

Phonetics

Definition:

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

Vowel and consonant sounds

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

Types of vowels

1- *Short vowels*

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

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

2- *Long vowels*

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

- i: (example words): *mean, peace*
- ɜ: (example words): *bird, purse*
- ɑ: (example words): *card, pass*
- ɔ: (example words): *board, horse*
- u: (example words): *loose, soon*

3- *diphthongs*

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

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

4- Triphthongs

The most complex English sounds of the vowel type are the triphthongs. A triphthong is a glide from one vowel to another and then to a third, all produced rapidly and without interruption.

The triphthongs can be looked on as being composed of the five closing diphthongs , with ə added at the end. Thus we get:

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

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

The End

**Here are the IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet) symbols for
the common sounds of English**

Vowels

IPA Symbol	Example
i :	three
ɪ	bin
æ	fat
ɑ :	far
ɔ :	sort
ʊ	put
u :	boot
ʌ	up
ɜ :	her
ə	until
e	bed
ɒ	rock

Diphthongs

IPA Symbol	Example
eɪ	stay
aɪ	try
ɔɪ	toy
ɪə	fear
eə	there
ʊə	sure
aʊ	mouth
əʊ	nose

Here are the IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet) symbols for the common sounds of English

Consonants

IPA Symbol	Example
p	plan
b	boy
t	test
d	desk
k	kiss
g	go
tʃ	chest
dʒ	joke
f	find
v	visitor
θ	thick
ð	this
s	sad
z	zoo
ʃ	shoe
ʒ	television
h	heavy
m	many
n	no
ŋ	ring
l	love
r	run
j	yesterday
w	wet

An Alphabetic Code Chart for English with the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)

IPA symbols for phonemes and combined phonemes	Easy-to-use notation for units of sound	Graphemes, or spelling alternatives, within word examples which are code for the sounds	IPA symbols for phonemes and combined phonemes	Easy-to-use notation for units of sound	Graphemes, or spelling alternatives, within word examples which are code for the sounds
vowel sounds			consonant sounds		
/æ/	/a/	apple	/b/	/b/	bat rabbit builder
/ɛ/	/e/	egg head said	/k/	/k/	cat kit duck chameleon bouquet plaque
/ɪ/	/i/	insect cymbals	/d/	/d/	dig puddle rained
/ɒ/	/o/	octopus watch qualify salt	/f/	/f/	feathers cliff photograph laugh
/ʌ/	/u/	umbrella son touch thoroughfare	/g/	/g/	girl juggle guitar ghost catalogue
/eɪ/	/ai/	aid tray table sundae cake prey break eight straight	/h/	/h/	hat who
/i:/	/ee/	eel eat emu concrete key chief sardines	/dʒ/	/j/	jug cabbage gerbil giraffe gymnast fridge
/ɪ/ to /i:/	between /i-ee/	sunny monkey movie	/l/	/l/	ladder shell
/aɪ/	/igh/	night tie behind fly bike eiderdown	/ə/	/ul/	kettle pencil hospital camel
/əʊ/	/oa/	oak bow yo-yo oboe rope dough plateau	/m/	/m/	map hammer welcome thumb column
/j/ + /u:/	/y+oo/	statue unicorn tube new pneumatic	/n/	/n/	net bonnet knot gnome engine
/ʊ/	short /oo/	book should push wolf (wolves)	/ŋ/	/ng/	gong jungle /ŋ+/k/ /ng+k/ some programmes ink uncle
/u:/	long /oo/	moon blue flute fruit crew soup move through super	/p/	/p/	pan puppet
/ɔɪ/	/oi/	ointment toy	/k/ + /w/	/k+w/	queen awkward
/aʊ/	/ou/	ouch owl plough	/r/	/r/	rat arrow write rhinoceros
/ɑ:/	/ar/	artist father palm half calves	/s/	/s/	snake glass palace house cents city bicycle
/ɔ:/	/or/ or /aw/ (accent)	fork oars door snore four wardrobe quarter dawn sauce chalk caught thought water	/t/	/t/	scissors castle pseudonym tent letter skipped debt pterodactyl
/ɜ:/	/er/	mermaid birthday nurse earth world	/v/	/v/	violin dove
/ə/ "uh"	schwa /er/ or /u/	mixer humour theatre collar sailor above	/w/	/w/	web wheel penguin
/ɛə/	/air/	hair hare bear where	/k/ + /s/	/k+s/	fox (plurals: books ducks picnics cakes plaques)
/ɪə/	/eer/	deer ears adhere cashier	/g/ + /z/	/g+z/	exam (plurals: pegs eggs catalogues)
/j/ + /ʊə/	/y+oor/	pure	/j/	/y/	yawn
The complexities of the English Alphabetic Code: 1. One sound (phoneme) can be represented by one, two, three or four letters: e.g. /a/ a, /f/ ph, /igh/ igh, /ai/ eigh 2. One sound can be represented by multiple spelling alternatives (graphemes): e.g. /oa/: o, oa, ow, oe, o-e, eau, ough 3. One grapheme can represent multiple sounds: e.g. 'ough': /oa/ though, /or/ thought, /oo/ through, /ou/ plough, /u/ thorough On this chart, hollow letters (w qu e i y le lt m j) alert the reader to a possible pronunciation in certain words such as 'world' (in contrast to 'worn') and a specific pronunciation in some words (the 'soft c' principle) such as 'city'.			/z/	/z/	zebra jazz (plural: fries) cheese breeze xylophone
			/tʃ/	/ch/	chairs patch /tʃ+/ə/ /ch+u/ picture
			/ʃ/	/sh/	sheep chef station magician admission
			/θ/	unvoiced /th/	thistle /ð/ voiced /th/ there
			/ʒ/	/zh/	television treasure azure (blue) courgette collage

Contact: debbie@phonicsinternational.com No Alphabetic Code Chart can be definitive because of regional and national accents and the different interpretations people give to speech sounds and spelling alternatives.

Text:

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

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

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

Questions

1) Comprehension

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

2) Vocabulary / Grammar

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

3) Translation / Transcription

1. Translate the following words into French: atom, nucleus, electricity, electron.
2. Transcribe the following words: atom, electricity, electron, nucleus, current, system, planet, word, many, sun, such, among.
3. Answer the following statements by true **(T)** or false **(F)**. Correct the false ones.

a) /aɪ'dɪə/, this word ends in a short vowel.

b) /ɜːbɪt /, / ɜː / in this word is a long vowel.

c) /'æ t ə m/, this word contains schwa.

Verb

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

A word indicating action or a state.

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

1- Extensive verbs can be either **transitive or intransitive**. They are intransitive if they don't permit any of the four objects and complement types i.e. Od, Oi, Cs, Co

E.g. It (s) rained (v) steadily (A) all day (A).

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

2- **Stative verbs:** Some verbs are not usually used in the continuous/ progressive forms in certain meanings, especially when the verbs have a meaning of knowledge, sense of perception or of emotion. When these verbs show a state of condition rather than an activity or an event, they can be called stative.

E.g. believe, feel, recognize. (Knowledge and mental activity)

hear, see, sound, smell (sense of perception)

3- **Dynamic verbs:** Dynamic verbs are the ones which are fitted to indicate action, activity, and temporary or changing conditions.

E.g. His brother **grew** happier.

Negative form

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

*He has not/ hasn't finished

/

*He would/ wouldn't come.

Interrogative form

Simple present tense interrogative: do I / you/ we/ they + infinitive

Does he/ she/ it + infinitive

e.g. Does Peter enjoy party?

Simple past tense interrogative: did + subject+ infinitive.

e.g. Did he enjoy Ann's party?

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

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

(1) **Who** makes him the chairman every year?

(2) **Whom** do they make the chairman every year?

(3) **What** do they make him every year?

(4) **When** do they make him the chairman?

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

(1) Is the girl now a student?

(2) Did John search the room carefully?

(3) Has he given the girl an apple?

Interrogative negative form

Isn't the girl a student? OR

Is the girl not a student?

Didn't John search the room? OR

Did John not search the room?

Hasn't he given the girl an apple? OR

Has he not given the girl an apple?

Regular and irregular verbs

John searched the big room and the small one. (Regular verb)

I found him working. (Irregular verb).

Nouns

1-kinds of noun in English

There are four kinds of noun in English:

**Common nouns*: man, cat

**Proper nouns*: Celine, France

**Abstract nouns*: beauty, fear

**Collective nouns*: team, group

2- Plurals

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

E.g. day→ days house→ houses

Other plural forms

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

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

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

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

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

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

E.g. boy→ boys

day→ days

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

E.g. life→ lives wife→ wives

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

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

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

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

woman→ women goose→ geese louse→ lice

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

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

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

G- Compound nouns:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

NB.

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

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

a help

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

a knowledge + of:

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

a love+of/ a dislike+ of

E.g. a love of music.

Exercise.

Give the plural of each word.

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

Test Yourself

Activity one: find the nouns that correspond to the following verbs

Infiltrate test compress develop infect distill produce inform

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

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

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

Activity three: ask questions on the underlined part of each sentence.

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

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

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

Adjectives and Adverbs

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

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

1- Attribute and predicative adjectives

The major syntactic function of adjectives is attribute and predicative.

- a- **Determiner – adjective- noun** e.g. a **pleasant** holiday. (attribute adjective).
- b- **Subject- verb- subject complement** (adjective) e.g. The holiday is pleasant (predicative adjective)
- c- **Subject- verb- object- object complement** (adjective) e.g. we made him happy (predicative adjective).

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

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

E.g. A Roman holiday.

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

E.g. The soldier is afraid.

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

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

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

Kind of adverbs:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

III/ Adverbs and adjectives with the same form

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

Activity one: what is the difference between these sentences?

a- The train is early.

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

b- An early train

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

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

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

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

c- He is **obviously** intelligent.

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

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

f- This house is **old**

Interrogatives: Wh Questions

Interrogatives:

For persons: subject	who
Object	whom, who
Possessive	whose
For things: subject/object	what

Interrogative adverbs:

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

'How' can also be used

- a- **With adjectives.** E.g. How important is this letter?
- b- **With much and money.** E.g. How much (money) do you want?
How many (pictures) did you buy?
- c- **With adverbs.** E.g. How fast does he drive?

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

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

Activity three: ask questions on the underlined part of each sentence.

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

Overview of Clauses

Definition:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

The Relative Clause

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

3) Whose: is the possessive determiner form of “who”. It usually refers to a person or people .It replaces his, her, and their or a possessive case (s).

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

(Relative clause- possessive)

Functions of relative clause:

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

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

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

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

E.g. Mrs. Porter's house has just been sold. It has been for sale for two years.
Mrs. Porter's house, **which has been for sale for two years,** has just been sold.
Notice the use of **comas (,)** when dealing with non- defining relative clauses.

Sentence relative clause:

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

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

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

Relative pronouns used in relative clauses

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

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

Types of sentences

1- Simple Sentence

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

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

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

2- Compound Sentence

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

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

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

3- Complex Sentence.

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

1. **When (subordinator)** he **handed** in his homework, **he forgot** to give the teacher the last page.
2. The **teacher returned** the homework **after (subordinator)** she **noticed** the error.
3. The **students are studying** **because (subordinator)** they **have** a test tomorrow.
4. **After (subordinator)** they **finished studying**, Juan and Maria **went** to the movies
5. **Juan and Maria went** to the movies **after (subordinator)** they **finished** studying.

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

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

B- Complex Sentences / Adjective Clauses

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

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

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

The pedagogical strength of multimedia is that it uses the natural information-processing abilities that we already possess as humans. The old saying that “a picture is worth a thousand words” often understates the case especially with regard to moving image **as** our eyes are

highly adapted to detecting and interpreting movements. For the student, one advantage of multimedia courseware over the **text-based** variety is that the application looks better. **If** the courseware includes only a few images at least, it gives relief from the screen and **stimulate** the eye **even if** .the image have little pedagogical value.

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

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