GRAMMAR
IN WRITTEN TEXT

Dewi Puspitasari
Rayinda Eva Rahmah

GRAMMAR
IN WRITTEN TEXT

Pekalongan - Indonesia

GRAMMAR
IN WRITTEN TEXT

Copyright © 2021

PREFACE

This book is dedicated from the Department of English Education (TBIG) at the Faculty of Teacher Education, Institut Agama Islam Negeri Pekalongan for the Department's members and all communities who need to develop the writing competence. Rooted from our real problem in crafting words into meaningful written text, we do hope that the book will be able to accompany anyone's writing progress.

We believe that the book will not be the Department's end of journey, thus it is hoped that other series of artifacts to bettering the quality are crafted by others.

Warmest Regards,

Dewi Puspitasari
Rayinda Eva Rahmah

CONTENTS

LEARNING OUTCOMES

Upon successfully completing learning the chapters in this book, the students are expected to:

1. Reliably identify and describe the roles how words are put together to create meaning in a sentence.
2. Demonstrate mastery of grammatical concepts and syntactical strategies and apply the knowledge to produce coherent, meaningful, and compelling written text.
3. Criticize and edit their own written text and peers'.

PART ONE:
WELCOME TO GRAMMARLAND

CHAPTER 1
Introduction to the Parts of Speech

In this chapter, the students will learn:
- ✓ *Parts of Speech*
- ✓ *Nouns*
- ✓ *Pronouns*
- ✓ *Verbs*
- ✓ *Adjectives*
- ✓ *Adverbs*
- ✓ *Prepositions*
- ✓ *Conjunctions*
- ✓ *Interjections*

Parts of Speech

The way a word is used in a sentence determines which part of speech it is. The following parts of speech chart can be used to reacquaint you.

Part of Speech	Part of Speech	Examples
Noun, Pronoun	Names a person, place, or thing	Zahra, President Jokowi, cat, he, she, them, etc.
Verb	Provide the action or state of being	Teach, learn, jump, explain, is, are, be, etc.
Adjective	Modifies or describes a noun	Quiet, smart, purple, sweet, etc.
Adverb	Modifies or describes a verb, adjective, or other adverb	Slowly, happily, rapidly, etc.
Preposition	Introduces relationship between a noun or pronoun and other words in a sentence	up, over, to, in, on, etc.
Conjunction	Joins words, phrases, and clauses	and, but, or, yet, etc.
Interjection	Expresses emotion	ah, oh, wow, etc.
Article	Identifies or points out a noun	the, an, a

One way to understand English grammar is to think of words as having to names: a grammatical name, called a part of speech, and a function name that tells what is does in the sentence. Consider the following sentence:

The tennis ball hit the opponent on his head.

Part of Speech

Article	adjective	noun	verb	article	noun	preposition	pronoun	noun
↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
The	**tennis**	**ball**	**hit**	**the**	**opponent**	**on**	**his**	**head**
↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑
Identifies	describes	subject	verb	identifies	object	introduces	describes	object

Function

Why is it essential to know and understand that concept? Simply answer is that correct English usage depends upon it. The following examples will explain this. First, think of the pronouns *he* and *him*. The pronoun *he* functions as the subject of a sentence. *Him* functions as an object.

He hit the opponent on the head. (<u>He</u> is the subject and <u>hit</u> is the verb)

He hit him on the head. (<u>He</u> is the subject, <u>hit</u> is the verb, and <u>him</u> is the object who received the hit).

Based *on* the following example, function is extremely essential in choosing the correct pronoun.

Him hit he. (An object pronoun*, him*, cannot be used as a subject, and a subject pronoun, *he* cannot be used as the object).

Nouns

A *noun* is a word that names a person, place, or thing. Nouns have varieties which cover: *common nouns, proper nouns, compound nouns,* and *collective nouns*.

1. **Common nouns** name any one of a class of person, place, or thing.
    e.g.   *girl, city, food*
2. **Proper nouns** name a specific person, place, or thing. Proper nouns are always capitalized.
    e.g.   *Husain, Pekalongan City*
3. **Compound nouns** are two or more nouns that function as a single unit. A compound noun can be two individual words, words joined by a hyphen, or two words combined.
    e.g.   time capsule (individual words)
             great-uncle (hyphenated words)
             basketball (Combined words)
4. **Collective nouns** name groups of people or things.
    e.g.   audience, family, crowd, herd

Possessive Nouns

In grammar, possession shows ownership which the following rules can be used.

1. With singular nouns, add an apostrophe and an *s*.
    Cat → Cat's tail
    Dancer → Dancer's outfit
2. With plural nouns ending in *s*, add an apostrophe after the *s*.
    Cats → Cats' tails
    Dancers → Dancers' outfits
3. With plural nouns not ending in *s*, add an apostrophe and an *s*.
    Men → Men's books
    Mice → Mice's tails

Plural Nouns

Follow the guidelines for creating plural nouns.

1. Add *s* to form the plural of most nouns.
    Horse → Horses   Laptop → Laptops
2. Add e*s* if the noun ends in *s, sh, ch,* or *x.*
    Wish → Wishes   Box → Boxes   Inch → Inches
3. If a noun ends in consonant –*y*, change the *y* to i, and add *es*.
    City → Cities   Lady → Ladies
4. If a noun ends in vowel –*y*, add *s*. Words ending in –*quy* don't follow this rule – *soliloquies*
    Essay → Essays   Monkey → Monkeys

Pronouns

A *pronoun* is a word used in place of a noun or another pronoun. Pronouns help you avoid unnecessary repetition in your writing and speech. A pronoun gets its meaning from the noun it stands for. The noun is called *antecedent.*

> ### *Although <u>Seattle</u> is damp, <u>it</u> is my favorite city.*
> Antecedent   pronoun

1. **Personal pronouns** refer to a specific person, place, object, or thing.

	Singular	Plural
First person	I, me, mine, my	We, us, our, ours
Second person	You, your, yours	You, your, yours
Third person	He, him, his, she, her, hers, it	They, them, their, theirs, its

2. **Possessive pronouns** show ownership. The possessive pronouns are: your, yours, his, hers, its, ours, their, theirs, whose.
   Is this beautiful flower <u>yours</u>?
   Yes, it's mine.

3. **Reflexive pronouns** add information to a sentence by pointing back to a noun or pronoun near the beginning of the sentence. Reflexive pronouns end in *–self* or *–selves.*
   All her friends enjoyed <u>themselves</u> reading novels in the school library.
   Hanna bought <u>herself</u> a new bag.

4. **Intensive pronouns** also end in *–self* or *–selves* but just add emphasis to the noun or pronoun.
   Tommy <u>himself</u> picked out the car.

5. **Demonstrative pronouns** direct attention to a specific person, place, or thing. There are only four demonstrative pronouns: *this, that, these, those.*
   <u>This</u> is my favorite movie.
   <u>That</u> was a fierce rain storm.

6. **Relative pronouns** begin a subordinate clause. There are five relative pronouns: *that, which, who, whom, those.*
   Ali claimed <u>that</u> he could fix the laptop.

Linda was the repair person <u>who</u> fixed the machine after Johnny washed his sneakers.
7. **Interrogative pronouns** ask a question. They are: *what, which, who, whom, whose.*
   <u>*Who*</u> would like to cook dinner?
   <u>*Which*</u> one do you want to use?
8. **Indefinite pronouns** refer to people, places, objects, or, things without pointing to a specific one.

Verbs

Verbs describe an action or a state of being. Verb must be put in every sentence. Verbs have three basic types.
1. **Action Verbs** show what the subject does which can be visible *(jump, laugh, walk)* or mental *(study, learn, think).*
   Louise <u>studied</u> Math last night.

   An action verb can be *Transitive* (a verb needs a direct object) or *Intransitive* (a verb doesn't need a direct object).
   The postman <u>dropped</u> the letter. *(Transitive)*
   The temperature <u>fell</u> over night. *(Intransitive)*

2. **Linking Verbs** used to join the subject and predicate and do not show action, but they help the words at the end of the sentence name or describe the subject. Linking verb include: be, feel, grow, seem, smell, remain, appear, sound, stay, look, taste, turn, become. Besides, many linking verbs can also be used as action verbs.
   My daughter <u>looked</u> sad. *(Linking)*
   My son <u>looked</u> for the cat in the pouring rain. *(Action)*

3. **Helping Verbs** help another verb to make the meaning clearer which include any form of *to be, do, does, did, have, has, had, shall, should will, would, can, could, may, might, must.*

In Verb phrases, there are one main verb and one or more helping verbs.

The students <u>will </u>study Math in library.

My husband still <u>has </u>not yet <u>found </u>his wallet.

Adjectives

Adjectives describe nouns and pronouns. Adjectives answer the kind of questions, for example:

What kind?	→	*red nose*	*gold ring*
How much?	→	*more salt*	*little effort*
Which one?	→	*second chance*	*those chairs*
How many?	→	*several chances*	*six novels*

There are five kinds of adjectives

1. **Common adjectives** describe nouns or pronouns.
   e.g. *beautiful* girl, *gentle* guy, *red* flag
2. **Proper adjectives** are formed from proper nouns.
   e.g. *American* chocolates (from the noun "America")
3. **Compound adjectives** are made up more than one word.
   e.g. *far-off* country
4. **Articles** are a special type of adjective. There are three articles: *a, an, the.*
   A and *an* are called "indefinite articles" because they refer to general things.
   The is called a "definite article" because it refers to a specific thing.
5. **Indefinite adjectives** don't specify the specific amount of something.

all	another	any	both
each	either	few	many
more	most	neither	other
several	some		

When you use adjectives, follow these guidelines:

1. To describe a noun or a pronoun
   Zahra was <u>unwilling</u> to leave <u>the</u> meeting.
   Noun   Adj.   Adj.   Noun

2. To make your writing more descriptive and specific, use vivid adjectives
   Take a <u>larger</u> slice of the <u>luscious</u> cake.
           Adj.   Noun   Adj.   Noun

3. To connect a subject with a descriptive word, use an adjective after linking verb (*be*, *seem, appear, look, feel, smell, sound, taste, become, grow, remain, stay*, and *turn*)
   Chicken made this way tastes more <u>delicious</u>. (not using ~~deliciously~~)

Adverbs

Adverbs are words that describe verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. Adverbs answer the questions: When? Where? How? or to what extent?

When?	→	*broke yesterday*	*start now*
Where?	→	*fell below*	*move up*
To what extent?	→	*partly finished*	*eat completely*

Most adverbs are formed by adding *–ly* to an adjective. For example:

Slow	–	*slowly*	
Abundant	–	*abundantly*	
Correct	–	*correctly*	
How?	→	*beautifully sing*	*run slowly*

Most common *non-ly* adverbs, for example:

Afterward	*soon*	*next*	*when*	*how*	*late*
Far	*almost*	*yesterday*	*already*	*also*	*too*
Long	*where*	*then*	*hard*	*here*	*never*
Now	*low*	*often*	*more*	*tomorrow*	*back*
Still	*fast*	*today*	*today*	*rather*	*even*

When you use adverbs, follow these guidelines:

1. To describe a verb
   Experiments using dynamite must be <u>done</u> <u>carefully</u>.
   <div align="right">Verb   Adverb</div>

2. To describe an adjective
   Sam had an <u>unbelievably</u> <u>huge</u> appetite for chips.
   Adverb   Adj.

3. To describe another adverb
   They sang <u>so</u> <u>clearly.</u>
   Adv.   Adv.

Prepositions

Prepositions link a noun or a pronoun following it to another word in the sentence. Some of the most common prepositions are in the following chart:

About	Above	Across	After	Against	Along
Amid	Around	As	At	Before	Behind
Below	Beneath	Beside	Between	Beyond	But
By	Despite	Down	During	Except	For
From	It	Inside	Into	Like	Near
On	Onto	Of	Off	Opposite	Out
Outside	Over	Past	Since	Through	To
Toward	Under	Underneath	Until	Upon	With

A preposition is often followed by a noun or pronoun. *A prepositional phrase* is a preposition and its object. A prepositional phrase can be two or three words long.

<u>on </u>the table   <u>in</u> the room

However, prepositional phrases also can be much longer, depending on the length of the preposition and the number of words that describe the object of the preposition.

<u>near </u>the violently swaying oak trees
<u>on account of </u>his nearly depleted bank account

Conjunctions

Conjunctions connect words or groups of words and show how the words are related. There are three kinds of conjunctions:

1. **Coordinating conjunctions** link similar words or word groups. There are seven coordinating conjunctions:
   for   and   nor   but   or   yet   so

2. **Correlative conjunctions** link similar words or word groups, but they are always used in pairs. Here are the correlative conjunctions:
   both … and   either … or   whether … or
   neither … nor   not only … but also

3. **Subordinating conjunctions** link an independent clause (complete sentence) to a dependent clause (fragment). There are some subordinating conjunctions:

after	*although*	*as*	*as if*
as long as	*as soon as*	*as though*	*because*
before	*even though*	*if*	*in order that*
since	*so that*	*though*	*till*

| *unless* | *until* | *when* | *whenever* |
| *where* | *wherever* | | |

Interjections

Interjections show strong emotion which set off from the rest of the sentence with a comma or an exclamation mark.

e.g. Oh! What a terrible thunder.

Chapter 1 Quiz

Select the word by underlining that best completes each sentence.

1. Proper adjectives are formed from (common nouns, proper nouns).
2. The three articles are a, an, and (the, then)
3. The is called the (indefinite article, definite article)
4. (Predicate adjectives, Proper adjectives), which describe the subject of the sentence, are adjectives separated from the noun or pronoun by a linking verb.
5. (Interjection, Conjunctive adverbs) are used to connect other words and to link ideas and paragraphs.
6. There are (three, seven) different coordinating conjunctions.
7. Correlative conjunctions also link similar words or word groups, but they are always used (in pairs, one at a time).
8. Collective nouns (name groups, show ownership).
9. (I, Which) is a personal pronoun.
10. (Yours, Herself) is a possessive pronoun.
11. Intensive pronouns, unlike reflexive pronouns, (begin a subordinate clause, add emphasis).
12. (Interrogative pronouns, Indefinite pronouns) ask a question. They are: *what, which, who, whom, whose.*
13. Every sentence must have a noun and a (preposition, verb).
14. Action verbs can be visible and (mental, linking).
15. In the sentence "Luis dropped his hat," the verb *dropped* is (transitive, intransitive).
16. In the sentence "Nita awoke early," the verb awoke is (transitive, intransitive).
17. To determine if a verb is transitive, ask yourself ("Who?", "What?", "How many?") after the verb.
18. (Helping verbs, Linking verbs) join the subject and the predicate and do not show action.

19. Helping verbs, which are added to another verb to make the meaning clearer, can include any form of (to be, to see).
20. In the sentence "I traded my sandwich for three oatmeal cookies," the word *oatmeal* is a/n (noun, adjective).

Part One Test

Find and correct the errors in the following sentences.

1. Her and me share a healthful lunch every day.

    _____

2. I run really good in a race.

    _____

3. Mary doesn't feel good today.

    _____

4. Me and Ted shares a locker at the gym.

    _____

5. The gym gave a discount to Ted and I.

    _____

6. This cereal, of all the cereals I've tried, are the best.

    _____

7. Until you call me or I receive your message.

    _____

8. A project w'ere doing now furning a shelter.

    _____

9. Wow. You've broken the all-time record.

    _____

10. Ain't spring your favorite season?

    _____

PART TWO:
USAGE AND ABUSAGE

CHAPTER 2
Using Verb Correctly

In this chapter, the students will learn:
- ✓ *Verb Functions*
- ✓ *Regular and Irregular Verbs*
- ✓ *The Six Verb Tenses*
- ✓ *How to Use Tenses*
- ✓ *The Active and Passive Voice*

Verb Functions

Verbs are words show an action or describe a state of being.

Verbs have four basic types, namely: *action verbs, linking verbs, helping verbs,* and *verb phrases.*

Verbs can convey information through changes in their form in five different things:

1. *Tense* (when the action takes place: past, present, or future)
2. *Person* (who or what experiences the action)
3. *Number* (how many subjects ct or receive the action)
4. *Mood* (the attitude expressed towards the action)
5. *Voice* (whether the subject acts or is acted upon: the active or passive voice)

Regular and Irregular Verbs

In English language, verbs are divided into two classes: *regular* and *irregular* that come from the way the verb forms its past tense and past participles.

1. *Regular Verbs* → The past tense and past participle forms are created by adding –d, -t, or –ed to the present form, but the vowel doesn't change; for example, walk – walked – walked.
2. *Irregular Verbs* → No pattern is followed when the past and past participle are formed. Instead, there are many different forms. For example, with some irregular verbs the vowel changes and an *–n* or *–e* is added, as in *begin, began, begun.* With other verbs, the vowel changes and a *–d* or *–t* is added, as in *lose, lost, lost.*
3. Of all the verbs in English, *lie* and *lay* are likely the most often confused. *Lay* is a regular verb; *lie* is an irregular verb.
   - *Lie* means "to repose." *Lie* conjugates as *lie, lay, lain*.
   - *Lay* means "to put." *Lay* conjugates as *lay, laid, laid.*

Because *lay* is both the present tense of *to lay* and the past tense of *to lie*, many speakers and writers use lay when they mean *lie*.

- *Lie* is an *intransitive* verb. That means that it never takes a direct object.
  When people are exhausted, they should <u>lie</u> down for a rest.
- *Lay* is a transitive verb. That means that *lay* always takes a direct object.
  <u>Lay</u> the papers down.

The Six Verbs Tenses

The *tense* of a verb shows its time. English has six verb tenses. Each of the six tenses is divided into two forms: *basic and progressive* (also known as "perfect"). The basic forms are used to show action, occurrence, or state of being that is taking place right here and now. The *basic* form also is the base for the future form (i.e., I will; they will sleep).

The *following* chart shows the six forms for the verb *to talk*:

Tense	Basic Form	Progressive Form
Present	talk	am talking
Past	talked	was talking
Future	will talk	will be talking
Present Perfect	have talked	have been talking
Past Perfect	had talked	had been talking
Future Perfect	will have talked	will have been talking

The tense of English verbs is formed from helping verbs and principal parts. Each English verb has four main parts, as shown in the chart on the next page.

Principal Verb Parts

Tense	Basic Form		Progressive Form
cook	cooking	cooked	cooked
walk	walking	walked	walked

1. *The present tense*
   The *present* is used to form the *present tense* ("I cook") and the *future* ("I will cook").
2. *The present participle*
   The *present participle* forms all six of the *progressive forms* ("I am cooking," "I was cooking.")
3. *The past tense*
   The *past* forms only one tense, the past. As with the present tense, the principal part stands alone.
4. *The past participle*
   The *past participle* forms the last three tenses: the *present perfect* ("I have cooked"), *the past perfect* (I had cooked"), and *the future perfect* (I will have cooked"). To form the past participle, start with a helping verb such as *is, are, was, has been*. Then add the principal part of the verb.

How to Use Tenses

The six tenses express time within three main categories: *past, perfect,* and *future.* You want to use the tenses correctly so that you can show how one event is related to another which is shown in the following chart.

Principal Verb Parts

Past	Present	Future
Simple past	Simple present	Simple future
Present perfect		Future perfect
Past perfect		

Past progressive		Present	Future progressive
Present perfect progressive			Future perfect progressive
Past perfect progressive			

- Two present forms (*simple present, present progressive*) are used to show event that take place now.
- Six past forms (*simple past, present perfect, past perfect, past progressive, present perfect progressive, past perfect progressive)* are used to show events that took place before the present.
- Four future forms (*simple future, future perfect, future progressive, future perfect progressive)* are used to show events that take place in the future.

1. Using Past Tense Correctly

The following chart provides examples of how the six past tenses are used in a different way.

Tense	Use	Example
Simple past	Completed action (indefinite time)	My mom cooked the meal.
	Completed condition (indefinite time)	We were shocked the gift was unpredictable.
	Completed action (definite time)	My father found wallet yesterday.
	Completed condition (definite time)	I was pleasant yesterday to receive the news.
Present Perfect	Completed action (indefinite time)	We have watched the movie.
	Completed condition (indefinite time)	I have been very relieved.
	Action continuing into the present	Aisha has called for two hours.
	Condition continuing into the present	Ryan has been in Singapore for a week.
Past Perfect	Action completed before another	Ali had invited all his friends before the party started.

	Condition completed	Fatimah had been a florist before she became a teacher.
Past Progressive	Continuous completed action	Sam was attending a seminar that month.
Present Perfect Progressive	Action continuing into present	Nick has been exercising all week.
Past Perfect Progressive	Continuing action interrupted by another	Kate had been repairing the fence that was damaged in the storm.

2. Using Future Tenses Correctly

The following chart explains how the future tenses are used in the sentences.

Tense	Use	Example
Simple Future	Future action Future condition	The rain will come. I will be anxious when it does.
Future Perfect	Future action completed before another	By the time you read this, the bus will have arrived.
	Future condition completed before another	The storm will have been raging for an hour before the phone goes out.
Future Progressive	Continuing future action	Jasmine will be making the cake all spring.
Future Perfect Progressive	Continuing future action completed before another	When we go on vacation next week, I will have been exercising for a mont.

3. Don't Switch Tenses in Midstream

Never shift tenses in the middle of a sentence or a paragraph because it confuses readers.

> **Note**: This guideline is especially important if your sentence contains more than one verb.

> ~~Incorrect~~ : *I __thought__ I __had broken__ the CD player when I __dropped__ it on the floor, but it suddenly __begins__ to play!*

> Correct : *I __thought__ I __had broken__ the CD player when I __dropped__ it on the floor, but it suddenly __began__ to play!*

The Active and Passive Voice

Grammatical voice is concerned with whether the subject of a sentence *performs an action* (active voice) or *receives an action* (passive voice). About one third of all verbs in scientific or academic writing occur in the passive voice. This section explains the structure of the passive voice, and then its use.

1. A verb is *active* when the <u>subject</u> *performs the action*.
   The students learned English last semester. ("<u>The students</u>" are doing the action.)
   My teacher explained the material clearly. ("<u>My teacher</u>" is doing explaining)
2. A verb is passive when its action is performed upon the subject (start the sentence with the <u>object</u>).
   A delivery package was taken home. (The speaker is not indicated).
   A delicious cake was served by me.

Structure of the Passive Voice

The passive voice is a grammatical structure which allows the *object of a verb* to be placed in *the subject position*. There are several reasons to put the object in the subject position. The

most important concerns the focus of the sentence. Focus is generally achieved by moving the element on which the writer wants to focus into the subject position (the *"strongest"* position in an English sentence since it is the *first element* to be encountered). If a "*weak*" noun, one with little information or one that is obvious to the reader, occurs as the subject, this "strong" position is wasted, as shown in the following active sentence:

SUBJECT	VERB	OBJECT	ADVERBIAL
People	speak	English	In London.

This sentence is grammatically correct, but the subject is "weak" because we know that only people speak language. The sentence therefore sounds more natural in the passive voice.

To change an active sentence into a passive sentence, we move the object to the subject position and change the verb to a form of "be" plus the past participle of the verb, as shown in the following example:

People speak English in London.   (active)
English is spoken in London.   (passive)

Two processes are involved in the transformation of the active verbs into the passive voice:
1. Selecting the correct form of "be", and
2. Changing the active verb into its participle or VERBed2 form (e.g., tell → told).

The Passive with Get

We sometimes use **"get"** in the passive instead of "**be**". Get is informal. We often use it for something happening by accident or unexpectedly. Look at the examples below:

> *Lots of girls <u>get bitten</u> by dogs.*
> *I'm always <u>getting chosen</u> for the worst jobs.*
> *Last week Laura <u>got moved</u> to another department.*

In negatives and questions in the present simple and past simple we use a form of "**do**".

> *The windows <u>don't get cleaned</u> very often.*
> *How did the painting <u>get damaged</u>?*

We also use "**get**" in these expressions:

> *Get dressed/changed*
> *Get washed (= wash oneself)*
> *Get engaged/married/divorced*
> *Get started (= start)*
> *Get lost (= lose one's way)*

The Passive Voice with the Five Most Common Verb Tenses

Let us review the form of the passive in the five verb tenses most commonly used in scientific or academic writing:

Tense	Example
Simple Present	
• Active	People speak English in London.
• Passive	English is spoken in London.
Simple Past	
• Active	People spoke English in London in the 1400's.
• Passive	English was spoken in London in the 1400's.
Simple Future	
• Active	People will speak English in London for ever.
• Passive	English will be spoken in London for ever.
Present Perfect	
• Active	People have spoken English in London for years.
• Passive	English has been spoken in London for years.

Present Continuous	
• Active	People are speaking English in London right now.
• Passive	English is being spoken in London right now.

Choosing the Passive or the Active Voice

It is much more important to be able to recognize when a subject requires the active voice and when it requires the passive.

An active verb form follows an active, dynamic subject in most cases. An active subject usually acts: it causes something to happen or does something to the object which receives that action, as shown in the following example:

SUBJECT → OBJECT
The *postman* sent *the letters*.

The passive verb form usually follows a passive, receptive subject: it is the effect of something that happens. Sometimes, if the subject contains important information, (i.e., if it is not "weak"), the active subject is included in a *by*-phrase. It is then called an agent, as shown in the following example:

SUBJECT ← AGENT
The letters were sent by *the postman*.

Passive Structure with *By* Agents

Approximately eighty percent of all passive sentences in English do not include the active subject. In the remaining twenty percent, many active subjects are included in a *by*-phrase. The object of the preposition *by* is called a *by*-agent. In

the initial discussion of the passive voice, the passive verb form was used because the subject was "weak." An obvious or unknown subject is never included in a *by*-phrase, as shown in the following example:

> ~~Incorrect~~:
>
> **English is spoken in London <u>by people.</u>**
>
> **The bridge was built in 1934 <u>by somebody</u> to reduce traffic on other roads.**

However, in a passive sentence, the answer to the question *By whom*? or *By what*? can sometimes give us useful information, as shown in the following example:

> **This report was requested by the <u>Lightman Chemical Co</u>.**
>
> *(The Lightman Chemical Co. requested this report)*

How-Agents

Agents can also be determined by asking the question How? The main difference between a *by*-agent and a *how*-agent is that a *how*-agent indicates purpose, intent, or a desired goal; whereas a *by*-agent simply indicates that something happened. Look at these sentences;

> **The man was killed by a stone.** *(by-agent)*
>
> **The man was killed with a stone.** *(how-agent)*

In sentence (1), we understand that the man was killed because a stone fell, or perhaps he fell on a stone and hit his head. The emphasis is on the stone as the cause of the death. In sentence (2), we understand that the man was killed by another person using a stone as a weapon.

How agents are often attached to passive sentences, but unlike *by*-agents, they also occur with active sentences. *How-*

agents are indicated by the preposition *by, with*, and *by means of.* Notice that *by* occurs in both *by*-agents and *how*-agents.

BY

With a *how*-agent, by must be used with the zero article (Ø) plus a singular noun for both count and non-count nouns.

PASSIVE	ACTIVE
The material was delivered by the teacher.	The material explained by the teacher.
A wind generator is powered by wind.	A wind generator operates by wind.
The patient was revived by injecting him with insulin.	Doctors sometimes revive patient by injecting them with insulin.

WITH

With is commonly used with tools, devices, and materials. Unlike *by*, it can never be used with the zero article (Ø) plus a singular count noun.

PASSIVE	ACTIVE
The screw was removed with a screwdriver.	Remove the screw with a screwdriver.
The data were gained with instruments	Gain the data with instruments

BY MEANS OF

By means of is similar to with except that it emphasizes the process that a tool, device, or material performs.

PASSIVE	ACTIVE
Teeth are removed by means of forceps.	Dentists remove teeth by means of forceps

We can give other details about the action. For example, we can use a phrase saying when or where something happens.

> ***The telephone was invented <u>in 1876</u>.***
> ***The concerts are usually held <u>at the university</u>.***

Sometimes there is no phrase after the verb.

> ***A new swimming-pool <u>is being built</u>.***
> ***All documents <u>have been destroyed</u>.***

Chapter 2 Quiz

A. *Select the word by underlining that best completes each sentence*

1. Croatia (is, was) the first country to recognize the United States in 1776.
2. Ross Perot (resign, reigned, resigning) from the General Motor board of directors because of its decision to purchase Hughes Aircraft Company.
3. John Wilkes Booth (shotted, shot, shooted) Lincoln in a theater and was found in a warehouse.
4. Theodore Roosevelt (won, wined, wonned) the Nobel Prize for his arbitration of treaty discussion at the end of the Russo-Japanese War
5. The Dominican Republic was called Santo Domingo when it first (gained, gain) independence.
6. The national anthem of the Netherlands is the oldest national anthem in the world: The music (appear, appeared) in 1572, the lyrics in 1590.
7. James Garfield could (wrote, write) Latin with one hand and Greek with the other – simultaneously.
8. Before Bill Clinton, no left-handed American president had ever (serve, served) two terms.
9. Only three Presidents (have graduated, graduate) from the military academics: Grant and Eisenhower from West Point, and Carter from Annapolis.
10. The U.S. Constitution stipulates that, to be eligible for the Presidency, a candidate must be a natural-born citizen, mush (have lived, live) in the United States for a minimum of 14 years, and must be at least 35 years old.
11. Franklin D. Roosevelt was the first U.S. president to have a presidential aircraft, but he only (flewed, flew) on the

airplane once, to travel to the Yalta conference during World War II.

12. Of all U.S. presidents, none (live, lived) to be older than John Adams, who died at the age of 91.

13. John Quincy Adams (taked, took) his least skinny-dip in the Potomac on his seventy-ninth birthday.

14. All U.S. presidents (have worn, weared, have weared) glasses, but some of these men didn't like to be seen wearing eyeglasses in public.

15. When Harry Truman left office in 1952, he (get, got) in his own car and (drived, drove) himself back to Missouri.

B. ***Complete the information about Barford Hall. Put in the correct form of these verbs.***

Build (past simple) ✓	Not look (past perfect)
Own (present simple)	Do (present perfect)
Use (past continuous)	Use (present simple)
Buy (past simple)	

The building at the end of the High Street is Barford Hall, which **was built** in 1827. Today the Hall (1) _____ by Bardale Council. It (2) _____ as a warehouse when it (3) _____ by the Council in 1952, and it (4) _____ after very well. Since then a lot of work (5) _____ on it, and these days the Hall (6) _____ as an arts centre.

C. ***Active or passive verb? Choose the correct verb forms in this news report about a storm***

Millions of pounds' worth of damage ~~has caused~~/*has been caused* by a storm which (1) swept/was swept across the north of England last night. The River Ribble (2) burst/was burst its banks

after heavy rain. Many people (3) <u>rescued/were rescued</u> from the floods by fire-fighters, who (4) <u>received/were received</u> hundreds of calls for help. Wind speeds (5) <u>reached/were reached</u> ninety miles an hour in some places. Roads (6) <u>blocked/were blocked</u> by fallen trees, and electricity lines (7) <u>brought/were brought</u> down, leaving thousands of homes without electricity. "Everything possible (8) <u>is doing/is being done</u> to get things back to normal", a spokesman (9) <u>said/was said</u>.

CHAPTER 3
Using Pronouns Correctly

In this chapter, the students will learn:
- ✓ *Pronouns Cases*
- ✓ *The Other Rules for Using Pronouns*
- ✓ *Using Correct Pronoun Reference*
- ✓ *The Generic Masculine Pronoun*
- ✓ *Who, Which, That*

Pronouns Cases

Pronouns can change form depending on how they are used in a sentence. In English, pronouns have three cases: *nominative, objective*, and *possessive*.

1. In the *nominative case*, the pronoun is used as a subject.
    (*I* threw the ball.)
2. In the *objective case*, the pronoun is used as an object.
    (Give the ball to *me*.)
3. In the *possessive case*, the pronoun is used to show ownership.
    (The ball is *mine*.)

The following chart shows the three cases of personal pronouns:

Nominative	Objective	Possessive
(Pronoun as subject)	(Pronoun as object)	(Ownership)
I	me	my, mine
you	you	your, yours
he	him	his
she	Her	her, hers
it	it	its
we	us	our, ours
they	them	their, theirs
who	whom	whose
whoever	whomever	Whoever

Using the Nominative Case

1. To show the subject of a verb
    Father and (I, me) like to shop at flea markets.
    Answer: *I* is the subject of the sentence. Therefore, the pronoun is in the nominative case:
    Father and <u>I</u> like to shop at flea market
    (who, whom) do you believe is the better shopper?

Answer: *Who* is the subject of the verb *is*. Therefore, the sentence would read:

<u>Who</u> do you believe is the better shopper?

*Ignore interrupting expressions such as *do you believe, you think, do you suppose* (and so on). They do not affect pronoun case.

2. For a predicate nominative

    A predicate nominative is a noun or pronoun that follows a linking verb and identifies or renames the subject. Remember that *a linking verb* connects a subject to a word that renames it. *Linking verbs* indicate a state of being (*am, is, are*, etc.), relate to the senses (*look, smell, taste,* etc.), or indicate a condition (appear, seem, become, etc.).

    The salesman of the month was (I, me).

    Answer: Use *I,* since the pronoun renames the subject, the salesman of the month.

    The salesman of the month was <u>I</u>.

Using the Objective Case

1. To show a direct object

    A *direct object* is a noun or pronoun that receives the action.

    John's suit no longer fits (he, him).
    Answer: **John's suit no longer fits <u>him</u>.**

    (who, whom) did she finally invite to the dinner party?
    Answer: *She* is the subject, the person doing the action. Therefore, the sentence should read:
    <u>whom</u> did she finally invite to the dinner party?

    Of course, she can invite (whoever, whomever) she wants.
    Answer: **Of course, she can invite whomever she wants.**

2. To show an indirect object
    An *indirect object* tells to or for whom something is done. You can tell a *word* is an indirect object if you can insert to or for before it without changing the meaning. For example: ***"The book gave (to) my boss and (to) me some new strategies."***

    The bill gave (we, us) a shock.
    Answer: ***The bill gave <u>us</u> a shock.***

3. For the object of a preposition
    Remember that a preposition is a small word that links a noun or a pronoun following it another word in the sentence.

    Sit by (I, me).
    Answer: The pronoun is the object of the preposition me, so the sentence reads:
    Sit by <u>me</u>.

Using the Possessive Case

1. To show ownership
    The child refused to admit that the sweater was (he's, hers).
    Answer: *Hers* is the correct spelling of the possessive case, which is needed here to express ownership (belonging to her). Therefore, the sentence should read:
    "The child refused to admit that the sweater was <u>hers</u>."

2. Use before gerunds
    A gerund is a form of a verb that acts as a noun. Gerund always end in *–ing*, and they always function as nouns.
    (you, your) walking in the rain didn't cause your cold.

Answer: The gerund walking requires the possessive pronoun your. Therefore, the sentence should read: "**_Your walking in the rain didn't cause your cold._**

3. To show ownership
    This cell phone is <u>mine</u>, not <u>yours</u>.

The Other Rules for Using Pronouns

Here are three more rules that apply to pronouns and case.

1. A pronoun used in apposition with a noun is in the same case as the noun.
    An *appositive phrase* is a noun or pronoun that adds information and details. Appositives can often be removed from the sentence, so they are set off with commas. The appositive in the following sentence is underlined.

    The police officers, Alice and (she, her), were commended for bravery.
    Answer: The pronoun must be in the nominative case (*she*) because it is in apposition with the noun *police officers*, which is in the nominative case. Therefore, the sentence should read: Two police officers, <u>Alice and she</u>, were commended for bravery.

    Exception: **_A pronoun used as the subject of an infinitive is in the objective case_**. For example: **_"Juan expects Luz and (I, me) to host the reception,"_**
    The correct pronoun here is *me*, since it is the subject of the infinitive *to host*.

2. Use-self forms correctly with reflective and intensive situation.
    Reflexive pronouns reflect back to the subject or object.
    The child embarrassed <u>himself</u>.

    Don't use reflexive pronouns in place of subjects and objects.
    The boss and (myself, I) had a meeting.
    Answer: Use the pronoun I, not the reflexive form. Therefore, the sentence reads: **The boss and <u>I</u> had a meeting.**

3. *Who* is the nominative case; *whom* is the objective case.
    No one will argue that *who* and *whom* are the most troublesome pronouns in English. Even though *who* and *whom* were discussed earlier in this chapter, these little words cause such distress that they deserve their own subsection. Let's star by looking back at our pronoun-use chart.

	Nominative	**Objective**	**Possessive**
	(Subject case)	(Object case)	(Ownership)
Singular	who	whom	whose
	whoever	whomever	whosever
Plural	who	whom	whose
	whoever	whomever	whosever

Now, some guidelines are:

*   Use *who* or *whoever* when the pronoun is the subject of a verb.
    <u>Who</u> won the Nobel Prize this year?
*   Use *who* or *whoever* when the pronoun is the predicate nominative.
    The winner was <u>who</u>?

- Use *whom* or *whomever* when the pronoun is the direct object of a verb or the object of a preposition.
  <u>Whom</u> did he fire this week?

Using Correct Pronouns Reference

The meaning of a pronoun comes from its antecedent, the noun or pronoun to which it refers. Your speech and writing will be confusing if your pronoun reference is unclear.

Carelessly place pronouns can create unintentionally funny sentence as well as confusing ones. Consider the following sentences:

Yesterday, a wart appeared on my left thumb, and I want <u>it</u> removed.
("it" refers to "the wart" or "the thumb?")

Guilt and unkindness can be emotionally destructive to you and your friends. You must get rid of <u>them.</u>
("them" refers to "you" or "your friends?")

To prevent pronoun confusion, there are three ways to be considered.
1. A pronoun must clearly refer to a single antecedent.
2. Place pronouns close to their antecedents.
3. Make a pronoun refer to a definite antecedent.

Here are three more guidelines in using pronouns correctly.
1. A pronoun must clearly refer to a single antecedent. A common writing and speech problems occur when the same pronoun refers to more than one antecedent.
   Once again, a pronoun replaces a noun. Use the noun first before use the pronoun to make the writing and speech

clear. Clarify the sentence by replacing the unclear pronouns with nouns. That way, all the remaining pronouns will clearly refer to a single antecedent. Consider the following sentence:

- ***Guilt and unkindness can be emotionally destructive to you and your friends. You must get rid of <u>them.</u>***

Two ways we could rewrite this sentence:

- ***<u>Guilt and unkindness</u> can be emotionally destructive to you and your friends. You must get rid of <u>these issues.</u>***
- ***<u>Guilt and unkindness</u> can be emotionally destructive to you and your friends. You must get rid of <u>these destructive emotions.</u>***

2. Place pronouns close to their antecedents. If too many phrases come between a pronoun and its antecedent, the sentence can be difficult to read and understand. This can happen even if the intervening material is logically related to the rest of the sentence. See the examples below:

- ***After meeting a few guests, <u>the President</u> entered the reception. At that point, Senator Chin and the other elected officials began to pose for pictures. Even so, <u>he</u> did not join them.***

    In this sentence *he* is too far away from its antecedent, the President. One solution is to replace *he* with *the President*.

- ***After meeting a few guests, <u>the President</u> entered the reception. At that point, Senator Chin and the other elected officials began to pose for pictures. Even so, <u>the President</u> did not join them.***

The other solution is to rewrite the sentence to move the pronoun closes.

- ***After meeting a few guests, <u>the President</u> entered the reception. <u>He</u> did not join Senator Chin and the other elected officials even though they began to pose for pictures.***

3. Make a pronoun refer to a definite antecedent. Be sure all pronouns refer to only one antecedent. The pronouns it, this, that, and which are especially prone to unclear pronoun reference. See the following example:
   I told my friends that I was going to be a rock star, which annoyed my mother.

   The following sentence form is better because it is less ambiguous:
   My mother was annoyed because I told my friends that I was going to be a roc star.

The Generic Masculine Pronoun

Pronouns have number, person, and gender.

Definition	Example
Number shows amount (singular or plural)	Aisha has changed *her* plans. Aisha and Tom have changed *their* plans.
Person indicates whether the pronoun refers to the first person (*I*: the person speaking), second person (*you*: the person speaking to), or third person (*she*: person, place, or thing spoken about)	*I* like to read mysteries. *You* can get them in the library. *Jill* is studying math, which she needs.
Gender may be masculine, feminine, or neuter.	*He* is a butcher; *she* is a baker. *It* is a beautiful flower.

You can use both the masculine and feminine pronouns or recast the sentence to make the pronoun plural:

> ***A student should turn in <u>his </u>or <u>her</u> assignments on time.***
> ***Students should turn in <u>their</u> assignments on time.***

Which choice is best? Consider rewriting these sentences to make the pronoun plural because this results in smoother sentences.

Who, Which, That

Here are special rules to the use of the relative pronouns *who, which,* and *that*.

1. *Who* refers to people or animals (only animals with names, like pussy).
    > ***She is not the teacher <u>who </u>is arrogant to students.***
2. *That* and *which* refer to things, groups, and unnamed animals.

The choice between which and that depends on whether the clause introduced by the pronoun is <u>restrictive </u>or <u>nonrestrictive.</u>

*   A restrictive clause is essential to the sentence.
*   A nonrestrictive clause adds extra meaning, is set off by commas, and can be removed from the sentence.

Use *that* for restrictive clauses and *which* with nonrestrictive clauses.

*   ***Once, at a social gathering, George said to Dina, "I predict, sir, <u>that</u> you will die either by hanging or by some vile disease."*** (Restrictive clause)

- ***Dina replied, "<u>That</u> all depends, sir, upon whether I embrace your principles or your mistress."*** (Restrictive clause)
- ***Postage meters, <u>which</u> are easy to use, are available at the book store.*** (Nonrestrictive clause)

Chapter 3 Quiz

Completion Questions
Select the word that best completes each sentence.

1. Afkar and (I, me) have decided to move to Jakarta.
2. The new students are (they, them).
3. The problem is unquestionably (she, her)
4. Human beings, (who, whom) are the most fascinating species on earth, are also the most admirable.
5. Those (whom, who) are early to bed and early to bed and early to rise are healthy, wealthy, and very tired.
6. The best dressed employee has always been (him, he).
7. The winning contestants are Jessica and (they, them).
8. The concept (which, that) intrigued (we, us) had not yet been publicized.
9. My car (who, which) was brand new, had relatively little damage.
10. The car (which, that) hit me was speeding.
11. From (who, whom) did you buy that beautiful purse?
12. The thunderstorm frightened my cat and (I, me).
13. Please sit next to Rita and (me, I).
14. Brian gave (he, him) a lot of beneficial advice.
15. With (who, whom) have you given the gift?

CHAPTER 4

Using Adjectives and Adverbs Correctly

In this chapter, the students will learn:
- ✓ *Is this an Adjective or an Adverb?*
- ✓ *Positive, Comparative, and Superlative Degrees of Comparisons*
- ✓ *Using Predicate Adjectives after Linking Verbs*
- ✓ *Double Negatives*

Is this Word an Adjective or an Adverb?

Both adjectives and adverbs describe other words.

1. **Adjectives** describe nouns and pronouns, adding color, and clarity to sentences.
   a. When an adjective placed in front of the noun, it aims to describe the noun.
      A <u>playful</u> cat won the competition.
   b. When two adjectives describe a noun, they are usually separated by a comma.
      A <u>playful</u>, <u>brown</u> cat won the competition.
   c. Adjectives may also come after the noun.
      A cat, <u>playful and brown</u>, won the competition.
   d. Adjectives can appear in a third place, which is after a linking verb.
      The cat is <u>playful</u>.

2. **Adverbs** describe another word including verb, adjective, or other adverbs. Many adverbs are formed by adding *–ly* to an adjective (beautiful → beautifully; slow → slowly), but a number of common adverbs do not follow this pattern.
   Adverbs usually follow the verbs they describe.
   - *I <u>simply</u> want to dress for the occasion.*
   - *Many students studied <u>hard</u> all week.*

   Some words can be either adjectives or adverbs, depending on how they are used in a sentence. Therefore, the only reliable way to tell the difference between adjectives and adverbs is to analyze their function in a sentence. See the following chart to know the differences.

Modifier	Function	Example
Adjective	Describe noun	***I went to a <u>cozy</u> <u>cafe</u> last night.*** adj. noun
Adjective	Describe pronoun	***<u>They</u> were <u>suffering</u> with the COVID-19 for seven days.*** Pronoun adj.
Adverb	Describe verb	***Aisha <u>awoke</u> <u>early</u> in the morning.*** verb adv
Adverb	Describe adverb	***Aisha awoke <u>very</u> <u>early</u> in the morning.*** adv. adv.
Adverb	Describe adjective	***The sunrise was <u>really</u> <u>beautiful.</u>*** adv. adj.

Positive, Comparative, and Superlative Degree of Comparisons

Adjectives and adverbs can also be used to compare things in each different form. There are three degrees of comparison which are summarized in the following list.

1. *Positive*: The base form of the adjective or adverb *not* being used in a comparison.
2. *Comparative*: The form of the adjective or adverb being used to compare *two* things.
3. *Superlative:* The form of the adjective or adverb being used to compare *three* or *more* things.

See the chart below:

Degree of Comparison	Number of Things Compared	Example
Positive degree	None	***Sabrina is <u>clever.</u>***
Comparative degree	Two	***Nadia is <u>cleverer than</u> Sabrina.***
Superlative degree	Three of more	***Reni is <u>the richest</u> of all.***

Consider the following guidelines:

1. Use –er/-est with one and two syllable adjectives or adverbs.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
rich	richer	richest
high	higher	highest
large	larger	largest
low	lower	lowest
poor	poorer	poorer

2. Use more/most and less/least with three or more syllables adjective or adverb.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
attractive	more attractive	most attractive
popular	more popular	most popular
uncommon	more uncommon	most uncommon
adorable	more adorable	most adorable
unusual	more unusual	most unusual
delightful	more delightful	most delightful

3. Never use both –er and *more*, or –est and *most,* with the same modifier.
   Never use double comparisons. For example, never say "~~the most~~ furth~~est~~." Instead, say "furthest." Never say the "~~least happiest~~." Instead, say "least happy."

4. All adverbs that end in –*ly* form their comparative and superlative degrees with *more* and *most.*

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
easily	more easily	most easily
gently	more gently	most gently
calmly	more calmly	most calmly
smoothly	more smoothly	most smoothly
gracefully	more gracefully	most gracefully

5. Some adjectives and adverbs have irregular forms. See the chart below:

Irregular Adjectives and Adverbs

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
bad	worse	worst
badly	worse	worst
far (distance)	further	furthest
good	better	best
ill	worse	Worst
late	later	later or latest
little (amount)	less	least
many	more	most
much	more	most
some	more	most
well	better	best

Good and *well* are tricky sometimes. Follow these guidelines:

- Good is always an adjective.
  You should read this story. It has a good plot.
                          adj. noun

- Well is an adjective used to describe good health.
  You sound well – for someone who has laryngitis.
          verb   adj.

- Well is an adverb when used to describe anything but health.
  Chef Juna cooks well.
          verb adv.

Comparing with Adjectives and Adverbs

Use these following guidelines when forming the correct comparison using adjectives and adverbs.

1. Use *other* and *else* correctly in comparisons.
   When comparing one item in a group with the rest of the group, be sure to include the word *other* or *else* for comparison makes sense.
   - <u>Confusing comparison</u>
     The sinkhole in our backyard is deeper than any in the neighborhood.
   - <u>Logical comparison</u>
     The sinkhole in our backyard is deeper than any <u>other</u> in the neighborhood.

2. *Create* complete comparisons.
   Sentences that finish a comparison make sense. Comparisons that are incomplete or that compare illogical items become muddled. This confuses readers and obscures your point.
   - <u>Confusing comparison</u>
     My dress is more stylish than Novi.
   - <u>Logical comparison</u>
     My dress is more stylish than Novi's dress.

Using Predicate Adjectives after Linking Verbs

A predicate adjective is an adjective that follows a linking verb and describes the subjects of a sentence. Remember that linking verbs describe a state of being or a condition. They include all forms of *to be* (such as *am, is, are, were, was*) and verbs related to senses *(look, smell, sound, feel).* Linking verbs connect the subject of a sentence to a word that renames or describes it.

~~Incorrect~~ : **This <u>bubble tea</u> <u>tastes</u> <u>~~deliciously~~</u>.**

	noun	link	adv.
		verb	

Correct : ***This <u>bubble tea</u> <u>tastes</u> <u>delicious</u>.***
                      noun   link   adj.
                                  verb

*Use an adjective rather than an adverb after a linking verb. Therefore, use *delicious* rather than *deliciously* after the linking verb *tastes*.

Double Negatives

Using two negative words in the same clause (group of words) creates *a double negative. A double negative* is an incorrect usage and should be avoided. To avoid this grammatical error, use only one negative word to express a negative idea.

- Double negative : ***The traveler did <u>not </u>have <u>no</u> energy after the long flight.***
- Correct   : ***The traveler did <u>not </u>have <u>any</u> energy after the long flight***.

                              or

                        The traveler had <u>no</u> energy left after the long flight.

Writers and speakers may add another negative when the word *"not"* is used in a contraction – such as; *isn't, doesn't, wouldn't, couldn't, don't* – the negative tends to slip by.

- Double negative : ***Sania <u>didn't</u> bring <u>anything</u> with her on vacation.***
- Correct   : ***Sania <u>didn't</u> bring <u>anything</u> with her on vacation.***

                              or

                        Sania brought hardly <u>anything</u> with her on vacation.

However, to create understatement, you can use a word with a negative prefix and another negative word. The two most common negative prefixes are *un-* and *-in*.

- ***Nowadays, it is <u>not</u> <u>un</u>common to take six years to complete a four-year college degree.***

The following words are negatives:

Negative Words		
never	no	nobody
none	not	nothing
nowhere	n't	hardly
barely	scarcely	

Chapter 4 Quiz

A. ***Decide if each underlined word is an adjective or an adverb.***

1. That new building is rather <u>ugly</u>.
   (adjective/adverb)
2. I'd like to arrive <u>early</u> if I can.
   (adjective/adverb)
3. I haven't seen you for a <u>long</u> time.
   (adjective/adverb)
4. Why are you wearing that <u>silly</u> hat?
   (adjective/adverb)
5. Very young children travel <u>free</u>.
   (adjective/adverb)
6. The temperature is quite <u>high</u> today.
   (adjective/adverb)
7. We <u>nearly</u> missed the bus this morning.
   (adjective/adverb)
8. Do you have to play that music so <u>loud</u>?
   (adjective/adverb)
9. I'm very <u>confused</u> about what to do.
   (adjective/adverb)
10. The young girl was <u>polite</u>.
    (adjective/adverb)

B. ***Correct the awkward forms by rewriting each of the following sentences.***

1. My car is valuable than hers.

   _____

2. This is the efficientest furnace we've ever owned.

   _____

3. Of all the grapes in the bunch, this is the worse.

   _____

4. On the other hand, the green grapes are the goodest.

   _____

5. Once I learned the first piece, my piano teacher gave me a difficulter piece to practice.

   _____

6. This is the enormousest house in the neighborhood.

   _____

7. In my family, I have the legiblist handwriting.

   _____

8. To win, you'll have to be tenaciouser.

   _____

9. Teddy is sympatheticer than Julie.

   _____

10. That dress is the beautifulest in my closet.

    _____

C. ***Select the word that best completes each sentence.***
1. China has (most, more) English speakers than the United States.
2. The (longer, longest) town name in the world has 167 letters.
3. I've learned that you shouldn't compare yourself to the (better, best) others can do.
4. I've learned that two people can look at the exact same thing and see something (total, totally) different.
5. If everything seems to be going (good, well), you have obviously overlooked something.
6. The grass is always (more greener, greener) when you leave the sprinkler on.
7. Your right lung takes in (more, most) air than your left lung does.
8. Women's hearts beat (fast, faster, fastest) than men's hearts.

9. Talk (slow, slowly) but think (quick, quickly).
10. Good advice: Love (deep, deeply) and (most passionate, passionately). You might get hurt, but it's the only way to live life completely.

CHAPTER 5
Agreement: Matching Sentence Parts

In this chapter, the students will learn:
- ✓ *Space in an Acrostic Poem*
- ✓ *Agreement between Subject and Verb*
- ✓ *Special Problems in Agreement*
- ✓ *Collective Nouns and Indefinite Pronouns*
- ✓ *Agreement of Pronouns and Antecedents*

Space in an Acrostic Poem

Space is a
Place that is
Amazing. Space
Contains planets and stars and is
Enormous and beautiful.

The above poem is an acrostic poem which is a sentence does not need to begin and end in the same line. A poet may make a sentence run across lines so that he or she can begin each line with the letter needed to complete the acrostic poem.

As we see in the acrostic poem, there is a matching of sentence elements which called <u>*agreement*</u> in order to help the poem or the writer creates smooth and logical sentences.

<u>*Agreement*</u> has the basic rule: *A subject must agree with its verb either in singular noun or plural nouns.*

- *A singular* subject names one person, place, thing, or idea.
- *A plural subject* names *more than* one person, place, thing, or idea.

See the examples below:

	Singular Subjects	**Plural Subjects**
Person	she	we
Place	station	stations
Thing	chair	chairs
Idea	freedom	freedoms

1. *Singular and plural nouns*
   In English, the singular form can be formed to the plurals nouns.
   For example:
   ➢ pencil ➔ pencils (adding *–s* or *–es* for *regular plural*)

> mouse → mice, woman → women, etc. (no adding *–s* or *–es* for *irregular plural*)

2. *Singular and plural pronouns*
   Pronouns have singular and plural forms, too. See the following chart.

Singular	Plural	Singular or Plural
I	we, they	you
she, he		
it		

3. *Singular and plural verbs*
   Verbs also have singular and plural forms. Here are some examples:

First and Second Person	Singular Third Person	Plural First, Second, Third Person
(I, you) **start**	(he, she, it) **starts**	(we, you, they) **start**
(I, you) **do**	(he, she, it) **does**	(we, you, they) **do**

4. *Singular and plural forms of <u>be</u>* (as a helping verb)
   The following chart shows the forms of <u>be</u> which are different in singular and plural.

First and Second Person	Singular Third Person
(I) am	(we) are
(he, she, it) is	(they) are
(I, he, she, it) was	(we, they) were
(he, she, it) has been	(they) have been

Agreement between Subject and Verb

Remember that *agreement* has the basic rule in the beginning of this chapter: *A subject must agree with its verb either in singular noun or plural nouns* which can be seen below:

1. *A singular subject must have a singular verb*.

   See the following rules:

   - *A singular subject must have a singular verb*.

     ➢ <u>I</u>   <u>am</u> **seeing twinkling stars.**
     singular subject   singular verb

     ➢ <u>Susan</u>   <u>prefers</u> **reading a book to going swimming.**
     sing. subject   sing. verb

     ➢ <u>Procrastination</u>   <u>is</u> **the art of keeping up with yesterday.**
     sing. subject   sing. verb

   - *Two or more singular subjects joined by <u>or</u> or <u>nor</u> must have a singular verb.*

     ➢ **Either <u>Emi</u>   or <u>Asti</u> has to go to the lecturer's room.**
     sing. subject   or sing. subject

     ➢ **Neither <u>students</u> nor <u>a teacher</u> is in the room.**
     sing. subject nor sing. subject

   - *Subject that are singular in meaning but plural in form require a singular verb (for example; mathematics, news, civics, etc).*

     ➢ **The <u>news</u>   <u>is</u> about the education life in Indonesia.**
     sing. subject   sing. Verb

   - *Plural subjects that function as a single unit take a singular verb.*

     ➢ <u>Meatballs and pizza</u> <u>is</u> **my favorite dish.**
     sing. subject   sing. verb

- *Titles are always singular* (no matter how long the title is, what it names, or whether or not it sounds plural)*.*
  - ➢ *"The sun also rises" was written by Ernest Hemingway.*
    sing. subject   sing. Verb

2. *A plural subject must have a plural verb.*
   Here are the following rules:
   - *A plural subject must have a plural verb.*
     - ➢ **Indonesia's largest ethnic groups are the Javanese;**
       plural subject   plural verb
       the Sundanese; and the Malays.

   - *Two or more plural subject joined by <u>or</u> or <u>nor</u> must have a plural verb.*
     - ➢ **Either <u>the students</u> or <u>the teachers</u> <u>are</u> having a farewell party.**
       Plural subj.   plural subj. Plural verb

     - ➢ **Neither <u>my colleagues</u> nor <u>my students</u>   <u>are</u> leaving**
       plural subject   plural subject   plural verb
       the meeting soon.

   - *A compound subject joined by <u>and </u>is plural and must have a plural verb.*
     - ➢ **<u>Ice cream</u> and <u>pudding</u>   <u>are</u> a delicious dessert.**
       sing. subject   sing. subject   plural verb

   - *If two or more singular and plural subjects are joined by <u>or</u> or <u>nor</u>, the subject closest to the verb determines agreement.*
     - ➢ **The <u>twins</u> or <u>their mother</u>   <u>is</u> coming on the trip to Singapore.**
       plural subject sing. subject   sing. subject

Special Problems in Agreement

Sometimes it is hard to recognize the two most problems in agreement which are identifying subjects and intervening phrases. Here are the following explanations:

1. *Identifying hard-to-find subjects*
   Some subjects that come before the verb are commonly tricky. However, a subject must still agree in number with its verb which can be seen in the examples:

   ➢ **In the back of the stage <u>are</u> many   <u>actors and actresses</u>.**
                                  plural verb   plural subject

   ➢ **There <u>were</u> still a lot of <u>applicants</u> in the waiting room, too.**
        plural verb   *plural subject*

2. *Ignoring intervening phrases*
   Disregard words or phrases that come between the subject and the verb. A phrase or clause that comes between a subject and its verb does not affect subject-verb agreement.

   ➢ **The <u>officers</u>   <u>in the digital start-ups</u> <u>are</u> competing**
     plural subject   prep. phrase   *plural verb*
   to make applications.

   ➢ **A shop <u>keeper</u>   <u>in the bakery shop near the school</u>**
                 singular subject   prep. phrase
   <u>is</u> my aunt's neighbor.
   singular verb

Collective Nouns and Indefinite Pronouns

Collective nouns are a group of people or things, such as class, committee, audience, team, club, etc. Collective nouns can be singular or plural, depending on how they are used in a sentence. See the following guidelines:

- *A collective noun used when considered as one unit so, it takes a singular verb.*
  - ➢ **The English <u>club</u> in my school <u>has</u> practiced for drama competition.**
        singular subject   singular verb

- *A collective noun used when considered as the individuals or members of the group so, it takes a plural verb.*
  - ➢ **The English <u>club</u> in my school <u>have</u> practiced for drama competition.**
        plural subject   plural verb

- *Indefinite pronouns can be either singular or plural, so they need to have a matched verb.*
  Consider the following chart showing singular and plural indefinite pronouns.

Singular	Plural	Singular or Plural
another	both	all
anybody	few	any
anyone	many	more
anything	others	most
each	several	none
either		Some
everyone		
everybody		
everything		
little		
many a		
much		
neither		
nobody		
no one		
nothing		
one		
other		
somebody		
someone		
something		

See the examples below:

➢ **<u>One</u> of the boys <u>is</u> missing.**
  sing. subject   sing. verb

➢ **<u>Both</u> of the boys <u>are</u> missing.**
  plural subject   plural subject

➢ **<u>All of the boys</u> <u>are</u> missing.**
  plural subject   plural subject

Agreement of Pronouns and Antecedents

Pronouns and antecedents (the words to which they refer) should be matched like subjects and verbs. Here are the following rules in order to pronouns and antecedents agree.

1. *A pronoun matches with its antecedent in person, gender, and number.*
   ~~Error~~   : **<u>Aisha</u> will take her vitamin, which <u>~~you~~</u> need to stay healthy.**
   Correct : **<u>Aisha</u> will take her vitamin, which <u>she</u> needs to stay healthy.**

2. A singular *indefinite* pronoun matches with a singular personal pronoun.
   If <u>anyone</u> asks Elisa, refer <u>her</u> to my daddy.

3. *When the antecedents are joined by <u>and</u>, use a plural pronoun.*
   The <u>dog</u> and <u>cat</u> maintain <u>their</u> friendship
     sing. subj. sing. subj.   plural pronoun
   by staying out of each other's way.

4. *Antecedents joined by or, nor, or collective conjunctions such s either … or, neither .. nor agree with the antecedent closer to the pronoun.*

   ➢ **Neither my sister nor <u>my brothers</u> <u>sleep</u> in <u>their</u> bed.**

   ➢ **Neither my brothers nor <u>my sister</u> <u>sleeps</u> in <u>her</u> bed.**

5. *Be sure that the pronoun refers directly to the noun. Confusion occurs when the pronoun can refer to more than one antecedent. If you end up with a confusing sentence, just rewrite the sentence.*

   ➢ ~~Confusing~~ : **Norman saw a coupon in last year's newspaper, but he can't find it.**
   (what is it that Norman can't find: *the coupon* or *the newspaper*?)

   ➢ Correct : **Norman can't find the coupon he saw in last year's *newspaper*.**

Chapter 5 Quiz

Select the word that best completes each sentence.

1. The pop you get when you crack your knuckles (are, is) actually a bubble of gas bursting.
2. Polar bears (is, are) left-handed.
3. The name of all the continents (ends, end) with the same letter that they start with.
4. No president of the United States (were, was) an only child.
5. Everyone (are, is) entitled to my opinion.
6. Here is some good advice: Don't sneeze when someone (is, are) cutting your hair.
7. If a man (are, is) wearing a striped suit, it's against the law to throw a knife at him in Natoma, Kansas.
8. Unless you have a doctor's note, it (are, is) illegal to buy ice cream after 6 P.M. in Newmark, New Jersey.
9. I (drives, drive) way too fast to worry about cholesterol.
10. If Barbie (are, is) so popular, why do you have to (buys, buy) her friends?
11. Many people (quits, quit) looking for work when they find a job.
12. The squeaking wheel (get, gets) annoying.
13. A journey of a thousand miles (begin, begins) with a blister.
14. Donald Duck comics (was, were) banned from Finland because he doesn't wear pants.
15. No word in the English language (rhymes, rhyme) with month.

PART THREE:
THE SENSE OF SENTENCE

CHAPTER 6

Things behind Phrases and Clauses

In this chapter, the students will learn:
- ✓ *Prepositional Phrases*
- ✓ *Appositives Phrases*
- ✓ *Verbal Phrases*
- ✓ *Overview of Clauses*

Prepositional Phrases

A prepositional phrase is a group of words that begins with a preposition and ends with a noun or a pronoun (the object of the preposition).

near the office	***below sea level***	***of the lesson***
with support	***in the garage***	

There are two various prepositional phrases, they are; adjectival phrases and adverbial phrases.

1. An *adjectival phrase* is when a prepositional phrase serves as an adjective which aims to describe a noun or a pronoun. To find out if a prepositional phrase is functioning as an adjectival phrase, see if it answers one of these questions: "*Which one?*" or "*What kind?*"

   ➢ **The cost <u>of the T-shirt</u> was surprisingly affordable.**
      (The adjectival phrase "*of the T-shirt*" describes the noun "*cost*")

2. An adverbial phrase is when a prepositional phrase serves as an *adverb* which aims to describe a verb, an adjective, or adverb. To find out if a prepositional phrase is functioning as an adverbial phrase, see if it answers one of these questions: "*Where?*", "*When?*", "*In what manner?*", "*To what extent?*"

   ➢ **Indonesian soccer players joined a competition <u>at GBK Stadium</u>.**
      (The adjectival phrase "*at GBK Stadium*" modifies the verb "*joined*")

Appositives Phrases

An appositive phrase is a noun or a pronoun with modifiers. *An appositive* is a noun or a pronoun that renames

another noun or pronoun which are often placed directly after the nouns or pronouns they identify.

> ***Anis and Betty, <u>two dear old friends</u>, were attending my wedding party.***
>
> (The appositive phrase "*two dear old friends*" renames the noun "*Anis and Betty*")

Verbal Phrases

A verbal is a verb form belongs to part of speech which has three varieties: *participles, gerunds,* and *infinitives.* See the following function in each type:

1. *Participle phrases*

   A participle is form of a verb that has function as an adjective which is divided into two kinds of participles:

   * *Present participles* end in *–ing* (walking, reading, speaking).

     The <u>walking</u> dog disturbed the little kids.

     (The present participle "walking" describes the noun *dog*)

   * *Past participles* usually end in *–ed, –t,* or *–en* (walked, thought, written).

     <u>Annoyed</u>, my school principal walked out of the office.

     (The past participle "annoyed" describes the noun customer)

   Participle phrases contain a participle modified by an adverb or an adverbial phrase. They function as an adjective. A participle phrase can be placed before or after the word it describes.

Walking tiptoed carefully; my son avoided the spilled milk.
(The present participle "walking tiptoed carefully" describes the noun *my son*)

2. *Gerund phrases*
   A gerund is a form of a verb used as a noun. Gerunds can function as subject, direct objects and indirect objects, objects of a preposition, predicate nominative, and appositives.
   - *Gerunds always end in –ing*
   - *Gerunds always act as nouns.*

   At school, Cathy joins an acting club.
   (The gerund "acting" is a direct object)

   Like a participle, a gerund can be part of a phrase.
   Jennie's night schedule includes taking care of her baby and working a task.
   (The gerund phrase is "taking care of her baby and working a task.")

3. *Infinitive phrases*
   The infinitive is a form of the verb that comes after the word to and acts as a noun, adjective, or adverb. An infinitive phrase contains modifiers that together act as a single part of speech.
   My goal, to get promoted before age 30, didn't seem realistic.
   (The infinitive phrase, "to get promoted before age 30" modifies the noun goal)

Overview of Clauses

A clause is a sentence-like construction contained within sentence with its own subject and verb. Using clauses can enrich our written and oral expression by adding details and making our meaning more exact. Clauses also allow us to combine ideas to show their relationship. This adds logic and cohesion to our speech and writing.

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

1. *An independent clause*

    An independent clause is a complete sentence because it has a subject and verb and expresses a complete thought. Read the examples below:

    ➢ ***That little girl gave me a smile.***
       subject   verb

    ➢ ***My sister likes foreign movies a lot.***
       subject   verb

2. *A dependent (subordinate) clause*

    A dependent clause is part of a sentence, so it cannot stand alone. It is also as a subpart of the main clause and adds information to the main clauses.

    A dependent *clause* often starts with a word that makes the clause unable to stand alone. So, a dependent clause needs *subordinating conjunctions*.

    Subordinating *conjunctions* link an independent clause to a dependent clause. Each subordinating conjunction expresses a relationship between the dependent clause and the independent clause.

See the following chart lists of the commonly used subordinating conjunctions and the relationships they express:

Subordinating Conjunctions	Relationship
while, once, when, since, as whenever, after, before, until, as soon	Time
because, as, as if	Reason
in order that, so, so that, that	Result, effect
though, although, even though, but	Contrast
unless, provided that, if, even if	Condition
rather than, than, whether	Choice
where, wherever	Location

Consider the following examples:

➢ ***When the actor entered the stage, the audience clapped enthusiastically.***
        Dependent clause

➢ ***I won't tell you <u>unless you agree to help because I can't take the risk.</u>***
                           Dependent clause

➢ ***<u>As we approached our destination</u>, we became rather emotional.***
        Dependent clause

Note:

When a dependent clause introduced by a subordinating conjunction comes "before" the independent clause, the clause is usually separated by "a comma".

- *When her mother was present, the old housekeeper welcomed her warmly.*
                (before)

- *The old housekeeper welcomed her warmly when her mother was present.*
                (after)

The subordinate (dependent) clause has three different types, namely: *adverb clauses, adjective clauses*, and *noun clauses.*

a. *Adverb clauses*

This clause describes a verb, adjective, or other adverbs. An adverb clause can be placed in the beginning, middle, or end of a sentence which can answer these questions:

- why   - when   - where
- in what manner   - to what extent   - under what manner?

See the following examples:

➢ **_Wherever Danish goes_, he leaves broken heart behind.**
   (The adverb clause, "wherever Danish goes" is at the beginning of a sentence which modifies the verb "leaves)

➢ **Anita likes the meal more _than Amy does_ because she is a picky eater.**
   (The adverb clause, "than Amy does" is in the middle of a sentence which modifies the adverb "more")

➢ **Harry wanted to change his appearance _because he was wanted for the corruption._**
   (The adverb clause, "because he was wanted for the corruption" is at the end of a sentence which modifies the verb "change")

b. *Adjective clauses*

This clause describes a noun or a pronoun. The common pronouns used in the adjective clause such as *where, when, that, which, who, whom, why, whose*.

So, an adjective clause answers these questions:

- what kind?   - which one?
- how much?   - how many?

Consider the examples below:

➢ **The students <u>who made the presentation</u> did a great job.**
(The adjective clause "*who made the presentation*" describes the noun students)

➢ **Nay usually wears clothes <u>that look flattering on her</u>.**
(The adjective clause "*that look flattering on her*" describes the noun *"clothes"*)

c. *Relative clause*
This clause begins with one of the relative pronouns, namely: *who, whom, whose, which, that.* Relative pronouns connect an adjective clause to the word the clause describes.

➢ **Sarah, <u>whom you met yesterday</u>, works in advertising.**
(The relative clause "*whom you met yesterday"* describes the noun "Sarah")

➢ **Liza, <u>who served us</u>, is a friend of Emma's.**
(The relative clause "*who served us*" describes the noun "Liza")

d. Noun clause
This clause functions as a noun.

➢ **Tina does <u>whatever her parents ask her to do</u>.**
(*The* noun clause is "*whatever her parents ask her to do"*)

➢ **The teacher did not accept my excuse <u>that my paper was missing</u>.**
(The noun clause is "that my paper was missing*")*

Chapter 6 Quiz

Identify the kind of clause used in the following sentences.

1. The jury believed that the man was guilty.
    (Adjective Clause, Noun Clouse, Adverb Clause)

2. Come when you like.
    (Adjective Clause, Noun Clouse, Adverb Clause)

3. I know the girl who won the prize.
    (Adjective Clause, Noun Clouse, Adverb Clause)

4. He confessed that he was guilty.
    (Adjective Clause, Noun Clouse, Adverb Clause)

5. I know you have great regard for him.
    (Adjective Clause, Noun Clouse, Adverb Clause)

6. Do you think that I am a fool?
    (Adjective Clause, Noun Clouse, Adverb Clause)

7. Before I die I want to see Venice.
    (Adjective Clause, Noun Clouse, Adverb Clause)

8. The hand that rocks the cradle rules the world.
    (Adjective Clause, Noun Clouse, Adverb Clause)
9. I know a boy whose father serves in the army.
    (Adjective Clause, Noun Clouse, Adverb Clause)

10. I will not go until he arrives.
    (Adjective Clause, Noun Clouse, Adverb Clause)

11. The coffee maker that I bought for my wife is expensive.
    (Adjective Clause, Noun Clouse, Adverb Clause)

12. If you give respect, you get respect.
    (Adjective Clause, Noun Clouse, Adverb Clause)

13. He could not answer any of the questions that I asked him.
    (Adjective Clause, Noun Clouse, Adverb Clause)

14. My friend helped me when I was in danger.
    (Adjective Clause, Noun Clouse, Adverb Clause)

15. Everybody admits that he is a brave man.
    (Adjective Clause, Noun Clouse, Adverb Clause)

CHAPTER 7

Mastering Writing Correct Sentences

In this chapter, the students will learn:
- ✓ *Overview of a Sentence*
- ✓ *Sentence Functions*
- ✓ *Sentence Types*
- ✓ *Sentence Errors: Sentence Fragments*
- ✓ *Sentence Errors: Run-Ons Sentences and Comma Splices*

Overview of Sentence

Sentence:Stop!

Sentence:You stop!

Sentence:Please stop right now, before you go any further.

Each of these three word groups is a sentence because they each meet the three requirements for a sentence. To be a sentence, a group of words must

- Have a *subject* (noun or pronoun)
- Have a *predicate* (verb or verb phrase)
- Express a *complete thought*

A *sentence* has two parts: a *subject* and a *predicate*. The *subject* includes the noun or pronoun that tells what the subject is about. The *predicate* includes the verb that describes what the subject is doing.

Subject	Predicate
(*You* is understood but unstated)	Stop!
She	has walked on the treadmill for thirty minutes every day for a month.
We	have chosen chocolate ice cream for the last time.
John	took the whole problem on himself.
Jimmy and I	usually solve the problem easily.

Therefore, a sentence is a group of words with two main parts: a subject area and a predicate area. Together, the subject and predicate express a complete thought.

Being able to recognize the subject and the verb in a sentence will help you make sure that your own sentences are

complete and clear. To check that you've included the subject and verb in your sentences, follow these steps:

- To find the subject, ask yourself, "What word is the sentence describing?"
- To find an action verb, ask yourself, "What did the subject do?"
- If you can't find an action verb, look for a linking verb.

Sentence Functions

There are four sentence functions in English which aim to classify sentences by the number of clauses they contain. Consider the following types:

1. *Declarative sentences* state an idea and end with a period.
   o **The new computer saves me so much time.**
   o **Credit cars are a great convenience until we overspend!**
   o **The bottles inside the carton are all broken.**
   o **You should give your phone number to me for emergencies**.

2. *Exclamatory sentences* show strong emotions and end with an exclamation mark.
   o **The detective cried, "This was definitely murder!"**
   o **I will never forget seeing the movie Frozen!**
   o **The company had the nerve to say, "We won't cover that loss!"**

3. *Interrogative sentences* ask a question. They end with a question mark.
   o **Are you coming?**
   o **Did you say that Jack is starting his job at All Things Computer, Inc.?**

- o *"Do you thing the weather is warm enough to plant flowers?" Elsa asked.*
- o *I asked my brother, "When will you ever be on time for our appointments?"*

4. *Imperative sentences* give orders of direction, and so end with a *period* or an exclamation mark. Imperative sentences often omit the subject, as in a command.
   - o *Don't bother me!*
   - o *Raise your hand!*
   - o *Fasten your seatbelts when the sign is illuminated.*
   - o *Clean up the bathtub!*

Sentence Types

There are four basic types of sentences. Let's look at these sentences types below:

1. *Simple sentences*

   A *simple sentence* has one independent clause which means have one subject and one verb-although either or both can be compound. No punctuation, other than a period. In addition, a simple sentence can have adjectives and adverbs. Just because a simple sentence seems "simple" doesn't mean that it isn't powerful. A simple sentence is sometimes to convey powerful emotions.

   ➤ *<u>Music</u> <u>is</u> an important part of my life.*
      subj. verb

   ➤ *<u>Teddy and Amy</u> <u>enjoy</u> the new bike path in their state.*
      subj.   verb

   ➤ *<u>I always</u> <u>eat</u> a healthy breakfast before any activities.*
      subj.   verb

2. *Compound sentences*

A *compound sentence* has two or more independent clauses. The independent clauses can be joined in one of two ways:

- With a coordinating conjunction: *for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so*
- With a semicolon (;)

I took an antibiotic, Indep. clause	*and* conj.	*I went to bed for the entire day.* Indep. clause
No tulips grew that spring, Indep. clause	*for* conj.	*I had forgotten to plant them the previous fall.* Indep. clause
There was no heat in the house, Indep. clause	*nor* conj.	*was there any electric power.* Indep. clause

There are also conjunctive adverbs to make this construction. See the following words:

accordingly	afterall	again	also
besides	consequently	finally	for example
for instance	furthermore	however	indeed
moreover	nevertheless	nonetheless	notwithstanding
on the other hand	otherwise	regardless	still
then	therefore	though	thus

The sentence construction can be look like this:

Grasshoppers eat clean plants; indep. clause	*however,* conj. adv.	*lobsters eat foul materials*. indep. clause
Nico worked hard; indep. clause	*therefore* conj. adv.	*she got a merit raise.* indep. clause

3. *Complex sentences*

A *complex sentence* contains one independent clause (main clause) and at least one dependent clause. The *subordinating conjunctions* are used to link ideas such as: *because, as, as if, unless, provided that, if, even if*. See the examples in the chart.

Although Tom works in California, dep. clause	*Eli still works in Los Angeles.* indep. clause
Because it is sunny today, dep. clause	*we don't have raincoats in the car.* indep. clause

4. *Compound-complex sentences*

A *compound-complex sentence* has at least two independent clauses and at least one dependent clause. The dependent-clause *can* be part of the independent clause.

Though Rachel usually prefers watching tennis on TV, dep. clause	*she watched the World Series,* indep. clause	*and she enjoyed it very much.* indep. clause
I had planned to drive to work on good weather days, indep. clause	*but I couldn't drive on any day,* indep. clause	*because my car was in the repair shop shop for so long.* dep. clause

Selecting Sentence Types

Consider the following Big Three when selecting four different types of sentences:

1. *Purpose*

Always consider the purpose for writing before selecting a sentence type whether to entertain, persuade, tell

a story, or describe. Sometimes when the writer wants to describe, the sentences are often long, while those that persuade may be much shorter.

2. *Audience*

     The choice of sentences also depends on the audience. For example, the more sophisticated the audience, the longer and more complex the sentences can be. Conversely, the less sophisticated the audience, the shorter and simpler the sentence should be.

3. *Subject*

     The choice of sentence types also depends on the subject matter. The more complex the ideas, the simpler the sentences should be. This helps your audience grasp the ideas.

Sentence Errors: Sentence Fragments

     A sentence fragment is a group of words that do not express a complete thought. Fragments can be phrases as well as clauses. Sometimes fragment may have a subject and a verb, or may not have.

1. Fragments can occur in three main ways, as follows:
    a. When a dependent clause masquerades as a sentence.
        Because more and more teenagers are staying up far too late.
    b. When a phrase is cut off from the sentence it describes.
        Trying to prevent the new cotton shirt from shrinking in the dryer.
    c. When there is found the wrong form of a verb.
        The frog <u>gone</u> to the pond by the reservoir.

2. Correcting the fragments can also be in three ways:
    a. Adding the missing part to the sentence.
        ➢ Fragment: **_Because more and more teenagers are staying up far too late._**
        ➢ Complete: **Because more and more teenagers are staying up far too late, they _are sleeping deprived._**

    b. Correcting the misused verb.
        ➢ Fragment: **The frog gone to the pond by the reservoir.**
        ➢ Complete: **The frog went to the pond by the reservoir.**

    c. Omitting the subordinating conjunction or connecting it to another sentence.
        ➢ Fragment: **Because more and more teenagers are staying up far too late.**
        ➢ Complete: **More and more teenagers are staying up far too late.**

Sentence Errors: Run-Ons Sentences and Comma Splices

   A run-on sentence is two incorrectly joined independent clauses. A *comma splice* is a run-on sentence with a comma where the two independent clauses run together. When the sentences run together, the ideas are garbled.

1. Consider the following examples:
    ➢ Run-on : **_Our eyes are always the same size from birth our nose and ears never stop growing._**

> ➤ Corrected : ***Our eyes are always the same size from birth<u>, but</u> our nose and ears never stop growing.***

> ➤ Run-on : ***A duck's quack doesn't echo, no one knows why.***

> ➤ Corrected : ***A duck's quack doesn't echo; no one knows why.***

> ➤ Corrected : ***A duck's quack doesn't echo<u>, and</u> no one knows why.***

> ➤ Run-on : ***A duck's quack doesn't echo, no one knows why.***

> ➤ Corrected : ***A duck's quack doesn't echo; no one knows why.***

> ➤ Corrected : ***A duck's quack doesn't echo<u>, and</u> no one knows why.***

> ➤ Run-on : ***The traditional sonnet has 14 lines, 10 syllables make up each line.***

> ➤ Corrected : ***The traditional sonnet has 14 lines; 10 syllables make up each line.***

> ➤ Corrected : ***The traditional sonnet has 14 lines, and 10 syllables make up each line.***

2. Correcting a run-on sentence, in this following example, can be solved in five ways:
Water and wind are the two main causes of erosion, they constantly change the appearance of the Earth.

> ➤ Dividing the run-on sentence into two sentences with the appropriate end punctuation, such as a period, exclamation mark, or a question mark.

Water and wind are the two main causes of erosion.
<u>They</u> constantly change the appearance of the Earth.

➢ Adding a coordinating conjunction *(and, nor, but, or, for, yet, so)* to create a compound sentence.
Water and wind are the two main causes of erosion, <u>for they</u> constantly change the appearance of the Earth.

➢ Adding a subordinating conjunction to create a complex sentence.
<u>Since</u> water and wind are the two main causes of erosion, they constantly change the appearance of the Earth.

➢ Using a semicolon to create a compound sentence.
Water and wind are the two main causes of erosion; they constantly change the appearance of the Earth.

➢ Using a conjunctive adverb added.
Water and wind are the two main causes of erosion; <u>as a result,</u> they constantly change the appearance of the Earth.

Chapter 7 Quiz

A. **Underline the subjects (S), circle the verbs (V), and box the objects (O). Then, decide if the sentence is simple (S), compound (C), or complex (CX).**

1. While the students were taking the exam, the teacher was preparing for his lesson.
2. He took a long time driving to the party, so they were very late.
3. I need you to blow the whistle when you see the flag.
4. Both Jane and Jim ate pasta and went shopping.
5. I can imagine you wearing that jacket and running away like that.
6. Would you rather take the Jeep or the Lexus?
7. I think Anne was talking about going on a ski trip with Michael.
8. I remember taking that exam although it was a long time ago.
9. As soon as you're ready, we'll go.
10. The visitors complained loudly about the heat, yet they continued to play golf every day.

B. **Turn each of these simple sentences into compound sentences. You must write a different compound sentence each time.**

Example:
- *Tom likes to eat pizza **and** he likes to drink coffee.*
- *Tom likes to eat pizza **but** he doesn't like to eat cold pizza.*
- *Tom likes to eat pizza **so** he eats it every day.*
- *Tom likes to eat pizza **because** he like fast food.*

1. I go to college on Monday
   and_____
   but _____

so _____

because _____

2. The lecturer sent the task

and _____

but _____

so _____

because _____

3. I got up at 4 a.m.

and _____

but _____

so _____

because _____

C. *Finish the sentences by choosing the correct subordinate conjunction. You can only use each one once.*

although	because	while	after	until
as soon as	before	when	if	whereas

1. _____ you take the pot out of the oven, wear the oven gloves.
2. I won't give you the card _____ you tell me where mine is.
3. Ice cream will actually make you warmer rather than colder _____ it contains so many calories.
4. Cats have more than 100 vocal sounds, _____ dogs have only about 10.
5. You know it's going to be a bad day _____ your boss calls you at 8 am.
6. _____ you want to know where I want, check the GPS.
7. _____ the bell rings, you can go. Be patient.

8. I went to the party _____ I really didn't want to.
9. _____ you see your name on the list, take a seat.
10. _____ I was driving, I saw many new billboards.

CHAPTER 8

Coordination versus Subordinating Parts

In this chapter, the students will learn:
- ✓ *Overview Coordinating Sentence Parts*
- ✓ *Subordinating Sentence Parts*
- ✓ *Parallel Structure*

Overview Coordinating Sentence Parts

Sometimes, we need to add meaning and emphasis to sentences by coordinating and showing two or more ideas that are equally important. Combining ideas of equal importance is called sentence *coordination* which gives your writing balance by bringing together related independent clauses. When showing different relationships between ideas, the right word or mark of punctuation is required in coordinating sentence.

See the following four ways how to coordinate sentence parts:

1. *Using a coordinating conjunction*

   Conveying the precise relationship between the ideas is the aim to the use of coordinating conjunction. Each of the coordinating conjunctions has a different meaning which can be looked at in the chart below:

Coordinating Conjunction	Meaning	Function
for	as a result	to show cause
and	in addition to	to link ideas
nor	negative	to reinforce negative
but	however	to contrast ideas
or	choice	to show possibilities
yet	however	to show contrast or difference
so	therefore	to show result

For example, how would you combine theses two equally important statements to make one stranger sentence?

- ***Our children are very good at sports. We've decided to send them to a sports day camp this summer.***

A simple way to coordinate or connect these two equal thoughts would be to use the word <u>so</u>:

- *Our children are unusually good at sports, <u>so</u> we've decided to send them to a sports day camp this summer.*

One more example:

- *I paid for the car. Jenny does nothing but complain about it.*

Use a conjunction that shows a contrast between the generosity of the person in the first sentence and the lack of appreciation of the person in the second sentence.

- *I paid for the car, <u>yet</u> Jenny does nothing but complain about it.*

2. *Using a pair of correlative conjunctions*

If the writer wants to show a balance between two independent clauses, link sentences with a correlative conjunction.

Coordinating Conjunction
either … or
not only … but also
neither … nor
both … and

See the incorrect and correct sentence follows:

Incorrect : *Nadia is not only a fine doctor but an accomplished artist also*.

Correct : *Nadia is not only a fine doctor but also an accomplished artist.*

3.   *Using a semicolon*

   Combine the independent clauses using a semicolon in order to show that the ideas are of equal importance.

-   ***A cause is what happened; the effect is the result.***

4.   *Using a semicolon and conjunctive adverb*

   The conjunctive adverbs can be not only in a single word but also in phrases. Consider the following chart.

Conjunctive Adverb		
therefore	as a result	nevertheless
for example	furthermore	consequently
however	in addition	nonetheless

   Using the word therefore can make an even stronger connection. However, with any of the longer conjunctions, a semicolon precedes the word and a comma follows it:

-   ***Our children are unusually good at sports<u>; therefore,</u> we've decided to send them to a sports day camp this summer.***

   When the writer wants to coordinate independent clauses, consider these steps:

- Deciding which ideas can and should be combined.
- Selecting the method of coordination that shows the appropriate relationship between ideas.

   Often, there is no "right" answer when choosing which conjunctions and punctuation to use to coordinate ideas. As always, keep the "big three" considerations in mind:

- *Audience* is supposed to be the readers and the expectations.

- *Purpose* is why you are writing (to entertain, instruct, persuade, describe)
- *Style* is considered to be the personal choices in diction (words) and sentence structure.

Subordinating Sentence Parts

Subordination is connecting the ideas that are not equal to form a complex sentence. When you subordinate one part of a sentence to another, you make the dependent clause develop the main clause. Subordination helps the writer develop ideas, trace relationships among ideas, and emphasize one idea over the other.

Follow the four steps to subordinate sentence ides which calls for logic and thought.

- Choose the idea or clause that is considered as the most important.
- Make the main clause by adding a subject or verb, if necessary. Also, make sure the main clause expresses a complete idea, too.
- Decide whether to place the main clause or the dependent clause first. See which order helps to achieve the purpose and appeal to audience.

Consider the following chart:

Subordinating Conjunctions	Relationship
so, so that, in order that, that	effect, result
even if, if, unless, provided that	condition
wherever, where	location
since, until, when, while, after, before, once, whenever	time
as, because	cause, reason
whether, rather than, than	choice
though, even though, although	contrast

Now look for a connection between the following two thoughts:

- ***<u>Although</u> he likes to walk in the woods and photograph flowers, David loves to rest in an open field.***
  - ➔ *Although he likes to walk in the woods and photograph flowers,*
    (Dependent clause which cannot stand alone)
  - ➔ *David loves to rest in an open field.*
    (Independent clause which emphasizes half of the sentence)

Parallel Structure

Parallel structure means the writer put the ideas of the same rank in the same grammatical structure. Parallel words and phrases should be put in writing to give many admirable strengths, including tempo, stress, balance, and conciseness. Consider the following criteria about the parallel structure.

- Parallel words share the same part of speech (such as nouns, verbs, or adjectives) and tense.
  - ***To some people, traveling by air is <u>safe</u>, <u>inexpensive</u>, and <u>convenient.</u>***
  - ***You should eat foods that are <u>nourishing</u> as well as <u>tasty</u>.***

- Parallel phrases contain modifiers.
  - ***I gave <u>my old car to my nephew</u>, <u>my water skis to my father</u>, and <u>my tennis racket to a charity.</u>***
  - ***I enjoy <u>writing</u> poetry, <u>reading</u> biographies, and <u>collecting</u> stamps.***
  - ***Polyester shirts <u>wash easily</u>, <u>drip-dry quickly</u>, and <u>wear durably</u>.***

- Parallel clauses can be complete sentences or dependent clauses.
  - ***I came, I saw, I conquered.***

Chapter 8 Quiz

A. *For each of the following items, choose a coordinating conjunction from the previous list to connect the sentences.*

1. We want to buy shoes on sale. The sale will last just this week.

    _____

2. The homebuilder hoped to attract buyers from the area. He advertises the new homes in the local paper.

    _____

3. We could walk anywhere on the grounds. We couldn't disturb the workers.

    _____

4. When you bake, first turn on the oven to the temperature stated. Gather all the ingredients you'll need.

    _____

5. She asked her husband to take the trash to the recycling depot. He quickly left for work.

    _____

6.   I had promised to arrive at 1 P.M. Heavy traffic delayed me.

    _____

7. Take some sandwiches with you. Stop at a restaurant and spend a great deal of money.

    _____

8. I've spent two weeks' pay. I'll be eating very meagerly for a while.

    _____

9. Lend me $50. I'll pay you next month.

   _____

10. I've studied and studied for the test. I feel unsure of myself.

   _____

B. ***To complete each of the following sentences, choose a conjunction from the previous list.***
1. _____ you babysit for us, I don't worry about the children.
2. _____ you hear otherwise, I'll pick you up at 5 P.M.
3. I have been taller than you _____ the sixth grade.
4. _____ the game, we tailgated.
5. You bought me a very expensive gift _____ I asked you not to.
6. _____ you agree with me, vote yes on that issue.
7. You're expected to arrive _____ I leave.
8. _____ a storm is expected, we still think we can drive to the lake.
9. You're the one to break a promise _____ we have an agreement.
10. _____ both children are sick, I have to miss work.

C. ***Balance the following sentences.***
1. Every day, I walk the trails with my dog, cleaning the car, and go to work.

   _____

2. Jim loves painting the house, planting shrubs, and he loves to plan to add another room.

   _____

3.   Elias looked for a toy, grabbed it, and he was throwing it across the room.

_____

4.   My friend eats dinner first, lunch second, and then he is eating breakfast last.

_____

5.   Spring is warm, flower-filled, and it rains a lot.

_____

6.   At the Center, Betsy did the accounting, made sure the preschoolers were safe, and then she also would take care of her own household as well.

_____

7.   My new printer is quieter, faster, and prints with higher resolution.

_____

8.   I'll know my son's work habits are improving when he arrives at school on time, corrects his own homework, and staying out of fights.

_____

9.   The chairman thanked everyone for their dedication, loyalty, and because they attended every meeting.

_____

10. The only way we can leave on time is if I prepare the snacks, you fill up the gas tank, and if the children will get up on time.

_____

PART FOUR:
TOOLS FOR A WRITER

CHAPTER 9
Punctuations

In this chapter, the students will learn:
- ✓ *Periods*
- ✓ *Commas*
- ✓ *Question Marks*
- ✓ *Exclamation Marks*
- ✓ *Quotation Marks*
- ✓ *Semicolons*
- ✓ *Colons*
- ✓ *Apostrophes*
- ✓ *Slashes*
- ✓ *Dashes and Hyphens*
- ✓ *Parentheses and Brackets*

Periods

The period is necessarily used to show that a sentence is in a complete pause in thought. Consider the following rules for using a period:

1. End a sentence with a period.
   You should eat foods that are nourishing as well as tasty.
2. Put a period after abbreviations.
   - Dr.   **- Mr. Smith**
   - Sept. 24th   **- P.M.**
3. Place a period inside quotation marks.
   Mum said, *"I'll be back at 4 P.M. to pick you up."*
4. Do not use a sentence with a period if it already ends with another end mark such as an exclamation point or question mark.
   Can you lend me your car?
5. Do not use a period at the end of a sentence that is enclosed in parentheses and embedded in another sentence.
   When the trainee heard that she was accepted into the program (she had harbored no hope at all), she was very excited.
6. Use a period at the end of a sentence that is enclosed in parentheses but stands alone.
   When the trainee heard that she was accepted into the program, she was very excited. (She had harbored no hope at all).
7. Use only one period at the end of a sentence when the sentence ends in an abbreviation.
   After school, I'm going to work for All Things Computer, Inc.
8. Don't use a period after acronyms.
   - UNICEF - CIA
   - FBI   - CNN

Commas

Commas tell us how to help clarify sentences and note the logical pauses. Placing a comma is the right position helps move readers from the beginning of a sentence to the end. See some guidelines how to use the comma correctly:

1. To ensure clarity, use commas to separate items in a series. The comma before and in a series of items is optional.
   - ***The store had a sale on electronics, furniture, and fresh fruits.***
2. Use commas to separate words or groups of words that interrupt the flow of the sentence.
   - ***The State University of New York, did you know, has 64 campuses scattered across New York State.***
3. Use a comma to separate more than one adjective describing the same word.
   - ***The flourishing, bright, and imaginative summer garden lasts only a short while.***
4. Use a comma to separate introductory words from the main part of the sentence, that is, from the part that can stand alone.
   - ***Although the sky is overcast, I don't think that it will rain this afternoon.***
5. Insert a comma when the words nevertheless, however, inasmuch as, and therefore interrupt a complete thought.
   - ***Will we ever, therefore, find a way to analyze those questions?***
6. Insert a comma to separate two complete thoughts (independent clauses) that are connected by a word such as *for, and, nor, but, or, yet,* and *so*.
   - ***The sun rises in the morning, and it sets in the evening.***

7. Use a comma to separate a direct quotation from the rest of the sentence.
   - **Hassan replied,** *"No, but I waited with my students until their parents picked them up."*
8. Use commas to separate the day from the year and the year from the rest of the sentence.
   - *Do you expect to get married on July 1, 2019?*
9. Use a comm. To separate the name of a city from the name of a state or country.
   - *My favorite trip was to Bandung, West Java.*
10. A comma is used in both the salutation and the closing of a friendly letter.
    - **Dear Fanny,**
11. When a sentence *begins* with a complete thought followed by an incomplete thought, a comma is *not* necessary.
    - ~~Incorrect~~: **I always drink two glasses of mineral water, before any activity.**
    - **Correct** : **I always drink two glasses of mineral water before any activity.**
12. When a sentence has one subject, a comma is not necessary to separate two verbs.
    - ~~Incorrect~~: **Tom returned to the classroom, and picked up the motorcycle keys he had left on his chair.**
    - **Correct** : **Tom returned to the classroom and picked up the motorcycle keys he had left on his chair.**

Question Marks

The question mark is used to ask a question or make an nquiry:
- *Is she coming?*
- *Did Amy say she was coming?*

Notice that when you use a question mark, do not use any other end mark except when there is an abbreviation precedes the question mark. For example:

- **Did you say that Jim is working at Apple, Inc.?**

When question marks are used with quotations, their usage is a bit more complicated, but very logical. See the examples below:

- **Did you know that Sheila said, "I'm a totally different person than the one I was as a teen"?**
- **Sheila said, "Did you know that I'm a totally different person than the one I was as a teen?"**

In the first sentence, the question refers to the entire sentence, not just the quoted part, so the question mark is placed outside the quotes. In the second sentence, the quoted portion is the question, so the question mark is placed inside the closing quotation marks.

Exclamation Marks

The exclamation point is the simplest of all end marks, but not to overuse it.

➢ **The little kid cried,** "***This was definitely my doll!***"
➢ **Don't bother me!**
➢ **My brother never forgets seeing the movie Avatar!**
➢ **The company had the nerve to say,** "***We won't cover that loss***"!

Quotation Mark

Quotation marks are used to set off the exact words said by someone. Notice the difference between a direct and an indirect quotation:

Direct quotations:
- **My teacher said*, "You should not be anxious taking the final exam."***

Indirect quotations
- **My teacher said that I should not be anxious taking the final exam.**

Look at some guidelines how to use the quotation mark correctly;

1. Quotation mark is used to set off the exact words of a speaker.
   - **"Did you drink a cup of coffee on my table?" Willy squealed*.***

2. Quotation mark is used to set off the titles of short works such as magazine articles, short stories, poems, essays, and songs.
   - **"The Cask of Amontillado"** by Edgar Allan Poe (A short story)
   - **"Captives"** by Ernest Hemingway (A poem)

3. Single Quotation marks are used to set off quoted material or the titles of short works within a quotation enclosed by double quotation marks.
   - **"Did you read 'Pretend You Don't See Her' last night?" the teacher asked.**

4. Quotation marks are used to set off words for emphasis or a definition.
   - **The proposed "tax reform" is really nonsense.**

Semicolons

The semicolon is a strong mark of punctuation—stronger than the comma, but weaker than the period. The semicolon

can be used to bring together complete thoughts that are closely related. The relationship between the two thoughts must be so clear that the reader immediately understands why the sentences are linked.

See some guidelines how to use a semicolon correctly:

1. Use a semicolon between closely related independent clauses not joined by a coordinating conjunction.
    - *We've had extremely cold and wet weather this spring; my annual flowers are a month behind in growth.*
    - *The new position makes weekend work mandatory; no one applied for the job.*

2. Use a semicolon to connect independent clauses linked with a conjunctive adverb.
    - *I can't finish preparing the feast in one day; indeed, I may not be done in three days.*
    - *I won't be able to take any time off; however, that doesn't mean you can't.*

3. The semicolon is also used to connect other elements of equal weight.
    For example, use a semicolon between items in a series when the series contains internal punctuation.
    - *Among the conferees were John Litton, president of the Sun Awning Corporation; Leslie Martin, president of Paragon Computer; and Sue Daley, CEO of Environmental Sciences.*

4. For clarity, use a semicolon to separate independent clauses that are joined by coordinating conjunctions when the clauses have internal punctuation that might lead to confusion.

- *In most cases, the counselor in charge will communicate with the parents; but on weekends, however, if the counselor in charge is not available, Dr. Alper will take that responsibility.*

Colons

1. Colon is used after an independent clause (a complete sentence) to show a list. The colon is two dots, one on top of each other (:).
    If you really want to be healthy, you have to consume: fresh fruits, fresh vegetables, and mineral water.

2. Colon is used after an independent clause to indicate a quotation.
    Robert Lawson speaks impatiently of the good intentions that direct the current trends in children's books*: "Some of this scattered band may be educators of psychologists or critics, but they are all animated by a ruthless determination to do children good through their books; it is these peoples who start the theories and fads that are the bane of authors and illustrators and editors and a pain in the neck to children."* **(Fenner, 47)**

3. Colon is used before the ideas in a sentence explaining what has just been stated.
    I have a motto about getting distasteful chores done fast: Make a list of the chores, put a limit on the time you will devote to the work, and start with the one you dislike the most.

4. Colon is used after the salutation of a business letter.
    Dear Dr. Amy:
    To Whom It May Concern:

5. Colon is used to differentiate hours from minutes, titles from subtitles, Qur'an chapter and verse, and etc.
   22:20 P.M.
   QS. Al-Baqarah: 19
   Eating Health: A Complete Guide

Apostrophes

The apostrophe (') is used in three considerations:
1. *To show ownership and possession*
   - With singular nouns or pronouns *not* ending in *s*, add an apostrophe and an *s*.
     Someone   Someone's hopes
     Amy   Amy's laptop

   - With singular nouns ending in *s*, add an apostrophe and an *s*.
     Tim   Tim's car
     Waitress   Waitress's services

   - If the new word is difficult to say, leave off the *s.*
     James' laptop   Waitresses' services

   - With plural nouns *not* ending in *s*, add an apostrophe and an *s.*
     men   men's bags
     people   people's expectations

   - With plural nouns ending in *s*, add an apostrophe after the *s*.
     several laptops   several laptops' hard drives
     three lecturers   three lecturers' lesson plans

2. *To show plural forms*
   - Use an apostrophe and *s* to show the plural of a number, symbol, or letter, or words used to name themselves.
     six 7's
     three ?'s
     your u's look like *w*'s
     There are too many distracting *like's* and *um's* in her speech.

3. *To show where a letter or number has been omitted*
   - Use an apostrophe to show where letters have been left out of contractions (two words combined). When contracting words, add an apostrophe in the space where the letters have been taken out.
     Cannot   can't
     I will   I'll

   - Use an apostrophe to show numbers have been out of date.
     The '90s   The'20s

Slashes

This is a slash (/).
Consider the following points how to use a slash:
1. *To separate lines of poetry. Leave a space before and after the slash to show when the line of poetry ends.*
   As written:

   > **At outdoor cafés that looked like gardens**
   > **she heard drums played by men**
   > **but when she closed her eyes**
   > **she could also hear**
   > **her own imaginary**
   > **music**

In running text:

> *At outdoor cafés that looked like gardens / she heard drums played by men / but when she closed her eyes / she could also hear / her own imaginary / music*

2. *To show choice.*
    David broke the on/off switch on the standing fan.

3. To show *numerical* fractions or formulas.
    1/2   3/4

Dashes and Hyphens

A dash (–) is not the same as a hyphen. The dash, or a pair of dashes, lets you interrupt a sentence to add emphasis with additional information. Use dashes lightly or you risk creating a breathless, overly informal style.

- Use a dash to emphasize an example, a definition, or a contrast.
    - **Two of the strongest animals in the jungle – the elephant and gorilla – are vegetarians.**
    - **Two of the strongest animals in the jungle are vegetarians – the elephant and gorilla.**

A hyphen (-) is shorter than a dash which show a break in words.

- Use a hyphen in certain compound nouns.
    pint-sized   great-grandmother

- Use a hyphen in written-out fractions and in written-out compound numbers from twenty-one to ninety-nine.
    one-half   sixty-five

Parentheses and Brackets

These are parentheses (...) which used to set off nonessential information. Parentheses gives the reader additional information that is not crucial.

- Use parentheses to enclose additional information in a sentence.
    - *Capitalize all proper nouns and proper adjectives (see Chapter 24).*

- Use parentheses to enclose numbers or letters.
    - *To prepare spaghetti, follow these steps in order: (1) Bring a pot of lightly salted water to boil; (2) add pasta; (3) cook about 10 minutes, to taste.*

These are brackets [...] which have only two very narrowly defined uses.

- Use brackets for editorial clarification.
    - *Children's author Jackie Ogburn puts it this way: "It's not that 'message' isn't a part of the work. It's just that it's usually the least interesting part [emphasis hers]."*

- Use brackets to enclose words that you insert in a quotation.
  When you integrate quoted words into a text, you may have to change a few words to fit the structure of your sentences. Enclose any changes you make in brackets.
  Original quote: *"This pedagogical approach reduces all our work to the literary equivalent of vitamins."* (Ogburn 305)
  Quotation with brackets: *The primary reason the people involved in creating children's books detest this attitude so much is that "[it] reduces all our work to the literary equivalent of vitamins."* (Ogburn 305)

Chapter 9 Quiz

A. **_Read the following paragraph, and insert periods wherever they are needed._**

Paragraph 1

Scientists have reached important conclusions regarding the connection between children's social disadvantages and their health risks Doctors considered three main social disadvantages: poverty, low parental education, and single parent household According to Dr Ruth S Stein, children with all three risk factors were twice as likely as children with none to have a chronic health condition such as diabetes, asthma, or mental retardation.

Paragraph 2

Where does chocolate come from? Actually, it does grow on trees It all starts with a small tropical tree, the Theobroma cacao, usually simple called "cacao" (It is pronounced ka-KOW *Theobrama* is Greek for "foor of the gods") Cacao is native to Central America and South America, but it is grown commercially throughout the tropics About 70 percent of the world's cacao is grown in Africa.

A cacao tree can produce close to two thousand pods per year The ridged, football-shaped pod, or fruit, of the cacao grows from the branches and, oddly, straight out of the trunk The pods, which mature throughout the year, encase a sticky, white pulp and about thirty or forty seeds The pulp is both sweet and tart; it is eaten and used in making drinks The seeds, were you to bite into one straight out of the pod, are incredibly bitter Not at all like the chocolate that comes from them.

It's actually a perfect design The fruit attracts forest animals, like monkeys, who eat the fruit but cast the seeds aside, dispersing them and allowing new trees to sprout up (One of my

favorite memories of a recent trip to Cost Rica was watching monkeys eating in a "Chocolate" tree) It's hard to imagine why humans ever thought to do anything with the seed.

B. ***In each of the following sentences, insert commas where needed.***
1. I will finish this course on September 24 1990.
2. My best friend lives in Bandung.
3. "I'm telling you to clean your room" Mother insisted.
4. Dear Lenny
   I know that you are eager to hear about my job search so I'll call you on Saturday.
   My best
   Paula
5. When I talked to Hani and Ali I asked them to be in charge of the flashlight batteries barbeque and tent.
6. A detailed lengthy letter explained his options.
7. March a month just before real spring is usually quite cold in New England.
8. Mike was nevertheless our best choice for the job.
9. Unfortunately for W. H. Auden however his poems have been misquoted in modern novels.
10. Before our next book club meeting let's read all of his poems.

C. ***In each of the following sentence, insert or delete question marks wherever necessary.***
   My friend asked, "Have you heard about the link of lead exposure to Alzheimer's disease" She had just read the study from the University of Rhode Island that found a link between early exposure to lead in the environment and the onset of Alzheimer's disease much later in life? The scientists cautioned

lead poisoning patients not to fear that their lead exposure would definitely lead to Alzheimer's disease. They said, "There are, after all, many other things that can affect a person between youth and old age, aren't there"?

D. *Correctly punctuate the following paragraphs:*

Long time Boston resident's still talk about the molasses flood that engulfed the citys' north end, on January 15 1919 Many people were sitting near the Purity, Distilling Corporations fifty food high molasses tank enjoying the unseasonably warm day. The tank was filled with over two million gallons of molasses and it was about to burst apart. First molasses oozed through, the tanks rivets then the metal bolts popped out the seams burst and tons of molasses' burst out in a surge of deadly goo. The first wave over twenty five feet high smashed: building's trees people and animals like toys. Sharp pieces of the tank sliced through the air injuring scores of people. After the initial destruction molasses, continued to clog the street's for days. Many survivors had to have their clothing cut off dried molasses turned clothing into cement. People, were stuck to sidewalks and benches molasses glued telephone receiver's to ears and hands. The disaster left over 20 people dead and, more than 50 hurt.

PART FIVE:
THE ABSTRACT

CHAPTER 10

How to Prepare an Abstract

In this chapter, the students will learn:
- ✓ *Definition*
- ✓ *Types of Abstract*
- ✓ *Wordiness*
- ✓ *Latinate vs. Phrasal Verb*
- ✓ *Quoting and Paraphrasing*

I have the strong impression that scientific communication is being seriously hindered by poor quality abstracts written in jargon-ridden mumbo-jumbo. -Sheila M. McNab-

Definition

An abstract is defined as a miniature version of the paper. In abstract, there is provided a brief summary of each of the main sections of the paper consisting introduction, materials and methods, results, and discussion. Houghton (1975) defined, "An abstract can be defined as a summary of the information in a document."

"A well-prepared abstract enables readers to identify the basic content of a document quickly and accurately, to determine its relevance to their interests, and thus to decide whether they need to read the document in its entirety." (American National Standards Institute, 1979b). As in fact, many people will search for the good abstract then read it as an example whether in the original journal or as retrieved by computer search.

People do write abstracts when:
1. Submitting articles to journals, especially online journals
2. applying for research grants
3. writing a book proposal
4. completing the Ph.D. dissertation or M.A. thesis
5. writing a proposal for a conference paper
6. writing a proposal for a book chapter

Consider the criteria for a good abstract:
1. The abstract should state the principal objectives and scope of the investigation
2. The abstract should describe the methods employed
3. The abstract should summarize the results
4. The abstract should state the principal conclusion

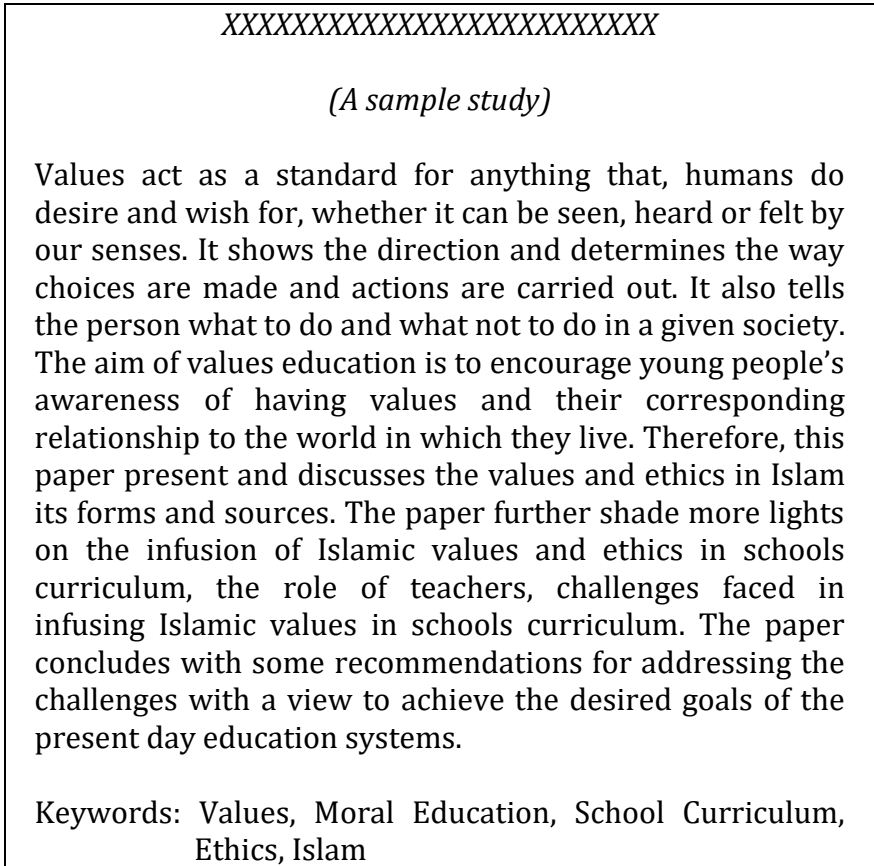In typical, abstract is typed as a single paragraph (see Figure 1.1.).

XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX

(A sample study)

Values act as a standard for anything that, humans do desire and wish for, whether it can be seen, heard or felt by our senses. It shows the direction and determines the way choices are made and actions are carried out. It also tells the person what to do and what not to do in a given society. The aim of values education is to encourage young people's awareness of having values and their corresponding relationship to the world in which they live. Therefore, this paper present and discusses the values and ethics in Islam its forms and sources. The paper further shade more lights on the infusion of Islamic values and ethics in schools curriculum, the role of teachers, challenges faced in infusing Islamic values in schools curriculum. The paper concludes with some recommendations for addressing the challenges with a view to achieve the desired goals of the present day education systems.

Keywords: Values, Moral Education, School Curriculum, Ethics, Islam

Figure 1.1. This abstract is structured typed less than 250 words

Some journals, however, run "structured" abstracts which there are a few brief paragraphs and each preceded by a standardized subheading (see Figure 1.2.).

Effects of Scientific-Writing Training
On Knowledge and Publication Output
(An Imaginary Study)

Background. Scientists must write to succeed, but few receive training in scientific writing. We studied the effects of a scientific-communication lecture series, alone and combined with feedback on writing, on scientific-communication knowledge and publication performance.

Method. During the spring 2010 semester, 50 science PhD students in their last year t Northeast Southwest University were randomly assigned to receive no instruction in scientific writing, attend eight 1-hour lectures on the topic, or attend theses lectures and receive feedback from classmates and an instructor on successive parts of a scientific paper they drafted. Members of each group then took a test of scientific-communication knowledge, and the publication output of each group was monitored for 5 years.

Results. Members of the groups receiving instruction scored between 80 and 98 percent on the test of scientific-communication knowledge, whereas all but two members of the control group scored below 65 percent. Although on average the group receiving lectures and feedback scored higher than the lecture only group, the difference was not significant. During the 5-year follow-up, on average the control-group members submitted 6.1 papers to journals and had 4.1 accepted. The corresponding figures for the lecture group were 6.5 and 4.8, and those for the lecture-plus-feedback group were 8.3 and 6.7. Higher proportions of the latter two groups had papers accepted by the first journal to which they were submitted.

Conclusion. The findings suggest that instruction in scientific writing, especially if it includes practice and feedback, can increase knowledge of scientific communication and promote publication success.

Figure 1.2. This abstract is structured which divided into paragraphs and inclusion of headings.

Types of Abstract

Abstract mainly has two most common types. Each abstract has aims; consequently both abstracts have different components and styles. The two abstract types are described and each examples of each are provided below;

1. *Informative abstract* is designed to do more than describe a work or a study. This abstract can and should; 1) briefly state the problem, 2) the method used to study the problem, and 3) the principal data and conclusions as well as the recommendations of the author. This is the type of abstract that precedes the body of the paper in most journals. The length varies of this abstract type is rarely more than 10% of the length of the entire work. In the case of a loner work, it may be much less.

XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX

(A sample study)

This thesis examines quality assurance standards and practices for the development of software systems in geographically distributed environment. This thesis will also identify the problems that distributed software engineering teams face when collaborating on a project. It will be shown that as a software project becomes distributed, the need to verify the quality of the software process increases. A special focus will also be given to the problems that affected the performance of the Quality Assurance Engineer (QAE) in such environment. This study found that the team must be kept informed of all the events surrounding quality assurance and one way to do this is by creating a repository, such as a web site, to store all quality assurance work. Thus, every member will

> have access to the QAE's work throughout the software development process, potentially increasing the performance of the whole team.

Figure 1.3. This sample is informative abstract

2. *Indicative abstract* or sometimes called as *descriptive abstract* is a short summary of an article, usually one or two sentences in length. This abstract type designed to indicate the subjects dealt with in a paper, much like a table of contents, making it easy for potential readers to decide whether to read the paper.

    Indicative or descriptive abstract should not be used as "heading" abstract in research papers, but they may be used in other types of publications, such as review papers, conference report, and government reports. Essentially, the indicative abstract incorporates key words found in the text and may include the purpose, methods, and scope of the study. In conclusion, the indicative abstract is less and less common. The sample of this abstract type is shown below;

Teaching of Scientific Writing
(An Imaginary Study)

In this article we summarize and discuss the literature on teaching scientific writing. Although we focus mainly on articles in peer-reviewed journals, we also draw on material in professionally oriented magazines and newsletters and in books. First we describe methods used for the literature review, including data-bases searched, keywords used, and languages and dates included. Then we present information on the history of teaching scientific writing and on instructional designs reported, including single sessions, intensive short courses, and semester-long courses; examples of instruction at

> specific institutions and under other auspices are noted. Also addressed are the teaching of English-language scientific writing to non-native users of English, the use of distance instruction in teaching scientific writing, issues in scientific-writing instruction, and current trends in the field. Finally, we identify topics on which further research appears advisable. Supplementary materials include annotated lists of textbooks and websites useful in teaching scientific writing.

Figure 1.4. This sample is indicative (descriptive) abstract which runs about 150 words listing topics but does not state what it is said about them.

Wordiness

Wordiness is the use of too many words to express an idea so wordiness makes writing weak and vague. Wordy constructions must be avoided in writing an abstract, so it important to know how to modify them. Two common forms of wordiness are 1) indirect constructions and 2) weak verbs.

1. *Indirect Constructions*

    Indirect constructions are primarily sentences beginning with *it* or *there*. Sentences beginning with the unstressed form of there are common in English because they tell us that something exists. Such sentences are only wordy if they are immediately followed by a sentence or clause that states what exists. In this case the two should be combined.

    ~~Incorrect~~:
    -   *It is with the third process that this paper is concerned.* (11 words)

    Correct:
    -   *This paper concerns the third process.* (6 words)

Incorrect:
- *It seems that the new unified field theory is better than the old one.* (14 words)

Correct:
- *The new unified field theory seems better than the old one.*

2. *Weak Verbs*
   A verb is weakened when it is made into a noun phrase, thus requiring the addition of another verb. Such a structure is considered to be wordy because it uses more words to say the same thing. Look at this examples:
   Incorrect:
   - *The writer made a design of the test for students.* (10 *words*)

   Correct:
   - *This writer designed the test for students.* (7 words)

Latinate vs. Phrasal Verb

Science, education, and technology require a formal writing style. For this reason, a Latinate (i.e., from Latin) verb is often preferable to a phrasal verb if there is a choice. Consider the following list showing the common phrasal verbs that have Latinate, or at least more formal, equivalents.

PHRASAL VERB	PHRASAL VERB
Account for	Explain
Amount to (cost)	Total
Ask for	Request
Back up	Support
Blow up	Explode
Break down	Stop functioning
Bring about	Cause

Build up	Increase
Carry out	Perform, accomplish
Check out	Examine
Check over	Examine
Come across	Discover
Come along	Progress
Come up with	Develop
Cut down on	Reduce
Cut out	Remove
Cut off	Terminate, stop
Deal with	Confront
Drop off	Decline
Fall off	Decrease
Figure out	Solve, determine
Fill up	Occupy
Find out	Discover
Finish up	Complete
Go ahead	Proceed
Go off	Explode (bomb), sound (alarm)
Go over	Review
Hand in	Submit
Hold off	Postpone
Hold up	Delay
Interfere with	Hinder
Keep on	Continue
Leave out	Omit
Look for	Seek
Look into	Investigate
Look over	Inspect
Pick up	Acquire
Point out	Indicate
Push down	Depress
Put back	Return

Put in	Add, insert, install
Put off	Postpone
Put out	Extinguish
Run across	Encounter
Set fire to	Ignite
Set up	Establish, create
Shut down	Close
Stand behind	Support
Stand for	Represent
Switch off	Deactivate
Switch on	Activate
Take apart	Dissemble
Take away	Remove
Take off	Remove
Take out	Remove
Tear down	Demolish
Think of	Consider
Turn down	Reject
Turn in	Submit
Turn upside down	Invert
Use up	Consume, exhaust
Wipe out	Demolish, exhaust
Work out	Solve

Quoting and Paraphrasing

Writers need to make reference to other writers' materials. If the writers will copy the words directly, they must quote them. If just the idea that needs to be copied, the writers must paraphrase it. This means, the writers must appreciate other's works by putting credit to the original writers. If the writers are failed to put credit for the original writers, this is a crime action which called as plagiarism.

Quoting

Quoting is needed to put in a passage which contains the other writer's ideas. Quotation marks are put at the beginning and the end of a phrase or sentence. The writers identify the author with a footnote either at the bottom of the page or at the end of the chapter.

Example:

Smoking is a serious health hazard. "Cigarette smokers have a 70 percent greater death rate due to coronary heart disease than nonsmokers."[a]

_____

[a]Cheryl Simon, "Smoking hazardous to your heart," Science News, Nov, 26, 1983, p. 343.

If quotation required to be shortened, we use three spaced periods (. . .) to indicate words omitted in the middle of a sentence, four spaced periods (. . . .) at the end of a sentence.

Example:

- Smoking is a serious health hazard. "Cigarette smokers have a 70 percent greater death rate . . . than nonsmokers."[a]

- Smoking is a serious health hazard. "Cigarette smokers have a 70 percent greater death rate due to coronary heart disease . . . ."[a]

We can also add missing words or short explanations to the quotations if we surround them with brackets.

Example:

Smoking is a serious health hazard. "Cigarette smokers (in the U.S.) have a 70 percent greater death rate due to coronary heart disease than nonsmokers."[a]

If a quotation is longer than one or two sentences, it may be centered on the page without quotation marks, but it still requires a footnote.

> **Example:**
> In recent years, Americans have grown well-acquainted with the relationship between smoking and cancers, especially lung cancer. In this country, 'smoking actually causes more deaths annually from coronary heart disease than from all cancers,' Koop said. According to the report, the risk of developing coronary heart disease, and dying from it, is greatest if the person takes up smoking at a young age, continues smoking frequently for a long time and inhales cigarette smoke deeply.[a]

Notice the use of single quotation marks (') for a quote inside another quote. We must be careful with quoting in writing. It must be used for special cases only, perhaps two or three quotes in an entire report. Too much quoting weakens the effectiveness of a written product.

Paraphrasing

Paraphrasing shows that the writer has clearly understood the ideas in other texts and is acknowledging the sources. Additionally, paraphrasing allows the writer to integrate others' ideas into his or her text in a manner that is often smoother than direct quotation.

Give Criteria for a Paraphrase

- A paraphrase does not differ in meaning from the original.
- A paraphrase uses the writer's own words.
- A paraphrase cites the original source.
- A paraphrase is nearly the same length as the original.

Introduce Paraphrasing through Reading

As a first step to helping you understand paraphrasing, start with reading. For example, in the following exercise, you read a text (which can be very short) and then receive a list of sentences – some that paraphrase the information from the reading and some that do not. They will start to see that paraphrasing is about understanding ideas from a reading and seeing how those ideas can be expressed in different words.

Example exercise for understanding paraphrasing

Step 1: Read the paragraph below.

> I have never understood why people enjoy camping. From the beginning of time, humans have worked hard to build and maintain livable shelter, but nowadays, for recreation, many people exchange the comfort of their homes for time in nature. I have been camping twice and was miserable on both occasions. It took hours to cook a simple meal. Our food was sprinkled with dirt and was cold when we did finally eat. There were no shower facilities. We had no way to get clean or even brush our teeth. Sleeping was difficult and uncomfortable. We slept with insects, and rocks were used as pillows. Scary wildlife lurked nearby. All this was for the purpose of relaxation. No thanks. I'll take a nice hotel room in the city over flimsy tent any day.

Step 2: Check the sentences that show what the author would say about camping. Explain your answers.

1. **_____** Camping is a popular activity enjoyed by most people.
2. **_____** Camping is not a good way to relax.
3. **_____** Expert campers should help novice campers.
4. **_____** Camping means giving up many comforts.
5. **_____** Camping is especially popular during summer vacation.

Examples of Acceptable and Unacceptable Paraphrases
Original
The most eagerly anticipated day in the life of an American teenager is the sixteenth birthday. – Jimalee Sowell, 2018

Acceptable Paraphrase
Sowell (2018) claims that the sixteenth birthday is the day the American teenager looks forward to the most.

Unacceptable Paraphrase
A special day that all Americans care a lot is about the day teenagers turn sixteen (Sowell 2018). (This paraphrase is not acceptable because it is different in meaning from the original.)

References

Abstracts. (2020, June 30). Retrieved November 28, 2020, from https://writingcenter.unc.edu/tips-and-tools/abstracts/.

Altenberg, Evelyn P., and Robert M. Vago. (2010). *English Grammar* – Understanding the Basics. New York: Cambridge.

Dutwin, P. (2010). *English Grammar Demystified*. New York City: McGraw-Hill Education.

Eastwood, J. (1992). *Oxford Practice Grammar.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Gastel, B., and Robert A. Day. (2016). How to Write and Publish a Scientific Paper. 8th ed. California: ABC-CLIO.

Master, P. (2004). *English Grammar and Technical Writing.* United States Department of State, Office of English Language Programs.

Morhan, J. R., and N. Douglas. 2016. World Link: Developing English Fluency, level 2, 3rd ed. Boston: Cengage Learning.

Rozakis, L. (2003). *English Grammar for the Utterly Confused*. New York City: McGraw-Hill Education.

Sowell, J. (2014). Beyond the Plagiarism Checker: Helping Nonnative English Speakers (NNESs) Avoid Plagiarism. *English Teaching Forum*, 56, 2-12.

About Authors

Rayinda Eva Rahmah

The writer is an English lecturer in the Department of English Education at the Faculty of Teacher Education, Institut Agama Islam Negeri pekalongan. The writer is passionate about writing both working individually and doing collaboration in a team. To further correspondence, you may kindly contact the electronic mail at Rayindanda@gmail.com.

Dewi Puspitasari

The writer is an English lecturer in Tadris Bahasa Inggris Fakultas Tarbiyah Ilmu Keguruan IAIN Pekalongan. She dedicates herself in language teaching and literacy community empowerment, including voicing students' experiences in learning English. Her email is dewi.puspitasari@iainpekalongan.ac.id.