

1-Parts of Speech



Parts of Speech Examples

Here are some sentences made with different English parts of speech:

Verb	noun	verb	noun	Verb	Verb
Stop!	John	works.	John	Is	working.

pronoun	verb	noun	noun	verb	adjective	noun
She	loves	animals.	Animals	like	kind	people.

noun	verb	noun	Adverb	noun	verb	adjective	noun
Tara	speaks	English	well.	Tara	speaks	good	English.

Pronoun	verb	preposition	adjective	noun	adverb
She	ran	to	the	station	quickly.

pron.	verb	adj.	noun	conjunction	pron.	verb	pron.
She	likes	Big	snakes	But	I	hate	them.

Here is a sentence that contains every part of speech:

interjection	pron.	conj.	adj.	noun	verb	prep.	noun	adverb
Well,	She	and	young	John	walk	to	school	slowly.

2-English Tenses System

In some languages, verb tenses are not very important or do not even exist. In English, the concept of tense is very important. In this lesson we look at the idea behind tense, how to avoid confusing tense with time, and the structure of the basic tenses, with examples using a regular verb, an irregular verb and the verb be.

What is Tense?

Tense & Time

Basic Tenses

Regular Verbs

Irregular Verbs

Be

What is Tense?

tense (noun): a form of a verb used to indicate the time, and sometimes the continuation or completeness, of an action in relation to the time of speaking. (From Latin tempus = time).

Tense is a method that we use in English to refer to time - past, present and future. Many languages use tenses to talk about time. Other languages have no tenses, but of course they can still talk about time, using different methods.

So, we talk about time in English with tenses. But, and this is a very big but:

we can also talk about time without using tenses (for example, going to is a special construction to talk about the future, it is not a tense)

Present simple tense

Structure of present simple		
I work in a bank.	I don't (do not) work in a bank.	Do you work in a bank?
He works in a bank.	He doesn't (does not) work in a bank.	Does he work in a bank?
Present simple - common mistakes		
Common mistakes	Correct version	Why?
I working in London.	I work in London.	The gerund ing form is not used in the present simple.
He work in London.	He works in London.	The third person he, she, it adds the letter s.
He work in London?	Does he work in London?	Questions - third person: does + subject + infinitive. All other persons: do + subject + infinitive.
Work he in London?	Does he work in London?	
He not work in London.	He doesn't work in London.	Negatives - third person: subject + doesn't + infinitive. All other persons: subject + don't + infinitive.

Past simple tense

Structure of past simple		
I saw him yesterday.	I didn't (did not) see him yesterday.	Did you see him?
Past simple - common mistakes		

Common mistakes	Correct version	Why?
I was work in London.	I worked in London.	In positive sentences, a helping verb such as 'was' or 'did' is not used.
He worked in London?	Did he work in London?	The helping verb 'did' is used in past simple questions.
Worked he in London?	Did he work in London?	The helping verb 'did' is used in past simple questions.
Did he wrote a letter?	Did he write a letter?	The main verb is used in the infinitive form in questions and negatives.
He didn't wrote a letter.	He didn't write a letter.	The main verb is used in the infinitive form in questions and negatives.

Present continuous tense

Structure of present continuous

I'm (I am) reading a book.	I'm (I am) not reading.	Are you reading?
He's (he is) reading a book.	He is not (he's not/he isn't) reading a book.	Is he reading a book?

Present continuous - common mistakes

Common mistakes	Correct version	Why?
They still waiting for you.	They are still waiting for you.	to form a continuous tense we use be + -ing.
They are still waiting for you?	Are they still waiting for you?	In questions the subject (they) and the auxiliary verb (be) change places.
Do they still waiting for you?	Are they still waiting for you?	
Where they are waiting for you?	Where are they waiting for you?	
She doesn't watching TV.	She isn't watching TV.	To form the negative we put not after the verb be (am not, is not = isn't, are not = aren't).
I'm believing you.	I believe you.	Some verbs are not used in continuous tenses - these are called stative verbs (e.g. believe, come from, cost, depend, exist, feel, hate, like).

Past continuous tense

Structure of past continuous

I was reading a book.	I wasn't (was not) reading.	Was I reading?
You were reading a book.	You weren't (were not) reading a book.	Were you reading a book?

Past continuous - common mistakes

Common mistakes	Correct version	Why?
I waiting for him almost two hours.	I was waiting for him almost two hours.	To form the past continuous we use was/were + ing.
What did he doing when you saw him?	What was he doing when you saw him?	
We were playing tennis every	We played tennis every morning.	We use the past simple for repeated actions in

morning.		the past.
They watched TV when I came.	They were watching TV when I came.	We use the past continuous when we want to say what was happening (what was in progress) at a particular time in the past.

Present perfect tense

Structure of present perfect

I've (I have) seen him.	I haven't (have not) seen him.	Have you seen him?
He's (he has) gone.	He hasn't (has not) gone.	Has he gone?

Present perfect simple - common mistakes

Common mistakes	Correct version	Why?
Steven has wrote a new book.	Steven has written a new book.	The past participle of the verb must be used - wrote is past simple, written is the past participle.
Did you have seen him before?	Have you seen him before?	The helping verb 'have' is used in the present perfect- it is inverted with the person (you have becomes have you).
I didn't have seen him before.	I haven't seen him before.	The helping verb 'have' is used in the present perfect- to make it negative we simply add not (n't).
I am here since last week.	I have been here since last week.	The present perfect is used to show an action which continues to the present (an unfinished action).
I've been knowing him for 5 years.	I've known him for 5 years.	Verbs such as know, want, like, etc. (stative verbs) suggest permanent states, not actions, so are used in the simple form, NOT the -ing form.

Past perfect tense

Structure of past perfect

I'd (I had) seen him.	You hadn't (had not) seen him.	Had you seen him?
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Past perfect - common mistakes

Common mistakes	Correct version	Why?
I didn't been to London.	I hadn't been to London.	The helping verb had / hadn't is used in the past perfect.
When I saw him, I noticed that he had a haircut.	When I saw him I noticed that he had had a haircut.	The action (haircut) which happened before another past action must be put into the past perfect to make the time order clear to the listener.
He told me has been to London.	He told me he had been to London.	His original words were: "I have been to London." However, in reported speech we move the tense back - present perfect (have been) becomes past perfect (had been).

The Present perfect Tense & The Past Perfect Tense

<p>The present perfect is used when the time period has NOT finished:</p>	<p>I have seen three movies this week. (This week has not finished yet.)</p>
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The simple past is used when the time period HAS finished:	I saw three movies last week. (Last week is finished.)
The present perfect is often used when giving recent news:	Martin has crashed his car again. (This is new information.)
The simple past is used when giving older information:	Martin crashed his car last year. (This is old information.)
The present perfect is used when the time is not specific:	I have seen that movie already. (We don't know when.)
The simple past is used when the time is clear:	I saw that movie on Thursday. (We know exactly when.)
The present perfect is used with for and since, when the actions have not finished yet:	I have lived in Victoria for five years. (I still live in Victoria.)
The simple past is used with for and since, when the actions have already finished:	I lived in Victoria for five years. (I don't live in Victoria now.)

Future tense

Structure of future simple

I'll (I will) be there tomorrow.	I won't (will not) be there tomorrow.	Will you be there tomorrow?
Common mistakes	Correct version	Why?
- The phone's ringing. - OK, I'm going to answer it.	Ok -I'll answer it.	If the action is decided at the moment of speaking, we use will / will not (won't).
I'm sure he is going to help you.	I'm sure he will help you.	When we say what we think or expect, we use will (won't).
I promise I'm going to help.	I promise I'll help.	After promise we usually use will.
I'll call you when I'll come to my office.	I'll call you when I come to my office.	When we refer to the future in adverbial clauses, we normally use present simple (after when, as soon as, until).
If you will give me your address, I'll send you a postcard.	If you give me your address, I'll send you a postcard.	When we refer to the future in conditional clauses, we normally use the present simple.
I can't see you next week. I will return to Paris.	I can't see you next week. I am returning/am going to return to Paris.	To show that the decision was made in the past, we use the present continuous or the 'going to' future.

'Going to' future tense

Structure of 'going to' future

I'm (I am) going to take my holidays in August.	I'm (I am) not going to take a holiday this year.	Are you going to take a holiday?
He's (he is) going to watch TV this evening.	He isn't (is not) going to watch TV this evening.	Is he going to watch TV this evening?
'going to' for future- common mistakes		
Common mistakes	Correct version	Why?
You know that I'll buy a new car, don't you?	You know that I am going to buy a new car, don't you?	We use going to for a future action that has been decided before the time of speaking.
Look! You will drop your books.	Look! You are going to drop your books.	We use going to if we see (and are sure) that the action will happen.

Modal verbs >> Modal verbs and their negatives

Modal verbs and their negatives	
Positive	Negative
must (used for a personal opinion) He must be crazy.	can't He can't be crazy.
must / have to / has to (used for obligation) You must arrive by 8 o'clock. You have to arrive by 8 o'clock.	don't have to / needn't = something is not necessary You don't have to arrive by 8 o'clock. You needn't arrive by 8 o'clock.
can (used for ability) I can play the guitar.	can't / cannot I can't play the guitar.
can (used for possibility) You can smoke here.	can't / cannot / mustn't You can't smoke here. You mustn't smoke here.

Modal verbs >> Modal verbs in the past

Modal verbs in the past	
Present	Past
should be	should have been
could be	could have been
will be	would be
may be	may have been
might be	might have been
would be	would have been

Modal verbs >> Should (to express obligation)

Should - to express obligation	
Structure: should + infinitive We use should for the present and the future. We use should to give advice to someone and to say that something is a good idea. Should is weaker than have to or must.	You should tell them the truth. You shouldn't smoke, it's bad for you. I don't think you should do it.

Modal verbs >> Should have (to express past obligation)

Should have - to express unfulfilled past obligation	
Structure: should + have + past participle We use should have for the past. We use should have to say that someone didn't do something, but it would have been better to do it.	You should have told them the truth. You shouldn't have gone there - it was a mistake. I don't think you should have done it.

Modal verbs >> Must / have to

Must / have to	
Present	Past
I must go. / I have to go. (when we want to express obligation)	I had to go.
He must be here. It must be great. (when we want to express a personal opinion)	He must have been here. It must have been great.

Modal verbs >> Must / have to

Must / have to	
Present	Past
I must go. / I have to go. (when we want to express obligation)	I had to go.
He must be here. It must be great. (when we want to express a personal opinion)	He must have been here. It must have been great.

Modal verbs >> Past probability - must have / can't have / might have / may have

Must / can't / couldn't have - to express probability in the past	
Structure: modal + have + past participle must have been, can't have gone, etc.	
We use must have to express that we feel sure that something was true.	They must have left early. He must have already gone.
We use can't have / couldn't have to say that we believe something was impossible.	He can't have escaped through this window. It is too small. She can't have said that. She couldn't have said that.
May / might / could have - to express probability in the past	
Structure: modal + have + past participle may have been, could have gone, might have lost, etc.	
We use may / could / might have to say that it was possible that something happened in the past (but we are not 100% sure).	He may have missed the bus. The road might have been blocked.
The negatives are may not have and might not have.	He may not have left yet. The assistant might not have received his message.

Nouns

A noun is a person, place, thing, or idea. Every sentence must have a noun as its subject.

Examples: The bear sleeps. Toronto is a city

Types of Nouns : 1-Proper Nouns 2-Common Nouns
Forms of Nouns : 1-Plural Nouns 2- Possessive Forms

Proper Nouns

A proper noun is the name of a person, place or thing. Proper nouns should always be capitalized.

Examples: Toronto
Mr. Brown
Sally

Common Nouns

A common noun is any noun that is not a proper noun. Common nouns are not capitalized.

Examples: the city
a leader
this woman

Plural Forms

The plural form of a noun indicates more than one. The plural form is usually formed by adding an s or es.

Examples: one week, two weeks
a house, many houses
one box, two boxes

Nouns that end in a consonant followed by a y are made plural by dropping the y and adding ies.

Example: one country, two countries

Nouns that end in a vowel followed by a y are made plural by adding s.

Example: one toy, two toys

Nouns that end in f or fe drop the f or fe and add ves.

Example: one leaf, two leaves

Certain irregular nouns have special plural forms.

Examples: one foot, two feet
a mouse, many mice

Possessive Forms

The possessive form of a noun indicates ownership or modifies another noun. The possessive form is usually formed by **adding 's to the end of a noun.**

Examples: the player's equipment
the woman's job
Canada's government

Articles

First the good news: There are only three articles in English: a, an and the.

There are two types of articles indefinite 'a' and 'an' or definite 'the'. You also need to know when not to use an article.

The bad news is that their proper use is complex, especially when you get into the advanced use of English. Quite often you have to work it out by what *sounds* right, which can be frustrating for a learner.

Indefinite articles - a and an (determiners)

A and **an** are the indefinite articles. They refer to something not specifically known to the person you are communicating with.

A and **an** are used before nouns that introduce something or someone you have not mentioned before:-

For "I saw an elephant this morning."
example: "I ate a banana for lunch."

A and **an** are also used when talking about your profession:-

"I am an English teacher."
"I am a builder."

You use a when the noun you are referring to begins with a consonant (b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, w, x, y or z), for example, "a city", "a factory", and "a hotel".

-You use an when the noun you are referring to begins with a vowel (a, e, i, o, u)

-Pronunciation changes this rule. It's the sound that matters, not the spelling.

-If the next word begins with a consonant sound when we say it, for example, "university" then we use a. If the next word begins

with a vowel sound when we say it, for example "hour" then we use an.

-We say "university" with a "y" sound at the beginning as though it were spelt "youniversity".

So, "a university" IS correct.

-We say "hour" with a silent h as though it were spelt "our".

So, "an hour" IS correct.

(Lots of people get this wrong - including native speakers.)

Definite Article - the (determiners)

ð

i:

ð

ə

Strong pronunciation

Weak pronunciation

You use the when you know that the listener knows or can work out what particular person/thing you are talking about.

For "The apple you ate was rotten."

example: "Did you lock the car?"

You should also use the when you have already mentioned the thing you are talking about.

For "She's got two children; a girl and a boy. The girl's eight and the boy's fourteen."

example:

We use **the** to talk about geographical points on the globe.

For the North Pole, the equator

For

example:

We use **the** to talk about rivers, oceans and seas

For the Nile, the Pacific, the English channel

example:

We also use **the** before certain nouns when we know there is only one of a particular thing.

For the rain, the sun, the wind, the world, the earth, the White House etc..

example:

However if you want to describe a particular instance of these you should use a/an.

For "I could hear the wind." / "There's a cold wind blowing."

example: "What are your plans for the future?" / "She has a promising future ahead of her."

The is also used to say that a particular person or thing being mentioned is the best, most famous, etc. In this use, '**the**' is usually given strong pronunciation:

For "Harry's Bar is the place to go."

example: "You don't mean you met the Tony Blair, do you?"

!Note - **The** doesn't mean all:-

For "The books are expensive." = (Not all books are expensive, just the ones I'm talking about.)

example: "Books are expensive." = (All books are expensive.)

No article

We usually use no article to talk about things in general:-

Inflation is rising.

People are worried about rising crime. (Note! People generally, so no article)

You do not use an article when talking about sports.

For My son plays football.

example: Tennis is expensive.

You do not use an article before uncountable nouns when talking about them generally.

For Information is important to any organization.

example: Coffee is bad for you.

You do not use an article before the names of countries except where they indicate multiple areas or contain the words (state(s), kingdom, republic, union). Kingdom, state, republic and union are nouns, so they need an article.

For example: No article - Italy, Mexico, Bolivia, England
 Use the - the UK (United *Kingdom*), the USA (United *States* of America), the Irish *Republic*
 Multiple areas! the Netherlands, the Philippines, the British Isles

Prepositions >> Prepositions of place

Prepositions of place		
IN	ON	AT
inside an area or space in the city, in the sky, in bed	in contact with a surface on the wall, on the table	close to at the table, at the bus stop
	on a line on the river, on the equator	before nouns referring to a place or position at the top, at the front, at the end but in the middle
arrive in a city arrive in London, in Amsterdam		arrive at a small place arrive at the station, at the meeting
		when expressing 'towards' point at something, smile at someone

Prepositions >> Prepositions of time

Prepositions of time		
IN	ON	AT
years (in 1998)	days of the week (on Thursday)	hours of the clock (at 7.30)
months (in January)	dates (on 5 August)	religious festivals (at Easter)
seasons (in summer)	on Monday morning	points in time (at the end of the week)
parts of the day (in the afternoon, in the morning BUT at night)		

Prepositions of time (during, for, over, or, by, until)

We use during to talk about something that happens within a particular period of time, to say when something takes place. We use during to talk about something that happens within the same time as another event.	During my time in London I visited a lot of interesting places. He came to work during the morning meeting.
We use over or in to talk about something that has been happening continuously up until the present, or will happen continuously in the future.	We've had a lot of problems over / in the last few months. We expect a rise in sales over / in the next few months.
We use for to say how long something continues.	I can only come for a few minutes. I was waiting for him for two hours.
We use by to say that something will happen or be achieved before a particular time.	It has to be finished by two o'clock. He should return by the end of March.
We use until to say that something will continue up to a particular time.	We have to stay here until he comes. The concert went on until eleven o'clock.

Prepositions >> Examples of some prepositional verbs

Prepositional verbs	
to agree to something	to accept I don't think he will ever agree to such a plan.
to apologize for something	to say you are sorry for something I apologize for not replying to your letter sooner.
to apply for something	to formally ask someone for something such as a job or permission to do something Why didn't you apply for a bank loan?
to complain to somebody about something/somebody	to say you are annoyed about something If the service is not satisfactory, you should complain to the customer service about it.
to conform to something	to be in accordance with something This signal system doesn't conform to the official safety standards.
to consist of something	to mention all of the things that something contains The delegation consists of over 200 people, including interpreters and journalists.
to hear from somebody	when someone, especially someone you know well, writes to you or telephones you When was the last time you heard from him?
to insist on something	to say that something must happen or somebody must do something I insist on speaking to the head of the office.
to refer to something	to talk about somebody or something in a conversation, speech or a piece of writing Everyone knows who she was referring to in her speech.

Prepositions >> Prepositions after adjectives (1)

Prepositions after adjectives	
afraid of something afraid of doing something	She is afraid of driving on motorways. Are you afraid of the dark?
angry about something angry with somebody	I am really angry about what she did. Why did she do it? I am really angry with her.
concerned about something	I'm concerned about his exam results.
pleased with someone / something	I was very pleased with his performance.
sorry about something sorry for doing something	Was she sorry about the mistake? I'm sorry for being late.
good at something	He is good at languages.

Prepositions >> Prepositions after adjectives (2)

Prepositions after adjectives	
(un)aware of something	Is he aware of the problem?

dependent on something	She is still dependent on her parents.
famous for something	He is famous for his sporting achievements.
impressed by/with something	I was very impressed by his performance.
similar to something	His interests are similar to those of his brother.
upset about something	I was really upset about it.

Structure of passive tenses

Structure of passive form		
The office is cleaned two times a week.	The office isn't (is not) cleaned two times a week.	Is the office cleaned two times a week?
The office was cleaned on Friday.	The office wasn't (was not) cleaned on Friday.	Was the office cleaned on Friday?
The office is being cleaned at the moment.	The office isn't (is not) being cleaned at the moment.	Is the office being cleaned at the moment?
The office has already been cleaned.	The office hasn't (has not) been cleaned yet.	Has the office been cleaned?
The office will be cleaned next week.	The office won't (will not) be cleaned next week.	Will the office be cleaned next week?
The office can be cleaned.	The office cannot be cleaned.	Can the office be cleaned?
When we want to include the agent (who), we use the prepositional phrase with by : The play <i>An Ideal Husband</i> was written by Oscar Wilde.		

Passive forms - common mistakes		
Common mistakes	Correct version	Why?
This problem will discussed next week.	This problem will be discussed next week.	To make a passive form we use be + past participle .
This problem will be discuss next week.	This problem will be discussed next week.	
My car is repairing at the moment.	My car is being repaired at the moment.	To make a passive form of a continuous tense we use be + being + past participle .
She has already be invited.	She has already been invited.	To make a passive form of the perfect tense we use have/has/had + been + past participle

Conjunctions

A conjunction is a word used to connect words, phrases or clauses in a sentence. The principal coordinate conjunctions are and, but, or, nor.

Conjunctions connecting Subjects:

1. You or she may erase the chalkboard.

2. The mother cat and her kittens snuggled in their cozy box.
3. Did Clare or Charles finish cleaning the closet?
4. Adam and Eve were our first parents.

Conjunctions connecting Predicates:

1. The kitty pawed and pulled the string.
2. The rickety boat creaked and groaned as it rocked on the rough sea.
3. The boys whooped and hollered as their favorite team scored a touchdown.
4. Jesus suffered and died for us.

Conjunctions connecting Modifiers:

1. Always do your assignment neatly and promptly.
2. She wore her red and blue dress to the party.
3. The bell rang loudly but joyfully.
4. Dad is a skillful and careful driver.

Sentence Types

English has four main sentence types:

Declarative Sentences are used to form statements.

Examples: "Mary is here.", "My name is Mary."

Interrogative Sentences are used to ask questions.

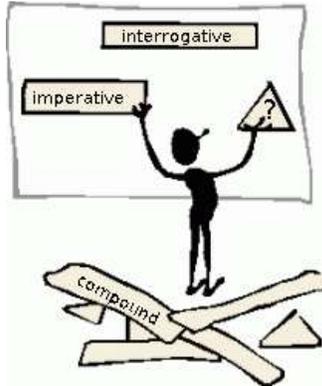
Examples: "Where is Mary?", "What is your name?"

Imperative Sentences are used for commands.

Examples: "Come here.", "Tell me your name."

Conditional Sentences are used to indicate dependencies between events or conditions.

Example: "If you cut all the trees, there will be no forest."



It is not polite to use imperative sentences without the word "Please". It is better to say "Please, come here." than just "Come here." The simplest English sentences are imperative sentences with a single verb (Example: "Help!").

Sentences may be simple or compound. Compound sentences consist of two or more simple sentences joined by conjunctions.

Examples:

- "Come here and sit down.",
- "My name is Mary and I live in New York.",
- "What is your name and where do you live?",
- "Either John will go to New York or Mary will come here."

It is not correct to combine different sentence types in a compound sentence.

Wrong: "Mary lives in New York and come here."

<English Sentence> =

<Simple Sentence> |

<Compound Sentence>

<Simple Sentence> =

<Declarative Sentence> |

<Interrogative Sentence> |

<Imperative Sentence> |

<Conditional Sentence>

<Compound Sentence> =

<Simple Sentence> <conjunction> <Simple Sentence> |

"Either" <Declarative Sentence> "or" <Declarative Sentence> |
 "Either" <Imperative Sentence> "or" <Imperative Sentence>

Using Words Correctly -Words Often Confused

The following words are often misused. Refer to this list whenever you are unsure which word is correct. If your professor points out a misused word, this list will help you make the correction.

Term	Definition	Usage
A/AN	indefinite article:	A :before words beginning with a consonant: <i>a lobster</i> An: before words beginning with a vowel: <i>an idiot</i>
ACCEPT	verb: to receive	<i>accept an apology</i>
EXCEPT	conj./preposition: other than	<i>everyone except me</i>
EXCEPT	verb: to leave out	<i>excepted from a rule</i>
AFFECT	verb: to influence	<i>Our wages were affected by the recession.</i>
EFFECT	noun: result	<i>One effect of the recession...</i>
EFFECT	verb: to bring about	<i>The transition was effective today.</i>
AGGRAVATE	verb: to make worse (only conditions)	<i>Loud music aggravates a headache.</i>
ANNOY	verb: to irritate	<i>Don't annoy me.</i>
A LOT	article plus a noun: a large amount	<i>I have a lot of CD=s.</i>
ALLOT	verb: to share out equally	<i>How many Pearl Jam tickets are allotted to each person?</i>
ALLUSION	noun: reference, hint	<i>He made an allusion to my past.</i>
ILLUSION	noun: error in vision	<i>The canals on Mars are an illusion.</i>
ALTOGETHER	completely	<i>It is altogether fitting that we do this.</i>
ALL TOGETHER	all at one time	<i>We recite the vow all together.</i>
AMONG	of three or more	<i>The three quarreled among themselves.</i>
BETWEEN	of two (or twos)	<i>The choice was between her and me.</i>
AMOUNT	noun: refers to a quantity	<i>The amount of work is negligible.</i>
NUMBER	noun: things that can be counted	<i>He has held a number of jobs.</i>
AS	conjunction or preposition	<i>The author uses imagery in his poems as he does in his stories.</i>
LIKE	preposition	<i>This book is like the other one.</i>
BEING AS BEING THAT BEING	avoid all three: use "since" or "because" instead	<i>Since you asked me, I'll help.</i>
BORROW	verb: to take with the intention of returning	<i>I borrowed a book from the library.</i>
LEND	verb: to give with the expectation of getting back	<i>I lent a book to my friend.</i>
BRING	verb: to carry toward the speaker	<i>She brought it to me.</i>
TAKE	verb: to carry away from the speaker	<i>She took it away.</i>
COMPLEMENT	noun: that which completes	<i>The scarf complements the outfit.</i>
COMPLIMENT	verb: to praise	<i>She complimented him on his success.</i>
CONSCIENCE	noun: moral sense of right and wrong	<i>He had a strong conscience.</i>
CONSCIOUS	mentally awake	<i>He was conscious during surgery.</i>

COUNSEL	verb: to give advice	<i>Gamblers Anonymous counsels recovering gamblers.</i>
COUNCIL	noun: group of advisors	<i>The union council disbanded.</i>
DISINTERESTED	fair, without prejudice	<i>disinterested judge</i>
UNINTERESTED	not concerned	<i>uninterested in sports</i>
EMIGRATE	verb: to leave a country	<i>She emigrated from France.</i>
IMMIGRATE	verb: to enter a country	<i>My German father immigrated to the U.S.</i>
ETC.	abbreviation of et cetera	<i>Avoid in formal writing; give the entire list instead.</i>
FEWER	individual units	<i>fewer items</i>
LESS	uncountable quantity	<i>less patience</i>
GOOD	adjective	<i>Joe looks good (attractive).</i>
WELL	adverb: in a good manner	<i>He writes well.</i>
HUNG	suspended, held up	<i>The pictures were hung.</i>
HE/SHE	Avoid this construction.	Reconstruct the sentence in the third person plural (they), or use either "he" or "she" consistently.
HEALTHY	possessing good health	<i>healthy individual</i>
HEALTHFUL	bringing about good health	<i>healthful climate</i>
IN	place or position	<i>in the heart</i>
INTO	action toward	<i>into the box</i>
ITS	possessive meaning A belonging to it"	<i>Its nose is cold.</i>
IT'S	contraction for "it is"	<i>It's a nice day.</i>
LEAD	noun: a metal	<i>Pipes are made of lead.</i>
LED	past tense of the verb "to lead"	<i>He led his followers.</i>
LEARN	to acquire knowledge	<i>He learned fast.</i>
TEACH	to give knowledge to	<i>She taught well.</i>
LIE	to recline	<i>present: The cat lies down. future: The cat will lie down. past: The cat lay down. perfect: The cat has lain down.</i>
LAY	to put down	<i>present: The player lays his dice down. future: The player will lay his dice down. past: The player laid his dice down. perfect: The player has laid his dice down.</i>
LOOSE	Adjective: free and unattached	<i>The dog was loose.</i>
LOSE	Verb: to part with unintentionally	<i>He will lose his keys.</i>
OF	"Of" is not a substitute for "ve." (There is no such expression as "would of" or "could of.").	<i>He would have gone on</i>
MAN	Use neutral terms.	<i>Consider using people, humans, humanity.</i>
PERSONAL	adj.: private	<i>The diary was personal.</i>
PERSONNEL	noun: people employed in a business or the military	<i>Attention, all personnel!</i>
PRINCIPLE	noun: rule, general truth	<i>Religion teaches important principles.</i>
PRINCIPAL	adjective: main	<i>The principal ingredient is sugar.</i>
PRINCIPAL	noun: main teacher	<i>The principal of the school is very strict.</i>

REAL	adjective: genuine	<i>The platypus hardly looked real.</i>
REALLY	adverb: actually	<i>Did it really happen?</i>
STATIONARY	staying in one place	<i>The satellite appeared stationary.</i>
STATIONERY	letter paper	<i>Hotels often provide stationery.</i>
THAN	conjunction: comparisons	<i>New York is bigger than Boston.</i>
THEN	adverb: at that time, consequently	<i>Then I will send it.</i>
TO	preposition	<i>Give the knife to him.</i>
TWO	number	<i>He has two sisters.</i>
TOO	adverb	<i>She wears too much make-up.</i>
THAT	refers to things or people	<i>Here is the pen that you need.</i>
WHICH	refers only to things	<i>Here is the pen which you need.</i>
WHO/WHOM	refers only to people	<i>He is a person who works hard.</i>
THEIR	belonging to them	<i>Their house is new.</i>
THEY'RE	contraction for "they are"	<i>They=re not at home.</i>
THERE	in that place	<i>There is the page.</i>
UNIQUE	one of a kind (do not use with a modifier such as "very", "most")	<i>That is a unique book.</i>
WEATHER	atmospheric conditions	<i>The weather was foul.</i>
WHETHER	in either case	<i>whether or not</i>
WHO'S	contraction for "who is"	<i>Who's the teacher?</i>
WHOSE	possessive	<i>Whose book is this.?</i>
WOMAN	singular noun	<i>a woman</i>
WOMEN	plural noun	<i>three women</i>
YOUR	possessive "belonging to you"	<i>Your coat is here.</i>
YOU'RE	contraction for "you are"	<i>You're going home.</i>

Metric Weights and Measures

A millimicron is one thousandth of one millionth of one meter.

The metric system is based on 10s. For example, 10 decimeters make a meter (39.37 inches).

Units smaller than a meter have Latin prefixes:

Deci- means 10; 10 decimeters make a meter.

Centi- means 100; 100 centimeters make a meter.

Milli- means 1,000; 1,000 millimeters make a meter.

Units larger than a meter have Greek prefixes:

Deka- means 10; a dekameter is 10 meters.

Hecto- means 100; a hectometer is 100 meters.

Kilo- means 1,000; a kilometer is 1,000 meters.

Helpful Hints

Remember: A meter is a little more than a yard. A kilometer is less than a mile. A liter is a little more than a quart.

The Metric System

<u>Length Unit</u>	<u>Value</u>
Kilometer (km)	1,000 Meters
Hectometer (hm)	100 Meters
Dekameter (dam)	10 Meters
Meter (m)	1 Meter
Decimeter (dm)	0.1 Meter
Centimeter (cm)	0.01 Meters
Millimeter (mm)	0.001 Meters

<u>Capacity Unit</u>	<u>Value</u>
Kiloliter (kl)	1,000 Liters
Hectoliters (hl)	100 Liters
Dekaliters (dal)	10 Liters
Liter (l)	1 Liter(*)
Deciliter (dl)	0.10 Liters
Centiliter (cl)	0.01 Liters
Milliliter (ml)	0.001 Liters

* 1 liter + U.S. 1.057 quarts

<u>Mass and Weight Unit</u>	<u>Value</u>
Metric Ton	1,000,000 Grams
Quintal (P)	100,000 Grams
Myriagram	10,000 Grams
Kilogram	1,000 Grams
Hectogram	100 Grams
Dekagram	10 Grams
Gram	1 Gram(*)
Decigram	0.10 Grams
Centigram	0.01 Grams
Milligrams	0.001 Grams

* 1 gram + U.S. 0.035 ounce

Linear Measure

12 inches (in.) = 1 foot (ft.)

3 feet = 1 yard (yd)

5 1/2 yards = 1 rod (rd), pole, or perch (16 1/2 ft.)

40 rods = 1 furlong (fur) = 220 yds = 660 ft.

8 furlongs = 1 statute mile (mi.) = 1,760 yds
= 5,280 ft.

3 land miles = 1 league

5,280 feet = 1 statute or land mile

6,076.11549 feet = 1 international nautical mile

Area Measure

144 square inches = 1 sq ft.

9 square feet = 1 sq yd = 1,296 sq in.

30 1/4 square yards = 1 sq rd = 272 1/4 sq ft.

160 square rods = 1 acre = 4,840 sq yds = 43,560 sq ft.

640 acres = 1 sq mi.
1 mile square = 1 section (of land)
6 miles square = 1 township = 36 sections = 36 sq mi.

Liquid Measure

When necessary to distinguish the liquid pint or quart from the dry pint or quart, the word "liquid" or the abbreviation "liq" should be used in combination with the name or abbreviation of the liquid unit.

4 gills (gi) = 1 pint (pt) (= 28.875 cu in.)
2 pints = 1 quart (qt) (= 57.75 cu in.)
4 quarts = 1 gallon (gal) (= 231 cu in.) = 8 pts = 32 gills

Units of Circular Measure

Second (") = —
Minute (') = 60 seconds
Degree (°) = 60 minutes
Right angle = 90 degrees
Straight angle = 180 degrees
Circle = 360 degrees

Measuring Motion

Speed is the measure of motion. You can find it by dividing the distance covered by the time it takes to travel that distance.

Speed of Light

If a star is 10 light-years away, it is about 60 trillion miles distant.

Light travels through space at 186,000 miles per second. Light-Year

A light ray travels 5.88 trillion miles a year in space.

Measuring Power

Here is information about non-metric units of power.

*Horsepower: A workhorse can lift 550 pounds 1 foot in the air in 1 second; that is 1 horsepower. Engines are measured in horsepower. A 10-horsepower engine can do the work of ten horses.

*Manpower: An average man lifts 55 pounds 1 foot high in 1 second.

*Candlepower: The amount of light given off by a candle of a specific size, shape, type of tallow, and type of wick. The brightness of an electric light is measured in candlepower.

*Megaton: A megaton is the blasting power of a hydrogen bomb. One megaton has the power of 1 million tons of TNT.

The History of the Internet

The Internet began like most things in our society, that is to say that the government started it. The Internet started out as a experimental military network in the 60's. Doug Engelbart prototypes an "Online System" (NLS) which does hypertext browsing editing, email, and so on. The Internet is a worldwide broadcasting resource used for distributing information and a source for interaction between people on their computers.

In 1973, the U.S. Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency (DARPA) initiated a research program to investigate techniques and technologies for interlinking packet networks of various kinds. It then expanded to other governmental agencies and then to higher education. This was called the Internetting project and the system of networks, which emerged from the research, was known as the "Internet." Al Gore is described as "an advocate of the information superhighway". He helped bring it to our national attention that he invented the Internet. It is not true that he invented the Internet but it is true that he had a small part in its development. Since the early sixties, when Al Gore was still in high school, the development of networking technology had already started. It is true that the Internet has grown and flourished tremendously during Gore's tenure, but that hardly means he caused it to happen.

The Internet has revolutionized the computer and communications world like nothing before. The Internet enables communication and transmission of data between computers at different locations. The Internet is a computer application that connects tens of thousands of interconnected computer networks that include 1.7 million host computers around the world. The basis of connecting all these computers together is by the use of ordinary telephone wires. Users are then directly joined to other computer users at there own will for a small connection fee per month. The connection conveniently includes unlimited access to over a million web sites twenty-four hours a day, seven days a week. There are many reasons why the Internet is important these reasons include: The net adapts to damage and error, data travels at 2/3 the speed of light on copper and fiber, the internet provides the same functionality to everyone, the net is the fastest growing technology ever, the net promotes freedom of speech, the net is digital, and can correct errors. Connecting to the Internet cost the taxpayer little or nothing, since each node was independent, and had to handle its own financing and its own technical requirements. . It is spreading faster than cellular phones and faster than fax machines. Last year the Internet was growing at a rate of twenty percent a month.

The Internet allows people to communicate and attain knowledge from other people no matter their geographical location. The Internet allows people to express their views even if there in a country where freedom of speech is not a right they have. Although

the Internet has its pros it also comes with many cons; inappropriate text and pictures are readily available on the Internet and is a growing business for the Internet. The pornography business on the Internet is the largest and fastest growing part of E-Commerce.

In 1998 in Silicon Valley there was an estimated 50 new millionaires a day. The most popular features of the Internet include electronic mail, discussion, on-line conversations, adventure and role-playing games, information retrieval, and electronic commerce are all the good things the Internet provides Internet users with.

Electronic Commerce or E-Commerce is a growing industry and it would not be available without the Internet. Today, the number one technique of tying business into technology would be the use of the Internet. Since the Internet can be accessed by millions of people all the time, it would be a great incentive for businesses. The Internet can help businesses in a number of extraordinary ways. First, the Internet is an excellent way to make business information available to possible consumers. Say a person hears about a product that your business produces and would like to know more information about that product. Well, through Internet access, that person can easily locate your business web site and browse through the information needed. Included in the web sites found, there could be many documents, pictures, small movie flicks, and question and answer sections available. All of this can be gathered in the convenience of a person's home, twenty-four hours a day. A business can be very pleased with the amount of information they can readily have available to publish to the entire world.

On the Discovery of Radium by Marie Curie French Chemist/Nobel Laureate

I could tell you many things about radium and radioactivity and it would take a long time. But as we cannot do that, I shall only give you a short account of my early work about radium. Radium is no more a baby, it is more than twenty years old, but the conditions of the discovery were somewhat peculiar, and so it is always of interest to remember them and to explain them.

We must go back to the year 1897. Professor Curie and I worked at that time in the laboratory of the school of Physics and Chemistry where Professor Curie held his lectures. I was engaged in some work on uranium rays which had been discovered two years before by Professor Becquerel. I spent some time in studying the way of making good measurements of the uranium rays, and then I wanted to know if there were other elements, giving out rays of the same kind. So I took up a work about all known elements, and their compounds and found that uranium compounds are active and also all thorium compounds, but other elements were not found active, nor were their compounds.

As for the uranium and thorium compounds, I found that they were active in proportion to their uranium or thorium content. The more uranium or thorium, the greater the activity, the activity being an atomic property of the elements, uranium and thorium. Then I took up measurements of minerals and I found that several of those which contain uranium or thorium or both were active. But then the activity was not what I could expect, it was greater than for uranium or thorium compounds like the oxides which are almost entirely composed of these elements. Then I thought that there should be in the minerals some unknown element having a much greater radioactivity than uranium or thorium. And I wanted to find and to separate that element, and I settled to that work with Professor Curie. We thought it would be done in several weeks or months, but it was not so. It took many years of hard work to finish that task.

There was not one new element, there were several of them. But the most important is radium, which could be separated in a pure state. Now, the special interest of radium is in the intensity of its rays which several million times greater than the uranium rays. And the effects of the rays make the radium so important. If we take a practical point of view, then the most important property of the rays is the production of physiological effects on the cells of the human organism. These effects may be used for the cure of several diseases. Good results have been obtained in many cases. What is considered particularly important is the treatment of cancer.

The radium is more than a hundred thousand times dearer than gold. But we must not forget that when radium was discovered no one knew that it would prove useful in hospitals. The work was one of pure science. And this is a proof that scientific work must not be considered from the point of view of the direct usefulness of it. It must be done for itself, for the beauty of science, and then there is always the chance that a scientific discovery may become like the radium a benefit for humanity. The scientific history of radium is beautiful. The properties of the rays have been studied very closely. We know that particles are expelled from radium with a very great velocity near to that of the light. We know that the atoms of radium are destroyed by expulsion of these particles, some of which are atoms of helium. And in that way it has been proved that the radioactive elements are constantly disintegrating and that they produce at the end ordinary elements, principally helium and lead. That is, as you see, a theory of transformation of atoms, which are not stable, as was believed before, but may undergo spontaneous changes.

Nanotechnology

Nanotechnology, the creation and use of materials or devices at extremely small scales. These materials or devices fall in the range of 1 to 100 nanometers (nm). One nm is equal to one-billionth of a meter (.000000001 m), which is about 50,000 times smaller than the diameter of a human hair. Scientists refer to the dimensional range of 1 to 100 nm as the nanoscale, and materials at this scale are called nanocrystals or nanomaterials.

The nanoscale is unique because nothing solid can be made any smaller. It is also unique because many of the mechanisms of the biological and physical world operate on length scales from 0.1 to 100 nm. At these dimensions materials exhibit different physical properties; thus scientists expect that many novel effects at the nanoscale will be discovered and used for breakthrough technologies.

A number of important breakthroughs have already occurred in nanotechnology. These developments are found in products used throughout the world. Some examples are catalytic converters in automobiles that help remove air pollutants, devices in computers that read from and write to the hard disk, certain sunscreens and cosmetics that transparently block harmful radiation from the Sun, and special coatings for sports clothes and gear that help improve the gear and possibly enhance the athlete's performance. Still, many scientists, engineers, and technologists believe they have only scratched the surface of nanotechnology's potential.

Nanotechnology is in its infancy, and no one can predict with accuracy what will result from the full flowering of the field over the next several decades. Many scientists believe it can be said with confidence, however, that nanotechnology will have a major impact on medicine and health care; energy production and conservation; environmental cleanup and protection; electronics, computers, and sensors; and world security and defense.

To grasp the size of the nanoscale, consider the diameter of an atom, the basic building block of matter. The hydrogen atom, one of the smallest naturally occurring atoms, is only 0.1 nm in diameter. In fact, nearly all atoms are roughly 0.1 nm in size, too small to be seen by human eyes. Atoms bond together to form molecules, the smallest part of a chemical compound. Molecules that consist of about 30 atoms are only about 1 nm in diameter. Molecules, in turn, compose cells, the basic units of life. Human cells range from 5,000 to 200,000 nm in size, which means that they are larger than the nanoscale. However, the proteins that carry out the internal operations of the cell are just 3 to 20 nm in size and so have nanoscale dimensions. Viruses that attack human cells are about 10 to 200 nm, and the molecules in drugs used to fight viruses are less than 5 nm in size.

The possibility of building new materials and devices that operate at the same scale as the basic functions of nature explains why so much attention is being devoted to the world below 100 nm. But 100 nm is not some arbitrary dividing line. This is the length at which special properties have been observed in materials—properties that are profoundly different at the nanoscale.

Human beings have actually known about these special properties for some time, although they did not understand why they occurred. Glassworkers in the Middle Ages, for example, knew that by breaking down gold into extremely small particles and sprinkling these fine particles into glass the gold would change in color from yellow to blue or green or red, depending on the size of the particle. They used these particles to help create the beautiful stained glass windows found in cathedrals throughout Europe, such as the cathedral of Notre Dame in Paris, France. These glassworkers did not realize it at the time, but they had created gold nanocrystals. At scales above 100 nm gold appears yellow, but at scales below 100 nm it exhibits other colors.

Nanotechnologists are intrigued by the possibility of creating human made devices at the molecular, or nanoscale, level. That is why the field is sometimes called molecular nanotechnology. Some nanotechnologists are also aiming for these devices to self-replicate—that is, to simultaneously carry out their function and increase their number, just as living organisms do. To some early proponents of the field, this aspect of nanotechnology is the most important. If tiny functional units could be assembled at the molecular level and made to self-replicate under controlled conditions, tremendous efficiencies could be realized. However, many scientists doubt the possibility of self-replicating nanostructures.

TECHNOLOGY VOCABULARY

Ability	Accounting	Addition	Adequate	Administrators	
Advances	Analysis	Analysts	Analyze	Annual	Applicant
Applications	Architects	Area	Arise	Associate	Background
Businesses	Called	Carpal	Carriers	Certification	Chapter

Chief	Code	Common	Communicate	Communication	Communications
Competitive	Computer	Computers	Computing	Concentrate	Considerable
Consultants	Consulting	Coordinate	Create	Customer	Customers
Cyber	Data	Database	Databases	Deal	Decline
Demand	Design	Designers	Detailed	Determine	Developers
Development	Discomfort	Discussion	Effectively	Efficiency	Electronic
Employing	Engineering	Engineers	Enterprises	Environment	Equipment
Expertise	Eyestrain	Finance	Financial	Firms	Force
Functions	Goals	Graduate	Hardware	Hours	Implementation
Increase	Injuries	Install	Institutions	Instructions	Insurance
Integrate	Intranet	Introductory	Involved	Keyboard	Knowledge
Laboratories	Language	Languages	Latest	Lead	Leadership
Level	Levels	Locations	Lowest	Mail	Maintain
Maintenance	Marketing	Mathematics	Matrix	Median	Mobile
Monitor	Nature	Network	Networking	Networks	Officer
Offices	Offshore	Order	Organizations	Outsourcing	Oversee
Pdf	Perform	Performance	Periods	Plan	Prevailing
Problem	Process	Processing	Product	Program	Programmer
Programmers	Programming	Project	Projections	Projects	Promoted
Prospects	Provide	Publishing	Rapid	Rapidly	Reduce
Relevant	Remote	Replace	Research	Resources	Respond
Rounded	Sales	Science	Scientific	Scientists	Section
Security	Services	Simultaneously	Site	Software	Solving
Sophisticated	Specialist	Specialists	Specialized	Specific	Spend
Staff	Statistics	Substantial	Sufficient	Support	Syndrome
System	Systems	Tasks	Technical	Technicians	Technological
Technologies	Technology	Telecommunications		Title	Tools
Training	Transfer	Typing	Uncommon	Understanding	User
Users	Variety	Vendors	Web	Webmasters	Wireless
Workers	Workplace	Wrist	Write		

How to Make and Use an Essay Outline

An essay outline is probably the most important friend you will have while writing your essay. It is the scaffolding of your paper and the skeleton of your ideas. It is the framework by which you will write a killer essay. And frankly, it is difficult to write one without an outline.

When you begin writing an essay outline, use the following model as a guide:

I. INTRODUCTION:

Thesis: _____.

II. BODY PARAGRAPH 1:

Opening Sentence: _____.

Detail 1: _____.

Detail 2: _____.

Detail 3: _____.

III. BODY PARAGRAPH II:

Transition/Opening Sentence: _____.

Detail 1: _____.

Detail 2: _____.

Detail 3: _____.

IV. BODY PARAGRAPH III:

Transition/Opening Sentence: _____.

Detail 1: _____.

Detail 2: _____.
Detail 3: _____.

V. BODY PARAGRAPH IV:

Transition/Opening Sentence: _____.
Detail 1: _____.
Detail 2: _____.
Detail 3: _____.

VI. CONCLUSION:

Reconfirmed Thesis: _____.

Transition-sentences bring out the logical relation between ideas. You want your paper to read like a continuous argument which good transitions help to facilitate. Words like ‘however’, ‘so’, ‘additionally’ do indicate a logical relation between paragraphs, but they are weak. A strong transition makes the relation explicit.

A transitional sentence leads your reader from one paragraph to the next .

Weaker transition: However, conflicts between principle and emotion more often occur when there is a conflict between the moral values of different cultures.

Stronger transition: While conflict between morality and sympathy can occur in the context of a single cultural code, it more often arises in cross-cultural conflicts.

How to Write an Essay: 10 Easy Steps

Find a subject you care about and which you in your heart feel others should care about. It is this genuine caring, not your games with language, which will be the most compelling and seductive element in your style.

-- Kurt Vonnegut Why is writing an essay so frustrating?

Learning how to write an essay can be a maddening, exasperating process, but it doesn't have to be. If you know the steps and understand what to do, writing can be easy and even fun.

This site, "How To Write an Essay: 10 Easy Steps," offers a ten-step process that teaches students how to write an essay. Links to the writing steps are found on the left, and additional writing resources are located across the top.

Learning how to write an essay doesn't have to involve so much trial and error.

Brief Overview of the 10 Essay Writing Steps

Below are brief summaries of each of the ten steps to writing an essay. Select the links for more info on any particular step, or use the blue navigation bar on the left to proceed through the writing steps. How To Write an Essay can be viewed sequentially, as if going through ten sequential steps in an essay writing process, or can be explored by individual topic.

1. **Research:** Begin the essay writing process by researching your topic, making yourself an expert. Utilize the internet, the academic databases, and the library. Take notes and immerse yourself in the words of great thinkers.
2. **Analysis:** Now that you have a good knowledge base, start analyzing the arguments of the essays you're reading. Clearly define the claims, write out the reasons, the evidence. Look for weaknesses of logic, and also strengths. Learning how to write an essay begins by learning how to analyze essays written by others.
3. **Brainstorming:** Your essay will require insight of your own, genuine essay-writing brilliance. Ask yourself a dozen questions and answer them. Meditate with a pen in your hand. Take walks and think and think until you come up with original insights to write about.
4. **Thesis:** Pick your best idea and pin it down in a clear assertion that you can write your entire essay around. Your thesis is your main point, summed up in a concise sentence that lets the reader know where you're going, and why. It's practically impossible to write a good essay without a clear thesis.

5. Outline: Sketch out your essay before straightway writing it out. Use one-line sentences to describe paragraphs, and bullet points to describe what each paragraph will contain. Play with the essay's order. Map out the structure of your argument, and make sure each paragraph is unified.

6. Introduction: Now sit down and write the essay. The introduction should grab the reader's attention, set up the issue, and lead in to your thesis. Your intro is merely a buildup of the issue, a stage of bringing your reader into the essay's argument.

(Note: The title and first paragraph are probably the most important elements in your essay. This is an essay-writing point that doesn't always sink in within the context of the classroom. In the first paragraph you either hook the reader's interest or lose it. Of course your teacher, who's getting paid to teach you how to write an essay, will read the essay you've written regardless, but in the real world, readers make up their minds about whether or not to read your essay by glancing at the title alone.)

7. Paragraphs: Each individual paragraph should be focused on a single idea that supports your thesis. Begin paragraphs with topic sentences, support assertions with evidence, and expound your ideas in the clearest, most sensible way you can. Speak to your reader as if he or she were sitting in front of you. In other words, instead of writing the essay, try talking the essay.

8. Conclusion: Gracefully exit your essay by making a quick wrap-up sentence, and then end on some memorable thought, perhaps a quotation, or an interesting twist of logic, or some call to action. Is there something you want the reader to walk away and do? Let him or her know exactly what.

9. Format your essay according to the correct guidelines for citation. All borrowed ideas and quotations should be correctly cited in the body of your text, followed up with a Works Cited (references) page listing the details of your sources.

10. Language: You're not done writing your essay until you've polished your language by correcting the grammar, making sentences flow, and making other intuitive edits. Proofread until it reads just how you want it to sound. Writing an essay can be tedious, but you don't want to bungle the hours of conceptual work you've put into writing your essay by leaving a few misspellings and poorly worded phrases..

Start Writing with an Essay Layout

Writing an essay should start with designing an essay layout

Essay layout is the most basic and first thing that every writers should do before they start writing. Why does it sounds so important? It is simply because a good essay usually derived from a proper planned what-to-be-narrated outline or draft. Other reasons are to secure the overflowing ideas that could be easily forgotten in a minute or two, highlight the main points for a quick glance prior to start narrating or arrange the pattern of where and how those ideas or points should appear so that it would be thrilling or stimulating for people to read.

Elements in designing the layout of an essay

It is very important to design a layout prior to start writing. Jot down anything that pops out in mind is helpful, in order to pick out the best or at least help out in connecting the scattered ideas.

The following is the common elements in an essay layout, listed according to the proper appearance in a common essay:

Introduction

This is the part where first impression to readers is made. For authors, it is very important to give a good first impression so that the following paragraph or part of the essay would seem appealing to be read. There are various methods on how to do this though, depend on the type of essay to write and styles to be applied. Also, as the name 'introduction' implies, this is where the bit of whole essay being clumped together, in a very short but informative words. In other words, it is like giving the whole idea of the essay in a much simpler term. Usually, formal like essays will practice this, meanwhile the less formal one will start out with suspense like story, situation, question or anything else for readers to wonder about. If the essay has objectives or aims to be accomplished, it is better to include them in this part. Still, it depends on the type of essay to write. Generally, it is applied in academic writing and can be found in almost all literature review example.

Body

This part should contain the main points of the essay. Each point has to be elaborated in separate paragraph, which means there could be more than one paragraph in this part. The arrangement of which points need to discuss first is another aspect needed to be paid attention to, since it could affect how people get convinced. An appropriate flow of the ideas is significant and it could be messed up just by misplacing the order of appearance in the essay.

Conclusion

In this part, the main message of the essay should be stressed out, also in a simple term similarly applied in introduction part. It should be noted that the main message is different from the main points elaborated earlier in the body part. Although these two are related to each other, the former is more towards a suggestion for the readers to think about after reading your essay.

Normally, introduction and conclusion should be written in one paragraph only, so that it would be easy to be recognized apart from other segment of the essay. Also, one more thing not to neglect is that a good essay should have a balance amount of words in each paragraph. This is why an essay should have a prior designed essay layout so that the author can make necessary arrangement in order to meet these conditions. The elements discussed above can be found in most essay examples, but would vary according to certain exception depending on the requirement of the essay itself.

How to avoid silence in English conversations

Sometimes you don't know what to say in a conversation. Perhaps you don't have any words to express yourself, or you haven't understood the other person. Or perhaps there isn't anything left to say! In all these situations, it's important to avoid being silent, so here are some words and expressions to use.

When you don't understand

"Sorry, I don't understand."

"Sorry, could you repeat that?"

"Sorry? I didn't get that."

Looking for words to express yourself

You don't want to be completely silent, but you need time to find the words.

"Well..."

"OK..."

"So..."

You can even make some "noises"

"Hmmm..."

"Uh-huh"

"Umm..."

To agree with the other person

You want to show that you agree, but you don't have anything else to say.

"Yeah."

"Right."

To change the subject

You've all given your opinion, and now you want to talk about something else.

"Anyway,..."

"Well, as I was saying..."

"So, back to ..."

"So, we were saying ..."

4-English greetings

The first impressions are important, so here's a guide to using the right expression.

Two friends meeting

Friends often say "Hi" to each other. Then they often ask a general question, such as "How are you?" or "How are things?" or "How's life?"

The reply to this question is normally positive.

"Fine thanks, and you?"

"Fine thanks, what about yourself?"

"Not bad." Or "Can't complain."

Greeting people you don't know

You can use "Hello" with people you don't know, but a more formal greeting is "Good morning / afternoon / evening."

The other person normally replies with the same greeting as you have used and then makes polite conversation, such as "How was your trip?" or "Did you find our office easily?"

5-Introducing yourself and others

At an informal party

"Hello, I'm Maria." Or "Hello, my name's Maria."

The reply could be:

"Hi, I'm Sarah." Or "Hello Maria, I'm Sarah." Or "Nice to meet you, I'm Sarah."

At work-related events

"I'd like to introduce myself. I'm Maria, from english@home."

Or, "Let me introduce myself. I'm Maria from english@home."

The reply could be:

"Nice to meet you. I'm Peter Mitchell, from Mitchell Creations."

"Pleased to meet you. I'm Peter Mitchell, from Mitchell Creations."

"How do you do? I'm Peter Mitchell from Mitchell Creations."

Introducing other people

Introducing a friend to a work colleague

"Sarah, have you met my colleague John?"

"Sarah, I'd like you to meet my colleague John."

Sarah says:

"Pleased to meet you, John." Or "Nice to meet you, John."

John could say:

"Nice to meet you too, Sarah." Or "Hello, Sarah."

Introducing clients

"Mr Mitchell, I'd like to introduce you to my manager, Henry Lewis."

Mr Mitchell could then say:

"How do you do?" and Henry Lewis also says "How do you do?"

Or Mr Mitchell could say:

"Pleased to meet you." Or "Good to meet you."

Speaking Tip

"**How do you do?**" is quite formal for British English speakers and the reply to this question is to repeat the phrase, "**How do you do?**" (as strange as that may sound!)

At a more informal party

When you introduce two of your friends to each other, you can simply say, "John, this is Sarah."

Cultural considerations

At work, one person may have higher status – your boss, or a client, for example. It's polite to address them as Mr / Ms until the situation becomes more informal.

If someone says, "Please call me (Henry)", you know you can use first names. If someone uses your first name, you can use their first name too.

People in European and English-speaking cultures often shake hands when they meet someone for the first time.

* Don't forget to smile! :-

Saying dates and numbers in English

Dates

We can say dates either with the day before the month, or the month before the day:

The first of January / January the first.

Remember to use ordinal numbers for dates.

(The first, the second, the third, the fourth, the fifth, the twenty-second, the thirty-first etc.)

Years

For years up until 2000, separate the four numbers into two pairs of two:

1965 = nineteen sixty-five

1871 = eighteen seventy-one

1999 = nineteen ninety-nine

For this decade, you need to say "two thousand and —" in British English:

2001 = two thousand and one

2009 = two thousand and nine

Large numbers

Divide the number into units of hundreds and thousands:

400,000 = four hundred thousand (no s plural)

If the number includes a smaller number, use "and" in British English:

450,000 = four hundred and fifty thousand

400,360 = four hundred thousand and three hundred and sixty

Fractions, ratios and percentages

$\frac{1}{2}$ = one half

$\frac{1}{3}$ = one third

$\frac{1}{4}$ = one quarter

$\frac{1}{5}$ = one fifth

$\frac{1}{6}$ = one sixth etc

$\frac{3}{5}$ = three fifths

1.5% = one point five percent

0.3% = zero point three percent

2:1 = two to one

Saying 0

Depending on the context, we can pronounce zero in different ways:

2-0 (football) = Two nil

30 – 0 (tennis) = Thirty love

604 7721 (phone number) = six oh four...

0.4 (a number) = nought point four / zero point four
0C (temperature) = zero degrees

Talking about calculations

+ (plus)

$2 + 1 = 3$ (two plus one equals three)

- (minus / take away)

$5 - 3 = 2$ (five minus three equals two / five take away three equals two)

x (multiplied by / times)

$2 \times 3 = 6$ (two multiplied by three equals six / two times three equals six)

/ (divided by)

$6 / 3 = 2$ (six divided by three equals two)

Conversation Starters

Everyday Idioms

Time Idioms

the big time	Mafalda used to work in a supermarket. Then she hit the big time and she got a job as the star actress in a movie.
to call it a day	When I finish writing this composition, I'm going to call it a day and go to bed.
for the time being	We have no extra money. So for the time being , we can't move to a nicer apartment.
high time	It's high time we bought a new car. The old one keeps dying out on the highway.
in no time	When Sid got sick suddenly, we called the emergency number and the paramedics were here in no time .
in the nick of time	The vase was just about to fall off the sink, but she grabbed it in the nick of time , so it didn't break.
to kill time	We were a half hour early for the movie. To kill time , we went to the fast-food restaurant next door for a cup of coffee.
to make time	I was planning to work on my report all day, but I'll make time in the morning to meet with you and discuss the problem.
on the spur of the moment	They didn't plan to go away for the weekend. They decided to go to the mountains on the spur of the moment .
to take one's time	It's better to take your time when doing tests than to hurry and make mistakes.
the time is right	The time is right to invest in a house because real estate prices are low now.

Colour idioms

black and white	thinking of everything or judging everything in a simple way and seeing it as either good or bad The situation isn't as black and white as it seems; it's much more complicated.
black out	to darken by putting out the electric lights or covering over the windows Londoners had to black out their windows during the war so that the enemy aircraft could not see the city.
black out	to lose consciousness

blue in the face	He blacked out after standing up for three hours in the parade. First aid staff attended to him. to be very angry or upset; to be excited and very emotional
Green	She argued with her husband until she was blue in the face but he wouldn't see her point of view. to be inexperienced and/or immature
green with envy	He's a bit green - he still believes that someone is going to come and help him out of his situation. He doesn't realize he has to do it himself. to be very jealous and full of envy
in the red	I was green with envy when I heard that she was going on holiday to Spain for a week while I had to stay and work.
red tape	to have debts The company has been in the red for two years now. We now owe over \$500,000 to our suppliers and the bank.
out of the blue	excessive bureaucracy Many businesses complain about the amount of red tape that they must deal with in former Eastern-bloc countries. when something happens without a warning, by surprise His decision to leave the company came completely out of the blue. No one expected it at all.

Telephone language and phrases in English

How to answer and speak on the phone

<p>Answering the phone</p> <p>Good morning/afternoon/evening, York Enterprises, Elizabeth Jones speaking.</p> <p>Who's calling, please?</p> <p>Introducing yourself</p> <p>This is Paul Smith speaking.</p> <p>Hello, this is Paul Smith from Speak International.</p> <p>Asking for someone</p> <p>Could I speak to John Martin, please?</p> <p>I'd like to speak to John Martin, please.</p> <p>Could you put me through to John Martin, please?</p> <p>Could I speak to someone who ...</p> <p>Explaining</p> <p>I'm afraid Mr Martin isn't in at the moment.</p> <p>I'm sorry, he's in a meeting at the moment.</p> <p>I'm afraid he's on another line at the moment.</p> <p>Putting someone on hold</p> <p>Just a moment, please.</p> <p>Could you hold the line, please?</p> <p>Hold the line, please.</p>	<p>Problems</p> <p>I'm sorry, I don't understand. Could you repeat that, please?</p> <p>I'm sorry, I can't hear you very well. Could you speak up a little, please?</p> <p>I'm afraid you've got the wrong number.</p> <p>I've tried to get through several times but it's always engaged.</p> <p>Could you spell that, please?</p> <p>Putting someone through</p> <p>One moment, please. I'll see if Mr Jones is available.</p> <p>I'll put you through.</p> <p>I'll connect you.</p> <p>I'm connecting you now.</p> <p>Taking a message</p> <p>Can I take a message?</p> <p>Would you like to leave a message?</p> <p>Can I give him/her a message?</p> <p>I'll tell Mr Jones that you called</p> <p>I'll ask him/her to call you as soon as possible.</p>
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Talking about the weather

It's true! British people often start a conversation with strangers and friends by talking about the weather. As weather is a neutral topic of conversation, it's usually safe to use it to strike up a conversation – at the bus stop, in a shop, or with a neighbor over the garden fence.

Some examples of conversation starters in English

"Lovely day, isn't it!"

"Bit nippy today."

"What strange weather we're having!"

"It doesn't look like it's going to stop raining today."

Attitude to weather

Although British people like to complain about bad weather, they generally put a brave face on it.

If someone complains about too much rain, you might hear:

"Never mind – it's good for the garden."

If someone complains that it's too hot, you could hear:

"At least my tomatoes will be happy."

If the conversation has been about general bad weather, perhaps someone will say:

"Well, I've heard it's worse in the west. They've had terrible flooding."

Predicting the weather

We can make predictions about the weather, using a range of forms – not just the "will" or "going to" form:

"I think it'll clear up later."

"**It's going to rain by the looks of it.**"

"**We're in for** frost tonight."

"**They're expecting** snow in the north."

"I hear that showers are **coming our way.**"

Human attributes

We also attribute human features to the weather, almost as if the weather can decide what to do:

"The sun's trying to come out."

"It's been trying to rain all morning."

"It's finally decided to rain."

Understanding the forecast

Many British people are keen gardeners, and they keep a close eye on the weather forecast. Here are some of the weather features which can worry gardeners:

a hard frost

blizzard / gale force conditions

hailstones

prolonged rain

blustery wind

a drought

Here are some English words for more temperate conditions which gardeners like:

mild weather

sunny spells

light drizzle

Ways to describe friendship in English

From best friend to deadliest enemy, and all the variations between. Here are some common words and phrases to describe friendship in English.

BFF (best friends forever)

best mate = your best friend.

a good friend = someone in your "inner circle" of friends.

to be really close to someone = be good friends with

pal = friend (UK slang)

buddy (best buddy) = friend (mainly US English)

to go back years = to know someone for a long time: "Steve and I go back years."

an old friend = a friend you've known for a long time: "He's an old friend of Dave's."

a friend of the family / a family friend = someone close to your family: "John was an old family friend."

a trusted friend = someone you can trust

a childhood friend = a friend from when you were very young

a circle of friends = all the friends in your group: "She's got a great circle of friends."

More casual friendships

penpal / epal = someone you know from corresponding / writing: "Find a penpal on our Penpals forum!"

someone you know from work (or another interest group): "Andy? Oh, he's someone I know from work."

someone you know to pass the time of day with = someone you know to say "hello" to.

casual acquaintance = someone you don't know very well: "She's just a casual acquaintance of mine."

a friend of a friend = someone you only know because they're a friend of one of your friends. "Dave's a friend of a friend."

a mutual friend = someone that two people know: "Karen's a mutual friend of both me and Rachel."

Mates

classmate = someone in your class at school.

workmate = someone you work with

flatmate (UK English) **roommate** (US English) = someone you share a flat or house with

soul mate = someone you're very close to because you share the same opinions and beliefs

Not good friends

on-off relationship = where you're sometimes friendly, and sometimes not: "Cath and Liz have an on-off relationship."

fair-weather friend = a friend who's never around when you need help: "She's only a fair-weather friend."

a frenemy = someone who's a friend and an enemy at the same time.

Other expressions

strike up a friendship with = make friends with someone

be no friend of = not like someone / something: "I'm no friend of his!"

have friends in high places = know important / influential people: "Be careful what you say. He's got friends in high places."