preview	see before
mis-	wrong/badly	misunderstand	understand wrongly

Practice ①:

- Name three complimentary adjectives that describe one of your friends:
- Name three adjectives that describe the beach on a summer's day:
- Name three adjectives that describe a Super Bowl crowd:
- Name three adjectives that describe a famous actor or actress:
- Name three adjectives that describe a book or magazine article that you recently read:
- Name three adjectives that describe a typical spring day where you live:
- Name three adjectives that describe your favorite song:
- Name three adjectives that describe one of your recent math tests:
- Name three adjectives that describe one of your most difficult experiences.

Practice ②: For each of the following words, identify the **prefix**, **base word**, and **suffix**. Then, explain the meaning of the whole word.

Word	Prefix	Base Word	Suffix	Meaning of the Word
unhappiness	_____	_____	_____	_____
disagree	_____	_____	_____	_____
rewritable	_____	_____	_____	_____
unfriendly	_____	_____	_____	_____
hopeless	_____	_____	_____	_____
predefined	_____	_____	_____	_____
teacher	_____	_____	_____	_____

Bibliographic Source

- Oxford Learner's Dictionaries (2023). Word Formation.
- Cambridge Dictionary. (n.d.). Prefixes and Suffixes.
- Yule, G. (2010). *The Study of Language* (4th ed.). Cambridge University Press.

Objectives

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

- Identify and distinguish the **four main types of English sentences**.
- Understand the **purpose** and **structure** of each sentence type.
- Use a variety of sentence types in writing and speech.

Lesson 03_ The English Sentence Types

In English, sentences serve different purposes: to state something, ask a question, give a command, or show emotion. Recognizing sentence types is essential for effective communication, both in writing and speaking. This lesson focuses on the four main types of English sentences, based on their function.

1) Demonstration.

There are four types of English sentence, classified by their purpose: Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative and Exclamative sentence.

Note: The sentences are sometimes called Clause types.

Form	Functions	Exp. sentence (clause)	Mark
Declarative	Statement: It tells us something	John is thirsty.	.
Interrogative	Question: It asks us something	Does Tom watch movies?	?
Imperative	Demand: It tells us to do something	Stop! Knock the bell.	!/.
Exclamative	Exclamation: It expresses surprise	What a funny story he told us!	!

Note: Declarative sentences are the most common type of sentence.

2) Declarative Sentence (statement):

Declarative sentences make a statement. They tell us something. They give us information, and they normally end with a full-stop/period. The usual word order for the declarative sentence is: subject + verb. Declarative sentences can be positive or negative.

- Look at these examples:

Affirmative	Negative
I like coffee.	I do not (don't) like coffee.
We watched TV last night.	We did not (didn't) watch TV last night.

3) Interrogative Sentence (Question):

Interrogative sentences ask a question. They ask us something. They want information, and they always end with a question mark “?”. The usual word order for the interrogative sentence is: (Wh- Question/word) + Auxiliary + Subject + Verb. Interrogative sentences can be positive or negative.

- Look at these examples

Affirmative	Negative
Do you drink soda?	Don't drink soda?

Why did you go?

Why didn't you go?

- 4) **Imperative Sentence (demand):** Imperative sentences give a command or demand. They oblige us to do something, and they end with a full-stop/period (.) or exclamation mark/point (!). The usual word order for the imperative sentence is: Imperative sentences can be positive or negative.

- Look at these examples

Affirmative	Negative
Run!	Do not (don't) run!
Give me a coffee.	Don't give me a coffee.

- 5) **Exclamative Sentence (exclamation):** Exclamative sentences express strong emotion/surprise—an exclamation—and they always end with an exclamation mark/point (!).

The usual word order for the exclamative sentence is:

- What + (Adjective) + Noun + Subject + Verb
- How + (Adjective/Adverb) + Subject + Verb
- Look at these examples:
 - What a liar he is!
 - What a liar he is What an exciting movie it was

Practice ①: Rewrite the following sentences into the sentence type indicated in parentheses.

Original Sentence	New Sentence Type	Your Version
1 She studies every day.	Interrogative	_____
2 What a beautiful voice she has!	Declarative	_____
3 Can you open the window?	Imperative	_____
4 It is raining heavily.	Exclamative	_____



Next Lesson 03_ Sentence-level Grammar

1. **Simple Sentence:** contains a subject and a verb. - It expresses a single complete thought that can stand on its own.

e.g.: The baby cried for food. (S+V+C)→There is a subject and a verb that expresses a complete thought.

- Professor Maple's intelligent students completed and turned in their homework. → A simple sentence does not necessarily have to be short. It can have adjectives. In this case, there are two verbs "completed" and "turned in." However, the sentence expresses one complete thought and therefore is a simple sentence.
- Megan and Ron ate too much and felt sick. →Although there are two subjects and two verbs, it is still a simple sentence because both verbs share the same subjects and express one complete thought

2. **Compound Sentence:** It has two independent clauses. An independent clause is a part of a sentence that can stand alone because it contains a subject and a verb and expresses a complete thought. Basically, a compound contains two simple sentences.

- These independent clauses are joined by a conjunction (for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so).

e.g.:

- The shoplifter had stolen clothes, so he ran once he saw the police. →Both sides of the conjunction "so" are complete sentences. "The shoplifter had stolen clothes" can stand alone and so can "he ran once he saw the police." Therefore, this is a compound sentence.
- They spoke to him in Spanish, but he responded in English. →This is also a compound sentence that uses a conjunction to separate two individual clauses.

3. **Complex Sentence:** is an independent clause joined by one or more dependent clauses. A dependent clause either lacks a subject or a verb or has both a subject and a verb that does not express a complete thought

- A complex sentence always has a subordinator (as, because, since, after, although, when) or relative pronouns (who, that, which).

e.g.:

- After eating lunch at The Cheesecake Factory, Tom went to the Jym to exercise. →The independent clause is "Tim went to the Jym to exercise." The subordinating clause before it is dependent on the main, independent clause. If one were to say "after eating lunch at The Cheesecake Factory," it would be an incomplete thought.

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- Oxford Learner's Grammar Guide.
- Cambridge Grammar of English (2006).

Learning Objectives

After the completion of this unit, you would be able to-

- Know punctuation.
- Know different types of punctuation marks.
- Learn the rules for using punctuation marks.
- Use punctuation marks.
- Learn the rules for using capitalization.
- Use capitalization.

Lesson 04_ Punctuation & Capitalization

In academic and scientific discourse, clarity and precision are paramount. Punctuation and capitalization are not merely mechanical aspects of writing; they serve as *meta-linguistic tools* that guide interpretation, indicate syntactic boundaries, and enhance textual coherence. A misused punctuation mark or a capitalization error can significantly alter meaning or reduce the formality required in scholarly writing.

I. Punctuation.

It means the right use of putting in points or stops in writing. We cannot do without punctuation marks in writing. They show you when to slow down or stop, and they tell you when you need to change directions or where you are going. When you use punctuation marks correctly, your readers will have no trouble finding their way through what you have written.

Observe the following two excerpts, one punctuated properly and the other is not:

- You silly idiot get off my head will you if you dont ill bash you when I get up from here you see if i dont.
- You silly idiot! Get off my head, will you? If you don't, I'll bash you - when I get up from here. You see if I don't!.

Obviously, the second, punctuated version is easier to read, for it suggests where the speaker would pause or emphasize his words to get the necessary impact. Sometimes punctuation is vital in showing the meaning intended by a writer.

For example:

- Woman without her man is a savage.
- Woman! Without her, man is savage.

In this pair of sentences, one can see how the punctuation affects the whole meaning.

The purpose of punctuation is to make the act of reading your sentences easier, to make the movement of the eye across the page smooth. The purpose of punctuation is not to draw attention to itself -

Practice ①: Choose the correct options:

- 1- Which one is correctly punctuated?
 - a) Spain is a beautiful country; the beaches are warm, sandy and spotlessly clean.
 - b) Spain is a beautiful country, the beaches are warm, sandy and spotlessly clean.

- 2- Which sentence is properly punctuated?
 - a. She always enjoyed sweets, chocolate, marshmallows and toffee apples.
 - b. She always enjoyed: sweets, chocolate, marshmallows and toffee apples.
- 3- Which one is properly punctuated?
 - a. Sarah's uncle's car was found without its wheels in that old derelict warehouse.
 - b. Sarah's uncle's car was found without its wheels in that old, derelict warehouse.
- 4- Which of the following is correctly punctuated?
 - a. We decided to visit Spain, Greece, Portugal and Italy's mountains.
 - b. We decided to visit: Spain, Greece, Portugal and Italy's mountains
- 5- Which one is correctly punctuated?
 - a. It is a fine idea, let us hope that it is going to work.
 - b. It is a fine idea; let us hope that it is going to work.
- 6- Which of the following is properly punctuated?
 - a. Sorry to disturb you – could I speak to you for a moment?
 - b. Sorry to disturb you, could I speak to you for a moment.
- 7- Which of the following is properly punctuated?
 - a. It was my father, who took me to school yesterday, not my uncle.
 - b. It was my father who took me to school yesterday, not my uncle.
- 8- Which one is correctly punctuated?
 - a. Long ago, in a distant country, there lived a beautiful princess named Dido.
 - b. Long ago in a distant country, there lived a beautiful princess, named Dido.
- 9- Which one is correctly punctuated?
 - a. Having lost all of my money, I went home.
 - b. Having lost all of my money – I went home!
- 10- Which one is correctly punctuated?
 - a. “Can you believe,” Hasan asked me, “that it has been almost five years since we've seen each other?”
 - b. Can you believe, Hassan asked me, that it has been almost five years since we've seen each other?

➤ **Answers: 1 – a 2 – a 3 – b 4 – a 5 – b 6 – a 7 – b 8 – a 9 – a 10 – a**

2. The Rules of Punctuation

A. Sentence Endings

Three of the fourteen punctuation marks are appropriate for use as sentence endings. They are **the period, question mark, and exclamation point**.

- **The period (.)** is placed at the end of declarative sentences, statements thought to be complete and after many abbreviations.
 - As a sentence ender: Jane and Jack went to the market.
 - After an abbreviation: Her son, John Jones Jr., was born on Dec. 6, 2008.
- **The question mark (?)** to indicate a direct question when placed at the end of a sentence.

- When did Jane leave for the market?
- **The exclamation point (!)** is used when a person wants to express a sudden outcry or add emphasis.
 - Within dialogue: "Holy cow!" screamed Jane.
 - To emphasize a point: My mother-in-law's rants make me furious!

B. Comma, Semicolon, and Colon

The comma, semicolon, and colon are often misused because they all can indicate a pause in a series.

- **The comma (,)** is used to show a separation of ideas or elements within the structure of a sentence. Additionally, it is used in numbers, dates, and letter writing after the salutation and closing.
 - Direct address: Thanks for all your help, John.
 - Separation of two complete sentences: We went to the movies, and then we went out to lunch.
 - Separating lists or elements within sentences: Suzi wanted the black, green, and blue dress.

Whether to add a final comma before the conjunction in a list is a matter of debate. This final comma, known as an Oxford or serial comma, is useful in a complex series of elements or phrases but is often considered unnecessary in a simple series such as in the example above. It usually comes down to a style choice by the writer.

here to help you are samples of all the common uses of comma.

1. To separate items in a list:
 - We bought some shoes, gloves, a jersey, handkerchiefs, and a scarf.
2. To separate adjectives or adverbs when several are used:
 - The children were noisy, mischievous, inquisitive, unruly, and altogether something of a nuisance.
 - The snow fell silently, densely, almost unnoticed, in an even whiteness which soon covered the whole landscape.
3. To separate parts of date and addresses:
 - 23rd July, 2016.
 - Monday, 15 August, 2016.
 - James Roberts Esq.,
 - Woodstock Manor,
 - Ancoats Road, Wolverton, Surrey.
4. Use a comma to separate introductory phrases and clauses from the independent clause, particularly if the phrase or clause is long:
 - Although he had never played a guitar, he somehow managed to make beautiful music.

5. Pairs, to enclose words used 'in apposition' - words which follow a noun to tell you more about it:
 - This vase, a fine specimen of its kind, is now my property.
 - John Maxwell, Chairman of our company, has just arrived.
 - The dodo, a curious bird, is now extinct.
6. In pairs, to enclose words or phrases like: 'however', 'well' 'by the way', 'to speak plainly':
 - He admitted, however, that he was wrong. (However, he admitted that he was wrong.)
 - You told me, by the way, that you still had it.
7. To separate or enclose names of people being spoken to:
 - Please, Brother, will you help me?
 - Try to do it now, Rakib.
 - Thank you, Sir, for your advice.
 - David, will you please listen to me.
8. To separate words spoken as direct speech from the rest of a sentence:
 - My brother said, "That is just as it should be."
 - "That is just as it should be," said my brother.
9. In letters, after Dear Sir, Dear Mr. Jonh, etc., and after Yours faithfully, Yours sincerely, etc.
10. In all other cases, to separate parts of a sentence wherever a slight pause seems desirable.
 - Observe the following examples:
 - If it is fine tomorrow, I should like to go cycling.
 - Although we tried hard to win the game, we lost five runs.
 - My friend Hasan, whom you met last week at my party, has married today.

In such cases as these, the modern way is to use as few commas as are needed to show the meaning clearly. Do not scatter your commas everywhere.

➤ **The semicolon (;)** is used to connect independent clauses. It shows a closer relationship between the clauses than a period would show.

○ **Rules of Semicolons:**

1. This is useful in longer sentences if you want to present several ideas which, though separate, might properly belong in one sentence:
 - You could wait for him here; on the other hand I could wait in your place; this would save your valuable time.
 - I have not read any of his novels; I know his plays, though.
2. Use a semicolon to join two sentences when the second sentence begins with a transitional word or phrase (also known as a conjunctive adverb).
 - Our appetite for new cars, the latest style of jeans, and a new brand of hairspray keeps growing; therefore, our economy keeps growing.

3. Use a semicolon to link two independent clauses:

- To give a good party, you must consider the lighting; no one feels comfortable under the bright glare of fluorescent.

A. **The Colon (:) a colon simply means as follows.** It will help you to think of the colon as having the meaning of 'namely' or 'to state in detail'. It has three main uses. The first is after a word introducing a quotation, an explanation, an example, or a series. The second is between independent clauses when the second explains the first, similar to a semicolon. The third use of a colon is for emphasis.

○ **Rules for Colon:**

1. Use a colon when making a list:

- There are four ingredients necessary to make a good party: music, lighting, food, and personality.
- For camping you need; a tent, groundsheet, sleeping bag, and cooking equipment.

2. It introduces a quotation or a statement given as an example or enlargement of what has just been mentioned:

- The poem begins: "Earth has not anything to show more fair."
- His house became what one might expect after years of neglect: a battered, decrepit wreck.

C. **The Note of Interrogation/Question Mark (?)**

Any word, group of words, or sentence forming a question must be followed by this mark.

○ **Rules for question mark:**

1. Use a question mark at the end of a question sentence.

- Can you tell me your name?
- Wherefore art thou, Romeo?

2. If the question is a quotation, put quotation marks after the question mark.

- He asked, "May I go now?"
- "How do I look?" she asked.

3. If the question is not part of the quotation, put the question mark after the quotation marks.

- Do you believe in "death for death"?
- What do you think of "No new taxes"?

Note: The Question Mark is not used after an indirect question. For example -He asked me whether I had written my assignment.

D. **The Note of Exclamation/Exclamation Mark (!)**

Exclamation Marks are used for emphasis! Excitement! Surprise! For example -

- Stop!
- Get lost!
- Wow, what a fine picture!

E. Dash (_____)

Dashes are a kind of optional punctuation – some people use them, others don't. Often you can use a comma or parenthesis instead of dashes.

Dash is used –

1. To indicate an abrupt stop or change of thought; as
–If my father were alive – but why lament the past.
2. To resume a scattered subject or to show flattering speech; as
–Friends, companions, relatives – all deserted him.
“Yes – well – I would – only you see – it's not easy.”

Dash is used to separate words into statements. There are two common types of dashes: en dash and em dash

- **Em dash:** Longer than the en dash, the em dash can be used in place of a comma, parenthesis, or colon to enhance readability or emphasize the conclusion of a sentence.

For example, she gave him her answer — No!

Whether you put spaces around the em dash or not is a style choice. Just be consistent

- **En dash:** Twice as long as a hyphen, the en dash is a symbol (–) that is used in writing or printing to indicate a range, connections or differentiations, such as 1880-1945 or Princeton-New York train

F. The Hyphen (-)

A hyphen separates compound words. In etymological evolution, two words may be separate, then joined by a hyphen, then joined altogether. For instance, week and end to week-end, and then finally to weekend. A hyphen is shorter than a dash.

○ Rules for Hyphen

1. If the pair of words forms an adjective that comes before the noun, use a hyphen.
 - Well-known bird
 - First-class work
2. If the adjective pair comes after the noun, you don't need to use a hyphen.
 - His crimes are well known.
 - His work is always first class.
3. Use a hyphen for fractions acting as adjectives;
 - He drank one and two-thirds cans of Coca-Cola.
 - But not fractions acting as noun:
 - Two thirds of the people have gone home.
4. Use a hyphen to differentiate certain words:
 - He recollected his memories of 1971.
 - He re-collected the money.
 - She recovered from the flu.
 - She re-covered the sofa.

G. The Apostrophe (')

The apostrophe is used to show ownership.

- Rana's father has come.

- Mother's office ...
- **Rules for Apostrophe:**
 1. The apostrophe is used to show the omission of a letter or letters; as -
 - Don't e'er I've
 2. To form plural of letters and figures, apostrophe is used; as -
 - Dot your i's and cut your t's.
 - You need to write 2 t's in the word 'written'.
 3. If the plural noun doesn't end in -s, add an apostrophe and -s. For example-
 - The women's freedom
 - The bacteria's
 - The committee's decision
 4. If the plural ends in -s, just add an apostrophe.
 - The babies' wears
 - The politicians' promise
 5. If the word is a proper noun that ends in -s, add an apostrophe and an -s.
 - Yeats's poem
 - Ross's riddle
 - Chris's crisis

H. The Parenthesis/Bracket ()

Use parenthesis to enclose extra materials (explanation, asides, etc.) that are not basic to the meaning of the sentence but that would otherwise interrupt the flow of the sentence.

- Franklin Delano Roosevelt (Democrat, New York) was the only person to be elected President four times.
- He gained from Heaven (it was all he wished) a friend.

I. The Asterisk (*)

Asterisk is used to draw some special attention; and two or more asterisks are used to denote that some words or phrases or clauses have been intentionally left out.

- Punctuation* is very important in writing.
- The woman*** at last confessed the crime.

II. Capitalization:

Rules for Capitalization

1. Capitalize the first word of every sentence and of every sentence within quotation. For example,
 - A voice from my left side said, "How can I help you?"
 - But do not capitalize quoted words that are not a complete sentence. For example,
 - A voice from my left side asked if I wanted "cream, sugar, or dessert."
2. Capitalize the names of days, months, and holidays. Do not capitalize the seasons of the year (fall, spring, summer, and winter). For example,

- Wednesday May Memorial Day
- 3. Capitalize the names of specific people, institutions, religions, and places, including the names of cities, states, regions of a country, and countries and their languages.
 - The famous poet from Ireland, Seamus Heaney, spoke at Richland College in Dallas, Texas, in Fannin Building. Living half of each year in the East while he teaches at Harvard University, he rarely travels to the Southwest. He spoke about the roots of the Catholic and Protestant conflict.
- 4. Do not capitalize directions. For example,
 - Turn east at the stop light.
- 5. Capitalize people's titles (and their abbreviations).
 - Mr. Heaney was introduced by Professor Jerry Mc Elveen.
- 6. Capitalize the names of specific courses.
 - Elizabeth has entered into the undergraduate programme. She is going to take History 101, and Political Science 201.
- 7. Capitalize the first word, the major words, and the first word after a colon in a title. Do not capitalize articles (a, an, the), coordinating conjunctions (and, or, for), and prepositions under five letters long (of, by, on) within titles.
 - Beauty and the Beast (movie title)
 - "The Last Laughs: The Best and Worst of 1992" (essay title)
 - No Jacket Required (album title)
 - "Another Day in Paradise" (song title)
 - Sports Illustrated (magazine title)

EXERCISES

Practice ①: Use appropriate punctuation and capitalization marks in the following passage:

i came here yesterday from my village he said why did you come i asked my mother sent me to you with this letter he replied how is your mother i have not seen her for a long time I said.

Practice ② Use appropriate punctuation and capitalization marks in the following passage:

why do you not go asked the eldest of the girls and the mistress of the house Do you find your payment too little Then turning to her sisters she said Give him another dinner By Allah sweet ladies replied the porter You have paid me well enough my ordinary pay is but a few coppers It is about you that my heart is troubled How is it that you lived alone in this house with no man to attend you

Practice ③: Rewrite the following sentences using appropriate punctuation and capitalization.

1. yes sir i will do it as soon as i can.
2. the girl who is standing there is his sister
3. they offer us a variety of food
4. how is your mother now
5. you may of course speak to us anytime you wish

6. would you like to go along with me hassan asked
7. you said you could play didn't you
8. she has made an outstanding result said his teacher

Practice ⑤: Rewrite the following sentences with appropriate punctuation and capitalization:

1. The following are the primary colors red, blue, and yellow.
2. When the teacher commented that her spelling was poor, Mamun replied All the members of my family are poor spellers. Why not me?
3. Though Palash said he would arrive on the 9:20 flight, he came instead on the 10:30 flight.
4. Several countries participated in the airlift Italy, Belgium, France, and Luxembourg.
5. What are you doing next weekend
6. Ruth was invited to the party but she was ill so Jane went instead of her
7. Is it any use expecting them to be on time
8. A textbook can be a wall between teacher and class
9. Mother had to go into hospital she had heart problems
10. We will be arriving on Monday morning at least I think so

ANSWERS

Practice ①:

"I came here yesterday from my village," he said. "Why did you come?" I asked. "My mothersent me to you with this letter," he replied. "How is your mother? I have not seen her for a long time," I said.

Practice ②:

"Why do you not go?" asked the eldest of the girls and the mistress of the house, "Do you find your payment too little?" Then, turning to her sisters, she said, "Give him another dinner." "By Allah, sweet ladies," replied the porter, "You have paid me well enough; my ordinary pay is but a few coppers. It is about you that my heart is troubled. How is it that you lived alone in this house with no man to attend you?"

Practice ③:

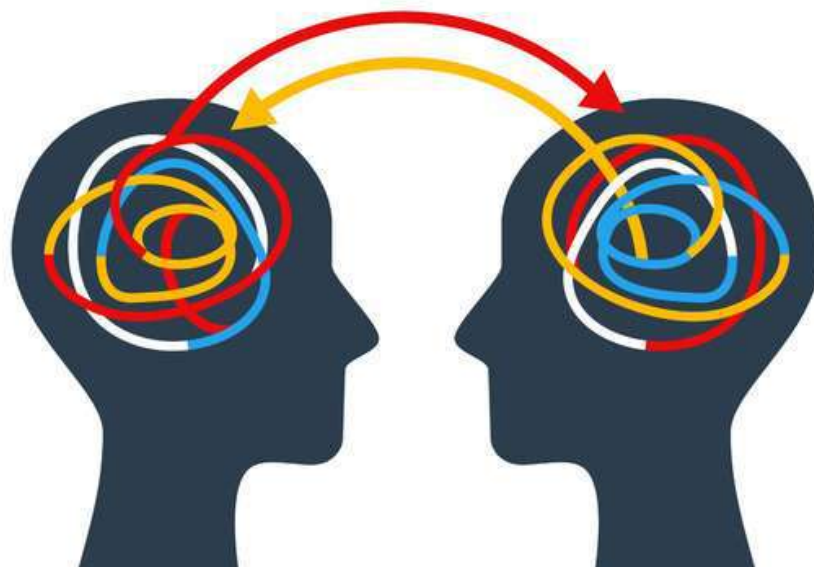
1. Yes sir I will do it as soon as I can.
2. The girl who is standing there is his sister.
3. They offer us a variety of food.
4. How is your mother now?
5. You may, of course, speak to us anytime you wish.
6. Would you like to go along with me Hassan asked.
7. You said you could play, didn't you?
8. "She has made an outstanding result", said his teacher.

Practice ④:

1. The following are the primary colors: red, blue, and yellow.
2. When the teacher commented that her spelling was poor, Lynn replied, “All the members of my family are poor spellers. Why not me?”
3. Though Phil said he would arrive on the 9:19 flight, he came instead on the 10:36 flight.
4. Several countries participated in the airlift: Italy, Belgium, France, and Luxembourg.
5. What are you doing next weekend?
6. Ruth was invited to the party, but she was ill, so Jane went instead of her.
7. Is it any use expecting them to be on time?
8. A textbook can be a ‘wall’ between teacher and class.
9. Mother had to go into hospital: she had heart problems.
10. We will be arriving on Monday morning – at least, I think so.

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Learning Objectives

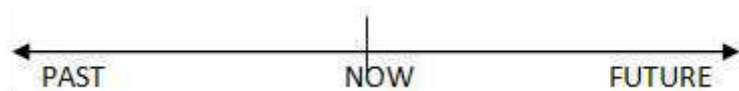
By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

- Identify and distinguish the twelve verb tenses in English.
- Use appropriate tenses in academic and scientific contexts.
- Analyze the function of verb tenses in scientific texts, such as reports, articles, and summaries.

Lesson 05_ Tenses in Academic and Scientific English

Tense is a grammatical category that situates an action or state in **time**—past, present, or future. In academic and scientific writing, **tense usage is governed by convention and function**. The accurate use of tenses enhances **coherence, credibility, and logical flow** in written discourse.

Tenses play a crucial role in the English language. It denotes the time an action takes place, whether sometime in the past, in the present or will take some time in the future.



From a general view of tenses, this module will go on to discuss each tense in detail with examples and also New way to learn Tense with Examples and Exercises. The table below gives a glimpse of the way tenses are used using the verb 'play'

	Past	Present	Future
Simple	Played (verb+ed)	Plays (verb+s)	will/shall play (will/shall+verb)
Perfect	had played (had+past participle)	has/have played (has/have+past Participle)	will/shall have played (will/shall+ past participle)
Continuous	was/were playing (was/were+verb+ing)	is/am/are playing (is/am/are+ verb+ ing)	will/shall be playing (will/shall be+ verb+ ing)

I. Past tense

1. Simple Past Tense

Indicates an action took place before the present moment and that has no real connection with the present time.

Past Simple =	Verb + ed (regular verb) / See a list of irregular verbs	Affirmative
	Did+ Subject+ mean verb+?	Interrogative
	Subject+ did+ not+ Verb (inf.)	Negative

For example,

- She danced in the Party. (inf. Verb: dance)
- He left to London yesterday. (inf. Verb: leave)

- The action took place in the past, is finished and is completely unrelated to the present.

Note:

- The verb “danced” is regular verb, we add “ed”;
- The verb “left” is an irregular verb which does not take 'ed' in the past tense like regular verbs.

2. The uses:

- **Completed Action in the past:** we use the past simple to express a situation that started and finished at a specific time in the past. E.g. I saw a movie last time. I didn't see a movie last time. Did you see a movie last time?
- **A Series of Completed action:** we use the simple past to list of series of completed actions in the past: e.g. I finished work, walked to the beach and I found a nice place.
- **Repeated Action:** exp. I went to Austria a few times.
- **Habits in the past, like:** I studied English, when I was a Child.

3. Past Perfect Tense

Indicates an action in the past that had been completed before another time or event in the past.

Past Perfect =	had (to have in the past) + verb
	(past participle form or the 3 rd form of the verb)

For example:

- He had exercised before it started to rain.
- He had slept before I came back from the market.

4. Past Continuous Tense

Indicates an action going on at sometime in the past or an action in the past that is longer in duration than another action in the past.

Past Continuous =	Was/ were (to be in the past) + verb+ ing	Affirmative
	Was/ were + “Not” + verb+ ing	Negative
	Was/ Were + “Subject (Noun)” + verb+ ing?	Interrogative

Exp.:

- It was getting darker.
- The light went out while they were reading.

 The Uses the past continuous in a number of situations:

- To describe an action or a situation at a particular time that was in progress in the past:
e.g. in 2010, I was studying for my masters.
- To describe a longer action that interrupted by another action. The long action is in the past continuous and the action that interrupts it is in past simple:

e.g. I was watching TV when you rang. E.g. when Anna was reading,

- **To describe two parallel actions those are happening at the same time.**

e.g. Tom was watching movies.

- **We use the progressive with actions. We don't normally use it with state verbs. For stat Verb we use the simple past.**

e.g. I don't know where you were.

5. Past Perfect Continuous Tense

Indicates an action in the past that took place before another time or event in the past and continued during the second event/time point in the past.

Past Perfect Continuous =

had (to have in the past) + been (past participial of verb to be)+ verb+ ing

Examples:

- At that time, he had been writing a novel for two months.
- He had been exercising when I called

II. Present tense

1. Simple Present Tense

Indicates an action that is generally true (truth) or habitual (routines). That is, it took place in the past, continue to take place in the present, and will take place in the future.

- This tense is used to denote Habitual action (hobbies and routines): exp. He walks to school;
- General truths (truth): exp. The sun rises in the east.
- A future event that is part of a fixed timetable; exp: The match starts at 9 o' clock.

Simple Present =

verb (infinitive without 'to' and agreeable with the subject)
with: He/ She/ It + "s" ; without "s" with (I/You/We/They)

2. Present Perfect Tense

Indicates an action that has been completed sometime before the present moment, with a result that affects the present situation.

Present Perfect =

Has /have (to have in the present) + verb
(past participle form or the 3rd form of the verb)

Exp:

- He has finished the work.
- He has slept.

3. Present Continuous Tense

Indicates an action that is taking place at the moment of speaking.

Present Continuous =	am/are/is (to be in the present) + verb+ ing
-----------------------------	--

Exp:

- She is walking. / - I am studying. / - He is going at school/ - They are talking about movies.

4. Present Perfect Continuous Tense

Indicates an action that started in the past and is continuing at the present time.

Present Continuous =	Have/has (to have in the present)+ been+ verb+ ing
-----------------------------	--

- Exp: - He has been sleeping for an hour.

III. Future Perfect Tense

1. Simple Future Tense

Indicates an action that will take place after the present time and that has no real connection with the present time.

Future Simple =	Will/ Shall + verb (Verb is in infinitive)
------------------------	---

- Exp: - She will visit her ailing grandmother soon. / - He will walk home.

2. Future Perfect Tense

Indicates an action in the future that will have been completed before another time or event in the future.

Future Perfect =	Will/ Shall +have+ verb (past participle form or 3rd form of the verb)
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- Exp: - By the time we arrive, he will have studied.

3. Future Continuous Tense

Indicates an action in the future that is longer in duration than another action in the future.

Future Continuous =	Will/ Shall be + verb + ing
----------------------------	-----------------------------

Exp: - He will be walking when it starts to rain.

4. Future Perfect Continuous Tense

Indicates an action in the future that will have been continuing until another time or event in the future.

Future Continuous =	Will/ Shall have+ been + verb + ing
----------------------------	-------------------------------------

- Exp: - He will have been exercising an hour at 8:00.

LET'S PRACTICE

Practice ① : Choose the correct verb from those in brackets:

- The earth _____ round the sun. (move, moves, moved)
- My friend _____ the film yesterday. (see, saw, have seen)
- It started to rain while we _____ tennis. (are playing, had played, were playing)
- I _____ English for five years. (have been studying, study, am studying)
- The train _____ before we reach the station. (arrives, will have arrived, had arrived)
- Don't disturb me. I _____ my work. (do, did, am doing)
- Fortune _____ the brave. (is favouring, will favour, favours)
- I _____ the letter before you arrived. (wrote, will write)
- He _____ us next week. (will have met, will have been meeting, will be meeting)
- Perhaps we _____ Delhi next month. (visit, will visit, visited)

Practice ②: Complete the dialogue.

Rashid: Rahul! Your friend Tom has sent you a postcard. It's from Italy. It _____ (look) nice.

Rahul: I bet it does!

Rashid: He _____ (write) that it's very hot there. There _____ (be) a lot of tourists. The hotels _____ (be) full. He _____ (say) the restaurants _____ (be) always full!

Rahul: Yes. I'm sure it is. The papers _____ (say) that the temperature there is 30C.

Rashid: Then he _____ (write) that he has learnt a bit of Malayalam, and that he _____ (get on) well with the people there, especially the women!

Rashid: Look, didn't the newspaper _____ (say) that there's another strike in Kerala.

Rahul: Yes, it did Manas won't mind having to stay in Kerala longer!

Practice ③: Correct the following sentences:

-He had gone to Madras last week.

-The train leave the station before I reached there.

-I wish my men had been coming quickly and find us.

-At the moment the baby sleep in the cradle.

-I lived in Calcutta since 1930.

-She died before her husband came.

-I have written a letter to her last Monday.

-I am reading Kalidasa for the last six days.

-The new hotel has been opened last Saturday.

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- Hyland, K. (2006). *English for Academic Purposes*. Routledge.
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✚ For more information visit this link:

https://www.unlv.edu/sites/default/files/page_files/27/GradCollege-VerbTenseScientificManuscripts.pdf

Learning Objectives

After the completion of this unit, you would be able to-

- Understand the purpose and structure of a written text.
- Identify key elements such as **main idea**, **supporting details**, **structure**, **vocabulary**, and **tone**.
- Develop skills in **critical reading** and **text interpretation** for academic purposes.

Lesson 06_ Analyze the Scientific Text

A *scientific text* refers to any written document that conveys information related to scientific concepts, theories, or topics grounded in scientific knowledge. These texts are characterized by the use of specialized technical language appropriate for the intended audience, often experts or learners within a particular scientific field.

Scientific texts typically emerge from research processes, during which data and relevant observations are collected and analyzed. They are structured in a clear, organized, and systematic manner, usually including essential components such as the description of procedures, presentation of results and data, interpretation of findings, and well-reasoned conclusions.

1. Definition:

To **analyze a text** means to **break it down into its component parts** to understand how it is constructed and what it aims to communicate. It involves examining the **content**, **language**, **organization**, and **intent** of the text.

2. Key Aspects to Analyze in a Text:

- a) **Main Idea**
 - What is the central message or thesis of the text?
- b) **Supporting Details**
 - What facts, examples, or arguments are used to support the main idea?
- c) **Structure**
 - How is the text organized (e.g., introduction, body, conclusion)?
 - Are there headings, paragraphs, lists?
- d) **Vocabulary and Terminology**
 - Are there domain-specific or scientific terms?
 - Is the language formal or informal?
- e) **Tone and Purpose**
 - Is the text informative, persuasive, descriptive, or narrative?
 - What is the author's attitude?

- f) Audience
 - Who is the intended reader?
 - Is the language adapted to suit experts, students, or the general public?

3. Why Is Text Analysis Important in Science and Academia?

Analyzing a text allows students and researchers to:

- Critically evaluate sources before citing them.
- Summarize or paraphrase effectively.
- Understand the structure of scientific and academic writing.
- Identify bias, credibility, and reliability.

Practice ①: Read the following short scientific paragraph and answer the questions below:

“Photosynthesis is the process by which green plants convert light energy into chemical energy. This transformation takes place in chloroplasts, using water, carbon dioxide, and sunlight. The end product, glucose, serves as a source of energy for the plant.”

Questions:

1. What is the main idea of the paragraph?
2. Which sentence describes the process?
3. What is the tone and purpose of the text?
4. Identify at least two scientific terms.

4. Main characteristics of a scientific text _ Good scientific writing is:

- a) Clear : it avoids unnecessary detail
- b) Simple: it uses direct language, avoiding vague or complicated sentences. Technical terms and jargon are used only when they are necessary for accuracy
- c) Impartial: it avoids making assumptions (Everyone knows that ...) and unproven statements (It can never be proved that ...). It presents how and where data were collected and supports its conclusions with evidence.
- d) Structured logically: ideas and processes are expressed in a logical order. The text is divided into sections with clear headings;
- e) Accurate : it avoids vague and ambiguous language such as about, approximately, almost
- f) Objective: statements and ideas are supported by appropriate evidence that demonstrates how conclusions have been drawn as well as acknowledging the work of others.

5. Identifying structure.

Five common types of structure used in scientific texts are:

- a) **Generalization:** the extension or clarification of main ideas through explanations or examples.
- b) **Enumeration:** listing of facts (numbered list).
- c) **Sequence:** a connecting series of events or steps; describe series of steps in a process.
- d) **Classification:** grouping items into classes or categories.
- e) **Comparison / contrast:** examining the relationships between two or more things. In comparison, both similarities and differences are studied. In contrast, only the differences are noted

6. The purpose of a scientific text:

The purpose of a scientific text is to inform, or to provide an explanation. When the author wants to provide an explanation for a scientific phenomenon, they will clearly explain a process or a scientific concept. Texts that provide an explanation are written simply to present information to the reader.

7. Scientific text analysis:

- Begin by reading the introduction, not the abstract.
- Identify the big question.
- Summarize the background in five sentences or less.
- Identify the specific question(s).
- Identify the approach.
- Read the methods section.
- Read the results section and you finish with the conclusion.

8. What tense to use in scientific writing?

First, some background about the verb tenses discussed below. In general terms, the tense of a verb reflects the timing of the action: the past tense indicates that an action already occurred, the present tense indicates that the action is currently occurring, and the future tense indicates that the event has not yet occurred. Verbs can also be conjugated into a past, present, or future perfect tense, in which the action is defined relative to another point in time (see the examples below).

➤ For example,

1. **Title:** For many journals, the manuscript title does not need to be a complete sentence, and no verb is necessary. In cases where a complete sentence is appropriate, use the simple present tense.
2. **Introductory** statements describing the current understanding of the issue should use the present tense, references to previous research should use the present perfect, and descriptions of the methods and results should use the past tense.

3. In the **discussion** section, the past tense is generally used to summarize the findings. But when you are interpreting the results or describing the significance of the findings, the present tense should be used.
4. The **results** section usually requires the past tense to detail the results obtained. Example: Overall, more than 70% of the granite collected were non-radioactive.
NOTE: Present tense may be used in the key/legend for figures, tables and graphs in the results section.
5. The **concluding** statements are usually written in the present tense, and if the author makes recommendations about the usage of the study findings as well as scope for further research, these are usually presented in the future tense. We hope this helps. All the best for your manuscript!. Authors may use a carefully selected (and contextually relevant) combination of present and past tense in this section.

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"Text analysis involves more than reading—it requires critical thinking and understanding how a text is constructed for specific purposes."
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NEXT Lesson 06_ Method of Scientific texts analysis

In the field of academic and scientific communication, the ability to analyze a text is a fundamental skill. It enables students to go beyond simple reading by understanding how a text is structured, what message it conveys, and how the author uses language and evidence to support ideas. This skill is particularly important for students in scientific disciplines, as it fosters critical thinking and prepares them to read, understand, and evaluate scientific literature.

In this lesson, students will learn how to identify the main idea of a text, recognize supporting details, analyze vocabulary and tone, and understand the purpose and audience of a given passage. Through guided examples and practice activities, students will enhance their ability to interpret scientific and academic texts with accuracy and clarity.

The lesson also emphasizes the importance of structured reading strategies and analytical thinking, which are essential for producing effective written and oral communication in academic settings.

❖ Step 01: Define the Goal and Purpose of Reading a Scientific Text.

Before engaging with any scientific article or academic text, it is essential to clearly define your goal and purpose for reading. Understanding why you are reading a particular text will shape how you read it and which parts you focus on more attentively.

For example, if your purpose is to gather background information, you may concentrate on the introduction and discussion sections. If you are interested in methodology or data, your attention may shift to the materials, methods, and results. Setting a clear objective allows you to prioritize specific sections, read more efficiently, and extract the most relevant information based on your needs.

This strategic approach is particularly important in academic and scientific contexts, where texts are often complex, detailed, and purpose-driven.

➤ **NOTE:** Always ask yourself:

- Am I reading to understand a concept?
- To evaluate a method?
- To support my own research?
- To summarize findings?

- a- Learn about **new** topic: If you are new to a topic, it is important to read the **introduction** and **conclusion** sections carefully. The introduction will provide you with background information and the conclusion will summarize the main findings of the article. You may also want to read the methods and results sections to get a better understanding of how the study was conducted and what were found.

- b- Enter a **new** field: If you are entering a **new field**, it is important to focus on the beginning and end of articles. The introduction will provide you with an overview of the field and the conclusion will discuss the future directions of research.
- c- **Evaluate** the author's arguments (reviewer): If you are reviewing or evaluating an article, it is important to read the entire work carefully and critically. You should focus on **evaluating the quality of the work and the data**, as well as the author's **interpretations**. You should also consider whether the article is presented in a logical way and whether the author(s) have appropriately addressed any controversial topics.
- d- Stay informed about current events: If you are reading news articles to stay informed about **current events**, it is important to focus on the **conclusion and introduction** sections.

➤ It depends on your time managements sections can be prioritizes as the following statements;

- Read the **conclusion and introduction** first. This will give you a quick overview of the event and its significance.
- Read the body of the article if you have time. This will give you more detailed information about the event.
- Pay attention to the **sources cited** in the article. This can help you to assess the credibility of the information.
- **Be critical** of the information presented in the article. Consider the author's perspective and any potential biases.
- Read from a **variety of sources** to get a well-rounded view of the event.

➤ It is also **important to be aware** of the following when reading news articles:

- News articles can be biased. The author's perspective and any potential biases may influence the way the event is reported.
- News articles may not be complete. News outlets may only report on certain aspects of an event or may omit important information.
- News articles can be sensationalized. News outlets may exaggerate the importance of an event or use inflammatory language to attract readers.
- By being critical of the information presented in news articles and reading from a variety of sources, you can stay informed about current events in a way that is both comprehensive and balanced.

❖ Step 02: Understanding the Author's Purpose

In scientific writing, both the reader and the author are important. The author writes with a specific goal, and the reader must understand that goal to better understand the text.

- The author might write to:
 - Share new research results
 - Explain a method
 - Review other studies
 - Give an opinion on a scientific issue
- To understand the author's purpose, you should look at:
 - What field the author works in
 - What kind of problem they are trying to solve
 - How this article fits into their research work
 - Whether the article wants to inform, convince, or explain

Knowing the author's purpose helps you understand how they explain their results and what they want the reader to think or learn.

- Practice Question: Read a short scientific article and ask yourself:
 - Why did the author write this text?
 - What are they trying to tell or prove?

❖ Step 03: Six key questions to ask.

These are the key questions to ask during reading a paper, all these questions have to be asked for each section of the paper, introduction, methods, figure and tables, discussion and conclusion;

1. What do the author(s) want to know (motivation)?
2. What did they do (approach/methods)?
3. Why was it done that way (context within the field)?
4. What do the results show (figures and data tables)?
5. How did the author(s) interpret the results (interpretation/discussion)?
6. What should be done next?

❖ Step 04: reading and interpreting figures and tables of the paper

Figures and tables are the most important parts of a scientific research paper, as they contain the data that supports the authors' claims. They represent the Heart of a Scientific Research Paper.

- To elucidate and unpack each figure and tables, main questions have to be treated:
 1. What do the x- and y-axes represent?
 2. What statistical approach was used, if any?

3. Why was this particular plotting (graphs) approach used?
4. What experimental groups and variables are presented in the table?
5. How were the data collected?

❖ Step 05: Understanding the Purpose of Each Section in a Scientific Paper

A scientific research paper is usually organized into clear sections, each with a specific purpose. To fully understand a paper, you must know what to expect from each part and how to read it effectively.

➤ **Here are the main sections and their roles:**

1. **Title:** Gives a clear idea of the topic and focus of the research.
 2. **Abstract:** A short summary of the whole paper: purpose, methods, results, and conclusion.
 3. **Introduction:** Explains the background, the research question, and the goal of the study.
 4. **Methods (or Materials and Methods):** Describes how the study was done: tools, steps, and procedures.
 5. **Results:** Presents the data or findings, often with tables or figures, but without interpretation.
 6. **Discussion:** Explains what the results mean, connects them to other studies, and gives possible explanations.
 7. **Conclusion:** Summarizes the key points and sometimes suggests future research.
 8. **References:** Lists all the sources the author used.
- **NOTE:** When reading a scientific paper, focus on the section that matches your goal. For example, if you're interested in how the study was done, focus on the Methods. If you're looking for the meaning of the results, read the Discussion.

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- Day, R. A., & Gastel, B. (2012). *How to Write and Publish a Scientific Paper* (7th ed.). Cambridge University Press.
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- Day, R. A., & Gastel, B. (2012). *How to Write and Publish a Scientific Paper* (7th ed.). Cambridge University Press.
- “The reader's goal influences the approach to reading: whether for general understanding, specific data, or critical review, the strategy and sections of focus will vary accordingly.”

CHAPTER 03

WRITTEN COMMUNICATION

INCLUDES TWO LESSONS

Note-taking helps students record and organize key information for better understanding and memory. It is a simple but powerful skill for learning, studying, and succeeding in academic life.



Learning Objectives

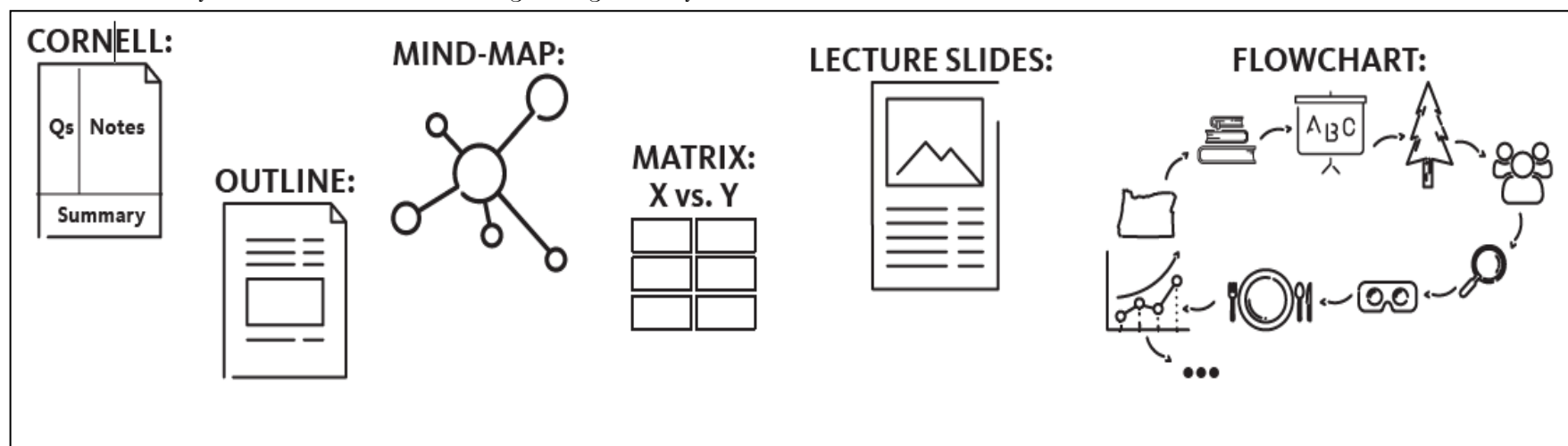
After the completion of this unit, you would be able to-

- Understand the importance of note-taking in academic and scientific settings.
- Identify different methods of note-taking (e.g., linear, Cornell, mapping).
- Apply appropriate techniques while listening to lectures or reading scientific texts.
- Improve retention and understanding through effective note organization.

Lesson 01_ Taking notes

In the university, taking notes and using notes later is a key part of learning and remembering information from lectures, class discussions, and other activities. Because note taking is such an important part of the learning process, it's a good idea to take time to evaluate your processes and experiment to find what note taking strategies work for each of your courses.

There are some **common ways** to take notes, and you've likely tried a few of them already. Keep in mind that how you take notes in different classes can—and should—vary. Here are a few note-taking strategies to try:



NOTE TAKING IS A PROCESS THAT HAPPENS BEFORE, DURING, AND AFTER CLASS

BEFORE

- ☆ Print out and review any lecture notes or slides



- ☆ Look for and connect your notes to learning outcomes
- ☆ Identify main concepts and terms you expect to learn

DURING

- ☆ Take notes in your own words
- ☆ Use consistent abbreviations and symbols
- ☆ Include notes for all aspects of the class (lecture, discussion, student questions/answers, visuals)
- ☆ Add depth and detail to the notes you bring to class
- ☆ Answer any questions you wrote before class

AFTER

- ☆ Make time to return to your notes after class
- ☆ Add to your notes at moments you marked confusing
- ☆ Relate your notes to the week's learning outcomes
- ☆ Compare notes with a classmate to catch missed info
- ☆ Transform your notes into a new format (e.g., visual, mind map, quiz questions, study guide)

- ☆ Write questions you hope the lecture will answer

- ☆ Be sure notes include information from all other assigned work for the week (Canvas or online content, readings, upcoming homework, videos, etc.)

- ☆ Try a few of the week's assigned practice problems

- ☆ Note new questions or areas of confusion from the lecture so you can review those concepts later

- ☆ Capture main ideas and sufficient detail (definitions, examples, images)



- ☆ Make and visualize connections between concepts



- ☆ Summarize your notes in writing, verbally, or—better yet—both!

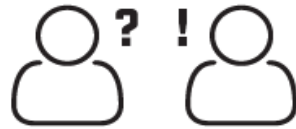
- ☆ Connect current class notes to concepts from the previous classes/weeks

- ☆ Use your notes to self-test on key concepts

10 GREAT WAYS TO USE YOUR NOTES

Here are a few ways you can use your notes to create long term memories and recall information on a test or in the next class you take which builds on the information.

1. Visit office hours to talk through questions you noted during lecture



2. Make a study guide.



3. Write a summary of main points:

The best times to see the unicorn are in the early morning and at dusk, right before nightfall. Narwhal tusks have been sold before as unicorn horns, much as the skate fish has been sold as scallop and monkfish as lobster. Unicorns, however, do not dwell in the sea, though they may be found in fields near the sea.

- A. Transform your notes into a visual.



- B. Fill in answers to questions you write during class.



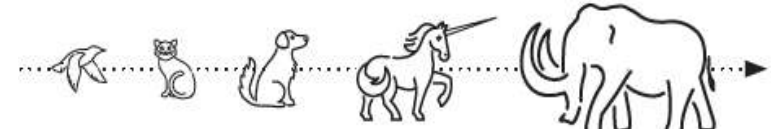
6. Write practice test questions

1. Describe 3 characteristics specific to the unicorn, shared by the narwhal.
2. Which of the following is true:
 - a. Unicorns can only be seen in the mist.
 - b. Narwhals are mythical creatures.
 - c. An even more mythical beast than both the narwhal and the unicorn is the uniwhal, which sports the head of a unicorn and a narwhal's body.
 - d. All of the above.

7. Make and organize post-it notes.



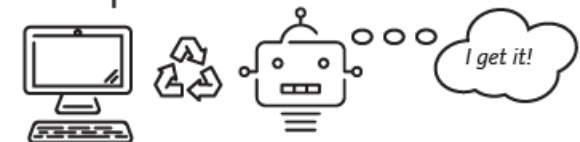
8. Make visual connections between notes from different lectures.



9. Identify real-world examples of main concepts.



10. Explain the main points from class to a friend who wasn't there



4 WAYS TO POWER UP YOUR NOTE TAKING STRATEGIES!

#1 TAKE NOTES IN YOUR OWN WORDS

- Your working memory stresses less when you think in your own words.
- When you transcribe lectures, you spend less time learning concepts during lecture

#2 TRANSFORM YOUR NOTES AFTER CLASS

- Transforming notes into a summary, diagram, or mind map creates new retrieval paths to your memory
- The test won't look like your notes; using and applying notes gives you practice with the material in different formats

#3 TAKE NOTES NO MATTER WHAT

- Instructor notes and slides are a good starting point, but your thinking matters!
- Include associations, questions, and details that might not be captured in the slides

#4 TAKE NOTES BY HAND IF POSSIBLE

- Note-taking on your laptop can invite multi-tasking and distract from listening and learning
- You can always convert your notes to a digital format later as part of your study process

**#5 USE
CONSISTENT
ABBREVIATIONS & SYMBOLS**

- Using abbreviations and symbols for common words saves time
- It's helpful to develop personal associations; signal these connections with symbols

**#6 BE OPEN
TO TRYING NEW
THINGS**

- Visit the ASC in Waldo 125 to talk through what strategy will work best for your course
- Challenges yourself to take notes in a new style to find what works for you

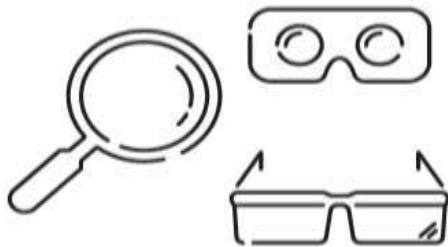
**#7 TAKE NOTES IN ALL OF
YOUR LEARNING
ENVIRONMENTS**

- Remember that class discussions and student comments are learning opportunities and can spur and deepen your thinking and understanding
- Online activities will be rich with note-worthy material, too (discussion boards, videos, practice problems)

BUT WHAT CAN I DO IF... !

MY INSTRUCTOR TALKS TOO FAST

- Use abbreviations so you can capture information faster
- After class, share and compare notes with friends
- Mark moments you want to return to or add detail to later when studying.
- If the lecture is recorded, revisit it later and fill in detail

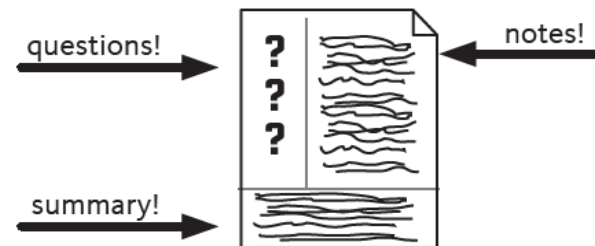


I'M HAVING TROUBLE UNDERSTANDING MY PROF BECAUSE OF AN ACCENT

- Write questions you hope will be answered in class
- Listen for main ideas, key terms, or answers to your questions
- Listen and watch for cues to important information
- Visit office hours to speak with the professor. The more you converse and listen to someone, the better you get at understanding features of their speech

THE LECTURE SLIDES ARE SPARSE

- Write questions you hope will be answered in class
- Look for connections and try to find additional information in your text, online, through work with a study group, etc.
- Use lecture slides as a starting point and add detail from other course content (textbook, videos, etc.)



I'M NOT SURE WHAT TO WRITE DOWN

- Listen and watch for references to concepts you read about
- Listen for repetition - often instructors will say things multiple times or in different ways to emphasize what they want you to know
- Listen for numbers (E.g., "There are 2 ways to think about..."), cues, and specific examples of a concept. All of these can all signal important information.
- Watch and listen for big ideas or how examples relate to a main point

NOTES ARE ONLY AS GOOD AS WHAT YOU DO WITH THEM LATER!

Notes are a starting point for exam prep. Your notes will be most useful if you think of them as a jumping off point for further learning. Put your notes to good use! Your brain will remember information better if it's seen it multiple times and has different pathways for accessing the information.

Use all of your senses. Whenever possible, using a range of senses while taking and using notes can help you remember information. For example, try writing your notes, then talking through them with a classmate, then drawing a picture based on main concepts.

Make connections. Don't let lecture be the first (or last!) time you hear about a concept. Read and take notes before class, add to notes during class, and make connections between concepts during and after class.

IN ALL SCENARIOS, IT'S A GOOD IDEA TO PRACTICE THE FOLLOWING:

- Prepare before class. Complete the reading and come with your own set of notes so you know what concepts that will be discussed;
- Mark moments you want to return to or add detail to later when studying;
- After class, share and compare notes with friends;
- Visit office hours to ask questions you had about the lecture.



Common Note-taking Methods:

- A. The Cornell Method
- B. The Outlining Method
- C. The Mapping Method
- D. The Charting Method
- E. The Sentence Method

A. THE CORNELL METHOD:

- Provides a systematic format for condensing and organizing notes without laborious recopying.
- After writing the notes in the main space, use the left-hand space to label each idea and detail with a key word or cue, or reminder.

METHOD:

Rule your paper with a 2-inch margin on the left leaving a six-inch area on the right in which to make notes.

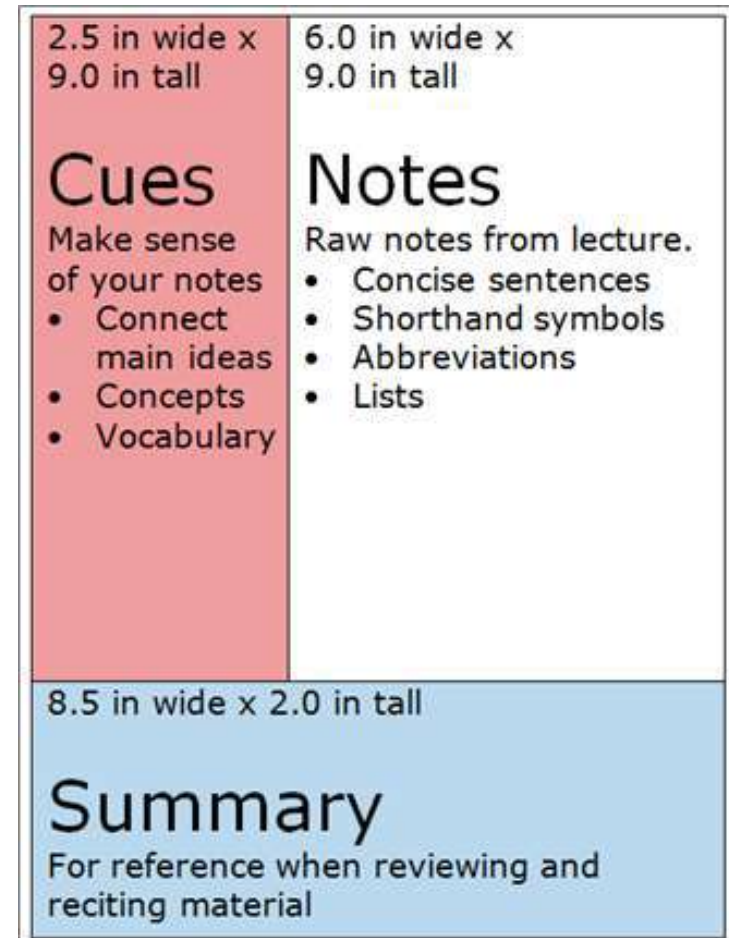
- During class, take down information in the six-inch area.
- When the instructor moves to a new point, skip a few lines.
- After class, complete phrases and sentences as much as possible.
- For every significant bit of information, write a cue in the left margin.

ADVANTAGES

- Organized and systematic for recording and reviewing notes.
- Easy format for pulling out major concepts and ideas.
- Simple and efficient.
- Saves time and effort.

WHEN TO USE

- In any lecture situation



B. THE OUTLINING METHOD

- Most common form of note-taking used by university/college students
- Organizes the information in a highly structured, logical manner, forming a skeleton of the textbook chapter or lecture subject that serves as an excellent study guide when preparing for tests.

METHOD

- Write in points in an organized pattern based on space indentation.
- Place major points farthest to the left.
- Indent each more specific point to the right.
- Levels of importance will be indicated by distance away from the major point.

ADVANTAGES

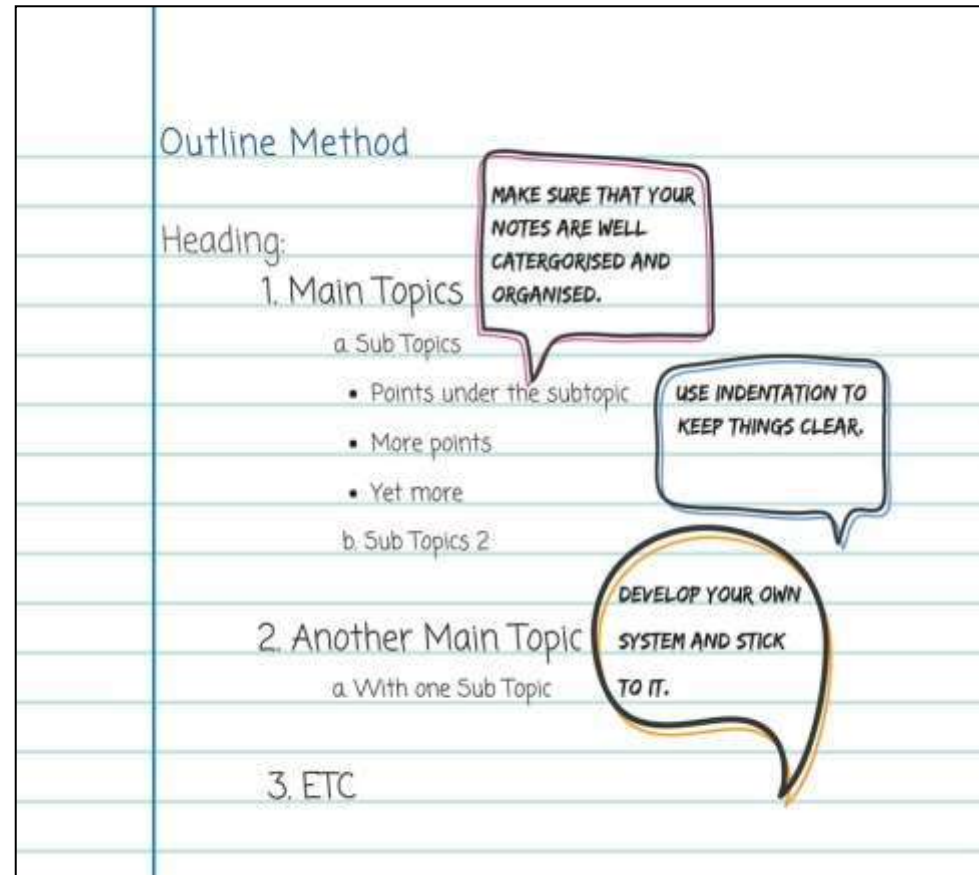
- Emphasizes content as well as relationships between the material
- Reduces the time needed for editing and allows for easy reviewing

DISADVANTAGES

- Requires more thought in class for an accurate organization.
- Cannot be used if the lecture is too fast.

WHEN TO USE

- Use when there is enough time in the lecture to think about and make organizational decisions



when they are needed.

C. THE MAPPING METHOD

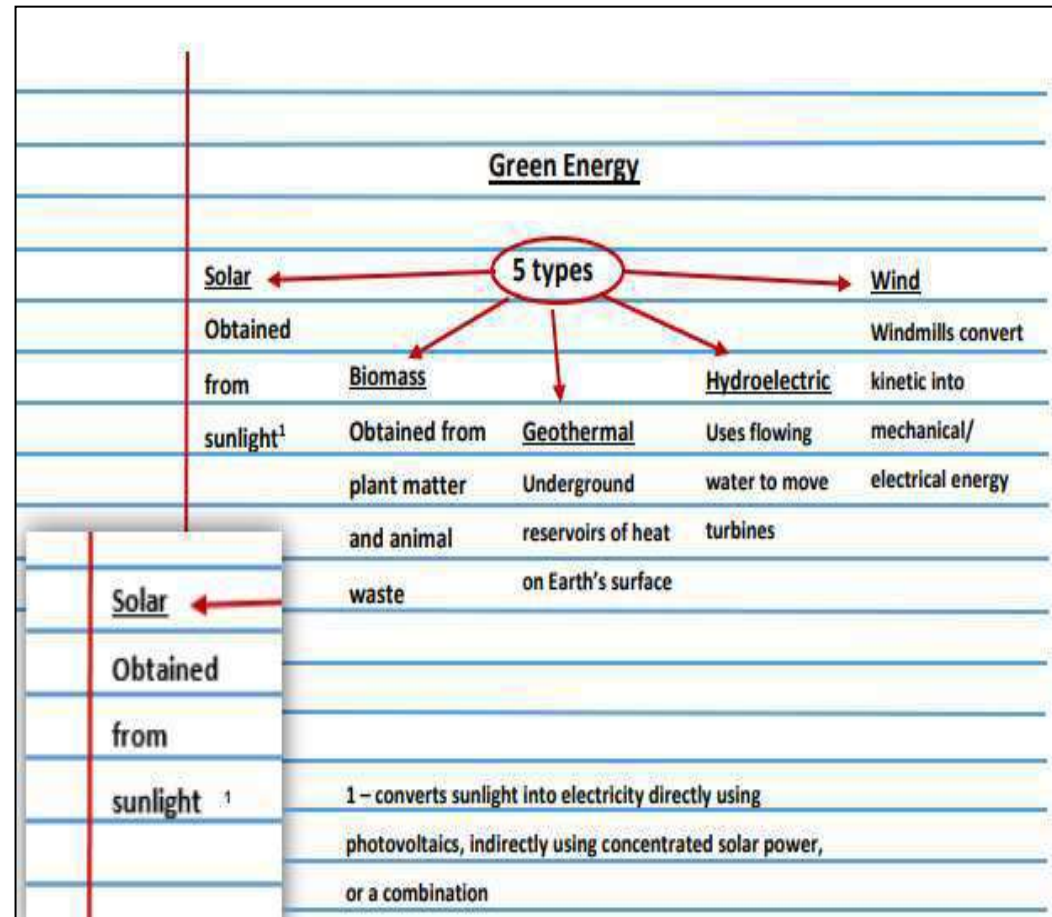
- Mapping is a graphic representation of the content of a lecture.
- Uses comprehension/concentration skills and evolves in a note-taking form that relates each fact or idea to every other fact or idea.
- It is a method that maximizes active participation, affords immediate knowledge as to its understanding, and emphasizes critical thinking.

ADVANTAGES

- Helps to visually track lectures regardless of conditions.
- Little thinking is needed and relationships can easily be seen.
- Easy to edit notes by adding numbers, marks, and color coding.

WHEN TO USE

- Use when the lecture content is heavy and well-organized.



D. THE CHARTING METHOD

This method involves using a table to make notes.

- Separate columns for main points, questions, details, etc.
- Method
- Determine the categories to be covered in the lecture.
- Divide the page into separate columns.
- Give each column a heading or a label.
- Think about how you want to organize your notes to identify the most useful headings.
- Enter notes under the relevant column.
- Record information (words, phrases, main ideas, etc.) into the appropriate category.

ADVANTAGES

- Helps you track conversations and dialogues where you would normally be confused and lose out on relevant content.
- Reduces the amount of writing necessary.
- Provides an easy review mechanism for both memorization of facts and the study of comparisons and relationships.
- Reduce the amount of time spent editing and reviewing at test time.
- Get an overview of the whole course on one big paper sequence.

WHEN TO USE

- Contents are heavy and presented fast.

MAIN TOPIC A	
SUBTOPIC A	SUBTOPIC B
KEY POINT A	KEY POINT A
KEY POINT B	KEY POINT B
KEY POINT C	KEY POINT C
KEY POINT D	

THE SENTENCE METHOD

METHOD

- Write every new thought, fact, or topic on a separate line, numbering as you progress.

ADVANTAGES:

- More organized than the paragraph.
- Gets more or all of the information.
- Thinking to tract content is still limited.

DISADVANTAGES

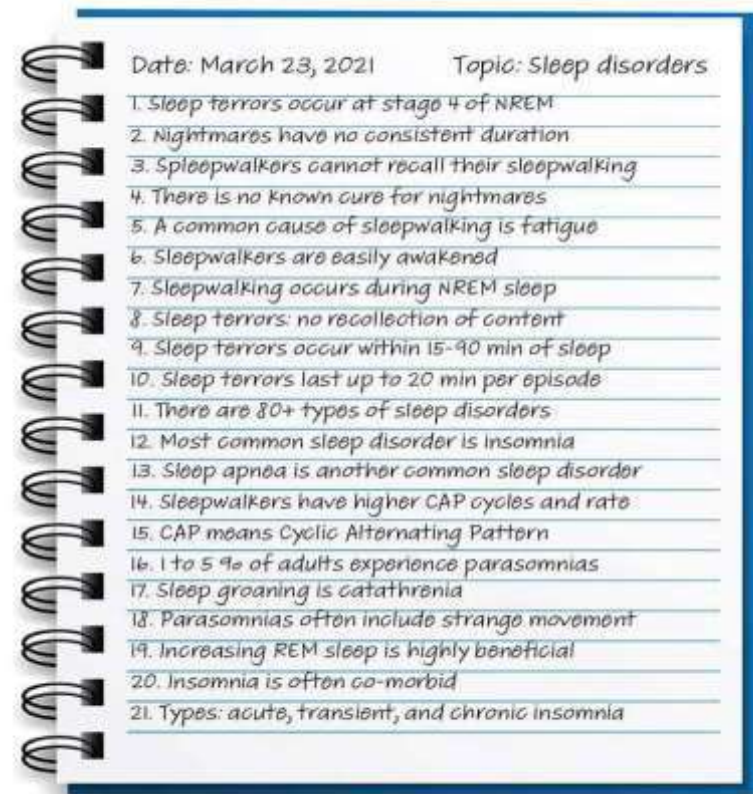
- Can't determine major/minor points from the numbered sequence.
- Difficult to edit without having to rewrite by clustering points that are related.
- Difficult to review unless editing cleans up a relationship

WHEN TO USE

- Use when the lecture is somewhat organized, but heavy with content which comes fast.

EXAMPLE:

- A revolution is any occurrence that affects other aspects of life, such as economic life, social life, and so forth. Therefore revolutions cause change. (see page 29 to 30 in your text about this).
- Sample Notes: Revolution – occurrence that affects other aspects of life: e.g., econ., socl. Etc. C.f. text, pp. 29-30



Chapter 03_ Written Communication

Learning Objectives

After the completion of this unit, you would be able to:

- Understand the purpose of summarizing.
- Identify the main ideas and key information in a scientific text.
- Write a concise and accurate summary using their own words.
- Apply note-taking skills to help with summarizing.

Lesson 02_ Summarizing Scientific Texts

Summarizing is the process of reducing a text to its essential points while preserving its original meaning. In academic and scientific contexts, summarizing helps students better understand complex information, prepare for exams, and communicate ideas clearly. A good summary is **brief, objective, and written in the summarizer's own words**.

➤ Students will learn how to:

- Skim a text to get the general idea.
- Highlight or note the key points.
- Avoid copying exact sentences from the text.
- Use transition words and logical connectors for clarity.

This lesson builds directly on the previous lesson about **Note-Taking**, as students use their notes to create structured and effective summaries.

1. **Summary_** is condensed version of something longer. It is a brief explanation of a story or a piece of writing. The purpose in writing the summary is to give the **main ideas** of the original reading in **much fewer words**, what it was about and what did the author want to express. A summary is not a **rewrite of the original piece** of writing but include only the main idea and supporting facts.
2. **Steps to write a good summary:** A summary should be much shorter than the original piece
 - a) **Skim the piece:** read the entire original once (or twice if necessary) without making notes, while reading, use the most basic of questions use: Who? What? When? Where? Why? How? This can help you to effectively and quickly write a pertinent summary. (You cannot write a summary of a text you don't fully understand).
 - b) **Scan the piece:** reread the original, underlining essential information as you go. Focus on the topic sentence in each paragraph. Try to summarize each paragraph in a sentence.
 - c) **Draft your summary in your own words:** Include everything even if you know there is too much because you can revise it later.
 - d) **Now edit your own version for conciseness:** Cross out any words that are not essential using your own style and do not rewrite the original piece.

- e) **Go back** to the original and check that you have preserved the essential information without adding any new content.(keep the main idea and the main supporting details)
- f) **Edit your final summary:** Check the clarity of your sentences and paragraphs. Use transitions ("as a result," "next," "however," etc.) as needed to make sure the ideas flow logically.
 - Do not rewrite the original piece.
 - Keep your summary short.
 - Use your own wording.
 - Refer to the central and main ideas of the original piece.
 - Read with who, what, when, where, why and how questions in mind.
 - Do not put in your opinion of the issue or topic discussed in the original piece.

Bibliographic Source

<https://open.lib.umn.edu/writingforsuccess/chapter/3-2-summarizing/>



CHAPTER 04

ORAL

COMMUNICATION

Includes Two Lessons



Oral presentation is a key skill in both academic and professional settings. Many students struggle with public speaking due to lack of preparation or confidence. This guide offers practical steps to help students plan, organize, and deliver clear, confident, and engaging presentations. It also includes tips on using visual aids and managing nervousness, with guidance based on academic sources such as *The Art of Public Speaking* by Lucas (2015).



Chapter 04_ Oral Communication

Learning Objectives

After the completion of this unit, you would be able to:

- Define oral communication and identify its main components.
- Understand the importance of verbal and non-verbal communication.
- Organize and deliver structured oral presentations.
- Improve pronunciation, tone, and audience interaction.
- Gain confidence in academic and professional speaking situations.

Lesson 01_ Oral Communication

Communication is a fundamental human activity that allows individuals to share ideas, express emotions, and build relationships. Among its various forms, **oral communication** is the most immediate and interactive, relying on spoken language to convey messages effectively. In academic and professional contexts, the ability to communicate orally with clarity and confidence is essential.

This lesson explores the nature of oral communication, its key components—both verbal and non-verbal—and its application in formal settings such as presentations, interviews, and discussions. By developing oral communication skills, students not only enhance their academic performance but also prepare for real-world challenges where speaking clearly and confidently can make a significant difference.

1. Definition of Oral Communication

Oral communication is the process of expressing information or ideas through spoken words, often supported by non-verbal cues such as facial expressions, gestures, tone, and posture. It plays a vital role in conveying messages clearly, maintaining interaction, and building understanding in both formal and informal contexts.

“Oral communication implies communication through mouth. It includes individuals conversing with each other, be it direct conversation or telephonic conversation. Speeches, presentations, discussions are all forms of oral communication.”

2. The Importance of Oral Communication

Oral communication is vital in:

- **Academic settings** (presentations, seminars, defenses)
- **Professional environments** (interviews, meetings, conferences)
- **Everyday life** (conversations, instructions, negotiations)

It promotes **understanding, collaboration, and effective message delivery.**

3. Components of Oral Communication

<i>Verbal Elements</i>	<i>Non-Verbal Elements</i>
• Vocabulary: Use appropriate and academic words. • Grammar and sentence structure • Pronunciation and articulation • Tone and intonation • Fluency and coherence	• Facial expressions • Gestures • Eye contact • Posture • Body movements • Personal space

3.1. Key Non-Verbal Elements in Oral Communication

Non-verbal communication refers to the transmission of messages **without the use of words**. It complements, reinforces, or sometimes contradicts the spoken message. Below are the essential non-verbal cues involved in oral communication:

a) Facial Expressions

Facial expressions convey **emotions and attitudes** such as happiness, surprise, anger, or confusion. A smile can show friendliness, while a frown may indicate disagreement or concern. The face often communicates more than words.

b) Gestures

Gestures are **movements of the hands, arms, or head** used to emphasize or illustrate speech. For example, pointing, waving, or showing numbers with fingers adds clarity or emotional tone to the spoken message.

c) Eye Contact

Maintaining appropriate eye contact shows **attention, confidence, and sincerity**. It helps establish a connection with the audience and indicates active listening. Avoiding eye contact may suggest insecurity, disinterest, or dishonesty.

d) Posture

Posture refers to the **way one holds their body** while speaking or listening. An upright, open posture shows confidence and engagement, while slouching or turning away can indicate disinterest or discomfort.

e) Body Movements

General body movements (such as walking, shifting weight, or leaning) can **reinforce or distract** from the message. Purposeful movement can engage an audience, while nervous or excessive motion can be distracting.

f) **Proxemics**

Also known as **Proxemics**, personal space refers to the **physical distance** maintained between individuals during communication. Respecting appropriate distance (based on cultural and situational norms) helps maintain comfort and focus during interaction.

4. **Structure of an Oral Presentation**

1. **Introduction**

- Greet the audience.
- Introduce yourself and your topic.
- State your objectives or outline.

2. **Body**

- Develop main points logically.
- Use examples, data, or visuals.
- Transition smoothly between ideas.

3. **Conclusion**

- Summarize key points.
- End with a strong closing statement or call to action.
- Invite questions or feedback if appropriate.

5. **Techniques for Effective Oral Communication**

- **Prepare thoroughly:** Know your content well.
- **Practice regularly:** Rehearse aloud and record yourself.
- **Control nervousness:** Breathe deeply and focus on your message.
- **Engage the audience:** Ask questions, use anecdotes.
- **Use visual aids:** Slides, diagrams, or props can enhance clarity.
- **Be aware of time:** Respect the time limit given.

Practice ①: **Prepare a 3-minute oral presentation on a topic from your field of study.**

Steps:

1. Write a short script.
2. Rehearse with a peer.
3. Present in class or record a video.
4. Receive feedback from the teacher and classmates.

Bibliographic source

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- Beebe, S. A., Beebe, S. J., & Ivy, D. K. (2016). *Communication: Principles for a Lifetime* (6th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson Education.

Lesson 02_ Oral Presentation

An oral presentation is a spoken report or speech on a specific topic, delivered to an audience for the purpose of informing, persuading, or entertaining. Oral presentations are commonly used in academic settings, workplaces, religious gatherings (e.g., mosques), and even social events such as weddings.

They involve not only speaking skills but also the ability to organize content, engage the audience, and present confidently and clearly.

1. Key Factors for a Successful Presentation:

- **Careful planning:** Understand your topic, purpose, and audience.
- **Practice:** Rehearse your speech multiple times to gain fluency and confidence.
- **Audience engagement:** Use eye contact, questions, and clear visuals to keep the audience interested.
- **Observation:** Watch professional presentations online to learn effective speaking techniques and styles.

2. What to Do Once You Have the Subject:

1. Review the Subject Outline Carefully read the task description and instructions.
2. Identify Requirements
 - Deadline for the presentation
 - Assessment criteria and grading weight
 - Allowed or required presentation length
 - Specific content or format expectations
3. Start Your Research and Planning
Gather relevant information, create an outline, and structure your speech (introduction, body, and conclusion).
4. -Analyze the task.
5. -Define your goal form the presentation
6. -Determine the purpose of the presentation.

3. Planning and Delivering an Effective Oral Presentation

- **Understand the Audience's Expectations**
 - Before you begin, ask yourself:
 - What is the **purpose** of my presentation?
 - Who is the **audience**, and what do they already know?
 - What are their expectations in terms of **content** and **delivery**?

3.1. Step 1: Brainstorm Your Ideas

- Map out everything you already know about the topic.

- Think about how you can **interact** with the audience.
- Jot down:
 - Key questions you want to answer
 - Examples you might use
 - Explanations and key points to include

3.2. Step 2: Conduct Research

- Gather **relevant and reliable information** from books, articles, or trusted websites.
- Take clear notes and **record your sources** (for referencing).
- Use material that supports your argument or topic clearly.

3.3. Step 3: Organize Your Ideas

- Create a **logical structure**: Introduction —~~Body~~ —~~Conclusion~~
- Make sure each idea **flows smoothly** into the next.
- Use clear transitions to guide the audience through your points.

3.4. Step 4: Use Spoken Language

- Avoid written, formal language.
- Use **clear, natural, and conversational language**—the kind you would use when explaining something to a friend.
- Keep your sentences short and your vocabulary accessible.

3.5. Step 5: Interact with the Audience

Even if it's not required, **audience interaction** makes your presentation more dynamic and memorable.

4. Ways to engage your audience:

- ✓ Ask questions during the presentation
- ✓ Test their knowledge
- ✓ Include a short quiz or activity
- ✓ Allow time for questions at the end

5. Using Visual Tools in Oral Presentations

In many academic and professional oral presentations, you may be **allowed or required** to use **visual tools** to support and enhance your message. These tools help to **capture attention**, **clarify complex ideas**, and make your presentation **more engaging** and **memorable**.

5.1. Types of Visual Tools

- **Slides** (e.g., PowerPoint, Google Slides)
- **Images** and diagrams
- **Videos or short clips**
- **Posters, charts, or physical objects (in class)**

6. Tips for Effective Visual Aids

- Keep your visuals **simple, clear, and relevant**.
- Use **bullet points**, not full sentences.
- Use **large fonts** and **high-contrast colors** for readability.
- Don't overload slides with too much text or too many visuals.
- Use visuals to **complement**, not **replace** your spoken message.

7. Practical Advice

- Save your visual materials on a **USB flash drive**.
- Ensure your files are compatible with the classroom computer.
- Always prepare a **backup copy** (online or printed), in case of technical problems.
- Test your visual aids **before your presentation**, if possible.

8. Preparing to Present

After you have finished writing your presentation — remember, it should sound like **spoken** language, not written language — and finalized your **visual aids**; the next step is to **practice your delivery**.

9. Practice Techniques

When practicing your presentation, consider the following:

1. ✓ **Speak slowly and clearly** so your audience can understand you.
2. ✓ **Avoid reading directly** from notes or cue cards.
3. ✓ **Maintain eye contact** to build connection with the audience.
4. ✓ **Stand with good posture** so your voice projects clearly.
5. ✓ **Use natural hand gestures** to emphasize key points.
6. ✓ **Vary your tone of voice** to sound engaging and natural.
7. ✓ **Practice regularly** to gain confidence.
8. ✓ **Break down difficult words** into syllables for better pronunciation.
9. ✓ **Pay attention to your body language** (avoid crossing arms or pacing excessively).
10. ✓ **Time yourself** to ensure your presentation fits within the time limits.

9.1. Practical Preparation Tips

1. ☞ **Write your speech in dot points**, not full paragraphs, to keep it natural.
2. ☞ **Practice reading aloud** – this improves fluency and rhythm.
3. ☞ **Understand your topic thoroughly** – don't just memorize. Know the meaning behind your points to speak authentically.
4. ☞ **Smile** – it helps you connect with the audience and shows confidence.
5. ☞ **Prepare extra notes** for the discussion or Q&A after your presentation.

9.2. Tips to Stay Confident and Focused:

1. Believe in yourself – you've prepared, practiced, and planned.
2. Take deep breaths before you begin to calm your nerves.
3. Arrive early to get comfortable with the environment and test any equipment.
4. Bring all your materials: USB drive, notes, backup visuals, handouts if needed.
5. Stay hydrated, and avoid too much caffeine or sugar before speaking.
6. Smile – it relaxes you and makes the audience more receptive.
7. Make eye contact with different parts of the room – not just your notes or slides.
8. Speak clearly and at a steady pace – don't rush.
9. Focus on your message, not your fear.

Remember:

- You are not being judged on perfection, but on clarity, structure, and communication. Mistakes can happen – stay calm and continue. Most audiences are supportive and understanding, especially in an academic context.

Bibliographic source

- Lucas, S. E. (2015). *The Art of Public Speaking* (12th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Education.
- This textbook is widely used in communication studies and offers practical strategies for managing nervousness, structuring content, and delivering effective presentations.



CONCLUSION

Communication & Expression Techniques 2

The Communication and Expression Techniques module has been carefully designed to provide first-year students in the Biology branch with the foundational tools necessary for effective academic and professional communication in English. Throughout this course, students have explored essential components such as parts of speech, punctuation and capitalization, scientific terminology, note-taking, summarizing, written communication (emails, reports, and academic writing), and oral communication (presentations and conversations).

These lessons aim to support students not only in improving their language proficiency but also in enhancing their ability to express scientific ideas clearly, logically, and confidently. In a field such as biology, where accurate communication of data, hypotheses, and research findings is crucial, mastering these techniques is an integral part of academic success and future scientific work.

By completing this module, students are expected to have developed greater confidence in using English as a tool for learning, research, and collaboration. They are now better equipped to read and understand scientific texts, produce structured written documents, and engage in meaningful oral exchanges in both formal and informal contexts.

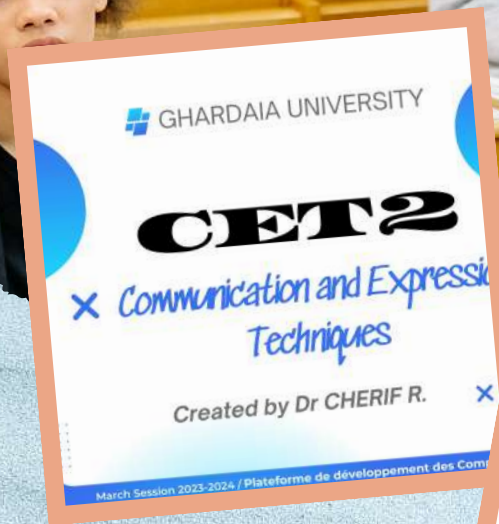
It is our hope that the knowledge and skills gained from this module will serve as a solid foundation for future academic progress, scientific inquiry, and professional development in the biological sciences.



Prepared by Dr. CHERIF Rekia in 2014-2025

CET2

LECTURES



• CET2 Schedule:

- 08 Lessons & tutorails
- 1st level SNV branch

60% LECTURE + **40%** TUTORAILS ✓

• Tutorails evaluations:

- Attending Session + Participation in the session + **04** Quizzes + Project + Homework + Tut. Exam.

2nd
SEMSTER
SESSION 2025