Handbook of Grammar & Rhetoric

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Class: _________________________

Name: _________________________

Number: _________________________

Edited by Chng Yi Wu

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PART I. GRAMMAR
PARTS OF SPEECH

Different schools of grammar present different classifications for the parts of speech. Traditional grammarians, for example, base designations on a word's *meaning* or *signification*.

**Example:** A noun is a word that names a person, place, thing, or idea.

Structural grammarians see parts of speech as often identifiable through their position in sentences.

**Example:** Her _________ was on the table.

Using valuable ideas from both groups, we may divide parts of speech into two major groups:

2 Classes:

1) content words (open class)
2) function words (closed class)

**Content words** are words that have *meaning*. They are words we would look up in a dictionary, such as "lamp," "computer," "drove." New content words are constantly added to the English language; old content words constantly leave the language as they become obsolete. Therefore, we refer to content words as an "open" class.

**Nouns, verbs, adjectives**, and **adverbs** are content parts of speech.

**Function words** are words that exist to explain or create grammatical or structural relationships into which the content words may fit. Words like "of," "the," "to," they have little meaning on their own. They are much fewer in number and generally do not change as English adds and omits content words. Therefore, we refer to function words as a "closed" class.

**Pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, determiners**, and **interrogatives** are some function parts of speech.

Note the differences between content and function parts of speech:
Generally, we can use one or more of five signals to help us determine a word's part of speech designation:

1. function words (the, what, and)
2. inflectional morphemes (-s, -ed)
3. derivational morphemes
4. word order in sentence patterns
5. stress patterns (subject/subject, insert/insert, imprint/imprint)
NOUNS

Traditional grammarians define a noun as "a person, place, thing, or idea."

Child designates a person; therefore, child is a noun.

Similarly, democracy designates an idea; therefore, democracy is a noun.

In addition, nouns can be identified by the presence of signal words such as the.

Example:

Someone stole the cat.

Word order can also provide clues about nouns. For example, in the following sentence, it is clear that the part of speech that will fit into slot #1 and slot #2 must be nouns:

(1) touched (2)

Often, suffixes will suggest that a word is a noun. For example, -tion, -ness, -ment, or -er at the end of a word usually signify that the word is a noun, as in suggestion, happiness, involvement, and diner.

Nouns may be made plural, usually with the suffix -s or -es, as in books and foxes.

Nouns show ownership with the addition of an apostrophe and, sometimes, an additional -s, as in a book's pages, twenty students' essays.

- Common nouns such as school, business, or person designate an entire class.
- Proper nouns, on the other hand, designate a specific example of a class: Towson University, Black and Decker Company, Joe. Proper nouns are capitalized.
- Nouns may be countable (1 fork, 2 forks, 3 forks, etc.) or noncountable (sugar, oil).
- Nouns may signify concreteness (computer, fingernail) or abstractness (peace, friendship).

Functions of Nouns

Subject (S) - a noun or pronoun partnered with a predicate verb.

A subject

1. does an action with an action verb
2. exists with a **verb of being**

Example: Joe ate some meatballs.

Examples: Joe is in the kitchen.
There is a fly in my soup.

3. is renamed or described after a verb of being or a **linking verb**

Examples: Joe is a gourmet.
The cake looks good.

4. is acted upon with a **passive verb**

Example: Joe was fed some meatballs.

**Object of Preposition (OP)** - a noun or pronoun answering "whom" or "what" after a preposition in a prepositional phrase.

Example: Joe ate some meatballs with his friends.

**Direct Object (DO)** - a noun or pronoun answering "whom" or "what" after an action verb. A direct object "receives" or is the "object" of the action.

Example: Joe ate some meatballs.

**Retained Object (RO)** - a noun or pronoun answering "whom" or "what" after a passive verb.
Indirect Object (IO) - a noun or pronoun answering "to whom/what" or "for whom/what" after an action verb.

An indirect object

- always precedes a direct object
- never has the word “to” or “for” stated

Subjective Complement (SC) - a noun, pronoun, or adjective that renames or describes (equals) the subject after a verb of being or a linking verb.

Objective Complement (OC) - a noun, pronoun, or adjective that renames or describes (equals) the direct object.

Test for OC: insert "to be" between the DO and the OC
Appositive (App) - a noun or pronoun that renames another noun; An appositive is usually placed next to the noun it renames.

Gourmet renames the noun Joe. Therefore, gourmet is an appositive of Joe.

When an appositive is not placed next to the noun it renames, the appositive is called a delayed appositive.

A delayed appositive may rename “it” in some sentence constructions.

In the above sentence, the appositive to meet you renames it. It (to meet you) is a pleasure.

In this sentence, pleasure is the subjective complement of it.

Therefore, it = pleasure = to meet you.
VERBS

Verbs have traditionally been defined as words that show action or state of being.

Examples:

Harold drove all the way to Toronto. (drove shows action)
Harold slept all the way to Toronto. (slept shows action)
Harold seemed happy in Toronto. (seemed shows state of being)
Harold was happy in Toronto. (was shows state of being)

Verbs can also sometimes be recognized by their position in a sentence.

In the following two sentence frames, only a verb can be put into the empty slot.

NOUN (verb) THERE (verb) NOUN

Often, affixes will suggest that a word is a verb. For example, -ify, -ize, -ate, or -en at the end of a word usually signifies that the word is a verb, as in typify, characterize, rotate, and sweeten.

Example: noun → verb = sign + -ify = signify

The base form of a verb is derived from the verb’s infinitive: to + verb

Examples:

to talk to write to buy to go

Four suffixes consistently added to a verb’s base create all forms of a verb used in all tenses:

1. -s creates 3rd person singular / present tense (He talks.)
2. -ing creates the present participle / used with be (He is talking.)
3. -ed creates the simple past (He talked.)
4. -en creates the past participle / used with have (He has talked.)
In addition, many verbs in English are irregular; as result, their –ed and/or –en endings may not follow any obvious pattern.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenses</th>
<th>Examples:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>(to write)</strong></td>
<td>Smith <em>writes</em> short stories at home. (-s ending)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Smith <em>is writing</em> short stories at home. (-<em>ing</em> ending)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Smith <em>wrote</em> short stories at home. (-<em>ed</em> ending)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Smith <em>has written</em> short stories at home. (-<em>en</em> ending)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>(to buy)</strong></td>
<td>Jones <em>buys</em> a newspaper each day. (-s ending)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jones <em>is buying</em> a newspaper today. (-<em>ing</em> ending)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jones <em>bought</em> a newspaper yesterday. (-<em>ed</em> ending)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jones <em>has bought</em> newspapers every day. (-<em>en</em> ending)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>(to go)</strong></td>
<td>Students <em>go</em> to the library often. (-s ending)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students <em>are going</em> to the library often. (-<em>ing</em> ending)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students <em>went</em> to the library often. (-<em>ed</em> ending)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students <em>have gone</em> to the library often. (-<em>en</em> ending)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some prefixes may also signal that a word is a verb. For example, be-, de-, or en- at the beginning of a word may signify that the word is a verb, as in bestow, dethrone, and engulf.

Some prefixes may also signal that a word is a verb. For example, be-, de-, or en- at the beginning of a word may signify that the word is a verb, as in bestow, dethrone, and engulf.

The majority of verbs are regular and consistently use -ed and -en to form their simple past tense and past participles. (e.g. talked, has talked)

Many verbs are irregular, however, and follow no consistent pattern in creating their -ed and/or -en forms. A list of the major irregular verbs is shown below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past (-ed form)</th>
<th>Past Participle (-en form)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>arise</td>
<td>arose ≈</td>
<td>arisen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ask</td>
<td>asked</td>
<td>asked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>attack</td>
<td>attacked</td>
<td>attacked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>awaken</td>
<td>awakened OR awoke</td>
<td>awakened</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bear</td>
<td>bore</td>
<td>borne/born</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>begin</td>
<td>began</td>
<td>begun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>blow</td>
<td>blew</td>
<td>blown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>break</td>
<td>broke</td>
<td>broken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bring</td>
<td>brought</td>
<td>brought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>burst</td>
<td>burst</td>
<td>burst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>choose</td>
<td>chose</td>
<td>chosen</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The -en verb ending used with a form of to have as an auxiliary is generally written -ed, as in has talked.
cling
come
dive
do
drag
draw
drink
drive

drown
eat
fall
fly
forgive
freeze
get
give

go
grow
hang (things)
hang (people)
happen
know
lay
lead
lie

loosen
lose
pay
ride
ring
rise
run
see
set
shave
shrink
sing
sink
sit

speak
spin
spit

spring
steal
sting
stink
strive
study
swear
swim
swing
take
tear

twist
wake
wear
weave
wring

clung
come
dived OR dove
did
dragged
drew
drank
drove
drowned
ate
fell
flew
forgave
froze


A **verb phrase** is defined as the main verb together with all its auxiliaries (helping verbs).

Auxiliary verbs always **precede** the main verb.

There are two types of **auxiliary verbs**:

1. Inflected auxiliary verbs:
   - be
   - have
   - do

2. Modal auxiliaries (considered more fully under **FUNCTION CLASS**)
   - will
   - shall
   - can
   - may
   - have
   - do
   - be

### Examples of verb phrases:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Phrase</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He <em>has taken</em> the test.</td>
<td>(auxiliary <em>has</em> + main verb <em>take</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He <em>is taking</em> the test.</td>
<td>(auxiliary <em>is</em> + main verb <em>take</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He <em>did take</em> the test.</td>
<td>(auxiliary <em>do</em> + main verb <em>take</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He <em>has been taking</em> the test.</td>
<td>(auxiliaries <em>has been</em> + main verb <em>take</em>)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Verbs may be divided into three types:

A. **Action verbs** - show an action -- either physical or mental

   **Examples:**
   - Smith **catches** the ball. *(catches shows a physical action)*
   - Smith **imagines** great things. *(imagines shows a mental action)*
   - Smith **is wearing** good clothes. *(is wearing shows a physical action)*

B. **Verbs of being** (forms of *be*) - show a state of existence
C. **Linking verbs** - link a subject with its complement

(A subjective complement "completes" / "equals" the subject.)

Linking verbs: appear, taste, smell, feel, look, sound, grow, seem, remain, become

NOTE: Most linking verbs can also be used as action verbs.

---

**Examples:**

Smith *is* strange. (*is* shows a state of existence)
Smith *will* always *be* my friend. (*will be* shows a state of existence)
Smith *has been* here for a week. (*has been* shows a state of existence)
Smith *was* away last week. (*was* shows a state of existence)

Paul *became* a physician.

---

**Examples:**

The linguini *tastes* delicious.

Paul = physician

Herbert *smelled* the cake. (*smelled* is an action verb)

The cake *smelled* good

**Verbs have three moods:** indicative, imperative, and subjunctive.

A. The **indicative mood** states a fact, asks a question, or exclaims.
B. The imperative mood gives a command. The subject is always "you" understood.

Examples:

*Eat* your spinach.

(command / subject = you understood / *Eat* is imperative mood)

Please *be* good for the babysitter.

(command / subject = you understood / *be* is imperative mood)

C. The subjunctive mood occurs in two instances:

1. The sentence indicates a situation contrary to fact.

Examples:

*I wouldn't do that if I were you.* (but I'm *not* you / *were* is subjunctive mood)

2. The sentence

- shows a wish, desire, or demand
- in a nominal clause beginning with *that*
- following verbs such as *desire, demand, request, suggest*

Examples:

*I demand that you be here on time.*  
("that" clause follows demand / *be* is subjunctive mood)

*She suggested that he see a dentist immediately.*   
("that" clause follows suggested / *see* is subjunctive mood)
ADJECTIVES

Traditionally, adjectives are defined as words that describe nouns or pronouns. When they describe nouns or pronouns, adjectives typically answer the following questions:

What kind?          Which one?          How many?

For example, in the phrase

\[\text{tall man}\]

*Tall* is an adjective describing the noun *man*.
*Tall* answers the question "which man?" or "what kind of man?"

Similarly, in the phrase,

\[\text{easy assignment}\]

*Easy* is an adjective describing the noun *assignment*.
*Easy* answers the question, "what kind of assignment?"

Adjectives are usually placed before the nouns they describe, as in the examples, *tall man* and *easy assignment*, above.

Thus, one may identify an adjective by using the following word-order test:

\[\text{The ________ NOUN caught the bus.} \]
\[(\text{adjective})\]

* * *

Adjectives may also follow the noun they describe.

**Example:**

\[\text{Smitherman, cold and aching, went straight to bed}\]

Finally, adjectives may follow a *verb of being* or a *linking verb*, thus completing the noun subject.

**Examples**
Like nouns, adjectives are often recognizable by their suffixes. Endings such as -ous -ful -ish -able usually designate adjectives.

Examples:

famous hopeful prudish personable

**Comparative and superlative forms**

Single-syllable adjectives use -er and -est endings to designate comparative and superlative

\[
\text{tall} \rightarrow \text{taller} \rightarrow \text{tallest}
\]

Examples:

Harold is a **tall** man.
George is **taller** than Harry. (**taller** is comparative)
George is a **taller** man than Harry. (**taller** is comparative)
Jones is the **tallest** man in the room. (**tallest** is superlative)

Adjectives of two or more syllables use **more** and **most** for comparative and superlative form

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{famous} & \rightarrow \text{more famous} & \rightarrow \text{most famous} \\
\text{personable} & \rightarrow \text{more personable} & \rightarrow \text{most personable}
\end{align*}
\]

Examples:

Smith is a **famous** explorer.
Jones is **more famous** than Smith. (**more famous** is comparative)
Jones is a **more famous** explorer than Smith. (**more famous** is comparative)
Jones is the **most famous** explorer on the planet. (**most famous** is superlative)

**Note:** Two-syllable adjectives ending in -y may also use the -er / -est endings to designate comparative and superlative.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{lovely} & \rightarrow \text{lovelier} & \rightarrow \text{loveliest} \\
\text{angry} & \rightarrow \text{angrier} & \rightarrow \text{angriest}
\end{align*}
\]

Examples:
Note: the following adjectives do not follow the regular rules for forming comparative and superlative forms: good, bad, little, ill.

To create negative comparative and superlative forms, use

\( \text{less} \) for \( -er \) and \( \text{least} \) for \( -est \)

Examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Comparative form</th>
<th>Superlative form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cold</td>
<td>less cold</td>
<td>least cold</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>careful</td>
<td>less careful</td>
<td>least careful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>angry</td>
<td>less angry</td>
<td>least angry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>courageous</td>
<td>less courageous</td>
<td>least courageous</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ADVERBS

Adverbs are traditionally defined as words that describe verbs.

Adverbs answer any of the following questions about verbs:

- how?
- when?
- where?
- why?

The following examples illustrate adverbs modifying verbs:

Herman *easily* lifted the barbell.

*How* did he lift the barbell?

*Easily* is an adverb.

We’ll use the new software program *tomorrow*.

*When* will we use it?

*Tomorrow* functions as an adverb.

She hid the key *nearby*.

*Where* did she hide the key?

*Nearby* is an adverb.

Adverbs are the most moveable of all parts of speech; therefore, it is sometimes difficult to identify an adverb on the basis of its position in a sentence.

For example, the adverb *slowly* will fit into three places in the sentence *He climbed the ladder*:

He climbed the ladder *slowly*.

*Slowly* he climbed the ladder.

He *slowly* climbed the ladder.

Most adverbs end in *-ly*. In fact, most adverbs are formed by adding *-ly* to adjectives:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{nice} + \text{-ly} &= \text{nicely} \\
\text{drowsy} + \text{-ly} &= \text{drowsily}
\end{align*}
\]

Like adjectives of more than one syllable, adverbs usually become *comparative and superlative* by using *more* and *most*.

Examples:
Flat adverbs

Adjectives that do not change form (add -ly) to become adverbs are called “flat adverbs.”

Typical flat adverbs are early, late, hard, fast, long, high, low, deep, near.

To determine whether these words are functioning as adjectives or adverbs, one must determine:

1) what the word is describing (noun or verb)
2) what question the word is answering

The following examples illustrate the distinction.

**Early** as adjective:

The *early* train arrives at 3:45 a.m.

*Early* describes the noun *train* and answers the question “which one?”

**Early** as adverb:

The 3:45 a.m. train arrived *early*.

*Early* describes the verb *arrived* and answers the question “when?”

**Hard** as adjective:

The quarterback threw a *hard* pass to the receiver.

*Hard* describes the noun *pass* and answers the question “what kind?”

**Hard** as adverb:

The quarterback threw the football *hard*.

*Hard* describes the verb *threw* and answers the question “how?”
PRONOUNS

Pronouns are words that substitute for nouns.

Every pronoun must have a clear antecedent (the word for which the pronoun stands).

KINDS OF PRONOUNS

A. Personal Pronouns:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>subjective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st person</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd person</td>
<td>you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd person</td>
<td>he, she, it</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Personal pronouns have the following characteristics:

1. three cases - subjective, possessive, objective (The pronoun's form changes with its function in the sentence.)
   
   Examples:
   
   She met Paul. (She is the sentence subject, thus subjective form.)
   
   Paul met her. (Her is the sentence direct object, thus objective form.)

2. three persons (points of view):

   1st (speaker) ➔ (I me my mine we us our ours)
   2nd (spoken to) ➔ (you your yours)
   3rd (spoken about) ➔ (he him his she her hers it its they their theirs)

3. three genders:

   masculine ➔ (he him his)
   feminine ➔ (she her hers)
   neuter ➔ (it its they their theirs)

4. two numbers:

   singular (I me my mine you your yours he him his she her hers it its)
   plural (we us our ours you your yours they them their theirs)
B. Demonstrative Pronouns: 指示代名詞

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>this</th>
<th>that</th>
<th>these</th>
<th>those</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(near)</td>
<td>(far)</td>
<td>(near)</td>
<td>(far)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Demonstrative pronouns can also be used as determiners.

Example:

Hand me that hammer. (*that* describes the noun *hammer*)

Demonstrative pronouns can also be used as qualifiers:

Example:

She wanted *that* much money? (*that* describes the adjective *much*)

C. Reflexive / Intensive Pronouns: the "self" pronouns

These pronouns can be used only to reflect or intensify a word already there.

Reflexive / intensive pronouns CANNOT REPLACE personal pronouns.

Examples:

I saw *myself* in the mirror. (*Myself* is a reflexive pronoun, reflecting the pronoun *I*.)

I'll do it *myself*. (*Myself* is an intensive pronoun, intensifying the pronoun *I*.)

Note: The following words are substandard and should not be used:

- theirselves
- theirself
- hisself
- ourself

- myself, ourselves, yourself, yourselves, himself, herself, itself, themselves

D. Indefinite Pronouns:

**Singular:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>one</th>
<th>someone</th>
<th>anyone</th>
<th>no one</th>
<th>everyone</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>each</td>
<td>somebody</td>
<td>anybody</td>
<td>nobody</td>
<td>everybody</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n)either</td>
<td>something</td>
<td>anything</td>
<td>nothing</td>
<td>everything</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each (adj) = every (adj)

Examples: each (n) = everyone (n): each of us, every one of us, everyone of us

*Somebody* is coming to dinner.

*Neither* of us believes a word Harry says.
Plural:

| both  | few  | several |

Examples:

*Both* are expected at the airport at the same time.

*Several* have suggested canceling the meeting.

Singular with noncountables / Plural with countables:

| some  | any  | none | all  | most |

Examples:

*Some* of the dirt has become a permanent part of the rug.

*Some* of the trees have been weakened by the storm.

Indefinite pronouns use apostrophes to indicate possessive case.

Examples:

The accident is *nobody’s* fault.

How will the roadwork affect *one’s* daily commute?

Some indefinite pronouns may also be used as *determiners*.

*one, each, either, neither, some, any, one, all, both, few, several, many, most*

Note the differences:

*Each* person has a chance.

(Each is a determiner describing *person.*)

*Each* has a chance.

(Each is an indefinite pronoun replacing a noun.)

*Both* lawyers pled their cases well.

(Both is a determiner describing *lawyers.*)

*Both* were in the room.

(Both is an indefinite pronoun replacing a noun.)

E. Interrogative Pronouns:
Interrogative pronouns produce information questions that require more than a “yes” or “no” answer.

Examples:

*What* do you want?
*Who* is there?

F. Relative Pronouns:

Relative pronouns introduce relative (adjectival) clauses.

```
relative pronoun
That is the person whom I love.
```

```
relative pronoun
The person who gets the highest score gets the gold medal.
```

```
relative pronoun
The car that we bought doesn't run well.
```

Note: Use *who*, *whom*, and *whose* to refer to people. Use *that* and *which* to refer to things.
PREPOSITIONS

Prepositions are words which begin prepositional phrases.

A **prepositional phrase** is a group of words containing a *preposition*, a *noun* or *pronoun* object of the preposition, and any modifiers of the object.

A preposition sits in front of (is “pre-positioned” before) its object.

The following words are the most commonly used prepositions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>about</th>
<th>below</th>
<th>excepting</th>
<th>off</th>
<th>toward</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>above</td>
<td>beneath</td>
<td>for</td>
<td>on</td>
<td>under</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>across</td>
<td>beside(s)</td>
<td>from</td>
<td>onto</td>
<td>underneath</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>after</td>
<td>between</td>
<td>in</td>
<td>out</td>
<td>until</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>against</td>
<td>beyond</td>
<td>in front of</td>
<td>outside</td>
<td>up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>along</td>
<td>but</td>
<td>inside</td>
<td>over</td>
<td>upon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>among</td>
<td>by</td>
<td>in spite of</td>
<td>past</td>
<td>up to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>around</td>
<td>concerning</td>
<td>instead of</td>
<td>regarding</td>
<td>with</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>at</td>
<td>despite</td>
<td>into</td>
<td>since</td>
<td>within</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>because of</td>
<td>down</td>
<td>like</td>
<td>through</td>
<td>without</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>before</td>
<td>during</td>
<td>near</td>
<td>throughout</td>
<td>with regard to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>behind</td>
<td>except</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>to</td>
<td>with respect to</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples of prepositional phrases:

- After several minutes we located the key for the door.
- The flock of tiny swallows flew over the trees near the lake.

It is useful to locate prepositional phrases in sentences since any noun or pronoun within the prepositional phrase must be the preposition’s object and, therefore, cannot be misidentified as a verb’s *direct object*.
To the store is a prepositional phrase.

Store is the object of the preposition to, not the direct object of the verb drove.

Car is the direct object of the verb drove.

To the grocery store is a prepositional phrase.

NOTE:

A word that looks like a preposition but is actually part of a verb is called a particle.

Held up is a verb meaning “to rob.”

Therefore, up is not a preposition, and bank is not the object of a preposition.

Instead, bank is the direct object of the verb held up.

To avoid confusing prepositions with particles, test by moving the word (up) and words following it to the front of the sentence:

Up the bank four armed men held.

If the resulting sentence does not make sense, then the word belongs with the verb and is a particle, not a preposition.

Note the difference:
The resulting sentence makes sense. Therefore, \textit{up} is a \textit{preposition}.

The resulting sentence does \textit{not} make sense. Therefore, \textit{up} is a \textit{particle} in this sentence.

The following examples illustrate the difference between prepositions and particles:

He came \textit{by the office} in a big hurry. \hspace{1cm} (\textit{by} = \textit{preposition})
He \textit{came by} his fortune honestly. \hspace{1cm} (\textit{by} = \textit{particle})

She turned \textit{up that street}. \hspace{1cm} (\textit{up} = \textit{preposition})
She \textit{turned up} her nose. \hspace{1cm} (\textit{up} = \textit{particle})

Tom lived \textit{down the street}. \hspace{1cm} (\textit{down} = \textit{preposition})
We finally \textit{lived down} that incident. \hspace{1cm} (\textit{down} = \textit{particle})

Some other examples of particles:
\begin{itemize}
    \item give in
    \item go in for
    \item look up
    \item turn in
    \item put in for
    \item make up
    \item pull through
    \item bring up
    \item look over
    \item wore out
    \item found out
    \item broke up
    \item blow up
\end{itemize}
CONJUNCTIONS

Conjunctions are words used as joiners.

Different kinds of conjunctions join different kinds of grammatical structures.

The following are the kinds of conjunctions:

**A. COORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS** (FANBOYS)

for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so

Coordinating conjunctions join equals to one another:

- words to words,
- phrases to phrases,
- clauses to clauses.

Examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>word to word</td>
<td>Most children like cookies and milk.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phrase to phrase</td>
<td>The gold is hidden at the beach or by the lakeside.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clause to clause</td>
<td>What you say and what you do are two different things.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Coordinating conjunctions usually form looser connections than other conjunctions do.

Examples:

- Marge was late for work, **and** she received a cut in pay. (very loose)
- Marge was late for work, **so** she received a cut in pay. (loose)
- **Because** Marge was late for work, she received a cut in pay. (The subordinate conjunction because creates a tighter link between the two ideas.)

Coordinating conjunctions go in between items joined, not at the beginning or end.

Examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correct</th>
<th>Incorrect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I like coffee, <strong>but</strong> I don't like tea.</td>
<td><em>But</em> I don't like tea, I like coffee.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Punctuation with coordinating conjunctions:

When a coordinating conjunction joins two words, phrases, or subordinate clauses, no comma should be placed before the conjunction.

Examples:
- words: cookies and milk.
- phrases: at the beach or by the lakeside.
- subordinate clauses: what you say and what you do

A coordinating conjunction joining three or more words, phrases, or subordinate clauses creates a series and requires commas between the elements.

Examples:
- words: peanuts, cookies, and milk.
- phrases: in the mountains, at the beach, or by the lakeside.
- subordinate clauses: what you think, what you say, and what you do

A coordinating conjunction joining two independent clauses creates a compound sentence and requires a comma before the coordinating conjunction

Examples:
- Tom ate all the peanuts, so Phil ate the cookies.
- I don’t care for the beach, but I enjoy a good vacation in the mountains.

B. CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTIONS

either...or
neither...nor
both...and
not only...but also

These pairs of conjunctions require equal (parallel) structures after each one.

Faulty: Clara not only wants money but also fame.
Correct: Clara wants not only money but also fame.
Correct: Clara not only wants money but also wants fame.
C. CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS

These conjunctions join independent clauses together.

The following are frequently used conjunctive adverbs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>after all</th>
<th>in addition</th>
<th>next</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>also</td>
<td>incidentally</td>
<td>nonetheless</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as a result</td>
<td>indeed</td>
<td>on the contrary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>besides</td>
<td>in fact</td>
<td>on the other hand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>consequently</td>
<td>in other words</td>
<td>otherwise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>finally</td>
<td>instead</td>
<td>still</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for example</td>
<td>likewise</td>
<td>then</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>furthermore</td>
<td>meanwhile</td>
<td>therefore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hence</td>
<td>moreover</td>
<td>thus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>however</td>
<td>nevertheless</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples:

- The tire was flat; **therefore**, we called a service station.
- It was a hot day; **nevertheless**, the roofers worked on the project all day.

**Punctuation:** Place a semicolon before the conjunctive adverb and a comma after the conjunctive adverb.

D. SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

These words are commonly used as subordinating conjunctions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>after</th>
<th>in order (that)</th>
<th>unless</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>although</td>
<td>insofar as</td>
<td>until</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as</td>
<td>in that</td>
<td>when</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as far as</td>
<td>lest</td>
<td>whenever</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as soon as</td>
<td>no matter how</td>
<td>where</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as if</td>
<td>now that</td>
<td>wherever</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as though</td>
<td>once</td>
<td>whether</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>because</td>
<td>provided (that)</td>
<td>while</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>before</td>
<td>since</td>
<td>why</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>even if</td>
<td>so that</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>even though</td>
<td>supposing (that)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>how</td>
<td>than</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>if</td>
<td>that</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inasmuch as</td>
<td>though</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in case (that)</td>
<td>till</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Subordinating conjunctions also join two clauses together, but in doing so, they make one clause dependent (or "subordinate") upon the other.
A subordinating conjunction may appear at a sentence beginning or between two clauses in a sentence.

A subordinate conjunction usually provides a tighter connection between clauses than a coordinating conjunctions does.

**Loose:**  It is raining, *so* we have an umbrella.

**Tight:**  *Because it is raining*, we have an umbrella.

**Punctuation Note:**

When the dependent clause is placed first in a sentence, use a comma between the two clauses.

When the independent clause is placed first and the dependent clause second, do not separate two clauses with a comma.
Examples:

**dependent clause**

Because it is raining, we have an umbrella.

**comma**

**independent clause**

We have an umbrella because it is raining.

**no comma**
DETERMINERS

Determiners signal (“determine”) that a noun will follow.

Types of determiners

1. articles (the hat, a hat, an opera)
2. possessive nouns / pronouns (Mary’s hat, her hat)
3. numbers (five hats)
4. indefinite pronouns (each hat, some hats)
5. demonstrative pronouns (that hat, those hats)

Native speakers of English learn when to use articles with nouns as they learn to speak. However, learning when to use articles is often difficult for non-native speakers.

The difference between article use with town and city illustrates the difficulty:

Correct: I walked to the town. (article the before town)
Correct: I walked to town. (no article before town)

Correct: I walked to the city. (article the before city)
Incorrect: I walked to city. (no article before city)
INTERROGATIVES

who  whose  whom  which  what  how  why  when  where

Interrogatives introduce questions when

1. the question requires more than a yes or no answer
2. the verb phrase has at least one auxiliary or is a be verb
AUXILIARY VERBS

Category 1: *be, have, do*

These forms of *to be, to have, and to do* are used before the main verb. Their purpose is to change time or emphasis.

Unlike other structure words, these auxiliary verbs
1. can have inflectional endings (-s, -ing, -ed, -en)
2. can also function as main verbs.

Examples:

I *gave* the matter a great deal of thought.

I *have* given the matter a great deal of thought.

I *have been* giving the matter a great deal of thought.

We *do* drive safely.

We *have been doing* our best.

Sam *has had* a cold for a week now.

Category 2: Modal auxiliaries

The list below shows all of the modal auxiliaries:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>can</th>
<th>may</th>
<th>will</th>
<th>shall</th>
<th>must</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Past</td>
<td>could</td>
<td>might</td>
<td>would</td>
<td>should</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Unlike the auxiliaries *be, have, and do*, modal auxiliaries
1. do not use inflectional endings (-s, -ed, -ing, -en)
2. cannot function as main verbs.
When a verb phrase uses both kinds of auxiliary verbs, the modal auxiliary always precedes the be, have, or do auxiliary.

Examples:

People should choose friends wisely.

Jones may write an essay on that topic.

The computer could have made an error.

We will be seeing you.
Verbals

Gerunds

A verbal is a word formed from a verb but functioning as a different part of speech.

A gerund is a verbal ending in -ing that functions as a noun.

Like an ordinary single-word noun, a gerund may be used as a

**SUBJECT**

Baseball is my favorite sport.

Jogging is my favorite sport.

Jogging three miles every day is good for you.

**DIRECT OBJECT**

I thoroughly enjoy baseball.

I thoroughly enjoy jogging.

I thoroughly enjoy jogging three miles every day.

**RETAINED OBJECT**

保留受詞
SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT

My favorite food is yogurt.

My favorite exercise is jogging.

My favorite exercise is jogging around the block.

OBJECT OF PREPOSITION

Joe takes pleasure in baseball.

Joe takes pleasure in running.

Joe takes pleasure in running three miles each day.
**APPOITIVE**

My favorite sport, **baseball**, takes a great deal of effort.

My favorite sport, **running**, takes a great deal of effort.

My favorite sport, **running three miles**, takes a great deal of effort.

**DELAYED APPOSITIVE**

In the example below, the gerund phrase renames the subject, **this**.

This was a wonderful idea, **having friends meet us at the airport**

**NOTE**: Do not confuse gerunds with verbs (predicates) in the progressive tense.

**GERUND**

I certainly do enjoy **cooking**.

My hobby is **cooking**.

My hobby is **cooking shish kabobs on the grill**.
Even though *is cooking* and *was scratching* end in *-ing*, they are not gerunds because they are used as predicate verbs, not as nouns.

**Participles**

A verbal is a word formed from a verb but functioning as a different part of speech.

A **participle** is a verbal that functions as an adjective.

Two kinds of participles:

1. **Present participles**, always ending in *-ing*, are created from the form of a verb used with the verb *to be* (*am, is, are, was, were, been*) as an auxiliary verb.

2. **Past participles**, usually ending in *-ed* or *-en*, are created from the form of a verb used with the verb *to have* (*have, has, had*) as an auxiliary verb.
**Infinitives**

A verbal is a word formed from a verb but functioning as a different part of speech.

An **infinitive** is a verbal formed by placing **to** in front of the simple present form of a verb.

Examples:

| to swim | to think | to read | to be | to cut | to turn |

Infinitives may function as adjectives, adverbs, or nouns.

1. **Adjectival infinitives**

Just like a single-word adjective, an infinitive used as an adjective always describes a noun.

An adjectival infinitive always **follows** the noun it describes.

**EXAMPLE**

```
This is the best time to start.
```

Like gerunds and participles, infinitives may incorporate other words as part of their phrase.

**EXAMPLE**

```
http://wwwnew.towson.edu/ows/verbals.html
```

2006/8/29
2. Adverbial infinitives

Just like a single-word adverb, an infinitive used as an adverb always describes a verb.

An adverbial infinitive usually occurs at the beginning or at the end of a sentence and does not need to be near the verb it describes.

EXAMPLE: Adverbial infinitive at sentence beginning

\[ \text{To win, you need the highest number of points.} \]

EXAMPLE: Adverbial infinitive at sentence end

\[ \text{You need the highest number of points to win.} \]
\[ \text{We nailed plywood on the store windows to prepare for the storm.} \]

HINT: You can always identify an adverbial infinitive by inserting the test words in order in front of

infinitive. If the words in order make sense, the infinitive is adverbial.
(In order) \( \text{to win} \) you need the highest number of points.

We nailed plywood to the store windows (in order) to prepare for the storm.

### PUNCTUATION NOTE:

1. Use a comma after the adverbial infinitive when it starts a sentence.

2. Do not separate the adverbial infinitive from the rest of the sentence if the infinitive ends the sentence.

3. **Nominal infinitives**

Like a single-word noun, a nominal infinitive may function as a

- **SUBJECT**

  To climb Mt. Everest was my greatest ambition.

- **DIRECT OBJECT**

  At one time, I attempted to climb Mt. Everest.

- **RETAINED OBJECT**

http://wwwnew.towson.edu/ows/verbals.html
The hiker was asked *to climb Mt. Everest.*
nominal infinitive phrase used as retained object

**SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT**

My greatest ambition is *to climb Mt. Everest.*
nominal infinitive phrase used as subjective complement

**APPOSITIVE**

My greatest ambition, *to climb Mt. Everest* has directed my whole life.
nominal infinitive phrase used as appositive

**DELAYED APPOSITIVE**

It would thrill me *to climb Mt. Everest.*
nominal infinitive phrase used as delayed appositive for it
Dependent Clauses: Adverbial, Adjectival, Nominal

Dependent clauses may work like adverbs, adjectives, or nouns in complex sentences.

**Adverbial clauses**

Like a single-word adverb, an adverbial clause describes a verb (in the sentence's main clause) and answers one of these questions:

- Where?
- Why?
- How?
- When?
- To what degree?

An adverbial clause begins with a subordinating conjunction, which makes the clause subordinate (dependent).

Common subordinating conjunctions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>after</th>
<th>in order (that)</th>
<th>unless</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>although</td>
<td>insofar as</td>
<td>until</td>
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<tr>
<td>as</td>
<td>in that</td>
<td>when</td>
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<tr>
<td>as far as</td>
<td>no matter how</td>
<td>whenever</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as soon as</td>
<td>now that</td>
<td>wherever</td>
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<tr>
<td>as if</td>
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<td>whether</td>
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<tr>
<td>as though</td>
<td>provided (that)</td>
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<td>because</td>
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<td>why</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>before</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>even if</td>
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<tr>
<td>even though</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>how</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>if</td>
<td>though</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>inasmuch as</td>
<td>till</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in case (that)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example of adverbial clause answering *when*?

```
When spring arrives, the flowers bloom.
```

*When* will the flowers bloom?  **Answer:** when spring arrives

Example of adverbial clause answering *why*?
Why didn't the poor woman have money? **Answer:** because she had lost her job

Example of adverbial clause answering *where?*

*Where there is smoke, there is fire.*

**Where** is there fire? **Answer:** where there is smoke

Example of adverbial clause answering *how?*

He answered the question *as if he knew the subject quite well.*

*How* did he answer the question? **Answer:** as if he knew the subject quite well

Example of adverbial clause answering *to what degree?*
To what degree of lateness will Jones arrive? **Answer:** (later) than Smith (will arrive)

Another example of an adverbial clause answering to what degree?

To what degree is he young? **Answer:** (younger) than his brother (is)

**Comma use with adverbial clauses**

Comma use with adverbial clauses depends upon **placement** of the adverbial clause.

If the adverbial clause introduces the sentence, place a comma between it and the main clause.

If the adverbial clause follows the main clause in a sentence, do not place a comma between the two.
Adjectival clauses

Like a single-word adjective, an adjectival clause describes a noun (in the sentence’s main clause) and answers one of these questions

which one? what kind?

An adjectival clause usually begins with a relative pronoun, which makes the clause subordinate (dependent).

Common relative pronouns:

that which who whom whose

NOTE: Use who, whom, and whose to describe people.

Use that and which to describe things.

Adjectival clauses always follow the person, place, or thing they describe, usually immediately.

Example of adjectival clause answering which one?

Joe read the book \(\textit{that I gave him}\).

Which book did Joe read? Answer: the one that I gave him

Example of adjectival clause answering what kind?

The entire city celebrated after Boston won the pennant in 2004.
A politician who is trustworthy has the support of the people.

What kind of politician has the support of the people? Answer: one who is trustworthy

Adjectival clauses may also begin with selected subordinating conjunctions:

- **when** - to describe a time

  Spring is the season when everything blooms.

- **where** - to describe a place

  The house where I was born has been turned into apartments.

- **why** - to describe a reason

  We did not understand the reason why our experiment failed.
Comma use with adjectival clauses

Comma use with adjectival clauses depends upon **essentiality** of the adjectival clause.

If the adjectival clause is essential (or "needed"), no commas should be used to separate it from the main clause.

Generally, essential adjectival clauses should not begin with *which*.

Examples

```
People who live in glass houses should not throw stones.
```

Since the adjectival clauses in the above examples are **needed** to clarify the noun that they describe, they are **essential** and should not be separated from the rest of the sentence with commas.

If the adjectival clause is nonessential (or "not needed"), commas should separate it from the main clause.

Nonessential adjectival clauses should not begin with *that*.

Examples

```
Mount Etna, which is located in Italy, was once an active volcano.
```
Since the adjectival clauses in the above examples are **not needed** to clarify the noun that they describe, they are **nonessential** and should be separated from the rest of the sentence with commas.

Note the difference between the sentences in each pair:

**Nominal Clauses**

http://wwwnew.towson.edu/ows/AdvAdjNomClause.htm  
2006/8/29
Like a noun, a nominal clause names a person, place, thing, or idea. A nominal clause may function in a sentence as any of the following:

- subject
- subjective complement
- appositive
- object of preposition
- direct object
- indirect object
- retained object

Nominal clauses may begin with interrogatives:

- who
- whom
- what
- which
- whoever
- whomever
- whatever
- when
- where
- how
- why

An interrogative beginning a nominal clause, has a function within the nominal clause.

Each of the following examples illustrates:

- a nominal clause
- the function of the nominal clause within the sentence
- the function of the interrogative within the nominal clause

Nominal clause as subject in sentence

\[ \text{Why you did that} \] is a mystery to me.

- nominal clause
- subject of is
- adverb within nominal clause

Nominal clause as subjective complement in sentence

At Halloween, you can be [\text{whomever you want}]

- nominal clause as subjective complement
- direct object of want
- inside nominal clause

Nominal clause as object of preposition in sentence
Nominal clause as direct object in sentence

No one would tell me who came to Tom’s party.

Nominal clause as indirect object in sentence

Jerry gave what Joe suggested a try.

Nominal clause as retained object in sentence

Max has always been given whatever he wants.
Nominal clauses may also begin with expletives:

*that*  *whether*  *if*

An expletive beginning a nominal clause has **no function** within the nominal clause.

**Nominal clause beginning with expletive *that***

The fact that you are here is reassuring to me.

**Nominal clause beginning with expletive *whether***

The question is whether he can do the job.

**Nominal clause beginning with expletive *if***

I don't know if it is raining.
Elements of Sentence Construction

Subjects and Predicates

Parts of speech have specific tasks to perform when they are put together in a sentence.

A noun or pronoun functions as the sentence subject when it is paired with a verb functioning as the sentence predicate.

Every sentence has a subject and predicate.

A subject can be a noun or pronoun that is partnered with an action verb.

Example:

![Diagram of sentence structure]

The action of this sentence is expressed by the verb – donated.

The noun philanthropists is doing the action of donating. Therefore, philanthropists is the subject of the sentence.

Sometimes a verb will express being or existence instead of action.

Example:

![Diagram of sentence structure]

The verb in this sentence – are – does not express action. Instead, it expresses being or existence – tells us that something is alive.

The noun friends is doing the existing or being. Therefore, friends is the subject of the sentence.

Sometimes we use sentences in which a subject is not actually stated, but is, nevertheless, understood in the meaning.

Example:

Call the plumber, please.

A sentence like this gives an order or a request to someone.
Because we use such statements when we are talking directly to someone, we omit the word *you*. It is *understood* in the sentence. Therefore, in statements like this one, we say the subject is

*you (understood).*

This kind of sentence is an *imperative* sentence.

A **predicate** is a *verb* that expresses the subject's *action* or *state of being*.

Example:

```
subject   predicate
philanthropists donated millions to charity.
```

Sometimes the predicate will be composed of *two or three verbs that fit together* - the **main verb** preceded by one or more **auxiliary (helping) verbs**.

```
subject   predicate
philanthropists donated

subject   predicate
philanthropists have donated

subject   predicate
philanthropists will be donating
```

**IMPORTANT NOTE:** To be a **predicate**, a verb that ends in *-ing* must **ALWAYS** have a helping verb with it. An *-ing* verb **WITHOUT** a helping verb **cannot** be a **predicate** in a sentence.

A subject and predicate may not always appear together or in the normal order, as the following examples show:
Phrases

A phrase is a group of related words that

1. does not express a complete thought
2. does not have a subject and predicate pair

One type of phrase is a prepositional phrase.
Examples:

at the beach, near the store, by this time

Another kind of phrase is a verbal phrase.
Examples:

to fly in a plane, building a large dam, signed the legal document

Even though these phrases contain nouns (pronouns) and/or verb forms, none of the nouns/pronouns/verbs are subjects or predicates. None of them work as a partnership.

Also, these phrases do NOT express complete thoughts.
Clauses

Words and phrases can be put together to make **clauses**.

A **clause** is a group of related words that contain a subject and predicate.

Note the difference between phrases and clauses in the following examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phrase</th>
<th>Clause</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>verb</td>
<td>noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. took the train</td>
<td>Webster took the train.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verb</td>
<td>noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. took the train</td>
<td>after Webster took the train.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Only one of the clauses is a sentence.

Clause #1 gives a thought or an idea that is COMPLETE, that can stand by itself, **independent** of other words.

However, clause #2 gives an INCOMPLETE thought or idea, one that cannot stand by itself, one that needs some more words to make it whole. The word *after* changes the meaning, making the thought incomplete. After reading this clause, we are left hanging.

The clause raises a question

> What happened after Webster took the train?

These two clauses illustrate the two kinds of clauses:

**independent clauses** and **dependent clauses**

An **independent clause** is a group of words that contains a subject, a predicate, and a complete thought.

A **dependent clause** is a group of words that contains a subject and a predicate, but does NOT express a complete thought.

Avoiding Fragments

A complete **sentence** needs only two elements:

- a subject - predicate unit **AND** a complete thought

http://wwwnew.towson.edu/ows/sentelm.htm
In other words, a *simple sentence* is actually the SAME thing as an *independent clause*.

**Dependent clauses** or phrases are called *fragments* because they are missing one or more parts needed to make a sentence.

Therefore, they are only *pieces* or *fragments* of complete sentences.

Look at these examples:

- The candidate addressed the crowd = SENTENCE
  - subject & predicate + complete thought

- addressing the crowd = FRAGMENT (phrase)
  - NO subject & predicate + NO complete thought

- the candidate addressing the crowd = FRAGMENT (phrase)
  - NO subject/predicate unit + NO complete thought
    - (-ing verb without helping verb)

- while the candidate addressed the crowd = FRAGMENT (dependent clause)
  - subject & predicate + NO complete thought

---

### Avoiding Comma Splices and Fused Sentences

Sometimes two *independent* clauses (simple sentences) can be joined to form another kind of sentence: the *compound sentence*.

Two major *errors* can occur when constructing compound sentences.

**Error #1: The Comma Splice**

Writers make this error when they try to separate the two independent clauses in a compound sentence with a *comma alone*.

A comma is not a strong enough punctuation mark to separate the two independent clauses by itself; thus, using it causes the clauses to be *spliced together*.

Example of a comma splice:

- Tom read the novel, his friend saw the movie:
  - subject & predicate + subject & predicate
This sentence can be repaired in three ways:

1. by adding an appropriate **coordinating conjunction**

   Tom read the novel, **but** his friend saw the movie.

2. by changing the comma to a **semicolon**

   Tom read the novel; his friend saw the movie.

3. by changing the punctuation and adding an appropriate **conjunctive adverb**

   Tom read the novel; **however**, his friend saw the movie.

**Error #2: The Fused Sentence**

Writers make this error by joining two independent clauses into a compound sentence without using any punctuation between them.

No punctuation between the two independent clauses causes them to "fuse" into an INCORRECT compound sentence.

Example of a fused sentence:

Tom read the novel his friend saw the movie.

This sentence is also repaired in three ways:

1. by adding a comma and an appropriate **coordinating conjunction**

   Tom read the novel, **but** his friend saw the movie.

2. by placing a **semicolon** between the two clauses
3. by adding the needed punctuation and an appropriate **conjunctive adverb**

Another way to repair a comma splice or fused sentence is to make each **independent clause** into a **simple sentence**.
Kinds of Sentences and Their Punctuation

A sentence may be one of four kinds, depending upon the number and type(s) of clauses it contains.

Review:

An **independent clause** is comprised of a subject, a verb, and a complete thought.

Example:

`I wrote my first novel last year.`

A **dependent clause** is comprised of a subject and a verb, but an incomplete thought.

Example:

`After I wrote my first novel last year`

1. A **SIMPLE SENTENCE** has one independent clause.

Examples:

- Tom reads novels.
- Tom reads newspapers.
- Tom reads novels and newspapers. *(compound direct object)*
- Tom reads and enjoys novels. *(compound verb)*
- Tom and Harry read novels. *(compound subject)*
- Tom and Harry read and enjoy novels and newspapers. *(compound subject, verb, direct object)*

Punctuation note: NO commas separate compound elements (subject, verb, direct object, indirect object, subjective complement, etc.) in a simple sentence.

2. A **COMPOUND SENTENCE** has two independent clauses joined by

   A. a **coordinating conjunction** *(for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so)*,
   B. a **conjunctive adverb** *(e.g. however, therefore)*, or
   C. a **semicolon** alone.
Examples (to match A, B, and C above):

A. Tom reads novels, but Jack reads comics.
B. Tom reads novels; however, Jack reads comics.
C. Tom reads novels; his friend reads comics.

Punctuation patterns (to match A, B, and C above):

A. Independent clause, coordinating conjunction independent clause.
B. Independent clause; conjunctive adverb, independent clause.
C. Independent clause; independent clause.

3. A COMPLEX SENTENCE has one dependent clause (headed by a subordinating conjunction or a relative pronoun) joined to an independent clause.

Examples:

A. Although Tom reads novels, Jack reads comics.
B. Jack reads comics although Tom reads novels.
C. Jack Smith, who reads comics, rarely reads novels.
D. People who read comics rarely read novels.

Punctuation patterns (to match A, B, C and D above):

A. Dependent clause, independent clause
B. Independent clause dependent clause
C. Independent, nonessential dependent clause clause.
D. Independent essential dependent clause clause.

4. A COMPOUND-COMPLEX SENTENCE has two independent clauses joined to one or more dependent clauses.
**Examples:**

While Tom reads novels, Jack reads comics, but Sam reads only magazines.

Tom reads novels, but Jack reads comics because books are too difficult.

Jack, who reads comics, rarely reads novels; however, Tom enjoys novels.

People who read comics rarely read novels; they often find books difficult.

**Punctuation patterns:**

Follow the rules given above for compound and complex sentences. A compound-complex sentence is merely a combination of the two.

---

**CONNECTORS—COMPOUND AND COMPLEX SENTENCES**

Two independent clauses may be joined by

1. **Coordinating conjunctions** (FANBOYS) *lc, and ic*
2. **Conjunctive adverbs** *lc; therefore, ic.*

A dependent (subordinate) clause may be introduced by

1. **Subordinating conjunctions** (ADVERB CLAUSE) *Dc, ic. or lc dc.*
2. **Relative pronouns** (ADJECTIVE CLAUSE) *l, dc, c. or l dc c.*
3. Relative pronoun, subordinating conjunctions, or **adverbs** (NOUN CLAUSE)
Sentence patterns

Just about all sentences in the English language fall into ten patterns determined by the presence and functions of nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

The patterns are most easily classified according to the type of verb used:

- **Verb of being** patterns (1, 2, 3) use a form of the verb *to be* as the main verb in the sentence.
  
is      are      was      were      has been      have been      had been

- **Linking verb** patterns (4, 5) use one of the linking verbs as the main verb in the sentence. The linking verb is followed by a noun or adjective functioning as a subjective complement.
  
smell     taste     look     feel     seem     become     appear     grow

- **Action verb** patterns (6, 7, 8, 9, 10) use one of the many action verbs as the main verb in the sentence. The action verb may be either transitive (take a direct object) or intransitive (not take a direct object).
  
  see    jump      embrace    write    imagine    buy    plummet    think etc.

**Terms** used to identify various parts of each sentence pattern include the following:

- NP = noun phrase
  
  This abbreviation refers to a headword noun and its modifiers ("noun phrase") functioning as a subject, direct object, indirect object, subjective complement, or objective complement.

- NP1, NP2, NP3, etc. = designations for different noun phrase functions
  
  Numbers in sequential order are used with each NP to designate its difference from or similarity to other NPs before and after it.

- V-be = verb of being

- LV = linking verb

- V-int = intransitive verb

- V-tr = transitive verb

- ADV/TP = adverbial of time or place

- ADJ = adjective
THE TEN SENTENCE PATTERNS

1. NP1 + V-be + ADV/TP

The verb of being is followed by an adverb indicating where or when.

More information on subjects

The adverbial indicating where or when may be a prepositional phrase.

2. NP1 + V-be + ADJ

The verb of being is followed by an adjective that functions as the subjective complement.

More information on subjective complements

The adjectival functioning as the subjective complement may be a prepositional phrase.

3. NP1 + V-be + NP1

The verb of being is followed by a noun that functions as the subjective complement.
Note: The second NP receives the same numerical designation as the first NP because the second NP, the subjective complement, is the same as the subject (Mr. James = teacher).

4. NP1 + LV + ADJ

The linking verb is followed by an adjective functioning as a subjective complement.

```
The cake on the table looks delicious.
```

The adjectival functioning as the subjective complement may be a prepositional phrase.

```
Marianne looks like her mother.
```

5. NP1 + LV + NP1

The linking verb is followed by a noun functioning as a subjective complement.

```
At a very early age, Joan became a Buddhist.
```

Note: The second NP receives the same numerical designation as the first NP because the second NP, the subjective complement, is the same as the subject (Joan = Buddhist).

6. NP1 + V-int

The action verb takes no direct object.

```
In a few weeks my cousin will arrive.
```

Even if the action verb is followed by a prepositional phrase, the verb is still intransitive as long as it does not take a direct object.
7. NP1 + V-tr + NP2

The action verb is followed by a direct object.

Note: The second NP, the direct object, receives a different numerical designation (NP2) because it is not the same as the subject (NP1).

8. NP1 + V-tr + NP2 + NP3

The action verb is followed by an indirect object and then a direct object.

Note: The indirect object and the direct object each receive a new numerical designation because each is different from the other and both are different from the subject.

9. NP1 + V-tr + NP2 + ADJ

The action verb is followed by a direct object. The direct object is followed by an adjective functioning as an objective complement.

Note: The second NP, the direct object, receives a different numerical designation (NP2) because it is not the same as the subject (NP1).
10. NP1 + V-tr + NP2 + NP2

The action verb is followed by a direct object. The direct object is followed by a noun functioning as an objective complement.

```
Most people consider Jacobsen a loyal friend.
```

NP1  NP2  NP2
subject direct object objective complement

Note: The second NP, the direct object, receives a different numerical designation (NP2) because it is not the same as the subject (NP1). The third NP, the objective complement, receives the same numerical designation as the direct object (NP2) because it is the same as the direct object (Jacobsen = friend).
Sentence pattern Transformations

The basic sentence patterns in the English language may be transformed in the following ways:

1. Transform to passive voice

This transformation requires using a sentence with an action verb and a direct object. The sentence may be any of the following patterns:

- \( NP_1 + V-tr + NP_2 \)  The dog ate the bone.
- \( NP_1 + V-tr + NP_2 + NP_3 \)  Joe gave Mary a ring.
- \( NP_1 + V-tr + NP_2 + Adj \)  We consider Joe intelligent.
- \( NP_1 + V-tr + NP_2 + NP_2 \)  The people made Olaf king.

To create the transformation,

1. make the direct object into the subject,
2. add the "be" auxiliary and the -en ending to the main verb, and
3. place the original doer of the action into a prepositional phrase beginning with by.

Examples

**ACTIVE**: The dog ate the bone.

**PASSIVE**: The bone was eaten by the dog.

**ACTIVE**: Mary gave Joe a ring.

**PASSIVE**: A ring was given to Mary by Joe.

**ACTIVE**: We consider Joe intelligent.

**PASSIVE**: Joe is considered intelligent by us.
NOTE: Do not change verb tense when transforming sentences from active to passive.

*ate* = was eaten  *gave* = was given  *consider* = is considered  *made* = was

虚詞，引介功能

2. Transform to the expletive  *there is* / *there are*

This transformation requires using a sentence with a verb of being as the main verb. The sentence pattern must be

NP1 + V-be + ADV/TP. A fly is on the wall.

Two dogs were at the park.

To create the transformation,

1. place *there* at the beginning of the sentence and
2. reverse positions of the subject and verb.

Examples

**SENTENCE:** A fly is on the wall.

**There is / there are**

**TRANSFORM:** There is a fly on the wall.

**SENTENCE:** Two dogs were at the park.

**There is / there are**

**TRANSFORM:** There were two dogs at the park.

NOTE: Do not change verb tense when creating the *there is / there are* transformation.

*is* = there is  *were* = there were
3. Transform to cleft

This transformation allows the writer to emphasize a the sentence subject or object.

This transformation may be used with any of the sentence patterns.

There are two ways to create this transformation.

Method #1
1. Begin the sentence with *It* and the appropriate number and tense of the verb of being,
2. focus on either the subject or direct object, and
3. create a second half for the sentence that begins with *who, whom, or that.*

Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ORIGINAL SENTENCE:</th>
<th>The dog ate the bone.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CLEFT TRANSFORMATIONS:</th>
<th><em>it was the dog that ate the bone.</em></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>It was the bone that the dog ate.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OR</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the above example, the first cleft transformation emphasizes the subject, *dog*, using three words to refer to the dog: *it, dog, and that.*

The second cleft transformation emphasizes the direct object, *bone*, using three words to refer to the bone: *it, bone, and that.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ORIGINAL SENTENCE:</th>
<th>We consider Joe intelligent.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CLEFT TRANSFORMATIONS:</th>
<th><em>it is Joe whom we consider intelligent.</em></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>It is we who consider Joe intelligent.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the above example, the first cleft transformation emphasizes the direct object, *Joe*, using three words to refer to Joe: *it, Joe, and whom.*

The second cleft transformation emphasizes the subject *we*, using three words to refer to us: *it, we, and who.*

Method #2
1. Begin the sentence with **What**, 
2. follow with the subject and verb, and 
3. insert the appropriate tense of the verb of being and follow with the direct object.

Examples

**ORIGINAL SENTENCE:** The dog ate the bone.

**CLEFT TRANSFORMATION:** What the dog ate was the bone.

In the above example, the cleft transformation emphasizes the direct object, **bone**, using two words to refer to bone: **what** and **bone**.

**ORIGINAL SENTENCE:** Joe gave Mary a ring

**CLEFT TRANSFORMATION:** What Joe gave Mary was a ring

This cleft transformation emphasizes the direct object, **ring**, using two words to refer to the ring: **what** and **ring**.

**NOTE:** Do not change verb tense when creating the cleft transformation.

**PAST TENSE:** The dog *ate* the bone.  
   It *was* the dog who *ate* the bone.  
   It *was* the bone that the dog *ate*.  
   What the dog *ate was* the bone.

**PRESENT TENSE:** We *consider* Joe intelligent.  
   It *is* Joe whom we *consider* intelligent.

**PAST TENSE:** Joe *gave* Mary a ring.  
   What Joe *gave* Mary was a ring.

4. Transform to negative

This transformation may be used with any of the sentence patterns.

To create the negative transformation

A. with a **verb of being** as the main verb: Add *not* to the verb.

Example
B. with an action or linking verb that **has an auxiliary verb** *(have or be)*: Add *not* to the verb

Example - action verb

**ORIGINAL SENTENCE:**

Fido is my dog.

**NEGATIVE TRANSFORMATION:**

Fido is *not* my dog.

---

Example - linking verb

**ORIGINAL SENTENCE:**

The dog is eating the bone.

**NEGATIVE TRANSFORMATION:**

The dog is *not* eating the bone.

---

C. with an action or linking verb that **does not have an auxiliary verb**: Add *not* and the appropriate number and tense of *do*.

Example - action verb

**ORIGINAL SENTENCE:**

The dog eats the bone.

**NEGATIVE TRANSFORMATION:**

The dog does *not* eat the bone.

---

Example - linking verb
5. Transform to interrogative with yes-no answer

This transformation may be used with any of the sentence patterns.

To transform sentences into the interrogative with yes-no answer,

A. with a verb of being as the main verb: Transpose the position of the subject and the verb

```
ORIGINAL SENTENCE: The grass grew tall.

NEGATIVE TRANSFORMATION: The grass did not grow tall.
```

B. with an action or linking verb that has an auxiliary verb (have or be): Transpose the position of the subject and the auxiliary verb

Example - action verb

```
ORIGINAL SENTENCE: Fido is my dog.

INTERROGATIVE YES/NO TRANSFORMATION: Is Fido my dog?
```

Example - linking verb

```
ORIGINAL SENTENCE: The dog is eating the bone.

INTERROGATIVE YES/NO TRANSFORMATION: Is the dog eating the bone?
```
C. with an action or linking verb that does not have an auxiliary verb: Add the appropriate number and tense of do

Example - Action verb

Example - Linking verb

6. Transform to interrogative

This transformation provides questions that will produce more than a yes/no answer. It may be used with any of the sentence patterns.
To create the transformation,

1. place an interrogative word at the beginning of the sentence,
2. reverse positions of the subject and verb, and
3. add do/does/did if needed (action or linking verb without auxiliary verb).

Interrogative words:

*how* *when* *where* *why* *what* *which* *who* *whom*

Example - verb of being

**Original Sentence**: Joe is happy.

**Interrogative Transformation**: Why is Joe happy?

Example - action verb with auxiliary verb

**Original Sentence**: The dog is eating the bone.

**Interrogative Transformation**: Where is the dog eating the bone?

Example - linking verb with auxiliary verb

**Original Sentence**: The grass has grown tall.

**Interrogative Transformation**: How has the grass grown tall?

Example - action verb without auxiliary verb
Example - linking verb without auxiliary verb

NOTE: Sentences using which or whose to create the interrogative may not require adding do/does/did or transposing the positions of the subject and verb.

7. Transform to emphasis / emphatic

This transformation may be used

- with all sentence patterns except the verb-of-being patterns.
- with action or linking verbs that do not have auxiliary verbs

To make the emphatic transformation, place do, does, or did in front of the verb, as tense and number dictate.

Examples
8. Transform to imperative

This transformation creates a command.
It may be used with all sentence patterns.

To make the imperative transformation, replace the sentence subject with you and change the verb form to its infinitive form without to.

Examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ORIGINAL SENTENCE</th>
<th>IMPERATIVE TRANSFORMATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The dog eats the bone.</td>
<td>Eat the bone.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary gave Joe a ring.</td>
<td>Give Joe a ring.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We consider Joe intelligent.</td>
<td>Consider Joe intelligent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The people made Olaf king.</td>
<td>Make Olaf king.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The grass grows tall.</td>
<td>Grow tall.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am happy.</td>
<td>Be happy.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: There is only one tense, simple present, for the imperative transformation.

9. Transform to exclamatory

This transformation creates a surprise statement.
It may be used with all sentence patterns.

To make the exclamatory transformation,

- place what or how at the beginning of the sentence
- rearrange words in the sentence as needed
- place an exclamation point at the end of the sentence

Examples
In many cases, more than one transformation may be performed at a time on a given sentence.

Example - passive and interrogative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ORIGINAL SENTENCE</th>
<th>EXCLAMATORY TRANSFORMATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The dog eats the bone.</td>
<td>What a bone the dog eats!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary gave Joe a ring.</td>
<td>What a ring Mary gave Joe!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We consider Joe intelligent.</td>
<td>How intelligent we consider Joe!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The people made Olaf king.</td>
<td>What a king the people made Olaf!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The grass grows tall.</td>
<td>How tall the grass grows!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am happy.</td>
<td>How happy I am!</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example - passive, negative, and interrogative yes-no

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ORIGINAL SENTENCE</th>
<th>WITH TRANSFORMATIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Joe gave Mary a ring.</td>
<td>Why was a ring given to Joe by Mary?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example - cleft, emphasis, and interrogative yes-no

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ORIGINAL SENTENCE</th>
<th>WITH TRANSFORMATIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Joe gave Mary a ring.</td>
<td>Was it a ring that Joe did give Mary?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OR</td>
<td>Was it Joe who did give Mary a ring?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ACTIVE / PASSIVE VOICE

In most English sentences with an action verb, the subject performs the action denoted by the verb.

These examples show that the subject is doing the verb's action.

The man must have eaten five hamburgers

The man (subject) is doing the eating (verb).

Marilyn mailed the letter.

Marilyn (subject) is doing the mailing (verb).

Colorful parrots live in the rainforests.

Parrots (subject) are doing the living (verb).

Because the subject does or "acts upon" the verb in such sentences, the sentences are said to be in the active voice.

One can change the normal word order of many active sentences (those with a direct object) so that the subject is no longer active, but is, instead, being acted upon by the verb - or passive.

Note in these examples how the subject-verb relationship has changed.

Five hamburgers must have been eaten by the man.

Hamburgers (subject) are being eaten (verb).

The letter was mailed by Marilyn.

The letter (subject) was being mailed (verb).

Because the subject is being "acted upon" (or is passive), such sentences are said to be in the passive voice.

NOTE: Colorful parrots live in the rainforests cannot be changed to passive voice because the sentence does not have a direct object.

To change a sentence from active to passive voice, do the following:

1. Move the active sentence's direct object into the sentence's subject slot
2. Place the active sentence’s subject into a phrase beginning with the **preposition** by

3. Add a form of the **auxiliary verb** be to the main verb and change the main verb’s form

Because passive voice sentences necessarily add words and change the normal **doer-action-receiver of action** direction, they may make the reader work harder to understand the intended meaning.

As the examples below illustrate, a sentence in **active voice** flows more smoothly and is easier to understand than the same sentence in **passive voice**.

**Active Voice**

At each concert, the soprano sang at least one tune from a well-known opera.

**Passive Voice**

At each concert, at least one tune from a well-known opera was sung by the soprano.
It is generally preferable to use the ACTIVE voice.

To change a passive voice sentence into an active voice sentence, simply reverse the steps shown above.

1. Move the passive sentence’s subject into the active sentence’s direct object slot.

2. Remove the auxiliary verb *be* from the main verb and change main verb’s form if needed.

3. Place the passive sentence’s object of the preposition *(by)* into the subject slot.

Because it is more direct, most writers prefer to use the active voice whenever possible.
The passive voice may be a better choice, however, when

- the doer of the action is unknown, unwanted, or unneeded in the sentence

Examples

The ballots have been counted.
Sometimes our efforts are not fully appreciated.

- the writer wishes to emphasize the action of the sentence rather than the doer of the action

Examples

The high-jump record was finally broken last Saturday.
A suspect was questioned for sixteen hours by the police.

- the writer wishes to use passive voice for sentence variety.
2.7. Conditional Sentence

(0) Zero conditional 表事實條件： general facts, habitual facts
✧ General fact: If/When I touch an ice cube, it feels cold.
✧ Habitual fact: Whenever I touched an ice cube, it felt cold.

More sentences:
✧ If you heat water to 100 degrees, it boils.
  [This always happens.]
✧ If you do not eat, you die.
  [This always happens.]
✧ If you cross an international date line, the time changes.
  [This always happens, every time you cross a date line.]

(1) First conditional 表預期事件發生的條件： to make predictions about
the future, or express future intentions or possibilities
✧ Prediction: If I win the lottery, I can go to Paris.
✧ Intention: If I win the lottery, I will go to Paris.
✧ Possibility: If I win the lottery, I might go to Paris.

More sentences:
✧ If you study hard, you will pass the test.
  [Maybe you will study hard---that’s possible.]
✧ If it’s sunny, we will go to the park.
  [Maybe it will be sunny---that’s possible]

(2) Second conditional 與現在事實相反的假設： to speculate about the
future result of a possible but unlikely condition in the present)
✧ Speculation: If I won the lottery, I would go to Paris.

More sentences:
✧ If I had a million dollars, I would buy a big house.
  [I don’t have a million dollars.]
✧ If I were you, I would drive more carefully in the rain.
  [I am not you---this is unreal.]
✧ If dogs had wings, they would be able to fly.
  [Dogs don’t have wings---that’s impossible.]
If Jan left, Paula would be sad.
[Jan is still here---that’s not going to happen.]

(3) Third Conditional 與過去事實相反假設： to speculate about the past result of a condition that did not happen in the past

✧ [Speculation]
  If I had won the lottery, I would have gone to Paris.
  = Had I won the lottery, I would have gone to Paris.

More sentences:
✧ If I had studied harder, I would have passed the exam.
  [Regret: I failed the exam because I didn’t study hard enough.]

✧ If it had snowed, we could have gone skiing.
  [Regret: It didn’t snow, so we couldn’t go skiing.]

✧ If you had driven more carefully, you would not have had an accident.
  [Criticism: You had an accident because you didn’t drive carefully enough.]

✧ If you had saved your money, you could have bought a computer.
  [Criticism: You didn’t save your money, so you couldn’t afford a computer.]

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<tr>
<th>Review:</th>
<th>Conditional Sentences</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>If I win the lottery, I go to Paris.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>If I win the lottery, I will go to Paris.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>If I won the lottery, I would go to Paris.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>If I had won the lottery, I would have gone to Paris.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>If you love me, I love you back. [certain]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>If you love me, I will love you back. [likely]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>If you loved me, I would love you back. [unlikely]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>If you had loved me, I would have loved you back. [It didn’t happen.]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>If I have time, I study English. [When/Whenever I have time, I study English.]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>If I have time, I will study English. [It’s possible that I will study English.]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>If I had time, I would study English. [But I don’t have time.]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3  If I had had time, I would have studied English.  
   [I didn’t have time, so I didn’t study English.]

Wish Sentences

The verb wish expresses a desire for a situation that does not exist right now in the present. A wish is a desire to change a real situation into an unreal one. The unreal situation is expressed in the simple past. For example:

.getDoubleQuote

◊ I wish I lived in a house. I live in an apartment.

Wish sentences often express regret about a situation that you would like to change e.g.
◊ A: Can you help me?
◊ B: No, I'm sorry. I wish I could, but I have an appointment.

In order to express future actions that you want to happen, you use would e.g.
◊ I wish the bus would come. I'm cold.
◊ I wish you'd have a car to take me to the beach.
◊ I wish I were thin.
◊ I wish I hadn't said that. (If fact, I said it)

Exercise 2.7: Online Grammar Exercise

1. Which conditional should I use?
   http://web2.uvcs.uvic.ca/elc/studyzone/410/grammar/allcnd1.htm
2. NetGrammar: Conditional Review
   http://netgrammar.altec.org/Units/Unit_15/a101c15_601000.html
PART II. USAGE
3. Discourse Principles

The purpose of learning grammar is to use correct sentences, while the study of rhetoric emphasizes how to write sentences that make up a clear, concise, coherent, cohesive discourse.

The principles of good writing are (a) unity (統一性), (b) coherence (連貫性), (c) emphasis (加強性), (d) variety (變化性)

<table>
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<th>Construction 句法結構</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>✷</td>
<td>Clear-cut central idea and elimination of irrelevant ideas</td>
<td>A. Conjunction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✷</td>
<td>Arrangement of the topic and subtopics, logical development and organization</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✷</td>
<td>The number of paragraphs and the order of their arrangement</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✷</td>
<td>Paragraph unity: the topic sentence can be placed in the beginning, middle or end of the paragraph; it can be expressed in one sentence or implied in the combination of sentences</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✷</td>
<td>Opening statement is used to gain the attention of the reader and focus attention on the subject, the topic sentence or thesis near the end of the introduction.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>✷</td>
<td>Concluding statement: the effective use of climax with the most important subtopic; reinforcement of the central idea by summary, illustration, quotation; back reference to the opening statement or the subject sentence or both.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

A. Conjunction
- Coordinator
  - SVO, and SVO.
- Subordinator
  - SVO because SVO.
- Connector (transitional mark)
  - However, SVO.

B. Avoid comma splice or run-on sentences
- SVO, SVO.
- SVO, however, SVO.

C. Avoid fragments
- Because SVO.

D. Avoid redundancy
  - You like it, but I don’t like it.
  - You like it, but I don’t (=but not I).

E. Combine sentences
  - SVO. SVO.
  - SVO, so SVO.
  - Because SVO, SVO.
  - SVO; SVO.
  - SVO; therefore, SVO.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>德</td>
<td>Steady movement and natural continuity of sentences from beginning to end.</td>
<td>Topic: “Human Rights”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>德</td>
<td>Choice of good “guide word” (嚮導語): depending on the type of writing:</td>
<td>■ Key words 關鍵語 (e.g., for the topic of “Human Rights”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>德</td>
<td>Narrative(記敘文): put events in chronological order by using the guide words, such as “meanwhile, the next day, when he reached the topic.”</td>
<td>☑ freedom, liberty, equality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>德</td>
<td>Descriptive (描寫文): describe the spatial arrangement of objects or scenes, From Close to Distant Principle, use guide words like &quot;beyond, opposite, to the left, when seen from above.”</td>
<td>■ Outline symbols: 1, 2, (a), (b), (c)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>德</td>
<td>Expository (論說文): give definitions, explore cause-and-effect relations, to lay out illustrations and examples, or to restate or repeat the main points, or to eliminate possibilities, or to reason or infer; use guide words like “primarily, further, in conclusion, as a whole, when you consider the problem.”</td>
<td>■ Pronoun references: this, that, he, we</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>德</td>
<td>Guide (guiding) words (transitional marks): adverbs or adverbial phrases that are used to indicate “time,” “place,” addition,” “contrast and concession,” “affirmation and emphasis,” “condition,” enumeration and illustration,” “result,” restatement,” and “conclusion.”</td>
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<tr>
<td>PR</td>
<td>Good Writing</td>
<td>Construction 句法結構</td>
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<td>----</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>✤ Greater stress on the more important part</td>
<td>Discourse Principles:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>✤ Proportion: main idea in the main clause and less important ideas in</td>
<td>■ From Low to High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>clearly related subordinated constructions.</td>
<td>✤ Independent sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>✤ Foregrounding or back-grounding key, important words in a sentence</td>
<td>✤ Coordinate clause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>✤ Use rhetorical devices: e.g., parallelism 對句法, inversion【語】倒裝法, alliteration【語】押頭韻</td>
<td>✤ Subordinate clause</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✤ Phrase</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✤ Word</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>■ From Old to New</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sentence 2 Old 3 1New</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✤ Inversion 倒裝</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. Emphasis (加強性)</td>
<td>A book is on the desk.</td>
<td>✓ There is a book. (引介詞)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>The book is on the desk.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Where is it? (direct question)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>I wonder where it is. (indirect question).</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>■ From Light to Heavy</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓ That I love you is true.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓ It is true that I love you.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>■ Cleft-Sentence 分列句:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>It is......that......</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓ I always make mistakes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓ It is I (me) that always make mistakes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>■ Pseudo-cleft Sentence 準分裂句:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>What....is...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓ Freedom of speech is imperative.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓ It’s freedom of speech that is imperative.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓ What is imperative is freedom of speech.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>■ Exclamatory Sentence:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓ We’re in such a mess!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓ What a mess we’re in.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PR</td>
<td>Good Writing</td>
<td>Construction 句法結構</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>✴️ Vary the length and patterns of sentences by avoiding long series of sentences of about the same length and of the same type</td>
<td>Examples: <em>Bill was ill. He was absent.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>✴️ Vary beginnings of sentences by starting them with various types of grammatical constructions</td>
<td>□ His absence was due to illness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>✴️ Vary the sentence-rhythm to correspond to the meaning and the emotional content.</td>
<td>□ Illness prevented his attending.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>□ He was prevented by his illness from coming.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>□ He was too ill to be present.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>□ He was ill so that he could not attend.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>□ He was absent because of his illness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>□ It was because of his illness that he couldn’t attend.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>□ The reason why he could not attend was that he was ill.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Exercise 3

1. If we would like to emphasize the word “red-nosed” in the sentence, how do we apply the “From Low to High” Principle in making sentences with different degrees of emphasis?

(Rank 5): Everybody noticed the red-nosed bus driver.

(Rank 4): Everybody noticed the bus driver with______________________.

(Rank 3): Everybody noticed the bus driver whose______________________

(Rank 2): Everybody noticed the bus driver; _______________________

(Rank 1): Everybody noticed the bus driver. _______________________

2. Emphasize the underlined phrase using Cleft-sentence:
Example: A: Jack met Mary at the station yesterday.
Answer: It was Jack that met Mary at the station yesterday.

✧ Jack met Mary at the station yesterday.

✧ Jack met Mary at the station yesterday.

✧ Jack met Mary at the station yesterday.

✧ Jack met Mary at the station yesterday.
COMMA

Series | coordinate adjectives | compound elements and sentences | introductory elements | interrupters | nonessential examples | expressions of contrast | dates and addresses | confirmatory questions | n.: and titles | clarification

1. In a Series – three or more items connected by a coordinating conjunction

words  Jones, Smith, and Jackson presented an intriguing report.

phrases The novel is available in print, on audio tape, and on video cassette.

clauses The lawyer argued that the weather was bad, that the car had poor brakes, and that other driver was speeding.

Incorrect:  Jones, and Smith presented an intriguing report.
            Jones, and Smith, and Jackson presented an intriguing report.

Confusing:  He appealed to the administrators, the deans and the advisors.
            The smooth gray of the beech stem, the silky texture of the birch and the rugged pine capture the eye immediately.

2. Between Coordinate Adjectives – equal adjectives with no coordinating conjunction

She bought a red, fuzzy coat. (tests work: red and fuzzy / fuzzy, red )

Incorrect:  The professor gave a hard, final examination.
            This is a long, short story.
            (tests do not work: hard and final / final, hard )
            (tests do not work: long and short / short, long )

3. Before FANBOYS between Independent Clauses in Compound Sentences

The war lasted for two years, but very few people supported it.

Incorrect:  The war lasted for two years, but never gathered much support.
            The war lasted for two years but, very few people supported it.

Acceptable:  The shooting stopped and peace followed.
(very short clauses – no comma needed)
4. Nonessential Adjective Clauses / Nonessential participial phrases

Mary Jones, who spoke at the meeting today, opposed the merger.
Mary Jones, speaking at the meeting today, opposed the merger.
Mary Jones, frightened by a mouse, bought a cat.

**Incorrect:**
The woman, who spoke at the meeting today, opposed the merger.
The woman, speaking at the meeting today, opposed the merger.
The woman, frightened by a mouse, bought a cat.

5. Introductory Elements

A. Long prepositional phrase or succession of prepositional phrases

*In the solitude of that snowy December night,* we became good friends.

*At the end of the road on the west side of the train station,* an elderly couple sold produce each summer.

**Optional:**
*On that night,* we became friends.
*In December,* we became friends.

B. Participial phrases

*Speaking at the meeting today,* the woman opposed the merger.
*Stretching,* the cat slowly opened her eyes.
*Terrified,* the mouse ran behind the cupboard.

C. Gerunds as objects of prepositions

*Upon entering the room,* the police heard a gun shot.

**Incorrect:**
*Entering the room,* was dangerous. (gerund as subject, not object of preposition)

D. Adverbial infinitives
To buy that car, you must pay a $500.00 deposit.
(test: In order to buy that car, you must pay . . . )

Incorrect: You must pay a $500.00 deposit, to buy that car.
(adverbial infinitive at end of sentence – no comma)

To buy that car, is my dream.
(test won't work – infinitive is nominal)

E. Adverbial clauses

When he reached the stoplight, Jones turned left.

Incorrect: Jones turned left, when he reached the stoplight.
(adverbial clause is at end of sentence – no comma)

F Mild interjections (well, yes, no, why, etc.)

No, she never returned the car.
Well, I am not sure how I feel about that.

6. To separate Interrupters

A. Parenthetical expressions and transitions (in my opinion, unfortunately, moreover, of course, unfortunately, as a matter of fact, indeed, for example, etc.)

The meeting was, in my opinion, very productive.
The committee members, however, lacked initiative.
However, the committee members lacked initiative.

B. Appositives (renamers)

Professor Jones, my history instructor, dismissed the class early.

(test: switch positions - My history instructor, Professor Jones, dismissed the class.

Incorrect: My daughter, Jane, is taller than her sisters.
(appositive is essential since there is more than one daughter)
7. Nonessential Examples Introduced by such as, especially, particularly

Jones likes to read about dogs, especially Welsh Corgis, in his spare time.
Service professions, such as social work and teaching, offer many non-monetary rewards.

**Incorrect:** Dogs, such as Welsh Corgis, are expensive.
(essential)

8. Expressions of Contrast

I want chocolate, not vanilla.
His wife, not his brother, needs the money more.

9. Dates and Addresses

The house at 100 West 67th Street, Baltimore, MD 21210, was sold today.
My son was born on January 5, 1976, in Chicago, Illinois.

**Incorrect:** She lives at 100 West 67th Street, Baltimore, Maryland.
It was on January 5, that my son was born.
10. **Before Confirmatory Questions**

You will be at the party, won't you?

11. **Name followed by Jr., Sr., Ph.D., M.D.**

Mary Jones, Ph.D., will lecture on insect fragmentation today at 4 p.m.

12. **To clarify otherwise Misreadable Word Groups**

It is unfortunate, to be sure.
Inside, the cat was purring.
The question to ask yourself is, is this trip necessary?
If you cook, Jones will wash the dishes.
Underneath, the papers were scorched.
When Smith had finished, the potatoes and corn were all gone, and left untouched were the beets and carrots.
A few weeks before, I had seen him in a medieval play.
PUNCTUATION

Use a **SEMICOLON**

1. Between independent clauses not joined by *coordinating conjunctions* *(for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so)*

   Example

   He promised to reform; a few days later he forgot everything.

2. Between independent clauses joined by a *conjunctive adverb*

   Example

   He promised to reform; however, a few days later he forgot everything.

3. Between items in a series containing internal punctuation

   Example

   Captain Zero, a television star; Harriet Smith, who writes fiction; and Mel Stevens, a world-famous psychiatrist, meet for an hour every Thursday to discuss the geopolitical situation.

4. Between *independent clauses* containing internal punctuation – even when the clauses are joined by coordinating conjunctions.

   Example

   To engender self-confidence, we must help others; but to procure love, we must please them.

Use a **COLON**

1. Before formally introducing a list (*An *independent clause* must precede colon.)

   Examples

   I ordered the following supplies: potatoes, sugar, flour, eggs, and coffee.
I ordered these supplies: potatoes, sugar, flour, eggs, and coffee.

Theories which try to explain the secrets of fire walking fall into three categories: physical, psychological, and religious.

Incorrect

I ordered: potatoes, sugar, flour, eggs, and coffee.

On a long ocean voyage be sure to take along: plenty of books, a deck of cards, a chess set, and a warm blanket.

2. Between two independent clauses when the second explains or expands the first

Examples

The leaders made the final decision: the (The) earthquake victims would receive food and medical supplies.

The sign was all too clear: "Do not swim in this area."

Here is our honest opinion: we (We) think you are a genius.

3. Before a formal appositive (*An independent clause must precede the colon)

Example

The reaction of the audience signified one overwhelming feeling: anger.

Incorrect

The reaction of the audience signified: anger.

4. Between hour and minute / chapter and verse (Bible)

Examples

At 4:01 p.m. the doors will be opened to the public.

You will find those words in Genesis 1:14-17.

Use an APOSTROPHE

1. To show ownership (to form the possessive case of nouns)

Examples
2. To show joint ownership with nouns

Example

Nan and Ted own the same dogs

Nan and Ted’s dogs

3. To show individual ownership with nouns

Example

Nan and Ted each own different dogs

Nan’s and Ted’s dogs
4. To show ownership with *indefinite pronouns*

Examples

- anybody’s hats
- everybody’s hats
- each’s hats

**NOTE:**

**Do not** use an apostrophe to form the possessive case of the personal possessive pronoun *its*.

Example

The dog caught *its* tail in the door.

Do use an apostrophe with *its* to mean *it is* or *it has*.

Examples

- It’s nice to see you here. *(It’s = it is)*
- We think that it’s been a cold winter. *(it’s = it has)*

5. To form the plural of letters, numbers, and signs, and of words referred to as words

Examples

- How many *and’s* are in the second paragraph?
- Remember to cross all of the *t’s*.
Use **PARENTHESES**

1. To enclose interrupting elements that add information or identification

   **Examples**
   
   The NRA (National Rifle Association) has a strong lobby in Washington.
   
   I walked right up to him (no one was with him at the time) and told him what we had decided.

2. To enclose figures or letters when used for enumeration within a sentence

   **Example**
   
   Each essay will be judged on the basis of (a) its length, (b) its artistic merit, and (c) its originality.

**Use a DASH**

To set off parenthetical matter

   **Example**
   
   Harvey’s latest purchase – a condominium on the beach – pleases him greatly.

**NOTE**: UNLIKE PARENTHESES, WHICH **MINIMIZE** THE IMPORTANCE OF THE PARENTHETICAL MATERIAL, DASHES **EMPHASIZE** PARENTHETICAL MATERIAL.

Notice the different emphasis in each sentence.
The human mind is, as Luther said, a factory busy with making idols.
The human mind is (as Luther said) a factory busy with making idols.
The human mind is - as Luther said - a factory busy with making idols.

Use **ITALICS** (underlining)

1. For words, letters, and figures referred to as such

Examples

The word *unbreakable* has three morphemes.
The most frequently used vowel is *e*.

2. For foreign words or phrases

Example

The short story began *in media res*.

3. For titles of books, newspapers, magazines, journals, plays, movies, radio programs, TV programs, long musical works, long poems, works of art, names ships and airplanes

Examples

F. Scott Fitzgerald's *The Great Gatsby* chronicles the 1920's in America.

*Newsweek* recently ran an article on killer bees.

Use **QUOTATION MARKS**

1. To enclose titles of minor works: articles, essays, poems, songs, chapters of books, short stories, episodes of radio/TV programs.

Examples

The front page of newspaper sported an article titled “Trapped Couple Lived Thirteen Days on Cookies.”
Who wrote “The Star Spangled Banner”?

2. To enclose slang words, technical terms, and other expressions that are unusual in standard English.

Examples

He's one of the “fiftysomething” crowd.

An “interrobang” is a combination of a question mark and exclamation point.

3. To enclose a direct quotation: a person’s exact words

Example

He said, “You have won the lottery.”

NOTE: Do not use quotation marks to enclose indirect quotations.

Incorrect
He said that “I had won the lottery.”

Correct
He said that I had won the lottery.

NOTES FOR DIRECT QUOTATIONS:

1. Start the quotation with a capital letter.
2. Place commas and periods INSIDE the quotation marks.
3. Place semicolons and colons OUTSIDE the quotation marks.
4. Place question marks and exclamation marks INSIDE the quotation marks if the quotation itself is a question or an exclamation.
5. Place question marks and exclamation marks OUTSIDE the quotation marks if the quotation itself is NOT a question or an exclamation.

USE SINGLE QUOTATION MARKS to enclose a quotation inside another quotation.

Example

"Please stop saying, ‘I love you,’” he begged.
"I have just heard ‘Amazing Grace,’” she said.

If the quotation within another quotation is a question or an exclamation, place appropriate
punctuation next to the item concerned.

Examples

**Question quotation inside statement quotation**

He said, "You asked, 'Do you love me?'"

**Statement quotation inside question quotation**

He asked, "Did you say, 'I love you'?"

**Question quotation inside question quotation**

He asked, "Did you ask, 'Do you love me?'"

**Exclamation quotation inside question quotation**

He asked, "Did you exclaim, 'I love you!'"

**Question quotation inside exclamation quotation**

He exclaimed, "I hated your asked, 'Do you love me?'!"
USAGE – Modifier problems

Misplaced Modifiers

A modifier should be placed next to the word it describes.

Example

Jones lifted the heavy box containing supplies.

Note how the placement of the modifier creates different possible meanings:

The instructor just nodded to Elvis as she came in.
(She did not speak or extend her hand; she only nodded.)

The instructor nodded just to Elvis as she came in.
(She did not nod to anyone except Elvis.)

The instructor nodded to Elvis just as she came in.
(She nodded when she came in.)

Note how different placement of the word only creates a difference in meaning between these two sentences.

A. The shopper only looked at ties.
B. The shopper locked only at ties.

Sentence A means that the shopper did not buy any ties.
Sentence B means that the shopper visited only the tie department.

A misplaced modifier is a word, phrase, or clause that is improperly separated from the word it describes. Sentences with misplaced modifiers often sound awkward, confusing, or downright illogical.

Some frequently misplaced single words are

- almost
- even
- exactly
- hardly
- just
- merely
- nearly
- only
- scarcely
- simply

Misplaced single word

http://wwwnew.towson.edu/ows/modifiers.htm
Example

The vendor *almost sold* all of her pottery at the crafts fair.

The logical meaning of this sentence is not that the vendor *almost sold* all of her pottery, but that she sold *almost all* of her pottery.

Therefore, *almost* correctly belongs next to *all*.

**Correct:** The vendor sold *almost all* of her pottery at the crafts fair.

Misplaced phrase

Example #1

She served hamburgers to the children *on paper plates*.

As written, this sentence means that *children* were served on paper plates. *On paper plates* is misplaced.

Correctly written, the sentence means that *hamburgers* were served, *on paper plates*.

**Correct:** She served *hamburgers on paper plates* to the children.

Example #2

The man walked toward the car *carrying a briefcase*.

As written, this sentence means that the *car* is carrying a briefcase. *Carrying a briefcase* is misplaced.

Correctly written, the sentence means that the *man* is *carrying a briefcase*.

**Correct:** The man *carrying a briefcase* walked toward the car.
**Misplaced clause**

Example #1

We returned the toy to the store *that was broken.*

As written, this sentence means that the *store* was broken.

**Correct:** We returned the *toy* *that was broken* to the store.

Correctly written, the sentence means that the *toy* was broken.

Example #2

I remembered that I had forgotten my keys *after I got home.*

As written, the sentence means that I *forgot* my keys after I got home.

**Correct:** I remembered *after I got home* that I had forgotten my keys.

OR

*After I got home,* I remembered that I had forgotten my keys.

**Squinting modifiers**

A squinting modifier is a modifier misplaced so that it may describe two situations.

**Example**

I told my son *when the game was over* I would play with him.

The sentence above is unclear.

Does it mean that *I told my son when the game was over?*

OR...
Does it mean that *I would play with him when the game was over*?

Correct: *When the game was over, I told* my son that *I would play with him.*

OR

*I told my son I would *play with him when the game was over.*

### Awkward separations

An awkward separation creates a confusing meaning.

**Example**

Many children have, *by the time they are six* lost a tooth.

As written, this sentence separates the auxiliary verb from the main verb, creating an awkward gap.

Correct: *By the time they are six, many children have lost* a tooth.

OR

Many children *have lost* a tooth *by the time they are six.*

### Dangling Modifier Errors

A dangling modifier is "dangling" because its placement gives it nothing to modify.

In many cases, the dangling modifier appears at the beginning of a sentence, although it can also come at the end. Sometimes the error occurs because the sentence fails to specify anything to which the modifier can refer. At other times the dangling modifier is placed next to the wrong noun or noun substitute: a noun that it does not modify.

Dangling modifiers may appear in a variety of forms.

**Dangling participles:**
In this sentence, the modifier *passing the building* is positioned next to *the broken window*.
The resulting meaning is that "the broken window" is "passing the building," clearly not the intended meaning.

In this sentence, the modifier *once revised and corrected* is positioned next to *I*, suggesting that "I" have been "revised and corrected."

**Dangling gerund:**

*After roasting for three hours, we turned the oven off.*

In this sentence, the modifier *after roasting for three hours* is positioned next to *we*, meaning that "we" have been "roasting for three hours."

**Dangling infinitive:**

*To walk a high wire, a pole is needed for balance.*

In this sentence, the modifier *to walk a high wire* is positioned next to *a pole*. As a result, the sentence means that "a pole" can walk "a high wire."

**Dangling elliptical clause:**

*When just six years old, my grandmother tried to teach me ballet.*

In this sentence, the modifier *when just six years old* is positioned next to *my grandmother*, suggesting that my six year old grandmother taught me ballet.

http://wwwnew.towson.edu/ows/modifiers.htm
How to repair dangling modifiers – two options:

1. Create a word for the modifier to describe. Place it next to the modifier.

   (Sometimes you will need to invent a subject.)

   **Dangling:** Once corrected and rewritten, I got an A.
   **Revised:** Once corrected and rewritten, my paper got an A.

   With the modifier next to *my paper*, the sentence clearly means that "my paper" was "corrected and rewritten."

   **Dangling:** To walk a high wire, a pole is needed for balance.
   **Revised:** To walk a high wire, an acrobat needs a pole for balance.

   With the modifier next to *an acrobat*, the sentence clearly means that "an acrobat" can "walk a high wire."

2. Rewrite the modifier (phrase) as an adverbial clause, thus eliminating the need for an immediate word to modify.

   **Dangling:** Once revised and corrected, I got an A.
   **Revised:** Once my paper was revised and corrected, I got an A.

   With its own subject, "was revised and corrected" clearly refers to "my paper."

   **Dangling:** When just six years old, my grandmother tried to teach me ballet.
   **Revised:** When I was just six years old, my grandmother tried to teach me ballet.

   With its own subject, "was just six years old" clearly refers to "I."

   **Dangling:** After roasting for two hours, we turned the oven off.
   **Revised:** After we roasted the turkey for two hours, we turned the oven off.

   Now the clause clearly shows that "we" have "roasted the turkey."
Usage - Subject-Verb Agreement

Subjects and verbs must AGREE with one another in number (singular or plural). Thus, if a subject is singular, its verb must also be singular; if a subject is plural, its verb must also be plural.

In present tenses, nouns and verbs form plurals in opposite ways:

- nouns ADD an s to the singular form,
- verbs REMOVE an s from the singular form.

Here are nine subject-verb agreement rules.

1. A phrase or clause between subject and verb does not change the number of the subject.

   Examples:

   subject        verb
   A can of lima beans sits on the shelf.

   The verb sits agrees with the subject can, not with beans.

   subject                        verb
   The women who went to the meeting were bored.

   The verb were agrees with the subject women, not with meeting.

2. Indefinite pronouns as subjects

   - Singular indefinite pronoun subjects take singular verbs.
- **Plural indefinite pronoun subjects** take plural verbs.

**PLURAL:** several, few, both, many

- **Some indefinite pronouns** may be either **singular or plural**: with *uncountable*, use singular; with *countable*, use plural.

**EITHER SINGULAR OR PLURAL:** some, any, none, all, most

Sugar is *uncountable*; therefore, the sentence has a singular verb.

Marbles are *countable*; therefore, the sentence has a plural verb.

3. **Compound subjects joined by **and** are always plural.

A **pencil** and an **eraser** make writing easier.
4. With compound subjects joined by or nor, the verb agrees with the subject nearer to it.

Neither the director nor the actors are following the lines closely.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>singular</td>
<td></td>
<td>plural</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>singular</td>
<td></td>
<td>plural</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Inverted Subjects must agree with the verb.

Waiter, there is a fly in my soup. (There are four flies in my soup.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>singular</td>
<td></td>
<td>singular</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plural</td>
<td></td>
<td>plural</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

How are the relatives taking the bad news?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>plural</td>
<td></td>
<td>plural</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Collective Nouns (group, jury, crowd, team, etc.) may be singular or plural, depending on meaning.

The jury has awarded custody to the grandmother.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>singular</td>
<td></td>
<td>singular</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this example, the jury is acting as one unit; therefore, the verb is singular.

The jury members have been arguing for five days.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>plural</td>
<td></td>
<td>plural</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this example, the jury members are acting as twelve individuals; therefore, the verb is plural.
7. Titles of single entities (books, organizations, countries, etc.) are always singular.

\[ \text{The Grapes of Wrath takes a long time to read.} \]

8. Plural form subjects

- **Plural form subjects with a singular meaning** take a singular verb. (e.g. news, measles, mumps, physics, etc.)

\[ \text{Mumps is a contagious disease.} \]

- **Plural form subjects with singular or plural meaning** take a singular or plural verb, depending on meaning. (e.g. politics, economics, etc.)

\[ \text{Politics is an interesting subject.} \]

In this example, politics is a single topic; therefore, the sentence has a singular verb.

\[ \text{The politics of the situation were complicated.} \]

In this example, politics refers to the many aspects of the situation; therefore, the sentence has a plural verb.

- **Plural form subjects with a plural meaning** take a plural verb. (e.g. scissors, trousers)

\[ \text{The scissors are on the table.} \]
Note: In this example, the subject of the sentence is pair; therefore, the verb must agree with it. (Because scissors is the object of the preposition, scissors does not affect the number of the verb.)

9. With subject and subjective complement of different number, the verb always agrees with the subject.

   The pair of scissors is on the table.
   
   My favorite topic is POEMS by Longfellow.
   
   Poems by Longfellow are my favorite TOPIC.
Usage - Pronoun-Antecedent Agreement

A pronoun is a word used to stand for (or take the place of) a noun.

A word can refer to an earlier noun or pronoun in the sentence.

Example:

President Lincoln delivered Lincoln's Gettysburg Address in 1863.

We do not talk or write this way. Automatically, we replace the noun Lincoln's with a pronoun. More naturally, we say

President Lincoln delivered his Gettysburg Address in 1863.

The pronoun his refers to President Lincoln.

In this sentence, the pronoun his is called the REFERENT because it "refers back."

It refers back to President Lincoln, the ANTECEDENT. An antecedent is a word for which a pronoun stands. (ante = "before")

The pronoun must agree with its antecedent in number.

Rule: A singular pronoun must replace a singular noun; a plural pronoun must replace a plural noun.

Thus, the mechanics of the sentence above look like this:

Here are nine pronoun-antecedent agreement rules. These rules are related to the rules found in subject-verb agreement.

1. A phrase or clause between the subject and verb does not change the number of the antecedent.

   Example:
2. Indefinite pronouns as antecedents

- Singular indefinite pronoun antecedents take singular pronoun referents.

**SINGULAR**: each, either, neither, one, no one, nobody, nothing, anyone, anybody, anything, someone, somebody, something, everyone, everybody, everything

Example:

```
Each of the clerks does a good deal of work around his or her office.
```

- Plural indefinite pronoun antecedents require plural referents.

**PLURAL**: several, few, both, many

Example:

```
Both do a good job in their office.
```

- Some indefinite pronouns that are modified by a prepositional phrase may be either singular or plural.

**EITHER SINGULAR OR PLURAL**: some, any, none, all, most

When the object of the preposition is *uncountable*—use a *singular* referent pronoun.

Examples:

```
Some of the sugar fell out of its bag.
```

Sugar is *uncountable*; therefore, the sentence has a singular referent pronoun.
Jewelry is *uncountable*; therefore, the sentence has a singular referent pronoun.

When the object of the preposition is *countable* use a *plural* referent pronoun.

Examples:

Marbles are *countable*; therefore, the sentence has a plural referent pronoun.

Jewels are *countable*; therefore, the sentence has a plural referent pronoun.

**3. Compound subjects joined by *and*** always take a *plural* referent.

Example:

**4. With compound subjects joined by *or/nor***, the referent pronoun agrees with the antecedent closer to the verb.

Examples:
5. **Collective Nouns** (group, jury, crowd, team, etc.) may be singular or plural, depending on meaning.

**EXAMPLE:** The jury read its verdict.

In this example, the jury is acting as one unit; therefore, the referent pronoun is singular.

The jury members gave their individual opinions.

In this example, the jury members are acting as twelve individuals; therefore, the referent pronoun is plural.

The jury members disagreed among themselves.

In this example, the jury members are acting as twelve individuals; therefore, the referent pronoun is plural.

6. **Titles of single entities.** (books, organizations, countries, etc.) take a singular referent.

**EXAMPLES:**

The Grapes of Wrath made its characters seem real.

The United States cherishes its democracy.
7. **Plural form subjects with a singular meaning** take a singular referent. (*news, measles, mumps, physics, etc*)

   Example:
   
   The news has lost much of its sting two days later.
   
   Singular  Singular

8. **Every** or **Many a** before a noun or a series of nouns requires a singular referent.

   Examples:
   
   Every cow, pig, and horse had lost its life in the fire.
   
   Singular  Singular

   Many a girl wishes she could sing like Tina Turner.
   
   Singular  Singular

9. **The number of** vs **A number of** before a subject:
   - *The number of* is singular.
     
     The number of volunteers increases its ranks daily.
     
     Singular  Singular
   - *A number of* is plural.
     
     A number of volunteers are offering their help.
     
     Plural  Plural
Usage - Pronoun Reference

A pronoun is a word used to stand for (or take the place of) a noun.

A pronoun should refer clearly to one, clear, unmistakable noun coming before the pronoun. This noun is called the pronoun’s antecedent.

Unfortunately, it is very easy to create a sentence that uses a pronoun WITHOUT a clear, unmistakable noun antecedent.

Example:

After putting the disk in the cabinet, Mabel sold it.

The pronoun it does not have a clear noun antecedent.

As a result, the reader cannot know for sure whether Mabel sold the disk or the cabinet. The pronoun reference is faulty here because the pronoun it has two antecedents.

Such errors, called FAULTY or VAGUE PRONOUN REFERENCE, can confuse readers and obscure the intended meaning.

There are three major pronoun reference errors.

Error #1: TOO MANY ANTECEDENTS

A pronoun should have only one antecedent. That antecedent should be clear and unmistakable.

Look at this sentence:

Take the radio out of the car and fix it.

Anyone who reads this sentence would not know which item was to be fixed.

Does it refer to the radio or the car? The answer is unclear.

In the above example, faulty pronoun reference occurs because the pronoun it has two possible noun antecedents.

To fix the sentence, substitute a noun for the pronoun.
Here is another example of faulty pronoun reference caused by more than one noun antecedent:

The pronoun reference is unclear: Who will get the bonus - the supervisors or the workers? They could refer to either group.

In this example, the best way to fix the pronoun reference problem is to rephrase the sentence.

Revision #1 (gives the bonus to the workers)
The supervisors complimented the workers on receiving a bonus.

Revision #2 (gives the bonus to the workers)
The supervisors told the workers to expect a bonus.

Revision #3 (gives the bonus to the supervisors)
The supervisors told the workers that they themselves were expecting a bonus.

Error #2: HIDDEN ANTECEDENTS

Faulty pronoun reference errors also occur when the pronoun’s antecedent functions as an adjective rather than a noun.

In such cases, the true antecedent is “hidden” or obscured from the reader because it has been subordinated to another noun.

Example:

The candy dish was empty, but we were tired of eating *it* anyway.

The reader of this sentence might think that the dish was being eaten because dish appears to be the antecedent for the pronoun it.

 Obviously, people do not eat dishes. What this writer means to say is, “*We were tired of*
eating candy."

However, candy cannot be the antecedent for it because candy, situated in front of the noun dish, is acting like an adjective. Only nouns can be antecedents.

To fix the sentence, substitute a noun for the pronoun it.

The candy dish was empty, but we were tired of eating candy anyway.

Here is another example of faulty pronoun reference caused by a hidden antecedent:

Mark called Mary's house all day, but she never answered the phone.

Obviously, she refers to Mary since a house would NOT be able to answer a phone.

However, Mary's modifies house - Mary's is a hidden antecedent and, thus, is not clear.

To repair this error, we can change the pronoun she to a noun.

Mark called Mary's house all day, but Mary never answered the phone.

Another way to repair this error is to remove the hidden antecedent.

Mark called Mary all day, but she never answered the phone.

Still another way to repair this error is to rephrase the sentence.

Mary never answered the phone, although Mark called her house all day.

Error #3: NO ANTECEDENT AT ALL

Another kind of faulty/vague pronoun reference problem occurs when writers use a pronoun without giving the pronoun any antecedent at all.

Example:

The witness called the television station, but they didn't answer.

In this example, the pronoun they has NO noun antecedent to which it can refer.

To repair this error, we change the pronoun they to a noun.

The witness called the television station, but the reporters didn't answer.
Another way to repair this error is to create an antecedent—one that is clear and unmistakable.

The witness called the television reporters, but they didn’t answer.

Here is another example of a pronoun without any antecedent at all.

Although Mrs. Smith was wealthy, she made poor use of it.

In this example, the pronoun *it* has no antecedent to which it can refer.

The reader knows that Mrs. Smith is "wealthy," but *it* cannot refer to *wealthy* because *wealthy* is not a noun.

There are at least two ways to repair this error.

Replace the pronoun *it* with a noun.

Although Mrs. Smith was wealthy, she made poor use of her wealth.

With a noun (wealth) in the place of the pronoun (*it*), no antecedent is needed.

Rephrase the sentence so that the first part contains an antecedent for the pronoun *it*.

Although Mrs. Smith had a lot of money, she made poor use of it.

Now the pronoun *it* has a clear noun antecedent: money.

Here is another example of a pronoun without any antecedent.

*It* says in the paper that the legislation was passed.

*It*, which appears at the very beginning of the sentence, has no noun antecedent at all. In addition, the construction *It says in the paper* is unnecessarily wordy.

We can repair this error by writing a more DIRECT version of "It says in the paper."

Example:

The *paper* says that the legislation was passed.

Another way to repair the "It says in the paper" error is to rephrase this part of the sentence.

Example:
Both methods of repairing this faulty/vague pronoun error eliminate the pronoun and, thus, eliminate the need for an antecedent.

Below, another example shows how this error in pronoun reference occurs when a pronoun is used to stand for (refer to) a whole group of words INSTEAD OF one clear noun antecedent.

The word which has no single, clear antecedent.

Instead, it refers to the entire clause - "I did not attend the rally."

However, a pronoun must always refer to a single, clear, unmistakable noun antecedent.

We can repair this error in at least two ways.

1. Replace the pronoun which with a noun.

   I did not attend the rally. My actions were very unpatriotic.

2. Rephrase the sentence to eliminate the pronoun.

   By not attending the rally, I was unpatriotic.
   OR
   Because I did not attend the rally, I was very unpatriotic.
   OR
   My not attending the rally was very unpatriotic.
   OR
   Not attending the rally was very unpatriotic of me.

Here is another example of faulty pronoun reference where a pronoun is asked to refer to a whole group of words instead of a clear, single noun antecedent.

Meg telephoned Howard yesterday to explain why she had not attended the meeting the day before. This made Howard angry.

The problem here is This. Its antecedent is the entire preceding sentence.

The reader cannot be sure whether Howard is very angry because:

1. Meg telephoned,
2. Meg telephoned yesterday, or
3. Meg had *not attended the meeting the day before*.

There are at least two ways to repair this error and create a clear antecedent for *this*:

1. **Replace** the pronoun *this* with a noun.

   Meg telephoned Howard ... before.  *Meg's absence made ...  Meg's late call made ...*

2. **Rephrase** the sentence to eliminate the pronoun.

   **Because** Meg telephoned Howard yesterday to explain why she had not attended the meeting the day before, *Howard became very angry.*

   OR

   *Meg's telephone call* yesterday to explain why she had not attended the meeting the day before *made Howard very angry.*

**Watch out for "this" and "which" pronouns. Often they are used incorrectly and create faulty or vague pronoun reference problems.**
Usage - Pronoun Case

The pronoun’s function in a sentence determines which case to use.

RULE: Use a subjective case pronoun

1) Personal pronoun subject

She read four novels that summer.

2) Personal pronoun subjective complement ("completes" the subject)
RULE: Use an **objective case pronoun**

when the personal pronoun functions as the sentence’s
1) **direct object**  
2) **indirect object**  
or  
3) **object of a preposition**

1) **Personal pronoun direct object**

Jan loves **him**.

2) **Personal pronoun indirect object**

Mary gave **him** a gift.

3) **Personal pronoun object of preposition**
Additional pronoun case rules

1. When a pronoun is used along with a noun, choose the pronoun case that matches the noun's function.

2. When a pronoun is part of a compound element, choose the pronoun case that would be correct if the pronoun were not part of a compound element.
NOTE: To make certain that pronoun case is correct in compound elements, omit one half of the compound to check each pronoun.

3. When a personal pronoun is used in a comparison, choose the correct pronoun case by carrying the sentence out to its logical conclusion.

Joe is shorter than Roger  MEANS  Joe is shorter than Roger is.

Correct comparison pronoun:  Joe is shorter than he (is).

Joe is as short as Roger.  MEANS  Joe is as short as Roger is.

Correct comparison pronoun:  Joe is as short as he (is).

Joe loves Sue, but he loves Jen more.

4. Choose who or whom depending upon the function of the pronoun in the sentence.

Who is subjective case like the pronouns he, she, they, I, and we.

Use who as the subject or subjective complement of a sentence.
**Helpful tip:** To see whether *who* is the correct choice, substitute *he* for *who*. If the sentence sounds correct, then *who* is the correct choice.

---

**Who** is the subject, and **who** is the subjective complement. **Who** is the correct choice for the subject of this question: **Who is watching the baby?**

**Your supervisor is who?**

---

**He/She** is the subject, and **he/she** is the subjective complement. **He/She** is the correct choice for the subject of this question: **He/She is watching the baby.**

**Your supervisor is he/she.**

---

**Whom** is objective case like the pronouns *him, her, them, me,* and *us.*

Use **whom** as the **direct object, indirect object,** or **object of a preposition** in a sentence.
Helpful tip: To see whether whom is the correct choice, substitute him for whom.

If the sentence sounds correct, then whom is the correct choice.

NOTE: In an adjectival subordinate clause, choose who or whom by determining the pronoun's function within the subordinate clause.
5. Use **possessive case** pronouns with **gerunds**.

**Reminder:** A gerund is a verb form ending in *-ing*, used as a noun.
Elements of Sentence Construction

Subjects and Predicates

Parts of speech have specific tasks to perform when they are put together in a sentence.

A noun or pronoun functions as the sentence subject when it is paired with a verb functioning as the sentence predicate.

Every sentence has a subject and predicate.

A subject can be a noun or pronoun that is partnered with an action verb.

Example:

Philanthropists donated millions to charity.

The action of this sentence is expressed by the verb – donated.

The noun philanthropists is DOING the action of donating. Therefore, philanthropists is the subject of the sentence.

Sometimes a verb will express being or existence instead of action.

Example:

Good friends are loyal people.

The verb in this sentence – are – does not express action. Instead, it expresses being or existence – tells us that something is alive.

The noun friends is DOING the existing or being. Therefore, friends is the subject of the sentence.

Sometimes we use sentences in which a subject is not actually stated, but is, nevertheless, understood in the meaning.

Example:

Call the plumber, please.

A sentence like this gives an order or a request to someone.
Because we use such statements when we are talking directly to someone, we omit the word you. It is understood in the sentence. Therefore, in statements like this one, we say the subject is

\[ \text{you (understood)}. \]

This kind of sentence is an imperative sentence.

A predicate is a verb that expresses the subject's action or state of being.

Example:

\[ \text{Philanthropists donated millions to charity}. \]

Sometimes the predicate will be composed of two or three verbs that fit together - the main verb preceded by one or more auxiliary (helping) verbs.

IMPORTANT NOTE: To be a predicate, a verb that ends in -ing must ALWAYS have a helping verb with it. An -ing verb WITHOUT a helping verb cannot be a predicate in a sentence.

A subject and predicate may not always appear together or in the normal order, as the following examples show:
Phrases

A phrase is a group of related words that

1. does not express a complete thought
2. does not have a subject and predicate pair

One type of phrase is a prepositional phrase.

Examples:

- at the beach, near the store, by this time

Another kind of phrase is a verbal phrase.

Examples:

- to fly in a plane, building a large dam, signed the legal document

Even though these phrases contain nouns (pronouns) and/or verb forms, none of the nouns/pronouns/verbs are subjects or predicates. None of them work as a partnership.

Also, these phrases do NOT express complete thoughts.

http://wwwnew.towson.edu/ows/sentelmt.htm
Clauses

Words and phrases can be put together to make clauses.

A clause is a group of related words that contain a subject and predicate.

Note the difference between phrases and clauses in the following examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phrase</th>
<th>Clause</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>verb</td>
<td>subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noun</td>
<td>predicate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. took the train</td>
<td>Webster took the train.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verb</td>
<td>subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noun</td>
<td>predicate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. took the train</td>
<td>after Webster took the train.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Only one of the clauses is a sentence.

Clause #1 gives a thought or an idea that is COMPLETE, that can stand by itself, independent of other words.

However, clause #2 gives an INCOMPLETE thought or idea, one that cannot stand by itself, one that needs some more words to make it whole. The word after changes the meaning, making the thought incomplete. After reading this clause, we are left hanging.

The clause raises a question

What happened after Webster took the train?

These two clauses illustrate the two kinds of clauses:

independent clauses and dependent clauses

An independent clause is a group of words that contains a subject, a predicate, and a complete thought.

A dependent clause is a group of words that contains a subject and a predicate, but does NOT express a complete thought.

Avoiding Fragments

A complete sentence needs only two elements:

a subject - predicate unit AND a complete thought
In other words, a *simple sentence* is actually the SAME thing as an *independent clause*.

**Dependent clauses** or **phrases** are called **fragments** because they are missing one or more parts needed to make a sentence.

Therefore, they are only pieces or fragments of complete sentences.

Look at these examples:

| The candidate addressed the crowd = SENTENCE |
| subject & predicate + complete thought |

| addressing the crowd = FRAGMENT (phrase) |
| NO subject & predicate unit + NO complete thought |

| the candidate addressing the crowd = FRAGMENT (phrase) |
| NO subj/pred unit + NO complete thought |

| while the candidate addressed the crowd = FRAGMENT (dependent clause) |
| subject & predicate + NO complete thought |

**Avoiding Comma Splices and Fused Sentences**

Sometimes two independent clauses (simple sentences) can be joined to form another kind of sentence: the **compound sentence**.

Two major **errors** can occur when constructing compound sentences.

**Error #1: The Comma Splice**

Writers make this error when they try to separate the two independent clauses in a compound sentence with a **comma alone**.

A comma is not a strong enough punctuation mark to separate the two independent clauses by itself; thus, using it causes the clauses to be **spliced together**.

Example of a comma splice:

Tom read the novel, his friend saw the movie.
This sentence can be repaired in three ways:

1. by adding an appropriate **coordinating conjunction**

   Tom read the novel, **but** his friend saw the movie.

   subject  predicate  subject  predicate

2. by changing the comma to a **semicolon**

   Tom read the novel; his friend saw the movie.

   subject  predicate  subject  predicate

3. by changing the punctuation and adding an appropriate **conjunctive adverb**

   Tom read the novel; **however**, his friend saw the movie.

   subject  predicate  subject  predicate

**Error #2: The Fused Sentence**

Writers make this error by joining two independent clauses into a compound sentence without using any punctuation between them.

No punctuation between the two independent clauses causes them to "fuse" into an INCORRECT compound sentence.

Example of a fused sentence:

Tom read the novel **his friend saw the movie.**

subject  predicate  subject  predicate

This sentence is also repaired in three ways:

1. by adding a comma and an appropriate **coordinating conjunction**

   Tom read the novel, **but** his friend saw the movie.

   subject  predicate  subject  predicate

2. by placing a **semicolon** between the two clauses
3. by adding the needed punctuation and an appropriate **conjunctive adverb**

Another way to repair a comma splice or fused sentence is to make **each independent clause** into a **simple sentence**.

http://www.new.towson.edu/ows/sentelmt.htm 2006/8/29
Usage - Parallel Structure

Sentence elements that are alike in function should also be alike in construction. These elements should be in the same grammatical form so that they are parallel.

Using parallel structure in your writing will help with

1) economy       2) clarity       3) equality       4) delight.

Here are five parallelism rules.

1. Use parallel structure with elements joined by coordinating conjunctions.

 Faulty: Your company and what its potential is are of great value to me.

 Correct: Your company and its potential are of great value to me.

2. Use parallel structure with elements in lists or in a series.

 Faulty: The tribes emphasized collective survival, mutual aid, and being responsible for one another.

 Correct: The tribes emphasized collective survival, mutual aid, and responsibility for one another.

3. Use parallel structure with elements being compared. (X is more than / better than Y)

 Faulty: I like swimming better than to dive.

 Correct: I like swimming better than diving.

4. Use parallel structure with elements joined by a linking verb or a verb of being.
5. Use parallel structure with elements joined by a *correlative conjunction*.

**Faulty:** Clara not only wants money but also fame.

**Correct:** Clara wants not only money but also fame.

**Correct:** Clara not only wants money but also wants fame.
LINKS TO COMMONLY CONFUSED WORDS

accept / except
affect / effect
allusion / illusion / delusion
amount / number
already / all ready
authoritarian / authoritative
credible / creditable / credulous
continual / continuous
connote / denote
disinterested / uninterested
everyday / every day
everyone / every one
farther / further
fewer / less
healthy / healthful
ingenious / ingenuous
its / it’s
judicial / judicious
lead / led
lose / loose
manner / manor
nauseous / nauseated
observance / observation
oral / verbal
past / passed
prescribe / proscribe
then / than
they’re / their / there
two / to / too
weather / whether
were / we're / where
who / that / which
who’s / whose
you're / your
PART III. TASKS
Discussion Task 1: Dream Come True

Expression: “dream come true.” 美夢成真

Question: Should this expression be used as a phrase, a clause, or a sentence?

Common Usage: “It’s a dream come true.” (ungrammatical, fixed expression)

Grammatical Analysis:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sentence</th>
<th>Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It’s a dream come true.</td>
<td>叙述句</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It’s <em>not</em> a dream come true.</td>
<td>否定句</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is it a dream come true?</td>
<td>疑問句</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A dream <em>comes</em> true.</td>
<td>叙述句</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A dream <em>doesn’t</em> come true.</td>
<td>否定句</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Does</em> a dream come true?</td>
<td>疑問句</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>May</em> your dream come true!</td>
<td>祈願句</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>What</em> a dream come true!</td>
<td>感嘆句</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Make</em> your dream come true.</td>
<td>祈使句</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It’s a dream <em>that comes true.</em></td>
<td>叙述句（複雜句）</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It’s a dream coming true.</td>
<td>叙述句（簡單句，後位修飾辭語）</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Oral Task 2: Learning Idioms

The objectives of this oral task are (1) to help you practice oral skills (e.g., pronunciation, rhythm), (2) to monitor your progress, and (3) to learn some useful idiomatic expressions.

Here's what to do:

1. At the beginning of each semester, draw a lot to decide which idiom you are going to work on. See the idiom cards on pages 145-146.
2. Sign up on the schedule list of dates and groups.
3. There will be four students in each group working on the same idiom card (e.g., “dream come true”).
4. Get on the website English1010.com - Learn English Digital-Style Audio Lesson Index (http://english1010.com/lesson_index.htm)
5. On the web page, find the idiom you have been assigned and print it out. This printout will be used as a script.
6. Have you watched an English-teaching program on TV? Use the script and act it out in your design.
7. Each of you in the group has a role to play and tasks to complete.

   **Student#1:** Read the script, sentence by sentence.
   **Student#2:** Following each sentence read, Student#2 reads Chinese translation. Find a Chinese equivalent for the English idiom.
   **Student#3 and Student#4:** Act out the dialogue.

8. See the instructions below.

   **Idiom: Dream Come True**

   **Meaning:** [Student#1 & Student#2]
   This is an easy one to understand because it means exactly what it says - a dream, or something that you really want, becomes real. We are not talking about dreams that we have at night when we sleep. When we say the word "dream" in this expression, we are talking about something that we've always wanted to have or something that we've always wanted to happen.

   **Example sentences:** [Student#1 & Student#2]
   1. It's a dream come true.
   2. It was a dream come true.
   3. It would be a dream come true.

   **Example dialogue:** [Student#3 & Student#4]
   A young married couple is speaking about their future.

   A: I'd love to buy that house in the country.
   B: Yes, dear. I'd love it too. We should make an offer we can afford and see what happens.
   A: OK. But we shouldn't have high expectations because I think it's more
expensive than we can afford.
B: Yeah, I know, but wouldn't it be a dream come true if we got it?
A: Yes, it sure would. It would be a dream come true.

Here's how to get the class excited about what you deliver:

1. Make your role-play last 5 to 10 minutes.
2. Do not read your script word for word.
3. Use visual aids. Modify the script into a TV slideshow format. For example, use the computer to present the modified script to the class.
**Idiom Cards**

The following idioms can be grouped into three types:
1. Animal idioms (1-9)
2. Color idioms (10-13)
3. Body-part idioms (14-30)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. A little bird told me</th>
<th>2. As sick as a dog</th>
<th>3. Chicken out</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7. Every dog has its day</td>
<td>8. Work like a dog</td>
<td>9. You can’t teach an old dog new trick</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Cold feet</td>
<td>17. Get off one’s back</td>
<td>18. Get one’s feet wet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Get one’s foot in the door</td>
<td>20. Have one’s feet on the ground</td>
<td>21. Have one’s hands full</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Heart of stone</td>
<td>23. Heart of gold</td>
<td>24. Keep one’s nose clean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Put one’s foot in one’s mouth</td>
<td>26. Red-handed</td>
<td>27. Stand on one’s own two feet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Skill Task 3:  Problem-Solving

This section helps you resolve the language problems you encounter in writing or reading a text.

1. **Grammar reference:**
   ✷ 1-language.com: (http://www.1-language.com/englishcourse/index.htm)
   ✷ Guide to Grammar and Writing: (http://grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/index.htm)
   ✷ NetGrammar (http://netgrammar.altec.org/main.html)

2. **Usage and Writing:**
   ✷ Towson University’s Online Writing Support: (http://wwwnew.towson.edu/ows/)
   ✷ The Ten Most Wanted: (http://ace.acadiau.ca/english/grammar/tenmost.htm)

3. **Vocabulary skills:**
   a. **Word meaning and usage:**
      ✷ Problem: What does the word “advocate” mean? How is it used in a sentence?
      ✷ Resolution: OneLook Dictionary Search (http://www.onelook.com/?d=all_gen)
   b. **Term definition:**
      ✷ Problem: What does “transformative justice” mean?
   c. **Fixed expressions:**
      ✷ Problem: I am not sure about the phrasal verbs, “stand up to” or “stand up for.” Which one is correct?
      ✷ Resolution:
        - Google (www.google.com)
        - OneLook Dictionary Search (http://www.onelook.com/?d=all_gen)
        - Virtual Language Centre (http://vlc.polyu.edu.hk/)
        - The Idiom Connection (http://www.idiomconnection.com/)
        - Idiomsite.com (http://www.idiomsite.com/)
        - NetGrammar Phrasal Verbs (http://netgrammar.altec.org/Support/a101b2_101000.html)
Headphones up risk of hearing loss

NEW YORK, Jan 06 (Reuters Health) -- Young people who suffered from frequent ear infections as children may risk hearing loss if they use personal stereo headphones, according to a study published in The Lancet.

Previous studies have shown that regular listening to loud music using stereo headphones is a risk factor for hearing loss in young people. However, in the new study of more than 1,000 young men entering the army in France, it appeared that those who suffered hearing loss not only used personal stereos but also had a history of repeated episodes of middle ear inflammation, or otitis media, in infancy or childhood.

The study analyzed the hearing ability of men who went to rock concerts and discos twice a month or more, men who worked in noisy occupations, and men who listened to personal stereos.

While concerts and loud workplace noise did appear to affect hearing, the researchers found that the major factor influencing hearing loss in this group of men was use of personal stereos. And analysis of the men's medical histories indicated that the harmful effect of the headphone usage was "strongly dependent on the presence (or) absence of repeated episodes of otitis media in infancy or childhood," according to the report.

The researchers note that previous studies showed that regular personal stereo use was linked to an average hearing loss of about 3 decibels, a level of "limited clinical importance." But in those men who had a history of ear infections, the use of personal stereos "was associated with a mean extra hearing loss of 11 (decibels) relative hearing loss."

The team also reports an increased risk of acute acoustic trauma and frequent tinnitus in this group of men. They conclude that their results "show the importance of curing otitis in childhood," and recommend that young people who have a history of recurrent ear infections "be warned that personal stereo use is a risk factor for deafness."


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**Reading Task 5: Noun Clauses**

Instructions: Highlight *noun clauses* in the following text:

**Headphones up risk of hearing loss**

NEW YORK, Jan 06 (Reuters Health) -- Young people who suffered from frequent ear infections as children may risk hearing loss if they use personal stereo headphones, according to a study published in The Lancet.

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[http://netgrammar.altec.org/Units/Unit_10/a101c10_401000.html](http://netgrammar.altec.org/Units/Unit_10/a101c10_401000.html)
Reading Task 6: Exploration of a Poem

Instructions:

1. Read and listen to the poem on the Internet
   http://evaeaston.com/pr/cond3-pr-lifeisfine.html
2. Find the rhyming words: _________________________________
3. Identify the types of conditional sentences.

*Life is Fine*

I went down to the river,
I sat down on the bank.
I tried to think but couldn't,
So I jumped in and sank.
I came up twice and hollered!
I came up twice and cried!
If that water hadn't been so cold
I might've sunk and died.

*But it was*

*Cold in that water!*

*It was cold!*

I took the elevator
Sixteen floors above the ground.
I thought about my baby
And thought I would jump down.
I stood there and I hollered!
I stood there and I cried!
If it hadn't been so high
I might've jumped and died.
But it was
High up there!
It was high!

So since I'm still here living
I guess I will live on.
I could've died for love--
But for living I was born.

Though you may hear me holler,
And you may see me cry--
I'll be dogged sweet baby
If you're gonna see me die.

Life is fine!
Fine as wine!
Life is fine!

-----------------------------------------------

Life is Fine by Langston Hughes
LISTEN TO THE POET HIMSELF RECITE "LIFE IS FINE"
FOR AUDIO, CLICK ON TITLE IN TOP RIGHT CORNER OF WEBPAGE.
Reading Task 7: Exploration of a Song

Instructions:
1. Find \((to + V)\) and identify its position and function in the sentence.
2. Be aware of the past tense used
3. Find the phrase “used to”
4. Distinguish among noun clause, adverbial clause, and interrogative sentences.

After The Love Has Gone
Earth, Wind, & Fire
David Foster, Jay Graydon & Bill Champlin

For awhile to love was all we could do
We were young and we knew
And our eyes were alive
Deep inside we knew our love was true
For awhile we paid no mind to the past
We knew love would last
Every night somethin right
Would invite us to begin the dance

Somethin happened along the way
What used to be happy was sad
Somethin happened along the way
And yesterday was all we had
And oh after the love has gone
How could you lead me on
And not let me stay around
Oh oh oh after the love has gone
What used to be right is wrong
Can love that’s lost be found
For awhile to love each other with all
    We would ever need
Love was strong for so long
Never knew that what was
Wrong oh baby wasn’t right
We tried to find what we had
Till sadness was all we shared

We were scared this affair would lead our love into
    Somethin happened along the way
Yesterday was all we had
Somethin happened along the way
What used to be happy is sad

Somethin happened along the way
    Oh yesterday was all we had
And oh after the love has gone
    How could you lead me on
And not let me stay around
Oh oh oh after the love has gone
What used to be right is wrong
Can love that’s lost be found

Oh oh oh oh oh oh after the love has gone
    What used to be right is wrong
Can love that’s lost be found
Oh woh woh after the love has gone
What used to be right is wrong
Can love that’s lost be found
Oh woh woh after the love has gone
     What used to be right is wrong
     Can love that’s lost be found
          Oh woh woh
Oh woh woh after the love has gone
     What used to be right is wrong
     Can love that’s lost be found

Woh woh woh after the love has gone
     What used to be right is wrong
     Can love that’s lost be found
          Woh woh woh